MORPHOLOGICAL OPERATIONS IN ANNANG

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ABSTRACT: *The study aimed at identifying and examining the various morphological operations that take place in the formation of words in Anaang language. Some chiefs of Anaang and youths who live in the rural areas of Anaang and who understand English were interviewed and their responses recorded. A 1,500 word list, interviews and a set of test questions covering the subject matter, personal contacts and observations as a native speaker of Anaang were used to gather data for the study. The theory of lexical morphology was adopted in the analysis of the data. From the study, two major morphological operations were identified. These are: Affixation and Compounding. In affixation, prefixes, suffixes, and suprafixes were identified. In compounding, noun + noun and noun + adjectives structures were identified. From the findings, the research showed the manner of realisation and morphological characteristics of each of the processes. It also showed various ways of generating new word forms in Anaang. It was recommended that further studies should be carried out in the Anaang language and children as well as youths be encouraged to speak the language to boost scholarship and prevent the extinction of Anaang language.*

KEY WORDS: affixation, Anaang, compounding, derivation, inflection, morphology

INTRODUCTION

Language is a phenomenon which is open to variations. These variations most times come about as a result of contacts made by speakers of different linguistic backgrounds. However, at other times, they introduce new lexical items into the vocabulary of a language through different morphological processes. Morphology, according to Agbedo, (2000) is the study of 'word forms'. It studies the internal structure of words and the processes of how words are formed. Even though morphology did not emerge as a distinct sub-branch of linguistics until the nineteenth century, it played a very significant role in the reconstruction of Indo-European languages. This, therefore, means that the study of morphology was very relevant and important before the nineteenth century. In 1816, according to Katamba and Stonham (2006), Franz Bopp published pieces of evidence which were based on comparison of the grammatical endings of words in some languages and between 1819 and 1837, Bopps contemporary, Jacobs Grimm published his classic work in which he made a thorough analytical comparison of sound systems and word-formation patterns.

The study of morphology offers important insights into how language works, revealing the need for different categories of words, the presence of the internal structure of words, and the existence of

53

processes that create and modify words in many ways. Words carry meaning whereas phonemes and syllables are simply elements of sound. And unlike sentences, which are constructed as needed and then discarded; words are permanently stored in a speaker's mental dictionary or lexicon. Words are fundamental building blocks of communication. Therefore, the study of word structure is very important in all languages, including Anaang. There are processes involved in expanding the lexicon of a language by making new word forms. This is done to express new meanings or to express existing meanings. However, these morphological operations constantly expand and enrich the vocabulary of the language as new meanings emerge in the light of continuous changes which take place in society.

The aspect of morphology which is concerned with variations in word formation that take place in languages come under what is described as morphological operations. It is the operations of these changes in Anaang that is the subject of our study. The morphological structure of Anaang is that of concatenative morphology. Lexical structures are concatenated in a linear form. Words are formed with strings of elements in a linear manner. Example, affixation, compounding and reduplication. Also, morphemes are represented by segments and some suprasegmentals. However, there are cases where a particular function or meaning is not always expressed by sequential placement of morphemes or suprasegmental features of tones but by internal modifications. Example, fèghé 'run'(sg) → èfèèñé → 'run'(Pl), dàkká 'move away'(sg) → èdààñá 'move away'(Pl).

Morphological operations in Anaang identified and analysed in this research are affixations, compounding and reduplication. However, there are other processes such as borrowing, modification, etc, but the concentration is on the three mentioned above. This study will go a long way in the continuous description and development of the language.

This work is designed to identify and examine the major morphological operations which are involved in the creation of words in the Anaang language. It will also examine different words combined to create and expand the lexicon of the language.

Research questions
The following research questions would be answered in the course of our study:
   i.   What are the morphological operations in Anaang lexical structures?
   ii. How are lexemes formed from the existing ones?
   iii. What are the rules that govern the formation of words in Anaang?

