

*NAIROBI EVANGELICAL GRADUATE
SCHOOL OF THEOLOGY*

WORD FORMATION PROCESSES IN MINA

*BY
ADAKOUVI V.K. AZOTI*

*A Linguistic Project Submitted to the Graduate School in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Arts
in Translation Studies*

JULY 2004

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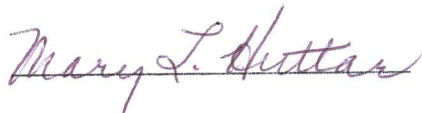
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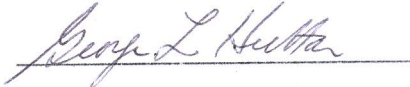
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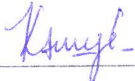
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Student's Declaration

WORD FORMATION PROCESSES IN MINA

I declare that this is my original work and has not been submitted to any other College or University for academic credit.

The views presented herein are not necessarily those of the Nairobi Evangelical Graduate School of Theology or the Examiners.

(Signed)  _____

Adakouvi Venunyé K. Azoti

July, 2004

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this linguistic project is essentially to examine processes involved in word formation in Mina. Three main processes are used in forming nouns in the language. We propose that our work consider first the language in its setting, secondly the derivational strategies and how derived forms occurred in sentences and third a resumé of our findings.

Study such as this will be for great benefit for Bible translation and for oral translation of preaching. I have grown spiritually in a local church where preaching is translated from French to Ewe or Mina according to the translator. It was a tough job for the translators to form new words if the concept is not very spread in our culture and it has been difficult for the audience also to understand. The translation of some concepts into another language requires particular care. If we want to make ourselves understandable, we need to use the natural processes so that the native speakers can process it without difficulty. This linguistic project will explore the natural way of word formation in Mina. Another good reason for choosing this subject is that, my literature review in Gengbe has shown that a systematic study has not been done on this subject.

To Christ my Lord, Savior and Sustainer

And

To my beloved husband, Chéri Antonin

And

To my adorable son, Jerome Essodon H.

This linguistic project is dedicated with love to you Antonin who has shared with me your passionate vision for Bible Translation and your love for languages.

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- To my husband who walked with me and carried me in prayers in difficult time of my studies
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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

1P	First Person Plural
3S	Third Person Singular
A	Agent
FOC	Focus Marker
G	Gerund
HAB	Habitual
ICV	Inherent Complement Verb
IMP	Imperfect
N	Noun
NP	Noun Phrase
OB	Object
P	Patient
Post	Postposition
PAST	Past
PERF	Perfective
PN	Proper Name
POSS	Possessive
PR	Pronoun
PRES	Present
Q	Question
RE	Reduplication
S	Subject
V	Verb
vst	Verb Stem

CHAPTER 1

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.1 Presentation of the language

Mina (also called Gen-Gbe) is a Kwa language spoken by 327,000 people in the south of Togo (200,900 Mina speakers) and Benin. The native speakers are located in the southeastern area of Togo and the southwest of Benin. Considered as a trade language in Togo, it is widely spoken in the country. The neighboring groups call the people Mina. The Mina people are bilinguals in Ewe a language spoken by about 3,000,000 in Ghana and Togo (Grimes 2000, 242). Gen-Gbe belongs to the Niger-Congo family and these sub-branches: Atlantic-Congo, Volta-Congo, Kwa, Left Bank, Gbe, Mina (Grimes 2000, 242).

1.2 Typology and constituent order

The pragmatically neutral order of constituents in basic clauses with nominal argument is SVO. The agent precedes the patient and grammatically is identified as the subject. However, some linguists have discussed the possibility of some Gbe languages including Mina, being SOV languages. Heine and Reh (1984) cited in Fabb (1992) discuss that the base order in VP might be OV but they do not bring forth evidence in support of the idea. In this paper on word formation, where nominalization

is involved, it is important to elaborate a bit on this issue. When a compound verb, a verb formed with a verb stem and followed by an object, is nominalized, the object takes the initial position then followed by the nominalized verb. When considering the constituent order of a language we need to be careful of the “pragmatic factors” Payne (1997, 82). Indeed he states that “pragmatic factors influence constituent order in all languages to one degree or another”. The unmarked constituent order in Mina is probably SVO/AVP. Fabb (1992) also came to this conclusion when analyzing Gbe languages, in saying: “the verb-object order might be the unmarked one.” Let us consider the following examples:

Ex 1

Pita *ɖu-na* *akume* ‘Peter eats akume’

PN eat-HAB akume

S/A V OB/P

Ex 2

(nu-ɖu-ɖu)_{NP_S} *nyɔ* *na* *lã-me* ‘Eating is good for health’

OB-vst-RE (eating) good for body-in

The first example shows that Mina uses for a simple unmarked sentence the SVO order. The second example shows that the subject of the sentence which in fact can be considered like a noun phrase has the object

before the verb stem. This latter example shows how the OV operates in the language.

The following chart is a summary of the constituent order in Mina with a comparison with Greenberg's universals from appendix 2 of Greenberg 1963 (Payne 1997, 72).

<i>Construction</i>	<i>Head</i>	<i>Adjuncts</i>
Transitive clause (VP)	V	O
Inflected Aux + V (VP)	Aux	V
NP	N	Dem. Num, Quant, Adj, RelCl
	Poss (Plural possessive pronoun),	N
PP	NP	Postposition (Loc)
	Preposition	NP (Com, Instr)
Comparative	Quality Adj/Verb	Marker, Standard
Question	Content question element- both sides of the clause	Remainder of Clause
	Remainder of Clause	Polar question element

1.3 Orthography

The orthography used in this work is based on my proposal of new orthography while I was a student in phonology. My proposal follows the phonemic system of the language. It has the advantage of being economical. It does not however handle tone issues. Works in the area of tone are rare and any attempt to mark tone might be rather misleading at this point. Here is the phonemes/orthography correspondence:

Phonemes p b \widehat{kp} \widehat{gb} t d d_1 tʃ dz f v s

Orthography p b kp gb t d d_1 c j f v s

Phonemes z m n η l k g h x y w

Orthography z m n ny η l k g h x y w

Phoneme i e u a ϵ o ɔ \tilde{i} \tilde{e} \tilde{a} \tilde{u} $\tilde{\text{ɔ}}$

Orthography i e u a ϵ o ɔ \tilde{i} \tilde{e} \tilde{a} \tilde{u} $\tilde{\text{ɔ}}$

1.4. objectives and goals of the work

This work intends to look into the different processes used to form new words in the Mina language. These are basically derivation, compounding and reduplication. Their main functions are nominalization and adverbialization.

