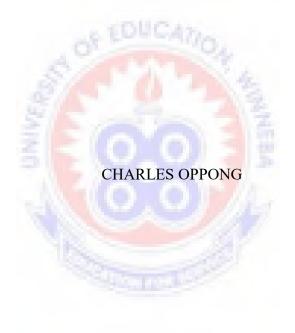
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THE MORPHOLOGY OF STUDENT PIDGIN (SP): A CASE STUDY OF VALLEY

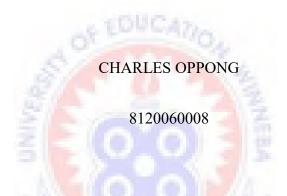
VIEW UNIVERSITY IN OYIBI, GHANA.



OCTOBER, 2015

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

THE MORPHOLOGY OF STUDENT PIDGIN (SP): A CASE STUDY OF VALLEY VIEW UNIVERSITY IN OYIBI, GHANA.



A Thesis in the Department of English Education, Faculty of Foreign Languages Education and Communication, submitted to the School of Graduate Studies, University of Education, Winneba in partial fulfillment of the requirements for award of the Master of Philosophy (English) degree.

OCTOBER, 2015

DECLARATION

STUDENT'S DECLARATION

I, Charles Oppong, declare that this thesis, with the exception of quotations and references contained in published works which have all been identified and duly acknowledge, is entirely my own original work, and it has not been submitted, either in part or whole, for another degree elsewhere.

SIGNATURE:.....

DATE:....

SUPERVISOR'S DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this work was supervised in accordance with the guidelines for supervision of Thesis as laid down by the University of Education, Winneba.

NAME OF SUPERVISOR:	
SIGNATURE:	
DATE:	

ABSTRACT

Language indeed is the main tool for communication. What actually identify a language are its morphological, phonological, and grammatical structures. However, research into Student Pidgin (SP) has often been on its sociolinguistic aspect with just a few research works on those aspects that actually identify a language. The study investigates the morphology of SP, which has been neglected, with the view to establishing the fact that SP is also a unique language or a code which employs some morphological processes in creating new words. It further looks at how tense, aspect, and mood are expressed in SP. The qualitative research design was selected for the study, using Valley View University as a case study. A sample size of 20 participants was used for the study comprising both male and female ranging between 17 years and 30 years. A purposive Sampling technique was adopted in selecting the sample. Recordings of SP, semi-structured interview, and non-participatory observation were the main instruments used to gather data for the study. Key findings, among others, are: that SP makes use of eight (8) main morphological processes in creating new words; that SP has no past tense inflections or past tense markers; that indicative, imperative, and subjunctive mood are expressed in SP. Regarding subjunctive mood, the study revealed that SP always uses the present subjunctive even in wish conditions and hypothetical statements. My recommendation was that studies on SP should not be focused on only the sociolinguistic part of it, but attention should also be equally directed toward the other grammatical facets like syntax, semantics, and phonology with the view of standardizing it.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Emmanuel...This is how far the Lord has brought me! I want to express my sincere thanks to the Lord Almighty God for leading me through my programme successfully. May His name be praised now and forever, Amen!

I also want to express my gratitude to my family, my friends, and especially my supervisor, Professor Yaw Sekyi-Baidoo, for their endurance and sacrifice.

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DEDICATION

To my wife, my children, and my parents



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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Language is a means of communication. It is one of the powerful tools that Nature gave to humankind. There are over thousands of different languages across the world. Ghana alone can boast of over forty-six (46) different languages of which about nine (9) are studied or learned in schools: Twi, Ga, Ewe, Fante, Dagaare, Dagomba (Dagbani), Dangme, Gonja, and Kasem. According to Dako (2002):

It is generally estimated that there are between 42-55 languages in Ghana. Six of these are given air time in the public broadcasting system and are used in official, written communications: Akan, Ewe, Ga, Dagbani, Hausa and Nzema. Of these, two can be described as lingua francas: Twi (Akan) and Hausa.

However, the Standard English language is the official language of Ghana. In fact, it is the language of commerce, media, education, politics, parliament, judiciary, law and so on. Apart from lower primary, in some institutions, English is the medium of instruction in all the levels of the educational institutions in Ghana.

Linguists accept the fact that language grows; new words are admitted or created into a language almost every day and Student Pidgin (SP) is no exception. Word formation can be found in every language in this world. In other words, all languages on this earth admit new words into their vocabularies or lexeme. Users create new words to meet the changing phenomena of the world. The processes by which new words are created to add

to the existing ones are called morphological processes or word formation strategies which include conversion, compounding, borrowing, affixation etc.

The existence of a word is usually taken for granted by the speakers of a language. To speak and understand a language means - among many other things - knowing the words of that language. The average speaker knows thousands of words, and new words enter our minds and our language on a daily basis. (Plag, 2003:1)

The rate at which new words are created in Student Pidgin (SP) cannot be measured. It is an undeniable fact that users of SP, day in and day out, create new words into SP to express their thoughts. Osei-Tutu (2008: 5) writes that:

SP has the ability to incorporate as many words as it needs from its major lexifier, English. Speakers of this pidgin do not hesitate to borrow words from whatever language (be it English or a Ghanaian Language) in order to put across what they have to say.

Thus, in one way or the other, all languages relate with one another. For instance, there are a lot of words in the English language whose histories are traced to other languages like French, Latin, Greek, Italian, Twi and even Ga (languages in Ghana). These words in the English language are used in the area of medicine, law, government, agriculture, education, media, etc. Almost every language adopts the process of borrowing to enrich its lexicon.

There are some features – phonological, lexical, and grammatical - that make every language unique and distinct or different from the other. Thus, languages do not

compromise as they borrow from other languages. In spite of its extensive borrowing, English has at its different stages of development had a distinct existence as a language (Sekyi-Baidoo, 2002). This means that no matter the amount of words a language may borrow from another language, every language has its own characteristics that make it unique from other languages. One of such unique characteristics of a language is its morphology which this study deals with.

The term *morphology* is a Greek word, and it consists of *morph* - which means 'shape, form', and -*ology* which means 'the study of something'. It is the scientific study of forms and structure of words in a language (Aronoff and Fudeman, 2011). Morphology as a sub-discipline of linguistics was named for the first time in 1859 by the German linguist August Schleicher who used the term for the study of the form of words. Today morphology forms a core part of linguistics (Booij, 2007).

In linguistics, morphology is the identification, analysis and description of the structure of a given language's morphemes and other linguistic units, such as root words, affixes, parts of speech, intonation and stress, or implied context. The internal structure of words and the segmentation into different kinds of morphemes are essential to the two basic purposes of morphology:

- 1. the creation of new words and
- 2. the modification of existing words (Fasold, and Connor-Linton, 2006).

In other words, morphology looks at the structure of the words of a language and how these words are formed in that particular language.

Greenbuam (1996:437) writes that "Morphology is the study of the internal structure of words. Its two major branches are word-formation and inflection." It considers aspects like morphemes, words, lexemes, word formation processes (like borrowing, conversion, blending, affixation, reduplication, coinage, and so on.). Reichle & Perfetti (2003) explain the two types of morphology: inflected morphology and derivational morphology.

Inflected morphology is generated through syntactic affixes that systematically control grammatical agreement while preserving the core meaning of the base form (the stem). Thus, the English inflectional system adds *s* to form a plural of a noun (dog \rightarrow dogs) and to form the third-person singular of a verb (run \rightarrow runs). In contrast to inflectional morphology, derivational morphology works across grammatical categories, generating forms of a base morpheme in different grammatical categories. For example, beauty, beautiful, and beautify show a derivational pattern from a single base morpheme. Creativity in derivational morphology is possible to an extent not tolerated by the grammatical system in inflectional morphology. (Reichle & Perfetti, 2003)

Word formation is the process by which words are created or formed in a language. The words that are formed may be simple with only one morpheme or complex with more than one morpheme. The essential unit in formation of words is the morpheme. The morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of a language (Allan, 2010; Van Valin, 2001,

Wiredu, 1999), and the word is the smallest independent unit of a language. All words are morphemes but not all morphemes are words. The word *words* contains two morphemes, *word+s*, of which *word* is a word and at the same time a morpheme. But *s* is a morpheme (plural marker); however, it is not a word because it cannot stand alone to be meaningful unless it attaches itself to a free morpheme like *word*. The morphology of Student Pidgin is therefore a study into the structure of words in Student Pidgin and the process by which words are formed in Student Pidgin.

Student Pidgin (SP) is a dialect of Pidgin English that is mostly spoken by people with formal education background. Student Pidgin (SP), a dialect of WAPE and an 'offspring' of Ghanaian Pidgin English (GPE), like other languages in the world, has its own unique characteristics which make it a unique language on its own. Ghana Pidgin English (GPE) and Student Pidgin are two dialects of the same language, WAPE. It seems that the SP in Ghana is gradually gaining dominance over GPE. But it is rather unfortunate that people's attitude towards SP according to researchers is nothing to write home about. Many people do not accept the fact that SP is even a code or a language. Most people in Ghana - educationist, parents, and stakeholders - and all over the world look down upon Pidgin English or Student Pidgin English, and some even consider those who use pidgin as deviants.

In some institutions in Ghana, the speaking of pidgin or SP is prohibited, and students are at times punished when caught using it. According to Egblewogbe (1992: 1):

The educationalists' reactions to pidgin being used by students in secondary schools and universities are quite violent at times. The indiscriminate use of Pidgin English is leading the nation towards illiteracy.

However, the significance of Pidgin English or Student Pidgin as a language in its own right in the lives of those who use it is neglected. Unlike other languages, research works into SP have often tended to be sociolinguistic- usually on its origin or its impact on student's performance - with only a few discussions on its grammar (syntax, morphology, semantics), and phonology. Sekyi-Baidoo (2002) in his study into sentence types in GPE asserts that:

One has to recognize also that in spite of its syntactic and lexical independence, the totality of GPE cannot be seen if the other facets of the language like its morphology and phonology are not researched into.

It is therefore high time that we did thorough research into the grammar of SP in Ghana. We should not only direct our attention to its sociolinguistic aspect to the detriment of the other facets of the language. Even though some work has been done on the grammar of Student Pidgin or Pidgin English in Ghana, nothing so far has been done on the morphology of Student Pidgin in Ghana and in Africa as a whole. For instance, Sekyi-Baidoo (2002) in his attempt to work on the grammar of Ghanaian Pidgin English centred much on, "Sentence types in Ghanaian Pidgin English: A Case Study of University of Cape

Coast" with nothing on its morphology. Huber (1999) did some work on grammatical analysis in his study entitled, "Ghanaian Pidgin English in its West African Context: A Sociohistorical and Structural Analysis." But much of his work focused on the sociolinguistic aspect of GPE. He too did nothing on the morphology of SP which he called "acrolect". "Lexicalization in Nigerian Pidgin" by Mensah (2011) seems to be the only work found on the morphology of Pidgin English, and this was not actually on SP.

The situation here in Ghana and even in Africa is that there have not been many research works or studies to discuss or analyze the grammar or the internal structure of Student Pidgin itself - its phonology, syntax, morphology which would have portrayed it as a language in its own right (Sekyi-Baidoo, 2002). Even with the few works on grammar, nothing has been done on the morphology of Student Pidgin. It is against this background that this research is done on the grammatical structure (that is, Morphology) of Student Pidgin (SP).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Student Pidgin has gained popularity among students in our secondary schools and in our tertiary institutions, and language scholars recently have also shown interest in researching into it. However, most of the few research works into the phenomenon have often been geared towards one direction or one aspect of it – the sociolinguistic aspect – to the disadvantage of the grammar of this unique Pidgin English.

Omari (2010:27) quotes Sackeyfio (1997: 17, 18) that:

Pidginized versions of English are used in secondary schools and in the universities, typically among male students, and the trend or fashion continues even after school or university when contemporaries meet. It would seem that a new variety of English has already emerged in Ghana though research into its form, structure and discourse usage has not gone very far.

I want to agree with Sackeyfio (1997) that indeed research works into the form, structure, and discourse usage of Student Pidgin have not gone very far. The debates on Student Pidgin in Ghana, especially in our media all the time, have also usually centred on its so called negative effects on students' performance. This is confirmed by Huber (1999) when he writes that:

The debate about the spread of pidgin in secondary schools and universities has mainly centered on the measures to be taken to prevent its supposedly harmful effects on the standard of education (Huber, 1999:3).

Researchers or scholars like Forson(1996), Essel-Amoah (1987), Boadi (1971), Egblewogbe (1992), Dako (2002), Omari (2010) and many more have done something on Sociolinguist aspect of Pidgin with nothing on its grammatical structure.

A few studies, however, have been done on the grammar of Pidgin English. A study on pidgin entitled, "Ghanaian Pidgin English in its West African context: A Sociohistorical and Structural Analysis" was carried out by Huber (1999). He attempted to look at some grammatical structures of pidgin. However, the majority of his study concentrated on the

socio-historical aspect of GPE. "Sentence Types in Ghanaian Pidgin English - A Case Study of the University of Cape Coast" was done by Sekyi-Baidoo (2012). So far his study is the only one I came across on sentence structure analysis of Ghanaian Pidgin English (GPE), with the view to establishing the fact that GPE, like all pidgins, is not a spurious, makeshift code, but rather a code with identifiable rules and patterns of structure. However, he did nothing on the morphology of SP. Besides, he asserts that:

One has to recognize also that in spite of its syntactic and lexical independence, the totality of GPE cannot be seen if the other facets of the language like its morphology and phonology are not researched into. (Sekyi-Baidoo, 2002)

It is obvious from the above that no research work has been thoroughly done on the morphology of SP. Even outside Ghana, only one work on pidgin, "Lexicalization in Nigerian Pidgin" was on morphology or grammatical aspect of Nigerian Pidgin by Mensah (2011). Thus, there have not been many research works or studies to discuss or analyze the grammar or the internal structure of the Student Pidgin language itself - its phonology, syntax, morphology which would have portrayed it as a language in its own right (Sekyi-Baidoo, 2002). Therefore, a study into the morphology or morphological processes in Student Pidgin (SP) is very necessary.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to investigate the morphology of Student Pidgin with particular attention paid to its morphological processes (word formation strategies). It also looks at the source languages from which the vocabulary of Student Pidgin is derived in Ghana. The study further looks at how tense, aspect, and mood are expressed in Student Pidgin.

1.4 Research Questions

The study seeks to find answers to the following questions:

- 1. What is or are the morphology or morphological process (es) of SP?
- 2. What are the languages from which words in SP in Ghana are formed?
- 3. How is Tense-Aspect-Mood (TAM) expressed in SP??

1.5 Significance of the Study

The significance of the study cannot be overemphasized. The study will not only contribute to knowledge of the grammar of Student Pidgin or Ghanaian Pidgin English in general, but also serve as a source of reference for those who would want to do further studies on the same subject. In other words, the results and the findings of the study should aid future researchers who would want to carry out further research on Student Pidgin.

This study can be seen as providing the basis for a deeper analysis of various aspects of Student Pidgin as a language, more especially the morphology of Student Pidgin. The study will bring to light the morphological processes in Student Pidgin in Ghana. As more and more students in our senior high schools and tertiary institutions speak Student Pidgin, there is the need not only to look at its impact on students' performance, but also to examine the word formation strategies of Student Pidgin. The study will also bring to light distinct features which make one type of morphological process different from the other, and address the relationship, if any, between the morphology of SP and those of English and the substrates. Finally, the results of the study will be of great benefit to teachers (especially, English teachers), educators, and students as they will become aware of the morphology or morphological processes in Student Pidgin in Ghana.

1.6 Limitations of the Study

Every study or research work has its own limitations, and I was very sure that the study would not be an exception. Therefore, I made the necessary provisions to minimize their effects on the study. For example, I envisaged or foresaw financial constraint; hence, enough money was saved for the study. Transcription of data recorded was indeed a big task to me. It took a longer period of time to be able to transcribe the recorded data for the analysis. There was some interference on the recorded data as I used the recording function in my cell phone to do the recording, which actually made the transcribe all the recorded data in two to three months.

1.7 Delimitation of the Study

Setting boundaries for a study is very important. It helps readers or the audience to be aware of the scope of the study. The study used tertiary students at Valley View University at Oyibi in the Greater Accra region in Ghana to investigate the morphology of Student Pidgin. The study actually focused on the area of morphology of SP with much attention on its morphological processes, and how tense, aspect, and mood are expressed in Student Pidgin. Data which were collected through recordings of casual speeches of pidgin were analyzed descriptively.

1.8 Organization of the Study

The research work was organized into five chapters. Chapter One considered the introduction of the study which consisted of the Background of the Study, Statement of the Problem, Purpose of the Study, Research Questions, Significance of the Study, Limitation of the Study, Delimitation of the study, and Organization of the Study.

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Chapter Two dealt with the Literature Review of the study. Here, I reviewed what scholars had written on the topic. The chapter included the following sub-headings : the concept of Pidgin and Student Pidgin, theories of pidgin in general, brief socio-historical survey of Student Pidgin (SP) in Ghana, Ghanaian Pidgin English (GPE) versus Student Pidgin, morphology, morphemes, base, root, stem, theories world formation , the expressions of tense, aspects, and moods in SP and previous studies on Pidgin.

Chapter Three discussed the Methodology of the Study. The chapter included subheadings like: Research Design, Population, Sample and Sampling Techniques, the Research Sites, Data Collection Strategies, Data Collection Procedure, and Data Analysis.

Chapter Four was about Results and Discussion of Data. It dealt with the discussions of the data and the findings. Here, I analyzed the data collected and presented the findings to

readers in a form of descriptions and discussion. The chapter included sub-headings like Morphological processes in Student Pidgin, and Tense-Aspect-Mood in Student Pidgin.

Chapter Five, the last chapter of the work, dealt with the summary of the study, the conclusion, and the recommendations. This chapter was followed by references and appendices.



CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

2.0 Introduction

The chapter deals with the review of the related literature on the study. It focuses on the following areas: the concept of pidgin in general, theories of pidgin, morphology, word formation processes, how tense, aspect, and mood are expressed in student pidgin, and some previous studies on pidgin.

2.1 The Concept of Pidgin in General

Many scholars have defined pidgin from different points of views: using social, structural, and non native criteria. Below is a review of some of the definitions of pidgin. First of all, Holm (2000: 5) through his social and structural points of view and using a non native criterion defines pidgin as:

A reduced language that results from extended contact between groups of people with no language in common; it evolves when they need some means of verbal communication, perhaps for trade, but no group learns the native language of any group for social reasons that may include lack of trust or close contact.

Holm's definition is very interesting as it considers pidgin as a 'reduced language'. His definition also states how pidgin develops or comes about through contact of people with no common language. He goes on to give the function of pidgin (for trade). Again, it is important to note one characteristic of pidgin as given by Holm, that "no group learns the

native language of any other for social reasons." This makes pidgin very different from the formal languages.

Nault et. al (1968) seem to agree with Holm when they state that pidgin is any language spoken with a reduced grammar and vocabulary as a trade or communication jargon. According to them, it is one of the several forms of English with reduced grammatical structure and vocabulary, used in Africa, Australia, Melanesia, and formerly in China, as a trade communication jargon. His definition also comes from the structural and social points of view.

The question that baffles one mind here is this: 'Do all pidgins have reduced grammar and vocabulary as trade or communication jargon?'Barry (1997:13) also writes that:

In places where many cultures meet or people speak many different languages, a simplified form of one of the languages often develops. This simplified form takes on some vocabulary of the language around it and often has a very different pronunciation. These simplified languages are called Pidgin. There are Pidgin Englishes in several parts of the world. When a pidgin becomes well established in its own right and starts to become a mother tongue, it is technically called Creole.

Barry's definition points out how pidgin develops into Creole. Just like Neult et. al (1968), Barry considers pidgin as a simplified form of a language. He too holds both from social and structural points of view.

McArthur and McArthur (1992) seem to agree with Barry (1997) by saying that pidgin is generally a contact language which draws on elements of two or more languages purposely for trading. They believe that it is a hybrid makeshift language used by and among traders. Quirk, Sidney, Geoffrey, and Jan. (1985: 23) also state that "Pidgin is essentially a second language used to replace a native language for restricted public purposes." To them, pidgin can never be a first language but a second language with a restricted public uses.

Based on social, structural and non native criteria, the *Microsoft Encarta* (2005) writes that:

Pidgin is a language based on another language, but with a sharply curtailed vocabulary (often 700 to 2000 words) and grammar; native to none of its speakers; and used as a lingua franca, or a language used as a means of communication between peoples with different native languages. Pidgins develop when people who speak different languages are brought together and forced to develop a means of communication without having sufficient time to learn each other's native languages. A pidgin usually derives its vocabulary from one principal language, but its grammar will either reflect the structures of each speaker's native tongue or it will evolve a distinct grammar. Among languages that have given rise to pidgins are English, French, Spanish, Italian, Zulu, and Chinook. In Pidgin words may change meaning.

The definition above considers pidgin, first, as a language, however, with reduced vocabulary and grammar. It also points out that this language, pidgin, is native to none of

its speakers. Again, it does well by stating how pidgin develops and the processes of word formation in Pidgin. The definition also points out that pidgin evolves with a distinct grammar which makes pidgin a language on its own.

According to Barker (2002: 9):

Pidgins are languages lexically derived from other languages, but which are structurally simplified, especially in their morphology. They come into being where people need to communicate but do not have a language in common. Pidgins have no(or few) first language speakers, they are subject of language learning, they have structural norms, they are used by two or more groups, and they are usually unintelligible for the speakers of the language from which the lexicon derives.

To Barker, pidgin is actually a language, though with simplified structure. He defines pidgin through social, structural, and nonnative criteria. However, while Quirk, Holm and others believe that pidgin has no native speakers, he (Barker) is not certain, so he uses the phrase "or few" when he says "Pidgins have no (or few) first language speakers." He also believes that pidgins have structural norms (or simplified or reduced structure). The question is, "Are all languages with simple structures pidgins?"

Bakker (2008) gives the social and structural characteristics of Pidgin as follows.

Social characteristics:

- a. A pidgin is not learned as a first language.
- b. A pidgin is not the main or default language of an ethnic, social, or political group.

c. A pidgin has structural norms and therefore has to be learned as such.

Structural characteristics:

- a. A pidgin is reduced when compared to its source language(s).
- b. A pidgin is therefore relatively poor in morphology
- c. A pidgin has a reduced lexicon deriving from the lexicons or lexicons of the "dominant" group(s).

In conclusion, pidgin is any form of informal language that develops from two or more formal languages for the purpose of communication. Pidgin, with time, can become a formal language through the process of creolization. Creolization is a process by which Pidgin changes or develops to Creole. When it becomes creolized, and therefore, more structured, it is called Creole. Every pidgin has a superstrate (its main lexifier or the stronger language) and a substrate which is usually the local language. For instance, Pidgin English in Ghana has English as its superstrate and local languages - Twi, Ga, Ewe, etc - as its substrate.

2.2 Student Pidgin (SP): What Is It?

Huber (1999) calls Student Pidgin an educated or "acrolectal" or institutionalized form of Ghanaian Pidgin English. To him, it is a form of Ghanaian Pidgin English (GhaPE) that is spoken by people who have attained formal education. Similarly, Dako (2002:53) in her study writes that "Ghanaian Pidgin English refers to pidgin that is spoken in town as opposed to Student Pidgin, which is spoken primarily by male students on the secondary and tertiary campuses and also by the male products of these institutions". In other words, Student Pidgin (SP) is a code or pidgin spoken primarily by male students on the

secondary and tertiary campuses and also by the male products of these institutions (Dako, 1999). But is Dako saying that Student Pidgin is not a variety of GPE?

Student Pidgin has really become a lingua franca among Ghanaian students; it is spoken in almost every educational institution in Ghana now. As more and more people, especially students on our campuses speak Student Pidgin English, a study on its usage and its word formation processes cannot be overemphasized. In this work, Student Pidgin (SP) refers to the variety of Ghanaian Pidgin English (GPE) that is mostly spoken by people with formal education background or students, especially on school campuses.

2.3 Relationship between GPE and SP

It must be noted here that there is some kind of relationship between Ghanaian Pidgin English (GPE) and Student Pidgin (SP). Student Pidgin is actually a variety of GPE. Both are dialects of the same language – West Africa Pidgin English (WAPE) – and are mutually intelligible. Mathematically, SP is a subset of GPE. There is virtually no difference between the two because the majority of people who speak GPE are the students who speak the Student Pidgin- though there is an argument over the identity of GPE and SP. I believe that both GPE and SP are the same language varieties of Pidgin English. Hence, in this study the two are used interchangeably. Student Pidgin is just used to mean the Pidgin English spoken by students on our campuses in Ghana and used mainly for solidarity and not as a contact language.

2.4 A Brief Socio-historical Survey of Student Pidgin (SP)

At this point, there is the need to consider a brief history of Student Pidgin (SP) in Ghana. The Portuguese and others from Europe first settled along the coast of the then Gold Coast. According to Huber (1999:10):

In 1471 Portuguese sailors made first contact with the people on what was soon to be called Costa da Mina or Mina de Ouro, the Gold mine (or Gold Coast, Modern Ghana), because of large amount of gold that could apparently be obtained from there.

