ENGLISH – KALABARI WORD FORMATION SYSTEMS: CONVERGENCE AND DIVERGENCE

Rise Evans Cotterell and Isaac Eyi Ngulube

English & Literary Studies, Rivers State University.

ABSTRACT: *The study is designed to examine the contrast that exist in the morphological processes of word formation in English and Kalabari languages. The English language is an Indo-European language, while Kalabari is a Niger-Congo Ijoid language. The crux of the investigation is to examine the distinct morphological features in the two languages. These languages are chosen because Kalabari is the first language and English is the second language spoken in the locality. The learning of a second language oftentimes is affected by the features of the first language of the learner. Learners and speakers of one language apply rules of their native language into the second language resulting into grammatical and morphological inaccuracies. This study identifies the similarities that may enhance English learning by Kalabari speakers as well as the differences that may pose challenges to the Kalabari learner of English as a second language. The different shades of morphological processes such as compounding, affixation, conversion, backformation, reduplication, among others are treated. While both languages share some morphological processes, they also exhibit unique morphological differences. This study navigates and gets immersed in the fundamental concepts of morphology, contrastive analysis, grammar, inflection, and pedagogy. The theoretical foundation here aligns with the principles set forth by Harris and Lado (the contrastive analysis) an approach that juxtaposes different languages to identifying the distinctions and similarities in the two languages. The study makes use of descriptive research design since the study is aimed to undertake a contrastive study of the morphological processes of the two different languages. The lexicological development of Kalabari in comparison with English constitute an important launching pad to catapult the former into the technological age of the present century. This is perhaps what the Kalabari speaker, and by extension, other speakers of the Niger Congo phylum would need to be fully part of the technological inventions of his times as a world citizen.*

INTRODUCTION

Language stands as a potent and versatile instrument for communication, playing a vital role in diverse linguistic realms such as translation, language teaching, and cross-cultural interactions. It serves as the fundamental medium of human interaction, encapsulating and conveying unique cultural, historical, and geographical contexts. In essence, language is a multifaceted tool employed by individuals for a myriad of activities within society, ranging from disseminating information to inspiring, educating, fostering relationships, and resolving conflicts (Isaac Eyi Ngulube 1).

The significance of language is underscored by its role as humanity's paramount asset; without language, the very functioning of society faces grave peril (Shirley Yule-Ifode 1). Scholars have approached the study of language through various lenses, delving into its intricate facets to gain a deeper understanding of its nature and complexities. Bernerd Block and Charles Trager define language as "a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which a social group cooperates" (5). This definition highlights the social and cooperative aspects of language, emphasizing its role in facilitating communication and collaboration within a community.

Geoffrey Hull extends this perspective, characterizing language as the most elaborate form of human symbolic activity. He emphasizes that "every language is a model of culture and its adjustment to the world" (7). This statement underscores the close relationship between language and culture, suggesting that language serves as a reflection and representation of the cultural values, norms, and experiences of a particular society.

In essence, language serves as a tool for humans to articulate and express their ideas, emotions, and desires through habitual oral, auditory, and arbitrary symbols. Its essence is captured in its nature as a vocalization or the arbitrary graphic representation of vocal sounds in writing, facilitating communication within a speech community. Vivian Cook frames language acquisition in terms of the "initial and final states of the mind, highlighting the contrast between a newborn's linguistic tabula rasa and the linguistic efficiency of an adult" (4). This perspective emphasizes the dynamic and developmental nature of language acquisition, underscoring the remarkable ability of humans to acquire and master language over time.

Language is a dynamic system of interaction that employs signs, words, and grammar to convey meanings, expressed both orally and in writing. As a social and cultural construct, language reflects the values, norms, and beliefs of a specific community, acting as a cognitive tool that aids human thinking, reasoning, and information processing. Its social nature enables individuals to share knowledge, experiences, and perspectives, fostering social cohesion and cultural identity.

The English language is the language of government in Nigeria because almost all transactions in government offices are carried out in English. Minutes, official correspondences, memoranda, circulars, instructions, and directives are given out in the English language. Business transactions in commerce and industry such as buying, selling, product advertisement, sales, record, and other dealings in Nigeria are mostly carried out in the English language and Pidgin English as well as in some local languages. English has continued to serve as a cementing force that holds the diverse ethnic groups in Nigeria together. Nigeria remaining a united nation today is because of the use of English, it is a unifying force for nationalism in Nigeria. English is the only language used in the boardrooms during meetings by members of

staff. When Nigerians want to engage in international business or transaction of any kind with persons beyond Nigerian geographical boundary, English becomes a readily available language to be used either in the country or outside the country. The English language is the most extensively used language in the Nigerian media both the print and the electronic media. Almost all the books in law and legal drafting are written in English. All the volumes of the Nigerian constitutions from inception to date are written in English. The 1979 constitution is written in English.

The English language assumes a pivotal role as a medium for social interaction in Nigeria. It becomes the language of choice for various social functions such as installation ceremonies, birthdays, weddings, and other communal activities. Mastery and eloquence in English during these events confer an elevated status upon the speaker, underscoring the language's significance as a social status symbol. Furthermore, English serves as the language of science and technology in Nigeria, where most scientific terms and chemical names are written and spoken in English due to the perceived inadequacy of Nigerian indigenous languages for handling such technical vocabulary.

Shifting focus to the Kalabari people, an indigenous ethnic group residing in Nigeria's Niger Delta region, their rich history and cultural heritage are deeply rooted in their migration from the ancient city of Benin. Legend attributes their arrival in the Niger Delta to Perebo, the revered founder of the Kalabari kingdom. The Kalabari people, practicing a blend of traditional African spirituality and Christianity, have a history marked by interactions with European traders and colonial powers. Their primary occupations include fishing, farming, and trading, with fishing being particularly dominant due to their proximity to waterways. Skilled in traditional fishing methods, the Kalabari people also engage in agriculture, cultivating crops for both subsistence and trade. The Kalabari language, a member of the Niger-Congo language family within the Ijaw language family, plays a crucial role in preserving their cultural identity and heritage. As part of the broader Ijaw ethnic group, Kalabari shares linguistic ties with neighbouring dialects such as Izon, Nembe, Okrika, and others.

In essence, both the English and Kalabari languages are not only mediums of communication but also vital components of cultural heritage and identity. They shape social interactions, preserve traditional knowledge, and contribute to the understanding of complex social structures and customs. Efforts to document, revitalize, and promote these languages are crucial for safeguarding cultural diversity and heritage in a rapidly changing world.

Various aspects of the Kalabari language such as phonology, syntax as well as the morphology have been studied by various researchers and scholars. In the area of phonology specifically, work has been done on Kalabari phonology, counting system in Kalabari, sound variations in Kalabari, and so on. In the area of Morphology, the literature is also not scanty. Nonetheless, every language of the world has its own word formation processes and the rules governing the formation. English and Kalabari are two distinct languages with different linguistic origins, backgrounds, and conditions that make them naturally different. It is obvious that the morphological differences in English and Kalabari words create problems in the teaching and learning of English, the target language. Even though scholarly works have been done on the morphological processes of the Kalabari and other languages, yet not much has been done on the English and the Kalabari morphological processes. This is the lacuna that the present research intends to fill.

Research Design

This study makes use of descriptive research design since the study is aimed at undertaking a contrastive study of morphological processes of two different languages, English and Kalabari. Descriptive research design is a type of research method that is used when one wants to get information on in an object. It is used to describe what is in existence in respect to conditions or variables that are found in each situation. Descriptive research design studies are "mainly concerned with descriptive events as they are without any manipulation of what is being observed. Any study which seeks merely to find what is and describe it, is known as descriptive research.

The generated data will be effectively analyzed without manipulation or distortion. This will be in consonance with the definition of descriptive research as "the type used to describe characteristics of a population or phenomenon being studied. It does not answer questions about how/when/why the characteristics occurred. Rather it addresses the 'what' question (what are the characteristics of the population or situation being studied?).

