Nigerian Pidgin

*Nigerian Pidgin* will provide linguists, Africanists, creolists, language teachers and learners with the first comprehensive grammar of what has become one of the biggest languages in Africa and the most widely spoken pidgin language in the world. This volume contains an in-depth analysis of the sound system and grammar of Nigerian Pidgin and will be a constant reference source for the future.

The work consists of a detailed descriptive and analytic treatment of the syntax, morphology and phonology of Nigerian Pidgin, as well as preliminary studies of the lexicon and semantics of the language. The topics covered and the numerical system used to index and order each section are those listed on the *Lingua Descriptive Studies Questionnaire*, as designed by Bernard Comrie and Norval Smith. The data and analysis presented in this book are based on samples of spontaneous speech collected in markets, workplaces, private homes, drinking parlours and other sites throughout south-eastern Nigeria. A full bibliography of works about the language is also included.

This comprehensive description of Nigerian Pidgin will be indispensable for anyone involved in the teaching or learning of the language and will prove especially useful for those wishing to study this language at postgraduate level.

**Nicholas G.Faraclas** is a Senior Lecturer in Linguistics at the University of Papua New Guinea. He has published several books and articles in the areas of theoretical, descriptive, socio- and applied linguistics.
Descriptive Grammars
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Editorial statement

Until quite recently, work on theoretical linguistics and work on language description proceeded almost entirely in isolation from one another. Work on theoretical linguistics, especially in syntax, concentrated primarily on English, and its results were felt to be inapplicable to those interested in describing other languages. Work on describing individual languages was almost deliberately isolationist, with the development of a different framework and terminology for each language or language group, and no feeding of the achievements of language description into linguistic theory. Within the last few years, however, a major rapprochement has taken place between theoretical and descriptive linguistics. In particular, the rise of language typology and the study of language universals have produced a large number of theoreticians who require accurate, well-formulated descriptive data from a wide range of languages, and have shown descriptive linguists that they can both derive benefit from and contribute to the development of linguistic theory. Even within generative syntax, long the bastion of linguistic anglocentrism, there is an increased interest in the relation between syntactic theory and a wide range of language types.

For a really fruitful interaction between theoretical and descriptive linguistics, it is essential that descriptions of different languages should be comparable. The Questionnaire of the present series (originally published as Lingua, vol. 42 (1977), no. 1) provides a framework for the description of a language that is (a) sufficiently comprehensive to cover the major structures of any language that are likely to be of theoretical interest; (b) sufficiently explicit to make cross-language comparisons a feasible undertaking (in particular, through the detailed numbering key); and (c) sufficiently flexible to encompass the range of variety that is found in human language. The volumes that were published in the predecessor to the present series, the Lingua Descriptive Studies (now available from Routledge), succeeded in bridging the gap between theory and description: authors include both theoreticians who are also interested in description and field-workers with an interest in theory.

The aim of the Descriptive Grammars is thus to provide descriptions of a wide range of languages according to the format set out in the Questionnaire. Each language will be covered in a single volume. The first priority of the series is grammars of languages for which detailed descriptions are not at present available. However, the series will also encompass descriptions of better-known languages with the series framework providing more detailed descriptions of such languages than are currently available (as with the monographs on West Greenlandic and Kannada).

Bernard Comrie
Nigerian Pidgin

Nicholas G. Faraclas
To my father

GREGORY NICHOLAS FARACLAS

Born in Greece in diaspora from Constantinople 1915.

Arrived in the United States 1920.

Left school to support his family after his father’s death 1929.

Fought in the war against the Fascists 1943–5.

Awarded his High School Diploma (age 42) 1957.

Died of heart failure while working double shifts 1960.
## Contents

Acknowledgements xii
List of abbreviations and symbols xiii

**INTRODUCTION** 1

1 The objectives of this study 1
2 Nigerian pidgin and the Nigerian Pidgin-speaking community 1
3 Social lects: is Nigerian Pidgin really a ‘pidgin’? 2
4 On the origin and development of Nigerian Pidgin 2
5 The data sample 3
6 Parallel study of Tok Pisin (Papua New Guinea Pidgin) 3

**1 SYNTAX** 5

1.1 General questions 5
1.1.1 Sentence types 5
1.1.2 Subordination 26
  1.2 Structural questions 44
    1.2.1 Internal sentence structure 44
    1.2.2 Adjective phrases 60
    1.2.3 Adverbial phrases 60
    1.2.4 Prepositional phrases 62
    1.2.5 Noun phrases 64
1.3 Co-ordination 71
  1.3.1 Means of co-ordination 71
  1.3.2 Omission under co-ordination 83
  1.3.3 Omission of major category elements 84
1.4 Negation 86
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.4.1</td>
<td>Sentence negation</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4.2</td>
<td>Constituent negation</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4.3</td>
<td>More than one negative marker in a sentence</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4.4</td>
<td>Negation of co-ordinate structures</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4.5</td>
<td>Negation of superordinate and subordinate clauses</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>Anaphora</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5.1</td>
<td>Means of expressing anaphora</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5.2</td>
<td>Anaphora environments</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5.3</td>
<td>Anaphora and elements adjacent to clause introducers</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>Reflexives</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.6.1</td>
<td>Means of expressing reflexivity</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.6.2–5</td>
<td>Position of reflexive pronominals and antecedents</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.6.6</td>
<td>Reflexives in nominalized clauses</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.6.7</td>
<td>Reflexive relations within noun phrases</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.6.8</td>
<td>Reflexive pronominals without antecedents</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.6.9</td>
<td>Other uses of reflexive pronominals</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>Reciprocals</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.7.1</td>
<td>Means of expressing reciprocity</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.7.2–5</td>
<td>Position of reciprocal pronominals and antecedents</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.7.6</td>
<td>Reciprocals in nominalized clauses</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.7.7</td>
<td>Reciprocal relations within noun phrases</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.7.8</td>
<td>Reciprocal pronominals without antecedents</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.7.9</td>
<td>Other uses of reciprocal pronominals</td>
<td>106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>Comparison</td>
<td>106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.8.1</td>
<td>Means of expressing comparison</td>
<td>106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.8.2–4</td>
<td>Omission of elements in comparative structures</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.8.5</td>
<td>Differences between comparative structure types</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.8.6</td>
<td>Correlative comparison</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>Equatives</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.9.1</td>
<td>Means of expressing equatives</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1.9.2–4 Omission of elements in equative structures 111
1.9.5 Differences between equative structure types 111
1.9.6 Correlative equatives 111
1.10 Possession 111
1.10.1 Sentences expressing possession 111
1.10.2 Alienable vs. inalienable possession 112
1.10.3 Temporary vs. permanent possession 112
1.10.4 Possession and the animacy hierarchy 112
1.10.5 Possession and the tense/aspect/modality 112
1.11 Emphasis/focus 113
1.11.1 Sentence emphasis 113
1.11.2 Emphasis of sentences and constituents 113
1.11.3 Focus of yes-no questions 120
1.12 Topic 121
1.12.1 Means of indicating the topic 121
1.12.2 Elements which may be topicalized 123
1.12.3 Optional, obligatory and preferred means of topicalization 126
1.13 Heavy shift 126
1.13.1–5 Heavy shift 126
1.14 Movement processes 126
1.15 Minor sentence types 127
1.16 Operational definitions for word classes 127
1.16.1 Noun 127
1.16.2 Pronoun 127
1.16.3 Verb 128
1.16.4 Adjective 128
1.16.5 Preposition 128
1.16.6 Noun phrase modifiers 128
1.16.7 Verb phrase modifiers 128
1.16.8 Sentential elements 129
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# Abbreviations and symbols

### ABBREVIATIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ar</td>
<td>general article</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>av</td>
<td>adverb(ial)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>clause</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>consonant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C−</td>
<td>unexploded consonant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cʰ</td>
<td>aspirated consonant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+C</td>
<td>completive aspect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>−C</td>
<td>incompletive aspect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cv</td>
<td>copular verb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cx</td>
<td>copular extension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>dummy pronoun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>emphatic/focus (marker)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EP</td>
<td>emphatic pronoun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f</td>
<td>phrase-final particle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>factative tense/aspect/ modality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>high tone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>introducer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ip</td>
<td>ideophone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>low tone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m</td>
<td>modifier</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>syllabic nasal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NP</td>
<td>Nigerian Pidgin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ng</td>
<td>negative marker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o</td>
<td>object</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p</td>
<td>(general) preposition</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
P  pronoun
+P  past
−P  nonpast
pl  pluralizer
ps  possessive (pronoun)
Qù  YNQ rising intonation
R  reduplicated form
+R  realis modality
−R  irrealis modality
rc  relative clause
s  subject
S  sentence, sentential
SJ  subjunctive
T  topic(alizer)
TQ  topic-switching question
v  verb
V  vowel
V^n  nasalized vowel
V+  valence-increasing serial verb
YNQ  yes-no question marker

**SYMBOLS**

1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6  persons (1pl=4; 2pl=5; 3pl=6)
?  question word
!  exclamatory particle
+  serialized verb
+/+  word boundary
/=/  phrase stress group boundary
'  stressed syllable follows
o, e  narrow pharynx (‘short’) vowels
@  acrolectal speech
#  basilectal speech
*  ungrammatical sentence
x/y  x varies with y
Phonemic/phonetic tone

/ó/, [ó]  high tone syllable
/ò/, [ò]  low tone syllable
[ô]      falling tone syllable
[ˆ]      rising tone syllable

Orthographic tone marking

o (vowel without tone mark) high tone syllable toneless syllable
Penultimate or monosyllable Other positions
ò         low tone syllable
ô         nonpenultimate high tone syllable
ó         high tone sequence

Orthographic symbols

The orthographic symbols used in this work are listed with their IPA equivalents in section 3.1.1.
Introduction

1
THE OBJECTIVES OF THIS STUDY

The goal of this work is the synthesis of the first comprehensive grammar of Nigerian Pidgin. Chapters 1–5 provide basic descriptive and analytic treatment of the syntax, morphology and phonology of this increasingly important language, which may soon become the most widely spoken language in all of Africa. The topics covered and the numerical system used to index and order each section are those listed on the Lingua Descriptive Studies (Croom Helm) Questionnaire, which first appeared in Lingua, vol. 42 (1977), no. 1. The Lingua Questionnaire was designed by Bernard Comrie and Norval Smith to provide a comprehensive and flexible framework for the creation of a set of mutually comparable grammars which would be as ‘theoretically unbiased’ as possible. In this study, slight modifications have been made to the Questionnaire, especially in the areas of verb serialization (see section 1.3.1.1.4), ideophones (see 4.1) and word order (see 1.2.5.3).

2
NIGERIAN PIDGIN AND THE NIGERIAN PIDGIN-SPEAKING COMMUNITY

Nigerian Pidgin can be considered to be one link in a chain of English-lexifier pidgins and creoles spoken along the coast of West Africa and in African Diaspora communities throughout the Atlantic Basin. Among these ‘related’ varieties, Cameroonian Pidgin is closer in form to Nigerian Pidgin than are, for example, Sierra Leonian and Jamaican Krio. All of these pidgins and creoles, however, share a significant number of semantic, grammatical and phonological features and structures.

A conservative estimate of the number of people who speak Nigerian Pidgin as a second language would have to exceed 40 million and the number of first language speakers has already surpassed 1 million. Both of these numbers are increasing rapidly, given the popularity of the language among young people, who make up a majority of the national population (currently pegged at 107 million by most international agencies). If present trends continue, Nigerian Pidgin will be spoken by most Nigerians by the year 2000 and it is already the most widely spoken language in the country. Nigerian Pidgin is distinguished from the other 400 or so Nigerian languages by the fact that it is spoken by members of every regional, ethnolinguistic and religious group in the federation. Nigerian Pidgin is distinguished from Nigerian Standard English by the fact that it is spoken by members of every socioeconomic group, while only those with many years of formal education can claim to speak Standard English with any proficiency. For an
understanding of Nigerian affairs and for practical communication in Nigeria, a knowledge of Nigerian Pidgin is fast becoming indispensable.

Despite the fact that Nigerian Pidgin is in most respects the most logical choice for a national language, it has received little recognition from those responsible for language policy in Nigeria. Official attitudes towards Nigerian Pidgin remain negative, perpetuating erroneous notions inherited from the colonial period that Nigerian Pidgin is some form of ‘broken English’.

3
SOCIAL LECTS: IS NIGERIAN PIDGIN REALLY A ‘PIDGIN’?

The name Nigerian ‘Pidgin’ is to some extent misleading, since the Nigerian Pidgin-speaking community includes people who speak the language as a pidginized speech form, as a creolized speech form and/or as a decreolized speech form. For instance, for a Yoruba market woman whose use of Nigerian Pidgin is restricted to business transactions, the language is a pidgin in the true sense of the word. For her children who use Nigerian Pidgin with their Igbo playmates in the market, the language is depidginizing or creolizing. For the Nembe man who speaks Nigerian Pidgin with his Ibibio wife, and especially for his children, who speak Nigerian Pidgin with their parents and each other, the language is not a pidgin at all, but a creole. For the child from an elite Port Harcourt family who grows up speaking Nigerian Pidgin, but who hears Nigerian Standard English at home (on formal occasions), at school and on the radio and television, Nigerian Pidgin is in all probability a decreolized speech form.

For convenience of description, Nigerian Pidgin may therefore be divided into three sets of social lects: acrolectal (decreolized) varieties which show significant influence from Nigerian Standard English, basilectal (pidginized or repidginized) varieties which show significant influence from other Nigerian languages, and mesolectal (creolized) varieties which typify the speech of those who use Nigerian Pidgin in most of their daily interactions or who have learned Nigerian Pidgin as a first language. In practice, most speakers are able to change the lect of Nigerian Pidgin that they use according to social context. For example, a factory worker might use a basilectal variety in the market, a mesolectal variety with other workers and an acrolectal variety with the plant manager. In this work, mesolectal varieties of Nigerian Pidgin are used in all descriptions, analyses, examples, etc., unless stated otherwise.

4
ON THE ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF NIGERIAN PIDGIN

With a large and vigorous population and a long tradition of ethnic and linguistic diversity and tolerance, Nigeria was able to develop a highly mercantile society with major urban centres centuries before the landing of European merchant ships in the fifteenth century or the arrival of the Jihad in the thirteenth century. City life, intermarriage, trading and travel have brought Nigerians who speak different languages into close contact with one another for thousands of years. Bilingualism and multilingualism have always been the norm rather than the exception in most parts of Nigeria. For these reasons, it is very likely that pidginized versions of Nigerian languages were widely used in many areas. In fact, pidginized Hausa is still spoken by non-native speakers of Hausa in the markets around Lake Chad while a pidginized form of Igbo is used at present in some Niger Delta markets.

Nigerian Pidgin may very well have developed from one or several such pidginized Nigerian languages that were spoken along the coast before the Europeans arrived. Because of the importance of the European trade and the reluctance of Europeans to learn other languages, European words would have been
substituted for Nigerian words to facilitate communication. Since the Portuguese arrived first, a few Portuguese-derived items such as sàbi ‘know’ and pìkîn ‘child’ would have been initially adopted, but as the British consolidated power over Nigeria, more and more English words would have been integrated into the language. Along with British colonialism came European education via missionaries, many of whom were Krio speakers from Sierra Leone (mostly ex-slaves or descendants of ‘repatriated’ slaves from the Caribbean).

Whether Nigerian Pidgin developed from marketplace contacts between European traders and the various ethnic groups along the coast or from the influence of missionaries from Sierra Leone is impossible to determine, given the present state of our knowledge. It is reasonable to assume that both of these factors played some part, but scholars must be careful not to over-emphasize the role of either the traders or the missionaries in the evolution of Nigerian Pidgin. In the frantic search for origins, creolists typically ignore the fact that at every stage of its history, Nigerian Pidgin has been used primarily as a means of communication among Nigerians rather than between Nigerians and traders, missionaries or other foreigners. Mounting evidence indicates that it is impossible to formulate any plausible scenario for the origin and development of Nigerian Pidgin that does not ascribe a significant role to influence from the linguistic patterns with which southern Nigerians have always been the most familiar: the structures that typify the languages of southern Nigeria.

Although several studies have been realized thus far on various subsystems of the phonology and grammar of Nigerian Pidgin (see Bibliography) this work represents the first comprehensive treatment of these systems in their entirety.

5

THE DATA SAMPLE

The data sample on which the grammar is based consists of transcribed recordings of at least one hour of speech from each of some sixty speakers selected on the basis of age, sex, ethnolinguistic background, daily Pidgin use patterns and educational history to represent a cross-section of the Nigerian Pidgin-speaking community of Port Harcourt, the capital of Rivers State, Nigeria (part of the former Eastern Region, population approximately 1 million). To obtain this sample, tape recordings of conversations, story-telling sessions and other relatively casual interactions were made in several working-class compounds, market stalls, industrial plants, drinking parlours, etc., in urban Port Harcourt from July 1985 to February 1986.

6

PARALLEL STUDY OF TOK PISIN (PAPUA NEW GUINEA PIDGIN)

During the year following the collection and analysis of the Nigerian data on which the present work is based, the author succeeded in realizing a similar project in Wewak, Papua New Guinea. The focus of this parallel study was Tok Pisin, a pidgin/creole spoken throughout Papua New Guinea.

Tok Pisin can be considered to be one link in a chain of English-lexifier pidgins and creoles that stretches across the Pacific Basin in much the same way as Nigerian Pidgin can be considered to be a link in an Atlantic Basin chain of English-lexifier pidgins and creoles. The English-lexifier pidgins and creoles of the Atlantic and Pacific show striking similarities at every level of linguistic structure. Attempts to explain why such similarities should exist have framed all of the key debates in the field of creolistics since its inception.

In general, creolists have proved to be more than ready to espouse the most counterintuitive and empirically unverifiable explanations (which invoke such deus ex machina concatenations as
‘bioprogrammatic’ universals or, worse, universal patterns of ‘linguistic regression’) while totally ignoring
or, at best, trivializing the possible role that substrate languages could have played. The present study and
its Tok Pisin counterpart represent the first systematic comparisons of Atlantic or Pacific pidgins/creoles
with a genetically and geographically balanced sample of their substrate languages.

The preliminary results of these studies indicate that in many (and perhaps most) cases where Nigerian
Pidgin and Tok Pisin show similarities in structure, such similarities are also to be found between the
languages of southern Nigeria and Papua New Guinea. Moreover, where Nigerian Pidgin and Tok Pisin are
dissimilar in linguistic structure, the languages of southern Nigeria and Papua New Guinea are usually
dissimilar as well, with the southern Nigerian languages displaying significant parallels to Nigerian Pidgin
and the Papua New Guinean languages patterning with Tok Pisin. Initial findings from the Atlantic/Pacific
1.1
GENERAL QUESTIONS

1.1.1
Sentence types

1.1.1.1
Direct speech and indirect speech

The only means regularly employed to indicate the difference between direct and indirect speech is a change in pronominal person categories from those found in the original utterance (quoted word-for-word in direct speech) to those appropriate to the situation in which the original utterance is being discussed (in the case of indirect speech). There is no formal way to distinguish logophoric from anaphoric reference:

(1) _direct speech_
Dèm tòk ‘Wì layk yù.’
6sP talkF+ 4sP likeF 2oP
‘They said, “We like you.”’

(2) _indirect speech_
Dèm tòk dèm layk mì.
6sP talkF+ 6sP likeF 1oP
‘They told me that they like me.’

A single object noun clause construction is used for direct speech, indirect speech and clauses following verbs of perception or cognition (see 1.1.2.2). In both direct and indirect speech, a verb of reporting obligatorily appears in the main clause followed optionally by a valence-increasing verb and/or a hearer/object. The subordinated object noun clause begins optionally with the noun clause introducer se (which is cognate with the verb of reporting se ‘say’) and consists of the speech material directly quoted or indirectly reported about (incorporating the appropriate changes in pronominal person categories) with an optional resetting (raising) of the intonation register over the first syllables of the clause:
(3) **noun clause construction for direct/indirect speech**

**main clause:** verb of reporting ± valence increaser ± hearer object ±

**noun clause:** ni se ± intonation register reset + speech material + indirect speech: pronoun change

(4) **direct speech:**

Dèm tok tel mì se ‘Wì layk yù.’
6sP talkF+ tellV+ 1oP ni 4sP likeF 2oP
‘They told me, “We like you.”’

**analysis:**

**main clause:**
Dèm tok (tel) (mì)
6sP talkF+ (tellV+) (1oP)
s + verb ± increaser ± o ±
(reset)

**noun clause:**
se ‘Wì layk yù.’
ni 4sP likeF 2oP
ni + speech material (no pronouns changed)

(5) **indirect speech:**

Dèm tok tel mì se dèm layk mì.
6sP talkF+ tellV+ 1oP ni 6sP likeF 1oP
‘They told me that they like me.’

**main clause:**
Dèm tok (tel) (mì)
6sP talkF+ (tellV+) (1oP)
s + verb ± increaser ± o ±
(reset)

**noun clause:**
se dèm layk mì.
ni 6sP likeF 1oP
ni + speech material (pronouns changed)

Slightly different versions of this noun clause construction are used in indirect questions and commands (see 1.1.2.2.2–5).

If an oblique hearer/object is mentioned, noun clauses including a question word or a relative clause may be substituted for the noun clause types that normally occur in direct/indirect speech constructions (see 1.1.2.3.6):

(6) Dèm tel mi wafing dèm chop.
6sP tellF 1oP what? 6oP eatF
‘They told me what they ate.’

(7) Dèm tel mi dì ting we dèm chop.
6sP tellF 1oP ar thing rcI 6oP eatF
‘They told me the thing that they ate.’
1.1.1.2
Interrogative sentences

1.1.1.2.1
Yes-no questions

1.1.1.2.1.1 Neutral yes-no questions

Almost any declarative sentence may be transformed into a yes-no question by replacing the normal sentence-final falling intonation contour by a rising contour. This is the most commonly attested means for signalling yes-no questions:

(8) Yù go makèt.
    2sP goF market
    ‘You went to the market.’

(9) Yù go makèt ?
    2sP goF market Qù
    ‘Did you go to the market?’

A yes-no question marker àbi may be used (usually together with a sentence-final rising intonation contour) at the beginning or end of a sentence in order to transform it into a yes-no question:

(10) Abi yù go makèt ?
    YNQ 2sP goF market Qù
    ‘Did you go to the market?’

Sentence-finally, àbi automatically bears a rising contour due to the fact that it bears a low tone (see 3.3.3.10):

(11) Yù go makèt àbi ?
    2sP goF market YNQ (Qù)
    ‘Did you go to the market?’

Àbi is also found in the middle of sentences with the same yes-no question-marking function, but in this position it takes on a secondary topicalizing function, singling out the preceding constituent as the topic of the sentence:

(12)  a. Prâmeri nà klas.
      primary EI class
      ‘Primary is a class (in grade school).’

     b. Abi prâmeri nà klàs ?
      YNQ primary EI class Qù
      ‘Is primary a grade school class?’

     c. Prâmeri nà klas àbi ?
      primary EI class YNQ Qù
      ‘Primary, is it a class?’ OR ‘Is primary a class?’
d. Prâmeri àbi nà klâs ?

primary YNQ EI class Qù
‘Primary, is it a class?’ OR ‘Is primary a class?’

Weda ‘whether’ sometimes functions as a yes-no question marker at the beginning of a sentence:

(13) Weda yù go makèt ?  
whether 2sP goF market Qù  
‘Did you go to the market?’

1.1.1.2.1.2 Leading yes-no questions In answers to yes-no questions, yes ‘yes’ signals agreement with the proposition being asserted (even if it is a negative proposition) while no ‘no’ signals disagreement with the proposition (even if it is negative):

(14) a. A: Abi yù go makèt ?  
YNQ 2sP goF market Qù  
‘Did you go to the market?’

B: Yes, à go. OR No, à no go.  
yes 1sP goF no 1sP ng goF
A: ‘Did you go to the market?’
B: ‘Yes, I went.’ OR ‘No, I didn’t go.’

b. A: Abi yù no go makèt ?  
YNQ 2sP ng goF market Qù  
‘Didn’t you go to the market?’

B: Yes, à no go. OR No, à go.  
yes 1sP ng goF no 1sP goF
A: ‘Didn’t you go to the market?’
B: ‘Yes, I didn’t go.’ OR ‘No, I went.’

For these reasons, leading yes-no questions are classified here according to whether the asker of the question expects agreement (a ‘yes’ answer) or disagreement (a ‘no’ answer) with the proposition (negative or affirmative) asserted in the question.

1.1.1.2.1.2.1 Yes-no questions expecting agreement: In yes-no questions expecting agreement, the proposition put forward in the question is usually made into a noun clause (see 1.1.2.2) which normally follows (but sometimes precedes) a main clause containing a verb of perception such as tink ‘think’:

(15) A tink (se) yù go makèt ?  
1sP thinkF (ncI) 2sP goF market Qù  
‘Did you go to the market?’ (expecting agreement)

(16) Yù go makèt à tink ?  
2sP goF market 1sP thinkF Qù  
‘Did you go to the market?’ (expecting agreement)

A negative copular construction such as i no bi so? ‘isn’t it so?’ or i no biam? ‘isn’t it so?’ may also occur sentence-finally or (more rarely) sentence-initially as a tag-like main clause subordinating the proposition as
a noun clause. In such cases a ‘yes’ answer signifies agreement with the truth value of the noun clause, rather than with the truth value of the negative main clause:

(17) I no bì so (se) yù go makèt ?
3sD ng cvF so (ncl) 2sP goF market Qù
‘Did you go to the market?’ (expecting agreement)

(18) Yu go makèt, (i) no bì so ?
2sP goF market (3sD) ng cvF so Qù
‘Did you go to the market?’ (expecting agreement)

(19) A: Yù go makèt, (i) no bì -am ?
2sP goF market (3sD) ng cvF-3oP Qu
B: Yes, à go.
yes 1sP goF
A: ‘You went to the market, didn’t you?’
B: ‘Yes, I did.’

Elugbe and Omamor (ms: 123) report the use of shebi as a sentence-initial marker in yes-no questions expecting agreement. Shebi does not occur in the Port Harcourt data collected for this study. In this connection, it should be noted that Elugbe and Omamor have done extensive work on the midwestern dialects of Nigerian Pidgin and shebi may occur more commonly in the area around Benin City than in the area around Port Harcourt.

1.1.1.2.1.2.2 Yes-no questions expecting disagreement: No consistently employed means for signalling yes-no questions expecting disagreement can be found in the data or in the literature.

1.1.1.2.1.3 Alternative questions Alternative questions include two or more conjoined sentences in an òr co-ordination construction (see 1.3.1.1.3). The forms àbi, òr and weda are most often used here, but ayda is also attested. The co-occurrence of co-ordinators in alternative questions is as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Beginning of question (optional)</th>
<th>Between co-ordinated elements (obligatory)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(àbi/weda)</td>
<td>àbi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(weda)</td>
<td>òr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(àbi/weda)</td>
<td>weda</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Normal sentence-final falling intonation rather than a rising contour is usually found over alternative questions:

(20) (Abi) yù go makèt àbi yù go skul?
(YNQ) 2sP goF market YNQ 2sP goF school (Qù)
‘Did you go to the market or to school?’

(21) (Weda) yù go makèt weda yù go skul ?
(whether) 2sP goF market whether 2sP goF school (Qù)
‘Did you go to the market or to school?’
1.1.2.2

Question-word questions

Question-words are of three types: simple interrogative pronouns, compound interrogative pronouns and question-word expressions. Simple interrogative pronouns include: *how?*, *who?*, *why?*, *where?* and, in acrolectal varieties, *wen* ‘when?’ Compound interrogative pronouns consist of one of the interrogative markers (*hus-, wat-, wich* or, less commonly, *we- or wus-*) followed by a pronominal such as *pesin* ‘person’, *-ples* ‘place’ or *ting* ‘thing’ (see 2.2.6.3). The pronominal *-kaynd* ‘sort, kind’ may precede another pronominal in a compound interrogative pronoun. Examples of compound interrogative pronouns are: _watîng_ ‘what?’, _wetîng_ ‘what?’, _wich kaynd ting_ ‘which (kind of) thing?’, _huskaynd pesin_ ‘who?’ and _wusplés_ ‘where?’ Question-word expressions occurring in the data are: *fòr we* ‘where?’, *watîng mek* ‘why?’ and *haw meni* ‘how many?’ Question words may also serve to introduce headless relative clauses (see 1.1.2.3.6). All question words are inherently stressed (see 3.3.2.3).

1.1.2.2.1 Elements of the sentence which can be questioned

1.1.2.2.1.1 Questioning constituents of main clauses: Any major constituent of a main clause may be questioned. To do this, the element to be questioned is normally replaced by a question-word. Individual auxiliaries and verbs (both serialized and nonserialized) are not usually subject to questioning, but whole verb phrases may be questioned by using a construction which includes a verb such as _du_ ‘do’ or _mek_ ‘make’ and a question-word:

(22) Im giv yù nyam fɔ̀r haws.
3sP giveF 2oP yam p house
‘(S)he gave you yams at the house.’

(23) subject questioned
Hu giv yù nyam fɔ̀r haws?
who? giveF 2oP yam p house
‘Who gave you yams at the house?’

(24) main (direct) object questioned
Im giv yu watîng fɔ̀r haws?
3sP giveF 2oP what? p house
‘What did (s)he give you at the house?’

(25) other (indirect) object questioned
Im giv hu nyam fɔ̀r haws?
3sP giveF who? yam p house
‘To whom did (s)he give yams at the house?’

(26) oblique object questioned
Im giv yù nyam (fɔ̀r) we?
3sP giveF 2oP yam (p) where?
‘Where did she give you yams?’ OR ‘At what place did she give you yams?’
It should be noted here that comparative constructions are serialized verb constructions (see 1.3 and 1.8) so that objects of comparison are simply objects of the verb *pas* ‘pass’. All of the question-words in the preceding examples may occur at the beginning of the questions in which they are found (see 1.1.1.2.2.2.2) without any kind of marker appearing in the sentential position normally occupied by the questioned item, although such markers may optionally be used in some cases (see 1.5).

1.1.1.2.2.1.2 Questioning constituents of subordinate clauses: Any constituent of any noun clause, relative clause, adverbial clause or subjunctive clause may be questioned in exactly the same ways as described for main clauses in 1.1.1.2.2.1.1. In practice, the occurrence of this type of questioning is largely restricted to echo questions (see 1.1.1.2.3):

(32)  Dëm si dì nyam we im giv yù fôr haws.
     6sP seeF ar yam rcI 3sP giveF 2oP p house
     ‘They saw the yams that (s)he gave you at the house.’

(33)  Dëm si dì nyam we im giv yù fôr we?
     6sP seeF ar yam rcI 3sP giveF 2oP p where?
     ‘They saw the yams that (s)he gave you where?’

(34)  Dëm si dì nyam we huspesin im sista (ím) giv yù?
     6sP seeF ar yam rcI whose? 3ps sister (3sP) giveF 2oP
     ‘They saw the yams that whose sister gave you?’
The following examples show that there are no particular restrictions which prevent the questioning of elements adjacent to subordination markers:

(35) Dèm sàbi se im giv yù nyam fòr haws.
   6sP knowF ncI 3sP giveF 2oP yam p house
   ‘They know that (s)he gave you yams at the house.’

(36) Dèm sàbi se im giv yù watîng fòr haws?
   6sP knowF ncI 3sP giveF 2oP what? p house
   ‘They know that (s)he gave you what at the house?’

Some speakers, however, accept the preceding example as a grammatical sentence less readily than than those listed before it. There is a widespread preference for longer question-word forms such as huspesin ‘who?’ over the normally interchangeable forms such as hu ‘who?’ in this position.

Unlike main clause constituents, elements of relative and adverbial subordinate clauses may not be fronted (that is, they may not occur at the beginning of questions) even for topicalization or focalization. In order for these items to occur at the beginning of a question, the entire sentence must be restructured as shown in the following example (which is a restructured version of the preceding one):

(37) Dèm sàbi se hu giv yù nyam fòr haws?
   6sP knowF ncI who? giveF 2oP yam p house
   ‘They know that who gave you yams at the house?’

(38) Dèm si dì nyam we huspesin (ìm) giv yù?
   6sP seeF ar yam rcI whose? (3sP) giveF 2oP
   ‘They saw the yams that who gave you?’

Some speakers, however, accept the preceding example as a grammatical sentence less readily than than those listed before it. There is a widespread preference for longer question-word forms such as huspesin ‘who?’ over the normally interchangeable forms such as hu ‘who?’ in this position.

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(39) Hu giv yù dì nyam we dèm si?
   who? giveF 2oP ar yam rcI 6sP seeF
   ‘Who gave you the yams that they saw?’

‘Subjectless’ relative clauses allow the same range of questioning as do relative clauses:

(40) Dèm si dì pesin we giv yù watîng?
   6sP seeF ar person rcI giveF 2oP what?
   ‘They saw the person who gave you what?’

Questioned elements of subordinate noun clauses, however, may occur question-initially in the same way as can questioned main clause constituents. See 1.1.1.2.2.2.2–3 for special remarks concerning the questioning of subjects of subordinate clauses:

(41) Watîng ìm tok se à giv yù?
   what? 3sP talkF ncI 1sP giveF 2oP
   ‘What did (s)he say I gave you?’
1.1.1.2.2.1.3 Questioning elements of noun phrases: Any noun phrase element may be questioned except for emphasis markers, topicalizers, the article *dì* and the postposed pluralizer *dèm* (see 1.2.5.2). Good examples of questioned head nouns (animate and inanimate) and possessive modifiers may be found in section 1.1.1.2.2.1.2. Entire noun phrases and noun clauses may also be questioned:

(42) A: *Dèm si ol di faynfayn nyam dèm.*
     6sP seeF all ar fineR yam pl
B: *Dèm si watîng? OR Watîng dèm si?*
     6sP seeF what? what? 6sP seeF
A: ‘They saw all of the fine yams.’
B: ‘They saw what?’ OR ‘What did they see?’

(43) A: *Dèm sàbi se yù chıp nyam.*
     6sP knowF ncI 2sP eatF yam
B: *Dèm sàbi watîng? OR Watîng dèm sàbi?*
     6sP knowF what? what? 6sP knowF
A: ‘They know that you ate yam.’
B: ‘They know what?’ OR ‘What do they know?’

Quantifiers within noun phrases may be questioned using the question-word expressions *haw moch* and *haw meni*. These two items are used interchangeably in many cases:

(44) *Dèm get plënti nyam.*
     6sP haveF plenty yam
‘They have many yams/much yam.’

(45) *Dèm get haw moch/haw mëni nyam?*
     6sP haveF how much/many? yam
‘They have how much/many yam(s)?’

(46) a. *Haw moch/Haw mëni nyam dèm get?*
     how much/many? yam 6sP haveF
‘How much/many yam(s) do they have?’

If its referent is understood from context, *haw moch/meni* may occur without a head noun:

(46) b. *Haw moch dèm get?*
     how much 6sP haveF
‘How much do they have?’

All other noun phrase elements (qualifiers, demonstratives, etc.) may be questioned using compound interrogative pronouns, especially those incorporating the interrogative marker *wich* and/or the pronominal *kaynd*:

(47) *Dèm si wich (kaynd) nyam?*
6sP seeF which (sort of) yam
‘They saw which (sort of) yam(s)?’

(48) Wich (kaynd) nyam dèm si?
which (sort of) yam 6sP seeF
‘Which (sort of) yam(s) did they see?’

As shown in the preceding examples, a questioned element may occur sentence-initially along with the rest of the noun phrase in which it occurs. Sentence-initial occurrence of questioned noun phrase elements from subordinate clauses is only possible when the noun phrase element in question is part of a noun clause. (This seems to be a general pattern: see 1.1.1.2.2.1.2). Examples of questioned possessor nouns may be found in section 1.1.1.2.2.1.1.

1.1.1.2.2.1.4 Questioning elements of prepositional and adverbial phrases: Any element of any prepositional or adverbial phrase (excluding prepositions as isolated elements) may be questioned. As shown in sections 1.1.1.2.2.1.1–2, questioning is possible over entire prepositional and adverbial phrases as well. Noun phrases and elements within noun phrases that make up part or all of a given adverbial or prepositional phrase are subject to exactly the same processes, possibilities and restrictions described for noun phrase questioning in 1.1.1.2.2.1.3:

(49) Yù sik (fôr) haw mën nayt? OR
2sP be sickF (p) how many? night
(Fôr) haw mën nayt yù sik?
(p) how many? night 2sP be sickF
‘How many nights are you/have you been sick?’

To question elements in prepositional and adverbial phrases which are not included in local noun phrases the following question words may be employed: (a) the simple interrogative pronouns haw ‘how?’, way ‘why?’, we ‘where?’ and, in acrolectal speech, wen ‘when?’; (b) compound interrogative pronouns containing pronominals such as taym ‘time’, ples ‘place’ and we ‘means, way’; and (c) the question-word expressions for we ‘where?’ and wáting mek ‘why?’ As shown in 1.1.1.2.2.1.1–2, the scope of such questions normally covers the entire prepositional and adverbial phrase:

(50) Dèm kot nyam wit nayf.
6sP cutF yam with knife
‘They cut yams with a knife.’

(51) Dèm kot nyam haw? OR Haw dèm kot nyam?
6sP cutF yam how? how? 6sP cutF yam
‘They cut yams how?’ OR ‘How did they cut yams?’

