| Serial No. | OJUKWU, CHIKA KATE  
REG. NO: PG/MA/08/48885 |
|-----------|---------------------------|
| Author 1  | A CONTRASTIVE STUDY OF IGBO AND  
ENGLISH AFFIXATION |
| Author 2  |                           |
| Author 3  |                           |
| Title:    |                           |
| Keyword:  |                           |
| Description: | A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH AND LITERARY STUDIES,  
FACULTY OF ARTS, UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA NSUKKA |
| Category: | ENGLISH AND LITERARY STUDIES |
| Publisher: |                           |
| Publication Date: | MAY, 2011 |
| Signature: | Webmaster |

Digitally Signed by Webmaster’s Name  
DN : CN = Webmaster’s name  
O= University of Nigeria, Nsukka  
OU = Innovation Centre
A CONTRASTIVE STUDY OF IGBO AND ENGLISH AFFIXATION

BY

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DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH AND LITERARY STUDIES,
UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA, NSUKKA

MAY 2011
A CONTRASTIVE STUDY OF IGBO AND ENGLISH AFFIXATION

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REG. NO: PG/MA/08/48885

A M.A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH AND LITERARY STUDIES, UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA, NSUKKA

IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS (M.A) IN ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

PROJECT SUPERVISOR: DR. C.L. NGONEBU

MAY 2011
CERTIFICATION

This is certify that Ojukwu, Chika Kate, a postgraduate student in the Department of English and Literary studies, University of Nigeria, Nsukka, has satisfactorily completed the requirements for the courses and project work for the degree of the Master of Arts (M.A.) in English as a second language. The work embodied in this project report is original and has not been submitted in part or full for any diploma or degree of this or any other university.

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EXTERNAL EXAMINER             Date
DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my beloved husband, Mr. Michael Okechukwu Ojukwu. To all our children and to God Almighty for his gift of life, love, grace and inspiration.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

It is with deep sense of appreciation that I sincerely acknowledge the constructive criticism and guidance of my supervisor, Dr. Chinyere Ngonebu in all the stages of this study. Dr., may God grant all your heart desires. I am thankful to all my lecturers, whose teaching, encouragements and elation have made me to complete this work. I cannot mention them by name but, to all of you, I remain ever grateful.

I sincerely appreciate the immense contributions of my beloved husband, Mr. Michael Okechukwu Ojukwu for his sincere love, prayers, patience, financial and moral support. I am eternally grateful dear. I thank all our children for their patience, love and understanding. To my parents, brothers and sisters, I thank you so much for your understanding, care, and love.

This is also a unique opportunity to remember those who have helped me in one way or the other not only in making this work a successful one but also for their advice and cooperation throughout my stay in the university, especially in the persons of Prof. Sam Onuigbo, Mz. Chuma Okeke, Ebekuedike of Linguistics and Igbo, among others. God will surely repay you a hundred folds.

I am particularly indebted to all the authors whose works I consulted during this research work. I will not fail to appreciate the love and prayers of my spiritual director, Rev Fr. Paul Nwanegbo. Fr., you are my inspiration. Finally, I praise and thank God Almighty whose love and grace brought this study to a successful end.

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Department of English and Literary Studies,
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ABBREVIATIONS AND CONVENTIONS USED

The following abbreviations and conventions are used in this study:

CA - Contrastive Analysis

L₁ - The First Language of the Learner

L₂ - The Second Language of the Learner

V - The Basic Verb Form in English

V-ed₁ - The Past Form of a Verb in English

V-ed₂ - The Past Participle in English

rv₁ - Simple Past Tense in Igbo

rv₂ - Stative Present Tense in Igbo

* - Ungrammatical or Unacceptable Sentence in Syntax and Error Indicator in Words

Tone Marking Conventions in the Igbo Language as Used by the Researcher

(/) - High Tone

(\) - Low Tone

( - ) - Down Step
ABSTRACT

This research work hinges on the contrastive analysis of Igbo and English affixation. The Igbo and English languages are of different linguistic backgrounds and as such are characterized by differences in the affixation processes. Such differences create problem in second language learning especially in verbal affixation. This study therefore, describes the affixation features of the Igbo and English languages and identifies areas of differences and similarities between the Igbo and English verbal affixation. The work also states the pedagogical implications of the differences in English and Igbo affixation. The data were collected and analysed using the descriptive research method, which were later arranged in tables. The findings of the work reveals that in verbal inflectional affixation, the formation of past tense in Igbo involves a regular –rv form with only two exceptions to the rule. The perfect aspect which makes use of –la, is also regular. But the English language uses the regular –ed form and many other irregular ways for forming their past tense and perfect aspect and this creates problem to the second language learner. Also, the -s form or third person does not exist in Igbo and as such poses a problem to an Igbo learner of the English language. Again, the researcher discovers that in derivational affixation, prefixes in Igbo are limited to a few vowels that are conditioned by the vowel harmony rule and in some cases the syllabic nasals. But in the English language, there are many types of prefixes. The Igbo learner therefore, faces problem of how to master the large number of distinctive prefixes in English verbs. The researcher therefore, recommends that language teacher should concentrate on the areas of differences in both languages while teaching and then use adequate teaching methods and aids in teaching to ensure the learner understands.
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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Language is the chief source of communication of ideas. There are some other ways also, such as dance, music, physical gestures and symbols through which we can communicate ideas. But language is a very common and easy source of communication. It is the basis of human civilization, which would have been impossible without it. As Encyclopaedia Americana puts it:

Language is the principal and richest means of communication used by human beings. Language functions primarily as spoken means of communication. It can, however, also be transferred to other media, most clearly as in the case of writing... In addition, the deaf communities, in which the aural medium is not available, the visual medium is exploited for deaf sign language (727).

Every language has different ways of forming new words that makes it unique. One of these processes of word formation is called affixation. Affixation is under the concept of morphology, and morpheme. Morphology is a branch of linguistics that deal with the internal structure and formation of words. Yule defines morphology as, “the study of forms” (75). These forms are what we have as morphemes. Morphemes are the smallest units of grammar.

There are two kinds of morphemes: free morphemes and bound morphemes. A free morpheme can stand alone and is understandable in isolation. Example, boy. A
bound morpheme cannot occur alone example –ish in girlish. Affixation is thus, the process of addition of affixes (bound morphemes) to the existing stem, root, or base morphemes in order to form new words or change the meaning of the existing one. It is one of the productive ways of word building in both the English and Igbo languages. Babarinde (58) states that, “affixation comprises of prefixation, suffixation, interfixation, infixation”. Anagbogu, Mbah and Eme (102) include “circumfixation.” All these are morphological processes. According to www.Sil.Org/Linguistics/Glossaryoflingu, “A morphological process is a means of changing a stem to adjust its meaning to fit its syntactic and communicational context.”

Prefixation according to www.Sil.Org/Linguistics/Glossaryoflingu, “is a morphological process whereby a bound morpheme is attached to the front of a root or stem. The kind of affix involved in this process is called a prefix”. Example, in English the prefix –un attaches to the front of the stem selfish to form the word unselfish.

“Suffixation is a morphological process whereby a bound morpheme is attached to the end of a root or stem. The kind of affix involved in this process is called a suffix”. This is according www.Sil.Org/Linguistics/Glossaryoflingu. Example, in English the past tense suffix –ed attaches to the end of stem walk to form the past tense verb walked.

Interfixation according to www.Sil.Org/Linguistics/Glossaryoflingu, “is a morphological process whereby a bound morpheme attaches in between two roots having the same sounds and meaning. The kind of affix in this process is called an
interfix”. Examples abound in the Igbo language. Example, ogo-I-ogo meaning **very tall**.

Infixation according to *language – theory. Info/language 732 html*, “is a morphological process whereby a bound morpheme attaches within a root or stem. The kind of affix involved in this process is called an infix”. This occurs in Tagalog a Philippine language. The focus marker –**um** is an infix which is added after the first consonant of the root –**bili. um** – infix, **bumili** – word.

Circumfixation according to [www.2.hawaii.edu/-blender/processhtml](http://www.2.hawaii.edu/-blender/processhtml) “is a morphological process whereby a bound morpheme is attached to a root or stems both initially and finally”. This occurs in Igbo language. For instance, **Etimxkpu**. Meaning act of shouting. Eti… mkpu are the circumfix.

According to *Encyclopaedia Americana* “languages may be classified from a number of view points and for various purposes. The two basic classifications are typological and genetic” (731).

Genetic classification groups together languages which are presumed to have arisen from a common source. It reflects languages that share common ancestors. The characteristics shared by related languages are hardly by chance.

According to [www.rogerblench.info/languagedata/](http://www.rogerblench.info/languagedata/) “Genetically, Igbo is one of the African languages that belong to the new Benue-Congo of the Niger Congo language family. Igbo is among the three languages spoken in Nigeria of which others are Hausa and Yoruba”. “Igbo is the only major language of eastern Nigeria. The Igbo language is spoken indigenously in the states of Abia, Anambra, Akwa Ibom, Benue, Delta, Ebonyi, Enugu, Imo and Rivers” according to [www.Parafilion.Org/Wikipedia/Pm.Wikihp/PanAfrican/Igbo](http://www.Parafilion.Org/Wikipedia/Pm.Wikihp/PanAfrican/Igbo). Typologically, Igbo is
a tonal language. It has three tones: the high, the low and the down step. The Igbo language has a number of dialects distinguished by accent or orthography, but almost mutually intelligible. According to www.danshort.com/i.e/:
The English language, on the other hand, is one of the Indo-European family of languages. Within this family, English is a member of West Germanic branch originated from the Anglo-Frisian and Old Saxon dialects brought to Britain by Germanic settlers from various part of what is now north West Germany, Denmark and the Netherlands in the 5th century.

Following the economic, political, military, scientific, cultural and colonial influence of Great Britain and the United Kingdom from the 18th century, and of the United States since the mid century, English widely dispersed around the world, become the leading language of discourse and has acquired use as lingua franca, that is, a means of communication between non native speakers. It is widely learned as a second language. One major impact of the growth of English has been to reduce native linguistic diversity in many parts of the world for instance, in African countries of which Nigeria is one of them. According to en.wikipedia.Org/wiki/linguistics-ty, another basic way of classification of languages is:

From the typological view point. A typological classification groups languages into types according to their structural characteristics. The most famous typological classification is probably that of isolating, agglutinating and inflecting (or fusional) languages, which was frequently invoked in the 19th century in support of an evolutionary theory of language development.

According to McGregor (255), “isolating languages have no (or few) bound morphemes.” As the name suggests, the morpheme stands as words independently in sentences one following the other. Such words lack affixes and are often root morphemes. Haitian Creole (a French-based Creole spoken on the island of Haiti) is an isolating language. **Examples,**

1. M fa konprann Sa 1(i) ap dim lan

   I don’t understand what he/she is telling me.

   On the other hand, according to en.wikipedia.Org/wiki/Agglutinative…

   “Agglutinating languages are languages that use agglutination extensively. It was
derived from a Latin verb agglutinare, which means to glue together”. Most words are formed by joining morphemes together. According to MacGregor (255) in agglutinating languages, “the boundaries between morphemes are clear-cut. It is obvious where one morpheme ends and the next begins”. Agglutinative languages tend to have a high rate of affixes/morphemes per word. Agglutination is the addition of a large number of affixes one after another. Examples in the English language:

2. book-s, re-use, lik-able, anti-dis-establish-ment- ari-an-ism. An agglutinating language is one whose primary means of building new words is by adding affixes. According to www.booksrags.com/tandf/agglutinating... “There are agglutinating languages where prefixation predominates; others prefer suffixation; sometimes agglutinating languages are also referred to as inflecting languages because they also make extensive use of grammatical affixes”. Examples of agglutinating languages are the Igbo and English languages. Examples in English language:

3. book-s, re-use, lik-able, anti-dis-establish-ment- ari-an-ism.

According to Osuagwu, Nwaozuzu, Dike, Nwaogu and Okoro (64) examples of agglutination in Igbo language are as follows:

4. Ó gbúdàchàkwàrà yà meaning He cut it down completely.

gbú - dà – kwá – rà are morphemes expressing distinct categories. These morphemes and their meanings are as follows:

Ó – He

gbú – cut
dà - fall down
chá – completely
kwá – also
rà – past
yà – it
Here, Igbo being an agglutinating language, the verb structures above show a lot of morphological complexity. Again, in Igbo the verbs may also be very simple in structure. Example, the simple imperative may consist of just the simple verb root plus vowel suffix. For instance,

5.  \( pụ + ọ = pụọ \) meaning go.

McGregor (255 – 256) says that “fusional or inflecting languages, have morphological complex words in which it can be difficult to separate morphemes from one another. The boundaries between them are blurry”. In contrast with agglutinating languages, words are easily analysed into morphemes that follow one another like beads on a string. For instance, consider the following Latin examples:

6.  puto 1\(^{st}\) person singular indicative present tense ‘I think’

Putas 2\(^{nd}\) person singular indicative present tense ‘you think’

Putat 3\(^{rd}\) person singular indicative present tense ‘he/she thinks’.

