SOME ASPECTS OF WORD-FORMATION IN isiZULU: WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO MORPHOLOGICAL AND LEXICAL PROCESSES

by

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PROMOTER : Prof. L.F. Mathenjwa
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KWADLANGEZWA
I, Louis M.M.S. Madondo, hereby declare that *Some Aspects of Word-formation with a special reference to Morphological and Lexical processes*, is my own original work and that all the sources used have been correctly acknowledged by means of complete reference.

L.M.M.S. MADONDO
My indebtedness and gratitude is wholeheartedly extended to the following people for their contributions in making this study a success:

1. My Supervisor and promoter, Prof. L.F. Mathenjwa, Mgabadeli!
2. My parents, the late Vovi Madondo, my mom and Jombela Madondo, my father, my fiancée, N.P.B. Mathenjwa and my boys Vuma and Vumani, Manquhe!
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May the Grace of God be with them.
iii.

Dedication

This work is dedicated to my late mom, Vovi, my twins Vumani and Vuma and their mom Bongi.
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Abstract

Word-formation has received very little attention in isiZulu in the past. This situation has been caused by the approach of word analysis which was pioneered by grammarians like Doke (1956), Nyembezi (1965) and others that followed in their steps. The main aim of this study is therefore to put word-formation into its rightful place in isiZulu grammar, that is at the centre of every morphological application. Word-formation and word-formation rules should form the basis for every grammatical practice of every language.

Although word-formation is as old as the languages themselves, it is noticeable that there are no methods or approaches that has been agreed upon in any language. This implies that this study also attempts to develop the theoretical framework for word-formation in isiZulu since most studies done on word-formation are on English which is different from isiZulu. It therefore attempts to deal with processes that are vital in word-formation in isiZulu. It includes the processes like: affixation, grammaticalization, compounding, reduplication, word coinage as well as borrowing. This means that it covers both the morphological and lexical processes.

IsiZulu is one of the most flexible and ever developing languages and through contact with other languages like English, Afrikaans and other African languages, isiZulu has proved to be developing rapidly. This phenomenon has led to the researcher undertaking the study of this nature. This study will form the basis for linguistically approach to the study of isiZulu. A close look is put on topics like word coinage, word borrowing, compounding, grammaticalization and affixation.

Various conclusions and recommendations are drawn in an attempt to lead the way to rechanneling the focus of studies in isiZulu grammar. This study shows that isiZulu is not as backward and short of appropriate vocabulary as it is perceived to be. The shortage of words is remedied by processes like word borrowing, word coinage and extension of meaning in existing terms. On that note, isiZulu is at par with other languages of the world and this study says it.
Chapter One

1.0 GENERAL INTRODUCTION AND MODUS OPERANDI

1.1 Introduction

The study of word-formation has never been given the attention it deserves in isiZulu, yet it is central to practices of any theoretical linguist of any persuasion as it throws light to many aspects of language. Unfortunately in isiZulu, there is no basic theoretical background for the study of word-formation, because of the lack of studies in this field. This study therefore aims at laying a foundation for further discussions and studies on different aspects of word-formation. Examples from different languages especially English, will be used to elucidate certain points but it must be borne in mind that this study is not a comparative one in any way. That is why some word-formation rules which are productive in English will not be considered for this study as they are not productive in isiZulu. As this study aims at drawing a vivid background and basis for further studies in general morphology, it will be inclusive in as far as morphological rules, diachronic and synchronic.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Word-formation has not been treated adequately by isiZulu grammarians. To the best of my knowledge, no grammarian has done this topic in a thorough account. Most grammarians in isiZulu have been doing studies in word categories and they have touched on word-formation in passing. Canonici (1989) deals with ways of identifying a word but does not dwell much on word-formation. This situation has necessitated a study of this type. This study will therefore pay more attention on the role played by morphological processes in word-formation. Grammarians of other languages like English, Dutch and German have touched on word-formation but with less emphasis on the role played by morphological processes in word-
formation. cf. Bauer (1995), Katamba (1993) and Bauer (1983). The situation mentioned above has misdirected the focus of many grammarians into thinking that the study of isiZulu is about analysis of words and/or categorizing words into different word categories.

The Dokean approach – that is categorization and analysis, has an impact on the development of isiZulu as a language especially in vocabulary and linguistically. Doke’s approach is one approach amongst others that may be used in a language but it must not be the only approach as it now appears to be. This has somehow hindered the development of isiZulu because the point of departure for most studies has been to break existing words into various constituents rather than the formation of new words which would help in developing the language.

1.3 Aim of Study

The study aims at emphasizing and explaining the contribution of both morphological and lexical processes in word-formation with an aim of developing a theoretical basis for isiZulu word-formation. This theoretical framework will provide the basis for isiZulu which will ultimately form the basis for further developments of the language as such.

The study in word-formation is expanding and increasing with time as there are moves to blend the synchronic and diachronic points of view. This implies that this study will be one of those which blend the synchronic and diachronic. The foregoing discussion shows that word-formation studies have not been exhaustive enough. This situation gives rise to the need for further studies in word-formation or any field related to it. African languages specifically South African (including isiZulu), do not have studies in word-formation and it is that state that has
prompted the undertaking of this study which we hope it will give way to many studies in word-formation.

Most studies in isiZulu have focused on word classes and their classification and the analysis as well as the break down of words into morphemes. No if not less attention has been paid to word-formation. This study therefore aims at bringing about a shift of focus to what forms the basis for any process and practice in morphology.

1.4 Delimitation of the Study

This study will attempt to deal with processes that are vital in word-formation in isiZulu. It will include the processes that take place when we use affixes (affixation), grammaticalization, compounding and reduplication as word-formation processes.

1.5 Methodology

1.5.1 METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION

The desk research method will be used by the researcher. A variety of books, journals, thesis, dissertations, articles and encyclopaedia have been read and used so as to gain insight of what different grammarians say about word-formation. In particular, Bauer (1995) have been looked at and analyzed so that a theoretical basis for word-formation could be developed. Bauer (1995) provides the theoretical framework for word-formation in English. For the purposes of this study, his account will be useful although some formation rules will be different.
1.5.2 DATA ANALYSIS

An explanatory and the inductive methods of data analysis will be used. Valid examples will be extracted and analyzed so as to validate every argument.

1.6 Definition of Terms

1.6.1 WORD-FORM AND LEXEME

The definition of a word has proved to be difficult or confusing to many grammarians. For the purposes of this study, we will define a word as a sound or combination of sounds that expresses a meaning and is a basic form (not minimal) of grammar. It is a totality of morphemes put together to construct a whole. Katamba, (1993:18) defines a word as:

... a particular physical realization of that lexeme in speech or writing, i.e. a particular word form.

Katamba’s definition is wider in that it differentiates between a lexeme and a word as he refers to the latter as the physical realization of the former. To define the word-form further, we need to differentiate between the word-form and lexeme. Word-forms are concrete whereas the lexemes are abstract in nature. Bauer, (1983:12) in this regard has this to say:

Word-forms have phonological or orthographic shape, while a lexeme is a much more abstract unit.

The lexeme has its citation form which is a word-form which is used when a lexeme is entered into a dictionary, for example:
-hamba is a citation form while

[go]

-hambisa, -hambisisa, -ambeka etc. are paradigms.

[make to go][go intensively][easy to go]

This implies that the paradigms are formed from the citation word through inflection.

1.6.2 FORMATION

Formation is a grammatical process or system through which anything is constructed or developed. Therefore word-formation is a morphological process whereby words are formed or constructed. It focuses on how words are constructed, what constitute them, how are they constructed and the processes (morphological and phonological) that take place in their construction.

1.6.3 AFFIXES

The term ‘affix’ indicates a morpheme that is added to the stem or the root with an aim of extending or changing the meaning of the base. In this regard Crystal, (1987:10) defines it as:

*The collective term for the types of formatives that can be used only when added to another morpheme (the root or the stem).*

Crystal’s definition of affixes illustrates the fact that affixes are bound morphemes because they are always added to other morphemes, they cannot stand on their own as words. The term affix has not been used by
isiZulu traditional grammarians, Doke uses the term ‘formatives’. It should also be noted that not all morphemes are affixes, for example, the root is not an affix. Affixes are classified into three types:

1.6.3.1 Prefixes:
These are affixes that are added at the beginning of the root or stem. They are placed before the root of the base. Crystal, (1987:10) defines prefixes as:

... those which are added to the beginning of a root stem.

This can be illustrated by the following example:

The noun isihlahla has the prefix isi- and the stem -hlahla

1.6.3.2 Infixes:
These affixes are placed within or into the root. Crystal, (1987:10) extends his definition of infixes to embrace the stem when he says:

... those which occur within a root or stem

To the best of my knowledge, real infixes as defined by Crystal are not found in isiZulu. IsiZulu has pre-root infixes –those that are added before the root but into the word and post-root infixes – those that are added after the root.

1.6.3.3 Suffixes:
These affixes come after the root, that is, they are put at the end of the root and take the place of the final vowel of the stem. There are many suffixes in Zulu and they include affixes like the diminutives affix –ana and the augmentative affix –kazi.
1.6.4 REDUPLICATION

Reduplication is a morphological process whereby the same morpheme is used more than once in a word. This occurs in stems and prefixes in isiZulu. A new word can be formed by reduplication (with a new meaning which is different from the original base). Bauer, (1995:25) defines reduplication as:

... using some part of the base (which may be the entire base) more than once in the word.

Bauer’s definition indicates that reduplication may include the reduplication of the entire base in some cases. That is not very common in isiZulu as we normally reduplicate stems and prefixes. In this study reduplication will therefore be used to indicate the morphological process whereby the same morpheme is used more than once in a word.

1.6.5 GRAMMATICALIZATION

Grammaticalization is a morphological process whereby full lexical items become grammatical morphemes in a process of forming a new word. It involves a number of other morphological processes which fall under two main processes, namely: syntagmatic coalescence and attrition. Syntagmatic coalescence includes compounding, cliticization affixation, fusion, fossilization, desemanticization and idiomaticization. According to Ungerer and Schmid, (1996:255) this can be defined as:

... the transition of autonomous words into the role of grammatical elements
In that way, grammaticalization can be construed as a reduction of the autonomy of a linguistic sign. Gerritsen, (1992:413) asserts that:

*It comprises, on the other hand, the transformation of lexical elements into grammatical ones and their further reduction to zero, and, on the other the reduction of the paradigmatic and syntagmatic variability of the sign.*

1.6.6 COMPOUNDING

The term 'compounding' refers to a morphological process in which two or more words are fused to form one complex word which generally refers to an entity with the features of both former entities. Compounding occurs in complete words, sentences as well as in affixes, but for the purposes of this study, the researcher limit its scope to a process occurring to complete words and affixes only and we exclude sentences because they fall under syntax and not morphology which is our focal point.

1.6.7 GOVERNMENT

The term 'Government' will be used to refer to a morphosyntactic process whereby one item in a sentence determines the morpheme to be added to another item. This normally occurs when nouns determine the subject or object concord. That implies that the other element governs the other. Bauer, (1983:25) has this to say in this regard:

*Government, on the other hand, is the system whereby one element in a sentence determines which morpheme is added to another element.*
This means that some elements in a sentence can contribute to formation of new words.

1.7 Literature Review

Word-formation has not been treated adequately by isiZulu grammarians. To the best of my knowledge, no grammarian has done this topic in a thorough account. Most grammarians in isiZulu have been doing studies in word categories and word analysis. No one has done word-formation.

The interest and love on word-formation has always gone hand-in-glove with an interest in language as a whole (Bauer, 1983). In languages like English, Dutch, German and Italian, word-formation has been studied as from the seventeenth century till present but with some difficulties and problems which remain unresolved. This began with people like Panini (1968) who gave a detailed description of Sanskrit word-formation. According to Bauer there is very little advance on Panini's account even at present (1983:2). Bauer also argues that word-formation did not get the boost that linguistics as a whole received. That is the reason behind the existence of some difficulties even now.

The rise of the “Chomskian revolution” in 1957 changed the approach on language studies as more focus was paid to Syntactic structures. Things got worse with the rise of Transformational Generative Grammar which is less interested in word-formation as they believed that sentences are made up of morphemes and not words which is advocated by the structuralists. In this regard, we have linguists like Chomsky (1957), Adams (1973) and Lees (1960). The latter looked at the generation of words not as a separate type of unit but as a kind of embedded sentence (Bauer, 1983:3). Lees' dismissal of more earlier works on word-formation (viewing them as taxonomic) received criticisms by many scholars.
which include Brekle (1970). This prompted many linguist to go back to word-formation within the Transformational Generative grammar, and they were inspired by Chomsky (1970), Bauer (1969), Newmeyer (1970) and many others. Word-formation then was viewed from different points of view; phonological, syntactic and semantic points of view by linguists like Halle (1973), Lighter (1975), Jackendoff (1975), Leech (1974) and Lyons (1977). Presently word-formation is viewed differently by different scholars. There is no one doctrine that can be followed by everyone. Researchers have to make up their own theories and procedures.

Word formation in isiZulu has been neglected for many years. IsiZulu grammarians have paid most of their attention on topics like categorization and word-categories. These include for example, Doke (1956) and Nyembezi (1965). The approach that isiZulu grammarians have adopted is that of analyzing words by singling out formatives/ morphemes that constitute words in a language. Doke and other grammarians that follow his model of word analysis have been using mostly the functional approach in categorizing words and that has moved their attention from word-formation processes. This situation is prevalent even in isiZulu grammar that is taught in schools because of the fact that most of isiZulu grammarians follow Doke's model (which is functional in nature). However, Cope (1992) differs a lot from Doke in that he and Guthrie advocate the use of a structural approach which uses the structural features of a word in categorizing words, thus they have only three word categories, i) the nominals, ii) the verbals and iii) the particles. Cope is a follower of Guthrie that is why he uses the formal approach. Cope has the following word categories : i) nominals, ii) verbal conjugation, iii) interjectives and iv) the conjunctive. Both Guthrie and Cope still do not look at the word-formation processes.
Nkabinde (1975) comes up with his own word-categories which are different from those of Doke, Guthrie and Cope. He has a different approach but he does not mention the word-formation processes.

Xala (1988) gives a fresh look into word-formation where he accounts for word-formation through coinage. Coinage is a process through which new words are formed. His focus is only on coinage and it leaves more other processes which needs to be covered. Sabelo (1987) explained the formation of possessives in isiZulu but she pays less attention to morphological processes and other word categories. This then shows that there are some gaps that still need to be filled in isiZulu in particular.

Bauer (1983) deals with word-formation in English where he gives a good theoretical basis for word-formation in English. The processes discussed in his account are those that occur during word-formation in English of which some of them do not occur in isiZulu. This makes it necessary to undertake a study in word-formation in isiZulu.

Ashton (1994) follows the Dokean model of the functional approach when he looks into Swahili Grammar. His focus is on word categories which means less attention is put on word-formation. The only part of word-formation that he includes is derivation. Although he treats derivation, he does not look at it as a part of word-formation. It is there as an independent part of the Swahili grammar.

Canonici (1987) does look into the grammatical structure of isiZulu but his main focus is on morphology where he looks more on the constituents of different word categories. His account is organized mainly for course two students which makes even good topics to be shallowly treated.
Aronoff (1976) deals with word-formation generative in grammar of English. There is a huge gap between English and isiZulu. The studies in English cannot be taken as they are and be implemented successfully in isiZulu since these two languages are totally different from each other. Generative grammar has never been introduced in isiZulu.

The above discussion on various literature that deals with word-formation shows that there is a need of a study of this nature on word-formation in isiZulu.

1.8 The Value of the Study

This study covers the area which has not been well covered in the past. This implies that it will serve as a source for word-formation in isiZulu. As it will deal with a new perspective, it will contribute towards the development of isiZulu as a language. Very few studies have been done in isiZulu Morphology in recent years, therefore this study aims at challenging students to do research in isiZulu grammar because there is still a lot to be researched and discovered. In this regard, isiZulu may be equivalent to other languages which are well developed.

1.9 A Theoretical Framework

1.9.1 CHAPTER ONE

This chapter will serve as an introductory part of the study as it will focus at the aim of study, delimitation of the study, problem statement, definition of terms, methodology and the value of the study. The types of research will be covered under methodology.
1.9.2 CHAPTER TWO

The focus of the second chapter is on some theories on word-formation. This will also provide the background information because it will compare and contrast some theories that are used in word-formation and the ones that will be opted for will be chosen and applied in this study.

1.9.3 CHAPTER THREE

The third chapter deals with the gist of the study as it will look into word-formation processes using affixes. It will cover subheadings like prefixation, infixation, suffixation and circumfixation.

1.9.4 CHAPTER FOUR

The focus of the fourth chapter is on grammaticalisation, reduplication and compounding as word formation processes in isiZulu. Such processes will be outlined, discussed and applied in isiZulu.

1.9.5 CHAPTER FIVE

In chapter five, one will look at the contribution and role made by word-coinage and borrowing to word-formation in isiZulu. Various examples will be used to illustrate the contribution of both word-coinage and borrowing to word-formation.

1.9.6 CHAPTER SIX

The sixth chapter will be the synthesis, conclusion and recommendations of the whole study.
1.10 Conclusion

This study will be vital to the development of isiZulu, as the findings and conclusions will be disseminated to as many people as possible. The foregoing discussion has prompted one to conclude that there is a great need of a study of this nature especially with the fact in mind that isiZulu is now taking its rightful place amongst the languages of the world.
Chapter Two

2.0 SOME THEORIES ON WORD-FORMATION

2.1 Introduction

This chapter is focusing on some theories on word-formation. Word-formation is not a new phenomenon to any language and isiZulu is no exception. The only thing is that in isiZulu no one has undertaken a research on it due to a variety of reasons. There has been a number of studies done in other languages like English, Dutch, Italian, French etc. Such studies have given rise to many different theories which need to be kept in mind whenever one embarks on a study or a research on word-formation. At this level many theories will be discussed, analysed and some of them will be adopted for this study.

Such theories include: synchronism and diachronism, the morphemic approach, morpheme based morphology versus word-based morphology, the functional versus the formal approach, the place of word-formation in isiZulu morphology, derivational and inflectional morphology and productivism.

2.2 The place of word-formation in morphology

Morphology is a discipline which deals with the internal structure of word-forms. It looks into the internal composition of words and thus divides word-forms into different constituents, which are morphs. Morphology also goes on to give accounts for the occurrence of each morpheme. This is supported by Bauer (1995:33) who points out that:
In morphology, the analyst divides word-forms into their component formatives (most of which are morphs realizing roots or affixes), and attempts to account for the occurrence of each formative.

In the light of the above definition by Bauer (1995), morphology can be defined as a part of language or grammar that deals with the components of word-forms and tries to give reasons and background to the existence of each morpheme (component). This gives rise to the fact that morphology has more to do with word-formation and word analysis.

Bauer (1995) divides morphology into two main branches, which are inflectional morphology and word-formation. The latter is called lexical morphology by Matthews (1974). This inflectional morphology covers the paradigms (different forms) of the same word. Word-formation covers the construction of new words or lexemes from different bases and it has two subcomponents which are namely derivation and compounding (or composition). Fromkin and Rodman, (1993:48) have this to say in this regard:

Word-formation can, in turn be sub-divided into derivation and compounding (or composition). Derivation is concerned with the formation of new lexemes by affixation, compounding with the formation of new lexemes from two (or more) potential stems.

The above statement by Fromkin and Rodman, means that word-formation involves derivation and compounding. This is true and applies to isiZulu, because they (compounding and derivation) results in the formation of new words. They go on to distinguish between derivation and compounding. In isiZulu derivation deals with the formation of new words (lexemes) from the existing words through affixation. Affixation is a collective term which means the addition of
morphemes to a particular base (a word / a stem) with an aim of changing or extending the meaning of the original word. Affixation may mean prefixation – the addition of morphemes at the beginning of a stem or word, infixation – the addition morphemes into the root or the word, and suffixation the addition of morphemes at the end of the stem or word. Affixation will further be discussed in chapter three. The addition of morphemes (affixation) to any part of a word changes the meaning of a word either partially or completely and it may also change the syntactic category of the base (the word or part of the word to which morphemes are affixed). This can be seen from the following example:

1. **-hamba** → isi- + -hamb- + -i → isihambi
   
   (go) → (a stranger)

2. **-hamba** → ulu- + -hamb- + -o → uluhambo/uluhambo
   
   (go) → (a trip / journey)

-hamba is a verb and the affixation of isi- and -i in 1. and ulu- and -o in 2. resulted in the formation of nouns which are then different from the verb stem hamba. The addition of such morphemes results in a complete semantic shift, that is from -hamba (go) to isihambi (a stranger) and uluhambo (a journey).

Compounding on the other hand takes two or more different lexemes (words) and combines them to construct a completely new word. Such a word may designate something with the features of the two or three things designated by the former words or it may be completely different as in the following examples:

1. igeja + izembe → igejazembe
   
   (a whoe) (an axe) → (a tool which looks like both the whoe and an axe combined)
2. imbuzi + amawa → imbuzimawa
   (a goat)    (cliffs)    (a baboon)

The above examples show that compounding may give a completely different word as in 2. or a combination of the former words as in 1. The crux of the matter is that both derivation and compounding give rise to new words and as a result they form part of word-formation. These two rules, derivation and compounding will be discussed further in the following chapters (derivation in three and compounding in four).

This shows that word-formation is the most vital sub-component of morphology as it gives rise to new word-forms which are also essential to inflectional morphology. See figure 1 below:

*Figure 1: adopted and developed from Bauer (1995:34).*
The above sketch indicates the main sections of morphology which are inflectional morphology and word-formation. The latter has derivation, evaluation and compounding under its scope. In the past, derivation, compounding and evaluation were not seen as part of a single whole (word-formation). These are grouped together because they all have new lexemes / words as their output where inflection has paradigms of the same word as its output. This makes it fall out of word-formation, but it remains part and parcel of morphology.

In isiZulu, most, if not all, grammar books have not subcategorized derivation and compounding under word-formation. In fact, nothing is said about word-formation. As a result, derivation and compounding stand on their own as subcategories of morphology. This is the reasons why the study of this nature is necessary to correct the weaknesses of the past studies in isiZulu.

2.3 Productivity

Several studies have been undertaken in English word-formation concerning the productivity of English word-formation rules. The dispute has been on the extent to which word-formation can be said to be productive. Fortunately, most of word-formation rules and processes in isiZulu are productive. A process is regarded as productive if it may be used in the production of new word-forms. If the process cannot be used productively to produce words, it is said to be non-productive. This is supported by Bauer, (1991:18) who says that:

"... any process is said to be productive if it can be used synchronically in the production of new forms ..."
Productivity therefore, is essential in determining the process which is contributing to word-formation. This suggests that every word-formation rule must be productive for it to be able to produce new word forms.

Productivity is synchronic as Bauer, (1983:57) suggests as a sense that there are two important things to notice about it: the first is that productivity is not all or nothing, but a matter of more or less, and is that it is a synchronic notion. Productivity is synchronic in that if a rule is still productive it should produce an output that is harmonious to the language as a whole. Every productive rule must be in line with the grammatical rules of a language in all respects.

2.3.1 Productivity as a Continuum

Word-formation rules in isiZulu cannot be said to be at the same level as far as productivity is concerned. Though one cannot talk about complete or total productivity; word-formation rules form a continuum between unproductive rules through semi-productive rules to total productive rules. It is in this continuum that we have various word-formation rules. These levels of productivity will be looked at later when analysing the productivity of word-formation rules.

2.3.2 Productivity as Synchronic

Some word-formation rules which were productive in the past, are no longer productive now. The morphological process cannot be said to be productive without taking into consideration the time factor. One finds it imperative to discuss productivity either in synchronic terms or in diachronic terms. This implies that the distinction between morphs which are productive and those which are analyzable should be drawn (Bauer,
1995:61). In isiZulu all the productive morphs are also analyzable, but not that all-analyzable morphs are productive in nature. In languages like English there are affixes which were at one stage productive which are no longer productive. This is because English developed in such a way that the English of the sixteenth century is totally different from the present day English. IsiZulu on the other hand has been developing but the development has not brought in any drastic difference in language. This implies that affixes which were productive in the olden days isiZulu are still productive even today. One may take a look at the following examples:

\[
\text{isi-} + \text{-thunga + o} \rightarrow \text{isithungo (a bunch of grass put together)}
\]

\[
\text{umu-} + \text{-thunga + o} \rightarrow \text{umthungo (a stitch or a pattern)}
\]

These are two impersonal nouns which are derived from the verb stem -thunga by the suffix -o/. Isithungo (a small bunch of grass put together) is the oldest of the two whereas umthungo refers to a stitch or a pattern which is a new concept, but the formation rule is still the same. In isiZulu, development and change in a language has brought about the fading of some words because of new words which are either coined or borrowed, but the word formation rules have not changed, for example:

\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text{umuntu} & \rightarrow \text{ubuntu} \\
\text{(a person)} & \text{(humanity)} \\
isilima & \rightarrow \text{ubulima} \\
\text{(a fool)} & \text{(foolishness)} \\
\text{uthisha} & \rightarrow \text{ubuthisha} \\
\text{(teacher)} & \text{(teacherness / being a teacher)}
\end{array}
\]
uthisha is a borrowed word from English 'teacher' but it still allows the affixation of the prefix ubu- just like the old nouns umuntu (ubuntu) and isilima (ubulima). This shows that most of isiZulu word formation rules are productive.

