Nominalization in Igbo Language: A Morphological Approach

Udemmadu, Thecla N.
Dept. of Igbo, African and Asian Studies
Faculty of Arts,
Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka
Anambra State, Nigeria
+2347038296805
E-mail: thecla_o@yahoo.com

Abstract
Nominalization is a process of creating nouns from other word classes. The Igbo language as a verbal language derives so many nominal from verbs. Some scholars of Igbo studies are not well informed on how so many nominal have their root or etymology on verb roots. In the light of this background, the researcher decides to embark on this exercise in other to throw more lights on how some nouns originate from verbs through derivational processes. The data for this research work was gathered through simple unstructured selection of lexical items in the language. The analysis of the data was through morphological processes. Some of the findings among other things reveal that through prefixation, suffixation, and denominal Igbo language form nouns from verbs. This work will benefit linguists and Igbo scholars.
Introduction

Nominalization in the Igbo language emanates mainly from the verb. Some of the nominal in the language have their etymology from different verbs. From verbs, verbal derivations like infinitive, gerund, adjectival noun, etc can be derived. The work is in segments. The first segment discusses the concept of nominalization; nominalization in Igbo grammar such as pronoun, numeral, interrogative etc. were discussed in section two. Then, the findings and conclusion

Nominalization: an Overview

Bussmann (1996:327) says, broadly speaking, nominalization refers to every derivation of nouns from another word class, example, from verbs (feeling vs feel) or adjectives (redness vs red), but also from noun (womanhood vs woman). Nominalization is a productive process of word formation through which words of all word classes can be used as nouns. In contrast to conversion (hit < (to hit), lexicalization is not an underlying phenomenon of nominalization. Normally, nominalization concerns adjectives (including participles) that appear as abstract concepts (the inconceivable), or as noun denoting persons (one’s contemporaries; the good, the bad, the ugly, those initiated), where the resulting word keeps its attributive adjectival function. Also, verbs and verb phrases frequently appear as gerunds in nominal phrases: swearing, twiddling one’s thumbs. Virtually any word can be nominalized: conjunctions (no ifs, ands, or buts) adverbs (the here and now), particle (resounding no) or, parts of words (an ism).

The thrust of this study is on morphology which incorporates different ways of creating nominal through inflection and derivation. According to Bussmann (1996:314) Morphology is a term coined by J.W. Von Goethe to designate the study of form and structure of living organisms which was taken up by linguistics in the nineteenth century as a cover term for ‘inflection’ and ‘word formation’. In school of grammar, morphology corresponds to the study of forms, that is, the sub-disciplines of inflection as well as of the study of word classes and their classificational criteria. In various ways, word formation is treated as an independent discipline beside morphology or as a further sub-discipline of morphology. Quoting Hockett (1954) Bussmann distinguishes between three types of morphological models: (a) the item-and-arrangement grammar pursued in American Structuralism with consideration to distribution, (b) the concept of an item-
and-process grammar which is fundamental to generative grammar and in which basic abstract forms are transformed into their surface structure form; (c) the word-and-paradigm model which posits not the morpheme, but the word as the basic element of morphological description.

Malmkjær (2002:354) supports that morphology is concerned with the form of words themselves. Most linguists agree that morphology is the study of the meaningful parts of words, but there have broadly been two ways of looking at the overall role played by these meaningful parts of words in language. One way has been to play down on its status 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.

Morphology has to do morph. Morph is the physical realization of morpheme. Malmkjær (2002:357) points out that in the word repainted, the morph paint can stand alone as a word and is therefore a free morph; re- and –ed cannot stand alone and are therefore bound morphs. Another distinction is often made between lexical morphs- morphs such as head, line, -ist and de-, which can be used in the creation of new words (e.g. headline, economist, depopulate) and grammatical morphs, those that simply represent grammatical category such as person, tense, number, definiteness, etc. Lexical morphs which are not of the kind –ist and de- but which from the ‘core’ of a word, such as ‘help in helpful’ or build in rebuild, are known as roots. The root is that part of the word which is left when all the affixes- that is, all the morphs that have been added to it, whether before or after it (such as de-, -er, -ist, -ing, -ed etc) are taken away. The root is obviously central to the building of new words, but not all roots can stand as free words. In the series dentist, dental, dentures, there is certainly a root to which various morphs are added to produce nouns and adjectives, but there is no free morph dent which represents the morpheme ‘of the teeth’. So, some roots are bound. The roots can be inflected or derived in order to form new words or to expand the meaning.