In fusional or inflectional language, a stem undergoes a change in form, based on its grammatical function in sentence. The Igbo and English language are good examples of fusional/inflectional languages. According to en.wikipedia.org/wiki/inflection:

Most English verbs are inflected for tense with the inflectional past tense affix \(-ed\) as in call and the past tense called is realized. English also inflects verbs by affixation to mark the third person singular in the present tense with addition of \(-s\) and the present participle with \(-ing\). English short adjectives are inflected to mark comparative and superlative forms with \(-er\) and \(-est\) respectively. In addition, English also shows inflection by: ablaut (sound change, mostly in verbs) and umlaut (a long-short vowel alternation in verbs). For examples, (a) write, wrote, written (b) sing, sang, sung, are used as the present tense, past tense and past participle respectively.

On the other hand, the Igbo language inflects to show mood, aspect, and tense.

Examples of past tense inflection in the Igbo language,
The Igbo language inflects by adding inflectional affixes like the English language. But Igbo is unlike the English language because it does not use umlaut (that is, long-short vowel alternation) and ablaut (sound change).

In a nutshell, however, the Igbo and English languages show agglutinating tendencies in some cases of grammar and fusional/inflectional tendencies in different degrees. For this reason, I can posit that the Igbo and English languages are not completely isolating or inflectional or agglutinating.

From the ongoing, it can be deduced that historically, Igbo and English are different languages but typologically, they have some areas of similarities and differences. Apart from these, no two languages are completely alike at all levels of linguistic analysis even if they are of the same linguistic origin. Based on this, various languages can be placed side by side for comparative analysis. The distinctive features of various languages are taken into cognisance once they are placed side by side for comparative analysis.

In a multi-lingual society like Nigeria, a person after acquiring his L₁ (a person’s first language) for instance, the Igbo language, is sometimes exposed to another language, for instance, English to strengthen his social harmony and mutual understanding. The learner therefore, faces problems as a result of the differences in the features of the two languages and also as a result of the language habits he has

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb roots</th>
<th>Suffixes</th>
<th>Inflected words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>biaː</td>
<td>raː</td>
<td>Biaː/raː</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hxː</td>
<td>rxː</td>
<td>hxː/rxː</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
developed against the background of which he learns the new language. This results to linguistics interference.

Interference from the first language is clearly a major source of difficulty in second language learning. Adults learn the target language against the background of their first language in which they have attained a reasonable degree of competence. There is, therefore, the inevitable tendency to transfer the ingrained native language attributes to the target language thereby hindering effective mastery of grammar of the new language. The problem is more pronounced when the differences between the systems of the two languages are wide. Lado puts it poignantly thus:

We assume that the student who comes in contact with a foreign language will find some features of it quite easy and others extremely difficult. Those elements that are similar to his native language will be simple for him and those elements that are different will be difficult (2).

Due to these problems, some linguists like: Lado, Fries and so on have taken it as a point of duty to study the L₁ of a learner and the L₂ (a language acquired by a person after his L₁ - first language) so as to know the areas that cause problems and the possible solution to the problems. Hence, Lado and others devised the method of contrastive analysis, as one of the techniques used in applied linguistics.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The Igbo and English languages are of different linguistic backgrounds and because of this they are characterized by differences in the affixation processes. Differences in affixation processes in Igbo and English create problem in second language learning. It becomes the intention of the study to find out the similarities and differences between Igbo and English verbal affixation and the implication this may have in the study of the target language (English language). This is because some of the problems encounter in the language are as a result of affixation differences.
1.3 Purpose of the Study

The aims or objectives of carrying out this research are:

i. To describe the similarities between the Igbo and English verbal affixation.

ii. To identify areas of differences between the Igbo and English verbal affixation.

iii. To state the pedagogical implication of the absence/differences in English and Igbo affixation.

iv. To illustrate the affixation patterns of both Igbo and English.

v. To provide possible solutions to the pedagogical problems discovered.

1.4 Research Questions

The research questions that guide the study are as follows:

i. What is the extent of similarity between the Igbo and English verbal affixation?

ii. To what extent does the English and Igbo verbal affixation differ?

iii. What are the pedagogical implications of the absence/differences of the affixes in either of the languages?

iv. To what extent will the study help the second language learner towards achieving proficiency and intelligibility in the language?

1.5 Scope and Limitations of the Study

The affixation processes in both languages cut across grammatical categories especially in English. However, because of the nature of the research and time available to the researcher, the work would be limited to the verbal affixation in both languages.
This study is limited to the verbal affixation because the Igbo language hardly has affixes on any other grammatical categories than the verb. The study focuses on verbal affixation to enable the researcher to generate concrete findings and conclusions.

1.6 Relevance of the Study

The study fills a gap because much emphasis seems to be placed on phonology, syntax and semantics. However, morphology has received little or no attention. To fill this gap, this project is on “A Contrastive Study of Igbo and English Affixation.” A contrastive analysis of this nature will be beneficial to Igbo learners, of English, teachers, theory formulators, and curriculum planners.

i. A study of this nature will enable the learner to know the similarities and the differences of Igbo and English verbal affixation. Knowing this influences his learning because he is learning the target language against the background of the mother tongue.

ii. It helps the teacher to focus on the areas of differences in both languages so as to enhance understanding among the students.

iii. The curriculum planner will incorporate the features of morphology of both languages in curriculum and also in the teacher’s workbooks for practical application and learning of the features of the two languages in the school system.

iv. Theory formulators will incorporate the characteristics of the knowledge of the language affixation in both languages in generating a theory that can be applied in all languages.
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

As Babbie, (107) rightly points out, “no good researcher writes in a vacuum”. This is because every research that worth its salt must be guided by past related works written on the subject of study. In this chapter, in order to provide a better understanding of the study, related literature on the topic is reviewed under the following headings:

i. Conceptual framework

ii. Theoretical studies

iii. Related empirical studies

iv. Summary of literature review

2.2 Conceptual Framework

Conceptual framework is a group of concepts that are broadly defined and systematically organized to provide a focus, a rationale and a tool for the integration and interpretation of information. The conceptual framework of this study is discussed under the heading: Affixation with its various appendages.

2.2.1 Affixation

Ballard, (51), defines affixation as, “the process by which bound morphemes (other than roots) are added to bases, either word-initially or word finally to form new words.” Before discussing in-depth the concept of affixation, it is important to understand the concept of morphology. Morphology is one of the branches of linguistics that studies the process of word formation of language(s). According to Akmajian, Demers, Farmer and Harnish (12), “morphology is a subfield of linguistics
that studies the internal structure of words and the relationships among words.” Nida (1) defines morphology as, “the study of morphemes and their arrangements in forming words.” Morpheme is the unit of study in morphology. It is the smallest meaningful unit of a language. Anagbogu, et al. (99) refers to morpheme as, “the smallest indivisible form which has a specific grammatical function.” Example, the English word **UNBREAKABLE** has three morphemes: **un**, **break**, and **-able**.

According to Babarinde (22), “there are basically two types of morpheme. These are free morphemes and bound morphemes.” He says further that: “Free morphemes can stand on their own with meanings. They are independent and are otherwise known as monomorphemic words. Every free morpheme is a word.” (22). Thus, free morphemes are lexical morphemes probably because they have inherent or intrinsic meanings being words belonging to major lexical categories such as: nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. There is another class of morphemes that are called functional morphemes. Examples of such words are: because, on, and, and so on. These words belong to minor lexical categories such as: pronoun, conjunction, and preposition.

Bound morpheme is the one that cannot stand alone in an utterance. For example, **in**, **un**, and **-ly** are bound morphemes. They are forms which may possess meanings but which crucially have grammatical functions in the grammar. For instance, **-ly** when attached to **urgent**, adverbializes the free morpheme. As have been stated, morphology deals with the formation of words. Words are formed through several ways. Affixation is one of such ways of word formation. Other ways of word formation according to Fromkin, Rodman and Hyams, (106) include: “Coinage, Compound, Blends, Acronyms, Back-formation, Eponym and Clipping.”
Affixation is one of the productive ways of word building throughout the history of the English language as well as in the Igbo language. Agbedo defines affixation as: “a word building or word formation process that involves the addition of phoneme or group of phonemes to a root or stem to modify, extend or change the meaning and/or function of the word” (89).

In the English language for instance, plural morpheme –s is added to job, rat, and book to form the following forms, jobs, rats, and books. The process of attaching the plural morpheme –s to these roots is called affixation. Also, Umera, Nneka, and Nwankwo (50) define affixation as, “the addition of prefixes and suffixes to the root word or base with or without change of the word class.” Example, the addition of dis- to advantage to get disadvantage does not change the word class from noun which it is, while the addition of –er to drive making it driver has changed the word class from verb to noun. From all these definitions above, affixation is thus a morphological process whereby an affix is attached to a root or stem in order to form new words or change the meaning of the existing one. According to Agbedo, “the linguistic item that is involved in this process is referred to as affix” (89). Agbedo (89) poists that “an affix is a speech sound which is added to a word and which changes the meaning or function of the word.” To have a firm grip of the concept of affixation, these linguistic items such as: root, base, and stem should be adequately understood.

Babarinde (22) defines a root as “The smallest morphological unit that is associated with a free morpheme. It is the very heart of the word formation – the core of any given word.” The root carries the most significant aspects of semantic content and cannot be reduced into smaller constituents. Contents words in nearly all languages
represent root morphemes. For instance, in the word: naturalization, the root of the word is nature. Also, the root is defined by Osuagwu, et al as “that part of the word left after all the affixes or appendages have been removed” (56).

Umera, et al., define a base as: “a form to which an affix is added. It is the smallest form of a word. Often, the base is the root. It is the very heart of a word to which additions and appendages are made” (14).

A stem is defined by Umera, et al., as, “a root to which an affix can be added” (14). Babarinde sees a stem as, “that part of the word to which the last morpheme in the word is structurally added (23). Fromkin, et al. see a stem as “the base to which an affix is attached” (107).

According to Agbedo (89), affixes are classified in terms of “position and function.” Positional classification of affixes yields the following: prefix, suffix, interfix, circumfix, infix and so on.

2.2.2 Classification of Affixes in Terms of Position

(a) Prefix

Finegan says, “prefixes are attached to the front of a stem” (49). According to Ballard (51), “a prefix is an affix which occurs in word-initially.” From the above definitions, a prefix occurs in front of a root or stem. According to Ballard, (51) “A prefix is class preserving”. Prefix occurs in both the English and Igbo languages.

8. Examples of prefixes in English:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefixes</th>
<th>Roots</th>
<th>Derived Words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>un -</td>
<td>happy</td>
<td>Unhappy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ex -</td>
<td>Wife</td>
<td>ex-wife</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mis -</td>
<td>judge</td>
<td>Misjudge</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sentence: She is unhappy about the whole incidence.
(b) **Suffix**

According to Ballard (51), suffix is defined as “an affix which is added to word-finally.” It is an affix that is added to the end of a word to change its meaning.

Ballard states further:

A suffix may be class preserving. Example, both king and kingdom are nouns. But it is equally likely to be class changing. For instance, the addition of the suffix –ly to the adjective sad results in an adverb sadly. Suffix tends to be word class specific unlike prefix which can be added to at least two word classes. For example, the suffix –ment is found in noun amendment (51).

9. **Examples of suffixes in English**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Roots</th>
<th>Suffixes</th>
<th>Derived Words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>happy</td>
<td>- ness</td>
<td>Happiness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>like</td>
<td>- ness</td>
<td>Likeness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>call</td>
<td>- er</td>
<td>Caller</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>faith</td>
<td>- ful</td>
<td>Faithful</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Sentence:** She is a faithful friend.

(c) **Interfix**

Anagbogu, et al., define interfix as “an affix which occurs in the middles of a word in such a way that on both sides of it, there are identical morphemes” (102). Examples, in Igbo language according to Anagobgu, et al., (102).

10. **Examples of interfixes in Igbo**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Words</th>
<th>Interfixes</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ọgwuọ-r-e ọgwuọ</td>
<td>- r -</td>
<td>Drama/sport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ọgqọ-r [-</td>
<td>- ri -</td>
<td>Winding road</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ọgqọ</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ọgọ-m-ọgọ</td>
<td>- m -</td>
<td>Text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aọkaọlaọkaọ</td>
<td>- l-</td>
<td>Destiny</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In example 10 above, -r-, -ri-, -m- and -l- are all interfixes joining two stems with the same sounds and meaning.

(d) **Infix**

According to Babarinde (58) “infixes are in neither English nor in Igbo. This process involves a strict insertion of an affix within a root.” Ballard defines infix as “a bound morpheme which is inserted within the word.” In Tagalog, a language of the Philippines, the infix -um means “one who did something **su:lat** = writing

11. **Su-mu:-lat** = one who wrote.

Another example, in Tagalog according to Babarinde (58),

12. **Kanta** ‘sing’

**Kina**nta ‘was sung’

**Kum** anta ‘sang’

**Kumak** anta “is singing”

-**na**, -**um**, -**umak** are infixes (strictly inserted) in the root kanta meaning past participle, past simple and present continuous inflectional morphemes respectively in the language.