2.3.3 Individual versus Societal Productivity

In many languages, and isiZulu is no exception, dictionaries are compiled by individuals. Words which are included in dictionaries are selected randomly and they are not evaluated by a society or linguists or grammarians. What they include is what they deem productive. There is a problem in making a distinction between individual productivity and societal productivity. Extreme cases can be easily recognized but there are those that are in the middle which may not be clear whether they are individual productive or societal productive. Bauer, (1995:65) mentions that:

*Clear cases at both ends can be recognized, but there is a middle ground where it may not be clear whether there is a case where individual productivity is the same for several individuals or a marginal case of societal productivity.*

It is even more difficult to draw a line between the two in smaller societies and in pre-technological societies because the dominating criteria in distinguishing the two are widespread use in written and spoken media and dictionaries (Fromkin and Rodman, 1993:48). The distinction between the individual and societal productivity may help in differentiating between words which have been produced and accepted by the society and words which are only used by individuals. The reality is that many words are
produced by individuals and accepted by the society especially in cases where there is a shortage of an appropriate term. It is noticeable that this is the case in all languages of the world as it all begins with noun formation.

In this study, we will cover the productive word formation processes and the non-productive rules will fall out of this study.

2.3.4 Some restrictions on productivity in isiZulu

Productivity is a prerequisite for every word-formation rule, therefore once productivity is impeded word formation is restricted. In this section, the restrictions on productivity will be discussed:

2.3.4.1 Pragmatics

In general linguistics studies have been undertaken and a conclusion has been reached that pragmatic factors must be appealed to for word-formation to occur (Dressler, 1993:85). Pragmatics entails the influence of knowledge and beliefs about the structure of the real word, in contrast to knowledge about the language-system.

i) Existence as a requirement

Every existing word denotes something that exists, that means that for every word to be formed an item, action / quality must exist for it to denote. This is supported for example, by Bauer, (1995:85) who mentions that:

... a word will not be formed to denote an item action / quality which does not exist.
Existence needs to be defined broadly in this instance to include even the mythological existence which may be seen in words like izimuzimu
   inunu
   utikoloshe
   inkanyamba

This is very essential in any way because if existence lacks in any given form then productivity is affected. Therefore, it is necessary for an item to exist before its name is formed. Generally, a name is given to something that exist. In other words we move from what we know or what we know to exist and name it.

ii) Nameability as a requirement

This requirement is intertwined with the first one (existence) because something that exist must be nameable. That can allow phenomena like compounding, derivation and affixation which are useful in word-formation. There are many factors that can hinder nameability, they include the importance of the item to the individual and to the society, the cultural acceptance of the item, etc. Bauer, (1995:86) has this to say:

_Not only must a lexeme denote something which the speaker feels to be real, it must denote something which is nameable._
Some of the existing things cannot be named. It took a long time for isiZulu to have proper names for things like AIDS, fax machine, T.B. etc., but because they exist and were nameable, people came up with terms like ingculazi for AIDS, isikhahlamezi for a fax and ufuba for T.B. There are still some items that are not nameable in isiZulu whereas for some phrases and sentences which describe them are used instead of nouns, adjectives or verbs, for example

\begin{center}
\text{temperature – izinga lokushisa}
\end{center}

Then an issue that comes into the fore is distinguishing between a compound and a phrase. This shows that nameability is crucial in word-formation in isiZulu.

\section*{2.3.4.2 Blocking}
Katamba (1993) views blocking as a cover term for factors which frustrate the application of a word-formation process whose conditions of application appear to be met. Bauer (1995) look at blocking as a non-existence of a derivative because of the prior existence of other lexemes. I concur with both the linguists and we further define blocking as implying factors, which may be the existence of another lexeme, which hinder productivity of a rule which is proven to be productive. One may differ with Bauer’s definition in that it seems to confine blocking to derivational morphology whereas it applies to all word-formation processes.
Blocking can be due to the existence of the other lexeme which is similar to the one blocked. This is supported by Aronof, (1976:56) who says:

*Blocking may be due to the prior existence of another word with the meaning that the putative word would have.*

In many languages with isiZulu included, perfect synonyms are avoided unless the other one is used to show respect (*ukuhlonipha*) and therefore in that case they do not make perfect synonyms.

1. -bulala – umbulali  
   (a murderer)  
2. iifa – umufo  
   (the dead one)

- umbulalo  
- umufo

Although the suffix /-o/ is used for the formation of impersonal nouns *umbulalo, umufo* do not exist because of the existence of the word *ukufa*, which means that this rule is blocked because of an already existing word.

2.4 Some limitations on the bases that may undergo word-formation processes

In word-formation it is a well known fact that there are some bases or words which cannot be suitable for being input of word-formation rules because of many factors which include different aspects of their build-up (Bauer, 1983:88). This may be due to various restrictions some of which are peculiar to isiZulu. Such restrictions may be classified into phonological morphological, lexical and semantic restrictions.
2.4.1 PHONOLOGICAL RESTRICTIONS

The phonological restrictions make up of a word may influence certain rules which apply to it. In some cases, it may provide versions of the rule or else restrict the application of a rule. This is in line with Bauer, (1983:88) who says:

In some cases, the segmental phonological shape of the base can decide whether the base may be used as the input to a given rule of word-formation.

This phenomenon is proven to be evident in many languages like French where Hasselot, (1972:16) gives an example that the diminutive suffix -ette is not added to a base which ends in /t/ or /d/, English where Bauer (1983:89) contends that it feels clumsy to add the adverbial suffix -ly to adjectives ending in -ly. IsiZulu follow the same trend in many word-formation rules. Firstly, the verbal extension -isa cannot be affixed to some verbs ending with /-la/ and /-ka/, for example:

- vuka + isa $\rightarrow$ -vusa not vukisa (awaken)
- thuka + isa $\rightarrow$ -thusa not thukisa (scare)
- vela + isa $\rightarrow$ -veza not velisa (show up)
- limala + isa $\rightarrow$ -limaza not limalisa (injure)

Secondly, the verbal extension for the neuter /-eka/ cannot be affixed to some verbs, for example:

- bona $\rightarrow$ -bonakala not boneka (be visible)
- kho|wa $\rightarrow$ -kholakala not kho|leka (be believable)
- thola $\rightarrow$ -tholakala not thole|ka (be found)
Owing to the fact that these have a pattern as they all use /-akala/ the rule has been extended to say -akala is an allomorph of /-eka/. These two suffixes are complementary in their distribution which depends on the segments of the base.

In some cases the phonological restrictions can be supra-segmental. These include infixation in many languages including English. In isiZulu infixation does not occur because there are no true infixes, hence there are no suprasegmental restrictions.

2.4.2 MORPHOLOGICAL RESTRICTIONS

Borrowed words behave differently – morphologically – from native isiZulu words. Some of them may be structurally similar to native words as they have been adjusted through morphological and phonological processes but sometimes they may not be the input of similar word-formation rules. This is evidenced by Bauer, (1983:91) who asserts that:

*It is a well-known feature of morphological systems that borrowed or learned words and formatives often behave differently, both morphologically and phonologically, from the native non-learned words and formatives.*

There are very few morphological restrictions on productivity of word-formation rules in isiZulu. This is because of the fact that loan words are thoroughly changed to suit isiZulu through syllabification rules both morphologically and phonologically, for example:
Despite these thorough adjustment changes there are still cases where the loan-words behave differently from native words, for example:

ishethi + ana → ishethana not isheshana

When isiZulu native words ending with /-th/ have an affix –ana suffixed to them, palatalization occurs and /th/ becomes /sh/, for example:

isikhathi → isikhashana
uqhotho → uqhoshwana

The morphological class of a base can also be of influential essentiality. This means that word-formation rules are sensitive to the nature of a base which is a root and a base which is more than a simple root.

In other languages, including English, there are also lexical as well as semantic restrictions but in isiZulu there are no such restrictions.

2.5 Morpheme based versus Word based Morphology

It is imperative to look at the suitable theory for isiZulu. In this subsection the focus will be on the morpheme-based and word-based morphology. This will enable one to choose the one which is good for isiZulu so that one knows and
decides where to start with a discussion on word-formation (whether one begins from a morpheme or from a word).

2.5.1 THE MORPHEME BASED MORPHOLOGY / THE ROOT BASED MORPHOLOGY

The root based morphology endorses the view that the root forms the base and it is the underlying form for all morphological processes. This notion means that the word is the secondary entity which is a culmination of the application of morphological processes to a root which forms the base. This means that the word is formed around the root, through prefixation of prefixed morphemes and suffixation of suffixal morphemes, for example:

```
  Root
  ___/\___
 /          \\
prefix  suffix = word
_____     ______
| umu- | -nt- | -u | umuntu |
```

This theory begins with the morphemes to construct a word. However, there are some problems with the root based morphology especially in isiZulu. Its output is meaningless and non-existent entities in isiZulu nouns, for example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Root</th>
<th>Noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-nt-</td>
<td>umuntu (a person)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-v-</td>
<td>imvu (a sheep)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-j-</td>
<td>inja (a dog)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It could be better if it begins with a stem not a root, because stems are more meaningful than roots.

Morphological processes are applied to a word not to a root in isiZulu. In root based morphology, only prefixation and suffixation occur, infixation does not occur. Then the question is, how do they cater for infixation as a process?

Morphemes do not occur on a day to day language, but words do. Words were there even before people could analyze them. There is no point in a language where a root stands alone in a sentence and make sense. We analyze words to get morphemes and we do not add up morphemes alone to get words.

2.5.2 WORD BASED MORPHOLOGY

The word based morphology rests on the fact that the word is the point of departure for all morphological processes. Everything begins from the citation word / lexicon then morphological processes occur for the construction of new words.

\[\text{infixation} \quad \downarrow \quad \text{prefixation} \rightarrow \text{word} \quad \leftarrow \text{suffixation}\]

This theory is easily applicable to all word categories even to nouns which proved to be a problem for a root based morphology, for example:
Citation word          Paradigms
Umuntu               → kumuntu - locative
                   yomuntu - possessive
                   ngomuntu - instrumental adverb
                   ngumuntu - copulative
                   emuntwini - locative

There is however, a slight problem with the verb – which mood is the citation word? Different grammarians opt for different verbal moods. Some choose the indicative, others the infinitive and others the imperative. Many scholars have opted for the infinitive as it is closer to nouns but it is too complicated for isiZulu inflections because if the inflection is prefixal, the infinitive prefix is elided, for example:

\[ \text{ukuhamba} \]
\[ \text{ulu}- + \text{ukuhamba} + -o = u(\text{lu})\text{hambo} \]

This process is unnecessarily complicated and too long. This is also a problem with the indicative mood but the imperative is simple and uncomplicated for inflections because it is like a verbstem without inflections, for example:

\[ \text{-hamba} → \text{ukuhamba} \]
\[ \text{hambisisa} \]
\[ \text{hanjwa} \]
\[ \text{uhambo} \]
\[ \text{isihambi} \]
For isiZulu and for the purposes of this study, one will opt for the word-based theory for its simplicity and because of it having no limitations than the root based. Moreover, morphology as a discipline is about words. This idea is further supported by Anderson (1992:89) who says:

... morphology is based on (whole) words, rather than on morphemes.

The structuralist morphologists regard the morpheme as a key unit for their morphological operations. The distinctiveness of word based morphology is that it is a reaction to the usual simplistic notion that words can be analyzed into sequences of morphs each of which is on a one-to-one correspondence with a morpheme (Bauer, 1995:151). The word-based morphology begins with what is there in a day-to-day language, the word. It differentiates between syntactic motivation (which leads to the formation of paradigms) and morphology (which deals mostly with word formation). This is supported by Bauer, (1995:152) who asserts that:

In word based morphology the word-form is therefore taken as the basic unit of syntax, even though it is not minimal. The word-form is derived by a number of processes or operations which apply to the lexeme. The morphemes other than the lexeme which influence the form of the word-form determine which processes apply. The linguist as analyst can deduce what these processes are by consideration of the entire paradigm in which the lexeme appears, and by contrasting the word-forms which appear in that paradigm. In this way, syntax and morphology are kept clearly distinct, which is not
necessarily the case in a system which takes the morpheme as its basic unit."

Word-based morphology has some advantages which make it over come the item or root based morphology. Firstly, in many languages one may find that one morph realizes two morphemes and isiZulu is no exception. This poses a problem to item based morphology but as word based morphology is concerned with the word as a whole rather than morphemes within the word-form, it can easily deal and remedy this problem. The second advantage is that, word based morphology can be applied to all aspects of morphology – inflection, derivation, compounding and evaluation. There is but one biggest disadvantage of the word based morphology which is that it cannot apply to all languages, but in languages where it can be applied like isiZulu, it is the best theory. That is why we deem it necessary and advantageous for us to adopt word based morphology for isiZulu and precisely for this study. This imply that, for every morphological operation that will be done in this study, the word will be the centre.

2.6 The identification of a word in isiZulu

Various grammarians have come up with a variety of criteria through which a word can be identified. In this section, we will look at each criterion and see which criteria can be suitable for isiZulu word identification.

2.6.1 PHONOLOGICAL CRITERION

The phonological criterion purports that there is a "potential pause" that exists where the word ends before the succeeding one commences. In some
instances, this “pause” can be observed especially in syllable counting languages like isiZulu. It can be problematic for people who use to run over words to use this criterion because such people cannot have a “pause” at the end of each word. Many words may seem connected and the “potential pause” is not observable. The phonological criterion also refers to a “stress” on the penultimate syllables of isiZulu words. It is quite correct that isiZulu words have the main stress on the penultimate syllable. This makes it easy to recognize the end of a word, for example:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{igeja} & \quad \text{ige:\text{ja}} \\
\text{izimpabanga} & \quad \text{izimpaba:n\text{ga}}
\end{align*}
\]

In compound words, this stress shifts from the penultimate syllable of the first item to the penultimate syllable of the final item, for example:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{ikhanda} & \quad \text{ikha:nda} + \quad \text{umpondo umpo:ndo} \\
\text{(head)} & \quad \text{(pound)} \\
\text{ukhandampondo} & \quad \text{ukhandampo:ndo} \\
\text{(head tax)} &
\end{align*}
\]

Brown and Miller, (1980:3) support this when they say:

\[\text{The word is the minimal language unit that has “one, and only one stress, main stress” ... In compound words, one or more stressed syllables weaken so that they become subordinate to the main-stress syllable.}\]

This is further supported by Doke, (1935:17) who says:
Word formatives are held together by stress. Stress is a word-builder in Bantu languages.

This is applicable to isiZulu because stress plays a vital role in the pronunciation of words in isiZulu. However, the phonological criterion cannot be used alone in isiZulu because it would make it impossible to categorize words into parts of speech. (Doke, 1935:18). This therefore calls for other criteria to be used.

2.6.2 SEMANTIC CRITERION

Semantics is part of language that deals with the meaning of words. Fromkin and Rodman (1993:124) has this to say on semantics:

*Words and morphemes have meanings (in semantics) we shall talk about the meaning of words.*

The semantic criterion regards the word as a unit of meaning. This means that a word is considered or judged through the completion of meaning. When the meaning is complete, then that is a word which implies that they use meaning to measure a word. This is supported by Canonici, (1987:23) who says:

*The word is a unit of meaning.*

This has a problem with verb stems because they have meaning but they are not words, for example:

- hamba (go)
- hleka (laugh)
The other problem is with compounds because the first item which is then morphemised has its own meaning whereas it is no longer a word, for example:

imbuzimawa (baboon)

In the above example, imbuzi is a morphemised word which has a full meaning on its own but that does not mean that it is a word. Therefore this criterion cannot be used alone as it has some shortcomings.

2.6.3 THE MORPHOSYNTACTIC CRITERION

The morphosyntactic criterion takes two things into account when identifying a word. Internal cohesion which is based on the internal structure (morphology) and external distribution which is based on the external structure (syntactic) which looks at the positions of morphemes.

Internal Cohesion

In this method, it is believed that morphemes that constitute a word are brought together or cohesed to each other. The ceasure of that cohesion means the end of a word. This is supported by Canonici, (1987:4) who says:

Internal cohesion means that although a word may be composed of several parts, or morphemes, each with its distinctive meaning in the word formation process, all these formatives are held together around the root or stem.
This method has some shortcomings because one may not read this cohesion correctly. Not everyone can read it correctly.

A first language speaker of isiZulu may overrun some words in fast speech as he/she speaks. That is in most cases shown by the optional elision of the final vowel of a word whose place would be taken by the first vowel of the following word as in:

\[
\text{Muyeken'agijime}
\]

\[
\text{Allow him to run}
\]

In certain instances, the prefix isi- for noun class eight or nine iziN-may be overrun and be replaced by an i with double morae (pronounced as two syllables) as in:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{izinkomo} & \rightarrow \text{inkomo (cattle)} \\
\text{Ngibon'iinkomo} & \quad (I \text{ saw the cattle}) \\
\text{izitolo} & \rightarrow \text{eiitolo / eytolo} \\
\text{Kade siseytolo} & \quad (I \text{ was in the shops})
\end{align*}
\]

These are the factors that may hinder someone from reading the internal cohesion correctly.

**External distribution**

This criterion depends on the external distribution of morphemes in a word. The morphemes are rigid in their positions that they occupy in words:
prefix + root / stem + suffix

Nobody can interpolate morphemes. This criterion cannot be accurate especially with the compound nouns where the first item has all the morphemes necessary to complete a word, for example

Imbuzimawa
Imbuzi has in (prefix) -buz- (root) (-i-) suffix

Imbuzi in a compound imbuzimawa cannot be declared a word although it has all the morphemes. In this instance, it is a morpheme on its own.

The phonological criterion is the best criterion for isiZulu because it is the most practical and it has no exception in its application. It can be used in conjunction with other criteria.

2.7 Lexicalization

Lexicalisation is a word-formation process where the resulting lexeme or word takes the form which it could not have if it was formed by the application of productive rules. Lexicalized word-forms cannot be analysed in terms of synchronic morphemes (Bauer, 1995:48). Lexicalisation consists of a variety of processes and morphological entities which make the formation rule not to follow the usual path. The aspects of lexicalisation include: nonce formation, institutionalisation and lexicalisation itself. The first two aspects, that is nonce formation and institutionalisation lead to the third one which is lexicalisation.
2.7.1 NONCE FORMATIONS

A nonce formation refers to a word coined by an individual speaker as he/she speaks with an aim of satisfying an immediate need. Nonce formations can become regular and be accepted in a language as new words. Their acceptance may be due to the shortage of a correct word to indicate a certain action, item or quality. Once accepted and used as a term heard somewhere a nonce can cease to be a nonce. This is supported by Crystal, (1987:40) where he says:

* A nonce formation can be defined as a new complex word coined by a speaker writer on the spur of the moment to cover some immediate need ... a form ceases to be a nonce formation as soon as the speakers using it are aware of using a term which they have heard already: that is to say virtually immediately.

The above elaboration indicates the fact that the nonce formation can ultimately be accepted as a word. This then suggests that there are many nonce formations that have been accepted in a language. The problem with nonce formations is ambiguity, and it may hinder its acceptance if the society is not sure of the intended meaning. A large percentage of words in day to day language is made of nonce formation. Nonce formation plays a vital role in the development of a language especially isiZulu because through them new terms to designate new things are found.

2.7.2 INSTITUTIONALISATION

Institutionalisation is a process following after the formation of a nonce formation / lexeme. It is a stage where the lexeme has to be accepted by
other speakers as a known lexical item. Any ambiguity at this stage is ignored and in that case only some of the possible meanings of the form are used (Bauer, 1995:48). Institutionalisation does not apply only to new lexemes, but also the extension of existing lexemes especially by metaphor, for example:

1. Ukuthimula – sneezing (existing lexeme)
2. Ukuthimula – refusing or rejecting any request (a new lexeme)

Ukuthimula in 1 and ukuthimula in 2 are related in that the second one was formed with the first one in mind. Sneezing is believed to be a way of rejecting germs by the body, and then the second ukuthimula was formed to mean refusing or rejecting any request just like the body does to germs.

2.7.3 LEXICALIZATION

This is according to Bauer the final stage of a formation of a word and it entails the process or a stage when a lexeme takes on a form which it could not have if it has arisen by the application of productive rules. This may be due to some changes in a language system (1995:48). Lexicalization can arise and be traced at every level of linguistic analysis, and it must be borne in mind that lexicalized word-forms cannot be analyzed in terms of synchronic morphemes. Bauer, (1995:49) defines lexicalized forms as opaque-meaning that they cannot be analyzed in terms of synchronic morphemes, but he goes on to argue that opacity is not an underlying factor for Lexicalization. Most of isiZulu lexicalized forms, are lexicalized because of a change in the morphological system. Some linguists
differentiate between phonologically, morphologically and semantically lexicalized forms, and I concur with Bauer (1995) when he asserts that:

*If all the phonological behaviour of a lexeme is predictable by general rules, governing phonological behaviour but the semantics of an item is unpredictable, the item can be marked as having an irregular semantic form (being lexicalized semantically) without implying anything about its phonological behaviour. That means that the phonological behaviour of this particular item will not be accounted for first in the rules and then in the lexicon.*

Lexicalization involves what Lyons, (1977:547) and Croft (1991:28) call “fossilization” which Lyons define as the extreme form of “petrifaction”. (see chapter 3). In isiZulu the morphological lexicalization is the commonest of them all. To the best of my knowledge, it is the only type of lexicalization that contributes towards word-formation in isiZulu. As a result it is the only type that we will discuss and illustrate.

2.7.3 Diminutives

There are many words which seem to be formed through the diminutive suffix –ana whose bases cannot be traced. This is referred to as ‘fossilization’ by many linguists including Lyons (1977), Croft (1991) and Madondo (2000). Croft, (1991:70) defines fossilization as:

*... a discipline of a construction which is no longer productive in a language but is still in use.*
This indicates that there is no morphological evidence behind such a formation. This can be seen from the examples that follow below:

1. idlanzana
2. isidlozana
3. umdlezana

The above word-forms have the suffix -ana which is a diminutive suffix but their original bases do not exist. idlanzana, isidlozana and umdlezana, because such bases do not occur in isiZulu. This is also the case with some surnames which seem to have a grammatical relations with other surnames, but which they do not have, for example:

A
Hlongwa
Mthiya

B
Hlongwane
Mthiyane

Surnames in A seem to be the basis for surnames in B, but in reality these are not related at all (grammatically and in reality). These diminutive words are constructed through lexicalization.

2.7.3.2 Augmentative

Lexicalization in augmentation is not as common as in diminutives in isiZulu. This implies that there are very few examples of lexicalization in augmentative. Such a lexicalization can be seen in the following example:

ihinikazi
It is not clear if the morpheme -kazi in this instance is an augmentative or feminine, but in either way there is no noun like ihini in isiZulu.

2.7.4 SEMANTIC LEXICALIZATION

This type of lexicalization in isiZulu occurs in the formation of compounds, the egocentric compounds where the compound is not related to any of its constituents. This means that the item used in the formation of a compound, loses its original meaning (that is the semantic shift), for example:

imbuzimawa - imfene (baboon)
imbuzi - (goat)
amawa - (cliffs)

Imbuzimawa is a combination of both imbuzi and amawa but has no relation with imbuzi. It is not a type of imbuzi nor it is the type of amawa.

Lexicalization contributes a lot in word-formation in isiZulu and that is why we deemed it fit to have a look at it. There are various factors that can contribute towards the acceptance of a newly formed word (nonce formation). Firstly, it is the shortage of a suitable term in the main language. This can make people use any term that comes so that they may have a name for that nameless entity or quality. The other factors may be the position of the speaker in the society, in this instance, people tend to use a term which has been used by someone they admire. Therefore any nonce formation that a person makes or uses is easily accepted by the society.
The other factor may be the size of the society. In smaller societies, it is easier for the nonce-formation to be accepted than in larger societies.

2.8 Root, Stem and Base

Root, stem and base are terms that have been used in grammar books to designate a part of a word that remains when all affixes have been removed (Bauer, 1983:20). This has been the case in the isiZulu grammar for a long period. There is a need to distinguish between these three terms especially for the purposes of this study as they will be used to designate different things.