LITERATURE REVIEW

Scholars have written extensively on morphological studies and its operations in the formation of new words in the different languages of the world. We therefore examine the views of those scholars on issues of morphology and related topics.

 Morphology
The term "morphology" is not new in the literature and does not really need to be defined here. However, we need to know that it refers to the part of grammar that is concerned with words and word formation. Aronoff and Fudeman (2011) looked at its etymology and attributed its origin to the German

poet, novelist, playwright and philosopher Johann Wolfgang von Goethe (1749 – 1832), who coined the name *morphology* in a biological context. In biology, morphology is said to be the study of form and structure of organisms. In geology, it is said to mean the study of the configuration and evolution of land forms. But in linguistics, morphology refers to the mental system involved in word creation or to the branch of linguistics that deals with words, their structure and how they are formed. Matthews (1974) adds that morphology is a Greek-based parallel to the German *Formenlehre* (the 'study of forms'). What is clear is that although the term *morphology* was originally used in biology, it has been used since the middle of the nineteenth century, and has also been used to describe that type of investigation which analyses all those basic 'elements' of form which are used in a language.

Haspelmath, and Sims (2010) assert that morphology is both the oldest and one of the youngest sub disciplines of grammar. It is the oldest because, according to them, the first linguists were primarily morphologists. The earliest extant grammatical texts are well-structured lists of morphological forms of Sumerian words, which are attested on clay tablets from Ancient Mesopotamia and date from around 1600BCE.

Morphology was said to be the 'youngest' sub-discipline of grammar because, it was only in the second half of the nineteenth century that the term morphology was invented in Linguistics and became current. Earlier, there was no need for a special name for the structure of words. It was incorporated into grammar. But the term phonology was for sound and syntax for sentences.
In the study of Anagbogu, Mbah & Eme (2001), it is indicated that morphology is a level of grammar that studies the ways morphemes organise themselves to form words.

According to Crystal (1997) morphology is a branch of grammar that studies the structure of words. In other words, it is a part of linguistic analysis that studies the internal structure of words.
The different morphological operations are affixation, compounding and reduplication.

Affixation
According to Agbedo (2000) affixation is a word formation process that involves the addition of a phoneme or group of phonemes to a root or stem to modify, extend or change the meaning or the function of the word. An affix is referred to a speech sound or group of speech sounds which is affixed to a word and which changes the meaning or function of the word to which it is affixed.

Crystal, (2008) states that affixation is a morphological process whereby grammatical or lexical information is added to a stem.
Aronoff, and Fudeman, (2011) observe that one distinction that has come out of work that pairs morphology and phonology is between primary and secondary affixes. In English, the distinction is intimately connected with language history. Primary affixes in English are often of Latin-Romance origin while secondary affixes are often of native Germanic origin. Below are examples of words ending with –an, a primary affix and the ones ending with –ism, a secondary affix as recorded by Kiparsky (1983) in Aronoff and Fudeman (2011).

(15)	a.	mendel	→	mendelian
	b.	Shakespeare	→	Shakespearian
	c.	grammar	→	grammarian

55

Affixation can thus be said to be a collective term for the types of formation that can be used only when added to another morpheme (root). This morphological process is an important phenomenon in many languages of the world including Anaang. In classifying affixes, we have the following types: prefix, suffix, infix, interfix, circumfix and superfix or suprafix.

Compounding

Fakoye (2004) asserts that compounding is joining two or more words into one new word. It takes place when two or more free forms (words) combine to form a morphological unit. Compounding is captured by Adams (1973) as the combination of two free words or words that have an otherwise independent existence. A word formed in this way is known as compound. Compounding is a very productive morphological process in most languages. It does not only involve stringing together of words from a part of speech, words from different word classes can also be combined to form compounds. According to Matthews (1997) compounding is an alternative term for the process of forming compounds that are themselves words. Compounding is a morphological operation that has two or more lexical items that can stand alone and have separate meaning but different meaning entirely when combined together. Spencer (1992) observes that in many respects compounding represents the interface between morphology and syntax par excellence. This is particularly true of synthetic compounds. In syntax, words are cocantenated to form phrases and in compounding, words are also concantenated to form other words. Compound words can be formed with elements from any word class.