(e) **Circumfix**

It occurs when one position of an affix appears at the front of a stem, and the other at the rear. Fromkin et al. (81) define circumfix as, “morphemes that are attached to a base morpheme both initially and finally.” Anagbogu, et al. see circumfix as, “that which is structured as a frame with an affix at each end” (102).
The circumfix is an affix whose occurrence is less wide spread than that of the prefix and the suffix. According to Anagbogu et al (102) the following Malayan example is given:

Pe – an is the frame of a Malayan circumfix. A verb root is inserted into the above frame to derive an abstract noun.

13. Pe -r†sa- an ‘act of feeling’.

Another example in Igbo according to Anagbogu (102)

14.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Circumfix</th>
<th>Translated form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>eфsi-мхsчнчaф</td>
<td>esi…ncha</td>
<td>act of making soap</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(f) Extensional Affix

According to Anagbogu et al (104) extensional affixation involves attaching suffixes to bases, but this exercise does not interfere with the lexical classes of the affected morpheme. Words can change from concrete to abstract or concrete to concrete nouns as a result of such extensions as in:

15. girl    girlhood
    home    homestead
    scholar scholarship (Anagbogu, 104)

According to Emenanjo, (143) in Igbo Language and Culture, extensional suffixes are “principally meaning modifiers since they extend the meanings of the verbs to which they are affixed.” Nwachukwu refers to extensional as “non inflectional suffix” (74). The term extensional suffix is borrowed from Emenanjo, (88) in his Element of
Modern Igbo Grammar to denote “those suffixes which have a wide scope of occurrence.”

According to Emenanjo (97) in his *Element of Modern Igbo Grammar* the term extensional is used in African linguistics for referring to elements usually affixes, which function principally as meaning modifiers. Thus, the presence or absence of an extensional suffix changes the meaning of a sentence. “Extensional ones do not change grammatical classes of the elements to which they are affixed” (Emenanjo, 139) in *Igbo Language and Culture*.

Extensional suffixes are classified according to their paradigmatic relationship. Francis, in Tomori (21) defines “a paradigm as the system of morphemic variations which is correlated with a parallel system of variation in environment.” Examples of extensional suffixes classified according to the paradigmatic relationship. Example, according to Emenanjo (144) in his *Igbo Language and Culture*,

16.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Igbo</th>
<th>English Translated Forms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a gwx</td>
<td>‘It is finished.’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b gwxla</td>
<td>‘It is finished.’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c gwxwala</td>
<td>‘It is beginning to finish.’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d gwxkpqqla</td>
<td>‘It is completely finished.’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The first (a) does not have the perfective marker {-la}, but it is affixed to others. Apart from the perfective marker, there is the affixation of other suffixes in examples (c) and (d) respectively {-wa} and {-kpq}.
These are the extensional suffixes and they modify the meaning of verbs. The first example of extensional suffix is given in perfective affirmative. Another example could be seen in indicative affirmative.

17. Igbo | English Translated Forms
---|---
a | Q ꜑ zx市场价格
He bought.
b | Q ꜑ zx市场价格
He bought.
c | Q ꜑ zx市场价格
He began to buy.
d | Q ꜑ zx市场价格
He completely bought.

Though the verb forms are different, the extensional suffixes \{-wa\} and \{-kpq\} still convey the same meaning To begin to and completely.

Extensional suffixes extend the meaning of any given verb and have generally been described as meaning modifying affixes. Emenanjo (100-123) in his *Element of Modern Igbo Grammar* gives the following examples of extensional suffix.

1). -wa inceptive suffix

18. Example,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Igbo sentence</th>
<th>Translated form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-wa</td>
<td>La市场价格wa市场价格nx市场价格.</td>
<td>Go away you lot.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2). -cha - complete

19. Example,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Igbo sentence</th>
<th>Translated form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-cha</td>
<td>E市场价格me市场价格cha市场价格ra市场价格 ha市场价格 a市场价格la市场价格wa市场价格.</td>
<td>They finally left.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3). -gwa - retaliative

20. Example,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Igbo sentence</th>
<th>Translated form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-gwa</td>
<td>e ti gwa ra g</td>
<td>If you beat me I (shall) retaliate.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4). -kq - Associative

21. Example,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Igbo sentence</th>
<th>Translated form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-kq</td>
<td>ni le b [kqta()]</td>
<td>They all live together.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5). -ta - Directional

22. Example,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Igbo sentence</th>
<th>Translated form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-ta</td>
<td>ta o kpu m</td>
<td>Bring my hat.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6). -tx – touch slightly

23. Example,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Igbo sentence</th>
<th>Translated form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-tx</td>
<td>ya ya ya ya ya</td>
<td>He/she tasted it (a bit of it).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(g) Enclitics
In Igbo language, according to Emenanjo, (90) in *Element of Modern Igbo Grammar* says that until fairly recently, enclitics and suffixes are lumped together and collectively called suffixes. Like suffixes, enclitics are bound with optional elements. According to Emenanjo, (90) in *Element of Modern Grammar*, he gives the features of suffixes and enclitics as:

a) While suffixes appear only in the verbal slot and as part of the verb stem, the enclitics appear both in verbal and in the NP slots without appearing to be essential parts of these.

b) Suffix occurs on the verbal, the enclitics can, in principal, appear with practically all parts of speech with the possible exception of the preposition.

c) Enclitics occasionally take the same tone pattern as that of the preceding syllable.

24. **Examples**, 

(a) N๐d [ a١ kwa١ n٤١] What of all these ones?

(b) N٤١g [ kwa١ n٤١] What of all you yourself?

25. **Examples of Enclitics**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Enclitics</th>
<th>Igbo sentence</th>
<th>Translated form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-cha</td>
<td>N٤١d [ a١ cha١ b١ cha١ oriri ٥١ cha١]</td>
<td>All these came to the feasting.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ga</td>
<td>N٤١d [ a١ ga١ b٣١ ga١] n٠١ m ga٥١</td>
<td>All these came to the feasting.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Agbedo, (89) “affixes are classified in terms of function into two main types: inflectional and derivational affixes.”
2.2.3 Classification of Affixes in Terms of Function

(a) Inflectional Affixes

MacGregor, (62) sees inflectional affixes as, “Bound morphemes that give grammatical information relevant to the interpretation of a sentence.” They do not give rise to new lexical words, but to different forms that are appropriate for the use of the lexical word in the sentence.

Finegan says, “Inflectional morphemes create variant forms of a word to conform to different roles in a sentence or in discourse” (51). According to Finegan: “Inflectional morphemes serve to mark semantic notion such as number, and grammatical categories such as gender and case on noun and pronoun. On verbs, they can mark such things as tense or number, while on adjectives they indicate degree”.

(51)

According to Akmajian, et al (43), “all inflectional affixes in English are suffixes.

Generally, inflectional affixes form grammatical forms such as: tense, aspect, plurality and so on.

Examples, English

Verb inflectional affixes according to Akmajian et al. (43) are as follows:

(a) –s third person singular marker

26. Example bake – bakes

(b) –ed past tense marker

27. | Present | Past tense |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Talk</td>
<td>Talked</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
He talked.

(c) Progressive marker –ing

Examples sing – singing

They are singing.

(d) Past participle markers –en or –ed

Eat – eaten

She has eaten dinner.

Bake – baked

He has baked a cake.

(b) Derivational Affixes

According to Agbedo (87), “derivation involves the processes whereby new words are formed from existing words. It consists in adding to a root or stem an affix or affixes.” Derivational affixes produce new words whose meanings and distributions are somewhat erratic (Agbedo, 87).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefixes</th>
<th>Roots</th>
<th>Derived words</th>
<th>English meanings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>☇cha</td>
<td>cha</td>
<td>☇cha</td>
<td>Colour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{ 4 } cha</td>
<td>{ 4 } cha</td>
<td>{ 4 } cha</td>
<td>Becomes white</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sentence example: ☇d { 4 } cha.

2.3 Theoretical Framework

The importance of theory is to help the investigator to base the work on a guiding principle or theory of linguistics. This work hinges on Contrastive Analysis as a theory because it provides the basis for comparing and contrasting the affixation patterns of two different languages. According to en.wikipedia.Org/wiki/contrastive.a…
Contrastive analysis was used extensively in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) in the 1960s and early 1970s, as a method of explaining why some features of a target language were more difficult to acquire than others. According to the behaviourist theories prevailing at the time, language learning was a question of habit formation and this could be reinforced or impeded by existing habits. Therefore, the difficulty in mastering certain structures in a second language (L2) depends on the differences between the learners’ (L1) and the language they are trying to learn.

Lado states that: “contrastive analysis is a scientific description of the language to be learned carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner” (1). Every language has its own peculiar features that makes it different from another language. These peculiar features of individual languages constitute problems to the learners of the language, but the problem could be predicted by a comparison of the two languages. Applied linguists believe that problems of L2 learning could be illuminated through a careful comparison of the languages concerned. Through the comparison, the differences and the similarities between the two languages are brought out so that predications are made of the problems native speakers of one language will encounter in learning the other language.

Contrastive analysis concerns itself with those features in one’s first language, which will hinder his learning of a target language and then applying appropriate solutions to enhance language learning. Contrastive analysis, therefore aims at predicting and describing the patterns of the target language which will constitute learning problems for second language learners.

S. P. Corder opines that: “when a learner is learning a target language, he is not learning language for the first time but rather he is learning a particular realization or manifestation of human language” (225).
In other words, he is trying to use a “new linguistics data” which is different from that of his mother tongue to communicate with people.

Fries as quoted in Lado confirms the above view by saying that: “individual tend to transfer the forms and meanings and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language to the foreign language and culture both productively when attempting to speak the language and to act in the culture” (9).

Fries contends also that: “the problem of learning second language do not arise because of difficulty in the features of the new language itself but because of the already existing habits formed as a result of the first language acquisition” (9).

In view of this, the learner already has existing habits and these existing habits have formed a set of blind spot in receiving any new language.

According to Adimuo, “once a habit is formed, it is difficult to overcome” (34). But Okoli says that, “one can learn two habits one after another without dropping any of the two habits.” Lado further explains that, “the elements that are similar to the learner’s native language will be simple for him, while those that are different will be difficult” (2). To him, similarity is related to simplicity while differences are related to difficulty.

Whiteman and Jackson quoted in James do not agree with Lado’s view, they say that relative similarity rather than difference is directly related to levels of difficulty” (180). Therefore, the similarities and differences will influence his learning because he is learning the target language against the background of the mother tongue and because of this the learner normally refers back to his mother tongue when he is in difficulty.
Corder holds the justification of contrastive analysis on its usefulness in “explanatory power” (279). Therefore, if contrastive analysis fails to explain anything about the nature of the language data, then it is not worth the labour expended on it.

Although, contrastive analysis still holds as a useful method of predicting learners problems, linguists have criticized its “linguistic inadequacy.” For instance, Mukattash explains that: “it is possible to establish patterns of difficulty for learners of a given native language with the use of different techniques and elicitation procedures through linguistic and non-linguistic points of view” (354). He says further, “the patterns will vary on their degree of intensity according to multitude of psychological, pedagogical, social and nature factors” (354).

Nikel states that, “contrastive linguistics in itself is quite inadequate as the basis for total language programme. Likewise, teachers can depend solely on contrastive analysis as the root for language teaching” (20) that is why Johnson states “contrastive analysis is unnecessary since it can only reveal what experienced teachers know already” (16). Nevertheless, for the fact that not all teachers are experienced, they need contrastive analysis especially in foreign language teaching. He suggests using contrastive analysis to explain difficulties already found rather than the prediction of such problems or difficulties. He further points out that contrastive analysis should be integrated with error analysis, as this should better form the explanatory stage in error analysis.

Contrastive analysis, therefore, is important because it highlights structures of the languages compared. This may have served as the basis for Buren’s argument that “contrastive study fails to explain anything about the nature of the language data, it scarcely seems worth the time and labour that has been expended on it” (12).
Ferguson also points out another importance of contrastive analysis that: “contrastive analysis of any two languages will offer a good basis for the preparation of texts and instructional materials for the planning of courses and used to overcome the huddles of teaching” (5-7).

Carl in highlighting the importance of contrastive analysis says, “it can predict the learners’ errors” (74). Cook, recognizing the ability of contrastive analysis in solving the problems of a language learner, states that:

The knowledge of a foreign language is seen in the mastery of the differences in the outstanding system in the L1 of the learner and the foreign language. This can only be achieved through contrastive analysis of the two languages involved (44). This means that contrastive analysis could produce accurate descriptions of individual languages, and therefore is a suitable theory for this study.

2.4 Empirical Studies

This section of the research work presents the empirical studies related to the two languages under discussion.

a. Empirical Studies on Igbo Affixation

Some commendable contributions have been made by Igbo scholars with reference to affixation in the Igbo language.

