

# A CONTRASTIVE STUDY OF NEGATION IN AMAIYI AND STANDARD VARIETY OF IGBO

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## ***Abstract***

*This study examines negation in Amaiyi lect. It examines how negative markers are formed, identifies the types of negative markers in the lect, investigates the nature of negative markers and distinguishes between negation in Amaiyi lect and standard Igbo. To accomplish this objective previous literature related to the study were reviewed. The Government and Binding (GB) theory of grammar was adopted as framework of the study. Some of the modules or sub-theories of the grammar were applied in the analysis of data. The collected data were analysed using descriptive analysis. Having analysed the data collected, it was found out among other things that negation is a formation that opposes or contradicts the semantic representation of a constituent. The morphemic constituents for forming negative markers are a - /e - + cv - stem + suffix. The different types of negative markers in Amaiyi lect are: - hi/ - he/- hu/ -ne/-na/-behi/-behu/-behe. The standard Igbo uses -ghi,-/la,-/beghi. Negative markers are discontinuous in nature. Amaiyi lect and standard Igbo have some similarities and differences. It was therefore concluded that there are negative markers in Amaiyi lect which is not obtainable in standard Igbo.*

## **Introduction**

Language is a means which human beings have devised for communicating ideas, feelings, emotions, desires, etc through complex vocal or written symbols (Anagbogu, Mbah & Eme,

2010:1). In everyday life, language also serves equally important social and emotional functions. Language could be basically referred to as human speech. In other words, speech is unique to human beings. It is a means of communication or interaction between members of a social group. It is made up of arbitrary vocal symbols which are manipulated in such a way as to produce meaningful utterances. Members of a social group interact and co-operate using this system of arbitrary vocal symbols. Each language exists in a number of varieties which is used by different social group. When this is the case, the varieties used by different social groups are referred to as dialects.

In recent times, studies have been carried out on Igbo dialects in the areas of phonetics, morphology, syntax and semantics. But not all the dialects have been fully studied. Notwithstanding that, it is still necessary for individual dialects to be studied as the present day standard Igbo has been able to meet with the expressive needs of Igbo speakers. It is deemed necessary to work on the negation of Amaiyi lect to complement the efforts of so many other researchers who have studied various dialects of Igbo. In the same vein, Amaiyi lect has not been studied or fully researched to the extent of noting the negation in the lect.

The different dialects have different ways of expressing negation. Due to the intricate nature of language, negation is best studied alongside affirmative counterpart. The study is therefore a contrastive study of negation in Amaiyi and standard variety of Igbo. The tone marking convention used in this work is the one propounded by Igwe and Green (1963) which leaves the high tone unmarked uses the grave accent (̀) for low tone and the raised macron (ˊ) for down step tone.

## **Literature Review**

Some scholars and grammarians have different views and theories on the subject of study. According to Crystal (2008: 323), negation is “a process or construction in grammatical and semantic analysis which typically expresses the contradiction of some or all of a sentence’s meaning”. In the English grammar, it is expressed by the presence of the negative particles (NEG) *not* or *n’t* (the contracted negative) in lexis, there are several possible means e.g prefixes such as *un*, *non*, or words such as *deny*, some languages use more than one particles in a single clause to express negation. Lyons (1977: 769) opines that there is also a clear difference of meaning in utterance which results from the negation of a performative verb and the negative of its complement.

(a) I don’t promise to assassinate the prime minister.

(b) I promise not to assassinate the prime minister.

Philosophers and logicians who accept the notion of logical form based on the distinction between the logical and extra logical (or descriptive) vocabularies treat negation as a feature of the logical vocabulary somehow apart from negative elements in the meaning of extra – logical terms and accept the doctrine that validity is a function of logical form in the narrow sense in which it is determined by logical particles. Examples:

(a) Christ lives forever

(b) Christ does not live forever

(c) Christ is mortal

(a) The design of the cloth is perfect

(b) The design of the cloth is not perfect

(c) The design of the cloth is flawed

(a) John became shorter last year

(b) John did not become shorter last year

(c) John's height increased or stayed the same last year.

