ASPECTS OF KÓRÒ WORD FORMATION PROCESSES

BY

UWUMAROGIE PETER
NSU/ART/MA/LNG/018/14/15

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF POSTGRADUATE STUDIES, NASARAWA STATE UNIVERSITY KEFFI, IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS (LINGUISTICS)

IN

DEPARTMENT OF LANGUAGES AND LINGUISTICS,

FACULTY OF ARTS,

NASARAWA STATE UNIVERSITY, KEFFI
NIGERIA

MARCH, 2019

DECLARATION

I, hereby declare that this dissertation has been written by me and it is my research work. It has not been presented for any other degree of this or any other University. All sources cited in the work were acknowledged by means of proper referencing.

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UWUMAROGIE PETER
 NSU/ART/MA/LNG/018/14/15   **Date**

CERTIFICATION

The dissertation "Aspects of Kόrὸ Word Formation Processes" meets the regulations governing the award of Master (M.A.) degree in Linguistics of the school of the school of postgraduate Studies, Nasarawa State University, Keffi and is approved for its contribution to knowledge.

_____   _____

Prof. P.N. Anagbogu
Supervisor   **Date**

_____   _____

Dr. Yakubu J. Umaru   **Date**

Member, Supervisory Committee

_____   _____

Dr. Philip Imoh M.
Head of Department   **Date**

_____   _____

Prof. Oyebade F. O
Internal Examiner   **Date**

_____   _____

Prof. Alagbe Adewole
Dean, Faculty of Art   **Date**

_____   _____

Prof. M.C. Onukawa
External Examiner   **Date**

_____   _____

Prof. Olayemi Akinwumi
Dean, Postgraduate School   **Date**

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to God Almighty and my awesome family; the Uwumarogies.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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Abstract

This dissertation investigates the concept, structure and formation of the Koro (Migili) words. The analysis is based on the interview from Koro (Migili) speakers, wordlist and checklist of the Koro (Migili) language which were analysed using the descriptive method of analysis. The dearth of research on the morphology of Koro (Migili) triggered a research of this sort in view of the relevance of word formation to syntax and the development of the orthography of any language. The study first examines the concept of Koro (Migili) words, their structure and classifications. The analysis of the data identifies compounding, reduplication, prefixation, clipping, nominalisation and borrowing as productive morphological processes in Koro (Migili). The analysis of the collected data shows that prefixation plays both inflectional and derivational roles. Based on the analysed data, Koro (Migili) derivational prefixes in Koro (Migili) are **í, mú, nyí-, nyɛ-** and **mù-** and four of them are nominalising prefixes: **í-, mú-, nyɛ-** and **mù-**. The analysis of the data proves that **n-** is not a plural prefix and also disclaimed previous claims that **nyí -** and **í-** only play inflectional roles in Koro (Migili). The analysis of the data also shows the extent to which Koro (Migili) language has borrowed from the English language and how the loanwords undergo phonological changes in the course of adaptation into Koro (Migili). This study has addressed the foundational levels of the morphology of Koro (Migili) by exposing some of the morphological patterns of Koro (Migili) and laying the ground for the study of syntax of Koro (Migili) which scholars and students of Koro (Migili) will find very useful for scholarly and pedagogical purposes.

CHAPTER ONE
GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.1   Background to the Study

Word (Òka in Koro: Migili) with its formation is an important part of the grammar of any language. Little wonder volumes of literature on *word* and its formation have been given rigorous studies over the years as is evident in Nida (1949), Worth (1972), Matthews (1974), Aronoff (1976), Anagbogu (1990), Anagbogu, Eme and Mbah (2010) and Omachonu (2011). The concept 'word' is as important as that of the sentence if not more since morphology provides the basis for the study of syntax. In view of this importance, Booij (2005) asserts that there are two kinds of grammar: the grammar of words and that of sentence. Booij's explanation on the kinds of grammar shows that the grammar of words provides the fundamental blocks for the grammar of sentence as no sentence is formed if the words are not there. Booij (2005) gives two basic functions of morphological operations as: the creation of new words (lexemes) and spelling out the appropriate form of a lexeme in a particular syntactic context. Anagbogu (2011), Madondo (2001) describe the first function as those of derivation and the second, inflectional morphology. There can be no form of lexeme if there is no lexeme, hence the word 'taxation' will not be without the lexeme 'tax'; so also in Yoruba ràá 'buy it' will not exist without the lexeme rà 'to buy'. O'Grady, Archibald and Katamba (2011) claim that 'nothing is more important to language than words'. Sentences are made up as needed and then discarded but words are permanently stored in a speaker's mental dictionary or lexicon. This lends credence to the importance of words to language and linguistics generally.

In contemporary linguistic researches, a lot has been done on *word* and its formation in languages like English, Yoruba, Igbo, and Hausa. However, there are languages which are yet to get such attention and Koro (Migili) happens to be one. With the knowledge that the morphological studies in the aforementioned languages cannot be taken as they are and be implemented successfully in Koro (Migili) since these languages are totally different, there is the need for a study of this nature on word formation in Koro (Migili). However, this is not to say that there are no existing literatures on the morphology of Koro (Migili). Past researches (Agwadu and Agwadu 2012, Igube 2013 and Oyesunkanmi 2011) paid more attention to morphological

processes without detailed examples in the language. Even though this study is not a comparative one, it is necessary to carry out a comprehensive analysis of the morphology of Koro (Migili) to Yoruba, Hausa or Igbo prototype so as to provide a foundation for other morphological discussions and studies and to expose some of the morphological patterns of Koro (Migili).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

To the best of my knowledge, the study of morphology has not been given the attention it deserves in Koro (Migili), yet such attention is central as it will expose many aspects of the language. Though attempts have been made in Agwadu and Agwadu (2012), Igube (2013) and Oyesunkanmi (2011); however, these attempts have not given detailed and comprehensive analysis of the morphology of the language. The lack of thorough studies in this field has necessitated a study of this type to provide a comprehensive account of the grammar of Koro (Migili) word formation with a view to laying a foundation for further discussions and studies on word formation, inflection and ultimately syntax.

1.3 Research Objectives

The general aim of this study is to investigate the morphological aspect of Koro (Migili) but specifically the study shall examine:

1   The word classes of Koro (Migili).
2   The identification of a word in Koro (Migili).
3   The morphological processes in Koro (Migili) with specific reference to affixation, compounding, pluralization, reduplication, nominalisation and borrowing.
4   Pronominal system in Koro (Migili).
5   The adaptation of loan words into Koro (Migili).

1.4 Research Questions

The study seeks to answer the following questions:

1   What are the word classes of Koro (Migili)?
2   How is a word identified in Koro (Migili)?
3   What are the morphological processes in Koro (Migili)?
4   What are the person forms (pronominal system) in Koro (Migili)?
5   How are loan words domesticated phonologically in Koro (Migili)?

1.5   Scope of the Study

There are different aspects of the grammar of words in any language: structure, meaning and even the formation of words. This present study is aimed at presenting the linguistic entity of the Koro (Migili) word, its classes, criteria for classification and its formation. The morphological processes of affixation, compounding, pluralization, reduplication, nominalisation and borrowing shall be investigated. The role of phonology vis-à-vis the morphological processes under investigation shall be explained also.

1.6   Significance of the Study

Few researches have been carried out on the morphology of Koro (Migili) at the undergraduate level. Available record through book consultation and interview reveals that nothing has been done on the morphology of Koro (Migili) in a more comprehensive manner. This is a first of its kind as previous researches fail to investigate the concept of word (Òka in Koro: Migili), its identification and classification as well as give a comprehensive study of the word formation processes in Koro: (Migili). Since this research is the first of its kind in the Koro (Migili) linguistic literature, it will serve as a worthy contribution to Koro (Migili) and universal linguistics.

The study will be of great importance to language experts, up-coming linguists, lexicographers, curriculum planners, adult literacy classes as well as linguists who may want to study the language and use it for empirical study.

1.7   A Brief History of the Migili People and the Language

Oyesunkanmi's (2011) interview with the town chief (ZHE Migili) who is the traditional ruler and an autocrat reveals that the Migili tribe has a long history which dates back to the old Kwararafa kingdom in Taraba State. The Kwararafa kingdom comprised different ethnic groups such as Eggon, Alago, Idoma, and the Goemai. Each tribe took turns in occupying leadership positions of the kingdom and an heir was selected from the royal home of each ethnic group. But things changed when it was time for Akuka, a Migili descendant who was next in line, to ascend the throne. Akuka was plotted against hence he could not become the next leader. This sparked off negative reactions from the Migili people as well as some other tribes who viewed

such an action as unjust, because they felt they were deprived because of their small population. Together with all members of the tribe, Akuka moved down to a place called Ukari where they settled down for a while and later moved to Agyaragu in Lafia, Nasarawa State where they reside presently. The language is referred to as Koro or Jijili (Blench 2006) while the people are called Migili (Agwadu and Agwadu 2012).Today, the Migili people are known as settlers in Obi, Agyaragu and Lafia local government areas of Nasarawa State, Nigeria. Agwadu and Agwadu (2012) establish that Koro (Migili) is spoken in the southern part of Nasarawa state and the people are bounded by Alago, Eggon, Tiv, Gwandara, Kamberi and Akye. They can still be found in other places such as Zuba and Minna (Niger state), Abuja (F.C.T) and Kubacha in Kaduna.

However, Blench (2014) contradicts the above claim. According to him, many Koro claim they originated in the Borno area. Some say they were living in Kano under Hausa rulership. But the Hausa could not really control them, so they asked the Kanuri to help them against the Koro. In this way, the Koro were driven away from Kano, and as they escaped, some went towards Lafia (Plateau State), some to Kubacha (Kaduna State) and others went to the Suleja and Kafin-Koro areas (Niger state).

Genetically, Koro (Migili) has been classified as belonging to the Benue-Congo subgroup; Platoid branch; Plateau Southern cluster (Blench 2006). Phonologically, the language is a tonal language; several Koro (Migili) words have more than one meaning. In speech making, the tone determines what a speaker implies, and in writing, diacritic determines the meaning of the message. The language is specifically a register tone language with high, mid and low tones. Tone in this language plays both lexical and grammatical functions. Oyesunkanmi (2011) asserts that the language has twenty nine (29) consonants and 14 vowels which comprise seven (7) oral vowels and seven (7) nasal vowels. Co-articulated sounds such as /kp/, /gb/, /gw/, /kw/, /ky/, /ŋm/ characterise the language. Syllabically, the language permits CV, CVV, CVC, CCV, and CCVV syllable structures (with the structure CVC on rare instances).

The symbols employed for the vowels and consonants of Koro (Migili) are as follows:

Orthography	Phonetic sound	Gloss
i	[íme]	'back'
e	[ríje]	'food'
ɛ	[kíjɛ]	'thigh'
a	[kíta]	'skin'
o	[ɔ̀kpa]	'spear (war)'
u	[gùfe]	'bag'
ọ	[ńzɔ]	'smoke'

Nasal vowels

ĩ	[ńtrĩ]	'yam'
ẽ	[íbẽ]	'arrow'
ɛ̃	[ńcɛ̃]	'saliva'
ã	[mbã]	'knife'
ɔ̃	[ńzɔ̃]	'tobacco'
õ	[ńsõ]	'ashes'
ũ	[kũkũ]	'bend down'

Consonants

p	[rúplɛ]	'penis'
b	[rúblí]	'body'
t	[múta]	'seven'
d	[ǹda]	'father'
c	[kúʧɔ]	'head'
j	[ógbújá]	'chin'

k	[kíyɛ]	'heart'
kp	[lúkpɛ]	'belly (external)'
gb	[kúgbɛ]	'neck'
kw	[kwɛɛ]	'small'
gw	[gwagwá]	'duck'
ky	[kyari]	'masculine name'
m	[ímrù]	'bread'
ngm	[ŋmɛŋmɛ]	'light food'
n	[ńvã̀]	'pepper'
ny	[ńɲi]	'mouth'
r	[kítrɛ̀]	'leg'
f	[ìfɔ]	'axe'
v	[òva]	'dog'
s	[músú]	'cat'
z	[zánc]	'donkey'
sh	[ʃúʃɔ]	'sleep'
zh	[ʒɛ]	'chief'
h	[ɛhɛ]	'satisfaction'
ts	[tsa]	'give birth'
dz	[dzá]	'child'
y	[íyɛ]	'mosquito'
w	[múwa]	'snake'
l	[kólí]	'snail'

Koro (Migili) operates three tones: the high (´), low tone (`) and a mid tone (¯) which is usually unmarked. These tones occur in all distributions in the language. The importance of this is to give the research work a phonological basis upon which the morphology of the Koro (Migili) language builds.

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Structurally, the language attests the following sentence patterns: SV, SVO, SVOO, SVC and SVOC. It is important to note that, just as it obtains in many languages of the world, the SVO is the basic sentence structure in Koro Migili.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0   Preamble

This chapter discusses the literature related to the study. The chapter is split into 2 subsections. The first discusses the concepts that are related to this study.

The second subsection discusses the previous studies related to this study with a view to putting the present study in its right perspective.

2.1   Conceptual Review

Since morphology focuses on word formation in present-day languages and their morphological properties, the concepts that shall be discussed here are those that will help to explain word formation; as such, this section presents a number of reviews on the concept of Morphology.

2.1.1   Morphology

Lyons (1968:195) asserts that the term *morphology* appears to have been invented by Goethe and to have been first applied, in Biology, to the study of the *form* of living organisms.

Matthews (1974:1) defines Morphology as "the study of the forms in different uses and construction". By this, it means morphology concerns itself with the study of forms. However, the specific form types studied, whether Phonic, lexical or post lexical, are not specified by Matthews' definition. Aronoff's (1976) view that morphology, which is a small subsystem of the entire system of a language can analytically account for internal structure of words using a unified theory gives credence to the fact that morphology is a full-fledged branch of linguistics. As a subsystem and a sub-theory, morphology may have its own peculiarities; a system can be unified without being completely uniform. However, it does not exist in vacuum. This means that morphology as an independent branch cannot function in isolation as its primary role of word formation is not its exclusive reserve. As a subsystem, morphology must interact with other subsystems: phonology, syntax and semantics for the system of language to exist. To justify this claim, Aronoff (1976) asserts that

to say that morphology is word structure is not to say that all of the structure of the word is encompassed in the domain of morphology.

Anagbogu (1990) seems to proffer a more specific explanation to what form, morphology actually studies. Anagbogu (1990:4) defines Morphology as ″the study of morphemes which combine to form words″. From this definition, it means morphology as a branch of Linguistics, studies morphemic forms and not just any form as well as how these morphemic forms are combined to form lexical forms which can be studied independently of their functions in sentential construction. Agbedo (2000) sees morphology from the etymological point of view as ′the study of *forms* that is the internal structure of words′. This implies that morphology as an independent branch of Linguistics can be studied without making reference to Syntax. Similarly, Anagbogu, Mbah and Eme (2010) view morphology as ″the level of grammar that studies the way morphemes organize themselves to form words″. Aronoff and Fudeman (2011) define Morphology as ″the mental system involved in word formation, or the branch of Linguistics that deals with words, their internal structure and how they are formed″.

From these definitions, it is evident that words have internal structures and these structures are the morphemes that Anagbogu, Mbah and Eme recognize as the building blocks for words. In view of the consistency of this concept in the different definitions x-rayed above, an attempt shall be made to mirror what a morpheme is in the next section.

2.1.2 Morpheme

Lyons (1968:81) defines morphemes ″as the minimal unit of grammatical analysis, the units of lowest rank, out of which words, units of higher ranks are composed″Okolo and Ezikeojiaku (1991:130) define Morpheme as ″a minimal distinctive unit of meaning in grammar″.. Also, Oyebade (1992:82) defines the morphemes as the ″minimal meaningful unit of grammatical analysis, which may constitute a word or part of a word″. In a similar vein, Anagbogu (2010) defines it as ″the smallest indivisible meaningful form which has a specific grammatical function″. These definitions clearly view Morpheme as a ″Morphological Unit″. Also, the definitions see the term as a unit that is minimal (smallest) irrespective of their

types, which must express a distinct grammatical meaning. However, the issue of meaningfulness being attached to morphemes has been a subject of contention amongst some scholars. For instance, defining morpheme as ″a minimal meaningful unit″ has been perceived to mean that every morpheme has a readily identifiable meaning. Katamba (1993:23) provides examples to demonstrate that morphemes cannot always be assigned a consistent meaning, He shows that ″-fer″ in words like ″prefer″ ″confer″ ″transfer″ and ″refer″ does not have a consistent meaning. This scholarly argument according to Anagbogu (2010) led Linguists like Aronoff (1976:8-10) to claim that it is the word that must be meaningful and that meaningfulness should be optional criterion in the definition of the morpheme. Yusuf (2007:79) sees words as independent grammatical units that can stand on their own whether in morphology or syntax. However, there are certain morphological units that cannot stand on their own. Tomori (1977:25) sees the morpheme as ′the smallest (or indivisible) unit of language that has semantic or grammatical meanings ′. This implies that there are morphemes that are explicitly meaningful while some are only grammatical. These morphemes can be referred to as free morphemes because they are words on their own due to their inherent-meaning attribute. For example, ′àmùna′ in Koro (Migili) is ′cows′ but ′na′ which means ′cow′ is explicitly meaningful because it has inherent meaning of its own and can be referred to as a free morpheme while ′àmù′ is not because it is serving as a plural morpheme ′s′(grammatical).

A few authors have seen the need to define ″Morpheme″ differently from a ″word″. Haspelmath and Sims (2010:3)′s definition of morphology as ″the study of the combination of morphemes to yield words″ is somewhat a distinction between a word and morpheme. The definition implies that morphemes are the building blocks of words as such, without morphemes, words cannot exist. Having explained the distinction between a word and a morpheme, it is however pertinent to note that words may or may not be morphemes. This means that a morpheme may be a word (free morpheme) or not (bound morpheme).

This drives home the fact that morphemes are of two kinds: Bound and Free.

2.1.2.1 Types of Morpheme

There are generally two types of morphemes: free and bound morphemes. A free morpheme according to Anagbogu (2011:104) is one that can stand on its own in an utterance usually a full word such as "goat" "table", "fan" whereas a bound morpheme is one that cannot stand alone in an utterance. For example "in", "un-"and "-ly" are bound morphemes in English. They are forms which may possess meanings but which crucially have grammatical functions in the grammar. For instance "-ly" when attached to "Urgent" adverbalizes the free morpheme in question.

Some authors most often refer to bound morphemes as morphs and free morphemes as words (Anagbogu 2011). It is also noteworthy to know that not all words are formed from morphs but it is provable that morphs bring an additional grammatical meaning to the root word they are added to.

Anagbogu (2011: 106) sees bound morphemes as morphological units that are classified as Prefix, Suffix, Infix, Circumfix and Interfix. Having explained the different types of bound morphemes, an attempt shall be made to expound all the listed classification of bound morphemes under affixation which shall be discussed later in the course of this chapter. Unlike the bound, free morphemes are called lexical morphemes probably because they have inherent or intrinsic meanings being words belonging to major lexical categories such as noun, verb, adjective and adverb. Anagbogu (2011) asserts that there is another class of free morphemes that are called functional morphemes. Examples are such words as 'because', 'on', 'near ', indeed all such words which appear to belong to minor lexical categories such as pronoun, conjunction, preposition. Because functional morphemes are often generally seen as being stagnant, that is, they hardly ever increase in number in any given language hence they are referred to as a "closed class".

Of all the definitions of morphology discussed earlier as x-rayed by different Scholars that of Anagbogu (1990:4) highly satisfies the context within which this study is based. My preference for Anagbogu's definition of morphology as explained earlier rests solely on the fact that Anagbogu (1990) sees morphology as a field that does not study any form but morphemes and how they are combined to form words.

2.1.3   Allomorph

As one discusses the concept "Allomorph" there is a constant possibility to run across the term "Morph". The term 'morph' is sometimes used to refer specifically to the phonological realization of a morpheme (Aronoff and Fudeman 2011). Anagbogu (2011) sees a morph as "a physical form representing some morpheme in a language". For example, in the word 'gained', the '-ed' is a physical form representing the past tense morpheme. Similarly, the past tense marker in English '-ed' which can be realized as [t], [d], and [id] depending on the environments that condition them, are various morphs. This is not to say that morphs are allomorphs. All those morphs identified above are the allomorphs or variants representing the past tense morpheme in English. This fact has been diagrammatically explained below as thus:

Morpheme

Past Tense Marker

Allomorph	Allomorph	Allomorph
Morph	Morph	Morph
↓	↓	↓
/t/	/d/	/id/
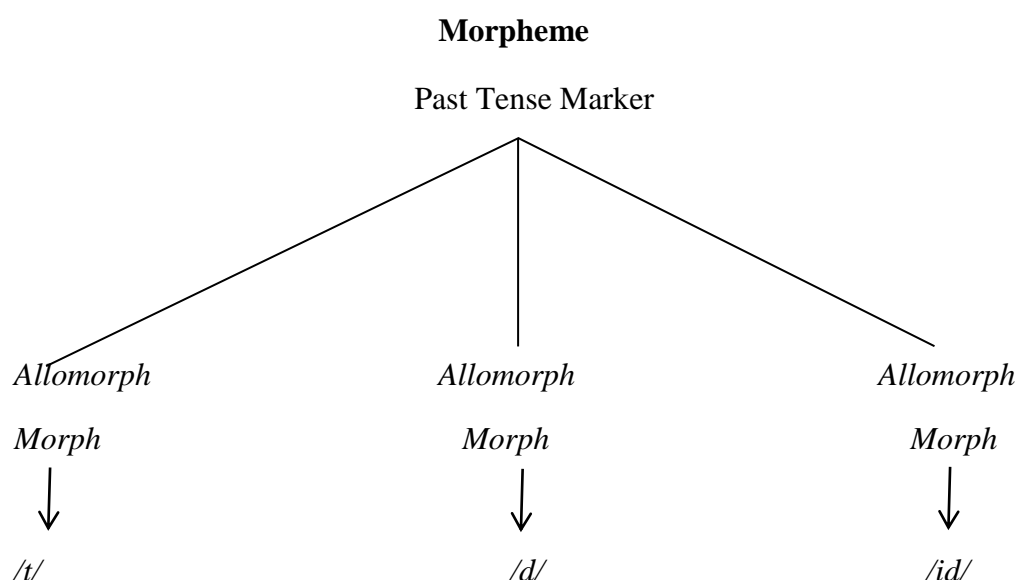
Fig.2.1 The allomorphs of the English past tense marker

(Anagbogu 2011)

From this above, the set of morphs can be classified as allomorphs because although, they share the same meaning, they never occur in identical contexts. They are therefore said to be in complementary distribution. For example, the final phoneme of "chalk" is a voiceless velar plosive. This causes the bound morpheme "s" to be realized as a Voiceless alveolar fricative /s/. "Stone" has an aveolar nasal as the final sound and the voicing effect affects the morph which becomes voiced /z/. In "Church" the final sound is an affricate and it selects the /iz/ morph to form its plural "Churches" (Anagbogu, 2011). In all cases, these contexts vary thereby modifying the

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forms of the various allomorphs of the noun, plural morpheme. The illustration above shows the fact that if a morpheme has various allomorphs, the choice of allomorphs used in a given context is normally phonologically conditioned. This means the allomorph selected to represent a morpheme in a given context must share some phonological property with a neighbouring allomorph of some other morpheme.

McGregor (2009) asserts that there are three conditioning factors of allomorph. Conditioning factors are the factors that determine which allomorph of a morpheme you use. These factors are:

- Phonological
- Lexical
- Morphological

In phonological conditioning, the selection of the allomorphs to be used will be determined by phonological environment. For instance, the choice between 'a' and 'an' of the English indefinite article is phonologically conditioned by the following phoneme, whether it is a vowel or consonant. Similarly, the three allomorphs /s/˜/z/˜ /əz/ are also phonologically conditioned, though in this instance by the preceding phoneme. When a morpheme has various forms (being phonologically conditioned), there is always a basic form, called the *principal form*, or *archimorpheme*. This basic form is the prototypical, from which others are derived. The form that has the widest scope, that is, the one that is found in more environments than others is the *archimorpheme* (Iloene 2007:189). Phonological features are used to account for allomorphs in phonological conditioning. These features could be vowel harmony (+ATR/ -ATR). Another of this feature that accounts for allomorphy is the *place/point of articulation*. For example in Igbo the nasal prefixes used in the formation of instrumental nouns belong to one and the same morpheme.

