DERIVATIONAL MORPHOLOGY IN *TSHIVENḐA*: AN ANALYSIS OF WORD-FORMATION PROCESSES

by

MAṰODZI ALPHEUS ṄENGOVHELA

Mini-dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF ARTS

in the

DEPARTMENT OF AFRICAN LANGUAGES

in the

FACULTY OF HUMANITIES

at the

UNIVERSITY OF LIMPOPO

SUPERVISOR: **PROF. R.N. MAḐADZHE**

APRIL 2005

DECLARATION

I, **MAṰODZI ALPHEUS NḐENGOVHELA**, hereby declare that **DERIVATIONAL MORPHOLOGY IN TSHIVEḐA: AN ANALYSIS OF WORD-FORMATION PROCESSES,** submitted to the University of Limpopo, has not previously been submitted for a degree at this or any other university and that it is my own work in design and in execution. All the reference materials contained therein have been fully acknowledged in this research.

.....
SIGNATURE

10-02-2006
DATE

UNIVERSITY OF LIMPOPO
TURFLOOP CAMPUS
LIBRARY

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to the following:

My wife	:	TSHIILA PATRICIA
My parents	:	MUDIVHANI JOHANNES and KHAUKANANI SAMARIA
My daughters	:	FHUMULANI and RABELANI
My sons	:	AWELANI, IPFI and FHUNGO.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

To conduct a research requires patience, inspiration, dedication, encouragement and perseverance. This research was possible due to the contribution of various people who provided information and comments relating to derivational morphology in *Tshivenḓa*. I can mention but a few of them.

First, I am so deeply touched by my supervisor, Prof. R.N. Maḓadzhe's tireless encouragement, assistance, and guiding comments throughout my academic programme. This study would not have been accomplished without his practical and moral support. He is a 'helpmate' that every person dreams of. And so, my family and I salute him and wish his life to be filled with glory.

I am also grateful to the Senate Committee of the University of Limpopo who approved my research proposal.

My gratitude also goes to my wife, Tshiila Patricia, who remained humble, caring, supportive, loving, and eased any tension throughout this study.

A word of thanks is conveyed to my classmates, Messrs K.T. Ṋemakonde, and I.S. Mukoṋdeleli, educators at Fondwe Primary and Khalavha Primary School respectively, for their assistance, encouragement, and motivation during my studies. To my friend, Mr M R Mabannda for your timely advice, motivation, and for being a stable source of support during difficulties. I offer a humble and sincere thank you.

My sincere thanks and appreciation are extended to the library assistants of both the University of Limpopo and the University of Venda for Science and Technology, for the assistance, cooperation, and patience they displayed throughout my study.

I want to acknowledge the unwavering assistance, dedication, and tolerance of Mrs C.R. Manaka and K. Radzilani for spending sleepless nights typing this thesis. May God richly bless you. Thanks to the editor, Prof M.J. Cloete, for editing my work.

Finally, a substantial debt of gratitude goes to the Almighty God for giving me the strength, courage, hope and knowledge to carry out this great work, and for having protected me throughout my academic career.

U ita thodisiso zwi toda vhurudzambilu, vhutokonyei, vhudinekedzi, u tutulea, u vhangulea na thuthuwedzo. Iyi thodisiso yo konadzea ngauri ha vha na vhathu vhanzhi vhe vha shela mulenzhe nga u nekedza mafhungo na mahumbulwa a elanaho na mofolodzhi wa u vhumba maipfi a tshi bva kha mafhwe a Tshivenda. Henefha ndi hune nda do tou bula vha si gathi.

Ndi thoma nga u pfa ndo kwamea, zwi tshi bva vhudzivhani, nga thuthuwedzo i sa divhi u neta, thuso na mihumbulo i sumbaho ndilangoho, zwi bvaho kha mutoli Phurofesa R.N. Madadzhe kha phurogireme yanga yothe ya akhademi. Nga nnda ha thikhedzo yavho, mushumo uyu wo vha u sa do fhela. Vha tou vha 'thama ya thuso' ine muthu mufhwe na mufhwe a lora u vha nayo. Ngauralo, nne na vha muta wanga ri a vha hulisa khathihi na u vha tamela zwivhuya zwothe vhutshiloni havho hothe. A vha ri tshileli.

Ndi dovha hafhu nda livhuwa komiti ya Sinethe ya Yunivesithi ya Limpopo ye ya themendela na u tendela khumbelo ya thodisiso yanga.

Ndivhuwo dza vhuthogwa dzi tou livha tswititi kha mufumakadzi wanga, Tshiila Patricia, kha u dzula vho dzika, vha tshi thogomela, vha tshi tikedza, u mpfuna na u dzikisa zwishaisavhudziki zwothe tshifhingani tsha mushumo uyu wa u guda.

Maipfi a ndivhuwo ndi a livhisa kha thamakilasini K. T. Nemakonde, na I.S. Mukondeleli, vhadededzi tshikoloni tsha Fondwe Phuraimari na Khalavha Phuraimari ngau tevhekana, malugana na thuso na thuthuwedzo kha ngudo iyi. Ni tou vha vhanna vha ntha vhukuma. Khonani yanga M. R. Mabannda; malugana na u ntonda nga mafhungo, thuthuwedzo na thikhedzo zwo dziaho misini ya vhukondi, ndi ni avhela 'ndi a ni livhuwa' yo fholaho na u dzikelela.

Ndi rumela ndivhuwo dza vhuthogwa kha vhathusi vha laiburari vha Yunivesithi ya Limpopo na Yunivesithi ya Venda ya Santsi na Thekhinolodzhi, malugana na thuso, tshumisano na u kondelela zwe vha ntonda ngazwo kha mushumo uyu wa u guda.

Ndi do nga mudziavivho arali ndi sa dzhiela ntha thuso i sa thengathengi, u dinetshedzela na u kondelela ha mme C.R. Manaka na K.Radzilani kha u lala vho dzula vha tshi thaipha mushumo uyu. Mudzimu kha vha pfumise nga phathutshedzo. Ndivhuwo dzi si na vhukono kha Phurofesa M.J. Cloete vhe vha dzudzanya na u ita uri luambo lu tokomelwe.

Ndi fhedza nga u hwedza ndivhuwo kha Mudzimu Ramaandaothe vhe vha ntonda nga nungo, thuthuwedzo, fulufhelo na ndivho ya u shuma mushumo mungafhangafha khathihi na u nkuvhatedza fhasi ha murunzi wavho u swika mushumo wanga wothe wa akhademi u tshi bvelaphanda.

ABSTRACT

Word - building falls into two board categories, namely, derivation, (the creation of lexical items) and inflection (the creation of grammatical words).

This study focuses on derivational morphology in *Tshivenḓa*. It reflects an analysis of different word-formation processes such as affixation, compounding, zero-derivation, back formation, clipping, blending, acronym, adoption of brand names as common words, borrowing, anomatopoeia, transposition, and stress-shift.

This work shows that *Tshivenḓa* derivations enable us to form new words by recycling the pre-existing material (morphemes and words), that is, to add new lexical items to the open word-classes such as nouns and verbs. It will also be evident from this work that it is possible to create new words in *Tshivenḓa* by removing or reducing some parts of the words.

This work will show how *Tshivenḓa* terminology can be updated to cope with the demands of present-day life.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION.....1
1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE PROBLEM.....1
1.2 AIMS OF THE STUDY.....12
1.3 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY.....12
1.4 RATIONALE.....13
1.5 RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS.....13
1.6 METHODOLOGY.....14
1.6.1. The qualitative research method.....14
1.6.2. Collection of information.....14
1.6.2.1 The primary research method.....14
1.6.2.2 The secondary research method.....14
1.7 LITERATURE REVIEW.....15
1.7.1 Mamphwe (1987).....15
1.7.2 Nemadzivhanani (1989).....17
1.7.3 Nthambeleni (1998).....17
1.7.4 Musehane (1995).....18
1.7.5 Ziervogel, Wentzel, and Makuya (1987).....19
1.7.6 Poulos (1990).....20
1.7.7 Du Plessis and Madadzhe (1999).....21
1.8 CONCLUSION.....23

CHAPTER TWO: AFFXATION, COMPOUNDING, AND ZERO-DERIVATION.....25
2.1 INTRODUCTION.....25
2.2 THE AIM.....25
2.3 AFFIXATION.....25
2.3.1 DEFINITION.....25
2.3.2 WORD-BUILDING WITH AFFIXES.....27
2.3.3 THE EFFECT OF TSHIVENDA PREFIXES ON WORD-FORMATION.29
2.3.4 THE EFFECT OF TSHIVENDA SUFFIXES ON WORD-FORMATION.35
2.3.5 WORD-FORMATION WITH VERBAL EXTENSIONS.....37
2.3.6 DERIVED NOMINAL ROOTS WITH AFFIXES –I OR –0.....42
2.4 COMPOUNDING.....43
2.4.1 DEFINITION.....43
2.4.2WORD-FORMATION BY COMPOUNDING.....45
2.4.2.1 Noun and noun compounding.....45
2.4.2.2 Noun and adjective compounding.....47
2.4.2.3 Verb and adverb compounding.....48
2.4.2.4 Verb and pronoun compounds.....49
2.4.2.5 Verb and pronoun compounds.....49
2.4.2.6 Nouns derived from reduplicated verb stems.....50
2.4.2.7 Compounding with a preposition.....50
2.4.2.8 Verb and verb compounding.....51
2.4.2.9 Verb and adjective compounding.....52
2.4.2.10 Verb, conjunction, and pronoun compounding.....52
2.4.2.11 Verb, preposition, and pronoun compounding.....52
2.4.2.12 Compound verbs.....53

2.4.2.13 Endocentric and exocentric compounds.....53
2.5 DERIVATION.....58
2.5.1 DEFINITION.....58
2.5.2 WORD-FORMATION BY CONVERSION.....59
2.5.2.1 Noun verb conversion (N → V).....59
2.5.2.2 Singular plural conversion.....60
2.6 SUMMARY.....61

CHAPTER THREE: BACKFORMATION, BLENDING, CLIPPING, ACRONYMY, AND ADOPTION OF BRAND NAMES AS COMMON WORDS.....63
3.1 INTRODUCTION.....63
3.2 THE AIM.....63
3.3 BACKFORMATION.....63
3.3.1 DEFINITION.....63
3.3.2 WORD-FORMATION WITH BACKFORMATION.....64
3.4 BLENDING.....66
3.4.1 DEFINITION.....66
3.4.2 WORD-FORMATION WITH BLENDING.....67
3.4.2.1 Blending in ordinary nouns.....67
3.4.2.2 Blending in names of places.....68
3.5 CLIPPING.....69
3.5.1 DEFINITION.....69
3.5.2 WORD-FORMATION BY CLIPPING.....70
3.5.2.1 Fore-clip.....70
3.5.2.2 Back-clip.....71

3.6 ACRONYM FORMATION.....74
3.6.1 DEFINITION.....74
3.6.2 WORD-BUILDING WITH ACRONYMS.....75
3.7 ADOPTION OF BRAND NAMES AS COMMON WORDS.....86
3.7.1 DEFINITION.....86
3.7.2 WORD-BUILDING WITH BRAND NAMES.....87
3.8 SUMMARY.....90

CHAPTER FOUR: BORROWING, ONOMATOPOEIA, TRANSPOSITION, AND STRESS-SHIFT.....92
4.1 INTRODUCTION.....92
4.2 THE AIM.....92
4.3 BORROWING.....92
4.3.1 DEFINITION.....92
4.3.2 WORD-FORMATION WITH BORROWING.....94
4.3.2.1 Borrowing from English and Afrikaans.....94
4.3.2.2 Borrowing from African languages.....100
4.3.2.3 Extending indigenous word.....101
4.3.2.4 Loan-translation.....103
4.3.2.5 Borrowed words and their *Tshivenḓa* equivalents.....104
4.4 ONOMATOPOEIA.....106
4.4.1 DEFINITION.....106
4.4.2 WORD-FORMATION WITH ONOMATOPOEIA.....107
4.4.2.1 Sounds of animals.....107
4.5.2 WORD-FORMATION WITH TRANSPOSITION.....114
4.5.2.1 Verbal transposition.....114

4.5.2.2 Manipulation of consonants.....118
4.6 STRESS-SHIFT.....119
4.7 SUMMARY.....121

CHAPTER FIVE

5.1 CONCLUSION.....123
5.2 RECOMMENDATIONS.....129
BIBLIOGRAPHY.....130

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. BACKGROUND TO THE PROBLEM

Akmajian, Demers, Farmer, and Harnish (1993:486) define morphology as the subfield of Linguistics that studies the internal structure of words and the relationships among words. Spears (1991:53) stresses this point when he defines derivation as the process of forming a new word from an existing word, often changing the part of speech in the process.

From the above definitions, it is clear that derivational morphology concerns the word- formation process by recycling pre-existing materials. That is, new words can be formed by means of derivation or a combination of existing words. For example, a number of words may be derived from the verb stem –end- (travel).

(1) -end- (travel)

(a)	*muendi*	(traveler)
(b)	*lwendo*	(journey/trip)
(c)	*tshienda*	(shoe)
(d)	*tshiendedzi*	(vehicle)
(e)	*zhendedzi*	(agent)
(f)	*vhuendi*	(traffic)
(g)	*-endedza*	(to transport)
(h)	*endedzi*	(of transporting)
(i)	*endi*	(of moving)

(j) *muendanganayo* (pedestrian)
(k) *vhuendelamashango* (tourism)
(l) *tshiendatshikhalani* (spacecraft)

In the above examples, each derived word has retained the verb stem *–end-*, (travel/move). Where this verb stem is non-existent, the formation of new words would be impossible. It is also obvious that the word category has changed; for instance, *-enda* (travel) is a verb, whereas *muendi* (traveler) is a noun.

There are rules by which complex words are built up from simpler words and morphemes and, conversely, these rules permit complex words to be broken up into simpler ones.

In the examples in (1) above, some of the most common word-formation processes have been employed to derive new words and this can be illustrated as follows:

(2) *-enda* <

(a) *mu-end-i* (traveler) (affixation)
(b) *vhu-end-ela* + *ma-shango* (tourism) (compounding)
(c) *me-end-a* + *nga* + *nayo* (pedestrian) (prepositional compounding)
(d) *end-i* (of traveling) (ideophone derived from verb root).

The noun *muendi* (traveler) has been derived by prefixing the Class 1 *mu-* and the suffixing terminating vowel-***i*** to the verb stem *–end-*(travel). This is affixation. The compound noun *vhuendelamashango* (tourism) is derived by prefixing the Class 14 *vhu-* and suffixing the applied extension *–el-*to the verb stem – *end-*

(travel) plus prefixing the Class 6 *ma-* to the noun *shango* (country). This is compounding.

It is quite difficult, if not impossible, to communicate effectively in *Tshivenḓa* without the use of the derived lexicon suitable for contemporary culture and civilization. Thus, it is quite essential to study the derivation of this integral part of language.

One of the greatest challenges facing *Tshivenḓa* today is to use it as a vehicle of science, mathematics, and technology teaching and learning. The *Tshivenḓa* language requires high levels of generic terminology to cope with the rapid changes in the technology and information areas ushered in by globalization. Therefore, *Tshivenḓa* terminology must be of economic value to the learner outside the classroom. This can be accomplished by, *inter alia,* updating the lexicon by the derivation of new words from the existing one; hence the study of this nature.

It is for this reason that Mabelebele and Sibuyi (2000:8) comment as follows:

> The challenge for universities is to resuscitate the significance and value of African languages, not only as academic subjects, but as economic resources and embodiment of the cultural heritage of their speakers.

The *Tshivenḓa* language often experiences the problem of lack of a vocabulary that is usually utilized in fields such as the sciences, law, commerce, health, and sports. The solution to this problem lies in the development of *Tshivenḓa* language by, among others, the analysis of *Tshivenḓa* word-formation processes

and the formation of new words from existing ones. Otherwise, *Tshivenḓa* will become less significant in the field of science and other societal imperatives.

In normal life, speakers invent or coin new words to name previously non-existent objects that result from technological changes. For example:

(3) a. *lutshekasi* (checkers)
b. *khirimora* (cremora)

Lutshekasi, in (3a) above, is a new addition to the *Tshivenḓa* vocabulary. The word comes from the name Checkers, a trade name for a retail shop that used light plastic bags for carrying groceries bought from the shop, but has come to denote any light plastic bag in general. *Khirimora,* in (3b) above, is the name of a tea and coffee creamer that has come to denote any tea or coffee creamer despite the apparent differences among the various brands that have appeared on the market.

Acronyms constantly enter the *Tshivenḓa* vocabulary and thus need further analysis. Rubba (2004:5) explains acronym formation as follows:

> Forming words from the initials of a group of words that designate one concept, usually but not always capitalized. An acronym is pronounced as a word if the consonants and vowels line up in such a way as to make this possible, otherwise it is pronounced as a string of letter names.

In simple terms, an acronym is a word formed from the first letters of the original words, for example:

(4) *Tshikevha:* *Tshikolo tsha kereke ya vhadzulapo/vhapo.*
(School for the residents' church members.)

Tshikevha in example (4) is the name of a school. The nouns which have been used in deriving this noun are: *tshikolo* (school), *kereke* (church), and *vhadzulapo* (residents). In addition, *Tshivenḓa* speakers use most acronyms as they appear in English, for example:

(5) PIN: Personal Identification Number.

When a *Tshivenḓa* speaker wants to say he or she has forgotten his or her Personal Identification Number, he or she says:

(6) Ndo hangwa PIN yanga.
(I have forgotten my PIN)

In addition, *Tshivenḓa* utilizes blending as another way of word-formation. According to Kruiper and Allan (1996:184), new words are occasionally formed by putting the first part of one word together with the second part of another as a blend. What they are saying is that taking only the beginning of one word and joining it to the end of the other word accomplish blending. That is why Beuer (1988:39) remarks that: "In some cases two words are simply merged where they overlap, so that no information is lost, but repetition of letter combination is avoided".

In *Tshivenḓa*, this fusion of two words into one is mostly evident in the fusion of some nouns to derive other nouns as illustrated below:

(7)	a.	mutsi	+	maḓi	>	mutsiḓi	(water vapour)
	b.	mulindi	+	maḓi	>	mulondoḓi	(borehole)

In (7a) above, the first part of he noun *mutsi* (smoke) has been affixed to the second part of the noun *maḓi* (water) to derive the noun *mutsiḓi* (water vapour), while the first part of the noun *mulindi* (hole) in (7b) has been affixed to the second part of *maḓi* (water) to derive the noun *mulondoḓi* (borehole).

Clipping also plays a major role in word formation in various languages. Quirk and Greenbaum (1993:448) explain clipping as the term that denotes the substraction of one or more syllables from a word.

Nemadzivhanani (1989:42) quotes Fromkin and Rodman who state "clipping is the cutting off of the beginning or the end of a word or both, leaving a part to stand for the whole". Clipping, therefore, occurs when a word of many syllabuses is reduced to a shorter form and clipping is the latest development in *Tshivenḓa*. The clipped form tends to be used especially in casual speech (informal style) and occurs mostly with proper names of children or young people as shown below:

Fore-clip

(8)	a.	*Khathusthelo*	:	*Khathu*
	b.	*Fhumulani*	:	*Fhumu*

Back – clip

(9) a. *Thivhafuni* : *Funi*
b. *Azwimmbavhi* : *Mbavhi.*

Fore- and back – clip

(10) a. Azwihangwisi : *Hangwi*
b. *Mukondeleli* : *Kondi*

Some nouns can be clipped either fore, back or both. These names or nouns may share the same clipping. This makes it difficult to find the original name or noun. This is evident in the following examples:

(11) a. *Rotondwa, Tondani, Mutondi,* and *Mutondavenda.* These share the clipping *Tondi,* while

b. *Funanani, Lufuno, Mpfuneni, Thivhafuni* and *Avhafunani* share the clipping *Funi.*

Nevertheless, clipping is another important method of noun formation in *Tshivenda.* As far as backformation is concerned, Richards, Platt and Weber (1985:24) explain " When a new word is made by the removal of an affix from an existing word, this is called backformation".

The chopped-off bit, in backformation, is a recognizable affix or word, unlike in clipping where the cut-off part is not interpretable as an affix, for example:

		Existed earlier	**formed later by backformation**	
(12)	a.	*muṅwali* (writer)	*u ṅwala*	(to write)
	b.	*tshilimo* (summer)	*u lima*	(to plough).

The verb-*ṅwala* (write), in 12(a), is formed from the noun *muṅwali* (writer) by the removal of the class 1 prefix *mu-;* while the verb *–lima* (plough) in (12b) is derived from the noun *tshilimo* (summer) by the removal of the Class 7 prefix tshi-. It is common knowledge that adding affixes to the existing words usually forms new words, but in backformation, it is done by the subtraction or removal of affixes.

Another word-formation process that plays an important role in *Tshivenḓa* is zero-derivation that Katamba (1993: 55) describes thus:

> Words may be formed without modifying the form of the input word that serves as the base... This is called conversion... Conversion is also referred to as zero-derivation in literature... It is claimed that zero morphs (i.e. ones lacking any overt marking) are used as suffixes in derivational morphology as well.

Zero-derivation may be illustrated as follows:

(13)	a.	*fula*$_N$ (marula fruit)	:	*Fula*$_N$ *ḽo vhibva.* (The marula fruit has ripened).
	b.	*fula*$_V$ (to pick)	:	*Munna u fula*$_V$ *swiri.* (The man picks an orange).

c. *Munna u ḓo fula$_V$ fula$_N$.*
(The man will pick the marula fruit).

The verb *–fula* ("to pick) in (13b) is derived by affixing the zero morph to the noun *fula* (marula fruit) in (13a); while (13c) shows that it is sometimes possible in *Tshivenḓa* to use the two words (the same word in different categories: *fula$_N$* and *fula$_V$* (in one sentence. It is not easy to find out whether or not words such as *fula* (to pick/marula fruit) and *mala* (to marry/intestines) are verbs or nouns without using them in sentences. A thorough analysis thus needs to be conducted to find out whether or not conversion is restricted to nouns and verbs only.

Du Plessis and Maḓadzhe (1999:291) mention that the lexicon may transpose any other member of any major lexical class (N, V, A) to any other major lexical class by providing it only with the lexical G-features of the base, as indicated in the following examples:

(14)	a.	*-denya$_A$*	(thick)	<	*-denyefhal-a$_V$* (become thick)
	b.	*swiswi$_N$*	(darkness)	<	*-swifhal-a$_V$* (become dark)
	c.	*tevhula$_V$*	(spills)	<	*-tevhuwa$_V$* (spills).