Inflection: For Malmkjær (2002:254) inflection refers to the outer layer of the morphology of word forms, and derivation as the inner layer. In other words, inflections are added when all derivational and compositional processes are already complete. The plural forms of motorbike and painter are motorbikes and painters not *motorsbike and *paintser. Inflections such as tense, number, person, etc. will be attached to ready-made stems. Stems are the forms to which inflections may be added but which may already have
derivational affixes. Inflectional categories such as tense, voice, and number that play an important role in syntax are called morphosyntactic categories, since they affect both the words around them and the words within which they occur.

Inflectional morphemes are semantically more regular than derivational ones: meaning will remain constant across a wide distributional range. Inflections create full conjugations and declensions for verbs and nouns; unlike derivations, they usually do not produce ‘gaps’, whereas the past inflectional morph –ed can be attached to any of the verbs arrive, dispose, approve and improve in English, only the first three form nouns with the –al suffix. Bussmann (1996:230) notes that inflection is word stem (= lexemes) of particular parts of speech. They are realized in morphologically different word forms that regularly mark different syntactic and semantic functions: declination (nouns), conjugation (verbs), comparison (adjectives). The complete set of inflectional forms of a word constitutes its inflectional paradigm. Inflections can occur in the different morphological forms in English, such as, through a change in the stem (sing> sang) or through the addition of particular endings (worked, dreamt). In some cases, inflectional endings may signal different inflectional categories (example –s in works signals both present tense in the verb and plural in the noun).

**Derivational** – Malmkjær (2002:359) postulates that derivation is the reverse of the coin of inflection. Like inflection, it consists in adding to a root or stem an affix or affixes. But while new inflections occur only very slowly over time, new derivational affixes seem to occur from time to time, principally in different speakers use elements of words that are not established as affixes in a way that makes them like established, productive ones. Derivational affixes function not to express morphosyntactic categories but make new words. They are somewhat erratic in meaning and distribution; the suffix –al that creates nouns from verbs such as ‘arrive’ and ‘dispose’ form adjectives from the nouns ‘brute’ and ‘option’. What is more, whereas ‘nasal’ means ‘of the nose’, brutal means ‘like a brute’ and ‘optional’ means that ‘something is an option’. Derivational affixes vary in their productivity. Within derivational, the distinction is often made between class-maintaining and class-changing processes. Class-changing produces a new word in a different word class, e.g. computer (noun) computerize (verb), while class maintaining produces a new word but does not change the class, e.g. child (noun)- childhood (noun).
Bussmann (1996:120) remarks that derivation is the process and result of word formation in which new words are created from already existing words through various processes. Derivation is generally distinguished from inflection, which encompasses changes in a word according to its relation to other words in an utterance and consists of declension and conjugation. Derivation covers various processes of word formation, such as the creation of adjectives from noun (professional < profession), noun from verbs (computer< compute) etc. A distinction is drawn between explicit derivation, in which new words are created through addition of prefixes (= prefixation) and suffix (= suffixation) to word roots, example, common>uncommon, stupid> stupidity, or through (diachronic) sound changes (also: inner derivation), sing vs song, and implicit derivation, in which new words are created either as back formations (televise<television) or as conversion into another lexical category ((to) calm<calm). Depending on the word class, one speaks of deverbatives (teacher<teach), denominal (fruity<fruit), or deadjectival (wetness<wet). Similarly, particular suffixes form semantic classes, for example, -ness, -ship, and –dom generally form abstract nouns, -er nomen agentis, -let and –y diminutives, and –ess feminine nouns.

The study of morphology also studies how two free morphemes can be merged to form one word. When two free words are joined together to form one semantic entity it is known as compounding.

