

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

SOME WORD FORMATION PROCESSES IN DAGAARE



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2012.

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**A Thesis in the Department of APPLIED LINGUISTICS, Faculty of
LANGUAGES EDUCATION , submitted to THE SCHOOL OF GRADUATE
STUDIES, of the UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA in partial
fulfilment of the requirements for award of the MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY
DEGREE.**

2012

DECLARATION

STUDENT'S DECLARATION

I, VIVIAN BOMANCHIHI NYEKANGA, declare that this dissertation, with the exception of quotations and references contained in published works which have been identified and duly acknowledged, is entirely my own 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 research work was supervised in accordance with the guidelines for supervision of research work laid down by the university of education, winneba.

NAME OF SUPERVISOR: DR. AVEA NSOH EPHRAIM

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The Almighty God deserves thanks for the great things he has done in my life. My heartfelt appreciation goes to my able supervisor, Dr. Avea Nsoh who had time to correct my numerous mistakes that I sent. This will ever remain in my mind. May the good Lord bless you abundantly. The work would not have come to its final stage if Dr. Atintono had not injected more energy into the reshaping of the thesis. He stepped in with his academic expertise. His instrumentality has, thus, propelled this work to this height. I do not know the words to select for use in thanking you for this wonderful work. May God keep your academic flame burning so that more doors may open to your academic vision. My thanks also go to all those who gave me direction, supported and encouraged me during this trying moment. I also extend my sincere thanks to my mates especially Sundeme and Gervase who pulled me along when I was about collapsing and made sure I finished the work. God bless you a million times. Finally, I thank everybody who in diverse ways supported me during the writing of this thesis. ‘Naaɲmene na ku ye kaɲa zaa u yelbuɔraa’.

DEDICATION

Glory be to God for the wonderful things He has done. The Almighty God deserves a lot of appreciation. I dedicate this work to my family members. My father – Lawrence Nyekanga, my mother Agnes Nyekanga, My husband Godfrey Tabong and my children: Albert Tabong and Francisca Tabong for their prayers, support and all that they did to see me through this work.



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ABBREVIATIONS

+ ATR	Plus Advance Tongue Root
2POSS	Second Person Possessive Plural
3PL	Third Person
3SG	Third Person Singular
A	Adjective
ADV	Adverb
AFF	Affix
AM	Affirmative Marker
+ATR	Advance Tongue Root
-ATR	Minus Advance Tongue Root
CONT	Continuation
INF	Infinitive
MRK	Marker
N	Noun
PAT	Particle
PERF	Perfect Tense
PL	Plural
PLMK	Plural Marker
PP	Present Participle
PROG	Progressive Form
PST	Past Tense
PSTM RK	Past Tense marker
SMK	Singular Marker
SUFF	Suffix



ABSTRACT

The research investigates word formation processes in Dagaare, a Gur language spoken in the Upper-West Region of Ghana. The word formation processes that were looked at include; derivation, compounding and reduplication. The research briefly touched on borrowing, clipping and coinage. The study notes that, there are a number of processes that take place during derivation. Thus, abstract nouns are derived from nouns by the addition of suffixes like -lɔŋ, -luŋ and -nuŋ. Furthermore, the suffix -rɛ which is an agentive suffix is added to the duplicated form of a verb to realize a nominal. The suffixes -bu/-bu, -mu/-mu are also attached to verb stems to derive nouns. In the nominalization of adjectives, we have the suffixes: -lɔŋ, -luŋ and -ruŋ. During the combination, deletion of syllables occurs. Even though Dagaare nouns are not automatically divided into masculine, feminine or neuter forms, a few words are attached to nouns to denote gender. These include: [-daa], [-pɔlee], [-dɔɔ], [-nyaŋaa], [-pɔge] and [-saraa]. These words have been referred to as suffixes by Bodomo (1997) and Dong (1977) whereas they are not. These are words on their own that can stand and make meaning. In the formation of compound words, Dagaare compounds undergo certain phonological processes such as vowel harmony, homorganic nasal assimilation, loss of final vowel of final syllable among others.

CHAPTER ONE

1.0 Introduction.

Dagaare is the language of the Dagaaba who are located at the north-western part of Ghana called the Upper-West Region and adjoining areas of Burkina Faso. The population of the Dagaaba is about 576,583 in Ghana (2002); Ghana Statistical service (web). Dagaare is a language many people have written about including non-native speakers. Many aspects of the language have been worked on. Word formation process which is a means by which new words enter a language has not been worked on. The researcher in an attempt to add to the already existing literature has chosen to work on some word formation processes which have not received much attention by linguists. As word formation does not exist in isolation but as part morphology, which is the study of the combination of morphemes to yield words, the researcher will describe how affixes are attached to stems to either add more meaning to them, that is, inflectional morphology – or change the word class of the word entirely, that is, derivational morphology.

1.1 Genetic Classification

Genetically, Dagaare has been classified as a member of the Oti-Volta group of the Niger-Congo family. According to Angkaaraba, (1997:129), Oti- Volta includes which was formerly called the Moosi-Mole-Dagbani group. The north- western Oti – Volta group has recently and more appropriately been referred to as ‘Mabia’ (Bodomo, 1993). ‘Mabia’ in Dagaare literally means ‘*N ma bie*’—(my mother’s child), whether brother or sister. This has evolved as a result of the similarities that exist between words and expressions of languages of the Gur group of languages.

Dagaare's immediate geographical neighbors are not its immediate genetic relatives. Some other languages that fall under the Gur family of languages are Gurene (Frafra), Dagbani, Kusaal, Mampruli and Moore which are found in the Upper-East and Northern Regions. Dakubu (1988:14) supports the argument that, the Gur area extends north-west into Burkina Faso, westwards and eastwards into Ivory Coast and Togo respectively.

1.2 Dagaare and its Dialects

Dagaare has a number of varieties and has been described as a language that has a continuum of dialects. Birifor, the western dialect and Waali the dialect of the town of Wa and some surrounding settlements are often felt to be separate languages. However, as Naden (1989:42) rightly points out, speakers of all these varieties understand each other without much difficulty. Bodomo (1997:5), on his part postulates that Dagaare has four main dialects. That is, if we are to take into consideration the prominent phonological, lexical and grammatical variations. These include; Northern Dagaare, Central Dagaare, Southern Dagaare and Western Dagaare. The Northern Dagaare, according to him comprises Nandom, Lawra and their surrounding villages. A good number of the speakers reside in Burkina Faso. The central Dagaare dialect is made up of Jirapa, Ulo, Boo, Tizza, Karne, Daffiama, Nadowli, and their surrounding villages. The central dialect is so called because; from the north to the south it occupies the middle zone. The missionaries who came into the country also first settled there specifically Jirapa. It was this very dialect that was used by the early missionaries to translate the scriptures into Dagaare. The same dialect is used for evangelizing since the advent of the missionaries in the colonial era. The central Dagaare is also the dialect used in education for teaching and learning as well

as for broadcasting. It is the variety that is used by students who study the language in educational institutions such as the Senior High Schools, Teacher Training Colleges and the Universities. The Southern Dagaare is the dialect spoken by the people of Kaleo, Takpo, Wa and their surrounding villages. The southern variety lies between the central and the western dialects and it is sometimes used for literacy too.

The Western Dagaare, which is also known as Birifor is spoken by the people from Tuna, Kalba, Lassia Tuolo and the villages around. The dialect shares boundaries with the southern dialect and the Gonjas. A good number of the speakers can also be found in the eastern side of the Black Volta in Burkina Faso and Cote d'Ivoire. In a related development, Waali which is a variety of Dagaare is seen by some linguists and even the Waala themselves as a language with its alternate names as Wala, Ala and –Ouala. According to 'The Joshua Project'¹, there are five (5) similar dialects within Waali. These include: Bulenge, Cherili, Dolimo, Fufula and Yeri Waali. All these dialects share in the speaking of Dagaare partly because they are mutually intelligible but they are grouped as one people.

Birifor is also a speech form which is related to Dagaare. The people call it Birifor and the language they speak Birifor which is found in two dialects, the northern dialect spoken in the Malba region and the southern dialect spoken in the Batié region. These can be found in the southwestern part of Burkina Faso and also in the northwest of Ghana in the Upper-West Region. The Joshua Project also states that, Birifor has its alternates like Birifor Ghana and Birifor Burkina Faso.

According to the project, Birifor is a separate language from Dagaare and Waali because of the extreme difficulty in understanding them. Their accent is completely

1

different from Dagaare and Wali but it is also classified under the Niger –Congo family. It goes further to state that Dagaare, Waali and Birifor are closely related languages which could even be classified as more or less mutually intelligible dialects spoken in broad area with which are situated the districts of Lambussie Nandom, Lawra, Jirapa, Wa and parts of Bole District to the south of Wa town. The major difference with the above dialects is in the vocabulary, phonology and syntax.

1.3 Language Name

The Dagaaba form the largest ethnic group of inhabitants of Upper-West Region. We also have the Dagara who live in the southwestern part of Burkina Faso. As a result, there are several varieties of terms used as referent appellation to the Dagaaba with reference to the existing literature of the Dagaaba. In fact, besides the term “Dagaaba”, there are terms like “Dagaba”, “Dagaabas”, “Daga-Wille”, “LoDagaa”, “LoDagaaba and sometimes ‘Dagaare’ Kyiileyang (unpublished article). He is of the view that the confusion created can be traced to the fact that there are some dialectal differences in the “Lingua Franca” (Dagaare) which people speak. It could also be attributed to the early Europeans who acted as our colonial administrators and ethnologists and misrepresented the Dagaaba in their efforts to identify and describe the people they just came in contact with. The Dagaaba who live in the extreme northwestern corner of Ghana and across the Black Volta in Burkina Faso call both themselves and the language they speak “Dagara” Those who speak “Dagaare” or “Dagaari”, live exclusively in the south western part of the lobr (Dagara) dialect group. They call themselves “Dagaaba” and the language they speak “Dagaare”. Despite these differences, the two groups of people –the Dagaaba and the Dagara – know fully well that they speak the same language with different accents.

1.4 The Statement of the Problem

Dagaare is the major language spoken in the Upper-West Region. It is the one used for evangelization in the region since the advent of the missionaries in the colonial era. It is also one of the government sponsored languages for teaching and learning in institutions. According to Bodomo (2000:5) beyond these relatively early missionary studies, the language has received a fair amount of attention by linguists. Notable work of the native speakers of the language include: Angkaaraba, (1980), (1997), Yabang (1990), Dong, (1981) and Bodomo, (2000, 1997). There are also works by some non-native speakers. These also include; Kennedy (1966) and Dakubu (1988, 2005). He continues by stating that these works span the area of phonology, syntax, semantics and sociolinguistics, mainly in the form of articles and monographs. It is against this backdrop that the researcher seeks to work on some word formation processes in Dagaare which has not been touched by any of the linguists to add to the already existing literature. The word formation processes the researcher intends to work on include derivation, compounding, reduplication and other word formation processes. Derivation, according to Aronoff and Fudeman (2005:45), is the creation of one lexeme from another. In other words, it is a process in which an affix is added to the stem of a word to either add more meaning to the already existing word or change the class of the original word entirely. Thus, derivational patterns commonly change the word-class of the base. For instance, nouns can be derived from verbs, adjectives from nouns and so on. It is important to note that derivational affixation is of two kinds, thus class maintaining and class changing affixes.

In the class maintaining category, an affix is added to the stem of a particular word class to realize the new word also in the same class as exemplified below:

	Noun	suff	noun	gloss
1.				
a.	<i>naa</i>	<i>loã</i>	<i>naalvã</i>	chieftaincy
	Chief	suff		
b.	<i>svÿ</i>	<i>loã</i>	<i>svovov</i>	witchcraft
	witchery	suff		
c.	<i>daa</i>	<i>rov</i>	<i>daarov</i>	business
	market	suff	<i>dv</i>	<i>lov</i>
d.	<i>dvovov</i>	manhood		
	man	suff		
e.	<i>bvndaana</i>	<i>nov</i>	<i>bvndaanov</i>	wealth
	rich person	suff		
f.	<i>nannyige</i>	<i>rov</i>	<i>nannyigrov</i>	theft
	thief	suff		

In Dagaare, the class maintaining derivation is only associated with nouns, where a noun on attracting an affix changes to an abstract noun as already illustrated above.

In the class changing derivation, a word from a class, taking on an affix changes the word class of the original word resulting in a new word being formed with different lexical categories. For instance, an adjective plus an affix can realize a noun as in the examples below:

	Adjective	suff	noun	gloss
2.				
a.	<i>zIE</i>	<i>lov</i>	<i>zeelov</i>	redness
	red	suff	redness	
b.	<i>faa</i>	<i>lov</i>	<i>faalov</i>	wickedness
	bad	suff		
c.	<i>vIElE</i>	<i>lov</i>	<i>vIElov</i>	beauty

	nice/beautiful	suff		
d.	<i>lige</i>	<i>ruŋ</i>	<i>ligruŋ</i>	darkness
	dark	suff		
e.	<i>wogi</i>	<i>ruŋ</i>	<i>wogruŋ</i>	length/height
	tall/long	suff		

Similarly, an affix attached to a verb can result in a noun being formed as illustrated under:

	Verb	suff	new word	gloss
3.				
a.	<i>di</i>	<i>bu</i>	<i>diibu</i>	food
	eat	suff		
b.	<i>zo</i>	<i>bu</i>	<i>zoobu</i>	running (act)
	run	suff		
c.	<i>tuo</i>	<i>bu</i>	<i>tuobu</i>	luggage
	carry	suff		
d.	<i>nɔŋ</i>	<i>mɔ</i>	<i>nɔmmɔ</i>	love
	love	suff		
e.	<i>ziŋ</i>	<i>mɔ</i>	<i>zimmɔ</i>	sitting(act)
	sit	suff		
f.	<i>baŋ</i>	<i>mɔ</i>	<i>bammɔ</i>	
	know	suff	knowledge	
g.	<i>zɔŋ</i>	<i>nɔŋ</i>	<i>zɔnnɔŋ</i>	blindness
	to be blind	suff		

Suffixes that are attached to verbs to change them to nouns are many in Dagaare, but the above are just some of them. Their attachment to the stem is based on the [-+ATR] where the stem consists of [+ATR] vowels, the affix will also be [+ATR], and where it contains [-ATR] vowels, the affix will follow suit. For example, the words “*bie*” and “*bɔɔ*” are from the [+ATR] and [-ATR] vowels respectively.

Through the process of assimilation, when the stem verb ends with the nasal velar “ŋ” and is to take the -*mɔ* affix, to form the noun, then the “ŋ” making it to take after its place of articulation and also lengthens itself as in the examples below:

	Verb	suff	noun	gloss
4.				
a.	<i>mɔŋ</i> stir	<i>mɔ</i> suff	<i>mɔmmɔ</i>	stiring (act)
b.	<i>gaŋ</i> lie	<i>mɔ</i> suff	<i>gammɔ</i>	lying (act)
c.	<i>taŋ</i> to be quiet	<i>mɔ</i> suff	<i>tammɔ</i>	the act of keeping quiet

Vowel diphthongization occurs in the process of forming new words from verbs through affixation. For instance, when certain verbs in Dagaare are to attract suffixes, they experience some vowel lengthening. These sounds come into the new word as a result of some phonological processes in the language. This is also exemplified below:

	Verb	suff	compound	gloss
5				
a.	<i>wa</i>	<i>bɔ</i>	<i>waabɔ</i>	‘coming (act)’
b.	<i>laŋ</i> gather	<i>mɔ</i> suff	<i>lammɔ</i>	‘gathering(act)’
c.	<i>la</i> laugh	<i>bɔ</i> suff	<i>laabɔ</i>	‘laughter (act)’
d.	<i>kɔ</i> kill	<i>bɔ</i> suff	<i>kɔɔbɔ</i>	‘killing (act)’
e.	<i>di</i> eat	<i>bu</i> suff	<i>diibu</i>	‘eating (act)/food’

f.	<i>le</i>	<i>bu</i>	<i>leebu</i>	‘falling (act)’
	fall	suff		

In a related development, some words particularly verbs in Dagaare have to go through some vowel diphthongization on attracting affixes to become nouns. This can be seen below:

	Verb	suff	new word	gloss
6. a.	<i>mε</i>	<i>bυ</i>	<i>mιεbυ</i>	‘moulding’
	mould	suff		
b.	<i>Kyε</i>	<i>bu</i>	<i>kyιεbυ</i>	‘cutting’
	cut	suff		
c.	<i>tɔ</i>	<i>bυ</i>	<i>tɔbυ</i>	‘pounding’
	pound	suff		
d.	<i>sε</i>	<i>bυ</i>	<i>sιεbυ</i>	‘sewing’
	sew	suff		
e.	<i>ηmε</i>	<i>bυ</i>	<i>ηmιεbυ</i>	‘beating’
	beat	suff		
f.	<i>gbe</i>	<i>re</i>	<i>gbiere</i>	‘grind roughly’
	grind	suff		
g.	<i>do</i>	<i>ro</i>	<i>duoro</i>	‘climbing(act)’
	climb	suff		
h.	<i>bɔ</i>	<i>rɔ</i>	<i>bɔrɔ</i>	‘looking for (act)’
	to look for	suff		

The situation can be explained from the fact that, when a stem verb ends in a vowel, that vowel is either lengthened or diphthongized by another vowel from that class of the same set as the parent stem. The rest of the word formation processes under review will be exhausted in the rest of the chapters.