In (14a) the verb- *denyefhal-a* (becomes thick) is derived from the adjective *–denya* (thick) (A → V), the verb *–swifhal-a* (become dark), in (14b) is derived from the noun *swiswi* (darkness) (N → V) by providing them only with the lexical G-features of the base, and the suffix *–fhal-* is affixed; while in (14c) above the transposition does not change the lexical category (V → V). A more detailed analysis is needed to establish whether or not *Tshivenḓa* words can undergo transposition as:

(15) a. A → N: *nak-a*$_A$ (beautiful) < *lunako*$_N$ (beauty)

b. N → adv: *vhudi*$_N$ (good) < *zwavhudi*$_{adv}$ (well).

and

by manipulating or changing the positions or orders of the consonants of the root morphemes independently of the rest of the sounds in a word to form new words:

(16) a. *vhana*$_N$ (children) >*-navha*$_V$ (to stretch legs while sitting)

b. *dzofha*$_N$ (thick blood) > *fhodza*$_V$ (to cause to heal)

c. *-tala*$_V$ (to divorce) > *lata*$_V$ (to throw away).

Compounding is another vital part of word formation as its use often results in the creation of new words. According to Seidenberg and Gonnerman (2001:16), compounding is the process by which existing words are combined to form new words. Examining the following examples can indicate this:

(17) a. *khoro* + *tshitumbe* < *khorotshitumbe* (executive committee)

b. *mudzuli* + *tshidulo* < *mudzulatshidulo* (chairperson)

c. *dzinga* + *mufhe* < *dzingamufhe* (atmosphere)

Lexical borrowing, that is the taking over of words from other languages, is one of the most common sources of new words in *Tshivenḓa*, Robins (1989:355) explains how borrowing comes about:

> Any cultural contact, especially with speakers of a language who enjoy political power or prestige in any sphere, leads to a considerable amount of borrowing of vocabulary from the language in the sphere concerned.

Tshivenda has many words borrowed from English and Afrikaans:

(18)	a.	*phaḽamennde*	(Parliament)	(English)
	b.	*dzhekiseni*	(injection)	(English)
	c.	*tshiporo*	(spoor)	(Afrikaans)
	d.	*tie*	(tee)	(Afrikaans)

This study will argue that *Tshivenḓa* cannot keep on borrowing words but must create its own words from the existing lexical stock or invent entirely new creations. If *Tshivenḓa* must use borrowed words, their use should be restricted to specific spheres where *Tshivenḓa* words are non- existent. In addition, it is disconcerting to note that most of the borrowed words are competing with *Tshivenḓa* equivalents. In other words, most of the borrowed words have *Tshivenḓa* synonyms that may be more convenient to use than the borrowed ones.
For examples:

(19)

	Borrowing	From	Tshivenḓa synonym
a.	*mara*	maar (Afrikaans)	*ḓhedzi*
b.	*baisigira*	bicycle (English)	*lukanyakanya*
c.	*mungana*	monghana (Tsonga)	*khonani /thama*
d.	*voutha*	vote (English)	*khetha*
e.	*aphuresheni*	operation (English)	*muaro*

Through an in-depth study of this nature, *Tshivenḓa* borrowings will in due course give way to their *Tshivenḓa* equivalents.

From the aforegoing discussion, it is evident that there are still problems associated with word-formation processes in *Tshivenḓa* and it is, therefore, appropriate that an in-depth study be conducted on them.

1.2 AIMS OF THE STUDY

The aim of this study is to analyse the word-formation processes in *Tshivenḓa* (derivational morphology in *Tshivenḓa*) with a view of establishing how various words get derived from the existing lexical items and how the *Tshivenḓa* lexicon can be extended to cope with the demands of present-day life.

1.3 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

In view of what has already been said in the previous paragraphs, it may be observed that this study will help to resolve a number of issues in as far as *Tshivenḓa* wordformation processes are concerned.

Not all English word-formation processes, for example, are applicable to *Tshivenḓa*. This study will also help to determine which of these processes are suitable and which are not.

In addition, this study will serve as a springboard for *Tshivenḓa* speakers to use the language as a vehicle of science, mathematics, technology teaching, and learning. Through this study, the expansion of the lexicon by means of word-formation will enable *Tshivenḓa* to cope with new styles and forms of discourse, while simultaneously helping to alleviate terminology shortage.

1.4. RATIONALE

The analysis of derivation morphology in *Tshivenḓa* aims at aiding speakers with the understanding of word-formation processes in *Tshivenḓa* as well as the way in which these processes affect the development of *Tshivenḓa* in various fields such as the sciences, medicine, and law.

1.5 RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

This study is undertaken to validate the following hypotheses:

* Affixes such as prefixes and suffixes play an important role in word formation in *Tshivenḓa;* and

* Compounding, clipping, zero-derivation, blending, borrowing, onomatopoeia, and transposition are possible in *Tshivenḓa*.

1.6 METHODOLOGY

To be effective and credible, a study of this nature requires a variety of research methodologies. The following research methods will be employed:

1.6.1 The qualitative research method

The qualitative research method will be used in this study, as it will give insight into the topic under discussion.

1.6.2. Collection of information

To gather information about word-formation processes using the existing lexical items in *Tshivenḓa*, the researcher intends to use the following methods:

1.6.2.1 The primary research method

The primary research method is a method whereby firsthand information is obtained from respondents. Thus, speakers of *Tshivenḓa*, its students, teachers, and learners will be consulted to obtain information about word-formation processes.

1.6.2.2. The secondary research method

The secondary research method entails the collection of data from journal articles, academic books, newspapers, magazines, the Internet, manuals and dissertations.

This method will also be used to establish as accurately as possible, the importance and relevance of the subject matter already used by a variety of scholars.

1.7 LITERATURE REVIEW

Thus far, *Tshivenḓa* scholars have undertaken no in-depth study on word formation processes using the existing lexical items. Among those who have examined this subject are Mamphwe (1987); Ṋemadzivhanani (1989); Poulos (1990); Ziervogel, Wentzel, and Makuya (1987); Musehane (1995); Du Plessis and Maḓadzhe (1999); and Nthambeleni (1998).

1.7.1. Mamphwe (1987)

Mamphwe has endeavoured to analyse the derivation of ideophones in *Tshivenda* by focusing on the following:

*	basic ideophones	-	onomatopoeic ideophones
		-	non-onomatopoeic ideophones
*	derived ideophones	-	ideophones derived from verb stems
		-	ideophones derived from extended verb stems.

Mamphwe (1987) also gives an account of derivation of ideophones from different senses such as hearing, taste, touch, sight, smell, and the sense of inner feeling, but omits the following:

* The sounds of words that imitate the sound of animals and birds, for examples:

(20) a. *kukuliku* (sound made by a cock)
b. *homu* (sound made by a baboon).

* The original sound of language that comes from natural cries of emotions (pain, anger, joy, fear, and surprise).

For example:

(21) a. *yowee* (from pain /fear).
b. *hei-hei* (from anger)
c. *ixaee* (from joy)
d. *evho* (from surprise).

* The sound of a person involved in physical efforts, for example:

(22) a. *hophu* (of pulling / lifting).
b. *nnkh* (of pulling / pushing /lifting).

* The sound sequence that seems to relate to a particular concept, for instance sight:

(23) *-vhona* (see) - *lavhelesa, -vhonela, -sedzela,*
- *todzimela, -tolela, -tielela,*
- *talela, -zwondolola*

Mamphwe's work does not include other word-formation processes such as coinage, zero-derivation, and transposition.

1.7.2. Nemadzivhanani (1989)

Nemadzivhanani as endeavoured to account for some of the important word formation processes, but does not mention that *Tshikevha* (name of a school at Thohoyandou) is an acronym that has merged into blend when more than one letter is taken from each of the words *tshikolo* (school), *kereke* (church), and *vhapo* (residents). An acronym is derived from the first letters of a group of words, whereas a blend is a fusion of the first part of one word and the second part of the other word, for example:

(24) Blend: *mutsidi* (water vapour) < *mutsi* (smoke) + *madi* (water).

Moreover, Nemadzivhanani (1989) does not give an adequate account of clipping because she does not explain that it too occurs with borrowed words such as:

(25) a. *founu* < *thelefounu* (telephone)
b. *fekisi* < *fekisimaili* (facsimile).

1.7.3 Nthambeleni (1998)

Nthambeleni gives a sound account of the derivation of verbs by affixing extensions. His discussion includes the following extensions:

* The applied extension *(-el-)*
* The passive extension *(-w-/-iw-)*
* The causative extension *(-is-)*
* The causative extension *(-y-)*
* The reversive extension *(-ulul-, -olol-, -uluw-,-olow-)*
* The reciprocal extension *(-an-)*
* The intensive extension *(-es-)*
* The neuter extension *(-ol-)* and
* The neuter extension *(-e-)*.

Nthambeleni (1998) gives sound explanation of the derivation of verbs by affixing extensions but does not explain the origin of words like *edela* (sleep) and *fana* (alike), which can be erroneously classified under applied extension and the reciprocal, respectively, since they contain the applied *–el-* and reciprocal extension –an-.

Moreover, Nthambeleni (1998) does not include word-formation processes such as onomatopoeia, blending, and clipping.

1.7.4 Musehane (1995)

Musehane includes a number of different ways in which nouns can be formed. It is interesting to note that he adds the feminine affix *-kadzi*, the masculine affix *–lume*, diminutive affixes *–an-*and *–nyana*, and the locative *–ni* to verbal affixes. His discussion embraces the following:

* Derivation of abstract nouns from common nouns;
* Derivation of diminutive nouns from common nouns;
* Nominal roots derived from nouns;
* Roots derived from absolute pronouns;
* Roots derived from adjectives;
* Nominal roots derived from ideophones;
* Derived nominal roots with affixes *–o or– I*: deverbatives;
* Nominal roots with verbal extensions (*-el-*, *-is-*, *-y-*, *-al-*, *-an-* and *–w-/-iw-);*
* Nouns with feminine affix *–kadzi;*
* Nouns with the masculine affix *–lume;*
* Nouns with the diminutive affix *–ana* and *–nyana;*
* Nouns with the locative affix *–ni;*
* Compound nouns derived from noun + noun;
* Compound nouns derived from noun + root;
* Compound nouns derived from root + root; and
* Verbal compound nouns.

Musehane's (1995) work does not account for the formation of verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and ideophones. Like Nthambeleni (1998), Musehane (1995) does not include other word-formation processes such as anomatopoeia, blending, backformation, clipping, and zero-derivation.

1.7.5. Ziervogel, Wentzel, and Makuya (1987)

Ziervogel, *et. al.,* (1987) have also endevoured to analyse *Tshivenda* word-formation processes by focusing on the following:

* The deverbatives in the class1, 2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,14,20,and 21;
* The derivation of verbs by affixing the extensions *(-an-, -is-, -el-, -iw-/ -w-, -e-,-al-);*
* The gender and noun suffixes *–kadzi* and *–lume;*
* The nouns derived from diminutive suffix –ana and –nyana;
* The classes of the borrowed words;
* The derivation of ideophones, adverbs, adjectives and compound nouns; and
* Stress and intonation.

Instead of discussing stress-shift, Ziervogel, et al. argue that tonal modulation of speech plays an important role in *Tshivenḓa* and consequently conclude that the meaning of words may be distinguished by tone only. This argument can be contested about the insignificance of stress-shift in *Tshivenḓa*. An in-depth study on this subject still needs to be made.

1.7.6. Poulos (1990)

Poulos's (1990) work focuses on the following derivation processes in *Tshivenḓa:*

* The derivation of nouns from different classes;
* The derivation of nouns from other categories such as
  - verbal forms (deverbatives),
  - qualificatives (dequalificative nouns),
  - ideophones (de-ideophonic nouns),
  - pronouns (depronominal nouns);

* The formation of compound nouns;
* Adopted nouns;
* The formation of verbs by affixing the extensions *(-el-, -al-, -an-, -y-, -is-, -iw-, -e-, -es-, -el-, Vkan-);* and
* The formation of adverbs by using the following affixes: associative *na-;* comperative *sa-;* locatives *ha-, kha-, -ni,* and temporal *ka-).*

It is interesting to note that Poulos (1990) adds the extension *–Vkan-* to the formation of verbs using verbal extensions. 'V' represents three possible vowels that may occur in the initial position, namely, *e, u* or *o.* For example:

(26) a. *-ekan-:* *-suk-* (knead) > *-sukekany-* (knead thoroughly).
b. *-ukan-:* *-afhi-* (break) > *-afhukan-* (to break into pieces)
c. *-okan-:* *-ṭom-* (loose) > *-ṭomokan-* (become loose).

The affix *–Vkan-* is intensive and repetitive. Although Poulos (1990) includes the derivation of adverbs in his discussion, he has not done enough since he does not account for onomatopoeia, clipping, backformation, blending, acronym, zero-derivation, transportation, and the adoption of brand names as common words.

1.7.7. Du Plessis and Maḍadzhe (1999)

Du Plessis and Maḍadzhe's (1999) discussion includes the four types of derivation rules under the lexical derivational categories, namely,

* Feature value switches;
* Expressive derivations;

* Transposition; and

* Functional L-derivations.

Du Plessis and Madadzhe (1999) substantiate their arguments with *Tshivenda* examples. In certain instances, they give Sotho or Nguni examples as well but do not state whether there are suitable *Tshivenda* examples or not. This needs to be analysed further. Moreover, Du Plessis and Madadzhe (1999) do not mention transposing consonants, that is, where the word changes from one category to another, for example:

(27) a. *dzema*$_N$ (habit) → *medza*$_V$ (cause to germinate).

b. *mbudzi*$_N$ (goat) → *dzumbi*$_V$ (of hiding).

In (27a) and (27b), the transposition of consonants changes the category and meaning of the word. This kind of transposition needs to be analysed critically.
Du Plessis and Madadzhe (1999) as well do not include word-formation processes such as onomatopoeia, blending, clipping, and backformation.

Although the above-mentioned works have made a significant contribution to word formation in *Tshivenda*, none of them has answered the questions asked in 1 such as how can *Tshivenda* be used as a vehicle of science, mathematics, technology, teaching, and learning.

1.8. CONCLUSION

The afore-going discussions indicate that although much has already been done in as far as word-formation in *Tshivenḓa* is concerned, there is, nonetheless, still a number of word formation processes the require academic scrutiny.

1.9. ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY

The dissertation will thus have the following organization:

CHAPTER ONE

Background of the problem
Aims of the study
Significance of the study
Rationale
Research hypothesis
Methodology
Literature review
Organisation of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

Affixation, compounding, and zero-derivation.

CHAPTER THREE

Backformation, blending, clipping, acronymy, and adoption of brand names as common words.

CHAPTER FOUR

Borrowing, onomatopoeia, transposition, and stress-shifts.

CHAPTER FIVE

Conclusion

REFERENCES

CHAPTER TWO

AFFIXATION, COMPOUNDING AND ZERO-DERIVATION

2.1. INTRODUCTION

Word-building processes fall into two broad categories, namely, inflection and derivation. Inflection is driven by the requirement to form a word with a suitable form in a particular grammatical context. Derivation is motivated by the desire to create new items using pre-existing morphemes and words, rather than creating it.

2.2. THE AIM

The aim of this chapter is to establish how the three major word –formation processes, namely, affixation, compounding and zero-derivation (conversion), contribute to the creation of new words by recycling pre-existing material.

2.3. AFFIXATION

2.3.1 DEFINITION

A very important means of word formation involves building up complex words from base morphemes and affixes. Katamba (1993:44) explains an affix as a morpheme, which only occurs when attached to some other morpheme or morphemes such as root, stem, or base.

In *Tshivenḓa*, an affix is obviously a meaningful part of a word, which can be broken off but cannot stand on its own. That is, an affix is never a word in its own right, but always needs a stem (which can be a word) to attach to. For example:

(28)			**Base**	**Affix**
a.	*mubiki* (cook)	<	*-bik-* (cook)	*mu-*
b.	*-imbela* (sing for)	<	*-imb-* (sing)	*-el-*

In example (28a), the noun *mubiki* (cook) is formed by attaching or affixing the Class 1 prefix *mu-* to the base *–bik-* (cook), while the verb *–imbela* (sing for) is formed by affixing the suffix -el- to the base *–imb-* (sing). This process of word formation is called affixation. Crystal (1991:12) defines affixation as follows:
" The morphological process whereby grammatical or lexical information is added to a stem is known as affixation".

By this Crystal means that in affixation, an affix is added to a stem or base to yield a complex stem. According to Hurford (1994:13), affixes are either prefixes, attaching to the front of words, or suffixes attaching to the back of words, the process of affixation in *Tshivenda* may, therefore, be divided into prefixation and suffixation, depending on whether the affix is added before the base or after it, for example:

(29) a. *vhudavhidzani* (communication) < *-davhidz-* (to communicate) + *vhu-*
b. *–davhidzana* (communicating) < *-davhidz-* (to communicate) + *-an-*

In example (29a), the Class 14 prefix **vhu-** is added before the base *–davhidz-* (to communicate) to form the noun *vhudavhidzani* (communication). This is called prefixation. Example (29b) indicates that the suffix –an-, which is a reciprocal verbal extension, is added after the base *–davhidz-* (to communicate) to form the reciprocal verb *–davhidzana* (to communicate). This is known as suffixation.

2.3.2.WORD –BUILDING WITH AFFIXES

It has already been mentioned in the above paragraphs that:

- a prefix is an affix which precedes the stem or root of the word, such as *mu-,zwi-, dzin-, di-*, and *vhu-*, and

- a suffix follows the stem of a word, such as *–el-, -ulul-, -e-, -w-, -is-* and *–kadzi.*

Words can be built by the following as well:

(a) Prefix + root

(30) a. *mu-(*Class1) + *-tumbul-* (to invent) > *mutumbuli* (inventor)
b. *vhu-* (Class14)+ *-lapf-* (long) >*vhulapfu* (length)
c. *tshi-* (Class 7) + *-rathis-* (to transmit) > *tshirathisi* (transmitter)

In the example (30a) above, the Class 1 prefix *mu-*has been affixed or added to the root - *tumbul-* (to invent) to form the noun *mutumbuli* (inventor). The Class 14 the prefix *vhu-* in (30c) above is attached to the root – *lapf-* (long) to form the noun *vhulapfu* (length); while the noun *tshirathisi* (transmitter) is the result of the addition of the Class 7 prefix *tshi-* to the root – *rathis-* (to transmit).

(b) Root + suffix

(31) a. *-vhofh-* (fasten)+ *-ulul-* > *-vhofhulula* (loosen)
b. *-far-* (hold) + *-is-* > *-farisa* (cause to be arrested)
c. *-hangw-* (forget)+ *-el-* > *-hangwela* (forgive).

The addition of the reversive suffix *–ulul-* to the verb root *–vhofh-* (fasten) in (31a) above, results in the formation of the reversive verb *–vhofhulula* (loosen). The causative verb *–farisa* (cause to be arrested) is formed by attaching the causative suffix –is- to the verb root –far- (hold) in (31b), while the verb *–hangwela* (forgive) is formed by adding the suffix –el- to the verb root *–hangw-* (forgive).

(c) Prefix + root + suffix

(32) a. *mu-* + *-tandul-* (to patrol) + -o > *mutandulo* (patrol)

b. *tshi-* + *-pond-* (to harm) + -w- > *tshipondwa* (victim)

c. *ku-* + *nndu* (hut) + -an- > *kudwana* (small hut)

d. *di-* + *bandish-* (to bandage) + -ulul- > *dibandishulula* (unbandage oneself)

In example (32) above, the Class 7 prefix *tshi-* and the passive suffix –w- are attached to the beginning and the end respectively, to the verb root –pond- (harm), to form the noun *tshipondwa* (victim). The Class 20 *ku-* and the diminutive suffix *-an-* are attached to the beginning and the end of the noun *nndu* (hut) to derive the diminutive noun *kudwana* (small hut) while the prefix *di-* and the suffix *–ulul-* are attached to the beginning and the end of the verb root *–bandish-* (to bandage) to derive the verb *dibandishulula* (unbandage oneself).

From (32a-d) above, it is evident that one of the interesting properties of the affixes is that a given affix is either a prefix or suffix. It cannot be both. But affixes, especially *Tshivenda* suffixes, can pile up on other suffixes as in the following examples:

(33) a. -vhofhololelana (to loosen for each other) < *-vhofh-* + *-olol-* +- *el-* +*-an-*

b. *-shumisea* (usable) < *-shum-* + *-is-* + *-e-*.

The verb *–vhofhololelana* (to loosen for each other) had been formed by affixing three suffixes, namely, *-olol-*, *-el-*, and *–an-*, while the addition of the two suffixes *–is-* and *–e-* results in the formation of verb *–shumisea* (usable).

2.3.3.THE EFFECT OF TSHIVENDA PREFIXES ON WORD- FORMATION

In *Tshivenda,* if one affix is a prefix, the meaning normally changes. A noun word with a different meaning is, therefore, formed. For example, adding the class prefixes to verbs, as in the following examples, forms agentive nouns:

		Verb	**Agentive noun**
(34)	a.	*(u) ṅwala* (to write)	*muṅwali* (writer)
	b.	*(u) kokovha* (to crawl)	*tshikokovhi* (reptile)
	c.	*(u) sela* (to winnow)	*luselo* (winnowing basket)
	d.	*(u) funza* (to preach)	*vhafunzi* (preachers/pastor (s)).

The agentive noun *muṅwali* (writer) in 34a) is formed by affixing the Class 1 prefix *mu-* to the verb stem *–ṅwal-* (to write) by replacing the ending vowel *–a* by *–i*, the noun *tshikokovhi* (reptile) is derived by affixing the Class prefix 7 *tshi-* to the verb stem *-kokovh-* (to crawl) and by replacing the ending vowel *–a* by *–i* while the noun *luselo* (winnowing basket) is the outcome of the affixation of the affixation of the Class 11 prefix *lu-* to the verb stem *–sel-* (to winnow) and by replacing the ending vowel *–a* by *–o*. The noun *vhafunzi* is formed by attaching the Class 2 prefix *vha-* to the verb *-funza* (to preach) and by replacing the ending vowel *–a* by *–i*.

According to Akmajian *et al.*, (1993:26) the derived noun forms means roughly "one who does X" or "an instrument that does X", where X is the meaning of the verb, as in:

(35) a. ***Muṅwali*** *ndi muthu ane a* ***ṅwala*** *dzibugu.*
(The writer is a person who writes books.)

b. ***Luselo*** ndi tshishumiswa tsha u **sela** vhukhopfu.
(The winnowing basket is an instrument for winnowing mealie meal.)

The above examples show that the means of word formation that involves building up complex words from base morphemes and affixes are very important in *Tshivenḓa.*

(a) The prefix *nya-*

In *Tshivenḓa,* the affixation of the prefix *nya-* to the name of a woman changes the name from that of an ordinary woman to a woman married to the chief's family. For example:

(36) a. *Masindi* < *Nyamasindi*
b. *Phophi* < *Nyaphophi*
c. *Vele* < *Nyavele*
d. *Avheani* < *Nyavheani*

In (36a) above, *Masindi* is a name that may be given to any woman, but *Nyamasindi* denotes a woman who is married to the chief's family. The name *Nyamasindi* has been formed by the affixation of the prefix *Nya-* to the name *Masindi. Nyaphophi* is the outcome of the prefixation of *Nya-* to *Phophi;* whereas the addition of the prefix *Nya-* to *Vele* and *Avheani* result in *Nyavele* and Nyavheani respectively.

The prefix *Nya-* is sometimes attached to the noun denoting a part of a woman's body to form nicknames for women. An example of this would be:

(37) a. *maḓamu* (breasts) < *Nyamaḓamu.*
Vho-Nyamaḓamu vho swika.
(Mrs Breasts has arrived.)

