

**A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE DERIVATIONAL  
MORPHOLOGY OF ENGLISH AND HAUSA**

**BY**

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Literary Studies, Bayero University, Kano, in partial fulfillment of the  
requirements for the Award of Degree of Master of Arts in  
English Language**

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## **DECLARATION**

I hereby declare that this research work is the product of my own research efforts, undertaken under the supervision of Dr. Bala Danyaro Aminu, and that it has never been presented and will never be presented elsewhere for the Award of any other degree or certificate. All sources have been duly acknowledged.

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## CERTIFICATION

This is to certify that the research work for this dissertation and the subsequent write-up by Jamilu Ahmed (SPS/17/MEN/00016) were carried out under my supervision.

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## APPROVAL PAGE

This dissertation has been supervised, examined and approved for meeting the partial requirements for the Award of Degree of Master of Arts in English Language.

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## **ABSTRACT**

This research compares and analyses the derivational morphology of English language and Hausa language using Contrastive Analysis Theory propounded by Lado (1956). It specifically investigates the similarities and differences of the derivational systems of the two languages. Content analysis and purposive sampling were used in generating the required data. The findings reveal that both languages use the system of formation and conversion in their derivational morphology. In formation, English uses only prefixation and suffixation, while Hausa makes use of prefixation, infixation and suffixation. In these sub-processes, suffixation happens to be the richest derivational process in both English and Hausa, while prefixation is a rich system only in English language. Again, while the former is largely class-changing in English language, in Hausa language it is substantially class-maintaining. However, the two languages share a lot of similarities more than differences. Therefore, based on this, it is concluded that belonging to the same or different language family does not determine significant similarity or otherwise between two or more languages.

## CHAPTER ONE

### GENERAL INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 Introduction

This study compares and analyses the derivational morphology of English language and Hausa language with a view to finding out the areas in which the two languages are similar, and the areas in which they are different. This research is specific, in that, it investigates only the similarities and differences of the derivational systems of the two languages. This chapter, being the introductory part of the work, contains the following sections: background to the study, statement of the problem, aim and objectives, research questions, significance of the study and scope and limitation.

#### 1.2 Background to the Study

Morphology, according to Lieber (2009:2), is the “study of word formation, including the ways new words are coined in the languages of the world, and the way forms of words are varied depending on how they are used in sentences.” The term “morphology” is generally attributed to the German poet, novelist, playwright, and philosopher, Johann Wolfgang Von (1749-1832), who is said to have coined it in the early nineteenth century in a biological context (Aronoff and Fudeman, 2011). The term’s etymology is Greek: “Morph” – Means ‘shape, form’, and morphology is the study of form or forms. In Biology, from where the term originated, morphology refers to the study of the form and structure of organisms. While in linguistics, the term “morphology” refers to the mental system involved in word formation or it refers to the branch of linguistics that is concerned with words, their internal structure, and how they are formed (Aronoff and Fudeman, 2011). Morphology is divided into two major branches: inflectional morphology which deals with the relationship between

lexemes within the same paradigm, and derivational morphology which is concerned with the creation of one lexeme from another, or the relationship between lexemes. Derivational morphology is divided into two (2) namely: formation and conversion. In formation, lexemes are derived through the application of lexical formatives, while in conversion lexemes are derived from other lexemes without altering the physical structures of the bases. Therefore, this study compares and analyses the derivational morphology of English language and Hausa language with a view to finding out their similarities and differences.

English is both a second and official language in Nigeria. It has attained a high social status more than any other Nigerian indigenous language. It is used as a medium of instruction at all levels of education (excluding primary 1-3) in the country. English is a Germanic language which belongs to a branch of the indo-European family of languages (Alabo, 2005). It is a Subject Verb Object (SVO) language. English language has spread to other parts of the world as a result of a number of factors such as colonialism, missionary activities, trade, education, immigration, and exploration (Alabo, 2005). Consequently, it has developed into two different varieties; native Speakers' varieties and non-native Speakers' varieties. The native speakers' varieties include: British English, American English, Australian English and Canadian English. The non-native Speakers' varieties that is, countries where English is spoken as a second language, are: Nigerian English: English spoken in Nigeria, South African English: spoken in South Africa, Ghanaian English: spoken in Ghana, and Indian English: spoken in India (Jowilt, 1991).

In contrast, Hausa is an indigenous language in Nigeria. It is one of the three major Nigerian languages (Hausa, Yoruba and Igbo). It has a large number of vocabularies of Arabic origin (Miftah, 2012). Hausa is an Afro-asiatic language, which belongs to the Chadic

language family (Miftah, 2012). Hausa language is the most widely spoken indigenous language in sub-Saharan Africa and used as a first language by over 50 million people - these people include those from Northern Nigeria, Southern Niger, Northern Ghana, and in some communities in Senegal and Khartoum in Sudan (Funnis, 1996 cited in Buhari, 2011). Hausa is getting international recognition as it is used in broadcasting news in several world recognised radio stations such as British Broadcasting Cooperation (BBC) London, Voice of America (VOA) and Deutsche Welle. There are seven Hausa states in Nigeria which lead to the emergence of some dialects in the language. The dialects are: Sakkwatanci, Katsinanci, Dauranci, Kananci, Rananci, Gobiranci and Zazzaganci. Kano dialect (spoken in Kano State and its environment) is the standard dialect (Bello, 1992 cited in Buhari, 2011).

### **1.3 Statement of the Problem**

All human languages share certain similarities and differ in some other ways (Chomsky, 1965; Kracht, 2007; Yule, 2010; Denham & Lobeck, 2013). Thus, English and Hausa are not exceptions. These similarities and differences exist at all levels of linguistic analysis such as phonetics/phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics. However, with regard to the derivational morphology, in particular, it is not precisely clear at what level English and Hausa languages differ, and at what level they are similar. Although it is obvious that a number of researches on morphology in general such as Doka (2012), Maikiyari (2015), Celestine (2016) and Sani (2016), and comparative analysis between English and Hausa morphologies in particular such as Buhari (2011), have so far been conducted, very few have focused specifically on comparative analysis of derivational morphology of English and Hausa. Therefore, this study examines the derivational morphology of English and Hausa with a view to finding out in which way, with regard to derivation, the two

languages differ, and in which way they are similar to fill the resulting gap in the morphological studies.

#### **1.4 Aim and Objectives**

The aim of this study is to compare the derivational morphology of English and Hausa. The objectives are:

- (i) to find out how lexemes are derived in English and Hausa,
- (ii) to identify the areas of similarities in the derivational morphology of English and Hausa, and
- (iii) to identify the areas of differences in the derivational morphology of English and Hausa.

#### **1.5 Research Questions**

The research questions are:

- (i) How are lexemes derived in English and Hausa?
- (ii) What are the areas of similarities in English and Hausa derivational morphology?
- (iii) What are the areas of differences in English and Hausa derivational morphology?

#### **1.6 Significance of the Study**

A number of scholars such as Chomsky (1965), Kracht (2007), Yule (2010), Denham and Lobeck (2013) argue that all human languages share some similarities and differ in some other ways. These similarities and differences can be found at different levels of linguistic studies which include phonetics/phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics. Therefore, this claim by the above scholars justifies the need for the present study to provide an insight into those cross-linguistic similarities and differences between the derivational morphology of English language and Hausa language, to prove or otherwise the above argument.

Furthermore, the study serves as an additional literature in the area of morphology as a sub-field of the larger field of linguistics.

### **1.7 Scope and Limitation**

Despite the wide and complex area of morphology, this research is limited to the area of derivational morphology-specifically formation. Although there are several dialects of both Hausa and English, for the purpose of this study, the Standard British English (SBE), and Kano dialect of Hausa which is considered as the standard dialect (Funnis, 1996) are used.

## CHAPTER TWO

### LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

#### 2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews some of the major concepts in the field of morphology and the studies previously conducted in the area. The theoretical framework, on which the study is based, is also discussed in the chapter.

#### 2.2 Morphology

Matthews (1991), Yule (1996), Aronoff and Fudeman (2011), see morphology from the etymological perspective. According to these scholars, morphology is seen as the “study of forms.” Moreover, Aronoff and Fudeman (2011) go further to add that morphology is a branch of linguistics that deals with words, their internal structure, and how they are formed. However, this definition seems to ignore some other external morphological processes that play a vital role in morphological operation such as coinage and borrowing. Lieber (2009) has almost the same view with this, even though his view slightly differs from the above. He sees morphology as the study of word formation, including the different ways new words are coined in the languages of the world, and the way forms of words are varied depending on how they are used in a given context. Again, this definition, even though it pays little or no attention to the issue of borrowing, seems to have addressed some of the inadequacies of the above definition. However, Haspelmath and Sims (2010) hold almost entirely different view, in which they see morphology as the study of systematic co-variation in the form and meaning of words. Their argument is that, when morphology is defined as the study of the internal structure of words, as it is often done by some scholars (e.g. Eruchalu, 2007), it sounds a little vague, because words have internal structure in two different senses:

phonological, that is, they are made up of sequences of sounds, and morphological, that is, they are made up of morphemes. However, this definition proposed by Haspelmath and Sims (2010) does not capture some of the essential ingredients of morphology that are central in morphological operation (such as coinage and borrowing).

### **2.2.1 Types of Morphology**

Morphology is generally divided into two different branches: inflectional and derivational morphology.

#### **Inflectional Morphology**

Inflectional morphology is the branch of morphology that deals with word-forms within a paradigm (Matthews, 1991). It deals with the relationship between lexemes within the same paradigm. Here, some morphological terms are used in this brief explanation of the concept of inflectional morphology, which are: *lexeme*, *word-forms* and *paradigm*. These concepts need to be explained for better understanding of the concept of inflectional morphology because they are key words in the definition. “Lexeme” is a word in an abstract sense. It is an abstract entity that has no phonological form. Lexeme represents the core meaning shared by all word-forms (Haspelmath and Sims, 2010). Lexeme is sometimes referred to as “dictionary word” because dictionaries are organised according to lexeme. By contrast, a “word-form” is a word in a concrete sense. It is a sequence of sounds that expresses the combination of a lexeme and a set of grammatical meaning appropriate to that lexeme (Haspelmath and Sims, 2010). “Paradigm” can be seen as a set of word-forms that belongs to the same lexeme. This explanation can be exemplified by the following set of words: *write*, *writes*, *writing*, *wrote*, *written*, all these five words are called word-forms; and they belong to the same lexeme WRITE, and this set of words known as word-forms,

belonging to the same lexeme, operates within the same paradigm. Word-forms that belong to the same lexeme express different grammatical functions, but denote the same core concept. In summation, the function of inflectional morphology is expression of grammatical meaning or function, and this include: showing contrast between “singular” and “plural”, marking of “tense” and showing “degree of comparative of adjective”. Arguably, there seems to be no significant difference in the way inflectional morphology is viewed by different scholars. Thus, there is significant similarity between Matthews’ (1991) description of inflectional morphology and that of Haspelmath and Sim’s (2010), despite the fact that the two texts came up in two different periods. The length of time between the emergence of the former and that of the latter is about two decades.

### **Derivational Morphology**

Derivational morphology is another branch of morphology that is concerned with the creation of new lexemes from the existing ones (Mathews, 1991; Haspelmath and Sims, 2010; Anoroff and Fudeman, 2011). Below are some major properties or attributes proposed as distinguishing between inflection and derivation.

- (i) Inflection is highly productive, in the sense that inflectional values can be applied to their base without any arbitrary limitation, whereas, derivational formations may be limited in an arbitrary way. For instance, a third person singular subject (she, he, it) in simple present tense always takes verb with inflectional “-s”. This always happens without any limitation. E.g. she writes, he reads, it stops and so on. In contrast, derivational formations have some arbitrary limitations that do not have any obvious semantic explanation. For instance, English has derivational suffix “-ess” that is used to derive feminine gender from masculine counterpart.

E.g. master → mistress, author → authoress, but this suffix is limited to only some certain number of words, because it cannot be attached to words such as doctor → doctress, professor → professoress, to mean or derive female gender. It is obvious that this limitation is arbitrary because it does not have any semantic explanation.

- (ii) Derivation denotes new concept, that is, when a lexeme is derived from another, the derived lexeme denotes a new concept that is different from the concept of the base lexeme. E.g. write (to cause something to happen) → writer (an entity that causes something to happen). While inflection denotes the same core concept. E.g. the words “write” and “writes” denote the same concept. The latter differs from the former only in that it is used with a third person singular subject (she and he), while the other one (write) is used with the other subjects (I, you, we, and they).
- (iii) The application of derivational morphology does not depend on the syntactic environment in some languages (e.g. English). In other words, it is not syntax that determines the application of derivational morphology, which means derivation, is not relevant to syntax. While inflectional values do not normally have a clearly identifiable meaning, only a syntactic function. Like in the example given above, that the word “writes” is only different from the word “write” in the sense that “writes” goes with the third person singular subject (she, he and it), while “write” goes with the other subjects (I, you, we, they).
- (iv) Derivation can occur inside another derivation, while inflection occurs outside all derivation. For instance, the word “irresponsibilities” has the root “response”, an adjective “responsible” is derived from it, and “responsible” becomes the base for

“irresponsible”, and “irresponsibility” is derived from “irresponsible”, and finally “irresponsibilities” is the inflected form of the word.

However, despite the differences between inflection and derivation mentioned above, the two concepts also share some similarities. Both (inflection and derivation) can be transpositional, that is, they can change the grammatical class of the base lexeme. A typical example of word-class changing inflection is participle. This is because participle can function as an adjective, that is, when it is used as modifier, as in the following expressions:

- i. Malam Fago is looking for his reading glasses.
- ii. We need some writing materials.
- iii. We were really affected by the recently suspended industrial action by the universities’ lecturers.
- iv. The completed dissertation will be submitted to the School of Postgraduate Studies.

All the underlined participles in the sentences above appear within noun phrases (NPs) and function as modifiers, modifying the nouns (‘glasses’, ‘materials’, ‘industrial action’ and ‘dissertations’) preceded by them (participles). Based on the foregoing discussion, it is obvious that the boundary between transpositional derivation and word-class-changing inflection is blurry. Therefore, the overall boundary between inflection and derivation should generally be viewed as a continuum, rather than a dichotomy (Haspelmath and Sims, 2010).

As it has been stated earlier, the points mentioned above are not the only ones that distinguish derivation from inflection. There are other ones, but those mentioned are considered more striking than the rest.

Derivational morphology is divided into formation and conversion. Formation, on the one hand, refers to the use of lexical formatives to derive new lexemes from the existing ones. Conversion, on the other hand, refers to the process of deriving new lexemes without altering the physical structure of the existing lexemes. Formation is of three types: prefixation, infixation and suffixation. Prefixation is the process of placing lexical formatives before the existing lexemes to derive other lexemes e.g. *en* +rich→ enrich. Infixation is the process of inserting lexical formative within a lexeme to derive another lexeme. Suffixation is the process of placing lexical formatives after base lexemes to derive other lexemes e.g. read + *able* → readable.

Like formation, conversion is also of three types: stress shift, voicing and zero-morph. Stress shift is a process in which stress is shifted from one syllable to another to derive another lexeme (Mathew, 1991). E.g. conDUCT → CONduct. Voicing is the process of changing a voiceless segment to a voiced one to derive another lexeme. E.g. advice/advaiz/(n) → advice/advaiz/(v). Zero-morph is the process of converting lexeme in a context to derive another lexeme. E.g. work(n) → work (v).