Akmajian et al (2004) add that there are also compounds that involve combining morphologically complex words. Looking at synthetic (or verbal) compounds: those two-word English compounds in which the second word is deverbal (derived from a verb).

Theoretical framework

The theoretical framework adopted in this research is lexical morphology. Lexical morphology is a theoretical model first proposed in Pesetsky (1979) and elaborated in Kiparsky (1982). Lexical morphology (also known as lexical phonology), has in common word formation rules and phonological rules that apply in a single component of the grammar, viz the lexicon.

Lexical morphology is an approach to phonology that accounts for the interactions of morphology and phonology in the word building process. The lexicon plays a central productive role in the theory. It consists of ordered levels, which are the domain for certain phonological or morphological processes. Katamba and Stonham (2006) state that lexical morphology provides us with the means of describing a number of morphological phenomena in an illuminating manner, with the word rather than the morpheme playing a pivotal role. The major claim made by proponents of this theory is that there is a symbiotic relationship between the rules that build the morphological structure of a word and the phonological rules responsible for the way a word is pronounced.

Katamba and Stonham (2006) add that lexical morphology deals with the difference in the behaviour of affixes in terms of level ordering (i.e. the ordering of strata). It is proposed that affixes are added at different strata in the lexicon. Each stratum of the lexicon has associated with it a set of morphological rules that do the word building.

Derivation in lexical morphology

Word formation processes are reflected by the ordering of strata in the lexicon. Katamba and Stonham (2006) assert that primary affixes eg-*ic* (in phonemic) ie non-neutral are attached first at stratum 1. But the process of compounding, as well as the attachment of secondary affixes, eg-*ly*as in widely, ie neutral happens at stratum 2. In other words stratum 1 takes the root as the base to which primary or non-neutral affixes are attached while stratum 2 takes the root plus stratum 1 affixes as its input. Consequently, strata in the lexicon are ordered in such a way that stratum 1 affixes are closer to the root of the word while the neutral ie stratum 2 are added as an outer layer.

(*Example by* Kiparsky, 1983, p.3 *in* Katamba & Stonham *Inflection in lexical morphology)*

Inflections in lexical morphology

Inflection in lexical morphology concerns with the sporadity of the lexicon. Katamba observes that most stratum 1 inflectional morphology consists of either erratic morphemes whose behaviour is largely unpredictable orinflectional processes that were once full of vitality but have long since atrophied orborrowed affixes which came in with a few words borrowed from foreign languages and are largely restricted to those loan words.

Much of the irregular inflections are remnant of patterns that obtained (sometimes quite regularly) at an earlier historical period. This will be illustrated with ablaut.

According to Crystal (2008), ablaut in historical linguistics is the relationship between verb forms, based on variations in the root vowel, as in *sing, sang, sung.* Katamba & Stonham (2006) state that the term ablaut refers to the change in a root vowel which indicates a change in grammatical function. Example, [ai] may alternate with [∂u] to mark a change from present tense to past tense as in ride [raid] (present tense) and rode [r∂u∂] (past tense).

Some nouns umlaut for plural formation at the level of stratum1

METHODOLOGY

The study is a survey which carefully selected Anaang native speakers to provide information for the study. The selected informants include the following:

5 chiefs/elders of Anaang who have lived in the community for about 50 – 80 years.

10 males and 10 females who are native speakers and are knowledgeable in English and Anaang.

10 youths who live in the rural area of Anaang. In all, 35 subjects are used to gather information for this study.The intuitive knowledge of the researcher as a native speaker is also of immense contribution to the collection and analysis of the data.