In (37a) above, the prefix *Nya-* is attached to the noun *maḓamu* (breasts) to form the name *Nyamaḓamu*. *Nyamaḓamu* refers to a woman who has big breasts. These kinds of names sometimes become so popular as to supersede the real ones. But they are sometimes offensive to the person who is given the name.

(b) The prefix *vha-*

The prefixation of *Vha-* to some *Tshivenḓa* nouns result in the formation of another nouns that have different meanings to the original nouns; for example:

(38) a. *Venḓa* < *Vhavenḓa*
b. *musanda* (chief's kraal) < *vhamusanda* (chief)

In example (38a) the prefix *vha-* is added to the noun *Venḓa*, the name of a country in the far north of Limpopo Province of South Africa, to form the noun *Vhavenda*, denoting the chief's brothers or *Tshivenḓa* speaking people. In (38b) he prefix *vha-* is attached to the noun *musanda* (chief's kraal) to form the noun *Vhamusanda* (chief).

(c) The prefix *Ra-*

The *Tshivenḓa* prefix *Ra-* may also be used to form nouns from other nouns that have different meanings. This kind of word formation usually occurs when the *Vhavenḓa* initiates (boys) are given new names that suggest a transition from boyhood to manhood. Milubi (1997:52) states, "The new names of the *Vhavenḓa* initiates are characterized by the prefix *Ra-*". Examples of this would be:

(39) a. *Thiyaya* < *Rathiyaya*

b. *Fumbedzani* < *Rafumbedzani*

c. *Tshilumela* < *Ratshilumela*

d. *Silingwani* < *Rasilingwani*

In (39a-b), the prefix *Ra-* is added to the names *Thiyaya* and *Fumbedzani* to form the new names *Rathiyaya* and *Rafumbedzani* respectively. In (39c-d) the names *Tshilumela* and *Silingwani* are prefixed with *Ra-* to form the new names *Ratshilumela* and *Rasilingwani* respectively. Besides suggesting a transition from boyhood to manhood, these names may be used to praise the initiate. For example, an initiate with the name *Rathiyaya* would praise himself in the following manner:

(40) Ndi nne Rathiyaya mulani ndo tou iswa.

(I never meant to go to the initiation school yet I was taken there.)

(Milubi, 1997:52).

The prefix *Ra-* can also be used to form nouns that denote a person skilled or trained in a certain field:

(41) a. *saintsi* (science) > *rasaintsi* (scientist)

b. *milayo* (laws) > *ramilayo* (attorney)

c. *mabindu* (business) > *ramabindu* (business person).

(d) The Class 20 prefix *ku-*

When the Class 20 prefix *ku* is added to *Tshivenda* nouns, the newly formed nouns become diminutives, for example:

(42) a. *tshilonda* (wound /ulcer) > *kulonda* (small wound/ulcer)

b. *muḓi* (village) > *kuḓi* (small village)

c. *vhuswa* (porridge) > *kuswa* (small porridge)

d. *aini* (iron) > *kuaini* (small iron).

Prefixing the class 20 *ku-* to *tshilonda* (wound) and *muḓi* (village) forms the nouns *kulonda* (small wound) and *kuḓi* (small village) respectively. Similarly to form the nouns *kuani* (small iron) and *kuswa* (small porridge), the class 20 *ku-* must be affixed to the nouns *aini* (iron) and *vhuswa* (porridge) respectively.

(e) Class 21 *di-* (augmentative)

Affixing the Class 21 prefix *ḓi-* with an augmentative meaning, as in 43 (a) and (b) may also form new words

(43) a. *muthu* (person) > *ḓithu* (orge)

b. *vhutsi* (smoke) > *ḓitsi* (great mass of smoke)

The noun *ḓithu* (orge) in (43a) has been formed by prefixing the Class 21 *ḓi-* to the noun *muthu* (person), whereas the addition of the Class 21 prefix *ḓi* – to the noun *vhutsi* (smoke) results in the noun *ḓitsi* (great mass of smoke).

(f) The Class 11 prefix *lu-* (derogative)

The Class 11 prefix *lu-* may also be used to form new words with a derogative meaning. This is illustrated in the following examples:

(44) a. *muya* (wind) > *lumuya* (light breeze)

b. *thophe* (mud) > *lurofhe* (muddy slime)

c. *thanda* (pole) > *lutanda* (thin pole)

In (44a), the Class 11 prefix *lu-* is attached to the abstract noun *muya* (wind) to form the noun *lumuya* (light breeze), *lurofhe* (muddy slime) is formed by affixing the prefix *lu-* to the noun *thophe* (mud) while the prefix *lu-* is added to the noun *thanda* (pole) to derive a new noun *lutanda* (thin pole). The new nouns *lumuya* (light breeze), *lurofhe* (muddy slime) and *lutanda* (thin pole) have a derogative meaning. The noun formed by some prefixes help to indicate singular and plural, as in

(45)	**Singular**	**Plural**
a.	*mugudiswa* (cl.l) (learner)	> ***vha****gudiswa* (cl.2) (learners)
b.	*mubulo* (cl.3) (ponunciation)	>***mi****bulo* (cl.4) (pronunciations)
c.	*liedza* (cl.5) (experiment)	> ***ma****edza* (cl.6) (experiments)
d.	*tshixwatudzi* (cl.7) (fridge)	> ***zwi****xwatudzi* (cl.8) (fridges)
e.	*(ni-) baudu* (cl.9) (bolt)	> ***dzi****baudu* (cl.10) (bolts)

While some prefixes, as in the above examples, help to indicate singular and plural, others change the part of speech of the word they are attached to. Consider the following examples:

(46)	a.	*-mala* (to marry)	> *lu-malo* (cash or cattle paid by the bridegroom to the bride's parents) (V-N)
	b.	*-lapfu* (long)	> *vhu-lapfu* (length) (Adj-N)
	c.	*-lovha* (die)	> *mu – lovha* (yesterday) (V-Adv)
	d.	*-rema* (chop)	> *mu - rema* (black person) (V-Adj)
	e.	*-raru* (three)	> *ka-raru* (three times/thrice) (N-Adv)

In example (46) above, prefix *lu-* is added to the verb-*mala* (to marry) to form the noun *lumalo* (cash or cattle that is paid by the bridegroom to the bride's parents), thereby changing the part of speech (from verb to noun). The addition of the prefix *vhu-* to the adjective *lapfu* (long) changes it to the noun *vhulapfu* (length).

The verb *–lovha* (die) is changed to the adverb *mulovha* (yesterday) by the addition of the prefix *mu-*. The noun *raru* (three) has been changed to the adverb *kararu* (three times or thrice) by the prefixation of *ka-*. The formation of the adjective *murema* (black person) is brought about by the addition of the prefix *mu-* to the verb *rema* (chop). These examples show that the addition of certain prefixes changes the part of speech of the words they are attached to.

2.3.4 THE EFFECT OF *TSHIVENḐA* SUFFIXES ON WORD–FORMATION

According to Spears (1991:172), a suffix is an affix that is placed at the end of a word or a morpheme that is attached to the end of another morpheme. Spears thus regards suffixes as morphemes that occur after the base as in the following instances:

(a) The diminutive suffix *–ana*

A diminutive noun can be derived from a common noun by affixing a diminutive suffix *–ana* to the noun, for example:

(47)	a.	*mulambo* + *-ana*	>	*mulambwana* (rivulet)
	b.	*ṋowa* + *-ana*	>	*ṋowana* (young snake)
	c.	*mbudzi* + *-ana*	>	*mbudzana* (kid)
	d.	*tshiselo* + *-ana*	>	*tshiselwana* (small winnowing basket)

Adding the diminutive suffix *–ana* to the nouns *mulambo* (river) and *ṋowa* (snake) forms the nouns *mulambwana* (rivulet) and *ṋowana* (young snake) respectively. The addition of the diminutive suffix *–ana* to the nouns *mbudzi* (goat) and *tshiselo* (winnowing basket) results in the derivation of the new nouns *mbudzana* (kid) and *tshiselwana* (small winnowing basket).

(b) The gender suffixes *–kadzi* and *-lume*

There are two genders under which *Tshivenḓa* nouns can be classified, namely, feminine and masculine. Each of these has affixes by which they are identified such as the feminine suffixes *–kadzi* and *–nyana* and the masculine suffix *–lume.* These suffixes are used to form new words, as in the examples below.

Nouns formed with the feminine suffix *–kadzi*

(48) a. *mu-fuma –kadzi* (woman, wife,lady)
b. *ndou-kadzi* (female/cow elephant)
c. *tshi-ṅwana –kadzi* (zombie)
d. *mme – kadzi* > *makhadzi* (aunt)

Nouns formed with the feminine suffix *–nyana*

e. *–nwana-nyana* (girl, female child)

Nouns formed with masculine suffix *–lume*

(49) a. *tshitundu –lume* (lavish spender)
b. *ndou-lume* (male/bull elephant)
c. *mukuku-lume* (cock)
d. *mutu-lume* (male waterberry)
e. *mme-lume* > *malume* (uncle)

In examples (48a-e) above, the addition of the feminine suffixes *–kadzi* and *–nyana* helps to form the female forms *mufumakadzi* (lady, wife, woman), *ndoukadzi* (cow elephant), *tshiṅwanakadzi* (zombie) and *makhadzi* (aunt), whereas the male forms *tshitundulume* (lavish spender), *ndoulume* (bull elephant), *mukukulume* (cock),

mutulume (male waterberry), and *malume* (uncle) in (49a-e), are formed by the addition of the masculine suffix *–lume*. Poulos (1990:11) states that the lack of an overtly marked prefix is represented by the symbol Θ, commonly referred to as zero. Thus the singular nouns *ndoukadzi* (cow elephant) and *ndoulume* (bull elephant) in (48b) and (49b) respectively, actually consist of a zero prefix Θ and the stem *ndou* (elephant)

2.3.5 WORD –FORMATION WITH VERBAL EXTENSIONS

There are quite a number of verbs that can be formed by extensions, thereby extending their meanings. These new verbs may be formed as follows:

(a) Applied extension *–el-*

The verbal extension *–el-* plus a terminating vowel *–a* in the positive, can be used to form new verbs such as

(50) a. *-ñwala* (write) + -el- > *-ñwalela* (write for)
b. *-hangwa* (forget) + -el- > *-hangwela* (forgive)
c. *–tama* (admire/ desire) + -el- > *-tamela* (wish/desire for)
d. *–ima* (stand up/stop) +-el- > *-imela* (defend a case or pay a visit of condolence to a bereaved person).

In the above instances the basic verbs *–ñwala* (write), *hangwa* (forget), *-tama* (admire or desire) and *–ima* (stand up or stop) have been extended with the extension –el- to form the new verbs *–ñwalela* (write for), *-hangwela* (forgive), *-tamela* (wish) and *–imela* (defend a case or pay a visit of condolence to a bereaved person) respectively.

(b) Passive extension –iw-/-w-

Passive verbs can be made up of a verb root, the passive extension –w-/iw- plus a terminative vowel –a in the positive, as follows:

(51) a. -vhinga (to marry) + -w- > vhingwa (to be married)
b. -luka (to braid) + -w- > -lukwa (to be braided)
c. –rwa (to beat) + -iw- > -rwiwa (to be beaten)
d. –sema (to reprimand) + -iw- > -semiwa (to be reprimanded)

In the above examples, the basic verbs *–vhinga* (to marry*)*, *-luka* (to braid), *-rwa* (to beat), and *–sema* (to reprimand) have been affixed with the passive morpheme *–w-/-iw-* to form the passive verbs *–vhingwa* (to be married), *lukwa* (to be braided), *-rwiwa* (to be beaten), and *semiwa* (to be reprimanded). The passive indicates that the subject undergoes the action or is subjected to the action by someone or something. For example, *Musadzi u vhingwa nga munna* (The woman is married to / by the man) indicates that the woman is subjected to the action of *vhingwa* (be married) by *munna* (the man).

(c) Causative extensions *–is-* and *–y-*

New words can be formed from the verb root plus the causative extension *–is-*plus the terminative vowel *–a* in the positive; as in:

(52) a. *-imba* (to sing) + -is- > *-imbisa* (cause to sing)
b. *-tshina* (to dance) + -is- > *-tshinisa* (cause to dance)
c. *–guda* (to learn) + -is- > *-gudisa* (help to learn)
d. *–ḓola* > *-ḓol-* + -y- +-a > *- ḓodza* (smear something)
e. *–fhola* > *-fhol-*+ -y-+ -a > *-fhodza* (heal).

In example (52a-c), the basic verbs *–imba* (to sing), *-tshina* (to dance), and *–guda* (to learn) have been affixed with the causative extension –is- to form noun the verbs *imbisa* (cause to sing), *-tshinisa* (cause to dance), and *–gudisa* (help to learn). The new verbs *–ḓodza* (smear something) and *–ḓhodza* (heal) are formed by the affixation of –y- to the basic verbs *–ḓola* (to smear) and *–ḓhola* (to heal) respectively. These verbal extensions, -is- and –y-, give the verb to which they are attached to the meaning of 'cause to do' or 'to help to do'.

(c) Reversive extensions *–ulul-, olol-, -olow-, and –olow-*

The reversive can also be used to form new words as in the following examples:

(53) a. *-luka + -ulul-* > *-lukulula* (unbraid)
b. *-vhoḓha + -olol-* > *-vhoḓholola* (untie)
c. *-vhoḓha + -olow-*> *-vhoḓholowa*(become unfastened)
d. *-luka + -ulow-* > *-lukuluwa* (become unbraided)

The basic verbs *–luka* (to braid) and *–vhoḓha* (to tie) in example (53a-b), have been affixed with the transitive reversive morphemes *–ulul-* and *–olol-* to form the transitive reversive verbs *–lukulula* (unbraid) and *-vhoḓholola* (untie) respectively. *Nthambeleni* (1998:27) explains that intransitive reversive extensions indicate that the action is reversed with an intransitive meaning. Thus the extensions *–ulow-* and *–olow-* are intransitive reversive, as in example (53c-d) where we find that the new verbs *–vhoḓholowa* (become unfastened) and *-likuluwa* (become unbraided) are formed by the suffixation of the intransitive reversive extension *–alow-* and *–uluw-* to the basic verbs *–vhoḓha* (to tie) and *–luka* (to braid) respectively.

(e) Reciprocal extension *–an-*

The reciprocal extension *–an-* can be used to form new verbs such as:

(54)	a.	*-sema* + *-an-*	>	*-semana* (curse one another)
	b.	*-kokodza* + *-an-*	>	*-kokodzana* (pull one another)
	c.	*-gekha* + -ana-	>	*-gekhana* (knock one another)
	d.	*-ṱala* + *-ana-*	>	*-ṱalana* (divorce one another).

In example (54a-d) above, the basic verbs *–sema* (curse), *-kokodza* (pull), *-gekha* (knock), and *–ṱala* (divorce) have been affixed with the reciprocal extension –an- to form the new reciprocal verbs *-semana* (curse one another), *-kokodzana* (pull one another), *-gekhana* (knock one another), and *-ṱalana* (divorce one another). The reciprocal extension indicates that the participants in the action of the verb carry out the action denoted by the basic radical reciprocal or mutually. For example, the sentence *Munna u semana na musadzi* (The man and the woman curse one another), indicates that *munna* (the man) and *musadzi* (the woman) carry out the action of *semana* (curse one another) mutually or reciprocally.

(f) Intensive extension *–es-*

The suffixation of the intensive extension *–es-* to the basic verbs, has contributed numerous new words to the *Tshivenḓa* vocabulary. For example:

(55)	a.	*-guda* +*-es-*	> *-gudesa* (study very hard)
	b.	*-lila* + *-es-*	> *-lilesa* (cry bitterly)
	c.	*-shuma* + *-es-*	> *-shumesa* (work very hard)
	d.	*-amba* + *-es-*	> *-ambesa* (speak very much)

The examples in (55a-d), show that the new verbs *–gudesa* (study very hard), *-lilesa* (cry bitterly), *-shumesa* (work very hard), and *–ambesa* (speak very much) have been formed by the addition of the intensive extension *–es-* to the basic verbs *-guda* (study), *-lila* (cry), *-shuma* (work), and *–amba* (speak). This extension indicates that the action is carried out intensively.

(g) Neuter extensions *–al-* and *–e-*

New words can also be added to the *Tshivenḓa* vocabulary by using the neuter extension. This extension signifies that the subject thereof enters into or is in some state or condition, without indicating the agent of the action. For examples:

(56)	a.	*-tswuka* + *-al-*	> *-tswukala* (be dirty)
	b.	*-vhona* + *-al-*	> *-vhonala* (be visible)
	c.	*-kala* + *-e-*	> - *kalea* (be measurable)
	d.	*-ḽa* + *-e-*	> *-ḽea* (be edible / eatable)

In the examples (56 a-b) above, the basic verbs *–tswuka* (dirty) and *-vhona* (see) have been affixed with the neuter extension *–al-* to create the verbs – *tswukala* (be dirty) and *-vhonala* (be visible) respectively. Whereas the basic verbs *–kala* (to measure) and *–ḽa* (to eat) in example (56c-d) have been affixed with the neuter extension *–e-* to create new verbs *–kalea* (be measurable and *-ḽea* (be edible respectively.

Sometimes when the neuter extension *–e-* is attached to a verb, the resulting word is an adjective, such as

(57)	a.	*-vhala* + *-e-*	>- *vhalea* (readable)
	b.	*-fara* + *-e-*	>- *farea* (touchable)
	c.	*-phirintha* + *-e-*	> *-phirinthea* (printable)
	d.	*-phetsha* + *-e-*	> *-phetshea* (patchable)

Compare with: *Iyi bugu i a vhalea*
(This book is readable)

Ili thaila li a phetshea
(This tyre is patchable)

Although the neuter extension –e- can be used fruitfully in the formation of new words, there is a restriction. For example, to express the fact that man is mortal, **Munna u a fea** (Man is diable) cannot be used.

2.3.6 DERIVED NOMINAL ROOTS WITH AFFIXES –I OR-O

According to Musehane (1995:87), affixal morphology is employed by nearly all languages of the world to express modifications or unspecifications of the role, the meaning of the role or the meaning of a system morpheme.

To change the root into a stem, prefixing or suffixing must be done to bring about a new structure. This will depend on the affixes and meanings. For example:

(58)	a.	Class 1:	*mu-lim-i* (plougher)	< *-lim-* (to plough)
	b.	Class 7:	*tshi-lim-o* (summer)	
	c.	Class 1:	*mu-imb-i* (singer)	< *-imb-* (to sing)
	d.	Class 11:	*lu-imb-o* (song)	
	e.	Class 1:	*mu-tamb –i* (player)	< *- tamb-* (to play)
	f.	Class 3:	*mu-tamb-o* (play/game).	

In the example (58a-f) the affixes *–i-* and *-o-* are used to derive nouns from verbs. Example (58a-b) shows that the nouns *mulimi* (plougher) and *tshilimo* (summer) are derived from the verb *–lim* (to plough). It should be noticed that a *Tshivenda* prefix can co-occur with a suffix in the formation of new word; for instance:

(59) a. *mu-humbul-el-w-a* (suspect)
b. *mu-ṅwal-el-i* (secretary)
c. *ku-vhon-el-e* (manner of seeing)
d. *tshi-ṅwana-kadzi* (zombi / zombie)

In example (59a-d) *mu-*, *ku-*, and *tshi-* is Class 1,7, and 20 prefixes, whereas *–el-*, -w- and –kadzi are suffixes. In (59a), for example, the Class 1 prefix *mu-* and the suffixes *–el-*, *-w-* and *–a* are suffixes. In (59a), for example, the Class 1 prefix *mu-* and the suffixes *–el-*, *-w-* and *–a* are co-occurring with the verb stem *–humbul-* (to think) to form the new noun *muhumbulelwa* (suspect).

The discussion of affixation as one of the processes of word formation has thus shown that it is by far one of the most common ways of creating new words in *Tshivenḓa*.

2.4. COMPOUNDING

2.4.1. DEFINITION

Clark, Escholtz, and Rosa (1994:369) define compounding as a special form of derivation in which instead of adding affixes to a stem, two or more words are put together to make a new lexical unit.

In *Tshivenḓa*, as in many other languages, new words can be formed from the already existing words by a process known as compounding, a process in which individual words are joined together to form a compound word. Hurford (1994:43) defines a compound as a word or short sequence of words, composed of shorter words, but acting more or less as a single word. Compound words are longer than simple words but do not usually form whole phrases on their own.

Compounding is very common and frequent used process for enlarging the vocabulary in *Tshivenḓa* as Katamba (1993:54) states: "A compound word contains at least two bases which are both words, or at any rate, root morphemes"

The compound contains at least two bases; but they are not limited to two words. Quirk and Greenbaums (1993: 444) concur with Katamba (1993:54) when they reiterate that a compound is a unit consisting of two or more bases. Though two-word compounds are the most common ones in *Tshivenḓa*, it would be difficult to limit the number of words, for example:

(60)	a.	*mbilamutondo*	(xylophone)
	b.	*muthusamulangamutambo*	(assistant referee)
	c.	*mbamatshelo a phanḓa*	(three days hence)
	d.	*vhuḓivhavhulafha zwifuwo*	(veterinary science)

In example (60) above, the compound noun *mbilamutondo* (xylophone) contains two bases, *mbila* plus *mutondo,* which are words; while *muthusamulangamutambo* (assistant referee) is composed of three bases –thus- (assist) + *-lang-* (control) + *-tamb-* (play).

The conversion of writing this compound word which is formed by recombining old words, is inconsistent since compound words are either written as a single word, hyphenated words, or two words, as in the following examples:

(61)	a.	*vhuḓarabugu*	(bookkeeping)
	b.	*mbadela ndisedzo*	(delivery charges)
	c.	*tshienda – nga- nkhunyu*	(small flying termite that has become featherless)

The sentence in example (61a) shows the noun *vhufarabugu* (bookkeeping) as a single word, (61b) *mbadela ndisedzo* (delivery charges) as two words, and (59c) *tshienda-nga-nkhunyu* (a small flying termite that has become featherless) as hyphenated words. Fowler and Gowers (1990:255) remark in this regard: "The hyphen is not an ornament but an aid to be understood. Use it only when needed for that purpose". The hyphen may be used for a number of purposes, but in this work, it is used to indicate that two or more words are to be read together as a single meaningful word.

Nemadzivhanani (1989:31) indicates that compounding is the joining of two or more words belonging to the same or different categories to form new nouns. That is, when a language needs a new noun, it can make use of existing words. For example, with the growth of scientific knowledge, new technical and scientific terms are commonly invented in this way. The *Tshivenda* compound may consist of, for instance, a noun and a noun, a verb and a noun, and an adjective stem or a noun and an adverb.

2.4.2 WORD-FORMATION BY COMPOUNDING

2.4.2.1 Noun and noun compounding

Joining a noun and a noun by reduplicating the noun or by joining different nouns may derive compound nouns.

(a) Reduplication

According to Stageberg (1977:133), reduplication is the process of forming new words by doubling morphemes. In *Tshivenda* reduplication occurs according to Stageberg's view, namely, that the whole noun or the morpheme is doubled.