The whites and the blacks along the coast needed a common language to use for trading. Thus, for the whites to be able to communicate with the blacks along the coast, a common language needed to be developed. It was along the coast that Pidgin English developed in Ghana and spread to the other coastal towns and other parts of the country. Perhaps, that is the reason why pidgin is mostly spoken by people along the coast. Ghanaian Pidgin English is a "predominantly urban phenomenon. It is mostly spoken in the southern towns... (Huber, 1999:139). Many people who attended schools along these coastal towns in Ghana perhaps learned pidgin and spread it to other schools.

According to Huber (1999: 148-149), "The rise and spread of pidgin in Ghanaian secondary schools is a relatively recent development. The fashion must have started around 1965 probably in one secondary (boarding?) school and then spread to other schools."

Again, Dadzie (1985: 118), as quoted by Huber (1999: 149) says that:

In the 1950s and 1960s, the influence of the 'sea men', as they were then called, was considerable around the port cities, especially Takoradi and Later Tema. Because these seamen came back with the latest in fashion and swaggered in the characteristic sailor gait, schoolchildren, particularly secondary schoolchildren, at the impressionable age of 15 or over, began to want to look like the sea men; and if they looked like them, it was no wonder that they started also talking like them.

According to Dako (1999), in the late 1960s and the early 1970s, a pidgin began to be heard in the high-prestige multiethnic coastal secondary schools and from there it followed its speakers into the tertiary institutions. Again, Dako believes that Student Pidgin emerged partly as a reaction against the predominance of English in the school system, a 'foreign' language that was no longer adequately taught, a language the students could not identify with and a language whose informal registers the students did not master. Moreover, Dako (2002) says that:

Information gleaned from discussion with colleagues who were in secondary school in the late 60s and early 70s suggests that SP started as an attempt at reproduction of Pidgin as they heard it in town - especially from the soldiers... In the late 1960s and again in the early 1970s, Ghana was under military rule. Soldiers were very visible on the streets, they openly and aggressively displayed their power, *and they spoke Pidgin*. Student Pidgin developed in this environment. The code connoted power, 'macho' behaviour, (Dadzie, 1985) and also Goyvaerts (1998) on the Swahili hybrid Indoubil), and eluded performance pressure. SP in its incipient stage could therefore be considered 'a pidgin sound-alike'. It was

from the beginning a daring attempt at deviancy - a flouting of the school rules that prohibited the use of local languages.

What Dako is saying is that pidgin came as a results of students' attempt to speak like soldiers who spoke Pidgin (GhaPE) on streets during the 1960s and 70s. Her dates are within the dates given by Huber and Dadzie.

Stoller (1979), as quoted by Dako (1999), also states what brought about pidgin. Stoller believes that SP came about as a result of acculturation (that is, the adoption of the behavior patterns of the surrounding culture). Students adopted SP as they saw others, "marginal-deviant group", use GhPE; they modified it to sound alike GhPE in order to make it theirs.

It was also a reflection of acculturation. By being isolated in boarding schools and later university campuses, removed from traditional, i.e. family, and cultural influences, the students assumed behavioural aspects of 'marginal-deviant groups (Stoller 1979: 72).

It can be realized from the above that scholars have not actually come out with the exact time/date that pidgin might have started and migrated to our schools. Different speculations or dates have been brought out; however, it is believed that it might have started long ago even before Ghana gained independence. It is very obvious that Student Pidgin might have started in the coastal schools where the whites first settled when they came to the Gold Coast (Ghana) and started using Pidgin English with the folks before it spread to other schools in Ghana.

2.5 Student Pidgin (SP) versus Pidgin (Pidgin English) in General

Given the various definitions of pidgin by some scholars above, one can see that there is a difference between pidgin in general and Student Pidgin (as spoken by students in Ghana). The following arguments would help us to draw the distinction between Student Pidgin (SP) and Pidgin English in general.

Let us first consider the definition of Pidgin by Holm (2000:5):

Pidgin is a reduced language that results from extended contact between groups of people with no language in common; it evolves when they need some means of verbal communication, perhaps for trade, but no group learns the native language of any group for social reasons that may include lack of trust or close contact. Usually those with less power (speakers of substrate languages) are more accommodating and use words from the language of those with more power (the superstrate), although the meaning, form and use of these words may be influenced by the substrate languages.

Here, it is clear that Pidgin is different from Student Pidgin (SP) in that the latter (Student Pidgin) is not a contact language, but pidgin is a contact language. Students do not use SP because of lack of a common language. This is because the Standard English is there for them all to use, and they can make use of the local languages if they wish to do so. Why, then, would students from the same ethnic group and of the same local language speak or resort to Student Pidgin?

Huber (1999: 140) draws attention to two distinct varieties of Ghanaian Pidgin English (GhPE) which is part of the West Africa Pidgin English (WAPE). He calls the first one an 'uneducated' variety ('basilectal' variety) which is associated with the less educated sections of the society. The second one he calls an 'educated' or 'institutionalized' or 'acrolectal' variety that is usually spoken by speakers who have at least progressed to the upper form of secondary school. According to him:

The difference between the two GhaPE varieties lies not so much in their structure or phonology as in the functions they serve: uneducated GhaPE is used as a lingua franca in highly multilingual contexts, whereas the more educated, or acrolectal, varieties are better characterized as in-group languages whose main function is to express group solidarity (Huber, 1999: 140).

Here, Huber is not saying that there is no difference between the acrolect and the basilect. He says that the difference is not so much in structure or phonology. This means that there are some differences but not so much. Whilst the acrolect, SP, is usually used by students to express group solidarity or unity or cohesion in terms of its function, the basilect is used when there is lack of common language, just like Pidgin in general. It can be concluded that students do not use Student Pidgin because they lack a common language or lingua franca, but they rather use it to express group solidarity (Forson, 1996).

Dako (2002: 55) also says that lexically SP marks itself as different from uneducated GhaPE by not using distinctive Pidgin vocabulary as shown below:

GhaPE: pikin	SP: kiddi
GhaPE: sabe	SP: know
GhaPE: thief (v)	SP: steal

Dako (2002:55) continues to say that:

Because speakers of Student Pidgin can draw on other common languages to supplement their vocabulary and also their structures, Student Pidgin exhibits a different vocabulary from Ghanaian Pidgin English, and code switching is much more noticeable, embedding both the Standard English and (predominantly) Twi and Ga vocabulary and structures.

Here, Dako is also saying that there is a difference between Student Pidgin and uneducated Ghanaian Pidgin English in terms of lexis.

Structurally, Huber (1999:276) lists several aspects where SP differs from uneducated GhaPE. Dako (2002) quotes the following from Huber using her own examples:

Whereas in GhaPE, the possessive 1st and 3rd person plural are *aua {wi)* and *dea (dem, de)* respectively, SP, uses *wana* for the 1st person plural and *dema* for the 3rd person plural possessive:

ba wana ri:ding rum i bi ekon. (But our reading room is air-conditioned)O: l de seim, Commonwealth dema dis ting i no bi bad. (All the same, what

Commonwealth Hall is doing isn't bad.)

2. The negative-completive function of *neva* is virtually non-existent in GhaPE but is a prominent feature in SP:

a neva go foget (I'll not forget); i neva bi i sista (She is definitely not his sister.)

 Whereas a genitive relationship is expressed in GhaPE as N+N : Kofi sista. (Kofi 's sister)

SP has the sequence: N+ Pron. +N:

Kofi in sista. (Kofi's sister)

mumi im [i] food bi de best. (Mother's food is the best).

- 4. Use of 3rd person plural *dem* (they) rather than the GhaPE *dei*. *den do dem wan, wan, wan (*Then do them one at a time.)
- 5. In GhaPE: plas means 'and', whereas in SP plas means 'with'

A wan go plas ju: (I want to go with you)

If ju wan konyinju plas English fo sekon jea(If you want to continue with English in the second year)

One can conclude from the above that there is generally an argument about SP and uneducated GhPE. We saw from the above that lexically, there are differences between the SP and uneducated GhPE (Dako, 2002). Structurally too, Huber (1999:276) lists several aspects where SP differs from GhaPE though it seems he was contradicting himself in terms of 'basilect' and 'acrolect' when he said earlier that the differences between the two are not so much in terms of structure and phonology. However, it can be asserted that Student Pidgin is a variety of Ghanaian Pidgin English. The two distinct varieties, drawn by Huber (1999), actually refer to the two main dialects of the same GPE. Student Pidgin is used to refer to the variety of GPE usually spoken by students or people with formal education background.

2.6 Theories of Pidgin in General

There are lots of theories concerning the origin of pidgins in general. This discussion will be limited to six of them: the Monogenetic/ Relexification Theory, the Polygenesis Theory, the Baby-Talk Theory, the Nautical Jargon Theory, the Independent Parallel Development Theory, and the Universalist theory.

2.6.1 Monogenetic / Relexification Theory

Monogenesis is one of the theories of the origin of pidgin. The theory refers to a single origin for pidgin and creole languages. Thus, according to the *theory of monogenesis*, all pidgins of the world can be ultimately traced back to one linguistic variety. In other words, the theory says that all pidgins have their beginnings from one main language, which is Portuguese.

The idea of the Monogenesis of pidgin was first formulated by Hugo Schuchardt in the late 19th century and popularised in the late 1950s and early 1960s by Taylor (1961) and Thompson (1961). It assumes that some type of pidgin language, called West African Pidgin Portuguese, based on Portuguese was spoken from the 15th to 18th centuries in the forts established by the Portuguese on the West African coast. This variety was the starting point of all pidgin and Creole languages. This would explain to some extent why Portuguese lexical items can be found in many pidgins and creoles, but more importantly, it would account for the numerous grammatical similarities shared by such languages.

Todd (1990) attempted to postulate the relatedness of pidgins and creoles with a lingua franca known as *Sabir* or Mediterranean Lingua Franca as the starting point, which was then relexified by the Portuguese and then subsequently by various other European powers. This is what Todd (1990:31) says about the monogenetic theory:

According to this theory, all European-language-based pidgins and creoles derived from a fifteenth-century Portuguese pidgin. In turn, this was probably a relic of the medieval *Lingua Franca* (also called Sabir) which was the common auxiliary language of the multilingual Crusader and of Mediterranean traders. Record shows that Lingua Franca differed in vocabulary from area to area but its structure seems to have been relatively stable and bears some resemblance to modern pidgins and creoles.

Examples of vocabulary items deriving ultimately from Portuguese and occurring in all pidgins and creoles include savi/sabi (know) and pikin/pikinini (baby) (Todd, 1990).

While many pidgins and creoles around the world have lexicons based on languages other than Portuguese (e.g. English, French, Spanish, Dutch), it was hypothesized that such pidgins and creoles were derived from this lingua franca by means of *relexification*.

Relexification is the process by which a pidgin or creole incorporates or borrows a significant amount of its lexicon from another language while keeping the grammar intact. There is some evidence that relexification is a real process. Muysken (1981) and Bakker & Mous (1994) show that there are languages which derive their grammar and

lexicon from two different languages respectively, which could be easily explained with the relexification hypothesis.

However, monogenesis and relexification have a number of problems. First, as Todd admits, pidgins, by "shedding linguistic redundancies, by adopting greater regularity" such as syntactic complexity, have removed the features that allow linguists to identify relatedness (Todd, 1990:36). Relexification assumes that, in learning a second language, people can learn vocabulary and grammar separately and that they will learn the latter but replace the former (Wardhaugh, 2002:75). In addition, pidgin languages are inherently unstructured, so relexification does not account for how the syntactic structure of a creole could emerge from the languages that lack such structure. Furthermore there are a number of marginal pidgins (Russenorsk, Eskimo Trade Jargon) which cannot conceivably be connected with Portuguese and which are nonetheless analytic in structure just as the pidgins based on the main European colonial languages are.

Bickerton (1977) also points out that relexification postulates too many improbabilities and that it is unlikely that a language could be disseminated round the entire tropical zone to people of widely different language backgrounds and still preserve a virtually complete identity in its grammatical structure, wherever it took root, despite considerable changes in its phonology and virtually complete changes in its lexicon.

In sum, Todd (1990:32) says that:

Those who support the monogenetic theory of pidginization believe that when the Portuguese sailed along the west coast of Africa in the fifteen century they would, naturally, have used their Mediterranean contact language form of *Sabir*. This would have been the first European language that the Africans acquired, then in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, as Portuguese influence in Africa waned and as the pidgin was used in more and more contact situations, pidgin speakers drew on the dominant language in the area for vocabulary expansion.

2.6.2 Polygenesis Theory

Polygenesis is the view that human languages evolved as several lineages independent of one another. It is contrasted with monogenesis, which is the view that human languages all go back to a single common ancestor. Thus, the theory says that pidgins evolve from different sources and not from a single source as monogenesis proposes.

2.6.3 The Baby-Talk Theory

This theory says that pidgin came about as a result of an imperfect learning or mastery of a language- just like a child starting to learn his or her first language, hence the name 'Baby-Talk'. The imperfect learning of the language will make the person talk or speak like the way baby talks or speaks.

At the end of the last century, around 1876 (Todd, 1990), Charles Leland, when discussing China coast Pidgin English, noted that there were many similarities of pidgins with the speech of children such as the following features:

- a. High percentage of content words with a correspondingly low number of function words.
- b. Little morphological marking.

- c. Word classes more flexible than in adult language (free conversion).
- d. Contrasts in area of pronouns greatly reduced.
- e. Number of inflections minimized.

(https://www.uni-due.de/SVE/VARS_Pidgins_and_Creoles.htm)

Jespersen (1922:234) maintained that the characteristics of pidgins result from 'imperfect mastery of a language which in its initial stage, in the child with its first language and in the grown-up with a second language learnt by imperfect methods, leads to a superficial knowledge of the most indispensable word, with total disregard of grammar. (https://www.uni-due.de/SVE/VARS_Pidgins_and_Creoles.htm).

Bloomfield (1933: 472), as quoted by Todd (1990:27-28), also supported the Baby-Talk theory:

Speakers of lower language may make so little progress in learning the dominant speech that the masters, in communication with them resort to 'baby-talk'. This baby talk is the masters' imitation of the subjects' incorrect speech. There is reason to believe that it is by no means an exact imitation, and that some of its features are based not upon the subjects' mistakes but upon grammatical relations that exist within the upper language itself. The subject, in turn, deprived of the correct model, can do no better now than to acquire the simplified 'baby-talk' version of the upper language. The result may be a conventionalized *jargon*. During the colonization of the last few centuries, Europeans have repeatedly given jargonized versions of their language to slaves and tributary peoples. The limitations of the Baby-Talk' Theory cannot be overemphasized. Todd (1990: 28, 29) writes:

It fails to explain why pidgins are not always mutually intelligible with the languages of which they are, supposedly, baby-talk versions; more important, it fails to explain why pidgins and creoles which are related to different European languages are, in many ways, syntactically more similar to each other than they are to the languages from which their lexicons derive.

2.6.4 The Nautical Jargon Theory

As early as 1938 the American linguist John Reinecke noted the possible influence of nautical jargon on pidgins on the development of many pidgins and creoles. He says that it is obvious that on many of the original voyages of discovery to the developing world many nationalities were represented among the crews of the ships. This fact led to the development of a core vocabulary of nautical items (marine/naval items) and a simplified grammar (at least as regards English). Later pidgins show many of these lexical items irrespective of where the language varieties are spoken. Thus the word *capsise* turns up with the meaning 'turn over' or 'spill' in both West Atlantic and Pacific pidgins. (https://www.unidue.de/SVE/VARS_Pidgins_and_Creoles.htm)

According to Todd (1990: 30), this theory postulates that:

Until comparatively recently, ships had, of necessity, to develop a common denominator language because crews were generally composed of men speaking a variety of dialects and languages. There were, for example, fourteen different nationalities represented on Nelson's flagship *Victory*. According to supporters

of this theory, the sailors' lingua franca was passed on to Africans, Asians, Polynesians or whatever people the sailors came into contact with. The nautical jargon would then have been expanded according to the model of the learners' mother tongue. Such an explanation helps to account for the similarities that exist in the pidgin and creole Englishes of the world. The similarities are due to the influences exerted by different mother tongues.

One of the shortcomings of this otherwise attractive theory is that it does not help to account for the many structural affinities between pidgins and creole Englishes and their French, Portuguese, Spanish, and Dutch counterparts (Todd, 1990).

2.6.5 The Independent Parallel Development Theory

According to Todd (1990: 29), "Robert A. Hall, Jr. was among the first scholars to recognize the pervading similarities apparent in the world's pidgins and creoles, yet he believes that many of them arose independently and developed along parallel lines." In other words, this theory maintains that the obvious similarities between the world's pidgins and creoles arose on independent but parallel lines due to the fact that they were all derived from languages of Indo-European stock and, in the case of the Atlantic varieties, due to their sharing of a common West African substratum.

Furthermore, scholars like Robert Hall specify that the similar social and physical conditions under which pidgins arose were responsible for the development of similar linguistic structures (https://www.uni-due.de/SVE/VARS_Pidgins_and_Creoles.htm). Todd (1990: 29, 30) gives two main limitations of this theory:

In the first place, structurally as well as lexically, the Atlantic and Pacific pidgin Englishes have common features which do not occur in standard English. They both, for example, use 'make' in polite orders. The equivalent of English 'put out the fire' is *mekim dai faia* in Tok and *mek yu los faia* in Kantok. Another similarity is their use of a form of 'too much' to mean 'very'. 'I'm very cold' becomes *mi kol tumas* in Tok Pisin and *mi, a kol tumos* in Kamtok. And the position of the sentence negator is identical in both languages, *mi no haskim* and *mi, a no bin ask* being equivalents of 'I didn't ask'. Secondly, although it would be folly to deny the West African contribution to the Atlantic pidgins and creoles, one must not forget that the African slaves came from widely separated areas of West Africa and to overstress the similarities of their linguistic background is to oversimplify.

2.6.6 The Universalist Theory

This is the most recent view on the origin of pidgins and has elements in common with the other theories. However, the distinguishing mark of this theory is that it sees the similarities as due to universal tendencies among humans to create languages of a similar type, i.e. an analytic language with a simple phonology, an SVO syntax with little or no subordination or other sentence complexities, and with a lexicon which makes maximum use of polysemy (and devices such as reduplication) operating from a limited core vocabulary. To put it in technical terms, a pidgin or a creole will be expected to have unmarked values for linguistic parameters, e.g. with the parameter pro-drop, whereby the personal pronoun is not obligatory with verb forms (Italian *capisco* 'I understand'), the unmarked setting is for no pro-drop to be allowed and indeed this is the situation in all

pidgins and creoles, a positive value being something which may appear later with the rise of a rich morphology.

(https://www.unidue.de/SVE/VARS_Pidgins_and_Creoles.htm).

The significance of the accounts of the theories of Pidgin in general cannot be overemphasized. In sum, the theories of pidgin bring about deep insight into the origin, the development, the structure, and the concept of pidgin in general. The theories of pidgin help us to understand or trace the history of pidgin and creoles in the world and also to know why there are similarities and differences between pidgin languages in the world. For instance, we come to realize through the theories that the common origin of pidgin accounts for the grammatical similarities among the varieties of pidgins in the world(like Student Pidgin and PE in general); baby talk theory helps to explain the morphological simplification of pidgins by pointing to the fact that a different register is used to address foreigners. Student Pidgin users sometimes use pidgin to hide things from 'foreigners' of their group(s). The Nautical Jargon theory draws our attention also to the fact that some similarities between pidgins in different parts of the world are partly due to the influence of sailors, and the relexification theory points to the importance of word borrowing in the development of pidgins and creoles. Student Pidgin and Ghanaian Pidgin are two different varieties of the same Pidgin English, as they share many things in common. They are actually from the same major source (English) and Ghanaian languages as substrates.

2.7.1 Morphology

The term morphology has been defined by different scholars. In linguistics, morphology is the identification, analysis and description of the structure of a given language's morphemes and other linguistic units, such as root words, affixes, parts of speech, intonation and stress, or implied context (Aronoff and Fudeman, 2011). According to Greenbuam (1996:437), "Morphology is the study of the internal structure of words. Its two major branches are word-formation and inflection." Allan et al (2010:49) say that "morphology is about word structure." Akmajian et al (1995:11) are of the view that morphology is simply "the study of the structure of words." The three definitions given above actually looked at morphology in terms of word structure (i.e. how internal structures of words are broken down into its morphemes). Nida (1946) and Ramlan (1992) on the other hand think otherwise when they look at it in terms of morphemic structure (i.e. how morphemes are put together in forming words or utterances.

According to Nida (1965), morphology is the study of morphemes and their arrangements in forming words. Ramlan (1992: 110) says that "Morphology as another level of studying or analyzing the expression system of language which is concerned with the identification of morphemes and the ways in which they are distributed or combined into longer utterances". In all the definitions, one can observe and conclude that morphology is a branch of linguistics that deals with the study of words and how they are formed. Thus, it deals with the study of morphemes (words and their semantic building blocks); how these morphemes work in creating new words. The processes involve in

synthesizing and analyzing morphemes is what is called word formation processes (morphological processes).

2.7.2 Two Basic Approaches to Morphology: Analysis and Synthesis

According to Aronoff and Fudeman (2011:12), "There are two complementary approaches to morphology: analytic and synthetic". *The analytic approach* has to do with breaking words down, and it is usually associated with American structuralist linguistics of the first half of the twentieth century. The second approach to morphology is the *synthetic approach*. It basically says, "I have a lot of little pieces here. How do I put them together?" This question presupposes that you already know what the pieces are. What is left is how to put these pieces together to form a whole. (Aronoff and Fudeman, 2011:

12-13)

Analytic principles

Below are some basic analytic principles that are used in morphology. Nida (1949) states the following basic analytic principles used in morphology as cited in Aronoff and Fudeman (2011: 13-17).

Principle 1: Forms with the same meaning and the same sound shape in all their occurrences are instances of the same morpheme.

Step one in morphological analysis is to look for elements that have the same form and the same meaning. This is the basic typetoken problem. Let's say that we have a bunch of coins. Each is a token, a form. If we look at them carefully, we see that three of them look very much the same (they are all nickels), and two of them are identical (they both say 1997). These two coins are tokens of exactly the same type: they have identical forms and identical values. We may further say that the three coins are all tokens of a larger type that includes all nickels, not just those minted in 1997. But five pennies, though they have the same value as a nickel, do not together comprise the same type as the nickel, because, although identical in value to the nickel, they are different in form. (Aronoff and Fudeman, 2011:13-14)

Principle 2: Forms with the same meaning but different sound shapes may be instances of the same morpheme if their distributions do not overlap.

In Kujamaat Jóola, the stem /baj-/ has two possible shapes, [baj-] and [bej-], but their distributions don't overlap. [bej-] occurs in the presence of a morpheme with an underlying tense vowel, but [baj-] does not. This non overlapping distribution allows us to conclude that the two forms are instances of the same morpheme. When two or more instances of a given morpheme occur with different shapes, we call them allomorphs.

(Aronoff and Fudeman, 2011:14-16)

Principle 3: Not all morphemes are segmental.

Normally, when we think of morphemes, we think of forms that can be pronounced in some sense, e.g., chicken, the, un-, -ize. But some morphemes can't be pronounced on their own. They are dependent on other morphemes for their realization. In English, for example, vowel alternations may serve to differentiate basic and past forms of the verb. We refer to these alternations as ablaut (as

in run-- ran, speak spoke, eat –ate). (Aronoff and Fudeman, 2011:16)

Principle 4: A morpheme may have zero as one of its allomorphs provided it has a non-zero allomorph.

Fish generally displays no special marking in the plural: one fish, ten fish- \emptyset . We can say that it has a zero plural, and that this zero plural is an allomorph of the usual plural [z], because other words in the language, like frogs, have non-zero plurals. This is an analytic procedure, not a theoretical point. We cannot posit a zero unless it contrasts with some non-zero variant. In Japanese, where sakana means both 'fish (sg)' and 'fish (pl)', we cannot posit a zero plural (*sakana- \emptyset) because nowhere in the language does $-\emptyset$ contrast with a non-zero allomorph.

2.8.1 Morphemes

A morpheme is the essential unit in word formation. According to Greenbuam (1995: 437), "Morphemes are abstract units in the structure of words. They are represented by morphs, actual forms of a word or a part of a word." Allan (2010:50) says that morpheme is the smallest unit of syntactic analysis with semantic specification (i.e. the smallest unit that is itself meaningful." To Van Valin (2001:14), "Morphemes are the smallest meaningful units in language." Wiredu (1999:112) seems to agree with Van Valin when he says that, "Morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of grammatical analysis... It is the smallest unit of language that cannot be separated into smaller parts again." Thus, a morpheme can be a word or part of a word that carries meaning. Morphemes are the smallest meaning-bearing units of language (O'Grady, 1997).

2.8.2 Free/lexical versus Bound/Grammatical Morphemes

A free morpheme can stand alone as a word while a bound morpheme must be attached to a free morpheme (Allan, 2010). Again, Wiredu (1999) says that a word may consist of one or more morphemes. For example, if we take the word *worked*, we can see that it is made up of two parts (morphemes): *work*, and the past tense marker-*ed*. (Wiredu, 1999). Also, the word *friends* consists of two morphemes: *friend* and –*s* (which indicates plural form); the word *beautiful* consists of two morphemes: *beauty* and –*ful* (which indicates adjective form). All morphemes that have dictionary meanings are called free morpheme/ Lexical morphemes. He writes, again, that grammatical morphemes or bound morphemes (like –ed, -s, -ful) only perform grammatical functions. On their own, they are meaningless unless they are attached to lexical morphemes. Morphemes that must be attached to another morpheme to receive meaning are bound morphemes (O'Grad, 1997).