In each of these cases (b) and (c) are negations of (a) just as (a) is a negation of (b) and (c) but (b) and (c) are themselves synonymous (Katz 1972: 157). Lobner (2002: 193), states that the negation is best captured with the term polarization, which means a partition of everything into two opposed alternatives, yes or no, true or false. Polarisation is not restricted to declarative sentences. It applies as well to all other types such as interrogative or imperative sentences.

(a) Why is there beer in the fridge? Versus why is there no beer in the fridge?

(b) Please, put beer into the fridge versus please, don't put beer into the fridge.

Allwood, Anderson and Dahl (1995:30) state that negation is used in logic to form a compound sentence the truth value of which is the opposite of that of the simple sentence it operates on. Thus, if its snowing is true, it is not snowing must be false or vice versa. Quirk and Greenbaun (2000:24) opine that negative sentences involve the operator requiring the insertion of *not* (or the affixal contraction – *n't*) between the operator and the predication.

(a) The girl *isn't* a student

(b) John did *not* search the room

(c) He *hadn't* given the girl an apple

Yule (1996: 184) discuss the stages of acquiring negators stage 1 seems to have a simple strategy which says that *no* or *not* should be stuck on the beginning of any expression. Examples are:

. (a) Not a teddy bear

(b) No fall

(c) No sit there

In the second stage, the additional negative don't and can't are used, and with no and not, begin to be placed in front of the verb rather than at the beginning of the sentence. Some examples are:

- (a) He no bite you      There no squirrels
- (b) You can't dance      I don't know

The third stage sees the incorporation of other auxiliary forms such as didn't and won't and the disappearance of the stage 1 forms. A very late acquisition is the form isn't, so that some stage 2 forms continue to be used for quiet a long time. Examples are:

- (a) I didn't caught it      She won't let go
- (b) He not taking it      This not ice cream

The study of the use of negative forms by children has given rise to some delightful examples of children operating their own rules for negative sentences example:

- (a) Child: Nobody don't like me
- (b) Mother: No, say "nobody likes me"
- (c) Mother: No, now listen carefully; say "nobody likes me"
- (d) Child: Oh! Nobody don't likes me

Kempson (1977: 118) notes that, in particular, there is the problem of interpreting negative sentences. How can we reconcile the claim that to give the meaning of a lexical item is to state the condition which contributes to the set of truth condition of all sentences such as (15) a – d, none of which has a necessary condition for the contribution made by lexical item.

- (a) John didn't kill Mary.
- (b) She wasn't strangled.

- (c) There aren't any spinsters in the village.
- (d) Susie didn't chase the cat.

Finegan (2008:332) opines that four out of five negative morphemes occur as the negative adverb not (attached to the verb as a contraction). One characteristic difference between speech and writing is the much higher frequency of negation in spoken registers, where the vast majority of negative elements are separated which is often realised as *n't* rather than incorporated into words like invalid.

Akmajian, Demers, Farmer and Harnish (2006:161) opine that the contracted negative form *n't* can attach to auxiliary verbs

- (a) John is running  
John isn't running
- (b) They have left  
They haven't left
- (c) I can sing  
I can't sing

However, main verbs cannot be negated in this way.

- (a) You know those women  
You known't those women
- (b) Mary left early  
Mary leftn't early

When a sentence continue only a main verb and no auxiliary verb, the auxiliary verb *do* is used in forming the negative version

- (a) You know those women  
You don't know those women
- (b) Mary left early  
Mary didn't leave early
- (c) They went to Berkeley  
They didn't go to Berkeley

In addition auxiliary verbs can be followed by the uncontracted negative *not* (as in John is not running. They have not left. I cannot sing). Main verbs cannot be followed by uncontracted *not* in current spoken American English: expressions such as “We know not what we do and Ask not what your country can do for you are possible only in highly stylised forms of English in which an archaic flavour is preserved as in religious preaching styles and highly formal oratory”.

Matthew (1997: 260) posits that the negative (sentence, construction, form) whose basic role is asserting that something is not the case. Example: He is not coming. This is a negative sentence marked as such by the negative particle *not*. Also of similar elements or processes within words: e.g unhappy is a negative adjective, whose sense negates that of happy.