1.5 Objectives of the Study.

This thesis seeks to:

1. investigate how new words are formed from existing morphemes with particular reference to derivational affixes.
2. further find out other ways of creating new words that are not related to derivation.
3. assist students and people interested in the development of the language to understand some of the word formation processes in Dagaare. This would help in the development of the language.

1.6 Significance of the Study

It is expected that the findings of the study would be significant in a number of ways. Not only will it help in the development of the language, it is further expected to add to the existing literature as worked on by Bodomo and other linguists. Students and teachers will equally benefit as they will come to understand how words are formed in Dagaare. Finally, it is hoped that the findings will provide direction for further studies/research.

1.7 Limitation and Delimitation of the Study.

The research study was centered on word formation processes in Dagaare. The study was carried out in the central Dagaare zone comprising Jirapa and its environs, Nadowli and its surrounding areas and Daffiama and areas under its jurisdiction. Participants for the study consisted of teachers who teach Dagaare in Senior High Schools within the zone, students in the institutions and elderly native speakers within

the area. On account of numbers, four Senior High Schools from Jirapa, Ullo, Daffiama and Nadowli who teach Dagaare in the selected schools and four native speakers from the selected areas were engaged in the study. Four students from each of the Senior High Schools mentioned above were also engaged in the study. There was a high level of co-operation between the respondents and the researcher in the data collection.

Some difficulties were however encountered during the gathering of the data on the study. Following the location of some of the institutions, they were not easily accessible. This compelled the researcher to engage in motorbike hiring to get to such places since the schools and respondents were scheduled. This called for the engagement of motorbike riders. This was met with dissatisfaction from riders since the research programme conflicted with the riders. To stop engaged riders from complaining, they were motivated so that they could render the services open heartedly. In the same vein, some respondents were equally enticed before they could agree to provide the needed data. The weather added more woes to the programme as the rain gave the researcher a good deal in some of the rounds to gather the data as gathered materials were soaked by the rain resulting in the loss of some of them.

Despite the obstacles, the programme was successfully worked out.

1.8 Organization of the work

This study presents some word formation processes in Dagaare, an Oti- Volta language that belongs to the Gur family of languages in Ghana and spoken in the Upper-West Region of Ghana. The study examined some of the word formation processes in the language under review.

Chapter one which is the introductory part, attempted to bring out the genetic classification of Dagaare, its dialects, and the language name together with the statement of the problem and the objectives of the study. The research questions and the significance were not left out. Other areas that were covered in this chapter included the scope and limitation and delimitation of the study and finally the organization of the work.

Chapter two also concentrated on related literature review.

The third chapter covered the methodology. Here the various methods that were employed to gather the data for this work were discussed and analyzed.

Chapter four dealt with derivation. Again here, the researcher delved into the possible ways of deriving new words from already existing ones by the addition of affixes. In this section we saw how new words are derived from other ones or by the use of suffixes. Here it was observed that not all the word classes could be used when it comes to derivation.

Chapter five also covered compounding which is the most productive way of adding to the lexicon. The areas covered in this chapter include, the types and forms of compounds, the formation of compounds was not left out as every language has its own word formation rules. Some compound features in the language under review were also dealt with. In the formation of compounds, Dagaare can have as many as four words that can form a compound word.

The sixth chapter looked at reduplication and other word formation processes. Reduplication has two types. These are partial and full reduplication. It discusses

verbal and adjectival reduplication. It also touches on how numerals are duplicated and the essence of reduplication.

The other word formation processes which included: borrowing, clipping and coinage also received some explanation briefly. Most languages borrow from others to fill in gaps. These borrowed words have come about as a result of rural-urban migration, inter-marriages and evangelization just to mention but a few. Dagaare, just like any other language, borrows from other languages. The last chapter presented the summary, findings recommendations and conclusion and of the study.



CHAPTER TWO

2.0 RELATED LITERATURE REVIEW

The very first work on the linguistic study of Dagaare was by the early European missionaries. According to Bodomo (2000:5), the first monograph of any substance on the language is Jack Kennedy's field notes on Dagaare phonology which was published in 1966. Some other missionaries who first visited the area also worked on some aspects of the language. All the studies conducted by them concentrated on phonology or other different aspects of the Dagaare language.

Apart from the works done by these missionaries, the language has received a fair amount of studies from linguists, some of whom are natives. Notable amongst them are Yabang (1990), Bodomo (1997, 2000) and Saanchi (1980, 1997). There are also studies from non-native speakers such as Dakubu (1988, 2005) and Kenedy (1966). These works, according to Bodomo (2000), span the areas of phonology, syntax, semantics and sociolinguistics in Dagaare.

Bodomo (1997) outlines a number of similar derivational processes in Dagaare in his book entitled *The Structure of Dagaare*. Some of the processes are discussed below in subsequent paragraphs.

Chapter eight (8) of this book discusses the morphology of the Dagaare noun, with the subtitles as nominal systems, types of nouns and noun class systems.

Under the nominal systems, Bodomo (1997) explains that, nominal systems usually include case, number, gender and person. According to him, Dagaare is not a case language. In other words, nouns in Dagaare lack overt case markings. He explains further that besides a few number of suffixes such as – *daa*, –*saara* and –*nyarjaa*, which are usually put on nouns denoting living things, Dagaare nouns are not automatically divided into masculine, feminine and neuter forms. He gives the

following examples to support his claim.

- | | | |
|----|------------------|-------------------|
| 7. | <i>bɔdaa</i> | he -goat |
| | <i>bɔsaraa</i> | a young she- goat |
| | <i>bɔnyarɔaa</i> | an old she -goat |

In a similar situation, Dong (1977), refers to ‘*dɔɔ*’ and ‘*pɔɔge*’, *daa* and *nyarɔaa* as suffixes that denote gender in the language. Even though the researcher agrees with them on the notion that these can show whether a particular noun is male ,female young or old, she thinks that ‘*daa*’, ‘*-saraa*’, ‘*-dɔɔ*’, and ‘*-nyarɔaa* are words in Dagaare. They are free morphemes that can stand on their own and make meaning. These words can rather add to other words to form compound words and this will feature in the discussion on compound words formation. It can further be noted that suffixes can be added to them to derive new words as found below:

- | | | | |
|----|-------------|---------|------------------------|
| 8. | Saraa + rɔŋ | sarrɔŋ | youthfulness of girls. |
| | Nyarɔ + nɔŋ | nyannɔŋ | old age |

Bodomo (1997) continues his explanation on the types of nouns in Dagaare and states that there are six (6) types of nouns in Dagaare. These include:

- 1) Proper nouns
- 2) Numerals – cardinals and ordinals.
- 3) Concrete nouns
- 4) Agentive nouns – ‘*raa*’
- 5) Abstract – ‘*ong*’ nouns.
- 6) Verbal derivative nouns.

The agentive nouns in Dagaare have the suffix ‘- raa’ that is attached to denote the doer of something, but the researcher wants to add that, it is not the only suffix that can be attached to nouns to denote the doer of something. We could also have -‘râ’, -‘rɔ’, -‘ro’, -‘re’ and so on which also denote the doer of an action as presented below:

9. a.	<i>âmiâmiârâ</i>	‘beater’
b.	<i>memiere</i>	‘potter’
c.	<i>siâsiârâ</i>	‘dancer’
d.	<i>borborô</i>	‘sower’
e.	<i>sorsɔɔ</i>	‘beggar’
d.	<i>wuowuoro</i>	‘weaver’
e.	<i>kurkuro</i>	‘blacksmith’
f.	<i>didire</i>	‘glutton’

Bodomo (1997) also notes that ‘ong’ is the suffix that is attached to nouns to derive abstract nouns. Again, the researcher has also found out that, the suffixes ‘-nuŋ’ ‘-ruŋ’ ‘-luŋ’ and ‘loŋ’ could be added to the list.

The noun class system is an area worked on by Bodomo (1997). He discusses two ways by which Dagaare nouns can be classified. He points out that, nouns can be classified firstly, according to the similarities between their singular and plural affixes. For the second way by which nouns can be classified, Bodomo explains that the nouns are put into groups or classes based on the similarities of the singular affixes on one hand, and the plural affixes on the other hand. He concludes by stating that the above study establishes nine (9) affixes and eleven (11) noun classes based on plural affixes.

The present study agrees with what Bodomo (1997) brings out in his book. This is

because, even though his classification is on nouns, it focuses on the classification by way of the similarities of singular and plural affixes. He does not focus on the derivational processes that the present study focuses on. It is worth mentioning that the noun class system of Dagaare is a complex system that needs to be thoroughly studied. Therefore, there is the need for a detailed and elaborate study into the derivation systems of the Dagaare language before any comprehensive conclusions are made. For this reason, the current study thus, adds to, knowledge on the derivational processes in Dagaare.

Bodomo's (1997) discussion covers nominalization. According to him, nominalization is a process which involves the formation of nouns from verbs and adjectives. He presents the table below to demonstrate his point.

	verb	nominalised item
10.	<i>zo</i> 'run'	<i>zoou/bu</i> 'the act of running'.
	<i>wa</i> 'come'	<i>waaw/bu</i> 'the act of coming'
	<i>iri</i> 'get up'	<i>iriuu/bu</i> 'act of getting up'
	adjective	nominalised item
	<i>faa</i> 'bad'	<i>faalɔŋ</i> 'bad deed, evil'.
	<i>wogi</i> 'long, tall',	<i>wogruŋ</i> 'length, height'

The data above could however be expanded by including the suffixes -'nɔŋ' and -'luŋ' as these can also be attached to nouns and adjectives to form nominals.

Touching on compounding, Bodomo (1997) states that, the common examples of compounding are the noun-to-adjective sequence where nouns precede their adjectives, mostly forming a compound. He then illustrates this below:

11. *gam* ‘book’ *bile* ‘small’ *ganbile* ‘small book’
pôgi ‘women’ *velaa* ‘good’ *pôgivilaa* ‘good women’.

Bodomo (1997) however, failed to realize that it is not only the noun and the adjective that can combine to form a compound, but that we can also have certain combinations such as a noun and a verb, noun and noun and to also form compounds in Dagaare. These other combinations which are not found in the studies reviewed so far are illustrated and discussed in this study.

Bodomo (2000) sees compounding as a very productive word formation process Dagaare. According to him, many new words and expressions are formed through compounding of several entities including noun + adjective, noun + noun, verb + noun and elements of phrase. Below are some examples by him.

- 12.a *dôô* + *lee* *dôôlee*
man + small ‘boy’.
- b *nîa* + *faa* *nîfaa*
person + bad ‘bad fellow’.
- c *die* + *pôgi* *die pôgi*.
room + woman ‘wife, housewife, homemaker’.
- d *yô* + *ta* *yôta*
roam + reach ‘person’s name’.

As can be seen from the examples above, Bodomo only discusses two-word compounding out of the many other possibilities of compounding in Dagaare, which may include three or more words. This study therefore adds to what has been done by Bodomo (2000) by looking at three-word compounds and so on in Dagaare.

Reduplication and compounding are included in Bodomo (2000). Under reduplication, Bodomo explains that, it is a pervasive morphological process across languages of the world.

According to him, it involves the repetition or multiple occurrences of a morphological entity within a large unit. He posits that there are two types of reduplication: partial and full reduplication. He then illustrates full reduplication of verbs, adjectives and adverbs, and partial reduplication in ideophones. This is exemplified below.

13. *zo zo* ‘run, run’

wogwog ‘tall, tall, long, long’

vâlvâlvâl ‘very long’

vânvâlâη ‘description of a position occupied by a long entity.’

The present study extends the reduplication processes by looking at other areas which include noun and adjective reduplication.

Dakubu (2005) is another linguist who has conducted studies that are similar to those by Bodomo in Dagaare. In her (2005) study, she discusses derived stems in Dagaare. She argues that in some Oti-Volta languages, there is an elaborate system of deriving verb stems from other simpler stems. But according to her, we find very little of this in Dagaare. She however gives a number of verbs that can be compared with a similar verb that has a suffix *-li/ir* with various phonological modifications. She further

explains that in some cases of the derived stems, the derived verb has causative meaning. She again claims that the stem does not always exist as a verb on its own but sometimes occurs only with a different suffix. Indeed some verbs like:

- 14.a. *di* eat
 b. *kpi* die
 c. *mâ* build/mould,
 d. *va* thrash

exist as stems on their own. They do not need any suffix to make them verbs. It is evident that even though Dakubu (2005) looks at the derivational processes in Dagaare, her concern is mainly with derived stems of verbs, rather than nouns. My study is an extension of the derivational processes by looking at different forms of derivation such as deriving nouns from verbs and adjectives.

Dakubu (2005) also includes another kind of stem derivation, which according to her is by doubling the simple stem. She argues that the imperfect suffix can be added to the reduplicated stem. This means that the meaning is always the repetition of an event that is often, a complex of several implied actions done over and over again. Dakubu uses verbs to demonstrate reduplication but we can also have reduplication of adjectives, nouns and adverbs. She illustrates this below:

- | | | |
|-----|--|---------------------------------|
| 15. | <i>A biiri didi – e</i> | The children ate ate. |
| | <i>fa: o 'fafa ma la di</i> | He cheated me (more than once). |
| | <i>ziŋ : yɛ ziŋ ziŋ kɔgi la a baala</i> | you sit sit by the patient. |
| | <i>boŋ la ka yɛ ari ari le</i> | why are you standing like that. |
| | <i>ta yuo yuo fo nimmie na kaara ma.</i> | don't look at me |

Chapter six (6) of Dakubu (2005) discusses Dagaare nominal structures. She posits that every nominal lexical stem has a root that never occurs on its own, but has a number suffix or is compounded with another following lexical item. She explains

that a basic nominal consists of a root plus an affix usually a suffix that shows whether the word is singular or plural.

Again, we can have roots that exist on their own without the number suffix. The roots 'zu' "head" and 'ba' "friend" are words on their own. They are the roots as well as the singular form. It is only when suffixes are added to them that the plural forms are realized.

Thus, 16.a. 'zu' head zuri heads.

b. 'ba' friend bamine friends.

She also admits that every Dagaare noun has two suffixed forms; singular and plural. However, there are certain nouns in Dagaare whose suffixes do not show any form of singularity or plurality which, Dakubu (2005) does not talk about. When the suffixes 'lɔŋ' 'ruŋ', 'nɔŋ' are added to nouns, these nouns become abstract. The present study thus illustrates and discusses these in detail to complement the existing literature.

Dakubu's (2005) work covers the simple noun in Dagaare. Under this subtitle, she explains that Dagaare nouns form their singulars and plurals in several ways. Nouns, according to her, can be classified according to which singular and plural suffixes they take. This assumption is similar to the classification by Bodomo (1997). The only difference is that, Dakubu (2005) outlines six (6) singular classes as against nine (9) and five (5) plural classes against eleven (11) by Bodomo (1997). The focus of this study is however not on the classification of nouns so we will not say anything further.

Discussing abstract nouns, Dakubu (2005) states that abstract nouns that name activities are derived from verbs by the suffix – *bu*, with the 'b' usually deleted. She then provides the data below to support her point.

17.	<i>di</i>	<i>diiu</i>
	eat	eating
	<i>kô</i>	<i>kôôv</i>
	farm	farming

A further explanation states that the suffix *-ŋ* is added when the central dialects are used. Once again, in forming abstract nouns, there are a number of suffixes used apart from the above. These include; *-bɔ/-mɔ/-mu/-vɔ* depending on the dialect.

Dakubu (2005) includes agentive and instrumental nouns. She argues that agentive and instrumental nouns are nouns indicating the doer of an action, or an entity used to perform the action respectively. She explains that if the derived noun refers to a human agent, it sometimes adds the singular suffix of the gender and the plural formed with the gender plural suffix *-ba*. She then provides the data below.

18.	<i>kôôr – aSMK</i>	farmer	<i>kôôre – baPLMK</i>	farmers.
	<i>duor – oSMK</i>	climber	<i>duori – boPLMK</i>	climbers.

The illustration above is not exhaustive since there are instances where the stem of the verb is repeated to bring about the intensity of an action or to show how perfect someone is at doing something, all of which are not included in Dakubu's study. The present study will, once again, look at these other instances to add to what earlier studies like Dakubu's have done. Some examples of the verb stem duplication are provided below:

	verb	derived noun
19. a.	<i>sîâ</i>	<i>sîâsîârâ</i>
	to dance	dancer
b.	<i>wul</i>	<i>wulwulo</i>

to teach teacher.