Emenanjo, (58) in his *Element of Modern Igbo Grammar* discusses extensively the features of Igbo morphology. This includes: affixes, enclitics and tonal morphemes. He says that “in an agglutinating language like Igbo, the smallest meaningful grammatical elements are enclitics and tonal morphemes”. He also says that “Igbo affixes can be prefixes, suffixes, and most Igbo prefixes are clearly derivation in deriving nominal (nouns) from verbs”.
Emenanjo, (215) notes further that a prefix may have one or more forms conditioned by vowel harmony. According to him, the agentive can be derived by prefixing the harmonizing morpheme to the verb root as could be seen in the following illustration.

29.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefixes</th>
<th>Verb roots</th>
<th>Derived words</th>
<th>English meanings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ocw</td>
<td>Kwuko</td>
<td>Ocwkwuko</td>
<td>Talker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ocw</td>
<td>ruçu</td>
<td>oruçu</td>
<td>Worker</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Emenanjo, (75) in readings on the Igbo verbs avers that “extensional is used in African linguistics for referring to elements usually affixes, which function principally as meaning modifiers”. Thus, the presence or absence of an extensional suffix changes the meaning of a sentence.

Again, Emenanjo, (141-142) in his *Element of Modern Igbo Grammar* acknowledges the fact that Igbo verb is the only form class with excess lexical items in varying morphological structures and equally of varying syntactic behaviour have been derived. For instance from the verb -ga we have the following:

30. -ga go (base form)
    -iga to go (infinitive)
    -qgaa goer (noun)
    -aga going (present participle)

Equally, from the verb -mx we have the following:

- mx learn (base form)
- imx to learn (infinitive)
-amx learning (present participle)
-qmxx learner (noun)

Ogbalu and Emenanjo (139) treat Igbo suffixes in a grammatical description. They see it from the roles they perform in verb forms and in verbal derivatives. According to them, “Igbo suffixes fall into two major classes: inflectional and extensional”.

Mbah, (21) confirms the above assertion. “Igbo has been described as a verb language. This qualification is to press home the fact that Igbo verb plays a vital role in the language … Many words may be formed from the verbs.”

Anagbogu, (72) discusses extensively the morphology of Igbo. According to him, derivational morphology of Igbo is mostly uni-directional in the sense that it is from the verb that all words are formed. He discusses the morphemes of the Igbo language saying that the bound morphemes are categorized into prefix, suffix, circumfix, and interfix.

31. Examples of prefixes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefixes</th>
<th>Verb roots</th>
<th>Derived words</th>
<th>Translated forms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>aỌ</td>
<td>gỌxỌx</td>
<td>aỌgỌxỌx</td>
<td>reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eỌ</td>
<td>deỌx</td>
<td>eỌdeỌ</td>
<td>writing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Agbedo, (91) discusses the affixation of the Igbo language. He says that in Igbo language, “prefixation is verb-based. No other word class undergoes this kind of morphological process”.

32. Examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefixes</th>
<th>Verb roots</th>
<th>Derived words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>iọx</td>
<td>siọx</td>
<td>iọx siọ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Green and Igwe, (53) discuss the suffix of the Igbo language. According to them, “suffix is mostly verb-based.” They say further that “the majority of suffixes in Igbo are inflectional. Some function as derivational suffixes in which case, they act as meaning modifiers”.

33. **Examples,**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verbs</th>
<th>Suffixes</th>
<th>Inflected words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>biːs.</td>
<td>eːs.</td>
<td>biːeːs.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Furthermore, Green and Igwe, (73) are of the view that “the verb is distinguished formally from the other parts of speech. In fact, it is only one in which affixation is bound”. In studying Igbo affixes, Green and Igwe describe Igbo suffixes as merely lexical items which are neither inflectional nor derivational but serve only as meaning modifiers of the verb to which they are affixed.

Nwachukwu, (68) says that “Igbo has –rv suffix, negative inflectional suffixes, perfective affirmative/negative suffixes and so on. Based on these, Igbo has three types of suffixes: inflectional, extensional suffixes and enclitics”.

34. **Examples of inflected suffixes Igbo**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb roots</th>
<th>Suffixes</th>
<th>Inflected words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>g×ːs.</td>
<td>r×ːs.</td>
<td>g×r×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ŋ×ɛː</td>
<td>r×ɛː</td>
<td>ŋ×r×</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Nwachukwu, (68) says that extensional suffix is borrowed from Emenanjo where it is used to denote those suffixes which have a wide scope of occurrence.”

Nwachukwu, (63) maintains that, “a great many affixes in Igbo are no more than lexical item … a handful of them are associated with certain tenses” is unwittingly saying that there are two classes of affixes in Igbo: lexical and inflectional. Finally, using function as his basis for classification, Ogbalu has four classes of suffixes: negative suffixes, adverbial suffixes, prepositional suffixes and tense suffixes. Ogbalu’s negative and tense suffixes can be collapsed into inflectional suffixes while prepositional and adverbial suffixes become non-inflectional or lexical.

In discussing verbs in Igbo, Nwachukwu, (17) points out that, “the verb is the most important and prolific category in the Igbo language. The language does a lot of things with the verb form.” He gives instance that Igbo verb is unique in the sense that it is the only category that accepts inflection.

Moreover, Nwachukwu, (17) stipulate that, “the verb can be inflected both for tense and aspect. In order to express the appropriate item and meaning, an Igbo form must have the appropriate suffix”.

Aniude, (28) focuses his attention on the use of the –rv markers. Of the four -rv he identifies, he claims that only two of them are time markers and inflectional. These according to him are the –rv2 stative and the –rv1 past.

Umeh, (18) in his work, “Inflectional Affixes of Igbo Verbs” makes a review of the inflectional affixes in some dialects. He asserts that inflectional affixes include only those affixes that can be attached to verb stems, which perform grammatical function. All extensions, enclitic with semantic values are not therefore inflectional.
In other words, inflectional affixes are those that help to mark out the different aspects or tense of verbs like the past tense, stative and perfective aspect.

From the studies above, inflectional and derivational affixes are sometimes similar in nature, but have different functions. Inflectional affixes do not change the word class of a word. It is a change made in form of a word to express its relation to other words in a sentence. Derivation on the other hand, changes the meaning and the base of the word sometimes.

In the Igbo language, verbs play big role. It is the only part of speech that affixation is bound. Hence, inflectional and derivational processes in the Igbo language are got by the appropriate affixes on the verb.

b. Empirical Studies on English Affixation

A lot of valuable empirical works have been carried out in English affixation processes by some distinguished scholars.

Gleason, (53) states that, “morphemes are the smallest meaningful units in the structure of the language”. He adds that the smallest meaningful unit means a unit which cannot be divided without destroying or drastically altering the meaning. Because they are the minimal meaningful units, they are attached to the stem or root, adding them or removing them alter the meaning of the word.

Gleason, (58) also states that, “the broadest and the most comprehensive classes of morphemes in English are roots and affixes. Words like walk, talk, are root. Such morphemes as –s, -ing, dis-, in-, -ed, and in- are affixes”. In general, affixes are subsiding to roots, while roots are the basis of such constructions as words.

Meathan, (189) classifies affixes in two ways, “by position and by function. Classification by position yields the following: prefix, and suffix. Classification of
function according to him yields two main types: derivational and inflectional affixes”.

Anagbogu, (68) in *the Grammar of Igbo Nominalization* discusses extensively the morphology of English. According to him, the derivational morphology of English is multi-directional. He discusses morpheme saying that bound morphemes are categorised into: prefix, suffix, infix, circumfix and interfix. But the English language has only prefixes and suffixes. According to him, affixes can be classified into inflectional and derivational affixes.

According to Lyons, (196), “inflection is a change made in the forms of a word to express its relation to other words, in the sentences as found in declension of nouns, adjectives, and in the conjugation of verb.” An inflectional affix is that which performs a grammatical function without changing the parts of speech of the word to which it is attached. All the inflectional affixes in the English language according to him are suffixes.

Bloomfield, (222), refers to inflection as, “the outer layer of the morphology of English word form”. This means that inflectional affix is added when all the derivational affixes must have been added.

Akmajian, et al. (44), refer to derivational suffixes as, “the inner layer of the word form”. They state that “derivational affixes often change the part of speech of the base morpheme.” Thus, *read* is a verb, but *readable* is an adjective. They further note that some derivational affixes do not change category for example, *charge* and *recharge*. This type of derivation is known as class maintaining derivational suffix. They further note that the other derivation is class changing derivation. This derivation creates a new word from the existing one.
According to Umera, et al. (93), “inflection in the English language is a major category of morphology”. They state further, “when suffixes are added to words to realize morpheme such as present, past, present participle and plural, they are said to be inflectional.” The inflectional verbs affixes according to them do not change the word class of the verbs. **Examples:**

35. **Play**  play**s**  playing  **played**

   **Sing**  sings  **singing**  **sang**

   All these underlined are inflectional affixes.

Finally, Ballard, (78), discusses verbal inflectional affixes of English language. He states that:

among the four verbal inflections in the English language, only two of them have both regular and irregular forms. Those are past tense and past participle. The third person singular takes the –s morpheme while the first person and second person will take the base form of the verb which is the uninflected stem. According to him, the following paradigm shows clearly what he means:

36. **Singular first person:** I walk  **Plural first person:** We walk

   **Second person:** You walk  **Second person:** You walk

   **Third person:** he/she, it walks  **Third person:** They walk

2.5 **Summary of the Literature Review**

In a nutshell, affixation has been seen by many authors as the process of word formation in both languages. Affixation in Igbo comprises of prefixes, suffixes, circumfixes, and interfixes. When these affixes are added to a word in Igbo, they add extra meaning to the already existing word.

On the other hand, affixation in English comprises of prefixes and suffixes. Prefixes do not generally alter the word class of the base. The suffix can be inflectional or derivational.
All the inflectional affixes in the Igbo language perform grammatical functions such as tense, aspect, mood, negation, and so on. Whereas the addition of suffixes in the English language can create new words and as well perform grammatical functions. All the inflectional affixes of both languages are all suffixes. The derivational suffix of English always changes the word class of the base to which it is added.

The English past tense and perfect tense suffixes have both regular and irregular ways of forming their respective tenses but in the Igbo language, the formation of past tense and aspect is regular. That is, past tense marker is always –rv and the perfect aspect marker is -la.

Finally, this work uses contrastive analysis as its theoretical framework. This is because it is the only theory that adequately explains this work.
CHAPTER THREE
METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter explains the procedures and methods used in eliciting information for the study. Therefore, the discussions will focus on the following:

i. Research design

ii. Data collection Technique

iii. Method of data analysis

3.2 Research Design

Design can be described as an outline, a general arrangement or plan from which something may be made. According to Nworgu, “a research design is a plan or blue print which specifies how data relating to a given problem should be collected and analysed. It provides the procedural outline for the conduct of any investigation” (67).

This study uses a descriptive research design since the aim of this work is to do a contrastive study of affixation process of the two languages under investigation. A descriptive research design involves gathering data that describes events and then organizes, tabulates, depicts and describes the data collected. According to Eze, descriptive design studies are “mainly concerned with describing events as they are without any manipulation of what is being observed. Any study which seeks merely to find what is and describes it is descriptive” (69).

Thus, descriptive research design is an appropriate research plan that will effectively analyse the data collected.
3.3 Data Collection Technique

The researcher collects data from various sources, including text books, journals and articles in the English and Igbo languages. The researcher therefore, makes a good number of visits to various libraries, especially the Nnamdi Azikiwe Library and Department of Linguistics and Igbo library University of Nigeria, Nsukka.

3.4 Method of Data Analysis

One of the aims of this study is to contrast the Igbo and English language affixation. Contrastive analysis is the method used in the analysis of these data. In trying to find out their differences and similarities, Igbo and English affixation are compared so as to postulate the degree of possible interference the learner will have in learning the English language as a second language or vice versa. In other words, predicting the possible problems involved in learning both languages, especially the English language. It is important to note that contrastive analysis is predictive in nature and it is not complete without listing these problems emanating when the learner is learning the target language.
CHAPTER FOUR
PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, data for this study are presented and analysed based on the research questions that guide the study. For the presentation and analysis of data, the research questions are followed sequentially.

Research Question I

What is the Extent of Similarity between the English and Igbo Verbal Affixation?

Verbal affixation is the process of adding affixes (bound morphemes) to verb root to form new words, and to express grammatical categories such as tense, aspect, negation and mood.

The similarities between the English and Igbo verbal affixation are stated as follows:

(a) The verbal affixation in both the English and Igbo languages can be derivational or inflectional.

(b) The verbal derivational affixations in both languages are used in creating new words.

(c) The verbal inflectional affixations in both languages perform grammatical functions such as: tense, aspect, mood and negation as the case may be.

(d) Both the English and Igbo languages have prefix and suffix that are affixed to the verb. These stated similarities are illustrated with examples in the following pages.
4.2 The Verbal Derivational Affixation in English

The verbal derivational affixation is the process of adding affixes to the verbs to create new words. Verbal derivational affixation can be prefix or suffix. The following are examples of verbal derivational affixation in English.