INSTRUMENTAL NOUN MORPHEME

MORPH　　　　　*MORPH*　　　　　*MORPH*

[m-]　　　　　　[ŋ-]　　　　　　[n-]
before labilal　　**before velar**　　**before other**
consonants　　　**consonants**　　　**consonants**
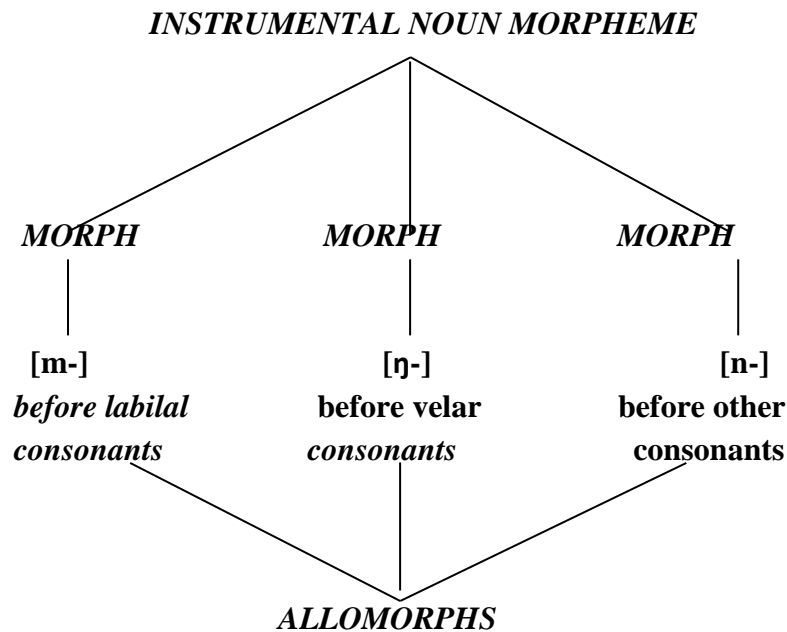
ALLOMORPHS

Fig.2.2a The allomorphs of the Igbo nasal morph

According to Iloene (2007:187) the different orthographic forms (n-, m-) have three phonetic realizations and are determined by the place of articulation of the consonant sound next to it: [m-] before labial sounds [ŋ-] before velar sounds, and [n-] in all other places. This is known as *homorganic nasal assimilation.* But the figure 2.2a presented above does not show in proper term the relationship between the morph and its allomorphs. The figure 2.2a above could be misleading because there should be one morph but many allomorphs. In other words, the relationship of morph to the representation should be one-to-many while that of the allomorph should be many-to-one; to have the figure 2.2b below

INSTRUMENTAL NOUN MORPHEME

MORPH

[m-]　　　　　　[ŋ-]　　　　　　[n-]

ALLOMORPH　　**ALLOMORPH**　　**ALLOMORPH**
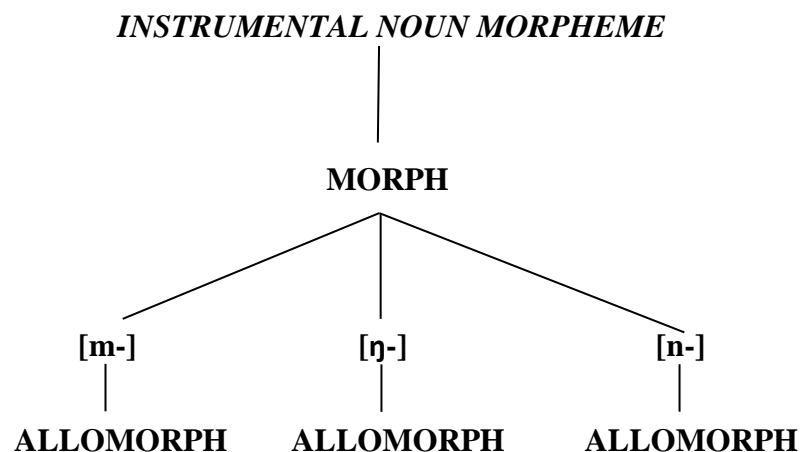
Fig.2.2b The allomorphs of the Igbo nasal morp

The third possibility is the morphological conditioning. Here, the presence of the allomorph is conditioned by the grammatical rather than lexical morphemes.

2.1.4   Notion of the Word

O'Grady, Archibald and Katamba (2011), state that nothing is more important to language than words. Explaining further, O'Grady, Archibald and Katamba (2011) assert that unlike phonemes and syllables, which are simply elements of sounds, words carry meaning; unlike sentences, which are made up as needed and then discarded, words are permanently stored in a speaker's mental dictionary or lexicon. The above lends credence to the fact that the concept of word is somewhat constant in that a book could be used to document the number of words in a particular language (dictionary). In fact, in some languages today, language scholars are able to give the inventory of words that exist in the language. For instance, the Oxford English Dictionary (20 volumes) which attempts to record all known uses and variants of a word in all varieties of English, worldwide, past and present has given a total of 616,500 word form, however admitting that no dictionary can ever be up to date because new words and new uses of old words are being added to the language all the time.

In the light of the above, what is a word? The definition of the notion *word* has long concerned students of language. Aronoff (1976) opines that the definition of the *word* has been a long-standing problem in linguistics and that entire volumes have been devoted to the subject as evident in Worth (1972). Despite the popularity of this concept in the study and analysis of language, linguists are yet to come up with a satisfactory definition of the word (Aronoff and Fudeman, 2005). In an attempt to proffer solution to the age-long problem of defining word, Aronoff and Fudeman (2005) give two types of words: phonological and grammatical/morphosyntactic.

Aronoff and Fudeman (2005) define a phonological word as a string of sounds that behave as a unit for certain kinds of phonological processes, especially stress or accent. From the above, a word can be defined from the phonological point of view, as the carrier of stress or accent, hence, any word that is defined without reference to these two concepts is not a word at least from the phonological view point. This definition of a word according to Aronoff and Fudeman (2005) makes words of tonal languages not phonologically fit enough to be referred to as words. The phonological

classification of a word by Aronoff and Fudeman (2005) has not taken into account African and some Asian languages that use tone as a suprasegmental feature. The grammatical or morphosynactic word refers to "different forms of a single word that occur depending on the syntactic context". Aronoff and Fudeman (2005:37) assert that 'rabbit' and 'rabbits are two different words when it comes to the grammatical point of view. The difference is that the first occurs in contexts appropriate for a singular noun and the second in context appropriate for a plural noun.

In another development, Alhaji (2012) gives three approaches to the definition of the word. According to Alhaji (2012:25), the first approach conceives the word to be 'a linguistic unit that has a single meaning'. This approach tends to see a word from the semantic point of view because the concept of word here is defined based on the meaning and that any linguistic unit that is called a word must not have more than one meaning. For instance, the words 'Church' and 'Soul-winning' are not different from the perspective of this approach because they both carry a single meaning irrespective of their structural differences. So the structure of a word has no relevance to the definition of the word at least from the view point of this approach. This approach to the definition of the word is not only inadequate but based on meaning. Can there be meaning without structure? Sadock (2012), using the two criteria defines the *word* in terms of allowable initial and final sequences of segments or intonational properties, the smallest elements that can be pronounced as whole utterances, and contiguous stretches of utterances with meanings that cannot be derived from shorter components. Analytically, the first approach to word definition by Alhaji (2012:25) which is carved from Palmer's (1971:4) definition of a word as 'a linguistic unit that has a single meaning' has two parts: "linguistic unit" and the "single meaning". If Palmer (1971) uses these two parts in explaining the definition of a word then Palmer's view of the notion word has been wrongly interpreted or better yet partially analyzed by Alhaji (2012).

Alhaji (2012) analyzes Palmer's (1971) definition without paying attention to the other part: Structure (linguistic unit). This means that whatever makes up a word that is, the internal structure or the arrangement of morphemes has no relevance to the definition of the word according to this approach.

Alhaji's (2012) second approach to the definition of word corresponds to that of Aronoff and Fudeman (2005). The phonetic or phonological perspective which is the second approach sees a word as that which can be recognized and 'marked off' by some features of its pronunciation (or sound) like 'stress' and 'pause'. Alhaji (2012) supports this claim with Palmer (1971:47) that 'blackbird' and 'blackboard' are single words on the basis that stress (mark) falls on only one syllable in each of the compound. This approach has not deviated from the argument of the first approach because both approaches concentrate on meaning. There are different phonological features of language but stress has been highly emphasized by Alhaji (2012) probably for the meaning aspect to be justified. Since this approach has been analyzed with meaning as sacrosanct without any reference to other phonological features like syllable which mirrors the structural composition of a word, it will not be out of place to say that meaning is the only criterion for the definition of the *word* from both approaches' perspective. From the phonological view point, the syllable should as well be used in defining a word because meanings of words do not appear abstractly without structures. To support this claim, McGregor (2009) defines words as "the minimal linguistic signs which have form and meaning that can be divided into smaller linguistic signs such as morphemes. McGregor's (2009) definition proves that structure is an important aspect in the definition of the word.

Using the meaning criterion will make 'man', 'communication' and compound words like 'blackboard', 'classroom' fall into one group: word, because they all have one meaning and that is all. However, using structure (syllable) as a criterion, 'man, communication' and blackboard' cannot be analyzed as belonging to a group because words syllabically have types. The word 'man' is mono-syllabic while the others are poly-syllabic. To the structural Linguists, the two approaches by Alhaji (2012) are highly inadequate at least from the structural view point.

The third approach looks at the word from orthographic point of view (Alhaji, 2012). Bloomfield defines the word as the 'minimum free form that can occur in isolation'. This definition sees the *word* as a linguistic unit that can occur alone with boundaries when merged with other words to form a sentence. Similarly, Palmer (1971:33) defines words (Lexical forms) as "the minimum free forms; the smallest form that occur in isolation". This definition of the lexical form as mentioned in the preceding

paragraph gives strength to the fact that words are truly independent lexical units which occur in isolation. For instance 'car', 'school' and 'agodo' (in Koro) meaning 'bed' can occur as free forms. Bloomfield's (1933) definition can as well be faulted on the basis that not all words occur by themselves in isolation as words like 'an', 'a', 'the' can't. Similarly, since the concept of "free forms" refers to a written word that is separated by space at the end of the word, then it can be concluded that Bloomfield's (1933) definition of the word conceives the word only within the purview of written language. This means that the concept 'word' only exists in written and not spoken language.

In the light of the above, some scholars have formulated ways of recognizing the word. Palmer (1971:152) proffers that the concepts 'word form' and 'lexeme' should be used to recognize the *word*. For example, 'cat' (singular) and 'cats' (plural) are different forms of the word 'CAT', hence, the former should be termed 'word form' while the latter 'lexeme' (usually in capital letters and exists in the dictionary). Also, Aronoff and Fudeman's (2005) solution to the notion of word can be used to prove the weakness of the first and second approach by Alhaji (2012) because the *word* is viewed by Aronoff and Fudeman (2005), from the structural view point that is the internal ordering of morphemes to make words. The use of morphological test which is based on the 'fixed order of elements' is another solution. The order of morphemes in a complex word like 'unbreakable' cannot be changed to 'unablebreak '; this shows that the former is a word but the latter is not (Aronoff and Fudeman 2005). Based on the above, Aronoff and Fudeman (2005) categorise the word into types: phonological, grammatical or morpho-syntactic (different forms of a single word that occur depending on the syntactic contexts), content (words that refers to objects, events and abstract concepts) (Finnegan 1994) and function (words with little or no meaning, they only play a functional role in a grammatical structure). Palmer (1971) defines words (Lexical forms) as "the minimum free forms; the smallest form that occur in isolation". This definition of the lexical form gives strength to the fact that words are truly independent lexical units which occur in isolation.

From the foregoing, the *word* can be defined as a linguistic unit that can be analyzed either phonologically or grammatically with reference to structure and meaning.

2.1.5 Word classes

Word classes which is also referred to as lexical categories or syntactic categories in the grammar of any language isthe assignment of a grammatical category to each word. Part of speech is that group to which a word belongs by virtue of its form (structure), meaning and function. Word classes could be likened to a class of expressions which share a common set of grammatical properties. This means that words that belong to the same word-class are mutually substitutable (one can replace the other in the same position in sentence) without yielding an ungrammatical sentence. If we have categories for words that appear in certain positions and categories for those that do not, we can make generalizations (scientific ones) about the behaviour of different word types. Ahmed (2012:1) asserts that "words are classified according to the jobs they perform in sentences". This definition evidences the fact that word-class is determined by the function of words in a sentence. Hence, whether a word would be a 'noun' or a 'verb' depends heavily on the function as well as position. However it should be noted that the classification of words into word classes in any language is not a water-tight condition. A word could belong to two or more groups depending on its function in a particular context. For instance the word "man" in the sentence "Osagie is a man" belongs to the part of speech called "noun" however, the same word could belong to another part of speech (verb) depending on the context in which it is used; for example "we want Moses to man the gate for us". Based on the aforementioned, it can be concluded that in classifying words into particular word classes, it is necessary to consider the contextual use of such a word and not the word in isolation.

The function of words can be used as a tool for the classification of words into word classes. Words can be classified into word classes based on the context in which they are used. This is somewhat syntactic as words would have to depend on sentential contexts for them to be classified into the groups they ought to belong. This means that the possibility of classifying words into their various word classes without subjecting them to any contexts may not be realized. The question is: does one need a context to classify a word when such word occurs as a lexical item rather than an item within a sentence? Is there no intrinsic feature that words possess that help in their classification? In an attempt to answer this question, Carnie (2007:29) asserts that the

semantic definition should not be used as a criterion for classifying words into word classes. The word classes of a word should be determined by its place in the sentence and by its morphology not by its meaning. To every native speaker of English, 'Yinkish' is an *adjective*, 'dripner' a *noun*, 'blorked' a *verb*, 'quastofically' an *adverb* and 'nindin' and 'pidibs' both *nouns* but they would be very hard pressed to tell what these words actually mean (Carnie 2007:30). If the semantic criterion is used to classify words into word classes, how then have the aforementioned been classified into the word classes they have been given? The answer is simple: The definitions for the various word classes are not semantically based. The suffix these words have taken is the major reason for the various kinds of speech group they belong. The suffixes are based on the properties that are intrinsic to certain word classes. Suffixes that show: tense, mood, number, aspect, and person would most correctly be referred to as a verb; hence any word that takes any of these would be referred to as a verb. The word "lion" by definition is a noun but if this word has suffixed to it the "-ed" (past tense marker) to get the word "lioned", it becomes a verb. To conclude this argument, I would rather say that the classification of words into their word classes based on context and position is syntactic, based on the bound morphemes (suffixes) that are added to words is morphological and based on the meaning or the definitive approach is semantics. Based on the morphological criterion, any word that ends in "ness", "ion", "er" would obviously be a noun while "ed" a verb, "ly" adverb. For the purpose of this study, the morphological criterion would be favoured.

There are eight (8) word classes in English language which can be split into open class and closed class categories. The open-class category houses*Noun, Verb, Adjective* and *Adverb* (open class because new words can be freely created in these categories). The closed-class category has *Preposition, Pronoun, Conjunction, Interjection* and *Auxiliary Verbs*.

These word classes have been succinctly discussed below with ample examples in Nigerian languages.

2.1.5.1 Noun

Awobuluyi (1978:7) asserts that "any word functioning as the subject of a verb or the object of a verb or preposition in grammatical sentence is a noun".

Examples of nouns in English language are

2a). i.teacher ii.schools iii.church iv. Peter v. Elizabeth.

Examples in Yoruba

2b) i.akin 'name of a person'ii.ìyáwo 'wife', iii. ọmọ 'a child'.

Examples in Koro (Migili)

2c).i. klìcó 'head' ii.itùmá 'vagina'.

Nouns are very common feature of languages and they are categorized into various classifications as follows. These sub-categorizations of Nouns are:

i)   **Proper Noun:** A kind of noun that refers to a specific thing.

Examples of proper nouns in Edo language include

3).i. Osagie 'name of a male child' ii.èkèhùán 'the name of a village'.

ii)   **Common Noun:** This refers to something of which there are many examples and so is very common. The following words are examples of common nouns in Hausa4). i.makaranta, 'school', ii. gida 'house'.

iii)   **Concrete Noun:** Is a kind of noun that refers to something that can be touched or felt. Examples of this noun in Yoruba are
5a) i. àpò 'bag' ii.ọwọ´ 'hand' iii. ọ̀nọ̀ 'road'. In Igala, we have
5b) i. ókó 'canoe' ii.ótákáda 'book'.

iv)   **Abstract Noun:** Refers to something that cannot be touched. It refers to a quality, concept or idea. Examples of this kind of noun in Edo language
6a).i. oyá 'suffering'ii.ohán 'fear'.
In Yoruba, we have
6b).i. ìfɛ́ 'love', ii.ọgbọ́n 'sense'. In Igala we have the following
6c).i. ùkwù 'death'
In Igbo, we have

6d)i. ijè 'journey' ii.ọmá 'good' iii. umé 'breath' iv.ìsì 'blindness'.

v) **Countable Noun:** This kind of nouns which is also called the 'count noun' is a noun that can be proceeded by 'a' and can exist in plural form. Examples of this kind of noun in Igala are

7)**i.** ọche 'soap' ii. Ólì 'tree' iii.ùnyì 'house' iv.èwó 'goat'.

vi) **Uncountable Noun:**This kind of noun cannot be counted, hence 'a' and 'an' cannot preceed this kind of nouns. Examples of this in Edo are

8)**i.**àmὲ 'water' ii. èkẽ 'sand'.

2.1.5.2 The Pronoun

A pronoun is a word used in place of noun or of more than one noun and can replace a noun phrase. This is one part of speech that is also common in most languages of the world. Examples of pronouns in Edo language:

9)i. mὲ 'me' ii. wὲ 'you' iii. mà 'we' iv.ìyán 'them'.

2.1.2.3 The Verb

A verb is an action or a doing word or a word that helps make statements. Any word functioning as predicator in a grammatical or acceptable sentence is a *verb*. Verbs are words that show the relationship between subject and object in a sentence. Examples of verbs irrespective of their sub-categories are

10a)i. kill ii.Break iii.fight.

In Idoma we have

10b)i. lólè 'to live' ii.nwokpa'teach' iii.gwe 'drink'.

2.1.5.4 The Adverb

Adverb is a word used to modify a verb, an adjective or another adverb. Adverbs qualify the meaning of the words they modify by telling how, when, where or to what extent. Examples of this in Uneme (a language spoken in Edo state) are

11)i. Ochabo 'slowly' ii.yanya 'quickly' iii. ofie 'carefully'.

2.1.5.5 The Adjective

An adjective is a category that can tell more about the noun and can be pre-modified by adverbials. An adjective is ʹused to modify a noun or pronoun. Examples of this kind of speech in Uneme are 12). nogboro ʹlongʹ ii.khùá ʹheavyʹ.

2.1.5.6 The Preposition

This part of speech shows the relationship of a noun or a pronoun to some other word in the sentence. It is usually positioned before nouns or pronouns to show place, source, direction, position and method (means).

2.1.5.7 The Conjunction

This part of speech joins words or group of words. This part of speech is often consulted when writing because it joins words or groups of word in a grammatical sentence. Examples of this part of speech in Yoruba is

13)atí ʹandʹ.

2.1.6   Branches of Morphology

Anagbogu (1990:4) gives two branches of morphology: inflectional and derivational. Inflectional morphology is also referred to as grammatical morphology(Aronoff 1976:2). This is because inflectional morphology processes do not change the word class of the base they are added to, they only bring about an additional grammatical meaning like tense and number. Derivational morphology on the other hand, is referred to as lexical morphology. This is so because derivational morphological processes cause a change of word class to the base to which they are added (Anagbogu, Mbah and Eme 2010).

Brown and Miller (1980:22) argue that inflectional morphology concerns itself with syntactic rules by which a lexeme and its associate grammatical morphemes are realized. Similarly, Anagbogu (1990:4) sees this type of morphology as a ʺPattern of Change in form undergone by words to express grammatical and syntactic relation. Examples are case, number, gender, person,tense.The inflection of nouns, pronouns and adjectives is called declension. Derivational Morphology is concerned with the rules that lead to the formation of new lexemes. Lyons (1968), Anagbogu (1990),

Matthews (1974), Aronoff and Fudeman (2011) seem to agree on a common definition for derivational morphology. According to these, derivation is a process by which lexical items are formed in the lexicon by adding affixes to roots, stems or words or by joining uninflected words.

A distinction between these two types of morphology occurs frequently in the literature on structural lingusitics (Anagbogu, 2011). Bloomfield (1935) and Nida (1949) agree to this distinction while Hockett (1958:209) dismisses this distinction. Bloomfield (1935) made two important observations in connection with the relationship between the inflectional and derivational morphology.

1. He states that derivational morphology occurs as "inner layers" while inflectional morphology is manifested as the "outer layers" of words.
2. He also observed that while inflected words cannot form the base of a new word, derived words or stems productively form bases of new lexical item. Nida (1949)'s distinction is based on productivity and change of lexical category. Nida states that derivational morphemes are more numerous in a language than infectional morphemes.

<div align="right">Anagbogu (2011:129).</div>

Inflectional morphology covers the various forms of the same word for example 'eat', 'eating', 'ate', 'eaten' are all inflected forms of the word "eat". On the otherhand, derivational morphology concerns itself with how morphemes from different bases are tailored into new words for example deriving 'farmer' from 'farm'. In line with this fact, Pirkola (2001:15) defines morphology as that branch of linguistics that is "composed of inflectional and derivational morphology". He however concluded by saying that morphological methods are used to form inflectional word forms from a lexeme. Explaining further, he claims that derivational morphology is concerned with the derivation of new words from other words using derivational affixes.

2.1.7 Word Formation Processes

Having discussed word and the classes of word, we shall attempt to explain some of the processes that are employed in the formation of words.The word with its classes that has been discussed are formed through processes that might not all be morphological. Aronoff (1976) stated that to say that morphology is concerned with

word structure/formation is not to say that all of the structures of the word are encompassed in the domain of morphology as other disciplines of grammar also play major roles. This means that phonology and even syntax play some specific roles in the word formation in languages. In view of this, an attempt shall be made to mirror some processes (phonological and morphological) that focus on the aspects of word formation with a view to showing their roles and even interraction in word formation. As such the following shall be reviewed: Assimilation, Insertion, Phonotactics, Pluralization, Affixation and Borrowing.

2.1.7.1 Assimilation

Omachonu (2011) defines Assimilation as "a process by which one sound is made similar in its place or manner of articulation to a neighbouring sound or segment through contextual conditioning as such segments are known to adapt to their environments. He explained further by saying that the segments of the various morphemes or words may influence each other in different ways. In other words, when two contiguous segments or sound units which have different modes of articulation (production) become identical in parts or all of the features of their production, assimilation has taken place. In another development, Clark, Yallop and Fletcher (2007) see assimilation as instances of overlap which happen to generate a change from one common sound to another (as when the alveolar /n/ of unkind becomes velar /ŋ/ before a velar plosive in unkind or ungainly). Urua (2007) defines assimilation as " a situation where one sound becomes identical to another because of the influence of another neighbouring sound''.

From these definitions, it is clear that assimilation takes place only by the environmental influence of one sound on another. However, Clark, Yallop and Fletcher as well as Urua's definition of assimilation did not give the direction of the influence as did Omachonu (2011). Secondly, both definitions seem to view assimilation as a simplification of pronounciation with a view to making it easier and or pleasing to the ear. This unifying view was also expressed by Oyebade (1998). Oyebade (1998) views all phonological processes as a fall out of the need by languages to maintain its euphony or rectify violations of well-formedness constraints in speech production.

In order to explain better the claim by Omachonu (2011) that assimilation can take place from different ways within various morphemes or words, Oyebade (1998) and Yusuf (2007) respectively give two directions of influence (assimilation) as progressive (anticipatory) or regressive (perseverative). In progressive assimilation, the influence is anticipatory as it spreads from the first to the second segments whereas in regressive, the direction of influence flows in the reverse order, that is, its spread from the second to the first segment instead (Omachonu, 2010). Omachonu's use of segment concurs with Oyebade (1998) and Urua's (2007) view that assimilation could affect both vowel and consonant.

2.1.7.2   Insertion

This is a phonological process that involves the addition of a vowel segment with a view to obeying the phonotactic constraint of the language. Languages use this phonological process to mostly align borrowed words so as to make such words adapt well into the morphological bank of the language.

Oyebade (1998) defines insertion as "a phonological process whereby an extraneous element not present originally is introduced into the utterance usually to break up unwanted sequences. This process is mostly employed by languages especially when borrowed words are made to fit into the language. Although, Oyebade made mention of extraneous element which could be a consonant or a vowel, he however furthers by saying that consonant insertion is not common in languages but vowel insertion is a common occurrence.

Oyebade notes that the major function of the process is to break up unwanted sequences as illustrated by Oyebade (1998:67)

ENGLISH

15)

i. Lu:t-id   'looted'

ii.Bɔ:d-id   'boarded'

iii.Lɑ�жud-id   'loaded'

iv.Sɔlt-id   'salted'

In English, the past tense suffix is represented by the single consonants –t/-d. From the above data, it is evident that the introduction of the consonant suffix will produce

a cluster of identical alveolar stops. This is apparently unacceptable in English, hence, the insertion of a high front vowel to break the cluster.

Oyebade (1998:67) and Omachonu (2011) respectively view this process as a very common phenomenon in the loan-word phonology of many African languages as the following examples from Yoruba illustrates:

16)

i. Bred   -   buredi   'bread'

ii. Sleit   -   sileeti   'slate'

iii. Breik   -   bureeki   'brake'

iv. Belt   -   beliiti   'belt'

In the above data from Yoruba, Oyebade (1998) clarifies that the u- epenthetic vowel is sometimes used to break English clusters that do not exist in Yoruba in agreement with the phonotactics of Yoruba.

Omachonu (2011), however notes that insertion which is also referred to as epenthesis can be captured using phonological rule:

$$\emptyset \longrightarrow \text{[i]/ [c]} - \text{[c]}$$

To conclude, it is however important to note that the aim of insertion is not to break up clusters only but also to close a syllable to ensure that a closed syllable does not end a word (Oyebade 1998).

2.1.7.4 Deletion

This is a process whereby sounds are deleted in fast speech. However, Omachonu (2011) defines it as "a process where sound segments get deleted in normal speech. Omachonu's choice word of segment is an indication of the fact that both consonant and vowels undergo this process. Oyebade (1998) defines deletion as "a common process in language which involves the loss of a segment under some language specifically imposed conditions". Where the lost or deleted segment is a vowel; the process is preferably called an elision (Vowel elision) (Omachonu, 2011).

However, for Roach (2000) elision or deletion is described technically as an instance where a phoneme in certain circumstance may be realized as Zero which is typical of rapid and/or casual speech. This is a process employed by languages to shape borrowed words especially from English to indigenous languages. Most of the indigenous languages like Yoruba, Igbo, Hausa, Edo run a CV structure without diphthongs, hence, any borrowed words from the English language with diphthongs will have the vowels replaced or one of the two glides deleted.

Having x-rayed some of the phonological processes that are involved in interraction with morphology vis-à-vis word formation and inflection, the study shall now review some of the morphological processes that are relevant to this present study. Some of these processes are Borrowing, Pluralization, Affixation and Compounding.

2.1.7.5 Borrowing

According to Al–Qinai (2000), linguists working on loan-words (borrowing) opine that "a pure language is a poor language". This lends credence to the fact that all languages borrow and no language is entirely self-sufficient when it comes to the words used by such language. The concept of borrowing rests on language contact.

