NEAR EAST UNIVERSITY

INSTITUTE OF GRADUATE STUDIES

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE

AN ANALYSIS OF COMPOUND NOUNS IN ENGLISH AND UKWUANI LANGUAGES

MA THESIS

Grace Chinyenum OKOLOCHA

Nicosia

July, 2021

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Approval

We certify that we have read the thesis submitted by Grace Chinyenum Okolocha titled **"An Analysis of Compound Nouns in English and Ukwuani Languages"** and that in our combined opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a thesis for the degree of Master of Arts.

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Declaration

I hereby declare that all information, documents, analysis and results in this thesis have been collected and presented according to the academic rules and ethical guidelines of the Institute of Graduate Studies, Near East University. I also declare that as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced information and data that are not original to this study.

Grace Chinyenum Okolocha

30/07/2021

Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to God almighty and my loving dad whose love for education cannot be over emphasized.

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Abstract

An Analysis of Compound Nouns in English and Ukwuani Languages

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This study is an investigation of the grammatical manifestation and deployment of compound nouns in Ukwuani language and their comparison with their English equivalences. This study aims at revealing how the Ukwuani language creates and uses compound nouns in comparison to its English Language counterpart, and how both languages differ in their use of compound nouns. To do so, a spoken corpus of Ukwuani language was compiled. The corpus was composed of over three hours of recorded conversations about everyday topics between four participants and the researcher who are all native speakers of the Ukwuani language. The data was then transcribed and analysed by identifying the grammatical forms of the identified Ukwuani compound nouns as well as their functions in the contexts of their use. The analysis revealed that compound nouns in Ukwuani have grammatical formations that are similar to those of the English language, but the Ukwuani language also demonstrates a tendency to nominally describe phenomena which may not be described using nouns in the English language. Also, the analysis indicated that the Ukwuani language registers the presence and use of clausally rendered compound nouns through the oblique translation strategy of equivalence. These types of compounds are clausally rendered equivalences of single word phenomena in English. Such grammatical structures have no one word vocabulary equivalent in the Ukwuani language.

Keywords: compound nouns, word formation processes, morphology

Özet

İngilizce ve Ukwuani Dillerinde Birleşik İsimlerin Analizi

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Bu çalışma, Ukwuani dilinde birleşik isimlerin dilbilgisel gösterimi ve konuşlandırılması ve bunların İngilizce karşılıklarıyla karşılaştırılması üzerine bir araştırmadır. Bu çalışma, Ukwuani dilinin İngilizcedeki karşılığına kıyasla birleşik isimleri nasıl oluşturduğunu ve kullandığını ve her iki dilin birleşik isimlerin kullanımında nasıl farklılaştığını ortaya koymayı amaçlamaktadır. Bunu yapmak için, Ukwuani dilinin konuşulan bir külliyatı derlendi. Derlem, dört katılımcı ile tamamı Ukwuani dilini anadili olarak konuşan araştırmacı arasındaki günlük konular hakkında üç saatten fazla kaydedilmiş konuşmalardan oluşuyordu. Daha sonra veriler, tanımlanan Ukwuani bileşik isimlerinin gramer formlarının yanı sıra kullanım bağlamlarındaki işlevlerini tanımlayarak kopyalandı ve analiz edildi. Analiz, Ukwuani'deki birleşik isimlerin İngilizceninkilere benzer gramer oluşumlarına sahip olduğunu ortaya çıkardı, ancak Ukwuani dili ayrıca İngilizcedeki isimler kullanılarak tanımlanamayan fenomenleri nominal olarak tanımlama eğilimi gösteriyor. Ayrıca, analiz Ukwuani dilinin yan cümlecik olarak çevrilmiş bileşik isimlerin varlığını ve kullanımını eğik eşdeğerlik çevirme stratejisi yoluyla kaydettiğini gösterdi. Bu tür bileşikler, İngilizce'deki tek kelimeli fenomenlerin klozsal olarak eşdeğerleridir. Bu tür gramer yapılarının Ukwuani dilinde tek kelime karşılığı yoktur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: birleşik isimler, kelime oluşturma süreçleri, morfoloji

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

This chapter is composed of the background of the study, which is followed by the statement of the problem, the aim of the study, research questions, the contributions of the study to knowledge and the limitations and delimitations.

Background to the Study

Morphological studies have been a fundamental part of linguistics for many decades because they make use of the tools of morphology to provide accurate descriptions of languages, properly situate language typologies and help expand the knowledge on the linguistic competence of humans (Aronoff & Fudeman, 2011) Morphological studies help to provide valuable information about the lexicon of languages, help to set the tone for the standardization of languages and also help to account for how languages interact with their neighbouring languages and the influences which occur as a result of such interaction. Morphology is the study of how words are formed and especially how they relate with other words to create a language (Fasold & Connor-Linton, 2014). Yule (2010) calls it the study of forms. Morphology broadly investigates the internal structure of words and how a word comes about its component parts, called morphemes (Yule, 2010). Words are recognised as the smallest units of syntax. Words are the smallest linguistic unit which occur in speech or in writing (Richards, 2001). Words are composed of morphemes. The morpheme has been defined by many scholars (Anderson, 2015; Beard, 1987; Beard, 1995; Harris, 1981; Yule, 1996; Yule, 2010) as the smallest unit of a word which is distinctive for meaning. There are many ways in which new words are formed, and such ways of creating new words are called word formation processes. The relationship between the words in a language can be observed by certain morphological rules such as affixation, blending, pluralisation, clipping and compounding (Giyatmi et al., 2014, p. 185). Pluralisation, for instance, helps learners of a language to realize the relationship between single and plural forms. Compounding may be understood from the knowledge of the component words, for instance, a person who knows the meaning of 'sea' and 'man' will not find it hard to understand the meaning of 'seaman'. There is a body of research in Morphology

studies that investigates the rules guiding the formation of words in different languages, and the patterns in which these words are combined to create new words (Akmajian, 2001; Aziza, 2007; Bauer, 1983; Bloomfield, 1983; Franklin & Rodman, 1978; Tomori, 1997).

Moreover, Comparative morphology studies help the researchers to understand the parallels and the variances languages exhibit in their grammatical patterns, the grammatical rules that govern the use of the languages, and how these rules are applied to create the grammar of the languages (Al-Hassan, 1998). Thus, a deeper understanding of both languages is established, and the scholastic insights gained become of critical importance to aiding and smoothening communication and interaction among languages of the world. Such investigations dig deep to explore the peculiar features of languages, as well as their general linguistic features, quite what this study sets out to study about the Ukwuani language.

Recently, researchers have conducted a number of comparative morphology research on African languages to understand the linguistic characteristics of such languages in general and their morphological features in specificity (Adebileje, 2013; Dimmendaal, 2011; Fiedler et al, 2006; Josiah & Uduodom, 2012; Posthumus, 1994). In fact, studies on African languages are unique in the sense that they present a treasure trove of linguistic variety, and they document in scholastic terms, the multilingual picture which the languages of the continent present of the people inhabiting it. Souag and Jaggar (2012, p. 5) also discuss the diversity in what they call "dialect-continuum –like" situations of the currently existing African languages. Another issue which makes the linguistic investigation of the African languages interesting is the fact that most of the languages of Africa came in contact with the English language due to the colonial conquests of eighteenth and nineteenth centuries and seems to be highly influenced by this language grammatically and culturally (Bokamba, 1992; Iwuchukwu, 2011). Therefore, it became increasingly important to study how the languages behave in comparison. This endeavour has contributed significant knowledge to linguistics over the years, while also offering new areas of research possibilities.

In Nigeria, alone, there are over 500 active indigenous languages, while, the official language of the country is English, one of these other languages is Ukwuani

which is spoken in the southern region of Delta state. Ukwuani is today a local government area of Delta state. The local government is historically made up of nine clans which are still present and remain principal constituents of the local government today. These clans are Akoku, Amai, Eziokpor, Ezionuma, Obiaruku, Ebedei, Umukwata, Umutu and Umuebu. Ejiofor (2015) establishes that outside of Delta state where the Ukwuani people are principally domiciled, there have been waves of migrations in times past which presently occasions a bloc of Ukwuani speaking people in parts of Rivers State, Nigeria.

Much is not documented about the history of the Ukwuani people, and this situation has left accounts of the history of the people to orature and folk tales. It is worth noting that Ejiofor (2015) points out that most folklore about the origin of the people tend to agree that Ukwuani people originated from the old Ndokwa people, being an amalgam of the riverine (Ndosimili) people and the uphill (Ukwuani). From that account it becomes clear, therefore, that the Ukwuani were a constituent of the old Ndokwa people, being a separate entity in and of themselves. The two components of the Ndokwa constituted the principal districts of the old Aboh Native Authority headquartered in Kwale. This later morphed n 1952 into what became known as the Aboh Division.

Later developments in the administration of state entities after independence saw a bloc of the Aboh district become grouped with Rivers state, while the rest remained under the old Bendel state which eventually birthed Delta state. It was during the local government reforms of 1976 that Ndokwa local government area was created and this was further split in 1991 into Ndokwa East and Ndokwa West respectively. In 1996, Ukwuani finally got its own local government area after it was carved out of the existing local governments in the area and granted its own local autonomy as an administrative entity unto itself in the affairs of the then Delta state.

It is worth noting that there are folklore which pits the origin of the Ukwuani people to the more popular ethnic groups in their environment in the southern part of the country (e.g. Opone, 2017). This is not hard to explain or imagine, because there is a large degree of similarity between the cultures and the traditions and the customs of these ethnic groups and those of the Ukwuani people. There is, however, no strong evidence to suggest that indeed the Ukwuani originated from the Urhobos or the

Isokos or the Itsekiris, for instance. The Ukwuani people's principal economic mainstays are farming and fishing.

Statement of the Problem

This study examines the morphological characteristics of the Ukwuani language and compares these features with those of English language. Ukwuani language is one of the over 500 indigenous languages in Nigeria. However, it does not enjoy the standard status of many of its neighbouring languages which have standard written forms, orthography and grammar. As such, some studies such as Ekele (2000) contend that Ukwuani is nothing more than a dialectal variety of the more prominent Igbo language. This position has however been argued against by scholars such as Ejiofor (2015) who used the criteria for determining what constitutes a language to demonstrate that Ukwuani cannot be considered a dialect of Igbo. In order to preserve the Ukwuani language therefore, studies on its grammatical and morphological characteristics are of great importance, especially when such studies show the influence of the English language on such indigenous languages. In the specific case of Ukwuani, which lacks a standard orthography, studies such as this document provide invaluable information about the language, especially by showing how specific linguistic features are formed and used, and offer priceless resources for keeping such languages alive.

Aim of the study

The aim of this research work is to study the formation and use of compound nouns in Ukwuani language and to compare them with those of English language. The specific objectives that will assist this aim to be accomplished are to:

i. investigate the similarities and differences between English and Ukwuani languages in their compound noun formation and manifestation;

ii. explore the differences in the way both English and Ukwuani languages create and use compound nouns.

Research Questions

Considering the objectives of the research, the following research questions are raised:

1. What are the grammatical formations and functions of compound nouns in the Ukwuani spoken corpus?

2. What are the similarities and differences between the grammatical structures of the compound nouns between the two languages that Ukwuani learners of English should know?

Significance of the Study

This study is significant since it can contribute to helping the speakers of the Ukwuani language learn English better. The study chose to explore compound nouns particularly because the Ukwuani language, the researcher observes, significantly expresses phenomenon using the nominal form. An understanding of the manifestation and use of nominals in the language, therefore, is significant for both the speakers and learners of the language, as for the field of linguistics. This is because, it would contribute to the better understanding of the Ukwuani language by scholars of linguistics whether they speak the language or not. Furthermore, this study can help Ukwuani language speakers draw upon resources from their own tongue to help understand how the same processes reveal themselves in the English language, and thus make their comprehension and communication in the English language improve considerably.

This study also would serve as a framework of reference to further studies in the analysis of English and Ukwuani and other related neighbouring languages. The study would add to the existing body of African linguistic literature and in turn stimulate further research into other possible areas of research on the morphological aspects of the Ukuwani language.

Limitations and Delimitations

A significant limitation to this study is that the corpus included only three and a half hours of retrospective conversation about different everyday topics run between limited numbers of Ukuwani participants. The compiled corpus could not be larger due to time and distance constraints. The participants that were involved in the study are resident in the Ukwuani speaking parts of Delta state, thousands of kilometres away from the researcher.

Moreover, this study specifically investigated the formation of compound nouns in the Ukwuani language, an aspect of a specific word formation process in the morphology of language. The research did not focus on other types of compounds in general, or other word formation processes. Also, the compound nouns investigated were delimited to those which manifest in the discussion of the subjects, the Ukwuani home setting, Ukwuani schooling and education, the Ukwuani physical environment, and the Ukwuani culture and society. This is in order to enable the researcher carry out a study which is comprehensive and thorough, within the time for this research.

CHAPTER II

Literature Review

Introduction

This chapter includes sections on morphology, word formation processes, compounding as a word formation process, existing comparative studies on African languages and the influence of Igbo on the Ukwuani language.

Morphology

Morphology is the domain of the morpheme. Katamba (2005, p. 29) echoes the position of the literature in his assertion that the morpheme is the minutest independent grammatical unit with the capacity to affect, confer or alter meaning. This position confirms the assertion that the morpheme is the grammatical atom which is indispensable in the creation of words, and consequently the grammar of any language. The morpheme manifests in different ways. Where it distinctively marks meaning by itself, it is called a free morpheme. Where it however links with another, usually a free morpheme, to alter or expand meaning, it is called a bound morpheme (Carstairs-McCarthy, 2017).

Bound morphemes attach to free morphemes to alter meaning, either through the creation of a new word entirely in which case the bound morpheme is called derivational, or through the expansion of meaning by marking gender, tense or number, in which case the morpheme is called inflectional (Carstairs-McCarthy, 2017). The free morphemes to which bound morphemes attach are called roots. Tataru (2002) refers to the root as the necessary and sufficient constituent required for a word to exist. Tataru further posits that the root is the linking factor for every word in a specific word family. This implies that every word to which another morpheme can be added in any language, is a root in the morphology of such a language.

When bound morphemes, also called affixes, attach to free morphemes, their distribution is in one of three possible ways. When a bound morpheme attaches to a free morpheme at the initial position, such a morpheme is called a prefix. When the

attachment occurs in the medial position, the morpheme is called an infix and when it occurs in the final position, it is called a suffix (Dupanovich, 2019).