Discussing the subtitle *The Qualifier Incorporation*, Dakubu (2005) explains that it refers to the process whereby a noun and its qualifier are compounded into a single word. She goes further to state that, it is a morphological process whereby the first root in a compound appears without the number suffix it needs to make an independent word. This process is seen by the researcher as an instance of derivation. This is because it is a combination of a root plus an affix. It is not only in the combination of the noun and adjective or the noun and noun that the noun appears in its stem form as stated by Dakubu (2005). There are other combinations such as noun + verb, by which other single words could be derived. These other combinations will also form a major part of this study so that the various possibilities of derivation in Dagaare will be made available to the users of the language.



CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0: Introduction

This chapter deals with the various strategies that were employed to collect the data on the study. It discusses the participants who were used for the study and the reason for their choice. The instrumentation, sample and sampling procedures, research design and data analysis.

3.1 Participants.

The data was collected from a teacher each who teaches Dagaare at Ulo SHS, St Francis Girls' SHS, Queen of Peace SHS and Daffiama SHS. The ages of these teachers ranges between twenty-eight and forty years. These teachers have studied the language at the University level and have being teaching it at the SHS level for the past three, four and five years respectively. It was therefore envisaged that they would have ample knowledge on the various word formation processes, thus they would be in the position to provide adequate and reliable data bordering on the study.

Students in SHS 2 in the aforementioned Senior High Schools were also engaged in the study. The students who were selected for the study aged between eighteen and twenty-four years. It was assumed that students at this level would have a good knowledge of the language. They would be capable of contributing meaningfully and effectively to word formation processes.

Finally, native speakers from the central Dagaare area which comprises people in and around Jiriapa, Ulo, Nadoli and Daffiama, from which the researcher also hails, were involved in the data collection. They were considered assets in the study because they

have grown with the language. They could therefore contribute effectively and unconsciously produce words which lunge on some of the word formation processes.

Since all these participants use the dialect in the central Dagaare area, the standard form of words would be elicited as the central dialect has been considered the standard form of the language for educational purposes. It is the dialect accepted, adopted and developed to symbolize Dagaare because of the high level of unintelligibility among the other dialects.

Data from secondary sources such as Dagaare readers for schools and Dagaare vowels added more quality to the data collected from primary sources.

3.2 Sample and Sampling Procedures

Many people were informally used to gather the data for this work. The researcher used purposive and random sampling techniques to elicit the data. Four graduate teachers who teach Dagaare at Ulo SHS, St Francis Girls' SHS, Queen of Peace SHS and Daffiama SHS were used. The choice of these respondents was based on the fact that many students in these schools offer the subject, Dagaare, at the end of their courses for certification. It is then believed that the teaching and learning of the language in these schools is vigorously embraced and pursued. The teachers would have then taught the students many word formation processes. They may provide authentic and useful data for the study.

Sixteen (16) SHS 2 students, made up of four (4) students from each of the four (4) Senior High Schools were randomly picked and used to gather information from them. Based on their interest in the learning of the language, data could be collected from them

3.3 Research Design

The research design for this study is a descriptive one. This is because it is an attempt to describe the way new words enter the language and their lexical functions so as to make as many people as possible to intensify the birth of similar and more new ones and make them accessible to people of the language for use.

The design here is therefore a qualitative one. It is so labeled because the data is analyzed without hypothetic formulation. The data is normally inductively analyzed. It is on the basis of this that Best and Kahn (2006) see qualitative method as a means of describing events without the use of numeral data. The process involves procedures, data typically collected in the participant's settings and analyses inductively.

The researcher went directly to the research area of her interest to observe and collect the data. The data collected was then analyzed without using quantitative procedure. The natural settings were the direct sources of data and the researcher the key instrument.

The design was found to be suitable because the major instruments used were through participatory observations from informal or unstructured interviews from which the researcher gathered relevant and adequate information for the study.

3.4 Instrumentation

Unstructured or informal interviews and participatory observations were the main instruments used to gather the information on the study. These instruments are explained and expanded below.

3.4.1 Interview

This was a kind of meeting during which participants were asked questions. Lessons on word formation processes were conducted by the teachers and observed by the researcher. At the end of the lessons the four teachers from the selected Senior High Schools were asked unstructured questions on the topics being taught.

Twelve SHS 2 students were also randomly selected and asked questions on the topics that they were taught. Three students from each of the Senior High Schools were interviewed.

The questions asked were all in the local language. (Dagaare). Answers from such questions were the basis for the data collection.

3.4.2 Observation

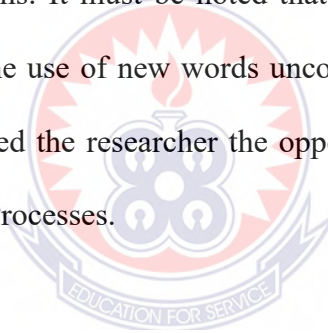
Observation was another method that was used to obtain information on the study. This was an informal instrument used inside and outside the classroom. During lessons delivery by the teachers, the researcher placed herself in a way that enabled her to see, hear and listen to whatever transpired between the teachers and the students.

During break and other out-of-classroom activities, the researcher listened to the use of words by students in their conversations. Particular attention was paid to new words uttered from root words.

The researcher also listened to the language used by native speakers both literate and non-literate alike with reference to the building of new words at social gatherings such as meetings, entertainment spots, church services, and funerals.

These words were gathered and put according to the various word formation processes and later analyzed.

In all these settings, keen attention was paid to how all these native speakers used words in their constructions. It must be noted that no discussion ensued among the native speakers without the use of new words unconsciously used in their sentences. All these instances afforded the researcher the opportunity to take note of important data on Word Formation Processes.



3.5 Data Analysis

A variety of phrases, clauses and sentences were produced by participants which contained words, some of which demonstrated the word formation processes. It was realized that some of the words that participants released were new words derived from some of the major word classes such as nouns, verbs and adjectives. The new words come about through derivation. Others were compound new words while others came from reduplication. There were also borrowed and coined ones. This therefore demonstrates that many new words are introduced into the language through a number of word formation processes

Though the number of participants for the study was quite insignificant as compared to the many speakers, the objective of the study was to demonstrate that new words enter the Dagaare language through certain word formation processes. On the basis of this, the analysis of the data was purely descriptive, describing the various processes new words can be introduced into the language.



CHAPTER FOUR

DERIVATIONAL PROCESSES

4.0 Introduction

There are several word-formation processes in Dagaare. What they all have in common is that they take an existing base, stem or root and produce a new form. It may be said that only nominals, verbals and adjectives can be used as bases in the formation of derivatives.

Derivation is a process of forming new words by the addition of affixes. In this type of word formation process, the word class of the original word is sometimes changed to a different word class on attracting an affix. For instance, when the affixes *[-nuã, -nuã, -bu/-bu, -mɔ/-mu]* are added to some verbs or adjectives, they change their class to nominal, that is from the original word class to that of nouns. Derivation is seen as one of the most productive word formation processes in the production of new words besides compounding. This involves the creation of a new word from an existing one. As stated early on, the roots of verbs, adjectives take suffixes to derive nouns and this means that the bound morphemes which are attached to other words to change the class are derivational suffixes.

4.1.0 Types of derivation

There are a number of derivational processes involved in Dagaare. These processes enable us to derive words from the major word classes. These include verbs, nouns and adjectives. In the language, we can have verbal, nominal and adjectival derivation. An attempt will be made at explaining them. I will begin with verbal derivation, follow it up with nominalization and conclude with adjectival derivation.

4.1.1 Verbal derivation

Verbal derivation is a term used to describe derivation of a verb from another verb, an adjective or a noun typically by the addition of derivational suffixes to verbal roots. In Dagaare, the only verbal derivation we have is verb-to-verb derivation. This, however, is not very productive because only a few of the verbs can actually be used for derivation. This is explained in the section below.

4.1.1.0. Verb-to-verb derivation

This is a process in which suffixes are attached to the roots of verbs to produce verbs. These may include causativity and reversibility (Bodomo, 1997). A causative is an expression of an agent causing or forcing a subject to perform an action or to be in a certain state. In other words, a causative is a form that indicates that a subject causes someone or something else to do or be something or cause a change. Here, agents are seen as the causers of the situations which by their actions, bring into existence, or in short one situation causing another, Lyons (1977:490). Like all languages, Dagaare has ways of expressing causation. In Dagaare, causativity is marked by the morpheme *-li* or its variant *-li-*. These suffixes when attached to the roots of verbs do not change the grammatical class of the original verbs. *-li* is associated with the root structure CVC, where the second C is a nasal. A situation where the verb is of the CVC structure, the last C which is a nasal is deleted, then either the velar sound /g/ is inserted before or the vowel is lengthened before the suffix is added as demonstrated in (20a& b) below. Its variant /li/ can also be attached to the verb structure CVC or CV, where V in both structures is a vowel from the [+ATR] class and a high vowel. Let us consider the data below:

	Verb	suff	gloss	derivative	gloss
20.a.	<i>ziã</i>	<i>li</i>	‘sit’	<i>zighi</i>	‘cause one to sit’
b.	<i>gaã</i>	<i>li</i>	‘sleep’	<i>gaali</i>	‘put another to sleep’
c.	<i>dogi</i>	<i>li</i>	‘cook’	<i>dogili</i>	‘put smth on fire’
d.	<i>nyu</i>	<i>li</i>	‘drink’	<i>nyugli</i>	‘make some one drink’

As can be seen from the above examples, some of the derived verbs are monosyllabic while others are disyllabic and they take the suffix depending on the tongue position in the production of the vowels that constitute the verb stem. For instance, examples (20a & b) above consist of vowels from the [-ATR] class hence the attachment of //, whereas example (20c) demonstrates verbs from the [+ATR] class.

There are also certain irregular forms of verbs that exhibit causativity in Dagaare but their classification is not based on any affixes. These can be termed lexical causatives. Most of the verbs in this category are monosyllabic and the suffix that denotes the causativity is completely different from the stem word. As there are different ways of exhibiting causativity, it may not be easy trying to group them. Let us again look at the examples below.

	Verb	gloss	new word	gloss
21. a.	<i>kpi</i>	‘die’	<i>ko</i>	‘kill’
b.	<i>iri</i>	‘wake up’	<i>siã</i>	‘cause to wake up’.
c.	<i>di</i>	‘eat’	<i>su</i>	‘put something in ones mouth’

The causative morphemes in examples (21a & b) cannot be distinguished from the stem words. This is because the word that is derived is completely different from the verb st

4.1.1.1. The Reversive

According to Bodomo (1997:91), reversives are pairs of words that exhibit opposition. Hyman et al (1998) also support Bodomo by saying that many languages have suffixes attached to the roots of verbs to reverse some actions. When these affixes are added to some stem words in English, there is a signal of reverse of an action, an event or a process.

In Dagaare for instance, the suffixes /li/, /i/, and /li/ can be attached to verbs to cause a reverse action or event. These suffixes are attached to the verb structures CVCV or CVC. When this happens, the verbs with the CVCV structures have their last vowels deleted before the suffix is added to the verb. Let us again observe these below:

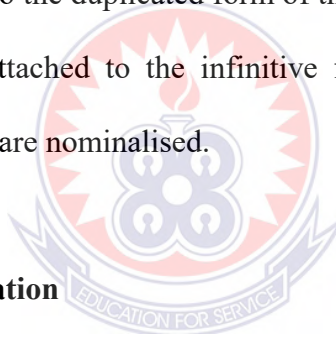
Input	gloss	reversive	gloss
22. a. <i>yagi</i>	take off	<i>yagli</i>	to hang
b. <i>vɔgi</i>	remove hat	<i>vɔgli</i>	put on a hat
c. <i>dɔgi</i>	remove from top	<i>dɔgli</i>	put on top
d. <i>sugi</i>	remove	<i>sugli</i>	cover'
e. <i>leŋ</i>	tie	<i>lori</i>	untie
f. <i>tuo</i>	carry	<i>togi</i>	put down

From the above examples it will be realized that (22a- c) have the same pattern. The verbs are CVCV, CVC or CV in structure and are either monosyllabic or disyllabic. They are composed of two syllables. In such a combination the last vowel is usually deleted to make way for the suffix. One important thing is that we have to consider the combination of the verb stem. If it is made of vowels from the [+ATR] class, then the suffix /li/ is used. On the other hand, if it is made of –ATR class, we have to resort

to /lɪ/ as in examples (22a- c). It will be observed that, examples e & f have experience some changes in the stems.

4.2.0 Nominal derivation

Nominal derivation is the result of forming a noun from verbs, adjectives and other nouns, phrases or clauses. According to Bodomo (1997: 217), the process involves vowel lengthening or diphthongization in short vowels. In Dagaare, we have three processes involved in nominalization. These include the nominalization of verbs, adjectives and nouns. To nominalise verbs, the process involves the addition of suffixes such as *-râ*, *--bu/-bū*, *-mɔ/-bɔ*, to the verbs. The suffix *-râ*, which is an agentive suffix, is added to the duplicated form of the verb to realize the nominal. The rest of the affixes are attached to the infinitive form of the verbs. Below is the explanation to how verbs are nominalised.



4.2.1 Verb – noun derivation

In the verb-to-noun derivation, verbal roots are changed to nouns by the addition of suffixes. These suffixes are added to verb stems which usually change the verbs to nouns. As stated early on, the suffixes that can be attached to verbal roots to form nouns include: { *-râ*, *-bu/-bo*, *-mɔ/-bɔ/-bu*, *-lɔâ*, *-luâ* }.

4.2.1.0 The derivational suffix *-rɛ* (agentive)

There are a number of verb stems that take the agentive suffix '*-rɛ*'. This suffix has its variants which include: '*-ro*', '*-re*' and '*-rɔ*'. In the formation of such nouns, the root of the verb is duplicated before the affix is attached to form the nominal. Most of the verbs in this category are CVC in structure and are monosyllabic. When this suffix is

attached to the verb, the nominal so formed refers to the doer of that particular verb. The examples below demonstrate how verbs are nominalised with the agentive marker ‘-rɛ’.

	verb	gloss	nominalised item	gloss
23. a.	<i>sɪɛ</i>	‘dance’	<i>sɪɛsɪɛɛ</i>	‘dancer’
b.	<i>mɛ</i>	‘build’	<i>mɛmɛɛɛ</i>	‘builder’
c.	<i>ɲmɛ</i>	‘beat’	<i>ɲmɛɲmɛɛɛ</i>	‘beater’
d.	<i>wuo</i>	‘weave’	<i>wuowuoro</i>	‘weaver’
e.	<i>kuri</i>	‘smelt’	<i>kurkuro</i>	‘blacksmith’
f.	<i>di</i>	‘eat’	<i>didire</i>	‘glutton’
g.	<i>bɔri</i>	‘sow’	<i>bɔrbɔɔ</i>	‘sower’
h.	<i>sɔri</i>	‘beg’	<i>sɔrsɔɔ</i>	‘beggar’

Before a nominal can be realized from the above verb stems, the suffixes must be attached to the duplicated forms of these verb stems, hence the combinations above. This combination is only possible when we stick to the class of vowels the root stem belongs to. For instance, from the above examples, (23a-c), (23g-h), have root stems which are all from the [-ATR] class, while examples (23d-f) are from the [+ATR] class.

4.2.1.1 The nominalizer –bɔ/bu

Some of the combinations which result in the formation of nouns from verbs do not refer to the one performing the action or the doer of the action by the attachment of the affix. Where the nominal does not refer to someone performing an action, a different suffix is added to the stem to form an abstract noun. Abstract nouns are the

type of nouns that refer to something a person cannot physically interact with. They are nouns you cannot sense. That is, you cannot see, hear, or state them. They are neither specific nor definite in meaning. Some of these are exemplified below:

	verb	gloss	nominalizer	new word	gloss
24. a.	<i>sɪɛ</i>	‘dance’	<i>-bɔ</i>	<i>sɪɛbɔ</i>	‘act of dancing’
b.	<i>ɲmɛ</i>	‘beat’	<i>-bɔ</i>	<i>ɲmɛbɔ</i>	‘act of beating’
c.	<i>tɪɛ</i>	‘support’	<i>-bɔ</i>	<i>tɪɛbɔ</i>	‘act of supporting’
d.	<i>bɪɛ</i>	‘give way’	<i>-bɔ</i>	<i>bɛɛbɔ</i>	‘act of giving way’
e.	<i>kaa</i>	‘look’	<i>-bɔ</i>	<i>kaabɔ</i>	‘act of looking’
f.	<i>ti</i>	‘hold’	<i>-bu</i>	<i>tiibu</i>	‘act of holding’
g.	<i>vi</i>	‘breakdown’	<i>-bu</i>	<i>viibu</i>	‘act of breaking down’
h.	<i>tuo</i>	‘carry’	<i>-bu</i>	<i>tuobu</i>	‘act of carrying’
i.	<i>mi</i>	‘rain’	<i>-bu</i>	<i>miibu</i>	‘act of raining’
j.	<i>le</i>	‘fall’	<i>-bu</i>	<i>leebu</i>	‘act of falling’.