Gleason (1961) defines borrowing as "the copying of linguistic items from one speaker of another speech form". Hartmann and Stork (1972) define the term as the "introduction into a language, elements from another language or dialect by contact or imitation". Similarly, Howard and De Amvela (2000) see the same concept as "when speakers imitate a word from a foreign language and at least, partly, adapt it in sound or grammars to their native language"

These definitions point to the fact that the concept of borrowing is tied to a transfer of foreign words from a particular linguistic community to another through contact. From these, definitions, it is however true that Gleason and Hartmann and Stark see borrowing as just receiving foreign words into another language; they did not tell if these foreign words undergo some modifications to be able to fit into the language (native). In view of this, the study deems Howard and De Amvela's (2000) definition suitable for being explicit about the foreign words. Gleason (1961) and Hartmann and Stork's (1972) definitions make borrowing seem like using a foreign word in a native language without

any modification. All languages have their own rules and systematic way of patterning the words that exist in their own language. Howard and De Amvela's use of term "adapt" proves that foreign words would have to be tailored into the native language so they could exist and these modifications could be phonological. Phonological adaptation of loan words involves tailoring foreign words to fit the standard of the sound system and phonotactics of the native language. In view of this, Howard and De Amvela's definition has been favoured by this study as being exhaustive for the context within which the study is based.

Some linguists have questioned the use of the technical word "borrowing" (Gardner-Chloros 1999). Their views are triggered by the fact that when languages borrow, they never pay back. I strongly disagree with this view. In my own opinion, languages pay back borrowed words in a way when such language also loans her morphological entities to other languages which in turn, snowballs into the earlier statement that a pure language is a poor language: hence; when languages borrow, they somewhat payback by loaning theirs to other languages. Though this presents a case of robbing Peter to pay Paul; but it is somewhat a kind of payment since there is only one common ground where this borrowing and loaning takes place: language.

Omachonu (2011:101) asserts that there are two reasons for borrowing. According to him, borrowing is one of the implications of languages in contact. Secondly, languages of the world tend to borrow lexical items that are absent in their lexicon. Omachonu (2011:101) reveals that the Igala language is assumed to have borrowed the under-listed from English, Hausa, and Igbo languages respectively.

17)

i.   English Igala
bucket   ùbókítì
table   ítébùlù
engine   íjìnì
church   íchǫchì

ii.   Hausa Igala
achana   àcháná   'match box'

lafya	*ọ̀làfíyà*	*'health/healthy'*
sadaka	*òhídáka*	*'sacrifice'*

Iloene (2007) classifies borrowing into three categories: *importation, adaptation* and *substitution*. Explaining further, Iloene describes importation as the outright transfer from some languages.

Examples

18)

Source Language	**Word**	**Igbo**	
i. **English**	*atom*	*atom*	*'atom'*
	limbo	*limbo*	*'limbo'*
ii. **Hausa**	*súyà*	*súyà*	*'roast meat'*
	wàyó	*wàyó*	*'cheat, trick'*
iii. **Yoruba**	*àkàrà*	*àkàrà*	*'bean nugget'*
	ibà	*ibà*	*'fever'*
iv. **Efik**	*ekpo*	*ekpo*	*'child mask'*
	isam	*isam*	*'periwinkle'*

Adaptation on the hand involves the various forms of modifications of the source language words for the sound, meaning and function in the target language (Iloene 2007). Iloene explains further that adaptation could be *phonological* if the sound is modified, *semantic* where there is a word for word translation from a source language into Igbo. Adaptation could also be *pragmatic* when the physical form, and, or qualities of the referent are utilized.

Examples of phonological adaptation are:

19)

i. iyeri		*'earing'*	*English*
ii. jara	*gyara*	*'extra, bonus'*	*Hausa*

Substitution involves outright creation of a new word to refer to source language concept. Sometimes, dialect words are used and their meanings extended to describe new concepts in the target language.

iii.   *onyonyoo*   *'television'*
iv.   *asambodo*   *'certificate'*

2.1.7.6   Affixation

Affixation generally is the study of affixes(McGregor 2009). Affixation structures a stem and an affix together to form a larger stem, to which another affix can be attached to form another even larger stem, as long as the appropriate semantic and selectional restrictions are obeyed (Ito and Mester, 2013).

Haspelmath and Sims (2010:19) argue that an affix is attached to a word or main part of a word. It has an abstract meaning and an affix cannot occur by itself. For instance, the word ''fight-er'' as in "fight'' with "er''come together to form "fighter'' but "er'' can not stand on its own and make a complete sense. In other words, affixation as a morphological process involves attaching a bound morpheme to the root (or stem) of a word. Affixation includes: prefixation, suffixation, infixation, suprafixation and circumfixation. For the pupose of this study, prefixation and suffixation shall be explained.

Prefixation involves the addition of a bound morpheme to the root so as to derive a new word while suffixation on the other hand is the attachment of bound morphemes to the root word but at the end of such root word.

Examples

20).

Prefixation   Suffixation

Re -   -take   Teach-   *-er*

In -   -form   Bake-   -
ing

Con-   -firm   Cook-   *-s*

Im -   -possible   Walk-   *-ed*
   ↓   ↓

Prefixes
Suffixes

                    Prefixation   Suffixation

           Prefix   Root   Root   Suffix
              ↓   ↓   ↓   ↓

           Im-   -Possible   Teach-   *-er*
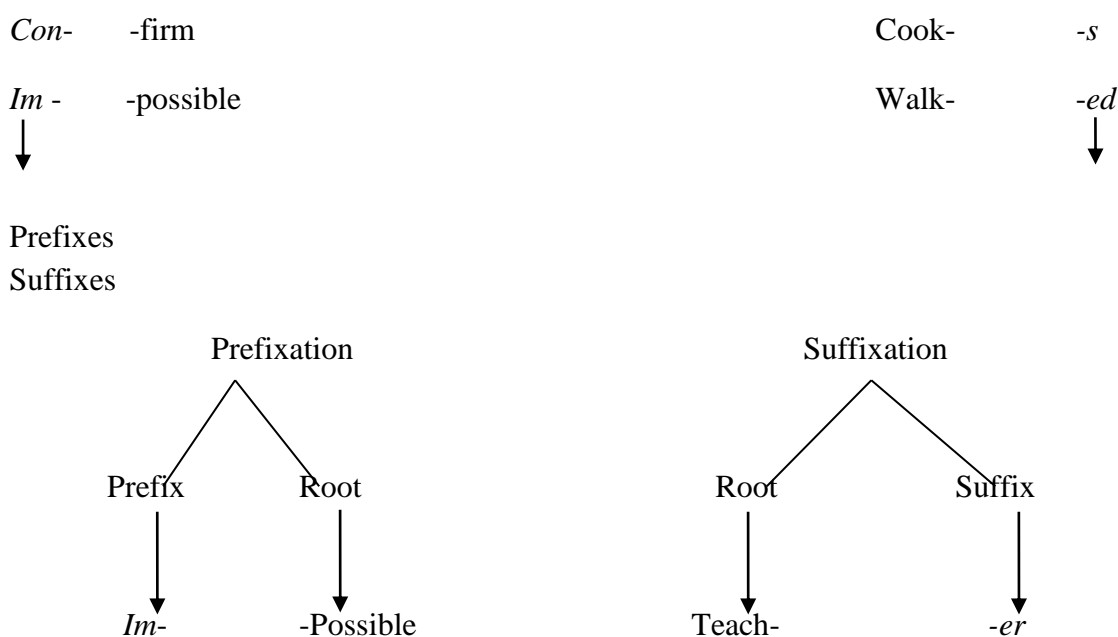
                                                    Anagbogu, Mba and Eme (2010)

2.1.7.8   Compounding

Yusuf (2007:92) sees compounding as "a process that brings together two or more words to form a new word". In general, it is asserted that the formation of words known as compounding results from the combination of roots which may be of the same or different word class. These formations snowball into the combinations of words that share same word class as one or all of the roots.

Fromkin and Rodman (1978) see compounding is the "recombination of old words to form new ones". In other words, two morphological forms which can function independently are joined together. These morphological entities may be of the same or different classes. Similarly, Pei (1966) says that "a compound word is a word that contains more than one free form.

Madondo (2001) sees compounding as "a process whereby a new lexeme is formed by adjoining two or more lexemes." Oyebade (1992) views the concept as "the putting together of different lexical items to form new words". Oyesunkanmi (2011) views the same concept as "the combination of two or more free morphemes". From these definitions, it means that compounding involves bringing two or more words to form a totally new one. In some instance compounding is seen as composition. Madondo (2001) opines that many languages use compounding for word formation. In

compounding, bound morphemes are not used as bases but free morphemes. This can be evidenced by Fromkin and Rodman's (1978) definition which see compounding as "the recombination of old words to form new ones". In other words two morphological forms which can function independently are joined together. These morphological forms maybe of the same or of different classes. This means that it is possible to separate the different forms (bases) that are combined to form a compound.

In Katamba's (1993:291) view, a prototypical compound "is a word made up of at least two bases which can occur elsewhere as independent words". This lends credence to the fact that compounding involves the combination of two linguistic forms that can stand independently in dictionary or mental lexicon of native speakers of such language. Omachonu's (2011) view of a compound word as that "which comprises two or more morphemes that are capable of independent existence" which concurs with Booij (2005) also re-emphasizes the independence of the lexical items that are combined to form new ones.

From the above definitions, it means that the inputs of compounding are independent lexical items that can exist on their own and even when compounded, can still be realized. Therefore, a compounded entity must have a resemblance of the combined forms clearly at the surface representation. For example the compound word 'classroom' can be seen to be the product of 'class' and 'room'

In another development, Croft (1991) and Heine and Reh (1984) in Madondi (2001) put compounding under phonological processes. This classification is based on the fact that phonological processes aid compounding especially in weak word boundaries. There are many phonological processes that give way to compounding to occur. Hence for the purpose of this study, these processes have been discussed under the morphophonemic processes in view of the interaction between phonology and morphology vis-à-vis word formation.

Types of Compounds

Lieber and Stekauer (2009) assert that compounding is an intensively studied word formation process. Booij (2012) opines that its defining property is that two or more words (in the sense of lexemes) are concatenated. The notion of a head in

33

compounding is often used to explain the two parts into which compounds can be split. Anagbogu (2011) gives two types of compounds: Endocentric and Exocentric. Bauer (1995:35) views that "endocentric compounds denotes a sub-class of the items denoted by one of the elements". Booij (2012) explains further by asserting that in endocentric compounds one of the constituent words is the semantic and syntactic head. This means that in an endocentric compound there must be a head and this head in the view of Iordachioaia (2015:14) is the only lexical item that can take inflection. In languages that have normal inflection, there are two (2) possibilities:

a)   The head of a compound bears inflection, but its non-head does not
b)   Non-head bears a compound-specific inflection.

Iordachioaia (2015) opines that exocentric compounds have no head. Having looked at these two types of compounds, it is not out of place to say that the concept "head" is the determining factor for either exocentric or endocentric compounds.

Compounding as a morphological process is common to languages and has been intensively studied as noted by Lieber and Stekauer (2009) but the process of compounding in different languages however shows some peculiarities especially in the way heads of compounds are positioned. Booij (2012) notes that in English and other Germanic languages the right most constituent is the head. Explaining further, Booij (2012) asserts that in languages with gender such as Dutch the gender of the compound is also determined by the gender of the right constituent (as referred to as the head). For instance in English, a *post-office* is a particular type of office and not a kind of post. Also in Dutch, the gloss for post office is *post–Kantoor*. Its head *kantoor* is of neuter gender and hence, the word *post-kantoor* (Booij 2012:6). This is to say that the position of head in compounds is language-specific (Booij 2012:7). To illustrate this assertion, Booij (2012) gives an example to show that Indonesian compounds have their heads positioned to the left. Hence, the Indonesian word for "post office" is the compound *Kantoor-pos* (with *Kantor* and *pos* being loans from Dutch), with the reverse order of the two words.

In view of Lieber and Stekauer's (2009:5) claim that compounding is an intensively studied area of morphology, some examples of compounding in Nigerian languages

shall be x-rayed to prove true their claim using some Nigerian data in Yoruba, Igbo and Hausa respectively. In Yoruba, we have the followings:

21a)   *i.*   *Orì*   *ò̩kè̩*

    'head'   'mountain'   'hill top'

  ii.   *etí*   *odò*

    'ear'   'river'   '(river) bank'

  iii.   *etí*   *òkun*

    'ear'   'sea'   '(sea) bank'

In Igbo, we have:

21b)   i.   *ísí*   *íké̩*

   head   strong   'stubbornness'

  In Hausa, we have:

21c)

i.   *àbó̩kín gàbá̩*

 'friend'   'front'   'enemy'

ii.   *Rìgar*   *rúwá*

 'dress'   'water' 'rain coat'

             (Yusuf 2007:9)

In Idoma, we have

21d).

Word		**Compound**	**Gloss**
i.	*ifu +o̩le̩*	*ifo̩le̩*	'domestic rat'
	rat + house		
ii.	*Ipu+ o̩le̩*	*ìpo̩le̩*	'village'

inside+ house

iii.   ***òkonu ̵+ọkpa***   ***òkonọkpa***   'river bank'

mouth + river

<div align="right">Adejoh (2013:26)</div>

2.1.7.9 Reduplication

Iloene and Yusuf (2007:90) define reduplication as ʺa morphological process whereby some morpheme is copied in part or wholly to form a new wordʺ. Osuagwu and Nwaozuzu (1997) see this concept ʺas a process by which a root or stem is repeated in the derivation of a new formʺ. Adejoh (2013) opines that in reduplication either a part of a whole stem is copied and affixed to the stem of a word either as a prefix or suffix. In another view, Madondo (2001:7) defines reduplication ʺas a morphological process whereby the same morpheme is used more than once in a wordʺ. Similarly, Bauer (1995:25) defines reduplication ʺas using some part of the base (which may be the entire base) more than once in the wordʺ. From these definitions it is clear that reduplication involves the use of the whole or part of the same morpheme more than once in a word. However, these definitions fail to mention the semantic implication of reduplication that is whether there is a change or retention of meaning or word-class when new words are formed through reduplication. In an attempt to view reduplication from the semantic angle, Rubino (2005) sees reduplication as ʺthe systematic repetition of phonological material within a word for semantic or grammatical purposesʺ this definition shows that reduplication plays some semantic roles in morphological analysis. Explaining further the function that reduplication serves in different languages, Rubino (2005:19) asserts that reduplicative morphemes can carry a number of meanings, and in some languages the same reduplicative morpheme is used to denote quite contrary meanings. Rubino (2005) asserts that reduplication may be used to denote a number of things such as number(plurality, distribution, collectivity), tense, aspect and conditionality. Oyebade (1992) and Rubino (2005) identify two forms of reduplications: *partial and full*. Oyebade (2002) sees partial reduplication ʺas involving copying only the consonant or vowel and putting this in prefixal position or adding it to the root in suffixal positionʺ.Rubino (2005:11), opines that partial reduplication ʺmay come in variety of forms, from

simple consonant gemination or vowel lengthening to a nearly complete copy of a base″. On the other hand, Oyebade (1992) sees full reduplication as involving ″total copying of the root word″. Hassan et al (1994) in Rubino (2005) see full reduplication as ″the repetition of an entire word, word stem (root with one or more affixes), or root″ example of this in Tausug (Austronesian Philippines):

22)

i.	*dayang*	'madam'
ii.	*dayang dayang*	'Princess'
iii.	*laway*	'saliva'
iv.	*laway-laway*	'land snail'

Hassan (1994) in Rubino (2005)

2.2   Theoretical Framework

It is imperative to look at a suitable theory that shall be used for the analysis of the Koro (Migili) data. In this section, the focus shall be on the theory that has been adopted as a guide for the discussion on Koro (Migili) word formation.

Madondo (2001:15) identifies several theories that are related to word formation which includes: synchronism and diachronism, the morphemic approach, morpheme-based morphology, word-based morphology, functional versus the formal approach and productivism. In the interest of this study, the morpheme-based and word-based morphology shall be examined for consideration.

2.2.1   The Morpheme-Based Morphology

The question whether derivational morphology is word-based or morpheme-based is still alive and yet undecided; however several literatures have been written in both theories as demonstrated in Halle (1973), Siegel (1974), Kiparsky (1984), Aronoff (1976), Booij (1977) and Scalise (1986).The morpheme-based theory which is an alternative to the theory of word-based morphology, according to Halle (1973) and Kiparsky (1982) assert that word formation rules may operate over morphemes. This notion in the view of Madondo (2001:30) means that the word is the secondary entity which is a culmination of the application of morphological processes to a root. This

theory sees the derivation of words as beginning with the morphemes. The theory accounts for the analysis of the data below:

23)

X =Fer	X= Ceive	X =Mit
*re*fer	*re*ceive	*re*mit
*de*fer	*de*ceive	*de*mit
*con*fer	*con*ceive	*com*mit
*trans*fer		*trans*mit

With the morpheme-based theory, it is allowed to generate the above verb by prefixation rules. We can isolate the prefixes *re-, con-, de-,* and *trans-*. However the base forms fer, ceive, and mit do not exist as independent words.

2.2.2 Word-Based Morphology

This hypothesis was proposed in Aronoff (1976). It says that all regular word formation processes are word-based. By this, a new word is formed by applying a regular rule to a single already existing word. Scholars like Booij (1976) and Scalise (1984) are also famous for the use of this theory for morphological analysis. Booij (1977) views that this theory endorses the formation of new words by the application of a word formation rule to a single already existing word. To this theory every derivation begins with words for the formation of new words. The centrality of the word in morphological analysis is buttressed by Anagbogu, Mbah and Eme (2010:152), when they reveal their recognition of the relevance of morpheme but stressed that the present day generative morphology is word-based; hence the word is the basic unit of grammatical analysis in generative grammar. Anagbogu, Mbah and Eme's (2010) view on *word* as the basic unit of grammatical analysis in my opinion roots from the fact that morphology as a discipline is about words. Anderson's (1992:89) view that ʺderivation morphology is based on (whole) words, rather than on morphemesʺ lends credence to my assertion.

24)

Infixation

↓

Word

Prefixation $\longrightarrow$ $\longleftarrow$ *Suffixation*
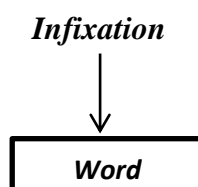
Madondo (2001:31)

Using the schema above, Madondo (2001) explains that this theory rests on the fact that word is the point of departure for all morphological processes. For instance the word 'tend' can take a prefix and a suffix to derive a new word as seen below.

25)

Con $\longrightarrow$ | **tend** | $\longleftarrow$ *er*
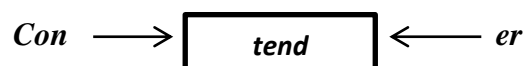
Unlike the structuralist morphologists that regard the morpheme as a key unit for their morphological operations, Bauer (1995)asserts that the distinctiveness of the word-based morphology is that it is a reaction to the usual simplistic notion that words can be analyzed into sequences of morphs each of which is on a one −to − one correspondence with a morpheme. This means that word-based morphology is concerned with what is there in a day-to-day language, the word. Bauer (1995:152) supports the claim above by asserting that:

> "In word-based morphology the word-form is therefore taken as the basic unit of syntax, even though it is not minimal. The word-form is derived by a number of processes or operations which apply to the lexemes. The morphemes other than the lexeme which influence the form of the word-form determine which processes apply. The linguist as analyst can deduce what these processes are by consideration of the entire paradigm in which the lexeme appears, and by contrasting the word-forms which appear in that paradigm. In this way, syntax and morphology are kept clearly distinct, which is not necessarily the case in a system which takes the morpheme as its basic unit."

Madondo (2001) gives some of the advantages of this theory over the morpheme-based morphology and the most striking of the advantages is that it can be applied to all aspects of morphology: inflection, derivation and compounding.

For the purpose of this study, the word-based theory has been adopted. One of the reasons for the adoption of the word-based hypothesis stems from the fact that for every morphological operation that will be done in this study, the word will be the focus.

2.3   Empirical Studies

Available records show that there is no detailed description of the word formation processes of Koro (Migili) however this study shall review the works of Agwadu and Agwadu (2012) on the morphology of Koro (Migili) so as to identify properly the dearth that needs to be addressed. Similarly, works of highly studied languages from

Adejoh (2013), Iloene (2007), Anagbogu (1995) and Omoruyi (1994) shall be reviewed to put the present work in its right perspective. Hence, the following languages: Idoma, Ẹdo, and Igbo have been reviewed.

2.3.1 Compounding in Nigerian languages

This morphological process which involves bringing together two or more words to form a new word is productive in Nigerian languages. We shall discuss this concept as it applies to some Nigerian languages.

Omoruyi (1994) detailed on Ẹdo nominal compounding that is the combination of two or more Ẹdo nouns into one. He notes that this process largely makes use of the phonological process of assimilation. Below are some examples of derivation in Ẹdo language through compounding:

26.)

	Noun + Noun	**Derivative**
i.	/òwá + òsà/	[òwó!sá]
	'House' 'God'	'church'
ii.	/ɔmɔ + owὲ/	[ɔmó!wɛ́]
	'Child' 'leg'	'little child'
iii.	/ɔmɔ + òbɔ/	[ɔmó!bɔ́]
	'child' 'hand'	'infant'
iv.	/òwá + èbé/	[òwé!bé]
	'house' 'book'	'school'
v.	/ɛ́kpó + òwá/	[ɛ́kpó!wá]
	'hole' 'house'	'wall-gecko'

In similar vein, Adejoh (2013) illustrates compounding in Idọma using the data below:

Word	**Compound**	**Gloss**
i. ìfu + ɔ́lẹ	ìfɔ́lẹ́	'domestic rat' 'rat' 'house'
ii. òkonù + ɔ̀kpa	òkɔ́nọkpá	'river blank' 'mouth' 'river'

40

iii.ìpu + ọ̀lẹ   ipọle   'village'

Also, Agwadu and Agwadu (2012) state that the compounding is a common process in Koro (Migili).They assert that in compounding both phonological and morphological processes take place as seen in (c) below where 'nyê-' and 'i' get deleted. Examples

Derivative

i. kùyo   àdùwa   kùyodùwa

'room'   'pray'   'church'

ii. ǹkpin   ìdrɔ   'ǹkpindrɔ'

'place'   'bathing'   'bathroom'

iii dzà   nyɛvɛlɛ   dzàvɛlɛ

'child'   'male'   'boy'

Omoruyi (1994) only discussed compounding as a derivative of nouns knowing full well that adjectives and verbs can be combined to form compounds also. He noted that in compounding there is always a phonological input of assimilation where one sound assimilates or is assimilated by the other. He did not however discuss tones which is also a phonological feature. The data above shows that the tones of the words that are being combined have derived downstep. Omoruyi (2004) would have given the tonal behaviour of compounding in the Ẹdo language as a phonological feature.

Adejoh (2013) notes that the vowel sounds in the initial position of the second noun assimilates the quality of the second vowel of the first noun leading to a complete deletion of the quality of the first vowel of the second noun. Each of these words is a free morpheme with a distinct meaning when taken in isolation. Moreover, the derived compounds also undergo tonal changes. She did not however detail on how these tonal changes take place in Idọma.

Agwadu and Agwadu (2012) only gave examples of compounding in the language without any explanations on the tonal changes that take place when compounds are derived. They did not also discuss the morphophonemic processes that have taken place in the language.

In all, the data established the fact that compounding is a morphophonemic process of most Nigerian languages. Also established is the fact that in Nigerian languages, words of different word classes can be combined to derived compounds.

2.3.2   Reduplication in Nigerian languages

This is a morphological process in which a part or the whole of a stem is copied and attached to the stem. This process can be complete or partial. When only a part of the stem is copied, the process is called partial reduplication but where the copying involves the whole stem, the process is called complete reduplication. In Ẹdo language, Omoruyi (1994) states that these types are found in the language as shown below:

Complete reduplication

27)

i.   /gùlú/ [gùlú]   'deep'

       /gùlú/ # gùlú/   gùlúgùlú   [gulugulu]

                                      'very deep'

ii.   /kpanɔ̀/   [kpanɔ̀]   'rough'
       /kpanɔ̀ # kpanɔ̀/   kpànɔ̀kpanɔ̀   [kpànɔ̀kpanɔ̀]
                                      very rough

iii.   /láɣà/ [láɣà]   'light'
       /láɣà # láɣà/   láɣà láɣà   [láɣà láɣà]
                                      appear very light

iv.   /zàɣá/ [zàɣá]   'to scatter'
       /zàɣá # zàɣá/   zàɣázàɣá   [zàɣàzàɣà]
                                      'disorderly'

v.   /mìtá/   [mìtá]   'to be lazy'

       /mìtá # mìtá/   mìtàmìtà   mìtàmìtà

                                      'very lazy'

He states that the above examples are binary reduplication. These examples are mostly cases of a verb and a verb co-occurrence resulting into an adjective as in all

the examples. There is also a case of tonal change in the complete reduplication as demonstrated in examples27 iv and v above and 28.

28) /mòsé # mòsé /   [mòsèmòsè]

   'beautiful'   'very beautiful'

Examples of partial reduplication

29)

i.   /òwiɛ́/ [òwjɛ́]   'morning'

         / òwiɛ́ # òwiɛ́/   [òwjòwjɛ́]   [òwjòwjɛ́]

                              'every morning'

ii.   /hòɣá/   [hòɣá]   'to be light'

         /hòɣá # hòɣá   hòɣàà   [hòɣàà]

                                      'very light'

iii.   /mòsé/[mòsé]   'beautiful'

         /môsé # môsé /   môsèè [môsèè]
                              very beautiful
iv.   /sònɔ́/ [sònɔ́]   'to be disgusted'

         / sònɔ́ # sònɔ́/ sònɔ̀ɔ̀ [sònɔ̀ɔ̀]

                              'disgusting'

Omoruyi (1994) discussed reduplication without stating the functional relevance of reduplication or semantic implication of reduplication if any. However, Anagbogu (1995) detailed on the functional relevance of reduplication as it applies to the Igbo language.

Anagbogu (1995) highlighted the functional virtues of reduplication in Igbo. Among the virtues is the fact that it serves in conveying various forms of intensification. The study brings to light the semantics of reduplication in Igbo. The findings of his research show that reduplication performs important roles in grammar and these roles he asserts are often omitted in linguistics literature. In the interest of this research, some of the functional virtues of reduplication in Igbo are used to mark action both

continuous and habitual, describe the ways senses and smells are expressed and convey the idea of colour.