### **2.3 Morpheme**

Morpheme is a grammatical element that is central in morphological analysis. As a result, it has received a lot of attention from scholars in morphological studies, therefore, a number of views of scholars on the concept have been critically examined below.

Matthews (1991) views the concept as the primitive unit of syntax, the smallest meaningful unit and the ultimate basis for the entire description of the primary articulation of language. By this definition, it can be argued that Matthews' (1991) approach to morpheme is syntactic in nature, rather than morphological because his argument seems to relate

morpheme more to syntax than to morphology, despite the fact that it is seen as central in the morphological analysis. Moreover, scholars such as Haspelmath and Sims (2010) see morpheme as an integral part of morphological operation. Another view of morpheme is “a linguistic form which bears no partial phonetic-semantic resemblance to any other form” (Bloom, 1933 cited in Anderson, 1992). This view shares little with that of Matthews (1991) stated above. And it can be argued that this definition does not present a clear picture of the concept of morpheme, because some essential information such as indivisibility is not captured. Aronoff and Fudeman (2011) see morpheme as the smallest linguistic piece with a grammatical function. However, this definition does not capture some of the fundamental features of the concept. Moreover, it confines the meaning of morpheme to only grammatical function, which implies that it has only abstract meaning. But it is a well-accepted fact that morpheme, in addition to abstract meaning, has concrete one, depending on the type.

### **2.3.1 Types of Morpheme**

Generally, morpheme is divided into two types, but with a variety of technical terms used to describe them. Matthews (1991) divides morpheme into lexical and inflectional. He refers to lexical morpheme as one that can stand as an independent lexeme, while inflectional as one that cannot stand as an independent lexeme. He clarifies this definition by citing example as: “Nuhu collected the books yesterday.” The two inflected words from the above sentence are divided into two units. The words are: *collect* + *ed* and *book* + *s*. According to Matthews (1991) *collect* and *book* are lexical morphemes; while *-ed* indicating past tense (or past participle) and *-s* marking plurality are inflectional morphemes. However, this division of morpheme into two by Matthews (1991) does not take derivation into account, which is fundamental in morphological operation.

Again, morpheme is divided into free and bound morphemes, with free morphemes referring to the morphemes that can stand alone as lexemes, and bound morphemes as those that cannot stand alone as lexemes.(Yule 2017; Lieber, 2009). Moreover, Yule (2010) goes further to give more details about this classification. He categorises free morphemes into lexical and functional morphemes. The former refer to the *content lexemes*, that is, lexemes that carry the content of the message conveyed. And these include: nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs. This category of lexemes is also called open-class system because its members accommodate other lexical items. The latter refer to the grammatical or functional lexemes, and the members of this category do not accommodate other members, therefore are referred to as closed-class items. Examples of these members are: articles, demonstratives, pronouns, conjunctions and prepositions. Again, Yule (2010) divides bound morphemes into derivational and inflectional. The latter refer to the bound morphemes, also known as affixes that are used to show grammatical function of the inflected lexemes. They show contrast between singular and plural, mark tense and indicate degree of comparative of adjectives. English Language has only eight inflectional morphemes (suffixes). Noun has two (-'s, -s'), verb four (-s, -ing, -ed, -en), adjective two (-er, -est). These morphemes are used in contexts as follow, for better understanding:

- i. I have collected Yusuf's books which are *A University Grammar of English* and *Contemporary English Grammar*. (Indicating possession and plurality).
- ii. Gadanya writes with extreme care, this is why his writing is fairly good. (-s indicating third person singular simple present tense).
- iii. Nuhu is coming to see his supervisor today. (-ing indicating present participle).
- iv. Hamisu finished his registration about three months ago. (-ed indicating past tense).

- v. Yahaya has written a comprehensive literature review (*-en* indicating past participle).
- vi. Rabe Sani is taller than Basiru Mamman, but Ibrahim Abdulwahab is the tallest of the three (indicating comparative and superlative degrees respectively).

While the former (derivational) refer to the morphemes that are used to create new lexemes, and often the newly created lexemes belong to different grammatical classes from those of their bases.

Happy (adj) → happiness (n)

Use (n) → useful (adj)

Read (v) → readable (adj)

Readable (adj) → readability (n)

Regular (adj) → irregular (adj)

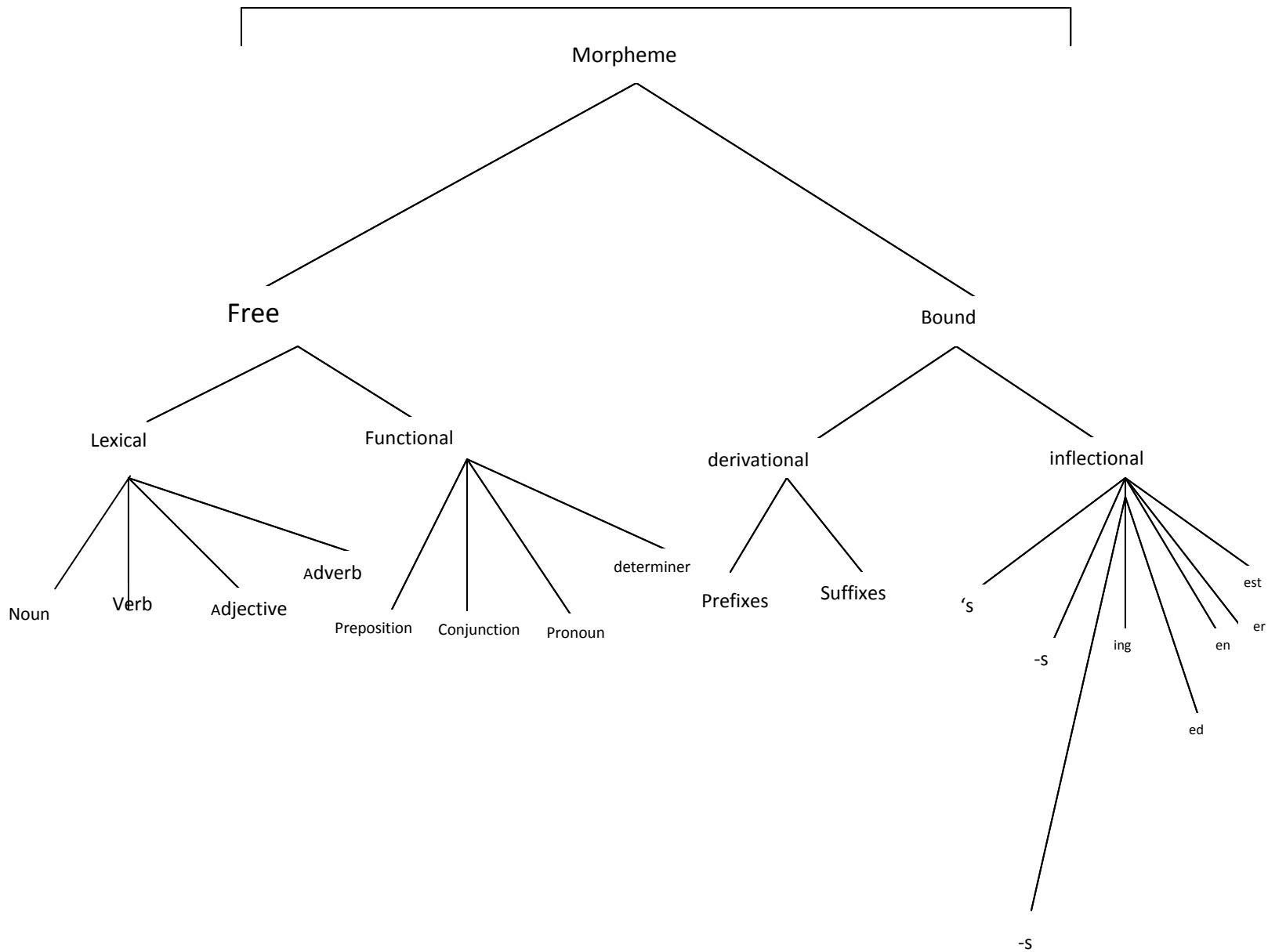
Academic (adj) → unacademic (adj)

Academic (n) → non-academic (n)

Rich (adj) → enrich (v)

One significant difference between inflectional morpheme and derivational one is that, all inflectional morphemes are suffixational in English, while derivational ones can be both prefixes and suffixes. By way of comparison, it can be contended that this classification by Yule (2010) is much more comprehensive than that of Matthews (1991).

The above classification by Yule (2010) can be summarised by using a diagram thus:



(Adapted from Yule, 1996: 79, with some modifications added)

## 2.4 Words and Phrases

On the surface, it seems that it is not at all difficult to distinguish a word from a phrase, or an affix from a clitic. However, when we look closely, we find that this is not really so. Therefore, this section examines the relationship between compounds and phrases as well as clitics and affixes.

### 2.4.1 Compounds vs Phrases

At this point, it is pertinent to distinguish compounds from phrases because they sometimes appear to have the same patterns. However, in some languages there are certain criteria that are used to differentiate the two concepts (Haspelmath and Sims, 2010). These criteria include: a special segmental marker. This is an interfix that comes in between the two lexemes that make up the compound. The second criterion is that phrases are not allowed to contain two content lexemes. Therefore, any expression consisting of two juxtaposed content lexemes is regarded as a compound.

Omorodion (2007) identifies three different orthographic ways in which a compound lexeme can be written: hyphenated form, solid form and open form. The next criterion is that when two different content lexemes are written in solid form, that is, as a single word, they are considered as a compound. Another criterion is idiomaticity which is said to be a typical property of compounds. However, idiomaticity is neither a necessary nor a sufficient criterion for identifying or differentiating a compound from a phrase (Haspelmath and Sims, 2012). This is because some phrases are found to be idiomatic (e.g. English *spillthebeans*) which means idiomaticity can also be a property of phrase as well.

However, the difficulty is still there in distinguishing compounds from phrases because the criteria mentioned above do not work in all situations and the two concepts sometimes exhibit greater similarity in their forms. Therefore, to draw a clear dichotomy between compounds and phrases, Haspelmath and Sims (2010) come up with four different criteria, namely: semantic, phonological, morphological and syntactic criterion.

### **Semantic Criterion**

Compounds and phrases could be distinguished from each other by looking at their semantic features. The semantic property of virtually all compounds is that a dependent noun in a compound is never referential but generic. This means that a dependent noun in a compound does not denote a particular referent but refers to the entire class. For example, in the compound ‘classroom’ the morpheme ‘class’ cannot refer to a particular class, but must refer to class in general. In contrast, a dependent noun in a phrase may always be referential. This explains why if it is discovered that a dependent noun in an expression is referential, it is concluded that that expression is a phrase and not a compound. For example, ‘the Yusuf’s car,’ the ‘car’ noun is referential because it refers to the particular car of a particular person, Yusuf. Therefore, the expression is certainly a phrase and not a compound. Another semantic difference between compounds and phrases is that head noun in a phrase may be replaced by an anaphoric pronoun while in a compound the head noun may not be replaced by an anaphoric pronoun. An anaphoric pronoun is a pronoun that refers back to some noun already mentioned in the sentence. This can be exemplified as follows: I have met with three University lecturers and two polytechnic ones (i.e. Two polytechnic lecturers).

I saw two goal keepers and three gate ones (i.e. three gate keepers) while the first sentence is acceptable or correct English sentence, the second is unacceptable. This is because the head noun ‘lecturers’ in the expression ‘polytechnic lecturers’ is replaced by an anaphoric pronoun ‘ones’ and the expression remains correct and meaningful. This means that the expressions: *Universitylecturers* and *polytechniclecturers* are phrases not compounds. But the expression ‘gate ones’ is incorrect because it is a compound not a phrase, therefore, the head noun ‘keepers’ of the expression ‘gatekeepers’ cannot be replaced by an anaphoric pronoun ‘ones’.

### **Phonological Criterion**

Stress is the central phonological property that is used to distinguish compounds from phrases. In English, for example, each word has only one main stress, the existence of main stress on only one element of a compound-like expression suggests that the expression is a single word. Examples:

| <b>Compounds</b> | <b>Phrases</b> |
|------------------|----------------|
| Classroom        | back seat      |
| Firewood         | gold watch     |
| Goalkeeper       | black shoes    |

### **Morphological Criterion**

Sometimes morphological features can be used to distinguish compounds from phrases. This is because morphological pattern takes or deals with the whole compound in its domain not just the head. For instance, the English word ‘sister-in-law,’ which according to some speakers has the plural form sister-in-laws. The other form sisters-in-law, with the

plural suffix on the head, could either be a compound or a phrase, but *sister-in-laws* can only be a compound (Haspelmath and Sims, 2010). Their argument is that the plural suffix -s in the expression *sisters-in-law* is semantically associated with the head 'sister' only, and not with the entire unit and this is what can make the expression 'sisters-in-law' to either be regarded as a phrase or sometimes a compound.

### **Syntactic Criterion**

Syntactic criterion is also another way through which compounds could be distinguished from phrases. While in coordinated phrases one of two identical elements can be optionally deleted, in compounds no element can generally be left out. Examples:

1. Large fish and small fish were mistakenly placed in the same tank.
2. Large  $\theta$  and small fish were mistakenly placed in the same tank.
3. Flying fish and small fish were mistakenly placed in the same tank
4. Flying  $\theta$  and small fish were mistakenly placed in the same tank.

(Haspelmath and Sims, 2010).

As can be seen from the examples above, the element 'fish' in sentence 2 is optionally left out and the sentence still stands and remains meaningful and complete. However, in sentence 4 the same element 'fish' is deleted and the sentence seems to have a problem. This clearly shows that the expressions 'large fish' and 'small fish' are phrases. This is why it is clearly possible for the element 'fish' in sentence 2 above to be optionally deleted. While 'flying fish' must be a compound since the element 'fish' in sentence 4 above cannot be deleted.

### 2.4.2 Clitics versus Affixes

There are different sorts of clitics and affixes. Some clitics resemble with some affixes. For example, the ‘S’ English clitic and ‘S’ English affix look very much alike to the extent that sometimes it is not easy to differentiate between the two. Therefore, to distinguish for instance, between *Mary’sbag* and *Mary’shere* and to state which one is a clitic and which one is an affix, a close examination of the two expressions needs to be made. For this reason, Haspelmath and Sims (2010) come up with some tests or criteria that can be used to distinguish between clitics and affixes that appear to have the same form.

The first criterion is freedom of host selection, that is, while a clitic can be hosted by a number of different word classes that it does not have any syntactic relationship with, an affix can only be combined with some bases (nouns) to which it is syntactically related. The examples below prove this further:

1. The basket she bought’s big. (Verb)
2. That lady from Kaduna’s my niece. (Noun)
3. The last point you spoke about’s crucial. (Preposition)
4. This is Mary’s bag. (Noun)

It is obvious that the clitic above is hosted by a verb in the first sentence, a noun in the second sentence and a preposition in the third sentence. But in the fourth sentence, the affix is hosted by a noun *Mary* to which it is syntactically related. So, generally, an affix can only be hosted by a noun, and only noun, as it cannot be combined with any other syntactic category. An affix can only be preceded by a noun or noun phrase.