The research instrument used in the collection of the data includes Word List of 1500 items; The Word List contains vocabulary items including local settings, parts of the body, kinship terms, plants, animals, numerals, colours, verbs, nouns, adjectives and pronouns. The list of vocabulary items was translated by the informants from English to Anaang language. Twenty-four sample sentences to cut across all the morphological processes was also used. The uneducated informants were orally interviewed and recorded with tape recorder.

Data presentation, analysis and discussion of findings

The morphological operations that we are concerned with in Anaang are: affixation and compounding
In affixation, three kinds of affixation are found and analysed. They are: prefixation, suffixation and suprafixation.
In compounding, areas of exploration are noun + noun derivation, and adjective + noun derivation.

Affixation

In Anaang, affixation is a very productive morphological operation. Inflections as well as derivations are represented in the language. Affixes are attached to verbs (except for the suprasegmentals) and sometimes different word classes are derived. Example, nouns can also be derived from verbs. For instance, *nní-* is a bound morpheme that is combined with a verb such as *tàá* -"chew" to form a noun *nnítàá* meaning "meat". Also, the bound morpheme *–ñó* combined with the verb *èsíó* "remove" to result in a plural verb *èsíóñó.*

Examples are represented with orthographic symbols.

The internal structure of the words can be represented in a tree diagram as shown in Figure 1.

In Anaang, several affixes – prefixes and suffixes can occur in a sequence in such a way that a whole sentence consist in one word. For instance, ikaiyake → i-ka-iya-ke "they did not go" or ikisidaghada → i-ki-si-da-gha-da 'he had not been standing'. This is because Anaang is an agglutinating language.

Our data is presented below in the four areas of affixation in Anaang.

Prefixation

Prefixation is a morphological operation whereby an affix is added before a root. Inflectional and derivational prefixes shall be analysed.

Inflectional prefixes

In Anaang, prefixes can be attached to the root of a word to inflect for person, tense, negation and number

Person:

In Anaang, prefixation can be categorised to indicate person (PER). Person, according to Crystal (2008) is a category used in grammatical description to indicate the number and nature of the participants in a situation. Three persons have been traditionally distinguished, viz, first person (the speaker) –singular or plural, second person (the person being addressed)-singular or plural and third person (the object of discourse)-singular or plural.
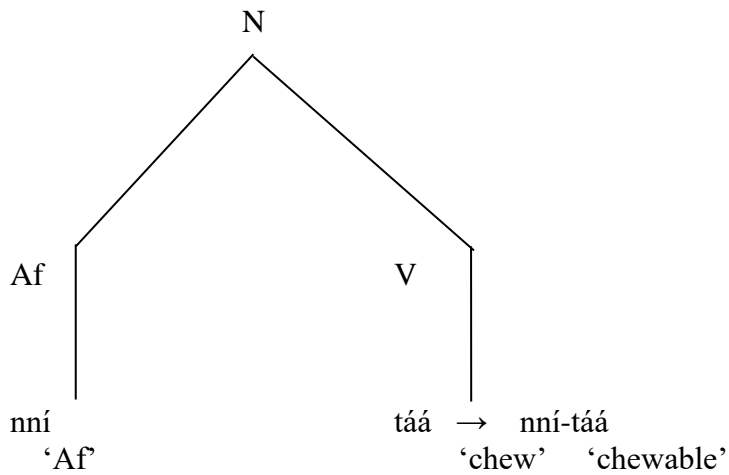
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                 N
                /\
               /  \
              /    \
             /      \
            /        \
          Af          V