In Igbo, a verb of action is used with a reduplicated word to convey the idea of an action which is continuous or one that is habitual. In the case of continuous action, Anagbogu (1995) asserts that the idea of action to be conveyed (using formula: verb of action + reduplicated word) is an action that started before the time of speaking and extends to the present moment. The verbs and nouns involved occur with each other and with no other words in a V+N or V+N+N structure. Examples

30a)   −kwu   ọtọ
         'stand'   'standing'   'stand'

   b)   −kwu   ọtọ   ọtọ
         'stand'   'standing' 'standing'   'keep standing'

31a)   Ọ   nà-èbe   ákwá
         he   PROG-cry   cry
         'He is crying'

   b)   Ọ   nà-èbe   ákwá   akwá
         he   PROG-cry   cry   cry
         'He has been crying continuously'.

Anagbogu (1995) states that reduplication is also used to express a habitual action as shown in the examples below:
32)
a)   òlile   'the act of selling'
b)   òlile òlile   'always selling'
c)   òlile du ọlu
      'selling is work'
       'The act of selling'

33)
a)   Iwo   'anger'
b)   Iwo iwo   'habitually angry'

Anagbogu (1995) states that one of the semantic relevance of reduplication in Igbo is that it is used in the description of the ways the senses of taste and smell are expressed and this he summarised with the simple formula: verb + reduplicated noun. He notes that though the nouns are many and varied, the verbs concerned are few: -tọ 'taste like' and shi 'smell of'

34)
a) Ọ   nà   àto jii   ji

44

it   PROG taste yam yam

'It tastes like yam'

b) Ọ   nà-eshi mmiammia

   it   PROG-smell wine   wine

   'It smells like palm wine'

He reveals that the words which designate colour are usually reduplicated in Igbo. Explaining further, he notes that ọcha 'white' and ọ̀ji 'black' which occur with their cognate verbs −cha and −ji respectively and the adjectives ọcha 'white' and ojii 'black' which usually follow them are exceptions. Examples

Àfè   ya   du akwukwọ ndu   akwukwọ ndu

cloth his be book   life   book   life

'His cloth is green'.

"Reduplication is a process by which a root or stem is repeated in the derivation of a new form" (Osuagwu and Nwaozuzu, 1997). This is to say that either a part of a whole stem is copied and affixed to the stem of a word either as a prefix or suffix. Oyebade as cited in Omachonu (2001), has identified two forms of reduplications—the partial and the full. Partial reduplication to him may involve copying only the consonant or vowel and putting this in prefixal position...adding it to the root in suffixal position...Full reduplication involves total copying of the root word". Adejoh (2013) states that while this may hold for Yoruba, Igala, what has been observed in Idọma in most cases, is the lengthening of the vowel of the reduplicated word in the medial position to realize reduplicatives whether partial or full, as the data below illustrate.

35)

i. fìà   fìàfìà

    'quick'   'quick quick' '(fast, quickly)'

ii. ènyì   ènyènyì

    'liquid'   'liquid liquid' '(watery)'

iii. àje   àjààjè

    'sand'   'sand sand' '(sandy)'

iv.	óyi	óyǫǫyi
	'child'	'child child (grand-child)'
v.	chìì	chìì chìì
	'quiet'	'quiet quiet' '(quietly)'

Agwadu and Agwadu (2012) state that reduplication occurs in stems and prefixes in Koro (Migili). According to them, the morphological process which could be complete or partial is illustrated below with data from Koro (Migili).

Complete Reduplication

36)

	Word	**Gloss**	**Reduplicated form**	**Gloss**
i.	nzên	'blood'	nzenzên	'bloody'
ii.	kìnrì	'dust'	kìnrìkìnrì	'dusty'
iii.	ńkɔ	'powder'	ńkɔnkɔ	'powdery'
iv.	rùgɔ	'sickness'	rùgɔrùgɔ	'sickly'
v.	àwa	'leaf'	àwàwa	'leafy'

Partial Reduplication in Koro (Migili)

37).

	word	**gloss**	**reduplicated form**	**gloss**
i.	bê	'choose'	bìibê	'be chosen'
ii.	trumo	'cold'	trìtùmo	'very cold'
	pini	'dark'	pipini	'very dark'

Having reviewed the languages above, it is clear that complete and partial reduplication are found in most Nigerian languages. However the scholars did not tell if there are tonal patterns that should draw some phonological attention in the reviewed languages.

2.3.3 Pluralisation in Nigerian languages

Pluralisation is an important morphological process that all Nigerian languages attest to. Omoruyi (1986) states that Ẹdo employs the strategy of initial vowel substitution which is observable in a small class of human – related nouns. In pluralizing these

nouns the o initial vowel word is substituted with i, while o̧ is substituted for i, e for i and o for e as demonstrated below:

38).

	Singular Noun	Plural
i.	`okpiá 'man'	`ikpiá 'men'
ii.	`okhuó 'woman'	`ikhuó 'women'
iii.	ólórí(oloi)'queen'	ílórí 'queens'
iv.	`osùaràba 'rubber tapper'	`isùaràba 'rubber tappers'
v.	`o̧lavbo̧dȩ 'passerby'	`ilavbo̧dȩ 'passers-by'
vi.	ȩ́ghéle 'youth'	íghéle 'youths'
vii.	`o̧tȩ́n 'relative'	`etȩ́n 'relatives'
viii.	`o̧mó̧ 'child'	`emó̧ 'children'
ix.	`o̧khȩn 'buyer'	`ekhȩn 'buyers'
x.	`o̧khaȩ́mẁȩ 'chief'	`ekhaȩ́mẁȩ 'chiefs'
xi.	`o̧ṁuádà 'sceptre bearer'	`eṁuáda 'sceptre bearers'
xii.	`o̧mwá 'person'	`emwá 'persons'

i-ix illustrate common nouns whose semantic content include human relationships. The initial vowels of the nouns contain correspondences in the order shown in data below:

39).

Singular   Plural

(a)o..................... i as in `okpiá–`ikpiá

(b)o̧.................... i as in `o̧sùaràba–`isùaràba

(c) ȩ.................... i as in ȩ́ghéle–íghéle

(d)o̧.................... e as in `o̧mwá–`emwá

A-d show correspondences between the initial vowels in the singular forms of the nouns and the vowels they substitute to form their plurals. All other nouns in Ȩdo are pluralized by a variety of other strategies which include the placement of the indefinite plural marker ávbé before a noun as in òwá 'a house', ávbé òwá 'houses', ȩ́kp̀o 'bag',

ávbé ẹ́kp̀o 'bags'. Quantifiers are also used to form plurals by placing them after the nouns as shown in data below:

Singular Nouns		Plural Nouns	
(a) ọ̀wá		'house' ọ̀wáèhá	
House three		'three houses'	
(b)`ebé 'book'		`ebé ǹibún	
Book many		'many books'	
(c) ọ̀mwá 'person'èmwá 'persons'		èmwá ìbọ̀zèghè	
		Persons few 'few people'	

Note the example in 31c) in which the human-related noun `omwá undergoes double pluralisation involving (i) initial vowel substitution and (ii) post-positioning of the quantifier, `ibọ̀zẹ̀ghẹ̀. This shows that the already pluralized human-related nouns can also be pluralized by the other strategies mentioned above. Only their plural forms (eg `emwá) are selected and merged with the appropriate quantifiers. The example *ọmwá  `ibọ̀zẹ̀ghẹ̀ 'few persons' crashes because there is no number agreement between the noun and the quantifier. Other construction types in the language also show relics of the noun class system. In all these instances singular/plural alternation occurs between the oral vowels o and I in addition to the correspondences identified above.

Adejoh (2013) views that pluralisation implies the process of attaching number to persons, things concepts. Furthering she states that only words that belong to the class − noun undergo this process though, other word classes like verb and pronoun undergo pluralisation too but their processes differ from that of nouns.

She gives an analytical discussion of some rules of pluralisation in the grammatical system of Idoma language. The study deals on the morpho − syntactic structures of

Idọma with emphasis on pluralisation in noun, verb and case in pronoun. The process of pluralisation in Idọma includes: affixation, morpheme additives, mutation, cardinal and ordinal approaches and the use of quantifiers. These processes are exemplified below using data from Idọma as given by Adejoh (2013).

(a)   Vowel change

Adejoh (2013) opines that most Idọma nouns take the prefix morpheme 'a' copular to form plurals. Examples

40)

Singular			**Plural**		
i. ọchẹ	'person'		áchὲ	'person'	
ii. ọ̀yí	'child'		àyí	'children'	
iii. ọ̀nya	'woman'		ánya	'women'	
iv. òklóbià	'young man'		àklóbià	'young men'	
v. ọnchènya	'lady'		anchḗnya	'ladies'	
vi. ọ̀nyakwọchẹ	'elder'		ànyakwọchὲ	'elders'	

Here, vowel substitution between 'o' and 'a' result in a change in number as the 'a' morpheme becomes the plural marker. The initial vowels in the words in their singular forms are changed to 'a' in their plural forms. Adejoh's explanation is explicit and shows that vowel change is a process of pluralization in Idọma. However, Adejoh (2013) did not give exhaustive examples to provide a foundation for further observations. For instance , if enough data had been provided, it would have given a template to observe properly if the data or the vowel change is phonologically conditioned or not (if there are environments that call for the use of 'a')

b) The use of additive Morpheme

Adejoh (2013) asserts that the additive (a morpheme that is added to derive plurals) plural formation is also identified in Idọma. She explains by saying that the plural Morpheme 'a' is added to the root word as in the examples below:

41)

	Singular			Plural	
i.	adá	'father'		áádá	'fathers'
ii.	ene	'mother'		áene	'mothers'
iii.	òbá	'husband '		aòbá	'husbands'
iv.	èbe	'animal'		àebe	'animals'
v.	igbano	'bird'		áigbano̩	'birds'

From the data, it is evident that the additive plural morpheme *'a'* is prefixed to the root words to realize their plural forms.

Adejoh (2013) states that cardinals and ordinals can be used to pluralize nouns in Ido̩ma as seen below:

(c) Cardinal approach

42)

i.	Òchi eeì	'one tree'	ò̩chi è̩ta	'three trees'
ii.	úgádá eeì	'one chair'	úgádá è̩pà	'two chairs'
iii	otànjíla eeì	'one cap'	otànjíla è̩ho̩	'five caps'
iv	uwe eeì	'one dress'	uwe è̩ta	'three dresses'

She concludes by asserting that morphological processes discussed above are productive in the language.

Agwadu and Agwadu (2012) assert that there are four plural morphemes in Koro (Migili), which they list as: *'a-', 'mu-', 'i'*, and *'amu'* as shown in the data below:

43)

	Prefix	Word	Gloss	Derivative	Gloss
i.	a-	Kùpì	'wall','building'	àpì	'walls''building'
ii.	a-	Kùva	'head'	àva	'hands'
iii.	a-	Kùcɔ	'head'	àcɔ	'heads'
iv.	mu-zɔrɔmùgà		'magician'	mùzɔrɔmùgà̇	'magicians'
v.	mu-kpòkìna		'farmer'	mùkpòkìnà̇	'farmers'
vi.	mu-nàkùtùmà		'worker'	mùnàkùtùmà	'workers'
vii.	àmù-ɔdrɔ		'rabbit'	àmùdrɔ	'rabbits'
viii.	amu-òna		'cow'	amuna	'cows'
ix.	amu-ɔdɔn		'horse'	àmùdɔn	'horses'

They did not quite explain the phonological processes that are involved in the formation of plurals in Koro (Migili) and this according to them makes plural formation purely morphological in Koro (Migili).

2.3.4 Prefixation in Nigerian languages

This process involves attaching an affix to the front of the host morpheme.

This morphological process is productive in Nigerian languages and it is used to perform diverse grammatical roles. This process has been discussed below in Ẹdo, Igbo and Idoma.

Prefixation as a morphological process plays a major role especially in nominalization. In Ẹdo language, there are seven oral vowels and these vowels all serve as nominalizing prefixes. In explaining this process, Omoruyi (1986) split these nominalizing prefixes into sets. These prefixes which serve as derivational morphemes in the language are **a-, e-, ɛ-, i-, o-** and **ɔ- .** Examples are shown below:

Set A Prefix /A-/

Action Verb   Constituent Morphemes   Derived Nouns

44)

i.	[wuà]	/a + wuà/	-	/ àwuá/
	'to forbid'			'taboo'
ii.	[xuɛ̀]	/a + xuɛ̀/	-	/ àxuɛ̀/
	'to bath'			'bath/bathing'
iii.	[hjɔ̀]	/a + hjɔ̀/	-	[àhjɔ́]
	'to urinate'			'urine'
iv.	[zɛ̀]	/a + zɛ̀/-	-	[àzɛ́]
	'to spend'			'fee'

Set B Prefix /E-/

Action Verb   Constituent Morphemes   Derived Nouns

45)

i. [kpà]   /e + kpà/   [èkpá]

    'to vomit'   'vomit'

ii. [dà]   /e + dà/   [èdá]
     'to drink'   'out of drinking'

Set C Prefix /ɛ-/

Action Verb   Constituent Morphemes   Derived Nouns

46)

i.   [rù]   /ɛ + rù/-   -   [ɛ̀rù]
     'to cover'   'hat'
ii. [wjà]   /ɛ + wjà/   -   [ɛ̀wjà]
     'to smell'   'smell/odour'
iii. [gjɛ́gjɛ̀]   /ɛ + gjɛ́gjɛ̀/   -   [ɛ̀jɛ́gjɛ̀]
     'to carry'   'make haste'
iv. [gbá]   /ɛ + gbá/   -   [ɛ̀gbá]
     'to tie'   'armlet'

Set D Prefix /I-/

Action Verb   Constituent Morphemes   Derived Nouns

47)

i.   [winá]   /i + wìná/   -   -   -   [ìwìnâ]
     'to work'   'working'
ii. [mìná]   /i + míná/   -   -   -   [imíná]
     'to dream'   'dreaming'
iii. [kpòló]   /i + kpòló/   -   -   -   [ìkpólò]
     'to sweep'   'sweeping'
iv. [tótà]   /i + tótà/   -   -   -   [ìtótà]

Set E Prefix /O-/

Action Verb   Constituent Morphemes   Derived Nouns

48)

i.   [gjɛ̀]   /o + gjɛ́/   [ògjɛ́]

52

		'to laugh'					'laughter'
ii.	[lɔ̀]		/o + lɔ̀/				[òlɔ̀]
		'to grind'					'grinding stone'
iii.	[xjâ]		/o + xjà/				[òxjâ]
		'to walk'					'walking'

Set F Prefix /ɔ-/

Action Verb		Constituent Morphemes				Derived Nouns

49)

i.	[tà]	/ɔ + tà/	-	-	-	[ɔ̀tà]
	'to say'					'speech'
ii.	[zẁɔ́]	/ɔ + zùrɔ́/	-		-	[ʒzẁɔ̀]
	'fool'					'fool'
iii.	[mɔ̀]	/ɔ + mɔ̀/	-		-	[ɔ́mɔ́]
	'to produce'					'child'
iv.	[bɔ̀]	/ɔ + bɔ̀/	-		-	[ɔ̀bɔ́]
	'to predict'					'native doctor'

From the above data, it will be observed that vowels / **a-, e-, ɛ-, i-, o-** and **ɔ-**/ function as a morpheme in nominal derivation when prefixed to the base of a verb.

Set G- Prefix /u-/

Action Verb	**Constituent Morphemes**		**Derived Nouns**

50)

i.	[lɛ́]	/u + lɛ́/ -	-	-[ùlɛ́]
	'to run'			'race'
ii.	[wù]	/u + wù/	-	-[ùwú]
	'to die'			'death'
iii.	[kpɔ̀kpó]	/ u + kpɔ̀kpó/	-	-[úkpókpò]
	'to worry'			'worriness'
iv.	[gwè]	/ u +gwè/	-	-[úgwè]
	'to cover'			'cover/lead'
v.	[sjè]	/ u + sjè/	-	-[ùsjé]
	'to be dark'			'blace person'

Finally, he notes that in Ẹdo language the sequence of two similar vowels is usually reduced to one in the derivation of nouns from verbal stems. Examples:

51)

i. Kùú [kú] 'play'   ìkù [ìkù] 'act of playing'
ii. khòó [xɔ́] 'to be wicked'   òkhò [òxɔ̀] 'wickedness'
iii. wàá [wǎ] 'to castrate' òwà   [ɔ̀wà] 'castrated animal'

Prefixation is a process whereby affixes are added at the beginning of the root or stem or placed before the root of the base. Crystal, (1987: 10) defines prefixes as 'those which are addedto the beginning ofa root stem'. In Igbo, this process is found to perform some grammatical functions as noted by Iloene (2007).Explaining further, she asserts that the Igbo prefixes perform some grammatical functions like i-, o and ọ-, and m- (52) which serve as infinitive, agentive and instrumental noun markers respectively as illustrated below:

52)

i.	o-jè	'to go'
ii.	ì-dè	'to read'
iii.	ì-ri	'to eat'
iv.	ì-dá	'to fall'
v.	ò-jè (áhìá)	'goer', 'traveller'
vi.	ò-dè (ákwùkwò)	'writer', 'secretary'
vii.	ó-gbá (ègwù)	'dancer'
viii.	ḿ-kpá	'scissors'

Affixation is a very productive morphological process in Idọma language. This is "a process of attaching an affix (bound morphemes) to the root or base of a word" By the affixation of derivational morphemes to root words, new words are derived from existing ones and these new words belong to other classes. The derivational morphemes are sometimes free morphemes. Adejoh (2013) explains that prefixation is a common type of affixation and through prefixation of derivational morphemes to root words, new words are derived from existing ones and these new words belong to other classes as shown in (53) below:

Prefixes: Class Changing

53)

		Verb	**Noun**
a) **o-**	i.	lòlè	òlòlè
	ii.	'to live'	'tenant'
	iii.	nwọkpa	ònwọkpảll
	iv.	'teach'	'teacher'
	v.	gwèbà	ògwèbà
	vi.	'to divine'	'diviner'

b) **i-**	i.	yawù	ìyawù
	ii.	'walk'	'trip/journey'

		Adjective	**Noun**
c) **i-**	i.	wọtù	ìwọtù
	ii.	'sad'	'sadness'

		Noun	**Adjective**
d) **t-**	i.	ile	tile
	ii.	'use/gain'	'useful'
	iii.	abọ	tabọ
	iv.	'hand/help'	'help'
	v.	ìhó	'tìho'
	vi.	'taboo'	'forbidden'
	vii.	èhè	'tèhè'
	viii.	'laughter'	'funny'

According to Agwadu and Agwadu (2012), affixes in this language are mostly used as derivatives to get deverbal nouns. Explaining further, they assert that the morphemes (prefixes) that effect these changes are: '*nye-*' and '*i-*'. This is illustrated in (54) below:

54)

	Word	**Gloss**	**Derivatives**	**Gloss**
i.	Zóro	'to make'	nyìzóro	'doer', 'maker'
ii.	Mère	'learn'	nyìmère	'learner'
iii.	gru	'wash'	nyigru	'washer'
iv.	Kpókina	'farm'	nyiikpókina	'farmer'
v.	gbe	'receive/take'	igbe	'reception'
vi.	kwàna	'admire, desire'	ìkwàna	'admiration'
vii.	jèmyè	'to direct'	ijemije	'direction'
viii.	pó	'intoxicate'	ìpó	'intoxication'
ix.	yana	'promote, lift'	ìyàna	'promotion'

Explaining the data above, Agwadu and Agwadu (2012) give two major points: the bound morpheme 'nye-' is phonologically conditioned to have the 'e' vowel change to

'i'. The second point is that the '-*ion*' morpheme in English language which is a suffix exist as a prefix in Koro (Migili) as 'i-'. However, they fail to give reasons for the phonological environment that necessitated the change from 'nyẹ' to 'nyi' after prefixation. Hence, there is no proof that 'nye' to 'nyi' is phonologically conditioned without providing the environment as well as ample examples for their claim.

2.3.5 Suffixation in Nigerian languages

Suffixation as a morphological process is not a common one in Nigerian languages as only few languages have data to exemplify the productivity of this morphological process. However there are Nigerian languages that attest to this process and this include: Igbo, Idoma which have been exemplified below.

Suffixation is the use of suffixes to derive or inflects words. These affixes come after the root, that is, they are put at the end of the root and take the place of the final vowel of the stem. Iloene (2007) explains that suffixes in Igbo can be used as imperative, negative and perfective markers as shown below:

Examples of suffix as Imperative marker

55a)

i. gá- á   áhìá   'go to market'

ii. zá-á ùlò   'sweep the house'

iii sá-á èfèrè   'wash the plate'

Negative Suffix

b)

i. ọ   gá – ghì   áhìá   'she did not go to the market'

ii. ọ   nwe-ghì   ègò   'she does not have money'

iiiọ   zè-ghì   ulọ   'she did not sweep the house'

Perfective Suffix

c)

i. Ò   gáá-lá áhìá   'He has gone to the market'

ii. Ó   nwèè-lá   ègó   'He's got money'

iii. Ó   záá – lá   ulọ   'He has swept the house'

2.3.6 Suprafixation in Nigerian languages

This is a non-segmental affix. "It is marked over syllables that form part of a root" (Ndimele, 1999). This means that it is represented by prosodic features such as stress, intonation or tone. In Idǫma, Adejoh (2013) notes that non-segmental affix used is the tone mark. Explaining further, she states that tone is a derivational process that is quite productive in Idǫma as in several other tone languages like Tiv, Igala (see Omachonu 2001), Igbo (see Anagbogu 2000, 2005). In Idǫma, it performs lexico-semantic functions as variation in tone(s) of the same word leads to new meanings and sometimes, new classes of words. Examples

56)
i. ǫkǫ 'neck'
ii. ókó 'boat'
iii. ókǫ 'beak'
iv. ǫkó 'cough'

Similarly, Iloene (2007) states that tone plays a semantic role in Igbo like in English language where stress can be used as a factor for determining the meaning of words without changing the structure of the words. Iloene (2007) gives the following data to show how an affix is not represented by a segment (consonant or vowel) but by a prosodic feature of tone.

57a)

i. ísí 'head'

ii. ìsì 'blindness'

iii. ísì 'smell'

iv. ísi 'to cook'

b)

i. ìgwè 'many'

ii. ígwé 'sky'

iii. ígwè 'iron'

iv. ígwe 'king'

c)

i. ákwá   'cry'

ii. àkwà   'bed'

iii. àkwá   'egg'

iv. ákwà   'cloth'

The data above show how the tone represents the segment to effect a change in meaning with a change in tone (suprafixation).

2.3.7 Summary

Word formation in Koro (Migili) investigates the morphological and phonological processes involved in word-formation in the Koro (Migili), hence the study examines the interface between morphology and phonology. However it should be noted that the study though in no way discusses the syntax or semantics of the language, but where need be, it shall consult these branches for proper illustration as regards word formation.

Although scholars earlier mentioned in chapter one of this research have worked on the derivational and inflectional aspects of the language, the present study has identified certain dearth that needs morphological attention. The previous works on Koro (Migili) morphology fail to examine:

a) The concept of '*word*' (Òka in Koro: Migili),

b) How word is identified in Koro: Migili.

c) The classification of words in Koro (Migili) into the different word classes. Carnie's (2007) use of morphological criterion for the classification of words into the different word classes lends credence to the fact that one of the roles of the morphology of any language is the classification of words into their various classes or word classes. This is one of the problems that the present research shall provide answers to.

d) Borrowing which is a morphological process of word-formation that languages use in adding more vocabulary to their dictionary has been ignored in all previous works in the language and yet it exists richly in the language.

e) Comprehensively, the word-formation processes of the language.

In an attempt to provide solutions to the above, the present study shall:

a) Consider the morphological patterns that are specific to Koro (Migili) with regard to word-formation.

b) Study the roles of phonology in word-formation with a view to exposing the morphophonemic processes that are attested in the language.

c) Examine borrowing as it relates to Koro (Migili) word-formation with a view to bringing to light how the language domesticate loan words especially words loaned from the English language.

   The interest and love on word-formation has always gone hand-in-glove with an interest in language as a whole (Bauer 1983). In the light of Bauer's assertion, the present study shall address all the aforementioned dearth as it will reveal many aspects of the language and contribute in more ways than one to Koro (Migili) and universal linguistics.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0   Preamble

This chapter gives an outline of the area of study, design, the methods of data collection and analysis.

3.1   Area of Study

Though Koro as a language is spoken in pockets of states outside Nasarawa, however the population for this study is based on the Migili dialect (Upper dialect) spoken in Kúnzá, Ashige, Duglu and Alizwe; all in Nasarawa state. Native speakers of these aforementioned villages whose ages range from 40-70 were interviewed with special preference for those who have not travelled outside the above mentioned places.

3.2   Research Design

This study has adopted a descriptive approach to analyze the word formation processes of affixation, compounding, reduplication, clipping, nominalisation and borrowing in Koro (Migili). Mugenda and Mugenda (1999) point out that a descriptive   research determines and reports the way things are. This design suits the present study as it mainly concentrates on the description of the processes (both phonological and morphological) involved in Koro (Migili) word formation.

3.3   Source of Data

The data for this study has been elicited through primary and secondary sources. The primary data has been sourced via interview while the linguistic knowledge of the researcher has formed part of the assets for this study. For the secondary data, undergraduate projects on the morphology of the language were also used.

3.4 Instruments of Data Collection

For the instruments for data collection, Blench's (2014) wordlist rendered into Koro (Migili) has been used to supplement the other data. Similarly, wordlist of some English words that were loaned into Koro (Migili) was also administered.   The collected data has been systematically sorted and analysed after due authentication by

teachers and students of Koro (Migili) so as to verify the data collected. This is to account for the integrity as well as the validity of the data.

3.5   Method of Data Analysis

The data collected has been systematically sorted and analyzed by the use of a descriptive method, with the help of a research assistant. This method was favoured because it adequately captures the description of linguistic data, the way they are. Also, using rules and notational devices, the generative phonology approach shall be employed in the analysis of the collected data with a view to showing the role(s) of phonology in word formation.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION

4.0   Preamble

In this chapter, we shall consider the various morphological processes by which words can be built in Koro (Migili). Word formation through affixes is the most common way of building words in Koro (Migili) when compared to other morphological processes. In all, this chapter seeks to examine affixation, compounding, reduplication, clipping, nominalisation and borrowing.