When an element of a prepositional phrase is fronted (that is, when it occurs at the beginning of a question) the preposition must occur alongside the questioned element. The only apparent exception is the item frôm ‘from’, which often behaves more like a serialized verb than a preposition (see 2.1.1.5):

(52) Dèm put nyam for haws.
6sP putF yam p house
‘They put yams in the house.’

(53) Dèm put nyam för we? OR For we dèm put nyam?  
6sP putF yam p where? p where? 6sP putF yam  
‘They put yams where?’ OR ‘Where did they put yams?’

(54) Yù kom fròm we? OR We yù kom fròm?  
2sP comeF from where? where? 2sP comeF from  
‘Where do you come from?’

(55) We yù fròm kom?  
where? 2sP from comeF  
‘Where do you come from?’

1.1.1.2.2.1.5 Questioning of elements in co-ordinate structures: Normally, only one element of a co-ordinate structure may usually be questioned at a time. This constraint aside, all of the procedures, possibilities and restrictions described for other structures in 1.1.1.2.2.1.1–4 apply. Questioning of more than one element in co-ordinate structures is not completely unacceptable, however, especially in the case of conjoined adverbial phrases and noun phrases. Cases of movement of one conjunct of a co-ordinate structure are not attested in the data:

(56) We ànd haw yù gò bay nyam?  
where? and how? 2sP–R buy yam  
‘Where and how will you buy yams?’

(57) Yù si haw meni pikín and wichkâynd nyam?  
2sP seeF how many? child and which? yam  
‘You saw how many children and what sort of yam?’

1.1.1.2.2.1.5.1 Questioning elements in serialized verb constructions Objects of valence-increasing verbs and other verbs in serialized verb constructions (see 1.3 and 1.8) are questioned in the same way as are all noun phrase constituents (as illustrated in section 1.1.1.2.2.1.1). Objects of serialized verbs may also be questioned in other ways when the semantics of the construction in which they occur match those of another category. For example, objects of the valence-increasing verb tek ‘take’ in the serialized instrumental construction may be questioned in exactly the same way as shown for the instrumental prepositional phrases which include the preposition wit (see sections 1.1.1.2.2.1.4 and 2.1.4):

(58) Dèm tek nayf kot nyam.  
6sP takeFV+ knife cut+ yam  
‘They cut yams with a knife.’

(59) Dèm kot nyam wichwê? OR Wichwê dèm kot nyam? OR  
6sP cutF yam how? how? 6sP cutF yam
1.1.1.2.2.1.6 Questioning of more than one element: Within the constraints outlined in 1.1.1.2.2.1–5 there is no theoretical limit on the number of elements in a given sentence that can be questioned. In practice, however, only one element is usually questioned. In the preceding examples are found instances of questions containing two co-ordinate questioned items. The following question is judged by speakers to be grammatical, but not likely to be uttered in normal conversation:

(62)  Dèm kari nayf giv òs fòr tawn.
  6sP carryF+ knife giveV+ 4oP p town
  ‘They gave us a knife in town.’

(63)  Hu kari watîng giv hu (fòr) husâyd?
  who? carryF+ what? giveV+ who? (p) where?
  ‘Who gave what to whom where?’

1.1.1.2.2.2 Morphosyntactic behaviour of questioned elements

1.1.1.2.2.2.1 Unchanged elements: No element remains unchanged under question-word questioning. One or more of the processes described in 1.1.1.2.2.2.2–8 must apply.

1.1.1.2.2.2.2–3 Position of questioned elements: Questioned elements are retained in their usual syntactic positions or they may be fronted (that is, they may occur at the beginning of the question). The question-word way ‘why?’ (and, to a lesser extent, watîng mek ‘why?’) is in many cases unacceptable to speakers unless it occurs question-initially:

(64)  Dèm kari nayf mek dèm kot nyam.
  6sP carryF+ knife SJcI 6sP cutSJ yam
  ‘They brought knives (in order) to cut yams.’

(65)  *Dèm kari nayf way?
  ?Dèm kari nayf watîng mek?
  Way dèm kari nayf?
  Watîng mek dèm kari nayf?
  ‘Why did they carry (bring) knives?’

As shown in 1.1.1.2.2.1.2, questioned elements in subordinate clauses may be fronted. In the case of subjects of subordinate clauses, since sentenceinitial and preverbal positions are in almost every case
identical, the type of fronting discussed in this section could be considered to be a process involving movement to either or both positions, if indeed we wish to consider the process to be one involving movement at all. Verbs (both within and outside of serialized verb constructions) may not be directly questioned and they may not occur question-initially.

1.1.1.2.2.2.4 Clefting and emphasis of questioned elements: The fact that question-words may occur in or be fronted to sentence-initial position reflects their inherently emphasized or focused nature (see 1.11.2.1 and 3.3.2.3). Questioned elements may be further emphasized by including them in a sentence-initial cleft construction. If the questioned element includes a noun or a pronoun, the relative clause introducer we may optionally follow it. Otherwise, we, which is usually optionally present in most cleft constructions, may not occur after a question-word (see 1.11.2.1.4):

(66) Na haw meni nyam (we) yù gò chop?
    EI how many? yam (rcI) 2sP−R eat
    ‘How many yams is it that you will eat?’

(67) Nà hu gò chop nyam?
    EI who? −R eat yam
    ‘Who is it that will eat yams?’

1.1.1.2.2.2.5 Stress and emphasis of questioned elements: Where there is no conflict with higher-level intonation and stress patterns, question-words usually either form a stress group unto themselves or mark a stress group final boundary, thus attracting phrase stress in almost every utterance in which they occur (see 3.3.2.3). For this reason question-words, along with other items such as negative markers, may be said to be inherently emphasized or focused (see 1.11.2.1). In most question-word questions, therefore, there is a falling pitch contour over the question-word, often accompanied by an increase in perceived loudness and/or syllable length. The stressing of question-words is unaffected by their position in the sentence: sentence-initial question-words bear the same stress as noninitial question-words.

1.1.1.2.2.2.6 Other processes affecting questioned elements: The processes listed in 1.1.1.2.2.2.1–5 account for all of the major morphosyntactic patterns consistently observed for questioned elements.

1.1.1.2.2.2.7–8 Movement of items along with a questioned element: Questioned noun phrases, prepositional phrases, adverbial phrases and possessive constructions (see 1.2.5.1.1) occur sentence-initially (that is, fronted) only as indivisible units. Conjoined noun phrases and adverbial phrases may occur together at the beginning of a question (as in 1.1.1.2.2.1.5) or, more rarely, they may be split apart with one of the conjoined elements at the beginning and the other left behind in its usual sentential position:

(68) (split version of (57)):
    Haw meni pikîn yù si ànd wichkâynd nyam?
    how many? child 2sP seeF and which? yam
    ‘How many children did you see and what sort of yam?’

Apart from these cases, only one questioned element may normally be found sentence-initially (fronted) in any given question. Verbs may not occur in initial position along with their questioned objects, even in serialized constructions where the verb’s semantics match the semantics of other items which may occur question-initially, such as prepositions. Contrast the following with the forms in 1.1.1.2.2.1.5.1:
(69) Dèm tek nayf kot nyam. OR
   6sP takeFV+ knife cutF+ yam
Dèm kot nyam wit nayf.
   6sP cutF yam with knife
   ‘They cut yams with knives.’

(70) Wit wating dèm kot nyam?
   with what? 6sP cutF yam
   ‘With what did they cut yams?’
*Tek wating dèm kot nyam?

1.1.1.2.3
Echo questions

1.1.1.2.3.1–7 Echo questions All of the processes, possibilities and constraints described for yes-no questions and for question-word questions in 1.1.1.2.1 and 1.1.1.2.2 are appropriate to echo-question formation as well. Any of the yes-no questions in section 1.1.1.2.1 could be used as a yes-no echo question. The clause yù min (se) ‘you mean (that)’ can be employed to introduce yes-no question echo questions, in which case the yes-no question becomes a noun clause:

(71)   Yù min (se) yù go makèt ?
      2sP meanF (ncI) 2sP goF market Qù
   ‘You mean (that) you went to the market?’

If àbi or weda are used, se may not occur:

(72)   *Yù min (se) weda yù go makèt ?
   Yù min weda yù go makèt
   2sP meanF whether 2sP goF market Qù
   ‘You mean you went to the market?’

Noun phrases, prepositional phrases, adverbial phrases and possessive constructions may be preceded by yù min (se) or may stand alone as yes-no echo questions:

(73)   A: Dèm kot nyam för fam.
       6sP cutF yam p farm
   ‘They cut yams on the farm.’

   B:   (Yù min) dèm ?
       (2sP meanF) 6EP Qù
   ‘(You mean) them?’

   C:   (Yù min) för fam ?
       (2sP meanF) p farm Qù
   ‘(You mean) on the farm?’
The entire range of question-word questions exemplified in section 1.1.1.2.2 may also be used as question-word echo questions. Any question word may stand alone as an echo question, as long as the constraints outlined in 1.1.1.2.2.2.7 are respected. In echo questions containing question-words, the normal falling intonation associated with question-word questions is usually replaced by the rising intonation contour typical of yes-no questions:

(74)  A:  A go maket.  
      IsP goF market  
      ‘I went to the market.’  

      B:  Wating ?  
          what? Qù  
          ‘What (did you do)’

(75)  A:  A go maket.  
      IsP goF market  
      ‘I went to the market.’  

      B:  Wè ?  
          where? Qù  
          ‘Where (did you go)?’

1.1.1.2.4  
Answers  

1.1.1.2.4.1 Answers as complete sentences

1.1.1.2.4.1–3. Answers as a distinct speech act: Both questions and answers are distinct speech acts, to the extent that they serve to shift the emphasis and/or the topic of a speech event: (a) from one part of the message to another (question-word questions); (b) from the information content of the signal to the truth value of the information content (yes-no questions); or (c) to the quality of the channel over which the message is conveyed (echo-questions). These distinct functions of questions and answers are manifested by the special intonation and stress patterns found over them as well as by emphasis and topicalizing mechanisms. Answers to all three types of questions are often characterized by a widened, more dramatic range of pitch and by the use of topicalization constructions (such as dislocation: see 1.12) and/or emphasis or focus constructions (such as clefting: see 1.11).

1.1.1.2.4.2 Incomplete sentences used as answers Perhaps the most dramatic way to add prominence to a given element of a given sentence is to mention the element alone without the rest of the sentence. It is not surprising, then, that this is one of the most common strategies used for answering questions.

1.1.1.2.4.2.1 Incomplete sentence answers to yes-no questions: A particular element of a yes-no question may be singled out and repeated as an answer, signalling affirmation of the entire proposition, but drawing attention to the particular item repeated as well. Elements available for this type of answer normally obey the same constraints that govern the behaviour of questioned elements (1.1.1.2.2.7) and the omission of items from yes-no questions (1.1.1.2.3.1):

(76)  A:  Abi yù kot kāsāva ?  
      YNQ 2sP cutF cassava Qù
As illustrated in (76), disagreement with a proposition may be signalled by replacing an element of a sentence by another and then using the replacement element by itself, without the rest of the sentence. Examples (76) and (77) show that yes-no echo questions may also be answered by using the replacement element by itself:

(77)  
A: Abi yù chopràys ?  
YNQ 2sP eatF rice Òù  
B: (Yù mìn) mì ?  
(2sP meanF) 1EP Òù  
A: (Yès.) Yu.  
(yes) 2EP  
A: ‘Did you eat rice?’  
B: ‘(Who?) Me?’  
A: ‘(Yès.) You.’

1.1.1.2.4.2.1.1–2 ‘Yes’, ‘no’ and ‘maybe’
As illustrated in 1.1.1.2.1.2 ‘yes’ signals agreement with a proposition while ‘no’ signals disagreement. The most commonly used expressions of agreement are:

(78)  
Yès. ‘Yes.’  
N. ‘Yes.’ (a high toned syllabic n)  
Nàn im. ‘That’s it.’ (strong)  
El 3ED  
Tank yu. ‘Thank you.’ (strong)  
thankF 2EP

Lack of agreement is expressed by:

(79)  
No. ‘No.’  
A-à. ‘No.’ (often nasalized)  
Atòl. ‘Not at all.’ (strong)  
Husâyd? OR Fôr we? ‘Where?’ (strong)  
Kômôt! OR Getôt! ‘Get out of here!’ (abusive)
Doubt is very often expressed by the use of the verb *fit* ‘be able’ in such statements as *i fit bi so* ‘it could be so’. Or-conjoined statements may be employed to show doubt about a proposition. In acrolectal varieties, *mebi* ‘maybe’ is also attested:

(80) A: Abi yù gò go Legos ?
YNQ 2sP −R go Lagos Qù
‘Will you go to Lagos?’
B: A fit go. OR I fit bi so.
1sP be ableF+ go+ 3sD be ableF+ cv+ so
‘I could go.’ ‘It might be so.’

(81) Weda à gò go, weda à no gò go. OR @Mebi.
whether 1sP −R go whether 1sP ng −R go maybe
‘I may go or I may not go.’ ‘Maybe.’

1.1.1.2.4.2.2 Incomplete sentence answers to question-word questions: Any element of an answer to a question-word question which corresponds to the questioned element of the original question may be used alone as an incomplete sentence answer. It is much more common, however, to use the questioned element alone in a cleft construction (as illustrated in 1.1.1.2.2.2.2–4):

(82) A: Yù pawnd nyam hustâym?
2sP poundF yam when?
‘When did you pound yam?’
B: A pawnd nyam yestàdê. OR Yestàdê.
1sP poundF yam yesterday yesterday
‘(I pounded yam) yesterday.’

Nà yestàdê we à pawnd nyam. OR Nà yestàdê.
EI yesterday rcI 1sP poundF yam EI yesterday
‘(It was) yesterday (that I pounded yam).’

Incomplete sentence answers to why-questions usually include the verb *mek* ‘make’ functioning as a serialized verb in a causative construction or as a subjunctive clause introducer:

(83) A: Way yù chop nyam?
why? 2sP eatF yam
‘Why did you eat yam?’
B: Hongri mek mi chop -am. OR Hongri, nà im mek.
hunger makeF+ 1oP eatF+-3oP hunger EI 3ED makeF
A: ‘Why did you eat yam?’
B: ‘Because I was hungry.’
1.1.1.3
Imperative sentences

Imperative sentences are normally identical in form to declarative sentences, except for the fact that the subjunctive clause introducer *mek* occurs before the subject in most imperatives. (For a full discussion of the subjunctive modality, see 1.3.1.1.4 and 2.1.3.4.15.) Both *mek* and the verb that follows it in an imperative subjunctive clause normally form the nuclei of separate stress groups, so that an argument for inherent stress can be made for imperatives (see 1.1.1.2.2 and 1.1.1.2.2.5). Subject pronouns are used following *mek* when it occurs as an imperative subjunctive clause introducer, despite the fact that the presumably cognate item *mek* ‘make’ (the verb) is in most cases followed by an object (even when it is found in a serialized causative construction; see 2.1.3.1.3.1):

(84) A giv -am nyam.
    1sP giveF-3oP yam
    ‘I gave him/her yams.’

(85) Dì wuman giv mì nyam.
    ar woman giveF 1oP yam
    ‘The woman gave me yams.’

(86) Mek à giv -am nyam!
    SJcI 1sP giveSJ-3oP yam
    ‘Let me give him/her yam.’

(87) Mek dì wuman giv mì nyam!
    SJcI ar woman giveSJ 1oP yam
    ‘Let the woman give me yams.’

1.1.1.3.1
Positive imperative forms

1.1.1.3.1.1 Special imperative forms and person/number/auxiliary combinations

Subjunctive imperative sentences introduced by *mek* may include subjects of any person or number. If the subject is in the second person (singular or plural) *mek* together with the subject pronoun may optionally not be used. If one of these two elements is not used, the other must also not be used:

(88) Yù go fam.
    2sP goF farm
    ‘You went to the farm.’

(89) Mek yù go fam!
    SJcI 2sP goSJ farm
    ‘Go to the farm!’

(90) Go fam!
    goSJ farm
*Mek go fam!
*Yù go fam!
‘Go to the farm!’

The only tense/aspect/modality auxiliaries which may occur in imperative sentences are the incompletive aspect marker *dè*, the realis modality auxiliary *kom*, and the completive aspect marker *finish*. The completive marker *don* may not be used in imperative sentences:

(91) (Mek yù) dè go fam!
     (SJcI 2sP) −C goSJ farm
     ‘Go to the farm!’ OR ‘(You’d best) be going to the farm!’

(92) Kot dì nyam finish!
     cutSJ ar yam +C
     *Don kot dì nyam (finish)!
     ‘Cut the yams completely!’

On the basis of their midwestern data, Elugbe and Omamor (ms: 123) contend that only imperative sentences whose subjects are in the second person singular (not the plural) may occur without *mek* and subject pronoun.

1.1.1.3.1.2 Degrees of imperative

There is no clear difference in the degree of imperative expressed by sentences which include *mek* and the subject pronoun versus those that exclude these elements, except perhaps that the latter may be slightly more abrupt and consequently less polite than the former. The most commonly employed means for giving a more courteous tone to imperative sentences include the use of phrase-final *ò* (see 2.1.8), the replacement of the subjunctive construction by a construction containing an irrealis modality marker and/or the introduction of imperative sentences by such phrases as *A beg…* ‘I beg you (please)…’ or *No veks…* ‘Don’t be annoyed…’:

(93) A beg, (mek yù) go fam o!
     1sP beg (SJcI 2sP) goSJ farm f
     ‘Please go to the farm.’

(94) Yù fò go fam o.
     2sP −R go farm f
     ‘You should go to the farm.’

1.1.1.3.2

Negative imperative

Imperative sentences are made negative in the same way as any other type of sentence: the negative marker *no* is placed between the subject noun phrase and the following verb phrase (including the auxiliaries). In accordance with this rule, if *mek* and the subject pronoun are not used, *no* occurs in clauseinitial position:

(95) Mek yù no bay nyam!
     SJcI 2sP ng buySJ yam
‘Don’t buy yams!’

(96) No go tawn!
    ng goSJ town
    ‘Don’t go to town!’

Negative imperative sentences have the same restrictions and possibilities with respect to person/number, tense/aspect/modality and degree distinctions as do affirmative imperative sentences.

1.1.1.3.3
Other means of expressing imperatives

See 1.1.1.3.1.2 and 1.1.1.5.

1.1.1.4
Other sentence types

1.1.1.4.1
Exclamations

Several exclamatory particles and/or phrases are used alone or to punctuate other sentences. Particles used in this way include Chay! and He! Exclamatory phrases include Nà wa o! (see section 4.2):

(97) Chay! Yù drink dì tûmbo finish ? Nà wa o!
    ! 2sP drinkF ar wine +C Qù EI ! f
    ‘Hey! Did you drink all the wine? Wow!’

1.1.1.4.2
Strong affirmation/rejection

Among the various means available for expressing strong affirmation is Tank yu ‘Thank you’, while strong rejection of a proposition is often expressed by a phrase such as A no gri ‘I don’t agree’ (see 1.1.1.2.4.2.1).

1.1.1.4.3
Channel checks

A heavily nasalized central vowel (written as en in this work) is often pronounced with a rising yes-no question intonation at the end of a sentence when the speaker wishes to verify if the hearer has actually heard or understood what has been said. The items Sì? ‘See?’ and Yù hyàr? ‘You hear?’ are often employed in the same position and with the same intonation for the same purpose.
1.1.1.4.4

Topic-switching question

The topic of a verbal exchange can be changed by asking a question beginning with *Wat òf...* ‘What about...’ and/or ending with a variety of particles taken from different Nigerian languages, such as: *nko, kwanu, fa, sha, ba*, etc. Such questions do not bear any special intonation patterns: the normal declarative falling pattern is used. It should be noted, however, that the above listed particles are all exempt from the normal stress rules (see 3.3.2) and invariably retain high tone over all of their syllables:

(98) \[ \text{Wat òf yò pikìn? OR Yò pikìn nko?} \]
\[ \text{what about 2ps child 2ps child TQf} \]
\[ \text{‘And what about your child?’} \]

1.1.1.4.5

Vocatives and salutations

Vocatively, a proper name can be uttered alone or followed by the phrase final particle *o*. Greetings include the following:

(99) \[ \text{A sàlût. OR A døn kom.} \]
\[ \text{1sP saluteF 1sP +C come} \]
\[ \text{‘Hello.’} \]

(100) \[ \text{Haw yù de? OR Haw bòdi?} \]
\[ \text{how? 2sP cvF how? body} \]
\[ \text{‘How are you?’} \]

When taking leave, the following may be used:

(101) \[ \text{A døn go. OR Wì gò (dè) si.} \]
\[ \text{1sP +C go 4sP −R (−C) see} \]
\[ \text{‘Goodbye.’} \]

1.1.1.5

*Indirect speech acts*

Interrogative and imperative sentences may be used to convey declarative meanings:

(102) \[ \text{Yù no dè shem ?} \]
\[ \text{2sP ng −C be ashamed Qù} \]
\[ \text{‘You should be ashamed of yourself.’} \]

(103) \[ \text{Kòmòt!} \]
\[ \text{get awaySJ} \]
\[ \text{‘You are lying to me.’} \]
Declarative and interrogative sentences may be used to convey imperative meanings:

(104) A dè kom.
    1sP –C come
    ‘Wait a minute!’

(105) Yù no want chop?
    2sP ng wantF+ eat+ Qù
    ‘Eat!’

Using yes-no question rising intonation, both declarative and imperative sentences may be used to convey interrogative meanings:

(106) Yù get mòni?
    2sP haveF money Qù
    ‘Do you have money?’

(107) Mek à bay nyam?
    SJcI 1sP buyF yam Qù
    ‘Should I buy yams?’ OR ‘Do you want me to buy yams?’

1.1.2
Subordination

1.1.2.1
General markers of subordination

The primary means employed for marking subordination is word order. Subordinate clauses usually follow the clause to which they are subordinate (hereafter their main or superordinate clause) except when they are topicalized or emphasized or when adverbial clauses occur in sentence-initial position (see 1.1.2.4.1 and 1.1.2.4.2.5). The noun clause introducer *se*, the relative clause introducer *we* and several adverbial clause introducers (such as *if*, the conditional clause introducer) are regularly employed to introduce subordinate clauses, but in nearly every case their use is optional. When a subordinate clause follows its main clause the intonation register may optionally be reset (raised) over the initial syllables of the subordinate clause.

1.1.2.2
Noun clauses

1.1.2.2.1
Marking and position of noun clauses

All noun clauses may optionally begin with the noun clause introducer *se*. This is the only morphological marking device which distinguishes noun clauses from other clauses. Noun clauses occur in one of two syntactic positions following the verb of their superordinate clause: the object position or the adverbial
A noun clause may follow an adverbial clause introducer, in which case it may be considered to be part of a larger adverbial clause (see (110) and 1.1.2.4).

1.1.2.2–5
Types of noun clause
Since there is little or no evidence in Nigerian Pidgin for the existence of such categories as ‘copula’ (see 1.2.1.1), ‘adjective’ (see 2.1.4) or ‘intransitive verb’ (see 2.1.3.1) a noun clause which does not occupy the adverbial position can be considered to be the syntactic object of the verb of the clause to which it is subordinate. Noun clauses may therefore be divided into two types: object noun clauses and adverbial noun clauses:

(108)  
Object noun clause  
A tink [se ñem bay nyam].  
1sP thinkF [ncI 6sP buyF yam]  
‘I think they bought yam.’

(109)  
Adverbial noun clause (see 1.1.2.4)  
Im tel mì se ‘Chop nyam!’ [se hongri du mì finish].  
3sP tellF 1oP ncI cutF yam [ncI hungry doF 1oP +C]  
‘(S)he told me, “Eat the yams!” because I was hungry.’

(110)  
Noun clause as part of an adverbial clause (see 1.1.2.4.2.5)  
A gò kuk sup [if [se yù kot nyam]].  
1sP −R cook soup [avcI [ncI 2sP cut−R yam]]  
‘I will cook soup if you cut yams.’

Semantic typology of noun clauses. While there is very little in the way of morphosyntactic criteria to distinguish one type of object noun clause from another, the semantics of object noun clauses differs considerably, depending on the semantics of the main clause verbs for which they function as objects.

Noun clauses as objects of verbs of cognition or perception. Verbs of cognition and perception often take noun clause objects:

(111)  
Yù sàbi òs.  
2sP knowF 4oP  
‘You know us.’

(112)  
Yù sàbi [se wì de Legos].  
2sP knowF [ncI 4sP cvF Lagos]  
‘You know that we are in Lagos.’

(113)  
Yù si òs.  
2sP seeF 4oP  
‘You saw us.’
(114)  
Yù si [se wì de Legos].
2sP seeF [ncI 2sP cvF Lagos]
‘You see that we are in Lagos.’

Noun clauses as objects of verbs of speaking and showing. The constructions used for direct and indirect speech are nearly identical: both consist minimally of a verb of reporting such as tok ‘talk’ or tel ‘tell’ followed by a noun clause. The only difference between direct and indirect speech is that while the pronominal person categories of the original utterance are preserved in direct speech constructions, they are changed to those appropriate to the reporting situation in the case of indirect speech:

(115)  
Dèsèm tok [se ‘Wì de Legos’].
6sP talkF [ncI 2sP cvF Lagos]
‘They said, “We are in Lagos.”’

(116)  
Dèsèm tok [se dème de Legos].
6sP talkF [ncI 6sP cvF Lagos].
‘They said that they are in Lagos.’

A fuller discussion of this construction can be found in 1.1.1.1.

Noun clauses as objects of verbs of interrogation. The most commonly used construction for both direct and indirect reporting of questions consists of a verb of interrogation such as aks ‘ask’ followed by a noun clause object. As in the case of direct and indirect speech (see 1.1.1.1) the pronominal persons of the original utterance are preserved in questions reported directly while they are changed to match the reporting situation in the case of indirect questions. An oblique hearer/object may also be inserted between the verb of interrogation and the noun clause object. Reported questions differ from reported speech, however, in that the verb of interrogation may not be followed by a valence-increasing verb. The noun clause object of a verb of interrogation may consist of any of the interrogative sentences described in 1.1.1.2:

(117)  
direct yes-no questions
Audu aks mì [se ‘Yù go hàws ?’]
Audu askF 1oP [ncI 2sP goF house Qù]
‘Audu asked me, “Did you go home?”’

(118)  
indirect yes-no questions
Ade aks mì [se weda à go haws].
Ade askF 1oP [ncI whether 1sP goF house]
‘Ade asked me whether I went home.’

(119)  
direct question-word questions
Chidi aks mì [se ‘Dèsèm giv yù waìŋ fòr haws?’]
Chidi askF 1oP [ncI 6sP giveF 2sP what? p house]
‘Chidi asked me, “What did they give you at the house?”’

(120)  
indirect question-word questions
Audu aks mì [se dème giv mì waìŋ fòr haws].
Audu askF 1oP [ncI 6sP giveF 1oP what? p house]  
‘Audu asked me what they gave me at the house.’

All of the processes, constraints and possibilities described for interrogative sentences in 1.1.1.2 apply as well to noun clause objects of verbs of interrogation:

(121)   
Ade aks mì [se hu giv mì watîng fôr we?].  
   Ade askF 1oP [ncI who? giveF 1oP what? p where?]  
   ‘Ade asked me who gave me what where.’

(122)   
Chidi aks mì [se watîng dêm giv mì].  
   Chidi askF 1oP [ncI what? 6sP giveF 1oP]  
   ‘Chidi asked me what they gave me.’

(123)   
Bassey aks mì [se dêm aks yù [se watîng]].  
   Bassey askF 1oP [ncI 6sP askF 2oP [ncI what?]]  
   ‘Bassey asked me what they asked you (about).’

Less commonly, a verb of speaking is used in both direct and indirect questions in place of a verb of interrogation. In such cases, the noun clause construction for direct/indirect speech outlined in 1.1.1.1 may be employed without the restrictions imposed on it by the utilization of interrogative verbs:

(124)   
Im tûk tel mì [se watîng dêm giv mì].  
   3sP talkF+ tellV+ 1oP [ncI what? 6sP givF 1oP]  
   ‘(S)he asked me what they gave me.’ OR ‘(S)he told me what they gave me.’

In indirect questions a relative clause or a headless relative clause including a question word may be substituted for a noun clause, if an oblique hearer-object is present:

(125)   
Im aks mì dì ting we à chop. OR  
   3sP askF 1oP ar thing rcI 1sP eatF

   Im aks mì watîng à chop.  
   3sP askF 1oP what? 1sP eatF  
   ‘(S)he asked me what I ate.’

While the noun clause introducer se can occur in constructions similar to the second version of (125), se cannot occur in sentences such as the one in the first version of (125).

Noun clauses as objects of verbs of commanding/requesting. The construction employed for both direct and indirect reporting of commands is identical to the construction outlined in 1.1.1.1 for direct and indirect statements. In most cases, the same verbs of speaking are used in the superordinate clause (although other verbs such as want ‘want’ are possible here as well) but the noun clause objects of these verbs must be one of the imperative subjunctive sentences listed in 1.1.1.3. All of the processes, constraints and possibilities listed for imperative sentences in 1.1.1.3 apply:
Im tel mi [se ‘(Mek yù) kom!’]
3sP tell 1oP [ncI (SJcI 2sP) comeSJ]
‘(S)he told me, “Come!”’

Im tel mi [se mek à kom].
3sP tell 1oP [ncI SJcI 1sP comeSJ]
‘(S)he told me to come.’

A tok [se mek dèm no chop].
1sP talkF [ncI SJcI 6sP ng eatSJ]
‘I said that they must not eat.’

For reporting polite requests, sentences including the items listed in 1.1.3.1.2 are utilized as object noun clauses in the direct/indirect speech construction:

A tok tel dèm [se dèm fò no tok].
1sP talkF+ tellV+ 6oP [ncI 6sP -R ng talk]
‘I told them that they should not talk.’

_Noun clauses as objects of copular verbs._ All copular verbs may take syntactic objects under certain conditions (see 1.2.1.1) For this reason and because of the fact that the category ‘adjective’ is absent and largely replaced by stative verbs (which also take syntactic objects) it becomes extremely difficult to establish a special class of predicate noun clauses which is not identical in almost every way to the well-motivated class of object noun clauses. Sentences such as (130), (131) and (132) can be said to motivate the assignment of the noun clauses in (133) and (134) to the class of noun clause objects:

(130) A de Legos.
1sP cvF Lagos
‘I am in Lagos.’

(131) Mòni de mì fòr hand,
money cvF 1oP p hand
‘I have money.’

(132) Yu bì dokta, ì no bi -am?
2sP cvF doctor 3sD ng cvF-3oP Qù
‘You are a doctor, isn’t that right?’

(133) Dì problem bi [se yù bi dokta].
ar problem cvF [ncI 2sP cvF doctor]
‘The problem is that you are a doctor.’

(134) I bi layk [se yù go Legos].
3sD cvF cx [ncI 2sP goF Lagos]
‘It seems that you went to Lagos.’
Noun clauses as objects of mental state verbs. Stative verbs that describe human sentiments and emotions such as gud ‘be good’, bad ‘be bad’ or hàpi ‘be happy’ may also take noun clause objects:

(135) I gud [se yù go Legos].
3sD be goodF [ncI 2sP goF Lagos]
‘It is good that you went to Lagos.’

(136) I gud [se mek yù go Legos].
3sD be goodF [ncI SJcI 2sP goF Lagos]
‘It is good that you went to Lagos.’

(137) A hàpi [se yù go Legos].
1sP be happyF [ncI 2sP goF Lagos]
‘I am happy that you went to Lagos.’ OR ‘I am happy because you went to Lagos.’

The two glosses for (137) indicate that two interpretations are often possible for this type of sentence, depending on whether the noun clause is considered to be occupying the object position (first gloss) or the adjacent adverbial position (second gloss). These possibilities are more fully illustrated by the verb veks ‘be angry’, which allows more flexibility in the assignment of semantic role to its syntactic subject than does hàpi:

(138) A dè veks [se yù bay nyam].
1sP −C be angryF [ncI 2sP buyF yam]
‘It is making me angry that you bought yams.’ OR ‘I am getting angry because you bought yams.’

(139) Im dè veks mì [se yù bay nyam].
3sP −C be angry 1oP [ncI 2sP buyF yam]
‘It is making me angry that you bought yams.’ OR ‘I am getting angry because you bought yams.’

The object noun clause version of (139) (first gloss) is roughly equivalent to (140) while the adverbial noun clause version (second gloss) could be restated as (141):

(140) [Se yu bay nyam] de veks mì.
[ncI 2sP buyF yam] −C be angryF 1oP
‘That you bought yams is angering me.’

(141) [Se yù bay nyam] nà im (mek) à dè veks.
[ncI 2sP buyF yam] EI 3EP (SJcI) 1sP −C be angry
‘You bought yams, that is why I am getting angry.’

Adverbial clauses are discussed further in 1.1.2.4.
The use of se in different types of noun clauses. Noun clause initially, se is always optional and never obligatory. Nevertheless, certain environments favour the use of se while other environments inhibit it. Se is more likely to occur: (a) before directly reported (quoted) speech, questions, or commands; (b) before a pronoun; (c) after a copular verb or a mental state verb; or (d) when the noun clause is shifted to sentence-initial position. Se is less likely to be used: (a) before a question-word in indirectly reported questions and (b) after the focus introducer nà.

1.1.2.2.6
Nonfinite noun clauses

Multifunctionality. The categories ‘verb’ and ‘noun’ are often not very clearly distinguishable. A great many of the lexical items assigned to either one of these categories may also belong to the other. When a lexical item changes category, it loses the arguments, modifiers, auxiliaries, etc. appropriate to the category it leaves and takes on those of the category it enters. In most cases a particular item may change category without undergoing any type of morphological change, syntactic position being the only reliable criterion for category assignment (see 2.2):

(142) wàka ‘walk’ (prototypically a verb?)
Nà wàka wè dì wàka man dè wàka wàkawaka
El walk/n rcl ar walk/mn man –C walk/v walk/ip
‘It is walking that the walker walks walk-walk-walk.’

(143) wàhala ‘trouble’ (prototypically a noun?)
Wàhala man, no wàhala mi wìt yò wàhala!
trouble/mn man ng troubleSJ/v 3EP with 2ps trouble/n
‘Trouble-maker, don’t annoy me with all your irks.’

Focalization. In certain focus constructions, entire sentences may be nominalized (see 1.11). The elements of the focused sentence do not undergo any kind of morphological change and all are included in the focus construction:

(144) Nà [à døn day] bì dat.
EI [1sP +C die] cvF that
‘I died is what that was. (That devastated me.)’

There is little to be gained from labelling verbal items involved in the multifunctionality and localization processes described above infinitives, gerunds or even nominalizations. Since these are the only forms in Nigerian Pidgin which even remotely suggest the existence of nonfinite verbs or clauses, all sentences, clauses and verbs in the language may be said to be finite.

In acrolectal speech a very interesting set of proto-nonfinite verbal forms seems to be developing, first in such environments as following the modal serialized verbs want ‘want’, layk ‘like’ or stat ‘start’ and then extending gradually to other environments:

(145) A want chop.
1sP wantF+ eat+
A bigin chop.
1sP beginF+ eat+
These acrolectal forms can be said to be motivated by several different constructions found in all lects of Nigerian Pidgin as well as by constructions found in Nigerian Standard English (NSE). The nonfinite use of $[dè + verb]$ matches the semantics of the NSE $[verb-ing]$ gerund with the semantics of the Nigerian Pidgin incompletive aspect, which is marked by $dè$. Syntactically and phonetically, $dè$ and $tù$ do not only resemble each other, but they also resemble $to$ of the NSE $[to + verb]$ infinitive, the Nigerian Pidgin and NSE generic verb $du$ and $do$ and the Nigerian Pidgin preverbal adverbial $tu$ ‘too much’ (see 1.2.5.3). Agheyisi (1971:96–7) describes a similar construction in her Midwest data, which utilizes $[fò + verb]$ where $[dè/tù + verb]$ are used in Port Harcourt. Agheyisi does not mention whether the distribution of this construction is socially conditioned.

1.1.2.3

Relative clauses

Since the category ‘adjective’ does not exist in Nigerian Pidgin (see 2.1.4) and because of the fact that the only type of clause in the language which may serve to modify nominal elements is the relative clause, the label ‘adjective clause’ is not employed here, ‘relative clause’ being used instead.

1.1.2.3.1

Marking of relative clauses

Relative clauses are most consistently marked by word order: relative clauses always follow the nominal element that they modify (hereafter, their head noun or head noun phrase). As is the case for all subordinate clauses that follow their superordinate clauses, the initial syllables of relative clauses may optionally be marked by a resetting of the intonation register. Relative clauses generally begin with the relative clause introducer $we$, but the use of $we$ is always optional, except where there is no other segmental marker of relativization present between the head noun phrase and the verb phrase of the relative clause:

(146)   A si $dè$ ting $[we$ yù bìn chop$]$.  
1sP seeF ar thing [rcI 2sP +P eat]  
‘I saw the thing that you ate.’

(147)   A si $dè$ ting $[yù$ bìn chop$]$.  
1sP seeF ar thing [2sP +P eat]  
‘I saw the thing that you ate.’

(148)   A si $dì$ man $[we$ im bìn chop$]$.  
1sP seeF ar man [rcI 3sP +P eat]  
‘I saw the man who ate.’
A si di man [we bin chop].
1sP seeF ar man [rci +P eat]
‘I saw the man who ate.’

*A si di man [bin chop].
1sP seeF ar man [+P eat]
‘I saw the man who ate.’