1.4.1 Previous work and choice of the subject

Very little literature is found in Mina. Scientific works are also rare about Mina; this is not the case of Ewe, a related language. Among the known scientific works, we can cite Ako (1968), Bole-Richard (1976) and Kangni (1988) which unfortunately we have not been able to gain access to. These works are basically on phonology and syntax. There is no systematic analysis of word formation, which is a very important part of morphology. This fact justifies the choice of our subject which will look at one aspect of morphology, an almost unexplored area.

1.4.2 Object and limits of the investigation

This study will look at the morphological processes used in word formation and account for new words so formed. It will not be a systematic study but it will make sure to explore the basic processes. For the scope of this work we will not deal with an analysis of tonal changes, but limit the discussion to segmentals. In the various processes, some tonal change does occur. However, we will not deal with this because of the lack of data available and difficulties to cross check the tonal patterns which are problematic without another native speaker informant.

1.5 Methodology

Our intuition as native speaker of the language has been the one used the most in the gathering of the data used in this work. However, literatures in Mina such as the Mina New Testament and Mina hymns book have been checked for information and confirmation.

1.6 Structure of the work

As presented earlier the study will focus specifically on three main processes: 1) compounding, 2) reduplication, and 3) derivation.

Chapter 1 will look into the process of compounding. This will basically consist in looking at the function and the form of compounding. Attention will be given also to the extent to which the parts of the

compound are recognizable and how possible it is that the compound fits in a new grammatical category.

Chapter 2 will look at the reduplication process in the language. In this section care will be taken to identify the nature of that process. Data provided in evidence of the occurrence of that process will be arranged around the types of reduplication described in terms of the number and nature of the elements encountered and finally the specific function of that process in word formation.

The process of derivation which will be considered in the third chapter will lead us into processes of affixation. After terminology clarifications, the productivity of that process and its function in word formation will be presented.

A final chapter will then consist in a summary of the findings in this work and a conclusion.

CHAPTER 2

COMPOUNDING

2.1 Introduction

The compounding process is interesting in view not only of the productivity of the process in terms of generation of various parts of speech in the language, but also in the varied number of side processes that are involved in its occurrence. Issues pertaining to the study of such a process relate broadly to the difficulty of its definition, the recovery of parts entering into the process, and the nature of the outcome of the process. In fact linguists find it hard not to relate affixation to compounding, and the outcome of the process does not always match all the features of the prototypical grammatical categories known in the language. The scope of this work intends to look at compounding not in the perspective of affixation but from the viewpoint of independent lexemes brought together to form a new complex lexeme.

2.1.1 Definition

Matthews' (1991, 82) definition which we follow here states that: "Compounding is a process by which a compound lexeme is derived from two or more simpler lexemes". Devices involved can be all independent, or one or more can be dependent. The compound lexeme can, but does not necessarily, belong to one of the grammatical categories of the lexemes used for its derivation.

2.1.2 Other remarks

By way of further remarks on the concept at hand, two relevant distinctions have been made in the definition of compounds. These will basically follow Shopen (1985).

Shopen (1985, 40) distinguishes between compounds and phrases. Compounds are said to be 'lexical items, formed by rules of word formation, they are words, while phrases are not'. While analyzing compounding in our data, we have to make sure that phrases are not taken to be compounds.

A difference is drawn also between compounds and stem modification. When only one independent stem is involved in the word formation with sometimes the addition of an affix, it is qualified to be stem modification. However, Shopen asserts that the distinction is not easy to notice (1985, 40). In this work we will take the position that refers to a compound as the combination of two distinct lexemes.

2.2 Function.

Compounding in Mina is mainly used for nominalization, i.e., in a process which forms a new nominal in the language. The purpose of such a process is not limited to nominalization alone, however. Compounding may be used in cases of adverbialization, i.e., the formation of a part of speech that functions as an adverb. It can form a verb but this is not the common pattern. The formation of adjectives through compounding has not been found in our data.

In this section we will look at the compounding processes in Mina. This word formation process can involve junction of two lexemes from the same grammatical category or from different ones. Such a process very commonly involves the application of phonological, morphological and morphophonemic rules obtaining in the language.

2.3 Forms of compounding

The form of compounds will be studied from three viewpoints following a generalization line proposed by Bouquiaux and Thomas (1992):

1. The combination of their components
2. The recognisability of their components
3. The extent to which the compounds fit into the grammatical structures.

2.3.1 The combination of their components

The processing of compounds can theoretically involve a great variety of forms or grammatical categories in combination. This section will categorize them, first looking at the nature of the category used in the combination, i.e. grammatical versus lexical category and discuss in the same line the number of elements involved in the process.

2.3.1.1 Compound with grammatical components

The understanding of grammatical 'components' here needs to be distinguished from, for example, the classification of Payne (1997). Payne

uses the term ‘grammatical categories’ to mean what we will call here lexical components or categories (see further section). The understanding we hold here of a grammatical category is closer to what Brown & Miller (1991) have called the same. As a general tendency it is quite difficult to find a succinct definition of these forms. In this study for practical purposes we will define them as the set of morphological forms, the functions of which include categories of tense, aspect, case, definiteness, mood and modality, noun class, gender, number, polarity, possessor, diminutive, augmentative, among others.

A clarification needs, however to be made here in terms of distinguishing between the general processes of inflection in which these forms are generally involved in relationship with other categories and the process of compounding with which we are concerned. The example (3) below is an example of the combination of what we call grammatical components (*ye*) with lexical components (*afi*). The compound formed out of this combination is an adverb which is used in example (4) in order to provide context for its analysis. The examples (5) and (6) below show the combination of two grammatical components which form a compound which is also a grammatical component element.

Ex 3

Noun	Grammatical component	Adverb of place
<i>afi</i> +	<i>ye</i>	<i>fīye</i>
place +	FOC	here

Ex 4

Fiye ye nyi miabe sukulu

here FOC is our school

Here is our school.

Ex 5

Pronoun	Determiner	Demonstrative Pronoun
<i>e +</i>	<i>wan</i>	<i>ewan</i>
3S	that	that one

Ex 6

Pronoun	Determiner	Demonstrative Pronoun
<i>e +</i>	<i>ya</i>	<i>eya</i>
3S	this	this one

2.3.1.2 Compounds with lexical components

In the combination of lexical elements, two or more elements can be combined. We will look at the compounding from the viewpoint of the lexical elements which are combined and also the number of the elements combined.