4.2.1 Conversion of Verbs to Nouns

The following suffixes are added to verbs to form nouns: -ment, -ion, -ant, -er, -ism, and so on.

37. Examples,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb roots</th>
<th>Suffixes</th>
<th>Nouns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>defile</td>
<td>-ment</td>
<td>defilement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>repress</td>
<td>-ion</td>
<td>repression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>build</td>
<td>-er</td>
<td>builder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>resolve</td>
<td>-tion</td>
<td>resolution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>depend</td>
<td>-ant</td>
<td>dependant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ignore</td>
<td>-ance</td>
<td>ignorance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>convert</td>
<td>-sion</td>
<td>conversion</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.2 Conversion of Verbs to Adjectives

The following suffixes are added to verbs to form adjectives: -able, -ble, -ous, -ive, -ory, -al, -ant, -ent, -some, -ful and so on.
38. Examples,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb roots</th>
<th>Suffixes</th>
<th>Adjectives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>accept</td>
<td>-able</td>
<td>acceptable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>comfort</td>
<td>-able</td>
<td>comfortable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>honour</td>
<td>-able</td>
<td>honourable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>educate</td>
<td>-able</td>
<td>educable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>declaim</td>
<td>-ory</td>
<td>declamatory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>criticise</td>
<td>-al</td>
<td>critical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>please</td>
<td>-ant</td>
<td>pleasant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mourn</td>
<td>-ful</td>
<td>mournful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cumber</td>
<td>-some</td>
<td>cumbersome</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.3 The following prefixes are added to the verb roots to derive new words: -counter, un-, over-, dis- and so on.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefixes</th>
<th>Verb roots</th>
<th>Derived Words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>counter-</td>
<td>point</td>
<td>counter point</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>un-</td>
<td>fasten</td>
<td>unfasten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>over-</td>
<td>achieve</td>
<td>over-achieve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>over-</td>
<td>act</td>
<td>over-act</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dis-</td>
<td>approve</td>
<td>disapprove</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dis-</td>
<td>appear</td>
<td>disappear</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.3 The Verbal Inflectional Affixation in English

The verbal inflectional affixation is a process of adding an affix to the verb to express grammatical information about a word such as in formation of tense and aspect as in: the addition of –ed to the verb *play* and the past tense *played* is realised. Such affixation consequently never changes the lexical category of the word they are attached to. Examples of verbal inflectional affixation in the English language are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verbal inflection</th>
<th>Regular affix used to express category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Third person singular present</td>
<td>-s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>i) It rains</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ii) Ifeoma writes well.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past tense</td>
<td>-ed: paint/ painted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>He painted the house.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect aspect</td>
<td>-ed/en</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>i) –ed: cook/cooked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>She has cooked the food.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ii) -en: take/taken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>She has taken her book.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Progressive or continuous aspect</td>
<td>-ing: fall/ falling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Write/ writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>She is writing.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These are the four basic verbal inflections in the English language besides the base form. “The inflectional suffixes always come at the end of a word in English no other morpheme can usually be added after an inflectional morpheme.” (Tomori, 33).

Generally, in these forms, the third person singular is marked with - s. It has three allomorphs /s/, /z/ and /θz/, which are phonologically conditioned. The /-s/ form appear after a voiceless consonant. Examples of some voiceless consonants are /p, t, k, f, θ/ s, ɹ, f/. 


41. **Examples**,  
(a) /t/ as in eats /i:ts/  
(b) /p/ as in stops /stɒps/  
The /- z/ form occurs after voiced sounds that is, either after voiced consonants or vowels. (This is because all vowels are voiced).

42. Examples of some voiced sounds are /b, d, g, ɹ, l, m, n, ɔu, ø/ as in:  
(a) goes /gʊz/  
(b) does /dʊz/  
(c) tells /telz/  
(d) tendons /tendʊnz/  
While /ʊz/ form appears after sibilants (that is noisy fricatives and affricates).

43. Examples of some sibilants are /s, z, ʃ, ʒ, ɾ, ɾ/ as in:  
(a) wishes /wʊʃʊz/  
(b) polishes /pʊʃʊz/  
(c) kisses /kʊsʊz/  
The -ing participle form has only -ing as its allomorph, while the ed₁ past form and ed₂ has /t/, /d/ and /ʊd/ as their allomorphs which are also phonologically conditioned. /t/ occurs after voiceless consonants such as in /p, t, k/ etc, as in:  

44. (a) walked /wʊkk/  
(b) talked /tʊkk/  
/d/ occurs after vowel or voiced consonants such as /b, d, ɹ, z, ʃ, ʒ, ɾ, ɾ/ etc  
As in:  

45. (a). robbed /rʊbd/  
(b). bowed /baʊd/
/d/ occurs after /t/ or /d/ as in

46. (a). concluded /kɪnklu:d/  
(b). rented /rent/  

The four basic verbal inflectional forms may be illustrated in a paradigmatic relationship. A paradigm has been defined as “the system of morphemic variations which is correlated with a parallel system of variations in environment”. According Francis quoted in Tomori, (21) The paradigmatic representations of the verbs are shown as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The base form</th>
<th>Third person singular</th>
<th>Present participle</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
<th>Past participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cook</td>
<td>cooks</td>
<td>cooking</td>
<td>cooked</td>
<td>cooked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>walk</td>
<td>walks</td>
<td>walking</td>
<td>walked</td>
<td>walked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>call</td>
<td>Calls</td>
<td>calling</td>
<td>called</td>
<td>called</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These forms are further illustrated as follows:

4.3.1 The Base Form

The base form is not marked with any form of suffix rather it retains the verb stem.

48. Examples,

cook  
walk  
call

The base form always goes with other forms of personal pronouns with the exception of the third person singular pronoun to express simple present tense. Examples,
49. (a) I walk to school everyday.
   (b) You eat every morning. Don’t you?
   (c) They call her names.

4.3.2 The –s Form or Third Person Singular Present Form

This verbal inflection goes with the third person singular noun or pronoun. The third person singular pronouns are: he, she, and it. This form has three allomorphs /s/, /z/ and /iz/ which are phonologically conditioned, as already explained. Examples,

50. (a). He eats rice always.
    (b). She cries often.
    (c). He plays football often.
    (d) It wags its tail whenever it is happy.

The suffix affixed to the base forms of the verbs is -s.

4.3.3 The Regular Past Tense Form or -ed

The regular past tense form is marked with the suffix -ed and it signifies that the action has taken place at a particular point in the past. This regular past tense form -ed it added to the base form of the verb. According to Berk (101), “past tense is used in conjunction with events that are over and done with”.

Examples,

51. (a) He jumped through the window.
    (b) She rearranged herself in another pose.
    (c) He complained bitterly about the incident.
All these sentences in (51) above show that the actions of the verbs have taken place and they are therefore in their past tense respectively.

4.3.4 The Irregular Past Tense Forms

Apart from the regular way of forming past tense in English, there are other irregular ways of doing so. According to Berk (100), he lists the following forms that can be used to form past tense, apart from the -ed ending.

52. Examples,

(a) -t ending bent, lent, sent
(b) vowel change sang, sank, ran, swam, fell, threw slid found
(c) vowel change + -t ending sought, bought, taught, wept, kept, slept crept
(d) no change cut, put, split, shut, quit
(e) suppletive form went, was/were

53. Examples of Sentences with Irregular Past Tense Forms

(a) You sang a song.
(b) They built a house.
(c) She slept for many hours.
(d) The girl cut her finger.
(e) The boy was there when it happened.

These sentences in (53) above, show the irregular ways of forming simple past tense in the English language.

4.3.5 The English Aspect

According to Yadugiri, “Aspect is like tense, is a grammatical feature of verbs” (329). “Aspect describes the time scale of a verb – it establishes whether the action or state of a verb is complete or in progress”. This is according to Thorne (11).
There are two types of aspect in the English language: (a) the perfect aspect and (b) the progressive aspect.

(A) The Perfect Aspect in English

The regular perfect aspect is constructed using auxiliary verb have/has and inflectional suffix –ed past participle. Within this aspect, we have: present perfect aspect and past perfect. This study concentrates on the present perfect aspect.

Present Perfect Aspect

The regular present perfect aspect in the English language is indicated by the combination of (auxiliary verb have/has + -ed past participle). This aspect is used to talk about the past in relation to the present. It suggests a connection between something that happened in the past and in a present time, often referring to an action in the past which has a result now.

54. Example of Sentences In Present Perfect Aspect In Regular Forms

(a) Your parents have arrived.
(b) I have worked.
(c) She has answered half the questions.

4.3.6 The Irregular Ways of Forming Present Perfect Aspect

According to Berk (110-111), the various forms taken by irregular past participle with the exception of -ed are as follows:

55. Examples,

(a) -en ending written, spoken, stolen, bitten, taken
(b) vowel change rung, sung, drunk, stung, swum, sunk, fed.
(c) no change cost, quit, cut, shut, put
(d) vowel change + {-t} ending sought, bought, taught, slept, kept, wept
crept
56. **Examples of Present Perfect Aspect in Irregular Forms**

(a) She **has put** the tools in the drawer.

(b) I **have taught** here for 25 years.

(c) They **have drunk** the tea.

(d) You **have spoken** well.

(B) **The Progressive Aspect/Continuous**

The progressive aspect is indicated by a combination of auxiliary **verb to be** and the **inflectional suffix -ing** (present participle). The progressive aspect is used in two senses: (i) the present progressive aspect (ii) the past progressive aspect

(i) **The present progressive aspect/ Present continuous.**

This aspect is formed by **auxiliary verb to be present form** + **-ing (present participle)**. The present progressive aspect is used for actions that have begun but not finished. That is, actions that are still in progress. The verb phrase patterns for present progressive are as follows:

57.

(1) First person: I am + present participle: I **am driving** home.

(2) Second person singular: You are + present participle: You **are singing** a song.

(3) Third person singular: He/she/it + present participle: He/she **is sighing** loudly.

(4) First person plural: We are + present participle: We **are travelling** to Europe.

(5) The second person plural: You are + present participle: You all **are**
complaining about nothing.

(6) Third person plural: They are + present participle: They are bothering the neighbours.

Present progressive aspect is used for actions happening now, extended actions, repetitive and irritating actions occurring for a limited time.

58. Examples,

(a) My husband is washing the car.

(b) She is studying English linguistics.

(c) We are driving to Lagos tomorrow.

(d) You are always bugging your sister.

(e) I am moving some furniture this weekend.

(ii) Past Progressive Aspect/Past Continuous.

The past progressive is formed by a past tense form of the verb to be + -ing (present participle). This aspect, expresses on going action or state in the past. The following are the verb phrase patterns for the past progressive.

59.

(1) First person singular: I was + present participle: I was making a pot of stew.

(2) Second person singular: You were + present participle: Were you burning the garbage?

(3) The third person singular: He/she/it was + present participle: The man was wearing a red shirt.

(4) First person plural: We were + present participle: We were raising chickens.
Second person plural: You were + present participle: You were publishing a newsletter.

The third person plural: They were + present participle: They were supplying goods to them.

4.4 The Verbal Derivational Affixation in the Igbo Language

As I have mentioned earlier, the Igbo language is a verb centred language and so derivational processes involve the verbs. Agbedo sees, “derivation as the process whereby new words are formed from existing words” (87). It consists in adding to a root or stems an affix or affixes. According to Emenanjo (45), in Readings on the Igbo Verb, the process of derivation in the Igbo language includes the following:

4.4.1 Prefixation

In the Igbo language, according to Agbedo (91), “prefixation is verb based. No other word class undergoes this kind of morphological process.” These syllabic nasals: m/n below function as prefixes Examples, according to Agbedo (92);

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefixes</th>
<th>Verb roots</th>
<th>Derived words</th>
<th>English meanings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>ri</td>
<td>n&lt;sup&gt;‑&lt;/sup&gt;ri</td>
<td>‘food’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>k&lt;sup&gt;x&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>n&lt;sup&gt;‑&lt;/sup&gt;k&lt;sup&gt;x&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>‘fire wood’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m</td>
<td>ma</td>
<td>m&lt;sup&gt;‑&lt;/sup&gt;ma</td>
<td>‘beauty’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sentence: Q<sup>‑</sup> ma<sup>O</sup> ra<sup>O</sup> m<sup>‑</sup>ma<sup>O</sup>.

4.4.2 Reduplication

Reduplication, according to Osuagwu et al. (59), “is a process by which a root or stem is repeated in the derivation of a new form”. Reduplication is any aspect of derivational process which can be partial or complete. The Igbo language makes use
of this new form of yielding device. Igbo verbs are reduplicated to form nouns. According to Mbah, (21) and Emenanjo (45) in his *readings on the Igbo verb* the following are examples of reduplicated verb forms.