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Contrastive analysis involves a systematic examination of pairs of languages to discern their structural differences and similarities. Originating from practical needs in second language teaching, it is grounded in behaviorism, psychology and structural linguistics. The theory was initially developed by Fries in the 1940s and later introduced into academic discourse by Robert Lado in his renowned work "Linguistics Across Cultures" (1964). Lado asserted that elements like one's native language would be easier to grasp, while differing elements would pose challenges, forming the basis of the contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH). This hypothesis posits that where languages are similar, positive transfer occurs, and where they differ, negative transfer or interference takes place.

Lado underscored the importance of comparing the second language with the learner's native language for effective teaching, stating that a teacher conducting such a contrast would be better equipped to understand and address students' real challenges (Lado 102). The enduring significance of contrastive analysis theory persists in contemporary English teaching, aiding foreign language educators in anticipating and addressing potential errors in students' language learning. Although initially proposed in 1957, the theory gained pedagogical influence in the 1960s and early 1970s. According, to Wikipedia:

Contrastive analysis was extensively used in the field of second Language Acquisition (SLA) in the 1960s and early 1970s as a method of explaining why some of the 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 of 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. The views of scholars at the time were what Lado claims: that those elements which are like (the learner's) native language will be simple for him, and those that are different will be difficult.

Contrastive Analysis (CA) draws a spectrum of perspectives from scholars, with Johnson defining it as a tool for comparing statements on the similarities and differences between two languages. However, he questions its predictive efficacy, suggesting that not all language learner errors can be foreseen. Instead, he proposes the utilization of CA to elucidate existing difficulties. James and Jacek Fisiak view CA and error analysis as instruments for addressing pedagogical challenges, while Dipietro and Corder credit Lado's work for its explanatory power and structural linguistic orientation.

The English System

The word formation processes the English language has adopted over the centuries are multifaceted, varied, and complex. English makes use of a variety of operations that modify the structure of words to express new meaning. The first is the common but productive affixation. The addition of affixes is an extremely common morphological process in the language. Linguists distinguish several affixes, an affix attached to the front of the base is a *prefix*, while an affix that is attached to the end of the base is a *suffix*. These affixes modify the meaning, part of speech, or grammatical function of the *base word*, resulting in the creation of new words. Prefixes change the meaning or create a word with an opposite or negated sense. Some examples are:

un-:   happy   → unhappy
dis-:   connect → disconnect
non-:   fiction → nonfiction
re-:   do   → redo
pre-:   view   → preview

Suffixes change the word's part of speech, indicate plurality, or tense, or add derivational or inflectional meanings, examples:

-er: teach   → teacher
-ful: beauty → beautiful
-s: book   → books
-ed: walk   → walked
-ize/-ise: modern → modernize
-ment: govern → government

It is also common to combine both prefixes and suffixes to create new words or modify existing ones. For instance:

un-   (prefix) + -able (suffix): believe   → unbelievable
re-   (prefix) + -ing (suffix):   read   → rereading
dis-   (prefix) + -ment (suffix): appoint   → disappointment
mis-   (prefix) + -ing (suffix):   understand → misunderstanding

Affixation provides a flexible way to convey subtle changes in meaning, grammatical function, or context. The choice of affixes and their rules of attachment may be influenced by factors such as phonological constraints, morphological structure, and lexical conventions. In addition to creating new words, affixation can also play a role in inflectional processes, such as forming plurals or verb tenses. For example, adding the suffix -s to a noun forms the plural (e.g., cat → cats), and adding -ed to a verb indicates the past tense (e.g., walk → walked).

Overall, affixation is a versatile and productive word formation process in English, enabling speakers and writers to express a wide range of meanings and grammatical functions through the addition of prefixes and suffixes to base words. We have divided affixation here into derivational and extensional.

Table 1: English Affixes - Derivational

Prefix	Change	Examples	Suffixes	Change	examples
anti-	N ⟶ N	antihero	-able	V ⟶ A	fix-able
ex-	"	ex-wife	-ive	"	assert-ive
de-	V ⟶ V	deactivate	-ic	N ⟶ A	moron-ic
dis-	"	disobey	-ish	A ⟶ A	green-ish
mis-	"	misplace	-(a)tion	V ⟶ N	assert-ion
re-	"	rethink	-ment	"	treat-ment
un-	"	untie	-al	"	dispos-al
a -	V ⟶ Adj	afloat	-er	"	teacher
be -	N ⟶ V	bewitch	-ant	"	disinfectant
de -	"	defrost	-al	"	betrayal
en -	"	enslave	-ment	"	government
em -	Adj ⟶ V	embitter	-al	N ⟶ Adj	national
in-	A ⟶ A	incompetent	-ial	N ⟶ A	credent-ial
un-	"	unfair	-ful	"	hope-ful

As Table 1 indicates, derivation in English involves the creation of new words by adding derivational affixes to base words. Derivational affixes modify the meaning or part of speech of the base word, resulting in the formation of a derived word with a different lexical category or altered meaning. We acknowledge that Table 1 is not exhaustive and some of the prefixes and suffixes presented here are not on it, but they are part of the derivational affixes in English. Derivational affixes play a crucial role in the expansion of the English lexicon and the creation of new words with different meanings, forms, and functions. They allow for the formation of adjectives, nouns, verbs, and adverbs from existing base words. Derivation also enables the expression of nuances, changes in meaning, and the adaptation of words to fit specific contexts or linguistic needs. Not all combinations of derivational affixes and base words are acceptable or productive in English. Moreover, derivational affixes often have specific semantic or grammatical patterns associated with them. For example, the prefix 'un-' in 'uncultured' changes the meaning of 'cultured' to 'not cultured.' 're-' in 're-write' indicates repetition, transforming 'write' into 'rewrite.'

The suffix -er is commonly used to derive agent nouns (e.g., builder, writer, teacher), while the suffix -ly is often added to adjectives to form adverbs (e.g., quick → quickly). The suffix '-able' indicates the ability or potential, changing 'transform' into 'transformable.' The resulting derived words may have a related or different meaning compared to the original word, as in 'lecture' (base word) vs. 'lecturer' (derived word). the '-er' changes the meaning from action of lecturing to a person who lectures.

Derivation can also alter the grammatical category of a word. For instance: 'nation (n)' vs. 'national (adj)'; 'act (n)' vs. 'activate (vb)'. While some affixes have a wide range of

applications and can derive numerous words (e.g., '-er', '-ist'), others are more limited in their use (e.g., '-th', '-en').

Derivation serves both lexical and grammatical functions: *Lexical Function:* It allows speakers to express a wide range of concepts and ideas. *Grammatical Function*: derivation can change the grammatical category of a word, converting nouns to verbs, adjectives to adverbs, and so on. This contributes to the syntactic versatility and flexibility of the language. Derivation can involve multiple processes, such as: prefixation (unconventional), suffixation (convener), conversion (email functions as both a noun and a verb), and backformation (editor from editorial).

As evince on Table 1 *-able* added to the verb base fix converts it into and adjective meaning 'able to be fix'. Second, if a derivation applies more than once creating a word with a multilayered internal structured, it is called *complete derivation*. Videa de Guzman (98) explains that the word *activation* contains several layers of structure, each of which reflects the attachment of an affix to a base of the appropriate type. In the first layer, the affix *-ive* combines with the verbal base *act* to give an adjective. In the next layer, the affix *-ate* combines with this adjective and converts it into a verb – *activate*. At this point, the affix *-ion* is added, converting the verb into a noun, and forming the word *activation*.

English linguists distinguish between two classes of derivational affixes thus, class 1 affixes often trigger changes in the consonants or vowel segments of the base and may affect stress placement. More so, they often combine with bound roots as presented on Table 2.

Table 2: Class 1 Affixes

Affix	Sample word	Change triggered by affixes.
-ity	san-ity	vowel in the base changes from [e] to [æ]
	public-ity	final consonant of the base changes from [k] to [s]
		stress shifts to second syllable (cf. public vs. publicity)
-y	democrac-y	final consonant of the base changes from [t] to [s]
Stress shifts to second syllable (cf. democrat vs democracy)		
-ive	product-ive	stress shifts to second syllable (cf. product vs productive)
-ial	part-ial	final consonant of the base changes from [t] to [ʃ] (cf. part)
-ize	public-ize	final consonant of the base changes from [k] to [s] (cf. public)
-ion	nat-ion	final consonant of the base changes from [t] to [ʃ] (native)

In contrast, class 2 affixes tend to be phonologically neutral, having no effect on the segmental makeup of the base or on stress placement.