Relative clauses may modify head nouns that are contained in larger noun clauses, adverbial clauses or relative clauses (see 1.1.2.3.7, 1.1.1.1, 1.1.2.2.2, and 1.1.2.4).

1.1.2.3.2
Restrictive and nonrestrictive relative clauses

There is no morphosyntactic means used exclusively and consistently to distinguish restrictive relative clauses from nonrestrictive relative clauses. There is, however, a greater tendency for the intonation register to be reset over the initial syllables of a restrictive relative clause than over a nonrestrictive relative clause.

1.1.2.3.3
Position of the head noun

The noun phrase to which the head noun belongs always precedes the relative clause that modifies it. Only a short adverbial element may come between a head noun phrase and its relative clause, usually when the speaker wishes to emphasize or topicalize the adverbial information. For this reason, a good argument can be made for dislocation in such cases (see 1.11 and 1.12):

(151) A si [di wuman] [we don sik].
1sP seeF [ar woman] [rci +C be sick]
‘I saw the woman who was sick.’

(152) A si [di wuman dém kwanu] [we don sik].
1sP seeF [ar woman pl T] [rci +C be sick]
‘I saw the women who were sick.’

(153) A si [di wuman] [tûdê] [we don sik].
1sP seeF [ar woman] [today] [rci +C be sick]
‘I saw the woman today who was sick.’

1.1.2.3.4
Form of the relativized element

The element of the relative clause that corresponds to the head noun is never preserved in full, except in the rare instances where the head noun phrase is itself headed by an emphatic pronoun. In such cases, an emphatic or non-emphatic pronoun corresponding to the head noun phrase pronoun may optionally be used in the relative clause:
Any head noun may optionally be replaced by a personal pronoun in a relative clause that modifies it:

(156)  [Dì pikîn [wé (im) dòn taya] (im) neva slip ?]
      [ar child [rcI (3sP) +C be tired] (3sP) ng+C sleep Qù]
      ‘The child who was so tired, hasn’t (s)he slept yet?’

(157)  Dèm kóm bit dì pikîn [wé dèm bin bit (-am) bìfô].
       6sP +R beat ar child [rcI 6sP +P beat (3oP) before]
       ‘They beat the child whom they had beaten before.’

While all speakers of Nigerian Pidgin use the third person singular object pronoun -am in relative clauses to refer back to a human head noun, basilectal speakers tend to use -am in relative clauses to refer back to nonhuman head nouns more often than do acrolectal speakers. In all but the most heavily basilectal varieties of Nigerian Pidgin, -am may not occur in a relative clause alongside a human object in a multiple object construction (see 1.2.1.2.3):

(158)  A si dì nyam [wé yù pawnd].
      1sP seeF ar yam [rcI 2sP poundF]
      ‘I saw the yam that you pounded.’

(159)  #A si dì nyam [wé yù pawnd -am].
      1sP seeF ar yam [rcI 2sP poundF-3op]
      ‘I saw the yam that you pounded.’

(160)  ###A si dì nyam [wé yù giv -am mì].
      1sP seeF ar yam [rcI 2sP giveF-3op 1oP]
      ‘I saw the yam that you gave me.’

An invariant relative pronoun ì is used in some basilectal varieties of Nigerian Pidgin, and among older speakers in general (see Faraclas 1986b). For all basilectal speakers, ì is variably used for both the third person singular and plural subject while -am is variably used for both the third person singular and third person plural object pronouns. For some more heavily basilectal speakers, ì is used for the second person singular and for all third-person subjects and objects, whether singular or plural.

Although Agheyisi (1971:131) considers we to be a pronoun, she admits that we ‘depends entirely on its head noun for both its feature content and specific semantic interpretation’. Eze (1980:104–6) sometimes calls we a ‘subordination marker’ and at other times calls it a ‘relative pronoun’. This is perhaps because he collapses we with the basilectal invariant relative pronoun ì, adopting the spelling wey for we in all
positions, including those where ì would never occur after we. (It should be noted that the wey spelling is the one most commonly encountered in popular works written in Nigerian Pidgin.) Both Agheyisi and Eze fail to distinguish adequately between the use of we in relative clauses and the use of the apparently cognate question word we ‘where?’ As shown in the preceding examples and confirmed by Agheyisi, we plays no role whatever in transferring the semantic content of the head noun to relative clauses, personal pronouns being used instead for this purpose. For this reason, Eze’s hedged classification of we as a subordination marker is probably the most accurate in the literature to date. Eze does not, however, take into account the fact that we is not used in all types of subordinate clauses, but in relative clauses only. We may therefore conclude that in most lects of Nigerian Pidgin, we is best classified as a relative clause introducer when it occurs in subordinate clauses.

1.1.2.3.5
Position of the relativized element

In relative clauses, personal pronouns retain whatever position they would occupy in any other sentence in the language regardless of whether they refer back to the head noun or not. The same can be said for the invariant relative pronoun ì. The relative clause introducer we always occurs at the beginning of the clause.

1.1.2.3.6
Headless relative clauses

Headless relative clauses are attested only as objects of verbs of perception/cognition, speaking (see 1.1.1.1) or asking (see 1.1.2.2.2). In such cases, a question word can be used in place of a [head noun + relative clause] construction:

(161)  Ðèm sàbi dì ting [we Ðèm chòp].
6sP knowF ar thing [rcI 6sP eatF]
‘They know what they ate.’

(162)  Ðèm sàbi [watîng dìm chòp].
6sP knowF [what? 6sP eatF]
‘They know what they ate.’

In acrolectal speech, headless relative clauses sometimes occur within adverbial clauses:

(163)  Àsi dì gel [fôr dì ples [we ìm sidõn]].
1sP seeF ar girl [pavI ar place [rcI 3sP sitF]]
‘I saw the girl where she was sitting.’

(164)  @Àsi dì gel [(fôr) [we(a) ìm sidõn]].
1sP seeF ar girl [(pavI) [where? 3sP sitF]]
‘I saw the girl where she was sitting.’
1.1.2.3.7
Elements that can be relativized

As shown in the following examples, noun phrases may be relativized from any position in the subordinate clause which can normally be occupied by a nominal:

(165)  
Dì gel giv di boy ti fôr rod.  
ar girl giveF ar boy tea p road  
‘The girl gave the boy tea on the way.’

(166)  
subject noun  
A si di gel we im giv di boy ti fôr rod.  
lsp seeF ar girl 3sP giveF ar boy tea p road  
‘I saw the girl who gave the boy tea on the way.’

(167)  
main (direct) object noun  
A si di ti we di gel giv di boy fôr rod.  
lsp seeF ar tea rcl ar girl giveF ar boy p road  
‘I saw the tea that girl gave the boy on the way.’

(168)  
other (indirect) object pronoun  
A si di boy we di gel giv -am ti fôr rod.  
lsp seeF ar boy rcl ar girl giveF -3oP tea p road  
‘I saw the boy to whom the girl gave tea on the way.’

(169)  
oblique (prepositional) object noun  
A si di rod we di gel giv di boy ti fôr -am.  
lsp seeF ar road rcl ar girl giveF ar boy tea p -3oP  
‘I saw the road where the girl gave the boy tea.’

(170)  
possessed noun  
Dì pikîn im haws [we de tawn] don sik.  
ar child 3ps house [rcl cvF town] +C be sick  
‘The child whose house is in town fell sick.’

(171)  
possessor noun  
Dì pikîn [we im haws de tawn] don sik.  
ar child [rcl 3ps house cvF town] +C be sick  
‘The child whose house is in town fell sick.’

(172)  
possessor noun  
Dì pikîn [we don sik] im haws de tawn.  
ar child [rcl +C be sickF] 3ps house cvF town  
‘The child who fell sick, his/her house is in town.’
Many speakers find (172) unacceptable unless there is a pause between the end of the relative clause and the possessive marker, as in the English gloss. This indicates that possessor nouns may only be relativized in a topic/comment construction (see 1.12).

(173) *objects of serialized verbs including comparatives*
Nyam [we big] swit pas nyam [we smol].
yam [rcl be big] be tasty+ pass+ yam [rcl be small]
‘Big yams are more delicious than small yams.’

(174) *verbal forms as head nominals*
Dì bit [we à gò bit dì pikîn] gò ’hèi welwèl.
ar beat [rcl 1sP –R beat ar child] –R be heavy ipR
‘The beating that I will give the child will be big.’

(175) *focused sentences as head nominals*
[Nà dì man bit dì bøy] [we wàhala dì gel].
[E1 ar man beatF ar bøy] [rcl worryF ar girl]
‘It’s that the man beat the boy that irked the girl.’

Relative clauses may modify head nouns that are contained in larger noun clauses, adverbial clauses, or relative clauses (see 1.1.1, 1.1.2.2.2 and 1.1.2.4):

(176) A sàbi [se dì ting [we yù bin chop] bi nyam].
1sP knowF [ncI ar thing [rcl 2sP +P eat] cvF yam]
‘I know that the thing that you ate was yam.’

(177) A baf [fôr dì taym [we yù bin chop]].
1sP batheF [pavcI ar time [rcl 2sP +P eat]]
‘I bathed while you ate.’

(178) A si dì man [we chop dì nyam [we yu bin prîpê]].
1sP seeF ar man [rcl eatF ar yam [rcl 2sP +P cook]]
‘I saw the man who ate the yam that you cooked.’

1.1.2.3.8
Movement of relativized elements

In most lects of Nigerian Pidgin, a relativized element may not be moved unless it is moved together with its head noun and the rest of the relative clause to which it belongs. Such movement occurs principally in topicalization constructions which involve dislocation (see 1.12):

(179) A si dì gel we îm giv dì bøy ti fôr rod.
1sP seeF ar girl rcl 3sP giveF ar boy tea p road
‘I saw the girl who gave the boy tea on the way.’
When a relative clause makes up part of a larger clause it may be moved as a unit along with its head noun and the rest of the larger clause to any position normally occupied by the larger clause.

1.1.2.3.9
Nonfinite relative clauses

As explained in 1.1.2.2.6, no truly nonfinite forms exist in Nigerian Pidgin. Examples of multifunctional verb forms and focused sentences serving as nominal heads for relative clauses may be found in 1.1.2.3.7.

1.1.2.4
Adverbial clauses

1.1.2.4.1
Marking and position of adverbial clauses

Adverbial clauses are marked morphologically in a variety of ways. There are a few items whose unique function is to introduce particular types of adverbial clauses. These adverbial clause introducers (which include items such as if ‘if’ and sôte ‘until’) are normally followed by a noun clause or relative clause construction. More commonly, the general preposition fôr is used as an adverbial clause introducer, in which case it is followed by a [head noun + relative clause] construction or, inacrolectal speech, a headless relative clause (see 1.1.2.3.6–7). Many adverbial clauses are introduced by se in exactly the same way as are noun clauses. The majority of the noun clauses which function as adverbial clauses are subjunctive noun clauses introduced by [se+mek] (see 1.1.2.2.2).

Syntactic position is the most consistent means employed to distinguish adverbial clauses from other clauses. Adverbial clauses may occupy either the sentence-initial or the sentence-final adverbial position (see 1.2.5.3). Some types of adverbial clause (such as conditional clauses) usually occur in sentence-initial position, while other clause types (such as subjunctive, result, purpose and reason clauses) are normally found in the sentence-final slot. When in sentence-final position, clauses introduced by se may be ambiguous as to whether they function as object noun clauses or adverbial noun clauses (see 1.1.2.2.2).

1.1.2.4.2
Types of adverbial clause

1.1.2.4.2.1 Time clauses

The most commonly used adverbial time clauses are optionally introduced by the general preposition fôr or by such adverbial clause introducers as afta ‘after’ or bîfô ‘before’ and consist of a head nominal such as di taym ‘the time’, eni taym ‘any time’ or evri taym ‘every time’ followed by a relative clause. These clauses may occupy either adverbial slot, but there is a slight preference on the part of speakers to use time clauses headed by afta and bîfô sentence-initially, and the other time clauses sentence-finally:
Afta and bifô may also be followed by a noun clause:

(184) [Bifô [(se) yu kom]] im gô slip, [before [(ncI) 2sP come]] 3sP −R sleep
     ‘Before you come (s)he will sleep.’

In acrolectal speech the question word wen ‘when?’ may be used to introduce a headless relative adverbial

Manner clauses are rare. The most commonly used adverbial manner clauses
are optionally introduced by the general preposition för and consist of a head nominal such as dì we ‘the
way’ or eni we ‘any way’, followed by a relative clause. Such clauses normally occupy the sentence-final
adverbial slot.:

(185) A chu dì kola [(fôr) dì we [(wg) yù tok]].
     1sP chewF ar kola [(pavcI) ar way [(rcI) 2sP talkF]]
     ‘I chewed the kola nut in the way you said.’

All acrolectal speakers and most mesolectal speakers use the adverbial clause introducers as ‘as’ and layk
‘like’ followed by a noun clause in adverbial manner clauses:

(186) A chu dì kola [làyk [(se) onyibomâん dè chu]].
     1sP chewF ar kola [avcI [(ncI) white man −C chew]]
     ‘I chewed the kola nut the way a white man does it.’

In acrolectal speech the question word haw ‘how?’ may be used to introduce a headless relative adverbial
manner clause (see 1.1.2.3.6).

Purpose clauses Adverbial purpose clauses have exactly the same structure as subjunctive
noun clauses: they are optionally introduced by the noun clause introducer se and obligatorily include the
subjunctive marker mek in presubject position:

(187) A kil dì snek [(se) mek im no bayt mi].
     1sP killF ar snake [(ncI) SJcI 3sP ng biteSJ 1oP]
     ‘I killed the snake so that it wouldn’t bite me.’
1.1.2.4.2.4 Cause clauses Noun clauses introduced by se are commonly employed as adverbial cause clauses (see 1.1.2.2.2). In most lects of Nigerian Pidgin, the adverbial clause introducer bikôs ‘because’ may optionally precede se. This type of clause normally follows its superordinate clause. When the superordinate clause follows, it is usually introduced by nà im mek ‘that is why’:

(188) A kil di snek [(bikôs) se ìm want bayt mi].
1sP killF ar snake [(avcI) ncl 3sP wantF+ bite+ 1oP]
‘I killed the snake because it was about to bite me.’

(189) [Se ìm want bayt] nà im mek à kil di snek.
[ncl 3sP wantF+ bite+] EI 3EP SJcl 1sP killSJ ar snake
‘Because it was about to bite, that is why I killed the snake.’

In acrolectal speech the question word way ‘why?’ may be used to introduce a headless relative adverbial cause clause (see 1.1.2.3.6).

1.1.2.4.2.5 Condition clauses Adverbial condition clauses consist of a noun clause which may optionally begin with the adverbial clause introducers if ‘if’ and/or làyk ‘like’. When both if and làyk are used to introduce the same conditional clause, if precedes làyk. A conditional clause usually comes before its superordinate clause and bears a rising intonation contour over its final syllables. The main verb of a superordinate clause of an adverbial condition clause must be marked for irrealis modality by the auxiliary gò if the events described are nonpast and by the modal verb fò if the reference is to events in the past:

(190) [(If) (làyk) [(se) à gèt mòni]] à gò bay möto.
[(avcI) (avcI) [(ncl) 1sP have money]]1sP −R buy car.
‘If I have money, I will buy a car.’

(191) [(If) [à bìn gèt mòni]] à fò bay möto.
[(avcI) [1sP +P haveF money]] 1sP should+ buy+ car
‘If I had money, I would buy a car.’

1.1.2.4.2.6 Result clauses Beside the constructions described for clauses of purpose in 1.1.2.4.2.3, constructions consisting of the adverbial clause introducers sòte ‘until’ or til ‘until’ followed by a noun clause may be used as adverbial result clauses:

(192) Dèm chop nyam chop chop [sòte [(se) dèm befüful]].
6sP eatF+ yam eat+ eat+ [avcI [(ncl) 6sP be fullF]]
‘They ate so much that they couldn’t eat any more.’

1.1.2.4.2.7 Degree clauses All degree relations are expressed by serialized verb constructions rather than by adverbial clauses (see 1.3 and 1.8)

1.1.2.4.2.8 Location clauses The most commonly used adverbial location clauses are optionally introduced by the general preposition fôr and consist of a head nominal such as dì ples ‘the place’, enî ples ‘any place’ or evri ples ‘every place’ followed by a relative clause. Such clauses normally occupy the sentence-final adverbial slot:
(193)  A put dì kola [(fôr) di ples [(wê) dêm sidôn]].
       1sP putF ar kola [(pavcI) ar place [(rcI) 6sP sit F]]
       ‘I put the kola nut where they are sitting.’

In acrolectal speech the question word we(a) ‘where?’ may be used to introduce a headless relative adverbial location clause (see 1.1.2.3.6).

1.1.2.4.2.9 Concessive clauses Concessive clauses are rare. The most commonly used adverbial concessive clauses are introduced by a head nominal such as eni tym ‘any time’, eni ples ‘any place’ or eni we ‘any way’ followed by a relative clause. Such clauses normally occupy the sentence-initial adverbial slot:

(194)  [Eni ples im faynd mì] im no si mì.
       [any place 3sP searchF 1oP] 3sP ng see 1oP
       ‘Although (s)he looked for me, (s)he didn’t find me.’

In acrolectal speech such adverbial clause introducers as ivindô ‘even though’ are used to introduce adverbial concessive clauses.

1.1.2.4.2.10 Source clauses The most commonly used adverbial source clauses are introduced by the preposition frôm ‘from’ followed by an adverbial time or location clause (see 1.1.2.4.2.1 and 1.1.2.4.2.8). There seems to be no clear preference on the part of speakers for either sentence-initial or sentence-final adverbial position in the case of adverbial source clauses:

(195)  [Frôm [di tym [wê yù kom]]] yù neva chop,
       [from [ar time [rcI 2sP comeF]]] 2sP ng+C eat
       ‘Since you came you haven’t eaten.’

Some acrolectal speakers use the adverbial sins ‘for a long time since’ as an adverbial clause introducer in source clauses.

1.1.2.4.2.11 Limit clauses Adverbial limit clauses are introduced by the adverbial clause introducer onli ‘only’ followed by a time clause (see 1.1.2.4.2.1) or location clause (see 1.1.2.4.2.8) construction. Limit clauses are optionally preceded by the focalizer nà and normally occur as focused (fronted) sentence-initial constituents:

(196)  (Nà) [onli [di tym [wê yù kom]]] dêm chop nyam.
       (EI) [only [ar time [rcI 2sP comeF]]] 6sP eatF yam
       ‘Only when you came did they eat yam.’

1.1.2.4.3
Nonfinite adverbial clauses

As explained in 1.1.2.2.6, no truly nonfinite forms exist in Nigerian Pidgin. An example of a focused clause serving as an adverbial clause may be found in 1.1.2.4.2.11. Multifunctionally reduplicated ideophones, which play an adverbial role in most sentences (see 1.16.7 and 2.2.4.2) could conceivably be considered to be derived from cognate object constructions (see 1.2.1.2.2). Thus, the ideophonic form wàkawaka ‘peripatetically’ could be a nonfinite version of:
In narrative texts as well as in many other communication situations, all events recounted by the speaker are assumed by default to be in the irrealis modality. For this reason, the realis modality auxiliary kom and other markers of realis modality such as the phrase-final particle ò are frequently used to stress that what is being said is an objective fact rather than a subjective interpretation (see 2.1.3.4.8–9).

The only other tense/aspect/modality parameters or constraints in Nigerian Pidgin are (a) the ‘factative’ interpretation of unmarked verb forms according to lexical stativity (see 2.1.3) and (b) the co-occurrence of tense and modality markers in conditional constructions (see 1.1.2.4.2.5).

Complex subordinate clauses

Any combination of embedded noun clauses, relative clauses and/or adverbial clauses is possible:

(198) a. Yù sàbi [se à drayv mòto] [se à gët mëni].
2sP knowF [ncI 1sP driveF car] [ncI 1sP haveF money]
‘You know that I drive a car and that I’m wealthy.’

(198) b. Im tòk [se [fôr di de [we yù sho mi di ples
3sP sayF [ncI [avcI ar day [rcI 2sP showF 1oP ar place
[we im wok]] [we no gud]]] im go tawn].
[rcI 3sP workF]] [rcI ng be goodF]]] 3sP goF town
‘(S)he told me that when you showed me the place where (s)he
works that’s no good (s)he went to town.’

Other examples of complex subordinate clauses may be found under 1.1.2.2, 1.1.2.3.6–7 and 1.1.2.4.2.1–11.
1.2
STRUCTURAL QUESTIONS

1.2.1
Internal sentence structure

1.2.1.1
Copular sentences

In Nigerian Pidgin the semantic space normally covered by copulas is divided roughly into two parts, each of which is codified by one of two basic copular verbs: the copular identity verb *bi* and the copular location/existence verb *de*. The copular function is always overtly marked: there is no ‘zero copula’. Copular verbs have all of the properties that characterize other verbs in the language and there is very little motivation for treating them as a special class (see 2.1.3). The focus introducer *nà* also has some copular features which will be described in this section. In different lects of Nigerian Pidgin, there are slight variations in the areas of overlap in function and meaning among *bi*, *de* and *nà*. The following remarks outline the general contours of the patterns of utilization of copular elements that typify mesolectal speech.

1.2.1.1.1
Copular sentences with nominal complement

The identity verb *bi* is the most commonly used copular element in copular sentences with nominal complements:

(199)  
A *bi* man.  
3sP cvF man  
‘I am a man.’  

* *A *nà* man.  
* *A *de* man.  

(200)  
*Wì *bì dì pipul *w* chop.  
4sP cvF ar people rcI eatF  
‘We are the people who ate.’  
* *Wì *de* dì pipul *w* chop.  
* *Wì *nà* dì pipul *w* chop.  

(201)  
*Dì* pipul *w* chop *bì* os.  
ar people rcI eatF cv 4oP  
‘We are the people who ate.’  
* *Dì* pipul *w* chop *bì* *wì.*  

As is the case with all copular verbs, there are no special circumstances where *bi* may optionally not be used, and *bi* takes any of the arguments, negators, auxiliaries, etc. available to all verbs in Nigerian Pidgin, in the usual order. There is no reason to consider a nominal complement of *bi* to be anything other than the setential object of *bi*. Predicate nouns bear no special marking, except for that appropriate to object nominals. Object pronouns normally replace nominal complements of *bi*:
Im bi wuman, i no bi -am?
3sP cvF woman 3sD ng cvF -3oP Qù
‘She is a woman, isn’t that so?’

Truncated nominals consisting of such items as quantifiers, modifier nouns or demonstratives may also function as predicates (objects) of bi when their excluded constituents are included in the subject nominal:

(203) A get tre smol pikîn.
1sP haveF three small/mn child
‘I have three small children.’

(204) Mà pikîn bi tre.
lps child cvF three
‘My children are three (in number).’

(205) Mà pikîn bi dat.
lps child cvF that
‘My children are those (ones).’

Where a truncated nominal copular predicate is headed by a modifier noun derived from a stative verb (such as smol in example (203)) it may function either as the object of the copular identity verb bi or as the object of the copular location/existence verb de. When this type of deverbal modifier noun occurs as the object of bi, it usually denotes an inherent or relatively permanent quality possessed by the referent of the sentential subject. When it is the object of de, a deverbal modifier noun normally refers to an ephemeral or relatively temporary quality possessed by the subject:

(206) Mà pikîn bi smol.
lps child cvF small/mn
‘My children are small (in build or in number).’

(207) Mà pikîn de smol.
lps child cvF small/mn
‘My children are small (in age).’

Bi may also take nominal clause predicates (or objects, see 1.1.2.2.2): 

(208) Di wàhala bi [se à no get mònì].
ar trouble cvF [ncI 1sP ng haveF money]
‘The trouble is that I don’t have money.’

1.2.1.1.2
Copular sentences with adjectival complement

Because the category ‘adjective’ does not exist in Nigerian Pidgin (see 2.1.4), there are no adjectival complements per se. What are normally considered to be adjectival complements in other languages are
best classified as stative verbs, which may occasionally be nominalized and employed in truncated nominal predicates (objects), as described in 1.2.1.1.

1.2.1.1.3
Copular sentences with adverbial complement

While nominal complements usually function as the objects of the copular identity verb *bì* (see 1.2.1.1) adverbial complements which are not introduced by a preposition normally function as the objects of the copular location/existence verb *de*:

1sP cvF Benin  ‘I am in Benin City.’

Just as is the case for *bì*, *de* is used with the same range of arguments, negators, auxiliaries, etc. as is any other verb in Nigerian Pidgin. *De* may take adverbial clauses and object pronouns as objects as well (see 1.1.2.2.2 and 1.1.2.4.2):

(210)   A de [(fôr) dì ples [(we) dèm de [eyri taym]].
1sP cvF [(pavcl ar place [(rcI) 6sP cv [always]]]
‘I am in the place where they always are.’

(211)   Dèm bìn de mì fôr bak.
3sP +P cvF 1oP p back  ‘They followed me.’

(212)   Dì ples gò fayn: vidyoṣe fòr de-am,
ar place −R be fine video E −R cv-3oP
‘The place will be nice: it will even have videos.’

As explained in 1.2.1.1.1, *de* may take a deverbal modifier noun as a truncated nominal object to express a relatively temporary or ephemeral quality possessed by the subject of the sentence:

(213)   Dì ples gò de fayn.
ar place −R cv fine/mn
‘The place will be done up nicely.’

Deverbal nominals may also occur as nontruncated nominal objects of *de*:

(214)   Fôr vil ej naw, à de fam, a de fish,
p village T 1sP cvF farm/n 1sP cvF fish/n
‘While I am in my village, I farm and I fish.’

From the previous examples, some of the more significant motivating factors for the use of the form *dè* (bearing a low tone) as the incompletive auxiliary become apparent. A more exact reading of (214) would be: ‘While
I am in my village, I am located in (or existing in) the state of farming and in the state of fishing. The semantic, morphosyntactic and phonological distance between (214) and the dé auxiliary version in (215) is quite small:

(215) Fôr vilèj naw, à dè fam, a dè fish,
p village T 1sP –C farm/v 1sP –C fish/v
‘While I am in my village, I farm and I fish.’

A more exact reading of (215) would be ‘While I am in my village, I often farm and I often fish.’ In a few cases, de and dè may be found in the same verb phrase:

(216) Im jôst dè de làyk dat.
3sP just −C cv cx that
‘(S)he is just like that’ OR ‘That is just the way that (s)he is (and nothing can be done about it).’

Existence, in the most abstract sense of the word, is expressed by the use of de without an object:

(217) A: Haw yù de?
how? 2sP cvF
B: A de. Yù nko?
1sP cvF 2sP TQf
A: A de làyk à no de.
1sP cvF cxavcl 1sP ng cvF
A: ‘How are you?’
B: ‘I’m existing (beyond that, forget it!) And you?’
A: ‘I’m existing as if I were not even existing!’

1.2.1.1.4–5
Copular sentences without overt copula

As explained in 1.2.1.1.1–3, there are no copular sentences in Nigerian Pidgin which do not have an overt copular element.

1.2.1.1.6
Other copular elements and functions

The emphatic introducer nà. Any focused constituent or phrase may be introduced by nà (see 1.11):

(218) Nà nyam (wè à chop).
EI yam (rcI 1sP eatF)
‘It is yam (that I ate).’

Nà cannot take any of the auxiliaries, negators or nonemphatic pronouns that normally occur with verbs in Nigerian Pidgin. The copular extension làyk may not be used after nà, but nà must always be followed by a
nominal element. The functions of nà and bì overlap to some degree when a nominal element both precedes and follows nà:

(219)    Wor bì wor.          Wor nà wor.          *Wor de wor.
         war cvF war          war EI war          ‘War is war.’

(220)    Di wuman bi sìsta.          Di wuman nà sìsta.
         ar woman cvF nurse          ar woman EI nurse
         ‘The woman is a nurse.’          ‘The woman is a nurse.’
         *Di wuman de sìsta.

(221)    Nà sìsta we dì wuman bi.
         EI nurse rcI ar woman cvF
         ‘It is a nurse that the woman is.’
         *Nà sìsta we dì wuman nà.
         *Bi sìsta we dì wuman nà.

When nà occurs in sentences such as (220) it no longer serves as a signal for focalization and retains only its copular function.

1.2.1.1.6.1 Copular elements used for defining

Bì copular identity verb:

(222)    Im bì man.
         3sP cvF man
         ‘He is a man.’

Nà emphatic introducer:

(223)    Nyam nà di ting we ðêm chop.
         yam EI ar thing rcf 6sP eatF
         ‘Yam is the thing that they ate.’

1.2.1.1.6.2 Copular elements used to express identity

Bì copular identity verb:

(224)    Im bì Chinyere.
         3sP cvF Chinyere
         ‘(S)he is Chinyere.’

Nà emphatic introducer:

(225)    Nà mi.
         EI 1EP
         ‘It is I.’ (answering ‘Who is there?’)
1.2.1.6.3 Copular elements used to express role

*Bi* copular identity verb:

(226) Im bi ticha.
3sP cvF teacher
‘(S)he is a teacher.’

*Nà* emphatic introducer:

(227) Im nà ticha.
3sP EI teacher
‘(S)he is a teacher.’

1.2.1.6.4 Copular elements used to express relationship

*Bi* copular identity verb:

(228) Yù bi mà broda.
2sP cvF lps brother
‘You are my brother.’

*Nà* emphatic introducer:

(229) Dì man nà mà broda,
ar man EI lps brother
‘The man is my brother.’

1.2.1.6.5 Copular elements used to express becoming

*Kom* realis modality auxiliary + stative verb:

(230) Dì làpa kom red.
ar cloth +R be red
‘The cloth became red.’

*Bìkôm* ‘become’:

(231) A don bìkôm yò broda.
1sP +C become 2ps brother
‘I have become your brother.’

1.2.1.6.6 Copular elements expressing existence in space

*De* copular location/existence verb:

(232) A de haws.
1sP cvF house
‘I am at home.’
Ste ‘remain’:

(233) A ste haws.
    1sP remainF house
    ‘I remain at the house.’

Rich ‘arrive’:

(234) A dqn rich (haws).
    1sP +C arrive (house)
    ‘I have arrived (at the house).’

1.2.1.6.7 Copular elements expressing existence in time

(S)te ‘last (a long time)’:

(235) I dön (s)te.
    3sD +C last
    ‘It has been a long time.’

Get ‘have’ (impersonal usage, see 1.2.1.2):

(236) I get won taym we ùnà tif mà nyam.
    3sD have one time rcl 5sP stealF 1sP yam
    ‘There was a time when you stole my yams.’

Rich ‘arrive’:

(237) Dì taym neva rich.
    ar time ng+C arrive
    ‘It is not yet the time (for…).’

1.2.1.6.8 Copular elements expressing quantity

Get ‘have’ (impersonal usage, see 1.2.1.2.1.4):

(238) I get won nyam we ùnà tif.
    3sD have one yam rcl 5sP stealF
    ‘There is one yam that you stole.’

Rich ‘arrive’:

(239) I rich tèn nyam we ùnà tif.
    3sD arrive ten yam rcl 5sP stealF
    ‘The number of yams that you stole reached ten.’

Plenti ‘be plenty’:
Mà pikîn kóm plenti.
Ips child +R be plenty
‘My children became numerous.’

Tumôch ‘be too much/very much’:

Yò wàhala dón tumôch.
2sP trouble +C be too much
‘Your troubles have grown very big.’

Smol ‘be little (in quantity)’:

Mà mòni gò smol.
1sP money −R be small
‘My money will be little.’

1.2.1.6.9 Copular elements expressing resemblance

Lâyk ‘like’ (copular extension, [bì + làyk], [de + làyk]):

Dì gàri de làyk sânsan.
ar gari cvF cx sand
‘The gari looks like sand.’

Dì gàri bì làyk sânsan.
ar gari cvF cx sand
‘The gari is like sand.’ OR ‘Gari is very plentiful.’

1.2.1.2

Verbal sentences

1.2.1.2.1

Subjects

There are no conditions under which verbs obligatorily occur without an overtly marked subject. Subject markers may optionally be omitted before noninitial verbs in serialized verb constructions (see 1.3 and 1.8), before verbs whose subject has recently been mentioned in a previous clause or sentence, or before verbs in a special second-person imperative form (see 1.1.1.3.1):

Yù go fam (yù) gò plant nyam (yù) kóm rìtôn.
2sP goF+ farm (2sP) go+ plant+ yam (2sP) come+ return+
‘You went to the farm, planted yams and returned.’

Dì wuman bit yù kóm kray.
ar woman beatF 2s/oP +R cry
‘The woman beat you and you cried.’

It should be noted that the coalescence of object and subject pronouns in the preceding example is possible partly because of their surface similarity. The following example, which involves a pronominal person where subject and object pronouns are not identical, is less acceptable:

(247)  
\[\text{loP} \quad \text{?Dì wuman bit mì kɔm kray.} \quad \text{1sP} \quad \text{?Dì wuman bit à kɔm kray.}\]

The nonverbal character of the emphatic introducer \(nà\) is highlighted by the fact that it often occurs with no preceding constituent in what would have been the subject position if it were a verb (see 1.2.1.1.6):

(248)  
\[\text{3sP cvF teacher} \quad \text{EI teacher} \quad *\text{3sP \(nà\) teacher.} \quad *\text{3sP \(ticha\).}\]

Some verbs with copular functions, such as \(\text{rich} \) ‘arrive’, \(\text{(s)te} \) ‘last (a long time)’, \(\text{get} \) ‘have’, \(\text{rimèn} \) ‘remain’ and the copular identity verb \(bì\) may take a semantically empty ‘dummy’ subject in the form of the invariable third person singular subject pronoun \(ì\) (see 1.2.1.1.6.7–8 for more examples):

(249)  
\[\text{3sD remainF a bit} \quad \text{‘There remains a little.’}\]

(250)  
\[\text{3sD be ableF+ cv+ ncI 1sP \(~\text{R go}\) \quad ‘It could be that I will go.’ OR ‘Maybe I will go.’}\]

Noncopular stative verbs may also be used in impersonal constructions with dummy subjects:

(251)  
\[\text{3sD be goodF ncI 2sP buyF yam} \quad \text{‘It is good that you bought yam.’}\]

Dummy subjects often undergo phonetic reduction (sometimes to the point of deletion) especially preceding the negative marker \(\text{no}\):

(252)  
\[\text{3sD ng cvF small/mn} \quad \text{‘It is not a small matter.’}\]

As noted in 2.1.3.1.1 the sixth-person subject pronoun may be used impersonally in impersonal passive constructions:

(253)  
\[\text{Dèm bit di man.}\]
1.2.1.2.2
Objects

All verbs (including copular verbs, stative verbs and verbs of motion) may potentially take objects. For this reason, the transitive/intransitive distinction is useful in the description and analysis of Nigerian Pidgin verbs only to the extent that it serves to define the idealized endpoints of a continuum along which different verbal forms fall, rather than a criterion for dividing verbs into distinct classes. The following represent the range of possibilities:

**Objects of copular verbs, stative verbs and verbs of motion.** Many of the same arguments put forward for the objecthood of predicates following copular verbs and stative verbs in 1.2.1.1 and 1.1.2.2 apply as well to the objecthood of nonprepositional phrases and clauses following verbs of motion. There is no justification for setting up an *ad hoc* category to handle such constituents, which exhibit most of the features that characterize other types of objects in the language (see 2.1.1.2.4):

(254)  
*Dem si Oyo.*  
3sP seeF Oyo.  
‘They saw Oyo.’

*Dem de Oyo.*  
3sP cvF Oyo.  
‘They are in Oyo.’

*Dem go Oyo.*  
3sP goF Oyo.  
‘They went to Oyo.’

Verbs of motion share with the preposition *for* and the copular location/existence verb *de* (in most of their occurrences) a restriction against the selection of animate objects:

(255)  
*Ai see Jon.*  
1sP seeF John  
‘I saw John.’

*Ai de (for) Jon.*  
*A go (for) Jon.*

(256)  
*Ai go dì ples w. Jon im de.*  
1sP goF ar place rcI John 3sP cvF  
‘I went to the place where John is.’

**Verbs which usually take objects.** Some verbs, such as *get* ‘have’, *bit* ‘beat’ and *giv* ‘give’, usually take objects. In most cases where these verbs occur without an object it is because the object has just been mentioned in the discourse, and is not repeated:

(257)  
*Bit dì boy! Bit!*  
beatsSJ ar boy beatsSJ  
‘Beat the boy! Beat (him)!’

**Verbs which may or may not take objects.** Verbs like *chop* ‘eat’ and *had* ‘be difficult’ sometimes take an object and sometimes do not:

(258)  
*Wi gò chop. Wi gò chop nyam.*  
4sP –R eat 4sP –R eat yam
‘We will eat. We will eat yams.’