         nní         táá  →  nní-táá
          'Af'            'chew'  'chewable'
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FIG.1a Affixation of a tree diagram   **FIG.1b**

```
            V                                    N
           /\                                   /\
          /  \                                 /  \
         /    \                               /    \
        V      Af                           Af      V

      èsíó      ñó  →  èsíóñó                 ú-       nyíé  →  únyíé
    'remove'   'pl'  'remove Pl'       'Af'  'own'   'owner'
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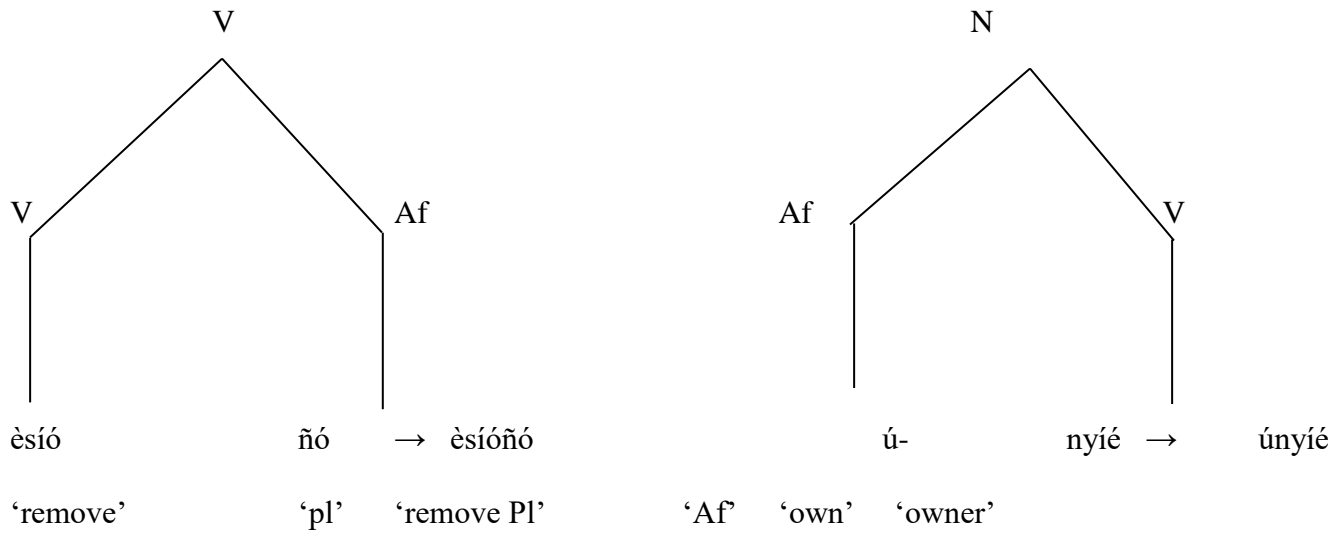
Examples are as below:

1sg (first person singular)   **1st (first person plural)**

a. ń -kàá   -   'I go'
    1st

b. ń -nék   -   'I dance'

1sg
c. ḿ - fèghé   -   'I run'
    1sg

2sg (second person singular)

    a.   ǎ - kàá   'you have gone'
          2sg

    b.   ǎ - nék   'you dance'
          2sg

    c.   ǎ - fèghé   'you run'
          2sg

3sg (third person singular)

    a.   ǎ - kàá   'she has gone'
          3sg

    b.   ǎ - nék   'she dances'
          3sg

    c.   ǎ -fèghé   'she runs'
          3sg

1pl (first person plural)

    a.   ǐ - kàá   -   'we have gone'
          1pl

    b.   ǐ - nék   -   'we dance'
          1pl

    c.   ǐ - fèghé   -   'we run'
          1pl

2pl (second person plural)

    a.   ě - kàìyá   -   'you go'
          2pl

    b.   ě - nék   -   'you dance'
          2pl

    c.   ě - fèèñé   -   'you run'
          2pl

3pl (third person plural)

    a.   é - kàìyá   'they have gone'
          3pl

    b.   é - nék   'they have danced'
          3pl

    c.   é - fééñé   'they run'
          3pl

As shown above, the personal markers take the form of a vowel for all persons except the first person singular which takes the form of a nasal. The prefixes which signal 1st per sg are m-, n- and ñ-. m-occurs before bilabial stop, labiodentals fricative and labiovelar stop. n- occurs before alveolar nasal and alveolar stop. ñ- occurs before velar stop. Lengthened à- and á- indicate the presence of second and third person singular respectively. Also, lengthened ì-, and é- signal first and third person plural respectively, and é- indicate second person plural.

Prefixation can also be categorised to indicate Tense (TNS) such as present, past and future tense. Examples as follows:

Tense

Present tense (pres)

(74)a.   mmé - dúó   -   'I fall'
        Pres

c.   n - díá -   'I eat'
        pres

    d.   ǐ – bàd   -   'we are counting '
        pres

Past tense (pst)

(75)a. mmǎ - dùó   -'I fell'
        Pst

    c.   àmǎ - gwèd   -   'you wrote'
pst

    d.   ìmǎ - íbàd-   'we counted'
        pst

Future tense

    a.   nnâ-dùó   'I will fall'

    b.   nnâ- sàñá   'I will walk'

It is clear from the above that mé-, màá- and nnâ- are markers of tense in Anaang.

Negation

Another grammatical category which is marked by prefixes in Anaang is negation (Neg). This is illustrated in the following examples:

a.   kú - tíá   -   'don't kick'
    Neg

b.   kú - míá   -   'don't bit'
    Neg

From the above examples, we could observe that the prefix (ku-) is used to mark negation when it is added to an imperative verb.

Number

The vowel e- can be prefixed to a verb in Anaang to indicate plurality. The addition of the prefix e- indicates giving instruction or command to many people. It is illustrated as follows:

Data III

(78)	a.	díá	sg	è-díá	Pl	'Eat'
	b.	wóñ	sg	è-wóñ	Pl	'Drink'
	c.	síné	sg	è-sííné	Pl	'Wear'

From the above, it is observed that e- is a plural marker in Anaang. It indicates a situation where many participants are being addressed. The vowel in the mid word is doubled or lengthened when the participants or addressees are to act repeatedly (i.e more than one time).

There are also instances of internal modification of some words in Anaang when the plural marker e- is prefixed. Examples are as follows:

(79)	a.	kòppó	sg	→	è-kòòmó	Pl	'Unhang'
	b.	fèghé	sg	→	è-fèèñé	Pl	'Run'

From the above data, it is obvious that e- is a plural marker in Anaang which is used to refer to many people. Plural form of the verb is derived by doubling the vowel of the root. Sometimes the plural verb is derived not just doubling the vowel of the root but by combining this doubling with nasalization of the final vowel or double consonant and suffixation. The consonants on the stricture scale are weakened when expressing plurality. The process is known as consonant weakening

Derivational prefixes

Derivational affixes change the part of speech or alter the meaning of the word in which it is attached. In Anaang, nouns can be derived from verbs through this process as in the following examples:

61

Data IV

	Verb (root)		**noun (derivation)**	
(80)a.	táá	'chew'	nní-tá	'chewable'
e.	kpá	'die'	m-kpá	'death'
f.	lòk	'harvest'	í-lòk	'harvest'
g.	tìé	'sit down'	ì-tìé	'seat'
h.	nyíé	'own it'	ú-nyíé	'owner'
i.	chópọ́	'be fast'	ú-chópọ́	'speed'
j.	má	'love'	à-má	'lover'

We can see from the above examples that nouns are derived from certain verbs by attaching prefixes to them.

Suffixation

Suffixation is the process of adding a suffix after the base or root of a word. A suffix is an affix that comes after the form to which it is added. Suffixes can be affixed to verbs to extend their grammatical meanings by ways of negation, repetition, affirmation and sometimes plurality. We shall however, look at negation and plurality as they occur in the Anaang language

Examples of negative suffixes in Anaang

Data V

(81)a.	ḿbát – tá	-	'I am not counting'
	Neg		
b.	ḿféghé – ké	-	'I am not running'
	Neg		
d.	ńtìè - ghé	-	'I am not sitting'
	Neg		
e.	ńyàm-má	-	'I am not selling'
	Neg		
h.	ńka´- ghá	-	'I am not going'
	Neg		

In Anaang, suffixation is derived with the prefixation of a corresponding morpheme to give it the appropriate meaning.

Negative suffixes in Anaang have many forms which are phonologically conditioned by the root of the verb. Some of the variant forms of Anaang suffixes are: (-ké, -ghé, -má, -ghá, -tá, etc). The forms depend on the category of syllable structure of the root word which may be CVC, CV or CVCV. From the above data, it is observed that –ké is suffixed to CVCV verbs, -tá, -ghé and -má are suffixed to CVC verbs, then –ghá to CV verbs.