Table 3: Class 2 Affixes

Affix	Sample word	Change Triggered by Affix.
-ness	prompt-ness	none
-less	hair-less	none
-ful	quiet-ly	none
-er	defend-er	none
-ish	self-ish	none

It is obvious that a class 2 affix usually cannot intervene between the root and a class 1 affix as in the following examples:

    relat-ion-al   divis-ive-ness   *fear-less-ity   fear less-ness

    root 1 2 root 1 2   root 2   1   root 2 2

notice that all combinations of class 1 and class 2 affixes are found in English words except one – a class 2 suffix followed by a class 1 suffix.

Table 4: English Affixes – Inflectional

Prefixes	Meaning	Base Form	Derived Form	Suffixes	Meaning	Base Form	Derived Form
dis-	not	appear	disappear	-hood	status	man	manhood
dis-	reversive	organize	disorganize	-ship	condition	friend	friendship
ex-	former	President	ex-president	-let	diminutive	pig	piglet
in-	not	audible	inaudible				
re-	again	examine	re-examine				
un-	not	faithful	unfaithful				
un-	reversive	tie	untie				

Table 4 above is inflectional affixes. They are type of affixes in English that are added to base words to express grammatical features such as tense, number, case, comparison, and possession. In English, there are a limited number of inflectional affixes, and they follow consistent patterns. The plural affix -s or -es is added to nouns to indicate that there are multiple instances of the noun. The specific form of the plural affix depends on the phonological characteristics of the base word. For example: cat → cats, box → boxes, and bus → buses. The possessive affix -'s or -s is added to nouns to indicate ownership or possession. The choice between -'s or -s depends on whether the base word is singular or plural. For example: John → John's (singular possessive) and dogs → dogs' (plural possessive). The third person singular affix -s is added to verbs in the present tense to indicate that the subject of the sentence is a singular third person (he, she, it). For example: walk → walks, run → runs, and eat → eats. The past tense affix -ed is added to regular verbs to indicate that the action or event occurred in the past. For example: walk → walked, play → played, and jump → jumped. The comparative and superlative affixes -er and -est are added to adjectives and adverbs to express degrees of comparison. For example: tall → taller → tallest, fast → faster → fastest, and smart → smarter → smartest. The progressive affix -ing is added to verbs to indicate ongoing or continuous actions. For example: walk → walking, play → playing, and eat → eating.

It is worth mentioning that irregular words in English do not follow the regular patterns of inflectional affixation. Irregular words have unique forms for plurals, possessives, past tense, and comparison. For example, the irregular plural of "child" is "children," and the irregular past tense of "go" is "went." Overall, inflectional affixes play a vital role in English grammar, allowing the expression of grammatical features such as tense, number, possession, and comparison.

Compounding

Compounding involves combining two or more independent words, called constituents, to create a new word. This process can be seen as a form of lexical combination, where the meaning of the compound word is derived from the meanings of its individual constituents. Compounding is a productive and versatile process in English and contributes significantly to the expansion of the vocabulary.

The constituents can be either full words or morphemes. The most common type of compounding involves combining two nouns, but compounds can also be formed from other word classes such as adjectives, verbs, or prepositions. For example:

Noun   + Noun: bedroom, bookshelf
Adjective   + Noun: blackboard, redwood
Verb   + Noun: brainstorm, sunflower
Preposition + Noun: offshore, outfield

Compound words often exhibit a specific semantic relationship between the constituents. This relationship can be categorized into different types. *Endocentric Compounds* denote a subtype or specific example of the first constituent, e.g., "blackboard" is a type of board, and "bookshelf" is a type of shelf. *Exocentric Compounds* do not fit into the category of the first constituent. Instead, it acquires a new meaning that is not directly related to the meaning of the individual constituents, e.g., "redwood" refers to a type of tree, but it does not represent a type of red or wood. *Copulative Compounds* represent a combination of the meanings of both constituents, e.g., "lighthouse" combines the ideas of light and a house. Consider further these examples.

Endocentric	*Exocentric*
Wisdom t*ee*th	saber t*oo*ths (extinct species of carnivores)
Club f*ee*t	big f*oo*ts (mythical creatures, sasquatch)
Policem*en*	walkm*ans* (a type of portable radio)
Oak lea*ves*	maple leaf*s* (Toronto' NHL hockey team)

It should be noted that whereas the endocentric compounds employ the usual irregular plural (*teeth, feet*) the exocentric compounds permit the plural suffix -s for words such as *tooth*, *foot*, and *man*.

Compounds can be written in different forms, depending on factors such as stress patterns, pronunciation, and historical conventions. The constituent words can be written together (closed compound), with a hyphen (hyphenated compound), or as separate words (open compound). For example:

Closed Compound: butterfly, keyboard
Hyphenated Compound: sister-in-law, well-known
Open Compound: ice cream, high school

Compounds are further classified based on their structure or the part of speech they form:
Noun-Noun Compounds: "sunflower," "football," and "raincoat."
Verb-Noun Compounds: "housework," "sunset," and "firefly."
Adjective-Noun Compounds: "blackboard," "redhead," and "highway."
Noun-Verb Compounds: "honeycomb," "waterfall," and "moonwalk."

The resulting compound words often develop their own conventions, idiomatic meanings, and usage patterns, contributing to the richness and diversity of the English language. In most compounds, the rightmost morpheme determines the category of the entire word. Thus, *greenhouse* is a noun because its rightmost component is a noun., *spoon-feed* is a verb because *feed* also belongs to this category, *nationwide* is an adjective just as wide is. The morpheme that determines the category of the entire word is called the head. We have put all these on Table 5.

Table 5a: English Compounds

Noun Compounds	Verb Compounds	Adjectival Compounds	Prepositional compounds
fire engine	steam roll	sky blue	into
Oil well	dry clean	red hot	onto
after thought	whitewash	over ripe	
push button	underestimate	in grown	

Table 5b: English Compounds

Verb + Noun	Verb + Particle	Particle + verb	Adjective + Participial
pick pocket	*press down*	*out run*	*serious minded*
cutthroat	*put off*	*over feed*	*hard working*
break fast	*fall out*	*underestimate*	

One interesting quality of compounds is that their overall meanings are not always equal to the meaning of the individual words with which they are composed. There are countless compounds in English, once formed, compounds can interact with other words to create still larger compounds, as in: *dog food box* and *Sunday night concert series*.

Besides, compound can interact with derivation, yielding forms such as *abortion debate*, in which the first word in the compound is the result of derivation. As a corollary adjective – noun compounds are characterized by more prominent stress on their first compound. In noncompounds consisting of an adjective and a noun, in contrast, the second element is generally stressed, as in:

> *Compound Word*   *Noncompound*
> wetsuit 'a diver's costume'   vs   wet suit 'a suit that is wet.'

The next distinguishing feature of compounds in English is that tense and plural markers cannot be attached to the first element, although they can be added to the compound. There are some exceptions, however, such as *swordsman* and *parks supervisor*. Compounds are used to express a wide range of meaning relationships in English.

> fire truck   'a vehicle used to put out fire.'
> airfield   'a field where airplanes land.'

According to Ngulube (139), "… a compound signifies a subtype of the concept denoted by its head (the rightmost component). Thus, *dog food* is a type of food, *caveman* is a type of man, *sky blue* is a type of blue, and so on. But there are exceptions, for instance, *redhead* is not a type of head; rather, it is a person with red hair. Similarly, *redneck* is a person and not a type of neck.''

Clipping

Clipping involves shortening a word by removing one or more syllables. This process creates a new word that is typically shorter and more concise than the original word. Clipping is a common and productive method of word formation in English and contributes to the development of new vocabulary. Clipping can be categorized into different types based on the part of the word that is removed:

In *back-clipping*, the final syllables or sounds of a word are removed. For example: advertisement → ad, professor → prof, and Laboratory → lab. In *front-clipping*, the initial syllables or sounds of a word are removed. For example: telephone → phone, refrigerator → fridge, and examination → exam. In some cases, the *middle portion* of a word is removed. This type of clipping is less common than back- and front-clipping. For example: mathematics → math and apartment → apart.