Dixon (2005) posits that the preferred position for the negator “*not*” is after the first word of the auxiliary or after a Copula, in a main clause. Under various circumstances, a negator that should properly be placed elsewhere is attracted into this position.

Firstly, note what is here called sentential negation can apply either to a main clause, as in (22a) or to a complement clause, as in (22b)

- (a) I didn't say (that he lied) (I said nothing)
- (b) I said (that he didn't lie) (I said that he told the truth).

Here the difference in meaning is significant, and the negator *n't* is likely to be maintained in its proper place. But consider

- (a) I don't think (that he came) (I don't know what he did).

(b) I think (that he didn't come) (I think that he stayed away).

The sentiment expressed in (23a) is not likely to be often expressed, whereas that in (23b) is much used. People often say I don't think that he came when they actually mean (23b) that he stayed away. This can be accounted for by attraction of *n't* from the complement clause into the preferred position after the first word of the auxiliary in the main clause.

Negation is a syntactic operation in which a lexical item negation denies or inverts the meaning of another lexical item or construction. A negator is a lexical item that expresses negation.

Examples: lexical items (English).

(a) not

(b) non-

(c) un-

(Crystal 1991: 231)

Ndimele (2004: 939) says that it is often claimed that negation is a distinct speech act from the affirmative, and that negative affirmative pairing is not always a straight forward one. Schaefer and Masagbor (1984:28) quote Dahl (1979) as defining "...negation in terms of the truth value of two sentences. That is, a negation marker is such that in converting one sentence (S-1) into another (S-2), it brings about a state where *S-1* is true if *S-2* is false, or *S-2* is true if *S-1* is false."

Graddol, Cheshire and Swann (1987: 74) say that the negative word can be *no* as well as *not* and it can be inserted either at the beginning of the sentence or (in one case) at the end, rather than between clause elements. The structure of the negative sentences can be described as:

- (a) no  
 (b) not  
 or  
 (c) Sentence + no
- } sentence

Furthermore, Radford (1988: 150) stresses that Auxiliaries can be directly negated by *not/n't*:

- (a) John could *not/couldn't* come to the party  
 (b) I do *not/I don't* like her much  
 (c) He is *not/isn't* working very hard  
 (d) They have *not/haven't* finished

In Finnish, negative sentences have a special construction: the verb (which, as in Italian, includes actor and action in one sentence – word) is a special negative verb, which may be modified by an infinitive like form of another verb:

- (a) leun 'I read' en lue 'I don't read'  
 (b) leat 'thou readest' et lue 'thou dost-not read'  
 (c) lukee 'he reads' ei lue 'he doesn't read'  
 (Bloomfield, 1987 – 1949: 175)

Consequently, Saeed (1997: 302) opines that negative words, like English not, also display scope over a predication and a second advantages of this type of representation is that it allows us to disambiguate some sentences which contain combinations of quantifiers and negation. The sentence, "Everybody didn't visit limerick", for example, can have the two interpretations given in 28 and 29 below, where we give a paraphrase in b and the predicate logic translation in c:

- (a) Everybody didn't visit limerick  
 (b) For every person x, it's not the case that x visited  
 (c)  $\forall x \neg (v(x, l))$

- (a) Everybody didn't visit limerick

- (b) Its not case that every person  $x$  visited limerick.  
(c)  $\neg \forall x (v(x, l))$ .

The ambiguity is clearly distinguished in the predicate logic translations. In **28c** the universal quantifier has wide scope over the negative  $\neg$ , while in **29c** the negative has wide scope over the universal quantifier.

In logic, negation the logical complement is an operation that essentially takes a proposition  $P$  to another proposition  $P'$  written  $\neg P$ , which is interpreted intuitively as being true when  $P$  is false and false when  $P$  is true. Negation is thus a unary (single argument) logical connective it may be applied as an operation on propositions, truth values, or semantic values more generally. In classical logic negation is normally identified with the truth function that takes truth to falsity and vice versa. In intuitionist logic, according to the Brouwer Heyting-Kolmogorov interpretation the negation of a proposition  $P$  is the proposition whose proof are relations of  $P$ . (Hazelwinkle, 2001).

