

## Affixation in Hausa and Kambari Languages

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### Abstract

This article investigates the operation affixes in the Hausa and Kambari languages. Affixes are means of changing the base or root of a word to adjust its meaning and fit into different syntactic and semantic contexts. In this article, I analyse the functions of affixes in these languages (Hausa and Kambari) with a view to bringing out their rich and interesting affixal elements basically from the account of derivational morphology which is concerned with forming new lexemes, i.e. words that differ either in syntactic or semantic category from their bases, to be extremely productive in the languages under discussion. The qualitative research method was employed in data collection and analysis. Essentially, the focus has to do with the determination of universal properties of human languages and parametric variations cross-linguistically.

**Keywords:** Derivational Morphology; Affixation; Kambari; Hausa

### Introduction

This article examines affixation as one of the word formation processes in Hausa and Kambari languages with a view to finding out how words are inflected and derived in Hausa and Kambari. Morphology is central to the study of language, because it is concerned with the internal structure of words. Morphology involves word formation processes which include; affixation, compounding, blending, clipping, etc. Affixation is a morphological process of attaching affixes to the base word in order to form new words or simply to perform grammatical functions such as; indicators of verb, tense, superlative degree, number, formation of nouns, adjectives and verbs.

The paper is essentially to identify and analyse the lexical and grammatical function of words found in Hausa and Kambari affixes; thereby providing insights into the way affixes are used in the languages under discussion to inflect or derive the word forms.

Semantic analysis of a given language should show not only what meaning a particular word or sentence has in its ordinary usage but also other meanings when a word is in company of other word-forms in a particular word order. Bloomfield (1933) refers to these groups of written words as symbolic words which have a system of initial and final root forming morphemes of vague signification. Phonoesthetic words are speech sounds which in themselves suggest the meaning; for instance, one part often the initial consonant cluster or the last vowel gives an indication of meaning. We can however use the same ascension to analyse Hausa and Kambari affixes, as certain words may be derived by addition of suffixes. This paper is an attempt to closely examine affixes in Hausa and Kambari, with a view to describing and analysing its lexical and grammatical functions.

Hausa language is rich in literature while the literature of Kambari language cannot be compared to that of Hausa because only few scholars delve into research of the language. The languages have large vocabularies which are sometime formed through different morphological processes, and affixation is one of the processes involved. Affixation is a common and productive word formation process in language and it is very productive in the languages under study. Affixes perform both lexical and grammatical functions in the languages, thereby contributing to the study of the languages. Affixes are bound morphemes that have only grammatical function but have no semantic content as unit of meaning.

The core aim of the paper is to examine and describe the lexical and grammatical function of affixes in Hausa and Kambari with a view to analysing the word formation processes in the languages, looking at how Hausa and Kambari affixes modify or inflect word form semantically and revisiting the syntactic element found in Hausa and Kambari affixes such as gender (though Kambari lacks gender distinction), number, tense and aspect with a view to ascertaining whether or not some of these syntactic elements bear some semantic interpretation. This paper is structured along the following lines: Section 1 contains the Introduction. A concise overview of affixes is presented in Section 2. Section 3 deals with the analysis of the affixes in Hausa and Kambari. Conclusion and direction for future research is the subject matter of section 4.

## **Literature Review**

Language is a systematic means of communicating ideas or feelings by the use of conventional symbols. Two mainstream paradigms undertake language description. The first paradigm is labelled formalist because it focuses on the formal aspects of language. It considers language as a system that should be studied in isolation from both meaning and cognitive processes. It is concerned with the formal relationships between linguistic elements, independent of the meanings they hold. This paradigm is associated with the theory of Generative Grammar (Chomsky, 1957, 1965), which describes language only with reference to formal rules. The second paradigm is labelled functionalist because it underlines the functional aspects of language. It considers language as a tool of communication, where language structure reflects what people use language for. It focuses on the form–meaning relationships between linguistic elements. This paradigm is associated with the theory of Cognitive Grammar, which is symbolic in nature. It takes the form, plus meaning as being fundamental. In this paper, we explain how affixes are understood, interpreted and related to other elements in word form in Hausa and Kambari.

## **Morphology**

On Hausa morphology, there is a rich amount of literature. A large number of works such as Junju (1980), Newman (2000), Abubakar (2001), Mamman (2012) among others, serve as introduction to the basic notions used in morphology. However, Kambari lacks substantive literature that discusses any aspect of morphology and semantics, to the best of the researcher’s knowledge. There is no doubt that topics such as distinction between derivational and inflectional affixation, the relation between tone and affixation among others have been extensively covered by Hausa linguists (c.f Parson, 1960), Newman (1973), Galadanci (1976) and Abubakar (2001). However, when it comes to the relationship between morphology and semantics, very little literature is available. Notable works are those of Ndimele (1999), Bature (1991), among others. Majority of these works have been conducted from a descriptive point of view. A considerable number of studies deal with the productivity of English affixes conducting corpus-based analyses on aspects of derivation and offer detailed surveys of English affixes.