(i) Reduplication of the noun

Only nouns, which have two syllables, are reduplicated, for example:

(62)	a.	*ngudo* (lesson)	=	*ngudo- ngudo* (good lesson)
	b.	*phetsho* (patch)	=	*phetsho-phetsho* (real patch)
	c.	*sefo* (sieve)	=	*sefo-sefo* (real sieve)
	d.	*ŋama* (meat)	=	*ŋama-ŋama* (good meat)

Reduplicating a two-syllable noun forms each of the above compounds. The compound noun is written with a hyphen between the nouns.

(ii) Reduplication of the morpheme

When nouns have more than two syllables, the stem of the noun is reduplicated. The newly formed compound is written as one word without a hyphen, as in

(63)	a.	*mutshini* (machine)	=	*mutshinitshini* (real machine)
	b.	*tshipanere* (spanner)	=	*tshipanerepanere*(real spanner)
	c.	*muŋwali* (writer)	=	*munwalinwali* (good writer)
	d.	*zwigwada* (group)	=	*zwigwadagwada* (sub-groups)

Repeating only the stem of the three-syllabled nouns while the new comopound word is not hyphenated forms each of the above compounds.

(b) Compounds derived by joining different nouns

When merging two different nouns, the first noun is the main one and the compound noun belongs to its class.

(64) a. *khangamutupo* (wayward person) < *khanga* (guinea-fowl) + *mutupo* (totem)

b. *nzieluvhele* (species of locust) < *nzie* (locust) + *luvhele* (species of millet)

c. *ngowampengo* (inedible mushroom) < *ngowa* (musroom) + *mpengo* (madman)

In example (64a-c), the compound noun *khangamutupo* (wayward person) is derived from *khanga* (guinea-fowl) (Class 9) + *mutupo* (totem) (Class 3). The first noun *khanga* (guinea fowl) is the main noun and the derived noun *khangamutupo* (wayward person) belongs to its class, that is, Class 9. Similarly, *nzieluvhele* (species of locust) (Class 9) is derived from *nzie* (locust) (Class 9) + *luvhele* (species of millet) (Class 11), and *ngowampengo* (inedible mushroom) (Class 9) is derived from *ngowa* (mushroom) (Class 9) + *mpengo* (Class 3) (madman).

2.4.2.2 Noun and adjective compounding

When joining a noun and an adjective, the adjective comes after the noun to qualify it.

(65) a. *khaphuthendeleki* (floating trophy)
< *khaphu* (trophy) + *thendelek-* (wandering)
(< *tendelek-* (to wander))

b. *Khorommbi* (proper name)
< *khoro* (clan) + *mmbi* (bad) (-vhi (bad))

c. *Mashudumavhi*(bad fortune) < *mashudu* (luck) + *mavhi* (bad)

In these examples, the combination of the nouns and the adjectives produce compound nouns with each new meaning or idea. In each case, the second component, the adjective, makes the meaning of the first component more precise.

2.4.2.3 Verb and noun compounding

In verb and noun compounding, a verb stem becomes the first component of a combination. Although there are some exceptions, nouns belong to classes and the class prefixes are attached before the verb stems

(66) a. *tshidzimamulilo* (firefighter) < *tshi-* + *-dzima* (extinguish) + *mulilo* (fire)

b. *tshisumbandila* (signpost) < *tshi-*+*-sumba* (indicate) + *ndila* (way/route)

c. *mulangaluvhande* (track official) < *mu-* + *-lang-* (control) + *luvhande* (sportsfield)

d. *mufaramuta* (housewife) < *mu-*+ *-fara* (hold) + *muta* (courtyard)

e. *tshibebathaila* (car which carries its sparewheel at the back) < *tshi-* +*-beba* (carry on the back) + *thaila* (tyre).

In each of these examples, the first component is a verbal noun, for example, *tshi-* + *-dzim-* (extinguish) and the second is a noun, for example, *mulilo* (fire) in (66a). The verbal nouns are formed by attaching a class prefix before the verb stem, for example, *tshi* - + *-sumb-* (indicate/point at) in (66b).

2.4.2.4 Verb and adverb compounding

In verb and adverb compounding, the verb precedes the adverb and the appropriate prefixes are affixed:

(67) a. *mbadelophanḍa* (advance payment) < *ni-* + *-badel-* (pay) + *phanḍa* (infront)

b. *masalelabanngani* (bank balance) < *ma-* + *-sal-* (remain) + *banngani* (at the bank)

c. *tshiendatshikhalani* (spacecraft) < *tshi-* end- (travel) + *tshikhalani* (in the space)

In each of the examples in (67), the adverb is preceded by the verbal nouns; for instance, *mbadelo* (payment) and *phanḍa* (in front) in (67a) are a verbal noun and adverb respectively. In each case, a suitable prefix is attached to the verb stem, namely, ma- + *-sal-* (remain) in (65b).

2.4.2.5. Verb and pronoun compounds

When verbs combine with other categories to form a compound noun, they always preceded the other word categories while the suitable class prefixes are sometimes added.

(68) a. *muambatshawe* < *mu-* +*-amba* (talk) + *tshawe* (his/hers)

b. *muḷatshawe* < *mu-* + *-ḷa* (eat) + *tshawe* (his/her)

c. *vhaambaiwe* < *vha-*+*-amba* (talk) + *-iwe* (you)

2.4.2.6 Nouns derived from reduplicated verb stems

A prefix may be affixed to the verb stem if it has two syllables, as in

(69) a. *masombesombe* (zigzag) < *ma-* + reduplicated *–somb-* (twist)

b. *vhutambatamba* (playfulness) < *vhu-* + reduplicated *–tamba* (play)

c. *zwibikabika* (cookery) < *zwi-* + reduplicated *–bika* (cook)

d. *zwimuṉemuṉe* (sweets) , *zwi-* + reduplicated *–muna* (suck).

When the verb stems have more than two syllables, only the first two syllables are reduplicated and the endings are elided.

(70) a. *vhupwanyepwanye* (bustling) < *panyeledza* (bustle)
b. *zwikonyokonyo* (breakages) < *konyola* (break)
c. *mulemeleme* (heavy weight) < *lemela* (weight)
d. *matevhutevhu* (spillage) < *tevhula* (spill)

In these examples (70a-d), the verb stems *pwanyeledza* (bustle), *konyola* (break), and *lemela* (weight) have more than two syllables each. Reduplication leads to the elision of their endings.

2.4.2.7. Compounding with a preposition

Some *Tshivenḓa* compound nouns are formed with prepositions, as in the following examples:

(71) a. *tshiendanganꞑkhunyu* (small flying termite that has become featherless) < *tshi-enda* (travel) + *nga* (preposition) + *nkhunyu* (naked)

b. *dzenganamuḓi* (a male person who spends most of his time at home) < *dzenga* (wander) + *na* (preposition) + *muḓi* (house)

c. *muendanganayo* (pedestrian) < *mu-enda* (travel) + *nga* (preposition) + *nayo* (feet)

d. *pfarelongavhuḓifari* (parole) < *pfarelo* (forgive) + *nga* (preposition) + *vhuḓifari* (conduct)

e. *mutambanamme* (type of a tree) < *mu-* + *-tamba* (play) + *na* + *mme* (mother)

The compound nouns in (71a-e) are formed with the prepositions *nga* and *na,* namely, *muendanganayo* (pedestrian) and *dzenganamuḓi* (a male person who spends most of his time at home).

2.4.2.8. Verb and verb compounding

There are instances where a verbal form occurs together with another verbal form to create a compound word for example:

(72) a. *mbekanyamushumo* (programme) < *ni-* + *-vhekany-* (compile) + *mu-*+ *-shum-* (work)

b. *mutshimbidzamushumo* (master of ceremonies) < *mu-* + *-tshimbidz-* (lead/conduct) + *mu-* + *-shum-* (work)

c. *muimbimakone* (excellent singer) < *mu-* + *imb-* (ing) + *ma-* + *-kon-* (able)

d. *ndayotewa* (constitution) < *ni-* + *-lay-* (advise) + *-tea* (lay foundation)

Suitable prefixes have been attached to the verbal forms in examples (72a-d) to derive the compound words.

2.4.2.9 Verb and adjective compounding

Joining a verbal stem and an adjective can form compound nouns. The verbal stem precedes the adjective, for instance, in *khanyisavhaṅwe* (rescuer).

2.4.2.10 Verb, conjunction, and pronoun compounding

Compound nouns can be formed by a combination of a verbal stem, conjunctions and a pronoun, as in the following examples:

(73) a. *muambanae* < *mu-* + *-amba* (talk) + *na* (conjunction) + *e* (him/her)

b. *mudanalwo* < *mu-* + *-da* (come) + *na* (conjunction) + *lwo* (it).

2.4.2.11 Verb, preposition, and pronoun compounding

The combination of the verbal stem, a preposition and a pronoun can create a compound noun such as *mukandangalwo* < *mu-*+ *-kanda* (step on) + *nga* (preposition) + *lwo* (it).

2.4.2.12 Compound verbs

A compound verb can be formed by either the reduplication of a verb or reduplication of a conjunction as in

(74) a. *-mona-mona* (loiter about)
b. *-buḓa-buḓa* (roam/wander)
c. *-sea-sea* (keep laughing)
d. *-omba-omba* (knock) (<-*omba* (hold firmly))
e. *-kana-kana* (hesitate) (< *kana* (or/either))

The examples in (74a-d) show that these compound verbs are formed by the reduplication of the verbs, e.g. the compound verb *-mona-mona* (loiter about) is formed by the reduplication of the verb *-mona* (turn round/rotate), whereas (74e) the compound verb *-kana-kana* (hesitate) is formed by the reduplication of the conjunction *kana* (or/either). All these compounds are hyphenated.

2.4.2.13 Endocentric and exocentric compounds

It is of vital importance too to distinguish between endocentric compounds and exocentric compounds in the formation of *Tshivenḓa* compound words.

(a) Endocentric compounds

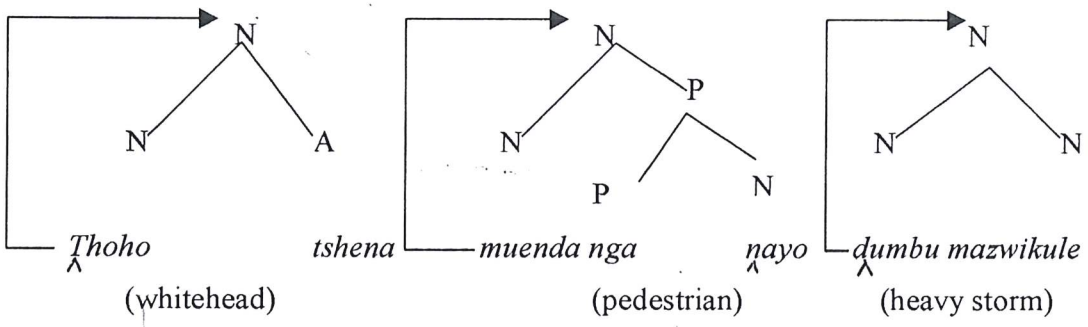
Bauer (1988:35) states that endocentric compounds denote a sub-class of the items denoted by one of their elements, as the following examples reveal:

(75) a. *ḓumbumazwikule* (heavy storm)
b. *muendanganayo* (pedestrian)
c. *ṱhohotshena* (whitehead)

In example (75a) above, *ḓumbumazwikule* (heavy storm) is a kind of *ḓumbu* and not a kind of *mazwikule* (uprooter/turnover), namely, a kind of storm that uproots or turns over trees and buildings.

Muendangaṋayo (pedestrian) in (75b) is a kind of *muendi* (traveler) and not a kind of *ṋayo* (foot). It is a person who travels on foot.

In other words, in *Tshivenḓa*, the left hand member usually not only determines the category of the whole compound, the major part of the sense of the compound as well. It can, therefore, be stated that most of the compounds in *Tshivenḓa* are left-headed; that is, the left member acts as the head.



(b) Exocentric compounds

Bauer (1988:35) indicates that exocentric compounds, in contrast, denote something which is not a sub-class of either of the elements in the compound, that is, they are not hyponyms of either of their elements.

What Bauer means is that it is possible to have the most extreme cases where the compound's category is not identical to the category of either of the component members, and it is also possible to find a compound whose sense is not mainly determined by either of the component elements. In *Tshivenḓa*, names of people,

animals, and plants are often exocentric compound, where the compound states some features of the entity it names, for example:

(76) a. *Murumbulambudzana* (name pf a plant)
b. *Tshilumanamana* (name o fa kind of worm)
c. *Tambakhofheni* (name of a goat)
d. *Zwiitavhathu* (name of a person)

In example (76) above, *Murumbulambudzana* is neither *murumbulo* (instrument for piercing through) (verbal) noun) nor *mbudzana* (kid) (noun), but the name of a species of plant, and not a kind of instrument to pierce through. *Tshilumanamana* (name for a species of worms) is neither *tshilumi* (something that bites) nor *namana* (calf) but the name of a species of worm; *tambakhofheni* is neither a way *tamba* (bath) nor is *khofheni* (face), but the name of a person. These examples show that some compounds are not headed. Headed compounds are called endocentric while unheaded compounds are called exocentric.

This explanation, reveal that one of the interesting aspects of compounding is that one cannot always tell by the words it contains what the compound means. This is supported by Fromkin and Rodman (1983: 122) who state that the meaning of a compound is not always the sum total of the meanings of its parts. Consider the formation of the following examples:

(77) a. *dzingandevhe* (deaf person)
b. *dungammbwa* (canine)
c. *musumbavhaloi* (forefinger)

In (77a), everyone whose *ndevhe* (ears) are *dzinga*(unable to hear) is a *dzingandevhe* (deaf person) whereas in (77b) *dungammbwa* < *-dunga* (sour)+ *mmbwa*(dog), do not

mean *mmbwa i dungaho* (a sour dog), but a canine. In example (77c) *musumbavhaloi* (forefinger) < *mu-* + *-sumba* (point at) + *vhaloi* (witches/wizards), does not mean someone who points at the witches, but a forefinger. In all these examples, the meaning of each compound at least to some extent includes the meanings of the individual parts. But there are compounds that do not relate to the meanings of their individual parts at all.

According to Fromkin and Rodman (1983:122), when the two component words are in the same grammatical category, the compound will be in this category. The following examples explain this item:

(78) a. N+N: k*huhumulambo* (species of waterfowl)
b. N+N: M*urwa* - *Muthu* (Son of God)
c. V +V:-*mona-mona* (loiter about)
d. V +V: *omba-omba* (knock).

In example (78a) the two words *khuhu* (fowl) and *mulambo* (river) are nouns, and the result of their combination *khuhumulambo* (species of water fowl) is a noun. Similarly, (78c) the compound verb *-mona-mona* (loiter about) is formed by reduplicating the verb-*mona* (turn round\rotate).

It cannot, however, be generally concluded that when the two component words fall into different categories the class of the first word will always be the grammatical category of the compound In other words, that the part of speech of the whole compound is the same as part of the 'leftmost' member of the compound, which is termed the 'head' of the compound. For example:

(79) a. N+V: *mufolosumba* (identification parade)
b. N+A: *khosikhulu* (paramount chief)
c. V+P+N: d*zenganamudi* (a man who is always at home)

In example (79a), the leftmost member, the head, of the compound *mufolosumba* (identification parade) is the noun *mufolo* (parade), hence, the whole compound is also a noun, Similarly, (79b) shows that the noun *khosi* (chief) is the head of the compounds *khosikhulu* (paramount chief), hence, the whole compound is a noun. Example (79c) shows that compounds formed with a preposition fall in the category of the non-prepositional part of the compound.

Compounding is a rich source of new words in *Tshivenḓa*, and many compounds are numbered among recent additions to the language. Some of the constituent structures for compounds are very productive in the sense that speakers can readily make up new ones of the same pattern. For example, a compound consisting of a noun plus a noun, a noun plus an adjective or a noun plus verbal stem can easily be formed.

In the computer industry new compounds such as these are being created almost daily. For example, many of the following are now familiar words to computer users:

(80)
a. *hadidisiki* (hard disk)
b. *fulodipisiki* (floppy disk)
c. *hadiḓiraivi* (hard drive)
d. *mausuphede* (mouse pad)
e. *sikiriniseiva* (screen saver)
f. *sikirinidampu* (screendump)

In this section, it has been shown that adding one base to another can also form new words.

2.5 ZERO -DERIVATION

2.5.1 DEFINITION

In the previous paragraphs we have seen that complex words may be formed either by compounding or by affixation, or by the combination of the two. Another type of morphological process, which is applicable in Tshivenda, is conversation, that is, word is converted from one category to another without any affixation.

Yule (1996:67) describes conversion as a change in the function of a word, as for example, when a noun starts being used as a verb, without any reduction. Other labels for this very common process are 'category change' and 'functional shift'.

The process of conversion is also referred to as zero-derivation because a word is changed from one class to another class by affixing a zero-morph. Zero-derivation is a term which is also current. Some authorities differentiate between some or all of these terms, but for most they are synonymous. Conversion or zero-derivation changes only the grammatical properties of the stem, while leaving its pronunciation and spelling intact.

Quirk and Greenbaum (1993:441) state that: "Conversion is the derivational process whereby an item changes its word-class without the addition of an affix".

Therefore, zero-derivation is a change in the function of a word as, for example, when a noun starts being used as a verb without any reduction or affixation. Zero-derivation (a zero morph has been affixed to a word), conversion (the word had been changed to another category), or functional shift (the word's functional category has shifted or changed) may be explained as follows:

2.5.2 WORD-FORMATION BY CONVERSION

2.5.2.1 Noun verb conversation (N → V)

The conversion of nouns into verbs is also productive in *Tshivenda.* The same word-form can usually be used as a noun or a verb with only grammatical context enabling us to know which category it belongs to, for example"

(81) a. *bannga* (bank) *Ndi ifhio bannga ya khwine?*
(Which is the better bank?)

b. *-bannga* (to bank) *Ndi do bannga tshelede.*
(I shall bank the money.)

Attaching a zero element to the noun *bannga* (bank), forms the verb *–bannga* (to bank). This also applies to the noun *baga* (bakery) and the verb *–baga* (to bake).

In most cases where there is a change in the part of speech, there is an affix to mark the change. For example, when the verb *imba*[1](sing) is converted to a noun; the Class 1 prefix *mu-* or the Class 11 prefix *lu-* must be added to form *muimbi* (singer) or *luimbo* (song). When the noun *muimbi* (singer) or *luimbo* (song) is converted to the verb *imba* (sing), the Class 1 prefix *mu-* and the Class 11 *lu-* must be reduced. But in examples (81a and b), there is no overt affix. In order to treat both of these in the same way, a zero-morph may be postulated at the beginning of *bannga* (bank), marking its status as a noun (*Ø-bannga*). According to Crystal (1991:386) zero is: "A term used in some areas of linguistics to refer to an abstract unit postulated by analysis, but which has no physical realization in the airstream of speech".

Robin (1989:195) agrees with Crystal and assets that zero may be symbolized by Θ and that in *bannga* (banks) the plural may be represented by + Θ. This is, however,

not compelling. This view is also supported by Bauer (1988:31) who believes that some linguistics postulate a zero morph to account for the difference in function between homophonous forms.

2.5.2.2 Singular plural conversion

The relationship with no change of form extends to include both singular and plural forms of words. There are instances where, although there appears to be an inflectional or derivational relationship between the two words, they have precisely the same form. Consider the following examples:

		Singular	**Plural**
(82)	a.	*themometha*	*themometha* (thermometers)
	b.	*thelefounu*	*thelefounu* (telephones)
	c.	*khomphiyutha*	*khomphiyutha* (computers)
	d.	*watshi*	*watshi* (watches)
	e.	*fakisimaili*	*fakisimaili* (facsimiles)
	f.	*nngu*	*nngu* (sheep)
	g.	*phukha*	*phukha* (animal)
	h.	*khovhe*	*khovhe* (fish)

In (82a-h) words such as *themometha* (thermometer) must be regarded as having both a singular and plural form with the same overt shape, since the same word shape appears in sentences such as:

(83)	a.	*themometha yo pwashea.*	(The thermometer is broken)
	b.	*themometha dzo pwashea*	(The thermometers are broken)

The plural form *themometha* (thermometers) in (83) has been derived from the singular *themometha* (thermometer) by affixing a zero –morph. Such words are sometimes analysed as having a plural formative element such as *miri* (trees), *zwienda* (shoes) and *maivha* (doves), but are without overt as shape.

For a word such as *thoho* (monkey), the addition of the appropriate plural morpheme results in no sound difference whatsoever, yet we know that *thoho* (monkey) is sometimes singular and sometimes plural, since when it is the subject of a sentence, it sometimes calls for a plural agreement, for example:

(84) a. *Thoho i thamuwa kha muri.*
(The monkey jumps in the tree.)

b. *Thoho dzi thamuwa kha muri.*
(The monkeys jump in the tree.)

The agreements *i* and *dzi* in (84a-b), show singularity and plurality respectively. This procedure involves the uses of zero-elements, the name given to analytic entities without actual or overt exponents. In other words, the plural morpheme in the word *thoho* (monkey) is a zero morpheme, and has a zero realization.

The zero-derivative process is evident in some borrowed words in *Tshivenda*. Borrowing as a word-formation process will be discussed in Chapter Four.

2.6. SUMMARY

Affixation is the morphological process whereby grammatical or lexical information is added to a stem. In affixation, a new word is formed by:

(a) Adding a prefix to the base, with or without a change of word-class (prefixation), for instance, in *ra-* + *saintsi* (science) > *rasaintsi* (scientist)

(b) adding a suffix to the base, with or without a change of word-class (suffixation), for instance, in *-hangw-* (forget) + *-el-* > *-hangwela* (forgive)

Compounding is the joining of two or more words belonging to the same or different word categories to form new words. It may consist of, for example:

(a) noun and noun: *khanga* (guinea fowl) + *mutupo* (totem) < *khangamutupo* (wayward person)

(b) verbal stem and noun: *vha-* + *-bva* (go out) + *nnḓa* (outside) < *vhabvannḓa* (foreigners)

(c) reduplicated verb stems: *masombesombe* (zigzag).

Zero-derivation or conversion is assigning the base to a different word-class without changing its form (zero-affixation). For example, the word *bannga* (bank) may be used as a noun denoting (bank) or as a verb denoting (to deposit money) without any reduction or affixation made to the word.

The three major word-formation processes, namely, affixation, compounding, and zero-derivation contribute a significantly to the formation of new lexical items in *Tshivenḓa.*

CHAPTER THREE

BACKFORMATION, BLENDING, CLIPPING, ACRONYMY, AND ADOPTION OF BRAND NAMES AS COMMON WORDS

3.1. INTRODUCTION

Apart from the major word-formation processes, affixation, zero-derivation, and compounding, *Tshivenḓa* also calls upon a number of other devices. These are **back-formation,** the deletion of a morpheme (usually an affix) from a word; **clipping,** the shortening of a word without changing its meaning and part of speech; **blending,** the fusion of two words into one (usually, the first part of one word with the last part of another); **acronym,** forming words from the first letters of other words; and the adoption of **brand names** as common words.