2.8.1 ROOT

The root is the basic part that is always present, in a lexeme, a part which cannot be removed from the lexeme. It is the core of the lexeme and it cannot be analyzed further. Bauer, (1983:20) says in this regard:

\[ A \text{ root is a form which is not further analyzable either in terms of derivational or inflectional morphology. } \]

This serves as an indication that the root forms the basis for all morphological applications because if all the derivational as well as inflectional morphemes are removed from the word the root remains. It also carries the basic meaning of a word. However, in isiZulu using a root may have some problems especially in nouns because it may end up being meaningless whereas the basic element of every morpheme including the root is that it must have meaning. The following example shows this:

- ifu \( -f- \) is a root
- ifa \( -f- \) is a root
imfe -f- is a root
ufa -f- is a root

At the end there is no basic meaning that -f- carries since all the above nouns ifu (a cloud) ifa (a heritage) imfe (a kind of a cane) and ufa (a crack) have nothing in common. In this sense, in isiZulu, it is better if the term root is avoided and therefore the stem is used especially in problematic situations like in nouns.

2.8.2 STEM
The stem is the morpheme / part of a word that remains when all inflectional morphemes are removed. It is a combination of a root and the final vowel of the word (in isiZulu). This is because all isiZulu words end in a vowel. The stem may be complex and simplex. This is because it may contain derivational morphemes and it may even contain two roots. Bauer, (1983:20) says:

*It is the part of the word form which remains when all inflectional affixes have been removed.*

This therefore means that the stem is bigger than the root in that the former contains derivational affixes whereas the latter contains no derivational no inflectional affixes. In isiZulu the stem may also be defined as the part of a word that remains when all the prefixal affixes are removed, for example:

- hamba > verb stem
  (go)
- gqoka > verb stem
  (dress up)
A base is any form to which affixes of any kind can be added (Bauer, 1995:21). This implies that any root, stem or a complete word can be referred to as a base. It should be borne in mind that not all the bases are roots because a base may be analysed further in instances where it is a stem or a complete word. Mathews, (1972:12) uses the term operand, instead of the base to avoid confusion with other meanings of the base. In this study the term will be used.

2.9 Derivational Morphology and Inflectional Morphology

In many isiZulu studies and books it has been assumed that the subdivisions of morphology are discrete and that it is easy to distinguish between them whereas there are no clear dividing lines between derivation and inflection. Bauer (1983:35) has this to say:

All branches of morphology have in common that they deal with the structure of word-forms; inflection and derivation both deal with affixation.

The lack of boundaries between these two branches of morphology will be cleared in the following discussion. Derivation involves affixation with an aim of deriving an independent new word with its own syntactic category or subcategory which can serve as a citation word. This means that a derived word must be a lexeme on its own with its paradigms like other citation words. Inflection on the other hand is not concerned with producing new words but its output is the
paradigms of the same word. The following table will illustrate the differences between the two.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INFLECTION</th>
<th>DERIVATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Produces word-forms of a single lexeme which are paradigms.</td>
<td>• Produces new lexemes which stand as citation words.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Involves few variables in a closed system.</td>
<td>• May involve many variables in an open system.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Characterized by high commutability within the word-form.</td>
<td>• Characterized by low commutability within the word-form.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Typically has low commutability within the sentence.</td>
<td>• Some types show high commutability within the sentence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Marks agreement.</td>
<td>• Does not mark agreement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Does not show gaps in the paradigm.</td>
<td>• Shows gaps in the paradigm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Typically semantically regular.</td>
<td>• Typically semantically irregular.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Adopted and developed from Bauer (1983:29).

2.10 The nature of word-formation rules

Roeper and Siegel (1978) give a summary of the properties of word-formation rules. Such properties do apply to isiZulu word-formation rules. They come up with six properties:
a) They involve no phrasal categories
b) They shift syntactic categories
c) They involve no extrinsic ordering
d) WFRs have no medial variables
e) WFRs involve semantic compositionality
f) WFRs permit statement of idiosyncratic information.

These properties have been analyzed and applied to English by Bauer (1978). In this section the study will look into the applicability of such properties to isiZulu word-formation.

2.10.1 PHRASAL CATEGORIES

It is indisputable that there are cases of word-formation on phrasal bases. This means that phrases can act as the bases in other types of word-formation and it may imply that some phrases are converted into lexemes. This occurs mostly in compounds:

\[ \text{Temperature} \rightarrow \text{izingalokushisa} \]

Although the above example has been accepted, there is a question whether is it a word or a phrase designating an entity. This marks the interaction of word-formation and syntax, but it needs a careful attention due to the fact that the nominal phrase in a sentence must never be confused with a compound word. The NP is always present in syntax and this means phrasing does not form part of word-formation in isiZulu, mainly because a phrase cannot be a single word. Phrasing is in fact one of the factors hindering the formation of words in some instances. However it must be borne in mind that at times it provides a suitable name for a new concept or
entity. This calls for a relaxation of this property for isiZulu and it may be rephrased as follows:

WFRs may to a limited extent involve phrasal categories.

2.10.2 SYNTACTIC CATEGORY SHIFT

The shift in syntactic category may occur when one adds derivation affixes (prefixes and suffixes) to the base. However, Roeper and Siegel (1978) argue that there are some instances in the Indo-European languages where syntactic operations cause shift in syntactic categories. In isiZulu the syntactic category or subcategorisation changes whenever the word-formation rule is applied:

\[\text{[pre } + V + \text{ suff } \rightarrow \text{ N]} \quad \text{hamba} \quad \xrightarrow{\text{(verb)}} \quad \text{isihambi (noun)} \]
\[\text{[pre } + \text{ N } \rightarrow \text{ N]} \quad \text{intaba} \quad \xrightarrow{\text{(common noun)}} \quad \text{uNtaba (proper name)} \]

In the above examples, lexical items are combined with bound morphs. This also includes compounding and conversion in isiZulu. This property needs no addition, and it will be adopted as is for isiZulu.

2.10.3 THOSE THAT INVOLVE NO EXTRINSIC ORDERING

There is no cut and dry statement in as far as the extrinsic ordering is concerned in isiZulu because every ordering depends on a particular instances. In some cases extrinsic ordering may be evident and in other instance it may not be evident. It is also noticeable that the distinction
between syntactic rules and applications and word-formation rules is not clear-cut in connection with ordering. Bauer, (1983:169) asserts that:

In any case, the status of extrinsic rule ordering in linguistics is not clear: many linguists now believe that, at least in phonology, rules are never extrinsically ordered, but such ordering of rules as there should be determined by universal principles. If this is true, then it may be the case that syntactic rules are not ordered either, and the proposed distinction between syntactic rules and WFRs would become vacuous.

The case against extrinsic ordering is not particularly correct in that the word-formation rules in isiZulu allow affixes to be inserted into already generated strings, for example:

\[ \text{Indoda} \rightarrow \text{indodakazi} \rightarrow \text{indodakazana} \]

2.10.4 THEY HAVE NO MEDIAL VARIABLES

It is very difficult to draw a final statement that isiZulu word-formation rules have no medial variables. Some specifications may be required as to the level at which this constraint is supposed to hold in the syntax and this in turn presupposes some statements about the level of syntax at which word-formation rules operated (Bauer, 1983:168).

Unless such a clarification is made for isiZulu word-formation rules, this limitation cannot be considered in any way. This is due to the fact that in some instances where word-formation rules are applied, variables are found to be present.
2.10.5 THEY INVOLVE SEMANTIC COMPOSITIONALITY

Roeper and Siegel, (1978:202) contends that semantic compositionality is always present where morphological rules are productive. This can be further extended to encompass lexical rules, that proves to be the underlying assumption for any word-formation rule. Bauer, (1983:169) argues that:

*The only point that ought to be made here is that in some cases the meanings into which the lexemes can be decomposed may be grammatical rather than, or as well as, strictly semantic.*

2.10.6 THEY PERMIT STATEMENT OF IDIOSYNCRATIC INFORMATION

It is correct to argue that complex words tend to be idiosyncratic in some occasions. As far as we understand ‘idiosyncrasies as the knowledge that departs from rules’ as defined by Bauer (1983) one cannot say that there is any rule that can permit idiosyncrasies since the latter departs from the rules. Rules cannot describe irregularities and the irregularities cannot be listed in the lexicon because they are not permitted by a rule. How can they continue to be irregularities if they are accommodated by a rule? This feature cannot be adopted for isiZulu word-formation rules.

2.11 The traditional approach and the modern approach

IsiZulu has been researched by various scholars. Others have come up with different approaches to similar problems. Such a situation has made the study of isiZulu grammar interesting. This subsection will focus on two approaches which are vital for this study as a whole. These are the traditional approach and the modern approach.
2.11.1 TRADITIONAL APPROACH (The Dokean model)

The traditional approach has been pioneered and advocated by Doke (1956) where he uses the functional approach in categorising words (parts of speech). This model presupposes that words of the same part of speech must do the same function. If the word changes the function in a sentence, the part of speech changes. This approach divided the sentence into slots by which word categories are divided.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>substantive</th>
<th>Qualificative</th>
<th>Predicative</th>
<th>Adverbs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ubaba</td>
<td>omkhulu</td>
<td>uhamba</td>
<td>kancane</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As a result of this functional approach, the Doken model has the following parts of speech / word categories:

1. Substantive - Noun
   - Pronoun

2. Qualificative - Adjective
   - Relative
   - Possessive
   -Enumerative

3. Predicative - Verb
   - Copulative

4. Descriptive - Adverb
   - Idiophone
5. The interjective
6. The conjunctive

The functional method has been used by many scholars in isiZulu — which include: Nyembezi (1956); Taaljard and Bosch (1988); Ziervogel and Mabuza (1976); Zulu et al (1995). The functional approach is used in many languages like siSwati, Northern Sotho and isiXhosa. In certain instances, Doke fails to stick to the functional approach. This is the case when he is differentiating between the Adjective and the Relative where the difference is that adjective concords allow a nasal [n] or [m] as its part whereas the relative concord discards the nasal. This difference is structural because these parts of speech do the same function of qualifying the substantive in a sentence. The other problematic area for the functional approach as used by Doke is that there is no consistency. If the noun changes its function, the part of speech changes as it changes to adverbs but if the verb changes its function remains the verb, the only thing that changes is a mood and aspect, as infinitive for example ukuhamba.

The functional approach is referred to in this study as a traditional and its advocates as traditional grammarians because it is the first to be used in studying all South African indigenous languages.

2.11.2 MODERN APPROACH

This is the structural approach as it presupposes that all the words that have similar structural constituents (morphemes) fall under the same word category. This approach has led to the reduction of the number of parts of speech into:

i) Nominals
ii) Verbal conjugation  
iii) Particles

The structural approach is advocated by Guthrie (1979) who has the following parts of speech:

Nominals  
Verbal conjugation  
Particles

It is further taken on by Cope (1987) who has the following parts of speech:

i) Nominals  
ii) Verbal Conjugation  
iii) Particles

For the purposes of this study the structural approach will also be referred to as the modern approach because it is the most new approach to be advocated and applied in isiZulu.

2.12 The Morphemic Approach

The morphemic approach as opposed to word based morphology is an approach which takes the morpheme as the basis for all morphological applications. This approach presupposes that the morpheme is the centre for all word-formation processes and inflectional applications. It is different from the root based in that its attention and focus is on various morphemes not the root alone.
The Morpheme : A morpheme is a minimal or a smallest meaningful unit of a word form. It is a smallest linguistic unit which cannot be divided further, for example, a suffix. Anderson, (1992:12) defines a morpheme as:

*A minimal sign that has on the other hand, a meaning and on the other hand a set of allomorphs.*

The Morph : The morph is the smallest part of the word, into which the word can be divided, for example:

umuntu
umu- -/u
-nt-
-u

Morphs are formal minimal elements of the word form. This is supported by Katamba, (1993:24) who says:

*A morph is a physical form representing some morpheme in a language.*

2.12.1 THE COMPARISON OF A MORPHEME AND THE MORPH

Morphs and morphemes are two different morphological entities which are often confused by many people. At this level one finds it imperative to have them compared and differentiated so that their application in the study does not become confusing.

1. The morpheme is abstract in nature whereas the morph is substantive in nature, for example: morphemes: prefix, stem, suffix, concord etc., morph /ulu-/ /phondo/ /ana/.
2. Morphemes do not exist in a daily language as they cannot be expressed in words. On the other hand, morphs are there in a language or in practicality.

3. There is a one to one relationship between a morpheme and a morph which can be seen through realisation.

This indicates that the morpheme is a syntactic description of a morph which is a practical part of a morpheme. The following illustration says it all:

```
Verb
  |       |
  Tense  Verb
     |       |
Morphemic level → PTM  V.St
     |       |
Morph level →  u- + a- (wa)  -dla
```

2.12.2 CHARACTERISTICS OF A MORPHEME

The morpheme has two main characteristics which help in distinguishing the morpheme and the morph:

2.12.2.1 Indivisibility

The morpheme cannot be divided further and remain meaningful and useful because it is the smallest meaningful unit of a word form. This indicates that the morpheme can form the basis for a
construction of a meaningful entity; The following examples illustrate the indivisibility of an isiZulu morpheme:

umuntwana → umu – (prefix) –nt- (root) and –ana (suffix)
/-ana/ cannot be divided further because /-a-/ and /-na/ are meaningless, the same applies to /-nt-/ the root.

However, there is a strong argument that shows the loophole in the notion of indivisibility of a morpheme. Kruger (1991) argues that some morphemes can be divided further. He mentions morphemes like the stem which can be divided further into the root and the final vowel, for example:

stem → root + terminative vowel (Rt + Tv)
/-nt-/-u/ (noun)
/-hamb-//-a/ (verb)

prefix → preprefix + basic prefix (pp + bp)
/ulu-/ → /u/-/lu-/

This sounds good and correct but the problem is that the end result of this analysis is meaningless, for example /-nt-/ bears no meaning and cannot be put into any morphological application. Kruger argues that:

2.12.2.2 Meaningfulness
All the morphemes have meaning. Both free and bound morphemes have a meaning that they introduce to the words to which they are affixed. This is evidenced by the fact that morphemes may change
the meaning of a word and form and thus form a different word or a paradigm of the same word, for example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>umuntu</th>
<th>(a person)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

- kumuntu [at a person]
- yomuntu [of a person]
- nomuntu [with a person]

The above sketch shows that the introduction of a prefixal morpheme can change the meaning of a word. It can even change the syntactic category of a word which shows that morphemes have an impact on every word to which they are affixed. Their affixation may lead either to a complete shift of meaning or a partial shift / extension of the meaning of the base. Anderson, (1992:11) says:

*Morphemes are composed of phonological material, and they are also the bearers of linguistic meaning.*

### 2.12.3 ALLOMORPHS

Allomorphs are varient forms of a morph / morpheme that it assumes under various conditions. IsiZulu is a language with a variety of dialects and such dialects at times provide many varients of sounds (allophones) and varients of morphemes / morphs [allomorphs]. This can be illustrated by the following examples:

Class 5 prefix ili- has an allomorph i-
ilitshe → itshe (a stone)

Class II prefix

ulu- has an allomorph

| u-

Uluphondo

uphondo (a horn)

Class 9 prefix

in- has an allomorph

| im-

Inkomo (a cow)
imfe

The negative a- has an allomorph

| ka -

Asihambi (we are not going)
kasihambi

Anderson, (1992:12) defines the allomorph as:

The variant of a morpheme

2.12.4 TYPES OF MORPHEMES

Morphemes are different in form and in application. This results in various types of morphemes:

2.12.4.1 Bound Morphemes

Bound morphemes are morphemes that are not able to occur in isolation. They need to occur in a word form in conjunction with other morphemes.

Crystal, (1987:36) defines a bound morpheme as:

One which cannot occur on its own as a separate word.
The above statement indicates that prefixes, roots, infixes and suffixes are bound morphemes. Although morphemes have meaning, bound morphemes cannot convey any wholistic meaning on their own without being used in conjunction to other bound morphemes.

2.12.4.2 **Free Morphemes**

These are the morphemes which can stand on their own in isolation as words. This means that free morphemes are words that cannot be divided any further. Such words include ideophones, [du, hlephu, gilikidi phaxa etc] auxiliary verbs [mane, vele, damane, de] and some adverbs. Free morphemes are complete words that are indivisible. Crystal, (1987:127) defines a free morpheme as:

*A minimal grammatical unit which can be used as a word without the need for further morphological modification.*

2.12.5 **ZERO MORPHEMES**

A Zero Morpheme indicates a grammatically significant absence of a morpheme in a word-form. This occurs in various word categories in isiZulu as in vocatives:

- uBayede! → /o/ Bayede!
- uMzimela! → /o/ Mzimela!

*Idioms and proverbs*

- Amehlo amadala → /o/ mehlo /o/ madala

*Imperative mood*

- uBongani dlana → /o/ Bongani dlana
- uVumani gijima → /o/ Vumani gijima
2.12.6 DISTRIBUTIONAL TYPES OF MORPHEMES

2.12.6.1 Central Morphemes

Central morphemes are always situated in central positions of a word. They hardly or never occupy the peripheral position in a word. They include among others infixes and roots.

2.12.6.2 Peripheral Morphemes

Peripheral morphemes are the ones that are found at the ends (not at the centre) or at the peripheries of a word-form. Peripheral morphemes includes prefixal morphemes and suffixal morphemes.

2.12.7 ADVANTAGES OF A MORPHEMIC APPROACH

The morphemic approach has some advantages which makes it good for all languages. Firstly it provides the meaningful analysis of words because word forms are analyzed into meaningful morphemes.

Morphemes help in building new words through derivation (those are derivational morphemes). Other morphemes provide different paradigms of a word which make the word to do a different functions in a sentence (inflectional morphemes).

2.12.8 DISADVANTAGES OF MORPHEMIC APPROACH

The morphemic approach puts more emphasis on the morpheme and that situation misleads people to a point where they separate word analysis or even morphology from the language itself.
This approach results in non-existent forms which are also meaningless. Like roots:

-nt- for umuntu
-f- for ifu
-f- for imfe
-s- for iso

This is even against the definition of the morpheme because it is defined as a meaningful minimal unit of a word. The above roots have no meaning such that one cannot associate them easily with the words from which they are taken.

The other disadvantage is that it considers the morpheme as its point of departure (for all morphological applications) whereas the morpheme does not feature in daily language as it is known by people who have studied the language. There is a problem with some morphemes which can be analysed further. This is against the definition of a morpheme as it says that morphemes are indivisible, as a result it is against the morphemic approach. IsiZulu prefixes can be analysed into preprefix and basic prefix, for example:

uku- → [u- preprefix; -ku- basic prefix]
umu- → [u- preprefix, -mu- basic prefix]

Stems in isiZulu are at times analysed into the root and terminative vowel, for example:

-hamba → [-hamb- verbal root and -a the terminative vowel]
The verb stem poses another problem because it is not always regarded as a morpheme as it serves as the verb, a complete word which is divisible. This is the case in Doke (1956) and Ziervogel and Mabuza (1976) and Nyembezi (1956) and it can be illustrated by the following example:

- **hamba** as in *Hamba uye ekhaya*
- **hleka** as in *Hleka wena ngane.*

The imperative mood takes the verb stem as it is (without any affixation if the object is singular). The above mentioned disadvantages make one deduce and conclude that the morphemic approach is not good for isiZulu hence in this study the word based approach which takes the word as the point of departure for all morphological applications will be opted for and used.

### 2.13 Synchronic and diachronic processes

Word-formation rules are usually described as either synchronic or diachronic. These are the two main temporal dimensions of linguistic investigation which were introduced by de Saussure (1974:15). Synchronic processes are viewed at a theoretical point in time. Crystal, (1987:299) says:

*One describes a ‘state’ of the language, disregarding whatever changes might be taking place.*

Diachronic linguistics on the other hand, presupposes that processes or languages must be studied from the point of view of their historical development. Crystal, (1987:92) also refers to diachronic linguistics as historical linguistics. In this
study both synchronic and diachronic processes will be included so as to give rise to a well balanced amount of word-formation in isiZulu.

2.14 Conclusion

It is clear that there is a large number of theories that influences word-formation in different languages. The above mentioned theories and debates permit one to choose the correct theory to be applied to a particular language which is isiZulu in this case. After each and every theory, it has been said as to which one is deemed – in this research – good and applicable to isiZulu. This has been done with the vigilant eye that the other person may choose the other theory but a thorough discussion giving reasons for choosing a particular theory or method has been given. This then implies that theories to be chosen and applied in isiZulu word-formation (in this study) has been accounted for in the foregoing discussion of some theories in word-formation.
Chapter Three

3.0 WORD-FORMATION PROCESSES USING AFFIXES

3.1 Introduction

The term affix refers to a meaningful grammatical element which is attached to a word or a stem in order to make a new or a more complex word. Examples of affixes may be found before the stem or word (prefixes) in the middle of the stem ( infixes) at the end of a stem (suffixes). IsiZulu is one of the affixing languages as it uses affixes to express grammatical relationships as well as in forming new words.

In this chapter, we shall look into various morphological processes by which words can be built in isiZulu. Illustration through examples will be provided. Word-formation through affixes is the most common way of building words in isiZulu and many languages. This idea is supported by Bauer, (1995:19) who says:

*By far the most common way of building new words in the languages of the word is by using affixes.*

It must be borne in mind that affixes can either be inflectional or derivational. It is therefore imperative to distinguish between inflectional affixes and derivational affixes. The two types of affixes differ in many respects but distinguishing them clearly may be difficult since there is no clear point where one may demarcate the end of one branch of morphology and the beginning of the other because they finally form one entity, that is Morphology. The basis of distinction is that: inflectional affixes result in the formation of forms of lexemes (paradigms of the
same citation word) whereas derivational affixes result in the formation of new lexemes. In this regard Bauer, (1995:73) says:

... inflection is part of syntax, while derivation is a part of lexis ... inflection provides forms of lexemes, while derivation provides new lexemes.

However, it is not easy to decide when do one have a new lexeme and when do we have a form of an old lexeme.

The other difference between the two is that derivation may cause a change of category whereas inflectional never changes the syntactic category of the base, for example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Noun</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hamba</td>
<td>uhambo</td>
<td>derivation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(go)</td>
<td>(a journey)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uhambo</td>
<td>uhanjana</td>
<td>inflection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a journey)</td>
<td>(a short journey)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the above examples, -hamba is a verb whereas uhambo is a noun and that indicates the change of a syntactic category whereas with uhambo and uhanjana there is no syntactic category change. This implies that the former set is derivational and the latter is inflectional. Then there arises another problem: how does one define a syntactic category and where do we cut a line between categories. Categories are determined by distribution, if items have distributions they are considered to be of the same category, but that is not again sufficient. The question is how closely a sufficient distribution is to be defined. Bauer, (1995:75) has this to say:
Categories are determined by distribution: If two items have identical distributions, they will be considered to belong to the same category.

In isiZulu, personal names or proper nouns (surnames) can be derived from other nouns like common nouns and impersonal nouns. Traditional grammarians like Doke regard that as derivation and not inflection, for example:

isihlahla = uSihlahla  
(a tree)            (a man’s name)

Nouns are a syntactic category therefore forming nouns from nouns is not derivational but inflectional in nature.

This study aims at looking into morphological processes and we shall therefore embark on the processes themselves.

3.2 Suffixation

Suffixation is a morphological process by which new words are formed through the addition of morphemes at the end of a stem/root. Such morphemes are referred to as suffixes.

In isiZulu, suffixation is the most common method of building new words by using affixes. Suffixes can be used either derivationally, inflectionally or evaluatively – used. Evaluative suffixes and derivational suffixes will be discussed in the following discussion as they form part of word-formation therefore inflectional suffixes will not be covered.
3.2.1 THE EVALUATIVE SUFFIXES

Evaluative suffixes are the ones which change the meaning of the base to indicate / pass judgement about or assess the situation at hand. They may indicate endearment, dislike, dismissiveness and derogation.

3.2.1.1 The diminutive suffixes –ana and –azane

The diminutive affixes are affixes indicating smallness in all respects, that is, in physical space, age and quantity. It may also be used metaphorically and it can also be used to indicate metonymy.

Madondo, (2000:21) describes the diminutive affix as:

... an affix indicating smallness in physical space, age and quantity. It can be metaphorised and it can also indicate metonymy.