This suffix is attached to a particular set of verb stems that are monosyllabic and with the structure CV or CV. The choice of the *-bɔ* or *-bu* depends on the class of vowels the stem is from. It can also be seen from examples (24e – g) and (24i) that the vowels have to be lengthened to enable the suffix to combine with the stem.

4.2.1.2 The suffix *-ɔɔ/bɔ/uu/bu*

These are other suffixes which are added to some stem verbs to derive nominals. These stems have the structure CVCV, CV: CV, V: or CV. The verbs have to delete the final vowel which is either (ɔ) or (i) to enable them take the suffix to form the

nominal when they are combining with $-oo$. But when the suffix $-bu$ is to be attached, they do not undergo any deletion. Below are some examples for consideration.

	verb	gloss	suff	new word	gloss
25. a.	<i>vari</i>	'jump'	$-bu$	<i>varibu</i>	'act of jumping'
b.	<i>kari</i>	'drive away'	$-bu$	<i>karibu</i>	'act of driving away'
c.	<i>bɔri</i>	'get lost'	$-bu$	<i>bɔribu</i>	'act of getting lost'
d.	<i>ɲmari</i>	'break'	$-bu$	<i>ɲmaribu</i>	'act of breaking'
e.	<i>balɪ</i>	'get tired'	$-bu$	<i>balibu</i>	'act of getting tired'
f.	<i>ɔɔ</i>	'to chew'	$-bu$	<i>ɔɔbu</i>	'the act of chewing'
g.	<i>tori</i>	'to be straight'	$-bu$	<i>toribu</i>	'making smth straight'
h.	<i>sugi</i>	'to fetch soup'	$-bu$	<i>sugibu</i>	'act of fetching'
i.	<i>turi</i>	'a mistake'	$-bu$	<i>turibu</i>	'act making mistake'
j.	<i>furi</i>	'to patch smth'	$-bu$	<i>furibu</i>	'act of patching'
k.	<i>uu</i>	'to bury'	$-uu$	<i>uubu</i>	'the act of burying'
l.	<i>zu</i>	'to steal'	$-uu$	<i>zuubu</i>	'the act of stealing'

As can be seen from the data, where the suffix $-uu$ occurs, $-oo$ cannot and as noted early on, when the suffix is attached to CV_1V_2CV stems, the V_2 which is mostly a high vowel is deleted after the consonants (l and r). Once again, the above suffix can be attached to yet another set of verbs in Dagaare to form nominals. But this time round the suffix is added to verbs with $CVCCV$ structure where C_2 and C_3 are alveolar nasal. The verbs in this category are also disyllabic. It is important to note that, the vowel in the last syllable of disyllabic verbs preceding the suffix $-oo$ is usually deleted to pave way for the combination. Some examples are provided below:

	verb	gloss	suff	new word	gloss
26.a.	<i>gbɛnnɪ</i>	‘harvest vegetables’	-ʊʊ	<i>gbɛnnʊʊ</i>	‘act of harvesting’
b.	<i>pɛnnɪ</i>	‘rest’	„	<i>pɛnnʊʊ</i>	‘act of resting’
c.	<i>lɛnnɪ</i>	‘lick’	„	<i>lɛnnʊʊ</i>	‘act of licking’
d.	<i>tannɪ</i>	‘shout’	„	<i>tannʊʊ</i>	‘act of shouting’

4.2.1.3 The derivational suffix –mʊ/-mu/-bʊ/-bu

This is a process that involves verbs taking on the above suffixes to derive nominals. The underlying form [-bu/-mu] is associated with the root structure CVN, where N is the velar nasal [ŋ] and the vowels belong to the [+ATR] class. Its variant [-mʊ/-bʊ] combines with [-ATR] vowels. The verbs in question are monosyllabic and usually have the velar nasal deleted. Then, there is an insertion of the bilabial nasal [m] which is also duplicated before the suffix can be attached. In a situation where [-bu] or [-bʊ] is to be attached, the bilabial nasal will not be lengthened. This is because the place of articulation of the sound that precedes the suffix [-bu and -bʊ] is bilabial. So the suffix has to take the place of articulation of the last sound in the root verb. Here are some examples for consideration.

	verb	gloss	suff	new word	gloss
27.a.	<i>biŋ</i>	‘put down’	<i>bu/mu</i>	<i>bimbu/bimmu</i>	‘act of putting down’
b.	<i>piŋ</i>	‘hide behind sth’	„	<i>pimbu/pimmu</i>	‘act of hiding behind sth’
c.	<i>gbiŋ</i>	‘shake sth’	„	<i>gbimbu/gbimmu</i>	‘act of shaking sth’
d.	<i>saŋ</i>	‘heal’	„	<i>sambʊ/sammʊ</i>	‘act of healing’
e.	<i>ziŋ</i>	‘sit’	„	<i>zimbʊ/zimmʊ</i>	‘act of sitting’

f.	<i>kyeŋ</i>	‘walk’	„	<i>kyembɔ/kyemmɔ</i>	‘act of walking’	
	g.	<i>pɛŋ</i>	‘borrow’	„	<i>pɛmbɔ/pɛmmɔ</i>	‘act of borrowing’
	h.	<i>daŋ</i>	‘stir/disturb’	„	<i>dambɔ/dammɔ</i>	‘act of stirring’
	i.	<i>laŋ</i>	‘gather’	„	<i>lambɔ/lammɔ</i>	‘act of gathering’
	j.	<i>taŋ</i>	‘keep quite’	„	<i>tambɔ/tammɔ</i>	‘act of keeping quite’

The combination of the above nominals could also be dialectal. The central Dagaare speakers use the *[mu/ mɔ]* suffixes while southern Dagaare takes on the *[bu/bɔ]* suffixes. This may not be easy to explain as these dialects have complicated word combinations.

4.2.2 Nominalization of adjectives.

Adjectives can also be nominalised just like verbs. This is the process of combining derivational suffixes to adjectives to denote nouns. The suffixes that are attached to adjectives to derive nouns in Dagaare are limited unlike in English where this is very productive. Dagaare has only three suffixes to this effect. These are *[-lɔŋ -luŋ -ruŋ]*. These suffixes combine with adjectives that have different structures to derive nouns. When the attachment is done, it would be realized that some of the adjectives have their last syllables deleted to pave way for the combination. Below is an illustration of how adjectives are changed to nouns.

	Adj	gloss	suff	new word	gloss	
28. a.	<i>sɔglaa</i>	‘black’	<i>-lɔŋ</i>	<i>sɔglɔŋ</i>	‘blackness’.	
	b.	<i>paalaa</i>	‘new’	<i>-lɔŋ</i>	<i>paalɔŋ</i>	‘newness’
	c.	<i>baalaa</i>	‘soft’	<i>-lɔŋ</i>	<i>baalɔŋ</i>	‘softness’
	d.	<i>saalaa</i>	‘smooth’	“	<i>saalɔŋ</i>	‘smoothness’

Some of these adjectives also experience some stem modification. When this happens, there is vowel diphthonization. This is also exemplified below;

29. a. *zɪɛ* ‘red’ -*lɔŋ* *zulɔŋ* ‘redness’
 b. *pɪlaa* ‘white’ -*lɔŋ* *pielɔŋ* ‘whiteness’
 c. *vilaa* ‘nice’ -*lɔŋ* *vielɔŋ* ‘beauty’

It is worth mentioning that, others too do not go through any change on attracting the suffixes. Once again, the whole stem is used to combine with the suffix. Below are some examples for consideration

30. a. *ɪmaa* ‘short’ *ɪmaalɔŋ* ‘shortness’
 b. *faa* ‘wicked’ *faalɔŋ* ‘wickedness’
 c. *bɛo* ‘wicked’ *bɛɔlɔŋ* ‘wickedness’

We also have another set that deletes the final vowel, before attracting the suffix. Below are some examples.

31. a. *wogi* ‘tall’ -*ruŋ* *wogruŋ* ‘length/height’
 b. *lige* ‘dark’ -*ruŋ* *ligruŋ* ‘darkness’
 c. *sɔɔ* ‘black’ -*lɔŋ* *sɔɔglɔŋ* ‘blackness’

As is evident from the above, examples (31a) - (31d) have to do away with their last syllable to enable them attract the suffix. Examples (31a), (31b) and (31c) also have their stems modified. The examples in (31a), (31b) and (31c) have to delete the final vowel before the combination. It will also be noticed that examples (31a), (31b) and (31c) contain certain consonant clusters such as [-*gl-*, -*gr-*,] in medial positions of the derived words. Even though Dagaare does not have consonant clusters, the

combination of the syllabic consonants is possible, hence the (gl) and (gr) combination. It may also be that, verbs that end with the high vowels have these vowels deleted and replaced with the (r) as in examples (31b) and (31c).

4.2.3 Noun- to noun derivation

This is the process of deriving nouns from already existing nouns through derivational suffixes. The suffixes that are used to derive nouns from other nouns are [-lɔŋ], [nɔŋ] and [-luŋ]. These suffixes are identified with human nouns to form abstract nouns. The nouns in this set are of different structures and take on different suffixes to realize this. In some of the combinations, the last syllables of the nouns are deleted to create an enabling environment for the suffix. In example 32 below is how nouns are derived from already existing nouns by deleting the last syllable.

32.	Noun	gloss	suff	new word	gloss
	<i>a. nensaala</i>	‘person’	-lɔŋ	<i>nensaalɔŋ</i>	‘humanity’
	<i>b. bambaala</i>	‘poor person’	”	<i>bambaalɔŋ</i>	‘poverty’
	<i>c. nandaana</i>	‘poor person’	”	<i>nandaalɔŋ</i>	‘poverty’
	<i>d. baala</i>	‘sick person’	”	<i>baalɔŋ</i>	‘sickness’
	<i>e. damboli</i>	‘a fool’	„	<i>dambolɔŋ</i>	‘foolishness’.

Nouns that have the CVCV structure have to drop the last syllable, take on the voiced alveolar nasal (n) before the attraction of the suffix. This is also illustrated below:

33.	Noun	gloss	suff	new word	gloss
	<i>a. zɔŋa</i>	‘blind person’	nɔŋ	<i>zɔnnɔŋ</i>	‘blindness’
	<i>b. kɔŋa</i>	‘leper’	nɔŋ	<i>kɔnnɔŋ</i>	‘leprosy’
	<i>c. neŋkɔŋ</i>	‘eldrely person’	nɔŋ	<i>neŋkɔnnɔŋ</i>	‘elder’
	<i>d. woŋo</i>	‘deaf’	nɔŋ	<i>wonnɔŋ</i>	‘deaf’

In some other cases, the nouns do not experience any form of change. The affix is added to the stems of the nouns to get the abstract noun. This is exemplified below in (34a), (34b) and (34c).

	Noun	gloss	suff	new word	gloss
34. a.	<i>dɔɔ</i>	‘man’	-lɔŋ	<i>dɔɔlɔŋ</i>	‘manhood’
b.	<i>pɔgi</i>	‘woman’	„	<i>pɔgilɔŋ</i>	‘womanhood’
c.	<i>sɔɔ</i>	‘witchcraft’	„	<i>sɔɔlɔŋ</i>	‘witchery’

Summary.

This chapter has looked at the possible derivational processes in Dagaare. It can be seen that there are a number of derivational affixes that can combine with stems of verbs, roots of adjectives and even nouns to derive new words. The processes that were explained include verbal derivation, adjectival derivation and derivation of abstract nouns from already existing nouns. As stated above Dagaare has only the verb-to –verb derivation when it comes to verbal derivation. Nouns can also be derived from adjectives with the derivational suffixes, (*-lɔɔ*, *-luɔ* and *-ruŋ*). Furthermore concrete nouns are able to change to abstract nouns upon the attraction of certain affixes. An attempt was made to explain these processes above. The next chapter dealt with compounding which is one of the word formation processes to be discussed. It will concentrate on how words are put together to form compounds in Dagaare.

CHAPTER FIVE

COMPOUNDING

5.0 Introduction

Compounding is another word formation process that is discussed in this chapter. This is also referred to as composition by Mathews (1974:138) and Plag (2003). Before we can proceed, it will be important to look at what other linguists consider as compounding. Some researchers such as Haspelmath (2002:85) are of the opinion that compounding is a process which consists of two or more lexemes that are joined together to form one word. He explains further that, in a compound that consists of two lexemes, it is really the lexeme stems that are combined. Katamba & Stonham (2006:55) on their part think that a compound word contains at least two bases that are both words, or at any rate, root morphemes. According to them a compound may sometimes be bare roots that are combined in compounds. In some other cases too, there may be an input base which contains an affixed form, and gives some examples in English to support their claim.

- | | | |
|--------|------------------------------|-------------------|
| 35. a. | [tea]N [pot] N | [teapot] N |
| | [week]N [end] N | [weekend] N |
| | b. [hair] N [dress] V e r -N | [hairdresser] N |
| | [kind] A [heart] N --ed] A | [kind- hearted] A |

Data adopted from Katamba & Stonham (1993:56).

In example 35a above, we have only the bare roots that come together to form the compound words. However, in the example in 35b the initial words are bare roots but added to an affixed form of the second root to form the compound. We can have similar situations in the language under study. Some of these are listed below for consideration:

36. a. [*die*] ‘room’N+ [*pɔgi*] ‘woman’N [*diepɔgi*] housewife

b. [*bondirii*] ‘food’N [*maale*] makeV a N [*bondimaala*] cook N

There are some compounds which contain different word order and therefore may have different meanings. For example, arm-chair vs chair-arm. Further explanations from Katamba & Stonham reveal that there is the need to consider the role of phonology in compounding because this is very important in compounding. According to them, there is a class of compounds formed by joining together pre-existing words that rhyme and stated that rhyming compounds are made up of identical words eg. Goody-goody and pretty-pretty. The explanation continued that, in some rhyming compounds, neither of the bases is a word in its own right. Although normally the bases that are combined to form a compound are autonomous words, the possibility of occurring as independent is not a prerequisite that all bases in compounds must satisfy. In a related development, rhyme is not the only phonological motivation behind compounding. There are some compounds that are also motivated by ablaut. This means that these compounds have identical consonants in the syllable

English. For example *nâne* ‘meat’ + *ɔɔ* ‘chew’ *nɛɔɔ*, ‘act of chewing meat’ and *bɔni* ‘thing’ + *tuo* ‘carry’ *bɔntuo*, ‘act of carrying things’ are composed of nouns and verbs. As noted early on, Dagaare has the word order SVO, but from the examples given, it will be realized that, the nouns which precede the verbs are acting as objects.

Let us consider the examples below:

38.a	<i>A</i>	<i>dôô</i>	<i>ôô</i>	<i>la</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>nâne</i>
	The	man	chew-PERF	AM	the	meat.
	The	man	has chewed		the	meat
b.	<i>Ō</i>	<i>tuo</i>		<i>la</i>	<i>o</i>	<i>bɔne</i>
	S/he	carry-PERF		AM	his/her	thing
	S/he	has carried			his/her	thing
c.	<i>Bii -ri</i>	<i>nɔŋ</i>		<i>la</i>	<i>bondirii</i>	
	Child-PL	like		AM	food.	
	Children	like			food	

The third way of calling something a compound under the formal properties is the morphophonemic processes characteristic of a single word. Payne gave these examples ‘roommate’ and ‘some mice’ to illustrate his point. According to him, whereas ‘roommate’ can be pronounced with a single m, some mice may be heard as some ice. This is because, normally if two m’s come together accidentally in a sentence, both are supposed to be pronounced as in ‘some mice’. But this may sound like ‘some ice’ if both m’s are not pronounced. The last formal property he talked of is morphology specific to compounds. This means that, the compound is either specific or completely different from the meaning of the words that are put together to form the compound. I must add that, such combinations are identified with exocentric

compounds. For example, blackbird is only appropriately used to refer to particular species of birds, though members of other species, such as crows and vultures can also be called blackbirds. Payne's proposed criteria, though nice, may not all be applicable in the language under study. Efforts however will be made at describing those that are in Dagaare. On their part, O'Grady & Guzman (ibid) are of the opinion that compounding is the combination of lexical categories (nouns, adjectives, verbs, or prepositions) to create larger words. They confirm that a special type of compounding process involves incorporation, that is, the combination of a word (usually, but not always, a noun) with a verb to form a compound verb. Although English does not make use of incorporation, the process is common in the language under study. According to them, the elements making the compound can all typically occur as independent words else where in language as is exemplified below:

noun + noun	Adjective + noun	verb + noun
39. a. zu+kɔɔlɔɔŋ =zukɔɔlɔŋ head + hair = hair	d. pɔgɪ+zɪɛ= pɔgɪzɪɛ womam+fair	g. dǎǎ+nyu=dǎǎnyu drinks+drink
b. kogi+soba= kogisoba stool/chair+ owner	e. dɔɔ+sɔglaa=dɔɔsɔglaa man+black	h. zu+ŋmaa=zunmaa head+ cut
c. nubiri+ tɪŋ=nubiritɪŋ finger+ medicine	f. laa+yɛlɔŋ=laayɛlɔŋ bowl+ wide	i. pɔgɪ+ŋmɛ=pɔgɪŋmɛ woman+ beat

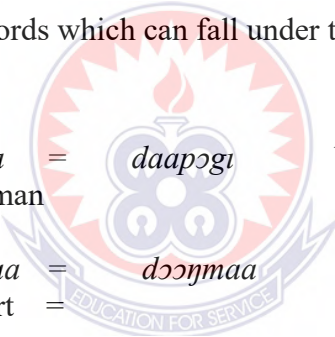
Such compounding combinations in Dagaare include noun + noun, noun + adjective, noun-verb, noun-postposition, clauses, phrases and sentences that are also used as compounds. From the above definitions, I can also say that, a compound is a word that is made up of two or more free words; they could be roots, bases or stems that are

put together to form one word that has meaning.