According to Bouquiaux and Thomas (1992, 241) the following nouns belonging to the lexical category are the most commonly used in compounding:

- mouth / head / eye / leg / arm / stomach / neck
- father / mother / chief / master / uncle
- male / female / child, little one
- hut / forest / brush / earth / water / tree

There are examples in Mina which confirm these remarks. Some lexical items cited above are frequent in compounding nouns in Mina. Let us explore only the first set of nouns which refer to parts of the human body. In addition to these series of names for parts of the human body proposed by Bouquiaux and Thomas (1992), Mina often uses *aji* ‘heart’ as part of compounding (see example 16).

Compound with *enu* ‘mouth’:

Ex 7

Compound

enu(N) + *koko(N)* → *(e)nukoko(N)*

‘mouth’ ‘mockery’ → laughter

Compounds with *eta* ‘head’:

Ex 8

Compound

bu (V) + *etame (N)* + → *butame (V)*

‘calculate’ ‘mind’ → to think

eta (N) + *etɔ (N)* → *etats (N)*

head father → head of 'state/leader'

Compound with *nku* 'eye'

Ex 9

Compounding

nku (N) + *enu* (N) → *nkunu* (N)

'eye' 'thing' → 'miracle'

nku (N) + *eta* (N) → *nkuta* (N)

'eye' 'head/top' → 'appearance'

Compound with *afɔ* 'foot'

Ex 10

Compound

afɔ (N) *ati* (N) *afɔti* (N)

'foot' 'stick/tree' 'leg'

afɔ (N) *toto* (N) *afɔtoto* (N)

'foot' 'outing' 'going by foot'

The second element of the second example in (10) sounds like an adverb or verbal element in English. However, in Mina it is a noun. It is in paradigmatic relationship with the prototypical noun. The prototypical noun functions as head of the NP and can stand as the only element of the

NP. Moreover in a sentence the NP may appear at subject position, object position or in an adposition. Consider these following examples:

Subject position in NP

Ex 11

afɔtoto nyi kametete nyuie de
 going by foot be-PERF exercise good one
 'Going by foot is a good exercise.'

Object position in an NP

Ex 12

kametete nyuie de ye nyi afɔtoto
 exercise good one FOC be-PERF going by foot
 'A good exercise is going by foot'

Noun in a PP

Ex 13

Pita yi axome le afɔtoto me
 Peter go-PERF home at going by foot in
 'Peter went home by going by foot.'

(Note that the preposition *le...me* 'in' is a discontinuous form)

Compound with *abɔ* 'arm' and 'head'

This example below is a case of the combination of two elements cited by Bouquiaux and Thomas (1992)

Ex 14

Compounding

abɔ(N) + *eta(N)* *abɔta (N)*

‘arm’ ‘head/top’ ‘vaccination’

Compound with *adɔme* ‘stomach’

Ex 15

Compound

adɔme(N) + *nyuie(A)* *adɔmenyuie (N)*

‘stomach’ ‘good’ goodness

adɔme(N) + *vũe (A)* *adɔmevũe (N)*

‘stomach’ ‘bad’ wickedness

N.B: I have not been able to find any example of compounding with the word ‘neck’.

Compound with *ejj* 'heart'

Ex 16

		Compound
<i>ejj(N)</i> +	<i>jɔ (V)</i>	<i>(e)jjjɔ (N)</i>
'heart'	'to be straight'	happiness
<i>ejj(N)</i> +	<i>dodo (N)</i>	<i>jjdodo (N)</i>
'heart'	'planting'	'courage'
<i>ejj(N)</i> +	<i>ku (V)</i>	<i>jiku (N)</i>
'heart'	'to die'	'anger'

2.3.1.2.1 Noun-noun compounding

This section will now concentrate in more details on the noun + noun compounding. As its name indicates, noun-noun compounding is a process whereby two nouns are brought together in a compounding process. Noun-noun compounding takes place in Mina and follows some morphophonemic rules.

Generally in Mina, when monosyllabic nouns occur in isolation, i.e., before any morphophonemic change applies to them, they take a nominal vowel *e/a* at their word initial position.

With /e/

Ex 17

èlã

'meat/animal'

With /a/

Ex 18

àmì

'fat/oil'

Two different processes are observed when these words enter into sentential combination with other words. The nominal vowel *e* drops in sentences when the noun is preceded by a word ending with a vowel. The case of the nominal vowel *a*, however, is a little more complex. It makes the preceding vowel to drop when that vowel is *e* or *o*, and drops itself when preceded by other types of vowels. The following rules formalize the morphophonological processes that occur.

Rule I

Initial /e/ dropping rule:

$e \rightarrow \emptyset / V\# \#_C$

Rule II

Final /e/ or /o/ dropping

$V \rightarrow \emptyset / _##a$

$\left(\begin{array}{l} - \text{high} \\ - \text{low} \end{array} \right)$

Rule III

Initial /a/ dropping rule

$$\#a \rightarrow \emptyset / \quad V\# \quad \# _C$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} [+ \text{high}] \\ [+ \text{low}] \end{array} \right\}$$

The following are examples illustrating these rules

With *e* drops with /u #/ preceding

Ex 19

èlâ

‘meat/animal’

Ex 20

Mi ðu lâ egbe

We eat-PAST meat today

‘We ate meat today’

e drops with /o #/ preceding

Ex 21

èse

‘agreement’

nusu a ku sřɔa wo dɔ sé
 man the and wife the they put-PERF agreement

‘The man and his wife agreed’

V drops with preceding /a/

Ex 22

àmì

‘fat/oil’

Elã (do + amì) dami

animal plant fat

‘The animal is fatty’

Number of components

In noun-noun compounding, two or more than two elements can be combined. The morphophonemic rules (Rule I, II, and III) stated above are still applied when there are more than two elements.

Here are some examples of the combination of two nouns in the compounding process.

Ex 23

Noun	Noun	Compound
<i>ehɔ</i> +	<i>eta</i>	<i>ehɔta (N)</i>
room+	head	roof/ceil
<i>ɛji</i> +	<u><i>awu</i></u>	<i>ɛjiwu (N)</i>
rain +	cloth	raincoat
<i>ati</i> +	<u><i>ekpo</i></u>	<i>atikpo (N)</i>
tree+	timber	stick

Both the first and second word which are combined to form the compound in these examples are V.CV words. When we analyze the compound, we notice that the nominal vowels *e-* and *a-* of the second word (underlined in this example) are dropped in the process of the forming of the new noun. The compound is then formed with the entire string (V.CV) of the first word and with the second syllable (CV) of the second word. It confirms the morphophonological rules (Rule I, III).

Compound used in a sentence:

Ex 24

Cica a po ɖevi ya ku atikpo gã ɖe
 teacher the beat-PERF child this with stick big a
 'The teacher beat this child with a big stick.'

More than two elements

Three nouns can join to form another noun.