Clipped words often retain the core meaning of the original word, although there can be some semantic shifts or changes in connotation. In some cases, the clipped form may acquire a more general or colloquial sense than the original word. For example:

gymnasium (original) → gym (clipped) (retains the meaning of a fitness facility)

examination (original) → exam (clipped) (retains the meaning of a test)

Clipped words are commonly used in informal and colloquial language, and they often become established and widely recognized in the lexicon. However, the usage and acceptance of clipped words can vary depending on the specific word and context. Some clipped words may be highly informal or restricted to speech communities, while others may become widely accepted and even find their way into formal language over time. Clipping is closely related to other word formation processes such as blending and acronyms.

Blends involve combining parts of two or more words to create a new word, while acronyms involve forming a word from the initial letters of a phrase. Clipping can sometimes occur in combination with these processes. For example: brunch (blend of breakfast and lunch) and laser (acronym for light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation).

Clipping is an efficient way to create new words in English by shortening longer words while still retaining their core meaning. It allows for increased brevity and flexibility in language use. However, it is important to note that not all words are suitable for clipping, and the acceptance and usage of clipped forms can vary over time and across different linguistic communities.

Neologism

Ngulube avers that neologism involves the creation of new words or expressions to represent concepts, ideas, or phenomena that do not yet have established linguistic forms. They play a crucial role in language development, enabling speakers to express novel concepts and adapt to evolving cultural and technological changes. Neologisms can arise from several sources: *borrowing:* Words may be borrowed from other languages to fill lexical gaps or represent foreign concepts. For example, "sushi" from Japanese or "entrepreneur" from French.

Word Blending: Neologisms can be created through blending, which involves combining parts of existing words. For example, "smog" from "smoke" and "fog" or "brunch" from "breakfast"

and "lunch." *Coinage:* New words can be created through entirely novel formations. For example, "googling" derived from the name of the search engine Google or "selfie" to describe a self-portrait photograph taken with a smartphone. *Acronyms:* Neologisms can be formed by creating words from the initial letters of a phrase or organization. For example, "NASA" (National Aeronautics and Space Administration) or "SCUBA" (Self-Contained Underwater Breathing Apparatus).

Neologisms allow speakers to articulate emerging concepts or phenomena that lack established vocabulary. For instance, terms like "cyberspace," "blog," or "nanotechnology" were once neologisms representing novel ideas. Neologisms often emerge to describe new technologies and digital innovations. For example, words like "smartphone," "app," or "emoji" were coined to reflect advancements in communication and technology. Neologisms can reflect shifts in societal norms, cultural practices, or social movements. Terms like "woke," "mansplain," or "microaggression" emerged to address evolving social issues and power dynamics.

Neologisms may initially be coined by individuals or small communities, but their acceptance and diffusion depend on factors such as frequency of use, contextual relevance, and societal adoption. Some neologisms attain widespread recognition and enter mainstream usage, while others remain restricted to specific domains, subcultures, or jargon. Neologisms contribute to the constant evolution and adaptation of languages. As societies advance, encounter new experiences, and develop new technologies, the need for linguistic innovation arises. Neologisms allow languages to expand their lexical inventories, accommodating changes in human experiences and knowledge.

It is important to note that not all neologisms become widely accepted or endure in the language. Some neologisms may fade away quickly or have limited usage. Language users and communities play a significant role in determining the adoption and retention of neologisms through their usage and acceptance. For instance, the words like *'e-mail'*; invented trade names such as **xerox, crane** and **Kleenex** are recent addition to the English language that have endured.

Onomatopoeia

Onomatopoeia is the imitate of natural sounds associated with the objects or actions they represent. In other words, onomatopoeic words are formed based on the sound they are describing. Onomatopoeia is a unique and evocative aspect of language that adds vividness and sensory appeal to written and spoken communication. Onomatopoeic words are created through various linguistic devices, including: *phonetic representation:* Words are formed by imitating the sounds they represent. For example: *buzz* 'the sound of a bee', *hiss* 'the sound of a snake', and *chirp* 'the sound of a bird'.

Reduplication: Some onomatopoeic words are formed through the repetition of sounds. For example: tick-tock 'the sound of a clock', ding-dong 'the sound of a bell', and pitter-patter 'the sound of light raindrops'. Onomatopoeic words serve several functions in language: *Sensory Appeal:* Onomatopoeia adds vividness and sensory details to written or spoken communication, allowing readers or listeners to mentally recreate the sounds being described. *Sound Symbolism:* Onomatopoeic words can create a sense of harmony between the sound and meaning of a word, enhancing the overall aesthetic and expressive quality of language.

Expressive Emphasis: Onomatopoeic words can convey emotions, actions, or events more vividly by directly mimicking the associated sounds.

Onomatopoeic words are commonly used in literature, poetry, children's books, comics, and advertising, among other forms of communication. They are particularly effective in describing sounds, animal noises, natural phenomena, and actions that have distinct auditory qualities. It is worth noting that onomatopoeic words may not always perfectly replicate the actual sounds they represent.

Cranberry Morphemes

The concept of "cranberry morphemes" refers to a specific type of morpheme in English that has limited or no independent meaning but is attached to other words for various grammatical or semantic purposes. Cranberry morphemes are unique because they are not productive and cannot be used to create new words or forms. Instead, they are remnants of older words or historical derivations that have become fossilized in the language. Cranberry morphemes, also known as fossilized or non-productive morphemes, do not have a clear and independent meaning on their own. They lack semantic content and cannot stand alone as separate words. Instead, they are only meaningful when combined with other morphemes. They can function as affixes, suffixes, or prefixes, modifying the meaning or form of the base word.

Cranberry morphemes often have historical origins and are remnants of older words or derivational forms that are no longer productive in the language. Over time, these morphemes have lost their independent meaning and become fixed in certain lexical items. Some common examples of cranberry morphemes in English include: "-berry" in "cranberry": The morpheme "-berry" has no independent meaning but is attached to the word "cran" in "cranberry," referring to a specific type of fruit. The "-berry" morpheme is not productive and cannot be used to create new words. "-th" in "length": The morpheme "-th" is attached to the base word "long" to form "length," indicating the quality or state of being long. The "-th" morpheme is non-productive and has limited use outside a small set of words.

Cranberry morphemes are lexicalized and idiosyncratic, meaning they are specific to certain words and cannot be easily generalized or applied to other words in the language. Their usage and meaning have become fixed and cannot be altered or extended. Below we have provided some examples in a Tabular form.

Root	Shrubs	Derived word
cran	berry	cranberry
huckle	berry	huckleberry
elder	berry	elderberry
wax	berry	waxberry
black	berry	blackberry
Strauss	berry	Strauss berry

The analysis of these words has been, to say the least, very controversial in linguistics. A particular school of thought claims that if a word contains elements whose morphological status is ambiguous, as in the case of *cranberry* and *huckleberry*, determining its internal structure can be a tricky business. Although *berry* is clearly a morpheme, one is not sure what to make of *cran-* and *huckle-*. The other school of thought asserts that comparable words like *elderberry* and *waxberry* can be analyzed controversially as noun plus noun. Compounds *-elder* denotes

the *elder tree* which produces *elderberries* and wax is short for *wax-myrtle*, the shrub which produces *waxberries*. However, similar treatment of cranberry and huckleberry is untenable because there is no *cran or huckle tree or shrub that produces cranberry or huckleberry fruits. Here, we treat cran- and huckle- as bound noun root morphemes.

Blinding

The term "blinding" as a word formation process is akin to conversion or zero derivation. Conversion occurs when a word changes its grammatical category without the addition of any affixes. In the case of "blinding," it involves the conversion of an adjective ("blind") into a noun. The adjective "blind" typically describes the inability to see. However, when it undergoes conversion, it acquires a new meaning and functions as a noun. In this case, "blind" is used to refer to an exceptionally exciting, thrilling, or impressive event or experience.