61.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Igbo words</th>
<th>English meanings</th>
<th>Igbo sentences</th>
<th>English sentences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>aїgxїs</td>
<td>reading</td>
<td>Qє naї aїgxї aїkwxїkwq.ї</td>
<td>He/She is reading.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aїgxїsmaїgxї</td>
<td>text book</td>
<td>Eє nweїreї aїgxїsmaїgxї Qїdїanїaїlaї Iїgbo.</td>
<td>There is text book on Igbo culture.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eїdeїs</td>
<td>writing</td>
<td>Qє nαeїdeїsіsєheїs.</td>
<td>He/She is writing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eїdeїsreїdeїs</td>
<td>Essay/composition</td>
<td>Xєmxї aїkwxїkwqї naї eїdeїs eїdeїsmєdeїs.</td>
<td>The students/pupils are writing essay/composition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eїriїs</td>
<td>eating</td>
<td>Qє naї-eїriїsіnєriїs.</td>
<td>He/She is eating.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eїriїsreїriїs</td>
<td>a miser</td>
<td>Qє bxєeїriїsіeїriїs.</td>
<td>He/she is a miser.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>oїriїsіfїs</td>
<td>eater</td>
<td>Qє bxї oїriїsіfїs.</td>
<td>He/She eats a lot.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>oїriїsriїs</td>
<td>banquet</td>
<td>Haї gaїraї oїriїsriїs.</td>
<td>They went for a banquet</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.4.3 Prefixation and Suffixation

This is another aspect of derivation in Igbo. For instance, the agentive marker {o/q} in the Igbo language when added to a verb root gives rise to a noun.

62. Examples,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefixes</th>
<th>Verb roots</th>
<th>Suffixes</th>
<th>Derived words</th>
<th>English meanings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>oїs</td>
<td>jeїs</td>
<td>eїs</td>
<td>oїjeїsєeїs</td>
<td>goer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>oїs</td>
<td>riїs</td>
<td>iїs</td>
<td>oїriїsіfїs</td>
<td>eater</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>oїs</td>
<td>meїs</td>
<td>eїs</td>
<td>oїmeїsєeїs</td>
<td>doer</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
63. Igbo sentences

Transcribed forms

(a): ọde e de ahx de re a kw x kwq qhx. The writer has written a new book.

(b) ọjẹẹ a bàtalá. The goer has returned.

(c) órú ãhx árx lá qrx m nyèrè yá. The labourer has finished the work I gave him.

4.4.4 Prefixation, Interfixation and Reduplication

This is another aspect of derivation in Igbo.

64. Examples,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefixes</th>
<th>Verb roots</th>
<th>Interfixes</th>
<th>Reduplicated forms</th>
<th>Derived words</th>
<th>English meanings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>ri</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>ero ri</td>
<td>ero ri me ero ri</td>
<td>food/eatables</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>kwu</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>eko kwu</td>
<td>eko kwu me eko kwu</td>
<td>speech</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>å</td>
<td>gx</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>ågx</td>
<td>ågx mágx</td>
<td>text</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.4.5 Circumfixation

Another aspect of derivation in Igbo according to Anagbogu et al. is “circumfixation” (102). As have explained circumfixation earlier on as a morphological process whereby bound morphemes are attached to the root or stem both initially or finally. Circumfix is a combination of a prefix and a suffix that attach to a base simultaneously to express a single meaning or category. The circumfixal frame in the Igbo language according to Anagbogu et al. is A/E – mx.
4.5 The Verbal Inflectional Affixation in the Igbo Language

The verbal inflectional affixation is the process of adding affixes on the verbs to express grammatical categories such as tense, aspect, mood and negation.

4.5.1 The Igbo Tense

Tense is any of the form of verbs that may be used to show the time of the action or state expressed by the verb. Aniude states that, “among the four –rvs, only two of them are time markers and are inflectional” (28). These according to him are “-rv2 stative and –rv1 past” (28).

4.5.2 The -rv1 Simple Past Tense in Igbo.

The formation of simple past in the Standard Igbo is by adding the suffix –rv1 ie (r+ vowel) which is the past time marker to the verb root. According to Nwachukwu, (65), in readings on the Igbo verb, “majority of tense/aspect markers in both central and other dialects of Igbo are suffixes. Of those the most enigmatic in terms of occurrence are the open vowel suffix and, perhaps, the various categories of the –rv suffixes”.

66. Examples,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Circumfixes</th>
<th>Derived words</th>
<th>English meanings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>eỌsiỌ ... nỌriỌ</td>
<td>eỌsiỌ-muỌ- nỌriỌ</td>
<td>act of cooking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aỌgaỌ ... iỌjeỌ</td>
<td>aỌgaỌ-muỌ- iỌjeỌ</td>
<td>act of walking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eỌyiỌ ... eỌgwụỌ</td>
<td>eỌyiỌ-mỌ- eỌgwụỌ</td>
<td>act of frightening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>roots</td>
<td>Suffixes</td>
<td>Inflected words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>-----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gbu</td>
<td>ru</td>
<td>gbu.ru</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kq</td>
<td>kq</td>
<td>kq.rq</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>me</td>
<td>re</td>
<td>me.re</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>za</td>
<td>ra</td>
<td>za.ra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rx</td>
<td>rx</td>
<td>rx.rx</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sí</td>
<td>Rí</td>
<td>sírí</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

67. Igbo sentences

(a): O gburu a gwq. He/she killed a snake.
(b) O kòrò jí. He/she cultivated yam.
(c) O mèrè álů. He/she committed abomination.

4.5.3. The –rv₂ Stative Present Tense

Nwachukwu in *Readings on the Igbo...* states that, “The –rv₂ suffix combines with stative verbs to express a stative present meaning. It must be distinguished from –rv₁ past suffix with which it does co-occur” (66).

68. Examples,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb roots</th>
<th>Suffixes</th>
<th>Inflected words</th>
<th>Igbo sentences</th>
<th>Translated forms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>nwe</td>
<td>re</td>
<td>nwe.re</td>
<td>O nwe.re uche</td>
<td>He/she is wise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>si</td>
<td>ri</td>
<td>si.ri</td>
<td>O si.ri ike</td>
<td>He/she is strong.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tò</td>
<td>Rò</td>
<td>tòrò</td>
<td>O tòrò ogólógó.</td>
<td>He/she is tall.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.5.4 The Igbo Aspect

An aspect is a grammatical category associated with verbs that expresses temporal view of the event or state expressed by the verb. According to Nwachukwu (69), “aspect deals with such questions as whether an action or event is completed, starting or on going and so on”. It shows time duration and is indicated by verbal affixes.

(a) The Perfective Affirmative Aspect

The Igbo language has the perfective affirmative inflectional verbal suffix marker -la. (Apart from this, this suffix –la is used to identify the imperative negative form). Perfective aspect expresses action that has been completed. This suffix -la is affixed to the verb root to express perfective aspect.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefixes</th>
<th>Verb roots</th>
<th>Suffixes</th>
<th>Suffixes</th>
<th>Inflected words</th>
<th>Igbo sentences</th>
<th>English sentences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

(b) The Perfective Negative Aspect with Suffix {-beghi/-begh [û]}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefixes</th>
<th>Verb roots</th>
<th>Suffixes</th>
<th>Suffixes</th>
<th>Inflected words</th>
<th>Igbo sentences</th>
<th>English sentences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Verb roots</td>
<td>Suffixes</td>
<td>Inflected words</td>
<td>Igbo sentences</td>
<td>Translated forms</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>si ṣ</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>si e</td>
<td>si e n</td>
<td>Cook food.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>r [</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>ri</td>
<td>ri e n</td>
<td>Eat food.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>za ṣ</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>za a</td>
<td>za a</td>
<td>Sweep the house.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rú o</td>
<td>ró</td>
<td>ró o</td>
<td>ró o x</td>
<td>Work.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gó o</td>
<td>góó</td>
<td>góó</td>
<td>góó yá.</td>
<td>Buy it.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 4.5.5 The Imperative Affirmative Mood

This mood is used to give an order in affirmative sense. This is usually realized by applying the open vowel suffix with four possible realisation according to vowel harmony \{o/q\} and \{e/a\}. Any of these suffixes is affixed to the verb root.

#### 71. Examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb roots</th>
<th>Suffixes</th>
<th>Inflected words</th>
<th>Igbo sentences</th>
<th>Translated forms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- ru ṣ te</td>
<td>be</td>
<td>gh</td>
<td>ru te be gh</td>
<td>He/she has not arrived by the time we left.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e ṣ</td>
<td>ru</td>
<td>be</td>
<td>e ru be gh</td>
<td>It is not yet time.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 4.5.6 The Imperative Negative Mood
Apart from the perfective aspect, the suffix -la is used to identify the imperative negative mood. This mood gives order in a negative sense.

### 72. Examples,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefixes</th>
<th>Verb roots</th>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Suffixes</th>
<th>Inflected words</th>
<th>Igbo sentences</th>
<th>Translated forms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>aΩ</td>
<td>ga ؇</td>
<td>la ؇</td>
<td>ágālā</td>
<td>Aga ؇ la ؇ a AppCompatActivity.hia AppCompatActivity.</td>
<td>Do not go to the market.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aΩ</td>
<td>za ؇</td>
<td>la ؇</td>
<td>áza ؇ la ؇</td>
<td>Áz NSA ؇ la ؇ x ؇ l ؇ q ؇</td>
<td>Do not sweep the house.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eΩ</td>
<td>go ؇</td>
<td>la ؇</td>
<td>e ؇ go ؇ la ؇</td>
<td>E ؇ go ؇ la ؇ i ؇ he ؇ a ؇</td>
<td>Do not buy this thing.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aΩ</td>
<td>rá ؇ cha ؇</td>
<td>la ؇</td>
<td>árāchālā</td>
<td>Ár NSA ؇ cha ؇ la ؇</td>
<td>Do not lick.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 4.5.7 Negative Inflectional Suffix

This is subcategorized into negative construction and negative imperative

**(a) The Negative Suffix**

The negative inflectional suffix is marked with the negative suffix -ghi/-gh [.] .

This suffix is used in negative construction. That is, a sentence that gives the opposite in meaning of an idea.

### 73. Examples,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb roots</th>
<th>Suffixes</th>
<th>Inflected words</th>
<th>Igbo sentences</th>
<th>Translated forms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mx ؇</td>
<td>gh [ ]</td>
<td>mx ؇ gh [ ]</td>
<td>Q ؇ mx ؇ gh [ ]</td>
<td>He/she did not study.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>mx ؇ gh [ ]</td>
<td>akwxkwq.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>je ؇</td>
<td>ghi ؇</td>
<td>Je ؇ gh [ ]</td>
<td>O ؇ je ؇ ghi ؇ a AppCompatActivity.hia AppCompatActivity.</td>
<td>He/she did not go to the market.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(b) **The Negative Inflectional Imperative**

This inflection -la is used to give order in a negative sense.

74. **Examples,**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefixes</th>
<th>Verb roots</th>
<th>Suffixes</th>
<th>Inflected words</th>
<th>Igbo sentences</th>
<th>Translated forms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>ga</td>
<td>la</td>
<td>ágālā</td>
<td>Agālā</td>
<td>Don’t go to the market.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>za</td>
<td>la</td>
<td>aza()la</td>
<td>Aza()la</td>
<td>Don’t sweep the house.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>go</td>
<td>la</td>
<td>ego()la</td>
<td>Égōlā ìhē à.</td>
<td>Don’t buy this thing.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the above, we observe that all the inflectional verbal affixes in both the English and Igbo languages perform grammatical functions such as tense, aspect, mood, and negation as the case may be. Also, all the English and Igbo verbal derivational affixation create new words.

**Research Question II**

**To what extent does the English and Igbo Verbal Affixation differ?**

(a) The English past tense and perfect aspect have both regular and irregular ways of forming their tense and present aspect but that of the Igbo language is regular though it has few other ways of doing so. Their simple past is always -rv and the perfect aspect is -la which is regular too.

(b) In the English language, there is an inflectional suffix -s for the third person singular but such does not exist in the Igbo language.
(c) There are many prefixes in the English language unlike in Igbo where verbs are limited to a few vowels that are conditioned by vowel harmony and in some cases syllabic nasal prefixes.

(d) In the English language, the affixation processes are only prefixation and suffixation while in the Igbo language, it uses prefixation, suffixation, interfixation and circumfixation. These differences are illustrated with examples in the following pages.

4.6 The Formation of Past Tense and Perfect Aspect in English

The formation of a simple past tense in English is by the addition of the regular inflection –ed to the base form of the verb. Also, the regular perfect aspect of the English language is expressed by adding has/have with -ed suffix.

75. Examples of sentences with regular past tense –ed

(a) He travelled by car.

(b) They named their first daughter after her grand mother.

(c) It isn’t fair! He exclaimed angrily.

76. Examples of sentences with regular perfect aspect -ed

(a) We have finished the work.

(b) Mrs. Nweke has packed her children’s clothes into a box.