5.2.0 Forms of compounds

There are basically three main forms of compound words. These include; closed/ solid form of compounds, the hyphenated form and the open/spaced form.

The closed /solid is the form of compound in which the individual words are welded together. The compound word appears with all the words put together. This form does not experience any form of morphophonemic changes. Most of the compounds in Dagaare are formed by this type, and the combination can be from any of the lexical items. Some compound words which can fall under this form include the ones below:

- 
40. a. *daa* + *pɔgi* = *daapɔgi* business woman
Market+ woman
- b. *dɔɔ* + *ɲmaa* = *dɔɔɲmaa* short man
man + short
- c. *sɔglaa* + *ɲmaa* = *sɔglaaɲmaa* black short
black + short

The second form is the hyphenated. The compounds here are normally written with a hyphen between the words that form the compounds. These forms are also very common in the language under study. Below are some examples for consideration:

41. a. *kɔn-* *ɔɲ*
Water fetch
Fetching water
- b. *bul-* *tu*
well dig
'sinking a well'

- | | | |
|----|--------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| c. | <i>so-</i>
road
tarring | <i>paŋ</i>
press
road |
| d. | <i>kǎǎ-</i>
oil
oil | <i>tɔ</i>
pound
extraction |
| e. | <i>nɔ-</i>
<i>fowl</i>
rearing | <i>guoli</i>
rear
<i>fowls'</i> |

The last form of compounding is the open or spaced compounds. These are made up of two words which are usually longer words. But when read together a new meaning is formed. Once again, these forms are not very common in Dagaare, Some examples in Dagaare include:

- | | | | | | | | | | |
|-------|-------|---|----------|----------|-------|---|------------------|---|--------------|
| 42.a. | kaa | + | nyu | + | koɔ | = | kaanyukoɔ | | |
| | Look | | drink | | water | = | lover | | |
| b. | kpe | + | kyaan | + | die | = | kpekyaandie | | |
| | enter | | brighten | | room | = | beautiful womam. | | |
| c. | ka | + | ziɛri | + | ko | + | nuŋ | = | kaziɛrikonuŋ |
| | look | + | soup | dries in | hand | = | beautiful woman | | |

The compounds in this category are usually written separately but depict a different meaning when called together. The words in a phrase for instance will form one meaning, but when the words are read individually a different meaning is got.

5.3.0 Types of compounds

The types of compounds as stated by O'Grady, Dobrovolsky and Katamba (1996:154), Spencer (2003: 310) consist of two. These are endocentric compounds and exocentric compounds. Haspelmath (2002:87) agrees with the other scholars on the

types of compounds, but adds that, the endocentric compounds could also be called head- dependent compounds or transparent compounds. Aronoff and Fudeman (2005:108) also admit this by postulating that, in discussing compounds, linguists sometimes use the terms endocentric and exocentric compounds as the types of compounds.

5.3.1 Endocentric Compounds

An endocentric compound is the type of compound which has a head and this head expresses the core meaning of the compound. In other words, the words of this type of compound combine to produce a different word; although the meanings of the words are included in the new word that is formed. In endocentric compounds, the head is usually the first element in the compound. Below are some of such examples.

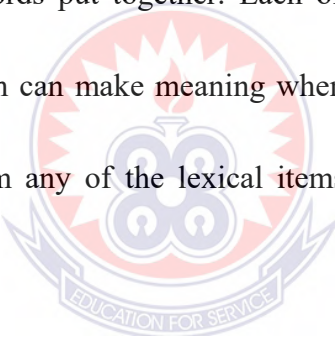
43.a	<i>baa</i> dog	+	<i>pôgi</i> woman	=	<i>bapôgi</i> female dog
b.	<i>ziɛn</i> soup	+	<i>vaare</i> leaves	=	<i>zevaari</i> vegetables
c	<i>daa</i> wood	+	<i>kogi</i> stool	=	<i>dakogi</i> stool/chair
d.	<i>ɲmani</i> calabash	+	<i>lee</i> small	=	<i>ɲmanlee</i> small calabash

From the examples above, it would be realized that, the heads are to the left of the compounds as stated earlier on. In example (43a) the entity that denotes the representation of the compound is *bapôge* which refers to a dog that is female and

dakogi which also refers to a stool or chair made of wood.

5.3.2 Exocentric Compounding

Not all compounds are endocentric, or opaque. That is to say, not all compounds have heads. A compound which lacks a head is called exocentric. This is a type of compounding whose lexical meaning cannot be determined from the head as it is with the endocentric compounds. In this type of combination, the constituent words or forms combine to provide another word whose meaning is not clearly related to those other forms used in the combination. The meaning of the compound is not directly related to the original words put together. Each of the words in this category, are words on their own which can make meaning when read separately. Once again the combinations can be from any of the lexical items. Below are some examples for consideration:



44. a.	<i>die</i>	+	<i>bie</i>	=	<i>diebie</i>
	room	+	child	=	cat
b.	<i>kuri</i>	+	<i>wiri</i>	=	<i>kurwiri</i>
	iron	+	horse	=	bicycle
c.	<i>die</i>	+	<i>bugo</i>	=	<i>diebugo</i>
	room	+	<i>barn</i>	=	illiterate
d.	<i>zu</i>	+	<i>gbuli</i>	=	<i>zugbuli</i>
	head	+	whole	=	illiterate
e.	<i>nu</i>	+	<i>wogi</i>	=	<i>nuwogi</i>
	hand	+	long	=	thieve
f.	<i>tokparaa</i>	+	<i>toôrɔ</i>	=	<i>tokpartoôrô</i>
	<i>baobab</i> leaves	+	pounde=	=	soothsayer .

In example (44a) above, the 'cat' is referred to as 'diebie' because, it is always in the

house and more precisely in the room of its owner. It usually mingles with the people in the house and its exclusive closeness to human beings. As a child of the house you have no where to go apart from your house no matter the circumstances.

The bicycle which is also referred to as *kurwiri* in example (44b) is to bring out how the Dagaaba came by this name. When they first saw the bicycle, it was seen as a horse alright, but not the horse which breathes, but one made of iron. So the bicycle was named *kurwiri* because, even though Dagaaba knew it was a horse, it was made of iron. That is how the name *kurwiri* came about. The semantic analysis intended for is that this is a horse which does not breathe but can play the role of a horse; that is, transporting people from one place to the other.

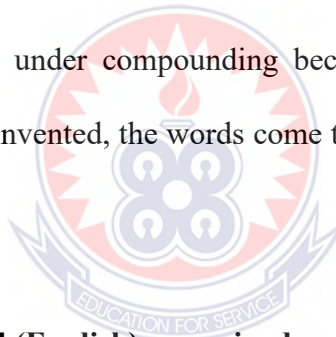
Similarly, *diebugo* in example (44c) and (44d) both refer to an illiterate. In (44c), the illiterate is seen as someone who is ignorant about so many things in the world because, he/she does not go out. The Dagaaba compare the illiterate to the barn which is always at a stand still in the house and does not move. As such, no one can identify what foodstuff is stored in it.

Thus, (44d) describes the illiterate as someone whose head is full of nothing but things pertaining to his or her environment. So such a person has no knowledge of any other thing as compared to the literate whose head is partially filled with knowledge from the outside world. As noted earlier on, these types of compounds do not have heads and mostly their meaning cannot be determined by the words that are combined

to form the compound. Most of the compounds in this category do not experience any kind of deletion during the combination as in the examples in (44).

Another form of compounding is coinage where words are invented from totally new terms. In this type of formation, the newly formed words come from nowhere. They are not originally from the language. This comes as a result of the changes in the world. So many inventions have taken place and in order to be abreast with the fast growing trends, the speakers of every language have to coin words to suit the items, concepts and ideas that are forthcoming. In the event of doing this, it will be realized that the words that are coined are usually difficult to integrate. It is the duty of the speakers to structure them to fit into the phonology and morphology of their language.

Coinage is being looked under compounding because even though the words are totally new ones that are invented, the words come together to form a compound as in the examples below:



Original word (English)					coined word
45. a. snow	sazu	+	zɔŋ	=	sazɔŋ
	sazɔŋ				
			sky	+	flour = rain flour
b. AIDS	gbɛɛ	+	mɪɪɛ	=	gbɛmɪɪɛ
	gbɛmɪɪɛ		legs	+	thin = AIDS
c. aeroplane	sazu	+	lɔɔɪ	=	sazulɔɔɪ
	sazulɔɔɪ		sky	+	lorry = aeroplane
d. Science	nasaalaa	+	sɔɔ	=	nasasɔɔ
	nasasɔɔ		whiteman	+	witchcraft

In example (45a) above, Dagaare does not know what snow is. The explanation could be that, when snow is falling, it looks like flour poured from the sky, hence the name *sazɔŋ*, meaning ‘sky flour’. Similarly, example (b) which is AIDS is so called because, the sickness makes one to grow very lean to the extent that your legs look like dry sticks hence the name *gbɛmɪlɛ* ‘thin legs’.

Coinage is not very productive in Dagaare; however speakers have to always invent or coin words for the many issues, items and concepts that are fast emerging.

5.3.3 Formation of compounds

There are several ways compounds can be formed in Dagaare. The rules of compound words formation vary from one language to the other. This is to say, in a particular language where rule A can be used, it may not be applicable to language B. Just as in English, Dagaare has the compounding which involves the major word-classes in the language. However certain word classes cannot combine to form a compound. In this section, the various word classes that conjoin together to form compounds will be analyzed. As far as compounding is concerned in the language under study, the following can only combine to form compounds. Noun-to-noun, noun-to-verb, noun-adjective, noun- to postposition, verb-verb and phrases and clauses that are considered as compounds.

5.3.4 Compound Features in Dagaare

There are a number of morphological and phonological processes that take place

during the formation of compounds in Dagaare. Dolphyne (1987:117) observes that Akan compounds whether reduplicated or not undergo certain phonological processes. Some of these include vowel harmony, homorganic nasal assimilation, loss of final vowel or final syllable, loss of vowel or nasal prefix, nasalization of voiced plosives and changes in basic tones of stems. The language under study have processes such as vowel harmony, homorganic nasal assimilation, loss of final vowel or final syllable deletion of vowels, regressive assimilation and loss of vowel or nasal suffix among others. In the formation of compounds we have deletion of sounds at word final position. For example *bie* ‘child’+ *dɔɔ* ‘male’ will be written *bidɔɔ* ‘child male’. From the above it would be seen that, the final vowel of *bie* ‘child’ is deleted before the combination. One other feature is where the sound of the initial consonant on the right triggers the sound on the final consonant on the left thereby changing the sound on the left to the one on the right. *bɛŋ* ‘beans’ + *zɔŋ* ‘flour’ *bɛnzɔŋ* ‘beans flour’. So here we experience the process of place of articulation assimilation. As the discussion proceeds most of these features will be brought to bear.

5.3.5 Noun-to-noun compounding

This is a situation whereby two or more root nouns come together to form a compound. Some of these combinations involve direct compounding, where no part of the word is removed or deleted and others where there is deletion of the noun class marker. The following are examples of the compounding in which none of the nouns

to be combined loses any part.

	noun		noun		compound	gloss
46. a.	<i>dãã</i> pito	+	<i>pɔgi</i> woman	=	<i>dããpɔgi</i>	‘pito woman’
b.	<i>sinsɛ</i> cakes	+	<i>laa</i> bowl	=	<i>sensɛlaa</i>	‘saucepan’
c.	<i>ziâri</i> soup	+	<i>suroo</i> ladle	=	<i>ziâri suroo</i>	‘ladle’
d.	<i>dɔɔ</i> man	+	<i>kparɔɔ</i> shirt	=	<i>dɔɔkparɔɔ</i>	‘shirt’
e.	<i>bɛŋ</i> beans	+	<i>zɔŋ</i> flour	=	<i>bɛnzɔŋ</i>	‘beans flour’
f.	<i>saalɔŋ</i> okro	+	<i>ziɛri</i> soup	=	<i>saalɔnzɛri</i>	‘okro soup’

As stated above, these words nouns that form the compounds do not experience any form of change in the structures. However in the other combination of nouns, sounds and syllables get deleted in the process. For instance, the noun class marker in the examples below is deleted leaving the root, which is then attached to the second word. In examples (46e and 46f), the /ã/ has to be changed to /n/ to conform to the place of articulation of the initial letter of the word to be attached, hence, the realization of (*bãnzɔã*) and (*saalɔnzɛãre*). In the same vein, the example in (47a &c) also have to be reduced to the stems before the combination. Most of the compounds in this category are endocentric. In all cases the result is always a noun. Some examples are

provided below.

	noun	+	noun	=	compound	gloss	
47. a.	<i>ziâri</i> soup		<i>dogi</i> pot	=	<i>zâdogi</i>	‘saucepan’	
b.	<i>daa</i> wood		<i>kogi</i> stool/chair	=	<i>dakogi</i>	‘wooden stool’	
c.	<i>Siri</i> honey		<i>dogi</i> pot	=	<i>sîdogi</i>	‘honey pot’	
d.	<i>bey</i> beans	+	<i>zoy</i> ‘flour’	=	<i>benzoy</i>	‘beans flour’	
e.	<i>die</i> room	+	<i>dindôri</i> door	+	<i>nôri</i> mouth	=	<i>die dindôri nôri</i> ‘entrance’
f.	<i>saalvâ</i> okro	+	<i>ziâri</i> soup	+	<i>laa</i> bowl	=	<i>saalonziâri laa</i> ‘okro soup bowl’

As stated above, the head word takes on the stem before any attachment can be made. It is usually the first head word that loses the sounds or syllables. To form noun- noun compounding using their plurals the first noun loses its number suffix. It is the second noun that takes the plural. If it is a three noun formation too the first two nouns lose the class suffix. The third or last noun will take the plural marker. This is demonstrated below:

Noun- noun compound plural formation.

	Singular	plural	gloss
48. a.	<i>kpaav+ gyâle</i> guinea fowl eggs ‘guinea fowl + egg’	<i>kpaav + gyâl-</i> guinea fowl + egg- PL	<i>â</i>
b.	<i>tija+ daana</i> land+ owner	<i>tindaa - ma</i> landlord-PL	land lords

<i>c. kuori +wagyâ</i> funeral+cloth	<i>kowagyâ</i> <i>-rɪ</i> funeral cloth-PL .	funeral cloths
<i>d. yiri+daana+dɔɔ+kparɔɔ</i> land +owner+ man +shirt	<i>yidaandɔɔkpar</i> <i>-rɪ</i> land lord's shirt-PL	landlord's shirts
<i>e. zɪârilaa</i> soup+ bowl	<i>zɪârilaa</i> <i>-rɪ</i> soup bowl- PL	soup bowls
<i>f. dǎǎ + pɔɔɔ</i> pito woman	<i>dǎǎ pɔɔɔ -ba</i> pito woman-PL	<i>dǎǎpɔɔɔba.</i> women who brew pito

5.3.6 Noun – to – verb compounding

Dagaare has the word order SVO. Bodomo (1997:45), states that, with regards to the word parameter, we may say that, many of the patterns exhibited by the major sentences indicate that, Dagaare is basically an SVO language. This means that, the verb precedes the object syntactically. So in a situation where the O comes before the V, then it is likely to be a compound. For instance, we can have a word order in which the object comes before the verb. These combinations usually come with nominalising or agentive suffixes such as *-ro*, *-ba* and *-bu*. Some examples will be provided at the end of this explanation for consideration. The above combination type is also referred to as noun incorporation by Haspelmath (2000:220), Spencer (2003:275) and Katamba (1993:283). According to Katamba (1993:282), the process whereby one semantically independent word is moved by the syntactic rules to a new position and

comes to be found ‘inside’ another word is called incorporation. Let us now observe the following examples.