(259)  
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Dì wòk gò had. Dì wòk gò had yù.} \\
\text{ar work –R be hard ar work –R be hard 2oP} \\
\text{‘The work will be difficult. The work will be difficult for you to do.’}
\end{align*}
\]

**Verbs that usually occur with particular objects.** Some verbs normally select particular items as objects. The verb *swim* ‘swim’, for example, often takes *wòta* ‘water’ as its object:

(260)  
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Dì pìkîn no sàbi swim,} \\
\text{ar child ng knowF swim} \\
\text{‘The child does not know how to swim.’} \\
\text{Dì pìkîn no sàbi swim wòta.} \\
\text{ar child ng knowF swim water}
\end{align*}
\]

**Cognate objects.** Most verbs may take deverbal objects derived from themselves. Because such objects are morphosyntactically almost identical to what are called ‘cognate objects’ in many West African languages, this term will be used to designate them here:

(261)  
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Dì pìkîn no sàbi swim swim,} \\
\text{ar child ng knowF swim swim/n} \\
\text{‘The child does not know how to swim.’}
\end{align*}
\]

**Verbs which may only take cognate objects.** A few verbs rarely occur with any type of object other than a cognate object. These verbs include such items as *slip* ‘sleep’ and *day* ‘die’:

(262)  
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{A slip bèta slip.} \\
\text{1sP sleepF very good/mn sleep/n} \\
\text{‘I slept very well.’}
\end{align*}
\]

1.2.1.2.2.1 **Semantic function of objects** As shown in the preceding section, objects may be employed to express a wide range of semantic functions including destinations of verbs of motion, copular definition, identification and location, agent, patient, experiencer, etc. There are, however, many more possible semantic functions that can be expressed by objects, most of which are described in 2.1.1.2–5. A few are listed here:

(263)  
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{source/circumstance} \\
\text{Im gò sik màlerya.} \\
\text{3sP –R be sick malaria} \\
\text{‘(S)he will fall ill with malaria.’}
\end{align*}
\]

(264)  
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{location/means} \\
\text{Mà màma dè sèl maket.} \\
\text{1ps mother –C sell market ‘My mother sells (things) in the market.’}
\end{align*}
\]
1.2.1.2.3
Indirect objects and double object constructions

There is no clearly distinguishable class of indirect objects in Nigerian Pidgin, although a few verbs such as *giv* ‘give’ and *send* ‘send’ often occur with more than one object:

(265)  
\[ \text{Im send mi somting.} \]
\[ 3sP \text{sendF 1oP something} \]
\[ ‘(S)he sent me to do something.’ OR ‘(S)he sent something to me.’ \]

The two possible interpretations of this example illustrate the inappropriateness of the distinction direct object/indirect object to the meaningful analysis of verbal sentences in Nigerian Pidgin. Serialized verb constructions (see 1.3) and prepositional constructions are much more frequently utilized than are multiple object constructions to increase the valence of verbs. Any confusion due to the ambiguity of this sentence could be easily eliminated by the use of serialized verbs:

(266)  
\[ \text{Im send mi (mek à) du somting.} \]
\[ 3sP \text{sendF+ 1oP (SJcI 1sP) do+ something} \]
\[ ‘(S)he sent me to do something.’ \]

(267)  
\[ \text{Im tek somting send mì.} \]
\[ 3sP \text{takeFV+ something send+ 1oP} \]
\[ ‘(S)he gave something to me.’ \]

The direct object/indirect object dichotomy becomes even less useful when cognate objects, objects of copular verbs or verbs of motion and some of the other object forms listed in 1.2.1.2.2.1 are taken into consideration.

1.2.1.2.4
Other possible arguments

A wide variety of adverbial modifiers may be used both preceding and following verbs. Some of these could be considered to be arguments, especially such constructions as the acrolectal prepositional benefactive phrase headed by *för*:

(268)  
\[ @A \text{giv dì man nyam för yù.} \]
\[ 1sP \text{giveF ar man yam p 2oP} \]
\[ ‘I gave the man yams for you.’ \]

Adverbial modifiers are treated in greater detail in 1.2.1.3. In most lects of Nigerian Pidgin, no other verbal arguments than those listed thus far in this section may occur. In basilectal speech, the third-person object pronoun *-am* is often used even when the entity to which it refers is otherwise overtly marked:

(269)  
\[ #D\text{em kóm kawnt-am mòni.} \]
\[ 6sP +R \text{count-3oP money} \]
\[ ‘They counted money.’ \]
Coalesced pronouns in serialized verb constructions could conceivably be classified as a distinct type of argument, but this does not seem to be necessary (see 1.2.1.2.1).

1.2.1.2.5–6.
Combinations and order of arguments

All verbs must have subjects (except for the few exceptional cases listed in 1.2.1.2.1) and can optionally take an object. A few verbs can take two objects. The basic order of arguments in sentences is as follows:

Order of verbal arguments

SUBJECT + VERB + (OBJECT 1) + (OBJECT 2)

When two objects follow a verb, an animate object will precede an inanimate object. If both objects are animate or inanimate, the recipient object precedes the patient object and all objects will precede other postverbal elements, except for postverbal auxiliaries (see 1.2.5.5) and adverbials that sometimes fill the postverbal auxiliary slot (see 1.2.1.3.1.1). Processes such as topicalization (see 1.12) and relativization (see 1.1.2.3.7) often involve the movement of arguments from their normal positions to sentence- or clause-initial position. Any verbal argument may undergo this type of movement.

(270) A gīv dī man nyam.
    1sP giveF ar man yam
    ‘I gave the man yams.’

(271) A go chuk yù nayf.
    1sP −R stab 2oP knife
    ‘I will stab you with a knife.’

(272) Im kōl mā sista yeye.
    3sP callF lps sister stupid
    ‘(S)he called my sister stupid.’

1.2.1.3
Adverbials and ideophones

1.2.1.3.1
Types of adverbials and ideophones

There are five types of adverbials and ideophones: (a) preverbal adverbs/ideophones; (b) sentential adverbs/ideophones; (c) prepositional phrases; (d) noun phrases; and (e) adverbial clauses. Adverbial clauses are extensively treated in 1.1.2.4. The category ‘ideophone’ is an open class of sound-symbolic, often reduplicated forms that serve to intensify the meaning or augment the force of the event described in the clause or sentence in which they occur. A more complete discussion of ideophones may be found in section 4.1.

1.2.1.3.1.1 Adverbs and ideophones Adverbs and ideophones can be divided into two classes, depending on their position and function in the sentence: (a) preverbal adverbs and ideophones and (b)
sentential adverbs and ideophones. Preverbal adverbs and ideophones often modify the tense/aspect/modality properties of the verbs that they precede and constitute a small, relatively closed class. Sentential adverbs and ideophones occur clause-or sentence-finally and modify the entire clause or sentence to which they belong. Sentential adverbs and ideophones constitute a large, relatively open class. Preverbal adverbs include \textit{tu} ‘very, too much’, \textit{jost} ‘just’ and \textit{stil} ‘still’ while preverbal ideophones include \textit{kokoro} and \textit{kuku}:

(273) \begin{tabular}{l}
Yù tu tok. \\
2sP too much talk \\
‘You talk too much.’
\end{tabular}

(274) \begin{tabular}{l}
A kuku kari di pikîn go. \\
1sP ip takeFV+ ar child go+ \\
‘I did nothing less than take the child away.’
\end{tabular}

The class of sentential adverbs consists of such items as \textit{tù} ‘also’, \textit{ègèn} ‘again’ and \textit{sins} ‘long since’. Lexical items such as \textit{tùmoro} ‘tomorrow’ and \textit{hyar} ‘here’ behave much more like nouns than adverbs in Nigerian Pidgin and will be treated as nouns in this work. Sentential ideophones form a productive class which includes some items used with a restricted set of verbs such as (\textit{slap}) …\textit{zàwày} and others which may be used with any verb like \textit{kpàtàkpata}:

(275) \begin{tabular}{l}
Dèm chèp gàri tù. \\
6sP eatF gari also \\
‘They ate gari also.’
\end{tabular}

(276) \begin{tabular}{l}
Im slap mì zàwày. \\
3sP slapF 1oP ip \\
‘(S)he slapped me sharply.’
\end{tabular}

Sentential adverbs and ideophones may at times be used to modify the tense/aspect/modality properties of the verb that they follow. In such cases, they may occupy the postverbal auxiliary slot (see 1.2.5.5):

(277) \begin{tabular}{l}
Im slip sins. \\
3sP sleepF long since \\
‘(S)he has been sleeping for a long time.’
\end{tabular}

(278) \begin{tabular}{l}
Dì man kóm kres kpàtàkpata. \\
ar man +P be mad ip \\
‘The man went completely crazy.’
\end{tabular}

In acrolectal speech, there is a tendency to use [verb + particle] constructions such as \textit{go bak} ‘go back’ or \textit{faynd awt} ‘find out’.

1.2.1.3.1.2 Prepositional phrases There is one general preposition \textit{för} in Nigerian Pidgin which can be used to express a wide range of spatial, temporal, role and other relationships (see 2.1.1.2–7):

(279) \begin{tabular}{l}
A de för haws.
\end{tabular}
In order to further specify a spatial or directional relationship for may be followed by an associative noun phrase construction (see 1.2.5.1.1) in which the possessor noun is a locational noun such as insâyd ‘inside’ or a body part noun such as bak ‘back’:

(281) A de fôr [insâyd haws].
1sP cvF p [inside house]
‘I am in the house.’

In most lects of Nigerian Pidgin, the prepositions wit ‘with (accompaniment and instrumental)’ and fröm ‘from’ are used to some degree instead of fôr. In acrolectal speech, several other prepositions such as til ‘until’ and ôf ‘of’ may occur as well.

1.2.1.3.1.3 Noun phrase adverbials Noun phrases are very commonly used as adverbials:

(282) A gò du-am [dis nayt].
1sP –R do-3oP [this night]
‘I will do it tonight.’

As noted above, items such as tûdê ‘today’ and dyar ‘there’ are nouns and when they are used adverbially they will be considered to be noun phrase adverbials. Compound nouns (see 2.2.6.3) which include such words as taym ‘time’, ples ‘place’ and sayd ‘place’ are often utilized adverbially:

(283) A gò du-am krismastâym.
1sP –R do-3oP Christmastime
‘I will do it at Christmastime.’

1.2.1.3.1.4 Adverbial clauses As noted in section 1.1.2.4 (which contains an extensive treatment of adverbial clauses), most adverbial clauses consist of an adverbial clause introducer such as the preposition fôr followed by a noun clause or relative clause construction:

(284) Ade gò don slip [fôr di taym we yù want kom.]
Ade –R +C sleep [p ar time rcI 2sP wantF+ come+]
‘Ade will have gone to sleep by the time that you want to come.’

Noun clauses may also be employed as adverbials:

(285) Fati bit im pikîn [se im no dè maynd-am âtöl].
Fati beatF 3ps child [ncI 3sP ng –C mind -3oP ngE]
‘Fati beat her child because (s)he never obeys her.’
Nonfinite adverbial clauses do not occur, with the possible exception of the constructions referred to in 1.1.2.4.3.

1.2.1.3–2
Combinations and order of adverbials

There are no grammatical constraints on the possible combinations of adverbial elements in a single sentence. Preverbal adverbs and ideophones occupy the modal verb slot between the subject and the verb (see 1.2.5.5). Sentential adverbs and ideophones follow all object arguments after the verb, except for the instances where they function as auxiliaries, in which case they occupy the postverbal auxiliary slot. The great majority of prepositional phrases, noun phrase adverbials and adverbial clauses occur sentence-finally, but most may optionally occur sentence-initially. A few adverbial clause types (such as conditional clauses) usually occupy sentence-initial position (see 1.1.2.4.2). The general order of adverbial elements is therefore as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sentence-initial+</th>
<th>Preverbal</th>
<th>Postverbal</th>
<th>Sentence-final</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(S av)</td>
<td>subject+</td>
<td>aux+</td>
<td>verb+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(S ip)</td>
<td>prev av</td>
<td>(S av)</td>
<td>(S ip)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(p phrase)</td>
<td>prev ip</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(n phrase)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>avc</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In a single sentence the preverbal and postverbal slots are normally occupied by one adverbial at a time. The sentence-initial and especially the sentence-final slots may contain any number or combination of adverbial elements:

(286) If yù go yù gò jöst ron smol kpri dyar för rod.  
\[avc\] 2sP go 2sP −R just run a bit ip there p road  
[avc] av av ip nc [p phrase]  
‘If you go, you’ll just run a bit there on the way.’

1.2.1.3.3
Obligatory adverbials

Since copulas and verbs of motion can take objects (see 1.2.1.2.2) there are no verbs which must be followed by an adverbial complement. Some constructions, such as the conditional construction (see 1.1.2.4.2.5) do require an adverbial clause, although in many such cases a noun clause may function as an adverbial clause.
1.2.2
Adjective phrases

As shown in 2.1.4, there is no category ‘adjective’ in Nigerian Pidgin. Most of the items which convey the same meanings as do adjectives in other languages are stative verbs in Nigerian Pidgin. Stative verbs take the same arguments and modifiers in the same combinations and the same order as do other verbs (see 1.2.1.2.1–3 and 1.2.3). In acrolectal varieties, there is some attested use of adjectives, beginning with fixed expressions such as *men rod* ‘main road’ or *left hand* ‘left hand’ and then extending to other environments.

1.2.3
Adverbial phrases

1.2.3.1
Operational definition

The only operational definition that applies to all adverbial phrases specifies their position in the sentence: adverbial phrases occupy the sentence-final and, to a lesser extent, sentence-initial adverbial slots (see 1.2.5.5).

1.2.3.2
Adverbials which can modify other adverbials

It could be very plausibly argued that no adverbial may modify another adverbial. There are, however, some cases which could be interpreted as adverbial modification of another adverbial and these will be described here.

1.2.3.2.1
Adverbs and ideophones

Adverbs are not used to modify other adverbials or ideophones. Although ideophones may not modify adverbials, they may occur in series, in which case it is difficult to determine whether one ideophone is modifying another ideophone or whether each individual ideophone separately modifies the verb:

(287) Mà ay don klyar fyayfyây fyam.

*lps eye +C clear ipR ip

‘My eyes cleared suddenly and completely.’ OR ‘I finally saw my error.’

The most commonly employed means for modifying adverbials and ideophones is reduplication. Reduplication can signal intensity, multiplicity, duration, plurality and many other related meanings, as shown in the preceding and following examples (see 2.1.7):

(288) Dì pikîn ron kwikkŵik go tawn.

*ar child runF+ quicklyR go+ town

‘The child ran quickly to town.’
The adverb *tù* ‘also’ sometimes serves to modify adverbials in acrolectal speech.

### 1.2.3.2.2

**Prepositional phrases**

Some prepositional phrases could be analysed as modifiers of adverbials. In such cases, any type of adverbial, with the exception of a preverbal adverb is subject to modification. Ideophones may not be modified by prepositional phrases. Prepositional phrases always follow the adverbials that they modify. It should be noted that in all of the following examples the prepositional phrases could be interpreted as modifying the verb directly, rather than indirectly via the preceding adverbial:

(289) *sentential adverb modified*

A gò du-am kwikkwîk ñôr màshîn.
1sP −R do-3oP quicklyR p machine
‘I will do it quickly with the machine.’

(290) *noun phrase modified*

A gò du-am wøn de ñôr aftanûn.
1sP −R do-3oP one day p afternoon
‘I will do it one day in the afternoon.’

(291) *prepositional phrase modified?*

A gò put-am ñôr wøn bøks ñôr dì mòto.
1sP −R put-3oP p one box p ar car
‘I will put it in a box in the car.’

(292) *adverbial clause modified*

A gò put-am ñôr wøn bøks wë spoîl ñôr vilej.
1sP −R put-3oP p one box rcI spoîF p village
‘I will put it in a worn out box in the village.’

### 1.2.3.2.3

**Noun phrases**

Adverbials and ideophones are not normally modified by noun phrase adverbials.

### 1.2.3.2.4

**Adverbial clauses**

Any type of adverbial except for a preverbal adverb may be modified by adverbial clauses. Ideophones may not be modified in this way. Adverbial clauses follow the adverbials that they modify. Once again, it should be noted that in all of the following examples the adverbial clauses could be interpreted as modifying the verb directly, rather than indirectly via the preceding adverbial:

(293) *adverbial clause modified*
As noted in 1.1.2.4.3, nonfinite adverbial clauses do not occur in Nigerian Pidgin.

1.2.3–4
Order and restrictions

Modifying adverbials always directly follow the adverbials that they modify. There is no single adverbial or adverbial class that is restricted to modifying a particular adverbial type.

1.2.4.
Prepositional phrases

1.2.4.1
Operational definition

Prepositional phrases consist obligatorily of preposition followed immediately by its noun phrase object. No element may be inserted between a preposition and its object. Prepositional phrases may occupy either the sentence-initial or the sentence-final adverbial slots (see 1.2.5.5). As stated in 1.2.1.3.1.2, there is one general preposition for in all lects and a few other items which may be used prepositionally in particular lects of Nigerian Pidgin.
1.2.4.2
Arguments of prepositions

1.2.4.2.1–4
Prepositions and their arguments

The only possible argument that can be taken by a preposition is a single noun phrase object. This object is obligatorily present in every case. Noun phrases are the only constituents which can serve as prepositional objects. Multiple objects do not occur, although conjoined noun phrase objects are attested. When the object of a preposition is focused and moved to sentence-initial position, a pronoun object must remain in its original position following the preposition:

(297) A por ti för kōp. Nà di kōp we à por ti för-am.
1sP pourF tea p cup EI rCI p -3oP
‘I poured tea into the cup. It is the cup that I poured tea into.’

1.2.4.3
Prepositional modifiers

1.2.4.3.1–5
Modification of prepositions

The sole means available for the modification of prepositions is the incorporation of a prepositional phrase into an adverbial clause headed by such adverbial clause introducers as onli ‘only’. This type of clause is usually relatively restricted in its distribution. Onli clauses, for example, may only occur in focalization constructions (see 1.1.2.4.2.11):

(298) Nà [onli [fōr nayt] we à dè chôp].
EI [only [p night] rCI 1sP −C eat]
‘It is only at night that I eat.’

1.2.4.4
Prepositions and case government

The general preposition can govern literally dozens of different case-type relations, a full inventory of which may be found in sections 2.1.1.2–7. To a certain extent, the case relations expressed through prepositions are determined by the semantics of the verbs that they occur with:

(299) A gô mek -am fôr yû.
1sP −R make-3oP p 2oP
‘I will make it for you’ (benefactive).

(300) A gô giv -am fôr yû.
1sP −R give-3oP p 2oP
‘I will give it to you’ (dative).
A much stronger factor in the determination of case relations encoded in prepositions is the nature of the prepositional objects themselves:

(301) A gò bit yu fòr mà mama.
1sP −R beat 2oP p lps mother
‘I will beat you for my mother.’ (benefactive)

(302) A gò bit yù fòr haws.
1sP −R beat 2oP p house
‘I will beat you at the house.’ (locative)

(303) A gò bit yù fòr ken.
1sP −R beat 2oP p cane
‘I will beat you with a cane.’ (instrumental)

(304) A gò bit yù fòr nyash.
1sP −R beat 2oP p buttocks
‘I will beat your buttocks.’ (accusative)

(305) A gò bit yù fòr nayt.
1sP −R beat 2oP p night
‘I will beat you at night.’ (temporal)

1.2.5
Noun phrases

1.2.5.1
Operational definition

Noun phrases are headed by nouns or pronouns. Noun phrases can play a number of roles in the sentence and therefore may occupy a number of different syntactic slots, depending on their function (see 1.2.5.5). Subject noun phrases occupy the subject slot preceding the verb, while noun phrases which are verbal objects occupy the object slot following the verb. Noun phrases which function as adverbials may fill either the sentence-initial or the sentence-final adverbial slot, while prepositional object noun phrases fill the object slot following the preposition. The noun phrase constitutes a cohesive unit which is normally moved as an integral whole:

(306) Dis ol yò oda fренд đём đon go.
this all 2ps other friend pl +C go
‘All of these your other friends have gone.’

(307) Nà [dis ol yò oda fренд đём] we đon go.
EI [this all 2ps other friend pl] rcI +C go
‘It’s all of these your other friends who have gone.’
*Nà fренд we dis ol yò oda đём đon go.
Within the noun phrase, word order is strictly adhered to, with little or no possibility of alternative ordering.

1.2.5.1.1
Associative/possessive noun phrase constructions

A special associative/possessive noun phrase construction consisting of two nouns, the first of whose referent modifies or possesses the referent of the second, occurs with a very high frequency and plays a pivotal role in signalling many important semantic relations in Nigerian Pidgin. The term ‘associative’ is commonly used among Africanists to refer to this type of construction, while the terms ‘genitive’ or ‘possessive’ are commonly used by other linguists to refer to similar constructions in non-African languages. For the sake of clarity, the slightly cumbersome term ‘associative/possessive construction’ will be used in this work:

(308)    A si [[Akpan] [buk]].
1sP seeF [[Akpan] [book]]
‘I saw Akpan’s book.’

(309)    A folo [[bush] [rod]].
1sP followF [[bush] [road]]
‘I went down a bush road.’

(310)    Im de (fôr) [[Legos] [layf]].
3sP cvF (p) [[Lagos] [life]]
‘(S)he is into the Lagos lifestyle.’

(311)    A no get [[red] [klot]].
1sP ng haveF [[red/n] [cloth]]
‘I have no red clothes.’

(312)    Dêm go (fôr) [[insâyd] [haws]].
6sP goF (p) [[inside] [house]]
‘They went inside the house.’

When a possessive relation is expressed by an associative/possessive construction, a possessive pronoun may replace the possessor/modifier noun (see 2.1.2.1.10 for a listing of all of the possessive pronouns and 2.1.2.4.1–11):

(313)    A si [[yò] [buk]].
1sP seeF [[2ps] [book]]
‘I saw your book.’
When the speaker wishes to specify or emphasize the referent of the possessive pronoun, a noun or emphatic pronoun corresponding to the referent of the possessive pronoun may be placed at the beginning of the associative/possessive construction:

(314) A si [yu] [[yò] [buk]].
1sP seeF [[2EP] [[2ps] [book]]]
‘I saw your book.’

(315) A si [[Akpan] [im] [buk]].
1sP seeF [[Akpan] [[3ps] [book]]]
‘I saw Akpan’s book.’

Complex associative/possessive constructions are not uncommon:

(316) A de (fòr) [[insåyd] [bush] [haws]].
1sP cvF (p) [[inside] [[bush] [house]]]
‘I am inside the bush house.’

A special associative/possessive object pronoun on ‘…own’ occurs in associative/possessive constructions where the modified or possessed noun is not specifically mentioned:

(317) Làpa ? A dön fogèt mà on.
wrapper Qù 1sP +C forget lps pso
‘Wrapper?’ ‘I forgot mine.’ OR ‘I forgot my own.’

(318) Làpa ? A get Nàjirya on.
wrapper Qù 1sP haveF Nigeria pso
‘Wrapper?’ ‘I have an authentic Nigerian one.’

1.2.5.2
Modifiers

1.2.5.2.1
Adjectives

The category ‘adjective’ does not exist in Nigerian Pidgin (see 2.1.4). Deverbal nouns derived from stative verbs (see 1.2.1.1.1) may be used in associative/possessive constructions in a way that resembles the use of attributive adjectives in other languages (see 1.2.5.1.1 for other examples):

(319) had ‘be difficult’ stative verb
Bifò yù gò du-am, dì wók gò dön had yù finish,
before 2sP −R do-3oP ar work −R +C be hard 2oP +C
‘Before you do it, the work will have become very difficult for you.’

(320) had ‘difficulty’ deverbal noun
Dì had we di wok gò had ba, i no gò smol.
ar hard/n rcI ar work −R be hard T 3sD ng −R be small
‘The work will be very hard.’ OR ‘The difficulty with which the work will be difficult will not be small.’

(321) had deverbal noun used in associative construction
Dat pikîn no sàbi [[had] [wok]],
that child ng knowF [[hard/n] [work]]
‘That child doesn’t know (what) hard work (is).’

1.2.5.2.2
Relative clauses

Only nouns and emphatic pronouns may be modified by relative clauses, as described in 1.1.2.3.

1.2.5.2.3
Possessive pronouns

Possessive pronouns may take the place of possessor nouns in possessive constructions (see 1.2.5.1.1). Each personal pronoun has a corresponding possessive pronoun (see 2.1.2.1.10 and 2.1.2.4.1–11):

(322) Mà pikîn ìm ay dèm don red finish.
lps child 3ps eye pl +C be red +C
‘My child’s eyes have become completely red.’

As shown in 1.2.5.1.1, the associative/possessive object pronoun on may replace the possessed noun in an associative/genitive construction.

1.2.5.2.4
Articles

There is one general definite article dì which precedes the noun that it modifies. The numeral won ‘one’ is employed as an indefinite article and also precedes the noun that it modifies. Dì does not change in form with number or case. Won is only used in the singular, som taking its place to a certain extent in the plural, especially in acrolectal varieties. Collective and mass nouns such as hyar ‘hair’ and wòta ‘water’ are rarely used with articles and are anaphorically referred to by third person singular pronouns. When marked for indefiniteness, however, mass nouns and collective nouns take the plural ‘article’ som rather than the singular won (see 2.1.1.11 and 2.1.1.8):

(323) A tay klgt.
1sP tieF cloth
‘I put on the/a cloth.’
A tay won klgt.
1sP tieF one cloth
‘I put on a cloth.’
There are two types of demonstratives: demonstrative modifiers and demonstrative nouns. Demonstrative modifiers occupy the noun phrase initial slot, while demonstrative nouns fill the associative/possessive noun modifier slot which immediately precedes the head slot (see 1.2.5.5). The most commonly encountered demonstrative modifiers are the proximal *dis* ‘this’ and the distal *dat* ‘that’, which are used in both the singular and plural, although such forms as *diz* ‘these’ and *doz* ‘those’ are heard in acrolectal speech:

(325)  
Dat pikîn no get sens,  
that child ng have\*F sense  
‘That child is stupid.’ OR ‘Those children are stupid.’

Demonstrative nouns include *oda* ‘other’ and *sem* ‘same’. The special combined demonstrative article + noun form *ànoda* ‘another’ occupies the demonstrative modifier slot:

(326)  
Di fayv *oda* man dèm kil ànoda fayv kotingrás.  
ar five other man pl killF another five grasscutter  
‘The other five men killed another five grasscutters.’

All quantifiers except for the pluralizer *dèm* precede the nouns that they modify. *Dèm* immediately follows the head noun (see 1.2.5.5). A full listing of ordinal and cardinal numbers is given in 2.1.6. Related to the ordinal numbers are *last* ‘last’ and *hol* ‘whole’. Other forms included in the class of quantifiers are *som* ‘some’, *ol* ‘all’, *ich* ‘each’, *evri* ‘every’, *eni* ‘any’ and such acrolectal items as *bot* ‘both’:

(327)  
Dèm plant ol yò hol fifti nyam dèm.  
6sP plantF all ar whole fifty yam pl  
‘They planted all of your fifty yams.’

It should be noted that the pluralizer and the sixth-person pronoun are identical in form but occupy different positions in the sentence. Quantification in Nigerian Pidgin is often expressed through the use of such stative verbs as *meni* ‘be many’ or *plenti* ‘be plenty’:

(328)  
Di taym yù gò kôm, nyam gò dôn plenti nyàfùnyafu.  
ar time 2sP −R come yam −R +C be plenty ipR  
‘By the time you come, there will be plenty of yams.’
1.2.5.2.7
Adverbials

Adverbials do not regularly modify elements within noun phrases. The limiter adverbial *onli* ‘only’ may be used to modify an entire noun phrase in a focus construction, in which case *onli* immediately precedes or follows the noun phrase (see 1.1.2.4.2.11 and 1.2.4.3.1):

(329) Nà onli mà pìkîn dèm we go tawn.
EI only lps child pl rcI goF town
‘It is only my children who went to town.’

(330) Nà mà pìkîn dèm onli we go tawn.
EI lps child pl only rcI goF town
‘It is only my children who went to town.’

1.2.5.2.8
Emphasis markers and topicalizers

Beside the focus introducer *nà* which precedes the head noun, all emphasis and topicalization markers follow the noun or occur at the end of the noun phrase, with emphasis markers preceding topicalizers. Emphasis markers include *sef* and to a certain extent the phrase-final particle *ò* (see 1.11). Commonly used topicalizers are: *ba, kwanu,* etc. (see 1.12):

(331) Dat yò tu pìkîn sef no go skul.
that 2ps two child E ng goF school
‘Even (those) your two children didn’t go to school.’

(332) Dat yò tu pìkîn sha no go haws,
that 2ps two child T ng goF house
‘As for (those) your two children, they didn’t go home.’

Where the focus introducer is employed without a preceding noun phrase, the noun phrase that follows must be followed by a relative clause (see 1.1.2.3, 1.2.1.1.6 and 1.11):

(333) Nà dat yò tu pìkîn sha we no go haws.
EI that 2ps two child T rcI ng goF house
‘It is (those) your two children who didn’t go home.’

1.2.5.2.9
Comparative/superlative/equative structures

Comparative, superlative and equative relations are expressed through the use of serialized verb constructions in Nigerian Pidgin (see 1.3 and 1.8).
Combination and order of elements

Noun phrases may consist of the following elements in the following order:

\[
\pm A \quad \pm B \quad \pm C \pm D \quad \pm E \quad \pm F \\
\text{demonstrative m} \pm \text{quantifier} \pm \text{ar} \pm \text{ordinal} \pm \text{cardinal} \pm \text{associative} \quad \text{ps} \quad \text{m/ps/n} \\
\pm G \quad \pm H \pm I \quad \pm J \quad \pm K \\
+\text{HEAD} \pm \text{pl} \pm \text{E} \pm \text{T} \pm \text{rc} \\
\text{n/P} \\
\]

Possible noun phrase elements

\(334\)  Dis ol y\(\circ\) fest fayv [q\(\ddot{a}\) da nyam] d\(\ddot{e}\)m sef ba [we red] de tawn.
A B C D E [F G] H I J [K] v o
‘As for even all of these your first five other yams which are red, they are in town.’

Nouns and numerals may be reduplicated (see 2.2.6). Several instances of the noun phrase elements listed above may be found within the same noun phrase. There is no limit on the number of nouns which can be incorporated into a complex associative/possessive construction (see 1.2.5.1.1) or on the length of relative clause chains (see 1.1.2.3.7). Up to two cardinal numbers and/or emphatic markers may occur in the same noun phrase:

\(335\)  A si tu tre pik\(\ddot{e}\)n sef \(\ddot{o}\) f\(\ddot{a}\)r kirikiri.
1sP seeF two three child E fE p jail
‘I even saw a few children in the jail.’

Apart from the processes just mentioned, no other iterations of noun phrase elements are possible. As shown in the examples above, all possible noun phrase elements may hypothetically occur in the same noun phrase. The only restrictions which prevent the use of particular items from one category with particular items from another category are semantic rather than morphosyntactic.

Prepositional phrases consist of an obligatory preposition followed by a single or conjoined noun phrase object (see 1.2.4.2.1):

Order of elements in prepositional phrases

\[+A \quad \quad +B \]
preposition+noun phrase object

Verb phrases consist of the following elements in the following order:

Sentences consist of the following elements in the following order:

\[\pm A \quad \quad +B \quad \pm C + D \quad \pm E \]
S initial av phrase +subject n phrase±ng+v phrase±S final av phrase
Several sentence-initial and/or sentence-final adverbial phrases may occur in the same sentence. Conjoined noun phrases are common and verb phrases are often joined by means of serialized verb constructions (see 1.3). All of the elements listed above may occur together in a single sentence, the only co-occurrence restrictions being semantic rather than morphosyntactic:

(336) [Tùdê] [à] [no] [bay gàri] [fôr Sapele].
[A] [B] [C] [D] [E]
today 1sP ng buyF gari p Sapele
‘Today I didn’t buy gari in Sapele.’

1.3
CO-ORDINATION

1.3.1
Means of co-ordination

In this work, the definition of ‘co-ordination’ will be extended somewhat further than may be the usual practice, in order to accommodate serialized verb constructions, which are the most commonly employed means of co-ordination in Nigerian Pidgin (see 1.3.1.1.4 and 1.3.1.3).

1.3.1.1
Co-ordination of sentences

1.3.1.1.1
And-coordination

Sentences may be co-ordinated simply by raising the intonation pattern at the end of each nonfinal sentence in the co-ordinated series. The co-ordinator ànd ‘and’ and/or the sentence-final adverbial tù ‘also’ may optionally be used to co-ordinate sentences:

(337) Im go tawn. Im bay nyam.
3sp goF town 3sP buyF yam
‘(S)he went to town. (S)he bought yams.’

(338) Im go tawn, ìm bay nyam (tù).
3sp goF town rising intonation 3sP buyF yam (also)
‘(S)he went to town and (s)he bought yams (too).’

(339) Im go tawn ànd ìm bay nyam (tù).
3sp goF town and 3sP buyF yam (also)
‘(S)he went to town and (s)he bought yams (too).’

None of the constructions illustrated in the preceding examples occurs with much frequency. Serialized verb constructions are much more commonly utilized (see 1.3.1.1.4):
1.3.1.1.2
But-coordination

All of the processes, possibilities and constraints listed for and-coordination (see 1.3.1.1.1) are appropriate as well to but-coordination, with the addition of the use of the co-ordinator bòt ‘but’:

(340) Im go tawn bay nyam.
     3sp goF+ town buy+ yam
     ‘(S)he went to town (and) bought yams.’

(341) Im go tawn (bòt) ım no bay nyam (tù).
     3sp goF town (but) 3sP ng buyF yam (also)
     ‘(S)he went to town (but) (s)he didn’t buy yams.’

(342) Im go tawn (àn) dım no bay nyam (tù).
     3sp goF town (and) 3sP ng buyF yam (also)
     ‘(S)he went to town (but) (s)he didn’t buy yams.’

(343) Im bigîn go kंm fòdôn wund finish gbùm.
     3sP beginF+ go+ +R fall+ wound+ +C ip
     ‘(S)he began to go (but) fell and hurt him/herself.’

1.3.1.1.3
Or-coordination

The co-ordinators òr ‘either/or’ and (less frequently) ayda ‘either/or’ are employed in or-coordination constructions. One of these markers obligatorily occurs between the co-ordinated elements. Optionally, either one of the two markers may occur at the beginning of the construction as well. There are no co-occurrence restrictions on òr and ayda:

(344) (Òr/ayda) yù gò bay nyam òr/ayda yù gò bay gàri.
     (either) 2sP −R buy yam or 2sP −R buy gari
     ‘(Either) you will buy yams or you will buy gari.’

In alternative question constructions, àbi and weda may be used in place of òr and ayda (see 1.1.1.2.1.3):

(345) (Weda/àbi) yù gò bay nyam weda/àbi yù gò bay gàri?
     (YNQ) 2sP −R buy yam YNQ 2sP −R buy gari Òù
     ‘Will you buy yams or will you buy gari?’

1.3.1.1.4
Serialized verb constructions

Subjects, objects and serialized verbs. Verb phrases may be strung together in serialized verb constructions. Verbs in serialized verb constructions usually share the same sentential subject, which precedes the first
verb in the series and is not repeated thereafter. Each verb in a serialized construction may normally take its own object(s), adverbials and ideophones:

(346) A tek nayf kot dì nyam.
1sP takeFV+ knife cut+ ar yam
‘I cut the yam with a knife.’

In causative serialized verb constructions, the causee object of the verb *mek* ‘make’ serves as the subject of the following verb (see 2.1.3.1.3.1). Another possible exception to the single subject restriction for serialized verbs is the relatively rare case where the object of a verb in the series is the same as the subject of the following verb, in which case the same morphosyntactic marker may be used to signal the coalesced subject/object arguments (see 1.2.1.2.1).

*Serialized verbs, polarity and tense/aspect/modality.* Unless they are marked otherwise, verbs in serialized constructions normally adopt the same polarity and tense/aspect/modality values which apply to the first verb in the series.

*Preverbal auxiliaries and serialized verbs.* The irrealis auxiliary *gò*, the past auxiliary *bìn* and the completive auxiliary *don* may only occur before the first verb in a serialized construction. Other preverbal tense/aspect/modality markers and/or negation markers may be used with any verb in a series, although these are most often found preceding the series initial verb as well:

(347) A bin tek nayf kot dì nyam.
1sP +P takeV+ knife cut+ ar yam
‘I cut the yam with a knife.’
*A tek nayf bin kot dì nyam.

(348) A kóm tek nayf kot dì nyam.
1sP +R takeV+ knife cut+ ar yam
‘I cut the yam with a knife.’

(349) A tek nayf kóm kot dì nyam.
1sP takeFV+ knife +R cut+ ar yam
‘I cut the yam with a knife.’

*Postverbal auxiliaries and serialized verbs.* Postverbal auxiliaries tend to be used with noninitial verbs in serialized verb constructions:

(350) A tek nayf kot dì nyam finish.
1sP takeFV+ knife cut+ ar yam +C
‘I cut the yam with a knife.’
?A tek nayf finish kot dì nyam.

*Verbs that tend to precede other verbs in series.* The following verbs tend to precede other verbs in serialized constructions with the meanings indicated:

fest ‘be first’ sequential
In this work, the term ‘modal auxiliary verb’ will be used in a slightly unconventional manner, to refer to verbs which must precede all other verbs in a series (including the verbs just listed), which do not take nonserial co-ordination and which do not normally take objects. Examples of modal auxiliary verbs are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bigîn</td>
<td>‘begin’</td>
<td>inceptive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fit</td>
<td>‘be able’</td>
<td>abilitative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fò</td>
<td>‘should’</td>
<td>possibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gri</td>
<td>‘allow’</td>
<td>permission, agreement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>layk</td>
<td>‘like’</td>
<td>desiderative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>manij</td>
<td>‘manage’</td>
<td>accomplishment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>want</td>
<td>‘be about to’</td>
<td>imminency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The verb *mek* ‘make’ precedes other verbs in causative serialized verb constructions (see 2.1.3.1.3.1). Preverbal adverbials could be analysed as verbs which precede other verbs in series as well.