The smallest units of language that have a meaning or a grammatical function and words or parts of words are called morphemes. In writing, individual morphemes are usually represented by their graphic form, or spelling; e.g., -es, -er, un-, re-; or by their graphic

forms between parenthesis, (-); e.g., (-es), (-er), (un-), (re-). The branch of linguistics in charge of studying the smallest meaningful units of language (i.e., morphemes), their different forms, the internal structure of words, and the processes and rules by which words are formed is called morphology. Morphology refers to the mental system involved in word formation or the branch of linguistics that deals with words, their internal structure and how they are formed. A major way in which morphologist investigates words, internal structure and how they are formed is through identification and study of morphemes. Morpheme is often defined as the smallest linguistic piece with grammatical function. Most words can be analyzed as having a central morpheme; which is called and/or termed the root.

Root is the irreducible core of a word with absolutely nothing else attached to it. It is the part that is always present, possibly with some modification in various manifestation of the lexeme. For example, *walk* is a root and it appears in the set of word forms that instantiate the lexeme *walk* such as: *walks*, *walking* and *walked*. Root can be classified as bound morpheme and free morpheme. Most linguists agree that morphology is the study of the meaningful parts of the words, but there have broadly been two ways of looking at the overall play by these meaningful parts of word in languages. One way has been to play down the status of the word itself and to look at the role of its parts in the overall syntax; the other has been to focus on the word as a central unit. Depending on the way morphemes occur in an utterance, they are grouped into two large groups: free morphemes and bound morphemes.

### **Free morpheme**

A free morpheme can stand alone; while a bound root is that which occurs only in the presence of another morpheme. Katamba (1994, 41) proposes that a free morpheme is one that can appear alone as a word, while bound morpheme is one that cannot stand on its own because it should be attached to another morpheme. Free or independent morphemes are those morphemes which can occur alone as words and have a meaning or they can fulfil a grammatical function; e.g., *man*, *run*, *think*. There are two types of free morphemes.

a. Lexical (content or referential) morphemes are free morphemes that have semantic content (or meaning) and usually refer to a thing, quality, state or action. For instance, in a language, these morphemes generally take the forms of nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs; e.g., *dog*, *Peter*, *house*, *build*, *stay*, *happy*, *intelligent*, *quick*, *always*. Actually,

lexical morphemes constitute the larger class of morphemes. They form the open class of words (or content words) in a language, i.e., a class of words likely to grow due to the incorporation of new members into it.

Function(al) or grammatical morphemes are free morphemes which have little or no meaning on their own, but which show grammatical relationships in and between sentences. For instance, in a language, these morphemes are represented by prepositions, conjunctions, articles, demonstratives, auxiliary verbs, pronouns; e.g., *with, but, the, this, can, who, me*. It should be noted that function words are almost always used in their unstressed form.

### **Bound morpheme**

Bound (or dependent) morphemes are those morphemes which never occur alone as words but as parts of words; they must be attached to another morpheme (usually a free morpheme) in order to have a distinct meaning; e.g., *-er* in *'worker'*, *-er* in *'taller'*, *-s* in *'walks'*, *-ed* in *'passed'*, *re-* as in *'reappear'*, *un-* in *'unhappy'*, *'undo'*, *-ness* in *'readiness'*, *-able* in *'adjustable'*; *-ceive* in *'conceive'*, *'receive'*, *-tain* in *'contain'*, *'obtain'*, etc. There are two types of bound morphemes: bound roots and affixes. Bound roots are those bound morphemes which have lexical meaning when they are attached to other bound morphemes to form content words; e.g., *-ceive* in *'receive'*, *'conceive'*; *-tain* in *'retain'*, *'contain'*; *plac-* in *'implacable'*, *'placate'*; *cran-* in *'cranberry'*, etc. Notice that bound roots can be prefixed or suffixed to other affixes. Affixes are bound morphemes which are usually marginally attached to words and which change the meaning or function of those words; e.g., *-ment* in *'development'*, *en-* in *'enlarge'*; *s* in *'John's'*; *-s* in *'claps'*, *-ing* in *'studying'*, etc.

### **Word formation processes**

The speakers of a particular language use certain processes of word building, either in a grammatical sense or for creating new lexemes. Many theories regarding word formation processes are expressed by many linguists, and we can define word formation as the study of morpheme which relates to each other. According to Yule (1996, 64), word formation process is a constant evolution of new terms and new uses of the old terms as a reassuring

sign of vitality and creativeness in the way a language is shaped by the needs of its users. The creation of new word depends on the user of the language and type.

