

Affixation in Kolokuma

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Abstract

This study examines affixation, reduplication and compounding as word formation processes in Kolokuma. The types and functions of affixes found in Kolokuma are discussed. This study uses a basic descriptive approach in the analysis of the data. Interviews and observation were used as instruments of data collection. This study reveals that affixation and compounding are more productive morphological processes of word formation in Kolokuma.

Keywords: morphology, morpheme, affix, root, affixation

1. Introduction

Yul-Ifode (2008) describes language as the greatest asset of man. Language is most commonly described as a medium of communication and seen as a code used by humans, basically. The branch of linguistics that studies the formation of words in languages is known as morphology. Morphology is also interested in how users of a particular language form and understand complex words and invents new lexical items. Morphological

constructions can be derived from affixation, compounding and reduplication, which are elements in human language. Affixation is one of the word formation processes generally, in languages. In Kolokuma, like most languages, there are affixes which are bound morphemes that become meaningful only when added to a root or a base. Affixation is a very potent word formation process in Kolokuma. Some of the affixes in Kolokuma are inflectional which only function to signal grammatical relations, marking tense, aspects, number, gender, case, negation, etc, while others perform derivational role. Against this backdrop, the paper discusses affixation, compounding and reduplication in Kolokuma, a language belonging to the Ijoid sub-group of the Niger Congo family of languages, according to Yul-Ifode (2008). Morphology, according to Haspelmath (2002), is the study of the internal structure of words. Morphological analysis typically consists of the identification of parts of words or more technically, constituents of words. Word-forms in an inflectional paradigm generally share (at least) one longer morpheme with a concrete meaning and are distinguished from each other in that they in addition, contain different shorter morphemes with an abstract meaning. Such short morphemes with an abstract meaning are called affixes. Affixes are bound morphemes.

Affixation is a morphological process of attaching an affix (usually a bound morpheme) to the root or base of a word in order to derive other forms. Affixes are classified based on two criteria. The first criterion is the position in which the affix occurs relative to the location of the root of the word, while the second is the function an affix performs when it is attached to the root of a word.

In Kolokuma, for instance, affixation presents itself in form of suffixation, interfixation and suprafixation. In what follows these manifestations shall be discussed extensively.

2. Purpose of the Study

Kolokuma is a dialect of Izon language. Following the linguistic genre classification, it is described as an Ijoid language under the Niger Congo language family which covers most of Sub-Saharan Africa.

The purpose of this study is to expose Kolokuma to thorough linguistic investigation and documentation as it focuses on the morphology of the language, discussing the affixes in Kolokuma. Thus, the study seeks to: identify affixes in the language, describe the classes of affixes in the language, discuss the functions of affixes and determine the productivity of affixes in the language. Data was collected from interviews and our intuition, as members of the speech communities when consulted as well.

3. Theoretical Framework

The study uses the morpheme-based morphology (item (I) and arrangement approach (A)) theory on the analysis of the data. The morpheme based morphology or IA model treats word forms as arrangements of morphemes. They see them as morphemes put together like beads on a string to form words. The item-and-arrangement model proceeds from a picture of each language as a set of elements and the patterns in which those elements occur. It is believed to have grown out of structuralists' preoccupation with word analysis involving the technique of breaking down words into their component morphemes, which they call items. This is why morphological analysis here is centered on the morpheme.

4. Conceptual Analysis

Some concepts related to the topic shall be discussed in what follows.

4.1 Morphology

Fromkin and Rodman (2007) assert that morphology is the study of the internal structure of words and the rules by which words are formed. Harmer (2006) sees morphology and syntax as essentials to successful communication whether in writing or speech. This means that items that make up words in a language is the major preoccupation of morphology. Crystal (1997) posits that morphology is the branch of linguistics which studies the structure or forms of words primarily through the use of morphemes. Ejele (1996) describes morphology as the level of grammar which studies the internal structure or forms of words, primarily through the use of the morpheme concept as well as the rules by which words are formed. The definitions are all similar as they express one notion, the formation of words through the use of the morpheme that are rule governed.

4.2 Morpheme

The morpheme is seemingly one of the controversial concepts or phenomena in morphology. Before the emergence of morphemes, words were considered the least grammatical units and as such, the basic unit of morphological analysis. However, upon the discovery, certain words could further disintegrate into smaller meaningful linguistic grammatical units.