Verbs that tend to follow other verbs in series. The verbs listed below tend to follow other verbs in serialized constructions with the meanings indicated:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>giv</td>
<td>‘give’</td>
<td>dative, benefactive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>go</td>
<td>‘go’</td>
<td>direction away</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kom</td>
<td>‘come’</td>
<td>direction toward</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kômôt</td>
<td>‘exit’</td>
<td>evacuation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
pas ‘(sur)pass’ comparative, superlative
rich ‘arrive’ equative, destination
trowê ‘throw away’ overflow

(355) giv dative, benefactive
A bay nyam giv yù.
1sP buyF+ yam give+ 2oP
‘I bought you the yam.’

(356) go, kom directionals; kômôt evacuation
Im drayv dì mòto kom, drayv -am go kômôt.
3sP driveF+ ar car come+ drive+-3oP go+ exit+
‘(S)he drove the car to that place and (then) away from it.’

(357) rich equative; pas comparative, superlative
A: Yù no drink rich mì.
2sP ng drinkF+ reach+ 1oP
B: A drink pas yù, drink pas ol.
1sP drinkF+ pass+ 2oP drink+ pass+ all
A: ‘You didn’t drink as much as I did.’
B: ‘I drank more than you, I drank the most of all.’

(358) trowê overflow
Pìkîn dèm plénti trowê fòr haws,
child pl be plentyF+ throw out+ p house
‘The children have overrun the house.’

The postverbal auxiliaries finish and taya could be considered to be verbs which follow other verbs in serialized constructions. Items such as bèlèfûl ‘be satiated’ (which is used mainly after the verb chop ‘eat’ in much the same way as an ideophone would be) could conceivably fall into this category along with the entire class of ideophones and postverbal adverbials:

(359) Wi chop dì nyam bèlèfûl finish kpákpa.
4sP eatF+ ar yam be full+ +C ipR
‘We ate up all the yams until we were full.’

Other items that could possibly be classified as verbs which tend to follow other verbs in serialized constructions are the noun clause introducer se (which is identical to the verbal form se ‘talk, say’, see 1.1.1.1) and the subjunctive clause introducer mek (which is identical to the verbal form mek ‘make’, see 1.1.1.3). Finally, a case could be made for the categorization of such prepositions as fòr and fròm as serialized verbs, since they can take objects and appear to take subjects in acrolectal varieties (see 1.1.1.2.2.1.4 and 2.1.1.5):
I (have) come from Arochukwu.

The same interpretation is possible for the acrolectal use of [verb + particle] constructions (see 1.2.1.3.1.1):

(361) Dèm no gò bak yù yò mòni .
6sP ng −R give back 2oP 2ps money
‘They will not give you your money back.’

(362) Dèm no gò giv yù yò mòni bak.
6sP ng −R give+ 2oP 2ps money give back+
‘They will not give you your money back.’

**Semantic and syntactic relations among serialized verbs.** There is no theoretical limit on the number of verbs which can be linked together in a single extended serialized verb construction:

(363) A fit folo yù tek nyam put för bag
1sP be ableF+ follow+ 2oP take+ yam put+ p bag
kari -am wàka go rich haws giv dèm chop.
carry+-3oP walk+ go+ reach+ house give+ 6s/oP eat+
‘I can help you to put yams in the bags and then carry the bags with you to the house and give the yams to them to eat.’

There is no consistent way to determine whether verbs within a given serialized construction refer to events that are conceptualized as one single composite/simultaneous event or as separate/consecutive events. The position of verbs in series normally follows the temporal sequence of the events to which they refer, but temporal order may be violated in many instances:

(364) A chop nyam rich dyar boyl -am put faya chop.
1sP eatF+ yam reach+ there boil+-3oP put+ fire eat+
‘I ate yam, arriving there, boiling it, putting fire under it, I ate (it).’

Agheyisi (1971:105–11) attempts to distinguish verbs which tend to precede other verbs in series from verbs which tend to follow. Preceding verbs would be non-nuclear (oblique) argument introducers, while following verbs would show directionality in Agheyisi’s scheme, which works to a certain point, but fails to account for forms such as fest and giv. It might be argued that there is a tighter semantic relationship between a verb such as tek with a following serialized verb than exists between a verb such as trowè and a preceding verb in series:

(365) A tek nayf kôt dì nyam.
1sP takeFV+ knife cut+ ar yam
‘I cut the yam with a knife.’

(366) Pikîn dèm plenti trowè för haws,
child pl be plentyF+ throw out+ p house
‘The children have overrun the house.’

While the validity of a ‘semantic binding criterion’ and/or a ‘non-nuclear vs. directional (in the broadest sense of the word) distinction’ for differentiating the set of preceding verbs from following verbs might be suggested by the examples just cited, the following examples could lead us to the opposite conclusion:

(367) Wòta po trowê för grawnd.
water pourF+ throw away+ p ground
‘The water spilled onto the ground.’

(368) A tek nayt kot dî nyam.
1sP takeFV+ night cut+ ar yam
‘I cut the yam at night.’

(369) A tek nyam kot (-am).
1sP takeFV+ yam cut+(-3oP)
‘I cut the yam.’

(370) A tek hêd fòdôn.
1sP takeFV+ head fall down+
‘I fell on my head.’

The lack of a simple set of criteria for the analysis of the relationships that exist between serialized verbs is highlighted by the fact that all of the verbs that tend either to precede or to follow other verbs in series (including all of the ‘modal’ verbs except for fit and fò) may also be used alone as main verbs. A further complication is introduced by such multifunctional verbal elements as manij (modal, preceding serial verb, main verb), finish (auxiliary, following serial verb, main verb) and fò (auxiliary, modal). An analysis which accounts for the facts in a more satisfactory (but perhaps less ‘constrained’) way than those put forward thus far is suggested to some extent by Agheyisi (1971:111) when she characterizes verbs which tend to follow other verbs in series as adverbial in nature.

There is in fact no reason not to extend this analysis to verbs that precede other verbs in serialized constructions as well (see the preceding examples involving the use of the verb tek). Verbs which tend to precede other verbs in series could then be said to occupy the preverbal adverbial slot and verbs which tend to follow other serialized verbs could be said to fill the postverbal adverbial slot (see 1.2.5.3). This analysis not only accounts for the adverb-like meanings commonly associated with serialized verbs, but it also explains the similarities among preceding serial verbs, preverbal adverbials and modals on the one hand and among following serial verbs, postverbal adverbials, postverbal auxiliaries and ideophones on the other hand. This analysis should allow us to identify clusters of serialized verbs, centred around one (or more?) head verb with the other verbs in each cluster modifying the head and occupying either the preverbal or postverbal adverbial position. This schema assumes a considerable amount of internal complexity in the preverbal and postverbal adverbial constituents (and perhaps in the head verb constituent itself):

(371) A [fit folo yù tek nyam put för bag]
1sP [be ableF+ follow+ 2oP take+ yam put+ p bag]
s [ preverbal adverbial constituent ]
[kari -am waka] [go rich haws give dém chop].
[carry+3oP walk+] [go+ reach+ house give+ 6s/oP eat+]
[ head verbs ] [ postverbal adverbial constituent ]
‘I can help you to put yams in the bags and then carry the bags with you to the house and give the yams to them to eat.’

1.3.1.2
Number of co-ordinators

At sentence level, and-coordination allows the use of one less co-ordinator than the number of conjuncts (in which case the first conjunct normally lacks a preceding co-ordinator), one co-ordinator only (in which case the co-ordinator is usually inserted between the last two conjuncts) or no co-ordinator at all. In some basilectal varieties, there may be as many co-ordinators as conjuncts in and-coordination constructions:

(372) A bay nyam ànd yù kót -am ànd im chop-am.
1sP buyF yam and 2sP cutF-3oP and 3sP eatF -3oP
‘I bought yams, you cut them and (s)he ate them.’

also acceptable:

A bay nyam yù kót-am ànd im chop-am.
A bay nyam yù kót-am im chop-am.
# And à bay nyam ànd yu kót-am ànd im chop-am.

At sentence level or-coordination allows the use of as many co-ordinators as conjuncts, one less co-ordinator than the number of conjuncts (in which case the first conjunct normally lacks a preceding co-ordinator) or one co-ordinator only (in which case the co-ordinator is usually inserted between the last two conjuncts). At least one co-ordinator must be used:

(373) Or à bay nyam òr yù kót -am òr im chop-am,
or 1sP buyF yam or 2sP cutF-3oP or 3sP eatF -3oP
‘I bought yams, you cut them or (s)he ate them.’

also acceptable:

A bay nyam òr yù kót-am òr im chop-am.
A bay nyam yù kót-am or im chop-am.

But-coordination allows the use of one co-ordinator only or no co-ordinator at all (see 1.3.1.1.2). This type of co-ordination is rare and the only cases attested in the data consist of two sentential conjuncts:

(374) A want go bòt mà màma no gri.
1sP wantF+ go+ but 1ps mother ng allowF
‘I want to go, but my mother refuses to allow it.’
1.3.1.3

Co-ordination of major sentence categories

Major sentence categories may be co-ordinated by means of and-coordination (as outlined in 1.3.1.1.1), or-coordination (as outlined in 1.3.1.1.3) or by means of verb serialization (as shown in 1.3.1.1.4). The constraints on the numbers of co-ordinators which may be used in each type of co-ordination construction at sentence level (see 1.3.1.2) apply at the level of major categories within the sentence as well.

1.3.1.3.1

Co-ordinating noun phrases

(375) and-coordination of noun phrases

Ibrahim kom bay nyam and gari and fish and mit.
Ibrahim +C buy yam and gari and fish and meat
‘Ibrahim bought yams, gari, fish and meat.’

also acceptable:

Ibrahim kom bay nyam gari fish and mit.
Ibrahim kom bay nyam gari fish mit.
#Ibrahim kom bay and nyam and gari and fish and mit.

(376) or-coordination of noun phrases

Ibrahim gò bay òr nyam òr gari òr fish òr mit.
Ibrahim −R buy or yam or gari or fish or meat
‘Ibrahim will buy yams, gari, fish or meat.’

also acceptable:

Ibrahim gò bay nyam òr gari òr fish òr mit.
Ibrahim gò bay nyam gari fish òr mit.

(377) serialized verb co-ordination of noun phrases

Ibrahim kom bay nyam bay gari bay fish bay mit.
Ibrahim +C buy+ yam buy+ gari buy+ fish buy+ meat
‘Ibrahim bought yams, gari, fish and meat.’

also acceptable:

Ibrahim kom bay nyam gari fish bay mit.
Ibrahim kom bay nyam bay gari fish mit.
Ibrahim kom bay nyam bay gari bay fish and mit.

Example (377) could also be interpreted as co-ordination of verb phrases.
1.3.1.3.2
Co-ordinating verb phrases

(378) **and-coordination of verb phrases**
A bay nyam ànd kot-am ànd chop-am.
1sP buyF yam and cutF-3oP and eatF-3oP
‘I bought yams, cut them and ate them.’

also acceptable:
A bay nyam kot-am ànd chop-am.
# And a bay nyam ànd kot-am ànd chop-am.

(379) **or-coordination of verb phrases**
Or a bay nyam òr kot-am òr chop-am,
or 1sP buyF yam or cutF-3oP or eatF-3oP
‘I bought yams, cut them or ate them.’

also acceptable:
A bay nyam òr kot-am òr chop-am.
A bay nyam kot-am òr chop-am.

(380) **serialized verb co-ordination of verb phrases**
A bay nyam kot-am chop-am.
1sP buyF+ yam cut+-3oP eat+-3oP
‘I bought yams, cut them and ate them.’

1.3.1.3.3.
Co-ordinating adverbial phrases

The co-ordination of adverbial phrases is discussed in 1.3.1.5.3.

1.3.1.4
Co-ordination and accompaniment

The co-ordinator *ànd* ‘and’ may be used to express accompaniment. In most acrolectal and mesolectal varieties, the preposition *wit* ‘with’ may also be employed for this purpose. Occasionally, *wit* is utilized as a co-ordinator in *and*-coordination constructions. The most common means used for expressing accompaniment is a serialized verb construction incorporating the verb *folo* ‘follow’ (see 1.3.1.1.4):

(381) Im gò folo dém dans.
3sP −R follow+ 6oP dance+
‘(S)he will dance with them.’
(382) Im gò dans wìt dèm.
3sP –R dance with 6sP
‘(S)he will dance with them.’

(383) Im ànd dèm gò dans.
3sP and 6sP –R dance
‘(S)he and they will dance.’

(384) Im wìt dèm gò dans.
3sP with 6sP –R dance
‘(S)he and they will dance.’

1.3.1.5
Structural parallelism in co-ordination

Sentences representing distinct speech act types are not usually co-ordinated, but co-ordinate interrogative, imperative and statement constructions freely occur (see 1.1.1.2.2.1.5 and 1.3.1.2). Although noun phrases are usually only co-ordinated with other noun phrases and verb phrases are only co-ordinated with other verb phrases, all types of adverbials may be found in a single co-ordinate construction (see 1.2.1.3.2 and 1.3.1.5.3).

1.3.1.5.1
Adjectives and participial constructions

As explained in 1.2.1.1.1, 1.1.2.2.6 and 2.1.4, there are no adjectives or participles in Nigerian Pidgin. Deverbal modifier nouns are normally not conjoined, except in the most acrolectal varieties.

1.3.1.5.2
Nouns and nominalized constructions

Nominalized constructions are rare (see 1.1.2.2.6). Deverbal (multifunctional) nouns and focalized nominalization constructions may be conjoined when they fill either the subject or the object slots:

(385) Nà [wàka go tawn] ànd [wòk fòr fam] wè had.
EI [walk+ go+/n town] and [work/n p farm] rcI be hardF
‘It is walking to town and working on the farm that is hard.’

1.3.1.5.3
Different types of adverbials and ideophones

In sentence-initial or sentence-final position, any type of adverbial may be co-ordinated with any other type of adverbial (see 1.2.1.3.2). Adverbs and ideophones can precede and/or follow adverbials in the same adverbial phrase, but no overtly marked co-ordinator may be used with them (see 1.2.3.2.1). Other types of adverbial may optionally take overtly marked co-ordinators in co-ordination constructions:
(386) \textit{adverb+adverb}
A chop sins tû.
1sP eatF long ago also
‘I ate long ago as well.’

(387) \textit{adverb+ideophone+ideophone}
A gö bit yù ègên gbumgbum gbudûm.
1sP –R beat 2oP again ipR ip
‘I will beat you again soundly.’

(388) \textit{adverb+ideophone+n phrase+p phrase+av clause}
A gö bit yù ègên gbudûm nayttâym (ànd) fòr moning
1sP –R beat 2oP again ip at night (and) p morning

(ànd) [bifô yù chop].
(and) [before 2sP eat]
‘I’ll beat you again soundly at night, in the morning and before you eat.’

1.3.1.5.4
Active verbs and passive verbs

An impersonal pseudopassive construction utilizing the sixth-person subject pronoun is the only means used to express the passive voice in Nigerian Pidgin (see 2.1.3.1.1). These impersonal passive structures can in most cases be co-ordinated with active structures:

(389) Dèm kol yù bôt yù no hyar.
6sP callF 2oP but 2sP ng hearF
‘You were called but you didn’t hear (it).’

1.3.1.5.5
Other verb categories

All verb categories allow co-ordination with overtly marked co-ordinators optionally present, except for modals and auxiliaries which do not allow any overtly marked co-ordinators:

(390) A fô dön fit bigîn àwàka (ànd) go.
1sP –R +C be able+ begin+ walk+ (and) go+
‘I would have been able to begin to walk away.’
1.3.2
Omission under co-ordination

1.3.2.1
Omission of sentence elements under co-ordination

Under the conditions described in this section, any sentence element may be omitted when it is identical to a preceding element in a single co-ordination construction.

Subjects. As shown in 1.3.1.1.4 and 1.3.1.3.2, identical subjects may be omitted under or-, and- or serialized verb co-ordination as long as the subject is overtly marked in the first sentence or verb phrase in the construction.

Objects. Once an object has been overtly marked in a co-ordination construction, identical objects may be either signalled by a pronoun or omitted entirely:

\[(391)\]
\[A \text{ tek nyam (ànd) pawnd (-am) (ànd) kip (-am).}\]
\[1sP \text{ takeF+ yam (and) pound+(-3oP) (and) keep+ (-3oP)}\]
\[‘I pounded the yam and stored it.’\]

Adverbials. A sentence-initial or sentence-final adverbial may modify all sentences in a single co-ordination construction if it occurs at the beginning or at the end of the construction. If the adverbial occurs in the middle of the construction, it tends to modify only the conjunct in which it is found and (more rarely) those conjuncts that follow:

\[(392)\]
\[F\text{ôr m}\text{oning wì boyl nyam pawnd -am kip.}\]
\[p\text{ morning 4sP boilF+ yam pound+-3oP keep+}\]
\[‘In the morning we boiled yams, pounded them and stored them.’\]

\[(393)\]
\[Wì boyl nyam pawnd -am kip f\text{ôr m}\text{oning.}\]
\[4sP \text{ boilF+ yam pound+-3oP keep+ p morning}\]
\[‘We boiled yams, pounded them and stored them in the morning.’\]

\[(394)\]
\[Wì boyl nyam pawnd -am f\text{ôr m}\text{oning kip}\]
\[4sP \text{ boilF+ yam pound+-3oP p morning keep+}\]
\[‘We boiled yams, pounded them in the morning and stored them.’\]

Verbs. When sentences or verb phrases in a co-ordination construction share the same verb, all instances of that verb may be omitted after the initial instance, as long as no other verb intervenes:

\[(395)\]
\[D\text{êm prîpê dî sup ànd dêm màma dî gârî.}\]
\[6sP \text{ prepareF ar soup and 6ps mother ar gari}\]
\[‘They prepared the soup and their mother the gari.’\]

As is the case for serialized verbs (see 1.3.1.1.4), any noninitial verb in a co-ordinate construction may take its tense/aspect/modality specifications from a preceding verb and all auxiliaries and modals which might otherwise have occurred with it may be omitted. The irrealis auxiliaries \(gò\) and \(fò\), the past auxiliary \(bìm\) and
the completive auxiliary *don* usually occur before the first verb in a co-ordinated construction (just as is the case for serialized constructions) although some violations of this constraint are attested.

### 1.3.3

**Omission of major category elements**

#### 1.3.3.1

**Omission of noun phrase elements**

All of the noun phrase elements listed in 1.2.5.1–3 (except for cardinal numbers) may be omitted when following an identical element in a co-ordinated noun phrase construction, as long as no nonidentical element of the same category intervenes:

*Elements of associative/possessive constructions*

(396) *possessed nouns*

\[
\text{[Eze (im) fam]} + \text{[Ade (im) fam]} = \text{[Eze Ade (dèm) fam]}
\]

\[
\text{[Eze (3ps) farm]} + \text{[Ade (3ps) farm]} = \text{[Eze Ade (6ps) farm]}
\]

‘Eze’s farm’ + ‘Ade’s farm’ = ‘Eze and Ade’s farm’

(397) *modified nouns*

\[
\text{[Igbo fam]} + \text{[Hausa fam]} = \text{[(ol) Igbo Hausa fam]}
\]

\[
\text{[Igbo farm]} + \text{[Hausa farm]} = \text{[(all) Igbo Hausa farm]}
\]

‘Igbo farms’ + ‘Hausa farms’ = ‘Igbo and Hausa farms’

(398) *possessor nouns*

\[
\text{[Eze (im) nyam]} + \text{[Eze (im) gàri]} = \text{[Eze (im) gàri]}
\]

\[
\text{[Eze (3ps) yam]} + \text{[Eze (3ps) gàri]} = \text{[Eze (3ps) gàri]}
\]

‘Eze’s yams’ + ‘Eze’s gàri’

\[
\text{[Eze (im) nyam (ànd) (im) gàri]} + \text{[Eze (3ps) yam (ànd) (3ps) gàri]} = \text{[Eze (im) nyam (ànd) (im) gàri]} + \text{[Eze (3ps) yam (ànd) (3ps) gàri]}
\]

‘Eze’s yams and gàri’

(399) *modifier nouns*

\[
\text{[Bini boy]} + \text{[Bini gəl]} = \text{[Bini boy and gəl]}
\]

\[
\text{[Bini boy]} + \text{[Bini girl]} = \text{[Bini boy and girl]}
\]

‘Bini boy’ + ‘Bini girl’ = ‘Bini boy and girl’

*Other noun phrase elements*

(400) *relative clauses*

\[
\text{di gəl [we kəm]} + \text{di boy [we kəm]} = \text{di boy [we kəm]}
\]

\[
\text{ar girl [rcI comeF]} + \text{ar boy [rcI comeF]} = \text{ar boy [rcI comeF]}
\]

‘the girl who came’ + ‘the boy who came’

\[
\text{di gəl ànd (di) boy [we kəm]} + \text{ar girl and (ar) boy [rcI comeF]}
\]

ar girl and (ar) boy [rcI comeF]
‘the girl and the boy who came’

(401) **possessive pronouns**

| màn yam | màn gàri | màn yam và gàri |
|———|———|———|
| 1ps yam | 1ps gari | 1ps yam và gari |
| ‘my yams’ | ‘my gari’ | ‘my yams and gari’ |

(402) **articles**

| dì yam | dì gàri | dì yam và gàri |
|———|———|———|
| ar yam | ar gari | ar yam và gari |
| ‘the yams’ | ‘the gari’ | ‘the yams and gari’ |

(403) **demonstratives**

| dat yam | dat gàri | dat yam và gàri |
|———|———|———|
| that yam | that gari | that yam và gari |
| ‘that yam’ | ‘that gari’ | ‘that yam and gari’ |

(404) **quantifiers**

| ich boy | ich gel | ich boy và gel |
|———|———|———|
| each boy | each girl | each boy và girl |
| ‘each boy’ | ‘each girl’ | ‘each boy and girl’ |

(405) **emphasis markers**

| nyam sef | gàri sef | nyam và gàri sef |
|———|———|———|
| yam E | gari E | yam và gari E |
| ‘even yams’ | ‘even gari’ | ‘even yams and gari’ |

(406) **focus markers and topicalizers**

| nà nyam ba | nà gàri ba | nà nyam và gàri ba |
|———|———|———|
| El yam T | El gari T | El yam và gari T |
| ‘it is yam’ | ‘it is gari’ | ‘it is yam and gari’ |

(407) **comparative/superlative/equative (serialized) objects**

| Im chop pas mà và im chop pas yù | = |
|———|———|
| 3sP eatF+ pass+ 1oP và 3sP eatF+ pass+ 2oP | ‘(S)he ate more than me and (s)he ate more than you’ |
| Im chop pas mà và yù | |
| 3sP eatF+ pass+ 1oP và 2oP | ‘(S)he ate more than me and you’ |

(408) **ordinal numbers**

| dì feste boy | dì feste gel | dì feste boy và gel |
|———|———|———|
| ar first boy | ar first girl | ar first boy và girl |
While identical cardinal numbers may not be omitted in co-ordination constructions, the nouns which they modify can be omitted under identity in a special construction that expresses approximate quantity:

(409) \[\textit{cardinal numbers}\]
\[
\begin{array}{lll}
\text{tu nyam} & + & \text{tre nyam} \\
\text{two yam} & + & \text{three yam} \\
\text{‘two yams’} & + & \text{‘three yams’}
\end{array}
= \begin{array}{l}
tu \text{tre nyam} \\
two \text{three yam} \\
two \text{or three yams’}
\end{array}
\]

1.3.3.2

\textit{Omission of adjectival phrase elements}

Adjective phrases do not exist in Nigerian Pidgin (see 1.1.2.2.6, 1.1.2.3.7 and 2.1.4).

1.3.3.3

\textit{Omission of adverbial phrase elements}

In co-ordination constructions, elements in adverbial noun phrases may be omitted, as shown in 1.3.3.1. The omission of elements in adverbial clauses follows the patterns outlined in 1.3.2.1 and 1.3.3.1. Objects of prepositions are not usually omitted, but identical prepositions can be omitted:

(410) \[\textit{prepositions:}\]
\[
\begin{array}{lll}
\text{fôr Legos} & + & \text{fôr Kano} \\
p \text{Lagos} & + & p \text{Kano} \\
‘\text{in Lagos’} & + & ‘\text{in Kano’}
\end{array}
= \begin{array}{l}
\text{fôr Legos and Kano} \\
p \text{Lagos and Kano} \\
‘\text{in Lagos and Kano’}
\end{array}
\]

1.4

\textit{NEGATION}

There is one general negative marker: \textit{no}. \textit{No} almost always bears an extra high pitch and may therefore be said to be inherently stressed (see 1.11.2.1 and 3.3.2.3). Agheyisi (1971:149) distinguishes between the general negative marker \textit{no} (pronounced with a close vowel) and the negative ‘interjection’ \textit{no} (pronounced with an open vowel). In the Port Harcourt dialect, no such distinction in vowel quality exists (see 1.1.1.2.4.2.1.1). Since Agheyisi devoted a major part of her study of Nigerian Pidgin to the negation process, her work will be used as a point of reference throughout this section.

1.4.1

\textit{Sentence negation}

Sentences are negated by placing the negative marker \textit{no} between the subject noun phrase and the verb phrase (see 1.2.5.3):

(411) \[\begin{array}{ll}
A \text{ bay nyam.} \\
1sP \text{ buyF yam}
\end{array}
\]

\[\begin{array}{ll}
A \text{ no bay nyam.} \\
1sP \text{ ng buyF yam}
\end{array}\]
There are two cases of negative-auxiliary fusion, *neva* (*no*+the completive auxiliary *don*) and *noò* (*no*+the irrealis auxiliary *gò*, see 2.1.3.6.12). *Neva* represents the product of a completed fusion process, since it replaces *no*+*don* in all environments:

\[(412)\]  
\[A \text{ neva bay nyam.} \quad *A \text{ no } \underline{\text{don}} \text{ bay nyam.}\]  
\[\text{1sP ng+C buy yam} \quad \text{‘I didn’t buy yams.’}\]

*Noò* on the other hand represents an ongoing process of coalescence, since it is used in variation with *no*+*gò* (see 3.4.3–4.):

\[(413)\]  
\[A \text{ noò bay nyam.} \quad A \text{ no } \underline{\text{gò}} \text{ bay nyam.}\]  
\[\text{1sP ng–R buy yam} \quad \text{1sP ng –R buy yam}\]  
\[\text{‘I will not buy yams.’} \quad \text{‘I will not buy yams.’}\]

When a sentence is negated, several polarity-sensitive items may occur in environments where they would not normally be found in affirmative sentences. The negative emphatic sentential adverbial *âtôl* (see 1.2.1.3.1.1) may be used only in negative sentences or alone as an expression of strong disagreement (see 1.1.1.2.4.2.1.1):

\[(414)\]  
\[\text{A: Abi yù bay nyam ?} \quad \text{B: Atôl. OR A no bay nyam àtôl.}\]  
\[\text{YNQ 2sP buy yam Qù} \quad \text{ngE 1sP ng buy yam ngE}\]  
\[\text{‘Did you buy yams?’} \quad \text{‘Not at all.’ OR ‘I didn’t buy yams at all.’}\]

Agheyisi (1971:154) observes that the adverbial clause introducer/preposition *sòte* ‘until’ is used with ‘point action verbs’ only in the negative:

\[(415)\]  
\[\text{Im no rich sòte nayt kom.} \quad *\text{Im rich sòte nayt kom}\]  
\[\text{3sP ng reachF until night comeF} \quad \text{‘(S)he didn’t arrive before night fell.’}\]

Although Agheyisi finds no evidence for the use of [eni(−)+noun] constructions in negative sentences to replace [nonspecific quantifier+noun] constructions in affirmative sentences in her midwest data, the Port Harcourt sample shows that a polarity-sensitive ‘some-any’ type rule has been a well established part of the Eastern repertoire for generations. All noun phrases which include a nonspecific quantifier tend to have that quantifier replaced by an [eni+noun] structure when they occur at some point in the sentence after the negative marker:
A bay som nyam.  A no bay eni nyam.
1sP buy some yam  1sP ng buy any yam
‘I bought some yams.’  ‘I didn’t buy any yams.’

A si sombodi.  A ng si enibodi.
1sP see somebody  1sP ng see anybody
‘I saw somebody.’  ‘I didn’t see anybody.’

1.4.2
Constituent negation
Agheyisi (1971:156) claims that there are no instances of constituent negation in Nigerian Pidgin. In this section several different types of ‘constituent negation’ will be described. The discrepancies between Agheyisi’s account of constituent negation in Nigerian Pidgin and the one adopted here have at least two sources: (a) Agheyisi uses an extremely restrictive definition of constituent negation and (b) Agheyisi’s midwestern data do not seem to include some of the constructions found in the Port Harcourt data, such as the [no+noun] construction outlined below. In his midwestern data, Obilade (1976:95) finds similar constructions to those found in the Port Harcourt sample. Obilade calls these [no+noun] constructions ‘negative article constructions’. Any sentence constituent except for an adverb may be negated by inserting it into a sentence-initial negative clefted focus construction introduced by (i) no bì (see 1.11.2.1.4.):

(418)  (I) no bi nyam we à bay för maket.
       (3sD) ng cvF yam rcI 1sP buyF p market
‘It is not yams that I bought in the market.’

(419)  (I) no bi för maket we à bay nyam.
       (3sD) ng cvF p market rcI 1sP buyF yam
‘It is not in the market that I bought yams.’

Any noun phrase constituent within a sentence may also be negated by fronting it to the position of a head noun phrase, preceding it with the negative marker no and following it with the rest of the original sentence in the form of a relative clause:

(420)  No maket (we) à gò tek bay nyam (för-am).
       ng market (rcI) 1sP –R takeV+ buy+ yam (p -3oP)
‘There is no market for me to buy yams (at).’

(421)  No pesin (we) gò bay nyam.
       ng person (rcI) –R buy yam
‘Nobody will buy yams.’

(422)  No kaynd pesin (we) gò bay nyam.
       ng kind/mn person (rcI) –R buy yam
‘No person of any sort will buy yams.’
The negative compound pronominals *nobodi* ‘nobody’ and *noting* ‘nothing’ may occur as the head nominal of this construction:

\[(423)\]
\[
\text{nobody (rcI) --R buy yam}
\]
‘Nobody will buy yams.’

\[\text{[eni+noun] constructions may be used either/both as part of the negated head nominal as well as in noun phrases in the following relative clause, in order to augment the force and/or the scope of the negation:}\]

\[(424)\]
\[
\text{any person (rcI) --R buy yam}
\]
‘No person of any sort will buy yams.’

\[(425)\]
\[
\text{any person (rcI) --R buy any thing}
\]
‘No person of any sort will buy anything.’

A very commonly employed means for negating individual constituents is to negate one of the verbs in a serialized verb construction (see 1.4.4):

\[(426)\]
\[
\text{take+ hand beat+ ar child (2sP --R take stick)}
\]
‘You will not use your hand to beat the child (you will use a stick).’

\[(427)\]
\[
\text{followF+ 2sP join+ car ng return+ come+ village}
\]
‘(S)he accompanied you in getting into the car (and) not returning to the village.’

In some lects, *no* may be placed directly before the verb and after all preverbal auxiliaries, resulting in such tokens as: *A bin no get mòto* ‘I didn’t have a car.’ Whether this process should be considered to be an instance of constituent negation or some type of ‘negative transportation’ movement process is an open question. In any case, this phenomenon seems to be restricted to upper mesolectal and acrolectal speech at present.

**1.4.3 More than one negative marker in a sentence**

When two or more negative markers occur in the same sentence, they negate one another, rather than augmenting the negative force of the entire sentence via some sort of negative concord or negative prosody construction:

\[(428)\]
\[
\text{market (rcI) 1sP ng --R take+ buy+ yam (p -3oP)}
\]
‘There is no market where I won’t buy yams.’
No eni pesisin (we) no go bay nyam.
ng any person (rcI) ng –R buy yam
‘No person of any sort will not buy yams.’

1.4.4

Negation of co-ordinate structures

In co-ordinate constructions, negative markers show no particular tendency to gravitate toward the co-
ordinator position and there are no special negative co-ordinator forms. The scope of the negative marker in
one clause of an or-, and- or but-coordination construction does not usually extend to any other clause in the
construction, no matter which position in the relative order of clauses it occupies. Each clause must
therefore be negated separately. Where the conjoined elements are not whole clauses, nonverbal conjuncts all
fall within the scope of any negative marker that operates over the verb for which they or the phrases to
which they belong serve as arguments:

(430) A no si yù ànd yù enta mòto.
1sP ng seeF 2oP and 2sP enterF car
‘I didn’t see you and you got into a car.’

also acceptable:

Yù enta mòto ànd à no si yù.

(431) Ade ànd Akpan no enta mòto.
Ade and Akpan ng enterF car
‘Ade and Akpan didn’t get into a car.’

(432) Yù no si mì fòr maket ànd fòr rod.
2sP ng seeF 1oP p market or p road
‘You didn’t see me in the market or on the road.’

When verb phrases are co-ordinated, the scope of a negative marker sometimes extends rightwards from the
verb phrase that it occupies:

(433) Yù no enta mòto ànd yù go tawn.
2sP ng enterF car and 2sP goF town
‘You didn’t get into a car and you went to town.’

(434) Yù no enta mòto (ànd) go tawn.
2sP ng enterE car (and) go+ town
‘You didn’t get into a car and go to town.’

The scope of negation in serialized verb constructions varies significantly with the semantics of the verbs
involved, stress/intonation and the use of polarity-sensitive items such as [eni+noun] constructions (see
1.4.1 and 1.4.2).
1.4.5. 
Negation of superordinate and subordinate clauses

The scope of a negative marker in one clause of a superordinate/subordinate structure does not extend to other clauses within that structure. A verb in one clause cannot be negated by the negation of a verb in another clause. The verb *tink* ‘think’ is rarely used in the negative before an object noun clause.

1.5 
ANAPHORA

1.5.1 
Means of expressing anaphora

The means employed for expressing anaphora include omission, personal, possessive, reflexive and anaphoric pronouns, numerals, demonstratives and a few proadverbials.

1.5.2 
Anaphora environments

1.5.2.1 
Anaphora within the clause

*Omission* is rare within clauses. The only consistent pattern which might be said to involve omission is the special second-person imperative (see 1.1.2.1.1):

\[(435)\]
\[
\begin{align*}
  \text{Mek yù fray dòdo!} & \quad \text{OR} \quad \text{Fray dòdo!} \\
  \text{SJcI 2sP frySJ plantain} & \quad \text{frySJ plantain} \\
  \text{‘Fry plantain!’} &
\end{align*}
\]

*Pronominal forms.* Emphatic and nonemphatic subject pronouns may be used to refer to a preceding noun subject in the same clause:

\[(436)\]
\[
\begin{align*}
  \text{Mà broda im go tawn.} & \quad \text{OR} \quad \text{Mà broda im go tawn.} \\
  \text{1ps brother 3EP goF town} & \quad \text{1ps brother 3sP goF town} \\
  \text{‘My brother went to town.’} &
\end{align*}
\]

Nonemphatic subject pronouns are also employed to refer to preceding emphatic subject pronouns:

\[(437)\]
\[
\begin{align*}
  \text{Mi à go tawn.} & \\
  \text{1EP 1sP goF town} & \quad \text{‘(As for me) I went to town.’}
\end{align*}
\]

In basilectal varieties, the third-person nonemphatic object pronoun *-am* follows the verb and precedes the object noun to which it refers. This pronoun *-am* could be considered to be a marker of transitivity in such cases (see 1.1.2.3.4):
(438) #A go pawnd-am nyam.
1sP →R pound-3oP yam.
‘I will pound yam.’

Possessive pronouns can refer to a preceding nominal within the same clause:

(439) Ade go plant im kasava.
Ade goF+ plant+ 3sP casava
‘Ade went to plant his casava.’

Possessive pronouns may be followed by the possessive pronominal form on ‘own’ in an associative/possessive construction with reference to a preceding or following noun or pronoun in the same clause:

(440) Dat pikín bì mà on.
that child cvF 1ps ps
‘That child is my own.’

Reflexive pronominals may be utilized to refer to a preceding noun or pronoun subject in the same clause:

(441) Đèm kom wund đèm sef.
6sP +R wound 6ps self
‘They hurt themselves.’

Numerals and demonstratives are used in clauses to refer to preceding or following nominals, although these uses may be considered to be only marginally anaphoric:

(442) Mà pikín bì dat won.
1ps child cvF that one
‘My child is that one.’ OR Mà pikín bì dat.
1ps child cvF that

Anaphoric sentential adverbials of manner may take the form of reduplicated numerals:

(443) A gò bit dì pikín won-won.
1sP →R beat ar child oneR
‘I will beat the children one by one.’

1.5.2.2
Anaphora between co-ordinate structures

Omission. Anaphoric omission of elements following identical elements in co-ordinate structures is very common. The constraints on this type of omission are outlined in sections 1.3.2–3. Serialized verb constructions could be considered to consist of verbs whose subjects have been omitted under identity (see 1.3.1.1.4).

Pronominal forms. All of the pronominal forms used to express anaphora within clauses are also utilized to show anaphora between co-ordinate clause structures:
(444) **emphatic subject pronouns**
Chinwe kot nyam ànd im pawnd pepe.
Chinwe cutF yam and 3EP poundF pepper
‘Chinwe cut yams and she pounded pepper.’

(445) **nonemphatic subject pronouns**
Chinwe kot nyam ànd im pawnd pepe.
Chinwe cutF yam and 3sP poundF pepper
‘Chinwe cut yams and she pounded pepper.’