According to Katamba (1993), many words contain a root that can stand on its own. Roots which are capable of standing independently are called free morpheme. He states again that many roots are incapable of standing independently or occurring in isolation. They always occur with some other word-building elements. Such roots are called *bound morphemes*.

2.9.1 Affixes: Prefixes, Suffixes, Infix, and Circumfix

An affix is a morpheme which only occurs when it combines to some other morphemes such as root or stem or base (Katamba, 1993). An affix attaches to stem (Allan et al, 2010).

There are three types of affixes: a prefix is an affix attached before a root or a stem or a base, like *re-* as in *re-make*, *un-* as in *unkind*, and *in-* as in *indecent*. Thus, affixes that precede the stem are called prefixes (Allan et al, 2010), and those that follow the stem are called Suffixes (Allan et al, 2010). In other words, a suffix is an affix that is attached after a root or a stem, or base, like -ly as in *kindly*, - *er* as in *waiter*, -*s* as in *boys* and – *ed* as in *worked*. An Infix is an affix inserted into the root itself, like *-fire-* as in Kangafireloo. It is somewhat rare in English. The only infix in English is where a word like *bloody* is infixed into a stem, e.g. kangabloodyroo; in this example, the stem is the root, *kangaroo*; *bloody* becomes the infix (Allan et al, 2010). The only circumfix in English is the causative *en* – ADJ- *en* as in enlighten, *em*bold*en*. The German past tense is often a circumfix, e.g. geliebt "loved" (Allan et al, 2010).

2.10.1 Base, Stem, Root, Lexeme, and Word

A *Base* is a form to which a rule of word-formation is applied (Quirk et. al, 1973). Again, Quirk et. al argue that "Stem is the part of the word remaining after every affix has been removed."(p.431). This definition is controversial. It seems to conflict with the definitions of Wiredu (1999) and Greenbaum (1996) as would be seen below. Can there be a stem without roots? If according to Wiredu (1999:118), "A base (also called a root) morpheme is that morpheme which is considered as the first morpheme in a word to

which the other morphemes are added" then when all the affixes are removed the remaining would be a root/base and not a stem. For instance if we have the word *establishments*, the morpheme on which the whole word is built is: *establish*. This then becomes the base or the root morpheme.

Wiredu (1999) writes that *stem* morphemes are the morphemes or combinations of morphemes to which some other morphemes can be added. For instance, if we have the morpheme *faith* and we add another morpheme *less*, we get the word *faithless*. The morpheme *faith* is the stem to which we added the new morpheme *less*. At the same time, *faith* is the base because it is the first or core morpheme in the word. In a word like *faithlessness*, the base is *faith*, but the stem is *faithless* since it is the group to which we add the last morpheme –ness (Wiredu, 1999). Van Valin (2001) also says that stem is the part of a complex form of a word to which a morpheme is added.

According to Greenbaum (1996), Affixes—prefixes and suffixes—are attached to the base of a word. The *root* is what remains when all affixes are removed. It seems that Quirk et al definition of stem and Greenbaum's definition of root are the same, which should not be. Some words are compounds, consisting of more than one base, and those bases cannot be called root. Allan et al (2010:50) say that "An affix attaches to stem, and the most deeply embedded stem is the root. Affixes that precede the stem are *prefixes*; those that follow the stem are *suffixes*."

According to Akmajian (1995:17), "The morpheme to which an affix is attached is the base (or stem)". Thus to him, affix can be attached to a base or a stem. That does not make the base and the stem the same. A root is the portion of a word that is common to a set of derived or inflected forms, if any, when all affixes are removed; it is not further analyzable into meanings, being morphologically simple, and caries the principle portion of the word in which it functions.

(www.01.sil.org/linguistics/GlossaryOfLinguisticTerms/WhatIsARoot.htm)

A stem is the root or roots of a word, together with any derivational affixes, to which inflectional affixes are added.

(www.01.sil.org/linguistics/GlossaryOfLinguisticTerms/WhatIsAStem.htm).

It can be deduced that all roots are stems (or can be called stems) but not all stems are roots (or can be called root). Root is the core morpheme on which other morphemes can be attached. On the other hand, stem is the base or group of morphemes on which other morphemes attach. One cannot have a stem without a root, but one can have a root without a stem.

Lexemes, generally, are vocabulary items listed in the dictionary. According to the *Cambridge encyclopedia of English language* edited by Crystal (1995), a lexeme is a unit of lexical meaning that exists regardless of the number of inflectional endings it may have or the words it may contain. Technically, a lexeme is a basic unit of meaning, and the headwords of a dictionary are all lexemes; it is an abstract unit of morphological

analysis in linguistics that roughly corresponds to a set of forms taken by a single word. For example, in the English language, *run, runs, ran*, and *running* are forms of the same lexeme, conventionally written as *run* (Crystal, 1995).

Word on the hand can be seen as a presentation of a lexeme that is associated with certain morpho-syntactic properties such as noun, adjective, verb, adverb, pronoun, proposition, conjunction and partly syntactic properties such as tense aspect, mood, gender, number, etc. (Katamba, 2005). According to Matthews (1997), traditionally, a word is the smallest of unit that makes up a sentence, and marked as such in writing. Word is a unit of language that conveys meaning and consists of one or more morphemes which are linked more or less tightly together and has a phonetic value. Typically, a word will consist of a root or a stem and zero or more affixes. Words can be combined to create phrases, clauses, and sentences.

Words are the smallest independent units of language. They are independent in that they do not depend on other words; this means that they can be separated from other units and can change position. In the sentence:

The man looked at the horses.

The plural ending –*s* in *horses* is dependent on the noun *horse* to receive meaning and can therefore not be a word. *Horses*, however, is a word, as it can occur in other positions in the sentence or stand on its own as in:

The horses looked at the man. What is the man looking at? - Horses.

Words are thus both independent since they can be separated from other words and move around in sentences and the smallest units of language since they are the only units of language for which this is possible (Fasold and Connor-Linton, 2006).

2.11 Concatenative Morphology and Non-Concatenative Morphology

The theories of word formation can be put into two categories: Concatenative Morphology and Non-Concatenative Morphology.

Concatenative Morphology

Concatenation is a process which deals with the formation of new lexical items by putting at least two distinct morphemes together. Concatenative processes are by far the ones which happen to be the most productive in the Indio-European language family. Thus, they are of major concern when it comes to discussing word-formation processes in English. These include compounding and affixation.

Non-Concatenative Morphology

When a word is created as a result of linguistic operations on one morpheme, such process belongs to the branch of non-concatenation. Here are some examples:

(a) Clipping/Truncation/ Backformation: A polysyllabic word is reduced. *Advert* and *ad* are clipped from *advertisement*. Back-clipping: We cut off all but the

beginning of the word, like *hippo* from *hippopotamus*. Fore-clipping: We cut off all but the end of the word, like *bot* from *robot* and *phone* from *telephone*. Syncope: We cut off the middle part. This is rare and occurs in *ma'am* from *madam*. Mixed clipping: We cut off both the beginning and the end, e.g. *fridge* from *refrigerator*.

- (b) Conversion: A word is changed to another category without changing its form at all, e.g. *chair* (noun) → *chair* (verb). Many linguists suggest, however, that this is a case of zero-derivation, which means an empty morpheme is concatenated with the word.
- (c) Borrowing: Here, new words are borrowed from one language into another language.
- (d) Reduplication: An element of a word is repeated.
- (e) Acronymisation: An acronym becomes a word. Scuba (Self-Contained Underwater Breathing Apparatus), radar (Radio Detection And Ranging) and laser (Light Amplification by Stimulated Emission of Radiation) are common examples.

2.12 Theories of Word Formation Processes

What is the meaning of word formation? *Word formation* is the creation of a new word in a language. It is a branch of morphology (Greenbuam, 1996). There are so many theories of word formation, but the study reviews or talks about Twelve (12) of the theories of word formation processes from Quirk and Greenbaum (1973), Greenbaum (1996), Wiredu (1999), Allan et al (2010), Akmajian (1995) and Mensah(2011).

2.12.1 Compounding

One of the processes of forming new words in language in general is compounding. Greenbuam (1996) writes that Compounding is the combination of two or more bases; for example: *hands-on* (as in *hands-on experience*), *helpline, spin doctor*. Wiredu (1999) says that a compound consists of two or more free morphemes which we have combined to form one new word. Examples: haircut (hair + cut), songwriter (song + writer) etc. According to Quirk et al (1973), compounding is adding one base to another. Example: teapot (tea + pot).

According to Akmajian et al (1995:26),

New words can be formed from already existing words by a process known as compounding, in which individual words can be joined together to form a compound word... Compounds are not limited to two words as shown by such example as bathroom towel-rack and *community center finance committee*.

The following examples of compounds were given by them: landlord (noun + noun); blackboard (adjective + noun); overdose (preposition + noun), swearword (verb + noun); red-hot (adjective + adjective); sky-blue (noun + adjective) and oversee (preposition + verb).

According to Mensah (2011), the following compound structures are found in NP, which may have lexical, metaphorical, or idiomatic meanings:

(a) Adjective+Noun

Long throat meaning 'glutton'

Bad belle 'jealousy/envy'

Strong head 'stubborness'

(b) Noun+Noun

God pikin meaning 'Christian' House boy 'male servant' Basket mouth 'a talkative' Coconut head 'a dunce'

Bush meat 'a village girl'

(c) Noun + Verb

Heart cut 'shock'

Liver melt 'surprise'

Wound injure 'injury'

Head scatter 'confuse/disorganize'

(d) Verb + Noun

Make mouth 'boast'

Make eye 'wink' Hear word 'listen' Tear race 'run' Fear face 'respect' (e) Verb + Verb Fly wákká 'disappear' Carry go 'suit oneself' Chop go 'escape'

Compounding is the process of combining two or more lexical morphemes. Thus, a compound word at least consists of two bases (e.g. Headmaster which is made up of *head* and *master*).

2.12.1 Affixation

Affixation is adding a prefix or suffix to the base, with or without a change of word-class (Quirk et al, 1973). Also, Wiredu (1999) writes that affixation involves adding affixes to an existing word to create a new one. Both Quirk and Wiredu talked about two types of affixation: Prefixation and Suffixation.

According to Quirk (1973:430) prefixation is "adding prefix to the base." Example: co + author (co-author). Also, Wiredu (1999:128) says that "Prefixation involves adding prefixes at the front of an existing word to create a new word." Examples are: en + throne (enthrone), pre +conceive (preconceive), anti +social (antisocial). Quirk et al (1973:131) say that "prefixation does not generally alter the word-class of the bases."

Mensah (2011) gives cases where there are clear uses of prefixes in Nigerian Pidgin:

Yarn vs. misyarn to mean 'communicate/miscommunicate' respectively.

Fire vs. misfire to mean 'talk aggressively/say something stupid or irrelevant' respectively.

Wiredu (1999: 129) says that "Suffixation involves the addition of suffixes to an already existing word in order to create a new word." Examples are: act + or (actor), book+ ish (bookish), destroy + er (destroyer), free + dom (freedom), use + less (useless) etc.

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Quirk et al (1973:430) also say that suffixation is "adding a suffix to the base." "Unlike, prefixes, suffixes frequently alter the word-class of the base; for example, the adjective *kind*, by addition of the suffix-*ness*, is changed into an abstract noun *kindness*" (Quirk et al, 1973: 435). According to Greenbuam (1996: 141),

Prefixation is the addition of a prefix in front of a base; for example: *pro-life, recycle, deselect.* Suffixation: the addition of a suffix at the end of a base; for example: *ageism, marginalize, additive...* Prefixation and suffixation are types of affixation (or derivation) that differ most obviously in positioning but also in another important respect. Typically, prefixation is classmaintaining in that it retains the word class of the base. Suffixation tends to be class-changing.

According to Mensah (2011), the suffix -*y* may often be attached to adjectives to derive nouns which bring out contrastive meanings that are emphatic:

Short: shorty 'a short person'

Black: blacky to mean 'a dark person' Left: lefty to mean 'a left-handed person' Sweet: sweety to mean 'a dear one' Long: longy to mean 'a tall person'

2.12.2 Derivation

According to Wiredu (1999), derivation is adding a morpheme to a stem to change the part of speech of that stem. Example: Faith (noun) becomes faithful (adjective) after adding –ful to the stem (faith);

Nation (noun) - nation*al* (adjective), Economy (noun) – econom*ise* (verb), Sign (noun) - sign*ify* (verb), Educate (verb) - educat*ion* (noun), Quick (adjective) - quick*ly* (adverb), Private (adjective) - privat*ize* (verb), Talk (verb) - talkat*ive* (adjective), Side (noun) - sideways (adverb) etc.

"A morpheme like –ful which changes the part of speech of a stem is called derivational morpheme." (Wiredu, 1999:119). Derivational morphemes form new words by changing the meanings of the bases to which they are attached. For example, kind - unkind, and obey - disobey.

2.12.3 Inflection

Akmajian et. al (1995) say that inflection is a word formation process of adding affixes that creates new forms without changing the word class or meaning. Unlike the derivational morpheme an inflectional morpheme never changes the category (part of speech) of the base morpheme (the morpheme to which it is attached). For example, both *eat* and *eats* are verbs; both *girl* and *girls* are nouns. The inflectional morpheme-*s*- did not change the part of speech. They list the following inflectional affixes or inflectional endings in English:

Noun inflectional suffixes:

- Plural marker (-s): girl- girls (The girls are here.)
- Possessive marker('s): Mary-Mary's (Mary's book)

Verb inflectional suffixes

- Third person present singular marker (-s): bake bakes (He bakes well.)
- Past tense marker (-ed): wait waited (They waited.)
- Progressive marker (-ing): sing singing (They are singing.)
- Past participle markers (-en or -ed): eat eaten (She has eaten.), bake- baked (He has baked a cake.)

Adjective inflectional suffixes

- Comparative marker (-er): fast faster (She is faster than you).
- Superlative marker (-est): fast fastest (She is fastest).

The types of inflection that occur depend very much on the language. The most common grammatical categories marked by inflection are below:

- (a) Tense: Verbs are inflected based on when an action started or occurred, such as *-ed* in English.
- (b) Mood: Verbs are inflected based on the probability that the proposition is true. For example, in English, we strip down the verb to the root form in the imperative mood (*Get out*!) and the subjunctive mood (*that he get out*, in sentences such as *I insisted that he get out*). This is a 'zero morpheme'.
- (c) Person: Verbs are inflected based on the subject, such as *-s* for the third person in English.
- (d) Number: Words are inflected based on the number, such as *-s* for plural nouns in English.
- (e) Gender: Words are inflected based on noun class, such as -e for French adjectives. For example, in French, you would say un homme chantant (a singing man) but une femme chantante (a singing woman). Note how chantant ('singing') becomes chantante.
- (f) Aspect: Words are inflected based on whether an action is completed or ongoing, such as -ing and -ed/-en in English.
- (g) Comparison: Adjectives are positive (no inflection in English), comparative (er in English) or superlative (-est in English).
- (h) Case: Nouns are marked according to their roles in a sentence. For example, in Latin, *nauta* ('sailor') is in the nominative case (subject position), *nautae* is in the genitive case (usually marks possession) or the dative case (marks indirect objects), and *nautam* is in the accusative case (marks direct objects). (https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Linguistics/Morphology)

2.12.4 Blending

Blending, according to Allan (2010), is combining parts of existing words to form a new one. "Brunch, workaholic, and shopathon are all blends combining parts of words (a meal combining aspects of 'breakfast and lunch', 'as addicted to work as an alcoholic is to alcohol', 'shopping marathon'" respectively (Allan, 2010:54). Wiredu (1999: 136) says

that "In this process, two or more words are joined together to form a single word. But unlike compounds, it is fragments of words which actually combine." Quirk et. al (1973) says that in a blend at least one of the elements is fragmentary when compared with its corresponding uncompounded word form. For example: *Brunch* is derived from br(eak) + (l)unch. Other examples of blends are:

- (a) *Motel* (from motor and hotel),
- (d) *Smog* (from smoke and fog)
- (e) *Telecast* (from television and broadcast) (Wiredu, 1999).

Thus, Blending, as a word formation process, is forming new words by combining parts of already existing words.

2.12.5 Borrowing

Borrowing is one of the word formation processes. All languages borrow words from other languages (Hatch and Brown, 1995:170). The forms of borrowed words are usually adapted to the phonology of the borrowing language. It is easy to see this in the mutation of English words borrowed from other languages. Examples of borrowed words in English are: Democracy, derived from the Greek language *demos* and *cratos*. Yogurt, a kind of drink which is fermented from milk, it is from Turkish (Allan, 1986:245).

According to a study by Mensah (2011) on lexicalization in Nigerian Pidgin (NP), English constitutes the superstrate source of borrowing for NP while languages like Portuguese, French, Nigerian English, Hausa, Igbo and Yoruba among others are the substrate sources. An examination from his data reveals that the noun is the lexical category that is mostly affected by the borrowing process. This is because, meaning-wise, nouns are the freest category (Barker, 2002).

Mensah (2011) gives the following examples of borrowed words in Nigerian Pidgin:

Palava (Portuguese) meaning problem/trouble.

Pikin (Portuguese) meaning child.

Abóki (Hausa) meaning friend;

Bókû (French) meaning plenty.

2.12.6 Clipping/Backformation

Wiredu (1999) says that the process of clipping involves the subtraction of one or more syllables from a word -even though it is still possible to use the full form of the word. Thus, in clipping or backformation, a new word is made by deleting the actual affix from another word. Examples: *housekeep f*rom housekeeper, *lab* from laboratory, *advert* from advertisement, and *biograph* from biography.

According to Quirk et. al (1973:448), "The term 'clipping' denotes the subtraction of one or more syllables from a word." This means that clipping is all about deleting or subtracting syllable(s) from an already existing word to get a new word. To them, shortening or clipping may occur at:

- (a) the beginning of the word: *phone* from telephone (Foreclipping)
- (b) the end of the word(more commonly): *photo* from photography(Backclipping)

(c) at the beginning and at the end of a word (rare): *flu* from Influenza (Fore-back clipping).

Foreclipping applies to words with the first part cut off, for examples; burger for hamburger, phone for telephone. *Backclipping* where the tail-end of the original has been cut off, for examples: lab for laboratory, *demo* for demonstration. *Fore-back clipping* are those words in which syllables are removed from both the beginning and the end. Example: flue from Influenza, Fridge from refrigerator, jams for pajamas/pyjamas (Wiredu, 1999, Allan, 2010).

Mensah (2011) says that "Clipping or truncation is another morphological process that is visible in Nigerian Pidgin (NP). Some of the lexical items borrowed from the superstrate language are shortened but still retain their full lexical content and meaning." To Mensah, the part of the word most affected by this process is either initial or final. He gives the following examples of clipped words in NP:

pámy (palm wine) cáf (cafeteria) náijá (Nigeria) acada (academic) mómó (morning) tórí (story) gree (agree)

Again, he concludes that there is no standard principle or order of clipping. The practice is arbitrary. It could be complex clipping, back clipping, or fore-clipping.

2.12.7 Conversion

One of the processes of word formation is conversion. According to Quirk et al (1973:441), "conversion is the derivational process whereby an item changes its wordclass without the addition of an affix." In other words, conversion is assigning the base to a different world-class without changing its form. For example the verb *release* (as in *They will release him.*) corresponds to a noun *release* (as in *They ordered his release*). Conversion is identified as 'zero derivation' or zero affixation since there is a change in class and meaning when is derived.

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This is how Wiredu (1999: 131) puts it: "In this process, a new word is created in the language simply by changing the word from its original part of speech to another without adding any affix." He gives the following examples: *cheat* (verb) as in: 'Don't allow Cathy to cheat you'; *cheat* (noun) as in: 'Kwame is a cheat'.

According to Greenbuam (1996), conversion is the change of a base from one word class to another without any change in form. For example: the verbs *email, fax,* and *microwave* derive from the nouns of the same form.To conclude, conversion is the process of forming words without changing the form of the input word that functions as base.

2.12.8 Reduplication

According to Wiredu (1999: 135), "this is a process which refers to the repetition of a morpheme to form a compound word." Reduplication duplicates all or part of the base to

which it applies to mark a grammatical or semantic contrast. This gives us two kinds or forms of this word formation process: full reduplication and a partial one. Full reduplication is the repetition of the entire word while partial reduplication copies only part of the word.

According to Quirk et. al (1973) and Wiredu (1999), the most common uses of reduplication are:

- (a) to imitate certain sounds, e.g.: tick-tock (of clock), rat-a-tat (sound of knocking).
- (b) to suggest alternation movement, e.g. :zoom-zoom, ping-pong, see-saw
- (c) to establish familiar talk by suggesting instability, nonsense, insincerity, etc e.g.: higgledy-piggledy, wishy-washy, dilly-dally.
- (d) to intensify, e.g.: tit-bit, teeny-weeny, tip-top

According to Allan et al (2010:54), "In many languages, reduplication indicates plural, as in. Sundanese monyet "monkey", monyet-monyet "monkeys". In Nigerian Pidgin, according to Mensah (2011), reduplication is an important device in forming adverbs, adjectives and nouns. Examples are given below:

(a) Forming adverbs

Small small 'gently'

Sharp sharp 'fast'

Kwik kwik 'urgently'

(b) Forming adjective

Jágá jágá 'confusable'

Yámá yámá 'disgusting'

Mágo mágo 'deceitful'

(C) Forming nouns

Chá chá 'gambling'

Kái kái 'local gin'

Kátá kátá 'confusion'

Moreover, Mensah (2011) says that reduplication in NP may perform grammatical functions like indicating *the progressive form of the verb*:

Person wey cry cry still dey see road.

Person who cry PROG still PROG see road

A person who is crying is still seeing.

He says that the first verb in the series within the predicate phrase is reduplicated to mark the progressive or continuous action while the progressive marker *dey* performs the same function on the second verb.

Reduplication can also be used for *emphasis*:

Talk talk (quarrelsome)

Play play (lively/funny)

Chóp chóp (gluttonous)

He concludes that the only category of reduplication found in NP is complete or total reduplication.

2.12.9 Acronym

This process refers to the creation of new words by taking the initial letters of established words to form a whole new word altogether (Wiredu, 1999). According to Quirk et al (1973), acronyms are words formed from the initial letters (or large parts) of words. Both Wiredu (1999) and Quirk et al (1973) refer to the two main types of acronym:

(a) acronyms pronounced as sequences of letters (that is, where the initial letters or parts of the words are pronounced individually. Examples are:

GBC – Ghana Broadcasting Corporation.

- OAU Organisation of Africa Unity
- UN United Nations
- C.O.D. Cash on Delivery
- TV Television
- (b) where the initial letters are pronounced as a single word. Examples are:

ECOWAS - Economic Community of West African States

NATO – North Atlantic Treaty Organisation

SAP – Structural Adjustment Programme

According to a research conducted by Mensah (2011), Acronym/abbreviation word formation process involves using the initial constituents of words to represent a whole word or phrase or part of it. He gives the following examples in Nigerian Pidgin: OK 'okrika (fairly used items like clothes, shoes, bags etc.)'

IOU meaning 'I owe you'

TDB meaning 'till day break'

247 meaning 'twenty four hours a day and seven days a week'

2.12.10 Coinage

Coinage is another word formation process. Day in and day out we create or coin new words for new products and new technologies. According to Akmajian (1995: 23),

Coinage often happens when speakers invent (or coin) new words to name previously nonexistent object that results from technological change. For example, coined words such as radar, laser, kleenex, xerox, and CD-ROM are very recent additions to the English language."

Thus, coinage usually occurs as a result of new invention. We create new words to name new things which were previously nonexistent.

The above reviews help to give answer to one of the research question of the study, "What are the morphological strategies or word formation processes in Student Pidgin?"

2.13.1 The Expression of Tense, Mood, and Aspect in SP

All creoles make use of a system of preverbal particles to express tense, mood, and aspect (Huber, 1999, Bickerton, 1981; Bakker, Post, & Van der Voort, 1995). Bakker (2008) states that Pidgins show much less uniform marking of tense, mood, and aspect (TMA) system, and no pidgin displays anything similar to the TMA system found in creoles.

This may be the most significant structural difference between creoles and pidgins. Pidgin expresses these categories almost always adverbially, using free morphemes such us "tomorrow" or "long –time-ago" or possible," and their expression is not obligatory... In short, TMA is expressed very differently in pidgins and creoles (Bakker, 2008).

Based on an analysis of four Creoles – Sranan, Guyanese, Haitian, and Hawaiian – Bikerton (1980:5-6) outlined the following Creoles TAM system and which he claimed to be universal, as stated in Huber (1999):

- (a) The zero form marks simple past for action verbs and nonpast for state verbs.
- (b) A marker of anterior aspect [sic] indicates past-before-past for action verbs and simple past for state verbs.
- (c) A marker of irrealis aspect [sic] indicates 'unreal time' (=futures, conditionals, subjunctives, etc.) for all verbs.
- (d) A marker of nonpunctual aspect indicates durative or iterative aspect for action verbs, and is indifferent to the nonpast/past distinction; this marker cannot normally co-occur with state verbs.
- (e) All markers are in preverbial position.

That is there are no past tense or aspect markers in all pidgins; it is only through context that one can recognize tense/aspect.