The second criterion is freedom of movement, that is, while a clitic may have some syntactic freedom of movement, an affix must always be attached to its base, to which it is syntactically related, and it cannot move independently of it. Example:

- Attending the lecture you organised's going to be enjoyable.
- It's going to be enjoyable to attend the lecture you organized.

From the example above, it can be seen that the clitic is free to syntactically move from one position to another. However, an affix does not have such freedom of movement, therefore, cannot move independently of its base.

## **2.5 Word Classes and its Subdivisions**

Words are divided into two different kinds of lexical classes: open and closed classes. In most languages, nouns, adjectives and verbs form the open class (Booij, 2005). It is members of this class that accommodate new members, while the closed class members which mostly consist of pronouns, determiners, articles, demonstratives, conjunctions and prepositions do not accept new members (Carnie, 2007). Therefore, derivation of lexemes occurs with the members in the open class system.

## **2.6 English Derivational System**

English derivational system involves formation (affixation) and conversion (zero affixation). Formation refers to the use of lexical formatives (affixes) to derive new lexemes from the existing ones. It has two forms: prefixation and suffixation, while conversion refers to the assigning the base to a different word-class without changing its form. In other words, it is a system of derivation in which one lexeme is derived from another without changing the physical structure of the base. Conversion has three forms, namely: stress shift, voicing and zero-morph (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973; Omorodion, 2007; Ndimele, 1999).

## Prefixation

This is a process of derivation in English in which new lexemes are derived from the existing ones by adding bound morphemes (affixes) before the base or free morphemes. Derivational prefixes in English can be both class-changing and class-maintaining. However, scholars such as Quirk and Greenbaum (1973), Omorodion (2007) and Ndimele (1999) classify the prefixes according to their meanings and examples of the words in which they occur.

## Negative Prefixes

| Prefix      | Meaning         | Base     | Derivation           |
|-------------|-----------------|----------|----------------------|
| <i>un-</i>  | the opposite of | happy    | <u>un</u> happy      |
|             |                 | assuming | <u>un</u> assuming   |
|             |                 | expected | <u>un</u> expected   |
|             |                 | cover    | <u>un</u> cover      |
| <i>non-</i> | Not             | academic | <u>non</u> -academic |
| <i>in-</i>  | the opposite of | sane     | <u>in</u> sane       |
| <i>dis-</i> | the opposite of | loyal    | <u>dis</u> loyal     |
| <i>a-</i>   | lacking in      | moral    | <u>a</u> moral       |

## Reversative Prefixes

| Prefix      | Meaning           | Base    | Derivation         |
|-------------|-------------------|---------|--------------------|
| <i>un-</i>  | to reverse action | tie     | <u>un</u> tie      |
| <i>de-</i>  | to reverse action | code    | <u>de</u> code     |
| <i>dis-</i> | to reverse action | connect | <u>dis</u> connect |

## Pejorative Prefixes

| Prefix       | Meaning | Base     | Derivation          |
|--------------|---------|----------|---------------------|
| <i>mis -</i> | wrongly | inform   | <u>mis</u> inform   |
|              |         | leading  | <u>mis</u> leading  |
|              |         | conduct  | <u>mis</u> conduct  |
| <i>mal-</i>  | bad     | treat    | <u>mal</u> treat    |
|              |         | function | <u>mal</u> function |
|              |         | practice | <u>mal</u> practice |

## Prefixes of degree or size

| Prefix         | Meaning         | Base       | Derivation              |
|----------------|-----------------|------------|-------------------------|
| <i>super -</i> | above           | man        | <u>super</u> man        |
| <i>super -</i> | more than       | market     | <u>super</u> market     |
| <i>super -</i> | better          | natural    | <u>super</u> natural    |
| <i>out -</i>   | to do something | run        | <u>out</u> run          |
| <i>out-</i>    | better          | live       | <u>out</u> live         |
| <i>sub -</i>   | lower than      | human      | <u>sub</u> human        |
| <i>sub-</i>    | less than       | standard   | <u>sub</u> standard     |
| <i>over-</i>   | too much        | act        | <u>over</u> react       |
| <i>under-</i>  | too little      | estimate   | <u>under</u> estimate   |
|                |                 | privileged | <u>under</u> privileged |
|                |                 | paid       | <u>under</u> paid       |
| <i>mini -</i>  | Little          | skirt      | <u>mini</u> skirt       |
|                |                 | bus        | <u>mini</u> bus         |

## Prefixes of Attitude

| Prefix          | Meaning                              | Base      | Derivation             |
|-----------------|--------------------------------------|-----------|------------------------|
| <i>co-</i>      | with, join                           | operate   | <u>co</u> operate      |
|                 |                                      | pilot     | <u>co</u> -pilot       |
| <i>counter-</i> | in opposition to                     | attack    | <u>counter</u> -attack |
|                 |                                      | act       | <u>Counter</u> act     |
| <i>anti-</i>    | against                              | malarial  | <u>anti</u> malarial   |
|                 |                                      | social    | <u>anti</u> social     |
|                 |                                      | body      | <u>anti</u> body       |
| <i>pro-</i>     | in favour of<br>supporting something | nigerian  | <u>pro</u> -nigerian   |
|                 |                                      | democracy | <u>pro</u> -democracy  |

## Locative Prefixes

| Prefix        | Meaning                              | Base     | Derivation            |
|---------------|--------------------------------------|----------|-----------------------|
| <i>inter-</i> | between<br>among                     | national | <u>inter</u> national |
|               |                                      | action   | <u>inter</u> action   |
| <i>trans-</i> | across, from one place to<br>another | atlantic | <u>trans</u> atlantic |

## Prefixes of time and order

| Prefix       | Meaning | Base     | Derivation           |
|--------------|---------|----------|----------------------|
| <i>Pre-</i>  | before  | election | <u>pre</u> -election |
|              |         | school   | <u>Pre</u> -school   |
| <i>post-</i> | after   | graduate | <u>post</u> graduate |

|            |        |          |                    |
|------------|--------|----------|--------------------|
|            |        | war      | <u>postwar</u>     |
| <i>ex-</i> | former | governor | <u>ex-governor</u> |
| <i>re-</i> | Again  | build    | <u>rebuild</u>     |

### Number Prefixes

| <b>Prefix</b> | <b>Meaning</b> | <b>Base</b> | <b>Derivation</b>       |
|---------------|----------------|-------------|-------------------------|
| <i>uni-</i>   | one            | lateral     | <u>unilateral</u>       |
| <i>mono-</i>  | One            | lingual     | <u>monolingual</u>      |
| <i>bi-</i>    | Two            | lingual     | <u>bilingual</u>        |
| <i>di-</i>    | Two            | syllabic    | <u>disyllabic</u>       |
| <i>tri-</i>   | three          | angle       | <u>triangle</u>         |
| <i>multi-</i> | Many           | dimensional | <u>multidimensional</u> |
|               |                | lingual     | <u>multilingual</u>     |
| <i>poly-</i>  | Many           | syllabic    | <u>polysyllabic</u>     |

### Conversion Prefixes

| <b>Prefix</b> | <b>Meaning</b>     | <b>Base</b> | <b>Derivation</b> |
|---------------|--------------------|-------------|-------------------|
| <i>em-</i>    | to cause to become | power       | <u>empower</u>    |
|               |                    | battled     | <u>embattled</u>  |
| <i>be-</i>    | to treat as        | little      | <u>belittle</u>   |
|               |                    | witch       | <u>bewitch</u>    |
| <i>en-</i>    | to cause to become | slave       | <u>enslave</u>    |
|               |                    | rich        | <u>enrich</u>     |
|               |                    | sure        | <u>ensure</u>     |

## Suffixation

Suffixation is a form of formation in English in which new lexemes are derived from the existing ones by placing lexical formatives (affixes) after the base lexemes. Derivational suffixes are usually classified based on the class of word they derive as well as the class of base they are typically added or attached to.

### Noun to noun suffixes (Denominal Noun)

|              |                   |   |
|--------------|-------------------|---|
| <i>ster-</i> | gang, young       | gangster, <u>youngs</u> <u>youngster</u> <u>youngster</u> |
| <i>let-</i>  | book, star, play  | book <u>let</u> , star <u>let</u> , play <u>let</u>       |
| <i>-ess</i>  | host, actor       | host <u>ess</u> , act <u>ress</u>                         |
| <i>-hood</i> | boy, woman        | boy <u>hood</u> , woman <u>hood</u>                       |
| <i>-ship</i> | friend, professor | friend <u>ship</u> , professor <u>ship</u>                |
| <i>-dom</i>  | king, free        | king <u>dom</u> , free <u>dom</u>                         |
| <i>-ery</i>  | machine, slave    | machin <u>ery</u> , slav <u>ery</u>                       |
| <i>-ian</i>  | library, Nigeria  | librarian <u>ian</u> , Nigerian <u>ian</u>                |
| <i>-ist</i>  | journal, style    | journalist <u>ist</u> , stylist <u>ist</u>                |

### Verb – Noun suffixes (deverbal Noun)

| Suffix      | Base                       | Derivation  |
|-------------|----------------------------|---|
| <i>-er</i>  | Work, teach, lecture       | worker <u>er</u> , teacher <u>er</u> , lecturer <u>er</u>       |
| <i>-ant</i> | Complain, inhabit, inform, | complain <u>ant</u> , inhabit <u>ant</u> , informant <u>ant</u> |

|               |                           |  |
|---------------|---------------------------|--|
| <i>-ee</i>    | pay, employ, appoint      | pay <u>ee</u> , employ <u>ee</u> , appoint <u>ee</u>             |
| <i>-ation</i> | explore, inform, organise | explor <u>ation</u> , inform <u>ation</u> , organiz <u>ation</u> |
| <i>-ment</i>  | commence, judge, manage   | commenc <u>ement</u> , judg <u>ement</u> , manag <u>ement</u>    |
| <i>-al</i>    | arrive, refuse, dismiss   | arriv <u>al</u> , refus <u>al</u> , dismiss <u>al</u>            |
| <i>-age</i>   | drain, break              | drainag <u>e</u> breakag <u>e</u>                                |

### Adjective – Noun Suffixes

| Suffix       | Base                    | Derivation   |
|--------------|-------------------------|--|
| <i>-ness</i> | happy, great, useful    | happ <u>iness</u> , great <u>ness</u> , usefu <u>lness</u> |
| <i>-ity</i>  | viable, rapid, feasible | viab <u>ility</u> , rapid <u>ity</u> , fea <u>bility</u>   |
| <i>-hood</i> | lively, false           | livel <u>hood</u> , fals <u>hood</u>                       |

### Noun- Verb Suffixes (Denominal verb)

| Suffix      | Base         | Derivation                          |
|-------------|--------------|-------------------------------------|
| <i>-ify</i> | beauty, code | beaut <u>ify</u> , cod <u>ify</u>   |
| <i>-ise</i> | idol, symbol | idol <u>ize</u> , symbol <u>ize</u> |

### Adjective – Verb Suffixes (deadjectival verb)

| Suffix      | Base                  | Derivation  |
|-------------|-----------------------|---|
| <i>-ify</i> | False, ample, diverse | fals <u>ify</u> , ampl <u>ify</u> , divers <u>ify</u> |
| <i>-ise</i> | Legal, modern         | legal <u>ise</u> , modern <u>ize</u>                  |
| <i>-en</i>  | Ripe, sad, quick      | rip <u>en</u> , sadd <u>en</u> , quick <u>en</u>      |

### Noun – adjective suffixes (denominal adjective)

| Suffix | Base | Derivation |
|--------|------|------------|
|--------|------|------------|

|              |                             |   |
|--------------|-----------------------------|---|
| <i>-ful</i>  | use, delight, hope, success | <u>useful</u> , <u>delightful</u> , <u>hopeful</u> , <u>successful</u>  |
| <i>-less</i> | care, speech, word, hope    | <u>careless</u> , <u>speechless</u> , <u>wordless</u> , <u>hopeless</u> |
| <i>-ly</i>   | friend, scholar             | <u>friendly</u> , <u>scholarly</u>                                      |
| <i>-y</i>    | sun, sand, health           | <u>sunny</u> , <u>sandy</u> , <u>healthy</u>                            |
| <i>-al</i>   | nation, region,             | <u>national</u> , <u>regional</u>                                       |
| <i>-ic</i>   | climate, history            | <u>climatic</u> , <u>historic</u>                                       |
| <i>-ish</i>  | fool, self, child           | <u>foolish</u> , <u>selfish</u> , <u>childish</u>                       |
| <i>-out</i>  | Outrage, virtue, court      | <u>outrageous</u> , <u>virtuous</u> , <u>courteous</u>                  |

### Verb – adjective suffixes (deverbal adjective)

| Suffix       | Base                | Derivation   |
|--------------|---------------------|--|
| <i>-able</i> | adapt, read, obtain | <u>adaptable</u> , <u>readable</u> , <u>obtainable</u> |
| <i>-ous</i>  | desire, solicit     | <u>desirous</u> , <u>solicitous</u>                    |
| <i>-ive</i>  | act, pass, attract  | <u>active</u> , <u>passive</u> , <u>attractive</u>     |

### Adjective – Adverb Suffix (deadjectival adverb)

| Suffix     | Base  | Derivation   |
|------------|---|--|
| <i>-ly</i> | right, happy, wise, quick,<br>beautiful, careful, hopeful | <u>rightly</u> , <u>happily</u> , <u>wisely</u> , <u>quickly</u><br><u>beautifully</u> , <u>carefully</u> , <u>hopefully</u> |

### Conversion (Zero Affixation)

Conversion in English is seen by Quirk and Greenbaum (1973) as a derivational process in which lexemes change their word-classes without the addition of affixes. In other words, it is a system of derivation in which one lexeme is derived from another without changing the physical representation of the base lexeme that is, assigning the base to a different word-class without

changing its form. For example, the noun ‘work’ as in: *Theirworkwillbecompletedtomorrow* can be converted into verb as in: *Theywork for seven hours every day*. Quirk and Greenbaum (1973) identify three forms of conversion which are: Zero-morph (complete conversion), voicing and stress shift (approximate conversion).

### **Zero- Morph (Complete Conversion)**

Zero-morph also known as complete conversion is a form of conversion in which one lexeme is derived from another without changing the physical structure or phonological realization of the base. Under this heading, noun is derived from verb and adjective and verb from noun and adjective.

### **Verb-Noun**

| <b>Base</b> | <b>Derivation</b> |
|-------------|-------------------|
| Love (v)    | Love (n)          |
| Cover (v)   | Cover (n)         |
| Turn (v)    | Turn (n)          |
| Laugh (v)   | Laugh (n)         |
| Drive (v)   | Drive (n)         |

### **Noun – Verb**

| <b>Base</b> | <b>Derivation</b> |
|-------------|-------------------|
| Bottle (n)  | Bottle (v)        |
| Butter (n)  | Butter (n)        |
| Paper (n)   | Paper (v)         |
| Cripple (n) | Cripple (v)       |

### Adjective - Noun

| Base        | Derivation |
|-------------|------------|
| Young (adj) | Young (n)  |
| Poor (adj)  | Poor (n)   |
| Rich (adj)  | Rich (n)   |
| Needy (adj) | Needy (n)  |

### Adjective - Verb

| Base        | Derivation |
|-------------|------------|
| Empty (adj) | Empty (v)  |
| Dry (adj)   | Dry (v)    |
| Calm (adj)  | Calm (v)   |
| Dirty (adj) | Dirty (v)  |

### Voicing (Approximate Conversion)

Voicing is a form of conversion which allows for the derivation of one lexeme from another by changing a final voiceless segment to a voiced one. Here, verbs are derived from nouns.