Yule (1996) observes that there are many types of word formation processes which consist of coinage, reduplication, clipping, compounding, blending, derivation, backformation, acronym, conversion, affixation and borrowing. The same word formation processes are found in Hausa and Kambari languages. Abubakar (2001) posits that word formation is sub divided into two smaller subfields: one which is concerned with process of derivation and the other compounding. In order to form a word or inflect it, one of the three morphological processes, namely (a) Affixation (b) Reduplication and (c) Modification are essentially exploited. These word building processes can be summed up by distinct categories: inflection and derivation (Katamba 1994, 58). Derivation is the process by which speakers of a language create new lexical significant terms by utilizing the morphemes and established words already existing in their language. Derivation involves three separate aspects namely, affixation, conversion and compounding (Katamba 1994, 59).

According to Mathews (1997), derivation is any series of changes in which a form or structure is altered by successive process, as a morphological process concerned with the derivation of one word in the lexicon from another, for example, in the word '*hanger*' which is derived from "*hang*", in this example, '*er*' is a derivational suffix. Mathew (1997) further stressed that inflection is any form or change of form which distinguishes different grammatical forms of the same lexical unit. The plural '*books*' is distinguished from singular *book* by the inflection *-s*, which is by that token a plural inflection.

### **Affixes**

According to Mathews (1997), "Affixation is a process of adding an affix to a base of a word". Thus, affixation is one of the fundamental processes in word formation. In other words, affixation is a process whereby Prefix, Infix, Suffix, Circumfix and Superfix are attached to the base of a word to form new words or indicate grammatical functions like Tense Marker, Number and Gender formation. When linguists refer to prefixes and suffixes as a class, they use the term AFFIX. Haspelmath (2002) sees affixes as short morphemes with abstract meaning. Affixes are bound morphemes, but not all bound morphemes are affixes. Affixes can be classified into two different ways: according to their position in the word and according to their function in a phrase or sentence.

According to their position in the word (or side of the word they are attached to), affixes are classified into prefixes, infixes and suffixes.

**Prefixes:** These are bound morphemes that are added to the beginning of the word; e.g., *un-* in '*unnoticed*', *a-* in '*amoral*', *sub-* in '*subway*', etc. Notice that prefixes are represented by the morphemes followed by a hyphen (-).

**Infixes:** These are bound morphemes that are inserted within the words. There are no infixes in the English language, but in the languages such as Tagalog and Bontoc (in the Philippines), Infixes are represented by the morphemes preceded and followed by a hyphen.

**Suffixes:** These are bound morphemes which are attached to the end of the word; e.g., *-able* in *noticeable*, *-less* in *careless*, *-s* in *seeks*, *-en* in *shorten*, etc. Notice that suffixes are represented by the morphemes preceded by a hyphen.

According to the function they fulfil in the language, affixes are classified into derivational affixes (derivational morphemes or derivations) and inflectional affixes (inflectional morphemes or inflections) to which we now turn.

### **Types of affixes**

Affixes are divided into derivational and inflectional affixes. The affixes which are used in forming words are called derivational affixes while those used in inflecting them are called inflectional affixes. Fromkin et al. (2011), suggest that the difference between inflectional and derivational affixes is that inflected words are determined by the syntax of the language while derivational words are part of the lexicon.

### **Inflectional affixes**

Inflectional morphology concerns the various forms of a given lexical item without changing its class. Lyons (1977) posits in his work that inflexion produces from the stem (or stems) of a given lexeme all the word forms of that lexeme which occur in syntactically determined environments, while derivation, on the other hand, results in the formation of what is traditionally considered to be different lexeme.

Inflectional affixes are morphemes which serve a purely grammatical function, such as referring to and giving extra linguistic information about the already existing meaning of a word (e.g., number, person, gender, case, etc.), expressing syntactic relations between words (e.g. possession, comparison), among others. For instance, the different forms of the verb *speak* are all considered to be verbs too, namely, *speak, spoke, speaking, spoken*. In a like manner, the comparative and superlative forms of the adjective *strong* are also adjectives, namely: *stronger* and *strongest*.

In English, there are only eight inflections. They are -(e)s (third person singular marker of verbs in present tense), as in *speaks, teaches*; -(e)s (regular plural marker) as in *books, oranges*; 's (possessive marker) as in *John's house*; -(e)d (regular past tense marker) as in *helped, repeated*; -en (past participle marker) as in *spoken, eaten*; -ing (present participle marker) as in *eating, studying*; -er (comparative marker) as in *faster, happier*; and -est (superlative marker) as in *fastest, happiest*.