Ex 25

Noun	Noun	Substantive noun	Compound
<i>ati</i> +	<i>eku</i>	<i>sese</i>	→ <i>atikusese (N)</i>
tree	grain	germinated	fruit

Note: Substantive is a form that functions as a noun but does not share all the features of a prototypical noun.

Notice that the nominal vowel *e* in *eku* 'grain' is dropped in the process.

Compound used in a sentence:

Ex 26

Atikusese nyō na lāmesē

fruit be good to health

'Fruit is good for health.'

Apart from the combination of nouns only to derive a compound noun, a noun can also be combined with other elements to derive a noun. I have not found examples of nouns combined with other lexical categories to form something different than a noun. This observation confirms the fact that compounding in Mina is essentially a noun formation process.

2.3.1.2.2. Noun-verb compounding

Noun and verb can be combined to derive another noun. The order in this combination is not static. The noun can precede the verb or the other way round. The compound can be a noun or a verb.

Noun preceding verb

Ex 27

Noun	Verb	Compound noun
------	------	---------------

<i>adi+</i>	<i>lesi</i>	→ <i>adilesi (N)</i>
-------------	-------------	----------------------

soap+	to bath	→ 'toilet soap'
-------	---------	-----------------

Compound used in a sentence:

Ex 28

Mia (e)no ple-na adilesi na mi

1P-POSS mother buy-HAB soap to us

'Our mother used to buy soap for us.'

Verb preceding Noun

Ex 29

Verb	Noun	Compound
------	------	----------

<i>dj(V)</i>	<i>egbo(N)</i>	→ <i>djgbo(V)</i>
--------------	----------------	-------------------

'resemble'	'goat'	'to ridicule'
------------	--------	---------------

<i>da(V)</i>	<i>agbe(N)</i>	→ <i>dagbe(N)</i>
--------------	----------------	-------------------

'cook'	'life'	'fortune'
--------	--------	-----------

Compound used in a sentence:

Ex 30

Wo dīgbo ajeḡala a
 they ridicule-PERF liar the
 ‘They ridiculed the liar.’

More than two elements

A verb can be part of the combination which involves two other nouns. This is very common in the combination of three elements.

Ex 31

Noun	Verb	Noun	Compound
<i>aya</i> +	<i>po</i> +	<i>enu</i>	→ <i>ayaponu (N)</i>
air +	beat +	thing	→ ‘fan’
<i>xixenu</i> +	<i>kplɔ</i> +	<i>exa</i>	→ <i>xixenukplɔxa(N)</i>
compound +	to sweep +	broom	→ ‘broom for outside’
<i>akume</i> +	<i>ḡa</i> +	<i>ati</i>	→ <i>akumeḡati (N)</i>
food +	to cook	tree	→ ‘spatula’

Compound used in a sentence:

Ex 32

Nyɔnu a le blu zogbɔ̃ a me ku akumedati
 woman the be-PERF stir porridge the in with spatula
 'The woman is stirring the porridge with spatula.'

What we can notice through these examples is that all the compounding nouns are nouns which designate an instrument. The first noun can be patient, locative or instrument.

Instrument

Ex 33

Aya mu ati wo
 wind reverse-PERF tree PL
 'The wind reversed the trees.'

Locative

Ex 34

Pita le aya me
 Peter be-STA wind in
 'Peter is in the air.'

Patient

Ex 35

Pita nu aya
 Peter drink-PERF air
 'Peter drank air.' (is said when somebody was exposed to air and is sick.)

2.3.1.2.3. Noun–adjective compounding

A noun can also be combined with an adjective to form a compound.

The noun is the first element of the compounding phenomenon. The combination forms a new noun.

Two elements

Ex 36

Noun +	Adjective	Compound Noun
<i>ekpe</i> +	<i>vuĩ</i>	→ <i>ekpevuĩ (N)</i>
cough +	bad	→ tuberculosis

Compound used in a sentence:

Ex 37

Ekpevuĩ le po nusu a
 tuberculosis be-IMP beat man the
 ‘The man is suffering from tuberculosis.’

More than two elements

There is no example of compound with more than two elements and containing an adjective.

2.3.1.2.4 Noun-postposition compounding

A postposition can be combined with a noun to derive a new noun. Although Mina has a few prepositions they are not used in the formation of a compound. Most often, the use of adpositions in compounding can be observed with the noun which in its use needs an indication of the location. Those nouns call for a clear sign of a particular place on the object designated by the noun. For example *eta* 'head' needs to be used with a postposition indicating the place involved in the use of this noun. It can be:

Ex 38

eta dzi 'on the head'

head on

eta gbo 'near the head'

head near

eta me 'in the head/ in the hair'

head in

eta nuti 'on the surface of the head'

head about

In example (39) *etame* 'mind' is an example of this type of compound. In example (38) the two components of this word are separated. In the case where the two components are separated, the postposition is a locative particle indicating a place. That is not the case when the components are joined in a compound.

Furthermore, noun and postposition can be joined in a compounding to form a noun, rather than a postpositional phrase as in the examples below (39) and (40).

Two elements

Ex 39

Noun + POST Compound

eta + *me* → *etame(N)*

head + in → mind

Compound used in a sentence

Ex 40

Etame nye caka

mind my trouble

'My mind is troubled.'

More than two elements

The NP of a postpositional phrase can be joined to another noun to form a compound noun. The noun can be bracketed as follows:

N: ((N + P)_{PP} + N)

Ex 41

Noun +	Postposition +	Noun	Compound
<i>etɔ</i> +	<i>ji</i> +	<i>ehũ</i>	→ <i>etɔjihũ</i> (N)
lake +	on +	car	→ 'boat'
<i>etɔ</i> +	<i>me</i> +	<i>elã</i>	→ <i>etɔmelã</i> (N)
lake	in	animal	→ aquatic animal
<i>egbe</i> +	<i>me</i> +	<i>elã</i>	→ <i>egbemelã</i> (N)
bush	in	animal	→ wild animal

Compound used in a sentence

Ex 42

Mɔjjiylawo sɔ (e)ɔjihũ so etɔ a
 travelers take-PAST boat cross lake the
 'The travelers used the boat to cross the river.'

2.3.1.2.5. Verb-verb compounding

Two verbs can be joined to form a compound noun. The result will be a new noun capable of being pluralized as a normal noun (see example 44).

Ex 43

Verb	Verb	Compound
<i>biɔ</i> +	<i>va</i>	→ <i>biɔva</i> (N)
ask	come	vocation
<i>biɔ</i> +	<i>se</i>	→ <i>biɔse</i> (N)
ask	hear	question
<i>xɔ</i> +	<i>se</i>	→ <i>xɔse</i> (N)
take/ receive	hear	faith

Compound used in a sentence

Ex 44

Yebe biɔse-wo goglo
 3S-POSS question-PL deep
 'His questions are deep.'