### Examples:

#### Verb-Noun

| Base                | Derivation        |
|---------------------|-------------------|
| House /haus/ (n)    | House/hauz/ (v)   |
| Advice /ədvaɪs/ (n) | Advice/ədvaɪz/(v) |
| Thief (θi:f/ (n)    | Thieve /θi:v/ (v) |

### Stress Shift (Approximate Conversion)

This is another form of conversion in which stress of a word is shifted from one syllable to another to derive another lexeme. It is nouns that are normally derived from verbs through this process. Examples:

| Base                           | Derivation             |
|--------------------------------|------------------------|
| Con <u>duct</u> /kɔ̀ndnkt/ (v) | Conduct /kɔ̀ndnkt/ (n) |
| Import /imp :t/ (v)            | Import /imp :t/ (n)    |
| Export /iks p :t/ (v)          | Export /iksp :t/ (n)   |
| Insult /ins it/ (v)            | Insult /ins it/ (n)    |

### 2.7 Hausa Derivational System

Derivation, in Hausa, refers to the creation of new lexemes from the existing ones either through the use of derivational affix or conversion that is, changing the morphological class of a word to another without changing its form (Abubakar, 2001). For example, the lexeme ‘magini’ (builder) which is a noun is derived from the verb base ‘gina’ (build) by the use of *ma-* derivational prefix. The lexeme ‘tsorata’ (to fear) which is a verb is derived from the noun base ‘tsoro’ (fear) through the use of *-ta* derivational suffix. The derivational infix-*i-* is inserted within the lexeme ‘bawa’ (male slave) to derive female counterpart ‘baiwa’ (female slave). This lexical formative *-i-* is a class maintaining infix which is used to transform masculine into feminine gender. Another example is ‘dogo’ (tall one) (n) which is derived from the adjective base ‘dogo’ (tall) without a change in either the physical structure or phonological realization of the base. This implies that derivation in Hausa language is of two types: affixal (formation) and non-affixal (conversion).

## **Formation**

Formation refers to the use of lexical formatives (Kwayoyin Tasarifi) to derive new lexemes from the existing ones. There are three types of derivational affixes in Hausa, namely: prefix, infix and suffix. While conversion also known as zero-affixation is a system of derivation in which one lexeme is derived from another without changing the physical structure of the base. This is done in two ways: by changing the tone pattern of an existing lexeme to derive another lexeme (tonal change) and by converting one lexeme to another without changing both the physical structure and phonological realization of the base (Zero-Morph) (Abubakar, 2001).

### **Prefixation (Dafa-Goshi)**

Prefixation is the process of adding an affix (kwayoyin tasarifi) at the beginning of a word to derive another word. Abubakar (2001) asserts that Hausa makes use of only two types of derivational morphemes as prefixes and they are: *ba-* which is used to derive patronymics or ethnonyms and *ma-* which is used to derive place name, noun of agent and noun of instrument.

### **Patronymics**

This is a group of words that refers to individuals as people of the areas or ethnic groups to which the base forms denote. To achieve this, *ba-* prefix is used, but the final vowel becomes /e/ as in case of the masculine derivative, while the feminine ends in *-iya* suffix.

### Examples:

| <b>Prefix</b> | <b>Base</b>   | <b>Derivation</b>    | <b>Gloss</b>                 |
|---------------|---------------|----------------------|------------------------------|
| <i>ba-</i>    | kano (n)      | <u>b</u> akane (n)   | kano man                     |
| <i>ba-</i>    | katsina (n)   | <u>b</u> akatsine    | katsina man                  |
| <i>ba-</i>    | daura (n)     | <u>b</u> adaure (n)  | daura man                    |
| <i>ba-</i>    | maguzanci (n) | <u>b</u> amaguje (n) | a person practicing paganism |
| <i>ba-</i>    | hausa (n)     | bahaushe (n)         | hausa man                    |
| <i>ba-</i>    | turai (n)     | <u>b</u> ature (n)   | white man                    |
| <i>ba-</i>    | larabci (n)   | <u>b</u> alarabe     | hausa name for Arab man      |

The prefix above (*ba-*) is a class maintaining formative as it can be observed from the examples, it does not change the word class of the bases to which it is attached.

### Place Name

This is a class of derivatives which refers to a place where the action of the corresponding work is taking place. The prefix *ma-* is used in deriving these types of noun.

The examples of place name are as follows:

| <b>Prefix</b> | <b>Base</b> | <b>Derivation</b>     | <b>Gloss</b>                                   |
|---------------|-------------|-----------------------|--|
| <i>ma-</i>    | karanta (v) | <u>m</u> akaranta (n) | school   |
| <i>ma-</i>    | kera (v)    | <u>m</u> akera (n)    | manufacturing industry                         |
| <i>ma-</i>    | yanka (v)   | <u>M</u> ayanka (n)   | a place where animals are slaughtered for meat |
| <i>ma-</i>    | fara (v)    | <u>m</u> afara (n)    | starting point                                 |
| <i>ma-</i>    | saka(v)     | <u>m</u> asaka (n)    | a place where weaving is done                  |

## Noun of Agent

This is a class of derivatives that refers to doer of the corresponding work. The prefix *ma-* is used to derive these types of nouns. While the final segment changes to 'i' in the case of masculine form, *-iya* suffix is used for the feminine form. Below are examples of these nouns:

| Prefix     | Base        | Derivation            | Gloss        |
|------------|-------------|-----------------------|--------------|
| <i>ma-</i> | aika (v)    | <u>ma</u> 'aiki (n)   | sender       |
| <i>ma-</i> | kerā (v)    | <u>ma</u> keri (n)    | manufacturer |
| <i>ma-</i> | noma (v)    | <u>ma</u> nomi (n)    | farmer       |
| <i>ma-</i> | saka (v)    | <u>ma</u> saki (n)    | weaver       |
| <i>ma-</i> | karanta (v) | <u>ma</u> karanci (n) | reader       |
| <i>ma-</i> | rubuta (v)  | <u>ma</u> rubuci (n)  | writer       |
| <i>ma-</i> | sayi (v)    | <u>ma</u> sayi(n)     | buyer        |

## Noun of Instrument

This is a class of derivatives that refers to the objects or instruments used for the corresponding work. This class of nouns is also derived from a verb by the use of *ma-* prefix. The difference between this class of derivatives and that of place name is on their final segments, while the former ends with 'i' the later ends with 'a'. Examples of nouns of instrument include:

| <b>Prefix</b> | <b>Base</b> | <b>derivation</b>   | <b>Gloss</b>  |
|---------------|-------------|---------------------|---|
| <i>ma-</i>    | tsifa (v)   | <u>M</u> atsefi (n) | comb  |
| <i>ma-</i>    | sara (v)    | <u>m</u> asari (n)  | anything used for cutting                                 |
| <i>ma-</i>    | tara (v)    | <u>m</u> atari (n)  | anything used for collecting or gathering things together |
| <i>ma-</i>    | goga (v)    | <u>m</u> agogi (n)  | anything used for cleaning                                |

As it can be observed from the instances above, *ma-* prefix is a class changing formative which is used to derive nouns from verbs.

### **Infixation (Dafa-Ciki)**

Infixation is the process of inserting a bound morpheme within an existing lexeme to derive another lexeme. There exists only one derivational infix in Hausa language which is commonly used by the speakers of the language (Abubakar, 2001). This bound morpheme (-*i-*) indicates transformation from masculine form to feminine, thus, it is a class maintaining formative. Example:

| <b>Infix</b> | <b>Base</b> | <b>Derivation</b> | <b>Gloss</b> |
|--------------|-------------|-------------------|--------------|
| <i>-i-</i>   | bawa (n)    | baiwa (n)         | female slave |

### **Suffixation (Dafa-Keya)**

Suffixation is the process of placing lexical formatives (affixes) at the end of words to derive other words. Hausa derivational suffixes are used to derive nouns from other nouns, nouns from verbs, verbs from nouns and adjectives from verbs.

### **Denominal Nouns**

Under this heading various abstract nouns are usually derived from common nouns through the use of derivational suffixes such as *-ntaka*, *-nta*, *-ta*, *-nci* and *-ci*.

***-ntaka suffix***

| <b>Suffix</b> | <b>Base</b> | <b>Derivation</b>      | <b>Gloss</b> |
|---------------|-------------|------------------------|--------------|
| <i>-ntaka</i> | dangi (n)   | dangant <u>aka</u> (n) | relationship |
| <i>-ntaka</i> | saurayi (n) | saurant <u>aka</u> (n) | youth        |
| <i>-ntaka</i> | shege (n)   | shegant <u>aka</u> (n) | foolishness  |
| <i>-ntaka</i> | jarumi (n)  | jarumtaka (n)          | bravery      |

***-nta Suffix***

| <b>Suffix</b> | <b>Base</b> | <b>Derivation</b>    | <b>Gloss</b> |
|---------------|-------------|----------------------|--------------|
| <i>-nta</i>   | mugu (n)    | mugun <u>ta</u> (n)  | wickedness   |
| <i>-nta</i>   | yaro (n)    | yaron <u>ta</u> (n)  | boyhood      |
| <i>-nta</i>   | gwani (n)   | gwanin <u>ta</u> (n) | expertise    |
| <i>-nta</i>   | makaho (n)  | makanta (n)          | blindness    |
| <i>-nta</i>   | bako (n)    | bakun <u>ta</u> (n)  | Strange      |

***-ta Suffix***

| <b>Suffix</b> | <b>Base</b> | <b>Derivation</b>   | <b>Gloss</b>   |
|---------------|-------------|---------------------|----------------|
| <i>-ta</i>    | kuturu (n)  | kutur <u>ta</u> (n) | leprosy        |
| <i>-ta</i>    | bawa (n)    | baw <u>ta</u> (n)   | slavery        |
| <i>-ta</i>    | sarki (n)   | saraut <u>a</u> (n) | royal Highness |
| <i>-ta</i>    | aboki (n)   | abot <u>a</u> (n)   | friendship     |

### ***-nci Suffix***

| <b>Suffix</b> | <b>Base</b> | <b>Derivation</b>     | <b>Gloss</b>                             |
|---------------|-------------|-----------------------|--|
| <i>-nci</i>   | wawa (n)    | waw <u>anci</u> (n)   | foolishness                              |
| <i>-nci</i>   | zumu (n)    | zum <u>unci</u> (n)   | relationship                             |
| <i>-nci</i>   | kasuwa (n)  | kasuw <u>anci</u> (n) | trading                                  |
| <i>-nci</i>   | dabba (n)   | dabb <u>anci</u> (n)  | animal behavior                          |
| <i>-nci</i>   | bako (n)    | bakon <u>ci</u> (n)   | the state of being a guest               |
| <i>-nci</i>   | birni (n)   | birnanci (n)          | a behavior that is typical of a city man |

| <b>Suffix</b> | <b>Base</b> | <b>Derivation</b>    | <b>Gloss</b>                |
|---------------|-------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|
| <i>-ci</i>    | talaka (n)  | tala <u>uci</u> (n)  | peasantry                   |
| <i>-ci</i>    | butulu (n)  | butul <u>ci</u> (n)  | ungratefulness              |
| <i>-ci</i>    | kadaya (n)  | kaday <u>aci</u> (n) | loneliness                  |
| <i>-ci</i>    | tajiri (n)  | tajir <u>ci</u> (n)  | the state of being a trader |

### **Deverbal Nouns**

Deverbal nouns are referred to have noun derivatives which are derived from verb bases by the use of derivational suffixes. Under this heading we have deverbal noun of mutuality. Deverbal noun of mutuality is a class of nouns derived from verbs through suffixation of *-yayya* or *-yya* depending on the syllable structure of the verb base. Monosyllabic verbs take *-yayya* suffix, while *-yya* is attached to disyllabic verbs. Semantically, nouns derived through these suffixes connote ‘mutuality or reciprocity of action’ (Abubakar, 1989). Examples of deverbal nouns of mutuality include:

### **-yayya Suffix**

| <b>Suffix</b> | <b>Base</b> | <b>Derivation</b> | <b>Gloss</b> |
|---------------|-------------|-------------------|--------------|
|---------------|-------------|-------------------|--------------|

|        |        |                     |  |
|--------|--------|---------------------|--|
| -yayya | ki (v) | kiy <u>ayya</u> (n) | mutual hatred between two or more people |
|--------|--------|---------------------|--|

|        |        |                     |  |
|--------|--------|---------------------|--|
| -yayya | so (v) | soy <u>ayya</u> (n) | mutual love between two or more people |
|--------|--------|---------------------|--|

|        |        |                     |   |
|--------|--------|---------------------|---|
| -yayya | ji (v) | jiy <u>ayya</u> (n) | mutual hearing between two or more people |
|--------|--------|---------------------|---|

### **-yya Suffix**

| <b>Suffix</b> | <b>Base</b> | <b>derivation</b> | <b>Gloss</b> |
|---------------|-------------|-------------------|--------------|
|---------------|-------------|-------------------|--------------|

|      |          |                     |             |
|------|----------|---------------------|-------------|
| -yya | tara (v) | tar <u>ayya</u> (n) | team spirit |
|------|----------|---------------------|-------------|

|      |          |                     |        |
|------|----------|---------------------|--------|
| -yya | saka (v) | sak <u>ayya</u> (n) | reward |
|------|----------|---------------------|--------|

|      |          |                     |     |
|------|----------|---------------------|-----|
| -yya | goga (v) | gog <u>ayya</u> (n) | rub |
|------|----------|---------------------|-----|

|      |          |                     |                    |
|------|----------|---------------------|--------------------|
| -yya | kama (v) | kam <u>ayya</u> (n) | holding each other |
|------|----------|---------------------|--------------------|

|      |          |                     |                         |
|------|----------|---------------------|-------------------------|
| -yya | saya (v) | say <u>ayya</u> (n) | an act of buying things |
|------|----------|---------------------|-------------------------|

Nouns are also derived from verb bases through the use of *-wa* suffix. Some examples of these include:

| <b>Suffix</b> | <b>Base</b> | <b>Derivation</b> | <b>Gloss</b> |
|---------------|-------------|-------------------|--------------|
|---------------|-------------|-------------------|--------------|

|     |          |                    |                   |
|-----|----------|--------------------|-------------------|
| -wa | kama (v) | kam <u>awa</u> (n) | catch/arrest/hold |
|-----|----------|--------------------|-------------------|

|     |          |                    |                   |
|-----|----------|--------------------|-------------------|
| -wa | bude (v) | bud <u>ewa</u> (n) | an act of opening |
|-----|----------|--------------------|-------------------|

|     |           |                     |      |
|-----|-----------|---------------------|------|
| -wa | sayar (v) | sayar <u>wa</u> (n) | sale |
|-----|-----------|---------------------|------|

|     |          |                    |                            |
|-----|----------|--------------------|----------------------------|
| -wa | gamu (v) | gamu <u>wa</u> (n) | an act of meeting together |
|-----|----------|--------------------|----------------------------|