4.1   The Word (Òka)

The word (Òka) is considered as the most important unit of the grammar of any language. A word is identified in different languages using certain criteria. However, in Koro (Migili) a word can be identified using three criteria. These are phonological, morphological and semantic criteria.

4.1.1   Phonological Criterion and Phonotactics

Phonologically, the syllable structure is the major criterion used to ascertain whether or not a lexical item should be called a word in Koro (Migili). Koro (Migili) has a systematic way of patterning phonemes into words. Any combinatory sequence that does not align to the system that the syllable structure of Koro (Migili) operates is excluded as being a word in the language.

Syllabically, the language permits V, CV, CVV, CVC, CCV, VCV and CVCCV structure (with the structure CVC on rare instances). As it is in most languages, the basic and most common syllable structure in Koro (Migili) is (CV) in that it has the widest distribution, and it (the form CV) can occur in word initial, medial and final positions. These structures shall be discussed under the headings: monosyllabic, di syllabic and Poly syllabic words.

4.1.1.1 Monosyllabic Words

These are words that have only one syllable. Examples of such words in Koro (Migili) are:

58 i)   V as in   /à/   'he/she'
                       /o/   'you'
                       /n/   'I'
   ii) CV as in   /wɔ̀/   'you'   (object)
                       /la/   'us'
                       /yi/   'you'   (object)
   iii) CVC as in   /can/   'just like that'
                       /kán/   'all'
                       /cin/   'exactly'
   iv) CCV as in   /krɔ̀/   'pack'
                       /drɔ/   'bath'
                       /mlɔ̀/   'swallow'
   v)   CVV as in   /dìí/   'cold'

The examples above (58i-v) are some of the monosyllabic words in Koro (Migili). They are monosyllabic because they are articulated with a single breath force. The *à* 'he/she', *o* 'you' and *n* 'i' have a vowel without a consonant while *wɔ* 'you (object)', and *la* 'us' have the cv as their sequence. On the other hand, *can* 'just like that' *krɔ̀* 'pack', mlɔ̀ 'swallow' are sequenced as cvc, ccv respectively.

4.1.1.2 Di-Syllabic Words

These are words with two syllables. Examples in Koro (Migili) are shown in the following table.

Table *4.1*: Di- syllabic words in *Koro (Migili)*

first syllable	second syllable	Word		Sequence
Kwá	shɔ́	kwá-shɔ́	'kitchen'	cv – cv
Í	Nù	í-nù	'pot'	v – cv
Kú	Va	kú-va	'arm'	cv –cv
Ń	Nyí	ń-nyi	'mouth'	c – cv
Ń	Trí̃	ń- trí̃	'yam'	c – ccv
Zwìn	cɛ̃	zwìn-cɛ̃	'split'	ccvc – cv

The examples in the table (4.1) above show two syllable words in Koro (Migili). *KwáShɔ́* 'Kitchen', *ínù* 'pot' *kúva* 'arm' *ńnyi* 'mouth' *ńtrí̃* 'yam' *zwìncɛ̃* 'split' are articulated with a double breath force as in *Kwá-Shɔ́* 'Kitchen', *í-nù* 'pot' *kú-va* 'arm', *ń-nyi* 'mouth' *ń-trĩ* 'yam' *zwìn-cɛ̃* 'split'.

4.1.1.3 Poly-Syllabic Words

This can also be regarded generally as tri-syllabic words or words that have more than two syllables. Examples of such syllables are:

59 i) í-tù-mà   'vagina'   V – CV – CV
  ii) ń-trú-kpò   'plantain/banana' C – CCV - CV
 iii) kù-lé-kù-lé   'canoe/boat'   CV – CV – CV – CV
 iv) lú-kpîî-tsi   'compound'   CV – CVV – CCV

The examples in (59i-iv) above are three syllable structure words in Koro (Migili). For example, *ítùmà* 'vagina' is a three-syllable word í as the first syllable, tù as the second and mà as the third. Also, *kùlékùlé* 'canoe/boat' has four syllables which can be split into *kù-lé-kù-lé*.

In Koro (Migili) language, consonant clusters are permitted and these clusters have three positions of word initial, medial and final. By implication, Koro (Migili) maintains both open and closed syllable structures. The syllable structure and phonotactics of Koro (Migili) reveal that the language does not allow the following sequences: CCCV, CVCC and VCC: By implication any lexical item in Koro (Migili) that aligns to the CVCC, CCCV and VCC is not a word. The systematic phonological patterning of phonemes and their combination into syllables and words which follow the V, VC, CV, CVC, CCV, CCVC, CVV which are the definite natural ordering of words in Koro (Migili) is the phonological criterion used in this language to identify a word.

4.1.2 Morphological Criterion

Morphology is based on the internal structure of a word. Taking into consideration the internal structure, a word in Koro (Migili) can be split into four main groups. These are simple, compound, complex and compound complex.

4.1.2.1 Simple Word in Koro (Migili)

A simple word is a free morpheme. This morpheme can stand alone without any bound element attached to it. This is illustrated in Koro (Migili) language as shown in (60) below:

60 i)   Mízîí, 'Six'

ii)   dzá   'child'

iii)   shúshɔ 'sleep'

iv)   zhɛ́   'chief'

v)   íshɔ́   'bee'

vi)   gbólu   'elephant'

vii)   òva   'dog'

The examples in (60i-vii) above are all root morphemes without affixes.

4.1.2.2 Compound Word in Koro (Migili) Language

A compound word is that word which comprises two or more morphemes that are capable of independent existence. The words with this word structure consist of two or more free more morphemes as shown in Koro (Migili) in (61) below.

61)   i)   dzá   #   nyɛvɛ̀lɛ̀   ====>   [dzávɛ̀lɛ̀]
              'child'   'male'   'boy'
       ii)   ńkpĩ   #   ídrɔ   ====>   [ńkpĩdrɔ]
              'place'   'bathing'   'bathroom'
       iii)   ízã   #   itsi   ====>   [ítsízã]
              'grave'   'yard'   'graveyard'
       iv)   ntrí   #   fùlé   ====>   [fùléntrí]
              'yam'   'flower'   'yamflower'
       v)   ídzri   #   íseni   ====>   [ídzrîiseni]
              'buttocks'   'river'   'river bank'
       vi)   ídzri   #   mùzã   ====>   [ídzrímùzã]
              'buttocks'   'stream'   'stream bank'

The examples in (61i-v) above are compound words in Koro (Migili). The *dzávɛ̀lɛ̀* 'boy', *ńkpĩdrɔ* 'bathroom', ítsízã 'graveyard' have been compounded from individual words like *dza* 'child'and *nyɛvɛ̀lɛ̀* 'male'to form *dzávɛ̀lɛ̀* 'boy', *ǹkpĩ* 'place' and *ídrɔ* 'bathing' to form *ńkpĩdrɔ* 'bathroom'.

4.1.2.3 Complex Word in Koro (Migili) Language

A complex word consists of one root accompanied by one or more bound morphemes (Omachonu, 2011). The root morpheme in Koro (Migili) usually occurs after the bound morphemes that are attached to them. Some complex words in Koro (Migili) include:

	Bound Morpheme		**Root Morpheme**		**Derivative**
62) i)	nyí	#	zɔ̀rɔ	====>	nyízɔ̀rɔ
	Nom prefix		'make'		'maker'
ii)	nyí	#	kpókina	====>	nyíkpokína

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	nom prefix		'farm'		'farmer'
iii)	í	#	pɔ	====>	ípɔ
	nom prefix		'intoxicate'		'intoxication'
iv)	í	#	kwàna	====>	íkwàna
	nom prefix		'admire'		'admiration'

The examples in (62 i-iv) above are called complex words in Koro (Migili). The *nyí, í* are nominalising prefixes (bound morphemes) which are attached to *zɔ̀rɔ* 'make' and *kwàna* 'admire' to derive *nyízɔ̀rɔ* 'maker' and *íkwàna* 'admiration'. In (62 i-ii), the prefix *nyí* functions as an agentive prefix while *í,* is functioning as a nominalising prefix.

4.1.2.4 Compound Nominal (Words) in Koro (Migili) Language

Compound nominal words in Koro (Miligi) functions as agentive nominals which have been derived from verb and complement structures that is agentive pfx + VbCmpl. Examples of this in Koro (Miligi) include:

63i)	Nyí	#	wɔ	#	mínyɛ	⟶	[nyíwɔmìnyɛ]
	Nom		'Kill'		people		Killer
ii)	Nyí	#	zwɛ	#	Kúpì	⟶	[nyízwɛkúpì]
	Nom. Prefix		'build'		'wall'		'builder'
iii)	Nyí	#	gru	#	ítrɔ́	⟶	[nyígruítrɔ́]
	Nom-Prefix		'wash'		'clothes'		'washerman'

The data (63 i-iii) above shows that Koro (Migili) words can be structured as compound complex. The *nyíwɔmìnyɛ* 'killer', *nyízwɛkúpì* 'builder' and *nyígruítrɔ́* 'washerman' have different structures which comprise two different words and a nominalising prefix. In (63 i) *nyíwɔmìnyɛ* 'killer' is acombination of *nyí*, a nominalising prefix, wɔ 'kill' and mínyɛ 'people'. The same applies to (63 ii-iii).

In all, it should be noted that all the structures presented above align to the syllable structure/ phonotactics of Koro (Migili) language (V, CV, CVV, CVC, CCV, CCVV, VCV, CCVC).

4.2 Word Classes in Koro (Migili)

In language, words are grouped into categories known as word classes using such criteria as structure, meaning and function (Ndimele 1999). Word classes are a class of expressions which share a common set of grammatical properties. This concept will be discussed with reference to Koro (Migili) language.

4.2.1 Nouns

Nouns are universal properties of every language in view of its importance in expressing the names of what is seen and unseen in the society. Koro (Migili) nouns can be classified using the following criteria:

a. Number of syllables

b. Number of tones

Based on the number of syllables, three main classes of syllables are listed: monosyllabic, di-syllabic and poly syllabic nouns. These have been illustrated in 4.1.1 above. On the number of tones, the Koro (Migili) nouns exhibit five basic tonal classes of which the last is the high mid. The tonal classification of nouns based on the number of tones is illustrated below:

Tones

HH	LH	HL	LL	HM
kúcɔ́	ǹbɔ̃́	kúcɔ̃̀	gbɛ̀rɛ̀	kúnɔ
'head'	'what'	'yam seed'	'a kind of snake'	'fowl'
Lúkɔ́	ǹká	kúbã̀	mùzɔ̃̀	múzɔ̃
'war'	'a personal name'	'molars'	'in a journey'	'palm tree'
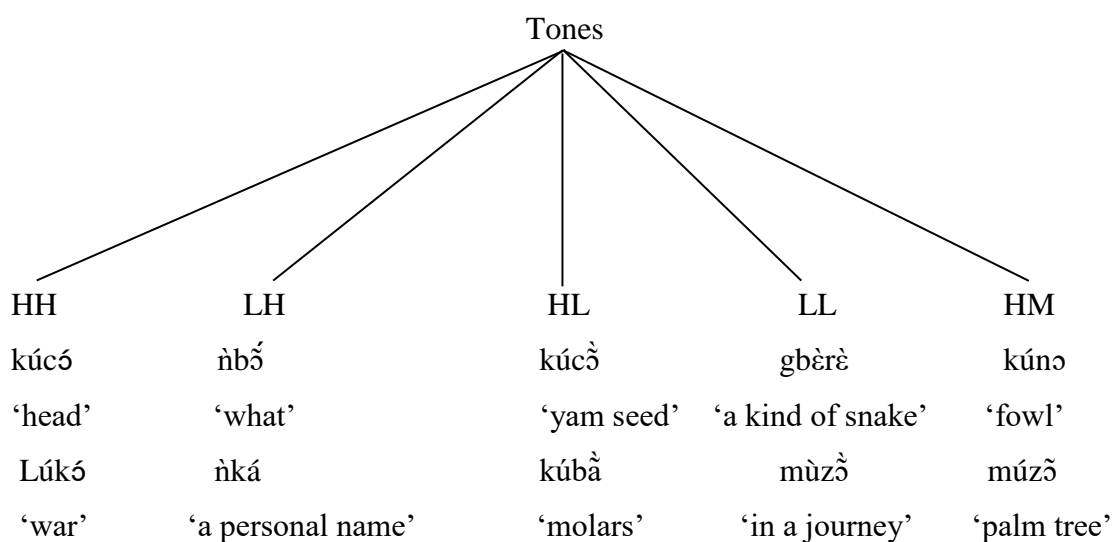
Fig. 4.1 Tonal classifications of Koro (Migili) nouns

From the diagram above, it is evident that there are five basic tonal classes of the Koro (Migili) nouns. However, there are three other tonal classes that are not as productive as the basic five in figure 4.1 above. They are ML (*duglù* 'name of a place'), LM (*gɔ̀nɔ* 'too much/very') and HM (*kúyo* 'room').

Koro (Migili) nouns are divided into two types: the derived and underived. The underived nouns shall be treated under this section while the derived ones which are done through various morphological processes shall be treated later.

Nouns name things, persons, animals and places. Examples of Koro (Migili) nouns are:

64 i) Kúcɔ́ 'head', Kítà 'skin',   mízẽ   'market'
  ii) kíná 'farm' ísenì 'river/sea', nɛ́rɛ́   'rain'
  iii) òva   'dog'

Nouns in Koro (Migili) can be split into various kinds depending on their nature and their referent. Based on the data available, we can classify Koro (Migili) nouns broadly into four groups, common, proper, concrete and abstract nouns.

4.2.1.1 Common Nouns

These nouns are used to refer to members of a class. Nouns used to refer to a generic form that applies to all members of a group. Examples of this noun include:

65 i) kúswé   'fish'   íseni   'river'
  ii) rúgɔ̀̃   'mountain'
  iii) kúpɔ̀   'village'   dzárùnɔ   'bird'
  iv) zhɛ́   'king'   nyɛvɛ̀lɛ́   'man'

The examples (65 i-iv) above shows that *kúswé* 'fish', *íseni* 'river', *rúgɔ̀̃* 'mountain' are common nouns because they are used by Koro (Migili) speakers to refer to all the categories of the noun. *Kúswé* 'fish' is used as a name for all the types of fishes that a Koro speaker knows. Also *íseni* 'river' in Koro depicts any body of water while *zhɛ́* 'king' is used as a common noun that depicts the head of any village or community.

4.2.1.2 Proper Nouns

This kind of nouns refers to names of persons and places; it makes reference to specific names of people and/or places. Examples

66) i) Names of persons: gbadɔ́
        dúmúù,   ɔ̀kwɛ,   nmagbɔ,   wárá
    ii) Names of places: kúnzá,   duglù,   zhɛ́rùgbà
    iii) Names of river: íwiíkpò,   íwiídaàgli,   kúcɔ́dàkúbà, Gbɛ̀nyɛ̀

The examples in (66 i-iii) *gbadɔ́* , *dúmû, ɔ̀kwɛ, nmagbɔ,wárá* show the specific names of persons in Koro while *kúnzá, duglù, zhɛ́rùgbà* are names of places where Koro speakers live and are native to them. *íwiíkpò, íwiídaàgli, kúcɔ́dàkúbà, gbɛ̀nyɛ̀* are all names of rivers which are part of the history of the people of Koro (Migili) descent.

4.2.1.3 Concrete Nouns

These nouns can be touched and felt by one or more of the sensory organs: eye, ear, mouth, nose and hand. Examples of this in Koro (Migili) are

67 i)	Kíci,	'tree'	Kúzwa	'Mortar'
ii)	átáàtrὲ	'shoe'	gúgú	'basket'
iii)	Kígã	'mat'	ítrɔ́	'cloth'
iv)	m̀bã	'knife'		
v)	ríci	'firewood'		

In (67 i-v) above, *kíci* 'tree', *kúzwa* 'Mortar', *átáàtrὲ* 'shoe', *gúgú* 'basket' are all examples of those Koro (Migili)nouns that can touched and felt.

4.2.1.4 Abstract Nouns

These nouns cannot be felt by any of the sensory organs. We have the following examples in Koro (Migili).

68 i)	áwá	'fear'		
ii)	Kíshísha	'story'		
iii)	kúlɔ̀	'fight'	ayíibrɔ́	'sorrow'
iv)	kíkèlí	'wisdom'	íkóosí	'prayer'
v)	ígbíi	'love'	ínùma	'hunger'

In (68 i-v) above, it is evident that *áwá* 'fear' *kíshísha* 'story', *kúlɔ̀* 'fight', *áyíibrɔ́* 'sorrow', *kíkèlí* 'wisdom', *íkóosí* 'prayer', *ígbíi* 'love', *ínùma* 'hunger' are used to refer to abstract Koro nouns that can neither be touched or seen.

In all, it is important to note that Koro (Migili) nouns are mainly disyllabic with the CV structure in most cases.

4.2.2   Verbs in Koro (Migili)

Verbs in Koro (Migili) express actions or states and the verb is seen as the most vital part of the verb phrase. The argument is that part that is left after the subject of a sentence must have been satisfactorily defined.

Verbs is Koro (Migili) can be classified on the basis of certain criteria. These are morphological, semantic and syntactic.

4.2.2.1 Morphological Criterion

Morphologically, Koro (Migili) verbs consist of a simple verb root such as *tã* 'eat', *swé* 'drink', *náà* 'go', *tsa* 'give birth', *kpoò* 'die' or a complex verb root which many comprise two independent roots.

(69 i) Jò gbɔ̃   (ii) pà kɔ wɔ   (iii)   blɔ̀ kɔ wrɔ́

     cut down   beat to kill   hit to break

     'reduce'   'beat to death'   'hit to break'

The examples (69 i-iii) are complex verb roots in Koro (Migili) which comprises two (or more) independent roots. *Jò gbɔ̃* 'cut down' is a phrasal verb in Koro as well as a complex verb root that can be split into *Jò* 'cut' and *gbɔ̃* 'down'. Also, *pà kɔ wɔ* 'beat to kill' is a complex verb root which combines *pà* 'beat', *kɔ* 'to' and *wɔ* 'kill' to make the complex verb root In Koro (Migili). The same applies to *blɔ̀ kɔ wrɔ́* 'hit to break'. Another form of the complex verb that exists in Koro (Migili) is the serial verb. Verb serialization strings two verbs together in a sequence in which no verb is subordinated to the other. Serial verbs in Koro (Migili) exhibit the features of single predicates and are mono-clausal. Examples of this serial verb include:

70)   i)   dańsɔ̃   náà
                'run'   'go'   'run'
     ii)   ma   bɛ́
                'take'   'come'   'bring it'
     iii)   Krɔ   lò
                'pack'   'put'   'put them'

4.2.2.2 Semantic Criterion

Semantically, verbs in Koro (Migili) can be classed into dynamic and stative. Dynamic verbs express action or event involving an entity. The action verbs are used to express the conscious activity of a participant in a sentence, while the event verbs may not necessarily express any activity. Examples of action verbs include:

71 i)   nère 'lick'

ii)   tã 'eat',

iii)   ri 'stand',

iv)   dídrɛ 'sit'

While examples of events verb in Koro (Migili) include *róò* 'leave' while state verb in the language include *kpoò* 'die'.

Stative verbs express a state or condition which is quite static or unchanging. These verbs do not involve any overt action in their meaning. Stative verbs in Koro (Migili) include.

72 i)   Pɛ'know',

   ii)   drɛ 'live'

   iii)   ní 'see'

The *pɛ* 'know', *drɛ* 'live', *ní* 'see' are used in Koro (Migili) to express emotion of the speaker.

4.2.2.3 Syntactic Criterion

With respect to the syntactic criterion, verbs in Koro (Migili) can be split into lexical and auxiliary verbs. In Koro (Migili), the auxiliary do not occur alone in a sentence without preceding a lexical verb. Lexical verbs on the other hand have semantic independency. Also, auxiliary verbs in Koro (Migili) are often used mainly to show aspectual contrast (how lexical verb action is viewed). Examples of both the lexical and auxiliary verbs are given in the following sentences:

73 i)   Kúnzá   *dɔ*   **tã**   ńtrĩ
         Kúnzá   BE   eat   yam
         'Kúnzá is eating/eats the yam.

   ii)   À-*n*   *pà*   **nyrá**   Kɔ

          He-will   beat   wife   his

          'He will beat his wife'

In the sentences above (73 i-ii) the verbs in italics are auxiliary while the ones in bold are lexical. The verb *dɔ* in (73i) as an auxiliary verb is assisting the main verb *tã* to make the sentence meaningful. In (73 ii), the verb *n* 'will' is helping the verb *pà*.

Some auxiliary verbs in Koro (Migili) could also function as the main verb if they are not assisting other verbs. See illustrations below:

(74).   N *dɔ* nyɛvɛ̀lɛ̀ wá

         I BE a man EMP

In the sentence (74) above, the verb *dɔ* is serves as the main verb because it is the only verb in the sentence that links *n* 'I'and *nyɛvɛ̀lɛ̀* 'man' together.

The lexical verb which is the primary verb can be split into two depending on their functions in Koro (Migili) sentence. The two sub-categories of the Koro (Migili) lexical verbs are transitive and intransitive; transitive because, it obligatorily takes an object but when it does not require an object then it is intransitive. Transitive verbs in Koro (Migili) language can be further split into two: **mono** and **di**. Mono-transitive because it only requires one object complement while the di-transitive takes two object complements. Mono and di-transitive verbs in Koro (Migili) are exemplified in (75) and (76) respectively.

75)   Kúnzá   **Sé**   *ínùu*   nɛ
        Kúnzá   break   pot   the
        'Kúnzá broke the pot'

76)   Ágwadú   **dɔ**   *ẫdzámìnyrá*   nὲ   *ítrĩ́*   blέὲ
        Ágwadú   give   girls   the   yams   some
        'Ágwadú gave the girl some yams'

77)   Kúnzá   **bέ**
        Kúnzá   come
        'Kúnzá came'

78)   Òtsã   **dɔ̀**   sέ   bɔ
        Moon   BE   shinning   COMP.
        'The moon is shining'

The sentences above show that the verbs in (75) and (76) are transitive verbs which are s*é* 'break' and *dɔ* 'give'. This is because both verbs carry noun phrases as objects which are *ínùu* 'pot', *ẫdzámìnyrá* 'girls'and *ítrĩ́* 'yams'. However, while s*é* is a mono transitive verb, *dɔ* is a di-transitive verb because it carries two objects: *ẫdzámìnyrá* and *ítrĩ́*. On the other hand, (77) and (78) are examples of the intransitive as the verbs: *bέ* and *dɔ̀* do not transfer the action of the verbs to any objects.

In view of this, both the syntactic and semantic classification of verbs in Koro (Migili) can be captured with the schema below.

Koro (Migili) Verbs

```
action          event
  |               |
  ↓               ↓
tã   (eat)   ) róò (leave)        ni (be)
swe  (drink)                      Pɛ (know)
nyɛríná (walk)                    drɛ (live)
                                  Kpoo (die)
```
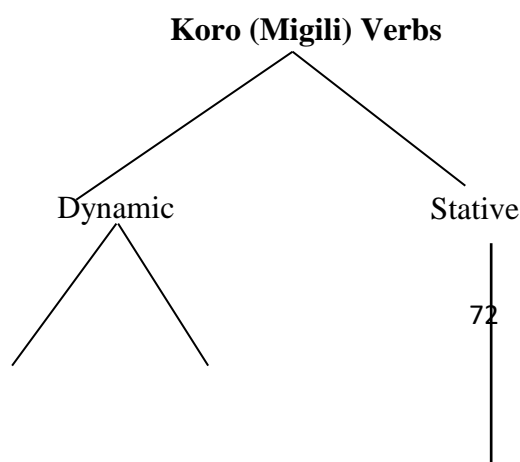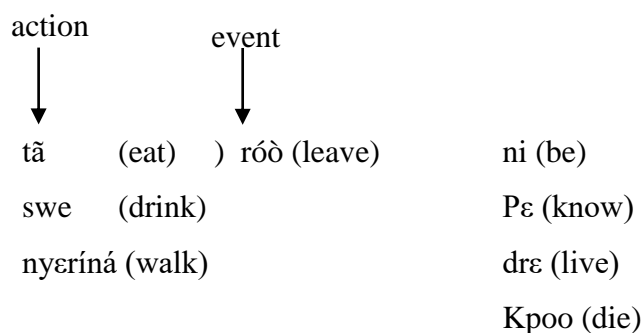
Fig. *4.2*: *Semantic classification of Koro (Migili) verbs*

Consider the sentences below:

79 i)   Ńkàà   **tã**   Shòòpa
        I have   eat   rice
        'I have eaten rice'

  ii)   N   **swé**   ńkwálɛ
        I   drink(pst)   water
        'I drank water'

 iii)   Dzá   Bala   **kpoo**   nnyɛ̀
        Child   Bala   die(past)   yesterday
        'Bala's son   died   yesterday'

 iv)   À   Pɛ   nyɛ́   nɛ̀
       He/she   **know**(PST)   man   the
       'He/she knew the man'

  v)   N   dɔ̀   ǹmótò
       I   have(PST)   car
       'I had a car'

 vi)   nyɛ́   nɛ̀   wɔ   múwaá   nɛ̀
       Person   the   kill(PST)   snake   the
       'The person killed the snake'

  vii) Ǹmà   mɛ́   gbɛ   Kwárá
        Mother   my   buy(PST)   hoe
        'My mother bought a hoe'

From the analysis of the data in (79 i-vii) above, it is evident that verbs have different semantic functions. While *tã*, 'eat' and *swé* 'drink' indicate action, *kpoo* 'die'only

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states an event of death and *pɛ* 'know' as a stative verb merely expresses a state of knowledge rather than an action.