Katamba (1993:20) posits that "morpheme is used to refer to the smallest, indivisible units of semantic content or grammatical function which words are made up of". While Ejele (1996) asserts that morpheme is the smallest (minimum) meaningful unit of grammar. She added that a single word may be made up of one or more morphemes. Ndimele (2003:9) supports Ejele's claim that the morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of an utterance which may not,

however, exist in isolation. From the various definitions, we gather that a morpheme is the smallest linguistic unit that has a semantic content which may or may not exist independently.

There are two types of morphemes; free and bound morphemes. A free morpheme can stand alone and convey meaning. A free morpheme is a word which may be lexical or functional. Bound morphemes on the other hand cannot stand on their own as words. They must be attached to a root to be meaningful. That is they do not occur in isolation.

4.2.1 Affix

An affix is a bound morpheme which is always attached to the base or root of a word, Ndimele (1999:13). Affixes do not have independent existence. Katamba (1993:14) opines that “an affix is a morpheme which only occurs when attached to some other morpheme or morphemes such as root or stem or base”. Ejele (1996) puts it that affixes are meaningful units added to the root that cannot exist independently of the root. Affixes therefore are bound morphemes that cannot exist independently but are meaningful that needs to be added to a host.

4.2.2 Root

Katamba (1993:4) defines a root as “the irreducible core of a word with absolutely nothing else attached to it”. That is, a root is the part of the word that carries the core meaning of the word that remains when all affixes or other word modifiers have been removed.

Ndimele (1999) describes the root as that part of the word that remains after every other element has been removed. He added that the root is usually the heart of the word which cannot be further divided into smaller meaningful units.

4.3 Affixation

Affixation, according to Ndimele (1999:83) is a ‘morphological process of attaching an affix to the root or base of a word’. In other words, the morphological process involving the addition of an affix (usually a bound morpheme) to roots or bases in order to derive other forms is affixation. There are different types of affixes classified either by position or function. Positional affixes are defined according to the position they assume in relation to the roots or bases to which they are allocated.

Prefixes are affixes which occur before the root or base of a word. Suffixes occur after the root of a word and infixes are inserted inside the root of a word. They interrupt the sequence of a root.

Interfixes are affixes which occur between two usually identical roots. Circumfixes on the other hand, are affixes which surround the root of a word. A circumfix is more or less a simultaneous combination of prefixes and suffixes to express a single meaning.

Superfixes or suprafixes are non-segmental affixes in the form of tone or stress marks which make meaning difference when placed over a word.

4.3.1 Affixation in Kolokuma

In what follows is the morpho-syntactic analysis of affixation, compounding and reduplication in Kolokuma. Two functional categories of affixes, which are inflectional and derivational affixes are examined.

4.3.2 Tense and Aspect Markers in Kolokuma

According to Ndimele (2007:113), tense is a grammatical category which determines the form of the verb in a sentence with respect to changes in time. He explained further that it is the

grammaticalisation of time reference, often using three basic categories of ‘before now’(the past), ‘now’ (the present) and ‘after now’ (the future).Aspect on the other hand has been described as the different ways of viewing the internal temporal constituency of a situation. The data shows tense and aspect markers in Kolokuma.

Table: 1

Verb root	Gloss	Suffix	Derived form	Gloss	Function of affix
bo	come	-yemi	boyemi	coming	progressive
bo	come	-mĩ	bomĩ	came	past tense
mu	go	-dọ	mudọ	Has gone	perfect tense
bo	come	-tjĩmi	botjĩmi	was coming	imperfect tense
bo	come	-ngimi	bongimi	will come	future tense

4.3.3 The Progressive Aspect

The progressive in Kolokuma is expressed or marked by attaching the suffix–**yemi** to the root verb.

Bo “come” boyemi “is/are coming”

Mu “go” muyemi “is/are going”

Koru “wait” koruyemi “is/are waiting”

1. Ebioweiboyemi.

Ebiowei come + pre progressive.

Ebiowei is coming.

2. Erideriyemi.

He laugh + pre progressive

He is laughing.

3. Ebierewarighomuyemi.

Ebiere house go + pre progressive

Ebiere is going home.

4. Qwqumqzoruyemi.

Children the play + pre progressive

The children are playing.