However, not only affixes attach to roots to either form new words or provide aspectual information about an existing word. Other free morphemes also attach to free morphemes to create new words. When this happens, the word to which a new word is attached takes on the responsibilities of the root in the newly formed word, and therefore indicates the word class of the new word formed. It should be noted that a free morpheme can be attached to another free morpheme in both the initial and final positions. The process of described above is what is known in morphology as word formation (Plag, 2018).

Language is made up of words. For there to be intelligibility, there must exist a mutual knowledge of the units of the language between the speaker and the listener. Where linguistic homogeneity exists, as within a geographical area sharing similarity in many other respects, the language of communication must possess mutually understood elements of expression. These elements are created in morphology through word formation processes.

Word Formation Processes

Word formation is a key component of the grammar of any language. It is the process by which a new word is formed in a language. As a matter of fact, it has been suggested (Kastovsky, 2004) that without word formation there can be no syntactic categorisation hence no language. The importance of word formation lies in its function as the process which makes a language remain active and relevant regardless of developments in the society where it is used. Marchand (1969) states that word formation is the aspect of the science of languages which studies the patterns a language uses to form new lexical units. It involves the analysis of units which have a form and contain meaning. Matthews (1991) views word formation as the aspect of morphology which concerns itself with how lexemes are distributed, whether as complex lexemes or as simple lexemes, and the relationship which exists between such a network of distribution. Rubba (2004) defines it simply as the way new words are created in a language. The processes a word can undergo to form another word are several. These processes are considered under the morphology of a

language. The most common word formation processes are affixation, clipping, blending, conversion, and compounding.

Compounding as a Word Formation Process

Compounding is a word formation process which usually involves the combination of two or more free morphemes to form a new word. Adams (1973) defines compounds as the combination of two or more free words which would otherwise have independent existence, to form a new word. Rubba (2004) calls compounds words which are formed from at least two either simple or complex morphemes. Cornelius (2008) calls compounds multimorphemic, that is, consisting of several parts, the said parts being free morphemes. These morphemes usually already have meaning in themselves, but these meanings are usually only related to the meaning of the new word they combine to form. In other words, the summation of the meaning of the individual free morphemes in a compound only informs about the meaning of the resulting word, but cannot be assumed to be the summation of the meaning of the newly created word. This is one of the unique characteristics of compounding as a word formation process and a critical factor which makes it one of the most productive processes of generating new words for the lexicon of any language.

Compound words, observe Akmajian et al (2017), makes productive use of concatenation. They create chains of potentially endless new compounds, using the previous compound as raw materials. This way, the number of new words compounds can generate are infinite in theory. They cite the example of the word 'sailboat', which is a compound formed from the noun verb 'sail' and the noun 'boat', and to which the verb 'rigging' can be added to create a new compound, 'sailboat rigging'. They further avered that this new compound can thereupon become the raw material for another compound, through the addition of the noun 'design', to create a new compound, 'sailboat rigging design'. When 'training' is added to the existing word, another new compound is created, 'sailboat rigging design training', which can in turn receive the noun 'institute' to create yet another new compound, 'sailboat rigging design training institute'. Such compounds, they infer, can take on potentially endless new words to keep creating new compounds. This exemplifies the productive capacity of compounding.

Compound words in most languages tend to behave as single words. Regardless of the individual meanings of the words which come together to form them, the resulting compound words always possess their own singular meaning. Another important characteristic of compounds is that they usually are difficult to subject to affixation, due to the unique nature of their formation. The ones that do take on affixes only do so to inflect for number (O'Grady et al, 2010).

Francis (1994, p. 369) asserts that compound words usually are represented in one of three possible ways. Open compounds are those which are written with a space between the free morphemes which constitute the parts of the compound. This is not to be mistaken as a signal for the words to be assumed to be two different words though. The open space notwithstanding, it is one word. Examples given in here are from the English language, and they include diving suit, flower girl, toy boy, etc. hyphenated compounds are those which component morphemes are linked with the use of hyphens. Some examples include father-in-law, brothers-at-arms, she-goat, Vice-Admiral etc. And the third way compounds are represented is through solid compounding. Solid compounds are those compounds where the constituent morphemes are written together as though it was one contiguous word. Examples of such words include washwoman, pickoff, salesclerk, airship etc.

Each language selects the most preferred form of representing compounds in its lexicon. This preference is usually influenced by popular conventions of orthography and other such lexicographical behaviour which subsisted over time during the course of the development of the said language. Quirk et al (1975), for instance, points out the fact that British English seems to favour the representation of compounds using hyphenation, but its American English counterpart does not favour this at all, instead opting to represent compounds either using the open form or the solid form.

While generally, one may guess the direction of the meaning of the compound by attempting to aggregate the meaning of the constituent words, there are some compound words whose constituent morphemes have entirely different meanings from the words that they combine to form. Thus, the meanings of the resulting words have to be learned afresh. For instance, the words 'hot dog', 'turncoat', 'dingbat' and 'teetotal' have one thing in common. The sum of their

individual meanings do not point in the direction of the meaning of the compound words they form. In that wise, 'hot dog' is not a dog that is hot but a kind of fast food, a 'turncoat' is a traitor and not a coat that can be turned, a 'dingbat' is not a type of bat but a stupid person, and 'teetotal' refers to abstinence from liquor.

In line with the above mentioned discussions, Ljung (2003, p. 121-122) identifies two categories of compounds. He calls them endocentric compounds and exocentric compounds. Endocentric compounds he defined as those compounds whose second free morpheme functions as the headword and thus determines the word class of the compound. These words are therefore implied in the meaning of the compound word, since the compound word is a projection of that head. He proceeds to describe that in a number of cases, if the words in the compound are switched, the former headword may become a modifier and thus create a new compound word. Exocentric compounds, he refers to as those compounds which do not have a headword from which the compound word's meaning is extended, in other words, the meaning of the words formed in an exocentric compound is independent of the meaning of its constituent words.

Stress plays a significant role in compound words (Wilson, 1996). The primary stress is placed on the first word in the compound. Usually, the head word of the compound is the second free morpheme. The grammatical class of the headword is the grammatical class that the compound will take. There are however cases of words which headword is not the determinant of the word class which the compound manifests, according to Ackmajian (2017). Such words include heartfelt, heartwarming, and manmade ('noun and verb' adjectives); good-looking, hard-pressed ('adjective and verb' adjectives) etc. It is also of importance to note that a compound word can itself become a morpheme to form another compound word. When this happens, however, the resultant word must of necessity involve hyphenation or solid compounding, because the word formed will of necessity be an open compound. This quality of compounds is why compounds are described as recursive. Examples are light-independent reaction, lighting cameraman, living-wage law, etc.

Compound Noun Classifications in English

Trask (2007) stated that compounds employ the resources innate to a language to generate new items for the lexicon of such a language, without requiring those of other languages. McGregor's (2009) description of compounding reveals that it is a process through which two words are joined together to form a single word with a meaning of its own. These definitions reveal that compounding is prolific in that it involves the coming together of two existing lexical items which coup their lexical and semantic resources to generate another distinct entity which may or may not be related to its parent materials.

There are a number of possibilities of combination between the existing word classes in the lexicon of English. Some of these are more prominent and more productive than the others, for instance the combination of two nouns or two adjectives is a rather large class of compounds because of the numerous possibilities for nouns or adjectives to combine. The same is true of combinations such as adjective and noun, verb and noun and vice versa. The most prominent and productive combinations of word classes to form new compounds in English are briefly looked at below.

Noun/Noun

A 'noun + noun' compound is the result of two nouns coming together to form a new word, without any type of visible binding force between both words. Scholars such as Fernandez-Dominguez (2010) and Nakov (2013) establish that this class is the most proliferous and prominent class of compounds. Some examples are:

Apron + string = apron string

Kitchen + towel = kitchen towel

Bath + room = bathroom

Police + car = police car etc.

Noun/Adjective

In this type of compound, the resulting word is usually an adjective, though a noun is a component of the compound. (Appah, 2016). Examples include:

Head + strong = Headstrong

Nation + wide = nationwide

Skin + deep = skin-deep

Ice + cold = ice-cold

Penny + wise = penny wise etc.

Adjective/Noun

In this type of compound, the reverse of the process explored in the preceding section is what obtains. The resulting word, here, though including an adjective in its composition, is a noun (Appah, 2016). Some examples are:

High + school = High school

Small + pox = smallpox

Chicken + pox = chickenpox

Dim + wit = dimwit

Green + house = greenhouse etc.

Adjective/Adjective

This class of compounds is also established in the literature to be one of the most productive classes of compounds because there is no limit to the number of ways or times adjectives can combine to form new words, thus leading to a theoretically endless possibility for the generation of new words (Gavrilovska, 2018). Some examples of this class of compounds include:

Red + hot = Red-hot

Worldly + wise = worldly-wise

Wide + spread = widespread

Bitter + sweet = bittersweet etc.

Noun/Verb

In this class of compounds, the combination of nouns and verbs give rise to a new class of verbs (Gavrilovska, 2018). Some examples of nouns combining with verbs in this manner include:

Man + handle = Manhandle

Breast + feed = breast-feed

Chain + smoke = chain-smoke

Arm + twist = arm-twist etc.

Verb/Noun

As with the above, the word classes combine but in a reverse order, thus leading to the formation of new nouns rather than new verbs. Nashrudin (2012) avers that this class of compounds is also relatively productive. Some examples include:

Curse + word = Curse word

Rattle + snake = rattlesnake

Whet + stone = whetstone

Wash + woman = washwoman

Spoil + sport = spoilsport etc.

Verb/Verb

In this class of compounds, verbs combine to develop a number of new words which are also verbs. This class of compounds is not as productive as the other same word class compounds, largely because verbs behave in a number of different ways and can be inflected differently too (Plag, 2018). Some examples of words in this class of compounds are:

Steam + heat = Steam heat

Oven + dry = oven dry

Stir + fry = stir-fry

Reverse + engineer = reverse engineer etc.

Preposition/Noun

Gavriloska (2018) opines that prepositions are the only function word category which can combine with other content word categories to form new words as observed in the phenomenon of compounding. One of the word categories they most easily combine with to form new words are nouns. This class of compounds is also a fairly productive class. Some examples of words in this class are:

Over+ dose = Overdose

Under + dog = underdog

After + thought = afterthought

Down + town = downtown etc.

Preposition/Verb

Another word class which prepositions considerably combine with to form new words are verbs, per Gavriloska (2018). The coming together of words naturally result in a new list of verbs. This combination results in words such as:

Under + achieve = Underachieve

Out + do = outdo

Over + reach = overreach

Out + going = outgoing etc.

The Shift Model of Translation

Catford (1965) propounded the shift model of translation. Catford discovered that in the process of translating languages, there are some observed differences in the lexical representation of items from English to many other languages. Words which were lexically represented in English, Catford discovered, did not have such a straightforward path to being represented in some other languages. He therefore proposed a comprehensive translation model in which he argues that shifts in

meanings of words in languages occur in two ways: level shifts and category shifts. Level shifts are differences in the grammatical level of the words in the source language and the target language, while category shifts imply a difference in the category of the lingusitc item. Catford holds that these differences cannot be avoided in the process of translation because different languages have different systems.

Vinay and Darbelnet (1995) took Catford's work a step further. They describe procedures of translation when moving from source language to target language. Their procedures are classified under two broad classes: direct procedures and oblique procedures. Direct procedures are procedures which employ a measure of direct correspondence between the words in the source and target languages. These procedures are borrowing, calque and literal translation. Oblique procedures are less direct and usually occasion a more significant shift between the source and target languages. Vinay and Darbelnet opine that these procedures are four in number: transposition, which is a change in word class, modulation, which is a change in the semantic force of the word, equivalence, which is a situation where the word is completely translated in a different way, and adaption, which implies the change arising from differences in cultural and situational components.

Related Studies

In the light of the foregoing discussion, many studies have been conducted to analyse word formation in African languages. These studies are comparative and their thrust have been to check for parallels in the way certain word formation processes manifest between African languages and other languages such as English and French. Some of these comparative studies are discussed below.

Buhari (2011) worked on a comparative analysis of English and Hausa word formation processes. Her study enumerated and compared the way some processes are reflected in both English and Hausa, including compounding, affixation, blending, borrowing, clipping, reduplication and coinage among others. The research found that the processes for word formation in English and Hausa are similar, but the manifestation differs. For instance, Hausa has more of infixes while English has less, and Hausa has less of circumfixes while English has more. Also, Hausa uses only front and back clipping while English uses front, back and a combination of both.

Owoeye (2013) researched on the comparative analysis of morphologically constructed agents in French and Yoruba languages. His research traces the output of many word forms in many languages to the results of the most common morphological process and compares the agent formation rules which occur in both the Yoruba and French languages. The research found that the French language prefers to employ suffixation and compounding for its agent formation, while Yoruba uses prefixation and reduplication, while establishing that both languages demonstrate similar phonological syntactic and semantic characteristics when it comes to the production of the agent noun.

Adebileje (2013) worked on a comparative description of affixation processes in English and Yoruba for ESL pedagogy. Her study describes the processes which affixes undergo to attach to roots in both languages in order to help the teaching and understanding of both languages in an ESL situation. Her research posited that the English language manifests affixation at word initial and word final positions, hence prefixation and suffixation, but the Yoruba language counterpart exhibits only morphemic prefixation, pointing out that this is an important distinction to bear in mind for the ESL teacher of the English language to Yoruba native speakers who are learning the English language.

Shehu (2015) worked on the manifestation of clippings and blends in the Hausa language and English. Her research focuses on (dis)proving the notion from an earlier research that blends are not commonly used in the Hausa language, and she does this by focusing on locating the most common forms of blends and clippings in the language, how these forms function in daily language use and in what contexts they can be applied meaningfully. The research found that the language boasts a lot of blends and clippings, and that they are used both in formal and informal contexts, thereby disproving the notion from earlier research that the Hausa language does not feature much of blends in its word formation.

Zubairu (2015) conducted a study similar to Buhari's (2011) study, in that he also considered a comparative analysis of the morphological processes in English and Hausa. Their studies both considered largely the same set of word formation processes and how they manifest in the Hausa and English languages. The major point of departure however, was that his study focuses on the implications this

comparison can have on the teaching and learning situation in the north. His study significantly established that in the north of Nigeria, the Hausa language interferes considerably in the process of teaching and learning the English language as a second language.