49. a. [noun] + [verb] + -ro = N

dǎǎ ‘pito’+ *nyu* ‘drink’ + -ro = *dǎǎnyuuro* ‘drunkard’

b. [noun] + [verb] + -ro = N

bɛŋ ‘beans’+ *ɔɔ* ‘chew’ + -ro = *bɛŋ-ɔɔro* ‘one who eats beans’

c.



In Dagaare, one of the agentive suffixes *-ro* that combines with verbs to form nouns is attached to *tuo* ‘carry’ to denote a noun thus, *tuoro* ‘carrying’. When this combination is observed closely, its meaning does not stand out clearly unless it combines with the root of a noun as in *daa* ‘wood’ to form a perfect word and for that matter, a noun. From the above tree diagram, appropriate suffixes can also be attached to form different nouns. In doing so, we can have vowel or syllable deletion in some of them during the combinations. Once again, here are some more examples.

50.a. *bie* + *yôgle-laa* = *biyôglaa*
 child + nurse PROG = babysitter

b.	<i>nɛnɪ</i> ‘meat’	+	<i>ɲmaa-ra</i>	=	<i>nɛɲmaaara</i>
	meat	+	cut -PROG	=	butcher
c.	<i>pɔɔɪ</i>	+	<i>bɔɔ-ra</i>	=	<i>pɔɔibɔɔra</i>
	woman	+	search-PROG	=	courtship
d.	<i>zirii</i>	+	<i>ɲma- ra</i>	=	<i>zirɲmaara</i>
	lies	+	cut-PROG	=	tale bearer
e.	<i>ziɛri</i>	+	<i>dɔɔɪ-ra</i>	=	<i>zɛdɔɔɪra</i>
	soup		cook-PROG	=	one preparing soup.
f.	<i>bondirii</i>	+	<i>maale- a</i>	=	<i>bondimaala</i>
	food	+	make-PROG	=	cook

From the examples above, it will be noticed that, there are some changes in the word combination. For instance, in example (50a), there is a deletion of /i/ where as in (50b) the /n/ in *nɛnɪ* has changed to /ã/ even after the deletion of /i/. Similarly, the examples in (50) lose some syllables to enable them combine with the words. Example (50e), for instance, has to do away with /ri/ to be able to combine with *dɔɔɪ*. (50f) too had the syllable /rii/ deleted to allow it combine with *maali* ‘make’. It is worth mentioning that this process of word formation is very productive in Dagaare.

We also have another class of compound formation which is referred to as verbal compounds (Katamba 1993:308; Kirkpatrick 2007:74; Spencer 2003:27)). According to Kirkpatrick, when a present participle functions as a noun, it is known as a verbal noun or a gerund. The same view is shared by Spencer in his definition of verbal noun. On his part, a verb is inflected like a noun. Although verbal nouns are formed from verbs, they function as nouns acting as the subject of a sentence. The underlined

words in the sentences below show verbal nouns or gerunds.

51. a. *nannyig* — *ri ba soma*. ‘stealing is not good’
Steal-- PP not good
- b. *sigaa-ri* - — *siganyu ba soma ne fo laanfeelon*
‘cigarette’ ‘smoking is not good for your health’.
- c. *sakuu* — *ri sakuugaabɔ taa la tɔna ko a bibiiri*.
‘school’ ‘going to school is beneficial to the children’
- d. *kann*—*i kannɔɔ taa la tɔna yaga zaa*.
‘read’ ‘reading has a lot of prospects’

In the language under study, a noun is composed of a root and a suffix. It will be realized from the above examples that, the suffixes (*-ri* and *-i*) in the verbs *sigaa-ri*, *sakuuri* and *kanni* have the suffixes deleted before the compounding.

There is still another process of compounding nouns and verbs to be discussed. In this type of compounding, the nouns do not take the subject position, but rather the object position. The verbs used in this combination are usually in the progressive tense and the noun does not lose any part of it during compounding. Once again let us examine the examples below.

- | | noun | verb | derivative | gloss |
|--------|---------------------|------------------------|-------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 52. a. | <i>zie</i> ‘place’ | <i>nyaa</i> ‘well’ | <i>zinyaani</i> | ‘dawn’ |
| b. | <i>daa</i> ‘market’ | <i>diibu</i> ‘eating’ | <i>daadiidu</i> | ‘market eating = selling/buying.’ |
| c. | <i>kɔɔ</i> ‘water’ | <i>ɔmmɔ</i> ‘fetching’ | <i>kɔɔ-ɔmmɔ</i> | ‘fetching water’. |

5.4.3 Noun – to – adjective compounding

The adjective follows the noun immediately in noun phrases. In the light of this,

when an adjective is to modify or add more meaning to the noun it is qualifying, the noun loses its number suffix. It is the adjective that takes the inflection for the entire phrase. This happens in most Gur languages in Ghana. Below are some adjectives in the language that are used to modify the roots *nɔɔ* ‘fowl’, *sɪrâ* ‘husband’, and *saabv* ‘tuozaafi’

53. a. *Bayɔɔ da la nɔɔɪɛlaa.*
Bayɔɔ buy PST fowl white.
 ‘*Bayɔɔ* bought a white fowl’.
- b. *A pɔɔɪ sɪrwogɪ na’*
 The woman husband tall.
 ‘The woman’s husband is tall’
- c. *O dire la saa [N] + maarɔŋ [A]*
 he/she 3SG eat CONT tuozaafi cold.
 ‘he/she/ is eating cold tuozaafi’

In this type of combination, the adjective attaches itself to the root of the noun and the outcome is usually a noun. We can have different adjectives that can combine with appropriate roots of nouns to denote nouns. Let us again look at the examples below:

	Noun		adj		compound	gloss
54. a.	<i>dɔɔ</i> Man	+	<i>sɔɔglaa</i> black	=	<i>dɔɔsɔɔglaa</i>	‘black man’
b.	<i>ɲmane</i> calabash	+	<i>lee</i> small	=	<i>ɲmanlee</i>	‘small calabash’
c.	<i>pɔɔɪ</i> woman	+	<i>ɲmaa</i> short	=	<i>pɔɔɲmaa</i>	‘short woman’
d.	<i>bɔɔ</i> goat	+	<i>saraa</i> young	=	<i>bɔsaraa</i>	‘young female goat’
e.	<i>buuluŋ</i>	+	<i>tɔlɔŋ</i>	=	<i>buuluntɔlɔŋ</i>	‘hot porridge’.

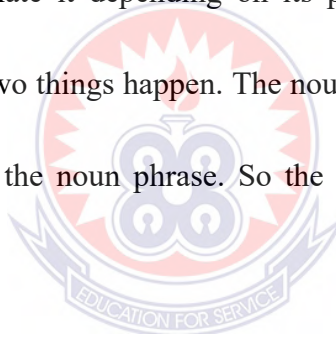
porridge	hot			
f. <i>nɛ</i>	+	<i>faa</i>	=	<i>nɛfaa</i> 'bad person'.
person		bad		

As is evident from the examples above, the adjectives come after the root of the noun.

In examples (54a, and 54c), the root does not lose any part during the compounding.

However, it will be realized in examples (54b, e and f) that, there are some changes.

For instance, the 'ŋ' in *buuluŋ* has to be changed to *n* to conform to the place of articulation of the first sound of the adjective that follows it. We then have *buuluŋ* [N] + *tolɔŋ* [A] = *buuluntolɔŋ*. This means that if the noun ends with a nasal, the initial of the adjective will assimilate it depending on its place of articulation. In the noun adjective constructions, two things happen. The noun loses its suffix and the adjective carries the inflection for the noun phrase. So the construction therefore becomes a compound.



5.4.4 Noun-to –postposition compounding

In Dagaare, we have nouns that combine with postpositions to form compounds.

During the compounding, the noun usually takes the first position followed by the postposition. In (55a) below, the last vowel of the noun before the postposition is deleted during compounding. This is not common in the language. We however have a few nouns that combine with postpositions which is different from (55a). In such combinations, the root of the noun does not lose any part before the attachment.

Below are some examples.

Noun		postposition	compound	gloss
55. a. <i>dankyini</i> ‘wall’	+	<i>sɛ</i> ‘by’	<i>dankyinsɛ</i>	‘by wall’
b. <i>tɛ</i> ‘tree’	+	<i>pare</i> ‘under’	<i>tɛpare</i>	‘under tree’
c. <i>koro</i> ‘pot’	+	<i>dieŋ</i> ‘inside room’	<i>korodieŋ</i>	‘kitchen’
d. <i>gado</i> ‘bed’	+	<i>puliŋ</i> ‘under’	<i>gadopuliŋ</i>	‘under bed’
e. <i>wɔɔ</i> ‘bag’	+	<i>pɔɔ</i> ‘stomach’	<i>wɔɔpɔɔ</i>	‘inside bag’
f. <i>daga</i> ‘box’	+	<i>koŋkogri</i> ‘side’	<i>dagakonkogri</i>	‘side box’

In example (55a) above, the last vowel of the noun has to be deleted before the combination and this is the reason why the tone of the noun in (55a) is different from the tone when combined with the postposition. Thus, *dankyini* ‘wall’ has a low tone during the compounding but a high tone when pronounced separately.

5.4.5. Compounding of phrasal and clausal structures.

The processes of compounding does not only affect word-classes, but phrases and clauses as well. This is because we can have the subject, verb and the object in the compound. In the combination of these structures, the individual structural forms maintain their bases, but when the combination is done, the compound word refers to names of people, towns, other objects or sometimes concepts. The compounds below are nouns that refer to the traditional names of people.

56 a. *âmene* + *la* + *naa* = *âmenelanaa*
 God is king
 God is King

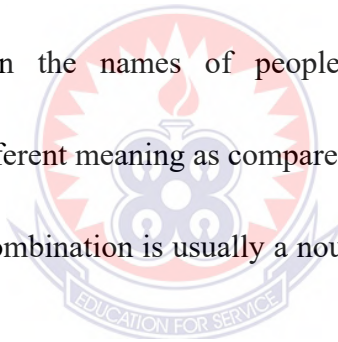
b. *Ba* + *noâ* + *lâ* = *Banonle*
 They like that
 They like that.

- c. *Ba + saa -na + ba + niâe Basaanabaniâe.*
 They frown-PP their face
 They are frowning their faces
- d. *Maaloo + gaa -â. = Maalooгааâ*
 Blessing go-PERF
 Blessin is gone
- e. *De + ko + âmene = Dekoâmene*
 take give God.
 Give to God
- f. *Ba + teâre + ka = Bateereka ‘They think that’*

 They think that
 They think that’

These names are proverbial in nature.

As stated early on, we can also have another set of clausal combinations that refer to other objects other than the names of people in the language. During the combinations, there is different meaning as compared to the individual words. In other words, the result of the combination is usually a noun. Once again, let us consider the following examples.



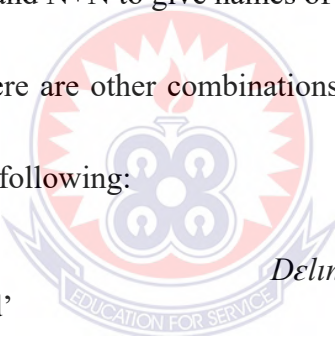
57. a. *ɔɔ + nyu + koɔ = ɔɔnyukoɔ*
 chew drink water
 A kind of edible vegetable.
- b. *doge + kv + ma = dogikoma*
 boil give me
 A kind of edible vegetable
- c. *kaa + nyu + kvô = kaanyukvô*
 look drink water
 lover
- d. *ma + bie + kvâ + ta + pôge + ma = Mabiekuŋtapɔgima*
 mother child won't reach meet me
 A kind of poisonous snake.

The examples in (57 a-b) are types of edible vegetables which are wild plants in the

bush while (57c) refers to a girl or woman who is very beautiful and (57d) is a kind of poisonous snake. These compounds when separated into the stem words are imperatives which the listener understands and can perform if they were common instructions given to him.

The names of villages and towns in the Dagaaba land also demonstrate clausal compounds. Most of these names portray what the early settlers commented about the settlement, hence the names that are given to them. Here it will be realized that, even though I am not discussing V + V or N + N compounding, example (57) shows the combination of V + V and N + N to give names of towns in the language.

Apart from the above, there are other combinations that demonstrate inscriptions on notice boards, such as the following:

- 
58. a. *Dɛli ngmini-* *Dɛlingmini*
 ‘Lean against God’
 Believe in God
- b. *Aŋ laa -ra kɔŋ kɔŋ?* *Anlaarakɔŋkɔŋ*
 Who laugh-PROG will not cry
 Who is laughing and will not cry?
- c. *Kaa tɔɔri-* *Kaatɔɔri*
 Look far/ahead
- d. *Sɔŋ + zɛli* *Sɔnzɛli*
 Help lift /Support

These writings on shops, stores or drinking bars are based on people’s intentions for operating such enterprises. Though the above are full sentences, they are normally written as one word or a compound. They have proverbial connotations. The roots are

combined in their natural form.

	Verb		verb		compound
59. a.	zɪŋ Sit	+	pɛnnɪ rest	=	Zɪmpɛnnɪ.
b.	naã please	+	dôm squat	=	Nandôm
c.	naã Please	+	vili tie round	=	Nanvili.
d.	zɪŋ sit	+	kɔg by	+ nɔɔ =	zɛŋkɔgnɔ joy
e.	zɪã sit	+	mɔô redden	+ pârɪ =	Zɪmɔôpârɪ buttocks
f.	ta do not	+	bɪârɪ trace	=	Tabɪârɪ
g.	da buy	+	puori stomach	=	Dapuori
h.	Ka + n+ do That I climb	+ ηmɪnɪ God	=	Kandoηmɪnɪ.	
i.	Taŋa hill	+	sɪɛ beside	=	Taŋasɪɛ
j.	gyɪr a kind of grass	+	baa + river	=	Gyɪrbaa
k.	kûû death	+	kyɛnɛ friend	=	Kûûkyɛnɛ.

Moreover, some of the clausal forms that combine to make compound words are in the form of questions which refer to names of people, towns or villages. The process is the same as above. The only difference is that these are questions. The examples below demonstrate that.

60. a. Aŋ + kaa -ra + ba = Aŋkaaraba?

who care-PROG them
Who is caring for them?

- b. Bo + maã + kyiri Bomankyiri?
What do I take/accept+
What do I not take/accept?
- c. Aŋ + so + kpeɛo 'power' = Ansokpeɛo?
Who owns power/strength?
Who possesses power?
- d. Aŋ + sinni a = Ansinnaa?
Who fits them
Who is fit for them?
- e. doŋe + ko + boŋ = Doŋekoboŋ?
Give birth to what
Give birth to whom?
- f. yeli + ko + aŋ = Yelko – aŋ?
tell give who
Who should be told?
- g. Aŋ + ba + taa + yele = Ambataayle?
Who + not + have + problems?
Who does not have problems?

Just as in other compounding, there are some phonological explanations to the combinations. In examples (60b, 60c, 60d and 60g), some of the consonants have to undergo assimilation during compounding. The velar nasal (ã) in 60b has to be changed to the dental nasal to conform to the manner of articulation of the first letter of the word to be attached, kyiri 'nor eat/take'. A similar thing is observed in 60c, 60d and 60g above.

The above chapter has been looking at the possible combinations in Dagaare that can form compounds. In the process, we realized that just as other languages, Dagaare has a number of ways by which words can come together to form compounds. I have

looked at the definition of a compound, the forms and types of compounds, together with the formation of compounds. Compound features in Dagaare were also looked at. The various ways by which compounds can be formed was not left out. These include: noun - noun, noun- verb, noun- adjective, noun-postposition, verb- verb, adjective-adjective and Dagaare clausal compounds. The next sub-heading to be tackled is reduplication. This is also a word formation process which reduplicates words in the language. The researcher will attempt bringing out some of the possible ways of reduplication in Dagaare.



CHAPTER SIX

REDUPLICATION

6.0 Introduction

The previous chapter of this study looked at compounding as a word –formation process. In this chapter, reduplication which is another common word-formation process in Dagaare will be, analyzed and described.

Reduplication is an important part of language study which cannot be taken for granted. Its linguistic forms have long been studied in terms of the role it plays. But as far as Dagaare is concerned much has not been done on it. This chapter attempted to look into the possible ways of reduplicating words in Dagaare. Particular attention was paid to verbal reduplication, reduplication of nouns and adjectives as well as adverbial and other possible forms of reduplication.