2.13.2 Tense: Past, Non-past, and Anteriority in SP

According to Huber (1999:218), "Unlike other WAPEs, Ghanaian Pidgin English (GhaPE) does not have an anterior marker. Relative tense (past for stative verbs and pastbefore-past for action verbs) can therefore only be inferred from the context or time or time adverbial". Huber writes that while according to Bickerton's Creole prototype, the unmarked form codes simple past for action verbs(point(a) above, it can also mark nonpast in GhaPE. This is often the case in subordinate sentences, e.g. adverbial clauses introduced by "if, like, or when". Example:

If de se mek we pas rait, i bi rait. [If they tell us to turn right, right we will turn.]

However, unmarked action verbs can indicate non-past events in main clauses (Huber, 1999: 219) as in:

Fɛs i bi dɛ pol we nkruma put am bifo... [First, there were the poles that Nkrumah had erected before.]

nau, de komot am ol.[Now, they are removing all of them] *nau de bring some pol...we i de mek fifti jies.*[now they bring poles that last fifty

years.]

Contextual clues (*now 'nau'*, which contrast with *first 'Fes'* and *before 'bifo'* in the first sentence – result in a non-past interpretation of the unmarked verbs (Huber, 1999). This contextual clue to determine the tense of sentence is also confirmed by Sekyi-Baidoo (2002) when he says that in Student Pidgin, sometimes the Akan word 'na' is brought in to express past progressive tense/aspect. Example, *Na* I de read. (I was reading.).

2.13.3 Mood

Modality is the expression of possibility, necessity, and contingency. Modality can be expressed through modal verbs, as well as through grammatical mood in English. Mood, according to Longman Active Study Dictionary of English(1991: 390), refers to "any of the three groups of forms of verb, (a) expressing a fact(indicative) (b) command or request(imperative) (c) a condition, doubt, etc(subjunctive)". Kirszner and Mandell (1989:337) state that "Mood is the verb form that indicates a writer's basic attitude toward what he or she is saying." They continue to say that "for a statement or a question, use the indicative mood; for a command, use the imperative mood; and for a wish, or a hypothetical condition, use the subjunctive mood."

From the above definition, we can talk about three main types of mood: Indicative Mood (Realis mood), and Imperative Mood and Subjunctive Mood, both as Irrealis moods.

Realis Mood (Indicative Mood)

A Realis Mood is a grammatical mood which is used principally to indicate that something is a statement of fact; in other words, to express what the speaker considers to be a known state of affairs, as in declarative sentences. The main realis mood is indicative mood. By contrast, an *irrealis* mood is used to express something that is not known to be the case in reality (subjunctive). An example of the contrast between realis and irrealis moods is seen in the English sentences "He works" and "It is necessary that he works". In the first sentence *works* is a present indicative (realis) form of the verb, and is used to make a direct assertion about the real world. In the second sentence *works* is in

the subjunctive mood, which is an irrealis mood – here *that he work* does not express (necessarily) a fact about the real world, but refers to what would be a desirable state of affairs.

Thus, indicative mood simply gives a statement or asks a question (Kirszner and Mandell, 1989). It allows speakers to express assertions, denials, and questions of actuality or strong probability. Most sentences in English are in the indicative mood because the indicative is the most commonly used mood, as for example, the statement *I* read the book and the question *Did you read the book*? Both sentences are in the indicative mood. Other examples are: *He killed it; I love her! She saw him!*

Irrealis Mood (Imperative Mood and Subjunctive Mood)

Irrealis mood is a category of grammatical moods that indicates that a certain situation or action is not known to happen or have happened, as the speaker is talking or speaking. An irrealis mood is used to express something that is not known to be the case in reality. The main examples or types of irrealis moods include: subjunctive mood (which include hypothetical/counterfactual mood, conditional mood, permissible mood, interrogative mood, etc) and imperative mood (giving command and request). Huber (1999) refers to the *Irrealis Mood* in Ghanaian Pidgin English. He opines that GhaPE has a marker of irrealis mood as posited by the Creole prototype – point (c) in Bickerton characterization given above. As in the other WAPEs – except for some variety of Liberian Pidgin which uses *wi* or *wv* (Holm 1989: 409) – this marker has the form *go* in serial verb constructions, like the following:

If you *go see* my house, you yourself u go sorry! [If you go and see my house, even you will be sorry!]

i *go* happen next two months [it will happen within the next two months] Irrealis mood *go* occurs in the preverbial slot and subsumes futures both past/non-past and conditional as shown in the examples:

Future: Next two month i go happen. [It will happen within the next two months] *Future-in-the past*: When they come no, de go burn all the house. [When they came, they would burn down all the houses.]

Condition: if you no go sleep there, you go sleep outside. [If you do not sleep there, you will sleep outside.]

Imperative Mood

The imperative mood simply gives a command (Kirszner and Mandell, 1989). The imperative mood allows speakers to make direct commands, express requests, and grant or deny permission. An imperative is used to tell someone to do something without arguing.

Many languages, including English, use the bare verb stem to form the imperative (such as "go", "run", "do"). The form of the English imperative is identical to the base form of any English verb. The negative form of the English imperative is created by inserting the *do* operator and the negative adverb *not* before the base form of the verb. The prohibitive mood, which is the negative imperative, may be grammatically or morphologically different from the imperative mood in some languages. It indicates that the action of the

verb is not permitted, e.g., "Do not go!" (Archaic, "Go not!"). In English, the imperative is sometimes used to form a conditional sentence: e.g., "Go eastwards a mile and you will see it" means "If you go eastward a mile, you will see it".

Expressing Imperative

There are two ways of forming imperatives in GhaPE. The first one has a form V (O) as in (a) and the second involves causative *make*, which is a bound subject pronoun + verb as in (b) (Huber, 1999). Examples are shown below:

(a) Come! Go! Go! Go! – V
Bring money! [Bring (me) money!]; Kill him! – VO
(b) Mek you hear! [Listen]
Make you eat! [You should/must eat!]

Amoako (1992: 78) as stated in Huber (1999) argues that negative imperatives are preferred with the construction involving *mek* (make). It is the verb, not the causative marker mek (make) that is negated in this case.

Mek you no come near am! [Don't come near him.]

Mek he no go there! [He must not go there!]

Subjunctive Mood

Subjunctive mood states a wish, or hypothetical condition, or counter to fact statement (Kirszner and Mandell, 1989). The subjunctive mood expresses commands, requests, suggestions, wishes, hypotheses, purposes, doubts, and suppositions that are contrary to

fact at the time of the utterance. The form of the present subjunctive is identical to the base form of English verbs. For examples, Charley, I wish e know am.[SE: I wish he knew him.] The form of the past subjunctive is identical to the plural simple past indicative. However, the subjunctive is only distinguishable in form from the indicative in the third person singular present subjunctive and with the verb *to be* in the present subjunctive and the first and third person singular in the past subjunctive.

Example: SE, If she were God, she would kill him! [SP, If she be God, she go kill am!]

Expressing Ability and Permission

Huber (1999) states that to show ability, preverbal mood markers, *fit* expresses physical ability and permission. Permission can also be given by using *gree (gri)* followed by a causative construction as shown below:

(a)They *fit* vanish because they get medicine. [they are able to vanish because they have charm.] – Physical ability.

(b)You people *fit* put the chief, but the chief still go dey under we. [You people may install the chief, but the chief will still owe allegiance to us.] – **Permission**(c) They no go *gree* make i turn MP for us. [They would not want/allow him to become our M.P. – **Permission**

Expressing Necessity, Duty, or Obligation: Deontic Modality

Deontic modality pertains to necessity, duty, or obligation, or expressions conveying this. In GhPE, deontic modality is encoded by *for (f2)*. Very Sporadically, *for* is replaced by *mas(must)*, which happens mostly when speakers are shifting towards the acrolect or code-switching to English (Huber, 1999). Example:

The police for get power. [The police should have power.]

i *for* run [you have to run! or 'run!']

Expressing Intention and Physical Obligation

Huber (1999) says that, want(wan) expresses intention to perform the activity described by the verb as in (a) below, or imminence of the described action as in (b) ; it can also express physical obligation as in (c) below.

- (a) I wan carry some small boy. [I wanted to carry a small boy.] Intention.
- (b) If your wives wan give birth or your father wan die ...ambulance. [If your wife is about to give birth or your father is about to die] *Imminence*.
- (c) I wan go pis. [I have to go and urinate.] *Physical obligation*.

2.13.4 Aspect

Aspect is the expression of the temporal structure of an action or state. Aspect in English expresses ongoing actions or states with or without distinct end points. English has four aspects: simple, progressive, perfect, and perfect-progressive. Although not always identified, the simple aspect is the default aspect of the simple present and simple past tenses. In other words, simple aspect is the same as simple present and simple past tenses. For example, the sentence "*They eat/ate rice*" can be termed as simple present/past tense/aspect. The simple aspect expresses single actions, habits, and routines.

The progressive aspect expresses incomplete or ongoing actions or states at a specific time. For example, the use of the progressive aspect in *I am floating the book* indicates that I started floating the book in the past, and I am still floating the book in the present and presumably the future. The formula for forming the present progressive is: simple present "to be" + present participle. The formula for forming the past progressive is:

The perfect aspect expresses the consequences resulting from a previous action or state. For example, the use of the perfect aspect in *I have floated the book* focuses on the end result of my floating the book (my having floated the book) as opposed to the process of floating the book. The formula for forming the present perfect is [simple present "to have" + past participle]. The formula for forming the past perfect is [simple past "to have" + past participle].

The perfect-progressive aspect expresses incomplete or ongoing actions or states that an event began in the past and continues to a specific time. For example, the use of the perfect-progressive aspect in *I had been floating the book* indicates that I started floating the book in the past and continued to float the book until a specific point in time at which I stopped floating the book. The formula for forming the present perfect-progressive is [simple present "to have" + past participle "to be" + present participle]. The formula for forming the past perfect-progressive is [simple past "to have" + past participle "to be" + present participle]. **Present participles, or -ing forms**, are formed by adding the suffix *-ing* to the base form of a verb. For example, the present participle of *eat* and *read* are *eating* and *reading*. Past participles, or *-en* forms, are formed (a) the same way as the *-ed* past tense, (b) by adding the suffix *-en* to the base form, or (c) with a stem change. For example, the past participles of *study*, *take*, and *begin* are *studied*, *taken*, and *begun*.

Some Previous Studies on Student Pidgin (SP)

Sociolinguistic Studies on SP/GPE: Impacts and People's Perception

There have been many research works on the sociolinguistic aspect of SP. Research works in this area have often centred much on the functions of Student Pidgin in Ghanaian society and effects or impacts on students' performance in the study of the English language . Omari (2010) and Forson (1996) for instance, in their studies revealed that there is actually no negative effect of SP on the performance of students in the English language. Omari (2010), after researching on the impact of SP on students in some selected senior high schools in the Kwahu area, did not clearly establish a link between performance in examinations and the speaking of non-standard English or Pidgin English. Thus, the search for such correlation show that though people believe Pidgin negatively affects the use of Standard English, the WASSCE results of the students selected for the study did not show such correlation. Forson (1996) after his study "An Investigation into the Argot (Pidgin) as a means of communication among students in Ghanaian secondary schools in some selected schools in the central region in

Ghana" also proves among others that students who are very good at Pidgin English or SP even do very well in Standard English.

However, Egblewogbe (1992) in his study writes that very soon, the effect of SP pidgin will drive the nation towards illiteracy. Huber (1999:158) quotes Egblewogbe (1992) that:

The indiscriminate use of pidgin is leading the nation towards illiteracy (p.1)

It is indisputable that consistent use of Pidgin English by students, even students of English in the universities, greatly hampers their ability to use good, standard English. This is because they give greater attention to pidgin English than they do to standard English [...], and this rather retards their ability in English and other related subjects (p.4).

Egblewogbe (1992) opines that GPE contributes to the low level of competence of Ghanaians in English language and calls for the abolition of SP. Rupp (2013) in her study on SP quotes a speech delivered by the then Vice Chancellor of the University of Ghana, on 28th October, 2002 in which he

expressed concern about the standard of English among university students and advised them to desist from speaking pidgin English which he said would not help them...Prof. Asenso said that there was evidence of deterioration in English language among students in their examination...

Nevertheless, a study conducted by Hyde (1992) in GPE in relation with the use of English in Ghanaian secondary schools proves among others, that Pidgin occupies a lower status as students' language. She saw GPE and English language as existing in a form of diglossia with a different set of functions attached to each in the students' community.

Sekyi-Baidoo (2002), in his study on sentence types of Ghanaian Pidgin English, using University of Cape Coast as a case study, also considers the following sociolinguistic aspect of SP: Origin of Ghanaian Pidgin English, Domains of Use, Varieties of Ghanaian Pidgin English, Attitudes to Pidgin, and the Future of Ghanaian Pidgin English. He states that pidgin is growing well but its future seems to be impaired due to lack of standard orthography among others. Sekyi-Baidoo (2002:2) opines that pidgin is not a spurious language as some people think but rather a language with its own codes just like the so called natural languages.

Pidgin and creole, like all languages, are related to other languages. Unlike these other languages, however, they are not regarded as " natural languages", and attempts to describe them as languages in their own right and identity have often been met with some kind of opposition.

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Studies on the Functions of SP/GPE

Language plays numerous roles in our society. Student Pidgin also plays some significant functions in the society, especially in the life of those who use it. Many scholars have researched the functions and the roles of Student Pidgin or pidgin languages in Ghana. Students often use Student Pidgin mostly for solidarity (Rupp, 2013; Dako, 2002; Huber, 1999; Boadi, 1971).

A study on "The function of Student Pidgin in Ghana." by Rupp (2013) gives us some functions of SP or the reasons why students use SP while the standard English is at their disposal. Among the findings of the study by Rupp (2013) are: (a) To speak with illiterates, (b) used as lingua franca, (c) easier than the Standard English, and (d) as an expressive variety.

Moreover, according to Huber (1999:149-150), 1

The rise of Pidgin English in secondary schools resorts to sociological factors rather than to the need for an effective means of communication. The function of Pidgin in schools and universities is not so much that of a lingua franca (as with the 'uneducated variety' but that of a social register.

He continues to say that pidgin in the universities carries the same functions of peergroup binder and register of intimacy as in the schools and can therefore be regarded as an extension of the secondary school variety.(Huber, 1999:150). A study by Forson (1996) in six secondary schools in the Central Region also concludes that Student Pidgin is used to function as a peer group- binder. Dako (2002) in her introduction to an article entitled *Student Pidgin (SP): The Language* of the Educated Male Elite" opines that SP is a language which apparently does not exist, and which is normally used exclusively by students for their out-of –classroom communicative needs.

Studies on the Linguistic or Grammatical Aspect of SP/GPE.

A study on Pidgin entitled, "Ghanaian Pidgin English in its West African context: A Sociohistorical and Structural Analysis" was carried out by Huber (1999). There were some attempts of structural analysis of GhPE. He wrote about tense, aspect and mood in GPE. Huber (1999) also wrote about the following types of aspect in Ghanaian Pidgin English: Nonpunctual (imperfective) aspect, which is marked by preverbal *de* as in somebody *de* comes. [Somebody is coming]; *the fight de go on*![the fight is going on]; Ingressive aspect achieved by several strategies like: using ingressive verbs like 'begin' or 'start' followed by a nonpunctual marker 'de'. Example, *They begin de fight-fight them.*[They began fighting them]; by using kam (com) in verb serialization. Example, *This one go kam mek emti.*[This one will start to get empty!]; Completive Aspect achieved by using the word 'finish' which follows the verb marked for 'completiveness'. Example, *Like i rain finish before u kam, u no go fit kam here self.* [If it had rained before you came, you would not have been able to come here.]

Phonologically, Huber (1999:166) in his study "Ghanaian Pidgin English in its West African context: A Sociohistorical and Structural Analysis" wrote about consonants, vowels, syllable structure, common phonological processes, syllable simplification etc.

According to him, GhPE has seven or nine monothong vowels and six diphthongs, and twenty-one consonants. Contrary to the notion that Pidgin lacks complex syllables, GhaPE, according to Huber (1999), allows quite complex syllables, as in 'i bi *strange*' (cccvcc) "The phonological inventory of GhaPE varies according to the speakers' first languages". According to him,

As GhaPE is still far from creolization, there is no mother tongue speaker's phoneme inventory that can serve as a model for the segmental description. However, it is possible to establish an approximate common denominator inventory of phonemes and their combinational constraints, which contains the segment and phonotactic rules that most speakers of GhaPE use, irrespective of their first language (pp.166-1667).

Dako (2002) says that lexically, SP does not use some distinctive pidgin vocabulary, like Pikin (instead kiddi), sabe (instead know) and thief (instead steal). Also code switching is common in SP. She conclude that SP is today a stabilized pidgin.

Sekyi-Baidoo (2002) has shown that SP has a complex sentence structure. He writes that GPE, like all pidgins, is not a spurious, makeshift code, but rather a code with identifiable rules and patterns of structure. He refers, basically, to subordination, coordination, the passive voice, negation, reflexivisation, cleft sentences, and pseudo-cleft sentence; He refers to *interrogative sentence* and discusses the following: Yes/No Interrogative, WH-Interrogarive, Rhetorical Questions, Tag Questions, Diminutive, Interrogatives, Cleft

Interrogatives, and Reflexive Interrogatives; *imperative sentence*, and *exclamative sentence*.

It can be observed, however, that there is virtually no research work on the morphology of SP and GPE in general. Sekyi-Baidoo (2002:159) concludes that:

One has to recognize also that in spite of its syntactic and lexical independence, the totality of GPE cannot be seen if the other facets of the language like its morphology and phonology are not researched into.

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Therefore, a study into the morphology or morphological analysis of SP has been carried out. The only study I came across on morphology is Mensah (2011). His study provides in-depth information on the morphology of NP. Data for his study were obtained through recordings of naturally occurring casual speech of speakers of NP in Calabar Municipality and Ikom in Nigeria. The paper notes that English constitutes the superstrate source of borrowing for NP. He discovers also that the meaning of lexical items in NP may be ganged through its creativity or expressiveness and may be independent of the original meaning in the source language. He discusses the following word formation strategies in NP: borrowing, reduplication, affixation, compounding, clipping, acronyms, metaphor, ideophones, euphemism, and metonymy. His discussions on ideophones, euphemism, and metonymy as word formation processes is however controversial.

It is obvious from the reviewed studies above on Student Pidgin or pidgin in general by scholars that research works into SP or Pidgin have often concentrated on its sociolinguistic aspect: its supposed effect/impact on the so-called standard English language, its origin, growth, and development, its social functions with just a few on its grammatical structure. More work on the grammar of PE or SP that would help people to appreciate it as a unique language code with its own distinct features too will be needed. The next chapter will discuss the methodology for the study.



CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

The chapter looks at the methodology that was used for the study. It explains how the study was carried out or conducted and how data were obtained and analyzed. It covers the following areas or sub-headings: research design, research approach/method, population, sample and sampling procedure, research instrument, data collection procedure, and data analysis.

3.1 Research Design

The qualitative research design was used for the study. This is because the study was an inquiry process that was done in the natural setting of participants. The design was selected because it was the best design to enable me to achieve the purpose or objectives of the study. In the study, recordings of sentences in SP were done in the natural setting of students; some were done in the classroom corridors, cafeteria, school field, dormitories etc. Words were used to describe and analyze the data. In using this design, the morphology/structure of SP, tenses, aspects, and moods in SP were described and analyzed using words. In quantitative research design, researchers collect data in the form of numbers while in the qualitative research design researchers collect data in a form of words in a socio-cultural context of participants. Creswell (1998:15) as quoted by Kusi (2012:1) sees qualitative research design as: "An inquiry process of understanding based on distinct methodological traditions of inquiry that explores a social or human problem."

3.2 Research Approach/Method

The case study approach/method was used for the study. A case study is a form of qualitative research design. It can be defined as an empirical inquiry which involves an in-depth exploration of a phenomenon in its real-life context through an extensive data collection (Creswell, 2008). According to Merriam (1988:10), "A case study has in fact been differentiated from other research designs by what Cronbach (1975:123) calls 'interpretation in context." The case study approach was chosen because of the nature of the study. It was considered as an appropriate research approach for the study because of its ability or suitability to help achieve the objectives of the study. Also, the approach would help use multiple instruments to gather enough data from the participants in their natural settings for the achievement of the purpose/objectives of the study. According to Merriam (1988: 10),

Unlike experimental, survey, or historical research, case study does not claim any particular methods for data collection or data analysis. Any and all method of gathering data from testing to interviewing can be used in a case study, though certain techniques are used more than others.

Wilson (1979:448) conceptualizes the case study as a process "which tries to describe and analyze some entity in qualitative, complex and comprehensive terms not infrequently as it unfolds over a period of time." Becker (1968:233) defines the purpose of a case study as twofold: "to arrive at a comprehensive understanding of the group under study" and "to develop general theoretical statements about regularities in social structure and process" (as cited by Merriam, 1988: 11).

3.3 Population and Sample Size

Students of Valley View University at Oyibi, Accra, constituted the population for the study. The population was made up of both males and females ranging between the ages of 17 years and 30 years. In all, Twenty (20) participants were purposively selected as sample size from Valley View University. I purposively picked Twenty (20) respondents from the population because Twenty (20) participants would be manageable, and it would help to have enough data for the study. Valley View University was chosen because it is the premier chartered private university in Ghana and has or admits students from all parts of the country and even outside the country. Besides, Student Pidgin English is predominantly spoken by the students in the university.

3.4 Research Site - Valley View University: Short History

Valley View University was established in 1979 by the West African Union Mission of Seventh-day Adventists (now Ghana Union Conference). Now, it is the premier chartered private university in Ghana. It obtained the presidential charter in 2006. In 1997 it was absorbed into the Adventist University system operated by the Africa-Indian Ocean Division (WAD) of Seventh-day Adventist with headquarters in Abidjan, Cote d'Ivoire. The Ghana Union Conference of Seventh-day Adventists serves as the local manager of the University.

The University was initially called the Adventist Missionary College and was located at Bekwai-Ashanti. It was transferred to Adentan near Accra in 1983 where it operated in rented facilities until it was relocated to its present site at Oyibi (Mile 19 on the AccraDodowa Road) in 1989 and was renamed Valley View College. The Adventist Accrediting Association (AAA) has, since 1983, been evaluating and reviewing the accreditation status of the institution.

In 1995, the university was affiliated to Griggs University in Silver Springs, Maryland, USA. This allowed the university to offer four year bachelor's degrees in Theology and Religious Studies. The National Accreditation Board (Ghana) granted it national accreditation in 1997 thus allowing the university to award her own degrees. Valley View University became the first private institution in Ghana to be chartered. It admits qualified students regardless of their religious background, provided such students accept the Christian principles and lifestyle which form the basis for the university's operations.

Valley View University, a Seventh – day Adventist institution, emphasizes academic, spiritual, vocational and technological excellence in a context that prepares lives for service to God and humanity.

The vision of Valley View University is to be a leading Centre of Excellence in Christian Education. Valley View University (VVU) seeks to pass on a passion for excellence, integrity, and service. These constitute the core values of Valley View University:

- Excellence- The commitment to attain higher standards and expectations.
- Integrity A life that matches convictions with actions. Integrity encompasses honesty, authenticity, and trust worthiness.
- Service The willingness to serve God and humanity in a selfless manner.

Valley View University was granted a Presidential charter by his Excellency J. A. Kufuor, former president of the republic of Ghana in January 2006. This makes Valley View University the first Chartered Private University in Ghana.

The language situation in Valley View University (VVU) is complex. The university has students from all corners of the world; therefore, many languages are spoken there including Ghanaian languages, English, Spanish, and French. Pidgin is widely or predominantly spoken by the students, especially when they are outside the classrooms. This makes Valley View University a research site. Another reason why I chose this site is that research into SP in Ghana has often been done in public or government institutions. So, I wanted to do mine in a private institution. Because VVU is the only chartered private university and the largest in Ghana as at the time the research was going on, it became necessary for me to select that site for the study. Besides, I chose the site also because I work there as a Senior Research Assistant. The problem of travelling (time constraint and finance matters with regard to transportation) to a far site to collect data was therefore minimized.

3.5 Sample Techniques

I used the purposive sampling technique in selecting samples for the study. The purposive sampling technique was selected because I wanted participants who use or had used Student Pidgin English before to give me the necessary information on the topic. Thus, I purposively selected participants who enjoy using Student Pidgin from the selected university in Ghana.

In purposive sampling, researchers intentionally select individuals and sites to learn or understand the central phenomenon. The standard used in choosing participants and sites is whether they are 'information rich' (Creswell, 2008:214).

3.6 Data Collection Instruments

In this study, I mainly used recordings of speeches, semi-structured interviews, and nonparticipatory observation as the main data collection instruments. I used these multiple instruments to collect the data because I saw that using multiple instruments would facilitate triangulation, which is a means of validating research findings (Kusi, 2012:4). I saw that the use of multiple instruments would help to gather enough information or data for the study. Recordings and transcribing the data for the analyses were not easy at all due to some interference, but I managed to transcribe all.

3.7 Data Collection Procedure

First of all, I wrote to the authorities of the university to seek permission to conduct such a research in their institution. In the letter, I gave reasons why I chose their university for the study, and why they should allow their school to be used for the study. When permission was granted, I purposively look for participants who had used Student Pidgin before and still enjoy using it. Their Pidgin speeches were recorded and transcribed for analysis. Semi- structured interview and observation were also used to gather data.