Number in suffixation

Plural verbs are not derived only by prefixation, but can also be derived by doubling the vowel and attaching a suffix to the root.

Examples as follows:

Data VI

(82)	a.	síó	sg	-	èsíó-ñó	Pl	'remove'
	b.	kǎ	sg	-	èkǎ-iyā	Pl	'go'
	c.	dùó	sg	-	èdùó-ññó	Pl	'fall'
	d.	dúọ́k	sg	-	èdúó-ñọ́	Pl	'pour'

Suprafixation or Superfixation

Ndimele, (2003) states that suprafix is an affix which is marked over the syllables that form part of a root. Suprafixes are morphemes because they carry some element of meaning. A stress or tone mark can cause a difference in meaning between two words that are segmentally similar. In Anaang, tones can also be used to distinguish a statement from a question.

Examples are as follows in Anaang language

Data VIII

	a.	ábóñ	-	'mosquitoe'
	b.	âbòñ	-	'he has shouted'
	c.	ăbóñ	-	'have you shouted?'
	d.	ábòñ	-	'cane'
(85)	a.	ákwók	-	'bee'
	b.	âkwòk	-	'has swept'

c.	àkwòk	-	'grater'
d.	ăkwók	-	'have you swept?'

(86)

a.	ékpád	-	'trunk'
b.	èkpàd	-	'bag'
c.	èkpád	-	'shift'
d.	ěkpád	-	'have you shifted it?'

(87)

a.	úbóng	-	'royalty'
b.	ùbŏng	-	'pumpkin'
c.	ŭbóng	-	'who is shouting your name?'
d.	úbŏng	-	'is she shouting your name?'
e.	ûbòng	-	'the rain has dropped on you'

(88)

a.	èsìò	-	'pot'
b.	ěsíó	-	'has it been removed?'
c.	èsíó	-	'remove it'
d.	ésìò	-	'it has been removed'

It has been observed that suprafix in Anaang is not represented by a segment of consonant or vowel but by a prosodic feature of tone. It is observed also from the above data that the alteration of tones on the lexical items causes new words with different meanings.

Compounding

Compounding is a process of joining two or more formerly independent roots to form a single word. Different word classes can be joined together to form a compound. In Anaang, the resulting compound word is nouns and adjectives

Compounding is seen in Anaang as follows:

Noun plus Noun Compounding

Noun compounds are derived by joining two words or morphemes of the noun phrases to provide a single meaning. This could be illustrated in the following data:

DATA IX

	Noun	+	Noun		Derived Word	Class
(92)	a. èkpàd	+	ǹwèd	→	èkpàdńwéd	Noun
	'bag'		'book'		'school bag'	
	b. ítíád	+	ǹwèd	→	ítíádńwéd	Noun
	'stone'		'book'		'chalkboard'	
	c. ítíád	+	údì	→	ítíárúdì	Noun

Adjective plus noun compounding

Adjectives are joined to nouns to derive compound words. Examples are as follows:

DATA X

	Adjective	plus	Noun		Derived Word	
(93)	a. ètòk	+	íkwà	→	ètòghíkwà	N
	'small'		'knife'		'knife	
	b. àfíá	+	àfòñ	→	àfiáfòñ	N
	'white'		'cloth'		'white cloth'	
	c. èkámmá	+	ágwó	→	ékámmágwò	N
	'big'		'person'		'elderly'	

With these examples, it is seen that two free forms occur independently without any deletion. It can also be seen that an adjective can be added to a noun to form a compound word in Anaang language.