IsiZulu diminutive suffixes share the following properties which prove their evaluative nature:

1. They are evaluative and not inflectional or derivational in nature, for example:
   
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Base Word</th>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>umufo</td>
<td>ana</td>
<td>umfana</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
   | (a man)   | (a boy)

2. They are alternative in that the respective word-formation rules do not change categorization of the base, for example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Base Word</th>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>indoda</td>
<td>-&gt;</td>
<td>indodana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a man)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(a son)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>indlebe</td>
<td>-&gt;</td>
<td>indletshana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(an ear)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(a little ear)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


3. The semantic shift (connotative) they cause is either positive (endearment / affection) or negative (derogatory and worthless) depending entirely on context.

4. Their construction prompt the occurrence of morphological and phonological processes which involves: palatalisation, fronting, labialisation, vowel elision, consonantnalisation, fossilization and rigidification.

5. Their formation rule does not have a single categorical base as they can be constructed from nouns, pronouns, adjectives and relatives, for example:

   - muhle → muhlana (adjective)
     (she/he is beautiful) (she/he is little beautiful)

   - uqotho → uqoshwana (relative)
     (he is reliable) (he is little reliable)

6. Their suffixes can be applied on adjacent circles.

3.2.1.2 Morphological aspects of isiZulu diminutive suffix

The diminutive form of a noun is a word-form constructed from a noun through the suffix -ana. Traditionalists, following Doke's model are of the view that -ana is applied to nouns ending with vowels -a and -i. If the final vowel is -o or -u the suffix -wana is used. In this study -wana will not be regarded as an allomorph of -ana as -w- in -wana is a result of consonantnalisation which occurs because of two vowels which are juxtaposed. Khumalo, (1984:4)
calls for a review of the fact that –ana is a diminutive affix and replaces –ana with –yana as he says:

Let us propose, therefore, that the diminutive suffix in Zulu is –yana and that a resyllabification rule stipulates that the final syllable of the noun and the initial syllable of the diminutive suffix converge and are realized as one syllable.

Khumalo’s major aim is to give a principled explanation for palatalisation in the construction of diminutive form of a word. He only tries to account for fronting which leads to palatalisation. Fronting is normally caused by the high front vowel (i) or (y). He supports his view by using the example: indojeyana whereas the suffix in that case is not –yana but –eyana. This does not apply properly to words in which palatalisation does not take place, for example:

isango + -ana = isangwana.

Therefore, it is clear that –ana remains the diminutive suffix with –azane as its allomorph.

The diminutive suffix can be used to form both semantically and morphologically different words, for example:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{umuo} & \rightarrow \text{umfana} = \text{different in age} \\
(\text{a man}) & \quad (\text{a boy})
\end{align*}
\]
In example No. 1, the new word, umfana, as it can be made further diminutive by suffixing -ana and in that case again there is a semantic shift.

\[
\text{Umfana} + \text{-ana} = \text{umfanyana}
\]

(a boy) \quad \text{dim} \quad (a little boy)

The diminutive suffix can be used to form new words even from adjective pronouns and relatives when used metaphorically and from abstract nouns where it indicates metonymy, for example:

\[
\text{muhle} \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{muhlana}
\]

(she is beautiful) \quad (she is a bit beautiful)

\[
\text{ugotho} \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{ugoshwana}
\]
(he is reliable)      (he is little reliable)
ubuthongo          ubuthongwana / isithongwana
(a nap)             (a short nap)

When the diminutive suffix is used to indicate metonymy it expresses attitude of affection, depreciation and derogation or dismissiveness, but that depends entirely on the context, for example:

Nasi isalukazana sami esihle. = endearment
(Here is my beautiful old lady)
Siyadelela lesi salukazana sakhona. = derogation
(This old lady is very nasty)
Angifune madlana yako mina. = dismissiveness
(I do not want your damn money)

This on its own shows that a single suffix can be used to form different semantic words (words with different semantic affects). The diminutive affix has been used in different contexts in the above examples, as a result it is used to construct three different semantic words.

The allomorph of -ana, -azane, do not have the same semantic effects like -ana. It is used normally to indicate feminine gender or else it may be applied to a feminine base, for example:

intombi → intombazane
(a lady)          (a girl / a young lady)
→ umvumbazane
(a young hen)  
→ isibhuzazane  
(a young female goat)  

The allomorph -azane forms words which are totally different from those that are formed from the suffix -ana. At times -azane may be used to indicate smallness in physical space, e.g.

isaka  →  usakazane  
(a sack)  (a small sack)  

ibanga  →  ubangazane

3.2.2 THE AUGMENTATIVE SUFFIX -KAZI

In isiZulu the augmentative suffix is -kazi. It is normally used to indicate largeness in number, size or value. The augmentative affix can be used either metaphorically or literally and it is usually contrasted with the diminutive where the general meaning is small. Nyembezi, (1982:68) supports this when he says:

*Kuye kuthi lapho sifuna ukubonisa,  
ubukhulu bento obubabazekayo sisebenzise isikhuliso.*  
(If we want to show extreme largeness of something, we use the augmentative affix)

The augmentative affix share similar properties with the diminutive. They are both evaluative in nature and they form new semantic words if they are applied to a base as they change the semantic effects of the base.
3.2.2.1 The Morphological aspects of an Augmentative Affix

In the construction of any augmentative word the suffix -kazi is suffixed to the base. This suffix may be suffixed to nouns, adjectives and relatives. This augmentative suffix has its allomorph -azi. If -azi is used, two vowels become juxtaposed and that prompts a phonological process that will solve the problem of juxtaposition. Phonological processes that are used to solve such problems are usually elision and substitution.

\[
\text{isaluka} + -\text{azi} \rightarrow \text{isalukazi}
\]
(an old lady)

\[
\text{ihlathi} + -\text{kazi} \rightarrow \text{ihlathikazi}
\]
(a forest) (a big/ thick forest)

**Formalization**


(ihlathikazi i- -hlathi- -kazi)


(umlomokazi u- -mu- -lomo- -kazi)

B.

```
N
  / \   / \   / \
Nst N.Aff N.Aff
  \  \  / \
   \ pre aug.
   /  /  \
-doda in- -kazi
```
The augmentative affix has various semantic effects which make it to form semantically different words.

i. **Largeness in Physical Space**

If the augmentative is used literally it indicates largeness in size. In this regard, Nyembezi, (1982:69) says that:

\[ Kuye kuthi lapho sifuna ukubonisa \\
ubukhulu bento obubabazekayo \\
sisebenzise isikhuliso. \]

(If we want to indicate extreme largeness of something, we use the augmentative)

This argument signals that the augmentation basically mean bigness / largeness in size. There is no phonological process that is prompted by the suffix -\(kazi\) because it begins with a consonant whereas all isiZulu words end with a vowel, that make the two sounds compatible.

ii. **The metaphorical extension of the augmentative suffix**

Augmentatives can also be used metaphorically where it is applied to abstract nouns, relatives and adjectives. In this instance, the augmentation is done to abstract entities, for example:

\[ uthando \rightarrow uthandokazi \]

(love) (great love)
The augmentation of adjectives can be both literal and metaphorical depending on the context and the stem to which the suffix -kazi is affixed. This is supported by Doke, (1956:73) where he says that:

*It may be added to a noun, and even to an adjective or relative qualifying that noun or to both but it must be noticed that it is not possible to use it with every noun.*

Doke’s argument emphasizes that the metaphorically augmented relative can be used with an already augmented noun for emphasis, or derogation, for example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Zulu</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nayi le ndoda nekhandakazi elikhulukazi</td>
<td>(there is this man with a damn big head)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ngimbonile loyo wekhalakazi elidekazi</td>
<td>(I did see that one with the damn long nose)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above examples indicate that the suffix -kazi can be used to form new words from adjectives and relatives as it adds the expressive meaning to the qualificative and thus making it evaluative in nature. Mbuli, (1975:13) supports this when he says:

*They add to the qualificative a comparative meaning.*

The augmentative suffix -kazi maintains its role of indicating largeness of the referent in relation to its size even if it is used with adjectives and relatives.
3.2.3 THE EVALUATIVE SUFFIX -SE

The suffix -se in isiZulu is used to form proper names which are mostly applicable to females. This suffix can be used to mean “the extreme” or “the most” of the base to which it is applied. In its general application, this suffix does not indicate contempt or endearment but it can be used evaluatively to express mostly contempt. This means it can, in most cases, be evaluative in nature as it is the case with other evaluative rules. Doke, (1956:72) views this as a nominal derivative which is a type of a feminine formation and he never looked at its evaluative nature:

*The formative suffix -se is used extensively in Zulu to form proper names in class 1a applicable to girls; this type is of feminine formation.*

I concur with the notion that the suffix -se is used on the derivation of personal nouns from verbs but it is further remarkable that these carry the sense of dismissiveness and excessiveness. This can be seen from the following examples:

- thanda + -se → uThandwase (the extremely loved)
  (to love) (the damn loved)
- themba + -se → uThenjwase (the extremely trusted
  one / the damn trusted)

The nouns formed from verbs through the suffix are not similar to other deverbative nouns in that they express dislike or contempt.
3.3 IsiZulu Verbal extensions

All isiZulu verbal extensions use affixes for their construction. Some of the verbal extensions are inflectional while others are evaluative in nature. There are two evaluative verbal extensions: the intensive and the reciprocal verbal extensions. The other four that is: the passive, the applied, the causative and the neuter are inflectional. When the verbal extensions are formed, the infix is infixed between the root and the terminative vowel. This means that these infixes are post root infixes as they are added after the root, for example:

- **-hamba + -isis-**  
  (go)  
  **-hambisisa**  
  (go intensively)

The term infixation refers to a morphological process whereby morphemes are added into the root of a word. Such morphemes are referred to as infixes. Infixation may occur before the root [pre root] or after the root [post root]. Infixation plays an essential role in word-formation. This subsection will concentrate on word-formation through infixes, which is the way through which all verbal extensions are constructed.

Infixation in isiZulu as a process can occur immediately before or after the root. Crystal, (1987:10) defines infixes as:

... *those which occur within a root.*

Infixes should be occurring within a root but that does not nullify the fact that verbal extensions are infixes because they are put between other morphemes. It has been discovered that true infixes are not found in isiZulu, but if the affix is added into the word be it before or after the root, it must be said to be infixed.
This can then make it an infix as they are referred to as post root or pre root infixes. This then brings one to the conclusion that verbal extensions are infixedal in their nature.

3.3.2 EVALUATIVE VERBAL EXTENSIONS

3.3.2.1 The Intensive Verbal Extension

The intensive verbal extension uses –isis- for its construction. The suffix –isis- is suffixed to the verb or verb stem and it changes the meaning of the verb to denote “something or action done intensively and thoroughly”. This semantic shift and a morphological variation or addition to the verb stem result into a formation of a new word which can further allow some affixes to be added to it. Nyembezi, (1956:131) supports this when he says:

\[\text{Siyabona ke ukuthi lempambosi isho ukwenza ngamandla nangokucophelela.}\]

(We see that this verbal extension means doing something thoroughly and carefully).

This is absolutely correct because the intensive verbal extension can be used to denote something carefully and completely done. The evaluative nature of this verbal extension has not been dealt with by all isiZulu grammarians. It passes judgement in that it distinguishes between the action done intensively, thoroughly and carefully and the action not done carefully and thoroughly.

Most of Zulu linguists ended on this level with this verbal extension and they did not look at the expressive meaning of this verbal
It passes the judgement that one does the particular action intensively or carefully.

The application of the suffix -isis- to verb stems preserves almost all the features of the base, it is only the final syllable that is disturbed. The other fact is that other evaluative or inflectional rules may be applied after this evaluative rule. This therefore is the evidence to the fact that the affixation of -isis- to any verb stem leads to a formation of a new word. This can be seen in the following examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Base</th>
<th>Evaluative verb</th>
<th>Inflected evaluative verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-hamba</td>
<td>-hambisisa</td>
<td>-hambisiswa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-lalela</td>
<td>-lalelisisa</td>
<td>-lalelisisela</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-funa</td>
<td>-funisisa</td>
<td>-funisiseka</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-gijima</td>
<td>-gijimisisa</td>
<td>-ukugijimisisa</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.3.2.2 The Reciprocal Verb Extension

The reciprocal verb extension is the evaluative rule which indicates that the action is performed upon one another by two or more subjects. In isiZulu it is constructed through the affixation of the suffix -an- to the verb stem. The infix -an- of the reciprocal should not be confused with the diminutive -an- which is based in nouns. When this suffix is affixed to a verb stem, vowel elision occurs with an aim of separating two vowels which come into close proximity. This morphological phenomenon qualifies to be part of evaluative morphology because of its engraved meaning of dismissiveness and contempt or dislike. IsiZulu traditional
grammarians have wrongly classified this under derivational morphology.

The reciprocal verbal extensions commonly used with plural concords in many African languages including Shona. This is evidenced by Fortune, (1956:215) when he says:

*The reciprocal species is commonly used with plural concords; the parties to the reciprocal action being associated as a plural subject.*

This can be exemplified thus:

*Mbombe nakafundza – mombe zinobatsinana*  
(the head of cattle and the tick bird help one another)

In isiZulu the reciprocal verbal extension can be used with singular concords mostly in cases where it is used evaluatively to express dislike or dismissiveness. In this regard, the first being the general reciprocal and the second being dismissiveness. This idea is further supported by Doke, (1956:148) who argues that:

*Nevertheless, in Zulu a singular subject may be used with a reciprocal verb, provided the verb is followed by the conjunctive formative –na.*

The following examples illustrate the points stated above:

1. Inja nekati kuyalumana.
(the dog and the cat bites each other)

2. Ikati negundane kuyalurnana.
(a cat and a mouse bites each other)

3. Siyakhuluma ufundana nephepha.
(we talk to you, you keep on reading the damn newspaper)

(I said sing, you keep on biting fingers)

The reciprocal in 1 and 2 denotes a reciprocal action where two parties perform the same action to each other. The reciprocal in 3 and in 4 denote dislike and contempt from the speaker. In the last two sentences, the verbs do not indicate any reciprocal action.

This also applies to instances where the reciprocal verb is used to indicate association or associativeness. Some of these verbs are used as a single substantive. This is used with reference to the parts of such substantive in relation to each other. This is clearly shown in the following examples:

hlangana (meet)
xubana (mix)

Doke, (1956:147) supports this when he says:

*Certain reciprocals have a slightly different significance from the plain idea of reciprocal action, in that they are intransitive or neither in force carrying also the idea of association.*
However, there are some verbs which happen to be reciprocal in nature, due to the fact that they end in -ana, whose original or simple stems cannot be traced correctly. Such verbs no longer have any connection with what seem to be their original stems, for example:

- hlangana (meet)
- lingana (be equal)
- fumana (find)

Ziervogel and Mabuza, (1976:85) supports this when they say:

Apart from the reciprocal meaning of the -an- extension which occurs in verbs like -hlangana- which it is derived, -an- also expresses an action which is carried, put in a severe manner or an action which expresses a particular nature or habit.

The basis from which these reciprocals are formed are no longer existent in isiZulu. They appear to be fossilized. Hlangana is there as a verbal extension but -hlanga does not exist, the same applies to -fumana. In isiZulu there is no verb stem like -fuma. This is also the case with -lingana where there is nothing like -linga from which lingana can come from.

The reciprocal verbal extension can be inflected by other verbal extension, for example, the causative and the applied verbal extensions, for example:
3.3.2.3 Inflectional verbal Extensions

The inflectional verbal extensions are formed through suffixation of different suffixes to the verb.

3.3.2.3.1 The neuter verbal extension

The neuter in isiZulu is constructed by the infixation of the infix -ek- or -akala to the verb stem with the first vowel of the infix taking the place of the terminative vowel. The neuter indicates an intransitive condition without any special reference to an agent determining that condition (Doke, 1956:138). In English the neuter can be expressed by suffixes -able or -ible. The infixes -ek- and -akal- do not apply on similar verbs – there are verbs that take -ek- only – and do not have the exactly similar semantic effects, for example:

- bona → bonakala
  (see)    (get seen)
- thanda → thandeka
  (love)   (get loved)
- fihla → fihlakala
  (hide)   (get hidden)
3.3.2.1.2 The applied verbal extension

The applied verbal extension as a word is formed from the verb by suffiXing the infix /-el-/ which changes the meaning of the base to indicate the action carried on behalf of or with regard to some object, for example:

hamba→ hambela
(go) (visit)
bamba→ bambela
(hold) (hold for)
thunga→ thungela
(sew) (sew for)

3.3.2.1.3 The passive verbal extension

The passive verbal extension is a word formed through the affixation of the suffix /-iw-/ or /-w-/. This word formation rule gives birth to a word meaning that the subject is acted upon by an agent. The agent is then changed from a noun to a copulative if it follows the passive verb, e.g.

hleka → hlekwa
(laugh) (get laughed at)
azi → aziwa
(know) (be known)

3.3.2.1.4 The causative verbal extension

The causative verbal extension infix /-is-/ is affixed to the verb to form a new word which will indicate "to cause to act", for example:
Verbs ending with -ka and -la are subject to modification which is due to the phonological process called alveolarisation where /-k-/ becomes /-s-/ and /-l-/ becomes /-z-/ , for example:

- suka \rightarrow -susa (take away)
- vuka \rightarrow -vusa (arouse)
- khathala \rightarrow -khathaza (worry / make tired)

The causative may indicate the idea of ‘helping to do’. Doke, (1956:147) supports this and say:

the causative form is also used with the idea of “help to do”. Most of the verbs so used indicate communal actions, for example:

This meaning of a causative verbal extension may be seen in the following examples:

Sizonilimisa. (we shall help you plough)
Bebesivunisa. (they were helping us harvest)
Uyangakhisa. (he is helping me build a house)

It may also be used to mean ‘to act like’, for example:
Ukhulumisa okukayise.
(He speaks like his father)

Uhambisa okukanina.
(She walks like her mom)

3.3.2.1.5 The Other word-formation suffixes in Verbs

These are suffixes which help in word-formation by forming new words but which cannot be grouped or classified under one roof because they have nothing in common, they are different from each other.

i. The Stative –ala

The suffix /-ala/ is a suffix used in African languages to form transitive verbs. In isiZulu there are several verbs that are formed through /-ala/ which may change to /-ele/ in the perfect and some of these verbs are transitive and others are intransitive, such verbs are stative in nature, for example:

i. Intransitive
   -limala (get wounded)
   -khathala (be tired)
   -fudumala (be hot)

ii. Transitive
   -bulala (kill)
   -thwala (carry)

ii. The Stative positional /-ama/
The verbs ending in /-ama/ or /-eme/ in perfect tenses are formed to stative and they may used to denote the movement – lowering or raising the body or taking up an attitude, for example:

- phakama (get up)
- lulama (get well from illness)
- khothama (bow down)

iii. The Persistive /-ezela/

The persistive verbs are formed from simple verb stems by suffixing /-ezela/ which denote something done persistively or persistently, for example:

- vimba → -vimbezela
  (block up) (besiege)
- bamba → -bambezela
  (hold) (detain)
- ntenga → -ntengezela
  (swing) (keep on swinging)

iv. The Reversive Suffixes

There are various reversive suffixes in Zulu. Such suffixes are affixed to verbs to reverse a certain action. Doke, (1956:67) supports this when he says:

... suffixes are regularly used to reverse the action of the verb in many Bantu languages. Traces of this formation are found in Zulu.
This serves as an evidence of the fact that this is one of the word-formation rules in isiZulu. Such suffixes include: 

- /-ula/; /-uka/; /-ulala/ and /-uluka/, for example:

- thukulula (untie)
- sombulula (solve)
- thulula (pour out)
- khumula; khumuka (release)

These suffixes may be used in forming verbs from ideophones as in the following examples:

- ngqothu - ngqothula
- hluthu - hluthula
- phethu - phethuka
- monyu - monyula

### De-interjective verbs

De-interjctive verbs are verbs formed from interjectives through the affixation of the suffix /-za/. These verbs refer to an act of doing what the interjective (base) denotes, for example:

- hawu → hawuza (express surprise)
- khwibi → khwibiza (scare away, esp. chicken)

### De-verbative nouns

De-verbative nouns are formed from nouns through the suffixation of a relevant suffix, that is impersonal nouns use the suffix -o whereas personal nouns use the suffix -i in their formation.
Prefixation is also involved in this formation but we shall concentrate on suffixation, prefixation will be done at a later stage. Traditional grammarians like Doke advocate this rule. Doke, (1956:67) says:

Impersonal nouns are formed from verb-stems by changing the final -a to -o and prefixing the class prefix.

This can be seen from the following examples:

Impersonal nouns = -thanda → uthando
(love) (love)
-hleka → uhleko
(laugh) (laughter)
-hlala → isihlalo
(sit) (a chair)

Personal nouns = sebenza → isišebeni / umsebenzi
(work) (a worker)
qeqesha → umqeqeshi
(coach) (a coach)
lima → umlimi
(cultivate) (a farmer)

The foregoing discussion on word-formation through suffixes shows that they (suffixes) may be derivative or inflectional in their application.
3.4 Prefixation as a word-formation process

By prefixation we mean a morphological process in which prefixes are preplaced either to stems or to complete words. Sometimes a prefix may substitute the initial vowel (preprefix) of a noun. Prefixes are rarer than suffixes in isiZulu but they are used in constructing many words. Bauer, (1995:21) has this to say in this regard:

"Although they are rarer than suffixes, prefixes work in very much the same way".

Prefixes can either be derivational or inflectional in nature.

3.4.1 DERIVATIONAL PREFIXES

3.4.1.1 De-interjective nouns

De-interjective nouns are nouns formed from interjectives by prefixing relevant prefixes. In this case, nouns are derived from interjectives. These prefixes are derivational because they change both the meaning and the syntactic category of the base, for example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interjective</th>
<th>Noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>hawu</td>
<td>umhawu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maye</td>
<td>ubumaye / ubumayemaye</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>khwibi</td>
<td>ikhwibi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.4.1.2 De-ideophonic nouns

IsiZulu nouns can also be formed from ideophones through prefixation of a suitable prefix, for example:
3.4.2 INFLECTED NOMINALS

3.4.2.1 Personal Names

Personal names can be formed from various word categories in isiZulu. They may be formed from other nouns, verbs, adverbs etc. In most of these cases, the formation of personal names is prefixed in nature. In this subsection, more attention will be paid onto the personal names formed from other nouns. The reason for this is that the formation of personal nouns from other word categories is derivational in nature. Personal names are nouns, so their formation from other nouns is not derivational but inflectional because of one criterion for distinguishing between derivation and inflection is that derivation involves the change of syntactic category of the base, then a change of a noun to a noun is by no means derivational.

This is further supported by Bauer, (1995:76) when he says:

“One suggestion is that only derivational processes can change sub-categorization features associated with the base.”

However, it must be noted that there are some inflectional affixes that can change the syntactic category but to the best of my knowledge, these do not occur in isiZulu.

Proper nouns in isiZulu are formed by a replacement of a prefix into the common noun. This therefore leads to the elision of the preprefix, which

bani → umbani
bhamu → isibhamu
qhephu → isiqhephu
means that there is doubling of prefixes. Doke, (1956:69) supports this when he says:

"Proper names may be formed in Zulu from other nouns by eliding the initial vowel of the latter and prefixing the class IA prefix -u. The resulting nouns will each contain two prefixes, the second being short of its initial vowel."

The above quotation implies that it is the preprefix that is being divided and the basic prefix remains with the noun, then the full prefix of class IA is preplaced, thus the noun remains with two (double) prefixes. This can be seen from the following examples:

- isikhotha → uSikhotha
- isagila → uSagila
- intaba → uNtaba

This can be formalized as follows:

\[ n- \ (\text{pref[full]} + \text{b.p} + \text{st}). \]

```
      N
     /\  \\
    St. N.pref N.pref (basic)
   /  \   |    |
  -taba u-   -n-
```
It must be noted that the noun prefix used is of class 1a whereas the basic prefix is of class 9 and this is the evidence of prefix doubling.

The inflected noun may change its function in a sentence as it occupies a certain slot in a sentence. According to the traditional word categorization advocated by Doke, once the word is inflected the part of speech changes. This model has some problems which led to Guthrie and Cope resorting to a structural approach rather than the functional approach.