3.7.1 Semi-structured Interview

I also used the semi-structured interview in gathering data for the study. Here, after purposively selecting one student who is very good at Student Pidgin, we arranged a day for the interview. When the day came, we met and did the interview. Before the interview, it was agreed that no tape recording would be done. However, he agreed that I could only use pen to put down the sentences provided. When he was asked to give his reason for the decision, and he told me it's personal. So, the interview took over two hours. The questions – which were 23 in number – were mainly on some specific sentence types. The interviewe was asked to provide Pidgin Sentences on some specific sentences in English.

According to Patton (2002) as stated in Owu-Ewie (2012), the semi-structured interview is the type of interview where the researcher specifies issues and topics to be covered in an outline form and the interviewer decides the sequence and wording in the course of the interview. With the semi-structured interview the interviewer has the opportunity to use probe to seek clarification of responses. According to Wrag (2002), semi-structured interview allows the interviewer to ask initial questions, followed by probes meant to seek clarification of issues raised. Some recordings were made during the interviews. Before that, I had already informed the respondents of the day and the time I would interview them. During the interview, their speeches or sentences were recorded on paper.

3.7.2 Observation

Some data were also collected through observation. According to Owu-Ewie (2012), observation involves getting to the field, participants, organization etc. to collect data based on their behavior. It is often referred to as field work because it takes place in the field (Owu-Ewie, 2012). Bell (2008), as stated in Kusi (2012), believes that observation is useful in determining what people actually do or how they actually behave in their context. Observation can be categorized into two types: Systematic/structured observation and participant/unstructured observation (Denscombe, 2008).

3.7.3 Non-Participatory (Passive Observation)

Non-participatory observation was used to gather a significant amount of data for the study. In this kind of observation, the researcher detached himself from speakers, listened to them, and sometimes recorded their speeches or took down notes. I was always ready to put down any SP sentences I heard as I walked round the campus. A lot of note taking took place.

3.7.4 Recording

Specimens of SP were recorded and transcribed for the study. In all 40 minutes of recordings of Student Pidgin were made. The recordings were done in seven divisions as represented in the appendices A to G. Again, during observation, note takings were done to gather enough data for the study. The recordings were made at Students' Halls specifically, J. J. Nortey Hall, M. A. Bediako Hall, E.G. White Hall, NAGSDA Hall;

others were made along Classroom's corridors, at the school's cafeteria, and at the basketball court while participants were playing basket ball.

3.8 Data Analysis

The data which were collected through recordings of speeches, semi-structured interview, and observations were analyzed qualitatively, using analytic and descriptive approach. Here, words were used to analyze and to describe the data based on the morphological theories. Relationships between responses were critically looked at. In other words recordings were transcribed and critically analyzed and presented descriptively. Again, notes were taken during observation, and they were analyzed and discussed descriptively. In other words, analytical description tools were used in analyzing and discussing the data collected on Student Pidgin. The thematic approach was used during the analysis. Here the analysis was done based on themes or the research questions.

To ensure validity, triangulation was used to gather the data. Triangulation involves using more than one instrument to gather the data on the study. Here, to achieve triangulation, I used the three main instruments to gather the data: recordings, semi-structured interview and non-participant observation.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter is on data analysis and presentation; it uses the descriptive analytical approach to analyze the data collected in the form of words through semi-structured interviews, observations, and recordings and transcriptions of voices/speeches of the participants. For easy comprehension of the data analysis and presentation, the chapter is divided into sections or themes based on the research questions in Chapter One.

4.1 The Morphological Processes in Student Pidgin (SP)

The processes for creating new words into a language are what linguists refer to as Word formation processes or morphological processes. The following are the morphological processes identified in Student Pidgin in Ghana after a careful and a critical study and analyses of the data collected: Borrowing, Conversion, Clipping, Compounding, Reduplication, Acronym, Blending, and Affixation. It must be noted that the examples of the vocabularies in local languages and other borrowed words are spelt or transcribed as they are pronounced in SP.

4.1.1 Borrowing in Student Pidgin

Borrowing, as a morphological process, is the process of bringing in an already existing vocabulary item from one language to another language. In other words, it is a

morphological process whereby a vocabulary item is borrowed from a specific language into another language. Sometimes, the borrowed words undergo some changes in phonology and morphology. Allan (1986) confirms this when he says that the forms of the borrowed words usually adapt to the phonology of the borrowing language.

Indeed, the data collected also confirmed a process of borrowing in Student Pidgin. Most borrowed words into Student Pidgin are made to sound pidgin through some phonological changes. The tables 1 shows some of these phonological changes occurred in some borrowed words in Student Pidgin. English Language still constitutes the superstrate source of borrowing for the Student Pidgin.

Borrowed word	Source of word	Std. Pronunciation	SP Pronunciation
Different	English	/dɪfrənt/	/difrən/
Come	English	/kʌm/	/kʌm/ or /kɔm/
Куз	Akan (Twi)	/tʃ3/	/tʃ3: /
Рорру	English	/popi/ or /popi/	/pɔpi:/
Go	English	/gəʊ/	/goo/

 Table 1 Borrowed words, source of words, standard pronunciation from the language source, and Student

 Pidgin pronunciation

Table 1 above shows some of the borrowed words, source of words, standard pronunciation of the language source, and Student Pidgin pronunciation in the data collected.

It must be mentioned here, however, that though most of the pidgin borrowed words have different pronunciations from their source language, some of the borrowed words still

maintain their original pronunciations in Student Pidgin. Examples include: you/ju:/, chop/tfpp/, calm/ka:m/, for/fp:/, disease/dizi:z/ , dry/drai/ etc.

Hatch and Brown (1995) say that all languages borrow words from other languages into their lexemes. As already mentioned, the data collected actually proved that the standard English language still constitutes the major source of borrowing for Student Pidgin in Ghana while languages, like Akan, Ga, and Ewe and some international languages like Portuguese, Yoruba, Hausa constitute the substrate. Examples of such borrowed words in Student Pidgin are presented in Table 2 below:

	A REAL PROPERTY OF A READ PROPERTY OF A REAL PROPER	
Borrowed Word	Language Source	Meaning
Куєє	Akan	Kept long
Tease	Akan	Understand
Noaa	Akan	As soon as
Рε	Akan	Only
Pikin	Portuguese	Child
Palava	Portuguese	Problem
Oga	Yoruba	Master
Ashawo	Yoruba	Prostitute
Abokyi	Hausa	Friend
Oyaa	Ga	Going
No	Akan (Twi)	That or it
Deε	Akan	That/for
Waa	Ga	Plenty
Hia	Akan	Need

Table 2: borrowed word, source of language, and meanings

Da	Akan	Never
Βεlε	English	Pregnant
Taya	English	Tired

Below are some Student Pidgin expressions from the data collected with some of the borrowed words:

I go *ky* $\varepsilon\varepsilon$ (I will keep long)

Me I de *teasee* what he de talk (For me I understand what he is saying)

Something I no like $de\varepsilon$, I no go do da. (Something that I don't like, I will never do it!)

i be money *palava* (It is a financial problem.)

i de bore me waa (It bores me very much).

I de come noaa, I de come write the Gender. (As soon as I come, I will come and write the Gender)

Morrow *dee*, I no come! (As for tomorrow, I will not come)

i be C pз (it is only C)

Abi you know Ghana $de\varepsilon$ you de come TV top you de flex (But you know in Ghana, when one appears on TV, he or she flexes.)

Charley, *ashawo*, where you de go? (Prostitute, where are you going?)

e be *ashawo*(she is a prostitute)

Abokyi, why you de talk waa waa? (Friend, why are you talking too much?) Again, the study showed that most of the borrowed words into Student Pidgin do not maintain their form or morphological structure or tense as they would do in their original

languages. Some change their forms, tenses, as well as their intonation or phonology. For instance, in the Student Pidgin expression:

"I go **kyεε**" (I will keep long)

The borrowed Akan word "**kyεε**" is used to express the future tense; however, "**kyεε**" in the Akan language is used in past tense expressions, as in Akan expression, "Me kyεε paa!"(I kept very long/ I waited for a long time!).

Again, another change can be seen in the expression,

"Micheal go taya" (Micheal will be tired).

The word "taya" is "tired" which is borrowed from the Standard English language; however, this word has a different form or pronunciation altogether in Student Pidgin. It can be concluded that some borrowed words in Student Pidgin are given different tenses or different forms or different intonation!

There are some phonological and semantic changes in some borrowed words in Student Pidgin.

(1) **Bεlε** as in "She get b**εlε**"(she is pregnant)

The Student Pidgin word "**b**ɛlɛ"/bɛlɛ/ is borrowed from the Standard English. That is, its source is the English word *belly* /beli/ which is a noun meaning, "the part of the body below the chest" (*Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, 2010: 123). Apart from the form which is changed, one can also see a phonological change as well as semantic change occurring. The word *belly* is pronounced /beli/ while it is pronounced /bɛlɛ/ in

Student Pidgin. Semantically too, there are differences. In Student Pidgin 'bɛlɛ' means pregnant and not "the front part of your body below your chest" as in Standard English.

(2) Taya as in "Michael go taya" (Michael will get tired)

Here, the Student Pidgin word *taya*, which is pronounced /tʌjʌ/ in Student Pidgin, has its source from the Standard English. The original English word from which the word was formed from is 'tired' which is pronounced /taɪəd/ in the Standard English. Semantically, both have the same meaning, "weary" or "feeling that you would like to sleep or rest; needing rest" (*Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, 2010); however, one could see some phonological changes between the two. Also, while it is monosyllabic in the Standard English with a triphthong /aɪə/ occupying the nucleus position, it is disyllabic in Student Pidgin with a monothongs or short vowel/ Λ / occupying each nucleus.

(3) Teasee as in "Me I de teasee what he de talk" (As for me, I understand what he is saying.)

The word "tease ϵ " is a borrowed Akan word in Student Pidgin. The word means 'understand' in the English language. Semantically and phonologically, there are no significant changes. The form, as well as its intonation is the same without any significant change.

(4) **Kyεε** as in "You go kyεε?"(You will keep long?)

Here, too, the word $ky\varepsilon\varepsilon$ is a borrowed word from the Akan language. It is used in Akan as the past tense of the word, $ky\varepsilon$. For example, in the Akan expression, 'wo be $ky\varepsilon$?'(Will you keep long?), $ky\varepsilon$ is in present while in "Wo $ky\varepsilon\varepsilon$?" (Did you keep long?),

kyee is in past tense. Nevertheless, in Student Pidgin, the word *kyee* is not used in past tense but rather in the present tense. Thus, though the word *kyee* is borrowed from the Akan, its use and the tense form are not the same as its use and tense form in the Akan language from which it is borrowed.

I go *kyεε!* (I will keep long),

Here, " $ky\varepsilon\varepsilon$ " is not the past tense of $ky\varepsilon$ but used in the present tense! Thus, the past tense form can be borrowed into Student Pidgin to mean present tense because Student Pidgin does not have inflections to mark tense. In Student Pidgin, the present tense, the past tense, the past participles have the same form or tense and are at times difficult to distinguish in Student Pidgin unless through context (Sekyi-Baidoo, 2002).

Besides English and Ghanaian languages, there are other foreign languages that Student Pidgin also borrows vocabulary from. Some are shown below:

Oga (Yuroba): master Ashawo (Yuroba): prostitute Abokyi (Hausa): friend Pikin (Portuguese): child

These words, however, may undergo some orthographical or phonological changes to make them pidgin. It can be concluded here that Student Pidgin adopts the process of borrowing in creating new words; however, some of these borrowed words do change in form - phonologically, semantically, and orthographically.

4.1.2 Conversion in Student Pidgin

Conversion is one of the word formation processes in languages in general. As defined by Quirk et al (1973:441), it is the "derivational process whereby an item changes its wordclass without the addition of an affix". Under conversion, users of a language create new words by just changing the part of speech of a word or the word -class of a specific word to a different word-class without adding a prefix or a suffix to it. The data collected also established this process as one of the morphological processes in Student Pidgin. Let us look at some of these words in SP in the data gathered:

EDUCANO

(a) Funny, as in (1) "e bi the facial expression de funny me." (It is his facial expression that amuses me). (2) "u be funny oo" (you are really funny)

The word "funny" has its source from the Standard English language. It is used in Standard English as an adjective, as in "He is funny". However, in Student Pidgin sentence (1) above, the word "funny" is converted and used as a verb. It can also be used as an adjective in SP as in sentence (2) above. Phonologically too, the word "funny" is pronounced differently in Student Pidgin; it is often pronounced /fɔni/ instead of/fʌni/ in Standard English. Other examples of words obtained through conversion are:

(b) Whatsapp as in "Take am whatsapp me" (take it and send it to me through whatsapp).

The word *whatsapp* in Student Pidgin is a borrowed word from the English language. The word "whatsapp" is really a new word in the English language that came about through the process of coinage or invention. It is a name of a software application for communication. This is a noun. However, this word, "whatsapp", besides its usage as a noun in SP, is also used as a verb through conversion to mean: to send something through whatsapp software, as shown in the expression above. Phonologically, it is often pronounced as /wpsp/ as opposed to /wpsAp/ or /wpsæp/ in the Standard English.

- (c) Chock as in
 - (I) "Charley chock!"

(II) "U...chock, chock...last year we take FA, take...league, take community shield, take premiership..."

(II) U for use wedge chock the door" [SE: You should use a wedge to stop the door from moving]

The word "chock" is a borrowed word into Student Pidgin from the Standard English. This word is used in Standard English as a noun meaning a shaped piece of wood or metal placed under something such as door, boat, car, barrel, or wheel to prevent it from moving. However, besides its original meaning as a noun in Student Pidgin, the word "chock" is used as a verb to mean to stop or to stop moving or wait. Hence, *charley*, *chock* means *charley*, *stop moving*! Or *don't move*! *Wait*!

Phonologically, users of Student Pidgin pronounce the word chock as /tfɔ: k/ instead of /tfɒk/ in the Standard English. The short vowel, /p/, is made long/ɔ:/ in Student Pidgin. This phonological change is perhaps due to the influence of the Akan local language which usually replaces the /p/ sound with /ɔ/ or /ɔ: / sound.

(d)Wedge

Another converted word in Student Pidgin is the word Wedge as in

(1) "Charley, I don' know where e de wedge!"(I don't know where he is hiding)"

(2) "Charley, wedge!" (Charley, stop!)

(3) U for wedge here small! (You should wait here for a while!)

(4) U for use wedge chock the door!" [You should use wedge to stop the door from moving],

The word *wedge* in Student Pidgin has its source from Standard English language. It is indeed a borrowed word from the English language into SP. It is used as a noun and as a verb in Standard English. As a noun, *wedge* is "a piece of wood, rubber, metal, etc. with one thick end and one thin pointed end that you use to keep a door open, to keep two things apart, or to split wood or rock" and as a verb, it means, "to make something stay in a particular position, especially open or shut, by placing something against it" (*Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, 2010*).

Through the process of conversion, besides its use as a noun, in "U for use wedge chock the door" [SE: You should use a wedge to stop the door from moving], *wedge* is also used in Student Pidgin as a verb to mean "hide", "stop" and " wait" as in sentences (1), (2), and (3) respectively. Semantically, the connection between them is that movement (especially from one place to another) is restricted when *wedge* is used!

Phonologically, there is a difference in pronunciation. In Student Pidgin, *wedge* is pronounced /w3:dʒ/ instead of /wedʒ/ in the Standard English. This phonological difference again is due to the influence of the local language on the Standard English.

The sound /e/ is often pronounced /3/ or /3: / especially in Akan which is the most widely spoken local language in Ghana.

- (e) Ride as in,
- (1) "e bi your new *ride*?" [Is it your new car?]
- (2) Me, I go *ride* am! [Me, I will have sex with her]
- (3) Charley, she de ride some car bi! [Charley, she is driving a certain car.]

The word *ride* is a borrowed word from the Standard English. In the Standard English it is either used as verb (to mean, to sit on a horse, bicycle/motorcycle or sit in a vehicle usually for pleasure) or as a noun (to mean a short journey in a vehicle, on a bicycle, or on a horse). In Student Pidgin too the word *ride* can be used as a verb or as a noun through conversion. In the sentences above, "*ride*" is used as a noun in (1), and it is used as a verb in (2) and (3). However, semantically, there are differences in meanings when used as a verb. For instance, in sentence (2) though it is a verb, it is used to mean to have fun with a lady through sexual intercourse, but in sentence (3), it is used to mean: to drive a car for pleasure. This is a typical example of how conversion can be employed in Student Pidgin.

(f) Paddy

The last vocabulary item to be discussed is the word "paddy" as in

- (1) e say e de wan paddy me! [She says she wants to befriend me!]
- (2) Why I go paddy am? [why I will befriend her]
- (3) e bi my paddy! [He is my friend!]
- (4) My paddy, stop what u de do! [My friend, stop what you are doing]

The source of this word *paddy* in Student Pidgin is English. Though it is a borrowed word from English, it is also made to go through the process of conversion in Student Pidgin. In the Standard English language, "paddy" is used as a noun to mean: 1. Rice, before it is milled. 2. An irrigated or flooded field where rice is grown. In Student Pidgin, paddy can be used as a noun and it can also be used as a verb through the process of conversion. As a noun, it is used to mean "friend" as in sentences (3) and (4) above. Here, we can see semantic change when used as a noun in English and in SP. It has nothing to do with *rice* as far as meaning is concerned in SP when it is used as a noun. Through the process of conversion, the same word is used as a verb to mean to take someone as a friend (girl/boy friend) or to befriend someone, as in the pidgin expressions (1) and (2) above. Phonologically, it is often pronounced /pʌdi/ instead of /pædi/ in the Standard English language.

The above analyses or discussions are on only a few of the words that are in Student Pidgin created through the process of conversion. There are a lot more vocabularies that are used in Student Pidgin which were got through conversion. It can therefore be deduced and concluded from the above analyses and discussions that conversion is one of the morphological processes or strategies employed by users of Student Pidgin in creating new words into Student Pidgin.

4.1.3 Clipping in Student Pidgin

Clipping is a process by which a word is shortened through a subtraction of one or more syllables from a word/base. In other words, it is a process of subtracting one or more

syllables from a word (Quirk et. al, 1973). Student Pidgin, as a unique language on its own, also uses this word formation process in creating new words into its lexes or vocabulary

The data collected revealed the use of clipping by users of Student Pidgin in creating or forming new words just the way clipping is used in the Standard English language and other languages. While some of the clipped words are common in the superstrate source, others are unique and found only in the Student Pidgin. Below, Table 3, are some of the examples of clipped words from of the data gathered:

Clipping/ clipped words	Word/ or <mark>i</mark> ginal words
Morrow	Tomorrow
Caf	Cafeteria
Bro	Brother
Sis	Sister
Prof	Professor
Info	Information
Vocabs	Vocabularies
Secre	secretary
Ball	Football
Bros	Brothers
dorm	Dormitory
Fabu	fabulous
Phone	Telephone
Gh	Ghana

Table 3: Examples of Clipped Words in Student Pidgin

We can see from table 3 above that most of the clipped words in SP are from words borrowed from the Standard English language. Again, while some of the clipped words are used in Standard English, there are others that are peculiar to only Student Pidgin. They include: bros, fabu, secre, sis, caf, and morrow. Semantically, however, they mean the same as the Standard English words they are clipped from.

Forms of Clippings in Student Pidgin

It is important to discuss the various form of clipping exhibited in Student Pidgin. As stated by Quirk et. al (1973) clipping involves the subtraction of one or more syllables from a word and may occur at the beginning (*Foreclipping*), at the end of the word (*Backclipping*), or at the beginning and at the end of a word (*Fore-back clipping*). The data collected showed that Student Pidgin also has these three forms of clipping in it. The sentences below show examples of the three forms clipping (clipped words) in Student Pidgin:

- (a) Make i go caf (I must go to cafeteria /Let me go to cafeteria.)
- (b) You go write exam. (You will write examination)
- (c) Asha, where your **phone** dey? (Asha, where is your phone?)
- (d) I no get paper **morrow**. (I don't have a paper tomorrow)
- (e) You no get **fridge** in your dorm? (You don't have refrigerator in your dormitory)

In sentence (a) and (b), the words, **caf** and **exam**, are examples of *Backclipping*, where the tail-end(s) of the original words (i.e. caf**eteria** and exam**ination**) have been cut off. In sentence (c) and (d), the words, **phone** and **morrow**, are examples of *Foreclipping*,

where the first part(s)/syllable(s) of the original words (i.e. **tele**phone and **to**morrow) have been cut off or clipped off. Then in sentence (e), the word, **fridge**, is an example of Fore-back clipping, where syllables are removed from both the beginning and the end (Wiredu, 1999; Allan, 2010).

Based on the data analyses and presentation above, one can conclude that Student Pidgin also employs the morphological process, clipping, in creating new words. Most of the clipped words in Student Pidgin are used in the superstrate, Standard English. The differences usually occur at the phonological level (pronunciation).

4.1.4 Compounding in Student Pidgin

Another morphological process in Student Pidgin is compounding. This is a word formation strategy where two or more bases are put together as one or as a compound word. Accord to Greenbuam (1996), compounding is the combination of two or more bases. It must be mentioned here again that most of the words in SP are borrowed words from the superstrate.

The data gathered on Student Pidgin revealed the following examples of compounding in Student Pidgin:

Verb plus 'Like'

These examples of compound words in Student Pidgin combine a verb and the word 'like':

Check + like: check like (it's like/ it seems)

Feel + like: feel like (feel)

i be + like: i bi like(it's like/ it seems)

Noun plus 'top'

These examples of compound words in Student Pidgin involve a noun and the word 'top'

which usually means on... the noun it combines with!

TV + top: TV top (appearing on TV or on the top of the TV) Bed + top: Bed top (on a bed) Phone + top: phone top (on a phone or phone's screen) Lap + top: Laptop (on a lap) Laptop (computer) Dest+ top: Dest- top (on dest)

Other examples of compound words (in Italics) in Student Pidgin are shown in the sentences bellow:

He *tear book* (he knows book)! He is intelligent /clever)

e be *iron boy*(he is an iron boy): he is strong

e be God kid(he is God 's child) : he is a child of God)

Charley, you for get *chicken heart*? (Charley do you have chicken heart?): charley, are you coward?

e be a *play boy*! (He is a play boy): he is a womanizer.

Boys –boys de ε , if you know what's up,de ε , den tins you for *look sharp*(you should be *smart and gentle* if you are really a man and you know your left for your right)

De *dumsor* wahala no bi easy oo! (The dumsor problem is not easy oo.) [The frequent light out and light on problem is not easy at all].

It can be deduced from the above presentations that users of Student Pidgin also employ

compounding as one of the morphological processes in creating new vocabulary.

4.1.5 Reduplication in Student Pidgin

This is another morphological process that is used in creating new words in Student Pidgin. Users of Student Pidgin form new words by repeating or duplicating the base morphemes. As defined by Wiredu (1999), reduplication refers to the repetition of a morpheme to form a compound word. The duplication could be full (repetition of the entire word) or partial (repetition of only part of the word). The study revealed that most of the reduplicated words in Student Pidgin are of the full type of reduplication, and they are often used to function grammatically as adverbs for emphasis or as adjectives for modification. Some also function as nouns. Examples of reduplicated words in Student Pidgin in Ghana are as follows (in bold):

- (1) You be my **body body**. (You are my bosom friend)
- (2) U de talk waa waa. (You are talking too much): much/ plenty/ many
- (3) dis guy be my paddy paddy. (This guy is my best friend). This is functioning as a noun.
- (4) Make u stop that yama yama thing! (You should stop that disgusting thing) Reduplication functioning as adjective.
- (5) Chop chop no be good. (Too much eating is not good). Chop chop is functioning as a noun.
- (6) **Chop chop** politicians (greedy/ corrupt politicians). *Chop chop* functions as adjective.
- (7) I de manage small small. (I'm managing fairly): fairly, gently, normal, well. Small small is functioning as an adverb.
- (8) De girls dey there chaw chaw! (There are many girls over there): plenty/ many.

Chaw chaw is functioning as adjective.

- (9) i no be kata kata for dis; you for kuul down! (It is not the issue of by force for this, or we don't use force for this; you must calm down): force/power. Here, kata *kata* functions as a noun.
- (10) E de sleep plus big big women. (He sleeps with wealthy/great women.)Reduplication is functioning as adjective.

The data collected revealed only full duplication in Student Pidgin, and it is often used for emphasis and modification. Partial duplication is rare in Student Pidgin. Contrary to the assertion made by Allan et. al (2010:54), reduplication in Student Pidgin is rarely used to indicate plurality.

4.1.6 Acronym in Student Pidgin

Another interesting morphological process that is used for creating new words in Student Pidgin is acronym. In this process, a new word is created by using the initials of the bases or free morphemes. Here too, most of the acronyms are borrowed ones from English while a few others are from the substrates. Some of the examples of acronyms in Student Pidgin are:

G.M: Good Morning T.G.: Thank God H.O.D: Head of Department I.T.: Information Technology F.G.: For Girls WtG: We thank God. F.O.: Finance Officer H.P.: Hall President H/W: Home Work D.H.P.: Dining Hall Prefect
P.T.O: Please Turn Over
SP: Student/School Prefect.
TV: Television
HIV: Human Immuno-deficiency Virus
S.R.C.: Students' Representative Counsel

It must be mentioned here that some of these acronymic words are well known and understood by all users of Student Pidgin, while others are more or less, jargons. Thus, they are only understood by people within a specific area/school. The popular and well understood ones are those borrowed from the superstrate (Standard English). It is important to note that some of these acronyms in Student Pidgin actually stand for full sentences. For instance, TGIF means "Thank God It's Friday", and I.L.U means "I Love you!" Most of these are used when texting messages, especially on social media. It can be concluded from the data analyses and presentation above that users of Student Pidgin also use Acronym as one of the morphological processes in creating new words.