Tree diagrams are used to indicate the formal head of a compound. The formal head determines for each compound what word class or inflectional class it belongs.
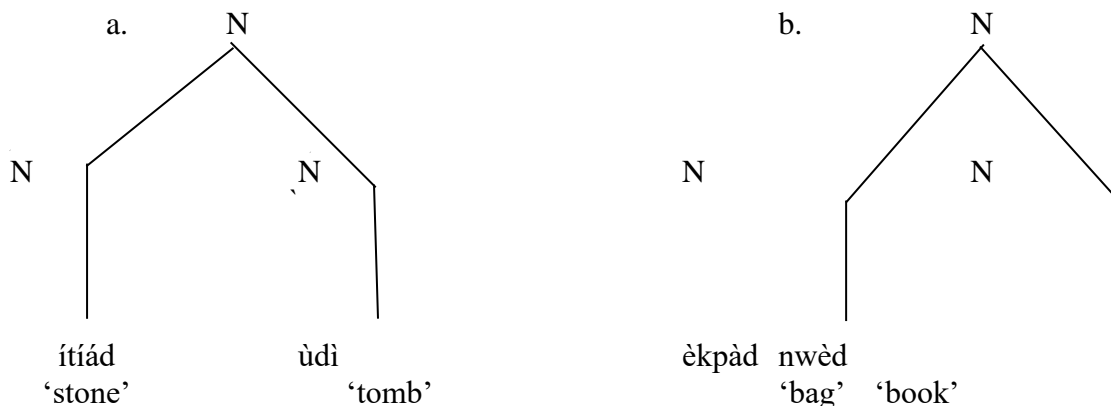

Figure 2 Hierarchical structures of compounds

Compounds can also be combined with other words to create larger compounds. Haspelmath and Sims (2011) note that, tree representations of compounds are particularly useful when a compound consists of members that are compounds themselves, because in that case several different hierarchical structures are possible.

Tree diagrams are used to indicate the formal head of a compound. The formal head determines for each compound what word class or inflectional class it belongs. The formal heads of each of the above compounds is indicated in Tree a which is- ùdì and Tree b - èkpàd,

CONCLUSION

Users of language need new words/expressions to represent new objects or new concepts. For instance, two separate words with little or no semantic relation between the two parts are combined to express an idea different from what the individual words signifies, as in the process of compounding. In Anaang, énàñ means 'cow' while úkwàk means 'iron', combining the two words, the result is énàñúkwàk meaning 'bicycle'.

At other times, new words and concepts are derived through affixation. These processes expand the set of available words in Anaang and other languages.

In our study, we were able to outline and analyse two different morphological operations which are used to form simple and complex words in Anaang. These words get established as lexical norms in the language. That is, words used by more than one native speaker, used on different occasions and the language users recognise the words when they come across them.

We, therefore, consider this research a contribution to the pool of linguistic knowledge and to the ultimate development of Anaang. It is also a major step taken to provide information on formation of words which enrich the language and preserves its culture. It is our hope that these studies will contribute to the existing literature, boost scholarship and serve as a reference point to other researchers.

Recommendations
From our study and discussion, we recommend the following for the future development of the Anaang language:
➢ That more research be carried out in areas of Anaang language.
➢ That an enlarged group of Anaang scholars be set up to put together different works on Anaang (published and unpublished) to develop a curriculum, syllabus, text books and put forward a proposal for Anaang to be taught in primary and secondary schools.
➢ Students of Linguistics who are Anaang native speakers should endeavour to create awareness by organising seminars/workshops to students and pupils of Anaang origin on the need to speak and communicate in the language.

All these recommendations will help to preserve our cultural artifacts and practices and expose the rich features of the language to the whole world and prevents it from being extinct.

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