3.2. THE AIM

The aim of this chapter is to consider backformation, blending, clipping, acronym formation, and the adoption of brand names as means of forming new word in *Tshivenḓa* on the basis of the old.

3.3. BACKFORMATION

3.3.1 DEFINITION

Backformation is another word-formation process, which is important in *Tshivenḓa.* It is common knowledge that adding affixes to existing words usually forms new words. But in backformation, subtracting an affix thought to be part of the old word forms words.

Akmajian et. al., (1993:478) describes backformation as the process of creating new stems by removing some part of the word that is incorrectly analysed as a morpheme, especially an affix, while Crystal (1991:35) defines it as:

> A term used in historical studies of morphology to refer to an abnormal type of word-formation where a shorter word is derived by deleting an imagined affix from a longer form already present in the language.

In short, backformation is the process whereby a stem is formed by dropping an affix from a larger stem. For example, the verb *-xwatudza* (freeze) was formed by dropping the class 7 prefix *tshi-* from *tshixwatudzi* (freezer or fridge).

3.3.2 WORD-FORMATION WITH BACKFORMATION

According to Trask (1993:26), backformation is the process of forming words by the removal from another word a morph that resembles a familiar affix. Consider the following examples:

(85)	**Existed earlier**	**Formed later by backformation**
(a)	Class1: *mufunzi* (pastor)	*u funza* (to teach)
(b)	Class 2: *muelo* (measurement)	*u ela* (to measure)
(c)	Class 3: *miswaswo* (humour)	*u swaswa* (to joke)
(d)	Class 4: *livhanga* (rival)	*u vhanga* (to dispute)

It is historical fact that the above nouns existed in *Tshivenḓa* before the corresponding verbs. Each of these nouns denoted a general activity. Having made this assumption, speakers could then subtract the prefix and arrive at a new word, a verb, just as we can subtract the class 1 prefix *mu-* on *mufunzi* (pastor) in (85a) to arrive at the verb–*funza* (to teach). In examples (83c and d) the class prefixes 4 and 5 *mi-*and *li-*have

been pulled out of the first parts of the nouns *miswaswo* (humour) and *livhanga* (rival) respectively to arrive at the verbs *-swaswa* (to joke) and *-vhanga* (to cause or to dispute) respectively. These prefixes occurred earlier as derivational affixes changing verbs to nouns.

In this regard Yule (1996:67) observes:

> A very specialized type of reduction process is known as backformation. Typically, a word of one type (usually a noun) is reduced to form another word of a different type (usually a verb)

The following examples clarify Yule's observation:

(86)	a.	Class 5 *manyoro* (fertilizers	*u nyora* (to fertilize)
	b.	Class 11 *luimbo* (song)	*u imba* (to sing)
	c.	Class 14 *vhugudisi* (training)	u gudisa (to train)
	d.	Class 7 *tshipütëli* (cover)	*u putela* (to cover).

The nouns *manyoro* (fertilizers) and *luimbo* (song) first came into use whereafter the verbs-*nyora* (to fertilizer) and *-imba* (to sing) were created from them, by reduction of the class prefixes 6 *ma-* and 11 *lu-* respectively. This process is the reverse of the customary method of word formation where a verb such as *-gudisa* (to teach) is used and the morpheme *mu-* is added to form the noun *vhugudisi* (training).

Stageberg and Goodman (1977:131) agree with Bauer (1988:32) when they state that backformation may be defined as the formation of a word from one that look like its derivative; as in

(87)	a.	*midalo* (floods)	>	*-dala* (full)
	b.	*tshiendedzi* (vehicle)	>	*-endedza* (to transport)

c. *mabebo* (birth) > *-beba* (to give birth)

d. *vhuawelo* (resting place) > *-awela* (to rest).

The verbs *-awela* (to rest), *-endedza* (to transport), and *-beba* (to give birth), in example 87 above are formed by the process of backformation from the nouns *vhuawelo* (resting place), *tshiendedzi* (transport), and *mabebo* (birth) respectively and look like their derivatives. It is also interesting to note that the adjective *ḓala* (full) is formed from the noun *miḓalo* (floods).

According to Trask (1973:26), backformation is a word formed by reanalysis of a compound word, the subsequent removal of an affix which was not originally an immediate constituent, such as u *linda khoro* (to keep the gate) from *mulinda-khoro* (gate keeper), originally [*mulindi*] + [*khoro*], but reanalyzed as [*mu-]*+ [*lindakhoro*] (to keep gate). Similarly the compound word *tshiendatshikhalani* (spacecraft) may be reanalyzed as [tshi-] + [endatshikhala] + [-ni]. This shows that the process of backformation is an active source of new words in *Tshivenḓa*.

3.4 BLENDING

3.4.1 DEFINITION

New words can also be formed from existing ones by a process called blending. Crystal (1991:40) defines blending as:

> A process found in the analysis of grammatical and lexical constructions, in which two elements which do not normally co-occur, according to the rules of the language, come together within a single linguistic unit (blend).

Stageberg and Goodman (1977:131) on the hand remarks that blending is the fusion of two words into one, usually the first part of one word with the last part of

another. It becomes evident from these definitions that blending is a combination of two separate forms to produce a single new term.

3.4.2. WORD-FORMATION WITH BLENDING

Taking only the beginning of the word and joining it to the end of another word, for example, typically accomplish blending:

3.4.2.1 Blending in ordinary nouns

(88)	a.	*mothela* (motel)	>	*moḍoro*(motor) + *hodela*(hotel)
	b.	*thelethoni* (telethone)	>	*thelevishini* (television) + *marathoni* (marathon)
	c.	*esikaleitha* (escalator)	>	*esikaleidi* (escalade) + *eleveitha* (elevator)
	d.	*thirantsisita* (transistor)	>	*thirantsifee* (transfer) + *rezisita* (resistor)
	e.	*tshanele* (channel)	>	*tshanele* (channel) + *thanele* (tunnel)
	f.	*khaphetheria* (carpeteria)	>	*khaphethe* (carpet) + *khafitheria* (cafeteria)
	g.	*phuravethiya* (privateer)	>	*phuraivethe* (private) + *volunthiya* (volunteer).

In example (88a), *mothela* (motel), a hotel designed for people who travel by car, is derived from *moḍoro* (motor) plus *hodela* (hotel). The word *tshanele* (channel) in (88e) is a blend of *tshanele* (channel) and *thanele* (tunnel).

Khaphetheria (carpeteria) in (88f) is a store selling carpets and the name derives from *khaphethe* (carpet) plus the end of *khafitheria* (cafeteria). On the other hand,

phuraivethi (privateer) in (88g), a privately-owned ship used in war, is created from *phuraivethe* (private) and *volunthiya* (volunteer).

Similarly, the word *thirantsisita* (transistor) in (88d), a small electronic device that controls the flow of electricity current, derives from *thirantsifee* (transfer) plus *rezisita* (resistor). *Esikaleitha* (escalator) in (88c), a moving staircase, is a blend of *esikaleidi* (escalade) and *eleveitha* (elevator).

The above examples show that this word-formation process has grown in popularity in recent decades. However, although some of these blends have only a short life and are very informal, some have become more or less fully accepted in *Tshivenḓa.*

Hussey (1995:41) mentions that blends are a sort of compound except that a part of one or both words is lost when they are fused; while Fromkin and Rodman (1993:124), on the other hand, state that blends are compounds that are less than compounds. That is to say, blends are similar to compounds but usually combine shortened forms of two or more morphemes or words.

3.4.2.2 Blending in names of places

Blending is also evident in the formation of the names of places such as

(89)	a.	*Dzingahe*	>	*dzinga*	+	*mahe*
	b.	*Maṱangari*	>	*maṱanga*	+	*miri*
	c.	*Phiphiḓi*	>	*philiphili*	+	*maḓi*
	d.	*Muloḓi*	>	*milindi*	+	*maḓi*
	e.	*Tsiamutsha*	>	*Tsianḓa*	+	*Hamutsha*

In examples (89a-e), *Dzingahe,* derived from *dzinga* + *mahe*, *Maṱangari,* a blend of *maṱanga* + *miri; Phiphiḓi*, formed from *philiphili* + *maḓi*; *Muloḓi,* derived from

Mulindi + *maḓi;* and *Tsiamutsha*, a blend of *Tsianḓa* + *Hamutsha*, are names of villages in the former *Venḓa* homeland of South Africa. These names are the result of blending.

It is evident from these examples that in a blend at least one of the elements is fragmentary when compared with its corresponding uncompounded word-form. That is why Clark *et al.* (1994: 376) state that blending is a combination of clipping and compounding which forms new words by putting together fragments of existing words in a new combination. Compounding was discussed in Chapter Two while clipping will be discussed later in this chapter.

Other such blends are *mulondoḓi* (borehole), *mulindi* (hole), + *maḓi* (water), and *mutsiḓi* (watervapour) (*mutsi* (smoke) + *maḓi* (water), where the first part of the first word has been affixed to the second part of the second word.

3.5. CLIPPING

3.5.1. DEFINITION

While meanings may drift, all aspects of a word's representation can change over time. One noticeable change is clipping. The element of reduction, which is noticeable in blending, is also apparent in this process referred to as clipping. If a word's form seems rather long and cumbersome, it is sometimes shortened by means of the clipping process. Bauer (1988:33) defines clipping as the process of shortening a word without changing its meaning or part of speech, whereas Quirk and Greenbaums (1993:448) states: "The term 'clipping' denotes the subtraction of one or more syllables from a word".

Therefore, clipping occurs when a word of more than one syllable is reduced to a shorter form, often in casual speech.

3.5.2 WORD-FORMATION BY CLIPPING

There is no way to predict how much of the word will be clipped off. But the shortening may occur at the beginning (back-clipping), the end (fore-clipping) or at both ends of the word (back-and fore-clipping).

3.5.2.1 Fore-clip

In fore clipping, shortening occurs at the end of the word. For example:

(90)	a.	*adivethe*	<	*adivethaisimennde*	(advertisement)
	b.	*sele*	<	*selefounu*	(cellphone)
	c.	*fakisi*	<	*fakisimaili*	(facsimile)
	d.	*memo*	<	*memorandamu*	(memorandum)
	e.	*phurofu*	<	*phurofesa*	(professor)
	f.	*nakho*	<	*nakhothisi*	(narcotis)
	g.	*metse*	<	*mathemathiki*	(mathematics)
	h.	*lebo*	<	*leborithari*	(laboratory)
	i.	*fisio*	<	*fisiotheraphi*	(physiotherapy)
	j.	*maikhi*	<	*maikhirofounu*	(microphone)
	k.	*maikhuro*	<	*maikhuroweivi*	(microwave)
	l.	*tshiterio*	<	*tshiteriofounu*	(stereophone)
	m.	*sabu*	<	*sabumarini*	(submarine)
	n.	*nevira*	<	*neviraphini*	(nevirapine)

In each of the examples (90a-n) above, the end of word is clipped off. In (90a), for example speakers prefer to say "*Ndo vhona adivethe ya mushumo kha gurannda*" (I saw an advert for the job in the newspaper), rather than *Ndo vhona adivethaisimenthe ya mushumo kha gurannda* (I saw an advertisement for the job in

the newspaper). The word *adivethaisimenthe* (advertisement) seems to be rather along and cumbersome and is, therefore, shortened to *adivethe* (advert).

This process of lopping off a portion and reducing it to a monosyllabic or disyllabic rump, is also significant in *Tshivenḓa* proper names of children or young people, for example:

(91)	a.	*Vule*	*Vuledzani*
	b.	*Khoro*	*Khorommbi*
	c.	*Tshina*	*Tshinakaho*
	d.	*Taki*	*Takalani*
	e.	*Hangwi*	*Hangwani*
	f.	*Ṱali*	*Ṱalifhani*

In (91a-f), the front parts of the names have been trimmed, leaving the back parts intact. The *Tshivenḓa* names for children, *Vuledzani* and *Khorommbi*, for example, are reduced to *Vule* and *Khoro* respectively.

3.5.2.2. Back-clip

In back clipping, the cutting off occurs at the beginning of the word as in:

(92)	a.	*founu*	<	*theleḓounu*	(telephone)
	b.	*phuleini*	<	*erophuleini*	(aeroplane)
	c.	*kara*	<	*moḓorokara*	(motor car)
	d.	*kuku*	<	*makhulukuku*	(great grandparent).

In example (92), the first part is shortened while the second part remains intact. In (92a), for example, speakers often say *Ndi ḓo renga founu* (I shall buy a phone), rather than *Ndi ḓo renga theleḓounu* (I shall buy a telephone). The back part of the

word *thelefounu* (telephone) has been clipped off so that it remains as *founu* (phone). Similarly, *Erophuleini i do fhira nga Fura* (The aeroplane will via France), is shortened as *Phuleini i do fhira nga Fura* (The plane will via France), while *Munna u funa modorokara ntswa (Die man hou van 'n nuwe motor kar)* (The man likes a new motor car) will be reduced to *Munna u funa kara ntswa (Die man hou van 'n nuwe kar)* (The man likes a new car).

This lopping-off is also significant in *Tshivenda* names of young people, for example:

(93)	a.	*Mukosi*	*Ramukosi*
	b.	*Mphiri*	*Tshisamphiri*
	c.	*Tali*	*Mutali*
	d.	*Funi*	*Thivhafuni*

Example (93a-d), shows that *Tshivenda* speakers prefer to shorten the names of young people, for instance, *Ramukosi, Tshisamphiri, Mutali,* and *Thivhafuni* become *Mukosi, Mphiri, Tali,* and *Funi* respectivly.

3.5.2.3. Fore - and back - clip

In fore and back clipping, deleting occurs at the beginning and the end of the word as in:

(94)	a.	*firidzhi*	<	*refiridzhireitha*	(refrigerator)
	b.	*fuluu*	<	*inifuluenza*	(influenza)

Example (94) shows that the beginning and the end (*re-, reitha*, and *ini-, -nza*) of the words *refiridzhireitha* (refridgerator) and *inifuluenza* (influenza) are clipped off so that the words become *firidzhi* (fridge) and *fuluu* (flu) respectively.

Tshivenda names for children can also be fore - and back - clipped, for example:

(95) a. *Hangwi* *Azwihangwisi*
b. *Funi* *Avhafunani*
c. *Kone* *Tshikonelo*

In example (95), the names *Hangwi* and *Funi* have been derived from the long *Azwihangwisi* and *Avhafunani* respectively by the process of fore-and back clipping. Similarly, the name *Kone* has been derived from the name *Tshikonelo.*

Some proper names share same clipping. This makes it difficult to detect the original name. For example:

(96) a. *Kondi* *Mukondeleli and Makondelele*
b. *Todi* *Todani and Avhantodi*
c. *Tali* *Talifhani and Mutali*
d. *Hangwi* *Azwihangwisi, Hangwani and Thingahangwi*
e. *Funi* *Funanani, Lufuno, Mpfuneni, Thivhafuni, and Avhafunani*
f. *Tondi* *Rotondwa, Tondani, Mutondi and Mutondavenda*

In the examples, the name *Kondi,* for example, is part of the long names *Mukondeleli* and *Makondelele* while the names *Funanani, Lufuno*, *Mpfuneni*, *Thivhafuni,* and *Avhafunani* share the clipping *Funi.*

Besides the names of young people, clipping is also significant in the names of some institutions, for example: *Baragwanath,* the name of a hospital in Gauteng Province of South Africa, can be reduced to *Bara.* The *Tshivenda* speakers often say:

Malume vho valelwa sibadela tsha Bara (The uncle has been admitted to Bara Hospital), rather than *Malume vho valelwa sibadela tsha Baragwanath* (The uncle has been admitted to the Baragwanath Hospital).

The above examples show that nouns are clipped either fore or back or fore and back. In addition, this clipping reveals that abbreviations for longer words or phrases may become lexicalized too. Since the parts that are deleted in clipping are not clearly morphs in any sense, it is not necessary the case that clipping is part of morphology, although it is a way of forming new lexemes.

3.6. ACRONYM FORMATION

3.6.1 DEFINITION

Another relatively new way of creating words is through the use of acronyms. Nowadays, new words are coined from existing words by means of abbreviation almost daily. Howard (1993: 7) explains acronym as follows:

> Acronym is, a postwar formation, following the pattern of 'homonym'. **Acro** is a Greek word meaning 'end' or 'tip', and an acronym is a word formed from the first letters of the other words.

Acronym is, therefore, the process whereby a word is formed from the initials or beginning sequence of a succession of words. According to Kuiper and Allan (1996:184), there are two kinds of acronyms. Some sets of initial letters actually form possible words such as **Medunsa** (Medical University of South Africa) and **Swapo** (South West African People's Organisation). Others do not, such as South African Broadcasting Corporation, usually called **SABC,** is pronounced with each of its letters being pronounced separately.

Where the initial letters a word consisting of consonants and vowels, such as ISCOR and SASOL, the abbreviations are generally called acronyms, but sometimes letter names or letter words.

Acronyms are pronounced as words whereas in letter groups each letter is sounded separately as in **ATM** (Automatic Teller Machine), **PAC** (Pan Africanist Congress) or **ICU** (Intensive Care Unit).

3.6.2 WORD-BUILDING WITH ACRONYMS

Van Schalkwyk (1979:65) states that since modern communications are fast, it has to cope with the needs of the 'hurry-hurry' existence of modern man. One would hardly expect someone working at **Escom** to say the 'Electricity Supply Commission' employs that one. Neither would it be feasible in our daily communication to use all the full names of acronyms such as: AIDS, PIN, SOWETO, and Contralesa. *Tshivenḓa* speakers make use of most of the acronyums and letter groups as they appear in English, for example:

(97) a. PIN : Personal Identification Number
(Nomboro Ṱhalusavhuṋe)

b. ID : Identity Document
(Liṅwalo la vhuṋe).

When a *Tshivenḓa* speaker wants to say he or she has forgotten his or her Personal Identification Number *(Nomboro Ṱhalusa vhuṋe)* he or she would say:

(98) a. *A thi nga koni u bvisa tshelede kha **ATM***
(I shall not be able to withdraw money from the ATM.)

Ndo hangwa PIN yanga
(I have forgotten my PIN.)

ATM and PIN are letter group and acronym respectively. These kinds of abbreviations, namely, acronyms and letter groups, have become an integral part of *Tshivenda* vocabulary. *Tshivenda* speakers cannot do without them in modern communication.

Bauer (1988:39) mentions that acronyms are words coined from the initial letters of the words in a name, title or phrase. Acronyms and letter groups are in most cases actual names for business organizations, government organizations, and association or scientific and technical terms, such as:

Business organizations

(99) a. BEE : Black Economic Empowerment
b. ABSA: Amalgamated Banks of South Africa
c. FNB: First National Bank

*Tshikwama tsha Pension tshi kha thendelano na **BEE.***
(The Pension Fund is in agreement with **BEE**.)

Government Organisations

(100) a. SARS: South African Revenue Services
b. SANDF: South African National Defence Force
c. DWAF: Department of Water Affairs and Forestry
e. *Ndi dadza fomo dza SARS*
(I complete the SARS forms)

Scientific and Technical Terms

(110) a. SMS: Short Message Service
b. VCR: Video Cassette Recorder
c. ATM: Automatic Teller Machine
Rumelani ṢMS yaṇu kha 072 236 3759
(Send your SMS to 072 236 3759).

Phrases

(102) a. AIDS: Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
b. MDD: Mothers Against Drinking and Driving
c. CNN: Cable News Network
d. POS: Point of Sale
d. WYSIWYG: What You See Is What You Get.

*Pfunzo ya **AIDS** i shango lothe.*
(AIDS education is all over the country.)

Kha luambo lwa khomphiyutha, WYSIWYG zwi amba uri zwine zwa sumbedzwa kha tshikirini ndi zwine zwa do ganndiswa.
(In computer jargon, WYSIWYG means that what is displayed on the screen will be what is printed out.)

3.6.3 CHARACTERISTICS OF ACRONYMS

(i) Acronyms are abbreviations, which are pronounced as words, for example:

(103 a. ASSA : Albinism Society of South Africa
b. WHO : World Health Organisation

*Mugwalabo wa **ASSA** wo fhahewa.*

(The protest of **ASSA**has been suspended.)

(ii) Acronyms have vowels forming pronunciable combinations and are therefore sounded like words, for instance:

(104) a. BODMAS: Brackets of division, multiplication, addition, and subtraction.

b. SEDA: Small Enterprise Development Agency.

*Shumisani **BODMAS** kha (5x3) –5÷4 of 7*

(Apply BODMAS IN (15x3) – 5 ÷ 4 of 7.)

(iii) The list of acronyms changes constantly as new organizations are formed, for example:

(105) a. **Old**: SADF: South African Defence Force.

New: SANDF: South African National Defence Force.

b. **Old**: TUATA: Transvaal United African Teachers Association.

c. **New**: SADTU: South African Democratic Teacher's Union.

*Muvhuso wa NP wo tumbula **SADF** ngeno muvhuso wa ANC wo tumbula **SANDF**.*

(The NP Government established the SANDF while the ANC Govrrnment established the SANDF.)

(iv) Acronyms are usually capitalized:

(106) a. RAM: Random Access Memory

b. SAFA: South African Football Association

c. *RAM ndi mbulungelo ya tshifhinganyana ya mushumo wo shunwaho kha khomphiyutha.*
(RAM is a temporary storage area for the work done on a computer.)

(v) Some acronyms, however, become ordinary words, for instance:

(107) a. Iscor: Iron and Steel Industrial Corporation

b. Cosatu: Congress of South African Trade Unions

c. *Ndi tama u shuma ha* ***Iscor*** *fhedzi.*
(I wish to work at Iscor only.)

(vi) The modern international trend is to omit full stops, periods, and spaces:

(108) a. FIFA (Federation of International Football Association) and not F.I.F.A.

b. SOCA: (Sexual Offences and community Affairs) and not S.O.C.A

c. *Vhurumelwa ha* ***FIFA*** *ho tuwa.*
(The FIFA delegation has left.)

(vii) Acronyms can easily be used as ordinary nouns:

(109) a. Sadtu: South African Democratic Teacher's Union
Dzangano la ***Sadtu*** *li do gwalaba.*
(The Sadtu Union will protest.)

b. Gida: Global Investigation and Dispute Advisory

***Gida** i na mirado minzhi.*

(Gida has many members.)

(viii) An acronyms may have a plural form:

(110) a. Dzisasol (Sasols)

b. Sasol I

c. Sasol II

***Dzisasol** dzothe dzi do vala matshelo.*

(All the Sasols will close tomorrow.)

(ix) In English, acronyms can be linked to other nouns:

(111) a. SAFA President

b. Sasol petrol

Muphurusidende wa SAFA u tanganedza vhaeni.

(The **SAFA** President welcomes the guests.)

(x) In English, acronyms can be linked to a letter –group as well:

(112) a. Escom-CEO: Electricity Supply Commission Chief Executive Officer

b. Numsa-NEC: National Union of Metalworkers of South African - National Executive Committee.

(xi) An acronym may also be formed from a phrase composed of an acronym and other words:

(113) a. PUK: Pin Unblocking Key (where Pin means Personal Identification number.)