Wiryen (2015) carried out a comparative morphological study of compound words in English and Lamnso languages. The work sought to contribute significantly to the sparse data which existed on the Lamnso language, a north-western Cameroonian language and the researcher used the work to establish that compounds exist in the language. Her work compared the rules of compounding in English to how those rules manifest in the language, and she concluded that contrary to the exiting assumption, compounds do exist in the Lamnso language. She further found that the classification of compounds which exist in the English language do not apply to Lamnso, and therefore came up with the classification of compounds in the Lamnso language to include linked, composed, juxtaposed and phrasal compounds.

Ofoegbu and Okoli (2018) conducted a morphological analysis of euphemistic expressions in English and Igbo. Their study identified euphemisms under three sub-categories of item euphemisms, human euphemisms and expressional euphemisms. Their study found that the Igbo language is richer in human euphemisms and expressional euphemisms than its English counterpart, and attributes this to the penchant of the Igbo language to be laced with indirect meanings which are inoffensive in order to politely broach sensitive subjects, especially in conversation.

Unigwe (2020) examined a contrastive analysis of affixation patterns in English and Igbo languages. Their study examined more significantly, the differences which exist between both languages in terms of how they use affixation. Using data from the Igbo-English dictionary of English, the study found that Igbo language uses circumfixation to develop word meanings and provide more information to make the meaning clearer, and also that the Igbo language uses interfixation quite productively, as opposed to the English language where both affixation patterns were not recorded or observed.

Adaeze and Chinenye (2020) conducted a contrastive morphological study of English and Igbo affixations. Their study's main thrust was to identify how both languages grammatically organized the immediate constituents of the words they use, and as such leaned largely on Bloomfield's (1933) work in that regard. Their study found that affixes in Igbo are mostly verb-based. They also affirmed that the Igbo language does not feature such components as the zero affix and the radical affix. Furthermore, their study found that suprafixation does not occur in the Igbo language, what rather happens is the phenomenon they call extensional suffix.

The foregoing studies constitute some of the research that has already been conducted in aspects of the morphology of English and the comparative studies of the same with the morphology of other languages. These provide the background for this research and situates the research within a reputable area of research interest. This research continues this robust tradition, contributing itself as a landmark in the studies of the morphology of Ukwuani in relation to English with specific attention paid to compounding and compound nouns in both languages; and hopes to stimulate further research into other areas of the language with regard to the contrastive qualities in relation to the English language, in the hopes that the second language learner of English who speaks Ukwuani as a first language will continue to find more resources which will help make the process of learning the English language more seamless and less cumbersome. Ukwuani language lacks a standardized written form and written alphabet. However, there is a writing system that derives largely from each individual speaker's knowledge of the language based on years of accepted use which is often passed down from older users, usually relatives and family members, and imbibed by the younger speakers. This written form which is quite common, borrows considerably from the writing system of the Igbo language.

Azukpo (2017) avers that the spoken features of Ukwuani in many instances reflect the use of borrowed expressions and loan words, especially to describe concepts which are not natural to the Ukwuani environment in the case of borrowed expressions, or to communicate within a broader spectrum for the purposes of trade, in the case of loanwords. Ukwuani is communicated usually with a significant dose of speech markers such as hesitations and gap fillers, but when a fluent person speaks it is usually spoken quite fast.

The Ukwuani language is in a peculiar position where it does not enjoy a standard orthography. As such, the little that is known of its use, is mostly what is spoken by the native speakers of the language, and what is handed down through culture from one generation to another. The language and culture, are also heavily influenced by the more prominent, neighbouring Igbo language, and this influence is worth examining.

The influence of Igbo on the Ukwuani Language

The next group of studies which may enrich our knowledge regarding the linguistic features of Ukwuani language are those that investigate the origins of this language, its basic linguistic features, and the geographical and anthropological factors that might affect such features in the Ukwuani language. There has been literature attempting to establish that the Ukwuani people are migrants from the eastern part of the River Niger, and therefore of Igbo origin, and consequently their language a mere dialect of the Igbo language. Some of the strongest proponents of this point of view are Ohadike (1994), Ekele (2000) and most recently Opone (2018). While their origin is not the object of commentary in this section, it is worth noting that the claim that the Ukwuani language is a mere dialect of the Igbo language does not stand up to scholastic credibility when held up to the scrutiny of existing literature for determining what is a language and what is a dialect.

Ejiofor's (2015) work in this regard holds critical submissions which influence the position that Ukwuani is a language which, being in the same language family as Igbo, and surrounded by speakers of the language, became influenced greatly by it due to the phenomenon of language contact. In addition, the superior strength and importance which was eventually accorded the Igbo language by the government of the country, made it the regional variety of superior dominance. This, thus, means that in the processes of trade and interaction, especially as the Ukwuani dwellers are farmers and fishermen who must sell their farm produce and sea food caught, the Ukwuani language began and continued to be modelled such that increasing similarities may be found in the lexicon of the languages.

Ejiofor (2015), however, established that these similarities are only present at the level of individual words. It was proven with the research that at the lexico-

semantic and syntactic levels, whole expressions in both languages were not understood by speakers of both languages, even though there were several attempts and intelligent guesses based on certain words which are similar from both languages, for reasons already mentioned above. This inability to explicitly understand each other's communication of thought flouts the provisions of the International Standards Organisation (ISO) for determining what a language is and what a variety of a language is, as supported by Agbedo (2000). This, therefore, means both languages cannot be considered varieties, rather as distinct languages.

Ejiofor (2015), further, noted that the political landscape in the country and the fallout of administrative decisions for many years also contributed to enforcing the superiority of the Igbo language in the eastern region. The clearest evidence of the preferential status that the Igbo language enjoyed can be seen in the national language policy which obligates every student who will go through the educational system in the country to have proven pedigree in the knowledge of at least one national language. The national language selected for the eastern part of Nigeria was the Igbo language, thus leading to Igbo being learnt by people from all other cultures and languages. This further popularised the Igbo language, and in a manner of speaking, pollinated it throughout the region. Given these historically verifiable facts, it is therefore no wonder that there occurs a high level of Igbo loan words in the Ukwuani language, and that an average speaker of Ukwuani may be able to understand and speak the Igbo language at a functional level, at the very least. However, the reverse is not the case. And this fact, means both languages cannot be considered varieties, but distinct languages belonging to the same language family.

CHAPTER III

Methodology

Introduction

This chapter addresses the important components of the methodology of this research. It starts with the research design which outlines the methods of data collection, after which the participants and setting are discussed. Thereafter there is a discussion of the data analysis procedure, after which the ethical issues guiding the research are identified. The chapter concludes with a brief summary of the sessions earlier mentioned.

Research Design

This study aims to explore the formation and use of compound nouns in Ukwuani language and to compare them with those of English language. This study follows a comparative approach to research. Comparative studies are essential for understanding similarities and differences between how languages manifest. For data collection and result presentation, this study uses both quantitative and qualitative techniques. According to Creswell (1999) and Holtkamp et al (2019), this approach combines at least one strategy of quantitative research and at least one strategy of qualitative research in order to collect data, conduct its analysis and report its findings. This approach is useful because it allows the researcher to collect samples of everyday spoken discourse for further analyses of the frequency and functions of different linguistic features. In this study, the employment of compound nouns and their frequency and functions in the Ukuwani language were investigated in detail.

Therefore, the following research questions were raised:

1. What are the grammatical formations of compound nouns in the Ukwuani language?
2. What are the functions of the compound nouns in the compiled Ukwuani spoken corpus?

The Characteristics of the Ukwuani Language

Ukwuani language lacks a standardized written form and written alphabet. However, there is a writing system that derives largely from each individual

speaker's knowledge of the language based on years of accepted use which is often passed down from older users, usually relatives and family members, and imbibed by the younger speakers. This written form which is quite common, borrows considerably from the writing system of the Igbo language.

Azukpo (2017) states that the spoken features of Ukwuani in many instances reflect the use of borrowed expressions and loan words, especially to describe concepts which are not natural to the Ukwuani environment in the case of borrowed expressions, or to communicate within a broader spectrum for the purposes of trade, in the case of loanwords. Ukwuani is communicated usually with a significant dose of speech markers such as hesitations and gap fillers, but when a fluent person speaks it is usually spoken quite fast.

Data Compilation Procedure

To the best knowledge of the researcher, the Ukwuani language does not have an abundance of research or documented literature. Therefore, in order to study the structure of compound nouns in this language, the researcher compiled a body of spoken discourse. To do so, a naturally occurring and retrospectively recorded spoken discourse was compiled. The corpus included the everyday conversations of four native speakers of the Ukwuani language with the researcher of the study, recorded with an audio recording device. The corpus included three-and-a-half hours of recorded over-the-phone conversation about different topics, each lasting between 45 minutes and one hour, topics such as the Ukwuani home setting, schooling and education, the Ukwuani physical environment and Ukwuani culture and society, between the participants and the researcher.

Four residents of Ukwuani speaking communities in Delta State Nigeria were involved in the recorded communications. The purposive sampling method was used to select the participants. The participants were purposively chosen based on their understanding of the English language and their native speaker competence in the Ukwuani language, and were chosen within the age range of 30-55 years old. Their knowledge of and competent use of English, in addition to their native speaker competence in the Ukwuani language, is a necessary distinction and factors into the sampling decision.

Table 1.

Demographic Information of the Participants

Residence	Age	Educational and professional background	Gender
OB	31	B.A., English Education, teacher	Female
AM	34	B.A., Communication Arts, Journalist	Male
OB	52	N.C.E, Guidance and Counseling, high school principal	Female
KW	35	B.A., English Literature, teacher	Female

Gathering data from the samples of everyday conversations gave the researcher the advantage of having a naturally occurring sample which simply showed the way compound nouns appear and are used in Ukwuani sentences. Such a corpus also enabled the researcher to conduct functional analysis, to examine various functions where the compound nouns were used. The compound nouns could, therefore, be interpreted in the context of the thematic preoccupation of the speaker, in order to derive the communicated meaning.

Data Analysis Procedures

For analysis, the spoken corpus was transcribed verbatim. The compound nouns which were used in the transcriptions were then found and classified according to their morphological structures when compared to English. Following these steps enabled the researcher to study each of the compound nouns in its context to conduct the functional analysis, in the next phase.

The compound nouns and the sentences containing compound nouns were then translated to English (Appendix A). To reassure that the translations of the Ukwuani sentences and compound nouns were contextually appropriate for their English equivalences, the translations were revised by an educated native speaker of

Ukwuani who also has an excellent command of English language. This helped to establish the quality and correctness of the translated sentences.

Representativeness of the Corpus and Validity of the Study

The corpus used for this research consists of data from everyday conversations of adult residents of Ukwuani communities. The naturally occurring conversations allow the researcher to investigate the use of compound nouns in the Ukwuani language, in its authentic contexts. The data is, therefore, a real representative of the behaviour of compound nouns in the Ukwuani language. Such features warrantee the high validity of the study (Biber, 2010).

Ethical Considerations

In line with the practice and standard of the university, this research ensured that the privacy of the participants in the research process, as well as the contract of confidentiality entered into with them at the start of the process, were maintained for as long as the research lasted. Before the process commenced, the researcher reached out to all intended participants and sought their permission to use the recorded conversations for the research, and they all accepted. The research gives absolute attention to the appropriate citation of materials in the literature which were used in the conduct of this research. Such sources are properly referenced both within the work where they are cited, and at the end of the work in the references section.

CHAPTER IV

Findings and Discussion

Introduction

In this section, the data for the study is analyzed and interpreted to reveal the structure of Ukwuani language compound nouns and their functions. A total of two hundred and one compound nouns were extracted from over three hours of recorded conversation with native speakers of Ukwuani language. The analysis was based on the research questions which focused on identifying the grammatical formations and structures of compound nouns in the Ukwuani language, and the differences between the way both the English and Ukwuani languages use compound nouns.

Grammatical Structures of Compound Nouns in the Ukwuani Language

The analysis of the compound nouns in this study offered the following result. The grammatical structure of Ukwuani Compound Nouns (hereinafter UCN) took a number of different forms. The phenomenon of compound nouns in the language generally manifested in the form of noun-noun, noun-verb, adjective-noun, noun-preposition and noun-adverb compounds. A complete list of the compound nouns found in the spoken Ukuwani corpus is presented in Appendix B. The analysis of the corpus revealed that the most common compound nouns are noun-noun compounds, which are followed by the noun-verb compounds and adjective-noun compounds. The other types of compound nouns in the language, including noun-preposition compounds and noun-adverb compounds were less commonly used in the discourse. In what follows these findings are reported in detail.

As it is shown in Table 2, noun-noun compounds were the most frequent CN structure appearing 105 times in the spoken corpus. Since it is not feasible to put all the examples in a table, only ten of them are presented in Table 2.

It is worth mentioning that in all the tables presented in this chapter each compound noun found by the researcher is presented first in the Ukwuani language, second, in the gloss form which is followed by the English equivalent compound noun.

Table 2:

Noun-Noun Compounds in Ukwuani Language

S/N	Type	Frequency	Examples
1	Noun-noun	105	1. UCN: ani mgbiligba Gloss: Land bell (land to mean 'low' or 'close to the earth') English Equivalence: Bellbottom
			2. UCN: ukpo akwa Gloss: room bed English Equivalence: Bedroom
			3. UCN: azu ocha Gloss: Fish white English Equivalence: Whitefish
			4. UCN: uno ekwukwo Gloss: House book English Equivalence: Schoolhouse
			5. UCN: ukpo azu Gloss: Hook fish English Equivalence: Fishhook
			6. UCN: ngbo azu Gloss: Pond fish English Equivalence: Fishpond
			7. UCN: uko akpata Gloss: Cloth table English Equivalence: Tablecloth
			8. UCN: olu uno Gloss: Work house English Equivalence: Homework
			9. UCN: ohe igoni Gloss: Hole key English Equivalence: Keyhole
			10. UCN: ite igoni Gloss: Pot key English Equivalence: Padlock

The findings of this study revealed that these types of compounds were basically found in conversations regarding the things used around the house or seen in the environment of the Ukwuani society. A full list of all compound nouns and their interpretations in context are in Appendix A. Some examples are given below:

(1) Extract: Ukpo we zi ife ka **uno ekwukwo** bu ebe ayin na fuo onye nkuzi.

Translation: **Schoolhouses** were where we encountered our teachers.