4.1.7 Blending in Student Pidgin

Similar to the process of compounding is blending. Unlike compounds which combine two or more free morphemes, in blending "it is fragments of words which actually combine" (Allan et. al, 2010: 54). In other words, blending as a morphological process joins or fuses parts of words (or syllables of different words) together to form a new word.

The data collected showed the process of blending, but it must be mentioned here that the data actually showed only a few of such words in student pidgin. The reason perhaps is that most of the blended words are difficult to understand, but student pidgin is a language that is supposed to be easily understood by its users.

Words created through blending are somehow difficult to determine the constituents and understand them. Examples are, *smog* (from smoke and fog), and *motel* (from motor and hotel). These are too technical. Therefore users of Student Pidgin prefer using the base forms instead of using the blended forms which they think are difficult to understand. Those that are used in Student Pidgin are therefore the already popular ones borrowed from Standard English. Only a few are made in Student Pidgin. Examples of words obtained through the process of blending are as follows (in bold):

Make u **comot** from there! (You should comot from there): comot (*come* + *out*) De blood i de **comot** from your hand noo. (The blood (it) is coming out from your hand); comot (*come* + *out*)

Charley, dem go **telecast** de match. Charley, they will telecast the match): telecast (television + *broadcast*).

e bi now i de take **brunch**! (It is now that i am taking my brunch): brunch (*breakfast* + *lunch*)

i go find place tap de **Bucom**.(I will find a place to study the Bucom.): Bucom (*business + communication*).

It can be concluded from the data analysis and presentation above that blending is one of the morphological processes in student pidgin in Ghana. Most of the blended words in student pidgin, however, are borrowed ones from the Standard English.

4.1.8 Affixation in Student Pidgin

This morphological process involves the addition of affixes to a base to produce a new word. The affix may or may not change the word class of the base it is attach to. Student Pidgin in Ghana employs this morphological process in creating new words. The data collected on the study revealed the process of affixation in Student Pidgin. Most of the affixes in SP are also used in the superstrate. Let us look at some of the examples (in bold) of words obtained through affixation in Student Pidgin.

i no bi tha **funny**!(*fun* + *ny*) (It is not funny.) I won do **nursing**. (Nurse + *ing*) (I want to do Nursing) You come carry the **kiddy**. (Kid + *dy*) (You have come for the kid) Make u see that **Shorty guy** (short + y) [Look at that short guy] : shorty is used as adjective means very short guy. U no see that **Blacky**? (Black + y) to mean a very dark/black person. Ah **seriously**, she lie me! (Serious + *ly*) (Seriously, she lied to me) U bi de **original owner**. (*Origin* + *al*; *own* + *er*) (You are the real owner) U feel keep your **files**. (File + *s*) (You want to keep your files) He go see his **foolishness**. (*Fool* + *ish* + *ness*) (he will see his follishness) Because **irresponsible citizens** de come say they come do nursing. (*ir* + *response* + *ible*; *citizen* + *s*).(Because irresponsible citizens will come and say that they want to do Nursing).

There are a lot more examples of affixation in Student Pidgin. Student Pidgin makes use of the process of affixation in creating new words as seen from the above data analysis and presentation. It can be seen, that some of the affixes bring about a change of word class of the bases when they are attached whiles others do not change the word class of the bases they are attached to. Those that change the word class/meaning of the bases are

called *derivational morphemes* or affixes. Examples are: fun (noun)-fun*ny*(adjective), own(verb)-own*er*(noun), foolish(adjective)-foolish*ness*(noun); those that do not change the word class of the bases are called *inflectional morphemes*. Examples are: file (noun) - files (noun), and citizen (noun)-citizens (noun).

The study revealed that Student Pidgin has no third person present singular verb inflections or past tense inflections. Example, "e **beat** am" can be present tense or past tense. This confirms Sekyi-Baidoo (2002:82) that "it is not always easy to distinguish the simple present, the simple past and the present perfect forms of verbs and their respective clauses because of lack of inflections". These can only be achieved through context.

4.2 How Tense – Aspect – Mood are Expressed in Student Pidgin

Tense refers to the form of a verb to express time whether present or past. It refers to the absolute location of an event or action in time, either the present or the past. It is marked by the inflection of the verb. Aspect refers to how an event or action is to be viewed with respect to time, rather than to its actual location in time. It is the verb form that indicates completion, duration, or repetition of an action. The two primary aspects in English are the perfect (sometimes called *perfective*) and the progressive (also known as the *continuous* form). Aspect always includes tense as in:

David had fallen in love - Perfective Aspect, Past Tense.

David was falling in love - Progressive Aspect, Past Tense.

Davis has fallen in love- present perfective, present tense.

While aspect always includes tense, tense can occur without aspect (David *falls* in love, David *fell* in love). (http://www.ucl.ac.uk/internet-grammar/verbs/tense.htm).

Traditionally both aspects [perfect and progressive] are treated as part of the tense system in English, and we commonly speak of tenses such as the present progressive (e.g. We are waiting) or even the past perfect progressive (e.g. We had been waiting), which combines two aspects. There is a distinction to be made, however, between tense and aspect. Tense is more concerned with past time versus present time and is based on morphological form (e.g. write, writes, wrote); aspect is concerned with duration, and in English is a matter of syntax, using parts of be to form the of progressive, and have to form the perfective. (Chalker and Weiner, 1994)

4.2.1 Tenses/Aspect in Student Pidgin

Present Tense/Aspect and Past Tense/Aspect in SP

Tense in Student Pidgin is often understood through context. This is because Student Pidgin lacks inflections for tense. There is no past tense marker as found in the Standard English. The simple past tense takes the same form as the simple present form. Here is an example:

He believe am. (SE: He believes him.)

The SP above is a simple present tense in SP with the structure SV. This same sentence can be the simple past tense in SP. Here, we observe that unlike Standard English, SP has no past tense inflections. So both simple present and simple past have the same form, as illustrate by the example below:

i chop the food.(He eats the food!)

The above sentence in SP is a typical example of a simple present tense in SP. The same SP could also be simple past tense "He eats the food". It can be deduced from the above presentations that it is only through context that one can distinguish between simple present and simple past in SP. To distinguish that, at times, adverbials, like *now*, *today*, *yesterday*, *last month*, are brought in as in:

I see am yesterday. (I saw him yesterday.)

Future Tense and Future Progressive Tense/Aspect in SP

Reference to other times- (future time /future tense and future progressive tense)- is made by using the word "go" or "de go" plus the main verb. The following examples show how future tense and future progressive tenses and aspects are formed in SP.

He go see his foolishness! (He will see his foolishness)

The sentence above is a simple future tense with an S-V-O structure. The same SP sentence can also be used to express simple future progressive/continuous tense/aspect, "He will be seeing his foolishness!"

I no go play (I will not play!)

The SP above is a simple future sentence. It can also mean future progressive sentence, "I will not be playing!"

Thus, it can be concluded from the above sentences in SP that the simple future and the future progressive tenses/aspects in Student Pidgin have the same form, subject + helping verb "go"+ the main verb, and it is only through context that the two can be differentiated. The negative forms are formed by introducing the word "no" before the auxiliary verb "go".

Present Progressive/Continuous Tense/Aspect and Past Progressive/Continuous

Tense/Aspect in SP

In forming the present progressive tense/aspect and the past progressive tense/aspect in student pidgin, the word (verb to be in SP) "de" is used with the main verb/base form (unmarked or unsuffixed), that is, de + verb. In other words, "de" serves as a continuous verb marker in Student Pidgin. Both the present continuous tense/aspect and past continuous tense/aspect in Student Pidgin have the same form, and thus it is only the context that will bring out the differences. For instance, in the Student Pidgin:

I de chop Fufu.

The form could be Present progressive *I am eating Fufu*. It could also mean past progressive "I was eating Fufu".

Also, *He de come* could also mean *He is coming* (Present progressive) *or He was coming*. (Past progressive); *you de talk fine paa* could mean *You are speaking/talking well* (Present progressive) or *you were speaking/talking*. (Past progressive); *She de lie to me* could mean *she is lying to me* (Present progressive) *or* she was lying to me (Past progressive).

In order to prevent this tense ambiguity above in SP, at times, the Akan local word "na" [was] is brought in, usually, before the subject to express or show past progressive tense/aspect as in

Na I de chop Fufu! (I was eating Fufu!). *Na I de read!* (I was reading!).

Perfect Tense/Aspect in SP: Present Perfect Tense/Aspect and Past Perfect Tense/Aspect

In forming the present perfect and the past perfect in the Standard English, the present auxiliary *have / has* and the past auxiliary *had* are used respectively with the past participle of a verb(as in *I have eaten, or I had eaten*), but forming it in SP, only the base form(unmarked verb form) is used. Thus, in student pidgin:

I chop could mean *I have eaten* (present perfect) *or I had eaten* (past perfect). *I take rice* could mean I have taken rice (present perfect) or I had taken rice (past perfect).

At the same time, both could also mean simple present tense or simple past tense in Student Pidgin. Thus, it is through context that one can know the tense/aspect of a sentence, whether it is simple present, simple past, present perfect, or past perfect. In other words, only the context will show the tense/aspect of a sentence in Student Pidgin. This is because both take the same form in Student Pidgin.

Sometimes, the adverbials *finish* and *already* are used to indicate perfective aspect/tense, as in

I chop finish (already) (I have/had eaten). I dance finish (already) (I have/had danced.)

This confirms the assertion by Sekyi-Baidoo (2002: 82) that:

It is not always easy to distinguish the simple present, the simple past and the present perfect forms of verbs and their respective clauses because of lack of inflections. Generally then, one depends on the context of speech or time adverbials for such distinction.

4.3 Mood

Mood is the form of a verb to convey the writer's attitude toward a subject. Indicative, imperative, and subjunctive moods are the three major moods in Standard English which are also expressed in SP.

4.3.1 Indicative Mood in Student Pidgin

Student Pidgin also makes use of the indicative mood. The indicative mood is the mood used to express an opinion, state a fact, or ask a question. Here are examples of sentences in Student Pidgin showing or expressing indicative mood.

Me, I no go feel play oo. (Me, I won't play)

It check like everything de go fine. (It looks like everything is going on well)

I go do Nursing! (I am going to do nursing)

I go do it. (I will do it)

U want do nursing? (You want to do nursing?)

I for bring what? (What should I bring/ I should bring what?)

Where you de go? (Where are you going?)

The scores be what? (What are the scores?)

It can be seen from the above sentences in Student Pidgin that usually the indicative mood is express in simple sentences with Subject-Verb-object/complement structures. Again, "wh-" questions are also used in Student Pidgin in asking questions. The wh- can be placed at the initial position or at the final position as in:

Where you de go? (Where are you going?): wh- at the initial position

What be de scores? (What are the scores?): wh- at the initial position.
Charley, what's up? (Charley, how (are you)? wh- at the initial position.
The scores be what? (What is the scores?): wh- at final position.
i be what? (What is it?): wh- at final position.
U de go do what? (You are going to do what?): wh- at final position.

Again, the verb to "be" (de, or dey or be), is usually used in indicative mood in Student Pidgin as shown in the examples given above. It is usually used as a helping verb, as in: *I de go do nursing*. (i am going to do nursing); *U de go do what*? (You are going to do what?) - *de* as helping verb. However, it is at times used as a main verb, as in:

She dey Central. (She is in Central) - dey as a main verb.
You dey? (Your are there/around?) - dey as a main verb.
Abi, Osei Kwame dey there? (Osei Kwame is there) - dey as a main verb.

The main verb is usually **dey**, and the helping verb is usually **de** in Student Pidgin. *De* is also used as a progressive marker as shown in: *U de go do what*? (You are going to do what?); *I de chop* (I am eating).

4.3.2 Imperative Mood in Student Pidgin

Student Pidgin also makes use of the imperative mood. The imperative mood is the mood used in commands and direct requests. Usually the imperative mood includes only the base form of the verb without a subject. The expression "make you" is usually used when giving a command.

Charley, Repent! (Charley, repent!) Charley, make you repent! (Charley, you must/should repent). Charley, chock! (Charley, wait/ stop!) I say make you take your coupon give me. (I said, give me your coupon).

(f) Make I go cafe. (I must go to cafeteria/ Let me go to cafeteria) Morrow, don't come. (Tomorrow, don't come) You for treat am. (You must/should treat it) You for come morrow. (You must/should come tomorrow). I say take am whatsapp me! (I say, take it and send it to me through whatsapp).

The above sentences in Student Pidgin show how the imperative mood is expressed in Student Pidgin. In giving command or request, the subject "you" is usually omitted, but at times the subject is brought in. As already mentioned, the word "make" can be used with a subject "you" or "I" (*make you or make I*)" in giving a command. as in:

Charley, make you repent! (Charley, you must/ should repent).

Again, in giving a command, at times the subject "you" is used in conjunction with "for" before a main verb for the modals "must" or "should" to express necessity or obligation in Standard English as in:

You for treat am. (You must/should treat it) You for come morrow. (You must/should come tomorrow).

4.3.3 Subjunctive Mood in Student Pidgin

Users of Student Pidgin also make use of the subjunctive mood. The subjunctive is used to state wishes, conditions, and contrary-to-facts (Kirszner and Mandell, 1989). One thing that is unique about SP and different from Standard English, as far as the subjunctive mood is concerned is that in SP the present tense verb form of "be" does not change to past form "were" as it does in the Standard English. For example, *I wish I were God; if I were God...* In Standard English, it takes the form "were" regardless of the number or

person of the subject, but in the Student Pidgin, it always takes the present tense form as shown in the following subjunctive mood in Student Pidgin:

I wish I know de pikin. (I wish I knew the child).
I wish I de fit drive. (I wish I could drive).
If I be you, I go slap am. (If I were you, I would slap him).
If I be God, I for kill am (if I were God, I should have killed him).

From the above sentences, it can be deduced that Student Pidgin, like Standard English and the other languages, also uses the subjunctive mood to state wishes, conditions, and contrary-to-facts. However, in stating them, the verb "be" forms does not change to the past "were" after the wish or condition, or contrary to fact clause. In other words, in Standard English, when "wish" is used, the main verb after the subject is usually in the past form, but in Student Pidgin the verb to be still remains in the present form regardless of the number or person of the subject as already mentioned and as in

I wish I know am! (SE: I wish I knew him).

Thus, Student Pidgin users do not make use of past subjunctive (e.g. If I were going to Europe) or past perfect subjunctive (e.g. I wish I had gone to the review session). The verbs are always in the present form even when they express past events.

It can be concluded that the indicative mood, the imperative mood, and the subjunctive mood are all expressed in Student Pidgin.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter provides the summary of the thesis, the conclusion, and the recommendations. The chapter is divided into three parts: Summary, Conclusion, and Recommendations.

5.1 Summary

The study focused on the topic, "The Morphology of Student Pidgin: A Case of Valley View University in Oyibi, Ghana". The main purpose of the study was to investigate the morphology or morphological processes in Student Pidgin in Ghana, as well as the sources of languages from which vocabulary of Student Pidgin is derived. Again, it further considers how tense, aspect, and mood are expressed in Student Pidgin.

The study was guided by the following three research questions: What is/are the morphology or morphological process (es) in Student Pidgin? What are the source languages from which words in SP in Ghana are derived? How is Tense-Aspect-Mood (TAM) expressed in Student Pidgin? The qualitative research design was selected for the study. A case study approach of the qualitative research design was chosen. Valley View University was chosen as a site for the case study. An analytical descriptive tool (or Analytical Descriptive Approach) was chosen to analyze the data which was gathered through a recording of casual speech in Student Pidgin, semi-structured interview, and

non-participatory observations. In all, a sample size of Twenty (20) participants was purposively selected for the study, excluding data obtained from observation of Student Pidgin Speakers.

The key findings of the study were as follows: Student Pidgin is a language on its own, and it makes use of eight (8) main morphological processes in creating new words or vocabulary into its lexemic structure. The study revealed the following morphological processes in Student Pidgin: borrowing, conversion, clipping, compounding, reduplication, acronym, blending, and affixation.

The study also revealed that Student Pidgin has no past tense inflection or past tense markers. Thus, it is only through context can one differentiate between past tense, present tense and present perfect tense and past perfect tense. The study also revealed that the English language is still the superstrate source of vocabulary in SP while Ghanaian languages like Akan (Twi), Ga, Hausa) remain the substrate source. Lastly, the study also revealed the three types of mood in Student Pidgin, namely: indicative, imperative, and subjunctive mood. In the subjunctive mood, it was revealed that Student Pidgin always uses the present subjunctive even in wish conditions and hypothetical statements. Thus, Student Pidgin users do not make use of the past subjunctive (e.g. if I were God...) or past perfect subjunctive (e.g. I wish I had gone to the review session). The verbs are always in the present form even when they express past events.

5.2 Conclusion

This study has examined the topic, "The Morphology of Student Pidgin (SP): A Case of Valley View University in Oyibi, Ghana." Student Pidgin, like other languages that are considered standard languages, example, English, Spanish etc., also uses some word formation strategies to create new words. The eight (8) main morphological processes in Student Pidgin in Ghana that the study found out and discussed were: borrowing, conversion, clipping, compounding, reduplication, acronym, blending, and affixation.

Borrowing involves taking a certain language's vocabulary into another language. The Standard English is the main superstrate source of borrowing in Student Pidgin. Conversion is changing an already existing word's class or part of speech, whilst maintaining the form of the word. Clipping involves shortening of an already existing word by cutting/taking some syllables away. Compounding involves the combination of two or more words as one. Reduplication involves repeating part or whole of a word to form a compound. Acronym involves using initials of a word or of words to form a new one. Blending involves joining parts of existing words together to come out with a new word, and affixation involves adding affixes to an already existed word to form a new one with or without a change of word class.

The study did not only look at the morphology or the morphological processes in Student Pidgin, it also considered how tense, aspect, and mood are exploited in Student Pidgin. The following tenses/aspect correlations were considered in the study: simple present,

simple past, present progressive, past progressive, future tense, present perfect, and past perfect.

Under mood, the following types of mood were discussed in the study: indicative (for expressing opinion, stating a fact, or asking a question), imperative (for giving a command, or direct request) and subjective (for expressing wish, condition, and contrary-to-facts). The study found out that Student Pidgin does not have past tense markers or inflections. In other words, it does not have inflections to differentiate between present and past tense/aspect; present and past perfect. Both the present and the past tense forms in Student Pidgin have the same form, and it is only through context that one can differentiate the two. The same goes for present and past perfect tense/aspect. The word "de" is the progressive marker in Student Pidgin whiles the auxiliary verb "go" is the future progressive marker. All these confirmed the findings made by Sekyi-Baidoo (2010) on sentence types in Ghanaian Pidgin English.

Commands are given in Student Pidgin by using only the base form of a verb without a subject (like, Come! Go! Comot! (Come out/go away!), or by using the verb "make" plus the subject (like, "Make u come!"- You should come!), or by using "for" as a helping verb (modal), should/must as in, "You for come!" meaning "You should/must come".

The study has proven that Student Pidgin is just like any other language in the world. It has its own unique characteristics which make it different from its superstrate (Standard English) and its substrates. Though most of the words or vocabulary in Student Pidgin is

borrowed, these words are made to differ from their source usually by changing the way they are pronounced. For instance, some short vowels in English are made long and vice versa; some monothongs are made diphthongs and vice versa in Student Pidgin.

The study has also corroborated other studies on how words are created in languages in general and the one done by Mensah (2011) on Nigeria Pidgin in particular. This means that Student Pidgin is also a language of its own, and it should be regarded as such. Though the study confirmed that English language is still the superstrate source of Student Pidgin, it was realized also that these borrowed words undergo some grammatical, morphological, and syntactic changes to make them pidgin.

This study contributes to studies on pidgin and SP in particular and establishes the fact that pidgin or SP is not a deviant language as it has been thought by some; rather it is a functional language, unique in its own capacity. Like other languages, it employs some morphological processes in creating new words. Although there are similarities between Student Pidgin and its superstrate source (Standard English) as well as its substrates (Akan, Ga, Ewe, etc), one notices from this study, the fact that Student Pidgin is a unique code or language.

The similarities that are found between Student Pidgin and other languages are due to the fact that certain elements and discourses cut across all languages, like giving command, asking questions, and expressing exclamation, confirming perhaps the Monogenesis theory. However, each language has something that makes it unique from the others,

confirming perhaps also the theory of Polygenesis. The study brings new insight into the morphology in SP in Ghana.

5.3 Recommendations

The following are my recommendations based on the findings:

- (1) that studies on Student Pidgin should not be focused on only the sociolinguistics, but attention should also be equally directed to the grammatical structure of Student Pidgin or Ghanaian Pidgin English in general.
- (2) that further studies be carried out the phonology of Student Pidgin in Ghana to ascertain sounds systems in SP that can help in standardizing the orthography of Student Pidgin.
- (3) that other aspects or facets of Student Pidgin, such as its syntax and semantics, and even its morphology could be dealt with in greater details.
- (4) that attention should be given by language scholars to research into Student Pidgin with the view to standardizing it (its autography) in future.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Transcription one

- A. So u wan make I do everything? [SE: So, do you want me to do everything?]
- B. Yea like if u go....you go write exams. [SE: Yes! If you will write exams]
- A. So make I go do the challenge or make I no do the challenge? [SE: So should I do the challenge or I should not do it?]
- B. Yea, you for, you for...[SE: Yes, you should, you should...]
- A. Yea, that is why I for get the basis. [Yes, that is why I should/must get the basis.]
- B. Oh, for sure, you for get am. [SE: Oh sure! You must/should get it.]
- A. Hahaha, any way, charley alright! We go talk! we go talk! [SE: Hahaha! Any way, alright, we will talk!]
- B. Yea, we go talk; we go talk sosoo. [SE: Yes, we will talk; we will talk.]

Appendix B: Transcription two

Asha, where your phone dey? [SE: Asha, where is your phone?]

You see, you see way your screen make? [SE: You see how your phone's screen is?]

HeheheHmmm....s

I bi like spider-web. [SE: It is like spider web.]

Oh spider man come dey top. [SE: Spider man has come to the top (screen) of the phone]

Ahaa! I say, take am whatsapp me...the video noo. [Ahaa! Take it and whatsapp(send) it to me, the video!]

Which video?

I get enter... [I have entered it.]

I say, it check like everything de go fine oo. [SE: I say, it looks like everything is going on well.]

Ehh? This thing? [SE: What? this thing?]

I say, it check like everything de go fine oo. [SE: I say, it looks like everything is going on well.]

Ehh?[what?]

026...eee

But she de lie to me. [SE: She is lying to me.]

Yea... I no say she lie to me. [SE: Yes...I won't say she lied to you!]

But she told me say she dey central. [SE: But she told me that she is in Central.]

She dey central. [SE: She is in Central]

She de job? Serious...[SE: she is working? Seriously?]

5595586...serious

Ah, seriously, she lie me![SE: Ah, seriously, she lied to me]

She lie me. [SE: She lied to me.]

She lie me, or you de lie me?

Who de lie me?[SE:Who is lying to me?]

Oh naa, she lie me. [SE: Oh no! She lied to me!]

She lie...[She lied].

Oh she lie sɛn? [SE: Oh what do you mean she lied!]

They lie you light one! [SE: It is just a small lie!]

See wey he de hold the ball, and u say i no bi game. [SE: See how he is holding the ball and you are saying it is not a game!]

i bi game! Hehehehe [SE: It is a game!]

Charley, no play! [SE: Charley, It isn't a fair play/game!]

Oh Micheal go taya! [SE: Michael will get/will be tired!]

Micheal go taya![SE: Michael will get/will be tired!]

Oh...you go taya oh! [Ah, you will get/will be tired!]

Ah, i be by force? [SE: Is it by force?]

Ada go play Evans. [SE: Ada will substitute Evans!]

Maro, don't come! [SE: Maro, don't come!]

The blood....

The blood you de say? [SE: You are saying blood!]

That's why I no feel play again! [SE: That's why I don't want to play again!]

Blood dey the ball top. [SE: Blood is on top of the ball.]

Ah! Whose blood be dat? Hqq! [SE: Ah, whose blood is that?]

i be the guy.[SE: It is the guy's (blood)!]

He fall down for here. [SE: He fell down here!]

Ebola! [SE: Ebola!]

Hehehehe

I don't think...

Ah naa, u for talk true. [SE: Oh no, you are saying the truth!]

The true dey dea you for talk! [SE: If it is true, you have to say it!]

Naa. i no be Ebola nkoaaa oo [SE: No! It is not only Ebola!]

Naa. I no de talk say you get oo, but charley more disease dey...[SE: No. I'm not saying you have it, but my friend, there are more diseases...]

Yea, ...dey in de blood! [SE: Yes...are in the blood]

i no be only Ebola... that you go get.[SE: It is not only Ebola that you can/will get]

Yea, you for treat am. [SE: Yes, you should treat it!]

Cos me I no go feel play. [Because, as for me, I will not play]

Charley, charley, charley, charley, wedge, wedge, wedge, [SE: Charley, wait!]

Hei, chock! Chock! Wait! Chock! Wait! Chock! [SE: Hey, wait!]