Through the process of conversion, the word "blind" undergoes a semantic shift. Its meaning changes from describing a state or quality (adjective) to referring to an event or experience (noun). This shift is context-dependent and relies on the understanding of the phrase or sentence in which "blinding" is used. Here are a few examples that demonstrate the usage of "blinding" as a noun:

"The concert was a blinding success."

"He described the roller coaster ride as a blinding thrill."

"The team's victory in the championship was a blinding achievement."

Here are some additional examples of conversion in which words change their grammatical category without the addition of affixes: Noun to Verb: "access" (noun) to "access" (verb), "email" (noun) to "email" (verb). Adjective to Noun: "green" (adjective) to "green" (noun), "old" (adjective) to "old" (noun). Verb to Noun: "run" (verb) to "run" (noun), "sing" (verb) to "sing" (noun).

Ajani Akinwumi Lateef (55) explains that in French two existing words are merged to become one and leading to a new word. He proffered the following examples: bon (good) + homme (man) lead to 'bon homme' (a gentleman) or (a nice man), jeune (young) + homme (man) lead to 'jeune homme' (a young man), salle (room) + manger (to eat) lead to 'salle amanger' (dining room).

Because of the influence of the French language on the English language the process is also observed in the English language. Take note that the examples proffered below in English are not compounds, therefore this process is distinct process from compounding. Some examples in English are:

green + house = greenhouse   'a house painted green'
black + board = black board   'a board that is black'
wet   + suit   = wet suit   'a suit that is wet'

Reduplication

In reduplication a word or part of a word is repeated either partially or in its entirety to create a new word. This process often serves various grammatical or semantic functions, such as expressing intensity, plurality, repetition, or creating new lexical items. Reduplication can occur with different types of words, including nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. This repetition can occur with a single syllable, a morpheme, or an entire word. It can express emphasis or intensify the meaning of the base word. Example: "tick-tock," "biggie-wiggie." It can indicate plurality, often used with countable nouns. Example: "cats," "bees." It can convey repetitive or iterative action. Example: "flip-flop," "zigzag" or create new words with distinct meanings from the base word. Example: "boo-boo" (a minor injury), "mumbo jumbo" (meaningless or confusing language).

In partial reduplication, only part of the word is repeated. This includes duplicating specific syllables or morphemes. Example: "chit-chat," "dilly-dally." In total reduplication, the entire word is repeated. Example: "bye-bye," "night-night." Reduplication can occur with various word classes: *Nouns:* reduplication can create plural forms or indicate a specific type or quantity. Example: "people" (plural of "person"), "mama" (mother). *Verbs:* reduplication can indicate repetitive or continuous action. Example: "bounce" (to move up and down) -> "bouncy" (continuously bouncing). *Adjectives:* reduplication can express intensification or emphasize a quality. Example: "hot" -> "hot-hot" (very hot), "big" -> "biggie" (larger or more important). *Adverbs:* reduplication can indicate frequency or intensify the degree of an action. Example: "slow" -> "slowly-slowly" (very slowly), "quick" -> "quick-quick" (very quickly). Reduplication is found in various languages, and the rules and patterns of reduplication can vary. Some languages may have specific reduplication patterns, such as reduplicative infixes or prefixes, that differ from English. Reduplication adds expressiveness to language and allows for creative wordplay. It enables speakers to convey nuanced meanings, create memorable phrases, and engage in rhyming or rhythmic patterns.

Inter-language borrowing

Inter-language borrowing, also known as loanwords or lexical borrowing, is a word formation strategy in English (and other languages) where words are borrowed or adopted from another language and integrated into the borrowing language's vocabulary. This process involves importing words with their original form, meaning, and sometimes pronunciation, and incorporating them into the receiving language's lexicon. Inter-language borrowing can occur due to cultural, historical, technological, or linguistic influences. Inter-language borrowing involves the adoption of words from one language (the donor language) into another language (the borrowing language). In the context of English, loanwords have been borrowed from numerous languages, including Latin, Greek, French, German, Spanish, Arabic, and many others.

Borrowed words are typically introduced into the borrowing language with minimal or no changes to their form and pronunciation. The spelling and pronunciation of loanwords often reflect their original language. However, some adaptations may occur to fit the phonetic patterns and orthographic conventions of the borrowing language. Borrowed words are integrated into the receiving language's vocabulary and often acquire new meanings or expand upon existing ones. They are subject to the borrowing language's semantic and syntactic rules and can undergo further word formation processes within the language.

Loanwords can be categorized based on their degree of adaptation and their role within the borrowing language. There are words borrowed directly from the donor language, retaining their original form and meaning. Examples include "sushi" from Japanese, "entrepreneur" from French, and "yoga" from Sanskrit. *Calques:* These are loan translations, where the borrowing language creates a new word or phrase based on the literal translation of a donor language expression. Examples include "skyscraper" (from "Wolkenkratzer" in German) and "beer garden" (from "Biergarten" in German). *Hybrid Words:* These are formed by combining elements from both the borrowing and donor languages. Examples include "spanglish" (a combination of "Spanish" and "English") and "franglais" (a blend of "French" and "English").

Inter-language borrowing often occurs due to cultural and historical interactions between language communities. Borrowing can be driven by factors such as trade, colonization, migration, religious influence, technological advancements, and cultural exchange. Loanwords often bring new concepts, cultural references, or specialized vocabulary into the borrowing language. They enrich the lexicon and allow for more precise communication in specific domains, such as cuisine, music, art, technology, and science.

Borrowing can take different forms and processes, including *direct borrowing* (word for word), *semantic borrowing* (adoption of meaning), *phonetic borrowing* (adoption of sound patterns), and *morphological borrowing* (adoption of word formation processes). Over time, loanwords may undergo adaptation and nativization within the borrowing language. This can involve changes in pronunciation, spelling, inflection, and even the creation of derived forms. Loanwords that have undergone extensive adaptation may become indistinguishable from native words.

Inter-language borrowing is a significant factor in the evolution and enrichment of languages. It reflects the cultural, social, and technological exchanges between different communities and contributes to the linguistic diversity and development of the borrowing language.

Source Language	*Sample of words*
French	tete-a-tete
Italian	piano
Australia	kangaroo
Dutch	cruise
Japanese	tycoon
Hebrew	camel
Norse	dirt, egg
Indian	jungle
Arabic	almanac

The Kalabari System

Tone

Kalabari has a complex tonal system that plays a crucial role in its phonology and grammar. Tone plays a fundamental role in word formation and can be considered a word formation process. Tone refers to the pitch or the musical quality of a sound, and in many African languages, it carries distinctive meaning and serves as a grammatical or lexical marker. In Kalabari language, tone is used to distinguish between different words or word forms. Changing the tone of a syllable can result in a change in meaning, even if the segmental (consonant and vowel) structure remains the same.

Kalabari has three basic tone types: high (H), low (L), and mid (M). These tones are used to distinguish words and convey meaning. In Kalabari, the primary tone bearing units are syllables. Each syllable in a word is associated with a specific tone. Kalabari words can have various tone patterns, such as H, L, M, HL (high-low), LH (low-high), and HLH (high-low-high). These tone pattern can contribute to the lexical and grammatical meaning of the words. Kalabari exhibits tone sandhi, where the tones of adjacent syllables may undergo changes due to tonal interactions. For example, a high tone may be realized as a mid-tone when followed by another high tone. Kalabari nouns and verbs can be classified into tone classes based on their underlying tonal patterns. These tone classes play a role in the morphology processes, such as noun pluralization and verb conjugation, and serve as a grammatical marker, indicating grammatical features such as tense, mood, aspect, or number. Tones in Kalabari can also contribute to the syntactic structure of the language, such as indicating sentence types (e.g., declarative, interrogative) or marking grammatical distinctions (e.g., focus constructions). The Kalabari tonal system is complex and multifaceted, reflecting the language's rich phonological and grammatical structure. Understanding the tonal system is crucial for the accurate pronunciation and comprehension of Kalabari words and phrases.