(446) **object pronouns**
Chinwe kot nyam ànd im pawnd -am.
Chinwe cutF yam and 3sP poundF-3oP pepper
‘Chinwe cut yams and she pounded them.’

(447) **possessive pronouns**
Chinwe kot mà nyam ànd im pawnd im pepe.
Chinwe cutF 1ps yam and 3sP poundF 3ps pepper
‘Chinwe cut my yams and she pounded her pepper.’

(448) **possessive pronominals (on):**
Chinwe kgt im nyam and im pawnd ma on.
Chinwe cutF 3ps yam and 3sP poundF 1ps ps pepper
‘Chinwe cut her yams and she pounded mine.’

(449) **reflexive pronominals**
Chinwe kot nyam ànd kóm wund im sef.
Chinwe cutF yam and +R wound 3ps self
‘Chinwe cut yams and hurt herself.’

In serialized verb constructions, a single pronoun sometimes serves as both the object of a verb and the subject of a following verb (see 1.2.1.2.1 and 1.3.1.1.4):

(450) A kom bit yù kóm tél yò màma.
1sP +R beat 2s/oP +R tell 2ps mother
‘I beat you and you told your mother.’

Anaphora from one co-ordinate phrase structure to another is possible only with possessive pronominals and only where the pronominal follows the nominal to which it refers:

(451) Hálíma ànd im broda
Halima and 3ps brother
‘Halima and her brother’

(452) yò broda ànd mà on
2ps brother and 1ps ps
‘your brother and mine’

**Numerals and demonstratives.** Both numerals and demonstratives may be employed in a marginally anaphoric way in conjoined sentence and phrase structures:

(453)  
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Won mango } & \text{don regi bòt di qda (won) neva yelo.} \\
\text{One mango } & \text{+C be ripe but ar other (one) ng+C be yellow} \\
\text{‘One mango has ripened but the other (one) is not yet yellow.’}
\end{align*}
\]

(454)  
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{dis boy and di qda (tu)} \\
\text{this boy and ar other (two)} \\
\text{‘this boy and the other (two)’}
\end{align*}
\]

**Adverbials.** The adverbial pronominals such as *so* ‘in that way’ (manner), *dyar* ‘(over) there’ (place) and *den* ‘then’ (time) may refer anaphorically to an adverbial in a preceding conjoined sentence:

(455)  
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Dém dè chu gronòt won-won bòt wì no dè chu -am so.} \\
\text{6sP −C chew peanut oneR but 4sP ng −C chew-3oP so} \\
\text{‘They eat peanuts one by one but we don’t eat them in that way.’}
\end{align*}
\]

1.5.2.3  
**Anaphora in superordinate and subordinate clauses**

1.5.2.3.1  
Order: superordinate clause/subordinate clause

*Omission* is not available as a means to express anaphora in noun clauses. Any nominal element in a relative clause except for a prepositional object may be omitted when it is identical to the head nominal (see 1.1.2.3.4–7):

(456)  
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{relative clause subject} \\
\text{A chop di nyam we de tebul.} \\
\text{1sP eatF ar yam rcI cv table} \\
\text{‘I ate the yam that was on the table.’}
\end{align*}
\]

(457)  
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{relative clause object} \\
\text{A chop di nyam we yù pripyár.} \\
\text{1sP eatF ar yam rcI 2sP prepareF} \\
\text{‘I ate the yam that you prepared.’}
\end{align*}
\]

Headless relative clauses occur in a very restricted set of environments. In such cases the head nominal could be said to have been omitted or incorporated into the question-word at the beginning of the relative clause (see 1.1.2.3.6).
**Pronominal forms.** Any nominal element of a relative clause or a noun clause may be replaced by a pronominal form that refers anaphorically to a nominal in the preceding superordinate clause (see 1.1.2.2–4):

**Relative clauses.**

(458) *relative clause subject*
A chop dì nyam we ìm de tebul.
1sP eatF ar yam rcI 3sP cv table
‘I ate the yam that was on the table.’

(459) *relative clause object*
A chop dì nyam we yù pripyiar -am.
1sP eatF ar yam rcI 2sP prepareF-3oP
‘I ate the yam that you prepared.’

(460) *relative clause adverbial*
A si dì haws we yù dè slip fôr-am.
1sP seeF ar house rcI 2sP −C sleep p -3oP
‘I saw the house where you sleep.’

(461) *relative clause possessive pronoun*
A no dì wuman we ìm màma dön day.
1sP knowF ar woman rcI 3ps mother +C die
‘I know the woman whose mother died.’

(462) *relative clause possessive pronominal (on), relativized on subject*
A layk dì haws we bì mà on.
1sP likeF ar house rcI cvF 1ps ps
‘I like the house that is mine.’

(463) *relative clause reflexive pronominal, relativized on subject*
A sàbì di man we wund im sèf.
1sP knowF ar man rcI hurtF 3ps self
‘I know the man who hurt himself.’

A reduced form of the third-person nonemphatic subject pronoun *ì* tends to be used instead of *ìm* in relative clauses and (more rarely) in noun clauses:

(464) *relative clause subject*
A chop dì nyam we ì de tebul.
1sP eatF ar yam rcI 3sP cv table
‘I ate the yam that was on the table.’

In basilectal speech, *ì* tends to be used for many or all persons in relative clauses (see 1.1.2.3.4):
Noun clauses.

(466)  

\[\text{noun clause subject}\]

Ade tok se im don taya.
Ade talkF ncl 3sP +C be tired
‘Ade said that he was tired.’

(467)  

\[\text{noun clause object}\]

Ade tok se dem bit -am finish.
Ade talkE ncl 6sP beatF-3oP +C
‘Ade said that they beat him soundly.’

(468)  

\[\text{noun clause possessive pronoun}\]

Ade tok se dem bit im pikín finish.
Ade talkF ncl 6sP beat 3ps child +C
‘Ade said that they beat his child soundly.’

(469)  

\[\text{noun clause possessive pronominal (on)}\]

Yù tok för di haws se im bi yö on.
2sP talkF p ar house ncl 3sP cvF 2ps ps
‘You said at the house that it is yours.’

(470)  

\[\text{noun clause reflexive pronominal}\]

Di man tok se im wund im sef.
ar man talkF ncl 3ps hurtF 3ps self
‘The man said that he hurt himself.’

When an objectless verb occurs in a superordinate sentence of a noun clause construction it may optionally take a pronoun object which refers to the entire sentence contained in the following noun clause. This type of structure may be converted into a relative clause construction by replacing the noun clause introducer \textit{se} with the relative clause introducer \textit{we}, in which case the use of the object pronoun is no longer optional but obligatory, since it serves as the head nominal:

(471)  

A sàbi (-am) se dem bit yö pikín finish.
1sP knowF(-3oP) ncl 6sP beat 2ps child +C
‘I know that they beat your child soundly.’

(472)  

A sàbi -am we dem bit yö pikín finish.
1sP knowF-3oP ncl 6sP beat 2ps child +C
‘I know that they beat your child soundly.’
**Numerals and demonstratives** are rarely employed to express anaphora between superordinate and subordinate clauses. A few examples of this type of anaphora, however, are attested in the data:

(473)  
\[\text{Im giv dì boy ol dì buk se mek -am rid eni won.}\]  
\[3sP \text{giveF ar boy all ar book ncl SJcI-3oP read any one}\]  
‘(S)he gave the boy all the books, telling him to read any one.’

(474)  
\[\text{Im giv dì boy dì buk se mek -am rid đem won-won.}\]  
\[3sP \text{giveF ar boy ar book ncl SJcI-3oP read 6oP oneR}\]  
‘(S)he gave the boy the books, telling him to read them one by one.’

**Adverbials.** Proadverbials are occasionally utilized in subordinate clauses to refer anaphorically to adverbials in superordinate clauses:

(475)  
\[\text{Ade put ìm nyam fòr mòto se mek à put mà on dyar tù.}\]  
\[\text{Ade putF 3ps yam p car ncl SJcI 1sP put 1ps ps there also}\]  
‘Ade put his yams into the car so that I would put mine there also.’

1.5.2.3.2

Order: subordinate/superordinate clause

The same possibilities and constraints that are appropriate to anaphora in constructions consisting normally of a superordinate clause followed by a subordinate clause are appropriate as well to constructions such as the conditional construction, which usually consist of a subordinate clause followed by a superordinate clause (see 1.1.2.4.2.5):

(476)  
\[\text{If se im put im gàri fòr pot Ade go prìpyar-am.}\]  
\[\text{avcI ncl 3sP put 3sP gari p pot Ade -R prepare-3oP}\]  
‘If he (Ade) puts his gari in the pot, Ade will prepare it.’

A relative clause never precedes its nominal head. Noun clauses may sometimes be fronted in a topicalization construction. In such cases, all of the rules outlined in 1.5.2.3.1 still apply but in the opposite direction, with most of the omission, pronominal substitution, etc. still occurring in the subordinate clause, but with the antecedents mentioned afterwards, in the following superordinate clause:

(477)  
\[\text{Se mèk-am rid -am, nà im im giv dì boy dì buk.}\]  
\[\text{ncl SJcI-3oP read-3oP EI 3EP 3sP giveE ar boy ar book}\]  
‘So that he would read it, (s)he gave the boy the book.’

(478)  
\[\text{Se đèm bit mà pikìn finish, à sàbi (-am),}\]  
\[\text{ncl 6sP beat 1ps child +C 1sP knowF(-3oP)}\]  
‘They really beat my child, I know (it).’
1.5.2.4
Anaphora between different subordinate clauses

Anaphora between different subordinate clauses follows the patterns described in 1.2.5.3 with preceding subordinate clauses playing the role of superordinate clause in relation to any following subordinate clauses:

(479)  Im giv dì boy dì buk  
3sP giveF ar boy ar book  
se mek-am tek dì won we ìm layk (-am)  
ncI SJcl-3oP take ar one rcI 3sP likeF(-3oP)

se i gò bì im on we im gò tek skul ìm sef.  
ncl 3sP −R cv 3ps ps rcI 3sP −R takeV+ school/v 3ps self
‘(S)he gave the boy the books, telling him to take the one that he liked to be his own to teach himself with (it).’

1.5.2.5
Anaphora between different sentences

All of the possibilities for anaphora listed in sections 1.5.2.1–3 are available for anaphora between sentences as well, with fewer of the restrictions listed for smaller units.

Omission. Almost any item in a preceding sentence may be omitted in a following sentence, as shown for echo-questions and answers in sections 1.1.1.2.3–4.

Pronominal forms. All of the pronominals listed in the preceding sections are used extensively to express anaphora between sentences. The possessive pronominal on takes on the function of an indefinite or sentential pronoun in this environment:

(480)  Yù plan eni ting we yù gò plan.  
2sP plan any thing rcI 2sP −R plan  
Totis sef dön sàbi ìm on finish.  
tortoise E +C know 3ps ps +C  
‘You will plan anything you will plan. The tortoise him/herself has known his/her own already.’  
OR ‘No matter what you plan, the clever tortoise has already figured out how to outsmart you.’

(481)  A gò sho yù dì we wì dè graynd tûmato.  
1sP −R show 2oP ar way rcI 4sP −C grind tomato  
I ggt màshîn on hand on tù we yù gò jöst du-am.  
3SD haveF machine ps hand ps too rcI 2sP −R just do-3oP  
‘I will show you how we grind tomatoes. There is a machine method and a hand method to do it alone.’

Numerals, demonstratives and adverbials. All of the anaphoric uses of numerals, demonstratives and proadverbials illustrated in the preceding sections are available for the expression of anaphora between different sentences.
1.5.3
Anaphora and elements adjacent to clause introducers

Elements located adjacent to clause introducers undergo all of the processes discussed in sections 1.5.1–2 in the same way as do other elements. The only apparent exceptions to this general pattern are: (a) the omission/incorporation of the head noun in headless relative clause constructions (see 1.1.2.3.6 and 1.5.2.3.1) and (b) the constraint that disallows the omission of both the relative clause introducer *we* and the subject noun phrase of the same relative clause (see 1.1.2.3.1).

1.6
REFLEXIVES

1.6.1
Means of expressing reflexivity

1.6.1.1
Invariable reflexive pronoun

The form *bòdi* ‘body’ may be used as an invariable pronoun to express reflexivity, especially when the event it is associated with involves the physical body of the referent:

(482) A kɔm si bɔdi for glas.
1sP +R see body p glass
‘I saw my self in the mirror.’

1.6.1.2
Variable reflexive pronouns

Pronominal associative/possessive constructions, consisting of a possessive pronoun followed by *bòdi* ‘body’ or *sef* ‘self’, select one of the six possessive pronouns (see 2.1.2.4) to agree with the person and number specifications of the sentential subject when they are utilized as variable reflexive pronouns. In acrolectal speech, the forms including *sef* are employed more frequently than are the *bòdi* forms:

(483) A kɔm si mà bɔdi fɔr glas.
1sP +R see 1ps body p glass
‘I saw my self in the mirror.’

(484) A kɔm si mà sef fɔr glas.
1sP +R see 1ps self p glass
‘I saw my self in the mirror.’

In acrolectal varieties, a special complex associative/possessive construction, consisting of one of the six possessive pronouns followed first by the possessive pronounal *on* (see 2.1.2.4) and then by the possessed nominal element may be employed to express reflexive possession. This form is used mainly to disambiguate third and sixth person reference:
@Akpan no dè bit ìm on pikîn.
Akpan ng −C beat 3ps ps child
‘Akpan doesn’t beat his own children.’

1.6.1.3
Reflexive verbal affixes

There are no reflexive verbal affixes in Nigerian Pidgin.

1.6.1.4
Other means of expressing reflexivity

Certain verbs such as *baf* ‘bathe’ and *wund* ‘wound’ have an inherently reflexive meaning when they are used without a sentential object. This reflexive meaning is enhanced by the realis modality auxiliary *kom,* which may lend a passive sense to the assertion as well (see 2.1.3.1):

(486) A baf dì pikîn finish ànd à kom baf.
1sP batheF ar child +C and 1sP +R bathe
‘I bathed the child, then I bathed myself.’

(487) Mà pàpa kom wund.
1ps father +R hurt
‘My father hurt himself’ OR ‘My father was hurt.’

1.6.2–5
Position of reflexive pronominals and antecedents

A reflexive pronominal is in every case a semantic object (verbal or prepositional) of the clause for which its antecedent is the overt or understood semantic subject. All reflexive pronominals occupy a postverbal object slot of the clause in which they occur. An antecedent occupies the subject slot if it is found in the same clause as the reflexive pronominal which refers back to it. If the subject of the subordinate clause is not overtly expressed, the antecedent may occur in a clause which precedes the clause occupied by its reflexive pronominal, in which case the antecedent may occupy any sentential position available to noun phrases (see 1.2.5.3):

(488) antecedent/subject; reflexive/accusative object
Dì man bit bòdi.
ar man beatF body
‘The man beat himself.’

also acceptable:

Dì man bit im bòdi.
Dì man bit im sêf.
(489)  antecedent/subject; reflexive/prepositional object
Di man po wọta fọr bòdi.
ar man pourF water p body
‘The man poured water on himself.’

also acceptable:
Di man po wọta fọr im bòdi.
Di man po wọta fọr im sef.

(490)  antecedent/subject; reflexive/dative object
Di man giv im sef di mònì.
ar man giveF 3ps self ar money
‘The man gave himself the money.’

(491)  antecedent/subject; reflexive/stative verb object
Di man red bòdi.
ar man be redF body
‘The man reddened himself (with ceremonial chalk).’

also acceptable:
Di man red im bòdi.

(492)  antecedent/subject; reflexive/copular verb object
Di man bi im sef.
ar man cvF 3ps self
‘The man is himself.’

(493)  antecedent/accusative object; reflexive/accusative object
A si dì man we bit bòdi.
1sP seeF ar man rcl beatF body
‘I saw the man who beat himself.’

also acceptable:
A si dì man we bit im bòdi.
A si dì man we bit im sef.

(494)  antecedent/accusative object; reflexive/prepositional object
A si dì man we po wọta fọr bòdi.
A si dì man we po wọta fọr im bòdi.
A si dì man we po wọta fọr im sef.
‘I saw the man who poured water on himself"
(495)  *antecedent/accusative object; reflexive/dative object*

A si dì man w giw îm sèf dì mòni.
‘I saw the man who gave himself the money.’

(496)  *antecedent/accusative object; reflexive/stative verb object*

A si dì man w reg bòdi.
A si dì man w reg îm bòdi.
‘I saw the man who reddened himself (with chalk).’

(497)  *antecedent/accusative object; reflexive/copular verb object*

A si dì man w bi îm sèf.
‘I saw the man who is himself.’

All of the possible combinations of antecedent and reflexive positions listed in the preceding examples are acceptable as grammatical by native speakers of Nigerian Pidgin.

1.6.6
**Reflexives in nominalized clauses**

Reflexive pronouns may occur in clauses that have been nominalized in focus constructions (see 1.1.2.2.6):

(498)  Nà di man giw îm sèf dì mòni bì dat.
     EI ar man giveF 3ps self ar money cvF that
     ‘The man gave himself the money is what that is.’ OR ‘The fact is that the man gave himself the money.’

1.6.7
**Reflexive relations within noun phrases**

Beside the acrolectal use of reflexive possessive pronouns (see 1.6.1.2) and the special use of *on* as a nonspecific or sentential pronominal (see 1.5.2.5) reflexive relations do not normally exist within noun phrases.

1.6.8
**Reflexive pronouns without antecedents**

The only possible occurrences of reflexive pronouns without antecedents attested in the data are the instances where *on* is utilized as a nonspecific or sentential pronominal (see 1.5.2.5).
1.6.9
Other uses of reflexive pronominals

1.6.9.1
Emphasis marking

The emphasis marker sef (see 1.11.2.2) has exactly the same form and position as the item sef which follows the possessive pronouns to form reflexive pronominals (see 1.6.1.2). The emphatic use of sef could be considered to be an extension of its use in reflexive pronominals, or reflexive pronominals could be conceived of as a special type of emphasized noun phrase. Because it may form a noun phrase unto itself, an emphatic pronoun can be followed by sef in the same way as can any other noun phrase in the language:

(499) Yu sef kom giv yò sef ol di mòni.
2EP E +R give 2ps self all ar money
‘You (and nobody else) gave yourself all the money.’

1.7
RECIPROCALS

1.7.1
Means of expressing reciprocity

1.7.1.1
Invariable reciprocal pronominals

In acrolectal speech, the forms ich oda ‘each other’ and won ànoda ‘one another’ are employed to express reciprocity:

(500) @Dém kom laf ich oda.
6sP +R laugh each other
‘They laughed at each other.’

1.7.1.2
Variable reciprocal pronominals

Any of the plural emphatic subject pronouns may be reduplicated and used in object and/or subject position to show reciprocity:

(501) Wi-wi kom wund wi-wi.
4EPR +R hurt 4EPR
‘We hurt one another/each other.’

also acceptable:
Reflexive *sef* pronominals (see 1.6.1.2) are occasionally utilized in object position with a reciprocal meaning:

(502) Dèm layk dèm *sef*.
    6sP likeF 6ps self
    ‘They like one another/each other.’

When a *sef* pronominal fills an object position and expresses reciprocity, a reduplicated reciprocal pronoun may optionally fill the subject slot of the same clause:

(503) Dèm-dèm no dè bit dèm *sef*.
    6EPR ng −C beat 6ps ps
    ‘They don’t beat one another/each other.’

1.7.1.3 Reciprocal verbal affixes

There are no reciprocal verbal affixes in Nigerian Pidgin.

1.7.1.4 Other means of expressing reciprocity

Certain verbs such as *kos* ‘curse’ and *fayt* ‘fight’ have an inherently reciprocal meaning when they are used without a sentential object:

(504) Dèm bìgîn *kos* ànd dèm *kôm* *fayt*.
    6sP beginF+ curse+ and 6sP +R fight
    ‘They started to swear at each other and then fought each other.’

1.7.2–5 Position of reciprocal pronominals and antecedents

A reciprocal pronominal is normally a semantic object (verbal or prepositional) of the clause for which its antecedent is the semantic subject. The only exception to this general pattern is the relatively rare instance where a reduplicated emphatic reciprocal pronominal occurs in subject position, in which case the antecedent may act as a signal for reciprocity along with the object pronominal. All nonsubject reciprocal pronominals occupy a postverbal object slot of the clause in which they occur. An antecedent occupies the subject slot if it is found in the same clause as the reciprocal pronominal which refers back to it. An antecedent may occur in a clause which precedes the clause occupied by its reciprocal pronominal, in which case the antecedent may occupy any sentential position available to noun phrases (see 1.2.5.3):

(505) antecedent/subject; reciprocal/accusative object
Di man dém bit dém-dem.
ar man pl beatF 6EPR
‘The men beat one another/each other.’

also acceptable:

Dem-dem bit dém-dem.
Dem-dem bit dém sef.
Di màn dém bit dém sef.
@Di màn dém bit ich òda.
@Di màn dém bit won ànoda.

The same possibilities exist for reciprocal relations as exist for reflexive relations, except that reciprocal pronominals may not fill the object slot after copular verbs. Setting instances of copular objects aside, then, all of the example sentences under 1.6.2–5. could have their subjects pluralized and their reflexive elements replaced by reciprocal pronominals.

1.7.6
Reciprocals in nominalized clauses

Reciprocal pronominals may occur in clauses that have been nominalized in focus constructions (see 1.1.2.2.6):

(506)  Nà únà giv únà-ùnà móni bì dì problem.
EI 5sP giveF 5EPR money cvF ar problem
‘That you gave one another money is the problem.’

1.7.7
Reciprocal relations within noun phrases

Beside the acrolectal use of the reciprocal pronominals ich òda and won ànoda (see 1.7.1.2) in associative/possessive constructions, reflexive relations do not normally exist within noun phrases:

(507)  @Dèm no dè bit ich òda pikín dém.
6sP ng –C beat each other child pl
‘They don’t beat one another’s/each other’s children.’

1.7.8
Reciprocal pronominals without antecedents

Reciprocal pronominals without antecedents are not attested in the data.
1.7.9
Other uses of reciprocal pronominals

Reciprocal pronominals are not used for any other purpose than to express reciprocity.

1.8
COMPARISON

1.8.1
Means of expressing comparison

1.8.1.1–3
Comparative elements and particles

There are no elements, particles or constructions used exclusively for comparison or for equatives. The only means regularly employed to express comparative and equative relations is verb serialization (see 1.8.1.4.2).

1.8.1.4
Other means of expressing comparison

1.8.1.4.1
Verbs with an inherently comparative meaning

Some verbs such as fest ‘be first’ or sinyo ‘be older’ have an inherently comparative meaning, and therefore an implicit comparative relation is expressed when they are used:

(508) Nà mi fest yù kom.
EI 1EP be firstF+ 2oP come+
‘It is I who came before you.’ OR ‘I came earlier than you.’

(509) A sinyo Akpan, sinyo ol mà broda dém.
1sP be olderF+ Akpan be older+ all 1ps brother pl
‘I am older than Akpan. I am the oldest of all of my siblings.’

The verb bèta ‘be very good’ and the adverbial mo ‘very much’ are not normally used to show comparison, despite their resemblance to the Nigerian Standard English comparative forms better and more:

(510) A no get bèta pikín.
1sP ng haveF be very good/mn child
Dèm just −C trouble very much
‘I don’t have very good children. They just make trouble a lot.’
Comparative and superlative relations are expressed principally through the use of regular serialized verb constructions (see 1.3.1.1.4 and 2.1.3.7). In comparative and superlative serialized verb constructions, the verb *pas* ‘(sur)pass’ follows the verb phrase that sets the parameter for comparison and is itself followed by an object that sets the standard of comparison:

(511)  
Chinwe [get sens] pas [yu]  
Chinwe [haveF+ sense] pass+ [2EP]  
[parameter] [standard]  
‘Chinwe has more sense than you.’ OR ‘Chinwe is smarter than you.’

Since there is no category ‘adjective’ in Nigerian Pidgin and because most adjectival functions are fulfilled by stative verbs, there is no need to distinguish between adverbial and adjectival comparison in the language: both types of comparison are expressed in exactly the same way:

(512)  
1sP [−R work+] pass+ [2EP]  
‘I will work more than you.’

(513)  
A [gò big] pas [yu].  
1sP [−R be big+] pass+ [2EP]  
‘I will be bigger than you.’

(514)  
A gò wôk [kwik] pas [yu].  
1sP [−R work+ [be quick+] pass+ [2EP]  
‘I will work more quickly than you.’

(515)  
A gò big [kwik] pas [yu].  
1sP [−R be big+ [be quick+] pass+ [2EP]  
‘I will get big more quickly than you.’

Where context permits, the parameter-setting verb that normally precedes *pas* in series may be omitted:

(516)  
Yò pikîn [plenti] pas [mà on].  
2ps child [be plentyF+] pass+ [1ps ps]  
‘Your children are more numerous than mine.’ OR ‘You have more children than I.’

(517)  
Yù get nayn pikîn ò. Yò pikîn dön pas [mà on].  
2sP haveF+ nine child Ef 2ps child +C pass [1ps ps]  
‘You have nine children! Your children have become more numerous than mine.’ OR ‘You have nine children! You have more children than I.’

Another possible permutation affecting the parameter-setting verb which is sometimes mentioned in the literature (but is not attested in the Port Harcourt data) involves the nominalization of the parameter-setting
verb phrase and its incorporation into a prepositional phrase which usually occupies the sentence-final adverbial slot (see 1.2.5.3):

     1sP [be bigF+] pass+ [2EP] p be big/n
     ‘I am bigger than you.’

Superlative relations are expressed in one of two ways: (a) the standard-setting object position can be filled by a noun phrase whose referent is the entire set of relevant candidates for the standard; or (b) the standard can be omitted entirely:

(519) Audu [big] pas [ol].
     Audu [be bigF+] pass+ [all]
     ‘Audu is (the) biggest of all.’

(520) Uche ron [kwik] pas.
     Uche runF+ [be quick+] pass+
     ‘Uche ran (the) quickest.’

1.8.2–4
Omission of elements in comparative structures

Because comparative structures are serialized verb constructions, exactly the same patterns outlined in section 1.3 for omission under identity in serialized verb co-ordination and other co-ordination constructions are appropriate as well to comparative constructions. Special cases of parameter-setting verb omission and of standard-setting object omission are discussed in section 1.8.1.4.2.

1.8.5
Differences between comparative structure types

Comparative structures are all serialized verb constructions and they may therefore be said to be all of the same type.

1.8.6
Correlative comparison

Correlative comparison is expressed by the juxtaposition of two comparative serialized verb constructions, each of which has undergone focalization of the standard-setting object of pas, which is replaced by the proadverbial so and inserted into a sentence-initial clefted focus construction (see 1.11.2.1.4):

(521) Nà so yù gò big pas, nà so yù gò strong pas.
     EI so 2sP –R be big+ pass+ EI so 2sP –R be strong+ pass+
     ‘The bigger you get, the stronger you will be(come).’
1.9
EQUATIVES

1.9.1
Means of expressing equatives

1.9.1.1–3
Equative elements and particles

There are no elements, particles or constructions used exclusively for comparison or for equatives. The only means regularly employed to express comparative and equative relations is verb serialization (see 1.9.1.4.2).

1.9.1.4
Other means of expressing equatives

1.9.1.4.1
Verbs with an inherently equative meaning

Copular verbs, especially the copular extension làyk (see 1.2.1.1.6.9), have an inherently equative meaning, and therefore an implicit equative relation is expressed when they are used:

(522)  Di gàri bi làyk sànsan fôr grawnd ò.
        ar gari cvF cx sand p ground Ef
       'The gari is like sand.' OR 'There is as much gari as there is sand on the ground.' OR 'Gari is plentiful.'

1.9.1.4.2
Equatives expressed by means of serialized verbs

Equative relations are expressed principally through the use of regular serialized verb constructions (see 1.3.1.1.4 and 2.1.3.7). In equative serialized verb constructions, the verb rich ‘arrive’ follows the verb phrase that sets the equative parameter and is itself followed by an object that sets the equative standard:

(523)  Chinwe [get sens] rich [yu].
        Chinwe [haveF+ sense] reach+ [2EP]
        [parameter] [standard]
       'Chinwe has as much sense as you.' OR 'Chinwe is as smart as you.'

Since there is no category ‘adjective’ in Nigerian Pidgin and because most adjectival functions are fulfilled by stative verbs, there is no need to distinguish between adverbial and adjectival equatives in the language: both equative types are expressed in exactly the same way:

Where context permits, the parameter-setting verb that normally precedes *rich* in series may be omitted:

(528) Yò pikîn [plenti] rich [mà on].
2ps child [be plentyF+] reach+ [1ps ps]
‘Your children are as numerous as mine.’ OR ‘You have as many children as I.’

(529) Yù get nayn pikîn ò. Yò pikîn dòn rich [mà on].
2sP haveF+ nine child Ef 2ps child +C reach+ [1ps ps]
‘You have nine children! Your children have become as numerous as mine.’ OR ‘You have nine children! You have as many children as I.’

Another possible permutation affecting the parameter-setting verb which is sometimes mentioned in the literature (but is not attested in the Port Harcourt data) involves the nominalization of the parameter-setting verb phrase and its incorporation into a prepositional phrase which usually occupies the sentence-final adverbial slot (see 1.2.5.3):

1sP [be bigF+] reach+ [2EP] p be big/n
‘I am as big as you.’

It is possible to omit the standard-setting object of *rich* in order to express adequacy or satisfaction of some norm-determined expectation:

1sP [be bigF+] reach+
‘I am big enough.’ OR ‘I am old enough.’
1.9.2–4
Omission of elements in equative structures

Because equative structures are serialized verb constructions, exactly the same patterns outlined in section 1.3 for omission under identity in serialized verb co-ordination and other co-ordination constructions are appropriate as well to equative constructions. Special cases of parameter-setting verb omission and of standard-setting object omission are discussed in section 1.9.1.4.2.

1.9.5
Differences between equative structure types

Equative structures are all serialized verb constructions and they may therefore be said to be all of the same type.

1.9.6
Correlative equatives

Correlative equative relations are expressed by the juxtaposition of two equative serialized verb constructions, each of which has undergone focalization of the standard-setting object of *rich*, which is replaced by the proadverbial *so* and inserted into a sentence-initial clefted focus construction (see 1.11.2.1.4). *Rich* itself is more often than not omitted from one or both terms of a correlative equative structure:

(532) Nà so ýù gò big (rich), nà so ýù gò str (rich).
    EI so 2sP −R be big+ (reach+) EI so 2sP −R be strong+ (reach+)
    ‘You will be as strong as you will be big.’ OR ‘You will only be as strong as your size permits.’

1.10
POSSESSION

1.10.1
Sentences expressing possession

The principal means used for expressing possessive relations is the associative/possessive noun phrase, which is described and exemplified in detail in section 1.2.5.1.1. Within associative/possessive noun phrases, possessive pronouns corresponding to the six pronominal persons and a general possessive pronoun *on* are commonly used to show possession (see 2.1.2.4).

At sentence level, the verbs *get* ‘have’ and *hold* ‘hold, have’ are employed to establish a possessive relation (see 1.10.3):

(533) A get won buk.
     1sP haveF one book
    ‘I have a book.’ OR
    ‘I own a book.’

OR

A hold won buk.
     1sP holdF one book
    ‘I have a book.’ OR
    ‘I am keeping someone’s book.’
Get is also used impersonally as a copular verb to show quantity or existence in time (see 1.2.1.6.7–8).

1.10.2
Alienable vs. inalienable possession

A distinction between alienable and inalienable possession is made only in the case of body parts and a few other relatively inalienable items such as haws ‘house’ where the use of possessive pronouns to show possession is optional if the possessor is the sentential subject. The use of bòdi ‘body’, both with and without a possessive pronoun, as a reflexive marker could be seen as an example of this pattern (see 1.6.1.1–2):

(534) A kôm dêti mà kôp.  
1sP +R be dirty 1ps cup  
‘I soiled my cup.’

A kôm dêti kôp.  
1sP +R be dirty cup  
‘I soiled a cup.’

(535) A kôm dêti mà hand.  
1sP −R be dirty 1ps hand  
‘I soiled my hand(s).’

A kôm dêti hand.  
1sP −R be dirty hand  
‘I soiled my hand(s).’

1.10.3
Temporary vs. permanent possession

Get is used to show permanent possession or ownership, while hold shows temporary possession or guardianship (see 1.10.1).

1.10.4
Possession and the animacy hierarchy

With the exception of the very marginal distinction made between alienable and inalienable possession (see 1.10.2) there is little or no difference made in the expression of possession according to the degree of animacy of either the possessor or the possessed element.

1.10.5
Possession and tense/aspect/modality

Verbs which are utilized to show possession may be used with any of the tense/aspect/modality markers available to other verbs in the language.
1.11
EMPHASIS/FOCUS

1.11.1
Sentence emphasis

1.11.1.1–2
Sentence emphasis/focus

Sentences are emphasized or focused by all of the same means as constituents, and are therefore treated together with them in 1.11.2.1.

1.11.2
Emphasis of sentences and constituents

1.11.2.1
Means of expressing emphasis/focus of sentences and constituents

1.11.2.1.1
Stress/accent

All types of stress normally involve a peak in prominence which usually consists of a higher level of pitch and an increased rate of pitch change over an expanded range (optionally accompanied by an increase in perceived length and loudness) over one or several of the component syllables of the stressed unit (see Faracles 1985b).

Sentence stress under emphasis/focus. Under normal sentence stress, one phrase stress group within each sentence is selected to receive extra stress prominence over the syllables within that group which bear the phrase stress. The level, slope and range of pitch and the amount of length and perceived loudness associated with these syllables can be increased under both noncontradictory and contradictory emphatic stress. Emphatic stress may also lead to a general widening of the range of pitch which defines the intonation melody over the entire sentence.

Clause stress under emphasis/focus. When a clause is assigned emphatic stress of any kind within a sentence, a peak of prominence normally occurs over its initial syllables and may involve the resetting of the intonation register as if the entire sentence were beginning anew (see 1.1.1.1 and 1.1.2.1).

Constituent stress under emphasis/focus. The parsing of sentences into stress groups determines the number of phrase stresses over each sentence (there is one phrase stress per phrase stress group—see 3.3.2). Any major constituent within a sentence can be focused either noncontrastively or contrastively by separating it off from the rest of the sentence as a distinct phrase group. Each phrase stress group receives a peak of pitch prominence over one or several syllables, which is often accompanied by extra length and/or perceived loudness.

Inherently focused items. Some elements almost invariably attract the prominence peak of the stress group to which they belong. These include most of the emphatic pronouns and the grammatical markers for such inherently focused functions as interrogation (see 1.1.1.2.2.4–5) negation (see 1.4) and the imperative (see 1.1.1.3). Compound stress seems to be closely related to inherent stress and most of the
lexical items that normally function as the final element of a compound such as *ples* ‘place’, *taym* ‘time’, *man* ‘man’, *sayd* ‘side’, etc. (see 2.2.6.3) normally attract phrase stress in all environments and may therefore be considered to be inherently focused.

1.11.2.1.2
Particles

The emphasis marker *sef* may follow a sentence or a constituent in order to signal that the sentence constituent is noncontradictorily or contradictorily emphasized or that the constituent is contrastively or noncontrastively focused. The sentence-final particle *ò* has an emphatic marking function and may be used in the same environments as *sef*, but *ò* adds other meanings such as empathy, solidarity and realis modality to the assertion as well (see 2.1.8):

(536) *noncontradictory sentence emphasis/focus*

> Im sel gàri fôr makêt *sef*.
> 3sP sellF gari p market E
> ‘(It was even the case that) (s)he sold gari in the market.’

also acceptable:

> Im sel gàri fôr makêt *ò*.

(537) *contradictory sentence emphasis/focus*

> Im no sel gàri fôr makêt *sef*. Im bay nyam.
> 3sP ng sellF gari p market E 3sP buyF yam
> ‘(It was not the case that) (s)he sold gari in the market. (S)he bought yams.’

also acceptable:

> Im no sel gàri fôr makêt *ò*. Im bay nyam.

The flexibility of emphatic scope that characterizes both *sef* and *ò* is illustrated by the fact that both the *sef* and the *ò* versions of the two preceding examples could be interpreted as cases of adverbial constituent focus with the following alternative glosses:

> Im sel gàri fôr makêt *sef*.
> Im sel gàri fôr makêt *ò*.
> ‘(S)he sold gari even in the market.’
> Im no sel gàri fôr makêt *sef*. Im sel gàri fôr rod.
> Im no sel gàri fôr makêt *ò*. Im sel gàri fôr rod.
> ‘(S)he didn’t sell gari in the market. (S)he sold gari on the road.’

(538) *noncontrastive constituent emphasis/focus*

> Im sel gàri *sef* fôr makêt.
> 3sP sellF gari E p market
‘(S)he sold even garri in the market.’

also acceptable:

Im sël gàìrí ò fôr māket.

(539) contrastive constituent emphasis/focus

Im no sël gàìrí sêf fôr māket. Im sël nyam.
3sP ng sellF garri E p market 3sP sellF yam
‘(S)he didn’t sell garri in the market. She sold yams.’

also acceptable:

Im no sël gàìrí ò fôr māket. Im sël nyam.

1.11.2.1.3
Movement of emphasized element without dislocation

1.11.2.1.3.1–4 Movement without dislocation Movement without dislocation is not normally used for emphasis/focus in Nigerian Pidgin.