Where u de go? [SE: Where are you going?]

I de go talk say where de thing dey! [SE: I'm going to say where the things are!]

So if you people say...[SE: So if you people say...]

Me, I no go feel play. [SE: As for me, I will not play.]

Naa. But u, u for treat am! [SE: No, but you should treat it!]

U for keep the ooze out for your blood noo. [SE: You should do something to stop the blood from oozing out.]

Your blood go finish oo. [SE; Your blood will finish oo!]

But why? Your blood get HIV? [SE: But why? Do you have HIV in your blood?]

Naa, no be say HIV matter oo. [SE: It is not (the problem of) HIV that matters oo]

The boy get HIV. [SE: The boy has HIV!]

But why? You for pass the ball! [SE: But why? You should pass the ball!]

De blood i de comot from your hands noo...[SE: The blood that is coming from your hands...]

No be say u de cut the ball! [SE: It is not that you're a catching the ball]

So who is having that problem? [So who is having that problem?]

You say what? [SE: What did you say?]

Who is having that problem? [SE: Who is having that problem?]

What? The blood? [SE: What? The blood?]

Yea![SE:Yes!]

The guy wey dey behind Prince. [SE: The guy (who is) behind Prince.]

He fall; he fell oo[SE: He fell]

He fell down and then... [SE: He fell down and then...]

He for talk this thing kyee... [You have talked about this for long!]

Charley, this thing i be contact disease oo. [My friend, this is a matter of contact disease oo]

U be say go touch somebody... [SE: You are going to touch somebody!]

Ok! We shall meet tomorrow. [SE: Ok! We shall meet tomorrow.]

I will come. [SE: I will come.]

Maybe tomorrow, I will be here. [SE: Maybe tomorrow, I will be here.]

Appendix C: Transcription 3

U no feel talk say...[SE: Don't you thing that...]

You no feel talk say de obi will do?[SE: Don't you thing that the Obi will do?]

The yellow will do? [SE: The yellow will do?]

i de slow the quality, everything, everything...[SE: it is slowing down the quality and everything! Or it is making the quality and everything slow!]

...Wey we carry am go out go am! [SE:...Which we took it out]

Popii talk say buy u...[SE: Father says he will buy you...]

Comot! Why u buy? [Go away! Then why did you buy?]

U come carry kiddy; i no go... You come and carry the child; I won't go!]

No bi yellow one go beat am... [SE: Is it not the yellow one which will beat it?]

Wey beat am carry am go[SE: Which beat it and carried it away?]

Carry am go pass [carried it away]

Yea, this code! [SE. Yea, this code]

Naa! come back! Come back! [No, come back!]

Yea, this code! [SE. Yea, this code]

Charley, where u go? [SE: My friend where are you going?]

i boot! i boot! [SE: It is booting; it's booting!]

i no go back to the feature oo .[SE: it is not going back to the future.]

i dey there! i dey there! [SE: It is there; it's there!]

Das what I dey talk this guy... [SE: That's what I'm telling this guy!]

I dey talk... [SE: I'm talking...!]

Guy ooo [SE: Guy ooo]

Guy ooo, de feature plus to the track. [SE: Guy ooo, the feature plus to the track]

I dey there. [SE: I'm there!]

He, he wan go back.[SE: He wants to go back.]

So u think say the age feel no come? [SE: So, you think that the age has not come?]

I hear, I hear. [SE: I hear, I hear.]

I de bore me waa, Tony! [SE: Tony, it bores me so much!]

He wan tony! [SE: He wants Tony!]

He's coming. [SE: He's coming!]

He's coming say this guy go pass Harrison under de box.[SE: He is saying that this guy will pass Harison under the box!]

E be from Abuja. [SE: He is from Abuja!]

So all de people in pass, all de people in the pass... [SE: so all the people passing in...]

Ade ...(Ade...

Noo, nooo...[SE: No, no...]

E be, something like generation!.. [SE: It's something like generation!]

He is a distant relative. A distant relative! [He is a distant relative. A distant relative!]

He force oo, Harrison, he force say... [SE: He has forced/tried oo, Harison; he has tried!]

He take him body type. [SE: He has taken his body type!]

He go see. [SE: He will see]

He go see his foolishness.[SE: He will see his foolishness.]

So where de roll pass koraa? [SE: So where actually did the roll pass?]

He go come!

I don know where he de wedge. [SE: I don't know where he is hiding!]

He won confuse me too... [SE: He wants to confuse me.]

He de talk I naa body. [SE: He is saying he has body]

This one dey front drive oo. [SE: This one is on the front drive.]

This one dey front chaw. [SE: This one is plenty in front!]

Hwεε, I taya! I swear! [SE: Wow, I'm really tired! I swear!]

You for go home and rest! [SE: You should go home and rest!]

Ene me da like around one, two there! [SE: Today, I'll sleep around one or two there about?

Morrow, I no go come early. [SE: Tomorrow, I won't come early!]

I go drop like, ee Eight. [I'll come here around Eight O'Clock !]

Beke, Beke, or what? [SE: What?]

Like for the paper, I no go come tap here! [SE: I'll not come here and learn the paper!

I go boot from house getting to eight. [SE: I'll learn it from home till Eight.]

Heee...[SE: Wow!]

I de come noaa, I de come write the Gender. [SE: As soon as I come, I'll write the Gender paper.]

And after the Gender, I go find some place tap de Bucom. [SE: And after writing the Gender paper, I'll go and find some quiet place and study the Bucom (Business Communication)]

Abi Bucom be caf? [SE: Business communication will be written at cafeteria upstairs?]

Be caf den go use that area noa! [If it is at cafeteria), then I'll use that same place!]

Two oclock...noaa den...[SE: As soon as it Two o'clock, then...

Oh aa!...(singing) Aoh..[SE: Oh ahh!...(singing) Aoh...]

Then I go delete...[SE: Then, I will delete it!]

I no change new...[SE: I have not changed the new one...]

But I de change new user. [SE: I'm only changing the new user]

How u de do am, I no go let the immediate all loss? [SE: how you are doing it, I will not let the immediate files get loss.]

SE u feel keep your files? [SE: You want to keep your files, I guess?]

I no get de external, external hard disk![SE: I don't have external hard disk!]

Yea! [SE: Yes!]

Naa, u copy the importance ones. [SE: No! You just have to copy the important ones.] This one wey de window dey pɛ! [SE: Only the one on the window!]

εhee! Wey dat, wey things dey top? [SE: Only that one with something on it.]
This one u for delete from it top. [SE: You must delete this one from its top.]
Dem D and dem...

This one i be just the application. [SE: This one, it's just the application!] The format, i no be say i de affect... [SE: The formatting, it does not affect...] i de affect one drive pq . [SE: It affects only one drive.]

εεh? [What?]

Wey dis thing I de format ah! [SE: This thing which I am formatting!]

I de format... [SE: I am formatting].

All the partitions dis one carry the change. [This one carries all the partitions.]

I be the partitions wei pɛ! [SE: It is only the partitions.]

This one pɛ! [SE: Only this one!]

The one that i de use the window sign! [SE: The one with window's logo!]

i be carry the change? [SE: It carries the changes?]

The rest, no! [SE: The rest, no!]

I go change the letters. [SE: I'll change the letters.]

Letters no go change but I go... [SE: the letters do not change but I will...]

So u won see something wey dey here for here, for here, for here $p\epsilon!$ [SE: So you won't see something here again, only here!]

Ahhhh... [SE: Ah!]

U format a, u make sure se, i bi C pe! [SE: When you want to format, just make sure that it is only C!]

C pε you de format. [SE: Only the C you are formatting/Only C you should format!]

Ehεε [SE: Yes]

Aah, [SE: Ah!]

Here, you go get all your back-ups. [SE: Here, you will get all your back-ups!]

See my own! [SE: See mine!]

My drivers dey here! [SE: My drivers are here!]

My drivers dey here! [SE: My drivers are here!]

Back- up, back-up. [SE: Back- up; back-up]

My drivers, all the Techiman drivers, everything wey dey my machine top wey I de hia![SE: All the drivers including the Techiman drivers and everything that are on my machine which are important to me (are here).]

So I wan save a, all I de hia be this...this document, I will copy this one. SE: So if I want to save it, all I need to do is this document; I will copy this one.]

Hmmmm[SE: Hmmmm]

This one; then the video, then music, finish! I format! [SE: This one; then the video, then the music; and it is done!]

Aoh, aoh! I for try that thing! [Wow, wow! I must try it!]

I see; I see; see some game! [SE: I see; I see; see some game!

I see εε, this thing... Caller of Duty Black Off or something! [SE: I see... Caller of Duty Black Off or something!]

U de play? You de play? Black off you de play? [SE: Are you playing it?

i dey down there! [SE: It is at the down there.]

Make I see! [SE: Let me see!]

For that one you for change time oo, the time zone oo ... [SE: For that one, you must change the time zone...]

Before u go feel play? [SE: Before you can play?]

Yea, u for change it... [SE: Yes, you must change it...]

Abi, Wednesday, you get paper? [SE: My friend, do you have paper on Wednesday?]

I no get paper morrow. [No, I don't have paper tomorrow.]

I no get paper Wednesday. [SE: I don't have paper on Wednesday.]

AdePee by this time u go kyɛɛ [SE: AdePee, will you keep long by this time?]

Unless... [SE: Unless...]

Abi Wednesday, you no get paper? [SE: My friend, you don't have paper on Wednesday?]

I no get paper morrow! [SE: I don't have paper tomorrow!]

I no get paper Wednesday. [I don't have paper on Wednesday!]

Wednesday, Wednesday, Wednesday, we de come meet for here. [SE: Wednesday, we will come and meet here!]

The same time! [SE: The same time!]

I will come! [SE: I will come!]

You get there... [SE: You get/go there...]

Morrow dee I no come! [SE: In fact, tomorrow, I won't come!]

This one go download first! [SE: This one will download load first.]

Oh ok! [SE: Oh, ok!]

For a day, I feel download this one. [SE: For a day, I can download this one!]

I feel download... the this thing. [SE: I can download this one.]

This one, the game nankasakasa! [SE: This one, the actual game!]

Another day, this one! [SE: The next day, this one!]

So, one after the other. [SE: So, one after the other.]

Oh ok! [SE: Oh, ok!]

Saa...till the down.[SE: Until the down one is done/downloaded.]

This one ɛnkyɛ...like it go...like three weeks time! [SE: This one would take only three weeks.]

Three week? [SE: Three weeks?]

For the time wey I go finish them, we'll use the patch! [SE: By the time that I will finish (downloading) them, we'll use the patch!]

You sure? [SE: Are you sure?]

εεn! [SE: Yes!]

εεn, the patch no, εbε kyε! [SE:Yes, but the patch, no! it will keep long!]

You, u de play! [SE: You, you are playing!]

U de play game, u de crack! [SE: You are playing game and learning at the same time!]

You de bore me oo! [SE: You surprise me!]

You wan the real one? [SE: You want the real one?]

No bi cracking! [SE: It is not learning!]

Some u de crack aah u de kyqq too much![SE: You are learning, and you are keeping too long]

Yet still you de crack! [SE: And still you are learning!]

I know; I know! [SE: I know; I know!]

i de bore i de bore meself! [SE: It bores me!]

Go shopping mall... [SE: Go to shopping Mall...]

But me I wan buy operating system noo[But I want to buy operating system...]

Adeɛ no baabi a w'aduru noaa na w'aduru! Okyena, me wo paper! Me ko! [What is done

is what is done! Tomorrow, I have a paper! I am going (home)!]

I'm going to prepare myself! [SE: I'm going to prepare myself!]

Morrow, I no go step here! [SE: Tomorrow, I will not step here!]

Your battery good? [SE: Is your battery ok/good?]

Yea! [SE: Yes!]

Appendix D: Transcription Four

See [SE: Look/See...]

Abi you de talk! [SE: My friend, you are speaking / talking!]

You de talk fine paa! [SE: You are speaking/talking well

You de talk more. [SE: you are talking too much!]

I de talk my mind. [SE: I'm expressing my view!]

I beg, leave me alone! [SE: I beg you, leave me alone!]

Let my friend hear my voice noo...[SE: Let my friends hear my voice!]

Good evening boss...my brother! [SE: Good evening boss...my brother!]

Officer...

Does that mean sq you are all done with your exams? [SE: Does it mean that you've all finished your examinations?]

No! [SE: No!]

I have a suggestion.

Last days are very dangerous;

I just want you to be extra large careful.

Thank you sir!

Somebody was in the last semester of his final year;

He was involved in a malpractice, and he was suspended for four semesters!

So if you make that choice...

Haa? Four? [SE: What? Four?]

Aah! Like u go hundred, two hundred abi! [Ah, like two years! Or he would have been in level two hundred by then!]

So if you make that choice, you get the package and that is the package...

So last days are dangerous; it was the last day of gentleman...

And consultant Oppong...Oppong Charles...

He is one of my wonderful consultants!

So that was my suggestion I had...

Thank you very much!

I no bi Benipa? [SE: Is it not Benipa?]

Emma, have u Benipa around? [SE: Have you seen Benipa around. Or do you have Benipa around?]

This boy dee, hahaha...konka[As for this boy...hahaha...Small drum!]

This boy dee,...Keyboard;[SE: as for this boy...keyboard!]

You said? [SE: What did you say?]

These people, I don't know whether they for go church! [SE: I don't know whether these are going to church!]

Oh some of dem, dem go church oo! [SE: Oh, some of them go to church!]

These Chinese people? [SE: These Chinese people?]

Mmmmmm! [Mmmmmmm]

I pop some when dem go church. [I have seen some going to church (before).]

Now, Christianity spread oo! [SE: Now, Christianity has spread all over!]

These people, dem don't know life! [SE: These people don't know life.]

Me too the first day wey I see am I was surprise! [SE: Me too, I was surprised the first time I saw it.]

Heeeem... [SE: Heeeem...]

Yea... [SE: Yes...]

Some... [SE: Some...]

i be that day wey dem sing amazing ...ah [SE: It was they were singing amazing...] Ah that amazing grace! [SE: Ah that amazing grace.]

i be some movie bi wey I forget! [SE: It is a certain movie which I have forgotten!]

Chinese movie like this!

This one dem de go church for inside![SE: In this movie they go to church.]

These days dem de copy Americans oo! [SE: These days, they are coping from the Americans!]

No bi de church I de talk. [It's not the church that I'm talking about.]

de video, i dey, i dey there! [SE: The video, it's there!]

Oh church dey! [SE: Oh church is there!]

Hwe, But i dey but i no plenty! [SE: Look, it's there but not many/plenty]

Like dema Buddhism dem stuff! [It's rather Buddhism, I think!]

This movie dee... [SE: As for this movie...]

Jenifer, why u de pop things like that? [SE: Jenifer, why are you looking at things like that?]

I wasn't even doing anything![SE: I wasn't even doing anything!]

Abi, she tick u already! [SE: My friend, she likes you already.]

Jenifer give u hundred percent! [Jenifer likes you hundred percent/ Jenifer has given you hundred percent!]

Bad man! [SE: Bad man!]

Me, Jenifer? [SE: Me, Jenifer?]

U know I bi very kuul, innocent. [SE: You know that I'm very cool and innocent!]

U be toothless bull dog! [SE: You are a toothless bull dog!]

I be what? [SE: I'm what?]

Toothless bull dog! Yes toothless bull dog. [SE: Yes, you're a toothless bull dog!]

In fact, my formal name was Innocent, but I changed it to Ebenezer!

Haahahhaha...

You think you are out of dumsor area, HEE? [SE: Do you think you are out of 'dumsor' area?]

De guy de give his friend advice. [SE: The guy is advising his friend!]

He say, ah, everyday he go pass here light dey off! [SE: He said that there is always light out any time he passes there.]

His friend open his mouth, "dem no de pay light bill!" [SE: His friend opened his mouth and said, "They don't pay light bill!"

Hahahaha...

He believe! He believe am rough! [SE: He believed him!]

Don't open your mouth! Swallow am! [SE: Don't open your mouth! Swallow it!]

You mean dis side dem no de pay electricity bill? [SE: Do you mean that the people in this area do not pay light bill?]

Hai! Illiteracy dee! [SE: Ah, Illiteracy!]

He said dem no de pay light bill...! [SE: He said that they do not pay light bill...!]

Appendix E: Transcription Five

Emma, you doing IT in the first place was a mistake! [SE: It was a mistake for you to do IT, Emma.]

So if now you've come to your senses wey u de go nursing, carry on! [SE: Go on and do nursing if you've now realized it (or if you have now come back to your senses)!]

Hahaha...

Charley, but in fact u dee e u de go nursing dee...[SE: But you going to nursing, infact...?]

I for go do nursing!...[SE: I am going to do Nursing!]...

Isaac Asante go! Apostle, he go! [Asante has gone; Apostle too has gone (to nursing)!]

Which one bio? [SE: Who/What else?]

Dem de go there chaw!... [SE: So many have gone there!]

Money dey, like,... maybe the nursing![SE: There is much money in nursing!]

Money?

Why u for make your mind say u for wan see blood them thing? [SE: Why do you have to make your mind that you want to see blood?]

For me I no de feel stand blood for even fifteen seconds![SE: As for me, I can't stand to see blood for even fifteen seconds!]

Me, if i bi sometin I lke, I don care! I go do it! [SE: As for me, if it is something I like, I don't care, I'll do it!]

That be you oo! [SE: That is you!]

I've never liked anything about, nothing, or anything about medical field! [SE: I've never liked any about medical field!]

Where u de come force me say, i bi my parents who say I do nursing! [SE: Where you are coming to force me that it's my parents who say that I should do nursing.]

In actual fact, I no go see stand blood ooo! [SE: In fact, I can't stand blood!]

That nursing course, they for screen people before they go take dem! [SE: The Nursing course, they have to screen people before admitting/taking them!]

Because irresponsible citizens they come say they come do nursing. [SE: Because at times some irresponsible citizens want to do nursing.]

One day I go hospital! [SE: One day I went to a hospital.]

He wan just take small blood! He (nurse) wanted to take just a sample of my blood!

He go carry am some big needle wey,... [SE: He went to take a big needle which,...]

See! Wey someone come carry the correct one ... [SE: Look/See! And someone came and took the correct one (needle).]

See this u de called yourself a nurse....[SE: See this, you are calling yourself a nurse!]

Hahaha (laughing and murmuring)...

See, by the time I go come...I go come back ah... [SE: Look, by the time I will come back,

I do Ebensapp wey I go take give u guys! [I would have done 'Ebensapp' which I would give to you guys!]

Make u whatsapp for just ... [SE: You should whatsapp for just...]

Ebensapp? Hmmm! Ebensapp! [SE: 'Ebensapp? Hmmm! Ebensapp!']

Amos say he go do Amosapp! [SE: Amos says he was going to do 'Amosapp'!]

U go feel buy data every month! [SE: You will buy data every month.]

This colour deze...hze! [SE: As for this colour... hqq!]

No no no! [SE: No, no, no!]

U for talk say dis tin u get already? Ha... [SE: Are you saying that you have this thing already?]

Charley, u no give me one? [SE: Charley (my friend), you won't give me one?]

If u de come, wey u no come with one, charley make u no come! [SE: If you're coming, and you don't come with one, don't come!]

Hee, when we were writing exams, the man told me that... [SE: Hee (Wow), we were writing exams, the man told me that...]

U no say the paper wey we de give u need drink for it? [SE: Don't you think that the paper we are giving (to you), you need drink for it?]

I beg, take energy drink oo! [SE: I beg you, take energy drink!]

Hahaha...

Dem push some small ibo! [SE: They are pushing some small 'ibo'!]

You know ibo? [SE: Do you know ibo?]

i be madness! [SE: It's madness!]

I be you Ghanaianself, wey u don't know drug you say drug, drag! [SE: it is you Ghanaians who pronounce drug as drag!]

U no connected to the whole world oo! [SE: Are you not connected the world?]

I'm online! [SE: I'm online!] Make I show you dem guy! [SE: Let me show you the guys.]

(Singing)

Charley, I de go take my own! [SE: Charley (my friend), I'm going to take mine!]

Charley, I chop some dollars. [Charley, I have some dollars!]

Appendix F: Transcription Six

Hahaha... [Loughing]

I now de select my vocabulary like Ericself! [SE: I'm now selecting my vocabulary, like Eric!]

You fuck up ooo! Hahaha... [SE: 'Fuck up'!...Hahaha]

You fuck up, there! Hahaha... [SE: You, fuck up from there! Hahaha...]

Dis one be sentence fragment! hahaha[SE: This one, it's a sentence fragment!]

You fuck up!... [SE: You fuck up!]

Eiiiii whatsup? Otwupo-otwupo! [SE: Eiiii how are you, Otwupo-otwupo?]

I wan do nursing ooo! [SE: I want to do Nursing!]

U wan do nursing? [SE: You want to do Nursing?]

Like u go kill people! [SE: You are going to kill people.]

U go feel stand blood? [Can you stand blood. Are you not afraid of blood.]

U people think that nursing i be easy. [SE: Do you people think that Nursing is easy?]

Oh nursing, me I go feel do nursing oo! [SE: Oh Nursing, I will like to do Nursing!]

U go feel do, and why u no do? [SE: If you want/like to do Nursing, then why don't you do it?]

But me I no go waste time decide... [But me, I won't waste time deciding about it...]

If there is an emergency, haa I go do am! [SE: If there is an emergency, I will do it!]

U go find blood u no like! [SE: You will see blood which you don't like!]

Yea! [SE: Yes!]

That be why I no wan! [SE: That's why I don't like it.]

Yea, if u go say u go... [Yes! If you'll say you will...

Eii wey I feel say some like... [SE: Eiii which I said some like...]

Wey he say pay money before a, trust me dɛɛm the hospital! [SE: if he says pay money before, trust me, I will 'fire' the hospital!]

I go do! [SE: I will do it!]

Provided I have... [SE: Provided I have...]

Hεε! Take give am! [Take it and give it to me!]

Provided I have everything to live up!

Aha!

i be the system! You don know? [SE: It is the system! Don't you know?]

System! System! [SE: System! System!]

That system, who play some? [SE: Who controls that system?]

i no be human? [SE: Is it not human being?]

I go dqqm tha system! [I go 'fire' that system!]

Array, array! Season three! Akoto Nineteen!

Ah oh charley, Packman oo! [SE: Oh, charley, Packman!]

U de go deal with human beings oo! [SE: You are going to deal with human beings!]

U say, whom dem suffer?[SE: You said who are suffering?]

Nurses dem suffer! [SE: Nurses are suffering!]

All the cleaning! De no de clean themself. [SE: All the cleanings! Don't they clean themselves?]

Patient go pee for bed the bed top u for feel clean am; change am![SE: Patient will urinate on the bed and you have to clean it; change it!]

Or other people go do tha job? [SE: Or some other people will do that?]

U say dem de suffer? [SE: You said they are suffering?]

Then my wife be serious! [SE: Then my wife is serious!]

The males they work like doctors oo. [SE: The male nurses, they work like doctors.]

Haaa? The male nurses? [SE: What? The male nurses?]

Yea! [SE:Yes!]

Eiiii, den i go bee ooo.[Eiiii, then it'll be fine!]

Who?

Dem no de allow male nurses de clean sores! [They don't allow the male nurses to clean sores!]

Qqhi bi option oo![SE: It's a choice!]

Eric, Eric! U de go hospital? [Eric, are you going to hospital?]

U de go chop? [SE: You are going to eat!]

U de like am? [SE: You like it?]

Eric, why? [SE: Eric, why?]

Cafe no de call you? [SE: Is cafeteria not calling you?]

Or u forget say u no chop? [SE: Or you have forgotten that you've not eaten?]

Eric, I beg, take your coupon give me! [SE: Eric, I beg you, take your coupon and give it to me!]

Make I go ... [SE: Let me go...

Eric, take your book don give me! [SE: Eric..., take your coupon and give it to me!]]

Make I go cafe! [SE: Let me go to café]

Charley, make u fuck up! [SE: Charley (my friend), you should 'fuck up'!

U said what? [SE: What did you say?]

Make Eric no fuck up! [SE: Shouldn't Eric fuck up?]

You de talk Eric dem deem paper! [SE: You are talking to Eric about that paper(coupon)?]

Eric, u be the original owner oo. [SE: Eric, you're the original owner!]

You go talk! [SE: You'll talk/speak!]

Oh seriously, u wan do nursing? [SE: Oh seriously, I want to do Nursing!]

Poppy go make am do! [SE: My father will allow me to do it!]

That one deq, poppy go make am do![SE: As for that one, my father will allow me to do it!]

You de like? [SE: Do you like it (yourself)?]

I no de u de do, de do! (SE: It is not like, I will do; I'll do!)

U de like de do? [SE: Do you really like to do it?]

That be the question oo! [SE: That is really the question oo!]

Sometin I no like deɛ, I no go do da! [SE: I will never do something that I don't like!]

I no go do da! [SE: I'll never do it!]

Me I no like! [SE: As for me, I don't like it!]

i bi good but I no de like![SE: It's good but I don't like it!]

After Thirty years u go clean de sores...every morning! [SE: After thirty years, you will clean sores every morning!]

Thirty years?

Yes, Thirty years!

You have to think about it very well oo.

U people running! [SE: Those of you running (away)!]

They come; they run! [They come, and they run away !]

The forms are out oo; almost close!

Me de go do nursing next semester. [SE: I'm going to do Nursing next semester!]

U de go do what? [SE: You're going to do what?]