Ex 45

Biɔva ye
 vocation it is
 'It is a vocation,'

The combination of the two verbs that are sometimes used to form a compound can also be used as just two verbs in succession, what is called a serial verb construction. That is to say, two verbs can be used together without being a compound, but rather they are in serial verb construction.

Apetō a va qō
 master the come arrive
 'The master arrives.'

Example (46) is an example which shows that two verbs capable of being combined to form a compound noun can be also separated in a serial construction. Example (47) shows that verbs *biō* and *se* are two distinct verbs and that example (46) has not just separated them arbitrarily. This pattern is observed in serial verb constructions in general. Example (48) shows an other serial verb construction.

2.3.2 *The recognizability of their components*

It is not always obvious to recognize the different parts of a compound. Some morphophonemic changes can occur when lexemes are combined. They can be easily identified but sometimes the reconstitution of the change is difficult. For an easily recognizable morphophonemic change see example (21) with *ese* 'agreement'. In this example the vowel *e* in the environment following a final *o* drops.

Semantic change also occurs. Though the form of the word can be distinguished, the meaning of the word is not clear. In those cases where the meaning is not recognizable, the lexeme used in the compounding tends to be an affix. The word *etō* 'father' is an example of this kind of phenomenon. Here are some examples where it is used in compounding.

Ex 49

Noun	Noun or affix?	Compound
<i>ami</i> +	<i>(e)tɔ</i>	→ <i>amitɔ (N)</i>
oil	father	oil seller
<i>mɔlu</i> +	<i>(e)tɔ</i>	→ <i>mɔlutɔ (N)</i>
rice	father	rice seller
<i>axɔe</i> +	<i>(e)tɔ</i>	→ <i>axɔetɔ (N)</i>
house	father	owner of the house
<i>Pita</i> +	<i>(e)tɔ</i>	→ <i>Pitatɔ (N)</i>
Peter	father	Peter's father

The nature of the elements represented as *tɔ* is quite complex. Though it is possible to trace its source back to *etɔ* 'father', once in combination it fulfills functions that are often hardly linkable to the meaning of father. This grammaticalisation of *tɔ* carries an agentive meaning in one case but is not limited to that as the last two cases (below) show. *Tɔ* can be used to express the meanings of:

-Seller

-Ownership

-Kinship

The meaning 'father' is still being very evident in (48c). So in the this section, where *etɔ* 'father' keeps its original meaning will be considered as entering fully in the compounding category. The other aspect where the meaning is lost will be dealt with in section 4.2.1 of Chapter 4.

This same phenomenon is observed with the word *enɔ* ‘mother’.

Ex 50

Noun	Noun or affix?	Compound
<i>axɔe</i> +	<i>(e)nɔ</i>	→ <i>axɔenɔ</i> (N)
house	mother	Mrs/ owner of the house
<i>edɔ</i> +	<i>(e)nɔ</i>	→ <i>edɔnɔ</i> (N)
sickness	mother	sick person
<i>Pita</i> +	<i>(e)nɔ</i>	→ <i>Pitanɔ</i> (N)
Peter	mother	Peter’s mother

We note that *edɔnɔ* ‘sick person’ is used for both men and women who are sick.

The examples in (50) are pluralized in (51) according to the regular rule of pluralization in Mina. In Mina nouns are pluralized by adding the plural marker *-wɔ* at the end of the noun. See following examples:

Ex 51

<i>axɔenɔ</i>	→ <i>axɔentɔwɔ</i>
owner of the house	owners of the house
<i>edɔnɔ</i>	→ <i>edɔnɔwɔ</i>
sick person	sick persons

2.3.3 Compounds and grammatical structures

This section will deal with the extent to which compounds fit in the grammatical structures of the prototypical categories that they represent.

The survey of the different combinations possible in Mina has shown that compounding is basically a noun-forming process in Mina. The majority of the words derived are nouns. However, some are verbs, pronouns and adverbs. In Mina, the identifiability of the grammatical category of the compound is not a matter of debate. A compound behaves as a prototypical noun when it is a noun and as adverb when it is an adverb, and so on.

The immediate previous examples show cases of pluralization of compound nouns. That similarity is illustrated in sentences below.

Examples of pluralization of prototypical nouns and their use in sentences:

Ex 52

Singular	Plural
----------	--------

<i>aba</i>	<i>abawo</i>
------------	--------------

mat	mats
-----	------

<i>Aba</i>	<i>le</i>	<i>cica</i>	<i>si</i>
------------	-----------	-------------	-----------

mat	be-PERF	teacher	with
-----	---------	---------	------

'The teacher has a mat

Abawo le cica si
 mats be-PERF teacher with
 ‘The teacher has sticks’

Example with compound

Compounding

Ex 53

Noun	Noun	Compound
<i>ati+</i>	<i>(e)kpo</i>	<i>atikpo (N)</i>
wood/three+	rod (?)	stick

Pluralization

Singular Plural

<i>atikpo</i>	<i>atikpowo</i>
stick	sticks

Compound used in a sentence

Atikpo (atikpowo) le cica si
 stick (sticks) be-PERF teacher with
 ‘The teacher has stick(s)’

The examples (54), (55) and (56) below show further that the compound noun can be a subject, an object and the head of a prepositional phrase. Those environments are the basic ones for a prototypical noun.

Ex 54

Atikpo a gẽ je anyigbã

stick the fall-PERF on ground

‘The stick fell on the ground.’

Ex 55

Cica a sɔ atikpo

teacher the take-PERF stick

‘The teacher took a stick.’

Ex 56

Cica a po ɖevi a ku atikpo

teacher the beat-PERF child the with stick

‘The teacher has beaten the child with a stick.’

The similarity in behavior of the prototypical adverbs and those derived through compounding can be illustrated as below. The illustration of the same is more complex in the case of adverbs because of the complex nature of the elements gathered. Moreover it must be noted that most adverbs can be said to be “prototypically” compounded forms. Here a few

examples of sentences illustrating the use of compounded and non-compounded adverbs will suffice.

Non-compounded

Ex 57

kpata-kpata quickly

RE-quick

Ex 58

Pita wɔ kpata-kpata

Peter do-PERF RE-quick

‘Peter got ready quickly.’

Compounded Adverb

Ex 59

afi+ ye → fiye

place+ FOC ‘here’

Ex 60

Pita wɔ-na dɔ le fiye

Peter do-HAB work at here

‘Peter works here.’