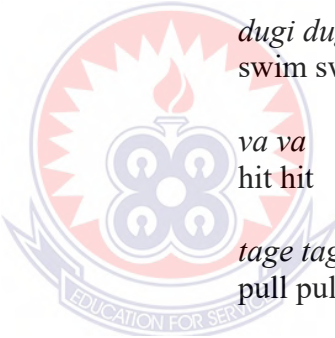
6.1.0. Definition

Reduplication is a word formation process in which some part of a base (a segment, syllable, morpheme) is repeated either to the left, or the right of the word, or occasionally, in the middle. Dolphyne (1987:124) is of the opinion that, reduplication is a type of word formation process which consists of the repetition of the whole or part of the stem. It involves adding material whose identity is partially or wholly determined by the base. Bodomu (2000:33) sees it as a pervasive morphological process across languages of the world. According to him, it is the repetition or multiple occurrences of a morphological entity within a large unit. Katamba &

Stonham (2006:180) look at reduplication as a process whereby an affix is realized by phonological material borrowed from the base. They explain further that, although the process is widespread, it has tended to be treated as a marginal curiosity by many Eurocentric writers on morphology. Sapir (1921:76) cited in Katamba & Stonham observed that: nothing is more natural than the prevalence of reduplication; the process is generally employed, with self-evident symbolism, to indicate such concepts as distribution, plurality, repetition, customary activity, increase in size, added intensity, and continuance. It is important to state here that, Sapir's concepts may not all be applicable to the language under review. From Sapir's concepts, Dagaare employs repetition, added intensity and continuance. So this informs us that, the number of times a word is reduplicated is of importance to us in this study. In reduplication, a continuous substring from either the beginning or the end of the word is copied. Dagaare employs both and this will feature in the discussion in this chapter. It is important to note that reduplication for inflection in Dagaare is not as productive as reduplication for derivation. Reduplication in Dagaare is mostly used for the purposes of derivation where new words are derived or formed through the process. A similar case is reported in Kasem by Awedoba (1993:78), who states that, reduplication in Kasem results from derivational processes involving reduplication of the nuclear bar. He further explains that, the process involves the repetition of the initial syllable of the nuclear bar and it cuts across many languages. In Dagaare we can have reduplication of verbs, nouns, adjectives and adverbs. An attempt was made at explaining each of them. But before that, let us examine the types of reduplication as proposed by some writers.

6.1.1 Types of Reduplication.

Many scholars including Bodomo (2000:33), Katamba (1993:180), Payne (1997:30) and several others share a common view by positing that reduplication is of two types: complete/ total or full reduplication and partial reduplication. Complete/total/full reduplication refers to the repetition of the whole base or stem. For instance, if a word is composed of two syllables, both of them are repeated. Some examples in Dagaare are provided below.

61.	Unreduplicated form		Reduplicated form
a.	<i>dugi</i> swim		<i>dugi dugi</i> swim swim
b.	<i>va</i> hit		<i>va va</i> hit hit
c.	<i>tage</i> pull		<i>tage tage</i> pull pull
d.	<i>tɔ</i> pound		<i>tɔ tɔ</i> pound pound
e.	<i>di</i> eat		<i>di di</i> eat eat

The other type of reduplication is partial reduplication which involves the reduplication of part of the base or stem. Dagaare employs this type of reduplication just as other languages. In example 62 below, we have some verbs in Dagaare which exhibit partial reduplication.

6.2. Unreduplicated form	Reduplicated form
62 a. <i>sɛge</i> <i>sɛgsɛge</i>	
write	write write
b. <i>wuli</i>	<i>wulwuli</i>
show/teach	show/teach show/teach
c. <i>wiri</i>	<i>wirwiri</i>
turn	turnturn
d. <i>mare</i>	<i>marmare</i>
	paste
e. <i>magetaga</i>	<i>magetagamagtaga</i>
thick	thickthick
f. <i>mɔl</i>	<i>mɔlmɔl</i>
long	longlong

In the above examples, it will be noticed that, the unreduplicated forms end with vowels. When it comes to the reduplication, there is deletion of the last vowel of the initial word indicative of the fact that, the stem word is not totally repeated. It is important to state that, the essence of reduplication in Dagaare is sometimes to indicate the seriousness of the action taken. One other essence of reduplication is to indicate that, the object is plural and also to show that the action was not just once, but spans over a period of time.

6.2.0. Reduplication of Verbs

Reduplication of verbs is one of the most common word-formation processes in the language. Dolphyne (1988:127) observes that the reduplicant in verbal reduplication functions as a prefix, in Akan. However in the language under study it is the opposite.

The reduplicant rather occurs as a suffix. Dagaare verbs just as any other language have varied syllable types ranging from monosyllabic to poly/complex syllabic structures. The order of the syllables does not have any effect on the meaning of the verb. One important point is that, when verbs are reduplicated the outcome acts as a suffix as stated earlier on. We shall continue the discussion on verbal reduplication beginning with monosyllabic CV base.

6.2.1 Monosyllabic CV base

There are verbs that have CV syllable structure. Verbs in this category employ total/full reduplication. Unlike some languages where there are insertions of vowels and consonants, no deletion affects the reduplicant in Dagaare. The reduplicated form forms a CVCV structure. The reduplicated form indicates the frequency of repetition of the event or action. Let us use the following examples to buttress the foregoing discussion.

	Unreduplicated form	Reduplicated form
63.a.	<i>la</i>	<i>la la</i>
	Laugh	laugh laugh
b.	<i>za</i>	<i>za za</i>
	throw	throw throw
c.	<i>tu</i>	<i>tu tu</i>
	dig	dig dig
d.	<i>zo</i>	<i>zo zo</i>
	run	run run
e.	<i>da</i>	<i>da da</i>
	buy	buy buy
f.	<i>dô</i>	<i>dô dô</i>

weed	weed weed
g. zâ	zâ zâ
sieve	sieve sieve

The above examples consist of transitive verbs; they are all in the imperative form and can also take direct objects as we shall soon see. The listener is expected to perform an action ordered by the speaker. Some examples are provided in sentences for your consideration below:

64. a. *A noba la la ba taaba na*
 The people laugh laugh at their colleagues
 The people laughed at their colleagues
- b. *Za za a boore ka a gaa*
 Throw throw at the goats'.
 Stone the goats
- c. *Nyɔge a wiɛ dɔdɔ bare*
 Hold the farm weed weed leave
 Please weed the farm.

6.2 2 Monosyllabic CVC base

When a verb has this CVC structure, the C2 is either a nasal or a syllabic consonant. It will also be a heavy syllable since it has a branching rhyme or branching nucleus. The syllable is the unit of pronunciation. This unit of pronunciation is composed of some elements called the onset, the nucleus and the coda. The onset and the coda positions are normally occupied by consonants. The nucleus is usually occupied by vowels but we can also have some consonants called syllabic consonants that can

equally occupy the nucleus position. The nucleus plus the coda constitute the rhyme. So when the syllable contains a nucleus and a coda, it is termed a branching rhyme, as in the examples below:

65. a. *baŋ*
 b. *taŋ*
 c. *daŋ*
 d. *mɔŋ*

The above examples have their nucleus positions being occupied by vowels and consonants thus 'aŋ' and 'ɔŋ'. It is because of this that it is termed branching rhyme. However, in a case where the nucleus of the rhyme is made up of only the nucleus, it is non branching rhyme as in the following examples:

66. a. *tu*
 b. *ba+ge*
 c. *zo*
 d. *ba+re*



Reduplication of such verbs is either written separately or as one word. When written together, there is usually a homorganic nasal assimilation. In other words, the C2 which is a nasal will take the place of articulation as the following consonants. In example (66b) for instance, the initial sound of the second verb has to assimilate the last consonant which is /ã/. A similar case is observed in (66 c, d, and e).

Unreduplicated form	Reduplicated form
67. a. <i>koŋ</i>	<i>koŋ koŋ</i>
cry	‘cry repeatedly’
b. <i>zeŋ</i>	<i>zenzeŋ</i>
sit	‘sit everywhere’
c. <i>baã</i>	<i>bambaã</i>

know	‘know everything’
d. <i>daã</i>	<i>dandaã</i>
stir	‘stir many times’
e. <i>leã</i>	<i>lenleã</i>
tie	‘tie so many times’
f. <i>saã</i>	<i>sansaã</i>
cure	‘cure so many times’

6.2.3. Monosyllabic CV: base

These are verbs which have their vowels duplicated /lengthened. In the orthography of the language, the long vowel is indicated by the repetition of the vowel as in /aa/ in as examples (68a – 68e). We also have the diphthongization of verbs as in (68f and 68g). Verbs with this form in Dagaare employ total reduplication like their CV counterparts. This type of reduplication could also mean an action that was repeated to show the intensity of an action. Below are some examples for your consideration.

Unreduplicated form	Reduplicated form
68. a. <i>daa</i>	<i>daa daa</i>
‘Push’	‘push repeatedly’
b. <i>faa</i>	<i>faa faa</i>
‘sieze’	‘sieze so many times’
c. <i>baa</i>	<i>baa baa</i>
‘grow’	‘grow very fast’
d. <i>gaa</i>	<i>gaa gaa</i>
‘go’	‘go everywhere’
e. <i>taa</i>	<i>taa taa</i>
‘have’	‘have a lot’
f. <i>beε</i>	<i>beε beε</i>

‘give way’	‘give way give way’
g. toɔ	toɔ toɔ
draw	draw so many times

The phonological characteristics of the above reduplicated forms are that, either the suffix is a repetition of the stem where the VV is a sequence of identical vowels as exemplified in (68a -68e), or the VV is a sequence of a high front vowel followed by a non-high vowel as in (68f and 68g).

As stated earlier on, there is no addition of a nasal in this type of reduplication of verbs. It is however important to note that, these verbs can either be used in the singular or in the plural. This means that, they can be used where the subjects are either singular or plural but they are not to be pluralized and the subject does not have to agree with the verb as is the case in English. Let us examine how these verbs operate in sentences.

69. a. *A dɔɔ daa daa la a noba bare*
 The man push push the people away.’
 The man pushed the people away.

- b. *A dɔ -ba daa daa daa daa la a noba bare*
 The man PL push push push push the people away
 The men pushed the people away.

The above examples show that, whether the subject is plural or not the verb remains the same. For instance, in example (69a), the subject (dɔɔ) is singular and so the verb is also the same and in example (69b) where the subject is plural (dɔba) the verb does not still change.

6.2.4. Disyllabic CVCV base

Reduplication of verbs with CVCV base has vowel deletion. Verbs in this category undergo partial reduplication. During the processes of reduplication it is the first syllable that is deleted, but the second experiences the retention of its coda. The V2 in the structure is retained when reduplication occurs. Let us substantiate this with the examples below.

	Unreduplicated form	Reduplicated form
70 a.	<i>fali</i> 'Slap'	<i>falfali</i> 'slap many times'
b.	<i>buli</i> 'germinate'	<i>bulbuli</i> 'germinate everywhere'
c.	<i>tuli</i> 'mistake'	<i>tultuli</i> 'make a lot of mistakes'
d.	<i>puri</i> 'burst'	<i>purpuri</i> 'burst all over'
e.	<i>wâgi</i> 'hatch'	<i>wâgwâgi</i> 'hatch many times'
f.	<i>sâgi</i> 'write'	<i>sâgsâgi</i> 'write somany times'
g.	<i>sugi</i> 'fetch'	<i>sugsugi</i> 'fetch a number of times'

Most of the verbs in this category are transitive verbs which take objects to complete as in the examples below:

71.a. \bar{O} *falfali la a bie.*

S/he slap slap the child.

S/he3SG slapped the child.

b. *Fɔ nuɔ na wâgwɛgi la bilii yaga.*

2POSS fowl that hatch hatch chicks many.

That your fowl hatched many chicks.

c. *Mvô bulbuli la a wîâ zaa.*

Weeds germinate germinate the farm whole.

‘There are weeds all over the farm’.

One interesting thing about reduplication of verbs is that, there is no upward bound in their reduplication. They can be reduplicated as many times as the speaker or writer wishes. Once again, below are some examples for your consideration.

Verb	reduplicated form
72. a. <i>la</i>	<i>lalalalalalalala</i>
‘laugh’	‘laugh repeatedly’
b. <i>nyu</i>	<i>nyunyunyunyunyuyu</i>
‘drink’	‘drink so many times’
c. <i>yô</i>	<i>yôyôyôyôyôyôyôyô</i>
‘roam’	‘roam a lot’

Let us see how the above verbs operate in sentences

73. a. *A dôô vââ -εε la te lalalalalala a ba la ti laara zaa.*

The man make PST us laugh laugh laugh PAT until we were tired.

The man made us laugh until we were tired.

b. *A biiri yô ημεημεημε la bɔl ti balɪ.*

The children playPST ball until they became tired.

The endlessness of verbal reduplication is meant to place emphasis or an exaggerated form of an action. It can also indicate the number of times the action is repeated. The major difference between this type of reduplication and those already discussed is that, this type of reduplication is done severally. It is left unto the individual to decide the number of times he/she wants to reduplicate a particular verb. This endless

reduplication is not only found in Dagaare, but also in the other Ghanaian languages. For instance, Dolpyne (1987:132) reports that, a verb stem may be reduplicated more than once., In theory, there is no limit to the number of times a verb may be reduplicated, but in general, the largest reduplicated form in use is made up of three identifiable parts. The examples in (74) below are from Dolphyne (1987:132) which she uses to argue her point.

Unreduplicated form	Reduplication form
74.a. bobɔ ‘break’	bobɔbobɔbobɔ ‘break’
b. twitwa ‘cut’	twitwa twitwa twitwa ‘cut cut many times’
c. bisa ‘ask’	bisabisabisa ‘ask’

6.2.5. Inflection of Verbal Reduplicants.

Dagaare verbs have progressive and perfective inflections based on +ATR and –ATR of the root or stem word. ‘-i’ and ‘â’ vowels are attached to +ATR and –ATR verb stems respectively. In the reduplication process, the perfective form of the inflection is realized at the end of the reduplicants. However, with the progressive form, the unreduplicated form is repeated as can be seen in examples ‘c’ ‘d’ and ‘e’ below:

Unreduplicated form	Reduplicated form
75. a. <i>kpi</i>	<i>kpikpikpikpie</i>
‘die’	so many deaths’
b. <i>ziâ</i>	<i>zinzinzinziziâââ</i>
‘sit’	‘sit everywhere’
c. <i>duoro</i>	<i>duoro duoroduoro</i>
‘climb’	‘climb a number of times’
d. <i>kono</i>	<i>kono kono</i>
‘crying’	‘crying a lot’

<i>e. ημιελε</i>	<i>ημιελε ημιελε</i>
‘twist’	‘twist repeatedly’
<i>f. βορω</i>	<i>βορω βορω</i>
‘sowing’	‘sowing everywhere’

6.3 Reduplication of Nouns

Like verbs, nouns are also reduplicated in Dagaare. Both the singular and plural forms of the noun are reduplicated. This phenomenon is however not very productive in the language. Once again this is used for emphasis. Usually these take to full reduplication because the whole noun is reduplicated. Let us see the examples below:

Unreduplicated form	Reduplicated form
76. a. <i>Pôgi</i> ‘female/woman’	<i>pôgi pôgi</i> ‘female/woman female/woman’
b. <i>dôô</i> ‘man/male’	<i>dôô dôô</i> ‘man/male man/male’
c. <i>bale</i> ‘clan’	<i>balebale</i> ‘clan clan’

Even though this type of reduplication is not productive in Dagaare, there are a few nouns that can fall into this category. These nouns also have their plurals duplicated as is seen in the examples in (77) below:

Unreduplicated form	Reduplicated form
77. a. <i>pôgi -ba</i> female/woman PL ‘females/women’	<i>pôgi -ba pôgi -ba</i> womanPL womanPL ‘females/women females/women’
b. <i>dô -ba</i> man-PL ‘men’	<i>dô -ba dô -ba</i> manPL manPL ‘men men’

<i>c. tin-ni</i>	<i>tin - ni tin - ni</i>
town-PL	town-PL town-PL
<i>d. fôn-ni</i>	<i>fôn-ni fôn-ni</i>
section-PL	section-PL section-PL

6.4 Reduplication of Adjectives

Another area in which reduplication is very common in the language is manifest in adjectives. It is very productive because almost all the adjectives in Dagaare can be reduplicated. Also, both the singular and the plural forms can be reduplicated. Once again, in the reduplication of adjectives, we can have the expression ‘every X’ and ‘all X’. Thus, in Dagaare, *sôglaa* becomes *sôglaa sôglaa* with the entire word reduplicated to express the meaning ‘very black. In example (78) below, I demonstrate some adjectives that fall in this category. In Dagaare, the plural of adjectives is formed by adding a prefix to the stem of the adjective which is also duplicated. In a situation where a noun is to take an adjective, the noun loses its noun class which may be a vowel or a consonant. It is the adjective that takes the inflection for the class or plural. Below are some examples for your consideration.