Koro (Migili) Verbs

dɔ̃ (BE)   wɔ 'kill'   dɔ 'give'   shɔńla 'sleep'
à (HAVE)   Krɔ 'sweep'   gbɛ `buy'   zhańwɔ 'cry'
             jɛ̀rɛ 'plant'   zàrɔ 'pour'   tútrɔ 'laugh'
             tɑ̃́ 'eat'   gbo 'throw' Sínyi 'yawn'
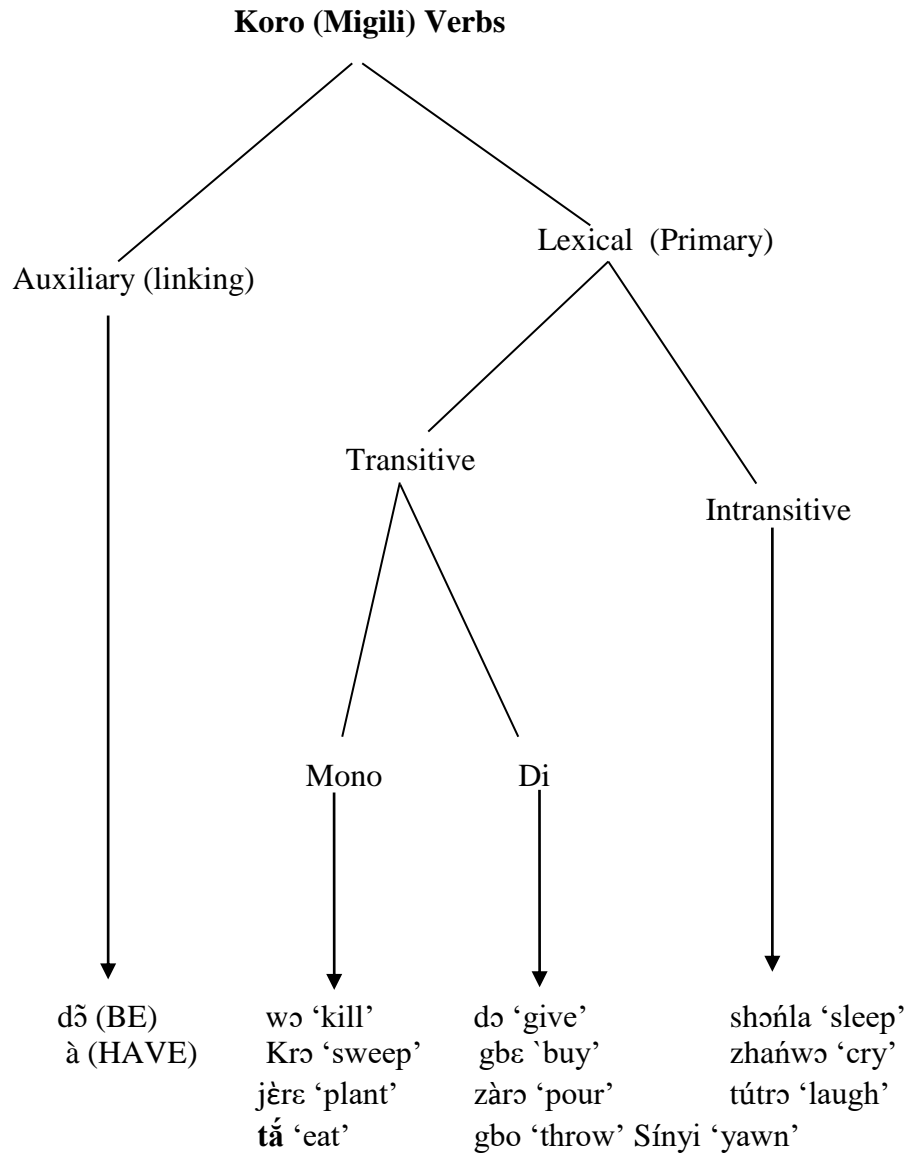
Fig.*4.3*: *Syntactic classification of Koro (Migili) Verbs.*

80 i).   John ma   kílí **dɔ**-ɔ
            John carry rope give(PST)-him
            'John gave him rope'

    ii)   Ńkàà   **tã**   shòòpa
            I have   eat   rice
            'I have eaten rice'

    iii)   N   **swé**   ńkwálɛ
            I   drink(pst)   water
            'I drank water'

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iv)   nyɛ́   nɛ̀   wɔ   múwaá   nɛ̀
        Person   the   kill(pst)   snake   the
        'The person killed the snake'

v)   Ǹmà   mɛ́   **gbɛ**   kwárá
        Mother   my   buy(pst)   hoe
        'My mother bought a hoe'

vi)   Dzá Rose   **Shɔ́nla**   gɔ̀nɔ
        Child Rose   sleep   much
        'Rose's child sleeps much'

vii)   À -n   **tútrɔ̀**   bɔ
        He/she-will laugh   COMP
        'He/she will laugh'

viii)   Ìmɛ̀   **dɔ̀**   shójà   wá
        I   BE   soldier   EMPHATIC
        'I am soldier'

ix)   Ìla   **zɔ̀rɔ**   múgã́   bɔ
        We   do   magic   COMP
        'We practise magic'

From the analysis of the data in (80 i-ix) above, it is evident that the verbs in bold show the functions of Koro (Migili) verbs in sentences. As shown *tã*'eat'*, dɔ* 'give' and *gbɛ* 'buy' are transitive verbs as they transfer their actions to either one or two noun phrases in this   case *shòòpa* 'rice', *kílí* 'rope' and *ɔ* 'you',and *kwárá 'hoe'* respectively. *Shɔ́nla* as a verb is intransitive as it does not transfer any action to the any noun phrase.

To conclude this sub-section, it is worthy to note that auxiliary verbs in Koro (Migili) are so called because they assist the lexical or primary verbs. However, in some cases, they do not assist any lexical verb but occur alone in Koro (Migili) sentences and when they do they are often referred to as linking verbs. These verbs simply state that a person or thing is something or does something by making use of the verb 'to be' which is *dɔ*.

Examples of linking verbs in Koro (Migili) include all the forms of the verb *dɔ*.

81 i)   Òsì   dɔ̀   ǹtrɔ́   bɔ
               God   BE   alive   COMP.
               'God is alive'

ii)   zhɛ́   dɔ̀   ìgàvɔ nwá
         chief BE   title EMPHATIC
         'Chief is a title'

In the sentences above, dɔ̀ in sentences (81 i) and (81 ii) is only serving as a linking verb by connecting the subject with its complement in (81 i) and (81 ii). Another point to note about Koro (Migili) verbs is that some of them are discontinuous morphemes. This is what Awobuluyi (1978) refers to as splitting verbs in traditional grammar. The examples in Koro (Migili) are

82 i)   Kúnzá   **ma**   nyrɑ̃́   kɔ́   **si**   ǹdà   kɔ̃́ɔ̃̀
         Kúnzá   ?   wife   show   father his
         'Kúnzá introduced his wife to his father'

  ii)   Wudu   **Krɔ**   ítrɔ́   **dɔ́**   mínyɛɛ́kìshàshɔ́
         Wudu   ?   clothes give   poor
         'Wudu give clothes to the poor'

In (82) above the verbs *masi* 'show' and *Krɔdɔ́* 'to give' which often occur alone have been split by some intervening lexical items as shown in the sentence. It should be noted that Koro (Migili) does not mark any agreement between the verb and the number of the nouns as shown in (82 i) and (82 ii) below.

 83 i)   Kúnzá tã ágíìtɑ̃́ bɔ
         Kúnzá eat food COMP.
         'Kúnzá eats food'

  ii)   Kúnzá ńsɔ̃̀ Agwadu tã ágíìtɑ̃́   bɔ
         Kúnzá and Agwadu eat food COMP.
         'Kúnzá and Agwadu eat food'

4.2.3 Pronouns in Koro (Migili)

This part of speech serves as a substitute for nouns and noun phrases and can serve in any noun position in sentences. It is specifically used to make reference to people and things. These pronouns in Koro (Migili) can be split into different sub categories as discussed below.

4.2.3.1 Personal/Possessive Pronouns

Grammatically, the personal pronoun stands for person or thing in three forms: first person, second person and third person. While the possessive pronoun is concerned with ownership and they perform the role of determiners when they occur in the same

phrase with the nouns they modify. For easy identification, these pronouns have been represented in a tabular form.

Table *4.2*: *Koro (Migili) Personal/Possessive Pronouns*

Person	Subject/Nominative		Object/ Accusative		Possessive/Genitives	
	Singular	*Plural*	*Singular*	*Plural*	*Singular*	*Plural*
1st	ìmὲ 'I'	ìla 'we'	mὲ 'me'	la 'us'	ńnamɛ 'mine'	Ńnála 'ours'
2nd	ìwɔ̀/ɔ 'you'	Ìyi 'you'	wɔ̀/ɔ 'you'	yi 'you'	ńnawɔ 'yours'	Ńnáyi 'yours'
3rd	ìnɔ/a 'he/she'	Ìba 'they'	ìnɔ/ɔ 'him/her'	ba 'them'	ńnákɔ̃̂ɔ̃ 'his/hers'	Ńnába 'theirs'

The table (4.2) above shows the grammatical distinction called person (pronominal system) of Koro (Migili) in their singular and plural forms. The pronominal system in Koro (Migili) is independent because the morphological shape is not determined by the phonological shape of the vowel (s) of the stem in their environment. It is also important to note that the pronominal forms of Koro (Migili) are syntactically independent. Consider the following examples in (84 i-ix) below:

84 i) **Ńnála** kὲ
Ours here
'Here is ours'

ii) **ìwɔ̀** dɔ lɔlɔ wá
You BE fool EMPHATIC
'You are a fool'

iii) Àn ma dɔ **wɔ̀** bɔ
He will carry give you COMP
'He will give you'

iv) Lan dɔ́ **yi** bɔ
We will praise you COMP
'We will praise you'

v) Lɛ **ńnawɔ́** cὲnɛ
Leave yours here
'leave your own here'

vi) **Ba** ma ńnáyi naba
They carry yours go
'They have gone with your own'

vii) **Ìnɔ** naa sìsĩ?
He go where
'where did he go'?

viii) **Ìba** kpõ kína
They cultivate farm
'They cultivated the farm'

ix). Wànɛ za **ńnába** na
This not their EMPHATIC
'This one is not theirs'

From the examples (84 i-ix) above, it is evident that the words that appear in bold are not syntactically dependent as there is no difference between the words and those in table (4.2) above. It is also important to note that Koro (Migili) has what is known as tense complement. In (84 iii) and (84 iv), *bɔ*, is given as a complement. *Bɔ* is often used as a simple present/ habitual tense as well as simple future tense complements.

4.2.3.2 Indefinite Pronoun

This is used as a pronoun which has no definite referent. It is often used as an un-agented passive as shown in Koro examples below:

85 i) **nyɛlò** trɔ́ ágíìtá̃ nɛ̀
someone cook (PST) food the
'someone cooked the food'

ii) **minyɛ iblɛ** pà Àgwadú
people some beat Àgwadú
'Some people had beaten Àgwadú'

From (85 i-ii) above, it is clear that the pronouns *nyɛlò* 'someone'and *minyɛ iblɛ* 'some people' that serve as the subjects of the sentences indicate the fact that the identity of the subjects is not familiar to the speaker (s).

4.2.3.3 Demonstrative Pronouns in Koro (Migili)

These are words which serve to locate an entity in space in terms of whether it is near to or away from the speaker. Koro (Migili) has two singular demonstratives and two plural demonstratives which are distinguished on the basis of their tones (suprafixation). The same structure is used for 'this' and 'that' with their differences expressed by the use of tones as seen below:

Singular demonstratives   **Plural**

| Wànɛ/nɛ | 'this (one)' | íbànɛ | 'these (ones)' |
| wánɛ̀/nɛ̀ | 'that (one)' | íbánɛ̀ | 'those (ones)' |

Examples:

86 i).   ítsi   **Wànɛ**   ítsi   **wánɛ̀**

House this   house that

'this house'   'that house'

 ii)   ítsi   **íbànɛ**   ítsi   **íbánɛ̀**

 house these   house those

'these houses' 'those houses'

The data (86) above shows that tone is the feature that determines the meaning of demonstrative pronouns in Koro (Migili). Structurally, *wànɛ* 'this' and *wánɛ̀* 'that' are same in Koro (Migili) and represented as *wanɛ* while *íbànɛ* 'these' and *íbánɛ̀* 'those' are represented in the language as *ibanɛ*. The difference between *wànɛ/wánɛ̀* 'this/that' and *íbànɛ/ íbánɛ̀* 'these/those' is determined by tone. The demonstrative pronouns in Koro (Migili) are phonologically dependent   on tone as the HL on the *wane* gives 'that' while a LM gives 'this'. On the other hand, HLM on *ibane* gives 'these' while HHL gives 'those'. In Koro (Migili), the realisation of demonstrative pronouns is morphophonemic as phonology of the language plays a vital role in categorising demonstrative pronouns.

4.2.3.4 Reflexive Pronouns

This makes reference to an already mentioned entity, particularly in the same clause which must agree in number and tense to the referent. In Koro (Migili) these pronouns are coded in *nàva* 'with hands' + pronouns: *nàvamɛ́ɛ̀* 'myself', *nàvawɔ* 'yourself', *nàvakɔ* 'himself/herself', *nàvala* 'ourselves', *nàvayi,* 'yourselves' *nàvaba* 'themselves' are illustrated below:

87 i)   N   wɔ   múwa   nɛ̀   **nàvamɛ́ɛ̀**

	I	kill(pst)	smake	the	myself

' I killed the goat myself'

ii) Wɔ̀/ɔ zwe ítsi nɛ̀ **nàvawɔ**
you build (pst) house the yourself
'you built the house yourself'

iii) À gru ágwángwá nɛ̀ **nàvakɔ**
He/She wash(pst) plates the himself/herself
'he/she washed the plates himself/herself'

iv) La sɛ́ ínu nɛ̀ **nàvála**
we break (pst) pot the ourselves
'We broke the pot ourselves'

In the sentences (87 i-iv) above, the *nàva* makes reference to *n* while *nàvawɔ, nàvakɔ, nàvála* make reference to *wɔ, kɔ* and *la* respectively. It is noteworthy to state that *nàva* 'with hands', *nàvamɛ̀ɛ̀* 'myself' and *nàvawɔ 'youself', navakɔ* 'himself/herself' and *nàvála 'ourselves'* show agreement in number to their referents *n* 'i', *wɔ* 'you', *a* 'he/she' and *la* 'we'.any attempts to use a reflexive pronoun in Koro (Migili) without making reference to number will derive sentences that are ungrammatical as seen in example (88) below:

(88) ***La** gru ínu nɛ **navàkɔ**
1stPL wash(PST) pot the himself/herself
*'We washed the pot himself/herself'

The sentence above is ungrammatical because the *navakɔ* 'himself/herself' is not making reference to *la* 'we' in terms of number. The reflexive pronoun *navakɔ is a 3sg* possessive while the referent *la is 1st*PL, hence the difference in number and person makes the sentence (88) above ungrammatical.

4.2.3.5 Relative Pronouns

This kind of pronouns introduces relative clause which usually functions as a single modifier for the noun phrase. In Koro (Migili), the relative pronoun is a bound morpheme. This bound morpheme cannot exist alone as a word but only realised in sentences where it is used to introduce a relative clause. The relative pronoun in Koro (Migili) is *kv*. The 'k' is the archiphoneme which assimilates the stem of the personal pronoun that comes after it. Consider the following sentences below:

89 i) A   dɔ shɔ   rúgɔ tùnu k-á   za   Abuja nɛ
       PRO has fall(PST) sick   since REL-PRO arrive(PST) Abuja   the
       'He/she has fallen sick since he/she arrived Abuja'

  ii) Nyɛ   kí   yi   nayi   ńsùnɔ záan dɔ̀ yà   mɛ nwá
       person REL-PRO go (PST) with   before BE friend my   EMP
       'The person that you went with is my friend'

  iii) Ńgá k-ɔ   zɔ̀rɔ   nɛ̀ dzîi
       thing REL-PRO do (PST) the bad
       'The thing that you did is bad'

From the sentences (89 i-iii) above, it is evident that the relative pronoun in Koro (Migili) can   be *ka,* ki and *kɔ* depending on the vowel of the personal pronoun that comes after the relative bound morpheme *k*. In (89 i), the relative pronoun is *ká* because of the third   person singular pronoun *a* 'he/she' which gets assimilated by the *k*. Also, in (89 ii), *ki* is the relative pronoun. This is realised when *k* assimilates the initial vowel of the pronoun *iyi* 'you' leaving *yi* to stand as 'you'. In (89 iii), the personal pronoun *ɔ* 'you' gets assimilated as the only segment that makes the syllable. From sentences (89 i) and (89 iii) where *a 'he'* and *ɔ are* vowels assimilated by *k* to make the *ka* and *kɔ* stand for 'that he' and 'that you' respectively. Since the only constant element in realising the relative pronoun in Koro (Migili) is *k* while the vowel will be determined by the vowel of the personal pronoun after it, it can be concluded that the relative pronoun in Koro (Migili) is *kv*.

4.2.3.6 Interrogative Pronouns

This is usually used to ask questions. The interrogative pronouns which are also referred to as question markers in Koro (Migili) are combined with other words to make questions in Koro (Migili). Examples of interrogative pronouns in Koro (Migili) are *wùsī* 'which'?, *ngìsîi* 'what'?, *rùwɔísí* 'when', *ǹnyɛ̀* 'who'?, *lúbɔ́* 'how' *sìsî* 'where' as used in the following sentences:

90 i) **Rùwɔísí**   kɔ́   ɔ̀-n   náà?
       'when   that   you-will   go
       'when will you go?'

  ii) **nyíbɔ́**   kɔ́   la   dukúlɔ̀
       because of what that we   fight?
       'Why are we fighting'

iii) **Ǹnyɛ́** pà dzá mɛ́ɛ̀?
Who beat child my?
'who beat my son?'

From the sentences (90 i-iii) above, it is clear that the question markers in Koro (Migili) are used to form questions in the language. It should be noted however that these questions markers cannot be used as relative pronoun as it is obtained in English language. *Rùwɔísí* 'when', *nyíbɔ́* 'because' and *ǹnyɛ́* 'who'as used in the interrogative sentences above indicate the fact that these Koro (Migili) sentences are questions and structurally they often appear at the beginning of such sentences since they cannot serve as relative clause introducers. However when such sentences appear as embedded questions they are retained.

4.2.4 Adjectives in Koro (Migili)

This part of speech describes nouns irrespective of their positions in sentences whether attributive or predicative. Examples of Koro (Migili) adjectives include: *zwa/zúzwà* 'good' *dzîi* 'bad', *mìtī* 'black' *viɪ́vlú* 'white' *kùkpò* 'large/big', *kwɛ́ɛ́* 'small'. Majority of these adjectives are used mainly attributively as in the examples below:

91 i) Dzányínyrá **zúzwá** nɛ dɔ̀ dzáǹmà mɛ́ nwá
girl good the BE sister my EMP
'The good girl is my sister'

ii) ítsi **kùkpò**
house big
'big house'

As can be observed from the examples in (91i-ii), the Koro (Migili) adjectives in their attributive function are normally preceded by the nouns they modify. Whereas most of the Koro (Migili) adjectives are attributive, there are some adjectives that can be used predicatively. However, the adjective *zúzwá* 'good' is restricted to its attributive usage. The following adjectives can be used predicatively as illustrated in (91i-ii).

92 i) Ágíìtǎ nɛ̀ dɔ̀ **nɛ̀nɛ̀**
food the BE tasty
'The food is tasty'

ii) ítsi   nὲ   dɔ̀   **mìtí**
    house   the   BE   black
    'The house is black'

Compare (i-ii) with (iii) which is not acceptable in Koro (Migili).

iii) *ítsi   nὲ   dɔ̀   **zúzwá**
     house   the   BE   good
     'The house is good'

It is evident from the sentence above (92iii) that *zúzwá* cannot occur after a verb in Koro (Migili) sentence.

4.2.5 Adverbs in Koro (Migili)

Adverbs provide specific information about place, time or manner to the meaning of a verb, an adjective or even a whole sentence. In Koro (Migili), adverbs are often derived basically from adjectives through reduplication. Examples of this part of speech: *floflo* 'slowly', *pàplàpàplà* 'quickly', *kówìnisà* 'daily', *pipíni* 'very dark', *rúgɔrúgɔ* 'sickly'. These are illustrated in the sentences below:

93 i) Dzá   nὲ   tã   Ágíìtã̌ nὲ   **kówìnisà**
      Child the   eat(PST) food   the   daily
      'The child ate the food daily'

ii) Kúyo nὲ   dɔ̀   **pipíni**   nwá
    room the   is   very dark   EMP
    'the room is very dark'

From examples (93i-ii) above, it is evident that *kówìnisà* 'daily' and pipíni 'very dark' are adverbs in Koro (Migili) in view of their roles in sentences (93i-ii) above. While *kówìnisà* 'daily' modifies the verb *tã* 'eat' by showing the manner of the action of the verb, *pipíni* 'very dark' modifies the verb *dɔ̀*. It is worth noting that adverbs in Koro (Migili) are derived from other word classes like adjectives and nouns. However not all adverbs in the language are derived. There are adverbs that are underived that is there is a class of words with morphological markings indicating that they are adverbs in the language. However only two of these words exist in the language: *gɔ̀nɔ* 'too much/very' and *móò* 'very'. Consider the sentences below:

94 i) A-a   zwá   **gɔ̀nɔ**
      It-BE beautiful very/too much
      'It is very beautiful '

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ii) Nyínyra nὲ ka zwá   nὲ **móò** akpo   ìnyɛ
     Woman the that beautiful the very die (PST) yesterday
     'That very beautiful woman died yesterday'

Structurally in this language, the underived adverbs are often positioned after
adjectives as shown in (94 i) and (94 ii) where zwá comes before gɔ̀nɔ and *móò*
respectively.

4.2.6 Prepositions in Koro (Migili)

This part of speech is used to express some kind of relationship between persons,
things or events in a sentence in relation to time, space and location. Examples of
prepositions in Koro (Migili) are: *lukpɛ* 'in' *Kùcɔ́* 'on' *nàta* 'under', *ńsɔ̀* 'with', and *á*
'of'

95 i) John náà   ísɛ́ ńsɔ̀ Sunday
       John go(PST) farm with Sunday
       'John went to farm with Sunday'

ii)   Mùwaá nɛ́ dɔ̀ nàta ínu nɛ́ bɔ
       Snake   the BE under pot the come
       'The snake is under the pot'

iii)   Kwárá dɔ̀ Kùcɔ́ tɛbɔ̀   bɔ
       Hoe   BE on   table Come
       'The hoe is on the table'

iv)   Ìmὲ dɔ̀ dzá **á** zhɛ́ nwa
       I   BE child of king come
       'I am a child of the king'

From the sentences in (95i-iv) above, it is evident that , *á, nàta* and *Kùcɔ́* are showing
relationship between persons, things or events in a sentence in relation to time, space
and location. The prepositions *ńsɔ̀* 'and', *nàta* 'under', **k**ùcɔ́ 'on', *á* 'of' are used in
Koro (Migili) to show the relationship between nouns in the sentences (95 i-iv). *ńsɔ̀,*
'and' links John and Sunday, while *nàta* 'under' shows the position of *mùwaá* 'snake'
in relation to *ìínu* 'pot'.

4.2.7 Conjunctions in Koro (Migili)

A conjunction is a member of a class of words whose function is to join linguistic
units such as phrases, clauses and sentences. Example are: ńsɔ̀ 'and', *àmá* 'but' *dàna*
'or' *kɔ́nyínὲ* 'yet'

96 i) John **ńsɔ̀** James naba   Abuja ńnyɛ

John and James go (PST) Abuja yesterday
'John and James went to Abuja yesterday

ii) A no ìgìzáàm **àmá** áá tã ma
He write(PST) examination but he eat not
'He sat the examination but he did not pass'

iii) Drí Kpɔ̀ɔ́ **dàna** ɔ-n gbugbla wa
Try hard or you-will fail EMPHATIC
'Try hard or/otherwise you will fail'

iv) A gbo-múzã **kónyínɛ̀** lɛ́ɛ̀lɛ maa
He/she swim yet water carry
'He/she swam yet he was drowned'

In (96 i- iv), the words in bold are conjunctions in Koro (Migili) which are used to link nouns as in (96 i) above where *ńsɔ̀* 'and' is used to link John and James to make them compound subject or to link clauses as in (96 ii) where *àmá* 'but' links *a no ìgìzáàm* 'he wrote examination' to *átãma* 'he did not pass. The same applies to (96 iii) and (96 iv) respectively.

4.2.8 Interjections in Koro (Migili)

This part of speech shows the emotion or feeling of the author. In Koro (Migili), this part of speech is used to express surprise, disapproval, and shock (of sadness).

Examples of this part of speech are:

Gbú! To express disapproval/rejection to offer help
Wúuu! To express shock (of sadness)
Cha! To express surprise
Kai! To express surprise
97) Dzá wànɛ à ma nyra
Boy/child this he marry (pst) wife
'that boy is married'
Kai!
Iyí!

The sentence (97) above shows that the interjections *kai!* and *iyí!* are used to express the surprise that a child got married

4.3 Word Formation Processes in Koro (Migili)

Koro (Migili) like every other language employs various techniques to derived words to expand its vocabulary. The techniques commonly found in Koro (Migili) are prefixation, compounding, reduplication, clipping and borrowing. These shall be discussed in details.

Word formation is a derivational or formation of words through some processes or strategies. It focuses on how words are constructed, what constitute them, and the processes (morphological and phonological) that take place in their construction. Morphemes are the building blocks of words in any language; in view of this, we shall examine the different types of Koro (Migili) morphemes that are used in the building of Koro (Migili) words. Koro (Migili) morphemes are different in form and in application. This results to various types of the morphemes such as bound, free and zero.

The bound morphemes of Koro (migili) are *a-*, *i-*, *mu-*, *amu-*, *mi-* ,*nyí-* and *nyɛ-*. Although morphemes have meaning, bound morphemes cannot convey any wholistic meaning on their own without being used in conjunction to other bound morphemes.