CHAPTER 3

REDUPLICATION

3.1 Introduction

The sketch of this section follows Moravcsik's (1978) presentation on reduplicative constructions. This section reflects an attempt to explore reduplication processes in Mina and to see the ways reduplication processes are used in the formation of several grammatical categories, such as nominalization and adverbialization.

3.1.1. General understanding of reduplication

Reduplication is a phenomenon in which a part or a whole of a grammatical form multiplies. Indeed, Dolphyne (1988, 124) quoted in Ofori (2002, 173-174) says that: 'reduplication is a type of compound formation which consists of the repetition of the whole or the part of a stem'. The new form will have a new meaning slightly different from the former. Reduplication is a phenomenon whereby a syntactic category can change. For example in Mina, a verb can become a noun or an adjective can become an adverb through the phenomenon of reduplication. That is to say that reduplication is a phenomenon which is closely associated with nominalization and adverbialization only one example have been displayed in this study.

Ex 61

<i>bu</i> (V)	>	<i>bubu</i> (N)
to respect(V)		RE. respect
'to respect'		'respect/ obedience'

Ex 62

<i>blewu</i> (A)	>	<i>blewublewu</i> (Adv)
slow(A)		RE.slow
'slow'		slowly

The reduplication of the verb in (61) gives a new word which is a noun and the reduplication of the adjective in (62) gives an adverb.

Moravcsik (1978, 300) considers reduplication as being a 'set of ways in which quantitative form differentiation could in principle be used in natural human languages in the expression of meanings; and the set of ways in which quantitative form differentiation is so used'.

So apart from the morphological aspect of reduplication, it has a semantic aspect. For Lakoff & Johnson (1980) the semantics of reduplication may involve notions of:

- plurality or collective
- intensification or increase
- continuation or completion
- diminution

Ex 63

$z\tilde{s}$ '(to)walk'

Idea of continuation

Ex 64

$z\tilde{s}$ → $z\tilde{s}z\tilde{s}$

vst RE.vst

to walk 'the walk, walking'

The derived form in (64) has an idea of continuation where the action is considered as something in process as opposed to something static.

A range of reduplication phenomena is found in human languages. In Mina reduplication can be done in different ways. It can be partial, total, initial and internal. Our aim in this section is to explore how reduplication operates in Mina.

3.1.2. Iteration vs reduplication

The reduplicative phenomenon we want to deal with is not concerned with the construction in which two modifiers or two other words are repeated. The following example in Mina illustrates the distinction we want to make.

Ex 65

M-a va egbe egbe.

1S-FUT come today today

‘I will come certainly today’

The construction above involving a full repetition of *egbe* ‘today’ does not qualify as a reduplicative construction in terms of this paper. Though there is a repetition, the iteration does not form a new word. The concept is repeated for emphasis but not for the purpose of deriving a new lexeme.

We want to deal with the process that repeats part(s) or the whole of a lexeme to form a single new derived word. In other words this paper is dealing with the reduplication or a repetition which involves a derivational process.

3.2 Reduplicative constructions

As said before, reduplication can take different forms. Let us look closely at the way Mina manages this process to derive nouns from verbs and adverbs from adjectives.

3.2.1 Formal properties

3.2.1.1 Properties of the reduplicated object

Moravcsik (1978, 304-305) presents two types of reduplication: partial and total. In Mina reduplication is most of the time total. Moravcsik uses the technical term ‘total bimodal’ reduplication (304). A form is qualified to be bimodal to the extent that ‘repetition must involve not only a morpheme of the same meaning but also one of the same lexical form.’

As far as Mina is concerned, the total bimodal reduplication is applied to the monosyllabic verb, but there are some exceptions. The monosyllabic verbs starting with complex consonants or combinations such as /kpl, gbl, pl/ are slightly modified. We will talk about that later. Our hypothesis at this point is that most of the monosyllabic verbs reduplicate according to the total bimodal reduplication pattern. Here is a set of examples exemplifying the preceding hypothesis.

Ex 66

Verb		Noun
<i>l̥ʃ</i> ‘to love’	>	<i>l̥ʃl̥ʃ</i> ‘love’
<i>bu</i> ‘to respect’	>	<i>bubu</i> ‘respect’
<i>do</i> ‘to plant’	>	<i>dodo</i> ‘planting’
<i>ɖu</i> ‘to eat’	>	<i>ɖuɖu</i> ‘eating’
<i>z̥ʃ</i> ‘to walk’	>	<i>z̥ʃz̥ʃ</i> ‘walking/ walk’

Another type of reduplication which falls in this category is the reduplication of verbs which in their structure are verbs which necessitate an object and this object is attached to the verb. Essegbey (2002, 55) calls them ‘inherent complement verbs’ (ICVs). Their nominalization can involve a total reduplication when it comes to derive an agentive noun. See examples (67) and (68) below.

Ex 67

Verb	Agentive noun
<i>ɖu-nu</i>	<i>ɖu-nu-ɖu-nu</i>
eat-thing	eat-thing-eat- thing
eat	eater

Ex 68

Verb	Agentive Noun
<i>fā-(a)vi</i>	<i>fāvivāvi</i>
mix-tear	mix tear mix tear
cry	weeper

3.2.1.1.1 Partial bimodal reduplication

Partial bimodal reduplication “involves the repetition of a syntactic constituent or phonetic string which is only part of the constituent whose meaning is accordingly modified” (Moravcsik 1978, 305).

In Mina, monosyllabic verbs starting with CC onsets fall in this category. CCV verbs whose second consonant is /l/ or /r/ (liquids) are partially reduplicated. The examples in (69) illustrate partial reduplication. The liquid which follows the first consonant is dropped. Let us note that almost all Mina consonants can be followed by one of the liquids.

Ex 69

	Verb		Noun
	<i>kplɔ</i> ‘to guide’	<i>kpɔkplɔ</i>	‘guidance’
	<i>gbla</i> ‘to untie’	<i>gbagbla</i>	‘untidiness’
	<i>ple</i> ‘to buy’	<i>peple</i>	‘buying’
	<i>klɔ</i> ‘to wash’	<i>kɔklɔ</i>	‘washing’
	<i>srɔ̃</i> ‘to learn’	<i>sɔ̃srɔ̃</i>	‘learning’
	<i>jra</i> ‘to be proud’	<i>jajra</i>	‘being proud’

Non-word-formation iteration

As we stated earlier there exist other kinds of reduplicative processes in the language, which, however, do not function to yield new words. This section is an illustration that can serve as contrastive evidence of their nature in opposition to those we are mainly concerned with.

See an example from Yoruba for comparison

This same phenomenon occurs in Mina. The adjective is reduplicated when it comes to talk about many people. The reduplication serves as pluralization. In Mina this noun phrase is followed by the anaphoric plural pronoun as in other constructions.