UCN: uno ekwukwo

Gloss: House book

English: Schoolhouse

In the example above, the discussion was about schooling and education. It is worth noting that based on the researchers innate knowledge of the language, strengthened by the lack of literature that proves otherwise, 'school' in the Ukwuani language does not have a specific name. Instead, it is regarded as a type of building, a type of house, which is then distinguished by its function, or its location, or its use. In the case of 'schoolhouse', it is referred to as a house distinguished by books in it, hence the gloss.

Here is another example from the data discussion about the physical environment.

(2) Extract: Ayanriwon onye nbu onu asua iri, oge kenu kun sayani wen iko **ukpo azu**.

Translation: I remember I got my first **fishhook** while I was less than 10 years old.

UCN: ukpo azu

Gloss: Hook fish

English: Fishhook

The word presented in example (2) is a common tool of fishing for both the young and the old in the Ukwuani society. The topic being discussed here is the Ukwuani physical environment. As seen from the gloss, the word was formed with a focus on the hook, before adding what it is for. This reveals that the word suggests that the hook is meant for fishes, resulted in the compound noun "fishhook". A few other words manifest this type of grammatical structure and formation. Some examples from the data are given below:

(3) Extract: **Ngbo azu** ki ayin ne je no gwegu ni ke nne shi nne.

Translation: I grew up visiting the seaside, playing on riverbanks, being exposed to fishing, first in **fishponds** and later at the seaside.

UCN: ngbo azu

Gloss: Pond fish

English: Fishpond

(4) Extract: No gbame **uko apata** ni ebe we pado ife.

Translation: She had her tables always laid with **tablecloth**.

UCN: uko akpata

Gloss: Cloth table

English: Tablecloth

(5) Extract: Ayin weni otu ife na di nime epa azu ayin, yaku ogo nmiri ka ekwukwo ayin ne weri na ru **olu uno** ekwukwo, oru uno ka okwukwo ogwugwu.

Translation: The constant thing was a water bottle and books for schoolwork as well as **homework**, then some textbooks.

UCN: olu uno

Gloss: Work house

English: Homework

Examples (3), (4) and (5) also demonstrate that, similar to the case of 'fishhook', the second word carries the core of the meaning in the compound, and grammatically gives meaning or description of use to the second noun in the compound. In example (3), the Ukwuani physical environment was being discussed. Example (4) was about the Ukwuani home setting, and (5) was about schooling.

Noun-Verb Compounds

Table 3 below shows examples of noun-verb compounds in the Ukwuani language. These types of compounds enjoyed the second highest frequency in the data, appearing 25 times. Some examples are presented below. The full list of items in this category can be found in Appendix B.

Table 3:

Noun-Verb Compounds in Ukwuani Language

S/N	Type	Frequency	Examples
1	Noun-verb	25	1. UCN: chi azu Gloss: Go back English Equivalence: Turnaround
			2. UCN: ofu nenya Gloss: See eyes English Equivalence: Eyewitness
			3. UCN: tuchi azu Gloss: Throw back English Equivalence: Throwback
			4. UCN: iweshi azu Gloss: Return back English Equivalence: Backwardness
			5. UCN: ife biakoni Gloss: Thing coming English Equivalence: Upcoming
			6. UCN: ofu isu Gloss: See front English Equivalence: Foresight
			7. UCN: tetu ani Gloss: Touch ground English Equivalence: Touchdown
			8. UCN: izuka guni Gloss: Week finish English Equivalence: Weekend

Noun-verb compound nouns, as shown in table 3, in Ukwuani language are used to name a phenomenon that occurs or to describe what tends to happen during an event or in the life experience of a person. UCNs of this type appeared 25 times. A complete list of the Ukwuani noun-verb compounds found in the corpus is included in Appendix B.

Here are some examples from the data. In example 6, the participant discusses aspects of the Ukwuani culture and tradition.

(6) Extract: Ndi Ukwuani weni nobi shi onye na gwu ogwu na fu etchi, no wenshi ike yeni nde ife diwe ike **chi azu**.

Translation: The Ukwuani believes that the traditional medicine man could foresee the future, and could assist those going through difficulty to experience a **turnaround.**

UCN: chi azu

Gloss: Go back

English: Turnaround

In example (6) above, the English compound translated into 'turnaround' has the gloss 'go back' in Ukwuani. This word is used in the language to depict a place or status to which a person experiencing the phenomenon "going", that is, the societal position or level where such a person has to reoccupy as a result of a positive change in fortune after a period of hardship. The 'back' therefore is deployed as a noun in the gloss of the UCN, and therefore qualifies this word to be interpreted as a noun-verb compound.

(7) Extract: Oku azu bu ife we nepe beru ema **ofu nenya** kinishi eleu kodi.

Translation: Every rumour is not taken serious until there is an **eyewitness** to confirm.

UCN: ofu nenya

Gloss: See eyes

English: Eyewitness

In example (7) where the participant discussed Ukwuani culture ans society, the UCN which translates into the English compound 'eyewitness' glosses as 'see eyes'. This reveals that the phenomenon of witnessing a thing in Ukwuani language was grammatically formed from the idea that one must see with the eyes in order to give a report, or conversely that the actor(s) in an event being reported must have their eyes seen, that is, be easily identifiable.

(8) Extract: Ofu otu nde ukwuani ne weshi nobi shi ofu otu umu kobu nwan bu **tuchi azu** shini odo imusu we.

Translation: Generally, many Ukwuani believe that some children are some form of **throwback** to their ancestors.

UCN: tuchi azu

Gloss: Throw back

English: Throwback

The participants in example (8) were discussing culture and society. As seen in the example, the deployment of the word 'back', as earlier identified, refers to a place rather than to a process. It is safe to say that the use of the word 'back' in the Ukwuani language derives absolutely from the nominal sense of the word. This, thus, gives the UCN the sense of a noun which refers to something said about events which happened a long time before the reference being made to it in speech.

(9) Extract: Owu na **iweshi azu**.

Translation: This is considered a trait of **backwardness**.

UCN: iweshi azu

Gloss: Return back

English: Backwardness

The discussion in example (9) was about Ukwuani physical environment. The shows that the English word 'backwardness' when spoken in the language is rendered as a compound containing two words. The first word 'return' itself suggests movement to a familiar place. However, 'return' alone does not do enough to describe the location of movement, hence 'back' completes the meaning by providing the direction, situating the meaning as 'to return to the back'. The two words therefore describe the location of a specific movement and are therefore not in a redundant relationship.

Adjective-Noun Compounds

Table 4 below shows adjective-noun compounds in Ukwuani language. This type of compounds regularly occur with nouns and noun-noun compounds. This is no surprise as adjectives generally describe the quality of a noun. From the data, it was revealed that this type of compounds occurred 19 times over the several discussions. This table also presents a few examples in three steps, the first being the Ukwuani compound noun of this type, followed by the gloss of the compound translated word by word and finally the equivalent compound in English Language is provided. The full table is attached under Appendix B.

Table 4:

Adjective-Noun Compounds in Ukwuani Language

S/N	Type	Frequency	Examples
1	Adj-Noun	19	1. UCN: okpupu ule Gloss: Bone lazy English Equivalence: Lazybones
			2. UCN: ogbe uno Gloss: Big house English Equivalence: Big house
			3. UCN: uno ela Gloss: House mad English Equivalence: Madhouse
			4. UCN: onye ela Gloss: Someone mad English Equivalence: Madman
			5. UCN: okuchi dike Gloss: Cover hard English Equivalence: Hardcover
			6. UCN: eka npuke Gloss: Hand short English Equivalence: Shorthand
			7. UCN: oke efia Gloss: Strong plenty English Equivalence: Overabundance
			8. UCN: ogbe isi Gloss: Big head English Equivalence: Fathead
			9. UCN: osa ife Gloss: Every thing English Equivalence: Everything

This type of compounds are also frequently used compound nouns in the Ukwuani corpus, though not to the same degree as noun-noun compounds and noun-verb compounds. Adjective-noun compounds are used to describe character traits, by noting their physical, psychological characteristics, as have been discussed in examples 10, 13, 14 and 15 below. The adjective-noun compounds were also found to be used to describe common physical societal concepts and phenomena. This is shown in examples 11 and 12 below. These examples are examined in more detail below:

(10) Extract: Ayin ne wen ndi ule na **okpupu ule** bia nese emo.

Translation: We usually had some **lazybones** who didn't join Physical Education classes, usually due to illness.

UCN: okpupu ule

Gloss: Bone lazy

English: Lazybones

In example (10) above, the discussion was about schooling and education. The name given to a character trait which may be exhibited by people in the Ukwuani society is revealed in the way the strength of such a person is described. The grammar of the language identifies a lazy person by describing their bones. The word therefore glosses as 'bone' and 'lazy', that is, 'someone who has bones that are lazy'. This is what translates to the English compound, 'lazybones'.

(11) Extract: Ekika ite di bebe diki epa ego, ogwu ego, kobu nde **ogbe uno** nmaru noni uno nkuku marini bayeni ele ofu otu nime nde ku ni ela ji ni ku ela.

Translation: There were unsubstantiated rumours that one moneybag or another living in a **big house** in town, had something to do with how some of these people became mad.

UCN: ogbe uno

Gloss: Big house

English: Big house

In example (11) above, the discussion was about Ukwuani culture and society. The house of a person of means is described by its physical dimensions. While the compound in English might mean something different, as used in the Ukwuani language, it means the house of a person who has affluence. The usual outstanding characteristic of such a residence is the sheer enormity, hence the description of such living quarters in terms of the size, and its attendant social and linguistic semantic connotation as the house of a wealthy person.

(12) Extract: **Uno ela** bu ebe nde chi obododo gwu yeniwe si we weri ne na nde kunela.

Translation: The government facility for taking care of them was always called a **madhouse**, and they always seem able to stray.

UCN: uno ela

Gloss: House mad

English: Madhouse

In example (12) above, the identity given to the facility where people with varying ranges of psychological impairment are cared for, is revealed. Such an institute is regarded by the general name of a house, but is then distinguished by the type of house it is. This is the reason for the descriptive 'mad' which shows that this is not just a normal or regular house, but rather a house where mad people are kept or treated, hence a mental institution. The discussion here is about the environment.

(13) Extract: Umu ugosi diri ni ofu zo na cho onu **onye ela**.

Translation: Children would often tease a **madman** and retreat as they expect to be chased.

UCN: onye ela

Gloss: Someone mad

English: Madman

In example (13) above, the name given to a person who has unusual social behavioral patterns stemming from mental health challenges, is described. It is commonplace in the society to see such people roaming around, acting strangely and looking unkempt. The idea that it could be either male or female is reflected in language by the grammatical choice of the word 'someone' as against man or woman, to describe the identity of the person exhibiting such character traits. Hence, the gloss translates to 'someone' and 'mad', to name a person who has such condition. The discussion here is about the Ukwuani physical environment.

(14) Extract: Ozo dawu umu gosi nap o ni azu **okuchi dike** ekwukwo ogwugwu…

gwa ekwukwo kobu doye ekwukwo.

Translation: There was the one played on the **hardcover** of text books…

found in the library.

UCN: okuchi dike

Gloss: Cover hard

English: Hardcover

In example (14) above which is a discussion about schooling and education, the name given to a kind of book is explored. The word which describe the kind of cover being named is the word glossed as 'hard', which goes to show that even though the concept of books are foreign to the language, there is enough resourcefulness within the existing lexicon of the language to describe the specific peculiar make of this type of book, which is the uniqueness of its cover, being hard. Hence, the gloss reveals that the cover is hard, translating to the English compound 'hardcover'.

(15)   Extract: O tu **eka npuke** nime ekwukwo umu ekwukwo, no gwewe ube.
Translation: If he saw any use of **shorthand** in our notes, he would punish such students.
UCN: eka npuke
Gloss: Hand short
English: Shorthand

In example (15) above where schooling was being discussed, the concept of writing in a brief format is expressed in the Ukwuani language using the mental image of a type of hand. The actual meanings of the words 'short' and 'hand' are taken together in the grammar of the Ukwuani language to describe brevity and quickness. This is then deployed in speech to describe the concept of writing in shorthand.

Noun-Preposition Compounds

Table 5 shows noun-preposition compounds. These features are shown to be used 8 times in the corpus. These instances of use which were found are presented below.

Table 5:

Noun-Preposition Compounds in Ukwuani Language

S/N	Type	Frequency	Examples
1	Noun-prep	8	1. UCN: ani enu Gloss: Land up English Equivalence: Upland
			2. UCN: ugbo enu Gloss: Canoe up English Equivalence: Aircraft
			3. UCN: onyiri enu Gloss: Movement up English Equivalence: Uprising
			4. UCN: eka enu Gloss: Hand up English Equivalence: Upper hand
			5. UCN: enu isu Gloss: Up front English Equivalence: Up-frontness
			6. UCN: opuru uwa Gloss: Under world English Equivalence: Underworld
			7. UCN: ebe dibii Gloss: Place dark English Equivalence: Blackout
			8. UCN: efi fie Gloss: After noon English Equivalence: afternoon

As it is shown in Table 5, Noun-preposition compounds were observed to occur 8 times in the compiled corpus. Compound nouns of this type are not quite easy to come about. When they are used however, they are used to describe the location of nominal phenomena. The compounds which fall under this category therefore distinguish the nominal phenomena they refer to, by providing the extra information of their location at the time of reference in speech. This helps to separate the types of nouns so described and by extension, the compounds they form, from other nouns which may be similar in meaning. This use of noun-preposition compounds is further examined in the various examples below:

(16) Extract: **Ani enu** ugwu ki ogo ndau na di.

Translation: The farms were in the **upland** area.

UCN: ani enu

Gloss: Land up

English: Upland

In example (16) above about the Ukwuani physical environment, the concept being named is situated in the part which is not riverine. Since the environment consists of land gently rising from the sea, the grammar of the description situates the noun, 'land' by describing it in terms of its location in the environment. Hence, it glosses as 'land up', that is, land that is not near the riverbank. This description has equivalence to the word known in English as 'upland'.