5. Arifun gooyemi.

I book read + pre progressive

I am reading a book.

6. Peter sukulubuyemi.

Peter school go + pre progressive

Peter is going to school

7. Eriarukoruyemi

He car wait + pre progressive

He is waiting for a car.

4.3.4 Past Tense

In Kolokuma, the past tense is formed by attaching the suffix **-mi** to after the verb root.

kulé	“greet”	kulémi	greeted
bo	“come”	bomi	came
suru	“wash”	surumi	washed

8. Ari dada kulémi
I father greet + past.
I greeted daddy.

9. Tɔbɔɔbi alalamɔsurumi
Child the plate+pl.marker wash + past.
The child washed the plates.

10. Qwɔɔmɔbomi
Children the come + past
The children came.

11. Eɛ ma fulɔɔtɔmi
Woman the soup cook + past
The woman cooked soup

-mi is also used to show present state (with adjectival verbs) or conditions of the subject of the sentence

Aku	“bitter”	akumi	(it) is	bitter
imbeɔ	“delicious”	imbeɔmi	(it) is	delicious
Uku	“heavy”	ukumi	(it) is	heavy

12. Diribiakumi
Medicine the bitter + be.
The medicine is bitter.

13. Fulɔɔbiimbeɔmi
Soup the delicious + be.
The soup is delicious.

14. Ekpɛtibikumi
Box the heavy + be.
The box is heavy.

15. Benibiɔfirimi****

Water the hot + be.
The water is hot.

4.3.5 Perfect Tense

The present perfect tense is formed by adding the suffix **-dɔ** to the end of the verb root.

Tɔ “cook” tɔ**dɔ** “has/have cooked”

Mi “do” mi**dɔ** “has/have done/prepared”

Fɛ “buy” fɛ**dɔ** “has/have bought”

16. Ina fɛlɔtɔdɔ****

Grandmother soup cook + pft tense.
Grandmother has cooked soup

17. Tarigarimidɔ****

Tarigariprepare + pft tense.
Tari has prepared garri.

18. John ayaarufɛdɔ****

John new car buy + pft tense.
John has bought a new car.

19. Ebierepadɔ****

Ebierego + pft tense.
Ebiere has gone out.

4.3.6 Imperfect Aspect

The imperfect aspect is marked by the suffix **-ti** attached to the verb root. We noticed that the emphazier is always used with the imperfect aspect.

Fii**ti** “was/were eating”

Tuɔ**ti** “was/were cooking”

20. Dada fí yaikifiti**.**

Daddy food emphz eat + impft.
Daddy was eating.

21. Eɛfunkigotti**iaɛbomi**

He book emphz. read impft I came
He was reading a book when I came.

22. Ina fūlqūkitūq̄t̄j̄midada paami
Grandmother soup emphz cook impft daddy went out
Grandmother was cooking soup when daddy went out.

4.3.7 Future Tense

The future tense is formed by adding the suffix **-ngimi** to the end of the verb root.

F̄ēngimi “will buy”
Baangimi ”will kill”

23. Timioborib̄baangimi.
Timigoatthe kill + future
Timi will kill the goat.

24. John ayaarūf̄ēngimi
John new carbuy + future.
John will buy a new car.

25. Mary indib̄f̄ē!nngimi
Mary fish the roast + future.
Mary will roast the fish.

4.3.8 Number, Article and Gender Markers

Jackson (2007:44) posits that number is a grammatical category that is associated with nouns, pronouns and adjectives that express count distinctions. In Kolokuma, number is marked via inflection.

Word root	Gloss	Suffix	Derived word	Gloss	Function of affix
t̄qb̄q̄	boy	-b̄i	t̄qb̄q̄b̄i	the boy	masc. sing.
t̄qb̄q̄	girl	-ma	t̄qb̄q̄ma	the girl	fem. sing.
w̄ari	house	-m̄q̄	w̄arim̄q̄	the houses	def. pl.
w̄ari	house	-ama	w̄ariama	houses	indef. pl.
Firi	Work	-out	Firiotu	Workers	Irreg. pl. (for grp of pple)
Eré	Woman	-am̄iñi	Eréam̄iñi	Women	Irreg. pl. (for grp of pple)

The definite article markers are suffixed to the nouns to show gender, number and definiteness. In English, the definite article ‘**the**’ has only one form which is used with any noun, whether masculine or feminine, singular or plural. E.g.