**Composition (Compounding)** - Malmkjær (2002:360) states that compounding occurs when two or more words combine into a morphological unit. Quoting Adams (1979), he says that compounding is also the combination of two free forms, or words that have an otherwise independent existence: Examples of compounds are blackmail, bathroom, skyscraper, and gearbox. They function to all intents and purposes like single words: ‘If the room where I have my bath is old, it is an old bathroom not a ‘bath old room’. Like single words they will be spoken with only one primary stress, and any inflectional suffixes will occur at the end of the whole unit (bathrooms, not *bathroom). They occupy full, single, grammatical slots in sentences, unlike idioms, which can be a whole clause. Compounds may be formed with elements from any word class but, in English at least, noun + noun compound are the most common and are very productive; verb + verb compounds are few in English. Noun + noun= bookshelf, football, verb + noun= pickpocket, killjoy, noun + verb = nosebleed, moonshine, adjective +
noun = software, slowcoach. Examples of phrase compound are: gin-and-tonic, forget-me-not. These all function as noun.

Bussmann (1996:91) asserts that compound is the result of the process of word formation of composition, a linguistic expression that consists of at least two free morphemes or morpheme constructions: bath + room. Compounding is syntactically and semantically differentiated from simple word groupings: often, though not necessarily written as a single word.

**Nominalization in Igbo Grammar**

As earlier said, nominalization is the process of forming nouns from other word classes. Chukwu (2009:14) quoting Crystal (314) says that a nominal is a term used in some grammatical descriptions as a substitute for noun (e.g. nominal group = noun phrase). In a more restricted sense, nominal refer to words which have some of the attributes of nouns but not all”. The grammatical terms that can act as nouns are gerunds or verbal nouns and adjectives. Gerund is a word derived from a verb but is used as a noun. Crystal (1987:426) summed that nominalization is forming a + noun from some other + word class (red-ness) and nominal is A + noun or noun-like item.

Nominal is therefore, any word that can function as the subject of the verb, the object of the transitive verb, the complement of the subject, the complement of the object, the object of the preposition, and the apposition, (Chukwu, 2009:1). There are so many Igbo words that assume these functions. They are:

**Noun-** Fromkin, etal (2003:589) state that noun is the syntactic category, also lexical category, of words that can function as the head of noun phrase, such as book, jean, sincerity. Finegan (2004:579) adds that noun is a lexical category of words that function syntactically as heads of noun phrases and semantically as referring expressions; nouns can be characterized morphologically by certain inflections; in traditional terms a noun is defined semantically as the name of a person, place, or thing.

Examples of the words that naturally are noun (that is, names of people, animals, places or things) are, name of people, Ngozi, Obiọra, Nneka, Ifeọma, Amaka, etc. Name of animals like: ewu (goat), ezi (pig), nkịta (dog), enwe (monkey), ehi (cow), etc. Names of places like: Agxlx, Enugwu
Nominalization in Igbo Language: A Morphological Approach

(Enugu), Lagos (Lagos), Anambara (Anambra), Najjirja (Nigeria), Amerijka (America), etc. They can be seen in the Igbo constructions below:

1. **Nneka gara Agulu**, (Nneka went to Agulu)
2. **Ngozi zatara evu**, (Ngozi bought a goat)
3. **Ifeoma si Amerijkalotu**, (Ifeoma came back from America)

The italicized words are nominal

**Pronoun**—Finegan (2004:581) declares that pronoun is a term used for several closed categories of words. Traditionally, it is defined as taking the place of nouns (or more accurately noun phrase). They are words that can replace nouns in a sentence. Such words can function as the subject or object of a sentence. For instance:

4. *O jere ahja* (S/he went to the market)
5. *Anyi zatara ya*, (We bought it)
6. *Unu si obodo gi lota* (You (people) came back from your village)

The italicized are pronouns, therefore, they are nominal

**Numeral**—According to Finegan (2004:579) numeral is a grammatical category associated with nouns and pronouns and indicating something about the quantity of referents. It can equally take the subject or object position as in:

7. *Ise dji mma*, (Five is okay)
8. *Akwu kwọ ya dji ise*, (His/her books are five)
9. *Najra puku atọ dji n’akpa m*. (Three thousand naira is in my bag)
10. *O nwere najra puku atọ*, (He has three thousand naira)
11. *Mmadu anọ nọ ebe a*, (Four people are here)
12. *Anyi chọrọ mmadu anọ*. (We want four people)

The italicized words above can take the subject position, and can equally assume the object position in different constructions; therefore, they are functionally nominal.