We provide some examples of *lexical tone* contrast: /bá/ (high tone) 'fire', /bà/ (low tone) 'egg', /bâ/ (falling tone) 'father'. *Grammatical tone* contrast: /kpó/ (high tone) 'to buy', /kpò/ (low tone) – 'to sell', /sí/ (high tone, short vowel) – 'to know', /síí/ (high tone, long vowel) – 'to be sweet'. *Tone and consonant contrast:* /kpó/ (high tone) 'to buy' versus /gbó/ (high tone) 'to be ripe'. *Tone and noun classes*: /àmá/ (low high) 'woman' (class 1 noun) versus /ámá/ (high high) 'woman' (class 2 plural noun). Tonal minimal pairs: /tá/ (high tone) 'head', /tà/ (low tone) 'to open', and /tâ/ (falling tone) 'to be heavy'. These examples illustrate how tone plays a critical role in word formation in Kalabari, distinguishing lexical, grammatical, and phonological contrasts. The careful use and perception of tones is essential for accurate pronunciation and understanding of Kalabari words and utterances.

Borrowing

Ogunsiji (134) claims that borrowing of words is an occasional use of items from one language in the utterances of another language. There are many borrowed words from other languages, from English, Igbo, and Hausa, that over time have become Kalabari words. Some of these borrowed words have gone through a series of derivations but still maintain their original spelling. In other words, the Kalabari language has strategies for creating new words, one of such is through borrowing. It is vital to state here that no language is free from borrowing. It presupposes some element of cultural contact. Yul-Ifode (132) posits that two or more

languages are said to be in contact if they are used by the same individuals or group of persons alternatively. The individual using the languages is referred to as the '*loci* of the contact …. The language that borrows from the other is said to be the '*recipient*' language, while that from which the item is borrowed is known as the '*donor*' language.

According to Ngulube (137) there are disparate forms of borrowing, such as *loan-word*, *loan-blend*, *calque*, and *loan-translation*. A loan-word is that which 'a recipient language has lifted from a donor language to mean the same object and practice to which it originally referred in the donour language'.

fótò	photo
wíndò	window
pa: lɔ̀	parlour
bofuka	problem
tonjɔ	lantern
dein	peace
ibila	bed

A loan-blend is a hybrid word created by combining morphemes of one or more languages in its creation. The process of forming a word by combining morphemes of different languages is known as hybridization. Example: ikulele-bɛlɛ 'metal pot'. A calque or loan-translation is a word created by using morphemes of a recipient language to represent all the senses in a donour language. Examples are provided below.

sotɔrʊ-bɛ-arʊ	aeroplane
arʊ	boat
kirimenji-arʊ	vehicle
tamuno-firimenjibɔ	angel
fia-fia-tɛmɛ	holy spirit
sii-tɛmɛ	evil spirit

In the Kalabari data here, *sotɔrʊ-bɛ-arʊ* 'aero plane' literary is a boat that flies in the air, while *arʊ* 'boat' is literary a boat that moves on water, *kirimenji-arʊ* 'vehicle' is a boat that moves on land. In the case of *tamuno-firimenjibɔ* 'angel' it is a benevolent and an errand spirit for God.

Affixation

This is a productive strategy that the Kalabari language uses to create new words or expand existing words in its word stock. Affixation is a morphological process that permits the attachment of affixes to the root or base of a word. There are two criteria for the classification of affixes. Affixes are classified predicated on the position in which the affix occurs relative to the location of the root of the word, while the next criteria are the functions that an affix performs when attached to the root of the word. The following types of affixes abound in literature: prefix, suffix, infix, interfix, circumfix, and superfix or suprafix. We want to quickly add that not all these are attested in Kalabari.

Kalabari Inflectional Prefixes

tɔrʊ-manga-manga / *tɛi*-nma	afloat
tɛmɛ-dii / *biobɛngbɔ*-dii	bewitch
obor-isɔ	befool

tɛmɛ-aku	embitter
omon-isɔ	enslave
bibi-kuroma	disagreement

In this data, most Kalabari prefixes are of the structure CV-CV, others are VC-VC, and CCV, although there is an item that has the structure CV-VC-VC-CV. More data needs be collected to validate whether this is a fossilized reduplicated prefix. These sets of prefixes do not result into the formation of new words but rather the extension of the meanings of the lexical items. On the other hand, the extensional prefixes result in the formation of new lexical items in the language, examples are provided below. In the same data, there are two forms: *tɔrʊ*-manga-manga or *tɛi*-nma 'afloat' the first is a descriptive name, while the second item is the original word in the language.

Our corpus suggests that the second item is used only by the older generation, whereas the first item is employed by the younger generation, where it actual means 'floundering'. The second item also has two forms: *tɛmɛ*-dii or *biobɛngbɔ*-dii 'bewitch'. Unlike the first item where the first item is used by the younger generation and the second by the older generation, here the reverse is the case. The younger generation employ *tɛmɛ*-dii while the older generation use *biobɛngbɔ*-dii. We postulate that these are serious indications of language variation surreptitiously coming into Kalabari that might lead to language shift if not checked.

Kalabari Prefixes

Base form	Gloss	Derived form	Gloss
sɛpaka	appear	boi-fa-a	disappear
ɔrutɔn	organize	gala-gala	disorgnize
sɛ-sibi-dabɔ	president	bʊrɔtɛ sɛ-sibio-dabɔ	ex-president
pɔkɔ-gana-gana	audible	pɔ-kɔ-fii / pɔkɔ-lɔkɔ	inaudible
pekele-diki	examine	sin-pekele-diki	re-examine
kpɔ	tie	fii-ma	untie

This Kalabari data is intriguing in that in the presentation of extensional prefixes, as a means of creating new words, there is evidence of complete suppletion as a word formation process in Kalabari. Consider the base forms and the derived forms of these words:

sɛpaka	vs	boi-fa-a
ɔrutɔn	vs	gala-gala
kpɔ	vs	fii-ma

There are no resemblances between the base forms and the derived forms, this is what Ngulube (137) calls complete suppletion. It is also a word formation process in the English language and the examples are:

go	went
is	was
seek	sought
think	thought.

Where the first item is a complete suppletion but the last three are partial suppletion. If we go back to the original data above, the third item in the data is of particular significance phonologically, even though we understand we are not undertaking a phonological analysis in this paper, but we must be cognizant of the fact that the interface between phonology and

morphology often called phono-morphology or morphophonology is a significant area of research.

In the base form *sɛ-sibi-dabɔ* 'president', we observe a voiced alveolar plosive [d] before an open front vowel [a]. On the other hand, in the derived form *bʊrɔtɛ sɛ-sibio-dabɔ* 'ex-president', first, there is an epenthetic open voiced back vowel [o], which we postulated attracts the voiced feature of the alveolar plosive to itself, leaving the voiceless plosive [b] stranded. This is phonological anomaly because between two voiced segments the affected consonant should be voiced. Kalabari is replete with intervocalic voiced consonantal segments. Not only the voiced incongruent, but the place of articulation of the segment should be plosive, because of place harmony in phonological operations. But what the data throws up is fricative. More data needs be examined to account for what is happening in the Kalabari language.

If the third item is daunting, the fourth is even more so. In pɔkɔ-*gana-gana* 'audible', we observed the prefix *pɔ-kɔ-* followed by a reduplicated stem *gana-gana*. In the derived form, *pɔ-kɔ-fii / pɔkɔ-lɔkɔ* 'inaudible' the reduplicated stem disappears completely, replaced by *fii* or in the alternative *lɔ-kɔ-*. this is a serious dilemma for linguistic explanation, our postulate is that there are three bases for the word in Kalabari lexicon: 'gana-gana', 'fii' or 'lɔkɔ'. Gana-gana is onomatopoeic, 'fii' is the indigenous word for negation marker (as evidenced in fii-ma 'untie'), while lɔkɔ is borrowed from neigbouring languages. Again, more data is needed to account for these complications in the morphophonology of Kalabari.

The final item to attract our attention is *kpɔ* 'tie' and fii-ma 'untie'. Again, this is very interesting from a morphological point of view. The base form is *kpɔ* while the derived form is *fii-ma*. Although, we postulated complete suppletion to account for this datum earlier. The origin of '-ma' is particularly intriguing. We suggest that there may be two forms in the base of Kalabari lexicon diachronically, one is *kpɔ*, the other is *ma*, fii being a negative marker, as observed in *pɔ-kɔ-fii*. More research is needed to unravel this morphological anomaly in the Kalabari language.