3.4.2.2 The Locative Nominals

Locative nouns are formed through a variety of affixes which in most cases are prefixal in nature although some are suffixal. Locative suffix cannot function alone but prefixes can be affixed without the suffix being affixed to the noun. The prefixes are : /kwa-/; /ku-/ /e-/ and /o-/ whereas suffixes are : /-eni/ and /or -ini, e.g.

\begin{align*}
\text{ikhanda} & \rightarrow \text{ekhanda} \\
\text{uphondo} & \rightarrow \text{ophondweni} \\
\text{umfula} & \rightarrow \text{emfuleni}
\end{align*}

Doke calls these as the adverbs of place because they occupy the slot of an adverb in a sentence. The morpheme ku- is mostly used with class 1, 1a, 2a and 2, for example:

\begin{align*}
\text{ugogo} & \rightarrow \text{kugogo} \quad \text{class 1a} \\
\text{ogogo} & \rightarrow \text{kogoqo} \quad \text{class 2a} \\
\text{abantu} & \rightarrow \text{kubantu} \quad \text{class 2} \\
\text{umuntu} & \rightarrow \text{kumuntu} \quad \text{class 1}
\end{align*}
3.4.2.3 Place names as proper names

IsiZulu place names have been studied by several grammarians; for the purposes of this study, we will deal with the morphological processes involved in the formation of place names. Although place names sound similar to locatives in certain instances, they may not be formed in the same way as locatives. Van Huyssteen, (1994:53) supports this as he says:

"The rules which generally apply to the formation of locatives, for instance, cannot necessarily be made applicable to Zulu place names".

IsiZulu names can be divided into two categories; namely: the Radical form and the Locative form. It must be noted that the term 'place name' in this study will be used generally to refer to names of places that is names of mountains and river names.

i. The locative form

The place names using the locative form are formed through the affixation of locative affixes /-e/ and /-eni or -ini/ to the base. The base is in most cases nominal in nature. This means they use both the prefix (prefixation) and the suffix (suffixation) in this formation, for example:

1. eThekwini (Durban)
2. eM pangeni
3. eSikhawini

There are some place names which are in a locative form which use the prefix /e-/ alone (they do not take the suffix), for example:
1. eMbali
2. eNquthu
3. eNkandla

As it is the case with locative nouns, place names in a locative form, can be formed through the prefixation of /o-/ and /kwa-/ which are also locative morphemes, for example:

A.1. oLundi
2. oNdini
3. oBuka
4. oThukela
5. oPhaphasi

B.1. KwaNongoma
2. KwaMbonambi
3. KwaHlathikhulu
4. KwaDlangezwa

Place names that use the prefix kwa- for their formation are mostly formed from personal names (surnames) hence they refer to a place where a particular surname is in majority or rules, for example: KwaMthethwa – 'the place of the Mthethwas'; KwaMbonambi – 'the place of the Mbonambi’s. Some place names are named after the neighbouring river, or mountain, for example:

OLundi - named after the Drakensberg mountains
OThukela - named after uThukela river.
Other place names are named after a certain historical event or a natural phenomenon which is in the surrounding area, be it a tree, river, mountain, etc. Place names in a locative form function mostly as locatives but they may be used somehow as nouns although they cannot function as nouns in all respects. In instances, where they cannot function as nouns, the radical form take over, for example:

EThekwi nyindawo engiyithandayo.

The above sentence is correct but to a native speaker of isiZulu it is not absolutely correct, therefore we use the radical form, thus:

ITheku nyindawo engiyithandayo.

The first sentence could be translated as follows:

In Durban is the place I like.

and the second one can be translated as:

Durban is the place I like.

This then shows that in this regard, the radical form is supposed to be used. This is quite opposite to Van Huyssteen, (1994:54) who says the locative form can function as a noun.

ii. The Radical Form

The radical form uses the radical prefix (i-) in its formation which is prefixed to the stem. The place names using /e-/ in their construction
use the radical prefix /i-/ when converted to the radical form. In some cases, the suffix /eni/ or /ini/ is elided during the conversion but there are some place names which retain the suffix. This can be seen from the following examples:

A. eThekwini \(\rightarrow\) iTheku  
eSikhawini \(\rightarrow\) iSikhawu  
eNgwelezana \(\rightarrow\) iNgwelezana

B. eMpangeni \(\rightarrow\) iMpangeni  
eNhlangeni \(\rightarrow\) iNhlangeni

Place names that have the prefix o- can go back to the original class prefix u- if converted to a radical form, for example:

oSizweni - uSizo  
oThukela - uThukela

Some of these place names have been written in a wrong spelling or in a wrong orthography, for example:

Tugela for uThukela  
Shongweni for eNtshongweni / iNtshongweni  
Mbongintwini for eZimbokodweni  
Inchanga for intshanga

River names mostly use the radical form and in that case, the locative form may be used to refer either to the river or to a particular place next to that river and such names can be used to refer to man made places like towns and schools, for example:
The importance of a noun prefix in isiZulu as a whole cannot be measured. This is because prefixes play a vital role in word-formation. This is supported by Xala, (1996:1) where he says :

*The noun prefix plays an important role in Zulu language; without which it would have taken a different form. The noun prefix sustains Zulu grammar.*

As it is a bound morpheme it can be preplaced to many syntactic categories with ease. The above statement by Xala indicates that the prefixes are at the centre of many grammatical constructions in isiZulu. Noun prefixes of isiZulu are used in the formation of word categories like pronouns and qualificatives, and they may also be used with verb stems in the formation of deverbative nouns. They are even important to syntax as all concords are derived from prefixes. Robins, (1981:160) says :

*(prefixes) ... always precede the root or other prefixes. This makes them adapt and adjust to various situations in grammatical constructions.*

Prefixes come in different forms which make it have two different types :

**Simply Noun Prefix**

The simple noun prefix is the one that is consistent of two smaller units which are the initial vowel (Ziervogel and Mabuza, 1976) and (Dewee, 1985) and the basic prefix. These have been given different names by
various scholars. Doke (1935) refers to an initial vowel as a pre-prefix and the basic prefix as a real prefix. The preprefix and the basic prefix form one complete entity which is a full noun prefix. For the purposes of this study, the term pre-prefix and basic prefix will be used.

The real prefix is the most important part of the prefix more than the preprefix because it forms the link between the noun and the syntactic categories as it provides the concordial agreement. Xala, (1996:6) says:

*It gives ‘life’ to the noun prefix itself – to the noun and to other words with which it co-occurs.*

This suggests that the basic prefix has an influence to most of the words in a sentence, for example:

Ubuso obuhle buyathandeka.
Izisu ezimbili ziyalingana.

**Composite noun prefixes**

Composite noun prefixes can either be compound or complex depending on the constituents that are further added to the simple prefix.

a) **Compound noun prefix**

The term compound refers to a linguistic unit composed of two or more elements, each of which could function independently in other situations. This is also the fact with the compound noun prefixes. They are constructed by a series of simple prefixes which then become compounded. Each element in a compound noun prefix
must have an independent status. This can be seen in the following example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ubu- + in-</td>
<td>ubunja</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ubu- + in-</td>
<td>ubungane</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ama- + in-</td>
<td>amantombazane</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>u- + isi-</td>
<td>usihlalo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ama- + ili-</td>
<td>amalinge</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The combination of the simple prefixes in A results in a compound prefix in B.

b) Complex noun Prefixes

Xala, (1996:8) uses the term “complex noun prefix” to designate a combination of a simple noun prefix with any other formative that does not form part of the simple prefix. These other formatives may not be concord-generating because they may not be independent noun prefixes elsewhere. Such formatives / morphemes add meaning to the prefix. The formation of a complex noun prefix can be formalized as follows:

\[
\text{C.pref} = [\text{S.prev.} + \text{semantic formative}]
\]

or

\[
\text{C.prev.} = [\text{simp. Pref.} + \text{semantic formative} + \text{sim.prev}]
\]

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>u- + so- + ikhaya</td>
<td>uSokhaya</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>u- + ma- + shonisa</td>
<td>umashonisa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aba- + e- + lungu</td>
<td>abelungu</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
or

\[ u- + so- + ama + tekisi \rightarrow usomatekisi \]
\[ u- + no- + ama + gugu \rightarrow unomagugu \]
\[ u- + no- + izi + mali \rightarrow unozimali \]

c) **Shortened Noun Prefix**

A shortened noun prefix refers to any form of the simple noun prefix which lacks any of the segments in a vcv-structure. They may take a variety of forms depending on how a basic prefix has been affected, for example:

- \( umu- \rightarrow um- \rightarrow umfana \)
- \( umu- \rightarrow u- \rightarrow ubaba \)
- \( umu- \rightarrow u- \rightarrow ugogo \)
- \( ili- \rightarrow i- \rightarrow itshe \)
- \( ili- \rightarrow li- \rightarrow litshe \)
- \( isi- \rightarrow s(i)- \rightarrow sdakwa / sidakwa \)
- \( ulu- \rightarrow lu-ut-/o] \rightarrow luhondo \)
- \( in- \rightarrow i \rightarrow imali \)

The shortened prefix provides the allomorph of the full prefix that it assumes under certain conditions. With the development of a language (isiZulu) some prefixes have revolved, for example, class 1a and class 2a prefix:

\[ aba- \rightarrow abo- \rightarrow awo- \rightarrow ao- \rightarrow o- \]
Owing to various phonological processes, this prefix has evolved as shown above. Even if it is /o-/ it still resembles its initial form /aba-/ because the concord it uses is that of /aba-/ for example:

Ogogo abakhulu bafuna imali yabo.

Structure of the Prefix
As it has been explained above, the noun prefix has two constituents, that is the pre-prefix and the basic prefix which also may function as a classifier. This may be formalized as follows:

\[
\text{N. pref} = \begin{align*}
\text{N. pref} & = \text{[per. pref. + b. prefix / classifier]} - \text{simple prefix} \\
\text{N. pref} & = \text{[pre. pref. + classifier + extra morpheme]} - \text{compositive prefix} \\
\text{N. pref} & = \text{[pre. pref. + classifier + noun classifier]} - \text{compound pref.}
\end{align*}
\]

Variations to this may be phonologically motivated or morphological as shown below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phonological variations</th>
<th>Morphological variations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>uku-</td>
<td>ukwenda</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ubu-</td>
<td>utshwala</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ulu-</td>
<td>ulwazi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>umu unyezi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Prefix as an adoptive
The noun prefix can be forced to adapt to a particular situation depending on a tactical make up of a noun or to a sequence of words in a sentence which involves a noun.
If a prefix is by a noun stem beginning with vowel the prefix deletes its final vowel.

- **umu-** + -engamela → umengameli
  -ongamela → umongameli
- **umu-** + -alusa → umalusi
  -elusa → umelusi
- **imi-** + -enda → imendo
- **isi-** + -ona → isono
- **izi-** + -enza → izenzo

If it follows an instrumental adverb morpheme:

- nga- + ugodo → ngogodo
- nga- + isisu → ngesisu

If it follows a conjunctive na

- na- + umuzi → nomuzi
- na- + ikati → nekati

If a pronoun preceeds it

- Mina /o/ Musa
- Thina /o/ Zingane
- Wena /o/ Mfana

If a demonstrative preceeds it

- Lesi silima
  - Lo mfana

If a predicate preceeds it

- Angifune [o] mali mina
- Angiboni [o] ntombi la
This feature makes the prefix the most suitable morpheme for word-formation in isiZulu.

The following graph shows the types of prefixes that isiZulu has and the interdependence that these types have. It is important that one knows the nature of affixes in a language before their role in forming new words is distinguished.

### 3.5 Conversion

Conversion refers to the change of a word-form in category and form class without changing the original form. Some scholars and grammarians refer to conversion
as zero derivation. In some instances, these terms are used as synonyms. This is supported for example, by Bauer, (1983:32) where he says:

"Conversion is the change in form class of a form without any corresponding change of form".

Productivity of Conversion

Conversion is one of the most productive ways of building new words in isiZulu although it does not occur frequently. Any word (compounds, derivatives, or acronyms) can be an input of conversion, for example:

inhloko - inhloko (yomuzi)

ikhanda - inhloko (yesikole)

ingwenya - ingwenya (iqhawe)

inkunzi - inkunzi (iqhawe, ingcweti)

Conversion in isiZulu to the best of my knowledge, occur only in nouns being used again as nouns indicating a completely different entity.
3.6 Conclusion

The foregoing discussion on word-formation through affixes makes it clear that prefixation and suffixation are essential processes for word-formation in isiZulu. There are many words that are formed through these two processes, they include denotative nouns (personal and impersonal) proper names, place names, de-interjective nouns, de-ideophonic nouns, diminutives and augmentatives.
Chapter Four

4.0 GRAMMATICALIZATION AND REDUPLICATION AS WORD FORMATION PROCESSES

4.1 Introduction

Grammaticalization refers to a morphological process where an autonomous grammatical item loses its autonomy and is reduced to status of a grammatical morpheme. It is different from affixation in that it deals with complete words. This chapter will focus on word-formation processes which fuses words or stems /roots in building new words. Such processes include grammaticalization compounding and reduplication.

4.2 Grammaticalization

Grammaticalization is a process whereby the full lexical item is reduced and loses its lexical status and become a grammatical morpheme. Croft, (1991:230) defines grammaticalization as :

... the process by which full lexical items become grammatical morphemes.

Grammaticalization involves several processes which can be categorized into two mainstreams which are namely : phonological and morphosyntactic. Grammaticalization has not been dealt with by any isiZulu grammarian, it has been defined and applied to English and other European languages by grammarians and linguists like Croft (1991) and Lehmann (1981, 1985). Heine and Reh (1984) identify three streams / categories of processes which are : phonological, morphosyntactic and functional. For the purposes of this study, we reduce this three categories into two because the functional category can be split
into phonological and morphosyntactic categories and this means that there is no need for the third category.

4.3 Phonological Processes

There are two major processes which are phonological in nature. They are namely: syntagmatic coalescence and attrition. This is supported by Croft, (1991:231) who says:

*The phonological processes of grammaticalization involve the syntagmatic coalescence and paradigmatic attrition of a morpheme.*

4.3.1 SYNTAGMATIC COALESCENCE

The syntagmatic coalescence involves four phonological processes. To a certain extent these processes are morphological in nature. Such processes include: compounding, fussion, cliticisation and inflection.

4.3.1.1 Compounding

Compounding refers to a process whereby a new lexeme is formed by adjoining two or more lexemes. In some instances, compounding is referred to as composition. Many languages use compounding for word-formation. Croft (1991) and Heine & Reh (1984) put compounding under phonological processes. Although there are many phonological processes that give way to compounding to occur, for the purposes of this study, we regard compounding as a morphological process which has some phonological process occurring under its umbrella. Katamba, (1993:291) says when defining a compound:
... a prototypical compound is a word made up of at least two bases which can occur elsewhere as independent words.

IsiZulu traditional grammarians following the Dokean model regard a compound as a word formed by combining two words, and the resulting word has the features of both the former words. This is not always the case. There are instances where the compound word has no semantic relatedness to the former lexemes, for example:

\[ \text{imbuzi} + \text{amawa} \rightarrow \text{imbuzimawa} \]

(a goat) (cliffs) (a baboon)

In the above example, a compound imbuzimawa means a baboon and it has no relation with the combined lexemes which are imbuzi (a goat) and amawa (cliffs). This supports the fact that a compound word may not resemble the features of all the combined lexemes.

**Types of Compounds**

There are two types or main categories of compounds in isiZulu, that is the endocentric compounds and exocentric compounds.

4.3.1.1.1 **Endocentric compounds**

These are the compounds which denote a subclass of the items denoted by one of the former items. This is supported, for example, by Bauer, (1995:35) where he says:

... endocentric compounds, that is they denote a subclass of the items denoted by one of the elements.
The endocentric compounds are evident in isiZulu although they are limited in number, for example:

\[
\begin{align*}
ingoma + ubusuku & \rightarrow \text{ingomabusuku} \\
(\text{a song}) & \quad (\text{a night}) & \quad (\text{a traditional Zulu music}) \\
intaba + emhlophe & \rightarrow \text{iNtabamhlophe} \\
(\text{a mountain}) & \quad (\text{which is white}) & \quad (\text{a white mountain})
\end{align*}
\]

\text{Ingomabusuku} is a kind of \text{ingoma} (music) and \text{uNtabamhlophe} is a mountain. In these instances, a compound is a hyponym of its main element.

4.3.1.1.2 Exocentric compounds
Exocentric compounds denote something which does not form a sub-class of any of the items in the compound. Bauer, (1995:35) has this to say in this regard:

\textit{Exocentric compounds, in contrast, denote something which is not a sub-class of either of the elements in the compound...}

That is observable from the following examples:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{ikhanda} + \quad \text{umpondo} & \rightarrow \text{ukhandampondo} \\
(\text{a head}) & \quad (\text{a pound}) & \quad (\text{pol tax}) \\
-gona + \quad \text{indoda} & \rightarrow \text{igonandoda} \\
(\text{sit someone on your lap}) & \quad (\text{a man}) & \quad (\text{a pear}) \\
-hamba + \quad \text{ima} & \rightarrow \text{umhambuma} \\
(\text{go}) & \quad (\text{stop}) & \quad (\text{stand})
\end{align*}
\]
Most of the isiZulu compounds fall under this main category. It can be seen from the above examples that exocentric compounds do not form hyponyms of either of the items used in their formation. Ukhandampondo is a form of a tax not a type of a head (ikhanda) nor of a pound (umpondo). This therefore indicates that isiZulu compounds are used to form completely new words.

**The Morphological aspects of isiZulu Compounds**

IsiZulu compounds are constructed through a variety of rules which vary according to the items which are to be combined.

1. **Compound nouns with a shortened first items**

   These compounds are formed through the three shortened parts which are put together with full lexical items. These appear to be like morphemes but they are different from any morpheme or affix in that they seem to have a full meaning and the word formed through them behaves like a compound in all respects. The following are the shortened or abbreviated items:

   - **So** – ‘meaning the father of’ (uyiseka)
   - **No** – ‘meaning the mother of’ (uninaka)
   - **Ma/Ka** – ‘meaning the daughter of’ (indodakazi)

   Doke, (1956:56) supports this when he says for example:

   - \( uS0 + ikhaya = uSokhaya \) (the father of the home)
   - \( uNo + umcebo = uNomcebo \) (the mother of wealth)
   - \( uMa + Ngema = uMangema \) (the daughter of Ngema)
In the general usage /So-/ and /No-/ can be used to refer to ‘the owner of’ disregarding being the male or the female. However, we find both female and male denoting words formed through /No-/. In most cases, such words relate to the work that someone does and it is the case with coined words or borrowed words, for example:

- uNogada - (a watch man)
- uNozinti - (a goalkeeper)

It is also noticeable that these nouns may be used to designate females who do the same work.

The short form /Ma-/ can also be used to denote someone who does what the second lexeme denote regularly or habitually, for example:

- Ma- + gijima = uMagijima
- Ma- + gawula = uMagawula
- Ma- + dlisa = uMadlisa

At the above examples, denote the compound nouns which are still of recent creation. There are many other terms that are formed through the use of the shortened first item, for example:

- So- + ulwazi = uSolwazi (a professor)
- So- + amabhizinisi = uSomabhizinisi (a business man)
- So- + amatekisi = uSomatekisi (a taxi owner)

Recently, these shortened lexemes have been used in the formation of words which does not necessarily differentiate between a male or a female. All the taxi owners are referred to as oSomatekisi, females and males, there is nothing like uNomatekisi and all the professors are referred to as oSolwazi (both males and females).
This word-formation rule prompts vowel elision as the initial vowel of the second lexeme is divided.

ii. **Compounds formed through two lexemes**
Most of the isiZulu compounds are formed through the compounding of two lexemes rule, where two lexemes either from the same syntactic category or from different syntactic categories are fused to form one compound word. Mostly in isiZulu compounds are nouns. When two words are fused to form one complex word, some phonological processes occur to enhance that fusion. These processes include vowel elision which mostly occur to the final vowel of the first item or the initial vowel of the second item. In the case of nouns, the suitable prefix is then preplaced in the beginning of the compound. This rule of word formation may change syntactic category of the base, the semantic effects of the base or the noun class in the case of nouns. Doke, (1956:81) has this to say:

*There are many ways in which compound nouns are formed in Zulu, but they seem to resolve themselves under two main heads: 1) compounds of which the first part is an abbreviated noun; and 2) compounds composed of two parts of speech.*

This can be seen in the following sets of examples as Noun + Substantive.

There are two types of compounds found under this category of compounds, 1) noun + noun; and 2) noun + pronoun.
1. **Noun + Noun**

uphondo + ingozi → uphondongozi
ikhanda + impondo → ukhandampondo
igeja + izembe → igejazembe
intaba + umlilo → intabamlilo (volcano)
itshe + inkomo → itshenkomo

In the word-formation rule vowel elision plays a major role in making these words compatible to each other. This idea is evidence by Doke, (1956:82) where he argues:

*In the first type the initial vowel of the second noun is invariably elided.*

In the above examples, **uphondongozi**, **ukhandampondo** are exocentral whereas **igejazembe**, **intabamlilo** and **itshenkomo** are endocentric since **igejazembe** is a type of **igeja** and **itshenkomo** is a type of a **itshe** stone/rock.

2. **Noun + Pronoun**

The pronouns that can be fused to nouns to form compound nouns are absolute pronouns. Some absolute pronouns can not be used for word-formation. These are those of the 1st and the 2nd person singular and plural and class one, for example:

umnini + zona → umninizona
umnini + lona → umninilona
umnikazi + sona → umnikazisona
umnikazi + wona → umnikaziwona
These compounds can have their short forms which are normally used in day to day speech:

- umninizona → umninizo
- umninilona → umninilo
- umnikazisona → umnikaziso
- umnikaziwona → umnikaziwo

3. Noun + Qualificative

In this rule the noun takes the initial position and then followed by a qualificative which can either be an adjective, a relative, an enumerative or a possessive. Vowel elision plays a role in this rule where the qualificative concord be a relative concord, adjectival concord, a possessive concord or an enumerative concord is elided. This can be seen in the following examples:

i. Noun + Adjective
   - ubaba + omkhulu → ubabamkhulu
   - umuthi + omkhulu → uMthimkhulu
   - intombi + enkulu → uNtombinkulu

ii. Noun + Relative
   - intwaku + ebomvu → intwakubomvu
   - amanzi + amnyama → amanzamnyama
   - intaba + emhlophe → intabamhlophe

iii. Noun + Enumerative
iv) Noun + Possessive

amandla + akhe $\rightarrow$ uMandlakhe
izinto + zakhe $\rightarrow$ uZintozakhe / uNtozakhe
induku + yami $\rightarrow$ uNdukuyami
indawo + yami $\rightarrow$ uNdawoyami

4. Noun + The Predicative

In this rule, the predicative which is the verb is added to the noun, like in the following:

ilanga + -libalele $\rightarrow$ uLangalibalele
izintombi + -ziyotheza $\rightarrow$ uNtombiziyotheza
ubaba + -angibone $\rightarrow$ ubabangibone

5. Noun + The Descriptive

The descriptive in this case is the adverb.

umzala + mbumbulu $\rightarrow$ umzalambumbulu

There are some compounds that can be formed with the noun taking the second position and the first position being taken by other parts of speech. In such cases, the noun class prefixes are affixed (prefixed) to convert the compound to be a noun. This can be seen in the following examples:

6. Verb + Substantive
These compounds are divided into two kinds because the substantive is divided into the noun and pronoun.

a) **Verb + Noun**

In this case the verb occupies the initial position and the noun the second position. The noun can be the subject, meaning that the noun is the one that does the action indicated by the verb, for example:

- **iN + -phuma + ilanga → impumalanga**
- **iN + -shona + ilanga → intshonalanga**

In some cases, the noun can be an object in which case that noun is the one to which the action indicated by the verb is carried. This can be seen in the following example:

- **in- + -hleka + abayeni → inhlekabayeni**
- **isi + -cela + izinkobe → isicelankobe**
- **in- + -dla + ifa → indlalifa**
- **umu- + -ncisha + inja → umncishanja**
- **uma- + -shisa + indlu → umashisindlu**

The last example is different from the others because it uses the short form /ma-/ of the verb and the noun.

b) **Verb + Pronoun**

This set of compound nouns uses the quantitative pronoun, for example:

- **u- + -vuma + zonke → uvumazonke**
- **umu- + -izwa + ngedwa → umzwangedwa**
7. **Verb + Adverb**

The verb and an adverb can be used to construct compound nouns with the prefix being preplaced to the verb stem, for example:

- \(i- \text{vela} + \text{kancane} \rightarrow \text{ivelakancane}\)
- \(\text{umu-} + \text{lala} + \text{endle} \rightarrow \text{umlalandle}\)

In this case the adverb describes the verb with which it forms the compound.