**Interrogative**—Interrogative is also be classified as nominal in the Igbo language because it can function as the subject or object of a sentence. The
interrogatives (also known as wh-questions) in Igbo are: /ginị? (what), kedu? (where/how/what? depending on the context), ole? (how many?), olee? (where?), ebee? (where?), onye? (who?). For instance:

13. *Ginị mere ya?* (What happened to her/him/it?)
14. *O mere ginị?* (S/he/it did what?)
15. *Ole ka ọ chọọ?* (How many did s/he want?)
16. *ọ chọọ ole?* (S/he needs how many?)
17. *Olee Eze?* (Where is Eze?)
18. Ngozi gara *ebee?* (Ngozi went to where?)
19. *Ebee* ka Ngozi gara? (Where did Ngozi go to?)
20. *Onye riri nri ahụ?* (Who ate that food?)
21. *Ebere na-acho onye?*
22. *Kedu gi?* (Where are you?)
23. *Kedu ka I mere ?* (How are you?)
24. *Kedu ihe ọ bụ?* (What is it?) etc.

The above interrogatives can be seen both at the subject and object positions (except ‘kedu’ and ‘olee’ which occupy only the subject position). Some were made subjects through the process of topicalization.

Other words that can be nominalized are:

**Onomatopoeic noun:** Fromkin, et al (2003:589) note that words whose pronunciations suggest their meaning, e.g., meow, buzz, are known as onomatopoeic nouns. There is some sound symbolism in language- that is, words whose pronunciation suggests the meaning. Most languages contain onomatopoeic words like buzz or murmur that imitate the sounds associated with the objects or actions they refer to. Saeed (2007:21) states that there are, however, iconic elements to language, as for example the use of onomatopoeia, or sound symbolism, as in the English words tick-tock, cuckoo. These are sounds that can function as noun. Some of them are found in some Igbo examples like:

25. Onyenkuzi anyị na-azọ *kọj kọj* (Our teacher marches koi koi)
26. Nwata suru *dum dum* (The child hit dum dum)
27. Akwụ dara *gbim* (The palm bunch fell gbim)
28. A gbara egbe towaiji (Gun was shot towaii)

29. Elekere anyi na-akx timkom timkom (Our clock sound timkom timkom)

**Ideophone**- Bussmann (1996:216) has it that ideophone generally, is an onomatopoeic representation of a concept, often consisting of reduplicated syllables and not adhering to the phonotactic structure of the given language. Some instances in Igbo are in these expressions:

30. Anya ya na-eke zizizi (Their eyes are flashing ‘zizizi’).

31. Ngozi rahru ura juyu (Ngozi slept ‘juu’).

32. Akpukpo ahu gi di torii (Your skin is ‘torii’).

33. Nwunye Obi di totolito (Obi’s wife is ‘totolito’)

34. Ntutu isi ya di yorii (Her hair is ‘yorii’)

35. Gidigidi b thị ugwu eze (Gidigidi is the prestige of a king).

36. Nwata a bụ yoriyori (The child is ‘yoriyori’)

The above ideophones are peculiar to the Igbo language. The native speakers understand them without stress, but an attempt to translate them into English might interfere with their meanings.

**Adjectival Nouns**- They are the adjectives that perform the function of nouns because they can function as the complement of the verb. Some examples in Igbo are:

37. Ada mara mma (Ada is beautiful).

38. Ebere toro ogologo (Ebere is tall).

39. Nna ha di mkpumkpu (Their father is short).
40. Okeke lụtara ọmalịcha nwaanyị (Okeke married a beautiful wife).

41. Ifeoma bụ ezigbo mmadụ (Ifeoma is a good)

42. Nne gị dị nkenke (Your mother is brief).

43. Mma ya dị egwu (Her beauty is wonderful).

44. Ọmalịcha nwaanyị bịa (A beautiful woman came).

45. Ogologo oche emebiela (The long chair has spoilt).

**Adverbal Nouns**- These are the adverbs that perform the function of noun because they can function as the subject or object of a sentence. For example:

46. Nwayọ bụ ije (Slowly makes a journey).

47. Okwu a choọro ọkụn’okụ (This matter needs urgency)

**Phrasal Nominal**- Two or more nouns joined together in a construction make up phrasal nominal, although they are seen and written as one word because semantically they are one entity. For instance:

48. Ezinaulo ya lọtara ụbọchị ekeresimesi - Outside and house his come – ed day Christmas (His family came back on the Christmas day).