### **Derivational affixes**

Derivational affixes are morphemes that create (or derive) new words, usually by either changing the meaning and/or the part of speech (i.e., the syntactic category). Derivation involves formation of a new word from an existing lexeme by using derivational affix, the result of which is that the derived word acquires a different grammatical class from its based form. For example, the word *writer* is derived from the lexeme *write* which is a verb, while the derivative *writer* is a noun meaning one who writes (Abubakar, 2001). Adrian et al (2003) define derivation as a morphological process in which affixes combine with stems to derive new words. They explain that the application or attachment of a derivational affix results in three types of changes.

1. Phonological change
2. Class category change
3. Semantic change

To understand the meaning of an affix, it is necessary to understand the properties of the set in which it occurs, as well as the properties of the other members of the set. The meaning of an affix can be demarcated by the web of semantic relations it has with its counterparts. The semantics and morphological information about an affix must be captured.



Semantically, it reveals information about the specific meaning of an affix. Morphologically, it provides information about the relationship between affix.

### Analysis of affixes in Hausa and Kambari

Hausa and Kambari languages have a number of affixes which include prefixes, infixes, suffixes, circumfixes, transfixes and superfixes. The above-mentioned affixes will be discussed and analysed in this part of the paper.

#### Prefix

Prefixation refers to the process of attaching affixes to the beginning of a root, stem or base of a word. Prefixes are therefore, a type of an affix that is attached before the root of a word. Hausa makes use of only two types of derivational morphemes as prefixes and they are **ma-** which is used to derive patronymics or ethnonyms and **ba-** for deriving place name, noun of agent and noun of instrument. While in Kambari we have two types of prefixes as derivational morphemes such as **tsu-** and **o-** to derive nouns from verbs.

(a)	Prefix	Stem	Derived Word	Gloss
	Ma-	Gíná	Mágíní	Mason, Builder
		Saákaá	Másaákí	‘weaver’
		Jeémá	Májeémií	‘tannery’
	Tsu-	máci / mmáci	tsúmáci	‘Relation’
		ntónúlaí	tsútóní	‘relationship’
	o-	mócí	ómócí	‘visitor’
(b)	Prefix	stem	derived word	gloss
	Ba	kánó	Bákánoó	Kano Man
		Kátsíná	Bákátsínee	Katsina Man
		Ƙaúyé	Bàkaúyé	village man
		Sàkkwàtò	Bàsàkkwàcè	Sakkwato Man.
			(Abubakar, 2001; Mamman, 2012)	
	Za-	màlyùcì	zàmàlyùcì	‘Village man’

The noun *Da* (son), is widely used (in the form *Dan*; masc. ‘yar; fem. ‘yan; pl. (neuter) as a prefix although it is written as a separate word in the following sense

1. To indicate place of origin  
Kano            *Dan kano*, ‘*Yar kano* and ‘*Yan kano*
2. To indicate occupation  
Kasuwa        *Dan kasuwa*, ‘*yar kasuwa*, ‘*yan kasuwa*
3. As diminutive:  
*Dan yaro*      ‘*Yar yarinya*    ‘*Yan yara*

### **Infix**

The process of infixation or infixing is hardly encountered in European languages, but it is commonly found in Asian, American Indian and African languages such as Hausa and Arabic. According to Mathews (1997), infixation is a process of inserting an affix within another form. Three types of vocalic morphemes appear word- medially, namely –a-, -e-, and –i-. The first two vowels –a-, and –e-, are inflectional vowels, while –i- is a derivational vowel.

(c)	<b>Infix</b>	<b>Sing.</b>	<b>Pl.</b>	<b>Gloss</b>
	-a-	<i>gúrguù</i> <i>Kúrtú</i>	<i>gùràáguú</i> <i>kùràátaá</i>	‘lame’ ‘recruit’
		<i>Kùrtù</i>	<i>kùrtùnaá</i>	‘keg’
	-e-	<i>gárwá</i>	<i>gáréwání</i>	‘tin’
	-i-	<i>baáwá</i>	<i>baáyíí</i>	‘slave’

There is no evidence of infixation in Kambari language to the best of the researcher’s knowledge.

### **Suffix**

Mathews (1997) defines suffixation as a process of attaching affixes after the base of a word. He explains that a suffix is an affix that comes after the form to which it is added.

Suffixation plays a major role in Hausa morphology and has the largest number of inflectional and derivational morphemes compared with prefixation and infixation. There are not less than fifteen derivational morphemes (excluding the indeterminate morphemes), namely –ntaka, -ntaa, -taa, -nci, -ci, -u, -wa, -iyaa,- angyaa, -uwaa, -wa, -nniyaa, -yayyaa and yyaa. Five inflectional morphemes have been identified excluding the indeterminate morphemes and they are –una, -uka, -ku,- aayee and –nnii.(Abubakar 2001).