According to Ballard (76), the English language has some irregular ways of expressing past tense and perfect aspect (past participle). These irregularities are expressed as follows:
### Types of irregularity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Explanation</th>
<th>Verbal present</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vowel mutation or change of stem. That is, Change of stem vowel with unusual suffix or past tense irregular inflection (umlaut)</td>
<td>The vowel within the word changes</td>
<td>run, come, fle, meet, stick, fly, get, break, feel, kneel</td>
<td>ran, came, fled, met, stuck, flew, got, broke, felt, knelt</td>
<td>swim, sing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zero inflection/or zero marking (no suffix, no stem change)</td>
<td>The past tense form is the same as the present tense form</td>
<td>hit, beat, cut, put, broadcast, let, shut, cast</td>
<td>hit, beat, cut, put, broadcast, let, shut, cast</td>
<td>hit, beat, cut, put, broadcast, let, let, cast</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 78. Another way English verbs can be irregular is by:

**Suppletion** (instead of a suffix, the whole word changes)

Verb be: am, are, is was, were, been, being

Verb do: does, did, do

Verb have: has, had, have
Go: went – gone and so on.

79. Examples of sentences with past tense irregular forms

(a) I came to school on time.

(b) The policeman put a road block.

(c) The bird flew away.

80. Examples of sentences with present perfect aspect/past participle irregular forms

(a) I have eaten.

(b) She has put on the television.

(c) Emeka has done his homework.

(d) He bought a new house.

A general summary of the irregular verbs that occur both with \( \text{v} \text{-ed}_1 \) and \( \text{v} \text{-ed}_2 \), are seen as follows:

The first example is where the \( \text{v} \text{-ed}_1 \) is identical with \( \text{v} \text{-ed}_2 \). There is suffixation but it is \(-t\) ending.

81. Examples,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Verb (-\text{ed}_1)</th>
<th>Verb (-\text{ed}_2)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>burn</td>
<td>burnt</td>
<td>burnt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bring</td>
<td>brought</td>
<td>brought</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>creep</td>
<td>crept</td>
<td>crept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>buy</td>
<td>bought</td>
<td>bought</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teach</td>
<td>taught</td>
<td>taught</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Another class of verbs are the ones that are identical in $v$-$ed_1$ and $v$-$ed_2$. They are regarded as zero morphemes [0].

82. **Examples**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>$Verb$ –$ed_1$</th>
<th>$Verb$ –$ed_2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cut</td>
<td>cut</td>
<td>cut</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>let</td>
<td>let</td>
<td>let</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shut</td>
<td>shut</td>
<td>shut</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Another set is where the $v$-$ed_1$ is identical with $v$-$ed_2$ formed by vowel change.

83. **Examples**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>$Verb$ –$ed_1$</th>
<th>$Verb$ –$ed_2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>feed</td>
<td>fed</td>
<td>fed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hang</td>
<td>hung</td>
<td>hung</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>win</td>
<td>won</td>
<td>won</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>find</td>
<td>found</td>
<td>found</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sit</td>
<td>sat</td>
<td>sat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stand</td>
<td>stood</td>
<td>stood</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Another form of the verbs is where $v$-$ed_1$ and $v$-$ed_2$ are irregular but the ed$_2$ is replaced by \{en/n\} suffixes.

84. **Examples**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>$Verb$ –$ed_1$</th>
<th>$Verb$ –$ed_2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>break</td>
<td>broke</td>
<td>broken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>steal</td>
<td>stole</td>
<td>stolen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bite</td>
<td>bit</td>
<td>bitten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>throw</td>
<td>threw</td>
<td>thrown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>take</td>
<td>took</td>
<td>taken</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
And finally, we have another form of irregularity where the \(-ed_1\), and \(-ed_2\) are formed by different vowel change.

### Examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Verb (-ed_1)</th>
<th>Verb (-ed_2)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>begin</td>
<td>began</td>
<td>begun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ring</td>
<td>rang</td>
<td>rung</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sing</td>
<td>sang</td>
<td>sung</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>run</td>
<td>ran</td>
<td>run</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 4.7 The Formation of Past Tense and Perfect Aspect in Igbo

The past tense is the form of a verb use to describe actions in the past. The formation of a simple past tense in Igbo is regular and is by the addition of (\(r+\) vowel) which is the past time marker to the verb root. On the other hand, perfect aspect expresses action that has been completed. The perfective aspect is formed by the addition of the -la suffix to the verb root. Perfective aspect expresses action that has been completed.

### 86. Examples of Simple Past Tense Formation are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb roots</th>
<th>Suffixes</th>
<th>Inflected words</th>
<th>Igbo sentences</th>
<th>Translated forms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>b [ (\theta)a (\rho)]</td>
<td>ra(\rho)</td>
<td>b [ (\theta)ara(\theta)]</td>
<td>Ha(\rho)</td>
<td>They came to a feast.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>b [ (\theta)ara(\theta)]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>o(\theta)ri(\rho)i(\rho)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ga (\rho)</td>
<td>ra(\rho)</td>
<td>ga(\theta)ra(\theta)</td>
<td>I(\theta)bec(\theta)</td>
<td>Ibe went to the market.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>ga(\theta)ra(\theta)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Igbo language also has some exceptions to the rule of past tense formation using the \(-rv\)

77 suffix. According to Nwachukwu (65), “there is another way of forming past tense by using \(-bx\)”.

**87. Examples,**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
<th>Translated forms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q() diassociative (j)in()</td>
<td>Q() diassociative (b)x() in()</td>
<td>He/She used to be dark complexion.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Also, \(bxrx\) is used to form past tense in the Igbo language.

**88. Example,**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Igbo present tense</th>
<th>Igbo past tense</th>
<th>Translated form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>O() to()ro()</td>
<td>O() to()bu()ru()</td>
<td>He/she used to be tall.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o()go()lo()go()</td>
<td>o()go()lo()go()</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O() nwe()re()</td>
<td>O() nwe()bx()rx()</td>
<td>He/She used to be wealthy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e()go()</td>
<td>e()go()</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**89. Examples of Simple Perfective Aspect Formation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefixes</th>
<th>Verb roots</th>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Suffixes</th>
<th>Inflected words</th>
<th>Igbo sentences</th>
<th>Translated forms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>e()</td>
<td>(bu)</td>
<td>(T)é</td>
<td>la()</td>
<td>e()bu()tel()a ()ya()</td>
<td>Ngozi has brought it.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.8 The {-s} Form or the Third Person Singular Form

This inflection does not exist in the Igbo language but the English language has this inflectional suffix -s for the third person singular verb. The following paradigm shows the third person singular of the present tense and its relationship with the first and the second persons.

**Singular first person:** I walk

**Second person:** you walk

**Third person:** he/she/it walks

**Plural first person:** we walk

**Second person:** you walk

**Third person:** they walk

The English language uses the base form in the present tense for every person except the third person in the singular. The relationship between the verb form and the subject which precedes it is one of the aspects of concord. In other words, the person and number of the subject controls the form the verb takes.

90. **Examples using the third person singular in sentences**

(a) Miriam/she likes listening to blues.

(b) He goes to school on time every day.

(c) Ify listens to 9. Pm news every night.

(d) It jumps out through the window.

4.9 **Prefixes in the English Language**
There are many prefixes in the English language. The prefixes of the English language are grouped into the following types according to Ukwuegbu, Okoro, Idris, Okebukola, and Owokade (106-115).

- Negative prefixes.
- Prefixes indicating degree or size.
- Attitudinal prefixes.
- Prefixes that show position, time, and order.
- Prefixes that show location.

(a) **Negative Prefixes**

These prefixes have negative implications. They include **un-**, **dis-**, **counter-**, and **de-**. Their specific negative connotations are tabulated below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Prefixes</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>un-</td>
<td>to reverse the action</td>
<td>untie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>unpack</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>undo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>unlock</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>uncover</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>dis-</td>
<td>the opposite of</td>
<td>disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>discredit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>disown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>disconnect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>dislike</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>disbelieve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>counter-</td>
<td>against, in opposition to</td>
<td>counter-attack</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(b) **Prefixes Indicating Degree or Size**

Some other prefixes show degree or size as indicated in the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefixes</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a out-</td>
<td>to greater extent than</td>
<td>outgrow, outcry, outspoken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b over-</td>
<td>too much</td>
<td>over work, over do, over eat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c under-</td>
<td>below</td>
<td>undercook, undersize, underrate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(c) **Prefixes of Attitude**

Some other prefixes show attitude as indicated in the following table.
## (d) Locative Prefixes

### 94. Examples,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefixes</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>sub-</td>
<td>a smaller part of something</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>inter-</td>
<td>between</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>trans-</td>
<td>into another place or state</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td>be-</td>
<td>to make or treat somebody as something</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## (e) Prefixes of Time and Order

### 95. Examples,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefixes</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>fore-</td>
<td>before</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prefixes</td>
<td>Verb roots</td>
<td>Derived words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>si</td>
<td>i si</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[ɔ]</td>
<td>gbá</td>
<td>[ɔ]gba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[ɛ]</td>
<td>zà</td>
<td>[ɛ]zà</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>í</td>
<td>bé</td>
<td>íbe</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(b) Prefixes {-a/-e} for deriving present participle

Here, the prefixes {-a/-e} are used to derive present participle/continuous tense.

97. Examples,
(c) Prefixes {-n/-m} for deriving nouns from verbs

Also, different types of nouns can be derived from verbs by prefixing certain bound morphemes with, {-n/-m} that is, syllabic nasals to the verb root.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefixes</th>
<th>Verb roots</th>
<th>Derived words</th>
<th>Translated forms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>nk</td>
<td>nk</td>
<td>firewood</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mM</td>
<td>mm</td>
<td>beauty</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(d) Prefixes {-q/-o} {-m/-n} for deriving other form classes from verbs

Igbo prefixes are derivational affixes. Other form classes are derived from the verb by the use of prefixes. For example, we can derive different types of nouns from verbs.

99. Examples,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefixes</th>
<th>Verb roots</th>
<th>Derived words</th>
<th>Translated forms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>nr</td>
<td>nr</td>
<td>food</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>or</td>
<td>or</td>
<td>work</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>qñ</td>
<td>qñ</td>
<td>happiness</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(e) Syllabic nasal prefixes {-m/-n} for driving verbal noun

There are cases where we have syllabic nasals {-m or –n} as prefixes that are attached to a compound verb or verbs with enclitics to form verbal nouns.

100. Examples,
From the ongoing, one can understand that the Igbo prefixes are verb based, no other word class undergoes this kind of morphological process.

### 4.11 The English Language Affixation

The English language affixation includes prefixation and suffixation. Prefixation has been defined earlier on as, a morphological process whereby a bound morpheme is attached to the front of a root or stem. Suffixation also has been defined earlier as, a morphological process whereby a bound morpheme is attached to the end of a root or stem.

#### 101. Examples of English verbal prefixation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefixes</th>
<th>Verb roots</th>
<th>Derived words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pre-</td>
<td>judge</td>
<td>pre-judge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pre-</td>
<td>select</td>
<td>pre-select</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>re-</td>
<td>view</td>
<td>re-view</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>re-</td>
<td>elect</td>
<td>re-elect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>re-</td>
<td>emerge</td>
<td>re-emerge</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Sentence**: (a) They took care not to prejudge the issue.

(b) The cancer may re-emerge years after.

From the above, prefixes are added to the verb roots to form new words.
102. **Examples of English Verbal Suffixation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb roots</th>
<th>Suffixes</th>
<th>Derived words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ague</td>
<td>-ment</td>
<td>augment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adapt</td>
<td>-ion</td>
<td>adaptation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>authorize</td>
<td>-ation</td>
<td>authorization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>supervise</td>
<td>-ion</td>
<td>supervision</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Sentence:** She won the augment.

Here, suffixes are added to the verb roots to form new words.

In English language, suffixation cut across different grammatical categories. Though this is not the concern of this work.

4.12 **The Igbo Language Affixation**

The Igbo language affixation include: prefixation, suffixation, interfixation, and circumfixation. The Igbo prefixation is verb based, no other word class undergoes this kind of morphological process. The Igbo language prefixes are only attached to the verb.

103.

4.12.1 **Examples of Igbo Prefixation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefixes</th>
<th>Root words</th>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Derived words</th>
<th>Translated forms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>eatee</td>
<td>riemente</td>
<td>eatee</td>
<td>laatee</td>
<td>eatee rieatee laatee</td>
<td>have eaten (present perfect)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aacute</td>
<td>gacute</td>
<td></td>
<td>aacute</td>
<td>aacute gacute</td>
<td>reading (present participle)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eacute</td>
<td>bacute</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>èbacute</td>
<td>carrying (present participle)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Igbo language suffixation is only “verb base” Agbedo, (94).

**The Imperative Mood Suffix**

This mood describes sentence that gives order. This is usually realized by applying the open vowel suffix with four possible realizations according to the vowel harmony \{ọ/o\} and \{e/a\}.

**4.12.2 Examples of Igbo Suffixation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb roots</th>
<th>Suffixes</th>
<th>Inflected words</th>
<th>Igbo sentences</th>
<th>Translated forms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sí</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>síe</td>
<td>Síe n’èrí</td>
<td>Cook food.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>za</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>za a</td>
<td>Za a</td>
<td>Sweep the house.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gbù</td>
<td>ó</td>
<td>gbùó</td>
<td>Gbùó yá.</td>
<td>Kill it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>px</td>
<td>ó</td>
<td>pùq</td>
<td>Pùó.</td>
<td>Get out.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**106. Igbo sentences**

(a) Ñné yá dòrò yá áká n’ ñtí yá sìe ñrí áhù. Her mother warned her to cook the
food.