3.6.4 CHARACTERISTICS OF LETTER –GROUPS

(i) All letter -symbols for this kind of abbreviation are sounded:

(114) a. TVEP: Thohoyandou Victim Empowerment Programme
b. FVSA: Family Violence and Sexual Assault

***TVEP** i na vhashumela vhapo vhayo.*
(TVEP has its own social workers.

(ii) All the letters are capitalized:

(115) a. ART: Anti-retroviral therapy
b. HIV: Human Immune Virus

*Vhathu vho binyiwaho vha newa **ART.***
(The people who are raped are given ART.)

(iii) The modern international trend is to omit periods between the symbols:

(116) a. CLO (Community Liaison Officer) and not C.L.O.
b. HRF (Housing and Rental Forum) and not H.R.F.

*Tshitshavha tsho nanga **CLO** watsho.*
(The community nominated its own CLO.)

(iv) Letter-groups are not pronounced as words:

(117) a. UN: United Nations *(Mbumbano ya dzitshaka)*

b. VDU: Visual Display Unit *(Yunithi tsumbedza zwivhonwaho.)*

*Munwaleli wa **UN** u do rula mushumo.*

(The Secretary of the UN will resign.)

(v) The majority of letter-groups do not have vowels:

(118) a. PSL: Premier Soccer League

b. FC: Football Club

c. FNB: First National Bank

*Orlando Pirates **FC** i ntha kha mutevhe wa ligi ya **PSL.***

(Orlando Pirates FC is at the top of PSL league.)

(vi) Some letter-groups may have vowels in the wrong place so that they cannot be pronounced phonetically:

(119) a. ATM: Automatic Teller Machine

b. ICT: Information and Communication Technology

*Ri bvisa tshelede kha **ATM***

(We withdraw money from the ATM.)

(vii) Some of these letter-groups do possess vowels, and can be pronounced phonetically, but through common usage the letters are sounded separately:

(120) a. CPU: Central Procesing Unit.

b. IEC: Independent Electoral Commision.

***CPU** ndi vhuluvhi ha khomphiyutha.*

(The CPU is the brain of a computer).

(viii) Some English letter-groups can be linked with other nouns:

(121) a. SABC-News

b. Un-Secretary

*Ri ḓiphiṋa nga maſhungo a **SABC** ḓuvha liṅwe na liṅwe.*

(We enjoy SABC-news everyday.)

(ix) A letter-group and an acronym may be used together in one sentence separated by a hyphen:

(122) a. HIV-AIDS

b. SAFA-PRO

*Vhudzekani vhu songo tsireledzeaho vhu nga vhanga **HIV-AIDS.***

(Unprotected sex may lead to HIV-AIDS.)

(x) Letter-groups, like acronyms, may have plurals:

(123) a. Dzi NGO (NGOs): Non-Governmental Organisations

b. Dzi NGO (CEOs): Chief Executive Officers

*Vhana vha sa ḓikoneli vha ḓo thuswa nga Dzi **NGOs.***

(The disabled children will be helped by the NGOs.)

(xi) A letter-group may be used together with another letter-group separated by a hyphen:

(124) a. SABC-TV: South African Broadcasting Corporation Television

b. FNB-ATM: First National Bank Automatic Teller Machine
*Ro bvisa tshelede kha **FNB-ATM.***
(We withdrew money from the FNB-ATM.)

(xii) Letter-groups may be used as verbs or nouns:

(125) a. *Kha vha **SMS** phindulo yavho kha 072 506 8685 (verb)*
(Please, SMS your answer to 072 506 8685.)

b. ***SMS** yanu yo tanganedzwa. (Noun)*
(Your SMS has been received.)

In order to communicate effectively, both the communicator and the communicatee ought to understand what an acronym or letter-group stands for. Consider the following examples:

(126) a. AIDS: Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (medicine)
American Institute for Decision Sciences
Agricultural Information and Documentation Section (Netherlands).

b. ANC: African National Congress (South Africa)
African National Council (Zimbabwean)
Acid-Neutralising Capacity (Chemistry)
Ante-Natal Care/Clinic (Health).

c. DAS: Development Appraisal System(Management)
Data Acquisition Station (Military)
Director ofAdministrative Services(Germany).

d. SABS: South African Bureau of Standards
Stability Automatic Bomb Sight.

These examples show that in many cases one acronym or letter-group may be derived from different phrases, fields or countries. For example, in South Africa the letter-group ANC is derived from African National Congress whereas in Zimbabwe it is derived from African National Council. In the field of chemistry, the letter-group ANC is derived from Acid-Neutralising Capacity whereas in the field of health it is derived from Ante-Natal Care or Clinic.

These examples also show that the formation and the usage of many acronyms depend on the context of discussion or communication between the communicator and the communicatee. For example, a speaker in Netherlands may use the acronym AIDS, referring either to Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome in the field of medicine or to the Agricultural Information and Documentation Section.

Some people may pronounce the concepts such as **PAC** (Pan Africanist Congress) as an acronym, while other pronounce the letters separately as letter-groups. We often hear both **PAC,** pronounced separately, and PAC [pæk].

Akmajian et al. (1993:21) indicate that it is important to note that even though such words are originally created as acronyms, speakers quiuckly forget such origins so that the acronyms become new independent words.

Yule (1996:68) supported this view when he asserts that: "Some new acronyms come into general use so quickly that many speakers do not think of their component meanings."

It is interesting to note that some scronyms tend to merge into blends when more than one letter is taken from each of the words of the title, as in:

(127)	a.	*Tshikevha*	:	*Tshikolo tsha kereke ya Vhapo*
	b.	Soweto	:	South western townships
	c.	*Soshanguve*	:	*Sotho, Shangaan, Nguni, and Venḓa*
	d.	*Lwatshatsimu*	:	*Lwamondo, Tshakhuma, Tsianḓa, and Mutsha.*

In example (127), *Tshikevha*, derived from the first letters of *tshikolo, kereke*, and *vhapo*, is the name of a school at *Ṱhohoyanḓou*, a town in the Limpopo Province of South Africa. Soweto, South Western townships, and *Soshanguve* (Sotho, *Shangaan, Nguni,* and *Venḓa,* are names of townships in the South West of Johannesburg City and north of Pretoria (Tshwane) City respectively. Blending as a word-formation process has been discussed in paragraph 3.4.

In conclusion, acronyms offer neat ways of expressing long and cumbersome terms. In other words, acronyms are shortened forms which save time and space.

3.7 ADOPTION OF BRAND NAMES AS COMMON WORDS

3.7.1 DEFINITION

Entirely previously non-existent words may be added to the vocabulary or lexicon of *Tshivenḓa* by derivational processes. New words may also enter the language in a variety of other ways such as adoption of brand names as common words. This often happens when speakers invent or coin (invention or word coinage) new words to name previously non-existent objects that result from technological changes. Horward (1993:56) explains brand naming as follows: "Proprietary name, for a registered name that no one else can use, is almost completely replaced by brand or brand name".

In simple terms specific brand names are used as the general name for different brands of the same types of products. Hussey (1995:41) supports this view: "The names, originally given to a particular product, are later used more generally". Some of these words can be coined directly to fit some purpose while some are created from existing words.

3.7.2 WORD-BUILDING WITH BRAND NAMES

In *Tshivenḓa* these brand names are either coined and used as they appear in Elnglish or borrowed and given a *Tshivenḓa* spelling and pronunciation:

				***Tshivenḓa* pronunciation**
(128)	a.	laser	:	*leiza/lasere*
	b.	dot matrix	:	*dotho mathirikisi.*

Laser, an acronym for light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation, is a device that produces an intense beam of light. A *Tshivenḓa* speaker would pronounce the word as lasere, for example:

				***Tshivenḓa* pronunciation**
(129)	a.	Laser printer	:	*Lasere phirintha*
	b.	*Lasere phirintha yanga i bvisa khophi dza nṱhesa ufhira ya dotho mathirikisi.*		
		(My laser printer produces higher quality copies than the dot matrix one.)		

Because some *Tshivenḓa* translations seem to be longer, such as *dotho mathirikisi* compared to dot matrix, some speakers resort to the English spelling and pronunciation.

(130) a. radar : *rada*

Radar from **r**adio **d**etection and **r**anging, is a method using radio waves to detect solid objects, for example, in radar transmitting devices such as

			***Tshivenḓa* pronunciation**
(131)	a.	radar trap:	*rada thirepe*
	b.	radar beacon:	*rada bikhoni.*

A *rada thirepe* (radar trap) may be used to detect motorists exceeding the speed limits, while *rada bikhoni* (radar beacon) sends out a coded radar signal, which enables the navigator of the ship or plane to fix its position. *Tshivenḓa* speakers also coin these kinds of words, which did not occur in their language.

Some of these words were created from the existing words, such as

				***Tshivenḓa* pronunciation**
(132)	a.	kleenex	:	*kilinekisi*
	b.	jell-o	:	*dzhele-o*

Kilinekisi (Kleenex) in (132a) has been either created or borrowed from the word (clean), while *dzhele-o* (jell-o) in (132b), was either formed or borrowed from the word (gel). According to Yule (1996:64), the most typical sources are invented trade names for a company's product, which has become a general version of the product. In simple terms, this means that the trade names, originally given to a particular product are later used more generally, for example:

				Tshivenḓa pronunciation
(133)	a.	kleenex	:	*kiḽinekisi*
	b.	xerox	:	*zerokisi*
	c.	hoover	:	*huva*
	d.	simba	:	*masimba*

The words *kiḽinekisi* (kleenex), *zerokisi* (xerox), and *huva* (hoover) represent another technique of coining previously non-existent words, namely, brand names of products as names of products in general. Hence *kiḽinekisi* (Kleenex), a brand name for a facial tissue, has come to denote facial tissues in general. Simiarly, *zerokisi* (xerox) is the name of the corporation that produces a well-known photocopying machine, but has specific brand name connotation and its used to describe the process of photocopy in general. *Huva* (hoover), a kind of vacuum cleaner, has similarly widened its range. *Masimba* (*simba*) is a kind of snackchips, which has come to denote any kind of snackchips in general. Rubba (2004:6) maintains that

> A brand name becomes the name for the item or process associated with the brand name. The word ceases to be capitalized and acts as a normal verbal noun i.e. takes inflections such as plural or past tense.

Rubba's view becomes evident from the following examples:

(134) a. *Ndo* ***zerokisa*** *bambiri ḽa mbudziso.*
(I **xeroxed** a question paper.)

b. *Ni fanela u* ***huva*** *khaphethe dzaṋu*
(You have to **hoover** your carpets.)

c. *Mme u rengela ṅwana* ***masimba.***
(The mother buys **simba** for the child.)

In examples (134a-b) the words act as normal verbs while in (134c) the word *masimba* acts as a plural noun. Other such inventions or coinages are:

				Tshivenda pronunciation
(135)	a.	Sweeto	:	*Swito*
	b.	Rama	:	*Rama*
	c.	Checkers	:	*Lutshekasi*
	d.	Cremora	:	*Khirimora*

Swito (Sweeto) in (135a) has been created from the word 'sweet'. *Swito* (sweeto) is a kind of sweetener but it has come to denote any sweetener in general. The word *rama* (*rama*), in (135b) above, which was originally used to express a specific kind of magarine has also widened its range. *Lutshekasi* in (135c) comes from the name Checkers, a trade name for a retail shop that used the light plastic bags for carrying groceries bought from the shop. The name has, however, come to denote any light plastic bag in general. The word has adopted the class 11 prefix *lu-* and acts as a noun. Similarly, *khirimora* in (135d) is a name of a tea and coffee creamer that has come to express any tea and coffee creamer despite the apparent differences among the different brands.

3.8 SUMMARY

Backformation is the process whereby a stem is formed by dropping an affix from a larger stem, for example, the verb *xwatudza* (to freeze) is formed by dropping the Class 7 prefix *tshi-* and the ending vowel *–i* from the noun *tshixwatudzi* 'refrigerator/fridge'. New words can also be created from the process called blending where the beginning of one word is joined to the end of another word, For example, the noun *mothela* (motel) is derived by fusing the beginning of the noun *modoro* (motor) and the end of the noun *hodela* (hotel) together.

Clipping occurs when a word of more than one syllable is reduced to a shorter form. This shortening may take place at the beginning (back-clip), at the end (fore-clip), or at both ends (back- and fore-clip) of the word:

a. fore-clip: *adivethe* - *adivethaisimenthe* (advertisement)
b. back-clip: *founu* - *thelefounu* (telephone)
c. fore- and back-clip: *firidzhi* - *refiridzhireitha* (refrigerator)

Acronymy is the process whereby a word is formed from the initial letters of a succession of words. For example, the letter group **SMS** is formed from the initial letters of the words **Short Message Services,** which denotes a cellphone service of sending short text messages, whereas the acronym **CLIP** is derived from the initial letters of the words **Calling Line Identification Presentation** denoting a cellphone service for presenting the telephone numbers of the person who is calling.

New words may also enter the *Tshivenda* language through the adoption of brand names as common words. This often happens when speakers coin new words to name previously non-existent objects that result from technological changes, for example, *huva* (hoover), a kind of vacuum cleaner, and *masimba* (simba), a kind of chips. These kinds of words have widened their range to denote any kind of vacuum cleaner and any kind of chips in general, respectively.

CHAPTER FOUR

BORROWING, ONOMATOPOEIA, TRANSPOSITION, AND STRESS-SHIFT

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Besides a number of word-formation processes, which were discussed in the previous chapters, grammar includes other ways of increasing the vocabulary or of adding new words to the lexicon. These include borrowing the incorporation of a word or phrase from one language into another, to refer to things, processes, ways of behaviour, organization, and thinking for which words or phrases were not available or convenient; onomatopoeia (words are invented which, to native speakers at least, sound like the sound they name or the entity which produces the sound), transposition; (the changing of the position or order of a word) and stress-shift; (the shifting of stress from one syllable to the other without the addition of an affix).

4.2 THE AIM

The aim of this chapter is to analyse borrowing, anomatopoeia, transposition, and stress-shift as other ways of increasing the *Tshivenḓa* vocabulary.

4.3 BORROWING

4.3.1 DEFINITION

Languanges are in a continous state of change. The process of borrowing is one of the most common sources of new words in *Tshivenḓa*. Kuiper and Allan (1996:181) indicate that.

> The total vocabulary of a language is never static nor is that of a speaker. Words pass in and out of both. The normal way this happens in the case of language is through a process that can be called lexical borrowing (usually just borrowing).

By this Kuiper and Allan mean that when ever there are culture contacts of any sort between the speakers of different languages, the speakers may make use of words from other languages to refer to things, processes, and ways of bahaviour, organizations, or thinking, for which words or phrases are not available or convenient in their own language, for example:

(136) a. *phuleithi* (plate)
b. *tshiṱereke* (strike)
c. *bulasi* *(plaas)*
d. *dantsi* *(dans)*
e. *baga* *(bak)*

Crystal (1991:41) defines borrowing as

> A term used in comparative and historical linguistics to refer to linguistic forms being taken over by one language or dialect from another , such borrowing are usually known as "loan words".

Crystal thus defines borrowing as the taking over of words from other languages or dialects so that borrowings are known as loan words. Poulos (1990:76) in turn states that different terms such as loan words, borrowing, foreign acquisitions, and adoptives are used in literature to refer to the adoption of forms from one language to another. The four terms are different terms that refer to one and the same process, namely, borrowing.

4.3.2 WORD-FORMATION WITH BORROWING

4.3.2.1 Borrowing from English and Afrikaans

Tshivenḓa has, throughout its history, borrowed a vast number of words from other languages. These words words are borrowed according to some native rules of word formation. Poulos (1990:77) mentions some of these rules regarding the formation of new words through borrowing in *Tshivenḓa*.

(a) If the borrowed word begins with a sound that calls to mind one of the *Tshivenḓa* class prefixes, it is placed in that particular class. For example, the *Tshivenḓa* prefix *mu-* resembles the first syllable of the Afrikaans and English words, as in the following examples:

(137)	a.	*mupani*	(3)	<	*mopanieboom*	(Afrikaans)
	b.	*muneri*	(1)	<	*meneer*	(Afrikaans)
	c.	*muziamu*	(3)	<	*museum*	(Afrikaans)
	d.	*mutshini*	(3)	<	machine	(English)
	e.	*muzika*	(3)	<	music	(English)
	f.	*munithi*	(3)	<	minute	(English)

Tshivenda also places the Afrikaans and English words, which begin with '**st**' to the prefix of Class 7, namely, *tshi-* as the following examples show:

(138)	a.	*tshitofu*	(7)	<	*stoof*	(Afrikaans)
	b.	*tshitirata*	(7)	<	*straat*	(Afrikaans)
	c.	*tshitili*	(7)	<	steel	(English)
	d.	*tshitediamu*	(7)	<	stadium	(English)
	e.	*tshitemmbe*	(7)	<	stamp	(English)
	f.	*tshititshi*	(7)	<	station	(English)

It is interesting to note that most of the words borrowed fromAfrikaans which begin with**'br'**are placed in the *Tshivenḓa* prefix of class14, namely, *vhu-*, for example:

(139)	a.	*vhurifhi*	(14)	<	*brief*	(Afrikaans)
	b.	*vhurukhu*	(14)	<	*broek*	(Afrikaans)
	c.	*vhurotho*	(14)	<	*brood*	(Afrikaans)

(b) In most cases, the *Tshivenda* Class 5 and 9 do not have an overtly marked prefix and are, therefore, used for the borrowing of new words:

(140)	a.	*vese*	(9)	<	vest	(English)
	b.	*bommbo*	(9)	<	*pomp*	(Afrikaans)
	c.	*donngi*	(9)	<	*donkie*	(Afrikaans)
	d.	*thoilethe*	(9)	<	toilet	(English)

(c) In some cases a class prefix is added to the noun that has been borrowed. In the following examples, the Class 5 prefix *li-*, which forms no part of the original English or Afrikaans words, is added to the borrowed noun.

(141)	a.	*lipholisa*	<	police	(English)
	b.	*libodelo*	<	*bottle*	(Afrikaans)
	c.	*liafukhada*	<	avocado	(English)
	d.	*lihanisi*	<	*harnas*	(Afrikaans)

(d) The formation of plurals by the normal substitution of prefixes, shows that when a noun is borrowed into *Tshivenḓa*, it is treated in the same way as any other noun in the language, for example:

				Singular		**Plural**
(142)	a.	music (English)	>	*muzika*	>	*mizika*
	b.	*broek* (Afrikaans)	>	*vhurukhu*	>	*marukhu*
	c.	*straat* (Afrikaans)	>	*tshitirata*	>	*zwitirata*
	d.	form (English)	>	*fomo*	>	(*dzi-*)fomo

(e) It is possible to derive deverbative nouns from the verb roots that have themselves been borrowed from other languages, in the normal way, for example:

(143)	a.	*skrop* (Afrikaans)	>	*-korop-* >		*tshikoropo* (7)
	b.	patch (English)	>	*-phetsh->*		*phetsho* (9)
	c.	sift (English)	>	*-sef-* >		*sefo* (9)
	d.	win (English)	>	*-win-* >		*muwini* (1)
	e.	*werk* (Afrikaans)	>	*-vhereg-* >		*mberego* (9)
					>	*muvheregi* (1)
					>	*tshivheregi* (7).

In the above examples, the verb root *-korop-* (to scrup) has been borrowed from the Afrikaans *skrop* (*u phumula*). The deverbative nouns *tshikoropo* (scrubbing instrument) and *mukoropi* (one who scrubs) have been formed from the verb root-*korop-* (to scrub) by the addition of the relevant prefixes *tshi-* (Class 7) and mu- (Class1), and the suffixes *–o* and *–i* respectively. Similarly the deverbative nouns *phetsho* (a patch) and *muphetshi* (one who patches) have been created from the borrowed verb root *–phetsh-* (to patch).

(f) The borrowed words are taken unchanged, but undergo different adaptations regarding phonology, morphology, and semantics to fit in with the linguistic structure of *Tshivenda*. Sometimes speakers of *Tshivenda* try to

pronounce borrowings as they are pronounced in the original language , for example:

(144)	a.	*tie*	<	*tie*	(Afrikaans)
	b.	*khamera*	<	camera	(English)
	c.	*fothokhophi*	<	photocopy	(English)
	d.	*kofi*	<	*koffie*	(Afrikaans)

The above words are borrowed and pronounced by *Tshivenḓa* speakers as they are pronounced in their original languages. However, if the borrowed word or phrase is widely used, most speakers will pronounce it according to the sound of their own language. Robins (1959:355) explains this as follows:

> Some foreign words so used by individual speakers pass into general currency in the language, being altered in pronunciation in the process in the direction of the sounds and phonological patterns of the language acquiring them.

On the other hand, Robins concurs with Rubba (2004:6) when stating: "Borrowing is a word taken from another language and it may be adopted to the borrowing language's phonological system to varying degrees."

A large number of words were borrowed from other languages and given *Tshivenḓa* pronunciation. Most of these words have retained their original meanings because they are borrowed and used for new concepts, which were not present in *Tshivenda* and its speakers' existing word stock. These words were borrowed and assigned to *Tshivenḓa* morphological classes, which are governed by the affixation of prefixes to indicate their singulars and plurals. Consider the following football terms:

		Singular		**Plural**	
(145)	a.	*tshikoro* (score)	<	*zwikoro* (scores)	(English)
	b.	*tshitaila* (style)	<	*zwitaila* (styles)	(English)
	c.	(li-) *pala* (*paal*)	<	*mapala* (*pale*)	(Afrikaans)
	d.	(li-) *nethe* (net)	<	*manethe* (nets)	(English)
	e.	*gammba* (*kamp*)	<	(dzi-) *gammba*(*kampe*)	(Afrikaans)
	f.	*ofusaidi*(offside)	<	(dzi-) *ofusaidi* (offsides)	(English)
	g.	*huku* (*hoek*)	<	(dzi-) *huku* (*hoeke*)	(Afrikaans)
	h.	*thimu* (team)	<	(dzi-) *thimu* (teams)	(English).

In example (145a and b), the affixation of the Class 7 prefix *tshi-* shows that the borrowed words *tshikoro* (score) and *tshitaila* (style) are singular while the Class 8 prefix *zwi-* shows that the borrowed words *zwikoro* (scores) and *zwitaila* (styles)are plurals. Similarly, in examples (145c-d) the class 5 prefix *li-* and class 6 prefix *ma-* show singular and plural respectively, whereas the class 9 prefix *n-* and class 10 prefix *dzi-* show singular and plural respectively in examples (143e nad h).

It was important to borrow football terms from English and Afrikaans because football media commentary was relatively new to *Tshivenda* speakers. The borrowed words have become *Tshivenda* words for all practical purposes. They can now be considered as mere additions to the *Tshivenda* lexicon.

The advent of western civilization and the changing conditions introduced by it has resulted in the borrowing of a number of words from English and Afrikaans into *Tshivenda.* Here are a few examples of the borrowed nouns:

(146)	a.	*tshikurudiraiva*	<	screw driver	(English)
	b.	*teretere*	<	*trekker*	(Afrikaans)
	c.	*thotshi*	<	torch	(English)
	d.	*betiri*	<	battery	(English)

e.	*selefounu*	<	cellphone	(English)
f.	*bandishi*	<	bandage	(English)
g.	*tshelede*	<	*geld*	(Afrikaans).