8. **Verb + Verb**

Traditional grammarians like Doke do not mention compounds which are formed by a verb + verb combination but they call these miscellaneous compounds. In fact, all compounds are miscellaneous because they are formed through the fusion of different parts of speech, therefore there is no sound reason why these could be singled out as miscellaneous. These are the examples of a verb + verb compound:

- \(\text{umu-} + \text{-hamba} + (u) -\text{ma} \rightarrow \text{umhambuma}\)
- \(i- + \text{lamba} + \text{-lidlile} \rightarrow \text{ilambalidlile}\)
- \(i- + \text{phuma} + \text{-limi} \rightarrow \text{iphumalimi}\)
- \(\text{in-} + \text{-siza-} + \text{ukubulala} \rightarrow \text{insizakubulala}\)

Compounds formed out of more than two words are very rare in isiZulu, but they are found and constructed through the combination of three or more words. Owing to their rarely existence such compounds cannot have any pattern to follow:
Pluralisation of isiZulu Compounds

Most of isiZulu singular nouns can be pluralised except for classes 14 and 15, which do not have the plural form. The plural form is formed through the replacement of a singular prefix with a corresponding plural prefix. The Dokean noun classes had both the singular and plural forms of a noun under the same noun class. That way had some problems as it grouped together nouns that behave differently due to different prefixes. Meinhof came with a noun class system where the noun prefix determines the noun class. In that arrangement singular and plural forms of the same noun belongs to different noun classes. In this system, the plural form of a noun belongs to the noun class following the one with the singular form, with the exception of class 11, which has its plural form in class 10. This means that if the singular form is in class 1, then the plural form will be in class 2, for example:

Noun Class
1. umuntu (singular)
2. abantu (plural)
3. umuzi (singular)
4. imizi (plural)
5. ilitshe (singular)
6. amatshe (plural)

Compound nouns are not easily converted when it comes to their plural form. The main problem is with those that have the second item being a noun.
Normal Pluralisation

In this rule, the singular prefix is substituted by the plural prefix and nothing occurs to the second item.

This can be seen in the following examples:

1. Umnimuzi → abaninizuzi
2. Ukhandakhulu → okhandakhulu
3. Igejazembe → amagejazembe
4. Imfundamakhwela → izimfundamakhwela

Abnormal Pluralisation

Under abnormal pluralisation compound nouns are pluralised in a manner that results in a change of the whole word. This is due to the fact that the second item (if it is a noun) does not lose the basic prefix which cannot be left singular while the entire compound is in a plural form.

This also occurs especially with possessives as the second item of a compound and the compounds with the qualifIcative as the second item of the compound. The issue with these compounds is the presence of the concords (qualificative and possessive) which are in line with the singular form if the noun in the first item is singular. If the prefix changes to plural then the concord has to change because it does not loose its nature of being a concord. This can be seen in the following examples:

ibelelembuzi → amabelembuzi
idumbelentaba → amadumbentaba
ubabomuhle → obababahle
ubabomunye → obababanye
Ungerer (1988:210), calls this ‘abnormal pluralisation’ but I seem to differ with him because this seems to be the general rule for the compounds with the possessive or the adjective, relative or enumerative as a second item of the compound which is due to the qualificative concords. This is a normal rule for such compounds because almost all of them apply the same rule. However, there are some cases where the second part does not change. This is the case with the kinship terms formed through compounding, for example:

i. udadewethu → odadewethu
ii. Umfowethu → abafowethu
iii. Umnewethu → abanewethu

The concord [we-] applies commonly to singular subjects but in this case it proceeds to the plural subjects. Under normal circumstances, this should be substituted by a plural [be-] and in that way we would be having plural compounds like:

odadebethu
obafobethu
abanebethu

Such compounds do not occur in isiZulu. There are some compounds which behave differently from the above two sets. Such compounds follow what is termed normal pluralisation. This is due to the fact that they do not take the concord in their construction although they use possessives. This implies that the possessives used are unmarked possessives, like in the following:
Umningisitolo and umninizingitolo are two different compounds, therefore they are pluralised differently – they should not be confused.

Compounding goes a long way as it includes the syntactic compound where we have compound or conjoined subjects and object and compound sentences but all these fall out of this study as they do not contribute in any way to word-formation in isiZulu.

Compounding in isiZulu proves to be a morphological process rather than a phonological one. This is unlike in English and other languages where phonemes play a pivotal role in the construction of compounds. The repetition of sounds does not occur in isiZulu compounding and that distances compounding from becoming a phonological process.

4.2.2 ATTRITION / EROSION

Attrition is a process where the word is shortened or loses some of its parts as a result of adaptation – when a word adapts to a new environment. Croft, (1991:232) has this to say in this regard:

... adaptation is any sort of phonological alteration of a morpheme to its environment. In the vast majority of cases, phonological adaptation could also be assimilation, but adaptation could also be dissimilation or some other phonological process.
We concur with Croft’s account on attrition because during the adaptation there are many other phonological processes that occur, depending on a particular language. In isiZulu, some of such processes are erosion, palatalisation, bilabilisation, nasalisation and alveolarisation. Adaptation may also mean an increase in allomorphy which is caused by the phonological processes. The following examples can exemplify the adaptation:

1. ikhanda + umpondo
   = ukhandampondo
2. e- + ingubo + -eni
   = engubweni
e姑sheni
3. m - omuzane
   imbuzane

The above examples show different processes that occur to effect adaptation. In the first example, vowel elision occurred, in the second example, vowel elision and palatalisation occurred, in the third example, nasalisation and nasal substitution occurred. Without these processes, adaptation cannot take place.

4.2.3 CLITICIZATION

In many languages, it is difficult to distinguish between cliticization, compounding and inflection. This is due to the fact that some words are free morphs. If such morphs are affixed to other words, it is difficult to call that inflection or compounding because they are morphemes and at the same time, they are words. This is supported for example, by Croft, (1991:231) when he points out that:

_The distinction between compounding and cliticization affixation is a fine one._
Cliticization involves the combination of a root morpheme and a non-root morpheme (Heine and Reh, 1984:32). For the purposes of this study, cliticization will mean combination of non-root morphemes which are clitics and the root morphemes. Clitics include concords and tense morphemes as they are in fact parts of a word/affixes. Like compounding, cliticization involves many phonological processes which include fusion and attrition, like in the following:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{iya} & \quad \text{(go towards)} + \quad \text{ukubona} \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{uyokubona} \\
\text{(to see)} & \quad \text{(going to see)} \\
\text{iza} & \quad \text{(go towards)} + \quad \text{ukucasha} \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{uzokucasha} \\
\text{(to hide)} & \quad \text{(going to hide)}
\end{align*}
\]

The two verbs iya and iya are in this case shortened and they become grammatical morphemes of the future tense (za/zo- for the near future and –ya-/yo- for the remote future).

### 4.2.4 FUSION

Fusion appears to be the final stage of all the above mentioned processes and it can be defined as the process in which a word loses its internal morpheme boundary and ends with different morphemes from different words becoming one. As a result of fusion, the simple root becomes a complex root as it is the combination of two original roots and in some cases it adds even the basic prefix of the second item and the terminative vowel of the first. Croft, (1991:232) defines fusion and say:

\[... \text{ fusion, involves the loss of the word-internal morpheme boundary, which leads to two morphemes to become one.}\]
Compounding and cliticization are fusional in nature – as they fuse words with words, and morphemes with words and during that fusion involves adaptation, attrition and erosion, for example:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{igeja} + \text{izembe} & \rightarrow \text{igejazembe} \\
\text{iya} + \text{ukudlala} & \rightarrow \text{uyodlala} / \text{iyokudlala}
\end{align*}
\]

Igeja and iya have lost their boundaries as they are now in a compound word. In fact all the words in a compound lose their morpheme boundaries because the first item does not end where it has been ending and the first items no longer begin where it has been beginning. They are both morphemes and not words.

4.2.5 EROSION / ELISION

This is a process that takes a major part in word-formation to enable words to adapt to their new environments. Heine and Reh (1994:13) calls it a phonological loss. Their term does not cover the whole scope of erosion as it harnesses it to a phonological loss whereas there is also a morphosyntactic loss. Erosion is morphosyntactically motivated but it includes sounds which make it phonological in its occurrence. Owing to erosion the length of a word is reduced – a disyllabic becomes a monosyllabic and a monosyllabic becomes supresegmental, for example:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{umhambuma} & > \text{um- +-hamba + uma} \\
/-a/ & \text{is eroded} \\
\text{igodlanduku} & > \text{igodla + induku} \\
/i-/ & \text{is eroded}
\end{align*}
\]

4.2.6 MORPHOSYNTACTIC PROCESSES

Morphosyntactic processes are morphological processes which are brought about by syntactic functions of words. They are syntactically motivated. We prefer to
use the term morphosyntactic to morphological because words that we study in morphology do not exist in isolation but they occur in a speech and any change that occur to them, is due to syntactic environments. Morphosyntactic grammaticalization processes can be divided into two: syntagmatic processes and paradigmatic processes.

4.2.6.1 Syntagmatic Processes

There are two syntagmatic processes which are namely Rigidification and Condensation.

Rigidification

Rigidification is a morphological process whereby the order of word morphemes is made fixed, rigid or not interpolated. In a broader context, rigidification occurs in idioms and proverbs where the order of words can not be altered in any way. Rigidification involves the affixation of the position of a morpheme in a word or a word in an idiom. This means that the lexical item which was formerly free loses its freedom. In isiZulu rigidification in words commonly occurs in compounds, for example:

ithemba elihle $\rightarrow$ uThembelihle
indaba izekwayo $\rightarrow$ undabizekwayo
ikhanda limtshela okwakhe $\rightarrow$ ukhandelimtshelokwakhe

The order of morphemes in the above words can never be interpolated. In the normal conversation these words can be changed in any way, for example:

Ithembelihle may become elihle ithemba
In compounds the order of morphemes is fixed. uThembelihle can never be elihle ithemba and undabuzekwayo can never be ezekwayo indaba, their order is fixed.

There are some factors contributing towards rigidification in isiZulu. Such factors are proposed by Croft (1991) and they are applicable to isiZulu:

1. **Verbal attraction / general word order**

Croft calls it verbal attraction but for this study we will call it general word order. Croft defines it as verbal attraction because he sees a verb as a centre which attracts other words to it in their order. In isiZulu many compounds are formed without the verb being part of them, therefore we cannot generalize and call it verbal attraction but the word order plays a major role in as far as the order in which the items of a compound is concerned. This implies that in isiZulu, this goes beyond the verbal attraction but goes on to cover the whole word order. This can be seen in the following compounds:

1. ukhandalimtshelokwakhe
2. ukhandakhulu

Generally, the isiZulu nuclear sentence is composed of a subject (noun/pronoun) + verb + object and at times it can stand as subject + qualificative + verb + descriptive + object. This order is also inherited by compound words. In example 1 above ikhanda acts as a subject, limtshela predicate and okwakhe as an object. In example 2 ikhanda is a noun and -khulu a qualificative qualifying the noun. The order of items composing these compounds becomes fossilized which makes them fixed.
2. **Preferred order of constituents**

There are some cases where two or more lexemes follow each other in a compound, only to find that in a proper word order they cannot follow each other. This calls for a preferred word order. This occurs generally when two lexemes from the same word categories are put together to form a compound, for example:

1. **noun + noun**
   
   ikhanda + umpondo → ukhandampondo

2. **verb + verb**
   
   -bulala + -hleka → umabulalahleka

In the first example, two nouns are put together and no one can tell which one must come first and why. It is also the case with the second example where verbs are used, the general word order cannot tell which one should come first because they do not form a sentence or a phrase as a result they can be arranged in any possible way. That is where the preferred order takes its place and that preferred order can not be altered too, for example:

- **ukhandampondo** cannot be umpondokhanda
- **umabulalahleka** cannot be umahlekebulala
- **igejazembe** cannot be izembegeja

This goes hand in hand with what Croft (1991) calls ‘analogy’ and what Heine and Reh (1984) describe as ‘an attempt at placing constituents which have the same functional specification in the same structural position’. This factor means that lexicans that are
put together and have harmony can be put together in a compound and the word comes into existence. This is correct because it is easier to put nouns together or a noun and a qualificative or a verb and an adverb but a noun cannot be fused with an adverb because there is no point where they can ever come together and have meaning. This can be seen in the following examples:

\[
\text{noun + noun} \\
\text{ikhanda + umpondo → ukhandampondo} \\
\text{verb + verb} \\
\text{[umu-] + -hamba + -ima → umhambuma}
\]

This brings us to the other factor which Croft (1991) calls ‘thematic’ which entails that the lexemes in a compound occupy the positions that they would occupy in a clause, that is the clause-initial or the clause final. This is why even in a compound the qualificative comes after the noun and the descriptive after the verb, like in the following:

\[
\text{ikhanda + -khulu - ukhandakhulu} \\
\text{intaba + -mhlophe - intabamhlophe}
\]

ii. **Condensation**

This is when a big or large grammatical unit becomes sister to smaller units. It becomes condensed or made small such that it changes its category. The term condensation was first used by Lehmann and then Croft (1991). Croft, (1991:234) defines it as:
... the process by which the morpheme undergoing grammaticalization becomes the syntactic sister of a smaller constituent.

Condensation results in the state where the syntactic sisters become a single word, for example:

1. ubaba **uya** ekhaya / ingane **iza** kubaba
2. iya + ukubona - iyokubona / iyobona
3. iza + ukuhamba – izokuhamba / izohamba

**iza** and **iya** are verbs but in the examples 2 and 3, they become condensed as they become future tense morphemes: **iza** → **-zo-** (near future tense) and **iya** → **-yo** (remote future tense).

In isiZulu, condensation has another form when it occurs in shortening proper names from being full sentences / phrases to one word, for example:
4.2.6.2 Paradigmatic Processes

There are two main paradigmatic processes, that is paradigmaticization and obligatorification. Such processes do not occur in isiZulu. Therefore they do not form part of this study.

4.2.6.3 Other processes

4.2.6.3.1 Fossilization

Fossilization is a process whereby a lexical unit resembles a form which is no longer in use or which no longer exists. Croft, (1991:235) has this to say about fossilization:

Certain morphemes or phonological alternations cease to be the standard means of forming a grammatical category or construction. Instead they become restricted chiefly to a limited specified class of words or constructions.

In isiZulu fossilization occurs mostly in verbs and it occurs in a limited extent to nouns.
• The non-productive verbs / reversive verbs

The contact verbs are formed through the affixation of the morpheme -tha whereas their bases no longer exist, for example:

-pha does not exist
-tha does not exist.

4.2.6.3.2 Desemanticization

Desemanticization is a process whereby the lexeme or word-form loses its meaning. This is a process where the meaning shifts from being the meaning of the word-form and becomes the meaning of the morpheme. Croft, (1991:236) views desemanticization as:

... the process by which lexical meanings shift to the meanings of grammatical items.

Desemanticization occurs when the complete word becomes a grammatical unit especially in the formation of compounds and complexes, for example:

iya - go = uyobona
iza - come = uzobona

iya and iza means going to a place and coming to somewhere but when they are used as future tense morphemes they mean going to happen / will happen, which is then a meaning of a morpheme. This also occurs in compounds signaling proper names, for example:
The first common nouns have a general meaning which they lose as they shift from general to particular in compounds. Desemanticization may also occur in general compounds as it may be seen from the following examples:

1. imbuzi + amawa → imbuzimawa

In the above example, imbuzi means a goat whereas imbuzimawa is not related in any way to the goat as it means a baboon.
4.2.7 REINFORCEMENT

This refers to a state where a particular element is reinforced by the existence of another element which has been formed. They then do the same functions or become synonyms, for example:

\[ \text{isisebenzi} - (\text{plural}) \text{ izisebenzi} \]
\[ \text{umsebenzi} - (\text{plural}) \text{ abasebenzi} \]

The new element is \text{umsebenzi} and its plural form is \text{abasebenzi}. The original word-form \text{isisebenzi} has been discarded by workers because of its negative use by many people as they say it no longer refers to a worker but an enslaved worker so they came with umsebenzi. The usage of \text{umsebenzi} / \text{abasebenzi} did not replace \text{isisebenzi} / \text{izisebenzi} but they are used concurrently, although the former are not found in the day to day language and there is no need for their formations.

4.2.8 IDIOMATICIZATION

Idiomaticization refers to a process where the element in use gain a fixed meaning which is different from what it meant before, like the words constructing an idiom – they indicate something different from what they generally mean. Croft, (1991:389) defines it as:

\[ ... \text{where the meaning of the whole is not a simple semantic composition of the meanings.} \]

Heine and Reh, (1984:44-45) call this a merger and define it as follows:

\[ ... \text{the meaning or function of two linguistic units merges into one meaning function which is different from that of the combined units.} \]
Idiomaticization occurs in many compounds in Zulu, that can be seen from the following example:

1. \((\text{isi-}) + \text{-futha} + \text{imfene} \rightarrow \text{isifuthamfene} \) (the one who infates)

The first compound means a baboon and it is a combination of \(\text{imbuzi} \) meaning ‘a goat’ and \(\text{amawa} \) meaning ‘cliffs’ which have nothing to do with a baboon, the same applies to the second compound where \(\text{isifuthamfene} \) means ‘a useless person’ which has nothing to do with \(\text{ukufutha} \) (to pump or to blow) and \(\text{imfene} \) (a baboon).

### 4.3 The formation of Personal Names

Giving a name to a child in isiZulu is a very important practice which is valued by the parents of the child. Names can be given by either parents, grandparents or any close relative (Koopman, 1976:68). Such names may refer to the:

- i) physical appearance of the child at birth as in \(\text{uMbomvana}, \text{uMnyamana}, \text{uNtombenhle} \) (‘beautiful girl’);
- ii) circumstances of the child’s birth as in \(\text{uBangizwe} \) (fight-over-land); \(\text{uBhekabakwabo} \) (look at your siblings); and
- iii) the state of mind of parents who gave the name as in \(\text{uJabulani} \) (be happy), \(\text{uThandiwe} \) (she is loved), \(\text{uLahlwe} \) (she is thrown away).

The origins of personal names do not form part of this study, which means the focus of this subsection is on the morphological processes that play a role in their formation.
4.3.1 NAMES WITH SIMPLE STEMS

Personal names can be formed from any syntactic category with a simple stem. The most common formation rule is the prefixation of the class 1a prefix for singular and class 2a prefix for plural form. If the base is a noun, the prefix of that noun is substituted by the class 1a prefix /u-/ for example:

- **Noun** → **Personal Name**
- ikhehla → uKhehla / oKhehla
- isihlahla → uSihlahla / oSihlahla
- umusa → uMusa / oMusa
- umduduzi → uMduzu / oMduzu

- **Verb** → **Personal Name**
- -vela → uVela

In the case of verbs, the verb stem can be in its perfect form as it is the case with female names (Koopman, 1987:74). This can be seen in the following examples:

**Active**: uThokozile
- uFikile
- uSheshile

**Passive**: uThandiwe
- uTholiwe
- uKholiwe

IsiZulu names can be derived from other word categories although they are very few:
4.3.2 NAMES DERIVED FROM INFLECTED NOUNS

Inflected nouns are nouns with inflectional morphemes; such nouns are the paradigms of the original noun and they include locatives and possessives. The rule of the formation of nouns / names is that the initial vowel of the prefix or the preprefix is substituted by the class 1a prefix /u-/. 

The locatives:
- izibayeni → uZibayeni
- emahlathini → uMahlathini
- entabeni → uNtabeni

4.3.3 NAMES DERIVED FROM OTHER WORD-CATEGORIES

IsiZulu names can also be derived from other various word categories other than the noun. Other word categories – verbs, qualificatives, descriptives and interjectives do not have prefixes which make it necessary that class 1a noun prefix be prefixed to the base – to make it a noun. Koopman, (1979:73) says:

*The vast majority of these are derived from verbs; there are rare examples of names derived from adjectives, pronouns and interjections.*

The addition that one can make is that there are isiZulu names that are formed from ideophones like uQithi, which is from -qithi, but they are
few. The following examples can illustrate the names formed from other word-categories:

uMeleni
(what you are waiting for)

uHlaleleni
(what you are staying for)

uFunani
(what do you want)

uZiphi
(where are they)

uVela < -vela ‘appear’ (verb)

uFulathela < -fulathela ‘turn the back’ (verb)

uThokozile < -thokoza (be happy)

uJabulile < -jabula (be happy)

uDumazile < -dumaza (cause disappointment)

The above names are from the isiZulu perfect form of the verb which is active.

The Passive

uLindiwe < -linda (wait for)

uBusisiwe < -busisa (bless)

The Neuter

uSizakele < -sizakele (be helped)

uBonakele < -bonakele (be visible)

The Pronoun
4.3.4 NAMES WITH COMPOUND STEMS

Like all other nouns personal names can have compound stems which are formed by the fusion of two different stems (which can be of the same syntactic category or from different syntactic categories). Compounding in names does not follow the same trend as compounding in nouns. The most evident difference is on the elision rules that occur in compounding. This is supported by Koopman, (1987:75) who says:

*The most obvious surface differences between compound names and compound nouns is the difference between rules of elision in the compounding process.*

This shows the fact that the difference between compound names and compound nouns is phonological as it is brought about by a phonological process – elision. In the formation of compound names, the final vowel of the first item is elided whereas in compound nouns the initial vowel of the second item is elided. The following examples illustrate this difference:

**Compound names:**
- uThanduyise > -thanda + uyise
- uKhayelihle > ikhaya + elihle
- uSiphesihle > isipho + esihle
- uDinuzulu > -dina + uZulu
- uMangosuthu > amanga +oSuthu
Compound nouns:

- igejambazo  >  igeja + imbazo
- ukhandampondo  >  ikhanda + umpondo
- umdumakhanda  >  -duma + ikhanda
- ihlalankosi  >  -hlala + inkosi
- umlalandle  >  -lala + endle

This difference does not end with the elision of vowels but it goes deeper because of personification of names. Koopman, (1987:76) has this to say in this regard:

*This difference is purely the result of a need for the language to distinguish between nouns and names. The reasons, however, lie deeper... It should be noted that such personifications reflect not only the grammatical and syntactic realities of the original, but the spoken realities as well, for the elision of the final vowel is characteristic of Zulu speech.*

This suggests that compound names reflect a functional relationship between the compounded items. This is not the case with compound nouns which represent a transformation of the basic structure relationship between the compounded items. This can be illustrated by the following examples:

- -bheka + nkosi  →  ibhekankosi (royal guard)
  uBhekinkosi (a personal name)

The above compounds show that the formation of compounded personal names is different from the formation of compound nouns. Therefore personal names formation rule produces words which are totally different
from the formation rule of common nouns. Compounded personal names can follow various outlines some of which will be illustrated below:

Noun + Verb

intombi + ifikile → uNtombifikile
umuzi + wandile → uMzwandile
ilanga + libalele → uLangalibalele

Noun + negative verb

amandla + awapheli → uMandlawapheli
intaba + kayikhonjwa → uNtabakuyikhonjwa

Noun + non-verbal predicate

inkosi + nathi → uNkosinathi
umuzi + okhona → uMzokhona
umuzi + kawukho → uMzikawukho

Noun + interrogative

amadoda + enzani → uMadodenzani
umuzi + onjani → uMuzonjani

Verb + Adverb

-funda + kwezakhe → uFundakwezakhe
-gcina + kahle → uGcinakahle
-duma + ngeze → uDumangeze

Verb + Pronoun

usakha + yedwa → uSakhayedwa
Verb + Noun
- bheka + ifa → uBhekifa
- bonga + umusa → uBongumusa
bonga + inhlanhla → uBonginhlanhla

Verb + Verb
- phuma + silwe → uPhumasilwe
- thula + sizwe → uThulasizwe
- thula + ubuke → uThulubuke

Verb + interrogative (enumerative)
- silwa + yiphi → uSilwayiphi
- funa + ziph i → uFunaziphi

Noun + Possessive
amandla + kayise → uMandlakayise
izwe + labantu → uZwelabantu
amandla + akhe → uMandlakhe

Noun + Relative / adjective
inkunzi + emnyama → uNkunzemnyama
imini + enhle → uMinenhle

The Compound Morpheme + Noun
- So + khaya → uSokhaya
- No + ukuthula → uNokuthula
- No + umcebo → uNomcebo
- No + izindaba → uNozindaba
This shows that isiZulu personal names are independent of the formation rules of other nouns and they have their own formation rules.

It is observable that isiZulu is very strict on names according to gender. Female names are different from males although that does not have strong linguistic background. Female names are characterised by the compound morpheme no- (the mother of ...), the passive -iw-, the perfect -ile or -e and the evaluative -se whereas the male names are characterised by the imperative mood verbs. There are, however, some cases that are not linguistically backed up and there are those names which can be used by either males or females. The following examples show this clearly:

Female names:
- uThandiwe
- uHlengiwe
- uBongekile
- uTshengisile
- uThembeni
- uThenjwase
- uThokozile

Male names:
- uVuma
- uVumani
- uJabulani

Other names that can apply to both girls and boys:
- uThokozani
- uSiphesihle
Izihasho (praise names) are names given to an insizwa (male) after an important happening in his life. It can be given to him by his peers or by himself. It can indicate his physical features, his habit or a remarkable event in which he was involved. Such names take the place of ibizo lakwabo. (English equivalent) Mathenjwa, (1996:110) supports this where he says:

*In most cases these names are not the poets’ birth names. They are names they acquire as they grow older. The names emanate from certain events and occasions in the poets’ life time ... Since these names are based on certain incidents in the life of the poet, they can be referred to as autobiographical as well as biographic names.*

Compounding plays a vital role in the formation of izihasho. In most cases such compound names are descriptive as they describe the subject —insizwa. They usually consist of a noun and a qualifier, a verb and a noun, a verb and a verb or a verb and an adverb (Mathenjwa, 1996:111). The following examples indicate this:

- phuza + ehemisi → uPhuzekhemisi
  (V + loc.)
- umfazi + omnyama → uMfazomnyama
  (N. + Rel.)
- ihhashi + elimhlophe → uHhaselimhlophe
  (N. + Rel.)