Ex 70

ame baɖa > *ame baɖa baɖa*

person bad person bad bad

bad person bad persons

Ex 71

ame nyuie *ame nyuie nyuie*

person good person good good

good person good people

In Mina this reduplication implies the use of plural but we can still feel a sense of intensity in it. This example shows that some kinds of reduplication are not for the purpose of new word formation, but they can assume the grammatical role of plurality and intensity.

3.2.1.1.2 Initial reduplication

The reduplication of serial verbs falls in the category of initial reduplication. The first verb of the SVC is reduplicated to form a noun. The entire VP is not reduplicated. It is possible for the first verb to have an object before the second verb but it is not compulsory. When the first verb is an intransitive verb an object is skipped easily. Compare examples (72a) and (73a)

Ex 72

a) *Pita z̃ yi dɔme*

Peter walk go office

‘Peter went by foot to the office.’

b) Serial verb sequence Derived noun

z̃ yi ‘walk go’ *z̃z̃yi* ‘go by walking/foot’

Derived noun from serial verb used in sentence:

c) *Z̃z̃yi jijipe cinakɔ na (a)me*

going by foot far to be tired-HAB to person

‘Going by foot for a long distance makes somebody be tired.’

Note the similarity of meaning of the SVC in (72a) with the derived noun in (72c). It is a case of two different forms having the same meaning, but different syntactic function.

Ex 73

a) *Pita sɔ xoma va*

Peter take paper come

‘Peter brought the paper.’

b) Serial verb sequence Derived noun

sɔ va take come > *sɔsɔva* bringing

Derived noun from serial verb used in sentence:

Ami a be sɔsɔva jɔji na mi

oil the of bringing rejoice-PAST to 1P

‘The bringing of the oil made us rejoice.’

Ex 74

a) *Futɔ a te wo kpɔ*

enemy the tempt they see

‘The enemy tempted them.’

b) Serial verb sequence Derived noun

te kpɔ ‘tempt see’ *tetekpɔ* ‘temptation’

Derived noun from serial verb used in sentence:

c) *Tetekpɔ le xixe a me*

temptation be-PRES world the in

‘There is temptation in the world.’

In the languages of the world final and internal reduplication exist, but these phenomena do not occur in Mina. Also, Moravcsik points out that, as a general observation, reduplicative construction which involves

the reduplication of a phonetic string regardless of its meaning (i.e. total or partial syntactic constituent), is restricted (1978, 307).

3.2.1.1.3 Inherent complement verbs reduplication

In Mina the inherent complement verbs are distinguished from others in the fact that the object is part of the structure of the verb. Nwachuku cited in Essegbey (2002, 55) defined this type of verbs as the “one whose citation form is obligatorily followed by a meaning-specifying complement”. To form a simple noun with ICVs which is not an agentive noun (see 76), the object is moved to the front then the verb is reduplicated. The following examples illustrate this type of reduplication:

Ex 75

Pita du nu
 Peter eat-PERF thing
 ‘Peter ate’

Ex 76

ICVs	Noun
1) <i>du nu</i>	<i>nuɖuɖu</i>
eat thing	thing.RE.ICV
‘to eat’	‘food’

2) *fā (a)vi avifāfā*
 mix tear tear.RE.ICV
 ‘to weep’ ‘weeping’

Ex 77

Pita ple nuḍuḍu le asime
 Peter buy.PAST food at market
 ‘Peter bought food in the market.’

3.2.2 How many times is the form in question is reduplicated

One question we need to look at is how many times an item can be reduplicated. Is this happening more than two times? And when it happens are the rules stated above still valid? In short can we have triplication or fourth time multiplication or more in Mina?

In Mina if the multiplication is done for the purpose of nominalization and adverbialization it is not done more than two times. It is always two times and the rules stated above are still valid.

But an item can be multiplied more than two times in Mina. Ideophones in Mina are forms in which morphemes can be iterated more than two times. They do not follow the rules of reduplication stated above. In case ideophones are reduplicated they follow the appropriate pattern of the category in which they are. Clearly the iteration process involved in ideophones differs from the one in word formation and the type of reduplication in this category varies according to the group of ideophones

(ideophones with reference to color, liquid, manner, perception and the ones qualifying nouns). This point is made in order to prevent any confusion with the iteration involved in the category of ideophones and the one in the reduplication process as a means of word formation.

3.2.3 *Meaning properties*

The phenomenon of reduplication conveys a meaning. It is done on purpose to increase intensity in the sense conveyed by a word, or to express continuity, simple plurality, diminution, attenuation, etc. These different meaning properties which reduplication processes can convey are exemplified in Moravcsik (1978, 316ff). We want to see the ones which are present in Mina.

Repeated or continued occurrence of an event

In Mina the reduplication of action verb conveys a sense of a repeated or continued event. In English this can be translated by the present continuous/gerund. However it is an action nominalization in Mina, a type of nominalization which expresses action.

Ex 78

Verb		Noun	Gloss
<i>do</i> 'to plant'	>	<i>dodo</i>	'planting'
<i>ɖu</i> 'to eat'	>	<i>ɖuɖu</i>	'eating'
<i>zɔ̃</i> 'to walk'	>	<i>zɔ̃zɔ̃</i>	'walking/ walk'

Intensity

Intensity of an action or a state can be expressed through the reduplication of a form in this following example a verb.

Ex 79

Verb		Substantive
<i>kwã</i>	‘be rotted’	> <i>kwãkwã</i> ‘extremely rotted’
<i>pođi</i>	‘be dirty’	> <i>pođipođi</i> ‘be very dirty’

Diminution, attenuation, distributive, plurality and others are exemplified in some languages by reduplication, but not in Mina.

3.3 Function

Reduplication has a central role in the Mina language. Some phonological features can be observed through the phenomenon of reduplication. As said earlier it also has a role to play in semantics.

3.3.1 Word formation

The reduplication phenomenon contributes to derive nouns from verbs (nominalization). Almost all verbs (transitive, intransitive, stative, speech verbs) can be reduplicated in one way or another to form nouns. The productivity of this process in noun formation is very high.

Through reduplication Mina adverbs are derived from adjectives. Due to the small range of adjectives and the problem in deciding on a

typical adjective in Mina, this area of adverbialization is restricted. Only two examples have been represented in this study. (Example 57 and 62)

3.3.2 Inflection

In Mina the reduplication process does not serve to inflect nouns and verbs as it does in some languages in the world. 'Reduplication is more common among derivational process than among inflectional' Bybee (1985, 97). This assertion is based on a survey of a sample of languages. In her analyses, Bybee (1985, 11ff) found that only two languages were found to have reduplication as an inflectional process for verbs, while there were numerous instances of reduplication mentioned for derivational processes. This fact is proved to be true as far as Mina is concerned.