The boy	the boys	the girl	the girls
The man	the men	the bags	the bags

In Kolokuma, the form of the definite article varies according to the gender and the number of noun it introduces. In other words, the gender or number of noun determines the form of the definite article that goes with it.

The inflectional suffixes **-bi**, **-ma**, **-mq**, **-ama**, **-amɪni**, **-otu**, etc are affixed to the noun. These are bound morphemes and have no independent meaning except when they are attached to the root or a free morpheme.

- A. **-bi** is an inflectional suffix that marks the definite singular article but restricted to masculine nouns. Examples

Tɔbɔqɔbi “the boy” daubi “the father” burubi “the yam”

- B. **-ma** is an inflectional suffix that marks only definite feminine singular article in nouns. It is used for only animate beings. Examples

Eréma “the woman” tɔbɔqɔma “the girl” taáma “the wife”

-mq is the definite article that indicates plural form and it is used with both masculine and feminine. Examples

Eréɔwɔmq “the girls” oweiɔwɔmq “the boys”

Funmq “the books” angamq “the eggs”

- C. **-amɪni** is an irregular inflectional suffix that marks plurality and it is restricted to humans only. Other nouns form a regular plural by adding **-ama**, the indefinite plural marker which is like the plural **-s** or **-es**, in English. Examples

fun ‘book’	fun-ama	‘books’
obiri ‘dog’	obiri-ama	‘dogs’
eré ‘woman’	eréamɪni	‘women’
owéi ‘man’	owéiamɪni	‘men’
eré ma ‘the woman’	ereamɪnimq	‘the women’
Owéibi ‘the man’	owéiamɪnimmo	‘the men’

The suffix **-amɪni** is an indefinite plural marker. The indefinite singular article is not overtly marked in Kolokuma, whenever a noun occurs without the definite article marker, it automatically takes the covert indefinite marker (e.g. **tɔbɔq** “a boy”, **fun** “a book”).

- D. **-otu** is another inflectional suffix that marks plurality. It indicates group of people. Examples

dau	father	dau-otu	parents/fathers
yengi	mother	yengi-otu	parents/mothers
firiweni	to work	firi-weniotu	workers

The difference between **-ama** and **-otu** is that, **-ama** can only be attached to nouns whereas **-otu** can be attached to both nouns and verbs.

5. Negation in Kolokuma

Negative constructions or statements are used to express denial or opposition, also to prove or claim that a theory or statement is false

There are two common ways to mark negotiation in Kolokuma. These are by attaching the suffix **–gha** (meaning not) and **–kumɔ** (meaning don't) to the verb root. The negative operator **–ghais** is used for expressing the negation of declarative and interrogative sentences, while the suffix **–kumɔ** is used to express the negation of imperative.

5.1 Simple Present Negative Marker

Table: 3

Positive	Gloss	Negative	Gloss
boyemi	coming/ comes	bogha	not coming/ doesn't,
muyemi	going/ goes	mugha	not going/ doesn't go
deriyemi	laughing/ laughs	derigha	not laughing/ doesn't laugh

26. Erɪboyemi

He come tense
He is coming or he comes.

27. Erɪbogha

He come neg.mrkr
He is not coming or he doesn't come.

28. Arɪmuyemi

I go tense
I am going or I go.

29. Arɪmugha

I go neg.mrkr.
I am not going or I won't go.

30. Timidɛrɪyemi

Timi laugh tense
Timi is laughing or Timi laughs.

31. Timidɛrɪgha

Timilaughneg.mrkr
Timi is not laughing or Timi doesn't laugh.

5.2 Simple Past (negative marker)

Table: 4

Positive	Gloss	Negative	Gloss
bomɪ	came	bogha	didn't come
mumɪ	went	mugha	didn't go
sɛɪmɪ	danced	sɛɪgha	didn't dance

5.3 Perfect tense

In the perfect tense, **-gha** also replaces the perfect tense marker **-dɔɔ**, but **naa** meaning 'not yet' is introduced.

32. Yengifɔɔlɔɔtɔɔdɔɔ

Mummy soup cook perfective
 "Mummy has cooked soup".