### **Denominal Verb**

This is a class of verb derivatives derived from the noun bases through *-ta* suffixation examples:

### ***-yayya Suffix***

| <b>Suffix</b> | <b>Base</b> | <b>Derivation</b> | <b>Gloss</b>             |
|---------------|-------------|-------------------|--------------------------|
| <i>-ta</i>    | tsoro (n)   | tsorata(v)        | to make somebody afraid  |
| <i>-ta</i>    | karya (n)   | karyata(v)        | to say somebody is lying |
| <i>-ta</i>    | hawka (n)   | hawkata(v)        | to make somebody mad     |
| <i>-ta</i>    | banza (n)   | banzata(v)        | to waste                 |

### **Deverbal Adjective**

This is a class of adjectives derived from verb bases through suffixation:

#### **Examples:**

### ***-yayya Suffix***

| <b>Suffix</b> | <b>Base</b> | <b>Derivation</b> | <b>Gloss</b> |
|---------------|-------------|-------------------|--------------|
| <i>-kke</i>   | cika (v)    | cikakke(adj)      | full of      |
| <i>-ffe</i>   | dafa (v)    | dafaffe(adj)      | cooked       |
| <i>-yya</i>   | tara (v)    | tarayya(adj)      | federal      |

### **Derived Feminine Nouns**

Not every feminine form can be derived from its masculine counterpart. However, a number of feminine forms are derived from masculine forms in Hausa language. Galadanci (1976) identifies the following feminine derivational suffixes:

### ***-iya Suffix***

| <b>Suffix</b> | <b>Base</b>   | <b>Derivation</b> | <b>Gloss</b>            |
|---------------|---------------|-------------------|-------------------------|
| <i>-iya</i>   | falke (male)  | falkiya(female)   | female itinerant trader |
| <i>-iya</i>   | bature (male) | baturiya(female)  | English woman           |

- niya* barawo (male) barauniya(female) female thief
- uwa* tsuntsu (male) tsuntsuwa(female) female bird e.g. hen
- uwa* gurgu (male) gurguwa(female) female lame

Moreover, Zaria (1982) identifies eight derivational morphemes for this class and they are as follow: *a*, *-iya*, *-anya*, *-uwa*, *-wa*, *-anniya*, *-inya* and *-niya*. The suffixes are used in the following contexts

| Suffix          | Base      | Derivation          | Gloss                |
|-----------------|-----------|---------------------|----------------------|
| - <i>a</i>      | Baki      | baka <u>a</u>       | black woman          |
| - <i>a</i>      | jaki      | jaka <u>a</u>       | female donkey        |
| - <i>a</i>      | jarumi    | jaruma <u>a</u>     | heroine              |
| - <i>iya</i>    | jariri    | jariri <u>ya</u>    | girl infant          |
| - <i>iya</i>    | manomi    | manomi <u>ya</u>    | female farmer        |
| - <i>iya</i>    | ma'aikaci | ma'aikaci <u>ya</u> | female civil servant |
| - <i>anya</i>   | zomo      | zoma <u>nya</u>     | female rabbit        |
| - <i>uwa</i>    | gurgu     | gurg <u>uwa</u>     | female lame          |
| - <i>uwa</i>    | tsoho     | tsohu <u>wa</u>     | old woman            |
| - <i>uwa</i>    | mugu      | mugu <u>wa</u>      | wicked woman         |
| - <i>wa</i>     | kuturu    | katur <u>wa</u>     | female leper         |
| - <i>anniya</i> | dodo      | dodann <u>iya</u>   | female gobin         |
| - <i>inya</i>   | Yaro      | yar <u>inya</u>     | Girl                 |
| - <i>niya</i>   | barawo    | baraun <u>iya</u>   | female thief         |

## **Zero Derivation**

Zero derivation otherwise known as conversion is an operation that does not affect the structure of a lexeme (nor its phonology) but rather its syntactic and semantic functions. In other words, zero derivation is a system of derivation in which one lexeme is derived from another without changing the physical structure of the base. This operation (zero derivation) in Hausa Language is of two types: tone modification, that is, by changing the tone pattern of an existing lexeme to derive another lexeme (tonal change) and by assigning an existing lexeme a different morphological class without changing its physical representation or phonological realization (Abubakar, 2001).

## **Tonal Change**

This process can be both class changing and class maintaining. Therefore, nouns are derived from verbs and nouns from other nouns.

## **Deverbal Nouns**

| <b>Base</b>    | <b>Derivation</b> | <b>Gloss</b> |
|----------------|-------------------|--------------|
| yanka (LH) (v) | yanka (LL) (n)    | cut          |
| tsaga (LH) (v) | tsaga (LL) (n)    | tear         |
| duba (LH) (v)  | duba (LL) (n)     | look         |

## **Denominal Nouns**

| <b>Base</b>   | <b>Derivation</b> | <b>Gloss</b> |
|---------------|-------------------|--------------|
| baba (LL) (n) | baba (HH) (n)     | mother       |

yaya (HL) (n) yaya (LH) (n) elder sister

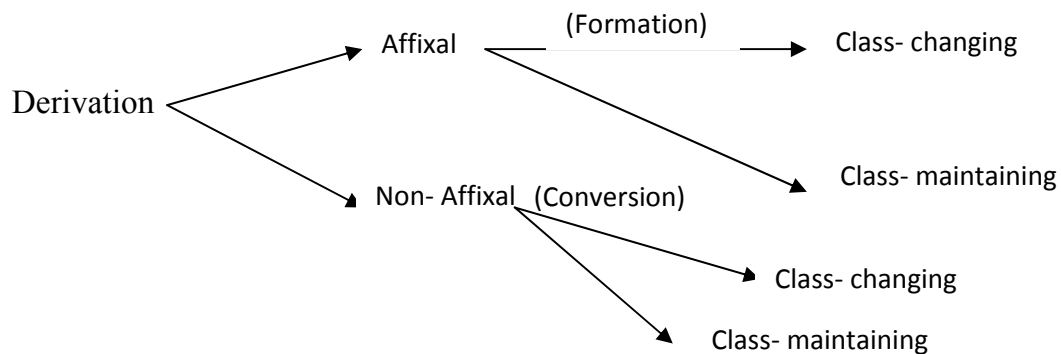
The bracketed ‘HL’, ‘LL’, ‘HH’ and ‘LH’ above stand for ‘High-Low’ tone, Low-Low tone, and High-High tone ’and‘ Low-High tone.

### Zero-Morph

This process is always class changing because lexeme here is assigned a different morphological class without changing either its physical representation or phonological realization. In Hausa language it is noun that is mostly derived from adjective through this process. Examples:

| Base         | Derivation | Gloss     |
|--------------|------------|-----------|
| dogo (adj)   | dogo (n)   | tall one  |
| gajere (adj) | gajere (n) | short one |
| babba (adj)  | babba (n)  | big one   |
| baki (adj)   | baki (n)   | black one |

The whole argument can be summarized using diagram as follows:



## **2.8 Morphological Processes**

Morphological processes are the processes of forming new words in a language. These processes are categorised into two groups: major and minor by scholars such as Quirk and Greenbaum (1973), Yule (1996), Omorodion (2007) and Lieber (2009). Formation (affixation), conversion and compounding which have so far been discussed, fall under the major group of word formation processes, while those that are discussed in this section form the minor word formation processes.

### **(i) Acronyms**

Acronyms refer to the word formation process in which new lexemes are formed from the initial letters of words that make up descriptive phrases or names of organization. Example: WAEC (West African Examination Council), NECO (National Examination Council), UNICEF (United Nations Children's Fund) UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization).

### **(ii) Blending**

This is also another word formation process in which elements of two different words are combined together to form a new word. Blending is typically done by combining the beginning of one word and the end of another. Example: motel, formed from the beginning of (Mo)tor and end of the ho(tel), telecast, from the beginning of (tele)vision and end of broad(cast), transistor, formed from the beginning of (tran)sfer and end of re(sistor), brunch, formed from the beginning of br)eakfast and end of l(unch).

### **(iii) Clipping**

This refers to the removal of one or more syllables from the existing words to form other words. This normally happens in casual speech (Yule, 1996). This shortening may

occur at the beginning, middle or end of the existing word. Examples: phone from the beginning of the word “telephone,” photo from the end of the word “photograph,” flu from the middle of “influenza”.

#### **(iv) Reduplication**

This is a process of word formation in which a part of the base or the whole base is copied and attached to the base. Examples: goody-goody, walkie-talkie, criss-cross. The lexemes result from this process are normally used in informal setting (Omorodion, 2007).

#### **(v) Borrowing**

Borrowing appears to be one of the most common sources of creating new words not only in English but also in many other languages of the world. It currently remains a common feature of virtually all human languages. Borrowing refers to the taking over of words from other languages. The lexicon of the English Language has expanded greatly with borrowed words from other languages such as Piano (Italian), Zebra (Bantu), Tycoon (Japanese), alcohol (Arabic), boss (Dutch), robot (Czech), Yogurt (Turkish).

#### **(vi) Coinage**

Coinage refers to the invention of new words entirely into the lexicon of a language. “The most typical sources are invented trade names for one company’s product which become general terms for any version of that product” (Yule, 1996). Coinage is least used process of word formation in English (Omorodion, 2007). Examples of coinage in English include aspirin, Xerox and Omo.

With regard to reduplication, some scholars such as Lieber (2009) and Haspelmath and Sims (2010) categorise it as one of the major morphological operations.

To Haspelmath and Sims (2010), acronym, clipping and blending do not fall under the realm of morphology. Their argument is that the new words formed from these processes do not denote concepts different from the concepts of the base words. Thus, they do not fall into the domain of morphological structure. However, these scholars accept that they are clearly operations that can be used to create new words from the existing ones; it is only that the operations are not morphological. It is true that the new lexemes formed from the processes of acronym, clipping and blending do not denote concepts different from the concepts of the base lexemes, but others (morphological processes) do. Therefore, the researcher aligns with the above scholars, that the above mentioned processes (acronym, clipping and blending) are not morphological operations.

## **2.9 Studies in Morphology**

The fact that a number of researches in the area of morphology, as one of the major branches of linguistics, have so far been conducted must be acknowledged. Therefore, this section reviews some of the studies previously carried out in both Hausa and English morphologies.

Celestine (2016) conducts a study on the contrastive analysis of the morphemes of English and Igbo languages, with a view to finding out their similarities and differences. He uses a contrastive method of data analysis, seeing that the research is a contrastive study between two languages. He compares and contrasts the areas of similarities and differences of the two languages' morphemes. He finds that English and Igbo share the processes of borrowing, affixation and compounding. Both languages use prefixation and suffixation in forming new words. Also, they make use of compounding. He observes that there are some word formation processes in Igbo that are not found in English. However, the first criticism

that could be leveled against this study is that no particular descriptive model mentioned that is used in the research. Secondly, in the area where the two languages differ the detail is not given. Another thing observable is that there is a little digression in what the researcher sets out to do, because he mentions borrowing in his findings in which he says both languages make use of, while he clearly states that his focus is on comparing the morphemes of the two languages.

Maikiyari (2015) compares the derivational morphology of Kanuri and English within the framework of Matthews (1991). He investigates the similarities and differences of the two languages derivational systems, with a view to finding out their implications to the general theory of derivational morphology. He used content analysis and purposive sampling in generating the data for the study. His findings reveal that both languages use the systems of word formation and conversion. In using formation, the processes adopted by the two languages are similar. But in conversion, the processes are different. Also, a unique case of suffixation exists in Kanuri in which a category larger than a lexeme is derived from the verb root. Maikiyari (2015) argues that, this case does not conform to the description of derivational morphology found in Matthews (1991). The study has some relations with this work, since they both focus on the comparative analysis of the derivational morphology, yet they differ as Maikiyari (2015) focuses on Kanuri and English, while the present study compares English and Hausa.

Another relevant study on morphology is Buhari (2011). She compares and contrasts the entire word formation processes of English and Hausa languages. She investigates the similarities and differences of the two languages' word-formation processes. She finds that both languages use affixation as the major way of creating new words. However, the work is

not based on any clearly defined descriptive model. Second, the findings of the study are too insignificant therefore to know precisely what happens when the two languages' word-formation processes are compared multiple areas of morphological processes must be accounted for - a justification for the present study.

Pandogari (2017) conducts a comparative study of the affixation (Kumburin Kalma) of Hausa and Kamuku languages. He investigates the similarities and differences of the two languages' affixation (Kumburin Kalma). His findings show that both languages use a common morpheme "a" to form plural from singular. Again, the languages add prefix "ba" to the name of the language to refer to the native speaker of that language. However, in Kamuku the vowel "a" in the syllable "ba" changes to "u" vowel to be "bu" syllable which is used as prefix. The two languages differ, in that, Hausa uses all the three types of affixation (prefixation, infixation and suffixation), while Kamuku uses only two (prefixation and suffixation). Also, Hausa uses "a" morpheme to indicate feminine gender, but this does not happen in Kamuku language. However, there is no particular method mentioned for both data collection and analysis that is used in the study. It is obvious that Pandogari's (2017) focus is only on affixation (Kumburin Kalma), so, in that the present study becomes different, because its focus is on derivational morphology.

Another relevant study on Hausa morphology is Kabir (2014). Kabir (2014) studies the Hausa words that are loaned to the dialect of Adamawa Fulfulde. From the study, she finds out that the sounds contained in Hausa words, which are not in phonetic inventory of Fulfulde language are transformed into other different sounds that are closer to them (Hausa sounds) in Fulfulde in terms of places and manners of articulation. This work focuses on only

one (borrowing) out of many morphological operations. Thus, it shares little with the present study.

Ogah (2017) conducts a comparative study of the affixation of Hausa and Alago languages. He investigates the similarities and differences of the affixation of the two languages. His findings reveal that affixation in both languages plays a significant role in their lexicon. In Hausa language, the prefix 'ba' is attached to a noun base to derive a person-type-noun. But in Alago language, a person-type-noun is expressed in different ways. The two languages differ, in that Hausa uses suffixation in plural formation, while Alago uses prefixation for the same purpose. However, Ogah (2017) does not base his work on any framework; therefore, this makes the study sound less authoritative.

Ezuruike (2016) investigates the strategies used by English as Second Language learners in dealing with the grammatical task of negating English words and sentences using Monitor Theory as a theoretical framework. She studies the morphological and syntactic aspects of grammar as well as their attendant semantic implications to find out how ESL learners' negation strategy conforms to, or differs from the Standard English usage. Data for the study is obtained from a test administered to 210 ESL learners in Kano metropolis. These subjects consist of learners from three private and three public schools in Kano metropolitan city, and these represent different geopolitical zones in the country (Nigeria). The most important variables are gender and school type (private and public schools). The findings reveal that there are various erroneous features which are persistent in the learners' submission irrespective of gender and school type. These errors are found both at the lexical and sentential levels. The errors at the lexical level include attaching wrong negative elements and use of other derivational suffixes like *-ly*, *-ed*, *-s/es*, *-tion* and *-tive* as negative

elements. It is also found out that the subjects use lexical items such as antonyms instead of negating the word with a negative prefix, and sometimes, the words used are not the exact negative forms of the affirmative words. Overgeneralisation of some negative rules and making excessive use of *in-* where other allomorph (*il-*, *im-*, *ir-*) are required is also noticed.