Price, (1971: 252) opines that *non* and *ne* the most widely used adverb of negation in Latin was *non* (e.g. *non venio* 'I am not coming') which, in stressed positions, came down into French as *non* and, in unstressed positions, as *ne*. In French, negation used with verbs, *ne* constituted sufficient negation in itself. *Pas*, *point*, *mie*, *gote* could be added for emphasis, but were often dispensed with. It is to be noted that the words *onc*, *onques*, *aucun* and *rien* although often used with *ne*, were positive when used without it, and meant respectively 'ever', 'some/any', and 'some(thing)'. *Rien* was even a feminine substantive in its own right. (Rickard, 1974: 62).

Osborn, (1974: 69) notes that there are two types of negation – predicate phrase negation and noun phrase is usually

achieved by the insertion of a negative adverb *Kar lu or alnugkwa* at the beginning of the phrase.

- (a) Dara *karlu* paiðwani  
He *not* hungry  
He (is) *not* hungry  
(b) Awurini *karlu* jirituwati  
Man *not* he went  
The man *didn't* go

Method of negation the predicate phrase is the suffixation of the negative enclitic – *amati* to the last word of the phrase

- (a) Dara kozotin – *amazi*  
He little not  
He is not little  
(b) Wuta patinwan-*amazi*  
They dead not  
They (were) not dead

Some speakers regard the negative advert – *amazi* as mutually exclusive, but others sometimes use double negative forms which contain both

- (a) Dara *karlu kiritin – amazi*  
He not little - not  
He (is) not little

In verbal sentences, negation of any types or by any means always requires the verb form to be changed into the subjunctive

- (a) Awunupakupauli – *karlu jinni matakupauli*  
He'll come back he won't come back

Noun phrase negation is achieved by substituting a negative pronoun *karekuwan* 'no one or *karðkamini* 'nothing for a particular noun phrase. In this type of negation, too, verbs have to become subjunctive

- (a) *Karekuwani jinmata kupauli*

No one he – come back  
No one will come back  
(There is) nothing inside

The Tiwi usually avoid negative pronoun as object for instance they would not say ‘I saw *no* one’ but ‘I looked. No one!

Bamgbose (1967: 29-30) says that the perfective marker in the negative tenses is *ì, í t í ì, or ù*

(a) Perfective future tense

Àwon Obinrin ò t í ì n í í lo – The woman won’t have gone yet.

k ò ì n í í sòrò – She won’t have talked.

(b) Perfective conditional past tense

A kì bá má t í ì mò - We wouldn’t have known yet

(c) Perfective Habitual tense

Nwon òti nsísé, ‘They weren’t in the habit of speaking’ (The perfective marker is it).

(d) Perfective Unmarked Tense

Ìyen ò ì dára ‘That is not good yet

e ò ì nísé ‘You haven’t have work

e ò tí ì nísé ‘You haven’t have work yet

Lehman (1916: 167) is of the view that Negatives with forms of not are made with auxiliaries, for example, isn’t, didn’t and can’t as in

(a) It isn’t cold

(b) They didn’t come

They may also be made with *never* and in other ways since negatives may be made of questions for example

(a) He never came?

(b) Who didn’t come?

(c) Can’t they come?

## **Comparison between negative markers in Amaiyi lect and standard variety of Igbo**

### **Formation of Negative Markers**

Negative markers are those suffixes that go with the verbs to produce negation in sentences. Negative markers are grammatical devices, which are used to show negation in a sentence construction. Negation is achieved through the use of a number of negative suffixes, which are usually attached to the verbs. The morphemic constituents for forming negatives are (A/E + CV + suffix). Example:

Standard Igbo

- (a) Ha eribèghì jì  
(They pre-éat pef neg yam)  
They have not eaten yam
- (b) Ànyì elèbèghì ùlè  
(We pre-take pef neg exam)  
We have not taken exam
- (c) Èberè ebèbèghì akwa  
(Ebere pre-cry pef neg)  
Ebere has not cried
- (d) Ngozi edèghì ihè  
(Ngozi write neg)  
Ngozi did not write
- (e) Èmekà agàghì Ùkà.  
(Emeka go neg Church)  
Emeka did not go to Church
- (f) Odò ebèghì akwa  
(Odo cry neg)  
Odo did not cry
- (g) Atàlà azù  
(Pre-eat neg fish)  
Don't eat fish

The morphemic constituents for forming negatives in Amaiyi lect are (A/E + CV + - suffix). Example: Amaiyi lect

- (a) Ha erìbèhì jì  
(They pre-eat pef neg yam)  
They have not eaten yam
- (b) Ànyì elèbèhì ùlè  
(We pre-take pef neg exam)  
We have not taken exam
- (c) Èberè ebèbèhì akwa  
(Ebere pre-cry pef neg)  
Ebere has not cried
- (d) Ngozi edèhì ihe  
(Ngozi write neg)  
Ngozi did not write
- (e) Èmeka agàhì Ụkà.  
(Emeka go neg Church)  
Emeka did not go to Church
- (f) Odò ebèhì akwa  
(Odo cry neg)  
Odo did not cry
- (g) Atànà azù  
(Pre-eat neg fish)  
Don't eat fish

### **Types of negative marker**

Negative markers are uniquely based on languages. Their uniqueness is based on the grammatical structure of languages. Every language has its unique grammatical structure and this explains why types of negative markers are strictly on each human language.

Let us look at various types of negative markers. They include:

Table 1

	Standard Igbo	Amaiya lect
1	The Negative marker -ghị	-hị,-he,-hụ
2	The imperative marker –la	-ne,-na
3	The perfective marker – beghị	-behe,-behụ,-behị

The features involved in each negative will be clearly stated by treating them one after the other.

The Negative Marker (- ghị)

The negative marker is the (-ghị) suffix. Its morphemic constituent is

(A + CV + - ghị) verb.

This suffix has two groups known as the dotted and the undotted group. Examples of these groups are given below.

‘ -ghị’ the dotted group.

(a) Ò zụṭāghī azụ.

(He buys neg fish).

He did not buy fish.

(b) Ò taghī azụ.

(He eat neg fish).

He did not eat fish.

(c) Ò bụghī ọnye as□.

(He is neg a liar).

He is not a liar.

(d) Ò gaghī abịà.

(He will neg come).

He will not come.

(e) Ò gụghī akwụkwō.

(He read neg book).

He did not read.

(a) Ò zụṭāhī azụ

(He buys neg fish).

He did not buy fish

(b) Ò tahī azụ.

(He eat neg fish).

He did not eat fish

(c) Ò bụhī ọnye as□.

(He is neg a liar)

He is not a liar

(d) Ò gahī abịà

(He will neg come).

He will not come

(e) Ò gụhī akwụkwō

(He read neg book).

He did not read

‘- ghi’ the undotted group.

(a) Ò teghī ofe.

(He cooks neg soup).

He did not cook soup.

(b) È nweghi ọrụ taà.

(There is work neg today).

There is no work today.

(c) Ò zughī ohī.

(He did neg steal).

He did not steal.

(d) Ì bughī ibù.

(You are neg fat).

You are not fat.

(a) Ò tehi ofe

(He cooks neg soup).

He did not cook soup.

(b) È nwehē ọrụ taà

(There is work neg today).

There is no work today

(c) Ò zuhe oshī

(He did neg steal).

He did not steal

(d) Ì buhī ibù

(You are neg fat).

You are not fat

It can be observed in the above examples that this negative marker operates in accordance with vowel harmony. It can be noticed that the high tone vowels (e, ọ, ụ ì) go in harmony, that is considering the pronoun and the verb root, likewise the low tone vowels (a, u, o, i). Again with pronouns like (o, ọ) and (i, ì) mostly go in harmony with the negative marker that harmonizes with them.