33. Inanaafɔɔlɔɔtɔɔqgha

Grandmother not yet soupcook+neg.mrkr.
 Grandmother has not yet cooked soup.

34. Preye wari ghomudɔɔ.

Preye house go + perfective
 Preye has gone home.

35. Preye naa wari ghomugha

Preye not yet house go +neg.mrkr.
 Preye hasn't gone home yet.

5.4 Negative Commands

In commands, verbs are used in their simple root form e.g. **bo!** "come" **mu!** "go" **dii!** "look". The suffix **-kumɔ**, meaning 'do not' is always used to negate imperative sentences such as commands, orders and directives.

Yɔɔ	"paddle"	yɔɔkumɔ	"don't paddle"
Bo	"come"	bokumɔ	"don't come"
Mu	"go"	mukumɔ	"don't go"
ɔɔlɔɔ	"cough"	ɔɔlɔɔkumɔ	"don't cough"
Paa	"go out"	paakumɔ	"don't go out"

Fari “play music” farikũmq “don’t play”

36. Kala arũyũkũmq.
Small canoe paddle not.
“Don’t paddle a small canoe”.

37. Owigiri duma farikũmq
Owirimusic play not.
“Don’t play owigiri music”.

38. Kĩmĩtiripaakũmq
Man outside go out not
“Nobody should go outside”.

5.5 Comparison of Adjectives

The form for the comparison degree and for the superlative degree is usually marked by affixing **–de!n** to the positive degree i.e. the simple form of the adjective as shown in the following examples.

Duba	“big”	dubade!n	“bigger/larger”
Kũrũ	“strong”	kũrũde!n	“stronger”
Ebi	“good/beautiful”	ebide!n	“better”

39. JohnkũrũMikede!nnimi.
John strong Mike surpass
John is stronger than Mike.

40. Amasewowárikidũbade!nnimi
Whole village his house emphz surpass
His house is the largest in the village.

41. Arĩdangaininebinaoweide!nnimi
I tall my brother surpass
I am taller than my brother.

In the first sentence above, two persons are compared as to strength. According to the sentence, John possesses a quality to a greater degree than Mike. Here the affix **–de!n** is the equivalent of **–er** in English. In the second sentence, more than two houses are being compared. The superlative degree of the adjective large is used to show this fact. However, there is no clear morphological difference between the comparative and superlative affixes. There is no overt superlative degree in Kolokuma. In the comparative degree, **–de!n** is used when a comparison is

made between two persons or things. –**dɛ!n** is also used when more than two persons or things are compared. The superlative degree is understood from the semantic content of the sentences.

6. Interfixation

Interfixation is another morphological process that is evident in Kolokuma. An interfix is an affix which occurs between two identical or sometimes non-identical roots. The affix –**ki** which is an emphazier, is inserted in between an identical root. As in:

Dubakiduba
 Dubakiduba
 Big emphz big
 ‘Really big’
 Zorukizoru
 Play emphz play
 Play indeed.

7. Suprafixation

In kolokuma, the non-segmental affix also manifest, as derivation is achieved through suprafixation, which is a process where a variation in the pitch of the voice causes a change in meaning. Works done by some scholars like Ekuigbo and Ayunku (2018), deny the existence of suprafixes in Izon generally. The examples given in their study were cases of homonyms. Consider the following examples.

éř	‘talk’	ęř	‘name’
eri	‘he’	éri	‘dry/chinmey’
dúma	‘song’	duma	‘hair’
dú	‘story’	dụ	‘collusion/jam’
ari	‘I’, ‘me’	ári	‘you’
ụkụmọ	‘only him’	ụkụmọ	‘private parts’

8. Derivational affixes (class changing)

In Kolokuma, derivational affixes are added to the root or base of a word in order to produce a new word which may either belong to the same or different word classes, Blench and Williamson (2015).

8.1 Verb to Noun

When the bound morpheme –**bq** is suffixed to the verb root, it changes the lexical meaning of the base as well as the word-class.

Table: 5

Verb (root)	Gloss	Suffix	Derived words (Noun)	Gloss
kọrimọ	drive	bq	kọrimọ bq	driver
dawai	learn	bq	dawai bq	learner
sẹi	dance	bq	sẹi bq	dancer

8.2 Noun to Verb

The suffix **-mɔ** is attached to the base of nouns to derive new words. Like the bound morpheme **-bɔ**, **-mɔ** changes both the word-class and the lexical meaning of the base.