(d)	Suffix	Stem	Derived forms	Gloss
	-ntakaa	dángí	dángántákaá	‘relation’
	-ntaa	zùmúncí	zùmúntaá	‘friendship’
	- taa	kárámí	kárántaá	‘small/ tiny’
	-nci	bákó	bákúncí	‘stranger’

Suffixation equally plays a significant role in Kambari morphology; unlike Hausa, morphological processes that have received greater attention in the literature. Hence, research on Kambari morphological processes is at its infant stage as this happens to be the first of its kind. Below are some of the suffixes in Kambari:

Suffix	Stem	Derived forms	Gloss
-unu	ké’én	ké’énunù	‘small/tiny’
-i-	úsaá	súwí	‘builder’
-i-	ùďává	ďáví	‘weaver’

### Circumfix

According to Mathews (1997), a combined prefix and suffix treated as a single unit e.g. the forms which mark the participle (ma-nom-i) might be seen as a Circumfix (ma i) enclosing the root *NOM*. Circumfix is a process of affixation in which an affix surrounds the root of a word (Ndimele, 1999). In circumfixation, the two coordinating parts that constitute the broken morph are placed on either side of the root.

(e)	Circumfix	word	Derived Word	gloss
	Ma- -yii	sò	másòyí	‘lover’
		jì	májìyí	‘hearer’
		kì	mákìyí	‘hater’

Ma-	-ta	cìgá	mácìgátá	‘lover
n-	-lai	ùcúgú	íncìgálai	‘lover’
u-	-wu	tánú	ùtánúwú	‘to carry’
		dánú	údánúwù	‘sit’
		kúnzú	úkuúnzúwù	‘measure’
u-	-u	lápúlá	ùlápúlú	‘reposition’
		táwá	ùtáwù	‘come’
		dámmá	ùdámmú	‘say/tell’

The circumfix found in Hausa morphology is different from the one found in Kambari morphology. The elements that surround the root words differ and some of the derived words in Kambari are verbal nouns while some are nouns.

### Transfix

Transfixation is therefore the phenomenon whereby discontinuous vocalic affixes and discontinuous consonantal roots interlock in the process of wordbuilding. Hence, the allusion to this method of derivation as either ‘root and pattern’, ‘pattern’, ‘broken’ or ‘non concatenated’ morphology (Matthews 1997). In transfixation, the affix and the root interlace. The examples below are adopted from Alhassan (2011):

(f)	<b>aa...aa</b>	<b>(LH)</b>	<b>gloss</b>
	zártòò	zárààtáá,	‘saw’
	gárkèè	gárààkáá,	‘herd’
	dám̀tsèè	dám̀ààtsáá	‘forearm’
	<b>aa...ee</b>	<b>(LH)</b>	
	e.g. jírgíí	jírààgyéé,	‘boat’
	gwáúróó (gwáámróó)	gwám̀ààréé,	‘bachelor’
	ʔícèè      ʔitee	ʔítààcéé	‘tree’ / ‘wood’

<b>aa...ii</b>	<b>(LH/HH)</b>	
e.g. sárkíí	sàrààkíí,	‘emir’
túnkìyáá ‘(túmkiyáá)	túmáákíí,	‘sheep’
sáwràyíí (sámràyíí)	sàmààríí	‘male youth’
<b>aa...uu</b>	<b>(LH)</b>	
gúrgùù	gúrààgúú,	‘cripple’
kúncìì	kúmààtúú	‘cheek’
káfàà	káfààfúú	‘leg’/‘foot’
<b>aa...ai</b>	<b>(LH)</b>	
sárkíí	sàrààkái,	‘emir’
gúnkìì	gùmààkái,	‘idol’
?àkúyàà	?àwààkái	‘goat’

Transfixation in Hausa can be categorized into two, viz: external and internal. Internal transfixation refers to a situation where transfix assumes within the root, that is before the third consonant or its surrogate, sometimes displacing the second vowel in the root. External transfixation differs from the internal in that transfixation occurs after the third consonant of the stem or its surrogate, which incidentally is always outside the root, thus resembling suffixation, technically.

The idea of a Transfix similar to a Circumfix is unsupported, given the more obvious analysis as infix and suffix is typical of the misunderstanding that the constituents of a transfix are morphological units in themselves.

There is no evidence of transfixation in Kambari to the best of our investigation. Research in this area will try to find out if at all there will be evidence of transfixation in the language.