3.4 Limitation: can every item be reduplicated in Mina?

Verbs and adjectives can be reduplicated, as our survey has shown.

Reduplication is limited for items like nouns, pronouns, determiner and adverbs. First it is limited in the fact that they do not form new words, and secondly very few or none of their category is reduplicated. This example in Ewe *asiasi* 'hand by hand' (*asi* 'hand') which seems to show that a noun can be reduplicated to form a new noun does not exist in Mina. For a noun like that, Mina will use expressions like:

Ex 80

alɔ ku alɔ

hand with hand

'hand by hand'

Or

Ex 81

alɔ le alɔ me

hand at hand in

'hand by hand'

3.5 Partial conclusion

Reduplication processes are observed in Mina. Two main types are recorded: total bimodal reduplication and partial bimodal reduplication. There is no specific distinction in the semantic function of these two types of reduplication in the language. They play the same role in communication.

CHAPTER 4

DERIVATION

4.1. Introduction

Bouquiaux and Thomas' definition of derivation includes what they call *inflectional derivation* which is basically reduplication and what they call *affixational derivation*. As such this part of our work will deal with "affixational derivation" in the terms of Bouquiaux and Thomas (1992, 240, 243).

The definition of derivation is difficult since at some point it is closely tied to inflection. While trying to distinguish derivation from inflection, Bybee (1985, 81) uses the concept of 'continuum'. However, some characteristics of these morphological phenomena have helped in distinguishing them.

By derivation we understand here from Crystal (1991, 89) and Payne (1997, 25-26) that it is a process of formation of a new word or inflectable stem from another word or stem typically by the addition of an affix. That affix will thus be called a derivational affix. As such, derivation needs to be distinguished from inflection. 'Inflectional operations create forms that are fully grounded and able to be integrated into discourse, whereas derivational operations create stems that are not necessarily fully

grounded and which may still require inflectional operations before they can be integrated into discourse' (LingualinksBookshelf, Glossary).

Other common distinctions between derivation and inflection include the fact that inflectional operations do not change the lexical category of the word while derivational operations often change the lexical category of the word (Bybee 1985, 82).

4.2. The derivational processes

This section will look at the different processes of derivation occurring in the language from the viewpoint of the position of the affix, the form and nature of the affixes used and the meaning conveyed through the process. Bouquiaux and Thomas state that "Affixes can bring about changes in the meaning, and occasionally in the grammatical category, of the root. This process is the most common type of verbal derivation, but is also used for noun formation in many languages, especially those with noun classes" (1992, 244). They state further in terms of the form of the affix used in this type of process that: "affix may be a prefix, suffix, or infix, and may affect different segmental or tonal structures" (1992, 244).

4.2.1 Form of the affix

The segmental structure of the affix can remain fixed (i.e., it remains unchanged regardless of the form of the root) or it can be variable. Here are some examples of affixes which are derivational:

Ex 82

Affix (Suffix)	First element	Gloss	Derived word	Gloss
-ke 'when', 'what' 'which'	walebe-(N)	'time'	walebeke(PR)	'when'
	(e)nu-(N)	'thing'	nuke(PR)	'what'
	ame-(N)	'person'	ameke(PR)	who
-la 'agentive suffix'	kplɔ-(V)	'to guide'	kplɔla(N)	guide
	jiha-(V)	'sing'	hajila(N)	singer
-nɔ 'possessor'	axoe-(N)	'house'	axoenɔ(N)	owner of the house/ Mrs
-pe 'place'	d̥i.ame-(ICV)	person.bury	amed̥ipe(N)	cemetery
	d̥ɔ-(ICV)	'to sleep'	d̥ɔpe(N)	dormitory
	nɔ-(V)	'to stay'	nɔpe(N)	place/seat
-tɔ 'agentive suffix, owner, possessor, nationality'	vuẽ.wɔ-(ICV)	'bad.do'	vuẽwɔtɔ(N)	evil doer
	axɔe-	'house'	axɔetɔ	owner of the house/ Mr
	Togo-(N)	'Togo'	Togotɔ(N)	Togolese
	agbe-(N)	'life'	agbetɔ(N)	person

4.2.2. Position of the affix.

Derivation in Mina is mainly by suffixation. Prefixation and infixation are not observed as illustrated above in (82).

4.3. Derivation requiring more than one morphological process

Some derivation combined with additional process discussed above in the word formation. It makes use of reduplication and compounding process. The examples below illustrate these combinations.

Derivation and reduplication

Ex 83

<i>lɔ</i>	> <i>lɔlɔ</i>	+ <i>-tɔ</i>	>	<i>lɔlɔtɔ</i>
vst	RE.vst			agentive suffix
'to love'(V)	'love'(N)			'lover'(N)

Ex 84

<i>da</i>	> <i>dada</i>	+ <i>-la</i>	>	<i>dadala</i>
vst	RE.vst			agentive suffix
'to be proud'(V)	'pride' (N)			'a proud person'(N)

Derivation and compounding

Ex 85

<i>ɛji</i> (N)	+ <i>awu</i> (N)	>	<i>ɛjiwu</i> (N)	+ <i>-tɔ</i>	>	<i>ɛjiwutɔ</i> (N)
'rain'	'cloth'		'raincoat'	'owner'		'the owner of the raincoat'

Ex 86

$x\text{ɔ}(V) + se(V) > x\text{ɔ}se(N) + t\text{ɔ} > x\text{ɔ}set\text{ɔ}(N)$

receive hear faith agentive suffix believer

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

This paper is a study of word formation processes in Mina. Three main processes have been discussed. Chapter one introduced the language and presented the methodology and the structure of the work. In chapter two compounding was dealt with. It described the different functions and forms compounds take. The parts used in the compounding process are most of the time recognizable but it happens that it is sometimes difficult to identify each part clearly. Compounds also fit easily in the grammatical categories they belong to, showing all the fundamental features of the prototypical members of the category. Chapter three dealt with reduplication processes used in word formation. The different forms that the reduplication can take have been looked at. We have observed partial and total reduplication and the reduplication of ICVs. Functions and specific meanings associated with the process of reduplication have been explored. In chapter four the study dealt with derivation which included word formation processes using affixation. New words are formed through suffixation; derivation requires, in some cases, the combination with either reduplication or compounding.

Our findings show that these processes of word formation are more productive in the area of nominalization than in other domains.

This study is not intended to be exhaustive. We hope that it will be an avenue through which analysis of further aspects of the processes investigated could be pursued and a more systematic description of the facts established.

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