(17) Extract: Ayariwom imu ife diki **ugbo enu,** ekpeti osi…

Translation: I remember learning things like **aircrafts**, what a black box is…

UCN: ugbo enu

Gloss: Canoe up

English: Aircraft

Example (17), from a discussion on schooling and education, is an interesting one because it demonstrates the grammatical resourcefulness of the Ukwuani language. This resourcefulness is shown in how the language relies on native intelligence to give identity to air travel, a phenomenon which was not originally part of the Ukwuani culture, being water people. The Ukwuani are geographically located in the area of the country which is predominantly riverine. The most common form of the movement they know therefore is the canoe. To describe the compound noun which in English is translated 'aircraft', therefore, the grammar of the language creates a word which paints the picture of air travel. The aircraft is represented with the canoe, the Ukwuani's traditionally fastest means of transportation. Furthermore, the grammar uses location to distinguish this type of vessel as one which moves not on water but in the air, that is 'up'.

(18) Extract: Umugosi ndau ne wen ide **eka enu** ni ebewo zi ayin.

Translation: Such kids tend to have the **upper hand** in class.

UCN: eka enu

Gloss: Hand up

English: Upper hand

Example (18) above identifies a situation of advantage by expressing the extension of meaning using a tangible object, 'hand'. The idea of having an upper hand is therefore expressed using the description of a hand that is above another. Thus, 'upper hand' in Ukwuani is expressed using the term which creates a mental picture of a hand that is up, that is, the hand which is above another, signifying advantage. The discussion here is on schooling and education.

(19) Extract: Wen we eshi ni nobi si ego shini **opuru uwa** bia bu ogwuego, shi onye weni isu ego konu bu ola edeke.

Translation: It believes that money from the **underworld** is blood money and whoever has such money is a bloodsucker.

UCN: opuru uwa

Gloss: Under world

English: Underworld

Example (19) above, from a discussion on Ukwuani culture and society, shows the concept of the spiritual as it dimensions in dark arts and its various shady dealings is grammatically represented with the image of something which is under the world. The Ukwuani compound is composed of two words which directly glosses as 'under' and 'world'. This suggests that the reference to the contacts with the spirituality in the language is interpreted in terms of what is hidden, hence 'under', and also in terms of something bigger than finite understanding, hence 'world'.

Noun-Adverb Compounds

Table 6 below shows noun-adverb compound noun found in the Ukwuani corpus. Compounds of this type were discovered to be the least frequent in the data, appearing a total of four times.

Table 6:

Noun-Adverb Compounds in Ukwuani Language

S/N	Type	Frequency	Examples
1	Noun-Adv	4	1. UCN: nme iso Gloss: Me only English Equivalence: Oneself
			2. UCN: ofe gbame Gloss: Flight around English Equivalence: Commonplace
			3. UCN: oru gbame Gloss: Work together English Equivalence: Teamwork
			4. UCN: onuosa Gloss: Mouth every English Equivalence: Spokesman

Despite noun-adverb compounds being the least commonly used category found in the Ukwani corpus with the frequency of 4, they were still observed to carry out a significant role whenever they were deployed. The data revealed that Noun-adverb compounds were used to give an identity to things involving one or more persons, whether individual or general. Some examples from the corpus of this study are considered and analysed hereafter. For instance, as it is shown in example (20) below.

(20) Extract: Ife ndi ukwuani weni nobi bushi ki **nme iso** nmaru ba gbari enu nde oyibo weseni bibifu ewennmaru omonani.

Translation: The Ukwuani idea is that one should not allow **oneself** become swallowed by the foreign religion to the detriment of local customs.

UCN: nme iso

Gloss: Me only

English: Oneself

In example (20) above, the third person reference to a specific individual who is the first person in a speech situation is described using the words which gloss as the personal pronoun 'me' as well as the intensive adverb 'only'. This translates to 'oneself' in the English language. This goes to show how the grammar of the

Ukwuani language treats reflexivity in the language. The adverb is used to intensify the nominal class word in order to unmistakably communicate the identity of the referent. The discussion here is about culture and society.

(21) Extract: Oru esu bu ofu ife kaka sam, iya zinim shi **oru gbame** mani nma.

Translation: I loved Physical education. It taught me important things such as **teamwork**.

UCN: oru gbame

Gloss: Work together

English: Teamwork

In example (21) above, the grammar of Ukwuani uses the adverb 'together' to describe a type of work that is done. The word glossed 'work' up there carries the nominal sense, as used in the Ukwuani language. The type of work done is defined here with the deployment of the adverb 'together'. This shows that there is the need for concerted effort for this type of work being described, and thus translates to the English compound, 'teamwork'. The discussion here is about schooling.

(22) Extract: Osa ndibe weni **onuosa.**

Translation: Every family has a **spokesman**.

UCN: onuosa

Gloss: Mouth every

English: Spokesman

In example (22) above, the concept of a family voice or representative is conveyed in the terms of a part to whole relationship, where 'mouth' is used to represent this all important component of the Ukwuani culture and tradition filled by a designated person in each family. The importance of this designation is further revealed in the deployment of the adverb 'every' to indicate that this person speaks for everyone in the family. Thus the gloss 'mouth every' shows that whoever is the spokesperson for a family speaks for everyone in the said family. The topic of discussion here is about Ukwuani culture and society.

To conclude, as the results revealed Compound nouns were quite commonly used in the Ukwuani spoken discourse to describe things and give identity to phenomenon that can be observed, or is quite easily observed whether in behaviour,

in character, in disposition or in their physical or cultural environment. A possible explanation for this could be that the Ukwuani language is filled with extra explanations which seek to make the intended meaning of communication unique. To this end therefore, prepositions and adverbs especially, are added to some words to create compounds.

Furthermore, in some of the noun compounds which are made up of only content words, the constituent words exist in a relationship where one intensifies the other, or reduplicates the meaning of the first word. However, the personal experiences of the researcher as the native speaker of the Ukwuani language has shown that since the average Ukwuani language speaker seems to be willing to be very clear in the way they speak, these compounds are probably created and used repeatedly in all kinds of conversation.

Clausally Rendered Equivalent Compound Nouns in the Ukwuani Language

The comparison between the grammatical structure of compound nouns of the Ukwuani and English languages showed that there are significant differences in the grammatical structures of the compound nouns of the two languages.

Equivalent Compound Nouns.

It was discovered that Catford's (1965) shift model of translation applies to the Ukwuani language. Catford propounded that in translating languages, shifts, which he calls departures from formal correspondence in movement from the source language to the target language, may occur in two ways. He called the first, level shifts, and the second, category shifts. Level shifts occur at the four levels of phonology, graphology, grammar and lexis. They are used to explain the differences in grammatical level of an item from source language to the target language. He opined that category shifts occur at the four levels of structure, class, unit and intra-system; and they show that items being translated differed in their linguistic category in both languages. Category shifts at the unit level were found in Ukwuani language, when compared with English. Items at the word unit in English, that is, English compound nouns, were observed to be represented at the clausal or sentential unit in Ukwuani. This phenomenon reflects what Vinay and Darbelnet (1995) call oblique translation strategies, four translation strategies, one of which is equivalence. They

posit that equivalence is the category shift which occurs in the translation of the source language to the target language where there is an entire replacement of the item from the source language in order to achieve semantic exactitude. The analysis of the compound nouns in Ukwuani revealed that in some cases there is no direct lexical equivalence for an English compound noun, thus requiring the grammar of this language to describe such a compound noun with a category shift using equivalence by clausal rendering. In other words, where the Ukwuani language does not have an equal or approximate vocabulary item to describe a phenomenon which has a compound noun reference in English language, such situation is described using a set of words which exist in a clausal or sentential relationship. The format, it was observed, usually employs the aid of relative pronouns (hereafter REL PRO) such as 'that', 'who', 'which' etc., to situate the meaning of the words in the sentence, such that they have an equivalence of meaning to the corresponding compound noun in English.

Appendix B shows different compound noun types in English and their related clausally rendered Ukwuani equivalences, along with their frequency of occurrence. The employment of such phrase- or clause-formed equivalences in the Ukwuani corpus can be explained as a consequence of the vast difference in development of the lexicon of both languages, with English having a wider array of lexical items due to its considerably higher period of orthography and use, in comparison to Ukwuani language.

Equivalence, as seen from the data, manifests as follows. The English compound noun 'fire truck', for instance, is described in Ukwuani as 'ugbo ne meyun oku', which glosses as 'Car REL PRO (that) quenches fire'. In another example, the English compound noun 'bricklayer', is described in Ukwuani as 'onye ne gwu uno'. This has the gloss 'Someone REL PRO (that) build house'. Yet another example from the data is the English compound 'self-taught', which is described in Ukwuani as 'ozi ewen nmaru' which glosses as 'teach self person'. The equivalence of this compound is made by the inclusion of the word 'person'. More examples of this phenomenon are presented in a tabular format, showing the full list of such compounds which were found in the transcription of the corpus, and is attached as part of Appendix B.

In what follows, some more examples of the clausally rendered Ukwuani compound nouns and their English equivalences are discussed in more detail in the co-text where they were employed by the participants:

(23) Extract: **Ebe nmiri naga** fia nefia ni ukwuani.

Translation: There is an abundance of **waterways**.

UCN: Ebe mmiri naga

Gloss: Place water pass

English: Waterway

In example (23) above, the Ukwuani physical environment is being discussed. The Ukwuani description for the phenomenon of a 'waterway' is a description which uses three words. The words gloss as 'place water pass', that is, where water passes through. This description is the language's equivalent of the English compound that is 'waterway'.

(24) Extract: Nnem bu **onye ne dokwume uno**.

Translation: She is the major **housekeeper**.

UCN: onye ne dokwume uno

Gloss: Person REL PRO (that) arrange house

English: Housekeeper

In example (24) above from a discussion of the Ukwuani home setting, the description given to the role which is translated as 'housekeeper' in English reveals the workings of the sentential substitution for certain compounds in the Ukwuani language. Here, the compound noun glosses as 'person REL PRO arrange house'. This describes the job of a housekeeper, since the language does not have a grammatical allowance for the conjoining of the words 'house' and 'keeper', as exists in the English language.

(25) Extract: Nde Ukwuani e weri eyan **ne pe ife** nmaru kebu.

Translation: The Ukwuani does not practice **underestimation** with anyone.

UCN: ne pe ife

Gloss: Look little something

English: Underestimation

Example (25) above from a discussion of Ukwuani culture and society, is a Noun-verb compound noun which manifests the sentential property of compound nouns in Ukwuani language. There is no singular compound that carries the same grammatical sense as the word 'underestimation', therefore the language describes the phenomenon using a sentential form. The word glosses as 'look little something', which essentially describes what an underestimation is.

(26) Extract: Nnarim weni okuku ila nmiri, nmiri imeye **naa nukpu noku naa nukpu noyi** diferi boro boro.

  Translation: My father had a flask for drinking water but the water usually was in a state of **lukewarmness**.

  UCN: naa nukpu noku naa nukpu noyi

  Gloss: Not too hot not too cold

  English: Lukewarmness

In example (26) above from the discussion of the Ukwuani home setting, the word which is translated 'lukewarmness' in English does not have a corresponding compound in Ukwuani language. The grammar of the language thus makes up for this deficiency by using the sentential description to communicate the grammatical import of the said word. The word glosses as 'not too hot not too cold' which perfectly describes what the word 'lukewarmness' means.

(27) Extract: Ndi onyeke ne yegbu ndibe we ife ri ki wa po **ife di nfe**...

  Translation: Men who cannot provide for their families are considered as **lightweights**...

  UCN: ife di nfe

  Gloss: Thing REL PRO (which) light

  English: Lightweight

In example (27) above from the discussion on Ukwuani culture and society, the grammatical description of the noun 'lightweight' is seen in the Ukwuani deployment of the sentential description method. The language does not have any word in its lexicon which is equivalent to the English language counterpart. The compound noun thus glosses as 'thing REL PRO light' to describe the quality of the phenomenon being described.

(28) Extract: Nmiri ndau **ebe di nswe** ka ani ndau mani nmani iru ogo.

Translation: The seas are always **nearby**, but the land was solid enough for farming.

UCN: ebe di nswe

Gloss: Place REL PRO (which) near

English: Nearby

In example (28) above, the Ukwuani phsycial environment was being discussed. The English word 'nearby' becomes a compound noun when used in the Ukwuani language. There is no grammatical provision for the combination of the words 'near' and 'by' in the language. Prepositions do not seem to occur in a large quantity in the Ukwuani language, therefore the grammatical deployment of the sentential description becomes necessary for this compound. The compound glosses as 'Place REL PRO near', thus describing the meaning of 'nearby'.

CHAPTER V

Conclusion and Recommendations

Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of the findings from the study. Then it mentions recommendations for future academic research in the field and then presents the conclusion of the study.

Summary of the findings

The study aimed to carry out an investigation of the way compound nouns are used in Ukwuani language and also compare to what obtains in the English language. To do this, a spoken corpus of Ukwuani language was compiled from naturally occurring conversation. The topics of the discussions in the compiled corpus centred on four themes: the Ukwuani home environment, schooling and education, the Ukwuani physical environment, and Ukwuani culture and society. This gave the researcher the opportunity to explore different types of compound nouns which are used in the Ukwuani language and to observe the context of their use.

The findings of this study revealed that the grammatical structure of Ukwuani compound nouns manifest in about six ways. They are Noun-Noun compounds, Noun-Verb compounds, Adjective-Noun compounds, Noun-Preposition compounds and Noun-Adverb compounds. The Noun-Noun type of Ukwuani compound nouns were basically found in conversations regarding the things used around the house or seen in the environment of the Ukwuani society. The Noun-Verb type of Ukwuani compound nouns were found to be used to name a phenomenon that occurs or to describe what tends to happen during an event or in the life experience of a person. The Adjective-Noun type of Ukwuani compound nouns were also found to be used to describe common physical societal concepts and phenomena. The Noun-Preposition type of Ukwuani compound nouns were not frequently found, but were present, and in part of the corpus, were used to describe the location of nominal phenomena. The compounds which fell under this category distinguished the nominal phenomena they referred to, by providing the extra information of their location at the time of reference in the speech that formed the data. This helped to separate the types of nouns so described and by extension, the compounds they

formed, from other nouns which might be similar in meaning. The Noun-Adverb type of Ukwuani compound nouns were used to give an identity to things involving one or more persons, whether individual or general.