I de go nursing! [SE; I'm going to do Nursing!]

Jude, u de go do what? [SE: Jude, you're going to do what?]

Nursing!

U no serious! U de go do what? [SE: You're not serious! You're going to do what?]

You, u de go do nursing! [SE: You, you're going to do Nursing?]

Hahahaha...[Loughing]

Jude, u de go do nursing? [SE: Jude, you're going to do Nursing?]

Hahaha..i see u a, am not seeing...[SE: if I see you, it is like I've not seen you!]

IT dey in your blood, so why what u de go do for nursing? [SE: IT is in your blood, so why are you going to do Nursing?]

i be IT in white! [SE: It's IT in white!]

E wan carry bele wey I de wan go nursing and change my brother,...hahaha[SE: She wants to be pregnant which I want to do nursing and change my brother!]

Ahh, so, so u go...hahaha[Ah! So you're going...hahaha]

Abi Osei Kwame dey there! [SE! Osei Kwame is there!]

He go feel give u photocopy! [SE: He'll give you his photocopies!]

Maame nurse go feel give u! [SE: Maame Nurse will give you!]

Hεε...Maame nurse? What, Maame Nurse?]

No no! I no se am; hold it! [SE: No! No! I have not seen her!]

How many times I see am? [SE: How many times do I see her?]

Maame nurse deɛ... [As for Maame Nurse...]

You go enter codes aaa, why? [SE: You'll enter codes all the time, why?]

Every day, u enter machines back like your eyes go pain u... [Every day, you will have to sit behind a machine, and your eyes will be paining you...]

So all that you do is coding?

Is that what you do?

That's all!

Only coding?

Coding, coding, coding!

Thirty two, Thirty Five pages!

Ah, the game, Five hundred and sometin! [SE: Ah, the game it was around five hundred and something!]

HEE! Lines? What? Lines?

i no bi lines! I de talk pages! [SE: It's not lines! I'm talking about pages!]

If u comut tha one to pages aa, one page be how many lines? [SE: If you compute (convert) that to pages, one page will be how many lines?]

U go code aaa... [SE: You'll be always coding...]

You de sat laptop aa, why? [SE: You'll always be sitting with or in front of a Laptop, why?]

i bi my back case![SE: I don't care!/ it's my 'back case'!]

I beg, if u people go, the lecturers go like... [SE: I beg, if you people go, the lecturers will like...]

You for tell the authorities! [SE: You should tell the authorities!]

Appendix G: Transcription Seven

i no be tha funny! i no be tha funny! [SE: It is not all that funny! It is not all that funny!]]

i be the facial expression de funny me! [SE: It is his facial expression that makes me laugh/ or that is funny]

Playing something/video on iPad

Actually, this year... [SE: Actually, this year...]

See his face! [SE: Look at his face!]

... everything will be possible different! [SE: Everything will be different!]

There will be genuine, and I know the almighty give us the vision about Two Thousand and Fifteen! [Everything will be ok, and I pray that the almighty God give us good vision in Two Thousand and Fifteen!]

Two Thousand and Fifteen!

His mouth feel de go up and down! [SE: (See how) His mouth goes up and down!]

But he facial expression be fine! [But he has good facial expression or His facial expression is fine!]

E de carry dis cartoon, earth place! [SE: He is carrying this cartoon, "Earth Place"!]

The horses Pegasus? [SE: The Horses Pegasus?]

I'm just from the church, and now... [SE: I'm just coming from church, and now...]

Start give am! [SE: Start giving it!]

Nana to woboase na hwe wai! [SE: Nana, take your time and watch it!]

W'abre! [You are tired!]

Why? U team day ago, oh? [SE: why, your team played yesterday?]

They are no jail, hɛ! They are not jail yet! [They are not jailed (defeated)! They are not jailed (defeated)!]

They de try referee, you de disturb am! [SE: They are trying the referee and you are disturbing him!]

They de try referee, you de disturb am! [SE: They are trying the referee and you are disturbing him!]

Oh! W'akye! W'akye! [SE! Oh, you've kept long!]

Foul, foul... hei outside! [SE: Foul! Foul! Hei, it was outside!]

Tie dee obe ka o! [SE: Listen to what he is about to say!]

How do u intend to usher yourself? [SE: How do you intend to usher yourself?]

See the question they ask him! [SE: Listen to what they ask him!]

Actually all over from Accra sports stadium... (Playing video)

i base am two questions ooo! [SE: It is based on two questions...!]

εh...wey he talk saa...[SE: and he is talking too plenty!]

i no bi saa; I feel say dem place dem cut the video off. [SE: It is not like that ooo; I think they have edited the video!]

This one be some other question for he. [SE: This is another question for him]

He say... [SE: He says...

Abi, E no say some of the media people, $h\varepsilon\varepsilon$, them try to do the thing funny! [SE: My friend, don't you know that some media men they try to make things look funny!]

They de edit! [SE: They edit...!]

Then dem try, ɛhɛɛ, do some other thing for inside. [SE: They then try to insert some other (funny) things]

Some short cut!

(singing) to the man, to the wind, to the magnitude, Sunday, Wednesday, Thursday, Friday, Saturday, Sunday...

He de come TV top! [He has come on TV screen/ He has appeared on TV!]

Abi you know Ghana de ε , you de come TV top you de flex. [SE: My friend, but you know in Ghana, when one appears on TV, he or she flexes!)

You go see the way...people go about! [You will see the way people do or go about their things!]

They are not for prospect.

He say... [SE: He says...]

We are coming to have some dinner with my brothers sisters [SE: We are coming to have fun, with my brothers and sisters!]

Abi we de come have diner what... [My friend, we are coming to have dinner or what...]

He says, he say, we've come to the container papaye! [SE: He says, we have come to Container Papaye]

But u no know there? [SE: But, do you know there?]

I know there! [I know there!]

That one de ε I be container papays! [SE: As for that one it is container papaya!]

Ah, I know! I know! [SE: Yea, I know! I know!]

Referee, referee, why you de stand there, wey de give u what u de do? [SE: Referee, why are you standing there for some people to tell you what you are to do?]

Show the red like we go baaf you! [SE: Just bring out or show your red card, or we will bath you!]

Playing video

Actually this year everything go possible different; you'll genuine and I know the almighty will give us the finishing about two thousand and fifteen...[

Actually, this year... [SE: Actually, this year everything will be possible different! [SE: Everything will be different!]

There will be genuine, and I know the almighty give us the vision about Two Thousand and Fifteen! [Everything will be ok, and I pray that the almighty God give us good vision in Two Thousand and Fifteen!]

Oh Ashiaman! [SE: Oh Ashiaman!]

Fafa, fafa, charley! [SE: Fafa, charley (my friend)!

Who be fafa? [Who is Fafa?]

Charley, hwan neys fafa? [Who is Fafa?]

Hmmm (loughing)...fabu...! [SE: Hmmm (loughing...Fabulous...!]

You de give give am every one...! [SE: You are giving him everything!]

Enemies; then dem tall chase no (SE: Enemies; then the tall lady said no!).

And the club, and the sports and the exercise, privatize, and sabotage.

i no be ɛdem, but I be Eden? [SE: It is not ɛdem, but it is Eden!]

Michael, you no go sop? [SE: Michael, won't you play?]

Michael will sop first! [SE: Michael will play first!]

Charley who de go? [SE: Charley, who is going?]

See wey u de go!... [Look at where you are going!...]

Who say game?

Ah, i no be game! [SE: It is not a game!]

What be the scores? [SE: What is the scores?]

Foul, foul! [SE: Foul! Foul!]

Long time!

I de wan go allow the ride... [SE: I want to go and allow the girl/woman]

The way she de watch me... [SE: The way is looking/watching me...]

The girl? [SE: The girl?]

Let's go! [SE: Let's go!]

Hahaha...ah, she de come and yede moasim! [SE: By the time she will be here, we had gone already!]

She de come! [SE: She is coming! She is coming!]

I de allow her! [SE: I'm allowing her!]

Hee whatsup? [Wow! Whatsup/how are you?]

I de go. [SE: I'm going.]

And this guy too... [SE: And this guy too...]

And this guy he no say they take am do some kpwa kpwa kpwa![And this guy, he doesn't know that they have taken him 'kpwa kpwa kpwa!']

Your general assessment, Guru! [SE: Your general assessment, Guru!]

 $\epsilon\epsilon$ h, the economy, I don't know; they were two in the forest which it shouldn't be![SE: $\epsilon\epsilon$ h, the

Economy, I don't know! They were two in the forest which it shouldn't be!]

I don't know! [SE: I don't know!]

So now it seems like I don't know! [SE: So, now, it seems like I don't know!]

Now, the Ghanaian economy didn't allow me to give birth. [Now, the Ghanaian Economy didn't

allow me to give birth.]

Because ... hehehe... [SE: Because... Hehehe...]

So regardless of the state of the economy, regardless of...how many children do have now? [SE:

With this hard economy in Ghana, how many children do you have?]

εεh...five childrens! [SE: Five children!]

Hahahaha.... [SE: Hahahaha (loughing)]

I'm jobless, five chidrens! SE: I'm jobless (I don't have job/employment)]

But still do you know? With God all things are possible![SE: But do you know what? With God

all things are possible!]

So how do you take care of those five children? [SE: So how do you take care of those five

children?]

εεh...yes you are asking me a question? How do I take care of five of them? [SE: What? You are asking me a question? How do I take care of them?]

Yes! [SE: Yes!]

Do you know? Hmmmm, Kpwa kpwa kpwa! Kpwa kpwa kpwa![SE: Do you know? Hmmmm,

'Kpwa kpwa kpwa! Kpwa kpwa '!]

You know what is Kpwa kpwa kpwa? [SE: Do you know the meaning of 'Kpwa kpwa kpwa!

Kpwa kpwa kpwa'?

You have to tell me! [SE: (No). You have to tell me (its meaning)!]

Kpwa kpwa is a movement! [SE: Kpwa kpwa kpwa is a movement!]

You move you pass here, u pass here, u pass here, Kpwa kpwa kpwa[SE: it is just a haphazard

Movement/ Sharp sharp movement!]

This one u go laugh am![SE: As for this one, you will laugh!]

This be English you for laugh! [This English you will laugh!]

Me too I go balb this one! [SE: Me too, I will understand this one!]

opesε okyerεε sε, wo sere anopa a w'ake sharp sharp, w'ap3n! [SE: He wants to say that when he wakes up in the morning he works fast and close!]

Me I de tease what he de talk oo! [SE: As for me, I understand what he is saying oo!]

The thing iseverybody...What everybody talk we all de balb ooo! But then the computer the thing that wey do... heee! [SE: What you're saying, we all understand it, but then the computer (editing) that they have done...wow!]

Look at, look at the way he is moving his hands...hehehe. [SE: Look at the way he is moving his hands...hehehe(loughing).

"Kpwa kpwa kpwa, gbenumugbeenu"! [SE: Sharp sharp movement!]

You can go to Kantamamto; there are so many things over there! [SE: You can go to Kantamamto; there are so many things over there!]

You pick it; you pass the road side. [SE: You just pick some and go to the road side!]

Somebody can buy this and that! [SE: Somebody can/will buy some!]

Oh please you can get your coins; you get your coins, enn! [SE: Oh please, you can earn some coins ('small' money)!]

U come and settle your family! [SE: You then come home and settle your family!]

Why should you go and steal? [SE: Why should you go and steal?]

Foul! [SE: Foul!]

How? [SE: How?]

Your ball.... [SE: Your ball...]

Hmmmm, we are funny oo, Ghanaians!.... [SE: Ghanaians, we are funny!]

Hεε, you no like fun? [SE: Wow! I don't like fun?]

Drop for dis inside, why? [SE: Drop this inside, why?]

I tell u! [SE: I tell you]

i no be me!...[SE: It's not I]

You people u de fight! i de...[SE: You people are fighting!]

De cost be your own? [SE: The cost, is it your own?]

Charley, ashawo, where you de go? [Charley (My friend), 'Ashawo'(Prostitute), where are you

going?]

Hεε, you go beach? [SE: Wow, you're going to beach?]

Oyaa beach? [SE: You're going to beach?]

Tamele! [SE: Tamele!]

Tamale paa! Tamale, really?

Ode nensa nyinaa ahye me nan ntem ena oye me sei! [SE: He has endowed me with all wisdom!]

Hεε, who de fetch Chinese food for the fat top? [SE: Wow, who is fetching Chinese' food on

top of the fat?

U be only person I see say get Rally picture for your phone top! [SE: You are the only person

with fine picture on your phone/on top of your phone's screen!]

Abi u dey! [SE: My friend, you're good/ you're there!]

This one de wan people! [SE: This one, they want people!]

So why is it that you always speak pidgin instead of English or Twi when you are playing

Basketball? Is it a language of the game or something like that? [SE: So why is it that you always

speak pidgin instead of English or Twi when you are playing Basketball? Is it a language of the

game?]

No....it is just easier! Just easier! [SE: No....it is just easier! Just easier! It's just easier!]

I enjoy it. [SE: I enjoy/like it!]

(I put off some NBA video oo)

So how can you come to the court and say...oh yoo yoo!

Ok let's say, scream for me! Like...like...

Pidgin is more easier! [SE: Pidgin is easier!]

It is English, but then some of the sentences have been edited out.[SE: It is English, but then some of the sentences are made simple!]

And people get turn to understand it fast! [SE: People easily understand it!]

εhεε, because if you want me to do something for you, and you need it quick a, if you are going to be speaking English, and you are using all the tenses trying to get it, before you are done, maybe, they must have done what they wanted to do us!

Hahaha...Because I have seen all of you, all of you speaking pidgin! Hehehe! [SE: Hahaha...I have seen all of you speaking Pidgin!]

Mmmm, I was thinking that maybe it is the language of the game! [SE: Mmmm, I was thinking that maybe it is the language of the game!]

Oh no! [SE: Oh, No!]

Hehehe... [SE: Hehehe(loughing)!]

I make some three. [SE: I've made three of them.]

I say I go do am! [I said I was going to do it!]

I forget! I make the next. [SE: I forget! I made the next!]

Hey... [SE: Hey (shouting)]

I de come! [SE: I'm coming!]

I de come drive! [SE: I'm coming to drive!]

Relax, relax, relax, hei! [SE: Relax! Relax! Relax!]

Thank you![SE: Thank you!]

Eiiiiiii! (Shouting)

He get one bi! [SE: +

He has got one]

I de go one... [SE: I'm going!]

That be mamoo! [That is Mamoo!]

You no get one specific player! [SE: You don't have one specific player!]

Why everybody koraa some dey or basket ball players.[SE: Why is it everybody? Some good basketball players are there!]

Nice! Nice chopping! [SE: Nice play!]

I just de go NBA picture! [SE: I just going through some NBA pictures!]

Blerk, Mba Mba John Wall; Chamese, CP 3...

This guy he de play Badiako, Bediako Hall! [SE: This guy, he plays for Bediako Hall!]

Charley, this picture de bii oo! [SE: Charley, this picture is fine/good!]

This one be what? [This one is what?]

Ah Chantel! [SE: Ah, Chantel!]

i be funny clip ![It's a funny clip!]

Start, start! [SE: Start it!]

Mo mene mo mene! [SE: Come and 'shit'/defecate!]

Oh i be funny clip! [SE: Oh, it's a funny clip!]

Oh! thirty pesewas, wonea thirty pesewas! [Come and defecate for only Thirty Pesewas!]

Mo mene mo mene! [SE: Come and 'shit'/defecate!]

Toilet troll! Toilet roll. [Give me toilet troll!]

Tie tie! [Listen, Listen!]

Ah Mo mene...thirty pesewas...[SE: Come and defecate...it's only Thirty Pesewas!]

I no go feel make. [SE: I'll not make it!]

Bosom de call; Bosom de call! [SE: Bosom is calling (me); Bosom is calling (me)!]

Eii, Afisco, thanks. [SE: Eii, Afisco, thanks!]

We wan T-roll! [SE: We want Toilet roll!]

T or kyem roll? [SE: T or Toilet roll?]

Somebody de wan shirt... [SE: Somebody wants to shit/defecate...]

These people, they are funny oo! [SE: These guys/people are funny!]

What is your name? [SE: What is your name?]

Chantel! [SE: Chantel!]

Chantel? [SE: Chantel?

And you? [SE: And you?]

Diamond! [SE: Diamond!]

Diamond? [SE: Diamond?]

I no get my roll over... [SE: I don't have my roll over...]

Appendix H

I see am yesterday. (I saw him yesterday.)

U chock, chock...last year we take FA, take ...legue, take community shield, take premiership... [Wait, last year we won FA cup, legue, community shield, premiership...]

The women all dem dog me. [All the women have left.]

Wey e say e de wan paddy me! Why I go paddy am?]

E go chase some chick eh, as he call de girl, e see say e be MTN or Areeba.

E check like scratches dey de CD top ah, e be de system. [it looks like there are some scratches on your CD]

Me I dey Man- U.[Me, I support Man-U]

You poppy self dem go worry...why, my kiddie e be homosexual or what? [My father would be worry that my son is a homosexual.]

My paddy bi dey legon. [My friend is in lagon/ I have a certain friend in lagon]

E no de use pen-drive too. [she doesn't use pen-drive too]

This boy is a fucking boy one time. [This boy is a bad boy]

So you get players? [So you have players?]

i bi sickness.[it is sickness.]

She bell ma phone. [She called me.]

She go bell me. [She will call me.]

I de pop my diferen place koraa[I was looking at a different place]

Den we de bash ball saf wey charley, the chick enter the yard. [Charley, we were playing ball when the girl entered the yard.]

I crosh am den I biz am say whatsup? [I met her and asked her how she was felling.]

So I biz am say who be dat paddy? [So, I asked her who that friend is.]

So charley, right there deɛ, I no shɛda get, say chaw dey de yard inside.[charley I am not lying that many girls are in the yard]

So e check like I no am very well. [It looks like I know her very well]

E check like dem came back. [It looks like they have come back.]

I de beg am. [I am begging him.]

E no be small boy. [He is not a small boy.]

Then she de come moretimes. [Then she started coming there often.]

She wan go medical school.[She want to go to medical school.]

So rightanow, I chock, I chock koraa. [Right now, I am waiting.]

I tell am say rightanow nobody de commot plus me. [I told her that right now no one is going out with me.]

E say, you no say de girlie e be your paddy i girlie.[Are you saying the girl is not your friend's girl friend?]

Den the girlies de talk say a de commot plus am. [Then the girls are saying I am going out with her.]

You be my body body. (You are my bosom friend)

I for bring what? (What should I bring/ I should bring what?)

De boy be petre petre! (The boy is troublesome/ too knowing!)

U de talk waa waa. (You are talking too much)

Dis guy be my paddy paddy. (This guy is my best friend)

Make u stop that yama yama thing. (You should stop that disgusting thing.)

Chop chop no be good.(Too much eating is not good).

Chop chop politicians (greedy/ corrupt politicians).

I de manage small small. (I'm managing fairly. or I'm fine!)

De girls dey there chaw chaw(There are plenty girls over there)

i no be kata kata for dis; you for kuul down!(it is not the issue of by force for this, or we don't use force for this; you must calm)

De way e de zook-zook an tins, e go love zook me, hug me...

Boys –boys dee, if you know what's up, dee, den tins you for look sharp.

E de sleep plus big-big women

He tear book (he knows book)! He is intelligent /clever)

e be iron boy(he is an iron boy): he is strong

e be God kid(he is God 's child) : he is a child of God)

Charley, you for get chicken heart? (Charley do you have chicken heart?): charley, are you coward?

e be a play boy! (He is a play boy)(he is a womanizer.)

Boys –boys dee, if you know what's up,deq, den tins you for look sharp(you should be smart and gentle if you are really a man and you know your left and right)

De dumsor wahala no bi easy oo! (The dumsor problem is not easy oo) the light of -light on problem is not easy at all.

I go finish my exams soon. [I will finish my examinations very soon]

Charley, you bi my bros! [Charley, you are my brothers]

I for lost vocabs! [I have lost vocabularies]

Make i go cafe (Let me go to cafeteria)

You go write exam. (You will write examination)

Asha, where your phone dey? (Asha, where is your phone?)

I no get paper morrow. (I don't have a paper tomorrow)

Wey e say e de wan paddy me!" or "Why I go paddy am?"

The women all dem dog me. (All the women have abandoned/left me).

"Some chick-bi whey e go sit trotro inside..." (There was this girl who went to sit in 'trotro'...);

The chick no bi you? (Were you the girl? or Are you the girl?);

I de won go allow the ride... (I want to go and allow the girl...)

"e bi your new ride?"(Is it your new car/girl?)

Me, I go ride am! (Me, I will have sex with her!)

i be money palava.(it is a financial problem)

i de bore me waa (it bores me very much)

e be ashawo (she is a prostitute)

Abokyi, why you de talk waa waa? (Friend, why are you talking too much?)

You go kyɛɛ?"(You will keep long?)

I de won go allow the ride... (I want to go and allow the girl...)

"e bi your new ride?"(Is it your new car/girl?)

Me, I go ride am! (Me, I will have sex with her)

Make i go cafe (Let me go to cafeteria)

You go write exam. (You will write examination)

I no get paper morrow. (I don't have a paper tomorrow)

You no get fridge in your dorm? (You don't have refrigerator in your dormitory)

He tear book (he knows book)! He is intelligent /clever)

e be iron boy(he is an iron boy): he is strong

e be God kid(he is God 's child) : he is a child of God)

Charley, you for get chicken heart? (Charley do you have chicken heart?) (charley, are you coward?)

e be a play boy! (He is a play boy)(He is a womanizer.)

Boys –boys dee, if you know what's up,dee, den tins you for look sharp(you should be smart and gentle if you are really a man and you know your left and right)

De dumsor wahala no bi easy oo! [The dumsor (off and on electric power supply) problem is not easy oo].

You be my body body (You are my bosom friend)

De boy be petre petre! (The boy is troublesome/ too knowing!)

U de talk waa waa (You are talking too much)

Dis guy be my paddy paddy. (This guy is my best friend)

Make u stop that yama yama thing. (You should stop that disgusting thing).

Make u see that Shorty guy [Look at that short guy]

U no see that Blacky? [You don't see that very dark guy]

Chop chop no be good. [Too much eating is not good].

Those Chop chop politicians are here again! [Those greedy/ corrupt politicians are here again.).

I de manage small small. (I'm managing fairly)

De girls dey there chaw chaw(There are plenty girls over there)

i no be kata kata for dis; you for kuul down!(it is not the issue of by force for this, or we don't use force for this; you must calm).

Boys –boys de ε , if you know what's up, de ε , den tins you for look sharp.

e de sleep plus big-big women(He is sleeping with big/wealthy women)

Make u comot from there! (You should comot from there).

De blood i de comot from your hand noo (the blood (it) is coming from your hand)

Charley, dem go telecast de match. [Charley, they will telecast the match]

e bi now i de take brunch! [It is now that i am taking my brunch]

We go talk [We will talk/we will be talking].

I go beat am" [I will beat him/ i will be beating him].

I no go go. [I will not go/ i will not be going.]

I de go talk [i am going to talk/ I will talk/I will be talking]

You de go come? [Are you going to come / will you come? Or you will be coming?]

U for wedge here small [You should wait here for a while.]

I de chop fufu [I am eating Fufu or i was eating Fufu.]

He de come (He is coming or He was coming.)

You de talk fine paa (You are speaking/talking well or you were speaking/talking.)

Na I de chop fufu (I was eating fufu).

Na I de read [I was reading].

I chop [I have eaten or I had eaten.]

u for use wedge chock the door![SE: You should use wedge to stop the door from moving.]

I take rice (I have taken rice or I had taken rice).

I chop finish (already) [I have/had eaten].

I dance finish (already) [I have/had danced.]

I wish I know de pikin.[I wish I knew the child].

I wish I de fit drive. [I wish I could drive].

If I be you, I go slap am. [If I were you, I would slap am].

If I be God, I for kill am (if I were God, I should have killed him).

Appendix I

Student Pidgin: Answers to Questionnaires on Some Sentences in the Standard English Language.

You fit eat all the food? [Can you eat all the food?] I wish I know the pikin [I wish I knew the boy.] I go slap am if I bi you! [If I were you, I would slap him.] You for come morrow! [You must come tomorrow!] You should praise God all the time. [You for praise God all time]. You go visit your parents this vacation? [You for drop that yam.] I chop fufu everyday. [I eat Fufu everyday!] I de chop fufu. [I'm eating Fufu.] Na I de chop Fufu. [I was eating Fufu.] I take Banku. [I have eaten Banku, or I eat Banku, or I ate Banku.] I take Rice yesterday. [I ate rice yesterday.] I take fufu before dem arrived. [I had eaten Banku before they arrived.] I go eat/chop Banku morrow. [I will eat Banku tomorrow.] Your wifee get bele? [Is you wife pregnant?] The time she come na I de bed. [When she came I was sleeping.] Mr. Ofori be my poppy. [Mr. Ofori is my father.] Na Yaw be my paddy. [Yaw was my friend]

Sake of love for my mum, I visit am all time] I love am bunch waa. [I love her so much.] If I be God I for kill Satan now now. [If I were God, I would kill Satan instantly.] God de come soon; make you repent. [God is coming soon; you should repent.] Ben de chop the Fufu. [Ben is eating the food. Or the food is being eaten by Ben.] We go graduate this year by hook or crook. [We are graduating this year by hook or by crook.]