Kalabari Inflectional Suffixes

yetolu-mabɔ	teacher
jamu-baye	disinfectant
iba-fi / ɔbʊ-fi	betrayal
kan-sira	breakage
kosi-ni	government
ino-ma	exploitation
yeda-wɔbe	trainee
kuru-ru	sadness
gbasi-ya	conformity
kpo-kpo / ikpangi-kpangi	classify

In this data, the third and the last items have alternatives: *iba-fi / ɔbʊ-fi* 'betrayal' and *kpo-kpo / ikpangi-kpangi* 'classify'. It is expected that we account for these data. First, we observed a very strong synchronic occurrence of vowel harmony in the Kalabari language. The vowels [i, a, o] belong to one set, while [ɔ ɛ ʊ] belong to another. Of course, you must discountenance the suffix because the operation of the vowel amity does not propagate beyond the root. In the

second item there is the evidence of reduplication in both alternatives: *kpo-kpo or ikpangi-kpangi*. The question is who uses what and why? Our investigation reveals that the first is the indigenous word, the second is probably a loan word from a neigbouring language. The second item is rarely employed in the language. Some more examples are:

owibɔ	man	owibɔ-la	manhood
ikiabɔ	friend	ikia	friendship
opʊropo	pig	opuropo-tubɔ	piglet

The first item in this data *owibɔ-la* is ambiguous, as it could mean male genital or coming of age for the male child. Our informants are of the view that the context of usage will normally disambiguate the lexical item. The second item that caught our attention *ikiabɔ* 'friend' and *ikia* 'friendship'. This data reveals another word formation process which English equally adopts, commonly called clipping or backformation. The last syllable is deleted to derive the new word *ikia*.

Combination of Morphemes

This is a process where some morphemes are copied in part or wholly to form new words. A typical example is the combination of verbs and adjectives, that is adding a verb to an adjective to form a new word.

Verb	Gloss	Adjective	Formation	New word	
iru	drink	bu	iru + bu	irubu	drinking
yefe	eat	fini-ibim	yefe + ibim	fini-ibim	edible
boro	dirt	wɛrɛ	boro + wɛrɛ	borʊ-taye	dirty
bia	to ripe	wɛrɛ	bia + tɛ	bia-tɛ	ripe

The data above is particularly instructive, in the second example, the verb *yefe* 'eat' is the base, it has an adjectival form '*fini-ibim*' the formation is *yefe-ibim* but the new word formed is *fini-ibim* meaning 'edible'. Under normal circumstances, we expect yefe-fini-ibim to be the new word. How do we account for this anomalous situation. Linguistically, we posit that the phonological process of apocopation is at work. In the word *yefe-fini-ibim*, the first two syllables are deleted leaving *fini-ibim* as the new word. We equally explain this phenomenon from a morphological perspective by positing cliticization a situation whereby the first two syllables are clipped leaving the remaining to form new word. Both the phonological and the morphological processes are adequately well attested in literature.

The next data is even more daunting to explain, the verb *boro* meaning 'dirt' is attached to an adjective *wɛrɛ*. The formation process is *boro + wɛrɛ* and the new word is *borʊ-taye* meaning 'dirty'. What we anticipated is *boro- wɛrɛ* but that was not to be. How do we explain this situation? We posit several possible morphological processes. First, we claim that it is possible for the underlying form of *wɛrɛ to be wete* diachronically. If this postulation is accepted. We now have the source of the [t] and the [e] in 'taye'. How do we account for the [o] changing to [ʊ] in the face of very strong vowel harmony system. Again, we postulate widely though possible sound change compel by the synchronic environment of the language.

Recall that in our second analysis, we posit a possible diachronic *wete* in the adjectival form. If this is accepted, then it is easy to account for the source of '*tɛ*' in the last data above. If *bia* which means 'to ripe', then *bia- + tɛ* gives us *bia-tɛ*, which means 'ripe'. We want to add that

none of these arguments is conclusive, more data need to be source for before any valid conclusion can be reached.

Compounding

In the Kalabari language compounding is an active word formation process. According to Yusuf et al. (78), this is a process of putting together two or more Kalabari words to form a new word. The process could be divided into three subtypes:

Duplication of Nouns

Word		word	new word	English
wari (house)	+	tamuno (God)	tamuno – wari	church
ama (clan)	+	dabo-sun (crown)	amadabo-sun	king's crown
igu (hill)	+	ɔnɔgunɔ (top)	iguɔnɔgunɔ	mountain
wari (house)	+	diri (book)	diridawari	school
Omo (war)	+	alabo (chief)	omoalabo	warrior

Noun and Verb Combinations

Wari (house)	+	namabo (build)	wari-namabɔ	builder
fini (fire)	+	owusɔbɔ (fight)	fini-owusɔbɔ	fire fighter

Noun and Adjective Combinations

tubɔ (child)	+	kalaiye (small)	kalatubo	small child

We note the deletion of *iye* in the word kalaiye 'small'. There is a special case in Kalabari with 'every' (goye). This is reduplicated when it encounters month or year, examine the data below.

akula (month) + goye (every)	akalu-goye-goye	every month
kura (year) + goye (every)	kura-goye-goye	every year

Pronouns with verb

wa (we)	+	so (go)	waso	we go.
wa (we)	+	pikimabote (back)	wapikimabote	we are back.
sibi (head)	+	dabo (rule)	*tomike-sibida	traditional ruler

* We cannot account for the source of tomike in the new word.

Prefix

a	+	biobele (joy)	a-biobele	rejoice
in-	+	ganima (upset)	in-ganima	offend
a	+	seki (dance)	a-seki	to dance
kun (honour)	+	piri (befit)	kun-piri	to honour

Area of Convergence and Divergence

S.P. Corder cited in Soetan (303) contends that when a learner has made an error, the most efficient way to teach him or her the correct form is not simply pointing out the errors to him or her, but by letting him discover the source of the error. This idea informs this paper concerning the area of convergence and divergence in word formation processes in English and Kalabari languages. From the data presented so far, one could see that at the level of *convergence* the word formation process in both languages (English and Kalabari), there are many areas of coming together such as: *Borrowing:* This is a process common to both languages, while English borrows from French, Latin, Arabic, Greek and even African languages and because of that, we have words like tete-a-tete, potato, piano, among others, borrowed into the English language. The Kalabari language similarly borrows from other languages such as Igbo, English, and other languages. Thus, we have words like foto, pa: lɔ̀, and wíndò borrowed from other languages into Kalabari language.

Blinding is a process where words are merged to form a new word. This is a common phenomenon to both English and Kalabari. In the English language, we have cases like 'young' merged with 'man' and becomes 'young man', 'young' merged with 'woman' and becomes young woman. Other examples are green house, wet suits, and black board. Kalabari has similar process: Minji 'water' merged with fun 'salt' this is realized as fuminji 'salt water', sobio 'heaven' merged with kiri 'earth' this is realized has sobio-kiri 'heaven and earth'.

Compounding is another process of word formation common to both languages. It is a process where some morphemes that exist as independent words are merged to form a single word in both languages. Typical examples in both languages are the following: in the English language, we have words like land + lord which becomes 'landlord', vice + president gives us 'vice president', vice + chancellor produces 'vice chancellor', heart + broken gives 'heart broken.' Similarly, in Kalabari, we have wari (house) + tamuno (God) gives tamuno – wari 'church', ama (clan) + dabo-sun (crown) gives amadabo-sun 'king's crown', wari (house) + diri (book) producing diridawari 'school', and omo (war) + alabo (chief) gives omoalabo 'warrior'.

However, at the level of *divergence* as regards the word formation processes in English and Kalabari. While the English language has the following processes of word formation, in the Kalabari language they do not exist. *Acronyms* is a situation in English where words are formed by removing the initial letters of a meaningful expression and firming a word out of the letter. A good example is the case of the following English words: UNESCO: Derived from (United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization), RADAR: Derived from (Radio Detecting and Ranging), LASER: Derived from (Light Amplification by Stimulated Emission of Radiation), UNICEF: This is word taking from the expression (United Nations international children's Emergency Fund), NATO: This word came from the expression (North Atlantic Treaty Organization), ACAS: This emanates from the expression (Advisory Conciliation and Arbitration Services), AIDS: Taken from the expression (Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome), MAMSER: Derived from (Mass Mobilization, Self-Reliance, and Economic Reconstruction), WACE: Derived from (West African Examination Council) UNO: Derived from (United Nations Organization), and OAU: Derived from (Organization for African Unity) Experts posit that when an acronym gains currency in a speech community, it can lose its capital letters as we see in laser and radar.