Unreduplicated form	reduplicated form
78. a. <i>ziε</i>	<i>zii-ri zii-ri</i>
‘fair/red’	‘very fair/red’
b. <i>ηmaa</i>	<i>ηmaa-ra nmaa-ra</i>
‘short’	‘very short’

This will however depend on the phonological representation of the adjective. If for instance the stem is made of [+ATR] vowels, the suffix will also come from there.

Unreduplicated form

Reduplicated form

79. <i>a. wogi</i>	<i>wogi wogi</i>
‘tall’	‘very tall’
<i>b. sôglaa</i>	<i>sôglaa sôglaa</i>
‘black’	‘very black’
<i>c. âmaa</i>	<i>âmaaâmaa</i>
short	‘very short’
<i>d. ziâ</i>	<i>ziâziâ</i>
‘fair/red’	‘very fair/red’
<i>e. pîlaa</i>	<i>pîlaapîlaa</i>
‘white’	‘very white’
<i>f. baalaa</i>	<i>baalaabaalaa</i>
‘slim’	‘very slim’
<i>g. bârũa</i>	<i>bârũabârũa</i>
‘fat’	‘very fat’

Let us look at how these adjectives operate in sentences.

80.a. *A dôô taa la pôgi wogi wogi.*

‘The man has a tall tall wife’

The man has a very tall wife.

b. Bayɔɔ da la ba sôglaa sôglaa kaŋa.

‘Bayɔɔ bought a black black dog certain’

Bayôô bought a black dog.

c. Fo kyenvelaa vilaa na wa la kyɛ.

Your friend beautiful beautiful that come PST here.

That beautiful fried of yours came here.

d. *Pôgibil baalaa baalaa kaâa yô bôr -ô fo la.*

Girl slim slim certain roaming round look-PP for you.

‘A certain slim girl is walking round looking for you.’

As mentioned in the above section, the plural formations of reduplicated adjectives take different phonological representations during reduplication. It is worth mentioning that, the words so formed agree with the subjects in the sentences. If for instance the noun is plural, it is the adjective that will take it. Some of these are exemplified below:

Unreduplicated form	Reduplicated form
81. a. <i>zi -iri</i> ‘red/colored’	<i>zi -iri zi -iri</i> ‘red’ ‘very red/colored’
b. <i>baal -e</i> ‘slim’	<i>baal -i baal -i</i> ‘very slim’
c. <i>sôgl -ô</i> ‘black’	<i>sôgl-ô sôgl-ô</i> ‘very black’
d. <i>âmaa -ra</i> ‘short’	<i>âmaa -ra âmaa- ra</i> ‘very shot’
e. <i>tô -bô</i> ‘far’	<i>tô -bô tô -bô</i> ‘very far’

Let us see how plural adjectives function in sentences.

82. a. *A bii -ri waa la zuri zuri.*

DEF child-PL are fair

The children are fair.

b. *Pôgibil baali baali la ka ba bôrô .*

Girl small slim slim PAT that 3PL want

They want slim ladies

c. *Fo baa dɔg -εε bilsɔglɔ sɔglɔ yon.*

2POSS dog litter-PERF puppies black black
only.

Your dog littered only black puppies.

d. *Yε bɔlɔmɛr - bε na waa la ηmaara ηmaara*

2POSS footballer-PL those are short short.

Your footballers are short

e. A tin - nɪ waa la tɔ -bɔ to- bɔ

DET village-PL are far-PL far-PL

The villages are very far

As can be seen from the examples above, it would be realized that, there is some agreement between the nouns and the adjectives. Thus in example (82a), *biiri* (children) which is plural has to go with *ziri* which also denotes plurality. The same applies to the rest of the examples. As adjectives do not stand all by themselves but have to modify nouns or pronouns, they are either attached to the noun to form a compound word as in examples (82c, 82d and 82e) above or come immediately after the noun as in (82a and 82b).

We have some nouns in the language that bleach off their nominal qualities at times when they are reduplicated and function as adjectives. Examples of such nouns include the ones below:

<i>83. a. biiree</i>	<i>biiree biiree</i> 'sandy'
sand	sand sand

b. *kɔɔ* *kɔɔ kɔɔ* ‘watery’
water water water

c. *kubo* ‘ *kubo kubo* ‘stony’
stones stones stones

d. *yaarɔŋ* *yaarɔŋ yaarɔŋ* ‘salty’
salt salt salt

Let us see how these nouns which have now become adjectives function in sentences .

84a. *A wiɛ e la biiree biiree yon.*

The farm is sand sand only.

The farm is sandy.

b. *Ɔ buuluŋ na waa la kɔɔ kɔɔ.*

His\her porridge is water water

His.her porridge is watery

c. *Yɛ tiŋa waa la kubo kubo lɛ .*

Your village is stones stones.

Your village is stony .

d. *A zierɛ e la yaarɔŋ yaarɔŋ*

The soup is salt salt.

The soup is salty

Even though these are nouns reduplicated, they describe how a particular thing or place is; hence they turn to be adjectives. Reduplication in adjectives is to describe the intensity of the nature of something.

6.5 Reduplication of Adverbs

The main function of adverbs is to modify verbs. However, they can also be reduplicated just like other lexical items. This type of reduplication employs full reduplication and is meant to show the intensity of something. In the examples below, I illustrate how some adverbs are reduplicated in Dagaare.

Unreduplicated form	Reduplicated form	gloss
85. a. <i>yuoni</i> year	<i>yuoni yuoni</i> year year	'yearly'
b. <i>daa</i> market	<i>daa daa</i> market market	'weekly'
c. <i>pampana</i> now	<i>pampana pampana</i> now now	'now'
d. <i>baalvã</i> soft	<i>baalvã baalvã</i> 'softly' soft soft	
e. <i>wieouã</i> quick	<i>wieouã wieouã</i> 'quickly' quick quick	

When adverbs are reduplicated they sometimes show the time a particular activity takes place, where it takes place and even how it takes place. That is to show the situation under which something is done.

For instance to show the time or period a particular thing is done, we can use the adverbs below:

86. a. <i>daa daa</i>	'weekly'
b. <i>kyuu kyuu</i>	'monthly'
c. <i>bie zaa bie zaa</i>	'everyday'
d. <i>yuoni yuoni</i>	'yearly'.
e. <i>pampana pampana</i>	'now'

To no where an activity takes place, we sometimes use

87. *Yej* where

6.6 Reduplication of numerals

In Dagaare, numerals from one to nine and tens can be reduplicated. Here too they exhibit complete reduplication. This type of reduplication is used when the speaker intends to group things. They can also be reduplicated partially. The reduplicant functions as a suffix and the base acts as the initial word. The examples in (88) demonstrate how some numerals are reduplicated in Dagaare.

Unreduplicated form	Reduplicated form	gloss
88. a. <i>bon-yeni</i> ‘one’	<i>bon-yeni bon-yeni</i>	‘one one’
b. <i>ayi</i> ‘two’	<i>ayi ayi</i>	‘two two’
c. <i>ata</i> ‘three’	<i>ata ata</i>	‘three three’
d. <i>pie</i> ‘ten’	<i>pie pie</i>	‘ten ten’
e. <i>lezare</i> ‘twenty’	<i>lezare lezare</i>	‘twenty twenty’

Once more, let us see how these numerals function in sentences.

89. a. *Ko ba bon-yeni bon-yeni*

Give them one one

‘Give them one each’

b. *Vââ ka ba poâ ata ata*

let them share three three

Let them share three each

c. *Kaâa zaa na nyâ la pie pie*

‘Every body is to get ten ten’

Everybody will get ten.

d. *Ba zenâ la lezare lezare*

They are sitting in twenty twenty

They are sitting in twenties

6.7.0 Other Word Formation Processes

6.7.1 Borrowing

One of the most common ways of adding to our lexicon is by borrowing. Borrowing according to Yule, (1997:64) is a word formation process in which words are taken over from other languages. In other words it is the adoption of words from one language and incorporated into another. The motive of borrowing is to fill gaps in the borrowing language. When two languages come into contact, either speaker may imitate some words which are understood to refer to new objects and practices which have come into the borrowing language. The borrowing language is confronted with new words and practices for which new words are needed. The borrower imitates the speaker's pronunciation of the word which is familiar to the borrower. Once a borrowed word has been thoroughly 'naturalised', its subsequent history is like that of any form in the language. There is no language that can boast of having enough vocabulary such that they do not have to borrow from other languages. With the spread of Christianity into England, the English language which is even our official language adopted many words from Latin such as abbot, altar, cap, canon, pope, sock, cowl, cook, church, bishop among others. German words such as hell, heaven, God, as well as Chinese words typhoon, chop came into the English language. As a result of rural-urban migration, trading, intermarriages, evangelization and so on, the Dagaaba have also come into contact with other language speakers. They have therefore borrowed words from other speakers to fill the gaps of new items that were hitherto not found in Dagaare. Some of the languages from which Dagaare borrowed

words include: English, Twi, Hausa and Sisaali. Below are some words from these languages. First let us look at some words borrowed from English into Dagaare.

90.	English	Dagaare
	‘watch’	wɔɔkye
	‘bucket’	bokiti
	‘taxi’	taasii
	‘lawyer’	lɔɔya
	‘aeroplane’	aloopelee
	‘nurse’	nɛɛse

As stated above Dagaare also loaned words from Twi. Below are a few of them.

91.	Twi	Dagaare	English
	Aŋkaa	aŋkaa	‘orange’
	Pieto	pieto	‘pant’
	bɔɔdeɛ	bɔɔdeɛ	‘plantain’
	daka	daga	‘box/coffin’

Some Hausa words which have also found their way into Dagaare are illustrated below:

92.	Hausa	Dagaare	English
	Barka	bareka	‘thanks’
	Sheŋkaafa	seŋkaafa	‘rice’
	Baŋgyeraa	baŋgyeraa	‘toilet’
	Kookeree	kookeree	‘great effort’
	Sirikyi	sirikyi	‘useful’
	Soosei	soosei	‘very much’

The Sisala are also found in the eastern part of the Upper-West Region of Ghana. Their language is completely different from Dagaare, but because we are close to

them some of their words are used by the Dagaaba. Here are the examples.

93. Sisaali	Dagaare	English
Senkpãã	senkãã	‘groudnuts’
Bayoŋ/Hayoŋ	Bayuo/Ayuo	‘person’s name’

6.7.2. Clipping

Clipping is a word formation process in which a word is shortened or reduced without any change in its meaning or grammatical class. The form of clipping in Dagaare as in English are those who have the initial part of the original word retained as in the following examples:

94. Original word		clipped form		new word
<i>yel</i> + <i>yage</i>	<i>segraa</i> = <i>yel</i>	<i>segraa</i>		<i>yelsegraa</i>
saying + plenty	written = saying	written		‘essay’
<i>Dɔma</i> + <i>naa</i>	<i>ɲmene</i> =	<i>Dɔma</i>		‘enemy’
Enemy not	god =	(name)		‘person’s name’

There is another set that has the medial part of the original word removed but the initial and the final parts still continue. Some examples are provided for your consideration.

	Original word		clipped form	gloss
95. a.	<i>Bon de manne wulaa</i>		<i>bon wulaa</i>	‘example’
	Sth take describe show		sth show	
b.	<i>Yel senkpeg wiiraa</i>		<i>yel wiiraa</i>	‘poem’
	Saying idiomatic woven		saying woven	
c.	<i>Tulun daa</i>		<i>tundaa</i>	‘pestle’

	anything for pounding	wood		
d.	<i>naasaale</i>	<i>soɔ</i>	<i>naasasoɔ</i>	‘science’
	whiteman	witchery		
e.	<i>nensaale</i>	<i>-ba</i>	<i>nensaaba</i>	‘people’
	person	-PL		

When it comes to the retention of the medial part of the original word, it is rather removed thus deviating from the pattern from being maintained. We also have other set in which the final part of the original word is retained as in the ones below:

	Original word		clipped form	gloss
96 a.	Kuori	yaaroo	yaaroo	‘rites’
	funeral	rites		
b.	<i>noɔ</i>	birime	birime	‘featherless’
	fowl	featherless		
c.	<i>bie</i>	<i>pɔɔ</i>	<i>pɔɔ</i>	‘young men’
	child	growing		
d.	<i>pɔɔɔ</i>	sarre	sarre	‘young girls’
	woman	growing		
e.	<i>fanfanɔ</i>	fuuri	fuuri	‘foam’
	soap	foam		
f.	<i>daa</i>	kogi	kogi	‘stool/chair’
	wood	stool/chair		

The last two word formation processes have not been delved into detail but I hope the subsequent work will be done on them by other researchers interested in the development of the language.

In conclusion; there are a number of word classes that can be reduplicated. These include verbs, nouns, adjectives and adverbs. We can also have reduplication of numerals. In the above presentation, some stems of verbs repeated themselves to show

reduplication, other verbs had to do away with their last sounds of the stems before reduplication can take place. The most productive word class in reduplication in Dagaare is the adjective and the one which is not very productive is reduplication of nouns. Reduplication in Dagaare is to place emphasis on something, show the period a certain action was taken and also to show how intensive something is done. The chapter also attempted looking at other word formation processes which include: borrowing and clipping among others. The next chapter will be looking at the summary, findings, recommendations and conclusion of the work done.



CHAPTER SEVEN

7.0 Summary, Findings, Recommendations and Conclusion

No language assumes self-sufficiency in word list. This is as a result of that; society is dynamic, always growing from strength to strength. New concepts and practices enter the society daily. In the light of this, new words are formed which creep into the language all the time through word formation processes. Dagaare, the main language spoken in the Upper-West Region is no exception.

7.1 Findings

Following the constant birth of new words into languages, some word formation processes have been identified in Dagaare. A common one of these word formation processes is derivation. Through this process; many words are derived from the major word classes through affixation. These affixes which are mainly suffixes normally attach themselves to the root of nouns, verbs and adjectives. These morphemes are bound ones such that when they attach themselves to the stem or base classes, they change the word class of the new word so formed. Most of the derivatives are usually nominalizers. Hence, suffixes are attached to nouns, verbs and adjectives to form nouns. The different suffixes which enable the formation of these nominalizers are elaborated in the thesis. The nominalising suffixes do not attach themselves haphazardly to the various word classes. The suffixes which the nouns, verbs and adjectives attract are based on [+ATR] and [-ATR] of the base words.

Compounding is another common word formation process that gives rise to the birth of catalogue of new words in Dagaare. It is the process by which two or more words or lexemes are put together to form one word. Nouns, verbs and adjectives feature prominently in the compounding combinations. They may be noun-noun, noun-verb or noun- adjective.

In the formation of compounds some morphological and phonological processes occur. This may result in the deletion of final sounds or syllables and consonant assuming the place of articulation of the preceding ones or a consonant that follows. As these compounds are formed, some are solid or closed ones, normally written as one word while others attract a hyphen placed between the two words that come together. Coinage is other form of compounding in which new words are invented from totally new terms. Words from such process have no source but have come into being through technology and societal advancement, thus society has to be abreast with these modern trends.

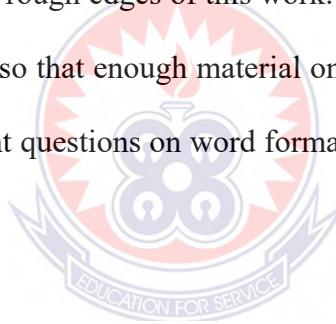
Reduplication, much of which has not been done in Dagaare, is yet another word formation process. It is the type which consists of the repetition of the whole stem or part of it. The words are repeated for the sake of emphasis among other reasons. Nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs are usually reduplicated. There is no upward bound in which a word can be reduplicated to intensify the level to which an activity is performed.

Some languages, Dagaare not exception, are confronted with new words, concepts and practices for which new words are required. When this occurs, speakers of the language imitate the pronunciation of the new words. This has called for borrowing. Borrowing has therefore become another word formation process through which more

words are added to the lexicon of Dagaare. Contact with speakers of languages such as English, Twi and Hausa has compelled Dagaare to borrow some words from the aforementioned languages into Dagaare. There are other word formation processes in Dagaare such as clipping. Clipping is the word formation process in which words are shortened without tempering with the meaning. All these were discussed in the study.

7.2 Recommendations.

No research work has ever been complete. It has already been stated that not much is done in Dagaare on word formation processes. This indicates that, a lot needs to be done in this linguistic area. It is therefore a challenge thrown to other linguists in the language to smoothen the rough edges of this work. Linguists are therefore charged to dig deeper into this topic so that enough material on it will be available. It is believed that, there are still pertinent questions on word formation processes yet to be employed and researched into.



7.3 Conclusion.

Word formation processes enable words to enter languages to cause an expansion in the lexicon. Some of these processes worked on in the thesis are derivation, compounding, reduplication, borrowing and clipping. These are adequately outlined and explained in the work with reference to Dagaare. Though the study is thoroughly done, it is requested that, more value be added to it so that the work serves as a reliable source of reference on the concept. There may be deficiencies identified in the work. I stand accountable for the defects detected in it.

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