Moreover, at the sentential level, it is found out that ESL learners use some complex strategies that do not exist in Standard English, and phonological error affects the spellings of some negative prefixes such as *un-* which is realized as *on-* or *an-*. Her investigation also reveals that the learners' use of negative structures shows some erroneous features which include wrong placement of 'not', use of wrong or inappropriate antonyms, tense and concord errors, and wrong use or omission of auxiliary verbs among others. She further compares the performance of the learners of the two different school types where she finds out that learners in private schools perform better than their counterpart in public schools, and the findings further reveal that male learners of English generally perform relatively better than the female learners where males learners score the highest average point of 81.3% while females' average score is 30.4%. The study investigates the strategies employed by Second Language learners of English in negating English words and sentences in which morphological aspect of the language is inclusive. Therefore, the study has some relation with the present study. However, the two studies differ considerably as the former focuses on the different strategies used by English as Second Language learners in dealing with the grammatical task of negating English words and sentences, while the focus of the latter is on comparative analysis of the derivational morphology of two genetically un-related languages (English and Hausa).

On his part, Doka (2012) examines the tertiary institutions students' use of noun inflections using inter-language descriptive model. He specifically investigates the errors the students commit in their daily use of English noun inflections. He focuses on the students' competence and performance. Through the use of research questions, he collects and analyses the data using percentage. He finds that the use of English of the tertiary institutions students is deficient in the area of noun inflections, especially the possessive form. This study by Doka (2012) differs considerably from the present one. Apart from being a comparative study between two different languages (English and Hausa), the present study focuses on derivational morphology as opposed to inflectional.

Sani (2016) investigates some secondary schools students' performance in their use of affixation using the behaviourism as the theoretical framework. He uses 181 participants. He administers a sentence completion test and a teacher questionnaire as the instruments. His findings reveal that, students in secondary school use affixes rarely, where they use them, the usage appears to be incorrect. Sani (2016) attributes the failure to inadequate textbooks and students' poor background. This study differs from the present one, as the latter focuses on the comparative analysis between two languages, English and Hausa.

All the studies reviewed above are relevant to the present research since they all fall under the realm of morphology as a subfield of linguistics. However, of all the reviewed work, none compares derivational morphology of English and Hausa. Therefore, this creates a gap which the present study fills.

## **2.10 Theoretical Framework**

The theoretical framework adopted in this study is Contrastive Analysis propounded by Lado(1956). Lado's Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) states that difference in

linguistic structure causes difficulty to learners, while sameness causes easy learning or smooth learning. Although this theory focuses on learning, it is however used here in the comparison of English and Hausa derivational systems to find out the areas in which the two languages, with regard to derivation, are similar and the areas in which they are different. This is because the overall focus of the theory is on comparison between two or more linguistic structures to bring out their similarities and differences. This theory is selected for this study because of its relevance to the topic.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the methodology of the research. It specifically explains the methodology, the sampling and sampling procedure, the sources of data and finally the method of data analysis.

#### **3.2 Methodology**

This research is basically analytical, as such qualitative. Qualitative research is the process of naturalistic investigation or inquiry that requires a thorough understanding of a given phenomenon in order to get a detailed insight about it (Monette, 1994). Therefore, derivational morphology can only be described, which means it is descriptive in nature. As such, the qualitative method also known as interpretative approach is adopted for the study.

#### **3.3 Sampling and Sampling Procedure**

This study is concerned with the comparative analysis of the derivational morphology of English language and Hausa language. Therefore, the researcher adopts a purposive sampling for the generation of the data for the study. This sampling method (i.e. purposive sampling) is defined by Easterly-Smit, Thorpe and Jackson (2015:339) as “a form of non-probability sampling design where the criteria for inclusion in a sample are defined, and entities are screened to see whether they meet the criteria for inclusion and those entities that meet the criteria are included in the sample.” Thus, data are generated from printed

materials, specifically newspapers. Copies of The Daily Trust and The Vanguard as well as Aminiya and Leadership A Yau Newspapers are used.

### **3.4 Sources of Data**

Two sources of data are used in this study. The first source is the different Nigerian newspapers mentioned in 3.3 above. The second source, particularly with regard to the data on Hausa, is through “introspection” that is the researcher’s knowledge and personal acquaintance with the language (Hausa) because the researcher is a native Hausa speaker. To avoid “artificiality” and shortcomings, experts in the language (Hausa) are consulted for any data sourced through introspection.

#### **3.4.1 Data on English**

The data on English are sourced from The Daily Trust and The Vanguard newspapers of the 18<sup>th</sup>, 19<sup>th</sup> and 20<sup>th</sup> of September, 2019. (Copies are available in the appendix).

#### **3.4.2 Data on Hausa**

The data on Hausa are generated from the Aminiya of the second and third weeks of September which is equivalent to 13<sup>th</sup> and 20<sup>th</sup> of September, 2019, and Leadership A Yau of the 18<sup>th</sup> and 19<sup>th</sup> of September, 2019. The Introspective method is also used in gathering data on Hausa for the study.

The choice of the above newspapers is informed by the understanding that they are among the best Nigerian newspapers. Secondly, their use of language is good and current. These editions of the newspapers of 13<sup>th</sup>, 18<sup>th</sup>, 19<sup>th</sup>, and 20<sup>th</sup> of September, 2019, are used just

to ensure that the data are sourced from recent materials, not from materials that might have been used by the previous researchers.

### **3.5 Method of Data Analysis**

For the purpose of the data analysis, the researcher reads thoroughly through all the selected materials and identifies all the derivations available therein. The researcher groups the identified derivations into prefixation, infixation and suffication. Finally, the findings are compared and contrasted.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS**

#### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter contains data presentation and analysis. It is divided into two sections. The first section contains data presentation, while the second section contains data analysis.

#### **4.2 Data Presentation**

This section is divided into two parts. The first part presents data on English, while the second part presents data on Hausa.

##### **4.2.1 Data on English Derivational Morphology**

This sub-section presents data on English derivational system. Based on the data obtained, English derivational morphology involves formation, which has two major forms: prefixation and suffixation.

#### **4.3 Data on Formation in English**

Based on the data collected, formation in English language as earlier stated, consists of two main forms, namely: prefixation and suffixation. These are presented below.

### 4.3.1 Data on Prefixational Derivation in English

Table 4.1 below presents data on prefixational derivation in English language obtained from two Nigerian English Newspapers: The Daily Trust and The Vanguard.

**Table 4.1 Data on Derivational Prefixes in English**

| S/N   | Prefix       | Base               | Derivation             |
|-------|--------------|--------------------|------------------------|
| i.    | <i>en-</i>   | sure (adj)         | ensure (v)             |
| ii.   | <i>be-</i>   | little (adj)       | belittle (v)           |
| iii.  | <i>em-</i>   | power (n)          | empower (v)            |
| iv.   | <i>mis-</i>  | manage (v)         | mismanage (v)          |
| v.    | <i>dis-</i>  | affection (n)      | disaffection (n)       |
| vi.   | <i>in-</i>   | security (n)       | insecurity (n)         |
| vii.  | <i>un-</i>   | acceptable (adj)   | unacceptable (adj)     |
| viii. | <i>non-</i>  | implementation (n) | non-implementation (n) |
| ix.   | <i>ir-</i>   | regularity (n)     | irregularity (n)       |
| x.    | <i>de-</i>   | centralise (v)     | decentralise (v)       |
| xi.   | <i>anti-</i> | corruption (n)     | anti-corruption (n)    |

|        |                 |                 |                        |
|--------|-----------------|-----------------|------------------------|
| xii.   | <i>il-</i>      | legal (adj)     | illegal (adj)          |
| xiii.  | <i>sub-</i>     | committee (n)   | subcommittee (n)       |
| xiv.   | <i>co-</i>      | chairmen (n)    | co-chairmen (n)        |
| xv.    | <i>out-</i>     | cry (n)         | outcry (n)             |
| xvi.   | <i>mal-</i>     | treat (v)       | maltreat (v)           |
| xvii.  | <i>counter-</i> | insurgency(n)   | counter-insurgency (n) |
| xviii. | <i>pro-</i>     | active (adj)    | proactive (adj)        |
| xix.   | <i>over-</i>    | stay (v)        | overstay (v)           |
| xx.    | <i>bi-</i>      | lateral (adj)   | bilateral (adj)        |
| xxi.   | <i>ex-</i>      | girl friend (n) | ex-girl friend (n)     |
| xxii.  | <i>re-</i>      | double (v)      | redouble (v)           |
| xxiv.  | <i>inter-</i>   | national (adj)  | international (adj)    |
| xxiv.  | <i>Pre-</i>     | election (n)    | pre-election (adj)     |
| xxv.   | <i>Post-</i>    | election (n)    | post-election (adj)    |

## Analysis

The table above based on the data obtained, shows that there are twenty-five most frequently used derivational prefixes in English language. The first three derivational prefixes in Table 4.1 above which are *en-*, *be-* and *em-* are conversion prefixes as classified by Omorodion(2007) and Ndemele(1999), as such class-changing formatives. The '*en-* prefix' which denotes 'to cause to become' is used to derive a verb lexeme from an adjective base. The prefix *be-* which denotes 'cause to be' or 'treat as' is used to derive verb lexeme from an adjective base, just like the first one explained above (*en-* prefix). The prefix *em-* which denotes the meaning of 'to cause to become' is used to derive a verb lexeme from a noun base. All the three prefixes explained above are found in The Vanguard Newspaper of 20/09/2019 under 'news' section on pages 8, 9 and 10 respectively. They appear in the following contexts: "I assure you of my commitment to ensure that appropriate strategies are put in place to meet the global standard for ...."(p. 8), "Is it not belitt(ing) to the Nigerian Army on one part and Nigeria as a nation for anyone to argue that an experienced soldier and a sitting president does not have school leaving certificate...." (p.9) and "NCC empower(s) 200 Value Added Service Providers" (P.10).

The next twenty prefixes on the table above are class-maintaining. These prefixes are: *mis-*, *re-*, *dis-*, *in-*, *un-*, *non-*, *ir-*, *de-*, *anti-*, *il-*, *inter-*, *sub-*, *co-*, *out-*, *mal-*, *counter-*, *pro-*, *over-*, *bi-* and *ex-*. The prefix *mis-* which denotes 'wrong' out of the meaning of the base is attached to a verb to derive another verb. The *re-* prefix denotes 'repetition' or 'back to an original place or condition. It is attached to a verb lexeme to derive a lexeme of the same verb class. The *dis-* prefix which denotes 'opposition' is attached to a noun to derive another

noun. The prefix *in-* also denotes ‘opposition’. It is placed before a noun to derive another noun. Next, is *un-* prefix which denotes ‘opposition’. It is attached to an adjective lexeme to derive another adjective. *un-* and *dis-* can be classified both as negative and reversative prefixes (Quirk and Greenbaun, 1973). The *non-*prefix which denotes ‘negation’ is attached to a noun lexeme to derive another lexeme of the same class. The *ir-*prefix indicates ‘negation’ and it is placed before a noun to derive another noun. The prefix *de-* which indicates ‘reversal in meaning’ is attached to a verb lexeme to derive another lexeme of the same verb class. The *anti-*prefix which denotes ‘opposition’ is used to derive a noun from another noun.

All the nine prefixes above are obtained from The Daily Trust of 18/09/2019 under the ‘news’ section of the paper. They are used in contexts as follows: “... Economic Advisory Council to tell President Muhammad Buhari how he mismanage(d) the economy in the last four years” (P.3), “... urged the commission to redouble its effort in ensuring that the force delivers on its responsibilities” (P.3), “ ... for allegedly colluding with the president to cause disaffection in the association” (P.3), “ ... have called on President Muhammadu Buhari to urgently declare State of Emergency on the rising insecurity in the state” (P.4), “ ... this document is criminal and unacceptable, and should be condemned” (p.4), “ ... before public servants in the states commence strike over the non-implementation of the new minimum wage ... ” (p.5), “The new directive came in the wake of alleged irregularities in running the affairs of the agencies” (P.5), “.... Recent developments were part of the resolve of president Buhari to further decentralise some of the powers ...”(P.5) and “... current chairman, Senate committee on Defence and Deputy Chairman, Senate committee on Anti-Corruption, denied reports in the media ... ” (P.6).

The *il-*prefix which denotes ‘negation’ is attached to an adjective to derive another adjective. The prefix *inter-* which denotes ‘between’ is placed before an adjective lexeme to derive another lexeme of the same adjective class. The *sub-* prefix denotes the meaning of ‘lower than or less than.’ It is added to a noun lexeme to derive lexeme of the same noun class. The prefix *co-* which denotes the meaning of ‘with or together’ is attached to a noun to derive another noun. These four prefixes are found from The Daily Trust of 20/09/2019. The first three under ‘news’ section of the paper, while the last one under ‘Inside Politics’. They appear in the following contexts: “The detentions are illegal and appear to be ...” (p.3), “The Head of International Human Rights Law ...” (p.3), “The Chairman of the council’s subcommittee on herders/farmers crisis ...” (p.7) and “ ... which has the secretary to the Government of the Federation (SAF) Boss Mustapha and the Minister of the Federal Capital Territory (F.C.T) Muhammad Musa Bello as co-chairmen, is to work with ...” (p.13).

The *out-* prefix is used to derive a noun lexeme from a noun base. The prefix *mal-* which denotes ‘bad’ is attached to a verb lexeme to derive another lexeme of the same verb class. These two prefixes appear in The Vanguard of 19/09/2019 under ‘news’ section. The prefixes are found in the following contexts: “Outcry over ₦5.5b for vehicles an insult” (p.2) and “The children alleged that their step-mother was maltreat(ing) them” (p.6). The *counter-* prefix which is described as attitudinal (Omorodion, 2007) denotes ‘opposition’ and it is placed before a noun to derive another noun. The *pro-* prefix which denotes ‘supporting’ is placed before an adjective to derive another adjective. These two prefixes are found from The Vanguard of 20/09/2019 under ‘news’. They are used in the following places: “.... the non-governmental agency was contrary to the counter-insurgency war being carried out in

the region by the Nigerian Military” (p.9) and “He described the move as a proactive one, which is capable of elevating Nigeria’s economy to greater heights” (p.13).

The *over-*prefix which denotes the meaning of ‘more than required’ is attached to a verb to derive another verb. It is obtained from The Daily Trust of 18/09/2019 under ‘news’. It is used in the following context:” ... an intervention agency expert said has overstay(ed) its functions with the failure of the equalization scheme” (p.3). The *bi-*prefix denotes ‘two’. It is used to derive an adjective lexeme from an adjective base. It appears in The Daily Trust of 20/09/2019 under ‘news’. It is used in the paper as follows: “.... the visit of the chancellor, Angela Merkel, to Nigeria in August 2018 which further strengthened bilateral relation” (p.10). The *ex-*prefix which denotes ‘former’ is added to a noun to derive another noun. This prefix is found from The Vanguard of 20/09/2019 under ‘news’. It is used in the following context: “when 21 year old Damilola, the deceased ex-girlfriend, received the text message where the deceased informed her that ...” (p.6).