Clipping is another area of divergence, clipping or abbreviation is process of creating a new word by shortening another word. It involves some element of reduction in the length of a word. a clipped word retains the same meaning and same parts of speech as the longer word from which it was derived. Examples of clipped words in English include *exam* (from examination), *prof.* (from professor), *gas* (from gasoline), *fan* (from fanatic), plane (from aero plane), *lab* (from laboratory), *mimeo* (from mimeograph), *phone* (from telephone), and *math* (from mathematics).

From these examples, it is not predictable how many syllables will be retained in a clipped word. So, the decision as to where to begin or end the cut is arbitrary. Other good examples are the English words: *Liz* taken from Elizabeth, *Rob* taken from Robert, *burger* a short form of hamburger, *photo* an abbreviation of photograph, and *paper* from newspaper.

Back-formation is another area of divergence between English and Kalabari languages. In a normal word-formation process, new words are created by the addition of new elements, so that the derived word is longer than the base or root from which it was created. That is a normal word formation process involves the creation of a complex word from a simple root. But word formation through back formation takes a reversed or unusual order. Hence it has been defined as an abnormal process of creating a shorter word by removing as affix which was thought to be part of the old word. in other words, the longer word was originally in the language before the shorter version. Like clipping, back formation is a reduction process, but unlike clipping it is very systematic in the sense that it follows a pattern, and it involves a change of parts of speech. The next table contains English words formed through back formation.

Back formation in English

Original word	Derived word
television	televise
donation	donate
resurrection	resurrect
hawker	hawk
beggar	beg
peddler	peddle
editor	edit
swindler	swindle
exhibitor	exhibit
Lazer	lase
transcription	transcript
contraception	contracept
cohesion	cohere
burglar	burgle

Neologism is also another area of divergence between English and Kalabari languages when it comes to the process where certain words are put in place to satisfy the need of the speaker at that moment and in the English language, examples of such are: E-mail, and software common in computer terminology. However, in Kalabari rather than adopting a neologism style, Kalabari language resorts to language engineering which according to Capo (1) is that linguistic domain of applied linguistics concerned with the design and implementation of strategies (i.e.,

the conscious and deliberate steps) towards the rehabilitation and optimal utilization of individual languages. It is a mechanism of language planning that recognizes problems and proceeds to engineer solutions to such problems.

Based on language engineering, once a new terminology or word is out, Kalabari linguists move ahead in finding adequate Kalabari terminology or word to replace such foreign terminology or word in the Kalabari language. Hence, we have words like opu-diri-gobo 'professor' and be-ki-na-bu-gwa-bo 'doctor'. The following words further illustrate what goes on in Kalabari language engineering.

ye obokuma ye	(that which makes cold)
ke ye obokuma a ri	(what is used to make things cold)
wake ye obokumaar be ye	(what we use to keep things cold)

An attempt at concision using the criteria for technical discourse produces the term 'y'o bokuma-ye'. Further concision would give 'obokumaye'. Finally, a lexicological application gives us a paradigm for other similar formulations, as can be found below.

obokumaye	refrigerator
ofrimaye	radiator
samunomaye	drier
Gbeeye	grinder

Following from the language engineering above, Kalabari language now has the following:

A lexical model for the term *energy* – irua bu bobekro; irua ida kro

The paradigm is	irua kro	'solar energy'
	feru kro	'wind energy'
	sinbube kro	'ligneous energy'
	kiribube kro	'fossil energy'
	kir ofiri kro	'thermal energy'
	ojudinma kro	'renewable energy'

The word *magnet* is common usage therefore Kalabari language has come up with *yekpapu a ri* and the following paradigm is established.

kpapu	magnet
kpapu-bra	magnetism
kpapu yiyo	magnetic field
ida-kpapu-yo	magnetizing
ida-kpapu tungbali	magnetic ray

Another important lexical item is the word *technology* the Kalabari language has propounded aka na gbolomaaayi. Here the people have evolved as indigenous term for the concept which is the main preoccupation of the argument in this study. But is this term really an imported one or is it simply one which expresses the manifestations of the applications of science to everyday phenomena? Therefore, going by the assumption of the Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis, if the indigenous Kalabari speaker can evolve an indigenous term that will permit him to visualize, in a vivid manner, the effects of the concept of technology, he would be able to participate fully in the inventions of the technological age in which he finds himself.

Of course, it would be easier to borrow words from the contiguous Indo-European language and phonologically integrate them into the indigenous language as is the current practice, e.g.

technology – *tekinoloji*, but this procedure would not produce the desired technological impetus in Kalabari speakers. Rather, it would lead to further lexical paucity that might ultimately retard the much-sought technological progress. In the light of the above, therefore, lexical strategy of special coinage has been adopted by the people to arrive at the following: technology – *akabaayi*. It should be noted that most of the terms here are subject to further review in the language.

Prefixation/ Suffixation is another area of divergence when it comes to the process of word formation in English and Kalabari. In the English language a suffix could be added to an existing independent word and that word becomes another word. when '-s' is added to 'boy' that word changes to 'boys', in Kalabari language, what makes the word 'boy' (oyibɔtubɔ) to change to 'boys' (oyibɔtubɔ awume) is the addition of another lexical item in suffixal position, which is a qualifying adjective in Kalabari, hence when 'awume' (some) is added to boy (oyibɔtubɔ) it becomes a new word oyi-abu-awu-me 'some boys'.

In addition, in the Kalabari language, when the prefix 'o-' is added to existing word like 'owi' (to smoke), it leads to another word like 'o-owi' (smoke). When the '-o' is added to 'firima', it becomes 'ofirima' (shark: fish type) and 'i-' is attached to su 'to roof', it becomes isu 'roof'.

Finally, another area of divergence is the reduplication of a noun in Kalabari usually leads to the formation of a new word. typical example is akula (month) + goye (every), which becomes akalu-goye-goye 'every month'; kura (year) + goye (every), which becomes kura-goye-goye 'every year'.

WORKS CITED

Bloch, Bernerd & George L. Trager. *Outlines of Linguistics Analysis.* Linguistic Society of America. Weaverly Press, INC. Baltimore, Md. 1942.

Cook, Vivian E. *Linguistics and the Second Language Acquisition.* New York: St Martin's Press. 1993.

Corder, Steven Pit. *Introducing Applied Linguistics.* Publisher: Penguin Books. 1975.

Guzman, Videa P. De. 'Syntactic Deviation of Tagalog Verbs' in *Language Arts and Disciplines,* Issues 16, Pages 413. University Press of Hawai.

Lado, Robert. 'Linguistics Across Cultures' in *Applied Linguistics, for Language Teachers.* University of Michigan Press; Ann Arbor. 1957.

Lateef, Ajani Akinwumi. 'A Contrastive Analysis of Word Formation Processes in French and Yoruba: Area of Convergence and Divergence' in *International Journal of Current Research in the Humanities (IJCRH)* No. 26. 2022.

Hull, Geoffrey. *The Linguistic Unity of Northern Italy and Rhaetia.* Doctoral Thesis, western Sydney University, MacArthur. 1982.

Ngulube, Isaac E. *A Walk Through the Writing Process.* Ulamba Publishers, Port Harcourt. 2017.

Ngulube, Isaac E. *The Eleme Phonology,* Landmark Series Publications, Published by the Linguistics Association of Nigeria. 2013.

Ngulube, Isaac E. *Grammar, Usage and Mechanics*: *A cross-curricular Approach.* Sharex Publishers, Port Harcourt, 2019.

Ogunsiji, Opoola A. & Olasun Kanmi. *Functional English for Schools and colleges*. Ibadan: Hope Publication.

Yul-Ifode, Shirley. An Introduction to Language in History and Society. Aba: National Institute for Nigerian Languages. 2001.