### **Imperative marker**

According to Igwe and Green (1963: 169) “The imperative negative refers to the morpheme constituents of this form are the CV verb stem with a harmonizing vowel prefix a - / e- according to the stem vowel”. The tone of prefix is high tone verb before an object but low if no object follows. It is low for low tone verbs in either case.

The Imperative negative marker is the suffix ‘- la’ and an open vowel prefix. The verb form has the following morpheme constituent (A + CV- stem + - la) verb.

The suffix ‘-la’ in this construction is similar to the perfective suffix in the affirmative construction. Although they look alike, they differ in character and distribution is consistently on a high tone, the imperative negative suffix depends on its verb-stem for its tone. The perfective affirmative suffix co-occurs with the open vowel suffix while the imperative negative suffix occurs with both the ‘A’ vowel prefix and the high-tone open vowel suffix ‘E’. This negative imperative suffix can be hosted by lexical verbs as in the following example.

Table 2

s/no	Affirmative	Negative
a	Rie edè Eat cocoyam Eat cocoyam	Eriḷē edè Eat neg cocoyam Do not eat cocoyam
b	Ụnù gbàà ọsō You run You people should run	Ụnù àgbālā ọsō You neg run You people should not run
ch	Kwùo eziokwū Say truth Say the truth	Ekwūlē eziokwū Say neg truth Do not say the truth
d	Kpùọ yā Mould it Mould it	Akpùlā yā Mould neg it Do not mould it
e	Ụnù bja ebe à You come here  You people should come	Ụnù abīālā ebe à You come neg here You people should not come

In examples above, the negative suffixes obey the rule of vowel harmony in all the sentences. It is observed that in Indo-European languages such as English and French, the imperative is associated only with second person. For example: English:

	NP	Modal	Verb
	You	will	go
SD	1	2	3
SC	0	0	0

In French, the second person singular and plural, and the first person plural are being referred to as in the following sentences

French: Mange: eat! (2<sup>nd</sup> person singular)

Mangeous: let's eat! (1<sup>st</sup> person plural)

Mangez: eat! (2<sup>nd</sup> person plural)

In Igbo, The situation is different as the affirmative construction extends to all persons. For example:

- (a) Bìà! Come (2<sup>nd</sup> person singular)
- (b) Ya bìà! Let him come! (3<sup>rd</sup> person singular)
- (c) Bìanụ! Come (2<sup>nd</sup> person plural)
- (d) Ha bìà! Let them come (3<sup>rd</sup> person plural)

This is example of imperative negative in Standard Igbo and Amayi lect

**Table 3**

Standard Igbo -la	Amaiyi lect -ne/-na
(a) Erilā nri	Erìnā nni
(Pre –eat neg food)	(Pre –eat neg food)
Don't eat food	Don't eat food
(a) Ụnụ arùlā ọrụ	Ụnụ arùnā ọrụ
(You pre-neg work)	(You pre-neg work)
You people should not do the work	You people should not do the work
(b) Echūlā mmirī	Echūnē mmirī
(Pre-fetch neg water)	(Pre-fetch neg water)
Don't fetch water	Don't fetch water
(c) Atàlà anụ	Atànà anụ
(Pre -eat neg meat)	( Pre-eat neg meat)
Don't eat meat	Don't eat meat
(d) Ụnụ ebēlā akwa	Ụnụ ebēnē akwa
(You pre- neg cry)	(You pre- neg cry)
You people should not cry	You people should not cry

In the formation of imperative marker above the prefix a-/e- will be in front of the verb-stem before the suffix.

### **Perfective negative marker**

According to Emenanjo (1978:168), “the perfective negative marker refers to a complete action whose influence is still fat in the present”. The perfective negative makers have a combination of two negative suffixes. These are the morpheme ‘-be’ which is a perfective marker and the general marker -ghị. Thus the morphemic constituent of the perfective negative marker is (A + CV + -beghị). Both the perfective marker ‘-be’ and the general negator - ghị are inflectional and are consistently on low tones. For example:

Standard Igbo	Amaiyi lect
(a) Anyị eribèghị nri.	(a) Anyị eribèhù nni.
(We pre-have-neg food).	(We pre-have-neg food)
We have not eaten.	We have not eaten.
(b) Ọ lụbèghị nwànyị.	(b) Ọ lụbèhì nwànyị.