Table: 6

Noun	Gloss	Suffix	Derived word (verb)	Gloss
firi	work	mɔ	firimɔ	to send
indou	breast	mɔ	indoumɔ	to breast feed
uyá	suffer(ing)	mɔ	uyámɔ	to suffer

8.3 Adjective to Verb

When **-mɔ** is attached to an adjective, the derived word is a verb which is a different part of speech. It also changes the lexical meaning of the root verb as shown in the table that follows.

Table: 7

Adjective	Gloss	Suffix	Derived word (verb)	Gloss
burɔ	rotten	mɔ	burɔmɔ	cause to rot
duba	big	mɔ	dubamɔ	to make big
ofiri	hot	mɔ	ofirimɔ	to warm

8.4 Derivational affixes (class maintaining): Class maintaining or non-class changing derivational affixes maintain the grammatical class of the word from which a new word is derived. They only modify the lexical meaning of the base word without changing the part of speech.

8.4.1 Verb to Verb

This affix **-mɔ** is suffixed to a verb to derive another verb. However, the meanings are modified while the word-class is maintained. In the table below, both base words and the derived words are verbs with slight difference in meaning.

Table: 8

Verb	Gloss	Suffix	Verb	Gloss
deri	laugh	m̩q	derim̩q	make laugh
wɛn̩ɪ	walk	m̩q	wɛn̩ɪm̩q	make walk
ukie	remember	m̩q	ukiem̩q	remind

8.4.2 Adjective to Adjective

The affix **-gha** is a negative indicator and when it is suffixed to the adjective the derived word is also an adjective. In the table below, the words in the two columns are all adjectives but with opposite meanings

Table: 9

Adjective	Gloss	Suffix	Adjective	Gloss
sei	bad	gha	seigha	not bad
ebi	good	gha	ebigha	not good
pina	ripe	gha	pinagha	not ripe

9. Verbal Extensions in Kolokuma

This part of the work discusses verbal extensions in Kolokuma. It may be restated that verbal extensions are class-maintaining derivational affixes which affect only the lexical meaning of the base word (verb) to which they are attached. They merely alter the meaning of their host or extend or modify the meaning of the base verb. Verbs in Kolokuma can take suffixes which extend their meaning and modify the syntax of the sentence. Verbal extensions that have been identified in Kolokuma (Izon) are self-action, reciprocal, causative, directional and extended directional.

9.1 Extensional suffixes in Kolokuma

Table: 10

Suffix	Meaning	Base form	Output(v)
-i	self action	sani (v.t.) melt	sanii (v.s.) melt (by itself)
-i	reciprocal	tari (v.t.) love	tarii (v. recip.) love each other
-m̩q	directional	weni (v.i.) walk	wenimo (v.dir.) walk towards
-m̩q	causative	bunu (v.i.) sleep	bunumo (v.c.s.) make sleep

9.2 Self-action verbs

Self-action verbs express actions that come about by themselves. They are extended from certain transitive verbs but are not transitive in themselves. In other words, self-action verbs do not necessarily have any agent that generates the action they express. Self-action verbs are formed in two ways.

- a. Adding the suffix –i (-i)
- b. By dropping the original subject and making the original object into the subject position.

The data below illustrates self-action verbs. In the example, ‘simple’ means ‘simple verb’ and ‘extended’ means ‘extended verb’ brought about by an extension affix.

A. Simple: sanj “melt” (something)

42. Aripulousaniji
 I oil melted
 “I melted the oil”
 Extended: Sanj (v.s.) melt (by itself) without an agent
43. Pulou bi saniji.
 Oil the melted
 “The oil melted”.

B. Simple: terj (v.t.) close (a container with a lid or to shut a door).

44. Eriogugabiteriji
 He door the shut
 “He shut the door”.
 Extended: Terji (v.s.) closed (by itself) or shut e.g. a pot, door etc.
45. Ogugabiteriji.
 Door the closed
 “The door got shut”.

C. Simple: kja (v.t.) filter (something liquid)

46. Ari beni bi kiami
 I water the filtered
 “I filtered the water”.
 Extended: kiaj (v.s.) ooze out (water oozing out and dried)
47. Benibikiaimi.
 Water the drained off
 “The water drained off”.