50. Nsonaazx so n’otu mbakwunye e nwere - Follow at back is one affix people have (Suffix is one of the existing affixes).

The phrasal nominal in Igbo does not have one to one correspondence with English. Some of the phrasal nouns are compounded to form one semantic entity while in some the individual words are written separately. It all depends on the laid down principles governing the spelling pattern of the language.
Verbal Nominal- Some words that are naturally verbs which can be converted to nominal through nominalization are known as verbal nominal. This is done by prefixation. Prefixation is an essential process of word formation in which an affix is attached to the beginning of a stem. The classification of prefixes is debated: on the one hand, prefixation, like suffixation, is considered a main type of derivation; on the other hand, prefixation is seen as a third main type of word formation next to derivation and composition. Some of the nominal formed through this process are:

Infinitive- This is formed by prefixing the vowels i/ị to the verbroot + noun that is ‘i/ị + verbroot + noun = infinitive’. The prefixation follows vowel harmony rule. For instance:

51. Ịrị nri na-edozi ahụ (To eat nourishes the body)
52. Ịgwọ akwụkwọ dị mkpa ( To read is important)
53. Ịsị asị na-ewete nsogbu (To tell lies brings trouble)
54. Ikwu eziokwu na-ewete ọganiihu (To say the truth brings progress)
55. Igba mgba na-agbasi ahụ ike (To wrestle makes the body healthy).

Gerund – This is one of the verbal derivations. The formation is through the principle of prefixation and suffixification. It is by prefixing o/o to the verb root and complete or partial duplication of the verb root which is suffixification, the formula is ‘o/o + verb root × 2 = gerund’. For instance:

56. Oriri dị ya mma ( Eating is good for him/her)
57. Ọ dị mma n’oriri ( S/he is good at eating)
58. Okwukwu abụghị omume (Talking is not actualization)
59.Ọnụnụ dị mkpa karịa ọkụkọ (Hearing is more important that telling).

This is mainly seen in active verbs. The structure of this type of verb root is CV thus, they are simple verb root. On the other hand, complex gerund can be derived from verbs whose structure is cvcvcv as the case may be. And the process is through the prefixation of semi vowel ‘m/n’ to the verb, that is, ‘m/n + verb = complex gerund’. For instance:
60. m + malite = mmalite (beginning),
61. n + jedewe = njedewe (ending),
62. m+bido = mbido (starting),
63. n+nwale = nnwale (testing),
64. n+nyocha = nnyocha (examining),
65. m+wepụ = mwepụ (subtracting),
66. m+gbakọ = mgbakọ (adding),
67. m+wete = mwete (bringing),
68. m+wute = mwute (paining),
69. n+cheta = ncheta (remembering),
70. n+rite = nrite (gaining),
71. n+kwụsị = nkwụsị (stoping) etc.

It is pertinent to pinpoint that the verb roots that can undergo this process are complex verb roots and must be in imperative form.

**Noun agent**- Bussmann (1996:327) calls this type of noun nomen agentis which refers to the term for nouns (usually derived from verbs) that refer to the performer of the action they describe. The most frequent type in modern English is formed with the agentive suffix –er: dancer, player. In the Igbo language, this type of noun is derived through the prefixation of o/q to the verb root +noun, that is ‘o/q + verb root + nominal modifier/complement=noun agent’. For instance:

72. o+de akwụkwọ = ode akwụkwọ (secretary),
73. o+kwu+okwu = okwu okwu (spokesman),
74. q+gụ+egwu = ọgụ egwu (singer),
75. o+si+nri = ọsi nri (cook),
76. q+sụ+ji = ọṣụ ji (yam pounder),
77. q+kwa+nka = ọkwa nka (craftman),
78. o+ti+okpo = ọti okpo (boxer),
79. q+sụ+akwu = ọṣụ akwu (palm nut pounder), etc.

These noun agents can be shortened by suffixing the vowel of the verb root and removal of the complement to get something like ode (writer/secretary), okwu (spokesman), qgxx (reader/singer), osii (cook), qọxx Pounder), etc. respectively. On the other hand, the short form can still be used when making derogative or sarcastic utterances.