Since this is a linguistic study it will not dwell much on the poetic features of izihasho.
Compounding plays a major role in isiZulu naming as it is extended into names for domestic animals and even wild animals like birds.

**IsiZulu bird names**

Verb + Noun

- xula + amasele → isixulamasele
- hlola + imvula → ihlolamvula
- gola + izintethe → uNogolantethe / ugolantethe
- qopha + umuthi → isiqophamuthi

Descriptive + Adverb

phezu + komkhono → uphezukomkhono
ngqe + ngendlela → ungqengendlela

Compound morpheme + verb + noun

no- + -zala + izingwenya → unozalizingwenya
no- + -gola + izintethe → unogolantethe

**Domestic Animal names**

In isiZulu, domestic animals are regarded as part of the family. When a domestic animal is brought into a family it is given a name like other names. These names are given according to the prevalent situation in the family at that time. This subsection will focus on compounding in such names’ formation:

Verb + Noun

- zonda + abathakathi → uZondabathakathi
-amba + izitha → uBambizitha
4.4 Conclusion

Grammaticalization represents a correlation of a set of undirectional grammatical processes and it is one of the vital processes in word-formation in isiZulu. To the best of my knowledge, no one has ever looked at the applicability of grammaticalizational processes in isiZulu. The foregoing discussion has proven the fact that grammaticalization processes do apply to isiZulu and that isiZulu like many well researched languages, can be used in general linguistics.
Chapter Five

5.0 WORD-COINAGE AND BORROWING AS CONTRIBUTORY FACTORS IN WORD-FORMATION IN isiZULU

5.1 Introduction

Word-coinage is one of the aspects of neologism together with borrowing as well as the shift of meaning. Lexical borrowing can be defined by investigating the points on which a given vocabulary is inadequate in the cultural environment in which the contact occurs (Weinreich, 1974:3). Xala, (1978:1) asserts that:

*Borrowing is influenced by the shortage of the vocabulary in a language, whereas in coining, words are that of the vocabulary of the coining language.*

This indicates that both word coinage and lexical borrowing contribute a lot in word-formation as they remedy the problem of word shortage. It is therefore due to this reason that we deem it necessary to include the two processes in word-formation.

5.2 Word-Coinage

Word-coinage can be defined as the creation of a new lexical item as a response to changed circumstances in the external world. Some coined words may become permanent features of the language but it is difficult to predict which one will stay and which one will die out (Crystal, 1987:213).
5.2.1 THE NEED FOR COINING

The need to designate new entities, persons, places and concepts is a universal cause for lexical innovation (Weinreich, 1974:56). IsiZulu as a language has come into contact with various foreign cultures. This situation has necessitated designation of isiZulu names for new entities and concepts. Word-coinage therefore, is one of the factors through which influential factors, which are introduced by cultural contacts, and growth within the culture – are given names. Coinage is due to cultural enactments to preserve their language. This is supported by Xala, (1978:2) who points out that:

*People feel the need of coining because it is traditional for them to speak Zulu, though to a certain extent, some words are simply transphonological, that is they are adapted to a Zulu phonology from European languages.*

This indicates the fact that coinage is very necessary in the development of the language. The development may be from within the language or it may be between different languages. Word-coinage therefore, is vital for the development of a language and isiZulu is no exception.

5.2.2 NATURE OF WORD-COINAGE

Word-coinage has no hard or direct rules in any language. There is a variety of ways through which words are coined. These ways are reduced to three broader categories: primary, secondary and tertiary (Xala, 1978:4). In this study, we will adopt these three categories for the discussion of word-coinage.
Primary Coining

This indicates the type of coinage which is basic, and does not involve any other process. It is a direct way of coining words. Xala, contends that the word from the source language is immediately coined to isiZulu language. The primary coinage is impacted upon by the high degree of readiness and the level of necessity of the usage of the word that is to be coined. There are many isiZulu words that were coined for grammatical items (word categories which were initially designated in English, for example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ENGLISH</th>
<th>COINED WORD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>adjective</td>
<td>isiphawulo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adverb</td>
<td>isandiso</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>suffix</td>
<td>isijobelelo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>noun</td>
<td>ibizo</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Coinage becomes less difficult if there is a word which is existing which has almost the similar meaning to what the new concept or entity designate. Xala, (1978:3) says:

In such cases, most of the words were in the back of our minds. Then people are able to coin a word easily.

This can be evidenced by the example of: ibizo which is a coined word to indicate a noun. In ordinary speech, ‘ibizo’ means a name which is a type of a noun. This situation makes it easy to coin a word. This is a shift or an extension of meaning to incorporate the new meaning.
Translated words

In some instances, words are translated from source language to isiZulu and to a greater extent, they bear resemblance of coinage. This translation forms part of word-coinage because such concepts did not exist in isiZulu and they were not borrowed as they are but an equivalent term from isiZulu is used (Xala, 1978:5). This also extends to compound words of the source language which may be matched with compounds of isiZulu which are newly formed with isiZulu items which mean more or less the same as the items used in the compound in the source language, for example:

- taxi-owner - usomatekisi
- collective noun - ibizoqoqa
- television - umabonwakude
- dialogue - inkulumompendulwano
- debate - inkulumompikiswano

In the above examples, there is a systematic translation of English words or items of a compound to their corresponding Zulu ones. The taxi is itekisi and owner is translated through the morpheme so- which means the 'father of'. This also applies to the term television where /tele-/ is translated to kude and vision (umbono) but for them to have a complete meaning the translate, has to convert it to a verb bonwa and preplace a relevant prefix. Thus we have umabonwakude. An isiZulu word can be made to indicate the nature, function or certain features of the object or concept to be designated, for example:

- cellular-phone - umakhalekhukhwin i
- clinic - umtholampilo
Secondary Coinage / Borrowing
Xala (1978:6), defines secondary coinage as that coinage that has undergone transphonological processes. This is normally referred to as borrowing because the term is firstly taken as is and then transphonologised where its sounds are made to suit the sounds of the borrowing language. With time going on, an isiZulu word may be coined and become synonymous to the one, which was borrowed, like in the following examples:

- creche - ikhileshe → inkulisa
- nurse - unesi → umhlengikazi

Tertiary Coining
Tertiary coining is that branch of coining which involves a shift of reference without a shift of meaning. The process of tertiary coining has been termed so because it is in a way subsequent to secondary coining. Xala, (1978:8) says:

*What actually happens to the tertiary coining referred to is the shift of reference rather than of meaning.*

In such words it would have not been possible for them to be coined if there was a shift of meaning. Their original meaning is necessary and is needed and is applied to the newly coined words. This implies that the meaning as it is not shifted provides the springboard for some of the words to be coined under this category. This can be illustrated by the following examples:

- ummeli becomes ummeli
Words (coined words) had to prevail in isiZulu because the isiZulu culture did not have the entities designated by such words – to designate newly adopted entities. This applies to terms like ummeli which formerly referred to a marriage officer but was referred to mean the lawyer, incwadi which initially meant a love token which is made up of coloured beads to carry a message to a loved one. The place of this love token was then taken by a letter which served the same function, thus the term was redirected to mean a letter which was not there in an isiZulu culture.

5.2.3 COINING AND ASSOCIATION

In certain instances, coining can be associative in nature. People are at times observant that when they associate a thing with the other they easily coin a word. Entities or concepts to which an association is directed, are factors that stimulate word coinage (Xala, 1978:10). In most cases, the words that are coined through association designate concrete or material entities. The following are situations with which people tend to associate new entities:

5.2.3.1 Work

In this case, a new entity is associated with the work it performs and a word is coined to refer to its work. These terms may designate a
person, an entity, a process or a product of a particular process. Morphological processes may be applied in word coinage. This can be observed in the following examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Morphology</th>
<th>New Word</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>hlenga</td>
<td>[umu- + -hleng- + -i- + -kazi]</td>
<td>umhlengikazi</td>
<td>(a nurse)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sakaza</td>
<td>[umu- + -sakaz- + -o]</td>
<td>umsakazo</td>
<td>(a radio)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>impempe</td>
<td>[u- + -no- + -mpempe]</td>
<td>unompempe</td>
<td>(a whistle)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inhlalakahle</td>
<td>[u- + -so- + -nhlalakahle]</td>
<td>usonhlalahlakahle</td>
<td>(a social worker)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ulwazi</td>
<td>[u- + -so- + -lwazi]</td>
<td>usolwazi</td>
<td>(a professor)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Umhlengikazi is a coined word which is associated with ukuhlenga (saving lives), umsakazo with spreading news, unompempe with being an owner of the whistle, usonhlalahlakahle with being the one who advocates welfare and usolwazi (a professor) being associated with being the owner of great knowledge in his/her field.

5.2.3.2 Place

Certain words are coined according to the place where the designated entity or concept is normally found. It is in a way related to the first association, work, because in this case, people look at the place where the entity or concept work. The difference is that the focal point is the place and not the work. Even in this instance, morphological processes do play a significant role, for example:
uSomugqa refers to a linesman because he works along the lines and uNozinti designate the goalkeeper because he/she is found between the poles.

5.2.3.3 Sound

IsiZulu is one of the languages where tone plays a role in changing meaning. This goes together with sound, where some words are coined to designate entities with reference to the sound or noise those entities make. This is normally the case with nouns formed from interjectives and idiophones. Crystal, (1987:11) say that:

*The sound emitted by certain culture resulted in the particular objects being named according to the nature of the sound.*

This involves all the onomatopagic words, like the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>a sound</th>
<th>a coined word</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bhamu</td>
<td>isibhamu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thuthuthu</td>
<td>isithuthuthu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>khushukhushu</td>
<td>ukhushukhushu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ntuluntulu</td>
<td>untuluntulu</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It is noticeable that these words are coined after they have been observed in use so that the exact sound can be put into words (Xala, 1978:11).

5.2.3.4 Form

Shape or form plays a role in coining words through association. There is only a few of these types of coinage in Zulu, for example:

- umbhoxo (an oblong shape) (rugby)
- udwi (a linear shape) (dash)

This shows the observant nature of the Zulu people because they can coin words from a variety of things.

5.2.4 COMPOUNDING IN COINAGE

Compounding is also essential in word coinage. This comes closer to association either to shape, use or place. The difference is that in this case, two words combine to designate one entity. Compounded coined words can be used to indicate entities which were not designated by a compound in the source language, but in some instance it can be a mere translation of a compound noun from a source language. This can be seen in the word umthethosivivinywa. Other examples are:

- equator → inkabazwe
- dictionary → isichazimazwi
- debate → inkulumompikiswano
5.2.4.1 Phrasing
Phrasing indicates a situation where coined words whose coinage results in a phrase and not a single word. This may be due to the lack of a single word that can explain the concepts accurately. In that instance, the coined phrase is semantically unitary. In that sense, one has to look at phrasing as a factor in coming isiZulu words, for example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>IsiZulu</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cellphone</td>
<td>umakhalekhukhwini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>map</td>
<td>ibalazwe</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This will not be discussed further in this study because it does not involve morphological processes which form the gist of this study.

5.2.4.2 Extensions
The extensions is the term used by many grammarians like Xala, (1978), Lyons, (1977) and Matthews, (1981) to indicate the affixation of prefixal and suffixal elements to lexical items. This type of coinage involves the existing word in a language that is taken as a starting on which some prefixes and suffixes will be affixed so as to have a new coined word. Xala, (1978:17) has this to say:

*The existing word, a well-formed word, attains other attachments to coin a new word. These elements extend the lexical item structurally and semantically. When the words received extensions it is either the*
suffixal elements or the suffixal elements change the meaning of the word, obviously also its (word's) structure.

This is a situation where affixation plays an active role in word coinage and therefore, word-formation because we form a new word designating something that has never been named in isiZulu from an already existing word. This is very evident in isiZulu linguistic terms, especially those that designate phonological and phonetic entities, for example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>An existing word</th>
<th>Coined words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ulwanga</td>
<td>ukulwangisa and ulwangeni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amankanka</td>
<td>ukunkankazisa and umankankane</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>izinsini</td>
<td>ukunsininiza and unsinini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-khulisa</td>
<td>inkulisa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-bhala</td>
<td>uNobhala / umabhalane</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ordinary verbal extensions can be used in coining new words even if they are not verbs, for example: ukulwangisa, inkulisa and ukunkankazisa (causative).

Word coinage involves many morphological processes as it has been illustrated in the foregoing discussion. Such processes include mainly affixation (prefixation, suffixation and infixation) and compounding. In certain instances, it involves even reduplication. That is why we have decided to include word coinage as it involves so many morphological processes.
There is a variety of coinage agencies which includes radios, televisions, churches, universities and schools. They are the ones that make the coined words acceptable to the language society.

5.3 Borrowing

Borrowing is a spontaneous process which occurs whenever people who speak different languages come into contact. It refers to a phenomenon of exchange of words designating entities or concepts new to one or the other group. Trager, (1972:105) asserts that:

*The phenomena of borrowing have existed ever since the invention of language ... the process has been going on ever since, and every language has elements not only words but whole structures – that have been taken over from other languages.*

Borrowing occurs easily if the structures of the two languages are similar but if the structures are different then borrowing becomes difficult. The process of borrowing from language to the other involves a degree of bilingualism on the part of the speakers of the borrowing language. It may be a few individuals from that language. Someone knowing the term in another language uses it in or outside of awareness in his own language, and it must be heard by others. When this occurs, there is normally a departure or a drift moving away from the original word either morphological or phonological and even semantically at times. It must be noted that a word is not declared as borrowed until it has been adapted phonologically, morphologically or in other ways. The adaptation may involve a variety of processes which may include amongst others: prefixation, suffixation, infixation, syllabification, substitution, erosion and other processes. The following discussion will focus on such processes.
Most languages are borrowers and isiZulu is no exception, therefore the lexicon in isiZulu can be divided into native and nonnative words. The etymology of native words can be traced back to the earliest known stages of language. There are mainly two forms of borrowing words or sounds: the direct and indirect. The former refers to an instance where a borrowed item is original in the language from which it is borrowed whereas the latter indicates an instance where the borrowed item is not native in the language from which it is borrowed. This implies that the language may borrow an already borrowed item. This is supported for example, by Fromkin and Rodman, (1993:332) when they say that:

*A language may borrow a word directly or indirectly. A direct borrowing means that the borrowed item is a native word in the language from which it is borrowed.*

IsiZulu has borrowed many words from English and Afrikaans such that two words can be borrowed from both languages to refer to a similar entity, for example:

- *iwindi* from *window* (English)
- *ifastela* from *venster* (Afrikaans)

Such terms are now used as synonyms by isiZulu speakers. There is also a traceable evidence of the fact that isiZulu borrowed click sounds from the Khoisan languages hence they are referred to as *ongwaqabathwa* [consonants from Khoisan languages]. This serves as evidence that isiZulu is one of the borrowing languages. In this subsection, emphasis will be put on different processes that occur when the term is being loaned to isiZulu from its original language.
5.3.1 MORPHOLOGICAL PROCESSES IN BORROWING

Morphological processes play a major role in bringing about borrowing in isiZulu. The borrowed concept is shaped through isiZulu morphological processes so that it may fit accordingly into isiZulu grammatical system. Modifying a foreign term for it to fit accordingly into isiZulu grammatical system may need an addition of some morphemes which are peculiar and basic to isiZulu formation and an erosion / elision of some morphemes and sounds which are not needed in isiZulu words. Other sounds may be substituted by isiZulu sounds. In this subsection more concentration will be on morphological processes.

i) **Prefixation**

All loaned nouns are given isiZulu prefixes for them to fit into the noun system of isiZulu. Mostly, nouns are loaned from English and Afrikaans. Both English and Afrikaans nouns do not have prefixes at all therefore for them to be adjusted into isiZulu they need isiZulu prefixes. Prefixation is defined by Crystal, (1987:13), as:

*A term used in morphology referring to an affix which is added initially to a root or stem. The process of prefixation is common in English for forming new lexical items.*

The above statement indicates that prefixation is useful for word-formation as it is the case in isiZulu. Prefixes in isiZulu carry their own meanings which they introduce to a word and thus changing the semantics of the base. In this subsection emphasis will be put on prefixes that are used to convert loaned words and adjust them into isiZulu.
Many words that start with an /s/ in their original languages are given the class 7 prefix /isi-/ because it has an /s/ too, and this makes it easier for prefixation to occur and does not disturb the original structure of the noun, like in the following:

- Eng. school - isikole
- Afri. stoel - isitulo
- Eng. Square - isikwele
- Eng. Slate - isileti
- Eng. Step - isitebhisi
- Eng. Spare - isipele

A large percentage of loaned nouns are given the class 5 prefix /ili-/ and its short form /i/ which is the one that is generally used, and their plurality form automatically falls into class 6 /ama-/, for example:

- Afr. Kat - ikat/iilikati
- Afr. Pap - ipapa/iilipapa
- Afr. Venter - ifasitela/ilifastela
- Afr. Tas - itasi/ilitasi
- Eng. Saucer - isoso/ilisoso
- Eng. Window - iwindi/iliwindi
- Eng. Pen - ipeni/ilipeni
- Eng. Paper - iphepha/iliphepha

Some loaned nouns get the class 1a prefix /iu-/ and their plural form fall under class 2a prefix /o-/ for example:

- Afr. Pompie - upompi
Besides nominal prefixes in nouns there are other prefixal morphemes that can be used in changing the noun from the original language to isiZulu. Such morphemes include the evaluative -no- which is used in compounding to mean ‘the mother of’ as in:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Eng.</th>
<th>Doll</th>
<th>-</th>
<th>unodoli</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Afr.</td>
<td>Poppie</td>
<td></td>
<td>unopopi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In these cases, the morpheme does not refer to ‘the mother of something’, but to the ‘thing’ itself. It loses its original as it is used to build up these terms only without its original meaning that it uses to add to words it is affixed to. Therefore unodoli and unopopi do not mean the mother of a doll and the mother of a poppie as it is supposed to be the case under general rules.

The morpheme /-no-/ behaves differently when it is used with borrowed words or concepts; this occurs even if the term is not borrowed but coined. Its meaning shifts from the original one, for like in the following examples:

| A security man | - | unogada |
| A goalkeeper   | - | unozinti |
| A referee      | - | unompempe / unondweba |

All the above terms do not refer to females as it is generally the case where -no- has been affixed but they either refer to males or to either males or females without any distinction.
Prefixation in borrowing in isiZulu does not end in nouns only but it extends to all word categories. As it is the case with all isiZulu verbs, prefixation can be done to borrowed so that they may undergo all the necessary verbal variations that exist in isiZulu. They are not treated with exception, for example:

i) the infinitive prefix /uku-

phone - ukufona
fax - ukufeksa
rub - ukurabha

ii) the modals of ability and epistemic possibility

angafona
bebengafeksa
zingarabha

ii) Suffixation

All isiZulu words end with a vowel, that is due to the syllabic structure of isiZulu where there is no syllable that has no vowel except for cases where there is a syllabic consonant in which there is a vowel that is at times not written or fully pronounced. If a loaned word has a syllable which has no vowel at the end that syllable is resyllabificised into isiZulu. This syllabification is done through the suffixation of the terminative vowel. There is no system in selecting the vowel suitable for each consonant but at times the original language dictates the vowel that has to be suffixed. Suffixation can be seen from the following examples:

Kat - ikati
Suffixed functional items:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>isiZulu</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Shirt</td>
<td>ishethi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tin</td>
<td>ithini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rok</td>
<td>iroko / irokwe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Broek</td>
<td>ibhulukwe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boek</td>
<td>ibhuku</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bottle</td>
<td>ibhodlela</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paint</td>
<td>upende</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Suffixation of other suffixal morphemes can still occur to the borrowed nouns as in other isiZulu nouns. The diminutive suffix */-ana/* and the augmentative suffix can be suffixed to any of the above nouns, for example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>isiZulu</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ikati</td>
<td>ikatshana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ishethi</td>
<td>ishethana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ithini</td>
<td>ithinyana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iroko</td>
<td>irokwana / ilokwana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ibhulukwe</td>
<td>ibhulukwana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ibhuku</td>
<td>ibhukwana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upende</td>
<td>upenjana</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Borrowed verbs can also undergo all the processes which are undergone by original isiZulu verbs. They enter into all verbal extensions, for example:

- -fonela  
- -fonisa  
- -fonisisa  
- -foneka  

- -fonela  
- -fonisa  
- -fonisisa  
- -foneka  

The fact that the borrowed / loaned words can undergo all the processes that can be undergone by all isiZulu words, signals the fact that the process of adjusting them and changing them into isiZulu is a successful one.

The suffix -isha
The suffix -isha is new to isiZulu. It is suffixed to many adoptive verbs but it cannot be traced to any isiZulu original word. There is no exact meaning that can be attached to this morpheme. Koopman, (1994:251) says that it means the same as isiZulu -eka for the neuter. This is not exactly the case. The suffixation of this morpheme may be seen in the following examples:

pack → pakisha
lay / load → layisha
copy → kopisha

Although there is no particular meaning that can be attached to this suffix, it is often used even in other languages like isiXhosa and seSotho. This then imply that it is one of the morphemes that play a major role in word-formation.
5.3.2 PHONOLOGICAL PROCESSES IN BORROWING

There are many phonological processes that play a vital role in converting borrowed words from their original languages to isiZulu. In this subsection more emphasis will be paid to those that give way to morphological process.

5.3.2.1 Syllabification

The syllable is a unit in terms of which phonological systems are organised. It is marked by a breath pulse. Therefore, syllabification is a process through which syllables are formed. It can involve a change of syllables from another language so as to fit into the syllabic system of the other language. Khumalo, (1984:205) says:

Many new words will present syllabic problems because they will end in a consonant. In such a case, acceptable syllabic shape will be acquired in one of the two ways : either by deleting a consonant [coda deletion] which is very rare indeed, or, as occurs in the majority of cases, by adding a final vowel, thus converting this final consonant into cv syllable.

Types of syllables in isiZulu

The understanding of syllabification pressuposes the clear description of the types of syllables that a particular language has. This is the reason behind this brief discussion on the types of syllables in isiZulu. There are three types of syllables in isiZulu:
a) **Vowel only**
A vowel only can be a syllable in isiZulu. This occurs usually if the vowel is the initial vowel - preprefixes in nouns; concords in verbs and qualificatives, like in the following:

/ʊ/ muntu
/ɒ/ mkhulu
/ʊ/ yabaleka

b) **Syllabic Consonants**
There are very few instances of syllabic consonants in isiZulu. In words with more than one syllable the consonant which can be a full syllable is the nasal /m/ when it occurs in prefixes of classes 1, 3 and 4 where it is followed by a vowel /ʊ/ or /ʌ/, for example:

u/m/gxala
u/m/lungu
u/m/zimba

The nasal /m/ can also be a syllable if it is at the final syllable in words with more than one syllables when it is followed by the vowel /ʊ/, for example:

isibha/m/ (noun)
isithumthu/m/ (noun)
ya/m/ (possessive)
qha/m/ (ideophone)
Interjectives and ideophones can have other syllabic consonants other than a bilabial nasal /m/. Such consonants may even stand alone as words, like in the following:

\[-\begin{align*}
/\text{phr}/ & \quad \text{inyoni indiza ithi phrr phrr} \\
/\text{nr}/ & \quad \text{ngizwe kuthi vr ngabaleka} \\
/\text{c}/ & \quad \text{leli washi alisasho ukuthi ccc !} \\
/\text{sh}/ & \quad \text{Sh ! Thulani nilalele.}
\end{align*}\]

Hlongwane et al, (1995:18) support this when they say that:

_EsiZulwini kavamile ungwaqa olilunga. Emagameni angaphezu kwelunga elilodwa, ungwaqa okwazi ukuba lilunga ngumankankane ongundebembili m .... Emagameni alilunga elilodwa futhi abe ekhomba ifuzamsindo kumbe isibabazo kumbe isenzukuthi kwenye inkathi uyatholakala ungwaqa olilunga._

[In isiZulu the syllabic consonant is rare. In words with more than one syllable the consonant that may be syllabic is a nasal /m/. The syllabic consonant may be found in monosyllabic words if it shows onomatopoeia, ideophone or the interjective].