In addition, the data revealed that the grammar of Ukwuani employs clausally rendered equivalent compound nouns. This is what Catford's (1965) shift model of translation calls category shift, and which is further explicated by Vinay and Darbelnet (1995) as the oblique translation method of equivalence. From the analysis of the corpus, it was observed that this type of equivalence occurs when there is no direct Ukwuani lexical equivalent for a compound noun present in English. Thus, requiring the grammar of the Ukwuani language to describe such a compound noun using a clause or a sentence. In other words, where the grammar of the Ukwuani language does not have an equal or a reasonably approximate vocabulary item to describe a phenomenon which has a compound noun reference in English language, such situation is described using a set of words which exist in a clausal or sentential relationship. The way the language applied the format involves the use of relative pronouns such as 'that', 'who', 'which' etc., to help situate the meaning of the words in the sentence, such that they have an equivalence of meaning to the corresponding compound noun in English. Clausally rendered equivalent compound nouns were found to occur in the Ukwuani description of English compound nouns of the following grammatical formats: Noun-Noun compounds, Noun-Verb compounds, Adjective-Noun compounds and Noun-Adverb compounds.

Conclusion

This study has compared the way the Ukwuani language forms and uses compound nouns as a grammatical tool, with the occurrence of the same phenomenon in the English language. The study was able to show how these compound nouns were deployed in the Ukwuani language, as well as show how these compare similarly to and differ from the way the English language deploys the same types of compounds.

The Ukwuani language, it has been established, does not have the same vastness of vocabulary items which the English language has. This has, however, not stopped the language from describing phenomena which its culture and society

intrinsically features, or from devising the grammatical means to describe new societal phenomena which came about as a result of the progress of society due to science and technology and the influence of globalization on existence and living. It has instead been able to evolve with the times and to continue being a reliable conveyor of the thoughts and expressions of its speakers.

Given the linguistic plurality of the nation Nigeria, it is easy for many minor languages such as Ukwuani to get caught in the crossfire of linguistic neglect, a by-product of the massive attention that the prominent regional counterparts of such languages usually get from the government. It is however pertinent that languages in this category, that is, minor languages in regions of multiethnic linguistic expression, be given the thought and consideration requisite for their preservation.Government policy drives and initiatives which would enhance this, will help ensure that such languages as Ukwuani do not suffer linguistic atrophy either now or in the near or distant future.

Recommendations for Further Research

This research has considered Compound nouns in Ukwuani language and compared them to how the English language uses them too. However, the searchlight of research would continue to beam on many other areas, as no single study can be exhaustive. To this end, future research might be interested in conducting studies to explore the following areas:

1. The other types of compounds which manifest in the Ukwuani language should be explored. Their formation and use in speech situations should be investigated.
2. Apart from comnpounding, other word formation processes manifest and enjoy agency in the grammar of the Ukwuani language. These other word formation processes should be investigated.
3. The Ukwuani language significantly employs reduplication and tautology. These devices should be investigated and their grammatical functions in speech situations should be explored.
4. The Ukwuani language's grammatical description of time relations should be explored. Time is described in English using tense, and sometimes aspect.

The Ukwuani grammatical description of these concepts should be looked into.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Ukwuani Compound Nouns in Context and Their Interpretations

<u>**The Ukwuani Home setting**</u>

1. My grandmother was a superwoman. – Nne nnem bu oke oyenye.
2. She was a caregiver who was consulted for breastfeeding. - Obu onye ne ne nwam, iya ku we kudo bu we ba mu elewoye nwan el aka ine nwan we harini noge odini arugbe.
3. My grandfather didn't come around a lot. – Nnari nnarim a bia uno kitikiti.
4. We the grandchildren loved it whenever we could see relatives because they always had gifts for us. – Osa nde ayin nde umurumu nah an nosa oge a yin na fu imusu eyin nese ife we wase neyin.
5. Our house had a door at the entrance and then had a backdoor. – Uno ayin weni ekwo ni isu ko ugbasu.
6. The backdoor leads to the yard, where things such as firewood, the firehouse, the doghouse, the henhouse, and my birdcage are kept. – Ekwo ugbasu ki wa sina je ugbaru uno noba diki nku, ebe wa fiye oku, uno ekite, unho okwukwu ka uno nnunu.
7. Relatives are an important part of the family tree. – Umusu di npa nime oshisi ndibe.
8. As a grandchild, I was a favorite of my grandfather. – Nime umuumu, nbu nwa osiso nnari nnarin.
9. I had a baby face. – Nweni isu arugbe.
10. He would always get me a different plaything whenever he came to visit. – Nor goyem osa ife bu obiako be kone eyin.
11. My grandmother wanted a granddaughter, but she didn't get one. – Nne nnarim choni nwan oyenye bu ofune.
12. Childbearing is a serious subject in the average Ukwuani home. – Uno ukwuani na shin nne.
13. My grandfather had a potbelly. – Nnarim weni efa shini nne.
14. He suffered from backache. – Iya shi ni ugbazu na turu a.
15. My father got him an armchair right in the verandah. – Nnarim goye ne oche weni eka nisi ezi.
16. He smoked from his cigar, an ashtray by his right hand. - Ebeu ki no tiye ifeni cigar o na la.
17. A shrub of sunflowers adorned the area in front of the verandah. – Ukwu odod awun dini isu ezi.
18. Lemongrass planted in a flowerpot was also in the verandah. – We kuye ni efifia nime ite ododo dashi nisu ezi.
19. The door had a keyhole, but was also secured with padlocks for extra security. – Ekwo keu wani oha isafi, owani isafi we jina pochie.

20. There was a doorbell that announced visitors. – Ngbirigba ekwo na gwa nmaru si oweni ebia dahu.
21. My father was like a supergiant while we the kids looked like broomsticks. – Nnarim diki nwa oke sikemeni nne noge ayin umugosi di diki nbu eziza.
22. She is the major housekeeper. – Nnem na chukwume uno.
23. She had her tables always laid with tablecloth. – No gbame uko ni ebe we pado ife.
24. She had a cookbook for special delicacies. – O we eshini ekwukwo we jine chi ite, ekwukwo we jine shi iri so ni eninie.
25. I remember she introduced us to cornmeal, which was at first bittersweet. – Ayarieon oge no shi utara oka bu enineinsu.
26. She had the key to the storeroom in her bunch of house keys. – O we ni isafi upo we podo iri nime.
27. Her favorite fruits were watermelon and blackberries. – Npuru oshishi kani so a nib u nmiri ololo ka ndu osi.
28. She also stored wares, unused plates and my father's wineglasses there. – Opodo esini ife ishite ka nde nodi ne we, ka efere otipo nnarim jina la nmiri.
29. My mother was almost always in her housedress. – Nnem ne yi nkwakwa uno ni nponpo oge.
30. She was still superfine. – Kenu egbo e ba ma nma oyenye.
31. Back then there was no dishwasher. – Oge odei ife wa jina cha efere diki ife nde oyibo weni kara a daa.
32. The kids had to wash the plates after the meals, including the saucepans. – If we jina cha efere a daa.
33. My father, a bricklayer, built our house himself. – Nnarim bu onye ne gwu uno, no gwu uno ni ewen.
34. The bedroom for us boys was different from the ladies room. – Upo ebe ndikom na lasu dibe ye ebe nde oyenyen na lasu.
35. We used to lick toothpaste in overabundance, usually by putting it on our fingernails to lick. – Ayin na boru ife ichuchu eze na la, ayin ne weri nbo npishi eka.
36. My mother took us all for haircuts. – Nnem ne poru osa ayin je ebe wa koi sis bu isis eyin ru.
37. We got to ride in the car without my father holding the car keys. – Oge kenu ki ayi na b anime ugbo.
38. She would be on standby as we got inside the salon, usually in a gown and hairnet. – Ayin rue be wa ko isi, no turu fori oto, no yiri ewo usue.
39. Weekends were usually fun around the home. – Bochi we je oru, iya bu bochi na so ayin efo enine.
40. Saturday was washday and we washed everything. – Bochi eke kayin n su uko, ayin na cha ife.
41. We washed the bathtub in my father's bathroom and cleaned their bedroom. – Ayin na cha ife, ka ebe nnarim na wu esu, ayin na chukwu upo wa lasu.
42. We would always try on my mother's hand cream, body cream and hair cream. – Ayi ne weri ori eka, ori esu, ka ori isi nnem ne gwuegwu.

43. The walls of the bedroom had beautiful wallpapers on one side. – Esu eja umupo weni ekwukwo na yanme nesu eja maninma nofu uka.
44. My father had a flask for drinking water but the water was always lukewarm. – Nnarim weni okuku ila nmiri, nmiri imeya na diferi boro boro.
45. In the evenings we would gather by the television and watch superhero movies of the time, while munching on some sweetmeat, our eyeballs glued to the TV. – Nishi eyanshi, osa eyin na yiri ne ne ekpeti oyibo.
46. This would usually be the case until there is a blackout. – Ife a karu dikenu beru ema we ke weri oku.
47. We would then, using our fingers as toothpick, go to bed. – Ayin ne weri eka ayin fa eze, ayin na di jejalasu.
48. My father may have to use sleeping pills. – Nnarim iso bu onye na la ogwu ulasu ula.
49. It was the rodent hunter and rat eater of the house. – Iya ne gburu osa nbuka dini uno ri.
50. It usually crouched close to my father's suitcase during the day. – Onogbo keu ne yirin ekpeti uko nnarim neyan nfe.

Schooling and education

1. We usually woke up very early, and braved the morning wind to get to school. – Ayin ne toshi kere, ga nime efufu itutu je uno okukwo ni itutu tu ni ebe ayin jeko yanoyan
2. We would wake before it was daylight to do our house chores. – Ayin ne toshi kere jetu oshi ututu ayin.
3. We had makeshift backpacks. – ayin weni epa azu.
4. The constant thing was a water bottle and books for schoolwork as well as homework, then some textbooks. – ayin weni otu ife na di nime epa azu ayin, yaku ogo nmiri ka ekwukwo ayin ne weri na ru oru uno ekwukwo, oru uno ka okwukwo ogwugwu.
5. Children of these days have lunch packs, snack boxes and others. – Unugosi emami weni epa iri efifie, ekpete iri eka ko ekika ife di bebe.
6. Classrooms, or schoolhouses, were where we encountered our teachers. – ukpo we zi ife ka uno ekwukwo bu ebe ayin na fuo onye nkuzi.
7. We took classes according to the timetable. – Ayi na mu ife noso oge.
8. A timekeeper alerted us when it was time to change classes. – Onye na ku ngbirigba na ku ngbirigba bu oru oge oye nkuzi ozo ka be zi eyin.
9. Making utterances in the mother tongue was not really a crime like it is now. – isu asusu obodo nnenmari abu nso dikele odi kitani.
10. Friendship between students was common knowledge. – Iso oyi negbata umu uno ekwukwo bu ife dini osa uzo.
11. I remember learning things like aircrafts, what a black box is, what short-circuit means, the story of Bigfoot, the World Bank, the Box office, the disease called sleeping sickness, what a water gun is, etc. – Ayariwom imu

ife diki ekpeti osi, okwu npuke, akiko ogbe uku, uno ogo uwa, emo ula, egbe nmiri ka ekika ife di bebe.

12. I loved Physical education. It taught me important things such as teamwork. – Oru esu bu ofu ife kaka sam, iya zinim shi irugbame mani nma.

13. We usually did classes outside, in the afternoon. – Ayin na mu ife ni isuezi ni efifie.

14. Our field had sandstones in one part. – Ebe ipobolu ayin woni eja ikai ni ngbuka.

15. It had many grasshoppers and we would often chase after them while in the field. – Ni ngbuka, anu ne ri efifia fia ni efia, ayin na ju geme we ni enu ati wa po boolu.

16. We usually had some lazybones who didn't join Physical Education classes, usually due to illness. – Ayin ne wen ndi ule na bia nese emo.

17. We would tease them that they are using shortcuts to avoid the rigour. – Ayin na muwe emu shi we na cho uzo npuke ni we na gbanani npotu.

18. Pupils usually played two types of football. - Umu uno ekwukwo na gwa egwu we weri ukwu napo di ekika nobe.

19. There was the one played after school which usually led to lost shoelaces and torn shoes, and the subsequent visits to the shoemaker. – Ke wa po bu uno ekwukwo gbasa na gbari akpu ukwu na doka ka apari, akpu ukwu ne pusu, keni na gbari nne umuuno ekwukwo ne je odu oyen ne dokume akpuku kitikiti.

20. There was the one played on the hardcover of text books and the paperback books we found in the library. – Ozo dawu umu gosi nap o ni azu dike ekwukwo ogwugwu ka azu ibe ekwukwo ayin na fu ni upo wa gwa ekwukwo kobu doye ekwukwo.

21. Well known teachers served as house teachers for the children whose parents could afford it. – Oyen nkuzi we marikumeni bu oyen nkuzi ne zi umu nde nne ni nnari we na kugbu ugwo aya.

22. The poorer ones could only daydream of such luxury. - Nde ogbe na lo nau nlo bochi ife oma di elenu.

23. Such kids tend to have the upper hand in class. – Umugosi ndau ne wen eka ide enu ni ebewo zi ayin.

24. He was an egghead. – O weni isi ekwa.

25. He served as the letter writer of the community while he was younger. – iya ne de ekwukwo ndi ogbe ni ema odi arugbe.

26. He was reputed to have not had time for child's play even while he was a child. – Nde nmaru a mariwo si owen efe egwu nwa nema odi arugbe.

27. He had a paperboy deliver him the Daily Times every day. O weni ekwukwo anyeke ne wesene ekwukwo ogwugwu osa nbochi.

28. His office was called the White House because of the colour. – Onu oru aya, wa po a uno ocha nese ife we sini te.

29. He was a self-taught multilingual. – O bu ozi ewen nmaru asusu di bebe.

30. If he saw any use of shorthand in our notes, he would punish such students. – o tu eka npuke nime ekwukwo umu ekwukwo, no gwewe ube.

31. Students were therefore scared to shorten sentences in their notes for fear that it would backfire during inspection. – Umu uno ekwukwo weni egwu iweri eka npuke ne de ife.
32. A keystone of our schooling experience then was the respect for our teachers. – Ogoni omuma ayin ni oge ndenu bu iye onkuzi ogenesu.
33. What you learned last week was always built upon after the weekend. – Ife ayin muni ni izuka ganini kayin na mu bu izuka gwu.
34. Whenever we got home, and played in the moonlight, we usually used things we did in the school during the day to create our fun. – Ayin ru uno, ayin be gwu egwu ukpe ife, ife ayin munini uno ekwukwo kayin ne weri ne gwu egwu.