### **Hausa verbal system**

In Hausa verbs, what may be seen as inflection is the vowel ending of the verb as revealed by Parson (1960) under the heading: “verbal system in Hausa.” Parson classified regular Hausa Verbs into what he calls grades on the basis of their vowel ending, aspect of meaning

and syntactic behaviour. Based on this Parsonian grade system, we identified six inflections thus:

		Form A	Form B	Form C	Form D	Meaning
Grade I	T. Vowel	-aa	-aa	-a	-aa	Basic
	Tone P.	H L	HL	HL	HL	
Grade II	T. Vowel	-aa	-ee	-I	-aa	Basic
	Tone P.	LH	LH	LH	LH	
Grade III	T. Vowel	-a				Basic
	Tone P.	LH				
Grade IV	T. Vowel	-ee	-ee	-e	-ee	Dérivatives
	Tone P.	LH	LH	LH	LH	Tonality extension
Grade V	T. Vowel	-ar	-ar	-ar	-ar	Dérivatives
	Tone P.	HH	HH	HH	HH	Causative extension
Grade VI	T. Vowel	-oo	-oo	-oo	-oo	Dérivatives
	Tone P.	HH	HH	HH	HH	Ventive extension
Grade VII	T. Vowel	-u				Dérivatives
	Tone P.	LH				Passive extension

- (g) Sayi - 'buy'  
 Consider this:  
 Sayee, Sayaa, Sayoo, Sayu and sayar  
 Consider the above in the sentences below:

- i      Muusa yaa sayi liittafee  
Musa he (past) buy book  
'Musa bought a book.'
- ii     Muusa yaa sayee liittafee  
Musa he (past) thoroughly buys a book  
'Musa has thoroughly bought a book'
- iii    Muusa yaa sayaa  
Musa he (past) buy  
'Musa bought/ has bought (it)'
- iv     Musa yaa sayar masa  
Musa he (past) cause or sell to him  
'Musa sold (it) to him.'
- v      Muusa yaa sayoo liittafee  
Musa he (past) buy and bring book  
'Musa bought a book (and brought it)'
- vi     Liittafee ya sayu  
Book it buy (past)  
'The book was well paid'

### **Tense aspect and mood (TAM)**

English language verbs have inflections. The notion of tense is quite different compared to Hausa when we talk of present, present continuous, past tense, etc. English has five inflections, like in: *walk, walks, walking, walked* and *walked*. These inflections do not exist in Hausa and indeed the term tense in Hausa has been controversial. Some Hausa grammarians prefer to use the tense aspect. Whatever is the case, the fact is that they are different. What may be seen as inflection in Hausa is vowel ending of the verbs as revealed by Parson (1960) under the heading of "Verbal System in Hausa".

The TAM morphemes can be either segmentable, e.g., (Habitual) *ya-ka`n zoo* 'he regularly comes', or fusional, involving changes in tone and/or vowel length, e.g., (Perfective) *yaa zoo* 'he came' and (Subjunctive) *ya` zoo* 'he should come', and the subject agreement elements are morphologically related to the personal pronouns. There are 16 distinct affirmative and negative inflectional paradigms, with a major Perfective: Imperfective aspectual dichotomy.

## Number

English, like most Indo-European languages, has a singular/plural distinction in number. Morphology is marked on nouns and also on some determinatives:

- (h) I saw an elephant.  
I saw two elephants  
I saw a herd of elephants.  
this man  
these men  
that man  
those men

Hausa plural formation involves two types of processes namely: affixation and vowel change. Infixation and Suffixation play a major role in Hausa number, in some cases suffixes were used only, in some cases both infix and suffix were used in plural formation.

The plural suffixes are all vowel initial, commonly –(vvc), vv and replace the final vowel (monophthong or diphthong) of the base. Nominal and adjectival plural affixes are all “tone integrating” consider this:

(i)	Sg.	Pl.	Gloss
	Kwàróó	kwàrii	‘insect’
	Baàkoo	baàkii	‘stranger, guest’
	kifi	kifáyé	‘fish’
	tàgá	tàgógí	‘window’
	málámí	málámái	‘teacher’

### Infix and suffix

(j)	Sg.	Pl.	Gloss
	Gúrgù	gúrágù	‘lame’
	Gárwá	gáreéwàní	‘tin’
	Sáلكá	sáleékáni	‘skin bottle’

Nominal and adjectival plurality in Hausa is one of the rich and complex areas of morphological behaviour at the surface level, about forty distinct plural formations are attested, and between them, they exploit a variety of affixal mechanism which is the main



concern of this paper. The plural suffixes are all vowel initial, commonly (-vvc) vv, and replaces the final vowel (monophthong or diphthong) of the base. Simple adjectives use basically the same rules for pluralization as nouns of similar shape but do not use the same range of plural formations as nouns.

Hausa plurals are very complex and formed by a combination of suffixes, infixes and sometimes reduplication.

(1) The final vowel of the singular is dropped when the plural affix is added.