Koro (migili) free morphemes on the other hand have been exemplified as in (98 i) below to include:

(98 i)   *áwá* 'fear',

(ii)   *kíshísha* 'story',

(iii)   *kúswé* 'fish',

 (iv)   *íseni* 'river',

 (v)   *kíci* 'tree',

 (vi)   *rúgɔ̀* 'mountain

The last type of the morpheme is the *zero morphemes*. Koro (Migili) zero morpheme indicates a grammatically significant absence of a morpheme in a word-form. This occurs in plural formation of certain words as shown below: *ina* 'scorpion', *imru* 'beard', *íshɔ* 'bee', *aza* 'name'.These words have their plural forms same as the singular because the plurals of these words are formed using the zero morpheme.

It is however note-worthy to state that suffixation in Koro (Migili) is not as productive as others. The few examples are those given by Oyesunkanmi (2011) as shown below:

word   meaning   plural

(99)   gbɔ̃   fall   gbɛrɛ
       gru   wash   gùgra

This has been exemplified in the sentence below for clarity.

(100 i)   Kúpì nὲ gbɔ̃
               Wall the fall (pst)
               'The wall fell'

(ii)   Ápì nὲ gbɛrɛ
               Walls the fall (pst)
               'The walls fell'

4.3.1 Prefixation

This process in Koro (Migili) performs both grammatical and derivational functions in the language. The most commonly used prefixes are: *á-, mú-, í-, mù-, àmù-, mí-nyí-* and *nyɛ-*. Of these prefixes, *á-, àmù-, mí-* only play inflectional functions that shall not be discussed in view of the scope of this work. *Nyí-, mù-* and *nyɛ-* only play derivational functions. While *mú-* and *í-* play both derivational and inflectional functions. In all, derivational prefixes in Koro (Migili) are *í, mú, nyí-, nyɛ-* and *mù-* as illustrated below. It should be noted that in Koro (Migili), when prefixation plays a derivational role, it often results to nominalisation as show below:

(101 i) a. **nyí-** ígwàra   'opening'   nyígwàra   'one who opens (doors)'
               jὲrɛ   'plant'   nyíjὲrɛ   'one who plants'
               mὲrɛ   'learn'   nyíjὲrɛ   'learner'
               wɔ   'kill'   mínyɛ 'people'   nyíwɔmínyɛ   'killer (of person)'
               zwɛ   'build' kúpì 'wall'   nyízwɛkúpì   'builder'

(ii)   í-   jὲmìjɛ̃   íjɛmìjɛ̃
               'to direct'   'direction'
               kwàna   íkwàna
               'admre'   'admiration'
               Pó   ípó
               'to intoxicate'   'intoxication'
               gbɛ   ígbɛ
               'to receive'   'reception'

(iii)   **nyɛ-**   múgã́   nyɛmùgã̀
               'magic'   'magician'
               múzɔ̃́   nyɛmùzɔ̃̀
               'journey'   'traveller'

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From the data (101i-ii) above, it is evident that the prefixes *nyí-* and *í-* play derivational roles which result to nominalisation. While the prefix *nyí* plays the role of agentive marker in Koro (Migili), *í-* serves as a nominalising prefix as exemplified in (101i-iii) above.

Since prefixation in Koro (Migili) plays a derivational role that results to nominalisation in the language, we shall look at nominalisation as a product of prefixation in Koro (Migili). In Koro (Migili), a noun is formed from a combination of a prefix and a verb or from the combination of a prefix and other lexical categories. Nominal in Koro (Migili) can also be derived through the morphological process of compounding as discussed **in below**. *Í, mú, nyí-, nyɛ-* and *mù-* are the major nominalising prefixes known to Koro (Migili) language. These have been discussed below.

The structures of Koro (Migili) nominalisation that we will examine in this work can be summarised as

a. Nom. Prefix + verb (Vb)

b. Nom. Prefix + Noun (Nn)

c. Nom. Prefix + verb (Vb) + Noun (Nn)

4.3.1.1 Nom. Prefix + vb

102i) í   #   kwàna   ⟶   íkwàna
     Nom. Prefix   'to admire'   'admiration'

   ii) í   #   brɔ   ⟶   íbrɔ́
     Nom. Prefix   'spoil/destroy'   'destruction'

  iii) mú   #   zwá   ⟶   Múzwá
     Nom. Prefix   'good/beautiful   'goodness/beauty'

  iv) mú   #   sɑ̃́   ⟶   músɑ̃́
     Nom. Prefix   'sweet'   'sweetness'

From the data above, it is evident that *í, mú* are nominalising prefixes. Also revealed is the fact that there is tonal stability, specifically the low and high tones when words are nominalised in Koro (Migili) as seen in (102 i) where the tone of *kwàna* 'to admire' is maintained. However, the mid tones are changed to high as evident in *brɔ* and *zwa* which become *brɔ́* and *zwá* when nominalised.

4.3.1.2   Nom. Prefix + Nn ⟶ Noun

(103 i)	nyɛ	#	áklodzi	⟶	nyɛ́ɛ̀klodzi
	Nom. prefix		'money'		'wealthy man'
(ii)	nyɛ	#	múgã̀	⟶	nyɛmùgã̀
	Nom. prefix		'magic/charm'		'magician'
(iii)	nyɛ	#	múzɔ̃́	⟶	nyɛmùzɔ̃̀
	Nom. prefix		'journey'		'traveller'
(iv)	nyɛ	#	mízɛ̃	⟶	nyɛ́mìzɛ̃
	Nom. Prefix		'market'		'trader'
(v)	nyɛ	#	kúpɔ̀	⟶	nyɛ́kùpɔ̀
	Nom. Prefix		'village/place'		'villager'
(vi)	nyí	#	kpókína	⟶	nyíkpókína
	Nom. prefix		'farm'		'farmer'

From the data in (103 i-iv) above, it is evident that the *nyɛ-* prefix has a different tonal pattern compared to the other nominalising prefixes. The *nyɛ-* nominalising prefix changes the tone of the vowel of its stem to an all low tone pattern as in *nyɛ+múzɔ̃́* 'magic/charm' = *nyɛmùzɔ̃̀* 'magician', while the mid tone is retained as in *nyɛ +áklodzi* = nyɛ́ɛ̀klodzi 'wealthy man'. The prefix also in some cases especially when it preceeds a vowel as seen in (103 i) above where the initial vowel assimilates the vowel of the prefix while the tone of the vowel is assimilated by the vowel of the nominalising prefix to have *ɛ́ɛ̀* as seen in the word *nyɛ́ɛ̀klodzi* 'wealthy man'. The nominalising prefixes in the data (103 i-vi) above, *nyɛ-* and *nyí-* play agentive roles.

4.3.1.3   Nom. prefix + vb + Nn   ⟶   Noun

(104 i)	mù	#	zɔ̀rɔ	#	múgã́	⟶	Mùzɔ̀rɔ́mùgã́
	Nom. Prefix		'do'		medicine		'medicine man'
(ii)	mù	#	wɔ	#	mínyɛ	⟶	mùwɔ́mínyɛ
	Nom. Prefix		'kill'		'people'		'murderers'
(iii)	Nyí	#	Kũ	#	ńkpĩ	⟶	nyíkṹńkpĩ
	Nom.prefix		'guard'		'place'		'guard man'
(iv)	Nyí	#	Krɔ	#	kúcɔ́	⟶	nyíkrɔ́Kúcɔ́
	Nom. Prefix		'park'		'head'		'barber'

The data (104 i-iv) above also shows how words are nominalised using the structure *Nom. prefix+ vb+Nn*. There is also evidence of tonal stability for low and high tones whereas the mid tone becomes high when nominalised irrespective of the tones of the nominalising prefixes as shown in (104 i-iv) above where *mù* 'nominalising prefix' *zɔ̀rɔ* 'do' *múgã́* 'medicine' which were combined to form *mùzɔ̀rɔ́mùgã́* 'medicine man'. However, when the vowel of the verb is having a Mid tone it changes to a high

tone as shown in (104 i-iv) where *zə̀rɔ* 'do', *wɔ* 'kill', *kũ* 'guard', *krɔ* 'park' with Mid tones becoming high as in *zə̀rɔ́, wɔ́, kṹ,*and *krɔ́.*

4.3.2 Compounding

This is a process of word formation in which two or more free morphemes (words) are combined to form a new word. The process of compounding involves two processes which have been classed based on the boundaries of the words to be compounded. The boundaries of the words to be compounded in Koro (Migili) can be strong or weak. It is a strong word boundary when segment or syllables are not elided during compounding. Examples are shown below:

		kúcɔ́	#	rúgə̀	===>	kúcɔ́rúgə̀
		'head'		'mountain'		'mountain top'
(105 i)						
	ii)	dzá	#	zhɛ́	===>	dzazhɛ́
		'child'		'king'		'prince'
	iii)	zhɛ́	#	lúkɔ́	===>	zhɛ́lùkɔ́
		'king'	#	'war'		'warrior'
	iv)	kúsolo	#	kpò	===>	kúsolokpò
22		'finger'		'elder'		'toe'
	v)	ídzri	#	mùzã	====>	ídzrímùzã
		'buttocks'		'stream'		'stream bank'
	vi)	ntrí	#	fùlé	===>	fùléntrí
		'yam'		'flower'		'yam flower'

From the data in (105 i-vi) above it is evident that the individual words that come together to form the compound words have none of their segments or syllables elided. This is to show that phonology has no effect on the derived forms. The examples above are examples of the strong word boundary. Also noticed is the fact that compounding in Koro (Migili) is a nominalising tool even though the individual words that make up the compound might not all be nouns. It should be noted that Koro (Migili) compounds have a pattern as to how they are structured during derivation. In Koro (Migili), the head of the compound always appear first after compounding irrespective of their positions before compounding. From the examples above, *kúcɔ́* 'head' is the head of the compound and not *rúgə̀* 'mountain', hence its position at the beginning of the compound. In (105 vi) above, the head of the individual words to be compounded is *fùlé* 'flower' and not *ntrí* 'yam', hence *fùléntrí* 'yam flower'.

(106 i)	dzá	#	nyɛvɛlɛ	===>	dzávɛ̀lɛ̀
	'child'		'male'		'boy'
ii)	kùyo	#	àdùwa	===>	kùyodùwa

	'room'	'pray'		'church'
iii)	ízã #	itsi	====>	ítsízã
	'grave'	'yard'		'graveyard'

The examples (106 i, 106 ii and 106 iii) show what we refer to as weak word boundary. This is because of the elision of segment and syllable. In (106i), *nye* was deleted while *à* and *í* as segments were elided in (106 ii) and (106 iii) respectively. This weak boundary shows the contribution of phonology to Koro (Migili) word formation. The phonological process(es) that apply to the examples (106 i-iii) above have helped to eliminate that part that could have blocked the application of compounding in the formation of *dzávèlè, kùyodùwa* and *ítsízã*.

In Koro (Migili), elision plays a vital role in word-formation as a process which brings compatibility   between different items which may be words in compounding. This phonological process helps to eliminate the part(s) that may block the application of the morphological rule(s). It may separate a vowel and the   consonant of the same syllable.

In compounding, it is normally the terminative vowel of the first noun or the initial vowel of the second item that is open to elision for examples:

| (107 i) Kùyo # | àdùwa | ====> | Kùyodúwa |
| ii) Dzà # | nyεvèlè | ====> | dzàvèlè |

In some instances, it is the whole morpheme that is elided as it is the case in the example below where the singular prefixes are elided before adding the plural prefixes during pluralisation.

(108 i) múwa 'snake'   íwa   'snake'

4.3.3   Reduplication in Koro (Migili)

This is a morphological process whereby either part or a whole stem is copied and attached to the root either at the beginning or end. In Koro (Migili), this process is often seen as a derivational process which majorly adverbializes morphemes from other parts or speech. The process can also be used to adjectivize words in Koro (Migili). Reduplication can be split into two: complete and partial. In Koro (Migili)

we have these two kinds. We shall discuss the complete reduplication as it applies to Koro (Migili). Examples of complete reduplication in Koro (Migili) include the following (109).

(109 i) flò 'slow' 'adjective' ===> flòflò 'very slow' 'adverb'
    ii) pàplà 'quick' 'adjective' ===> pàplàpàplà 'quickly' 'adverb'
    iii) rúgɔ̀ 'sick' 'adjective' ===> rúgɔ́rúgɔ 'sickly' 'adverb'
    iv) ḿbɔ̃ 'sand' 'noun'===> ḿbɔ̃ḿbɔ̃ 'sandy' 'adjective'
    v) ńkɔ́ 'powder''noun' ===> ńkɔ́ńkɔ́ 'powdery' 'adjective'
    vi) ńce 'saliva''noun' ===> ńcɛ̋ńcɛ 'salivary' 'adjective'

From the examples in (109 i-vii) above, it is clear that reduplication is a tool for adjectivisation and adverbialisation. The examples in (109) above are those of complete reduplication. As it has been revealed, the reduplicated data copies the complete stem without any segment or syllable being elided. In (109 i), *flò* 'slow' becomes *flòflò* 'very slow' while *rúgɔ̀* 'hill' becomes *rúgɔ́rúgɔ̀* 'hilly'. It should however be noted that in reduplication, the derived forms always maintain the tones of the words that were reduplicated as seen in (109 v) *ńkɔ́* 'powder' where the high tone on the vowel is maintained in the reduplicated form *ńkɔ́ńkɔ́* 'powdery'.

We also have the partial reduplication in Koro (Migili) where part of the word has been reduplicated. This is illustrated in (110) below:

(110 i) ágbã 'odour' 'noun' ===> ágbágbã 'smelling' 'adjective'
    ii) ńkwálɛ 'water' 'noun'===> ńkwáńkwálɛ 'watery' 'adjective'
    iii) áwa 'leaf' 'noun' ===> áwáwa 'leafy' 'adjective'

In (110) above, the reduplicated forms are not complete as only parts of their stems have been reduplicated. This means that a segment or a syllable has been elided. In (110 i) and (110 iii), *ã, á* were elided while in (110 ii) *lɛ* was elided. It is also evident that the reduplicated forms whose segment or syllable has been partly copied appearing first in the reduplicated forms as shown in *ágbágbã, ńkwáńkwálɛ* and *áwáwa* where the stems which have been partially copied structured at the beginning of the reduplicated form.

It is noteworthy to state that reduplication in Koro (Migili) does not play any grammatical function like pluralisation and indicating tense in sentences.

4.3.4 Clipping in Koro (Migili)

This has to do with reducing an entire phrase or sentence into a single word especially a noun. This morphological process is commonly used in Koro (Migili) language in expressions such as (111):

(111 i)	Ńko	á	òsì	===> Ńkosì	
	'thanks	of	God'		'Thank God'
ii)	Kùtúmá	á	òsì	===> Kùtúmásì	
	'work	of	God'		'God's work'
iii)	Sawá	á	òsì	===> Sawásì	
	'fear	of	God'		'fear God'
iv)	Là à cɛ́ òsì ńko			===> Làcɛ́sìko	
	'We have greet God thanks'			'We have thanked God'	

From (111 i-iv) above it is evident that in Koro (Migili), a phrase and sentence can be shortened to a word and in most cases it is often reduced to a noun in the language. In (111 i-iii), *ńko á òsí* 'thanks of God', *kùtúmá á òsì* 'work of God' and *sawá á òsì* 'fear of God' were shortened to *ńkosì* 'thank God', *kùtúmásì* 'God's work' and *sawásì* 'fear God' respectively. In Koro (Migili) clipping a phrase involves an assimilation of prepositions as seen in (111 i-iii) where á 'of' is assimilated. In (111 iv), *la á cɛ́ òsì ńko* 'we have greet God thanks', which is a sentence in the language has been shortened to *làcɛ́sìko* 'we have thanked God'. One noticeable pattern maintained in Koro (Migili) clipping is the fact that all the initial words are always retained along with their tones. Also important to note is the fact that the clipped construction maintains a level of tonal stability for example the onset in the syllable *òsì* though the *ò* gets assimilated but the tone on the *ì* is maintained so it is for most of the lexical items in the sentences so clipped.

4.3.5 Borrowing

This is an important aspect of word formation process in Koro. It is a process whereby foreign words are incorporated into the language usually with phonological and morphological modifications so as to be congruent with the Koro (Migili) phonological and morphological paradigms and to avoid any violation of the Koro (Migili) sound patterns. This section examines any systematic segmental or supra segmental alternations in loanwords. The aim is to determine the changes that English loanwords into Koro (Migili) undergo to become Koro (Migili) words.Some

of the changes that loanwords undergo are: sound change/replacement, declusterization and insertion.

4.3.5.1 Sound Replacement

Some of the loanwords from English undergo sound replacement or substitution in view of the difference that exists between the phonologies of English and Koro (Migili). It is discovered that most of the sounds that end up being replaced are often diphthongs and foreign (English) sounds which the Koro (Migili) phonology lack. Examples are shown below.

(112 i) /ei/ replaced with /e,ɛ,ee/

Table/teib/	====>	/tɛ́bɔ/
Paper/peipə/	====>	/pépà/
Cake /keik/	====>	/Kéiki/

(ii)   /ə/ replaced with   /a, ɔ, o/

Pastor /pa:stə/	====>	/pasto/
Father /fa:ðə/	====>	/fàdá/
Bishop /biʃəp/	====>	/bishɔpu/

(iii)   /əu/ replaced with /o/

| Radio | /reidiəu/ | ====> | /rídíyò/ |
| Telephone | /telifəun/ | ====> | /tɛ̀lɛfón/ |

(iv)   /ʌ/ replaced with /a/

| Cupboard | /kʌbɔsd/ | ====> | /kábɔdì/ |

(v)   /ʤ/ replaced with /y/

| Jesus | /ʤi:zəs/ | ====> | /yésù/ |

(vi)   /i:/ replaced with /ii/

| Tea | /ti:/ | ====> | /tîi/ |

(vii)   /u:/ | ====> | uu

| Cashew/Kæʃu:/ | ====> | /Kashúù/ |

From the data presented in (112 i-vii) above, it is evident that sounds (foreign) are often replaced by its nearest homorganic equivalents. Thus the English sounds ei, ə, əu, ʤ, i:, u: are changed to e, ɛ, ee, a, ɔ, o, and y. Koro (Migili) change sounds which do not exist in Koro (Migili) without changing the original structure of the word. Koro (Migili) often change loanwords by substituting foreign phonemes by their nearest homorganic Koro (Migili) equivalents. At times, the language even replaces foreign phonemes by heterogeneous (heterorganic) substitutes. It is imperative to

accommodate such changes lest Koro (Migili) should be infiltrated by foreign phonemes. It is worthy to note that Koro (Migili) does not replace initial consonants of borrowed words from English language.

4.3.5.2   Epenthesis

In order to break consonant clusters, Koro (Migili) interpose or insert a vowel to break the cluster. This is not to say that Koro (Migili) does not permit clusters (*áklodzi* 'money', *kúmrúu* 'wind', *átrá* 'arrow') though not in all cases but insertion of vowel after a final coda of a word to make the loanwords always an open syllable structure of CV instead of C or CC at final position.

(113)	Koro (Migili)	English	Word
i)	/bèrédì/	/bred/	bread
ii)	/kéekì/	/keik/	cake
iii)	/mílikì/	/milk/	milk
iv)	/kábɔdì/	/k^bɔd/	cupboard
v)	/jɔ́ɔjì/	/dʒ^dʒ/	Judge
vi)	/bókítì/	/b^kit/	bucket
vii)	/píyà/	/peə (r)/	pear
viii)	/táyà/	/taiə (r)/	tyre
ix)	/wáyà/	/waiə/	wire

From (113 i-ix) above, (i) and (iii) show evidence of declusterization where 'br' 'CC and 'lk' CC were declusterized into CV *bé* and CV *li* respectively. While (ii), (iv), (v) and (vi) show vowel insertion at final position. Loanwords with coda often changes to open syllable structure by insertion a vowel to derive a CV structure rather than a C structure as seen above. In (ii), (iv), (v) and (vi) the vowel /i/ is inserted after k, d, j, and t respectively to ensure that the last segment (consonant) of every loanword which closes the last syllable is changed to an open syllable. Also, in (vii), (viii) and (ix), the diphthongs and triphthong are changed to align with the sound system of Koro (Migili) by breaking   the diphthong and triphthong as seen above where 'peə,' 'taiə'   change to *píyà* and *táyà*' respectively. Koro (Migili) uses the secondary feature of the loanword to break diphthongs in the language and in this case the palatalization feature of 'pear', tire and 'wire' determine the insertion of a 'y' to derive *'piya' 'táyà* and *'wáyà*.

In all, Koro (Migili) often changes any English word with CC structure to CV by substitution, declusterisation and insertion. This implies that Koro (Migili) interfere with the pronunciation of foreign (English) phonemes and alter the structure of loanwords to conform to the canonical patterns of Koro (Migili). Also, it is observed though not in all cases but most, that the stress of the English word determines how Koro (Migili) assigns tones to borrowed (English) words. If the stress (primary) falls on the first syllable of the English word, the corresponding word in Koro (Migili) will have the vowel of the word carrying a high tone. Thus is illustrated below.

(114 i)   Jesus   /ʤi:zəs/   ====>   /yésù/
ii)   Bible   /baibl/   ====>   /báíbɔ̀/
iii)   bench /benʧ/   ====>   /bénci/
iv)   paper /peipə(r)/   ====>   /pépà/
v)   biro /bairəu:/   ====>   /bíro/
vi)   table   /teibi/   ====>   /tɛ́bɔ/
vii)   lace /leis/   ====>   /lɛ́ɛsì/

Borrowing provides the language with a new set of words which is slightly different from the Koro (Migili) original words.In all languages, it is one tool that is used to increase vocabularies and Koro (Migili) being a language has used this tool from the data above. However this is not without modifications or some forms of remodelling in accordance with the phonological and morphological paradigms of Koro (Migili). Phonologically every sound or phoneme that is not in the phonology of Koro (Migili) is replaced with either a homogenous or heterogeneous sound/phoneme. Morphologically, loanwords conform to the structure of Koro (Migili) word which has been discussed in 4.1. In addition, every borrowed English word is broken to a CV structure from a CC or a CVC to ensure that loanwords with closed syllables are changed to open syllables.

4.4 Conclusion

This section has discussed the concept of word, its classification, identification and formation in Koro (Migili). Some of the word formation processes discussed include: prefixation, compounding, reduplication, clipping and borrowing.

4.5   Summary of Findings

From the analysis presented in this chapter, Koro (Migili) word was defined exhaustively from the perspectives of phonology, and morphology. The phonological criterion defines a word in Koro (Migili) as having any of the syllable structures of V, CV, CVV, CVC, CVCC, CCV and CVVC. It is established that the CV structure is the basic structure and it has the widest distribution in word initial, medial and final positions. Morphologically a word in Koro (Migili) has the following structures: simple, complex, compound and compound complex. It was observed in the analysis that Koro (Migili) words can be classified into eight word classes: noun, pronoun, verb, adverb, adjective conjunction, preposition and interjection. The noun and the verb are the most important word classes in view of the frequency of usage by speakers as well as their sentential relevance in syntactic analysis. It is revealed that while Koro (Migili) nouns are mainly disyllabic with the CV structures, the verbs are classified based on three criteria: morphological, semantic and syntactic. Morphologically, we have simple and complex verb roots. Semantically, the verbs are classified into dynamic and stative while the syntactic criterion splits Koro (Migili) verbs into lexical and auxiliary verbs. One unique feature of Koro (Migili) verbs is that some of them are discontinuous morphemes. This according to Awobuluyi (1978) can be referred to as splitting verbs in traditional grammar. Similarly, Koro (Migili) verbs show serialisation where two or more verbs that are continuous form a single grammatical word and category. Worthy of note is the fact that Koro (Migili) verbs do not mark agreement between the verbs and the number of the nouns.

The study reviewed some of the word formation processes employed by Koro (Migili) for increasing its vocabulary. The reviewed processes are prefixation, compounding, reduplication, clipping and borrowing. Some of these processes are derivational while others are inflectional. In Koro (Migili) prefixation is the only word formation process which serves both derivational and inflectional purposes. Prefixation is a morphological process that results to nominalisation. In Koro (Migili), it is revealed that, of all the prefixes *nyí-*, *mù-* and *nyɛ-* only play derivational functions as they are capable of changing the word class of Koro (Migili) words. While *mú-* and *í-* play both derivational and inflectional functions. In all, the derivational morphemes in the language are *í, mú, nyí-, nyɛ-* and *mù-*. In the derivation of Koro (Migili) demonstrative pronouns, it is revealed that tone which is a supra- segmental feature plays a major role with regard to words with the same

spelling. Also, tone is the only feature distinguishing demonstrative pronouns in Koro (Migili). The analysis of data reveals that compounding in Koro (Migili) is used as a nominalization tool as most of the compound derivatives are nouns. Both partial and complete reduplication are attested in Koro (Migili). Reduplication in Koro (Migili) plays derivational role. It should be noted that reduplication does not play any grammatical or semantic function such as plural formation marking aspects

in sentences. Nominalisation in Koro (Migili) has three structures and four nominalising prefixes of *í, mú, nyí-, nyɛ-* and *mù-*The analysis of the data shows that borrowing is an important word formation process in Koro (Migili) which undergoes both phonological and morphological modifications. The analysis of the borrowed English words shows that Koro (Migili) breaks close syllables at final position to open. It is worthy to note that Koro (Migili) does not replace initial consonants of borrowed words from English language. Similarly all foreign (English) sounds are changed with the homogenous or heterogeneous sounds in Koro (Migili). English

words brrowed into the language with primary stress at word initial position often reta ins a high tone in a similar position of the Koro (Migili) word equivalent. Also second ary feature of articulation determines the selection of certain sounds in the process of modifying English loanwords into Koro (Migili) for example the palata lization feature of 'pear', tire, and 'wire' determine the insertion of a 'y' to derive *piya , táyà* and *wáyà*.

It is worthy of note that Oyesunkanmi's (2011:59) claim that *n-* is a bound morpheme has been disclaimed by speakers of Koro (Migili) as a plural prefix in view of the fact that the examples given by him are unfounded in the language.