1.11.2.1.4
Clefting

Clefting is probably the most commonly employed means for signalling emphasis/focus in the language. Clefted sentences can be used to show either noncontradictory or contradictory emphasis in sentences or noncontrastive or contrastive constituent focus. Clefted sentences begin with the focus introducers nà (in the affirmative) or (i) no bì (in the negative) which immediately precede the focused sentence or constituent which itself serves as the head nominal for a relative clause which follows. Any focused sentence within a cleft emphasis/focus construction may optionally be preceded by the noun clause introducer se. An additional cleft-like option available only for the contradictory emphasis of entire sentences involves a construction that consists of (i) no bì followed this time by a noun clause:

(540) noncontradictory sentence or clause emphasis/focus

I wàhala mì se im bay nyam. OR
3sD troubleF 1oP ncl 3sP buyF yam
Nà im bay nyam we wàhala mi.
El 3sP buyF yam rcl troubleF 1oP
‘It bothers me that (s)he bought yams.’ ‘It’s that (s)he bought yams that bothers me.’

(541) contradictory sentence or clause emphasis/focus

I no wàhala mì se îm bay nyam. OR
3sD ng troubleF 1oP ncl 3sP buyF yam
‘It doesn’t bother me that (s)he bought yams.’
(I) no bì îm bay nyam we wàhala mi. OR
(3sD) ng cvF 3sP buyF yam rcI troubleF 1oP
‘It’s not that (s)he bought yams that bothers me.’
(I) no bi se ȋm bay nyam ʷe wâhala mȋ.
(3sD) ng cvF ncI 3sP buyF yam rcI troubleF 1oP
‘It’s not that (s)he bought yams that bothers me.’

(542)  
noncontrastive/contrastive constituent emphasis/focus
Nà nyam ʷe ȋm bay för maket.
EI yam rcI 3sP buyF p market
‘It’s yams that (s)he bought in the market.’

(543)  
contrastive constituent emphasis/focus only
I no bi nyam ʷe ȋm bay för maket.
3sD ng cvF yam rcI 3sP buyF p market
‘It’s not yams that (s)he bought in the market.’

1.11.2.1.5
Pseudoclefting

Pseudocleft emphasis/focus constructions may be utilized in place of any cleft emphasis/focus construction. A pseudocleft emphasis/focus construction begins with the focused sentence or constituent which is followed by one of the cleft emphasis/focus constructions listed in 1.11.2.1.4, in which a generic pronominal noun such as ting ‘thing’, ples ‘place’ or taym ‘time’ replaces the focused item after the focus introducer. Because a subject precedes the focus introducer in pseudocleft structures, the copular form bì can optionally replace nà:

(544)  
noncontradictory sentence or clause emphasis/focus
(Se) ȋm bay nyam nà ȋ di ting ʷe wâhala mȋ.
(ncI) 3sP buyF yam EI ar thing rcI troubleF 1oP
‘That (s)he bought yams is the thing that bothers me.’

(545)  
contradictory sentence or clause emphasis/focus
(Se) ȋm bay nyam no bi ȋ di ting ʷe wâhala mȋ.
(ncI) 3sP buyF yam ng cvF ar thing rcI troubleF 1oP
‘That (s)he bought yams is not the thing that bothers me.’

(546)  
noncontrastive/contrastive constituent emphasis/focus
Niyam nà ȋ di ting ʷe ȋm bay för maket.
yam EI ar thing rcI 3sP buyF p market
‘Yams are the thing that (s)he bought in the market.’

(547)  
contrastive constituent emphasis/focus only
Nyam no bi ȋ di ting ʷe ȋm bay för maket.
yam ng cvF ar thing rcI 3sP buyF p market
‘Yams are not the thing that (s)he bought in the market.’
1.11.2.1.6
Dislocation of emphasized elements

1.11.2.1.6.1–3 Dislocation Dislocation is employed primarily for topicalization in Nigerian Pidgin (see 1.12.1.3). Focused items may themselves be dislocated, however, in complex topicalized focus constructions (see 1.2.5.3).

1.11.2.1.7
Other possibilities

Repetition and reduplication. Groups of words (including entire sentences) may be repeated or syllables and single words may be reduplicated to show noncontradictory sentence emphasis or noncontrastive constituent emphasis (see 2.2.6.3).

Cognate objects. Verbs can be noncontrastively emphasized or focused when they are followed by deverbal objects derived from themselves (cognate objects, see 1.2.1.2.2). It is often difficult to distinguish cognate object constructions from reduplicated items, although the suprasegmental properties of some reduplicated forms differ from those of cognate object constructions (see 2.2.6.3).

Relativization. Relativized elements often carry some emphatic force, due to the fact that they serve as head nominals (see 1.1.2.3).

Auxiliaries. Some auxiliaries such as the completive postverbal auxiliaries finish and taya lend an emphatic meaning to the verb phrase in which they occur. The auxiliary combination (don+dè) is often used to emphasize the fact that an event (especially a stative event) has fully unfolded:

ar food be tasty before now ar thing +C −C be smelly
‘The food was delicious before. Now it is putrid.’

Ideophones lend a high degree of emphatic force to the verb phrases and the sentences where they are used (see 1.2.1.3.1.1).

1.11.2.1.8
Combinations of methods of emphasis/focus

Almost any combination of the means for emphasizing or focusing sentences and constituents listed above is possible:

(549) Nà wákàwaka we mi sêf ̀ò à don dè wàkà ol dis
EI walk/nR rcI IEP E Ef 1sP +C −C walk all this
kaynd wàkà taya pyùmpyum.
kind walk/n +C ipR
‘It is walking, walking that me, I have surely walked all of this kind of walking exhaustively on and on.’ OR ‘I have done nothing but walk.’
1.11.2.2 Elements which may be emphasized or focused

1.11.2.2.1 Constituents eligible for emphasis

1.11.2.2.1.1 Noun phrases
Noun phrases may be emphasized or focused by any of the means listed in 1.11.2.1, excepting auxiliaries, ideophones and cognate objects, which modify verbs or entire sentences, rather than nouns.

1.11.2.2.1.2 Adjectives
Adjectives do not exist in Nigerian Pidgin (see 2.1.4, 1.2.1.1.1 and 1.2.5.1.1). Stative verbs take the same emphasis/focus markers as do other verbs. Deverbal nouns that follow copulas can be emphasized or focused in exactly the same way as can other nouns. Deverbal modifier nouns are emphasized or focused as are other nonhead constituents of noun phrases.

1.11.2.2.1.3 Verbs
All of the means for signalling emphasis/focus which are listed in 1.11.2.1 are accessible to verbs, excepting the cleft and the pseudocleft constructions. In order to focus verbs in a cleft or pseudocleft sentence, a reduplicated or cognate object form of the verb must be available for fronting (or movement to sentence-initial position, see Aikhionbare and Chumbow 1982). The verb itself may not be moved or omitted from its original clause:

(550) Nà wàka wè à wàka, à no ròn.
EI walk/n rcI 1sP walkF 1sP ng runF
‘I walked, I didn’t run.’

* Nà wàka wè, à no ròn.

1.11.2.2.1.4 Adverbials
Noun phrase adverbials and prepositional phrase adverbials. Noun phrase adverbials are emphasized or focused in exactly the same way as are other noun phrases in the language. Prepositional phrase adverbials also follow general noun phrase patterns:

(551) (Fòr) moning nà dì taym we ìm bay nyam.
(p) morning EI ar time rcI 3sP buyF yam
‘(In the) morning is the time that (s)he bought yams.’
also acceptable:

Nà (fòr) moning we ìm bay nyam.

Adverbial clauses undergo emphasis/focus by all of the methods listed for sentences and clauses in 1.11.2.1.

Adverbs are normally never emphasized or focused: a few sporadic instances of stressed items such as stil ‘still’ and reduplicated items such as tu-tu ‘too much, very much’ are attested preverbally, however. Sentential adverbs are often followed by sef or ò, but in such cases it could be argued that the emphasis/focus is on the entire verb phrase or sentence, rather than on the adverb.

1.11.2.2.1.5 Ideophones
Emphasis/focus of ideophones generally follows the emphasis/focus patterns for noun phrases, with two exceptions: (a) when ideophones are followed by sef, ò or another ideophone, it could be argued that the emphasis/focus is on the entire verb phrase or sentence, rather than on the
ideophone (see 1.2.3.2.1); and (b) ideophones are most often found in cleft and pseudocleft constructions after they have been nominalized and made the object of a valence-increasing serialized verb such as tek:

(552) A gò slap yù zàwây. OR A gò tek zàwây slap yù.
1sP−R slap 2oP ip 1sP−R takeV+ ip/n slap+ 2oP
‘I will slap you sharply.’
Nà zàwây w ì gò tek slap yù.
?Nà zàwây w ì gò slap yù.
‘It will be with stinging sharpness that I will slap you.’

1.11.2.2.2
Eligibility of clause constituents for emphasis

1.11.2.2.2.1 Main clause constituents Emphasis/focus patterns for constituents of main clauses are listed in 1.11.2.2.1–4.

1.11.2.2.2.2 Subordinate clause constituents All of the emphasis/focus processes available generally to sentences and clauses in the language (as outlined in 1.11.2.1) are also available to subordinate clauses and their constituent elements. A relative clause may not be focused via clefting or pseudoclefting, however, unless it is fronted along with its head nominal:

(553) Im bay nyam w Ig spoil.
3sP buyF yam rcI spoilF
‘(S)he bought yams that were spoiled.’
also acceptable:
Nà nyam w Ig spoily w Ig im bay.
not acceptable:
*Nà w Ig spoily w Ig im bay nyam.

1.11.2.2.2.3 Noun phrase elements

Head nominals. Nouns which fill the head slot in noun phrases (see 1.2.5.1–3) can be emphasized or focused by any of the methods listed in 1.11.2.1, except for those methods which only apply to verb phrases or entire sentences such as auxiliaries, cognate objects and ideophones. Where movement is involved, the entire noun phrase must be moved along with its head. All of these possibilities for emphasis/focus are available as well to emphatic pronouns, except for reduplication, which is normally used to show reciprocity (see 1.7). Elugbe and Omamor (ms: 102), however, have found instances of the reduplication of pronouns for emphasis in their midwestern data.

Nominals in associative/genitive constructions. Modified or possessed nominals in associative/genitive constructions are emphasized or focused in the same way as are other head nominals. The general possessive pronominal on enjoys an equally wide range of emphasis/focus possibilities, minus reduplication. Modifier or possessor nominals in associative/genitive constructions may only be emphasized or focused via stress or reduplication. An associative/genitive construction cannot be split by the displacement of one of
its elements: when a modified or possessed nominal is moved, it must be moved together with its modifier or possessor nominal.

**Demonstratives and quantifiers.** Constituent stress is the only means regularly employed for emphasizing non-pronominalized demonstratives and quantifiers. When a demonstrative or a quantifier is pronominalized, it may be followed by *sef, ò* or a relative clause for emphasis. Pronominalized numerals may be reduplicated to show emphasis/focus.

**General article, topicalizers and nonemphatic and possessive pronouns.** The general article, topicalizers and all of the nonemphatic pronouns (including the possessive pronouns) may never be emphasized or focused individually.

**Relative clauses.** Emphasis/focus of relative clauses is discussed in 1.11.2.2.2.

### 1.11.2.2.2.4 Co-ordinate constructions
There are no particular restrictions on any of the different types of co-ordinate structures listed in section 1.3 with respect to any of the methods used for emphasis/focus as described in section 1.11.2.1. A single element of a co-ordinate structure may be emphasized by any means that does not involve movement:

(554) Nà wákàwaka pyùmpyum ò ànd r onbigbig r on sef
    EI walkFR ipR Ef and runF+ be big/mn run/n E
    we mi ànd yu wì tek go rich tawn finish.
    rcl 1EP and 2EP 4sP takeFV+ go+ reach+ town +C
    ‘It was by great effort at walking and even running that you and I finally even managed to get to
town.’

### 1.11.2.2.5 More than one constituent simultaneously
All possible combinations of constituents, including entire sentences, may be emphasized or focused by any of the means listed in 1.11.2.1, within the constraints on the uses of particular methods in particular contexts which are described in that section.

#### 1.11.2.3
Elements left behind by movement under emphasis

### 1.11.2.3.1–4 Movement processes under emphasis/focus
Clefting and pseudoclefting are the only emphasis/focus-related processes that involve movement. Because the only movement involved in either of these processes consists of the fronting of one of the sentence constituents to the position of head nominal of a relative clause containing the remaining sentence elements, the rules governing the copying, pronominalization and omission of the fronted element in the relative clause are identical to those which apply to relative clause formation in general (see 1.1.2.3.1–7). Special features of clefted and pseudoclefted verbs are discussed in 1.11.2.2.1.3.

### 1.11.3
Focus of yes-no questions

Constituents of yes-no questions may be emphasized or focused by any of the means listed in 1.11.2.1 (within the constraints on the use of particular methods in particular contexts which are described in that section) with the sole exception of *ò*. The incompatibility of *ò* with yes-no questions is probably due to its [+realis] modality-marking properties, which clash semantically and pragmatically with the modality properties of questions in general (see 2.1.3.4).
1.12

TOPIC

1.12.1

Means of indicating the topic

1.12.1.1

Particles

The constituent-final particles *ba, fa, kwa(nu), nàw* and *sha* are employed to indicate that the preceding constituent is the topic of the assertion at hand. In topic-switching questions, the same constituent-final particles are used, except that *nàw* is replaced by *nko*, and an additional question initial element *Wat òf*...‘what about...’ is added to the set of available markers (see 1.1.1.4.4). All constituent-final particles utilized for topicalization except for *nàw* are exempt from the normal stress rules (see 3.3.2) and invariably retain high tone over all of their syllables:

(555)        \begin{align*}
{\text{Im sél gàri nàw fôr maket.}} \\
{3{\text{sP sellF gari T p market}}} \\
{'(S)he sold gari (you know) in the market.'}
\end{align*}

also acceptable:

\begin{align*}
{\text{Im sél gàri ba fôr maket.}} \\
{\text{Im sél gàri fa fôr maket.}} \\
{\text{Im sél gàri kwa(nu) fôr maket.}} \\
{\text{Im sél gàri sha fôr maket.}}
\end{align*}

(556)        \begin{align*}
{\text{Gàri nko ?}} \\
{\text{Gari TQ Qù}} \\
{'What about gari?'}
\end{align*}

also acceptable:

\begin{align*}
{\text{Gàri ba?}} \\
{\text{Gàri fa?}} \\
{\text{Gàri kwa(nu)?}} \\
{\text{Gàri sha?}} \\
{\text{Wat òf gàri?}}
\end{align*}
1.12.1.2
Movement without dislocation

Movement without dislocation is not normally used for topicalization in Nigerian Pidgin.

1.12.1.3
Movement with dislocation

Dislocation

Dislocation to sentence-initial position is very commonly used to signal topicalization. A dislocated constituent is separated from the rest of the sentence of which it is a part by a pause and it forms a phrase stress group unto itself (see 3.3.2):

(557) Gàri, ìm sèl fòr makèt.
gari 3sP sellF p market
‘As for the gari, (s)he sold it in the market.’

Dislocation to positions other than sentence-initial position is not attested in the data, except for some apparent cases of dislocation to sentence-final position, which involve the repetition of some sentential elements:

(558) Im sèl fòr makèt, sèl gàri.
3sP sellF p market sellF gari
‘As for the gari, (s)he sold it in the market.’

1.12.1.4
Verb agreement

Verb agreement is not normally used for topicalization in Nigerian Pidgin.

1.12.1.5
Other means

Beside the use of particles and dislocation described in this section, no other means are utilized to signal topicalization in Nigerian Pidgin.
1.12.1.6

*Combinations of means for topicalization*

Any combination of the use of particles and dislocation in order to show topicalization in statements is possible. In topic-switching questions, dislocation is not available as a means of topicalization:

(559) Gàri kwanu, im sël fôr makèt.
gari T 3sP sellF p market
‘As for the gari, (s)he sold it in the market.’

(560) Im sël fôr makèt, sël gàri fa.
3sP sellF p market sellF gari T
‘As for the gari, (s)he sold it in the market.’

1.12.2

*Elements which may be topicalized*

1.12.2.1

*Constituents eligible for topicalization*

1.12.2.1.1

Noun phrases

Noun phrases may be topicalized by any of the means listed in 1.12.1:

(561) Ol dì nyam dèm we spoyl nàw, à sël dèm finish,
all ar yam pl rcI spoilF T 1sP sellF 6oP +C
‘As for all the spoiled yams, I sold them all.’

1.12.2.1.2

Adjectives

Adjectives do not exist in Nigerian Pidgin (see 2.1.4, 1.2.1.1.1 and 1.2.5.1.1). Stative verbs take the same topicalization markers as do other verbs. Deverbal nouns that follow copulas can be topicalized in exactly the same way as can other nouns. Deverbal modifier nouns are topicalized as are other nonhead constituents of noun phrases.

1.12.2.1.3

Verbs

Verbs may be topicalized by any of the means listed in 1.12.1:

(562) Im sël kwanu fôr makèt.
3sP sellF T p market
‘As for selling, (s)he sells in the market.’
Adverbials and ideophones

Adverbs and ideophones may never serve as the topic of a sentence. Other elements that function adverbially, however, may be topicalized by the use of particles and/or dislocation (see 1.2.1.3.1):

(564)  
\[
\text{prepositional phrase} \\
\text{För maket kwa, im gò sel (dyar).} \\
\text{p market T 3sP−R sell (there)} \\
\text{‘As for the market, (s)he will sell (there).’}
\]

(565)  
\[
\text{noun phrase adverbial} \\
\text{Tùmoro fa, im gò sel fòr maket.} \\
\text{tomorrow T 3sP−R sell p market} \\
\text{‘As for tomorrow, (s)he will sell in the market.’}
\]

(566)  
\[
\text{adverbial clause} \\
\text{Dì taym yù gò dè slip ba, im gò dè sel fòr maket.} \\
\text{ar time 2sP−R −C sleep T 3sP−R −C sell p market} \\
\text{‘As for the time when you will be sleeping, (s)he will be selling in the market.’}
\]

1.12.2.2

Eligibility of clause constituents for topicalization

1.12.2.2.1

Main clause constituents

Topicalization patterns for noun clauses and adverbial clauses are listed in 1.12.2.1.1 and 1.12.2.1.4. A verb may function alone as the topic of a sentence (as shown in 1.12.2.1.3) or it may be topicalized along with any objects and/or adverbial elements associated with it.

1.12.2.2.2

Subordinate clause constituents

All of the topicalization processes available generally to sentences and clauses in the language (as outlined in 1.12.1) are also available to subordinate clauses. A relative clause may not be topicalized by dislocation, however, unless it is moved along with its head nominal:

(567)  
\[
\text{Dì pikîn we à bit nàw, im kray.} \\
\text{ar child rcl 1sP beatF T 3sP cryF}
\]
‘As for the child that I beat, (s)he cried.’

*We à bit nàw, dì pikîn kray.

1.12.2.2.3
Noun clause constituents

*Head nominals. Nouns and emphatic pronouns which fill the head slot in noun phrases (see 1.2.5.1–3) can be topicalized by any of the methods listed in 1.12.1.

Nominals in associative/genitive constructions. Modified or possessed nominals in associative/genitive constructions are topicalized in the same way as are other head nominals. The general possessive pronominal on enjoys an equally wide range of possibilities for topicalization. Modifier or possessor nominals in associative/genitive constructions may never serve as the topic of a sentence. An associative/ genitive construction cannot be split by the dislocation of one of its elements: when a modified or possessed nominal is dislocated, it must move with its modifier or possessor nominal.

Demonstratives and quantifiers. Demonstratives and quantifiers do not normally function as the topic of a sentence. When a demonstrative or a quantifier is pronominalized, however, it may undergo topicalization, by the use of particles and/or dislocation.

General article, emphasis markers, and nonemphatic and possessive pronouns. The general article, emphasis markers and all of nonemphatic pronouns (including the possessive pronouns) may never serve individually as the topic of a sentence.

Relative clauses. Topicalization of relative clauses is discussed in 1.12.2.2.

1.12.2.2.4
Co-ordinate constructions

There are no particular restrictions on any of the different types of co-ordinate structures listed in section 1.3 with respect to any of the methods used for topicalization as described in section 1.12.1. Single conjuncts can be topicalized by any of these methods as well.

1.12.2.2.5
More than one constituent simultaneously

All possible combinations of constituents, including entire sentences, may be topicalized by any of the means listed in 1.12.1, within the constraints on the use of particular methods in particular contexts which are described in that section. Topicalized elements can be strung together in series within the same sentence when the speaker is searching for the optimal way to eventually weave them all together into a single assertion, or when the speaker wants to tag an element on to the end of the sentence as an afterthought or to disambiguate a potentially confusing message:

(568) Nıyam fa, gàri, sél kwanu, im gò du-am dyar, fòr makët nàw.
yam T gàri sellF T 3sP−R do-3oP there p market T
‘As for yams, as for gari, as for selling, (s)he will do it (all) there,
I mean, in the market.’
1.12.2.3

Elements left behind by movement under topicalization

Movement processes under topicalization

Dislocation is the only topicalization process that involves movement of constituents. When a noun phrase or adverbial phrase is dislocated, a copy, a pronominal form or nothing can be left behind in its place in the original sentence. When a verb phrase is dislocated, a copy of the verb or the proverb *du* ‘do’ must be left behind. There is some evidence to suggest that topicalizer particles themselves can be used to mark the original position of a dislocated element, but where this appears to occur, a multiple topicalization interpretation is always possible as well:

(569) Gàri kwanu, im sel (-am) kwanu fôr maket.
     gari T 3sp sellF(-3mP) T p market
     ‘As for the gari, (s)he sold it in the market.’

1.12.3

Optional, obligatory and preferred means of topicalization

Topicalization is always optional, although it could be said that certain environments (such as sentence-initial position) are inherently topicalized. If sentence-initial position is inherently topicalized, then subjects and other sentence-initial constituents could be considered to be topicalized by default. Of the means for signalling topicalization listed in 1.12.1, the use of particles is the most preferred strategy, with left dislocation slightly less frequently selected and right dislocation much less commonly utilized.

1.13

HEAVY SHIFT

1.13.1–5

Heavy shift

Particularly long and/or complex structures are neither more nor less likely to undergo the normal movement processes in the language, which are listed in 1.14.

1.14

MOVEMENT PROCESSES

Movement processes attested in the data include:

1 Question word movement (see 1.1.1.2.2.2).
2 Extraposition (see 1.1.2.2.2–5).
3 Adverbial movement (see 1.2.1.3.2).
4 Negative fronting (see 1.4.2).
5 Emphatic fronting (see 1.11).
6 Left dislocation (see 1.12).
7 Right dislocation (see 1.12).

1.15
MINOR SENTENCE TYPES

Minor sentence types attested in the data include:

1 Truncated echo questions (see 1.1.1.2.3.1–7).
2 Truncated answers (see 1.1.1.2.4.2).
3 Special imperative form (see 1.1.1.3.1).
4 Exclamations (see 1.1.1.4.1).
5 Expressions of affirmation/rejection (see 1.1.1.4.2).
6 Channel checks (see 1.1.1.4.3).
7 Topic-switching questions (see 1.1.1.4.4).
8 Vocatives and salutations (see 1.1.1.4.5).
9 Focus introducer nà sentences (see 1.2.1.1.6 and 1.11).
10 Deleted dummy subject sentences (see 1.2.1.2.1 and 1.4.2).

1.16
OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS FOR WORD CLASSES

Most of the contrastive differences between one word class and another are syntactic, rather than morphological or lexical, in nature (see 1.1.2.2.6 for a discussion of the multifunctionality of lexical items). For this reason, the syntactic slots listed and discussed in 1.2.5.3 will be referred to throughout this section.

1.16.1. Noun

Nouns occupy either the head nominal slot of a noun phrase or the modifier/possessor nominal slot of an associative/possessive construction within a noun phrase. A noun phrase may function as the subject of a verb, as the object of a verb or as a preposition or as an adverbial. A noun may be modified by any element that occupies a slot within the noun phrase. Nouns distinguish themselves from other word classes in that they enter freely into the formation of compound lexical items (see 2.2.6.3).

1.16.2. Pronoun

Syntactically, pronouns have the same distribution as do nouns, but when a pronoun serves as the head of a noun phrase it may never be modified by any of the modifiers that precede head nominals in noun phrases. Although some nouns (such as tûdê ‘today’) may constitute an adverbial noun phrase unto themselves, this is disallowed in the case of pronouns. Of the elements that follow head nominals in noun phrases, only emphasis markers, topicalizers and relative clauses may be used to modify a pronoun head. These restrictions do not apply to the possessive pronominal on or to pronominalized numerals, which are modified by the same range of elements as are available for noun modification. Morphologically, pronouns
are marked for six persons (or three persons, each with a distinct singular and plural form), for thematic role (subject vs. object vs. possessive) and for syntactic independence or emphasis (emphatic/independent vs. nonemphatic/dependent). Only emphatic pronouns may take modifiers or stand alone in truncated sentences. Only the third-person object pronoun -am could be said indisputably to be a clitic or affix. A strong case could be made for considering all of the nonemphatic pronouns (but especially the nonemphatic object pronouns) to be clitics as well (see 2.1.2 and 2.1.8.1.1). Unlike nouns, pronouns are not usually involved in the formation of compound lexical items.

1.16.3 Verbs

A verb occupies the head verb slot of a verb phrase and can be modified by any element which may occupy another verb phrase slot, including tense/aspect/modality markers, adverbials and other verbs (such as modal verbs) co-ordinated with it in a serialized verb construction (see 1.3.1.1.4). In most sentence types, verbs are obligatorily present. Verbs normally take a subject and at least one object although objectless and (more rarely) subjectless sentences occur. Verbs may not normally consist of more than two syllables and the range of possibilities for tone-to-syllable linkages is more restricted for verbs than it is for any other class of words (see 3.3.3.8).

1.16.4 Adjective

There is no formal way to distinguish a category ‘adjective’ from the categories ‘noun’ or ‘verb’ (see 2.1.4, 1.2.1.1.1 and 1.2.5.1.1).

1.16.5 Preposition

Prepositions are obligatorily followed by a noun phrase object to form a prepositional phrase. Prepositional phrases fill either the sentence-initial or the sentence-final adverbial phrase slot in the sentence. Prepositions always bear low tone and they are never stressed. Although prepositions take objects, they may not take subjects (except in a few acrolectal varieties; see 1.3.1.1.4).

1.16.6 Noun phrase modifiers

Noun phrase modifiers include demonstratives, quantifiers, articles, ordinal numbers, cardinal numbers, the pluralizer, emphasis markers and topicalizers. Each of these may be said to constitute a distinct word class because of the fact that each occupies a distinct slot in the noun phrase.

1.16.7 Verb phrase modifiers

Verb phrase modifiers include auxiliaries, modal verbs, preverbal adverbs, sentential adverbs and ideophones. Although most of these elements may be distinguished from one another by the distinct slot
that each occupies within the verb phrase, there is considerable overlap in form and function among them as well as between all of them and the class of verbs itself (see 1.3.1.1.4).

1.16.8

Sentential elements

Lexical items such as negative markers, clause introducers, the focus introducer nà, question-words, yes-no question markers, topic-switching question markers, conjunctions, exclamatory particles and the phrase-final particle ò could each be considered to constitute a separate microclass of words by virtue of the distinct sentential environments in which it is found and/or the distinct morphosyntactic and phonological patterns exhibited by each at sentence level.
Chapter 2
Morphology

2.1
INFLECTION

2.1.1
Noun inflection

2.1.1.1
Means of expressing semantic and syntactic functions of noun phrases

2.1.1.1–3
Bound affixes, morphophonemic alternations and clitic particles

Bound affixes, morphophonemic alternations and clitic particles are not used to express the semantic and syntactic functions of noun phrases in Nigerian Pidgin.

2.1.1.4.
Prepositions

The general preposition for is one of the primary means employed to show the semantic and syntactic function of noun phrases, which follow it as objects in prepositional phrases. A few minor prepositions are also used in this way. The number of functions which may be signalled by for is so great that further specification is often necessary. In such cases, an associative/ genitive noun phrase may be incorporated into the prepositional object noun phrase in order to particularize the relationship indicated by for (see 1.2.1.3.1.2 and 2.1.1.5):

(570)  Dì pikín de for mòto-pak.
  ar child cvF p terminal
  ‘The child is (in, by, around, etc.) the transport terminal.’

(571)  Dì pikín go for mòto-pak.
  ar child goF p terminal
  ‘The child went to (into, by, around, etc.) the transport terminal.’
Word order is perhaps the most commonly utilized method for indicating the semantic and syntactic function of noun phrases. As shown in 1.2.5.3, word order in sentences as well as in the major sentence constituents is quite regular and predictable. Because of the multifunctional nature of many lexical items which allows a single form to belong to several word classes, word order is often the only means available for determining the function of a given instance of a particular item (see 1.1.2.2.6). Word order is also of crucial importance in the expression of genitival relationships (1.2.5.1.1) and in the differentiation of various types of object arguments from one another (1.2.1.2.2):

(572)  
Di pikín go fôr [insâyd mòtò-pâk].  
ar child goF p [inside terminal]  
‘The child went into the transport terminal.’

2.1.1.6  
Derivational processes

Reduplication and compounding are the only derivational processes which are regularly used to express the semantic and syntactic function of noun phrases (see 2.2.6.3 and 1.1.2.2.6):

(575)  
Laylay-man kôm tok laylay fôr àwa ples.  
lieR -man comeF+ talk+ lieR p 4ps place  
‘The professional liar came to tell lies in our village.’

2.1.1.7  
Other means

Serialized verb constructions play a key role in determining and differentiating the semantic function of noun phrases in Nigerian Pidgin (see 1.3.1.1.4 and 2.1.3.7).

Nonemphatic pronouns. In basilectal speech, the nonemphatic third-person object pronoun can be used to signal transitivity and thus can be said to function to some degree as a signal for the objecthood of the following noun phrase (see 1.2.1.2.4). Nonemphatic subject pronouns may be used resumptively or pleonastically in all lects of Nigerian Pidgin. It could be argued that such usage serves to mark the preceding noun phrase as the sentential subject and that the nonemphatic subject pronouns are in fact cliticized elements of the verb phrase (see 1.16.2 and 2.1.2).
2.1.1.8
Combinations of means used for nominal inflection

Any combination of the methods listed in 2.1.1.1.1–7 may be employed to express the semantic or the syntactic functions of noun phrases:

(577) Laylay-man im tel mi laylay fôr onda jùju-tri.
lieR-man 3sP tellF 1oP lieR p under juju-tree
‘The professional liar told me lies under the juju tree.’

2.1.1.2
Expression of syntactic functions

2.1.1.2.1–3
Subjects

All verbal subjects are marked in the same way to show their syntactic role, regardless of whether the verb for which they function as an argument is ‘transitive’, ‘intransitive’ or a ‘copular’ (these categories are largely irrelevant in Nigerian Pidgin, see 1.2.1.2.2). Word order is the main method employed to show subjecthood, with subjects preceding the verb in almost every instance (see 1.2.5.3). Secondary cues for subjecthood include compounding, reduplication and the use of nonemphatic subject pronouns, as discussed and illustrated in 2.1.1.1.6–8. Agheyisi (1971:79–82) lists the following functions for subject noun phrases with the following examples:

(578) \textit{subject as agent}
Meri ful di bag wit mòni.
Mary fillF ar bag with money
‘Mary filled the bag with money.’

(579) \textit{subject as causer}
Mòni ful di bag.
money fillF ar bag
‘Money filled the bag.’

(580) \textit{subject as sufferer}
Di klot tyar.
ar cloth tearF
‘The cloth tore.’

(581) \textit{subject as experiencer}
The distinction direct vs. indirect object is not very useful in the description or the analysis of verbal arguments in Nigerian Pidgin (see 1.2.1.2.3–6). Objects of comparison and equation are objects of serialized verbs and do not differ in any way from other verbal objects in the language (see 1.8 and 1.9). Word order is the main method employed to show objecthood, with objects following the verb in almost every instance (see 1.2.5.3). Secondary cues for objecthood include compounding, reduplication and the use of nonemphatic object pronouns (in basilectal varieties) as discussed and illustrated in 2.1.1.6–8. Where more than one noun phrase serve as the object arguments of the same verb, animate objects precede inanimate objects, and if two objects are both animate or inanimate, the recipient object precedes the patient object (see 1.2.1.2.5 for examples and for further discussion). Serialized verb constructions are much more commonly used to accommodate several object arguments pertaining to the same event simultaneously than are multiple object constructions:

(582)  ‘direct/indirect’ objects
A want giv yù dì làpa.
1sP wantF+ give+ 2oP ar wrapper
‘I want to give you the wrapper (cloth).’

(583)  ‘direct/indirect’ objects
A want tek dì làpa giv yù
1sP wantF+ takeV+ ar wrapper give+ 2oP
‘I want to give you the wrapper (cloth).’

(584)  comparative objects
Im dè tay làpa pas yù.
3sP −C tie+ wrapper pass+ 2oP
‘(S)he wears wrappers more than you (do).’

(585)  equative objects
Im dè tay lapa rich yù.
3sP −C tie+ wrapper reach+ 2oP
‘(S)he wears wrappers as much as you (do).’

As shown in the examples in 2.1.1.2.1–3, it is possible for a noun phrase which occupies the subject slot to have a role function (such as ‘sufferer’) which is normally associated with object arguments. On the basis of the occurrence of such sentences, Agheyisi (1971:80) argues that where the agent is not mentioned the object argument may occupy the subject slot (examples from Agheyisi):

(586)  object as sufferer
Agheyisi states that it is only a ‘special subset of verbs’ that permits this type of ‘non-specification of both Causer and Agent on surface structure’. It will be argued here that it is not necessary for any special subset of verbs to be created or for any rules to be formulated that allow the assignment of thematic roles to sentential slots with which they are not normally associated under special circumstances. The behavior of predicates in Nigerian Pidgin is much more effectively accounted for by the categorization of verbs according to the feature [±stative], rather than by the features [±transitive] (see 1.2.1.2.2–3) or [±passive] (see 2.1.3.1). The use of either of the latter two features may be avoided completely in this case as well by a thorough understanding of the nature of the [±stative] distinction in Nigerian Pidgin and the implications that this distinction has for the Nigerian Pidgin system. If we were to consider tyar to be a stative verb like red ‘be red’ or fyar ‘be afraid’, then we could account for its use with both ‘sufferer subjects’ and ‘sufferer objects’. Instead of glossing tyar as ‘tear’, it would be glossed ‘be torn. When used with an object, tyar assigns the role of recipient or patient to that object, just as do all other stative (and nonstative) verbs in the language:

(588)  
Jon wund.  
John be woundedF  
‘John is wounded.’

(589)  
Jon wund mi.  
John be woundedF 1oP  
‘John wounded me.’

(590)  
Jon don red.  
John +C be redF  
‘John has become red.’

(591)  
Jon don red di klot.  
John +C be redF ar cloth  
‘John has coloured the cloth red.’

(592)  
Di klot tyar.  
ar cloth be tornF  
‘The cloth is torn.’

(593)  
Nel tyar di klot.  
nail be tornF ar cloth
‘A nail tore the cloth.’

2.1.1.2.8
Other objects governed by verbs

Verbs can govern objects which play a wide variety of case-related roles in the sentence. Verbs of motion take destinations as objects (see 1.2.1.2.2) copular verbs take locations and many other types of nominals as objects (see 1.2.1.2.2 and 1.2.1.1.1–6) and other verbs take object arguments which have diverse semantic functions (see 1.2.1.2.2.1). Objects with little or no semantic content such as cognate objects (1.2.1.2.2) and dummy objects (1.2.1.2.4) also occur:

(594) Dì man get stwa dè sèl mònì.
      ar man haveF+ store −C sell+ money
      ‘The man has a store and sells (for money).’

(595) Im gò jôst luk yù ay, yù don day bi dat ò.
      3sP −R just look 2oP eye 2sP +C die cvF that f
      ‘(S)he will just look at you (with his/her eyes) and you’re dead is what that is.’ OR ‘One look from him/her and you’re dead.’

2.1.1.2.9
Complements of copular constructions

As explained and illustrated in 1.2.1.2.2 and 1.2.1.1.1–6, copulas are best considered to be verbs which behave in the same way as do other verbs in Nigerian Pidgin. In keeping with this generalization, complements of copular verbs are marked in exactly the same way and express many of the same semantic functions as do complements of other verbs in the language. Therefore, all of the observations made in 2.1.1.2.4–8 pertaining to verbal objects pertain as well to the complements of copular verbs.

2.1.1.2.9.1–4 Objects of copular verbs

(596) *defining verbs* (see 1.2.1.1.6.1)
    Im bi wuman.
    3sP cvF woman
    ‘She is a woman.’

(597) *identifying verbs* (see 1.2.1.1.6.2)
    Im bi Audu.
    3sP cvF Audu
    ‘He is Audu.’

(598) *role-identifying verbs* (see 1.2.1.1.6.3)
    Im bi dokta.
    3sP cvF doctor
    ‘(S)he is a doctor.’
(599)  *relationship-identifying verbs* (see 1.2.1.6.4)
Im bì mà sista.
3sP cvF lps sister
‘She is my sister.’

(600)  *verbs of becoming* (see 1.2.1.6.5)
Im dön bìkôm mà sista.
3sP +C become lps sister
‘She has become my sister.’