Ukwuani Physical environment

1. Delta State where Ukwuani land is located, has parts of its geography in the rainforest. – O weni ele odi nime nmiri ka ugboko.
2. There is an abundance of waterways. – Uzo nmiri fi anofia ni ukwuani.
3. I grew up visiting the seaside, playing on riverbanks, being exposed to fishing, first in fishponds and later at the seaside. – Ekpo nmiri ki ayin ne je no gwegu ni ke nne shi nne.
4. I remember I got my first fishhook while I was less than 10 years old. – Ayanriwon onye nbu onu asua iri, oge kenu kun sayani wen iko igbu azu.
5. Whitefish was a common source of protein caught from the waters. – Azu ocha ma kemeni nma nesu, ngbu ima nmiri ki wa tu a.
6. However, to catch, one must get up before sunlight, while the sea breeze was still a little warm, and go to the sea. – Iba fu azu ocha gbu, yabusi ike teshikere ni ututu awun itutu ba busa ki wo je nmiri.
7. The farms were in the upland area. – Enu ugwu ki ogo ndau na di.
8. It usually took a crossover to move from the riverbanks to the upland area. – Nmari ne fega we beru epe nmiri, ka enu ugwu.
9. The seas are always nearby, but the land was solid enough for farming. – Nmiri ndau di nsue ka ani ndau mani nmani iru ogo.
10. Usually, a mountain river provided some form of moisture for the farms. – Enu ugwu nmiri ne ye ife nde we kuni ni ogo enine we ji shi nne.
11. Women doubled as farmers and woodcutters. – Nde oyenye kani ru oru ogo, nde ne be nku, ka nde na cho nku nogo ken da ke doye nku nime ogbe.
12. There were few sophisticated places like shopping centres or a central hospital until recently. –Out ebe dibebe dini ima ogbe ukwuani, dike ebe we le ife, uno ogwu etiti, ka afia di bebe.
13. There was the general market and even a fruit market. – Afia osa dau, afia npuru oshishi da shiu.
14. There was also a black market where some usually rare produce could be bought. – Afia oji bu ebe wele ife nmaru na fugbu ni osa uzo da shiu.
15. The most common sights were those of artisans and workers of craft in their shops, a salesman selling some potion, a watchmaker in his shop, a

moneylender sitting in his stall, a meat fryer selling to school students, an automobile being driven for commercial work with the seatbelt usually worn out, a police car with sirens, police dogs in the back, a fire truck going to put out a fire, these were common sights on the streets. – Oga geme bu ife nmaru na fu nime afia, nde na ru oru eka, onyeke ne le ife, onye na ru oge noru nime ebe no ru oru, onye ne ziye ndemaru ego, onye ne he anu da shiu nebe no leye umu uno ekwukwo shi ko ni uno ekwukwo anu.

16. Another thing common on the streets was madmen. – Ife ozo nmaru na fu nime ogbe bu onye ela.

17. Children would often tease a madman and retreat as they expect to be chased. – Umu ugosi diri ni ofu zo na cho onu onye ela.

18. It was part of their afternoon sport. – Umuta ife ndeni ki we jine gwu egwu efifie.

19. Whoever is caught will be made fun of for being a fathead. – Onye we gideni ki we ko weri mu emu si obu ogbe ishi.

20. The government facility for taking care of them was always called a madhouse, and they always seem able to stray. – Uno ela bu ebe nde chi obododo gwu yeniwe si we weri ne na nde kunela.

21. There were unsubstantiated rumours that one moneybag or another living in a big house in town, had something to do with how some of these people became mad. – Ekika ite di bebe diki epa ego, ogwu ego, kobu nde ogbe nmaru noni uno nkuku marini bayeni ele ofu otu nime nde ku ni ela ji ni ku ela.

22. Some claimed that a blackbird perched on their roofs at night and stayed till dawn. – Ofu otu nmaru ku ni shi nnunu oji nori ni enu uno we ni ngede beru oge ichi boni.

23. Children would go mountain climbing, since there were a few hills and mountains dotting the landscape, and would often play the game of touchdown. – Umugosi me je enu, ugwu je yin enu, omete egwu iteri ani eka.

Ukwuani Culture and Society

1. A traditional man of significance in Ukwuani land for instance, would don a redcap adorned with feathers from the eagle or the blackcap bird, on their traditional attire complete with a walking stick. – Onyeke obodo omi ukwuani ne yiri opu ifie we weri ni ifie nnunu kobu opu oji nnunu ni ewo nde ukwuani ne yiri ka nbu we jine jije.

2. Religion became an important part of the Ukwuani culture as evidenced in churchgoing during the weekend. – Ije uka di npa nime omenami ndi Ukwuani, keni kayin na fu nele we je uka bu isuka gwu.

3. The Ukwuani idea is that one should not allow oneself become swallowed by the foreign religion to the detriment of local customs. – Ife ndi ukwuani weni nobi bushi ki nmaru ba gbari enu nde oyibo weseni bibifu ewennmaru omonani.

4. Ceremonies usually had a lot of palm wine. – Omerife ne wen nponpo nmayam nmiri.
5. Usually, some of the wine would be poured out in libation to the fatherland, as represented by the earth. – Otuotu nmaya nmiri ndau ki we sudo nani nnari nmaruweri kere uwa.
6. Ropedancing was a popular feature of festivals too. – Itogwu apari bu ife namru na fu ni omiri nmo.
7. The bodywork of the dancer was always a sight to behold. – Oluesu onyene te egwu bu ifemaninma nmaru na fu.
8. Growing up, bellbottoms were popular fashion statements. – Ni ishinne, nbirigba ike bu ife ne ti nemanu.
9. My father used to tell me that in his own days, riding on horseback was the height of social status. – Nnarim na gwa nim shi noge keye, azu ayinya bu ife we jina na ari nde weni ego.
10. The Ukwuani does not underestimate anyone. – Nde Ukwuani e weri eyan ne pe nmaru kebu ife.
11. It was a taboo to be two-faced, or a killjoy. – Nso bushi ki nmaru wen isu nebe kobu gbu awunrin.
12. The Ukwuani believes that the traditional medicine man could foresee the future, and could assist those going through difficulty to experience a turnaround. – Ndi Ukwuani weni nobi shi onye na gwu ogwu na fu etchi, no wenshi ike yeni nde ife diwe ike chi azu.
13. It believes that money from the underworld is blood money and whoever has such money is a bloodsucker. – Wen we eshi ni nobi si ego shini opuru uwa bia bu ogwuego, shi onye weni isu ego konu bu ola edeke.
14. It also believes such families would have at least a child who is a meathead, or slow, or is retarded. – Wen weshini nobi si ndibe delenu ne wen ofu nwan bu ishi anu, ne je nko kobi o su ne.
15. Every family has a spokesman. – Osa ndibe weni onuosa.
16. Conflicts and uprisings within the family are resolved within the extended family by the aid of mini peace conferences. – Ogwu kotu ifebiakoni nime umusu shini nne ki wa seturu ni ikpo udo.
17. Name calling and finger pointing are not allowed at such meetings. – Ipo efa kobu ishi oka bu ife wa yana te ni ipo ndau.
18. Occasions such as Mother's day and Father's day are also celebrated, though in a unique way. – Omerife diki ubochi nne ka ubochi nnari bu bochi wa wunye ni ele di be.
19. The children would get gifts for their parents whose day it is, use wrapping paper to conceal it, and present it to them. – Umugosi ne goye nne ni nnariwe ekika ifedibebe we kemeni nime ekwukwo ikeme ife, wa di ye we.
20. Men who cannot provide for their families are considered as lightweights, and are usually made fun of, when family events are upcoming. – Ndi onyeke ne yegbu ndibe we ife ri ki wa po ife di nfe, we weri we na mu emu bu omeri ife umukwu biakoni.

21. A common headache in Ukwuani culture is the idea that a girlfriend may very soon become a second wife. – Ofa ife na wa nmaru isi ni omenani ukwuani bu ele oyi oyenye ne me na ha wunye ke kwebuo.
22. Children born with cat eyes are usually considered mystical. – Umugosi we muni weni eyan onogbo ku wa fu shi we dibe nime unu.
23. Generally, many Ukwuani believe that some children are some form of throwback to their ancestors. – Ofa otu nde ukwuani ne weshi nobi shi ofu otu umu kobu nwan bu ituchi achiu shini odo imusu we.
24. The Ukwuani culture believes a comedown is not a permanent situation, as long as the man is diligent. – Omenami Ukwuani mari eshini si ije ani onyeke nmaru abu ife ojo bu onyeke keu buru onye na di ule.
25. Elderly men who aren't able to walk by themselves again are assisted with a wheelchair usually gotten by the family. – Nde ikei ne jekume gbu ije weni oche ogbapu nde ndibewe jini ye niwe eka.
26. Every rumour is not taken serious until there is an eyewitness to confirm. – Oku azu bu ife we nepe beru ema ofu neya kinishi eleu kodi.
27. Backscratchers are considered to be bad people. – Oko azu ki nde nmaru o ne kusi webu onye ojo.

Appendix B

Ukwuani Compound Noun Types Identified in the Corpus

S/N	Type	Frequency	List
1	Noun- noun	105	1. UCN: ani mgbiligba Gloss: Land bell (land to mean 'low' or 'close to the earth') English Equivalence: Bellbottom 2. UCN: ukpo akwa Gloss: room bed English Equivalence: Bedroom 3. UCN: azu ocha Gloss: Fish white English Equivalence: Whitefish 4. UCN: uno ekwukwo Gloss: House book English Equivalence: Schoolhouse 5. UCN: ukpo azu Gloss: Hook fish English Equivalence: Fishhook 6. UCN: ngbo azu Gloss: Pond fish English Equivalence: Fishpond 7. UCN: uko akpata Gloss: Cloth table English Equivalence: Tablecloth 8. UCN: olu uno Gloss: Work house English Equivalence: Homework 9. UCN: ohe igoni Gloss: Hole key English Equivalence: Keyhole 10. UCN: ite igoni Gloss: Pot key English Equivalence: Padlock 11. UCN: ogeolu Gloss: Time work English Equivalence: Timetable 12. UCN: oche ogbakpu Gloss: Chair rolling English Equivalence: Wheelchair 13. UCN: ukpe awun Gloss: Light sun English Equivalence: Sunlight 14. UCN: onye nkuzi Gloss: Person instructor

English Equivalence: Class teacher

15. UCN: eka nri
    Gloss: Hand food
    English Equivalence: Right hand

16. UCN: okwu onu
    Gloss: Word mouth
    English Equivalence: Utterance

17. UCN: ugbo ani
    Gloss: Canoe land
    English Equivalence: Automobile

18. UCN: nmayan nku
    Gloss: Wine wood
    English Equivalence: Palmwine

19. UCN: uno ekite
    Gloss: House dog
    English Equivalence: Doghouse

20. UCN: odu azu
    Gloss: Space back
    English Equivalence: Backspace

21. UCN: efere ntu
    Gloss: Plate ash
    English Equivalence: Ashtray

22. UCN: eka oche
    Gloss: Arm chair
    English Equivalence: Armchair

23. UCN: nmiri ekpeti
    Gloss: Water box
    English Equivalence: Water box

24. UCN: ani nnari
    Gloss: Land father
    English Equivalence: Fatherland

25. UCN: oshisi umukwu
    Gloss: Tree family
    English Equivalence: Family tree

26. UCN: uno nnunu
    Gloss: house bird
    English Equivalence: Birdcage

27. UCN: oyi onyeyen
    Gloss: Friend female
    English Equivalence: Girlfriend

28. UCN: ekpe osunmiri
    Gloss: Side seawater
    English Equivalence: Seaside

29. UCN: ekwo ugbazu
    Gloss: Door back
    English Equivalence: Backdoor

30. UCN: ife egwu
    Gloss: Thing play
    English Equivalence: Plaything

31. UCN: eja ikai
    Gloss: Sand stone
    English Equivalence: Sandstone
32. UCN: ntulu ugbazu
    Gloss: Pain back
    English Equivalence: Backache
33. UCN: igoni ikai
    Gloss: Key stone
    English Equivalence: Keystone
34. UCN: okpu oji
    Gloss: Cap black
    English Equivalence: Blackcap
35. UCN: ilolo oyibo
    Gloss: Melon whiteman
    English Equivalence: Watermelon
36. UCN: ododo anwun
    Gloss: Flower sun
    English Equivalence: Sunflower
37. UCN: azu anyinya
    Gloss: Back horse
    English Equivalence: Horseback
38. UCN: osunsu oji
    Gloss: Berry black
    English Equivalence: Blackberries
39. UCN: ukpe ubochi
    Gloss: Light day
    English Equivalence: Daylight
40. UCN: nlo efifie
    Gloss: Dream afternoon
    English Equivalence: Daydream
41. UCN: ekwukwo ogugu
    Gloss: Book comprehension
    English Equivalence: Textbook
42. UCN: isi owiwa
    Gloss: Head ache
    English Equivalence: Headache
43. UCN: ekpe onoku
    Gloss: Side river
    English Equivalence: Riverbanks
44. UCN: Efufu osunmiri
    Gloss: Breeze seawater
    English Equivalence: Sea breeze
45. UCN: apari akpukwu
    Gloss: Rope shoe
    English Equivalence: Shoelace
46. UCN: Ukpe Anyanwu
    Gloss: Light moon
    English Equivalence: Moonlight
47. UCN: ekite ewoji