This is a true indication of the fact that syllabic consonants exist in isiZulu.
c) **The consonant and a vowel**

Normally a syllable is made up of a consonant and a vowel combination in isiZulu. This is why isiZulu is a syllable counting language:

\[ /ha/mba/ni/ \]
\[
\text{cv cv cv}
\]

The consonant in the /cv/ combination serves as an onset – the beginning of the syllable – whereas the vowel is the core as it can stand alone as a syllable. It must be borne in mind that an isiZulu consonant can have up to 5/6 letters constituting one consonant as in ntshw-/ntsho/ntshwa/

\[
\text{cv cv}
\]

**Adoptives**

IsiZulu as a syllable counting language has a tendency of changing foreign syllables so that they may well fit in its syllabic system. This occurs through infixation, preplacement / prefixation; suffixation and substitution.

Consonants in succession are separated by vowels when they come to isiZulu, for example:

- stop - isitobhi
- school- isikole

If the final syllable does not have the terminative vowel the suitable isiZulu vowel is suffixed
If the loaned word begins with a vowel which cannot be used by an isiZulu prefix, infixation comes into the scene to separate two vowels as it is not allowed in isiZulu to have two vowels following each other in a word, like in the following:

- orange - iwolintshi
- apple - ihhabhula
- office - ihhovisi

Substitution also plays a pivotal role in syllabification, for example:

- stop - isitobhi
- orange - iwolintshi
- rok - ilokwe

In loan words /s/ and /z/ can also be syllabic consonants just like in native words but this occurs mostly in the spoken language, for example:

- i/s/lima
- i/s/kole
- i/z/bongo
5.3.2.2 **Substitution of vowels**

A borrowed word may come with a set of vowels which may not be retained when the word is converted into isiZulu. The substitution of such vowels is not systematic, it depends on the individuals who have done that borrowing as in:

- bus → ibhasi
- permit → iphomede
- skokel → isikokela
- dance → dansa/umdanso

5.3.2.3 **Separation of consonant clusters**

There are two major source languages for isiZulu borrowed words. They are namely English and Afrikaans. These two languages have consonant clusters which are not easily transferred to isiZulu. Such clusters need to be separated. This is supported by Khumalo, (1984:206) who says:

*If a word adopted into Zulu divides up into syllables containing consonantal clusters, such clusters must conform to the photactic requirements of Zulu otherwise they are dissolved and reconstituted into new syllables.*

The separation of consonantal clusters is carried through the insertion of vowels between consonants constituting the cluster, like in the following:

- gumtree → ugamuthilini
- strike → isiteleka
5.3.2.4 The assimilation of R

The sound r is not often used in isiZulu. Therefore wherever the borrowed word has an r that is assimilated by an l as in :

- lorry → iloli
- umbrella → isambulela
- harrow → ihhala
- duur → dula

With isiZulu being exposed more to other languages an r has then been taken as it is, as in :

- rabies → amarabi
- rubber → irabha
- hour → ihora

5.3.3 BACKFORMATION IN ADOPTIVES

Backformation refers to a word-formation process where the usual process is reversed. This imply that what is normally the input becomes the output and vice versa. Normally in isiZulu nouns are derived from verbs – deverbative nouns. In backformation it is the verbs that are derived from nouns, for example :

\[ \text{indoda} \rightarrow \text{doda} / \text{ukudoda} \]
This is also the case with adoptives, they undergo the similar process as in:

- **stocks** - **isitokisi** → -toka
- **skuld** - **isikweletu** → -kweleta
- **spook** - **isipoki** → -poka
- **skrop** - **isikolobho** → -kolobha

This creates more words and provides isiZulu with an adequate vocabulary.

**Derivation**

Borrowed words which undergo all the processes are prevalent in isiZulu. If a word is adopted, it then falls into all the practices and changes of a language, for example:

- **banana** - **ubhanana** → **isibhanana**
- **priest** - **umphristi** → **ubuphristi**
- **zion** - **isiyoni** → **ubuyoni**

### 5.3.4 SEMANTIC CHANGES IN BORROWING

This sub-section will concentrate on the change of meaning that happens if the word is adopted to isiZulu from any language. Such changes may be partial as in semantic broadening and semantic narrowing or complete as in full semantic change.

1. **Semantic Broadening**

   In this sense, the meaning of a borrowed word is made broader than its original designation. This is the situation in many isiZulu adoptives (Koopman, 1994:139). The following are a few examples:
Chief constable Donovan → ezikadalawane
(a police commander in Durban) (any police)
Colgate → ikholgethi
(any toothpaste)

2. Semantic Narrowing
In narrowing the original meaning of the item is made to designate something specific rather than the general one it used to designate before its adoption, for example:

inkantolo < kantoor – any office
but in isiZulu- inkantolo means a court not any office
imeyili < mail – any train
but in isiZulu imeyili means an express train.
iphilo < pillow – but in isiZulu iphilo means a pillow case.

5.4 Conclusion
Word-coinage and borrowing are very important in the development of isiZulu as they help in extending and expanding the vocabulary of isiZulu. They provide the language with a new set of words which is slightly different from the isiZulu original words.
Chapter Six

6.0 SYNTHESIS, CONCLUSION AND FINDINGS

6.1 Synthesis

The foregoing discussion on morphological processes that play a vital role in word-formation in isiZulu permits one to draw a number of conclusions:

Firstly, word-formation is still occurring in isiZulu due to new discoveries, and invention of items that are not known to isiZulu culture. Such inventions, discoveries and renamings include the following:

- ingculazi (AIDS)
- umakhalekhukhwini (cell phone)
- uSolwazi (a professor)
- uSomatekisi (a taxi owner)

Secondly, there are several morphological processes which are the basis of word-formation. These are the processes without which word-formation cannot occur. They include:

i. compounding
   umakhalekhukhwini (pre + eval. Morph + verb + locative)

ii. derivation
   -hamba (verb stem) → isihambi (noun)

iii. reduplication
   -phinda (repeat) → -phindaphinda (multiply)
This study made it clear to one that there are also phonological processes that play a valuable role in word-formation. Although they do not form part of the study, they worth mentioning as they give way to morphological processes to occur.

### 6.2 Some Phonological issues in Word-formation

In this subtopic, we will look into the role of phonology and the phonological processes in word-formation.

#### 6.2.1 COMPOUNDS AND STRESS

All isiZulu words are pronounced with a stress on the penultimate syllable. Such a syllable has the double moral and that marks the fact that the word is about to end on the syllable which will then follow. Every word has this stress, in a compound all the items come with their own stressed penultimate syllables but the first item (the one at the initial position), loses its stress because it no longer marks the end of the word and that stress shifts to the penultimate syllable of the compound, for example:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{um} + \text{haː:mba} + \text{i:ma} & \rightarrow \text{umhambuːma} \\
\text{amakhaːla} + \text{emp:i:si} & \rightarrow \text{uMakhalempiːsi} \\
\text{igeːja} + \text{imbaːzo} & \rightarrow \text{igejambaːzo}
\end{align*}
\]

#### 6.2.2 ELISION OR EROSION

Elision plays a vital role in word-formation as a process which brings compatibility between different items which may be words in compounding or affixes and words in derivation and evaluation. Elision eliminates the parts that may block the application of any rule. It may separate a vowel and the consonant of the same syllable.
In compounding it is normally the terminative vowel of the first item or the initial vowel of the second item that is open to elision, for example:

\[
\text{ikhanda }+ \text{ umpondo} \rightarrow \text{ ukhandampondo}
\]

\[
i- + \text{qhatha }+ \text{ izinzipho} \rightarrow \text{ iqhathanzipho}
\]

In some instances, it is the whole morpheme that is elide as it is the case in the examples above where the preprefix of the second item is elided.

6.2.3 SUBSTITUTION / REPLACEMENT

Substitution is more common than elision and it occurs in both compounding and derivation. It entails the process in which the sound takes the place of the other sound, for example:

\[
\text{itafula }+ \text{-ana} \rightarrow \text{ itafulana}
\]

\[
\text{isihlahla} \rightarrow \text{ uSihlahla}
\]

\[
\text{um- }+ \text{-hamba }+ \text{ uma} \rightarrow \text{ umhambuma}
\]

In the first example, the final vowel /a/ is replaced by the first vowel of the diminutive affix /-ana/, that also applies to isihlahla where the vowel /i/ which is general, is replaced by /u/- which is particular and in the third word the final vowel /a/ is substituted by the initial vowel /u/- of the second item.
6.2.4 FUSION

Fusion is essential in word-formation as it entails the combination of two or more items to form one big item. This is found in compounding and derivation. Much has been said about fusion in chapter three.

There are several phonological processes which are prompted by fusion of two lexical items and they include palatalisation and glide formation which are mostly resulting from affixation (commonly suffixation), for example the formation of diminutives:

- ikhanda → ikhanjana
- umlomo → umlonjana

The other finding is that word-formation in isiZulu also involves some semantic and syntactic issues in word-formation. Since these issues (semantic and syntactic) play a pivotal role in building words, it appeared imperative for us to briefly discuss some of them.

6.3 Some Semantic and Syntactic issues in word-formation

This portion of the study will be dealing with the applicability and relevance of some syntactic as well as semantic features in word-formation rules.

6.3.1 SYNTACTIC CATEGORY SHIFT

There are many word-formation rules that result in a shift of a syntactic category in isiZulu. The change of a syntactic category is common in affixation which is commonly derivational in nature.
nouns derived from verbs

isihambi (personal)
(a stranger)

uluhambo (impersonal) → -hamba
(a trip)

isisebenzi (personal) → -sebenza
(a worker)

nouns from interjectives

hawu - uhawu

nouns from ideophones

qhufu - ubuqhufuqhufu
gunqu - ubugunqugunqu

relatives from verbs

-hamba - ohambayo
-hleka - ohlekayo
-khokhoba - okhokhobayo

These word-formation rules may be formalized differently because of the bases from which they are derived:

Rule i. \( N \rightarrow [\text{pre} + v + \text{suff.}] \)
Rule ii. \( N \rightarrow [\text{pre} + \text{interje.}] \)
Rule iii. \( N \rightarrow [\text{pre} + \text{ideo} + \text{ideo}] \)
Rule iv. Rel. → [RC + vst + R Morph]
These are not the only word formation rules that may change the syntactic category. In isiZulu compounding can cause the syntactic change, for example:

- hamba + ima → umhambuma
  - verb + verb → noun
  - N → [pre + vst + vst]

6.3.2 SUB-CATEGORIZATION

There are some derivational rules which do not change the syntactic category of the base to which they apply, but they change the subcategory within the same syntactic category. This occurs commonly in nouns in isiZulu where there are many nouns that are derived from other nouns, for example:

A          B
indoda →  ubudoda
isilima →  ubulima
umfundisi →  ubufundisi
umuntu →  ubuntu

The nouns in A are personal nouns whereas the derivands in B are impersonal nouns. This means that they are still under the syntactic category – nouns – but they have changed the subcategorisation from personal nouns to impersonal nouns. Bauer, (1983:177) has this to say in this regard:
Derivatives can differ from the morals which form their bases (in cases of derivation from established lexemes) in the ways in which they are grammatically subcategorised.

In English they have inherited and deleted frames of subcategorisation which cannot be applied to isiZulu because of the difference between these two languages.

6.3.3 THE SEMANTIC SPECIFICATION IN WORD-FORMATION

Studies in word-formation have a recurrent problem that of specifying how closely the rules of word-formation should specify the meaning of a complex lexeme (Bauer, 1983:182). This can be illustrated with reference to the diminutive suffix -ana in isiZulu. There are many factors that make -ana have different meanings. Such factors include context and the base to which it is applied. In adjectives and relatives -ana has different semantic effects which are in accordance with the bases on which the suffix is applied, like in the following:

- omدلala → omدلادلانا
- oمنکنane → oمنکنانيانا

Oمدادلانا means the older whereas oمنکنانيانا means the younger. In the former the diminutive suffix means something contrary (bigger) to what the latter (young/little). This indicates that the same word-formation rule may not have the same semantic specification. The same diminutive suffix can be used to indicate derogation, dismissiveness, contempt or endearment. That is why the matter of precision is needed in the semantic
specification of word-formation processes and this is the case in adjectives and nouns.

We may also conclude that word-formation in isiZulu is worth pursuing as no scholar has done so in the past whereas it is a prevalent and continuous phenomenon in isiZulu.

It can also be concluded that isiZulu as a language can be at par with other well researched and advanced languages provided grammarians begin to explore other approaches rather than following traditional grammarians like Doke and Nyembezi.

The relevance and applicability of evaluative morphological rules in word-formation is also noticeable in the foregoing discussion since topics falling under evaluative morphology, that is reduplication and affixation, are also used in word-formation.

In other languages there are some problems that come with the newly formed words in as far as their lexical entries in dictionaries. The main question is whether the new words enter as citation words on their own or as paradigms. In isiZulu we have the same problem; Imbuza is a citation word with the paradigms : embuzini, yembuza etc. and the question lies with imbuzimawa ; imbuzana and imbuzikazi which have their own paradigms and they are different nouns even in their semantic application. This will be discussed and concluded below.
6.4 Lexical entries of new words

The lexicon (or dictionary) provides a list of lexemes of a particular language with more information about each lexeme whereas any standard dictionary orders lexemes in an alphabetical order of the citation form of the lexeme. The entries in a linguist's lexican are in principle unordered, when there is no orthography to use as a criterion, there is no obvious principle by which to order lexical entries (Chomsky, 1965:84). The information presented about the lexeme that is listed in a dictionary is idiosyncratic in nature. Bauer, (1995: 190) asserts that:

Perhaps the most idiosyncratic thing about lexeme is the relationship between pronunciation and the meaning, which, with a few onomatopoeic exceptions, is arbitrary.

In isiZulu it may be unpredictable what declension a noun or adjective belongs to or what conjugation a verb is.

6.4.1 THE LEXICAL ENTRY FOR A SIMPLEX LEXEME

For any simplex lexeme, the lexicon will have to list both the pronunciation and the meaning. The specification of the phonological form is not an issue here, where it is required a phonemic transcription will be utilized for purposes of simplicity (Bauer, 1983:191). Commonly some form of componental analysis is given when meanings of lexemes are discussed but there are some drawbacks and problems.

One of such problems is that the componental analysis appears to be better suited the description of some semantic fields than to others. There are certain lexemes in which a description cannot separate or distinguish their componental analysis, for example:
The distinction between the fruits in one (1) and the trees in two (2) can be easily described in an ordinary language but is very difficult to find any general features to distinguish between them.

The other problem is that it is not clear whether features are sufficient to give a complete specification of the meaning of a lexeme. In this regard, we would like to propose for isiZulu to use ordinary lexemes rather than metalinguistic features so as to allow more precise specification of a meaning than a feature notation alone would allow. That may be coupled with a more homogeneous type of definition.

In as far as pronunciation is concerned, the segmental form, the suprasegmental form, tones and stress will have to be listed. Lastly, idiosyncratic morphological information must be listed which will include information on declension, caryugation, gender irregular plurals etc.

6.4.2 THE LEXICAL ENTRY FOR A LEXICALIZED COMPLEX FORM

A complex form formed through word-formation either through affixation, compounding, coinage or borrowing should not require a special lexical entry into a dictionary. This may be done in two ways. Firstly, there is a view that some words that cannot form citation word but which can be put under the original citation word. The second sentiment is that every new word forms a citation word and thus has its own paradigms which are due to inflection. In this study, we will therefore opt for the second opinion because all word-formation rules result in new independent words which
can stand on their own as citation words. Paradigms are only formed by inflectional rules which do not feature in any way in word-formation. This means indoda, indodana and indodakazi are three different words and they require their own entry into the dictionary as citation words. This is clear in words that change the syntactic category, for example:

fund\-a - umfundi

- imfundo

Bauer, (1983:194) asserts that:

*A complex form which is generated according to productive rules should not require a special lexical entry.*

Zulu words have their own entry problem because of a variety of reasons: firstly, a large percentage of isiZulu words begin with vowels with the exception of verbs, ideophones, some interjectives and auxiliaries. This means they will fall into five alphabetic classes (vowels). Secondly, there is also a problem with verbs because there is an uncertainty with the verbal mood that should be taken as a citation word. In this study we did not dwell much on that because it does not form a vital part of this study.

The majority of studies done in isiZulu and some African languages have not distinguished between productive word building process and word classification. Such studies do provide an essential data which proves the fact that word formation is not a new thing but it has not been given adequate attention in isiZulu. Owing to the foregoing discussion one has proved the fact that word-formation forms the basis for work in semantics, morphology, phonology and syntax.
It can also be concluded that productive word-formation processes in isiZulu are rule-governed but it is also noticed that word-formation rules are very complex and some of them are not inclusive enough. The rules that are used for formation of words have a lot of exceptional cases. This is a proof that there is still a need for more studies in word-formation and in morphology because most of the studies done are not exhaustive enough. This then throws a challenge to isiZulu linguists to do more studies in any linguistic discipline to develop the language.

6.5 Word Loss

It is however, observable that in as much as words are formed in many ways in a language, there is a phenomenon which is contrary to word-formation and that is word loss. Word loss does not attract many linguists or grammarians because there is no particular way in which words are lost but the causes may be similar in many cases. This is supported by Fromkin and Rodman, (1993:336) where they say:

*Words also can be lost from a language, though an old word’s departure is never as striking as a new word’s arrival. When a new word comes into vogue, its unusual presence draws attention; but a word is lost through inattention – nobody thinks of it; nobody uses it; and it fades out of the language.*

This is totally opposite to the aim of this study but it will be discussed so as to show the impact of word-formation on the language which is not always positive. There are some factors that cause word loss in isiZulu language:
6.5.1 SEMANTIC CHANGE

The semantic change is one of the word-formation processes but it can also be a factor behind word loss.

a) Broadening

If the meaning of a word becomes broader, that word extends to mean everything it used to mean and then some new entities or concepts. This may impact on its original use and it can result to a loss of original meaning as well which is useful to a language because language development must not result to a loss of words that were there before. The word incwadi meant a love token made up of coloured beads to loved ones with a meaningful pattern and the term was broadened to incorporate the letter and the book in general. This has made the term incwadi fade to mean the original meaning of a love token. Umnumzane is a term which was used to mean sir or master in isiZulu but it was broadened to mean every male person - Mr., that has made it lose its original meaning and thus fade because no isiZulu person can allow one to say uMnumzane Zondi Umeminyaka emibili (Master / Sir Zondi is two years old). This is the pollution of isiZulu language.

b) Coinage and Borrowing

Coinage and borrowing provided synonyms to many existing terms and expressions and since new terms are regarded as more fashionable than the older ones. The old words have started to fade as time goes on, for example:

imbiza - ibhodwe
ukhezo - isipuni
Code Mixing

Code mixing refers to a phenomenon where people use or mix different languages.

The serious danger to any language in a multilingual environment is codemixing because it allows any person to use terms from different languages freely. This results to a loss of certain words in the original language as people use the terms from a “more fashionable” language. This has been and still is the case in isiZulu. People get used and hooked to a foreign word and end up losing the command of their mother tongue. It is usual to hear people saying Ngisaya erumini not endlini or ivoice yami ishile and not izwi. Some even go to an extent of polluting expressions and idioms, like ngizodlala indima ebalulekile.

In isiZulu, we do not play, this is from English (playing a role) in isiZulu sibamba iqhaza.

However, some words fade with time without anyone noticing their loss. In certain instances, the word is survived by idioms and expressions because they have fixed order which does not allow change. There is too many of such words in isiZulu that no one can succeed in listing them. They include the following:

impumulo for ikhala [unyawo alunampumulo]

umvundla for unogwaja [umvundla ziyowunqanda phambili]
This clearly shows that some word-formation processes can lead to a loss of some native words and that may be guarded against to as to preserve a pure language.

6.6 Conclusion

Word-formation is a universal phenomenon because languages all over the world are developing and changing with the times. This study has revealed that isiZulu is also developing and changing as it is not static in nature.

Chapter one of this study presents the problem of the shortage of studies or paper that deal with word-formation in isiZulu. The scarcity of such studies has led to a situation where word analysis is the only theory that is applied in all morphological applications or practices. This has made isiZulu to appear as a language that is not developing enough, a language which is plagued by a shortage of terms which is also backward. This chapter also shows that even in languages like English which are developed, there are no theoretical rules that are in place for word-formation.

Chapter two gives different theories that are useful for the study on word-formation in isiZulu. There are instances where two different theories are defined, evaluated and decided upon as to which one is found suitable for isiZulu. This has been done in theories like: the word-based morphology and the morpheme based morphology where the word-based was opted for as the suitable process, this has also been done in synchronic and diachronic processes where it was decided that the two types of process will be taken because of the fact that this is to the best of the researchers’ knowledge the first study on word-formation which necessitates
that it should be as inclusive as possible. Both the synchronic and diachronic processes play a vital role in word-formation. This therefore makes necessary to take both of them. This chapter gives the theories that are applied in the whole study.

Chapter three is the first chapter that deals with the content of the research as it covers word-formation rules that has to do with affixation, that is: prefixation, infixation and suffixation. The nature, the application, the formalization and the significance of each rule is given. Suitable examples are given, for example:

Prefixation: in forming nouns from verbs
- thunga → um(u) thungo
  (sew)   (a stitch)
  isithungo
    (a bunch of grass)]

Infixation in verbal extensions
-hamba → hambisisa
  (go)   (go intensively)

Suffixation: in diminutives and augmentatives
intshebe → intshetshana
  (a beard) (a small beard)
  → intshebekazi
    (a big/long beard)

This chapter has also shown that non-morphological processes, that is phonological and semantic process play a significant role in isiZulu word-formation. In this regard, processes like palatalisation, consonantisation, vowel
elision, vowel coalescence, conversion and semantic shift are mentioned and applied to isiZulu words.

Chapter four deals with morphological processes that fuses autonomous lexical items in building new words. Such processes include grammaticalisation and reduplication. Grammaticalisation is one of the most productive word-formation rules in isiZulu as it encompass compounding. Reduplication is also found to be productive, for example:

Grammaticalisation:  
1) compounding
   (verb + noun)
   qhatha + izinzipho → iqhathanzipho
2) reduplication
   izimbobo → izimbobombobo

This chapter presents that compounding plays a dominant role in the formation of proper names, for example:

ithemba + lakhe → uThembalakhe
zakhe + kahle → uZakhekahle
no + intombi → uNontombi

In this chapter the researcher reveals that grammaticalisation represents a correlation of a set of unidirectional grammatical processes which is significant in word-formation in isiZulu.

Chapter five deals with word-coinage and word-borrowing as part of word formation in isiZulu. This chapter has succeeded in defining the need for coining and borrowing words as it puts it that foreign entities come to isiZulu language without isiZulu names. It becomes imperative to isiZulu speakers to give names to
designate such foreign entities. In that note, both coinage and borrowing become remedies, for example:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{coinage} & : \quad \text{chair} \rightarrow \text{isihlalo} \\
& \phantom{:} \text{professor} \rightarrow \text{usolwazi} \\
\text{borrowing} & : \quad \text{English: paint} \rightarrow \text{upende} \\
& \phantom{:} \text{socks} \rightarrow \text{isokisi}
\end{align*}
\]

It has been shown in this chapter that coinage and borrowing of words are very important in the development of isiZulu and that they are not static process which at the end make the language non static and ever developing.

### 6.7 Findings

There are several findings that this study has revealed in as far as word-formation in isiZulu is concerned. They are as follows:

- **IsiZulu is ever developing and has a potential of developing even further like all the languages of the world which include English, French, Italian etc.** The isiZulu language is not static, it changes with the times but there should be more attention and strict supervision which will guard against pollution which may result to word loss.

- **Word formation does not pertain only morphological phenomena but it involves other disciplines of grammar which are:** semantics, syntax and phonology.

- **Word-formation occurs daily and every member of the community that speaks a particular language has a contribution to make, either in creating new**
concepts or in endorsing and accepting such concepts. The community may include churches, universities, radios, TVs, newspapers and schools.

- It has been found that the culture of the people plays a vital role in the development of the language. If the culture changes, the language changes to suit the changed culture. This is due to the fact that each culture has its own restrictions, rules and taboos which affect the type of words that are used in a language.

- It has also been found that isiZulu is at par with other languages as it is still developing like all other languages and that is not backward in any way.

It is my hope that this research will have an effect and contribution in refocusing the attention of grammarians and linguists of isiZulu. I also hope that this study will contribute to the development of isiZulu language as a whole.
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