(He has marry pef-neg wife). He has not married a wife.	(He has marry pef-neg wife). He has not married a wife.
(c) Ò gụbèghì egwu. (He has sing pef-neg song). He has not sung a song.	(c) Ò gụbèhù egwu (He has sing pef-neg song). He has not sung a song.
(d) Ò kwọbèghì aka. (He has wash pef-neg hand). He has not washed his hand.	(d) Ò kwọbèhì aka (He has wash pef-neg hand). He has not washed his hand
(e) Ò zubèghì ike. (He has rest-pef-neg). He has not rested.	(e) Ò zubèhè ike (He has rest-pef-neg). He has not rested

In the example above, it was found out that in perfective Negative Marker some negative suffixes do not obey the rule of vowel harmony.

### **Distinction between negative markers in Amayi lect and standard Igbo**

Amayi lect and standard Igbo have similarities and differences.

1. In forming negation, the two have the same forms. (A - / E - + verb + suffix). They have negation suffixes which are attached to verbs to form negation in a sentence construction.
2. These negative morphemes mark tenses in both the standard and the lect form of the Igbo language. For example in standard Igbo ( - beg̃hì ) which is a perfective marker is used to mark actions whose influence is still felt in the present negatively. For example:

(a) A hùrù ya	À hùbèghì yà
(b) Mmirī zòrò	Mmirī ezobèghī
(ch) O rìrì nrì	Ò ribèghì nrì

*-la'* is used to mark negative command. For example:

- |      |           |              |
|------|-----------|--------------|
| (a)  | Bịa ebe à | Abịalà ebe à |
| (b)  | Butùo yā  | ebūtùlà ya.  |
| (ch) | Pùọ ebe à | Apùlà ebe à  |

'- *ghị*' is used to mark past tense negatively. For example:

- |     |                |                   |
|-----|----------------|-------------------|
| (a) | Ọ chòrọ ya     | Ọ chọghī yà       |
| (b) | Ọ nwèrè ewu    | Ọ nweghī ewu      |
| (c) | Agbàrà ya egbè | À gbaghí yá egbè. |

In Amaiyi lect, the negative suffixes also mark tenses. For example ' - *hụ / -he / -hị* of the Amaiyi lect like - "*ghị*" in standard form mark past tense negatively. And they can be said to be variants of the same morpheme in the lect.

Furthermore, there is vowel harmonisation in some forms of the negative marker in the Amaiyi lect and standard variety of Igbo. The vowels harmonise with the verb and pronoun in the sentence construction but the future negative marker do not harmonise with the prefix or the pronoun and the verb in both Amaiyi and standard variety of Igbo. Their morphemic constituents are the same. They have prefix with verb stem and a negative suffix. For instance, A + CV stem + suffix (negative)

- |      |   |               |                       |
|------|---|---------------|-----------------------|
| S.F  | : | Atālā anù ahù | Do not eat the meat.  |
| A. L | : | Àsuhù m akwà  | I did not wash cloth. |

Moreover, there is influence of tonal pattern in both standard Igbo and Amaiyi lect.

Amaiyi lect and Standard Igbo have the same structure. Both are discontinuous in nature consisting of a negative prefix and a negative suffix. When the negative morpheme is affixed to an affirmative verb, negation is normally expressed grammatically in Igbo. Furthermore, interface of morphology,

phonology, syntax and semantics are revealed in this Igbo negative marker exercise.

Contrastively, there is area of difference between the standard Igbo and Amaiye lect which include:

1. The standard variety have three negative markers while the Amaiye lect has eight forms of negative markers.

### **Summary and Conclusion**

Effort has been made in this study to look at negations in Igbo using Amaiye lect as an example. The researchers have been able to come up with some findings as aforementioned. When these findings were placed side by side with what is obtainable in standard Igbo, some areas of similarities and differences were identified especially with regards to the number of negations obtainable in the lect.

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