The last two derivational prefixes on Table 4.1 above which are *pre-* and *post-* are class-changing formatives. These two prefixes are temporal (Ndimele, 1999) which are attached to noun lexemes to derive other lexemes that belong to adjective class. The former (*pre-*) denotes ‘before’, while the latter (*post-*) denotes ‘after.’ These two prefixes are obtained from The Vanguard of 20/09/2019 under ‘news’ section on page 9. They appear in context as follows: “The Court of Appeal, in all the divisions are daily preoccupied with pre and post-election cases” (p.9).

### 4.3.2 Data on Suffixational Derivation in English

These data on suffixational derivation in English language obtained from two Nigerian English Newspapers: The Daily Trust and The Vanguard are presented on Table 4.2 below.

**Table 4.2 Data on Derivational Suffixes in English**

| S/N   | Suffix       | Base         | Derivation         |
|-------|--------------|--------------|--------------------|
| i.    | <i>-ive</i>  | effect(n)    | effective(adj)     |
| ii.   | <i>-ment</i> | retire(v)    | retirement(n)      |
| iii.  | <i>-al</i>   | nation (n)   | national (adj)     |
| iv.   | <i>-ly</i>   | recent (adj) | recently (adv)     |
| v.    | <i>-y</i>    | deliver (v)  | delivery(n)        |
| vi.   | <i>-er</i>   | lead(v)      | leader(n)          |
| vii.  | <i>-ous</i>  | Outrage(n)   | outrageous(adj)    |
| viii. | <i>-able</i> | command (v)  | commendable (adj). |
| ix.   | <i>-ise</i>  | penal (adj)  | penalise(v)        |
| x.    | <i>-or</i>   | invest (v)   | investor (n)       |

|        |               |                 |                     |
|--------|---------------|-----------------|---------------------|
| xi.    | <i>-ry</i>    | supplement (v)  | supplementary (adj) |
| xii.   | <i>-en</i>    | strength (n)    | strengthen (v)      |
| xiii.  | <i>-ify</i>   | test (n)        | testify (v)         |
| xiv.   | <i>-ness</i>  | fair (adj)      | fairness (n)        |
| xv.    | <i>-ity</i>   | objective (adj) | objectivity (n)     |
| xvi.   | <i>-ation</i> | organize (v)    | organization (n)    |
| xvii.  | <i>-ful</i>   | hope (n)        | hopeful (adj)       |
| xviii. | <i>-age</i>   | drain (v)       | drainage (n)        |
| xix.   | <i>-ance</i>  | govern (v)      | governance (n)      |
| xx.    | <i>-less</i>  | cash (n)        | cashless (adj)      |
| xxi.   | <i>-ant</i>   | defend (v)      | defendant (n)       |
| xxii.  | <i>-ee</i>    | appoint (v)     | appointee (n)       |
| xxiii. | <i>-ism</i>   | critic (n)      | criticism (n)       |
| xxiv.  | <i>-ist</i>   | journal (n)     | journalist (n)      |
| xxv.   | <i>-ian</i>   | nigeria (n)     | nigerian (n)        |
| xxvi.  | <i>-ship</i>  | governor (n)    | governorship (n)    |

|         |              |               |                   |
|---------|--------------|---------------|-------------------|
| xxvii.  | <i>-ster</i> | fraud (n)     | fraudster (n)     |
| xxviii. | <i>-hood</i> | neighbour (n) | neighbourhood (n) |
| xxix.   | <i>-dom</i>  | king (n)      | kingdom (n)       |

## Analysis

The table above presents twenty-nine English derivational suffixes. Out of this number, the first twenty-two which are: *-ive*, *-ment*, *-al*, *-ly*, *-y*, *-er*, *-ous*, *-able*, *-ize*, *-or*, *-ry*, *-en*, *-ify*, *-ness*, *-ity*, *-ation*, *-ful*, *-age*, *-ance*, *-less*, *-ant*, and *-ee* are class-changing formatives. The suffix *-ive* is attached to a noun base to derive an adjective lexeme. The *-ment* suffix which is identified as deverbal noun (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973) is added to a verb to derive a noun. The *-al* suffix is used to derive an adjective from a noun. The *-ly* suffix is attached to an adjective lexeme to derive an adverb. The *-y* suffix is attached to a verb base to derive a noun lexeme. All these five suffixes are sourced from The Daily Trust of 19/09/2019 under ‘news’ section. They are used in context as follows: “... the president said, was “To ensure stability in the Federal Civil Service and effective delivery on the nine priority areas of the administration ...” (p.1), “... four out of the seven permanent secretaries were due for retirement by the end of this month” (p.1), “... the national security is under threat” (p.2), “... to investigate the circumstances that led to the \$9.6 bn judgment recently secured by process and ...” (p.2) and “... to ensure stability in the Federal Civil Service and effective delivery on the nine priority areas of the administration as well as the mandate given to new ministers” (p.1).

The *-er* suffix is attached to a verb base to derive a noun lexeme. The suffix *-ous* is added to a noun base to derive an adjective. The *-able* suffix is placed after a verb to derive an adjective. The *-ize* suffix is attached to an adjective base to derive a verb lexeme. The *-or* suffix is placed after a verb base to derive a lexeme that belongs to a noun class. These five suffixes are found from The Vanguard of 19/09/2019 under ‘news’. They appear in context as follows: “ Speaking with journalist, yesterday, in Abuja, Senate leader, Senator ... ” (p.2), “The Senate can’t justify the outrageous spending on the ... ” (p.2), “The cashless policy is no doubt a commendable initiative which has ... ” (p.5), “It is difficult to justify the decision to penalize cash depositors” (p.5) and “ This is particularly so for investor(s) who are major players in the retail segment of the economy” (p.5).

The *-ry* suffix is attached to a verb base to derive a lexeme that belongs to an adjective class. The *-en* suffix is added to a noun to derive a verb lexeme. The suffix *-ify* is attached to a noun base to derive a verb lexeme. The *-ness* suffix is placed after an adjective to derive a noun lexeme. These just mentioned four suffixes are obtained from The Daily Trust of 18/09/2019 under ‘Inside Politics’ on page 13: “The Election petitions Tribunal sitting in Sokoto has ordered the Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC), to conduct supplementary elections in four polling units in the ...”, “The party said it has activated its structure, strengthen(ing) its formation as one big, united and formidable family ahead of the two elections”, “... had called all their eight witnesses to testify and be cross examined before the seven-man panel” and “.... be given all the fairness necessary by the state’s electoral body so that people at the grassroot can elect leaders of their choice.”

The *-ity* suffix is attached to an adjective base to derive a lexeme that belongs to noun class. The *-ation* suffix which is also identified as deverbal noun and often used to derive abstract noun and collective noun (Quirk and Greenbaun, 1973) is used to derive a noun from a verb base. The suffix *-ful* is placed after a noun to derive an adjective lexeme. These three derivational suffixes mentioned above are sourced from The Vanguard of 18/09/2019 under news section: “We urge media organizations, as gatekeepers to uphold truth, balance, fairness and objectivity in their reports” (p.4), “We urge media organizations, as gatekeepers to uphold truth ...” (p.4) and “We are hopeful that they will give us the permit” (p.5).

The suffixes *-age* and *-ance* are placed after verb bases to derive lexemes that belong to noun class. The *-less* suffix is added to a noun base to derive an adjective lexeme. The suffixes *-ant* and *-ee* are attached to verb bases to derive noun lexemes. These just mentioned five suffixes are found from The Daily Trust of 20/09/2019 under ‘news’ section: “... to order the contractors of the project back to site, saying the drainage was poorly done” (p.4), “... the annual Director’s Conference has concentrated on taking on the themes of corporate governance”(p.6), “Suspecting that the new cashless policy of the Central Bank, CBN, would bring more economic ...” (p.8), “According to him, the defendant also damaged a plank shop worth ₦500,000 adding that ...” (p.9) and “prominent among them are all chairmen of the council, former and current political appointee(s) who are journalists and the investiture of patrons for the union” (p.11).

The last seven derivational suffixes on table 4.2 above which are described as denominal nouns (Quirk and Greenbaun, 1973) are class-maintaining formatives. The suffixes are: *-ism*, *-ist*, *-ian*, *-ship*, *-ster*, *-hood* and *-don*. They are attached to noun bases to

derive other nouns. The first two (*-ism* and *-ist*) are sourced from The Vanguard of 19/09/2019 under news section: "... nothing that ministers go around in convoys of four SUVs without criticism from the public" (p.2) and "speaking with journalist(s), yesterday, in Abuja, Senate leader, Senator Yahaya Abdullahi (APC, Kebbi North), said there was nothing for anybody to cry over as far as the plan was concerned" (p.2). The next two (*-ian* and *-ship*) are from The Daily Trust of 18/09/2019 under 'news' section and 'Inside Politics' respectively: "The Joint National Public Service Negotiating Council has asked Nigerian(s) to appeal to the Federal Government to implement the new minimum wage to avoid an imminent industrial crisis" (p.5) and "The Peoples Democratic Party (PDP) said it is reconciling its aggrieved members following the aftermath of its governorship primaries in Kogi and Bayelsa States and ..." (p.13).

The *-ster* and *-hood* suffixes are from The Vanguard of 18/09/2019 under 'news' section: "... the suspects confessed to being fraudster(s), and that one of them used the proceeds of their fraudulent business to build a private school in Ikorodu, Lagos" (p.6) and "The former alerted the vigilante in the neighbourhood, who in turn alerted Delta State Police Command" (p.6). The last one (*-dom*) is sourced from The Daily Trust of 20/09/2019 under news on page 3: "Accordingly, the justice minister said Nigeria will meet with its legal consortium early next week in the United Kingdom in preparation for the case listed for September, 26."

#### 4.4 Data on Hausa Derivational Morphology

Based on the data obtained, Hausa derivational morphology involves formation. Formation is the derivation through the use of lexical formatives. Based on the collected data, formation in Hausa language is of three types, namely: prefixation, infixation and suffixation.

##### 4.4.1 Data on Prefixational Derivation in Hausa

Table 4.6 below presents data on prefixational derivation in Hausa language obtained from two Nigerian Hausa Newspapers which are: Aminiya and Leadership A Yau.

**Table 4.3 Data on Derivational Prefixes in Hausa**

| S/N | Prefix     | Base                              | Derivation                     |
|-----|------------|-----------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| I   | <i>ba-</i> | fulatanci (fulfulde language) (n) | bafulatani (fulfulde man ) (n) |
| ii. | <i>ma-</i> | wake (sing) (v)                   | mawaki (singer) (n)            |

The table above presents two Hausa derivational prefixes. The first one is a class-maintaining formative. It is attached to a noun base, name of a language, to derive a person-type-noun (Abubakar, 2001). This prefix is from Aminiya of 20/09/2019 under a section ‘Tattaunawa’ on page 11: “... ta wajen mahai fiyata ni Bafulatani(n) kauyen Nafada ne da ke Jihar Gombe.”

**Translation:** Maternally, I am a Fulani man from Nafada Village of Gombe State. The second derivational prefix on the table above is a class-changing prefix which is attached to a

verb base to derive an agentive noun. This prefix is sourced from The Leadership A Yau of 19/09/2019 under ‘Adabi’ on page 2: “ ... wacce Farfesa Aliyu Muhammadu Bunza yagabatar a taron tunawa da mawaki Ibrahim Narambada a Jami’ar Bayero ...”

**Translation:**” ... which Professor Aliyu Muhammadu Bunza presented at an occasion organised in commemoration of the singer, Ibrahim Narambada at Bayero University, Kano.

#### 4.4.2 Data on Infixational Derivation in Hausa

The data on infixational derivation in Hausa language found from Aminiya Newspaper is presented on Table 4.7 below. From all the data collected, the researcher is able to find only one derivational infix which is *-i-*. This bound morpheme comes in between two syllables without affecting the weight of the syllables (Abubakar, 2001).

**Table 4.4 Data on Derivational infix in Hausa**

| S/N | Infix      | Base                  | Derivation               |
|-----|------------|-----------------------|--------------------------|
| I   | <i>-i-</i> | bawa (male slave) (n) | baiwa (female slave) (n) |

The table above based on the data obtained, shows that there is only one derivational infix in Hausa language that is commonly used by the speakers of the language (Abubakar, 2001). This infix is a class-maintaining formative which is inserted into a noun to derive another noun. The infix is used to transform a masculine gender into a feminine one. It is sourced from Aminiya of 20/09/2019 under ‘Babban Labari’ on page 3: “... aka ce duk

wadda mutanenta basu kawo Naira miliyan goma na fansa ba, to za a kasheta ko a mayar da ita baiwa.”

**Translation:** it was said that any woman whose relatives have not paid ₦10 million ransom would be killed or made to become a slave.

#### 4.4.3 Data on Suffixational Derivation in Hausa

These data on suffixational derivation in Hausa language sourced from the two Nigerian Hausa Newspapers which are: Aminiya and Leadership A Yau, are presented on Table 4.8 below.

**Table 4.5 Data on Derivational Suffixes in Hausa**

| S/N  | Suffix        | Base                           | Derivation                          |
|------|---------------|--------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| I    | <i>-iya</i>   | mataimaki (male assistant) (n) | mataimakiya (female assistant) (n)  |
| ii.  | <i>-yayya</i> | so (love) (n)                  | soyayya (romantic relationship) (n) |
| iii. | <i>-uwa</i>   | tsoho (old man) (n)            | tsohuwa (old woman) (n)             |
| iv.  | <i>-inya</i>  | yaro (boy) (n)                 | yarinya (girl) (n)                  |
| v.   | <i>-a</i>     | jarumi (hero) (n)              | jaruma (heroine) (n)                |
| vi.  | <i>-ntaka</i> | dangi (relatives) (n)          | dangantaka (relationship) (n)       |
| vii. | <i>-nci</i>   | shugaba (leader) (n)           | shugabanci (leadership) (n)         |

|       |              |                         |                              |
|-------|--------------|-------------------------|------------------------------|
| viii. | <i>-niya</i> | barawo (male thief) (n) | barauniya (female thief) (n) |
| ix.   | <i>-anya</i> | biri (male monkey) (n)  | biranya (female monkey) (n)  |
| x.    | <i>-yya</i>  | tara (gather) (v)       | tarayya (federal) (adj)      |
| xi.   | <i>-ta</i>   | kyauta (gift) (n)       | kyautata (improve) (v)       |
| xii.  | <i>-ci</i>   | gayya (invitation) (n)  | gayyaci (invite) (v)         |
| xiii. | <i>-nta</i>  | fuska (face) (n)        | fuskanta (experience) (v)    |
| xiv.  | <i>-ya</i>   | tafi (go) (v)           | tafiya (walking) (n)         |
| xv.   | <i>-wa</i>   | tattauna (discuss) (v)  | tattaunawa (discussion) (n)  |

The table above based on the data obtained, shows that there are fifteen derivational suffixes in Hausa language. The first nine out of the above number are class-maintaining. The *-iya* suffix is attached to a noun to derive another noun. It is used to transform a masculine gender into a feminine one (Abubakar, 2001). The suffix *-yayya* above is used to derive an abstract noun from another abstract noun. The two derivational suffixes are sourced from The Leadership A Yau of 18/09/2019. The former is under ‘Labarai’ on page 1: “Mataimakiya(r) Babban Sakataren Majalisar Dinkin Duniya, Hajiya Amina Muhammad, tana taya shugaban Zauren Majalisar Dinkin Duniya Karo na 74, Farfesa Tijjani Muhammad Bande, Murnar kama aiki bayan rantsar dashi jiya Talata, 17 ga Staumba, 2019.”