(b) ónyé ſńkúzi yá gwàrà yá zaá úlò áhọ́. Her teacher instructed her to sweep the house.

107.

### 4.12.3 Examples of Igbo Interfixation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Words</th>
<th>Interfixes</th>
<th>Translated forms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cⒸdeⒸr-_eofde咛</td>
<td>-r-</td>
<td>essay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aⒸtaⒸm-a_eofta咛</td>
<td>-m-</td>
<td>food</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a_eofka咩-r_eofka咩</td>
<td>-r-</td>
<td>destiny</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

108. Igbo sentences

(a): A_eofka咩ra_eofka咩 g Coinbase:a_eofma_eofka咩. Your destiny is bright.

(b) O_eofnye_eofn_eofku_eofzi_eofnye_eofre_eofx_eofmx_eofa_eofkw_eofx_eofkw_eofya_eof. The teacher gave her/his students essay.

109.

### 4.12.4 Examples of Igbo Circumfixation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Words</th>
<th>Circumfixation</th>
<th>Translated forms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agbam_eofqsq</td>
<td>Agba_eofmx_eofqsq</td>
<td>act of running</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eyimuegwo_EOF</td>
<td>eyi-mu-egwo_EOF</td>
<td>act of frightening</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

110. Igbo sentences

Nd__, x_eofl_EOF a_eofkwoff_EOF a_eofny_EOF sq_EOF rq_EOF m_EOF pi_EOF a_EOFgba_EOFmu_EOFqsq_EOF u_EOFnya_EOFhx_EOF. Our school had a race competition yesterday.
The circumfixal frame in the Igbo language according to Anagbogu, Mba and Eme (102) is A/E –mx.

**Research Question III**

**What are the Pedagogical Implications of the absence/differences of some of the Affixes in either of the Language?**

Because of the absence of some affixes in the Igbo language, the Igbo learner of English faces certain problems especially the problem of over-generalization based on analogy and spelling errors. This is because of the differences in the realisation of some affixes in the two languages.

Firstly, in the Igbo language, the formation of past tense is by the addition of past tense marker -rv that forms the past tense. Example, \( b[a + ra = b[ara] \). Though there are other few ways of forming past tense in Igbo like: addition of bu in: 'O d [oarb] òjì (past tense) and Oà tòbìxìrxì oìgo loìgo (bìrxì is added here) but the -rv is the regular way of forming past tense in Igbo. In the English language, the formation of the past tense is not always regular. For the English words to form past tense in a regular verb you add -ed. For example, walk + ed = walked. However, the English language form past tense through other ways for instance, there are some verbs that do not change their form, example the verb put has put as the past tense. For the Igbo learner of the English language, he might decide to add -ed to all root verbs thinking the Igbo language function as the English language, thereby wrongly realising putted for the past tense of put.

Also, the perfect aspect of Igbo language is consistent. It is usually realised by the suffix -la but in English it is realized by the verb – has/have with -ed suffix. English also has other irregular verbs in realising the perfect tense as it is in past
tense. These other ways of realizing past tense and perfect tense in the English language pose a problem to a second language learner of English.

Again, the -s form or the third person form does not exist in Igbo and therefore, poses a problem for an Igbo learner of the English language. The type of problem an Igbo language learner of English faces here is as a result of analogical levelling. For example, because Igbo has no inflectional suffix for the third person singular verb, the following errors are common;

111. **Examples,**

* Ikenna **finish** his morning chores everyday before going to school.

* The baby **cry** always when she is hungry.

* The student **go** to school on foot everyday.

* Obi **eat** rice always.

Since -s is the suffix that marks plural nouns in English, the analogy is carried over to the verbs that have plural subjects.

112. **Examples,**

* Ikechukwu and Ifeoma **sings** always.

* They **goes** to school everyday.

* My parents **likes** taking us around the city.

Also, there is the problem of neglecting the third person singular forms of the verbs where there is intervention of adverbs.

113. **Examples,**

* Chike always go to school.

* She never do anything without a motive.

* He hardly read at night.
The incomplete knowledge of past tense formation leads to the following problems.

114.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Wrongly realized past forms</th>
<th>The correct past forms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>eat</td>
<td>* eated</td>
<td>ate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Put</td>
<td>*putted</td>
<td>put</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cut</td>
<td>*cutted</td>
<td>cut</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sing</td>
<td>*singed</td>
<td>sang</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Also, the learner will have spelling problem in the progressive form, with reference to the verbs whose final consonants are doubled when -ing is affixed to them.

115. Example,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Wrongly realized progressive forms</th>
<th>The correct progressive forms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>*stoping</td>
<td>stopping</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*putting</td>
<td>putting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*siting</td>
<td>Sitting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*seting</td>
<td>setting</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Finally, in as much as prefixes in English and Igbo verbs are placed before the root or stem. Prefixation in English verbs still poses a problem to the Igbo learner of English. Prefixes in Igbo verbs are limited to a few vowels that are conditioned by vowel harmony and in some cases the syllabic nasals. Prefixes in Igbo are only affixed to the verb root while in the English language, there are many prefixes. The Igbo learner therefore, faces the problem of how to master a large number of distinctive prefixes in
English verbs. Common among Igbo learners of English is the neglect of the use of the prefixes in sentences. Rather, they prefer using analogous constructions.

116. Examples,

(1) “The woman treated the child badly” for “The woman maltreated the child.”
(2) “He divided the work into two” for “He subdivided the work.”
(3) “Chike does not like the action of his friend” for “Chike dislikes the action of his friend,”
(4) “He did not believe his opponent” for “He disbelieved his opponent.”
(5) “He gave him a wrong information” for “He misinformed him.”

Another example is where the learner may use the wrong prefix in place of the right one. Probably due to L1 interference as in the following,

117. Examples,

* “Indecided” for “undecided”
* “Indisciplined” for “undisciplined”

These wrong uses of prefixes are as a result of poor mastery of the use of English prefixes.

Research Question IV

To what Extent will the Study Help the Second Language Learner towards Achieving Proficiency and Intelligibility in the Language?

From the foregoing, one understands that there is a relationship that exists between morphology and syntax. This relationship that affects on both morphology and syntax is technically referred to as morpho-syntax. To be precise, the aspect of morphology that relates with syntax is inflection. Inflectional affixes are bound
morphemes that give grammatical information relevant to the interpretation of a sentence.

Syntax and inflection are complementary and constitute the principal part, if not the whole, of what we call grammar. Jointly, they determine the grammaticality (i.e. the grammatical well-formed ness) of sentences: the syntax, by specifying how lexemes combine with one another in a particular construction; the inflectional rules by specifying which of the forms of the lexeme should occur in one construction rather than another.

Thus, in this study, especially in contrasting verbal affixation of the English and Igbo languages, we observe that this study will help the second language learner towards achieving proficiency and intelligibility in the target language (i.e. English). This is because, one of the aspects of affixation is inflection and it discusses tense and aspect. So, when these rules of inflection are learnt and understood by the second language learner (Igbo speakers) it will bring about grammatical well formed ness of sentences.

For example, the Igbo learner will construct such grammatical sentences because he has mastered the rules of English inflection.

118. (a) Ifeoma love oranges.

(b) Ifeoma does not like oranges.

(c) Ifeoma threw her oranges on the floor.

(d) Ifeoma is eating her oranges.

(e) Ifeoma was eating her oranges.

(f) Ifeoma has eaten her oranges.
On the other hand, when the learner of the English language has learnt and understood the verbal derivational processes and apply prefixes and suffixes correctly, the learner will master one of the word formation processes (derivation) of the target language and use them correctly in their expressions. The second language learner will be able to apply the following rules of verbal affixation correctly as below:
### 119. Examples, prefixation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefixes</th>
<th>Root words</th>
<th>Derived words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>co-</td>
<td>exist</td>
<td>coexist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dis-</td>
<td>regard</td>
<td>disregard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dis-</td>
<td>own</td>
<td>disown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>un-</td>
<td>earth</td>
<td>unearth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>un-</td>
<td>do</td>
<td>undo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>un-</td>
<td>seat</td>
<td>unseat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>out-</td>
<td>bid</td>
<td>out bid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>out-</td>
<td>put</td>
<td>output</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>out-</td>
<td>wit</td>
<td>outwit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>out-</td>
<td>weigh</td>
<td>outweigh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>over-</td>
<td>cook</td>
<td>over cook</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>over-</td>
<td>charge</td>
<td>over charge</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 120. Examples, Suffixation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Root words</th>
<th>Prefixes</th>
<th>Derived words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>collect</td>
<td>-ion</td>
<td>collection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>afforest</td>
<td>-ation</td>
<td>afforestation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teach</td>
<td>-er</td>
<td>teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>act</td>
<td>-or</td>
<td>actor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cool</td>
<td>-er</td>
<td>cooler</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>beg</td>
<td>-ar</td>
<td>beggar</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER FIVE
Summary, Conclusion and Recommendations

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the summary of the study, recommendations and conclusion are presented.

5.2 Summary of the Findings

This work is on a contrastive study of the Igbo and English affixation but it is narrowed down to verbal affixation because of the time available to the researcher and also because the Igbo language hardly has affixes on any other grammatical categories other than the verbs. From the above research work, it could be seen that the Igbo and English languages are of different linguistic backgrounds and typologically, they have areas of similarities and differences. Differences in affixation processes in English and Igbo create problem in second language learning especially in the verbal affixation.

In the verbal inflectional affixation, the formation of past tense in Igbo is mostly regular – *rv* suffix though there are other few ways of doing so. In the English language, the formation of past tense is – *ed* in regular past tense. The English language has other ways of realizing past tense that are irregular and this poses a problem to a second language learner of the English language. Also, the Igbo language forms the perfect aspect by the addition of -*la* suffix to the verb root but in the English language, it is regularly realized by the verb has/have + -*ed* past participle suffix. English also constructs the irregular perfect aspect by the combination of has/have + past participle in irregular forms. These irregular forms of realizing the perfect aspect create problem to the Igbo learner of the English language. Also, the -s form or third person form does not exist in the Igbo language and therefore, poses a problem for an Igbo learner of the English language.
Again, in the verbal derivational affixation, the English language has many prefixes. These prefixes denote different ideas such as: negativity, degree, size, attitude, position, time, order and location. But in the Igbo language, we observe that prefixes are derivational affixes. That is, other form classes are derived from the verbs by the use of prefixes which are limited to a few vowels that are conditioned by vowel harmony and in some cases, syllabic nasals. See examples 96-100.

Therefore, in as much as prefixes in English and Igbo are placed before the verb root or stem, the prefixation in English verbs still pose a problem to the Igbo learner of English. This is because, in English, there are many prefixes. The Igbo learner therefore, faces the problem of how to master a large number of distinctive prefixes in English verbs and this poses a problem.

5.3 Recommendations

The learner of a target language (English) should know where the two languages have the same structure in the use of the affixes and where the structures differ. Contrastive analysis is not only useful to the learners of the language. It is also useful to the language the teacher. Teacher should emphasize his teaching on these problem areas for the better understanding of the learner. The language teacher should focus his teaching on the areas of differences in both languages. In doing so, he should employ varieties of teaching methods to help the students learn better. This is because using different approaches, activities and materials makes learning more interesting and gives the learners the opportunity to make progress. One of the ways of learning a Second Language is through the process of verbal “habit formation”. Habits are established through stimulus-response conditioning, which led to the ‘over learning’ of the grammatical patterns of a language. In order to help learners overcome the habits of their
native language and inculcate those of the target language, teachers should conduct pattern practice drills of various types: repetition, transformation, question and answer.

Also, teachers should introduce little new vocabulary until the grammatical patterns were firmly established. Finally, the teacher may need to give more guided practice in teaching grammar and vocabulary. Textbook writers and syllabus designer will also benefit from this study. They will know the areas to emphasize in textbooks with regard to the problem areas of the students.

5.4 Conclusion

Learning a new language involves the transfer of existing habits. The learner of a second language therefore, should be conscious of the problems he may encounter while learning a second language.

The contrastive analysis of Igbo and English verbal affixes show that one of the problem areas of a language is in word formation. Word formation through affixation is a general method in the structures of the English and Igbo languages but its realization poses some problem.

The formation of new words and the grammatical changes in word formation are not always consistent. The inconsistencies are regarded as exceptions to the rule. Some of these exceptional areas are the problem areas of the learners. Due to the differences in the realization of some affixes in the two languages, the Igbo learner of English faces certain problems especially the problem of overgeneralization based on analogy and spelling errors.

It is assumed that every language has its own complex way of forming new words. Therefore for an Igbo learner of English to be effective in the knowledge of English morphology, he must understand the use of affixes as the basis of word formation and formation of certain aspect of syntax in English.
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