(2) The tone pattern of the plural replaces the tones of the singular and is distributed over the plural in a right to left manner with the leftmost tone continuing to spread over all available syllables.

(3) When occurring before suffixal front vowels (i: and e:) the alveolar consonants /t, s, z/, and, less regularly, /d/ palatalize to /tʃ, ʃ, and dʒ/ respectively (both /z/ and /d/ becoming /dʒ/), e.g. *bisa*: ‘animal’ has the reduplicated plural form /bisà:ʃe:/, where the final syllable /ʃe:/ derives from /se:/). In the same vein, /w/ palatalizes to /j/; e.g. the plural of /bàɾa:wò:/ ‘thief’ is /bàɾà:ji:/.

(4) The palatal consonants /tʃ, ʃ, and dʒ/ occurring in the singular before word-final /i: and e:/ generally depalatalize to /t, s and z/ respectively, when followed by a plural suffix beginning with a non-front vowel, e.g. /hanʃi:/ ‘nose’, plural /hantunà:/(-unà:), /maʃi:dʒi:/ ‘snake’, plural /màʃi:zai/ (-ai).

(5) C3 stands for the third consonant of the stem. Otherwise, capital C represents a copy or doubling of the preceding consonant. If it occurs before a front vowel (i: or e:), it appears in palatalized form as indicated above in (3).

-à:C3a: [H-L-H] e.g. *sirdi:/sirà:da*: ‘saddle’

-à:C3e: [H-L-H], e.g. *gulbi:/gulà:be*: ‘stream’

-à:C3u: [H-L-H], e.g. *kuɾmi:/kuɾà:mu*: ‘grove’

-à:Ce: [H-L-H], e.g. *wuɾi:/wuɾà:ɾe*: ‘place’ *kasà:/kasà:ʃe*: ‘country’

-ai [L-H], e.g. *ma:là:mi/mà:làmai*: ‘teacher’

-ànni: [L-H], e.g. *watà:/wàtànni*: ‘month’

-a:wa: [all H, or L-L-H] (if the singular word contains the prefix **bà-**, it is dropped when the plural is added, e.g. Bàkanò:/Kana:wa: ‘Kano person’.) The tone pattern is usually all high, e.g. talàkà/talaka:wa: ‘commoner’. However, trisyllabic plurals with a heavy first syllable typically are L-L-H, e.g. ku:rì:/kù:rà:wa: ‘novice Koranic student’, Bàhaufè:/Hàusa:wa: ‘Hausa person’, Bakauye/kauyà:wa: ‘village man’

-à:je: [H-L-H], e.g. /zo:mo:-zo:mà:je:/ ‘hare’

-Ca: [F-H], e.g. tabò:/tâbba: ‘scar’

-Cai [L-H], e.g. tudù:/tùddai ‘high ground’

-(à) /tʃe/ with full reduplication [L-H - L-H], e.g. /tʃi:wò:-tʃiwà:tʃe-ci:wà:tʃe/ ‘illness’. (If the stem contains three consonants, the /à/ vowel is omitted, e.g. wàhalà:-wàhàltʃe-wàhàltʃe, ‘difficulty’).

-unà: [H-L], e.g. tʃiki:/tʃikkunà: ‘belly’

-e with full reduplication [L-H – L-H], e.g. /tʃamfi:-tʃàmfe-tʃàmfe/ ‘superstition’

-i: [L-H], e.g. /tàuɾa:ɾò:-tàuɾà:ɾi:/ ‘star’

-o:Ci: [all H], e.g. /ta:gà:-ta:go:gi:/ ‘window’, /mo:tà:-mo:to:tʃi:/ ‘car’.

-u: [L-H], e.g. /kudzè:ɾa:-kùdzè:ɾu:/ ‘chair’

-uC3à: [H-L], e.g. /tʃo:kàli:-tʃo:kulà:/ ‘spoon’.

(The final consonant of the plural is often doubled, especially when the initial syllable of the stem contains a short vowel, e.g. /daràsi:/darussà:/ ‘lesson’.)