**Translation:** The 74<sup>th</sup> President of the United Nation General Assembly, Professor Tijjani Muhammad Bande, is being congratulated on his assumption to duty after his swearing-in yesterday, Tuesday, 17<sup>th</sup> September, 2019, by the assistant to the Secretary General of the United Nation, Hajiya Amina Muhammad. While the latter is on page 15 under a section ‘Jakar Magori’: “Haka kuma tana soyayya da wani mutum mai suna Stanley”.

**Translation:** And she is in a romantic relationship with somebody called Stanley.

The next three derivational suffixes on Table 4.8 above which are *-uwa*, *-inya* and *-aare* are attached to noun bases to derive lexemes that belong to the same noun class. They are used to transform masculine genders into feminine ones. The first two are found from The Aminiya of 20/09/2019 under ‘Babban Labari’: “Wata tsohuwa ta ce musu ba za ta iya ci gaba da wannan tafiya a kasa ba saboda ta gaji ...” (p.3).

**Translation:** An old woman told them that she could no longer trek because she was tired. And “... Mahaifin yarinya(r) Dokta Umar Ardo wanda ya taba tsayawa takarar Gwamna a Jam’iyyar PDP a Jihar Adamawa, ya ce wadanda suka sace ‘yarsa sun fara Magana da shi ne washegari Lahadi da misalign karfe 9:56 na safe ...” (p.5).

**Translation:** The girl’s father, Dr. Umar Ardo who was once a gubernatorial candidate in Adamawa State under the platform of Peoples Democratic Party (PDP), said that his daughter’s abductors started contacting him the following day, on Sunday at about 9:56am. The last one of the three is from the same paper but under different section. It is under ‘Dandalin Nishadi’ on page 21: “Daga cikin ‘Yan wasan da suka halarci ganawar, akwai

Darakta kuma jarumi, Falalu Dorayi da Nuhu Abdullahi da tsohuwar JarumaFatiKK, da Ibrahim Maishinku ... da sauransu.”

**Translation:** Among the Kannywood Members that paid the visit included: director and also hero, Falalu Dorayi, Nuhu Abdullahi and sometimes heroine Fati KK and Ibrahim Maishinku ... and several others.”

The next two suffixes which are *-ntaka* and *-nci* are attached to common nouns to derive abstract nouns. The former is from Aminiya of 20/09/2019 under ‘Tattaunawa’ on page 11: “Kaga gwamnatoci daban-daban a kasar nan, ko yaya dangantakatake tsakaninka da gwamnatocin da suka gabata da na yanzu?”

**Translation:** You have witnessed different governments in this country, what is your relationship with the past and the present governments? The latter is sourced from The Leadership A Yau of 19/09/2019 under ‘Ra’ayinmu’ on page 3: “Ta yi tsayuwar daka wajen tabbatar da shugabanci nagari.”

**Translation:** It stands firmly in ensuring good governance.

The suffixes: *-niya* and *-anya* are attached to noun bases to derive other lexemes that belong to the same noun class. They are used to transform masculine genders into feminine ones.

The last six derivational suffixes on Table 4.8 above are class-changing formatives. The *-yya* suffix is attached to a verb to derive an adjective. This suffix is found from The Leadership A Yau of 19/09/2019 under ‘Labarai’ on page 1: “Kungiyoyin Kwadago na Najeriya, wato Trade Union, sun bayyana cewa, ba a son ransu su ke take-taken shiryawa da

tsunduma yajin aiki ba, illa don Gwamnatin Tarayya ta kasa aiwatar da sabon tsarin albashi na kasa, inda Naira ₦30,000 zai kasance mafi karancin albashi”.

**Translation:** The Trade Union Congress disclosed that they are being compelled to embark on an indefinite strike by the Federal Government’s non-implementation of the ₦30,000 minimum wage. The next two suffixes which are: *-ta* and *-ci* are added to the noun bases to derive lexemes that belong to verb class. The former is sourced from The Aminiya of 20/09/2019 under ‘Tattaunawa’ on page 5: “... ‘yan siyasar nan sukan tafi yakin neman zabe su yi damara su yi alkawarin kyautata rayuwar al’umma da kuma samar musu da kayayyakin more rayuwa.”

**Translation:** These politicians go out for election campaign and make promise to improve and provide social amenities for the general well-being of the people. While the latter is from The Aminiya of 19/09/2019 under ‘Babban Labari’ on page 2: “A makon jiya ne Gwamnatin Jihar Kebbi ta shirya bikin cikas jihar shekara 28 da kirkirowa, inda ta gayyaci duk ‘yan asalin jihar na cikin gida da na wajen kasar ....”

**Translation:** The Kebbi State Government last week organised 28 year Anniversary of the State creation, where all the indigenes of the state including those from the Diaspora were invited. The next one which is *-nta* suffix is attached to a noun base to derive a verb lexeme. It is found from The Aminiya of 20/09/2019 under ‘Iyayen Giji’ on page 23: “... na tabbata akwai maza da dama da suke fuskanta(r) irin wannan yanayi a gidajensu na aure.”

**Translation:** I am sure there are many heads of households that are experiencing this problem. The last two derivational suffixes: *-ya* and *-wa* are used to derive noun lexemes

from verb bases. The latter is from Leadership A Yau Newspaper of 19/09/2019 under a section titled ‘Labarai’ on page 2: “... inda su kace dukkan tattaunawa(r) da su ka yi da gwamnatin kan aiwatar da sabon albashin ta ci tura.”

**Translation:** ... where they said all their discussion with the government over the ₦30,000 minimum wage ended in deadlock. While the former is sourced from The Aminiya of 20/09/2019 under a section titled ‘Babban Labari’ on page 3: “Ta ci gaba da cewa sun yi ta tafiya a cikin daji.”

**Translation:** she said they continued walking into the bush.

Above, are the different strategies employed in deriving new lexemes from the existing ones in Hausa language.

#### **4.5A Comparative Analysis of the Data obtained on English and Hausa Derivational Systems**

Based on the data collected and presented, it is clear that the two languages’ derivational systems involve formation. Prefixation, infixation and suffixation are the subtypes. As it can be seen, the systems are different. That is, while English uses only prefixation and suffixation, Hausa uses all the three types: prefixation, infixation and suffixation. This is explained in detail in the following sub-sections.

##### **4.5.1 Formation**

Formation as a type of derivational process is used in both English and Hausa languages. It involves a number of processes which include: prefixation, infixation and

suffixation. However, based on the data collected, the processes employed by the two languages differ. This is explained below in the sub-sections that follow.

#### **4.5.1.1 Prefixation**

Prefixation is used in both English and Hausa languages to derive new lexemes from existing ones. Based on the data collected, there are only two derivational prefixes in Hausa and twenty-five most frequently used in English. Out of the two derivational prefixes in Hausa *saba-* is class maintaining and the other one which is *ma-* is class changing. In English, twenty out of the twenty-five derivational prefixes which are *emis-*, *re-*, *dis-*, *in-*, *un-*, *non-*, *ir-*, *de-*, *anti-*, *il-*, *inter-*, *sub-*, *co-*, *out-*, *mal-*, *counter-*, *pro-*, *over-*, *bi-* and *ex-* are class maintaining. While the remaining ones which are *een-*, *be-*, *em-*, *pre-* and *post-* are class changing formatives.

#### **4.5.1.2 Infixation**

Infixation as a derivational strategy exists only in Hausa language. English language lacks this process. Even in Hausa language where the process exists, it is least used. Because of all the data collected, it is only one case of infixation that the researcher is able to identify which is *-i-*. This derivational infix is class maintaining formative which transforms a masculine gender into feminine (Abubakar, 2001).

#### **4.5.1.3 Suffixation**

Both English language and Hausa language use suffixation as a derivational strategy. Base on the data collected, there are twenty-nine most frequently used derivational suffixes

in English, while Hausa has fifteen. Among the twenty-nine derivational suffixes in English, twenty-two which are *-ive, -ment, -al, -ly, -y, -er, -ous, -able, -ize, -or, -ry, -en, -ify, -ness, -ity, -ation, -ful, -age, -ance, -less, -ant* and *-ee* are class changing and seven: *-ism, -ist, -ian, -ship, -ster, -hood* and *-dom* are class maintaining. While the fifteen in Hausa, nine: *-iya, -yayya, -uwa, -inya, -a, -ntaka, -nci -niya* and *-anya* are class maintaining and six: *-yya, -ta, -ci, -nta, -ya* and *-wa* are class changing.

#### 4.6 Discussion

From the data presented, it is clear that English language and Hausa language use formation as a derivational process. This means that lexemes in the two languages are derived through formation. This research, therefore, answers the question: “How are lexemes derived in English and Hausa?” In formation, English language uses prefixation and suffixation to derive new lexemes from the existing ones. This implies that infixation as a derivational process is not used by the language. This further proves the claim of some scholars such as Ndimele (1999), Akmajian *et.al* (2001), Yule (2010) who argue that derivational infix does not exist in English language. The process of prefixation in English language is largely class maintaining with 22 representing 88% out of 25 English derivational prefixes as obtained from the data, while the process in Hausa is fairly class changing with 1 representing 50% out of 2 Hausa derivational prefixes as obtained from the data. In the area of suffixation, English derivational suffixes are predominantly class changing with 22 representing 75.9% out of 29, while those of Hausa are substantially class maintaining with 9 representing 60% out of 15 Hausa derivational suffixes. Infixational

process which is found only in Hausa language is not a rich system, because it is only one derivational infix is found from the data. Therefore, it is the least used process in the language compared to prefixation and suffixation with 25 and 29 derivational affixes respectively.

From the foregoing discussion, it is obvious that English language and Hausa language adopt the same processes in their derivational morphology. It is only that the processes are not identical in every respect. While both languages use formation to derive new lexemes from the existing ones, in that, English language uses only two processes: prefixation and suffixation, Hausa language makes use of three, namely: prefixation, infixation and suffixation. Prefixational derivation which is used by both languages, is largely a class-maintaining process in English language, while in Hausa language, the process is fairly class-changing. And it is a rich system in English language in the sense that it is used to derive more lexemes from the existing ones, while in Hausa language it is not. This is because it is only two instances of prefixation that are identified from all the data collected. This also affirms Abubakar's (2001) assertion where he states that Hausa language makes use of only two derivational prefixes. Also, Maikiyari (2015) in his study identifies only two derivational prefixes in Kanuri language. This points to the fact that there is a significant similarity between Hausa and Kanuri languages in terms of their prefixational derivation. Infixation as a derivational process is found only in Hausa language but non-existent in the other. Suffixation which exists in both English and Hausa languages is found to be predominantly class-changing in English language, but substantially class-maintaining in Hausa language. However, the process is rich in both languages. Again, in his study,

Maikiyari (2015) mentions that suffixation is a rich system in Kanuri language. Similarly, Celestine (2016) in his contrastive study of English morpheme and Igbo morpheme makes the same statement, where he says there are many derivational suffixes in both Igbo and English languages. Therefore, this can be an indication that there is a significant similarity across a substantial number of languages of the world in terms of their suffixational derivation irrespective of their linguistic family or origin. Therefore, this also further proves the existence of Universal Grammar (UG) as propounded by Chomsky (1965). With this, the second and third research questions: “What are the areas of similarities and differences in English and Hausa derivational morphology?” are answered.

It is clear from the analysis made so far that all the derivational strategies identified in both English and Hausa languages affect lexemes in a number of ways. Some lexemes are affected on their grammatical classes, while others on their meanings. Those that are affected on their grammatical classes are made to belong to different lexical classes from their bases, while those affected on their meanings, take different meanings from the meanings of their bases. This further points to the significant effect that the derivation is said to have on the lexeme in the derivational process.

#### **4.7 Findings**

This study, with the aim of finding out at what level, with regard to the derivational morphology, English and Hausa languages differ, and at what level they are similar, discovers the followings:

1. 75.9% of English derivational suffixes are class changing formatives, while 60% of those of Hausa are class maintaining.

2. In both English and Hausa languages, suffixation is a rich system because it is used by the two languages more than any other derivational process to derive new lexemes from the existing ones.
3. 88% of English derivational prefixes are class maintaining, while 50% of those of Hausa are class changing.
4. prefixational process is a rich system in English language in the sense that it is used to derive more lexemes from the existing ones, but in Hausa language it is not.
5. Nouns derived from other word classes are the most common derivatives in both English and Hausa derivational morphologies.
6. Infixation as a derivational process is least used by Hausa language, while English language does not make use of the process.
7. 40% of Hausa derivational suffixes are gender transformation devices, that is, they are used to transform masculine gender into feminine, while those of English are not out rightly used for that purpose.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

#### 5.1 Introduction

This chapter provides the summary of the entire dissertation and presents the conclusion drawn from the findings of the study. It ends with the areas of further studies.

#### 5.2 Summary

This study compares and analyses the derivational morphology of English language and Hausa language. It specifically investigates the similarities and differences of the two languages derivational systems. Some of the major concepts and the studies previously conducted in the field of morphology are reviewed. The study adopts Lado (1956) Contrastive Analysis Theory as the theoretical framework. The adoption of this theory is because of its relevance to the topic. The methodology adopted by the study is content analysis. And the data for the study are sourced from The Daily Trust and The Vanguard as well as Aminiya and Leadership A Yau Newspapers. The sampling technique used in generating the data from the above mentioned newspapers is purposive sampling. Through this sampling method (i.e. purposive sampling), all the available derivations of the two languages in the papers are identified and analysed, and the findings are compared and contrasted. The findings reveal that both English and Hausa languages use formation in their derivational morphology, but slightly differ in the sub-processes. While English uses only prefixation and suffixation, Hausa language makes use of prefixation, infixation and suffixation. Furthermore, in these minor processes, the two languages are similar in some ways but differ in some others. While suffixation is the richest derivational process in both

English and Hausa, prefixation happens to be a rich system only in English language. Again, while the former is largely class-changing in English language, in Hausa language it is substantially class-maintaining.

### **5.3 Conclusion**

From the findings of the study, it is obvious that English language and Hausa language differ considerably in how their minor processes of derivation operate. However, there is a significant similarity between the major derivational systems of the two languages. Therefore, it can be concluded that English language and Hausa language are similar more than how they are different. Therefore, based on this, the dissertation concludes that having come from the same or different language family is not a determining factor of having significant similarity or otherwise between two or more languages, evident from the findings of the present study where it is seen that English and Hausa languages share a lot of similarities more than differences, despite the fact that the two languages come from two different language families. The latter emanates from chadic language family, while the former from indo-European family of languages.

#### **5.4 Areas of Further Researches**

This study investigates the similarities and differences of the derivational morphology of the two languages that are from different language families. Further researches can be carried out by comparing the inflectional systems of the two languages, or their compounding morphology to further provide more insight into their cross-linguistic similarities and differences.

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