(115 i) [n-] **word**	**meaning**	**plural**
ii) lúkɔ́	war	*ńkɔ́
iii) lúnwɔ́	voice	*nwɔ́
iv) rúgɔ̀	mountain	*ńgɔ̀

<div align="right">Oyesunkanmi (2011:61)</div>

Similarly, the analysis of the Koro (Migili) data reveals that bound morphemes in the Koro (Migili) do not only play inflectional roles as Oyesunkanmi (2011:72) claims. It is discovered that the bound morphemes: *nyí-* and *i-* play derivational functions as shown below:

(116 i)	*i-*	jɛ̀mìjɛ̃́	íjɛmìjɛ̃́
		'to direct'	'direction'
		kwàna	íkwàna
		'admre'	'admiration'
(ii)	*nyí-*	ígwàra	nyígwàra
		'opening'	'one who opens (doors)'
		jɛ̀rɛ	nyíjɛ̀rɛ
		'plant'	'one who plants'

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1   Summary

This work has examined the various ways of forming words in Koro (Migili) language. The first chapter of this work gives a general background to the study as well as the language and the people, whose origin is traceable to the old Kwararafa kingdom in the present Taraba State. The Koro (Migili) language is classified under the Benue-Congo sub-group; Platoid branch; Plateau Southern cluster. The chapter also examines the basic sentence pattern in Koro (Migili) which is SVO. Chapter two focused on the basic morphological and phonological concepts of Koro (Migili) language. The chapter also examines works on the morphological processes of different Nigerian languages. In chapter two, the previous works on Koro (Migili) morphology were also examined to serve as a basis to build as well as improve on the flaws.

Chapter three focused on the various methods of data collection as well as analysis. The method of data collection listed include: interview, Koro (Migili) wordlists and a checklist of English language words borrowed into Koro (Migili). We have presented in the chapter four of this work, the analysis of the Koro (Migili) word formation. The chapter reveals what a word is in Koro (Migili), what constitute a word as well as the different classes into which Koro (Migili) words can be classified. The chapter also examines the different morphological processes employed by Koro (Migili) in the formation of its words. The examined processes are prefixation, suprafixation, compounding, reduplication, nominalisation, clipping and borrowing. Also to say that Koro (Migili) morphology is concerned with word structure/formation is not to say that all of the structure of the Koro (Migili) word is encompassed in the domain of

Koro (Migili) morphology as other disciplines of Koro (Migili) grammar: Koro (Migili) phonology, syntax and semantics play major roles. Analysis of the morphemes in Koro (Migili), shows that *nyí-, nyɛ-* and *í-* are the three derivational morphemes known to Koro (Migili) speakers. This disclaimed Agwadu and Agwadu's (2012) claim of two derivational prefixes. Also, the findings of this research reveals that 'n-' is not a prefix (grammatical) as Oyesunkanmi (2011) claims using the illustrations below:

(102 i) lúkɔ́   'war'   ńkɔ́   'war'
  (ii) lúnwɔ̀   'voice'   nwɔ́   'voices'
  (iii) rúgɔ̀   'mountain'   ńgɔ̀   'mountains'

The native speakers of Koro (Migili) identified the plurals of war, voice and mountain as *lúkɔ́, lúnwɔ̀* and *rúgɔ̀* respectively. This means that the words *lúkɔ́, lúnwɔ̀* and *rúgɔ̀* take zero morphemes in their pluralisation.

Finally, chapter five which is the concluding chapter has the summary, recommendations and conclusion.

5.2   Conclusion

The study has looked at word formation in Koro (Migili) and concludes that there are eight prefixes that are used for word formation in Koro (Migili). These prefixes comprise three inflectional prefixes, three derivational prefixes and two prefixes that play both derviational and inflectional roles. It can be concluded that the vowels of these prefixes have intrinsic tones that make them the morphemes they are. For example *mù-* and *mú-* are two different morphemes with different roles, while *mù-* plays a derivational role, *mú-* plays both inflectional and derivational roles. Morphological processes like prefixation, reduplication, nominalisation and compounding attest in the language. Other processes include clipping and borrowing.

Although this research is a comprehensive one, it cannot be said to be a complete work on the morphology of Koro (Migili) with regard to word formation but it has provided a template for other researches of this sort in Koro (Migili) to critique with the aim of adding value to Koro (Migili) and universal linguistics.

5.3   Contribution to Knowledge

The research has contributed to the study of African linguistics using word formation as a template. The research has provided a more comprehensive perspective of Koro (Migili) word formation which has contradicted findings from a previous scholar. The study which is on Koro (Migili) morphology has provided the basis for syntax to build. Researchers, scholars, linguistics and teachers are likely to find very useful when they delve into similar researches either in Koro (Migili) or other similar Nigerian languages.

It is hoped that this study will fill the vacuum in the study of Koro (Migili) morphology as well as contribute in more ways than one in refocusing the attention of grammarians and linguists of Koro (Migili) with a view to enhancing a more comprehensive knowledge of morphology and the development of Koro (Migili) as a whole.

5.4   Recommendations for Further Studies

The strength of this study lies in its potential contributions to Koro (Migili) morphology even though the research is restricted to word formation. It is recommended that other areas be researched especially inflectional morphology so as to help lay a proper foundation for the study of syntax which will dove-tail into having a comprehensive study of the language.

The number of loanwords in Koro (Migili) language poses a threat to the language especially with regard to language shift. Therefore active and dynamic use of the language in interaction can help the Koro (Migili) language. To achieve the above, teacher training institutions should pay specific attention to training teachers to teach Koro (Migili) language in schools.

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IBADAN WORDLIST OF 400 BASIC ITEMS IN KORO (MIGILI)

(1.)   Head   kúcɔ´

(2.)   Hair (head)   ńswàná kùcɔ´

(3.)   Eye   kísí

(4.)   Ear   kúton

(5.)   Nose   kúwɔn

(6.)   Mouth   ŋ́yin

(7.)   Tooth   kínyí

(8.)   Tongue   múnɛ

(9.)   Jaw   kúpan

(10.)   Chin   ńgbújá

(11.)   Beard   ímrù

(12.)   Neck   kúgbɛ

(13.)   Breast (female)   ḿbɛ́n

(14.)   Heart   kíyɛ́

(15.)   Belly (External)   lúkpɛ

(16.)   Stomach (internal)   lúkpɛ

(17.)   Navel   kútulúkpo

(18.)   Back   ímɛ

(19.)   Arm   kúva

(20.)   Hand   kúva

(21.)   Nail (finger or toe)   kúcâsolo

(22.)   Buttocks   áplámá îdzri

(23.)   Penis   rúplɛ́

(24.)   Vagina   ítùmà

(25.)   Thigh   kíjɛ

(26.)   Leg   kítrɛ

(27.)   Knee   kúlu

(28.)   Body   rúblí

(29.)   Skin   kítàárúblí

(30.)   Bone   kúkún

(31.)   Blood   ńzen

(32.)	Saliva	ńcɛn
(33.)	Urine	mblée
(34.)	Faces	ádzi
(35.)	Food	ríje
(36.)	Water	ńkwalɛ
(37.)	Saip/sauce/stew	kízin
(38.)	Meat	múna
(39.)	Fat	ńdzɛn
(40.)	Fish	kúswé
(41.)	Oil	ńnɔ
(42.)	Salt	ŋ̍sán
(43.)	Wine/beer (gene)	múdún
(44.)	Palm	múzɔn
(45.)	Yam	ńtrin
(46.)	Cassava	lógo
(47.)	Guinea	áglo
(48.)	Millet	ámú
(49.)	Maize	sìsɛlɛ
(50.)	Beans	ńzon
(51.)	Pepper	ńván
(52.)	Okro	ńkplέɛn
(53.)	Plantain	ńtrúkpó
(54.)	Banana	ńtrúkpó
(55.)	Orange	lómú
(56.)	Groundnut	àvli
(57.)	Kola nut	góró
(58.)	Tobacco	ńzɔn
(59.)	Cotton	rìlì kpìlì
(60.)	Oil palm	múzɔn
(61.)	Seed	ísɔ
(62.)	Grass`	ásɔ̀
(63.)	Tree	kíci
(64.)	Leaf	awa
(65.)	Bark (of tree)	kúfrɔkìci

(66.)	Root	kúgúmú
(67.)	Thorn	ígan
(68.)	Stick	kíci kúkɔlɔ
(69.)	Firewood	ríci
(70.)	Charcoal	àkàńdrɛ́
(71.)	Fire	átrá
(72.)	Smoke	ńzɔn
(73.)	Ashes	ńson
(74.)	Water pot	ìnù àńkwálɛ
(75.)	Cooking pot	íńù áagáítán
(76.)	Calabash	ìńù
(77.)	Grinding stone	kícɛ
(78.)	Mortar	kùzwa
(79.)	Knife	mbán
(80.)	Hoe	kwárá
(81.)	Axe	ìfɔ
(82.)	Matchet	àdà
(83.)	Spear (war)	ɔkpà
(84.)	Bow (weapon)	àtrà
(85.)	Arrow	mùsɔn áatrá
(86.)	Iron (metal)	ígbán
(87.)	Mat	kígán
(88.)	Basket	gúgú
(89.)	Bag	gúfɛ́
(90.)	Rope	kílí
(91.)	Needle	yémùla
(92.)	Thread	rílí
(93.)	Cloth (material)	ítrɔ
(94.)	Robe/Gown/Smock (man's)	ítrɔ
(95.)	Hat/cap	fɔ̀ro
(96.)	Shoe	átáàtrɛ́
(97.)	Money	áklodzi
(98.)	Doo (way)	míjɛn
(99.)	Wall (of house)	kúpì

(100.)	Room	kùyo
(101.)	House	ítsi
(102.)	Compound	ŋ́kpinîtsi
(103.)	Town	kúpɔkùkpò
(104.)	Village	kúpɔ
(105.)	Well	líîzhàn
(106.)	Rubbish heap	kúdúnù
(107.)	Road	míjɛn
(108.)	Market	mízɛn
(109.)	Farm	kíná
(110.)	Bush	ásò
(111.)	River	íseni
(112.)	Sea	íseni
(113.)	Boat (canoe	jereji á ʼnkwálɛ
(114.)	Stone	kúpɛ́lɛ
(115.)	Mountain	rúgɔn
(116.)	Ground	rúbɔn
(117.)	Earth (soil)	ḿbɔn
(118.)	Sand	ḿbɔn
(119.)	Dust	kínrî
(120.)	Mud	ńtɔnɔkɔ
(121.)	Wind	kúmruu
(122.)	Rain	nɛ́rɛ́
(123.)	Sunshine	ísɛ́ńwalá
(124.)	Sun	ńwalá
(125.)	Moon	ɔ̀tsan
(126.)	Star	kúzùgbé
(127.)	Day	ísá
(128.)	Night	ájí
(129.)	Dawn	ḿpɛ́rɛ̀ìsà
(130.)	Darkness	míjín
(131.)	Sleep	shɔ́la
(132.)	Work	nakùtùmá
(133.)	War	lúkɔ

(134.)	Fear	áwa
(135.)	Hunger	ínùma
(136.)	Thirst	kúwɔ
(137.)	Year	músɔn
(138.)	Rainy season	rúwɔn
(139.)	Dry season	lúwɔn
(140.)	Sun	ńwalá
(141.)	Story	kíshísha
(142.)	Word	òka
(143.)	Lie(s)	àmlà
(144.)	Thing	ágán
(145.)	Animal	ágáakɛ́
(146.)	Goat	ɔvɔn
(147.)	He-goat	dùmùvɔn
(148.)	Sheep	cɛ́mɛ́
(149.)	Cow (zebu)	òna
(150.)	Horse	ɔdɔn
(151.)	Donkey	zàncin
(152.)	Dog	òva
(153.)	Cat	músù
(154.)	Rat	òkpín
(155.)	Chicken (domestic fowl)	kúkpa
(156.)	Cock	kɔríìkɔ
(157.)	Duck	gwàgwá
(158.)	Egg	kúkpa
(159.)	Wing	áplan
(160.)	Feather	kíjì
(161.)	Horn	kùtúmá
(162.)	Tail	ízùmà
(163.)	Leopard	
(164.)	Crocodile	kámà
(165.)	Elephant	gbólu
(166.)	Buffalo (bush cow)	
(167.)	Monkey	bɛ́nɛ

(168.)	Tortoise	òklú
(169.)	Snake	múna
(170.)	Lizard (common variety)	wànà
(171.)	Crab	krìká
(172.)	Toad (frog)	ɔmlɔn
(173.)	Snail	koli
(174.)	Housefly	kídríi
(175.)	Bee	íshɔ
(176.)	Mosquito	íyè
(177.)	Louse	shámá
(178.)	Bird	dzárùnɔn
(179.)	Vulture	glumù
(180.)	Kite	kúwaiyé
(181.)	Hawk	ńyén
(182.)	Guinea fowl	òzon
(183.)	Bat	rúùzùn
(184.)	Person	nyɛ
(185.)	Name	áza
(186.)	Man	jìjili
(187.)	Male	nyɛvɛ̀lɛ̀
(188.)	Husband	shá
(189.)	Woman	nyɛrán
(190.)	Female	nyɛrán
(191.)	Wife	nyrán
(192.)	Old person	nyɛkúkɔn
(193.)	Senior/older	nyɛkpò
(194.)	Father	ǹda
(195.)	Mother	ǹma
(196.)	Child	dzá
(197.)	Children	adzá
(198.)	Son	dzáàvɛ̀lɛ̀
(199.)	Daughter	dzányiyrán
(200.)	Brother (elder) (for man)	lúkpò nyɛvɛ̀lɛ̀
(201.)	Brother (younger) (for man)	nyɛcɔ nyɛvɛ̀lɛ̀

(202.)	Sister (elder) (for woman)	nyɛkpò nyɛrán
(203.)	Sister (younger) (for woman)	nyɛcɔ nyɛrán
(204.)	Mother's brother	cìcán
(205.)	In-law	òlɔ
(206.)	Guest (stranger)	nyɛzɔn
(207.)	Friend	òyà
(208.)	King	zhɛ́
(209.)	Hunter	ògbɛ̀n
(210.)	Thief	òyi
(211.)	Doctor (native)	zɔrɔmùgàn
(212.)	Witch	nyíijɛ̀
(213.)	Chief	zhɛ́
(214.)	Medicine (charm)	múgán
(215.)	Fetish (juju)	múgán
(216.)	Corpse	múkɔn
(217.)	God	òsì
(218.)	One	lo
(219.)	Two	àbɛ̀ɛ
(220.)	Three	àcɛ́ɛ́
(221.)	Four	ànààrɔ
(222.)	Five	àsóon
(223.)	Six	mízín
(224.)	Seven	mútá
(225.)	Eight	rúnɔn
(226.)	Nine	zacɛ́
(227.)	Ten	zabɛ̀
(228.)	Eleven	zabɛ́ plɔ lo
(229.)	Twelve	zabɛ́plɔ bɛ̀
(230.)	Thirteen	zabɛ́ plò cɛ́ɛ́
(231.)	Fourteen	zabɛ́ plò nààrɔ
(232.)	Fifteen	zabɛ́ plò sóon
(233.)	Sixteen	zabɛ́ plò mízín
(234.)	Seventeen	zabɛ́ plò mútá
(235.)	Eighteen	zabɛ́ plò rúnɔn

(236.)	Nineteen	zabὲ plὸ zacέ
(237.)	Twenty	zabὲ bὲε
(238.)	Twenty-one	zabὲ bὲε plɔ lo
(239.)	Twenty-two	zabὲ bὲε plɔ lo
(240.)	Thirty	zabὲ bὲε
(241.)	Forty	zabὲ sààrɔ
(242.)	Fifty	zabὲ sóon
(243.)	Sixty	zabὲ mízín
(244.)	Seventy	zabὲ mútá
(245.)	Eighty	zabὲ rúnón
(246.)	Ninety	zabὲ zacέ
(247.)	Hundred	rúno
(248.)	Two hundred	rúno bὲε
(249.)	Four hundred	rúno nààrɔ
(250.)	Black	mìtì
(251.)	White	vúvlú
(252.)	Red	súsɔnɔn
(253.)	Big (great, large)	kúkpò
(254.)	Small	kwέὲ
(255.)	Long (of stick)	drɔlɔ
(256.)	Short (of stick)	kpîi
(257.)	Old (opp. New)	gugrɔn
(258.)	New	sísá
(259.)	Wet	flɔɔ
(260.)	Dry	kúkɔlɔ
(261.)	Hot (as fire)	yɔɔ
(262.)	Cold	dìín
(263.)	Right (side)	ǹvalὲ
(264.)	Left	ḿpὲnὲ
(265.)	Good	zwá
(266.)	Bad	dzîi
(267.)	Sweet (tasty)	sán
(268.)	Heavy	mlu
(269.)	Full	cíka

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(270.)	Strong	kpɔɔn
(271.)	Hard	kɔlɔ
(272.)	Eat	tan
(273.)	Drink	swé
(274.)	Swallow	mlɔn
(275.)	Bite	nyánkínyín
(276.)	Lick	nère
(277.)	Taste	músán
(278.)	Spit	zwìncɛn
(279.)	Vomit	kporo
(280.)	Urinate	serembléè
(281.)	Defecate	kùmáadʒi
(282.)	Give birth	tsa
(283.)	Die	kpoò
(284.)	Stand (up)	zízín
(285.)	Sit (down)	dídrɛ
(286.)	Kneel	kúkun
(287.)	Lie (down)	shúshɔn
(288.)	Sleep	shúsɔn
(289.)	Dream	kílɛ́lɛ̀
(290.)	Go	náà
(291.)	Come	bɛ́
(292.)	Return (intr)	íkpɛ́lɛ
(293.)	Arrive	zà
(294.)	Enter	li
(295.)	Climb	swa
(296.)	Descend	ci
(297.)	Fall	gbúgla
(298.)	Walk	nyɛrína
(299.)	Run	dańsɔ̀n
(300.)	Jump	yé
(301.)	Fly	yé
(302.)	Pass (by)	kɔɔ
(303.)	Turn round (intr)	kplɔ

(304.)	Follow	cwe
(305.)	See	ní
(306.)	Hear	wusɔ
(307.)	Touch (with hand)	da kúva
(308.)	Know	pɛ
(309.)	Remember	cuwɔ
(310.)	Forget	vukɔ
(311.)	Think	gbáglá
(312.)	Learn	mɛ̀rɛ
(313.)	Laugh	tútrɔ
(314.)	Weep (cry)	zhánwɔn
(315.)	Sing	sɛ́ kútrɔ
(316.)	Dance	da kútrɔ
(317.)	Play (games)	gbo írà
(318.)	Fear	saawá
(319.)	Great (salute)	íwánkùkpòò
(320.)	Abuse	tɔrɔ
(321.)	Fight	da kúlɔ
(322.)	Call (summon)	rɔ
(323.)	Send (someone to do something)	jɛ̀ kùtúmá
(324.)	Say (direct speech)	drɔ
(325.)	Ask (question)	sho
(326.)	Reply	dɔ ámsan
(327.)	Ask (request)	sho
(328.)	Refuse	tɔò
(329.)	Link	háda
(330.)	Want (desire)	kwàna
(331.)	Look for	pisɛ
(332.)	Loose (something)	tasɔ
(333.)	Get (obtain)	cɛnɛ
(334.)	Gather (thing)	krɔkun
(335.)	Steal	yi
(336.)	Take (one thing)	ma
(337.)	Carry (load)	ma

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(338.)	Show (something)	masi
(339.)	Give	dɔ
(340.)	Sell	lí
(341.)	Choose	bɛ́
(342.)	Buy	gbɛ
(343.)	Pay (for something)	dɔ áklodzi
(344.)	Count	tsene
(345.)	Divide (share out)	gìsɛ
(346.)	Finish (intr)	klɔɔ
(347.)	Catch	gɔ
(348.)	Shoot	tsì
(349.)	Kill	wɔ
(350.)	Skin (flay)	kítà
(351.)	Cook	trɔ
(352.)	Fry	kanɔn
(353.)	Roast	sɔnɔn
(354.)	Pound (in mortar)	zwe
(355.)	Grind	gbo
(356.)	Pour	zàrɔ
(357.)	Throw	gbo
(358.)	Sweep	krɔ́ŋkpin
(359.)	Burn	jí
(360.)	Extinguish (tr)	níátra
(361.)	Plait (hair)	sùle
(362.)	Weave (cloth)	nɔ ítrɔ
(363.)	Spin (thread)	nɔ rílí
(364.)	Sew	tún
(365.)	Put on (clothes)	jɛ́ ítrɔ
(366.)	Take off (clothes)	bɛ́ ítrɔ
(367.)	Wash (things)	gru ágán
(368.)	Wash (body)	drɔ
(369.)	Wrinse (clothes)	ywara
(370.)	Pull	bɛ́nɛ
(371.)	Push	túra

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(372.)	Beat (person)	pa
(373.)	Beat (drum)	pa
(374.)	Break (pot, calabash)	sɛ́ ínù
(375.)	Break (a stick)	wrɔ
(376.)	Tear (tr.)	parɔ
(377.)	Split	sísɛ
(378.)	Pierce	tún
(379.)	Hole	kúzɔn
(380.)	Dig	sɛlɛ
(381.)	Sow (seeds in holes)	jɛ̀rɛ
(382.)	Plant (tubers)	jɛ̀rɛ
(383.)	Bury	nì
(384.)	Build (house)	zwe
(385.)	Mould (pot)	zwe
(386.)	Carve (wood)	símí
(387.)	Make	zɔrɔ
(388.)	Hold (in hand)	yuwɔ
(389.)	Tie (rope)	ló
(390.)	Untie	foro
(391.)	Cover (a pot)	ko
(392.)	Open (door)	gwàra
(393.)	Close	guso
(394.)	(Be)rotten	von
(395.)	Stink	mru
(396.)	Swell (intr.)of boil	funu
(397.)	Blow (with mouth)	tse
(398.)	Blow (of wind)	da kúmrúu
(399.)	Surpass	kà
(400.)	Dwell	drɛ

Other words not found in the word list include,

(1.)	Herbalist	cɛ́ɛ̀nwa
(2.)	Diviner	gbóìshán
(3.)	Ancestor	múcɔ/múcɔ
(4.)	Convulsion	sunsu/(sometimes-kpîkpîi)
(5.)	Groove	ágúmu
(6.)	Taboo	ágîisɔn
(7.)	Polio	rúgɔ-átrɛ̀
(8.)	Pneumonia	rúgɔ-áwo
(9.)	Splnomegaly (spleen)	sépa

APPENDIX 2

CHECKLIST OF ENGLISH LOANWORDS IN KORO (MIGILI)

	ENGLISH	**KORO (MIGILI)**
1.	Bishop	Bishopu
2.	Christmas	Kúsùmásì
3.	Church	Kúyóodúwa
4.	Jesus	Yésù
5.	John	Ńjóhn
6.	Amen	Amin, Ńgwáàbè
7.	Father (Rev. Father)	Fàdá
8.	Pastor	Pasto
9.	Bible	Báíbɔ
10.	Angel	Màléka
11.	School	ŃKpíímèriwe
12.	Chalk	Chokù
13.	Bench	Bénci
14.	Class	Cláasì
15.	Table	Tɛbɔ
16.	College	Kólójì
17.	Envelope	Ńvolopu
18.	Pencil	Pɛnsɔ
19.	Paper	Pépà
20.	Biro	bírò
21.	Biscuit	Bìsìkítì
22.	Bread	Bèrédì
23.	Butter	

24.	Tea	Pîì
25.	Sweet	Sùwítì
26.	Chewing gum	Chìngáà
27.	Cake	Kèkì
28.	Sugar	Súgà
29.	Milk	Mílikì
30.	Guava	Góva
31.	Cashew	Kàshúù
32.	Mango	Mángɔrò
33.	Pear	Píya
34.	Cocoa	
35.	Tomatoes	Tumato
36.	Orange	Lòmú
37.	Rice	Shòpa
38.	Carrot	
39.	Pineapple	Kídzanàsara
40.	Motor	Moto
41.	Bicycle	Cìcée
42.	Tyre	Táyà
43.	Bicycle spoke	Sùpókè
44.	Airplane	Jereji
45.	License	Láísɛnsì
46.	Caterpillar	Kàtàmpílà
47.	Petrol	Pètróo
48.	Motor Park (Garage)	Gáréjì
49.	Machine (Motorbike)	Mànshín
50.	Electric Wire	Wáyà-Látrìkì

51.	Television	Tèlèvíshòn
52.	Radio	Rídíyò
53.	Photo (picture)	Fòto
54.	Telephone	Tɛlɛfón
55.	Fridge	Frîjì
56.	Globe	Lúkpɛrùbɔ
57.	Fan	Fánka
58.	Record player	Rúkɔdì
59.	Towel	Táwúlù
60.	Sweater	Sùwátà
61.	Gold	
62.	Slippers	Sílípà
63.	Lace (of clothing)	Léesì
64.	Eye Glass	Glaàsì
65.	Curtain	Labele
66.	Scarf	Dànkwali
67.	Belt	Bélétì
68.	Cupboard	Kábɔdì
69.	Candle	Kándrù
70.	Bucket	Bókítì
71.	Bed	Agodo
72.	Cup	Kópi
73.	Kerosene	Kàrànzínì
74.	Mirror	Ágíníkpí
75.	Comb	Kum
76.	Kettle	Búta
77.	Soldier	Sóójà

78.	Barrack	bárakì
79.	Sergeant	Sájent
80.	Court	kóotì
81.	Lawyer	lóya
82.	Scout	
83.	Major	mɛ̀jò
84.	Report	rùpɔɔti
85.	Judge	jɔɔjì
86.	Police	Pòlísì
87.	Tailor	Télà
88.	Carpenter	kápínta
89.	Shop	Shágo
90.	Mechanic	màkánékì
91.	Doctor	dókútɔ
92.	Nurse	nóɔsì
93.	Driver	dèréva
94.	Chemist	
95.	Barber	báabà
96.	Comb	
97.	Police	
98.	Meeting (noun)	míntì
99.	Wristwatch/Clock/bell	Ágogo
100.	Chair	cíyà
101.	Key	kîi
102.	Window	wíndò
103.	Bible	báíbɔ
104.	Bag	Gùfé

105.	Cake	kéekì
106.	Biscuit	ínù
107.	Pot	
108.	Bread	
109.	Sugar	
110.	Kitchen	kwàshɔ
111.	Envelop	Ńvolopù
112.	Milk	