D. Simple: katj (v.t.) pluck

48. Erialalaindakati
 He orangeplucked
 “He plucked an orange”.
 Extended: katji (v.s.) fell (by itself)

49. Alalaindakatiimi
Orange fell (by itself)
The orange fell
“The orange fell by itself”.

E. Simple: kpeki (v.t.) gather

50. Kimi bi ɔtɔkɔkpekimi
Man the mud gathered
“The man gathered the mud”.
Extended: kpekii(v.s.) gather

51. Otɔkɔmɔwaribɔɔbɔkpekimii
Mud the+pl door the gathered
“The mud gathered in front of the door”.

In the first sentences each of the examples above, the verbs: *sani*, *teri*, *kia*, *kati* and *kpeti* are used as transitive verbs (v.t.). This means that the sentence has a subject and an object. In other words, it has an agent who causes or initiates the action represented by the verb and a patient which receives or suffers the actions of the syntactic agent. However, by adding the verbal extensions to the root verbs, not only do the morphology of the roots change but their meanings are also modified. The verbal extension effectively removes the value of transitivity from the verbs and makes them intransitive. Consequently, in the (b) sentences of the examples above using VEs, the grammatical object and complement of the verb (the patient) becomes the grammatical subject but still maintains its semantic role as the patient and not the agent. By adding or suffixing –i to their verb roots: *sani*, *teri*, *kia*, *kati*, and *kpeti* their meanings are modified, thus, making or changing them into self-action verbs. These are illustrated in the second (b) sentences (extended) example (1) to (5) above. Significantly, as has been mentioned earlier, in spite of the morphological and semantic changes of the verbs, the category or class of the derived words remain unchanged.

9. 3 Reciprocal verbs

Reciprocal verb extensions (v. recip.) express action done by two or more (persons) to each other. Reciprocal verbs (v. recip.) are extended from simple transitive verbs in which the subject and the object can be reversed by:

- a. Adding the suffix –i (-i)
- b. Combining the subject and object into plural subject.

Data for reciprocal verbs provided below

F. Simple: gbɔlɔ (v.t.) box; to give a blow on someone

52. Preye, Timigbɔlɔmi.
Preye, Timi boxed
Preye boxed Timi.
Extended: gbɔli (v. recip.) to box each other.

When the affix ‘-i’ is attached to the base verb **gbolu**, a new word ‘**gboli**’ is derived. These new words remain a verb. The affix is a verbal extension that creates a new meaning different from the base. This is illustrated in the sentence below.

53. PreyemqTimimqgbolumi.
Preye and Timi and boxed (each other).
Preye and Timi fought.

G. Simple: tari (v.t.) love

54. EbioweiEbieretari.
EbioweiEbiere loved.
Ebiowei loves Ebiere.
Extended: tarii (v. recip.) love each other.

55. EbioweimoEbieremotarii.
Ebiowei and Ebiere and love each other.
Ebiowei and Ebiere love each other.

H. Simple: kpotu (v.t.) chase

56. Preye, Timikpotumi.
Preye, Timi chased
Preye chased Timi.
Extended: kpotui (v. recip.) chase each other

57. PreyemqTimimqkpotumi.
Preye and Timi and chased
Preye and Timi chased each other.

I. Simple: laba (v.t.) embrace

58. Preye, Timilabami.
Preye, Timi embraced
Preye embraced Timi.
Extended: labai (v. recip.) embrace each other

59. PreyemqTimimqlabai.
Preye and Timi and embraced
Preye and Timi embraced each other.

There are some reciprocal verbs that possess the ‘-i’ suffix that creates the extended meaning but do not necessarily have a root verb from which the extension is derived. These verbs seem to be the base words in themselves. It may even be contemplated that the reciprocal verb extensions borrowed the meaning production patterns of these verbs. The following verbs are few examples.

J. Ololaj (v. recip.) compatible; have a good relationship

60. Beitaamoyeimololajimĩ
This wife and husband are compatible
This husband and wife are compatible

K. Galabaj (v. recip.) be in disagreement (as husband and wife) or friends; be on bad terms

61. Beitaamoyeimogalabajdqu
This wife and husband and scattered
This husband and wife have scattered.

L. Gbeleĩ (v. recip.) meet (each other)

62. Beiikiatumoowikiritirikogbeleimi
These friends dance floor on met (each other)
These friends met each other on the dance floor.