Gloss: Dog police
English Equivalence: Police dog

48. UCN: apari iteegwu
Gloss: Rope dancing
English Equivalence: Ropedancing

49. UCN: ibe ekwukwo onyeke
Gloss: Piece book boy
English Equivalence: Paperboy

50. UCN: imu nwan
Gloss: Birth child
English Equivalence: Childbearing

51. UCN: eyan onogbo
Gloss: Eyes cat
English Equivalence: Cat eye

52. UCN: ukpo oyenye
Gloss: Room female
English Equivalence: Ladies room

53. UCN: orii mbuka
Gloss: Eater rat
English Equivalence: Rat eater

54. UCN: mbo npisieka
Gloss: Nail finger
English Equivalence: Fingernail

55. UCN: nbu eziza
Gloss: Stick broom
English Equivalence: Broomstick

56. UCN: ewo uno
Gloss: Dress house
English Equivalence: House dress

57. UCN: ogwu ulasuula
Gloss: Drug sleeping
English Equivalence: Sleeping pill

58. UCN: uno okwukwu
Gloss: House hen
English Equivalence: Henhouse

59. UCN: uno okwu
Gloss: House fire
English Equivalence: Firehouse

60. UCN: ugbo ewooji
Gloss: Car police
English Equivalence: Police car

61. UCN: ekpa ego
Gloss: Bag money
English Equivalence: Moneybag

62. UCN: isi anu
Gloss: Head meat
English Equivalence: Meathead

63. UCN: ekwukwo isite
Gloss: Book cooking

English Equivalence: Cookbook
64. UCN: iri oka
    Gloss: Food corn
    English Equivalence: Cornmeal
65. UCN: igoni ugbo
    Gloss: Key car
    English Equivalence: Car key
66. UCN: isu nebe
    Gloss: Face two
    English Equivalence: Two face
67. UCN: uno ocha
    Gloss: House white
    English Equivalence: White house
68. UCN: mgbirigba ekwo
    Gloss: Bell door
    English Equivalence: Doorbell
69. UCN: ite ododo
    Gloss: Pot flower
    English Equivalence: Flowerpot
70. UCN: isi okwa
    Gloss: Head egg
    English Equivalence: Egghead
71. UCN: okwu nku
    Gloss: Fire wood
    English Equivalence: Firewood
72. emo ulasuula
    Gloss: Sick sleeping
    English Equivalence: Sleeping sickness
73. UCN: ebe iwesu
    Gloss: Place bath
    English Equivalence: Bathtub
74. UCN: ori eka
    Gloss: Cream hand
    English Equivalence: Hand cream
75. UCN: ogbuji nku
    Gloss: Cutter wood
    English Equivalence: Woodcutter
76. UCN: ola edeke
    Gloss: Sucker blood
    English Equivalence: Bloodsucker
77. UCN: ode ekwukwo
    Gloss: Writer book
    English Equivalence: Letter writer
78. UCN: nwam nwam
    Gloss: Child child
    English Equivalence: Grandchild
79. UCN: nnari nnari
    Gloss: Father father
    English Equivalence: Grandfather

80. UCN: ogwu ego
    Gloss: Charm money
    English Equivalence: Blood money
81. UCN: ohe anu
    Gloss: Fryer meat
    English Equivalence: Meat fryer
82. UCN: ekwukwo esueja
    Gloss: Book wall
    English Equivalence: Wallpaper
83. UCN: ogo nmiri
    Gloss: Bottle water
    English Equivalence: Water bottle
84. UCN: egbe nmiri
    Gloss: Gun water
    English Equivalence: Water gun
85. UCN: ekpa uko
    Gloss: Bag cloth
    English Equivalence: Suitcase
86. UCN: enuugu nmiri
    Gloss: Mountain water
    English Equivalence: Mountain river
87. UCN: ubochi nne
    Gloss: Day mother
    English Equivalence: Mother's day
88. UCN: efufu ututu
    Gloss: Breeze morning
    English Equivalence: Morning wind
89. UCN: epa azu
    Gloss: Bag back
    English Equivalence: Backpack
90. UCN: ukpe mpuke
    Gloss: Light short
    English Equivalence: Short-circuit
91. UCN: opu egirisi
    Gloss: Cap hair
    English Equivalence: Hairnet
92. UCN: ori esu
    Gloss: Cream body
    English Equivalence: Body cream
93. UCN: ori egirisi
    Gloss: Cream hair
    English Equivalence: Hair cream
94. UCN: npuru eyan
    Gloss: Seed eye
    English Equivalence: Eyeball
95. UCN: ubochi nnari
    Gloss: Day father
    English Equivalence: Father's day
96. UCN: ikpo udo

Gloss: Gathering peace
English Equivalence: Peace conference

97. UCN: iri ekpeti
Gloss: Meal box
English Equivalence: Snack box

98. UCN: iko nmayan
Gloss: Cup wine
English Equivalence: Wineglass

99. UCN: afia oji
Gloss: Market black
English Equivalence: Black market

100. UCN: izuka ganini
Gloss: Week past
English Equivalence: Last week

101. UCN: azu okwu
Gloss: Back fire
English Equivalence: Backfire

102. UCN: eka epe
Gloss: Hand left
English Equivalence: Left hand

103. UCN: igoni uno
Gloss: Key house
English Equivalence: House key

104. UCN: nnunu oji
Gloss: Bird black
English Equivalence: Blackbird

105. UCN: ekpeti oji
Gloss: Box black
English Equivalence: Black box

Noun-verb	25	1. UCN: chi azu Gloss: Go back English Equivalence: Turnaround

2. UCN: ofu nenya
Gloss: See eyes
English Equivalence: Eyewitness

3. UCN: tuchi azu
Gloss: Throw back
English Equivalence: Throwback

4. UCN: iweshi azu
Gloss: Return back
English Equivalence: Backwardness

5. UCN: ife biakoni
Gloss: Thing coming
English Equivalence: Upcoming

6. UCN: ofu isu
Gloss: See front
English Equivalence: Foresee

7. UCN: tetu ani
   Gloss: Touch ground
   English Equivalence: Touchdown
8. UCN: izuka guni
   Gloss: Week finish
   English Equivalence: Weekend
9. UCN: olu esu
   Gloss: Work body
   English Equivalence: Bodywork
10. UCN: nyi zida
    Gloss: Climbing down
    English Equivalence: Comedown
11. UCN: oga fe
    Gloss: Walking fly
    English Equivalence: Crossover
12. UCN: okpobia
    Gloss: Hop insect
    English Equivalence: Grasshopper
13. UCN: turu che
    Gloss: Standing wait
    English Equivalence: Stationby
14. UCN: ije uka
    Gloss: Going church
    English Equivalence: Churchgoing
15. UCN: gbu awunrin
    Gloss: Kill joy
    English Equivalence: Killjoy
16. UCN: ko egirisi
    Gloss: Barb hair
    English Equivalence: Haircut
17. UCN: nodi ani
    Gloss: Sit ground
    English Equivalence: Sit-down
18. UCN: nmayan nmiri
    Gloss: Drink water
    English Equivalence: Palm wine
19. UCN: iye ela
    Gloss: feeding breast
    English Equivalence: Breastfeeding
20. UCN: izi eka
    Gloss: Pointing hand
    English Equivalence: Finger pointing
21. UCN: ipo efa
    Gloss: Calling name
    English Equivalence: Name calling
22. UCN: nbu ijeije
    Gloss: Stick walking
    English Equivalence: Walking stick
23. UCN: egwu nwam

Gloss: Play child
English Equivalence: Child's play

24. UCN: nmiri olila
Gloss: Water drinking
English Equivalence: Drinking water

25. UCN: Iyin ugwu
Gloss: Climbing mountain
English Equivalence: Mountain climbing

Adj-Noun	19	1. UCN: okpupu ule

1. UCN: okpupu ule
Gloss: Bone lazy
English Equivalence: Lazybones

2. UCN: ogbe uno
Gloss: Big house
English Equivalence: Big house

3. UCN: uno ela
Gloss: House mad
English Equivalence: Madhouse

4. UCN: onye ela
Gloss: Someone mad
English Equivalence: Madman

5. UCN: okuchi dike
Gloss: Cover hard
English Equivalence: Hardcover

6. UCN: eka npuke
Gloss: Hand short
English Equivalence: Shorthand

7. UCN: oke efia
Gloss: Strong plenty
English Equivalence: Overabundance

8. UCN: ogbe isi
Gloss: Big head
English Equivalence: Fathead

9. UCN: osa ife
Gloss: Every thing
English Equivalence: Everything

10. UCN: Nwanwa
Gloss: Child's child
English Equivalence: Grandchildren

11. UCN: oke onyeke
Gloss: Strong man
English Equivalence: Superhero

12. UCN: ogbe efo
Gloss: Big stomach
English Equivalence: Potbelly

13. UCN: ogbe ukwu
Gloss: Big leg
English Equivalence: Bigfoot

14. UCN: oke igwala

Gloss: Strong giant
English Equivalence: Supergiant
15. UCN: oke nma
    Gloss: Strong fine
    English Equivalence: Superfine
16. UCN: enine nsunsu
    Gloss: Sweet bitter
    English Equivalence: Bittersweet
17. UCN: onye omari
    Gloss: Someone known
    English Equivalence: Well known
18. UCN: oke onyeyen
    Gloss: Strong woman
    English Equivalence: Superwoman
19. UCN: uzo mpuke
    Gloss: Way short
    English Equivalence: Shortcut

Noun-prep	8	1. UCN: ani enu Gloss: Land up English Equivalence: Upland 2. UCN: ugbo enu Gloss: Canoe up English Equivalence: Aircraft 3. UCN: onyiri enu Gloss: movement up English Equivalence: Uprising 4. UCN: eka enu Gloss: Hand up English Equivalence: Upper hand 5. UCN: enu isu Gloss: Up front English Equivalence: Up-frontness 6. UCN: opuru uwa Gloss: Under world English Equivalence: Underworld 7. UCN: ebe dibii Gloss: Place dark English Equivalence: Blackout 8. UCN: efi fie Gloss: After noon English Equivalence: afternoon
Noun-Adv	4	1. UCN: nme iso Gloss: Me only English Equivalence: Oneself 2. UCN: ofe gbame Gloss: Flight around English Equivalence: Commonplace

3. UCN: oru gbame
   Gloss: Work together
   English Equivalence: Teamwork
4. UCN: onuosa
   Gloss: Mouth every
   English Equivalence: Spokesman

Clausally Rendered Compound Nouns in Ukwuani Language

English Compound	Clausally Rendered Ukwuani Compound	Frequency
(Noun-noun)		26
Waterway	UCN: Ebe mmiri naga Gloss: Place water pass English: Waterway	
Housekeeper	UCN: onye ne dokwume uno Gloss: Person REL PRO (that) arrange house English: Housekeeper	
Timekeeper	UCN: onye ne che oge Gloss: Person REL PRO (that) Keep time English: Timekeeper	
Mother tongue	UCN: asusu nne nmaru Gloss: Language mother (of) person English: Mother tongue	
Saucepan	UCN: ife we weri ne shite Gloss: Thing REL PRO (that is) use Prep (to) cook English: Saucepan	
Bricklayer	UCN: onye ne gwu uno Gloss: Someone REL PRO (that) build house English: Bricklayer	
Shopping centre	UCN: ebe we go ife Gloss: Place REL PRO (where) buy thing English: Shopping centre	
shoemaker	UCN: onye na ru akpukwu Gloss: Someone REL PRO (that) repair shoe	

	English: Shoemaker
Dishwasher	UCN: ife na cha efere Gloss: Thing REL PRO (that) wash plate English: Dishwasher
Fire truck	UCN: ugbo ne meyun oku Gloss: Car REL PRO (that) quenches fire English: Fire truck
Moneylender	UCN: onye ne ziye nmaru ego Gloss: Someone REL PRO (that) borrow person money English: Moneylender
Schoolwork	UCN: olu unoekukwo Gloss: Work house book English: Schoolwork
Watchmaker	UCN: onye ne me npochieka Gloss: Someone REL Pr that makes watch English: Watchmaker
House teacher	UCN: uno onye nkusi Gloss: House someone REL Pr that teaches English: House teacher
Salesman	UCN: onye ne le ife Gloss: Someone REL Pr that sell thing English: Salesman
Backscratcher	UCN: onye na ko azu Gloss: Someone REL Pro who scratches back English: Backscratcher
Storeroom	UCN: ukpo iche ife Gloss: Room store thing English: Storeroom
Toothpaste	UCN: ife ichuchu eze Gloss: Thing wash teeth English: Toothpaste
Rainforest	UCN: nmiri ozuzwe ugboko Gloss: water fall forest English: Rainforest
	UCN: egba oma

	Gloss: Agegroup good
	English: Friendship
Friendship	
	UCN: azu ibe ekwukwo
	Gloss: Back piece book
	English: Paperback
Paperback	
	UCN: epeti onuoru
	Gloss: Box workplace
	English: Box office
Box Office	
	UCN: afia npuru oshishi
	Gloss: Market seed tree
	English: Fruit market
Fruit market	
	UCN: apari oche ugbo
	Gloss: Rope chair car
	English: Seatbelt
Seatbelt	
	UCN: uno ego uwa
	Gloss: House money world
	English: World Bank
World Bank	
	UCN: epa iri efifie
	Gloss: Bag food afternoon
	English: Lunch pack
Lunch Pack	

Adjective-Noun		8

Sweetmeat	UCN: anu soni enine
	Gloss: food REL PRO (that is) sweet
	English: Sweetmeat
Lukewarmness	UCN: naa nukpu noku naa nukpu noyi
	Gloss: Not too hot not too cold
	English: Lukewarmness
Underestimation	UCN: nepe ife
	Gloss: Look little something
	English: Underestimation
Lightweight	UCN: ife di nfe
	Gloss: Thing REL PRO (which) light
	English: Lightweight
Central Hospital	UCN: etiti uno ogwu
	Gloss: Middle house drug
	English: Central hospital

Babyface	UCN: isu nwam ofu Gloss: Face child new English: Babyface
Granddaughter	UCN: Nwanwa onyenye Gloss: Child's child female English: Granddaughter
Graadmother	UCN: nne nnem Gloss: mother mother my English: Grandmother

Noun-verb		5

Self-taught	UCN: ozi ewen nmaru Gloss: Teach self person English: Self-taught
Wrapping paper	UCN: ibe ekwukwo ikeme ife Gloss: Piece book tie thing English: Wrapping paper
Washday	UCN: Ubochi ichaife Gloss: Day wash thing English: Washday
Toothpaste	UCN: ori icha onu Gloss: Cream wash mouth English: Toothpaste
Toothpick	UCN: ntutu ifa eze Gloss: Pin pick tooth English: Toothpick

Noun-Adverb		1

Nearby	UCN: ebe di nswe Gloss: Place REL PRO (which) near English: Nearby

APPENDIX C

Ethical Approval

NAER EAST UNIVERSITY

SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

05.07.2021

Dear Grace Chinyenum Okolocha

Your application titled **"A Comparative Analysis Of Compound Nouns In English Andukwuani Languages"** with the application number NEU/ES/2021/708 has been evaluated by the Scientific Research Ethics Committee and granted approval. You can start your research on the condition that you will abide by the information provided in your application form.

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Direnç Kanol

Rapporteur of the Scientific Research Ethics Committee

Direnç Kanol

Note: If you need to provide an official letter to an institution with the signature of the Head of NEU Scientific Research Ethics Committee, please apply to the secretariat of the ethics committee by showing this document.

APPENDIX D

Grace okolocha M A thesis

Match Overview

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