-ukà: [H-L], e.g. /la:jì:-la:jukkà:/ ‘lane’

-nà: [H-L], e.g. /ɾì:ga:-ɾì:gunà:/ ‘gown’

Full reduplication, e.g. àkà:wu/ àkà:wu- àkà:wu ‘clerk’

However, morphological formation of number in Kambari is quite different from Hausa and English. Plural formation in Kambari is complex. The first syllable of the singular form can be replaced, omitted, reduplicated and/or a prefix can be added to form the plural marker in Kambari as can be seen below:

<b>Sg.</b>	<b>Pl.</b>	<b>Gloss</b>
mà'inúts	̀n'inútsú	'saw'
mògónó	̀ngónó	'King'
àáná	̀áná	'Leg'
mègbélé	̀mgbélé	'Goat'
m̀bùmbù	̀mùbùmbù	'insect'
mòcí	̀ómòcí	'Guest/visitor'
̀nánátsú	̀nánátsú	'Door'
vívú	̀évú	'Thief'
yó	̀iyó	'Snake'
̀ùbátá	̀bátá	'Place'
tályò'ó	̀itályò'ó	'Star'
mòlólí	̀nlólí	'Donkey'
̀àkútsù má	̀àkútsù má	'Cripple'
̀àkábù	̀àkábù	'Recruit'
mátsú	̀mùtsú	'knife'
maání	̀mámání	'breast'
̀ùgálátsú	̀ágálátsú	'hoe'
nán	̀ínán	'cow'
̀ù'wá	̀'wá	'house'
̀ùré	̀ré	'road'
mótón	̀ntón	'hen'
kyón	̀ikyón	'sheep'

This data shows that in Kambari number formation, most especially the syllable of the singular form, can be omitted, replaced, reduplicated or to have an additional syntactic element so as to form the plural number. This, however, shows that the syntactic elements bear some semantic interpretation because Kambari affixes directly modify or inflect word form.

### **Gender in Hausa**

Most Hausa nouns are vowel-final. Feminine nouns typically end in -aa, e.g., yaarinyaà 'girl', hu'ulaa 'cap', or suffix-(I)YAA or -(U)WAA, e.g., beebiyaa 'deaf mute' (FEM)', gurgu'waa 'cripple (FEM)'. Masculine nouns display a full range of final vowels

(including -aa) and consonants, e.g., *raami`i* ‘hole’, *beenee* ‘upper story’, *dilaa* ‘jackal’, *yaaro`o* ‘boy’, *a`bu`* ‘thing’, *mu`tu`m`* ‘man’, *k`aamu`s* ‘dictionary’ (Arabic).

Hausa noun (and adjectival) plurals are known for their complexity and involve suffixation, vowel insertion, and tonal melodies. They can be distilled into about 10 core classes, with the plural formation partially predictable from the canonical shape (e.g., tones, syllable structure) and, sometimes gender, of the singular. A disyllabic feminine singular with HL tone and final -aa, for example, will typically select a plural with the -ooCii suffix (where C¼ copy of final consonant of singular stem) and an all H tonal template, e.g. *jiika`a* ‘grandchild’! pl. *jiikookii*. A disyllabic singular with a heavy CVV initial syllable and HH tones, on the other hand, is likely to pluralize by suffixing -a`ayee with HLH tones on the output, e.g., sg. *giiwaa* ‘elephant’ pl. *giiwa`ayee*.

Hausaist holds the view that morphologically related feminine and masculine nouns are derived through suffixation. On closer examination, one finds out that the truncation rule which is applied to the masculine form after suffixation of vowel -aa is no more than vowel change. Consider the following examples:

(15)	<b>Mas.</b>	<b>Fem.</b>	<b>Gloss</b>
	Jaákií	jaákaá	‘donkey’
	Gwànií	gwànaá	‘expert’
	Jáhíli	Jáhilaá	‘ignorant’
	Maalàmi	malàmaá	‘learned, teacher’

From the foregoing, we examined the affixes found in the Hausa language and their morphosyntactic features which include nominal and adjectival features such as gender and number as well as verbal feature such as tense aspect and mood.

Comparatively, Kambari lacks gender distinction. The morphological formation of linguistic items in Kambari to show gender distinction as English or Hausa does is not feasible in the language. As such, the morphosyntactic features of gender differentiation in Hausa have been highlighted above.

## Conclusion

This paper has attempted to identify and analyse the Hausa and Kambari affixes as one of the word formation processes. Looking at majority of the affixes, they are said to be bound

morphemes. The affixes are attached to the root of the word or to the word itself to either derive a different grammatical word or modify its meaning. In most cases, there is a change in grammatical category, from verb to noun, from verbal noun to noun and from noun to adjective. The first syllable of the singular form can be replaced, omitted, reduplicated and/or a prefix can be added to form the plural marker in Kambari. This, however, shows that the syntactic elements bear some semantic interpretation because Kambari affixes directly modify or inflect word form.

There are other morphemes which indicate possession of something and sometimes it modifies the meaning of words and to form proper name and name of places. The morphemes serve as referential and linkers. They are important grammatical elements of Hausa and Kambari languages which function with nouns, compound nouns, verbs, adverbials and relative phrases. However, the morphological formation of linguistic items in Kambari to show gender distinction as English or Hausa does is not feasible in the language. An interesting observation about suffix ending is that each has a specific semantic meaning to which it is attached to or goes with.

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