The above nouns were brought into *Tshivenḓa* because the concepts were originally unknown to the speakers and, therefore, had no equivalents. A number of verbs were also borrowed from English and Afrikaans, for example:

(147) a.	*(u) baga*	<	(to) bake	
b.	*(u) fothokhopha*	<	(to) photocopy	
c.	*(u) founa*	<	(to) phone	
d.	*(u) thaipha*	<	(to) typewrite	
e.	*(u) bandisha*	<	(to) dress a wound/to bandage.	

According to Poulos (1990:77) some of the borrowed words may be used side by side with words, which express a similar but unidentical idea in *Tshivenḓa*, for example:

(148) a.	*ḓorobo* (town)	<	*dorp*	(Afrikaans)
b.	*damu* (dam)	<	*dam*	(Afrikaans)

The word *ḓorobo* (town) is used to refer to modern towns as are known today. They are different from the traditional village area known as *muḓi* (village). Similarly, *damu* (dam) is used to refer to the barrier to hold back water, usually built of concrete to control the flow of a river, which is different from the natural *tivha*. This type of borrowing, where shades of difference exist between the meanings of borrowings and 'native' words, helps to build up a richer vocabulary.

4.3.2.2 Borrowing from African languages

Languages are in a continuous state of change and there is no language, which does not take a word from another language. Poulos (1990:75) asserts that

> When different cultures come into contact with one another over a period of time, it can be expected that unknown aspects of the one culture will be accommodated within the other.

Poulos's explanation shows that borrowing takes place when two speech communities are in contact. *Tshivenḓa* does not borrow words from English and Afrikaans only. It has also borrowed words from other languages as well. The speech communities with which the *Tshivenḓa* speakers have been in contact, such as *Tsonga* and Northern *Sotho,* most of these contacts have left a record of themselves in the form of borrowed words. Here are some of the examples:

(149) a. *matshomane* (religious worship) < *macomane* (Tsonga)
b. *mabalane* (clerk) < *mabalane* (Zulu)
c. *mungane* (friend) < *monghana* (Tsonga)
d. *muswuhana* (young man) < *lesogana* (Northen Sotho)
e. *tshitshavha* (community) < *sechaba* (Sotho)
f. *tshikhathi* (time) < *isikhathi* (Zulu)
g. *mathada* (complications)< *mathaba* (Northern Sotho)

Borrowing from other African languages has contributed a number of new words to *Tshivenḓa.*

4.3.2.3 Extending indigenous word

A new concept can be expressed merely by extending the meaning of an indigenous word. In this case, a new word is not borrowed to express a new concept, but an additional meaning is merely attached to the existing word in *Tshivenḓa*, as the following examples show:

(150) a. *mulilo* (fire)
b. *mapfura* (oil or fat)
c. *maine* or *n̓anga* (African doctor)
d. *tombo* (stone or rock)

The meaning of the word *mulilo* in example (150a) is 'fire'. This meaning has been extended to accommodate a whole new concept, namely, ' an electric current':

(151) a *Musidzana u vhasa* ***mulilo.***
(The girl makes **fire.)**

b. *Iyi betiri a i na* ***mulilo***
(This battery has no **electric current.)**

The example (150b), *mapfura,* has had the basic meaning of 'fat' or 'oil' but which has as a result of new technology, taken on the new additional meaning of 'accelerator'. As a result of contact with a new culture with its own traditions, the words *maine* or *n̓anga,* and *tombo* which basically mean ' African doctor' and 'stone' respectively, have been extended to mean 'Western doctor' and 'gravestone' respectively. Other such words are:

				Extended to mean
(152)	a.	*gondo* (main foorpath)	→	main road
	b.	*fola* (snuff)	→	cigarette
	c.	*posa* (to throw)	→	to post, e.g. a letter
	d.	*mbulungo* (burial/funeral)	→	deposit (some money)
	e.	*lurale* (wire)	→	telephone.

The basic meaning of word *gondo* in example (152a) is 'main footpath'. It has been extended to accommodate the new concept 'main road'. Similarly, the word *fola* in example (152b), which has the basic meaning of 'snuff', a finely powdered tobacco for sniffing, has as a result of new technology been ectended to mean 'cigarette', a finely cut tobacco in a paper tube for smoking. This has led to the extension of the meaning of the verb *daha,* which means 'to sniff snuff', to mean 'to smoke a cigarette', for example in:

(153) a. *Mukalaha u **daha fola.***
(The old man **sniffs the snuff**.)

b. *Munna u **daha fola.***
(The man **smokes a cigarette**.)

c. *Vhuendi ho tsitsikana kha **gondo** la N1.*
(The traffic has congested on the N1 **main road**.)

The extension of an indigenous word to express a new concept is becoming extremely productive process in *Tshivenda.* Besides the extension of an indigenous word, a borrowed noun may express a meaning that differs somewhat from the original meaning of the word:

(154) a. *tshikapa* < *skaap* (Afrikaans)
b. *tshikoropo* < *skrop* (Afrikaans)

The word tshikapa, which is borrowed from the Afrikaans *'skaap'*, has taken on the meaning of a 'light coloured blanket' in *Tshivenḓa*, while *tshikoropo*, from the Afrikaans 'skrop', has taken on the meaning of a 'piece job' in *Tshivenḓa*.

4.3.2.4 Loan translation

Loan translation or loan-shift is another method of developing words. Yule (1996:65) describes loan translations as follows:

> A special type of borrowing is described as loan translation or calques. In this process there is a direct translation of the elements of a word into the borrowing langauge

In loan translations, instead of carrying the form and the meaning of a foreign word into *Tshivenḓa* as a unit, it is merely employed as a model for *Tshivenḓa* creation. This can only happen if it is both morphologically complex and semantically transparent. This process consists of substituting for each of its morphs the semantically closest morph in *Tshivenḓa* and combining these according to *Tshivenḓa* rules of word-formation, for example:

		Loan		**English**
(155)	a.	*mutshimbilo tswititi*	<	linear movement
	b.	*mutsiko wa mufhe*	<	air pressure
	c.	*thimu ya lushaka*	<	national team
	d.	*tshifhinga tsha mafuvhalo*	<	injury time
	e.	*maanḓa a muungo*	<	sound energy
	f.	*mutsiko wa malofha*	<	blood pressure
	g.	*maanḓa a masana*	<	solar energy

Example (155) shows that the choice of the constituent morphs and the overall meaning of the new construct are modelled on the foreign source. But the constituent elements themselves and the rules governing their combination are in *Tshivenḓa*. For example, it would be unacceptable in *Tshivenḓa* to translate the terms 'linear movement' as *'*tswititi mutshimbilo*' and 'air pressure' as **mufhe mutsiko*; in example (155a and b).

Although these terms involve mainly *Tshivenḓa* words that have stabilized in the language, other calques involve a combination of borrowed words together with the original *Tshivenḓa* ones, as in the following examples:

		Loan		**English**
(156)	a.	*theiphi ya u kala*	<	tape measure
	b.	*thovho ya mausi*	<	mouse pad
	c.	*maanḓa a khemikhaḽa*	<	chemical energy
	d.	*bidi ya gidimbili fumi*	<	two thousand and ten bid
	e.	*guḽuu ya thanda*	<	wood glue
	f.	*bulatsho ya maṋo*	<	toothbrush
	g.	*raundu ya u thoma*	<	fisrt round
	h.	*khalaṅwaha ya ḽigi*	<	league's season.

In example (156) above, *theiphi, mausi, khemikhaḽa, bidi, guḽuu, bulatsho, raundu* and *ḽigi* are borrowed words while the rest of the words are original *Tshivenḓa* ones. Loan translation, loan-shift or calque has enriched *Tshivenḓa* by contributing many terms.

4.3.2.5 Borrowed words and their *Tshivenḓa* equivalents

Most of the borrowed words in *Tshivenḓa* are now competing with *Tshivenḓa* equivalents. In other words, most of the borrowed words have *Tshivenḓa* synonyms

of which some have existed for a long time, while some have recently come into use.

Examples of this phenomenon are:

		Borrowing	**Tshivenda synonym**	
(157)	a.	*vherega*	*shuma*	*werk* (Afrikaans)
	b.	*divishini*	*khethekanyo*	division (English)
	c.	*enedzhi*	*maanḓa*	energy (English)
	d.	*banana*	*muomva*	banana (English)
	e.	*firidzhi*	*tshixwatudzi*	fridge (English)
	f.	*aphuresheni*	*muaro*	operation (English)
	g.	*geithikhipha*	*mulangakhoro*	gatekeeper (English)
	h.	*baisigira*	*lukanyakanya*	bicycle (English)
	i.	*mungana*	*khonani/thama*	monghana (Tsonga)
	j.	*voutha*	*khetha*	vote (English)
	k.	*sivhara*	*mulamu*	*swaer* (Afrikaans)
	l.	*ngodzi*	*khombo*	ingozi (Zulu)
	m.	*dzhele*	*khotho*	jail (English)
	n.	*kwata*	*sinyuwa*	*kwaad* (Afrikaans)
	o.	*khoutshara*	*mugudisi*	coach (English)
	p.	*zero*	*pumu*	zero (English)
	q.	*ḓirama*	*ngoma*	drum (English)
	r.	*faulu*	*vhukhathi*	foul (English)
	s.	*mara*	*fhedzi*	*maar* (Afrikaans)
	t.	*refiri*	*mulangamutambo*	referee (English)

An investigation of this list shows that some of the synonyms are literal translations, for example, *khethekanyo* (division) while others are coinages, such as *mulangamutambo* (referee). Most of the *Tshivenda* equivalents above are semantic extentions whereby the semantic range of an item is ectended to acquire a new

meaning alongside the original ones such as *ngoma* (drum), *mulindakhoro* (gate-keeper), *mugudisi* (coach), and *vhukhakhi* (foul).

Borrowings are and will keep on entering *Tshivenḓa* all the time, since their frequency and sources are temporarily affected by political, foreign products development, or other factors leading to cultural contact of one kind or another.

But if *Tshivenḓa* must use borrowed languages, their use should be restricted to specific functionally defined spheres where local terminology may be inconvenient.

4.4. ONOMATOPOEIA

4.4.1 DEFINITION

Another important source of words in a language is a device known as onomatopoeia. While Hawkins (1991:355) defines onomatopoeia as "the formation of words that imitate the sound of what they stand for", Rodman and Fromkin (1990:4) point to onomatopoeic words as words as words whose sounds are imitative of the meaning represented, and suggest that these form the basic of a language or at least the core of the basic vocabulary. Therefore, onomatopoeic words are words that sound like the thing or action they name. Akmajian *et al.* (1993:266) mention:

> One idea concerning the origin of human language is that humans begin to mimic the sounds of nature and used these words as referents for the sources of the sound.

These definitions thus reveal that an onomatopoeic word echoes a sense, so that it may be suggested that primitive words could have been imitations of the natural

sounds, which early human beings heard around them. That is, for example, when an object moves by, making a sound, the early humans imitated the sound and used it to refer to the object associated with the sound.

4.4.2 WORD-FORMATION WITH ONOMATOPOEIA

Some of the words in *Tshivenḓa* vocabulary are onomatopoeic, that is they imitate the sounds of nature. The existence of the onomatopoeic words *huhu* (dog), *kokorr* (frog), *vumuvumu* (car), *nauu* (cat), and *kukuliku* (cock), might be taken as evidence of such mimicking. The sounds differ from one language to another, reflecting the particular sound system of the language. *Tshivenḓa* speakers, for example, say *kukuliku,* while English speakers say **cock-a-doodle-doo.**

4.4.2.1 Sounds of animals

According to Yule (1996:2), the beginning of human speech is based on the concept of 'natural sounds', that is, the earliest form of language was imitative or echoic. All modern languages, including *Tshivenḓa,* have some words with pronunciations, which seem to 'echo' naturally occurring sounds, for example:

(158)	a.	*hu-hu*	(a dog's noise)
	b.	*kukulikuu*	(a cock's noise)
	c.	*homuu*	(a baboon's noise)
	d.	*kokorr*	(a frog's noise)
	e.	*hwii*	(a pig's noise)

Apes and other primates have grunts and social calls, but they do not seem to have developed the capacity of speech. A dog, which emits a noise that sounds like 'hu-hu' is designated by the word *hu-hu.* A cock, which makes noise, which sounded, to *Tshivenḓa* speakers, like '*kukulikuu* ' is designated by the word *kukuliku.* The

Baboon's noise and the frog's noise as well were designed by the words *homu* and *kokorr* respectively.

4.4.2.2 Sounds of objects and activities

Mamphwe (1987:12) quotes Marivate, stating the onomatopoeia refers to the meaning of a thing or action by a vocal imitation of the sound associated with it whereas McCarthy and O'Deil (1996:34) mention that onomatopoeic words are those which seem to sound like their meaning, that is, words which sound like the noise which they describe, are the simplest forms of onomatopoeic.

There are, of course, some words in *Tshivenḓa* which have sounds which seem to 'echo'the sounds of objects or activities. These are words, which to some degree or another are 'imitative' of the sounds they refer to, for example:

(159) a. sshh (sound of urinating)
Ndi mushisho wa ṅwana une we ***sshh.***
(It is the urine of the child that makes a urinating sound)

b. hovhohovho (a gushing sound)
Ndi ***mahovhohovho*** *ane e* ***hovhohovho*** *mulamboni.*
(It is the waterfalls that make gushing sound)

c. thu (an exploding sound)
Ndi ***thuthuthu*** *i bvumaho badani*
(It is a motorcycle that makes the exploding sound in the road.)

d. kho (a biting sound)
*Ndi **khokhonya** ine ye **khokho** kha thanda.*
(It is the woodpecker that makes a noise.)

e. tho (a dropping sound)
*Ndi **thothotho** ine ya ri **tho**.*
(It is the tribal brandy that makes a dropping sound.)

The waterfalls make a *hovhohovho* (of gushing) sound. Early man heard this gushing sound and used the word *hovhohovho* to name waterfalls *mahovhohovho*. A woodpecker makes a *kho* (of biting) sound. The human being listened to this sound and named it *khokhonya* (woodpecker). The urine of a child makes a sshh sound, and is thus named *mushisho*.

4.4.2.3 Human sounds

(a) Natural cries of emotion

The original sounds of language seem to come from natural cries of emotions of pain, anger, joy fear, and surprise. Rodman and Fromkin (1990:24) state that this theory, which maintain that the earliest manifestations of language were 'cries of nature' that man shared with animals, was the view proposed by Jean Jacques Rousseau in the middle of the eighteenth century. According to Jean Jacques Rousseau, man used both emotive cries and gestures, but since gestures proved to be too inefficient for communication, man invented language. It was out of the natural cries that man constructed words.

This view is supported by Yule (1996:3) who avers:"the original sounds of language come from natural cries of emotion such as pain, anger and joy", for example, the

following interjections are not actually by using the consonants and vowels used in to write them down:

(160)	a.	*yoo*	(from pain/fear)
	b.	*hei*	(from anger)
	c.	*xaee*	(from joy/pleasure)
	d.	*ee* or *e*	(from surprise)

These words also are often produced with a sudden intake of breath (opposite of ordinary talk). Basically, they are expressive noises people make in emotional reactions.

(b) People involved in physical effort

The sound of a person involved in a physical effort could be the source of language as well, especially when that physical effort involves several people and has to be coordinated. So, a group of early humans might have developed a set of grunts, groans, and swear words which which they used when lifting and carrying bits of trees or lifeless mammonths, for examples:

(161)	a.	*nnkh*	(of pulling / pushing / lifting)
	b.	*hophu*	(of pulling or lifting)
	c.	*ahaa* or *haa*	(of accompliment)
	d.	*sshh*	(of keeping quiet)
	e.	*nn* or *ee*	(of agreeing)

Nnkh and *hophu*, in example (161) above, are swearing sounds emitted by one person or a group of several people who are pulling, pushing or lifting something heavy. After the work or task has been completed or accomplished successfully, they would say *ahaa* or *haa* in acknowledgement of the work well done. One or a group of people

may emit the sound *sshh* to tell someone or others to be quiet. An *nn* or *ee* sound may be produced to show agreement to an instruction or proposal.

The above examples of human sounds, however produced, may have had some principled use within the social life of early human groups. This word-formation places the development of human language in some social context.

4.4.2.4 The constituent sounds of words

Other words demonstrate to be of natural origin by reference to one or more of their constituent sound or sounds while certain sounds are held to be suggestive or imitative of particular physical qualities or activities. One finds particular sound sequences that seem to relate to a particular concept, such as sight:

(162) -vhona (see) -lavhelesa, -vhonela,
- tolela, -sedzela, -talela,
-tielela,-todzimela,
-zwondolola.

The above word sequence concerns the concept of sight. All these words contain the '*l*' sound, which is naturally appropriate to their meaning. It is also interesting to note that the human organ, which is responsible for sight, is *liṱo* (eye), which also contains the sound '*l*' these are onomatopoeic words. One who known their sounds would know their meanings.

The *Tshivenḓa* nouns, which are formed with the class 21 prefix *ḓi-*, seem to be associated with heaviness, thickness, or bigness. Consider the following examples:

(163) a. *ḓithu* (ogre)
b. *ḓitsi* (thick smoke)
c. *ḓiṱo* (big eye)

In example (163) *ḓithu* (orge) refers to a cruel frightening giant in folklore who often eats human flesh or is terrifying person, while *ḓitsi* refers to a very thick smoke and *ḓito* refer to a very big eye. Lyons (1987:5) thus postulates:

> The modern term for this kind of relationship between the constituent sounds of words and their meanings, in so far as it is asserted to be a feature of language, is sound symbolism.

Luon's view regarding sound symbolism is propounded by Fromkin and Rodman (1993:7) when they state:

> There is, however, some sound symbolism in language, that is words whose pronunciation suggest meaning... the sound of the words supposedly imitate the sounds of nature.

In simple terms onomatopoeia or onomatopoeic terms describe words whose pronunciation suggests their meaning. According to Katamba (1994:44), the relationship between sound and the meaning is to some extent iconic. An icon in linguistics is a sign, which has characteristics in common with the thing it signifies. Therefore, onomatopoeic words are iconic in so far as they directly reflect some aspect of the meaning of what they stand for.

To some extent onomatopoeic words are also moulded by linguistic conversion. That is why in different places in the world different onomatopoeic words are used for the same animal or bird noise such as those representing the sound made by a cock:

(164)	a.	*kukuliku*	(Tshivenda)
	b.	*ko kekokoko*	(Japanese)
	c.	*cock-a-doodle doo*	(English)
	d.	*kukuriku*	(Russia)

e.	*kookolilookoo*	(Ugandian)
f.	*kikilikii*	(Tsonga)
g.	*kô kôronkoo*	(Northern Sotho)
h.	*kokolokoloo*	(Tswana)
i.	*kukurukurukuu*	(Xhosa)

Similarly, an English and a *Tshivenḓa* cow emits the noise, which sounded like *moo* to the speakers.

The words for sounds made by various animals, birds, and human beings are obvious examples of onomatopoeia, that is, to be onomatopoeic, the sound must imitate to some degree an aspect of the noise made by the birds, animals, and human beings.

According to Lends and Penn (1989:71), onomatopoeic words are useful in encouraging vocalization, as they are easily repeatable by the young child, and are clearly significant in the child's early language and experiential environment.

4.5. TRANSPOSITION

4.5.1 DEFINITION

Another very important word-formation process in *Tshivenḓa* is transposition. James and Le Roux (1996:1223) describe the word transpose as "to change the order or position".

> To change the position or order of. To make change places, e.g. if you transpose the letter in the word 'on' you get 'no' ".

Transposition involves the change of words categories such as nouns, verbs, and adjectives.

4.5.2. WORD-FORMATION WITH TRANSPOSITION

Du Plessis and Maḍadzhe (1999:291) note that the lexicon may transpose any other member of any major lexical class (N, V, A) to any other major lexical class by providing it only with the lexical D-features of the base. This will become evident in the following paragraphs.

4.5.2.1 Verbal transposition

(a) Noun → Verb

Any noun may be provided with the lexical features defining a verb and nothing more by the lexicon.

(165) [*-fh-, -fhal-*]

a. *vhuṱali*$_N$ (wisdom) <*-ṱali-fh-a*$_V$ (to become wise/or clever)

b. *tshihole*$_N$ (lame person) < *-hole-fhal-a*$_V$ (to become lame)

c. *mubva*$_N$ (lazy person) < *-bvafh-a*$_V$ (to become lazy)

d. *mudzadze* (woman who has just given birth) < *-dzadze-fhal-a* (to be in labour).

In example (165), the verb *–ṱali-fh-a* (to become wise or clever) has been derived from the noun *vhuṱali* (wisdom) and the verb *–hole-fhal-a* (to become lame) has been derived from the noun *tshihole* (lame person). This kind of derivation involves a change of categories, for example:

(166) a. ***Vhutali*** *hawe ho thusa muṱa wothe.* (noun)
(His wisdom has helped the whole family.)

b. *U* ***ṱalifha*** *ndi zwavhuḓi* (verb)
(To become wise is good.)

(b) Adjective → Verb

Any adjective may be provided with the lexical features defining a verb and denoting more by the lexicon.

(166) [*-fh-*; *-fhal-*]

a. *-vhi*$_A$ (ugly) < *-vhi-fh-a*$_V$ (to become ugly)
b. *ṱuku*$_A$ (small) < *-ṱuku-fhal-a*$_V$ (to become small)
c. *-ḓala*$_A$ (blue) < *-dala – fhal-a* (to become blue)
d. *-denya*$_A$ (thick) < *-denye-fhal-a* (to become thick)
e. *-pfufhi*$_A$ (short) < *phufhi-fhal-a* (to become short)

(168) [*-kal-*]

a. *-nu*$_A$ (wet) < *-nu-kal-a* (to become wet)

(169) [*-a*]

a. *-hulu*$_A$ (big) < *-hul-a*$_V$ (to become big)
b. *–sekene*$_A$ (thin) < *-seken-a*$_V$ (to become thin)
c. *–lapfu*$_A$ (long) < *-lapf-a*$_V$ (to become long)
d. *–tswuku*$_A$ (red) < *-tswuk-a*$_V$ (to become red).

In example (167a-b), the verbs *–vhi-fh-a* (become ugle) and *–ṱuku-fhal-a* (become small) are derived from the adjectives *–vhi* (ugly) and *-ṱuku* (small) respectively by providing them with the lexical features defining a verb while the suffixes *–fh-* and *–fhal-* are affixed respectively. Similarly, the verbs *–ṋu-kal-a* (become wet) and– *hul-a* and *–hulu* (become big) in examples (168) and (169) are derived from the adjectives *–ṋu* (wet) and *–hulu* (big) respectively. The suffixes *–kal-* and *–a* have been affixed respectively. Their categories have changed from adjectives to verbs such as in the following examples:

(170) a. *Munna* ***muṱuku*** *o swika.*
(A small man has arrived.)