Noun Instrument- The instrument used by the noun agent in carrying out his duty is known as noun instrument. The difference between noun agent and noun instrument is that noun agent is a human being whilst noun instrument is an object. To get noun instrument from the verb, the formula is ‘m/n+ verb root+ complement=noun instrument’. For instance:

80. n+gwu+ala = ngwu ala (digger),
81. m+kpa+qkx = mkpa qkx (matches),
82. n+si+nri = nsi nri (cooker),
83. n+che+anwu = nche anwu (umbrella),
84. m+gba+mmiri = mgba mmiri (irrigation pan),
85. m+vọ+isi = mvọ isi (comb), etc.
The verbal nominal are regular because each has a specific rule governing its formation in the language.

**Clausal Nominal**- When a clause takes the position of the subject or object of a sentence it referred to as clausal nominal. For example:

86. *Akpomasị* na-ebute odachi (*ikpo asị* na-ebute ọdachi)  
Hatred brings setback.

87. *Esemokwu* na-esite na nghqtahie (*Ise okwu* na-esite na nghatahie)  
Trouble results from misunderstanding,

88. *Agamnihu* ka mma karịa *ndachighaazụ* (*iịa n’ihu* ka mma karịa *ïdachigha azụ*)  
Progress is better than setback,

**Sentential Nouns**- These are sentences that are compressed to form a noun. For example:

89. Ada m abaala *mahadum* (mara ha dum)  
My daughter has entered university,

90. Nd[r qrxagha zxtara *ogbunigwe* (o gbu n’igwe)  
The warriors purchased bomb,

91. *Nwaka anaghị ara* *frared n’aja qcha* (o biri n’aja ọcha)  
*Nwaka* is not suffering from HIV/AIDS,

92. ọ bụ *omereqha* (o mere ọcha) He is benevolent.

The sentential nouns are mainly coined words or peoples’ names and nicknames.

**Deverbatives**- are words derived from verbs, such as equipment <equip, readable < read (Bussmann, 1996:123). These are the nouns that have their etymology from verbs. It is different from verbal nouns because they (deverbatives) do not have specific principles governing their creation, but verbal nominal have principles, in the Igbo language. This is done by prefixing vowel or semi vowel to the verb root, but the prefix is not specified. For instance:

93. *o+rụ* = ọrụ (work),
94. *n+so* = nsọ (sacred),
Denominal- Bussmann (1996:117) says that they are words derived from nouns, e.g. (to hammer(<hammer). In the Igbo language some nouns are derived from noun, for e.g.

108. ùwa (world) +ta +ùwa = ùwatùwa (eternity),

109. anụ (meat) + m+anụ = anụmanụ (animal),

110. ngo (bend)+ li+ngo = ngoľingo (crooked)

Compounding- This is when two nouns are joined together to form one, e.g.

111. ūda+ume =ūdaume sound+breath = vowel,
112. ūlo+akwụkwọ= ūloakwụkwọ house+book = school,
113. ahirị+okwu=ahirịokwu file word = sentence,
114. ūlo+aku=uloaku house+wealth=bank,
115. ekwe+ntị=ekwenti Igbo musical instrument+hear = GSM,
116. ūko+chukwu=ukochukwu mediator +God = priest,
117. nwa+nwoke=nwa nwoke child +male = man,
118. nwa+nwaanyị=nwa nwaanyi child +woman = female,

Findings
This research work found out the following: that in the Igbo Language, verb is a beast of burden because verb performs so many functions. This could be seen in the formation of Igbo nominal. From verbs, different items can be used to form infinitive, gerund, noun agents, noun instruments, etc. Also from verbs, concrete and abstract nouns can be created. All these can be derived through the process of prefixation and suffixation. Also discovered from this exercise is that the language curve out nominal through denominal; that is creating nouns from nouns. Nouns can also be created by joining two different nouns together to form one semantic entity, this is known as compounding.

Conclusion

The study on Igbo verbs can never be exhausted. Although verbs belong to a different word class, they still have much roles to play in nominal. Verbs can assume the status of nominal through nominalization. Igbo verbs accept different types of affixation (prefix, interfix and suffix) which enable them to move from one word class to another, especially to nominal. Compounding is also conspicuous in the formation of nominal. So many nouns are generated through this process by joining two words to form one. With all these, one can say that nominalization is obvious in the Igbo language.

References