10. Compounding

This is a process of joining two or more formerly independent roots to form a single word. A word formed in this manner is called a compound. Compounding is a very productive morphological process in most languages. It does not only involve stringing together of words to form a word class but words from different word classes can also be combined to form compounds.

10.1 Noun + Noun

Two formerly independent nouns can combine to form a compound word as illustrated in the table.

Table: 11

Noun	Gloss	Noun	Gloss	Compound word	Gloss
kiri	ground	wári	house	kiriwári	bungalow
ogonq	up	wári	house	ogonqwári	story building
ogonq	up	toru	eye	ogonqtoru	sky

10.2 Verb + Noun

Another type of compound is that of stringing together words from different word-classes, that is a verb + noun to form a compound word.

Table: 12

Verb	Gloss	Noun	Gloss	Compound	Gloss
sụu	fight	kịmị	person	sụukịmị	soldier
tolumq	teach	oweı	man	tolumo- oweı	teacher
fin	fly	arụ	boat	fin arụ	Aeroplane

10.3 Adjective + Noun

An adjectival based compound is another category which consists of an adjective and a noun. Adjectival based compounds are fixed. When the structure is reversed, it is meaningless.

Table: 13

Adjective	Gloss	Noun	Gloss	Compound	Gloss
pẹrẹ	rich	kịmị	person	pẹrẹkịmị	rich man
gqmu	straight	kịmị	person	gqmu kịmị	honest person
ebi	good	egbéri	news	ebi-egbéri	good news

10.4 Noun + Adjective

The following compounds (noun + adjective) have nouns as their head words, however, the new words formed are semantically adjectives.

Table: 14

Noun	Gloss	Adjective	Gloss	Compound	Gloss
bolou	mind	ebi	good	bolouebi	kind-hearted
bolou	mind	kurq	strong	boloukurq	be brave
tubo	price	kurq	stong	tubokurq	expensive

10.5 Noun + Verb

We also have the noun as the head in this combination (noun + verb) but the compound words formed are verbs.

Table: 15

Noun	Gloss	Verb	Gloss	Compound	Gloss
wáři	house	bqun	roof	wáribqun	roof a house
bqụ	pound	sai	bail	Bqụsai	bail pound
mqun	hunger	kqrụ	wait	mqunkqrụ	fast

10.6 Noun + Verb + Noun

These are compounds involving the joining together of three formerly independent roots to form a single word.

Table: 16

Noun	Verb	Noun	Compound	Gloss
náma meat	kọrí catch	obiri dog	námakori-obiri	hunter dog
okoba money	kokou keep	wáří house	okobakokouwáří	bank
bìbì mouth	gba say	wáří house	bìbìgbawáří	court

From the above examples, it can be observed that compounding is a very productive morphological process in Kolokuma and it plays a crucial role in the lexicon of Izqñ language. Compounding enriches the language and enhances communication in terms of the expression of new ideas and new concepts, for language development.

11. Summary and Conclusion

In the course of this study, we have been able to provide a description of word formation processes in Kolokuma. We found out that suffixation is very productive. Suffixes perform inflectional, derivational and extensional functions by:

- (a) modifying the meaning of the base to which they are attached.
- (b) changing the word-class to which a base belongs and
- (c) marking singular-plural contrasts in nouns, contrasts between tenses in verbs, comparative and superlative contrast in adjectives and gender and number in nouns etc.

Article markers are suffixed to the noun to show gender, number, and definiteness. The form of the definite article varies according to the gender and number of the noun it introduces. We also found out that the indefinite singular article is not marked in Kolokuma. Whenever a noun occurs without the definite article marker, it automatically takes the covert indefinite marker. The suffix **-mq** is a multi-purpose suffix. **(a)** It is a definite plural marker. **(b)** It serves as a class changing affix when suffixed to a noun or an adjective and a class maintaining affix when suffixed to a verb. The study reveals that interfixation and suprafixation are evident in Kolokuma as well. Negation in Kolokuma is marked by attaching the suffixes **-gha** (meaning not) and **-kumq** (meaning do not) to the verb root. We also observed that compounding in Kolokuma involves joining together words from the same word-class as well as words from different word-classes.

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