Munna u a ***ṱukufhala.***
(The man becomes small.)

b. *Badzhi* ***ṋṋu*** *i a rothola*
(A wet jacket is cold.)

Badzhi i a ***ṋukala***
(The jacket becomes wet.)

c. *Musidzana* ***muhulu*** *u a bvafha*
(The big girl is lazy)

Musidzana u a ***hula***
(The girl becomes big.)

(c) Verb → Verb

It is not always the case that transposition changes the lexical category, for example:

(171) [*-l-* and *–w-*]

a. *Mutukana u* ***thukhula*** *thambo*
(The boy cuts the rope.)

Thambo i a ***thukhuwa.***
(The rope cuts.)

b. *Musadzi u* ***fhandula*** *fhuri.*
(The woman splits the pumpkin.)

Fhuri li a ***fhanduwa.***
(The pumpkin splits.)

c. *Munna u* ***swotola*** *swiri.*
(The man peels an orange.)

Swiri li a ***swotowa.***
(An orange peels.)

d. *Ndou i* ***pazhula*** *davhi.*
(The elephant breaks the branch.)

Davhi li a ***pazhuwa.***
(The branch breaks.)

In example (171 a-d), the verbs *thukhuwa* (cuts), *fhanduwa* (split), *swotowa* (peels), and *pazhuwa* (breaks) are derived from the verbs *thukhula* (cut), *fhandula* (split), swotola (peel), and *pazhula* (break) respectively. The transposition is brought about by transposing *–l-* and *–w-*. But this does not change the lexical category.

4.5.2.2 Manipulation of consonants

Tshivenda words can also undergo transposition by manipulating or changing the positions or orders of the consonants of the root morpheme independently of the rest of the sounds in a word in order to form new words, for example:

(172) a. *vhana*$_V$ (children) > *-navha*$_V$ (to strech legs while sitting)
b. *dzofha*$_N$ (thick blood) > *-fhodza*$_V$ (cause to heal or cure)
c. *dzema*$_N$ (habit) > *-medza* (cause to germinate)

In example (172a-c) the consonants in the noun *vhana* (children) have been transposed to form the verb *–navha* (to strech legs while sitting). The verb *–fhodza* (cause to heal or cure) is formed by the manipulation of the consonants of the noun *dzofha* (thick blood). Similarly, the verb *–medza* (cause to germinate) has been derived by transposing the consonants in the noun, *dzema* (habit). It is evident from these examples that the newly formed words are in a different lexical category from the original words. It is interesting too to note that this kind of transposition can occur without the word category alteration as in the following examples:

(173) a. *-tala*$_V$ (to divorce) > *-lata*$_V$ (to throw away)
b. *-mela*$_V$ (to germinate) > *-lema*$_V$ (to spoil)
c. *–peta*$_V$ (to fold) > *-tepa*$_V$ (to become shaky)
d. *–mila*$_V$ (to swallow) > *-lima*$_V$ (to plough).

The manipulation or changing the positions of the consonants of the verbs *–tala* (to divorce), *-mela* (to germinate), *-peta* (to fold), and *–mila* (to swallow) in example (173a-d) results in the verbs *–lata* (to throw away), *-lema* (to spoil), *-tepa* (to become shaky), and *–lima* (to plough) respectively. Despite the changes as indicated, the word category has not changed.

Transposition, like other word-formation processes, has contributed a large number of words in *Tshivenda.*

4.6. STRESS-SHIFT

Another word-formation process is stress-shift. Richards (1985:275) describes stress as "the pronunciation of a word or syllable with more force than the surrounding words or syllables", while Blair (1985:422) regards the word shift as "to move from one place or position to another". According to Rubba (2004:5), stress shift occurs when no affix is added to the base, but the stress is shifted from one syllable to the other. With stress shift comes a change in category.

In simple terms stress shift involves a zero addition of an affix. But two stress patterns (—́ for nouns and —́ for verbs or adjective) are added equally to roots that, in themselves, are unaccepted. According to Matthew (1997:142), this is sometimes called a 'superfix' (an accentual affix superimposed). The shift of stress changes a word from one category to another as the following English examples reveal:

(174) a. prótest, óbject, pérfume, and réfuse are nouns ,while
b. protést, objéct, perfúme, and refúse are verbs.

Examples (174a-b) involve a conversion of nouns to verbs through a shift of stress. But in *Tshivenda* stress shift is not as significant as in English. In *Tshivenda* language, tonal modulation plays an important role. Instead of converting or changing a noun to a verb or an adjective, tonal modulation helps to distinguish the meaning of the word. Consider the following pairs of examples:

(175) a. *thóhó* (head)
thòhó (monkey)

b. *ù fùlà* (to pick fruit)
ù fúlá (to twitch involuntarily)

c. *ndî mùthù* (I am a person)
ndî múthù (It is a person)

In example (175), the word *thoho* (head) has two high tones while *thoho* (monkey) has a low tone followed by a high tone. The infinitive form *u fula* (to pick fruit) has low tones while 'to twitch voluntarily' has a low tone followed by high tones. The copulative form *ndi muthu* (I am a person) has low tones but the word *ndi muthu* (it is a person) has a low tone followed by a high tone and a low tone. These tone changes serve to distinguish the meanings rather than changing the word category. This tonal modulation, nevertheless, helps to form new words with different meanings.

Napoli (1996:202) postulates that English sometimes uses stress to distinguish between morphosyntactic categories. This can be explained with an aid of English examples:

(176)	**Noun**	**Verb**
a.	*récord*	*recórd*
b.	*ímplant*	*implánt*
c.	*tránsport*	*transpórt*
d.	*éxport*	*expórt*

In each of the above nouns, the shifting of the stress converts or changes the noun to a verb. *Récord, ímplant, tránsport,* and *éxport* are nouns while *recórd, implánt, transpórt,* and *expórt* are verbs. In some cases, in addition to stress change, there is a change in the vowels as well. Consider the following English examples:

(177) a. record / *'rekə:d/* (noun
b. record */ri'kə:d/* (verb).

Stress-shift is not only restricted to the formation of verbs from nouns. The shifting of stress in a noun may also lead to the formation of adjectives. Consider the following:

(178)	**Noun**	**Adjective**
a.	*ábstract*	*abstráct*
b.	*cóncrete*	*concréte*
c.	*vhíli* (wheel)	*vhilí* (two)
d.	*vhàvhili* (debt collectors)	*vhàvhïlï* (two people)

In example (178a-b), the nouns 'ábstract' and 'cóncrete' have been changed to the adjectives 'abstráct' and 'concréte' respectively. In (178c and d) the tonal modulation has changed the nouns *'vhili'* (wheel) and *'vhàvhíli'* (debt collectors) to the adjectives *'vhili'* (two) and *'vhavhili'* (two people).

4.7. SUMMARY

In this chapter, four word-formation processes, namely, borrowing, onomatopoeia, transposition, and stress-shift were discussed. Borrowing is the process where words are taken over from other languages or dialects to refer to things, processes, ways of behaviour, organizations and thinking, for which words or phrases were not available or convenient. For example, the word *mausi* is derived from the English word 'mouse' to refer to a hand-held device that controls the movement of a pointer on the screen of the *khomphiyutha* (computer).

Onomatopoeia is the formation of words that imitate the sound of what they stand for. For example, a dog, which emits a noise that sounds like *hu-hu* is designated by

the word *hu-hu*. Transposition or changing the order or position of a word may be used to form new words. For example, the verbs *-navha* (to strech legs while sitting) and *–medza* (cause to germinate) have been formed from the nouns *vhana* (children) and *dzema* (habit) respectively by manipulating or changing the positions or order of the consonants.

Stress-shift occurs when no affix is added to the base, but the stress is shifted from one syllable to the other. Stress-shift is not as significant in *Tshivenḓa* as in English. For example, the English verbs *protést* and *objéct* are formed from the nouns *prótest* and *óbject* respectively by stress-shift. On the other hand, in the *Tshivenḓa*, tonal modulation plays an important role. For example, the word *thóhó* (head) has two high tones while the other *thòhó* (monkey) has a low tone followed by a high tone. This tonal modulation does not affect the lexical category.

In conclusion, this chapter has shown how new words can be formed by means of borrowing, onomatopoeia, transposition, and stress-shift to enlarge the existing *Tshivenḓa* vocabulary to cope with the demands of a rapidly changing twenty-first century world.

CHAPTER FIVE

5.1. CONCLUSION

The aim of this study is to analyse the word-formation processes in *Tshivenḓa* (derivational morphology in *Tshivenḓa*) to establish how various words get derived from the existing lexical items and how *Tshivenḓa* lexicon can be extended to cope with the demands of present-day life. This study has shown that word-formation or derivation of words is a grammatical feature that cannot be done away with from our day-to-day use of language.

The introduction of this study is reflected in **Chapter One** has revealed the background to the problem that one of the greatest challenges facing *Tshivenḓa* today is to use it as a vehicle of science, mathematics and technology teaching and learning. The *Tshivenḓa* language, therefore, requires a higher level of generic terminology to cope with the rapid changes in the technology and information areas ushered in by globalization. *Tshivenḓa* terminology must thus be of economic value to the learner outside the classroom and this can be accomplished by, inter alia, updating the lexicon by derivation of new words from existing ones.

To be effective and credible, the qualitative, primary and secondary research methods have been employed for the collection of data in this study.

In this chapter, the literature review has shown that very little has been written on derivational morphology, the analysis of word-formation processes in *Tshivenḓa*. It only reflects that scholars such as Mamphwe (1987), Ṋemadzivhanani (1989), Nthambeleni (1998), Musehane (1995), Poulos (1990), and Du Plessis and Maḓadzhe (1999) wrote a few paragraphs about some of the word-formation processes in *Tshivenḓa*.

Chapter Two is mainly concerned with the analysis of three word formation processes, namely, affixation, compounding, and zero-derivation. This study has indicated that words can be formed by adding a prefix to a root (*mu-* + *-ela* < *muelo*) (measurement), a suffix to the root (*-lapfa* + *-is* < *-lapfisa*) (lengthen), and both a prefix and suffix to the root (*li-* + *-kumedza* + *-w-* < *likumedzwa* (motion/proposal)). The effects of *Tshivenda* prefixes *nya-*, *ra-*, *vha-*, *ku-*, *di-*, *lu*, and the suffixes *–ana*, *-kadzi* and *–lume* in word-formation have been analysed in this chapter. This study has established that the affixation of the prefix *nya-* to the name of a woman, forms the name of a woman married to the chief's family (*Muofhe* < *Nyamuofhe*) but it can still be used to form other nouns such as *lunako* < *nyalunako* (beauty queen).

The researcher also examined the formation of new words with the verbal extension *–el-* (applied), *-iw-/-w-* (passive), *-is-* and *–y-* (causative), *-ulul-*, *-olol-*, *-olow-*, *-oluw-* (reversive), *-an-* (reciprocal), *-es-* (intensive), and *–al-*, -e- (neuter) (*-kala* < *-kalea* (measurable), and the derived normal root with affixes *–i* and -o. The study revealed that there is a restriction in the formation of new words using the neuter extension *–e-*, for example, to express the fact that man is mortal one cannot say **Munna u a fea* (Man is diable.)

Besides affixation this chapter has also focused on word-formation by compounding. It has been shown that word can be formed by combining different lexical categories such as *tshisefamuya* (air filter). This investigation has also distinguished between endocentric and exocentric compounds in *Tshivenda*. The investigation has revealed that the meaning of a compound is not always the sum total of the meanings of its parts, for instance, *dungammbwa* is a canine and not a sour dog, (*dunga* (sour) + *mmbwa* (dog)).

In addition this study has also analysed the formation of new words by the process known as conversion or zero-derivation, that is adding a zero affix to the existing

lexical item, for example, the verb-*bannga* (to deposit) has been been derived from the noun *bannga* (bank) by affixing a zero-morph. This analysis has shown that conversion or zero-derivation in *Tshivenḓa* occurs mostly with borrowed words.

Chapter Three concerns backformation, blending, clipping, acronymy, and adoption of brand names as common words. Backformation was explained as the process of deriving new words by deleting an imagined affix from a longer form already present in the language. For instance, the verb –*vhasa* (to make fire) had been derived by dropping the class 7 prefix *tshi-* from the noun *tshivhaswa* (fuel). This study has shown that the process of backformation is an active source of new words in *Tshivenḓa*.

Blending is a process of forming words by the combination of arbitrary parts of existing words, for example, the noun *mothela* (motel), a hotel designed for people who travel by car, is a blend derived from the nouns *moḓoro* (motor) + *hodela* (hotel), whereas the name *Dzingahe* is derived from the nouns d*zinga* (speacies of snake) + *mahe* (stones) by affixing the first part of the word to the second part of the second word.

Clipping was explained as the process by which a word is derived from a longer word of identical meaning by the arbitary removal of some part of the longer word. It has been mentioned that this shortening occurs at the beginning (back clipping), at the end (fore clipping) or at both ends of the word (back-and fore-clipping):

Fore-clip:	*fakisi* <	*fakisimaili*	(facsimile)
Back-clip:	*founu* <	*theḽefounu*	(telephone)
Fore-and back-clip:	*firidzhi* <	*refridzhireitha*	(refrigerator)

It has been indicated that this lopping off is significant in *Tshivenḓa* names of young people, for example:

Fore-clip:	*Vule*	*Vuledzani*
Back-clip:	*Funi*	*Thivhafuni*
Fore-and back-clip:	*Hangwi*	*Azwihangwisi.*

This study has also highlighted another relatively new device for creating new words, namely, acronymy. Acronymy has been described as the process of forming new words by combining the initial letters of the principal words in a phrase. It has been indicated that acronymys are of two kinds: those initial letters that make up possible words such as medunsa (Medical University of South Africa) and those that do not, such as, ATM (Automatic Teller Machine).

In this study it was pointed out that *Tshivenḓa* speakers make use of most of the acronyms and letter groups as they appear in English. This analysis has also shown that acronyms offer neat ways of expressing long and cumbersome terms and, therefore, save time and space.

Apart from acronyms, this study has examined tha doption of brand names as common words as well. In this process, a proprietary name for a registered name that no one else can use is almost completely replaced by brands or brand names. In other words, a trade name, originally given to a particular product, is later used more generally. For example, the word *kiḽinekisi* (kleenex), a brand name for a particular facial tissue has come to denote facial tissues in general. Similarly, *masimba* (simba), a trade name for a particular kind of chips has come to denote any kind of chips in general.

Chapter Four explores borrowing, onomatopoeia, transposition, and stress-shift as other word-formation processes. Borrowing has been described as the taking over of words by one language or dialect from another to refer to things, processes, ways of behaviour, organizations and thinking for which words or phrases were not available or convenient.

It has been indicated that most *Tshivenḓa* borrowings are taken over from English, Afrikaans and other African languages. For example, the words *ekisirei* (x-ray), *tshiporo (spoor)*, and *tshikhathi (isikhathi)* were taken over from English, Afrikaans, and Zulu respectively. This shows that the total vocabulary of *Tshivenḓa* or that of other languages is never static. Words pass in and out of all languages.

In addition, the study has highlighted that new words may be formed by onomatopoeia. Onomatopoeia is the process of forming words that imitate the sound of what they stand for. It has been shown that some of the words in the *Tshivenḓa* vocabulary imitate sounds of nature. The study has indicated that the earliest form of language was imitative or echoic. It was discovered that *Tshivenḓa* language has some words, which are pronounced to 'echo' naturally occurring sounds. For example, a cock, which emits a noise that sounded to the *Tshivenḓa* speakers, like *'kukulikuu'* is designated by the word *kukuliku* while waterfalls make a *hovhohovho* (gushing) noise. The early man heard this gushing noise and used the noise or sound to call waterfalls *mahovhohovho.* Human sounds include natural cries of emotions of pain, anger, joy, fear, and surprise, for instance, *yoo,* from pain or fear, and when people are involved in physical effort, the *nnkh* sound of lifting, pushing or pulling are made. Once *Tshivenḓa* speakers hear these kinds of noise, they know exactly what they mean.

Therefore, these kinds of word-formation place the development of *Tshivenḓa* in some social context so that the onomatopoeic words form the nucleus of the *Tshivenḓa* vocabulary.

This study has concentrated on the formation of new words by means of a device known as transposition as well. Transposition involves the changing of the order or positions in a word. For example, any noun may be provided with the lexical features defining a verb and nothing more by the lexicon such as,

[*-fh-; -fhal-]*

vhutali$_N$ (wisdom) < *-tali-fh-a*$_V$ (to become wise/clever).

The verb *–tali-fh-a* (to become wise or clever) has been derived from the noun *vhutali* (wisdom). It is evident from the above example that this kind of derivation involves a change of lexical categories (N → V).

A word can also undergo transposition by manipulating the consonants of the root morpheme independently of the rest of the sounds in the word in order to form new words. For example, the consonants in the noun *vhana* (children) have been transposed to form the verb *–navha* (to stretch legs while stitting). It has been mentioned that this kind of transposition can occur without word category alteration, as in the verbs *–tala* (to divorce) and *–lata* (to throw away).

Stress-shift is another word-formation process that has received attention in this chapter. Stress-shift occurs when no affix is added to the base, but the stress is shifted from one syllable to another. With stress-shift comes a change in category. It has been noted that stress-shift is not as significant in *Tshivenda* as it is in English. In *Tshivenda*, tonal modulation plays a more important role, for example:

a.	Stress-shift:	*prótest*$_N$ > *protést*$_V$
b.	Tonal modulation:	*thóhó* (head)
		thòhó (monkey)

As has been demonstrated, this study has shown that in *Tshivenda* new words can easily be formed by means of derivation from or a combination of existing words.

5.2. RECOMMENDATIONS

* Committed people with expert guidance from linguists, literacy, and communication scholars must help to decvelop higher levels of generic *Tshivenḓa* terminology in order:

    - to cope with the rapid changes in technology and product market ushered in by globalization,

    - that children will have to acquire an extended vocabulary to persue further studies.

* It is recommended that where the expansion of lexical items by recycling the pre-existing material seems to be inconvenient, *Tshivenḓa* speakers must adopt some of the foreign scientific and technological terms to fit into their language.

* It is further recommended that *Tshivenḓa* speakers must respect their language and undertake enormous reconstruction and development projects related to language issues.

To conlucde, in this study, an analysis of word-formation processes with a view of establishing how various words get derived from the existing lexical items has been understaken. This study has, however, been limited to derivation morphology in *Tshivenḓa* only. A study of this nature thus needs to be done in other African languages as well.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Akmajian, A., Demers, R.A., Farmer, A.K., and Harnish, R.M. 1993. *Introduction to Linguistics*. London: The MIT Press.

Bauer, L. 1988. *Introducing Linguistic Morphology*. Edinburg: Edinburg University Press.

Blair, D. 1985. *The Lexicon Junior Dictionary for Southern Africa*. Isando: Lexicon Publishers Ltd.

Clark, V.P., Escholz, P.A., and Rosa, A.F. 1994. *Language Introductory Readings.* New York: St Martin's Press.

Crystal, D. 1991. *A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics*. Cambridge: Basil Blackwell.

Du Plessis, J.A., and Madadzhe, R.N. 1999. *Venda Morphology*. Stellenbosch: University of Stellenbosch.

Fowler, HW. and Gowers, E. 1990. *A Dictionary of Modern English Usage.* London: Oxford University Press.

Fromkin, V. and Rodman, R. 1983. *An Introduction to Language*. New York: Holt,Rinehart and Winston.

Fromkin, V. and Rodman, R. 1993. *An Introduction to Language*. 5th ed. New York: Harcourt Brace College Publishers.

Hawkins, J.M. 1991. *The Oxford Mini Dictionary.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Horward, G. 1993. *The Good English Guide. MacMillan Reference Books.* London: MacMillan Ltd.

Hussey, S. 1995. *English Language Structure and Development* . London: Longman Group Ltd.

Huddleston, R. 1993. *Introduction to the Grammar of English.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hurford, J.R. 1994. *Grammar . A Student's Guide.* Cambridge: Canbridge University Press.

James, T. and Le Roux, F. 1996. *Reader's Digest Southern African Word Power Dictionary.* Cape Town: Reader's Digest Association South Africa Ltd.

Katamba, F. 1993. *Morphology.* London: MacMillan Press Ltd.

Katamba, F. 1994. *English Words.* London: Routledge.

Kuiper, K., and Allan, W.S. 1996. *An Introduction to English Language, Sound, Words and Sentence.* London: MacMillan Press Ltd.

Lewis , R.E. and Penn, C. 1989. *Language Therapy.* A Programme to Teach English. Johannesburg: Witwatersrand Press.

Lyons, J. 1987. *Introduction to Theoretical Linguistics.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Mabeleb le, J. and Sibuyi, N. 2000 (10 January). *Troubled Mother –Tongue. Sowetan,* Johannesburg: New Africa Publications Ltd.

Mamphwe, C.T. 1987. *The Ideophone in Venḓa.* Honours Research Paper. Pretoria: Unisa.

Matthews, P.H. 1997. *Morphology. Cambridge textbook in Linguistics.* Melbourne: Cambridge University Press.

McCathy, M. and O'Dell, F. 1996. *English Vocabulary in Use.* Cambridge : Cambridge University Press.

Milubi, N.A. 1997. *Aspects of Venḓa Poetry.* Pretoria: J.L. van Schaik.

Musehane, N.m. 1995. *The Nominal Compound in Tshivenḓa.* Unpublished Doctoral Thesis. University of Stellenbosch.

Napoli, D.J. 1996. *Linguistics. An Introduction.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Nemadzivhanani , F.F. 1989. *The Formation of the Noun in Venḓa.* Honours Research Paper. University of Venḓa.

Nthambeleni, M. 1998. *Some Aspects of the Tshivenḓa Verb.* Honours Research Paper, University of Venḓa.

Poulos, G. 1990. *A Linguistic Analysis of Venḓa.* Pretoria: Via Afrika Ltd.

Quirk, R. and Greenbaum, S. 1993. *A University Grammar of English.* London: Longman Group Ltd.

Richards, J., Platt, J., and Weber, H. 1985. *Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics.* London: Longman Group.

Robbins, R.H. 1989. *General Linguistics.* London: Longman Group.

Rubba, J. 2004. *An Overview of the English Morphological Systems.* San Luis Obispo. California Polytechnic State University.

Seidenberg, M.S. and Gonnerman, L.M. 2001. *Explaining derivational Morphology and the Convergence of Codes.* University of Southern California.

Smith, J. and Donnarumma, T. 1998-2001. *The Arden Reference Grammar.* The Arden Academy.

Stageberg, N.C. and Goodman, R.M. 1977. *An Introductory English Grammar.* New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Spears, A.R. 1991. *ATC's Dictionary of Grammar Terminology.* Lincolnwood: National Textbook Company Publishers.

Trask, R.L. 1993. *A Dictionary of Grammatical terms in Linguistics.* London: Routledge.

Van Schalkwyk, H. 1979. *Language Communication-English.* Isando: McGraw-Hill Book Company Ltd.

Yule, G. 1996. *The Study of Language.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ziervogel, D., Wentzel, P.J., and Makuya, T.N. 1987. *A Handbook of the Venda Language.* Pretoria: Unisa.