(601)  *verbs of general existence* (see 1.2.1.3)
Noting de dì pikîn.
nothing cvF ar child
‘There is nothing going on with the child.’ OR ‘There is nothing wrong with the child.’

(602)  *verbs of existence in space* (see 1.2.1.6.6)
Im de tawn.
3sP cvF town
‘(S)he is in town.’

(603)  *verbs of resemblance* (see 1.2.1.6.9)
Im gò bi layk im màma.
3sP −R cv cx 1sP mother
‘(S)he will be like her/his mother (in character).’

2.1.1.2.10–11
Subject and object complement constructions

The only constructions in Nigerian Pidgin that resemble subject or object complement constructions in any way are double-object constructions after verbs such as *kol* ‘call’, when they are followed first by a patient object and then by a second object that somehow identifies or defines the first (see 1.2.1.2.5):

(604)  Dèm dè kol dat jùju-man dokta.
6sP −C call that juju-man doctor
‘They call that man who practises juju “doctor”.’

2.1.1.2.12
Objects governed by adjectives

There are no adjectives in Nigerian Pidgin (see 2.1.4, 1.2.1.1.1 and 1.2.5.1.1). Stative verbs and copular verbs (especially the copular extension *layk*; see 1.2.1.6.9 and 2.1.1.2.9) may take objects whose function is similar to that of adjectival objects in other languages:

(605)  Ma pikîn de layk yò on.
lps child cvF cx 2sp ps
‘My child is like (looks like) yours.’

2.1.1.2.13
Agents in impersonal constructions

Agents in impersonal constructions are inflected in exactly the same way as are other subjects in the language (see 2.1.1.2):

(606) Dèm dè kòl dat jùju-man dokta.
6sP −C call that juju-man doctor
‘They call that man who practises juju “doctor”.’ OR ‘That man who practises juju is called “doctor”’.

(607) Sikisiki gò kach yù.
sick/nR −R catch 2oP
‘Sickness will catch you.’ OR ‘You will fall sick.’

2.1.1.2.14
Topics

Topicalized noun phrases are marked in the same way as are other noun phrases in Nigerian Pidgin, except that topicalized elements may be followed by topicalizer particles and/or may be dislocated to the left or to the right (see 1.12):

(608) Sikisiki kwanu, ìm gò kach yù sèf.
sick/nR T 3sP −R catch 2oP
‘As for sickness, it will catch even you.’ OR ‘Speaking of sickness, you will fall sick.’

2.1.1.2.15
Elements under emphasis/focus

Noun phrases under emphasis/focus are marked in the same way as are other noun phrases in Nigerian Pidgin, except that emphasized or focused elements may be followed by emphasis markers and may be fronted in cleft or pseudocleft constructions (see 1.11):

(609) Nà sikisiki ò wè gò kach yù sèf.
El sick/nR Ef rcI −R catch 2oP E
‘It is disease (not hunger) that will catch even you.’
2.1.3
Nonfinite verbs

2.1.3.1–4
Noun phrases with nonfinite verbs

In the few constructions which resemble nonfinite structures in Nigerian Pidgin, noun phrases are inflected in exactly the same way as they are inflected when they occur in finite constructions (see 1.1.2.6).

2.1.4
Expression of nonlocal semantic functions

The nonlocal semantic functions listed below are expressed in the following ways. Each method is listed roughly in the order of its frequency of use to express each function.

2.1.4.1
Benefactive

Benefactive relations are rarely expressed as such, but the methods utilized in the examples which follow are possible.

(610)  *serialized verb* giv ‘give’
A bay nyam giv dém.
1sP buyF+ yam give+ 6oP
‘I bought yams and gave them (some).’ OR ‘I bought yams for them.’

(611)  *general preposition* för (most commonly used in acrolectal varieties)
A bay nyam för dém.
1sP buyF yam p 6oP
‘I bought yams for them.’

2.1.4.2
Source

See 1.1.4.2.10. for adverbal source clauses.

(612)  *general preposition* för with or without hand ‘hand’
A bay nyam för yō hand.
1sP buyF yam p 2ps hand
‘I bought yams from you.’

(613)  *minor preposition* frōm ‘from (mainly in acrolects)
A bay nyam frōm yō hand.
1sP buyF yam from 2ps hand
‘I bought yams from you.’
(614) **serialized valence increasing verb** tek ‘take’
A tek maket bay nyam.
1sP takeFV+ market buy+ yam
‘I bought yams at the market.’

(615) **verbs with particular objects** (see 1.2.1.2.2)
A dön sik màlerya.
1sP +C be sick malaria
‘I have become sick with/from malaria.’

(616) **associative/possessive constructions** (word order: [source+head noun]; see 1.2.5.1.1)

[[Najirya] [mòto]]
[[Nigeria] [car]]
‘Nigerian car’

2.1.1.4.3
Instrumental

(617) **serialized valence-increasing verb** tek ‘take’
A tek mônì bay nyam.
1sP takeFV+ money buy+ yam
‘I bought yams with money.’

(618) **general preposition** för
A bit -am för won big big stik.
1sP beatF-3oP p one be big/mnR stick
‘I beat him/her with a very big stick.’

(619) **minor preposition** wit ‘with’
A bit -am wit won big big stik.
1sP beatF-3oP with one be big/mnR stick
‘I beat him/her with a very big stick.’

(620) **verbs with particular objects** (see 1.2.1.2.2)
Dèm dön chuk mì nayf.
6sP +C stab 1oP knife
‘They stabbed me with a knife.’

2.1.1.4.3(a) **Negative instrumental** The regular negated versions of the constructions listed for the affirmative instrumental are the only structures which may perform this function:

(621) A no tek mônì bay nyam.
‘I didn’t buy yams with money.’
A no bit-am för stik.
‘I didn’t beat him/her with a stick.’
A no bit-am wìt stik.
‘I didn’t beat him/her with a stick.’
Dèm neva chuk mì nayf.
‘They didn’t stab me with a knife.’

2.1.1.4.4
Comitative

(622)  
serialized verb folo ‘follow’
A folo yù bay nyam.
1sP followF+ 2oP buy+ yam
‘I bought yams with you.’

(623)  
minor preposition wìt ‘with’
A bay nyam wìt yù.
1sP buyF yam with 2oP
‘I bought yams with you.’

2.1.1.4.4(a) Negative comitative The regular negated versions of the constructions listed for the affirmative comitative are the only structures which may perform this function:

(624)  
A no folo yù bay nyam.
‘I didn’t buy yams with you.’
A no bay nyam wìt yù.
‘I didn’t buy yams with you.’

2.1.1.4.5
Circumstance

(625)  
serialized valence increasing verb tek ‘take’
A tek maket sel nyam.
1sP takeFV+ market sell+ yam
‘I sold yams on the market.’

(626)  
general preposition fòr
A sel nyam fòr maket.
1sP sellF yam p market
‘I sold yams on the market.’

(627)  
verbs with particular objects (see 1.2.1.2.2)
Dèm dòn sel maket.
6sP +C sell market
‘They sold something on the market.’ OR ‘They have experience selling on the market.’
(628) **associative/possessive constructions** (word order: [circumstance+head noun]; see 1.2.5.1.1)

[[maket] [nyam]]
[[market] [yam]]
‘market yams’

2.1.1.4.5(a) **Negative circumstance** The regular negated versions of the constructions listed for affirmative circumstance are the only structures which may perform this function:

(629) A no tek maket sel nyam.
‘I didn’t sell yams on the market.’
A no sel nyam fôr maket.
‘I didn’t sell yams on the market.’
Dêm neva sel maket.
‘They have never sold anything on the market.’ OR ‘They have no experience selling on the market.’
Dêm no bi maket nyam.
‘They are not market yams.’ OR ‘They are not the type of yams that one finds on the market.’

2.1.1.4.6–7
Possessive (possessor/possessed)

(630) **associative/possessive constructions** (word order: [possessor + possessed]; see 1.2.5.1.1)

[[dì wuman] [mòto]]
OR
[[ìm] [mòto]]
OR
[[ìm] [on]]

[[ar woman] [car]]
OR
[[3ps] [car]]
OR
[[3ps] [ps]]

‘the woman’s car’ OR ‘her car’ OR ‘her own’

(631) **general preposition** fôr

Im bi chif fôr im ples.
3sP cvF chief p 3ps place
‘(S)he is a traditional ruler of her/his village.’

As shown in 1.10.2, the only distinction regularly made between alienably and inalienably possessed entities involves body parts and a few other relatively inalienable items such as **haws** ‘house’, where the use of possessive pronouns to show possession is optional if the possessor is the sentential subject:

(632) Dêm gò si dêm nyam. Dêm gò si nyam.
6sP −R see 6sP yam 6sP −R see yam
‘They will see their yams.’ ‘They will see yams.’

(633) Dêm si dêm haws. Dêm si haws.
6sP seeF 6sP house 6sP seeF house
‘They saw their house.’ ‘They saw their house.’
Noun phrase inflection is not affected by the distinction between permanent and temporary possession, which is primarily signalled by the selection of verbs such as *get* to show relatively permanent possession and *hold* to show relatively temporary possession (see 1.10.3). No special marking of any kind is available to express particular tense/aspect/modality features of possessive constructions.

2.1.1.4.8
Quality

(634)  *associative/possessive constructions* (word order: [quality+head noun]; see 1.2.5.1.1 and 1.2.1.1.1)

[[big] [mòto]]

[[be big/mnR] [car]]
‘big car’

(635)  *general preposition* *for*

Wì no kuk -am, wì chop-am fôr ro.
4sP ng cookF-3oP 4sP eatF -3oP p be raw/n
‘We didn’t cook it, we ate it raw.’

2.1.1.4.8(a) *Negative quality* The regular negated versions of the constructions listed for affirmative quality are the only structures which may perform this function:

(636)  Dèm no bi big mòto.
‘They are not big cars.’

Wì no chop-am fôr ro.
‘We didn’t eat it raw.’

2.1.1.4.8(b) *Reference quality* The only constructions in Nigerian Pidgin that resemble reference quality constructions in other languages involve the use of cognate objects of stative verbs (see 1.2.1.2.2, 1.1.2.2.6 and 1.2.1.1.1):

(637)  A hàpi fôr ọl ọl di smat we ụd ọn smat fôr
1sP be happyF p all ar be smart/n rcI 2sR be smart p
skul ọr
school f
‘I am happy about all of the knowledge that you have gained in school.’

2.1.1.4.9
Quantity

(638)  *associative/possessive constructions* (word order: [quantity+head noun]; see 1.2.5.1.1)

[[plenti] [gâri]]

[[be plenty/mn] [gari]]
‘plenty of gari’
(639) *serialized verbs and ideophones* trowê ‘overflow’, boku ‘be plenty’, nyàfûnyafu ‘be very many’

Dì nyam kom plënti trowê.

ar yam +R be plenty overflow

‘Yams were very plentiful.’

also acceptable:

Dì nyam kom plënti boku.
Dì nyam kom plënti nyàfûnyafu.

(640) *reduplication of stative verbs* (see 2.2.6.3)

Di nyam kom bokuboku.

ar yam +R be plentyR

‘Yams were very plentiful.’

(641) *reduplication of modifying nouns* (see 2.2.6.3)

A si dì smolsmol haws.

1sP seeF ar be small/mnR house

‘I saw the small houses.’

2.1.1.4.9(a) Reference quantity

(642) *associative/possessive constructions* (word order: [quantity+head noun]; see 1.2.5.1.1)

[[won kop] [gàri]]

[[one cup] [gari]]

‘a cup of gari’

2.1.1.4.10

Material

(643) *serialized valence increasing verb* tek ‘take’

A tek stik byud haws.

1sP takeFV+ stick build+ house

‘I built the house with wood.’

(644) *general preposition* för

A byud haws för stik.

1sP buildF house p stick

‘I built the house with wood.’

(645) *associative/possessive constructions* (word order: [material+head noun]; see 1.2.5.1.1)

[[stik] [haws]]

[[stick] [house]]

‘wood house’
(646) compounds (see 2.2.6.3):
  blok -haws  sàn-san-ples
  cement block-house  sand -place
  ‘cinderblock house’  ‘sandy place’

2.1.1.4.10(a) Negative material The regular negated versions of the constructions listed for affirmative expression of material composition are the only structures which may perform this function:

(647) A no tek stik byud haws.
    ‘I didn’t build the house with wood.’
A no byud haws fòr stik.
    ‘I didn’t build the house with wood.’
Im no bi stik haws.
    ‘It is not a wooden house.’
Im no bi sàn-san-ples.
    ‘It is not a sandy place.’

2.1.1.4.11
Manner

(648) serialized valence-increasing verb tek ‘take’
A tek kwikkwik byud haws.
    1sP takeFV+ be quick/nR build+ house
    ‘I built the house quickly.’

(649) general preposition fòr
A byud haws fòr smol-smol.
    1sP buildF house p be small/nR
    ‘I built the house slowly.’

(650) associative/possessive constructions (word order: [manner+head noun]; see 1.2.5.1.1)
[[kwik] [wàka]]
[[be quick/mn] [walk/n]]
‘fast walk(ing)’

(651) compounds (see 2.2.6.3)
  jìbiti -we  wàyo -fashon
  cunning-way  cunning-manner
  ‘cunning way’  ‘cunning manner’

2.1.1.4.11(a) Negative manner The regular negated versions of the constructions listed for affirmative expression of manner are the only structures which may perform this function:

(652) A no tek kwikkwik byud haws.
‘I didn’t build the house quickly.’
A no byud haws fôr smôl-smôl.

‘I didn’t build the house slowly.’
Im no bi jîbîti-we.

‘It is not a cunning way (to do something).’
Dat won no bi wâyo-fashôn.

‘That is not cunning.’

2.1.1.4.12
Cause

See 1.1.2.4.2.4 for adverbial cause clauses.

(653) general preposition fôr
Im day fôr hôngri.
3sP dieF p be hungry/n
‘(S)he died of hunger.’

2.1.1.4.13
Purpose

See 1.1.2.4.2.3 for adverbial purpose clauses.

(654) general preposition fôr (mainly in acrolects)
@Im kôm fôr tîf.
3sP comeF p steal/n
‘(S)he came in order to steal.’

2.1.1.4.14
Function

(655) serialized valence increasing verb tek ‘take’
A tek stîk du môtar.
1sP takeFV+ stick do+ mortar
‘I used a stick as a mortar (for pounded yam).’

2.1.1.4.15
Reference

(656) serialized verbs tel ‘tell’, tok ‘talk’, se ‘say’, etc.
A tel dêm tok ol dî nyus.
1sP tellF+ 6oP talk+ all ar news
‘I told them (about) all the news.’
(657)  

*general preposition* **for**

I m tok **for** wo.  
3sP talkF p war  
‘(S)he talked about the war.’

(658)  

*serialized valence increasing verb* **tek** ‘take’ 
A tek ticha -wɔk ste Aba.  
1sP takeFV+ teacher-work stay+ Aba  
‘I was in Aba as a teacher.’

(659)  

*general preposition* **for**  
A kom ste Aba **for** ticha -wɔk.  
1sP +R stay Aba p teacher-work  
‘I was in Aba as a teacher.’

(660)  

*serialized valence-increasing verb* **tek** ‘take’  
Wì tek Ade mek -am chif **for** ples.  
4sP takeFV+ Ade make+-3oP chief p village  
‘We made Ade traditional ruler of our village.’

(661)  

*associative/possessive constructions* (word order: [part+whole]; see 1.2.5.1.1):  
[[op] [tri]]  
[[top] [tree]]  
‘top of the tree’

(662)  

*numerals*  
tre nayf  
three machete
‘three machetes’ OR ‘three of the machetes’

(663) 
quantifiers
som nayf
some machete
‘some machetes’ OR ‘some of the machetes’

(664) 
negative quantifiers
no (gni) nayf
ng (any) machete
‘no machetes’ OR ‘none of the machetes’

2.1.1.4.20
Price

(665) 
serialized valence-increasing verb tek ‘take’
A tek tu nayra bay nyam.
1sP takeFV+ two naira buy+ yam
‘I bought yams for two naira.’

(666) 
general preposition før
A bay nyam før tu nayra.
1sP buyF yam p two naira
‘I bought yams for two naira.’

(667) 
verbs with particular objects (see 1.2.1.2.2)
A bay nyam tu nayra.
1sP buyF yam two naira
‘I bought yams for two naira.’

2.1.1.4.21
Value

Noun phrase elements are not inflected in any special way to express value.

2.1.1.4.22
Distance

(668) 
serialized valence-increasing verb tek ‘take’
A tek lɒng rod folo yù go fam.
1sP takeFV+ be long/mn road follow+ 2oP go+ farm
‘I followed you a long way to the farm.’

(669) 
general preposition før
A kom wàka fòr won mayl.
1sP +R walk p one mile
‘I walked for one mile.’

(670)  
verbs with particular objects (see 1.2.1.2.2)
A kom wàka go won mayl.
1sP +R walk+ go+ one mile
‘I walked for one mile.’

2.1.1.4.23
Extent

(671)  
minor preposition sòte ‘until’ (see 1.1.2.4.2.6)
Di rod gò rich sòte Abuja.
ar road −R reach until Abuja
‘The road will go to Abuja.’

2.1.1.4.24
Concessive

Noun phrase elements are not inflected in any special way to show concessive relations. See 1.1.2.4.2.9 for adverbial concessive clauses.

2.1.1.4.25–27
Inclusion, exclusion and addition

Noun phrase elements are not inflected in any special way to show inclusion, exclusion or addition. Emphasis markers may at times be used to signal inclusion (see 1.11), adverbial limit clauses sometimes express exclusion (see 1.1.2.4.2.11) and comitative structures occasionally mark addition (see 1.3.1.4 and 2.1.1.4.4).

2.1.1.4.28–30
Vocative, citation and label forms

Vocative, citation and label forms are not inflected in any special way. All vocative, citation and label forms constitute separate stress groups and are assigned both phrase and sentence stress (see 3.3.2). The phrase-final particle ò may optionally mark vocative forms (see 1.1.1.4.5).

2.1.1.5
Expression of local semantic functions

The most commonly employed methods for the expression of local semantic functions include the following.
At rest. A copular verb which expresses existence in space such as de or ste (see 1.2.1.6.6) is followed by an object whose referent is the location under discussion or by a prepositional phrase consisting of the general preposition for followed by an object whose referent is the location under discussion:

\[(672)\]

A de fam. OR A de for fam.
1sP cvF farm 1sP cvF p farm
‘I am at the farm.’

In order to further specify a spatial or directional relationship, the locational object may include an associative/possessive construction in which the modifier noun is a locational noun such as onda ‘under’ or a body part such as bak ‘back’ (see 1.2.1.3.1.2, 2.1.1.1.4 and 1.2.5.1.1):

\[(673)\]

A de onda di haws. OR A de for onda di haws.
1sP cvF under ar house 1sP cvF p under ar house
‘I am under the house.’

Locational nouns often form compounds with such words as ples ‘place’ or sayd ‘side’ (see 2.2.6.3). Such compound nouns may be used alone as locational objects or may function as one of the elements of a locational associative/possessive construction:

\[(674)\]

A de baksâyd. OR A de for baksâyd.
1sP cvF backside 1sP cvF p backside
‘I am in back (of something).’

\[(675)\]

A de baksâyd haws. OR A de for baksâyd haws.
1sP cvF backside house 1sP cvF p backside house
‘I am behind the house.’

Motion towards a location. A motion verb which expresses movement towards some destination such as go ‘go’, rich ‘arrive’ or klam ‘climb’ is followed by an object whose referent is the destination under discussion or by a prepositional phrase consisting of the general preposition for followed by an object whose referent is the destination under discussion:

\[(676)\]

A go fam. OR A go for fam.
1sP goF farm 1sP goF p farm
‘I went to the farm.’

Locational nouns which express destination may enter into associative/possessive and/or compound constructions in all of the ways just described for other locational nouns:

\[(677)\]

A go onda di haws. OR A go for onda di haws.
1sP goF under ar house 1sP goF p under ar house
‘I went under the house.’

\[(678)\]

A go baksâyd. OR A go for baksâyd.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1sP goF backside</th>
<th>1sP goF p backside</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>‘I went to the back (of something).’</td>
<td>‘I went behind the house.’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Motion away from a location. Motion verbs which refer to movement away from some location such as *kom* ‘come’ or *kômôt* ‘evacuate’ take destination or patient objects, rather than objects whose referent is the location of the source or point of initiation of the movement under discussion. In order to express the location from which a displacement through space originates, it is necessary to use a prepositional phrase consisting of the general preposition *för* or the minor preposition *fröm* ‘from’ followed by an object whose referent is the point of origin of the movement under discussion. Since *för* is much more commonly employed to express the destination of a trajectory than to express its source location, listeners almost always assume that when speakers use *för* (even after such verbs as *kom*) the referent of the following noun phrase is the endpoint rather than the origin of movement. For this reason, *för* is only sporadically used to signal motion away from a location and when it is utilized in this way, confusion often results:

| (679) | A go baksâyd haws. OR A go för baksâyd haws. |
| 1sP goF backside house | 1sP goF p backside house |

| (680) | A kom fam. |
| 1sP comeF farm | ‘I came to the farm.’ |

| (681) | A kom för fam. |
| 1sP comeF p farm | ‘I came to the farm.’ OR (more rarely) ‘I came from the farm.’ |

| (682) | A kom fröm fam. |
| 1sP comeF from farm | ‘I came from the farm.’ |

In many lects, *fröm* behaves syntactically much more like a preceding serialized verb than a preposition (see 1.1.1.2.2.1.4 and 1.3.1.1.4). In such cases, *fröm* could be considered to be a verb which expresses motion away from some location and its object would refer to the origin of that motion:

| (683) | A fröm fam kom |
| 1sP fromF+ farm come+ | ‘I came from the farm.’ |

| (684) | A fröm onda haws (kom). OR |
| 1sP fromF(+) under house (come+) |

Locational nouns which express the origin of a movement through space may enter into associative/possessive and/or compound constructions in all of the ways described earlier in this section for other locational nouns:
1sP comeF p under house
‘I came from under the house.’

(685) A frôm baksâyd (kom).
1sP fromF(+ ) backside (come+)
‘I came from behind (something).’

(686) A frôm baksâyd haws (kom).
1sP fromF(+ ) backside house (come+)
A kom frôm baksâyd haws.
1sP comeF p backside house
‘I came from behind the house.’

Motion past. Motion past an object is expressed in the same way as is motion towards an object, except that the verb *pas* ‘pass’ is used instead of a verb of motion towards a destination and the object of *pas* refers to the location being bypassed, rather than to the endpoint of the trajectory:

(687) A pas baksâyd haws. OR
1sP passF backside house
A pas fôr baksâyd haws.
1sP passF p backside house
‘I passed behind the house.’

2.1.1.5.1 General locations

(688) *at rest; verb: de, ste; locative noun: none:*
A de fam.
1sP cvF farm
‘I am at the farm.’

(689) *motion towards; verb: go, rich; locative noun: none*
A go fam.
1sP goF farm
‘I went to the farm.’

(690) *motion away; verb: kôm, frôm; locative noun: none*
A kom frôm fam.
1sP comeF from farm
‘I came from the farm.’

(691) *motion past; verb: pas; locative noun: none*
A pas fam.
1sP passF farm
‘I passed the farm.’
‘I passed by the farm.’

2.1.1.5.2
Proximate locations

(692) **at rest; locative noun: [noun+sayd] or nyar ‘near’**

A de famsâyd.  
1sP cvF farmside  
A de nyar dì fam.  
1sP cvF near ar farm

‘I am near the farm.’

(693) **motion towards, locative noun: [noun+sayd] or nyar**

A go famsâyd.  
1sP goF farmside  
A go nyar dì fam.  
1sP goF near ar farm

‘I went near the farm.’

(694) **motion away; locative noun: [noun+sayd] or nyar**

A kôm frôm famsâyd.  
1sP comeF from farmside  
A kôm frôm nyar dì fam.  
1sP comeF from near ar farm

‘I came from near the farm.’

(695) **motion past; locative noun: [noun+sayd] or nyar**

A pas famsâyd.  
1sP passF farmside  
A pas nyar dì fam.  
1sP passF near ar farm

‘I passed near the farm.’

2.1.1.5.3
Interior locations

(696) **at rest; locative noun: insâyd ‘inside’**

A de (fôr) insâyd haws.  
1sP cvF (p) inside house

‘I am in the house.’

(697) **motion towards; verb: go, enta ‘enter’; locative noun: insâyd ‘inside’**

A go (fôr) insâyd haws.  
1sP goF (p) inside house

A enta (fôr) (insâyd) haws.  
1sP enterF (p) (inside) house
‘I went in the house.’

(698) *motion away; verb: kom, fróm, kómôt ‘evacuate’; locative noun: insâyd ‘inside’*
A kom fróm insâyd haws. OR
1sP comeF from inside house
A fróm insâyd haws kómôt.
1sP fromF+ inside house evacuate+
‘I came out from inside the house.’

(699) *motion past; locative noun: insâyd ‘inside’*
A pas (för) insâyd haws.
1sP passF (p) inside house
‘I passed through the house.’

2.1.1.5.4
Exterior locations

(700) *at rest; locative noun: awtsâyd ‘outside’ (opsâyd in some lects)*
A de (för) awtsâyd haws.
1sP cvF (p) outside house
‘I am outside the house.’

(701) *motion towards; verb: go, rich ‘reach’; locative noun: awtsâyd ‘outside’ (opsâyd in some lects)*
A go (för) awtsâyd haws. OR A rich (för) (awtsâyd) haws.
1sP goF (p) outside house 1sP reachF (p) (outside) house
‘I went up to (the outside of) the house.’

Motion away from and motion past exterior locations are expressed in the same way as for general locations (see 2.1.1.5.1).

2.1.1.5.5
Anterior locations

Complex associative/possessive constructions are employed to specify that a particular location is anterior to some point of reference (see 1.2.5.1.1). These constructions consist of the locational point of reference followed first by a possessive pronoun which refers anaphorically back to it and then by a locational noun such as *front ‘front’* or by a body part noun such as *fes ‘face’*:

(702) *at rest*
A de (för) [haws [im front]].
1sP cvF (p) [house [3ps front]]
‘I am in front of the house.’

*motion towards*
A go för haws im front.
‘I went to the front of the house.’

motion away
A kom frım haws im front. OR A från haws im front kom.

‘I came from the front of the house.’

motion past
A pas (för) haws im front.

‘I passed by the front of the house.’

2.1.1.5.6
Posterior locations

Complex associative/possessive constructions may be employed to specify that a particular location is posterior to some point of reference (see 1.2.5.1.1). These constructions consist of the locational point of reference followed first by a possessive pronoun which refers anaphorically back to it and then by a locational noun or a body part noun such as bak ‘back’:

(703) at rest
A de (för) [haws [im bak]].
1sP cvF (p) [house [3ps back]]
‘I am at the back of the house.’

motion towards
A go för haws im bak.
‘I went to the back of the house.’

motion away
A kom frım haws im bak. OR A från haws im bak kom.
‘I came from the back of the house.’

motion past
A pas (för) haws im bak.
‘I passed by the back of the house.’

The compound baksâyd ‘backside, behind’ may be used as well to refer to posterior locations:

(704) at rest
A de (för) baksâyd haws.
1sP cvF (p) backside house
‘I am behind the house.’

motion towards
A go (för) baksâyd haws.
‘I went behind the house.’

motion away
A kom frım baksâyd haws. OR A från baksâyd haws kom.
‘I came from the back of the house.’

motion past
A pas (för) baksâyd haws.
‘I passed by the back of the house.’
2.1.1.5.7–8
Superior and superior contact locations

The locational noun *op* ‘up, top’ or the compound *opsâyd* are used to refer to superior or to superior contact locations:

(705) *at rest*
A de (för) opsâyd haws.
1sP cvF (p) up-side house
‘I am above/on top of the house.’

*motion towards*
A go (för) opsâyd haws.
‘I went above/on top of the house.’

*motion away*
A kom fróm opsâyd haws. OR A fróm opsayd haws kom. ‘I came from above/the top of the house.’

*motion past*
A pas (för) opsâyd haws.
‘I passed over the house.’

2.1.1.5.8(a) Surface locations
Surface location is expressed by the same means as is general location (see 2.1.1.5.1).

2.1.1.5.9–10
Inferior and inferior contact locations

The locational nouns *dawn* ‘down, under’ and *onda* ‘below, under’ or the compounds *dawnsâyd* and *ondasâyd* are used to refer to inferior or to inferior contact locations:

(706) *at rest*
A de (för) onda haws.
1sP cvF (p) under house
‘I am below/under the house.’

*motion towards*
A go (för) onda haws.
‘I went below/under the house.’

*motion away*
A kom fróm onda haws. OR A fróm onda haws kom. ‘I came from below/under the house.’

*motion past*
A pas (för) onda haws.
‘I passed under the house.’
2.1.1.5.11–12
Lateral locations

Complex associative/possessive constructions are employed to specify that a particular location is laterally related to some point of reference (see 1.2.5.1.1). These constructions consist of the locational point of reference followed first by a possessive pronoun which refers anaphorically back to it and then by a locational noun or a body part noun such as sayd ‘side’:

(707)  
\begin{align*}
\text{at rest} & \\
\text{A de (fôr) [haws [im sayd]].} & \\
1sP \text{ cvF (p) [house [3ps side]]} & \\
\text{‘I am beside the house.’} & \\
\text{motion towards} & \\
\text{A go fôr haws im sayd.} & \\
\text{‘I went beside the house.’} & \\
\text{motion away} & \\
\text{A kôm frîm haws im sayd. OR} & \\
\text{A frîm haws im sayd kôm.} & \\
\text{‘I came from beside the house.’} & \\
\text{motion past} & \\
\text{A pas (fôr) haws im sayd.} & \\
\text{‘I passed beside the house.’} & \\
\end{align*}

2.1.1.5.13–16
Citerior and ulterior locations

Citerior location is expressed by the same means as is anterior location (see 2.1.1.5.5) and ulterior location is expressed by the same means as is posterior location (see 2.1.1.5.6).

2.1.1.5.17–18
Medial locations

Medial location is expressed by the same means as is general location (see 2.1.1.5.1).

2.1.1.5.19
Circumferential locations

Circumferential location is usually expressed by the same means as is general location (see 2.1.1.5.1) although the verb rawnd ‘be around’ may be used in a serialized verb construction to show circumferential relations in space as well:

(708)  
\begin{align*}
\text{at rest} & \\
\text{Piên kôm rawnd di môto.} & \\
\text{child +R be around ar car} & \\
\text{‘Children were around the car.’} & \\
\end{align*}
Motion towards
Pìkîn kòm rawnd di mòto go tawn.
‘Children surrounded the car and went (with it) to town.’

Motion away
Pìkîn kòm rawnd di mòto fròm tawn kòmòt.
‘Children surrounded the car and came (with it) from town.’

Motion past
Pìkîn kòm rawnd di mòto pas tawn.
‘Children surrounded the car and passed (with it) by the town.’

2.1.1.5.20
Citerior-anterior locations
Citerior-anterior location is expressed by the same means as is anterior location (see 2.1.1.5.5).

2.1.1.5.21–29
Location in relation to long objects
There are no special means used to refer to location or movement in relation to long objects. The methods listed in 2.1.1.5.1–20 are employed in roughly the same way for objects of all shapes and sizes.

2.1.1.6
Location in time

2.1.1.6.1
General means of expressing location in time
The principal means used to refer to location in time are similar to those used to express semantic functions of noun phrases generally (see 2.1.1.1):

Word order. Most methods for expressing location in time involve the use of either the sentence-initial or the sentence-final adverbial phrase slot (see 1.2.5.3):

(709) Tùdê à gò go makêt.
today IsP –R go market
‘I will go to market today.’

OR

A gò go makêt tûdê.
IsP –R go market today

Associative/possessive constructions utilizing such nominal adverbials of time as afta ‘after’ and bifô ‘before’ in modifier noun position may serve to indicate temporal location (see 1.2.5.1.1):

(710) [Bifô nayt] à gò go makêt.
[before night] IsP –R go market
‘I will go to market before nightfall.’
There is some question as to whether *afta* ‘after’ and *bìfô* ‘before’ are best considered to be modifier nouns or prepositions. These items are often followed by nominal elements which could be categorized as either modified nominals or prepositional objects. Unlike prepositions, both *afta* and *bìfô* may stand alone in an adverbial phrase in much the same way as do noun phrase adverbials. Unlike nominals, however, when *afta* and *bìfô* are used as adverbial clause introducers, they are followed by a noun clause (optionally introduced by *se*) rather than a relative clause (optionally introduced by *we*):

(711) Afta à gò go maket.  OR  A gò go maket afta.
     after 1sP −R go market 1sP −R go market after
     ‘I will go to market after(wards).’

(712) Afta (se) à go maket à gò slip,
     after (ncI) 1sP go market 1sP −R sleep
     ‘After I go to the market I will sleep.’
     *Afta (we) à go maket à gò slip.

This compatibility with *se* rather than *we* is not unique to prepositions, but is instead shared by many non-nominal elements. Certain non-nominal items, including the general preposition itself, never precede a noun clause introduced by *se* (see 1.1.2.2–3). Some nominals which are normally found in modifier position such as the locational nouns (*insâyd* ‘inside’, *onda* ‘under’, etc.) are compatible neither with *se* nor with *we*. Since the use of *afta* and *bìfô* distinguishes itself from that of the locational nouns only in its ability to be followed by noun clauses introduced by *se*, they will be classified as modifying nouns that specify Temporal location in this work.

*Prepositions.* The general preposition *fòr* is often employed to show location in time:

(713) Fòr nayt à gò go haws.
     p night 1sP −R go house
     ‘I will go home at night.’

OR A gò go haws fòr nayt.
     1sP −R go house p night

*Serialized verb constructions.* The valence-increasing verb *tek* may be used to signal the location in time of an event referred to by a following verb in a serialized construction (see 1.3.1.1.4):

(714) A gò tek tûdë go maket.
     1sP −R takeV+ today go+ market
     ‘I will go to market today.’

*Compounding and reduplication.* Compounds which include such items as *taym* ‘time’ and *de* ‘day’ can be utilized to express location in time. Reduplication is used with frequentative, durative, iterative and habitual meanings (see 2.2.6.3):

(715) Nayt-taym à gò go maket.
     night-time 1sP −R go market
     ‘I will go to market at night.’

(716) Sonde sonde à dè go maket.
SundayR 1sP –C go market
‘I go to market every Sunday.’

Other means for locating events in time are the use of tense/aspect/modality auxiliaries (see 2.1.2–4) and adverbial clauses (see 1.1.2.4.2.1).

2.1.1.6.1.1 Time of day The European hour, half hour, quarter hour and minute system is used to express the time of day:

(717) word order/preposition
(Fôr) tu oklôk à gô go haws. OR
(p) two o’clock 1sP –R go house
A gô go haws (fôr) tu oklôk.
1sP –R go house (p) two o’clock
‘I will go home at two o’clock.’

(718) object of valence-increasing verb
A gô tek tu oklôk tûdê go makêt.
1sP –R takeV+ two o’clock today go+ market
‘I will go to market at two o’clock today.’

2.1.1.6.1.2 Period of day The lexical items most commonly used for referring to blocks of time within a 24-hour cycle are: moning ‘morning’, aftanûn ‘afternoon’, ivnin ‘evening’, nayt ‘night’ and midnayt ‘late night’:

(719) word order/preposition
(Fôr) aftanûn à gô go haws. OR
(p) afternoon 1sP –R go house
A gô go haws (fôr) aftanûn.
1sP –R go house (p) afternoon
‘I will go home in the afternoon.’

(720) object of valence-increasing verb
A gô tek aftanûn go makêt.
1sP –R takeV+ afternoon go+ market
‘I will go to the market in the afternoon.’

(721) compound
A gô go haws (fôr) aftanûn -taym.
1sP –R go house (p) afternoon-time
‘I will go home in the afternoon.’

2.1.1.6.1.3 Day of the week The European day names are used: monde, tyuzde, wôdnezde, tozde, frayde, sâtode and sonde:

(722) word order/preposition
(Fôr) möne à gô go haws. OR
(p) Monday 1sP –R go house
A gô go haws (fôr) möne.
1sP –R go house (p) Monday
‘I will go home on Monday.’

(723)  
object of valence-increasing verb
A gô tek mônde go maket.
1sP –R takeV+ Monday go+ market
‘I will go to the market on Monday.’

2.1.1.6.1.4 Month of the year The European month names are used: jânvari, fêbwari, mach, epril, me, jyun, julây, ogost, septemba, oktoba, nofemba and dezemba:

(724)  
word order/preposition
(Fôr) me à gô go haws. OR
(p) May 1sP –R go house
‘I will go home in May.’

(725)  
object of valence-increasing verb
A gô tek me go ples.
1sP –R takeV+ May go+ village
‘I will go home in May.’

(726)  
compound
A gô go haws (fôr) me -taym.
1sP –R go house (p) May-time
‘I will go home in May.’

2.1.1.6.1.5 Year The European year counting system is employed:

(727)  
word order/preposition
(Fôr) nayntinaynti à gô go haws. OR
(p) 1990 1sP –R go house
A gô go haws (fôr) nayntinaynti.
1sP –R go house (p) 1990
‘I will go home in 1990.’

(728)  
object of valence-increasing verb
A gô tek nayntinaynti go ples.
1sP –R takeV+ 1990 go+ village
‘I will go home in 1990.’

2.1.1.6.1.6 Festivals Festivals vary locally according to religious traditions:
word order/preposition
(Fôr) Ramadan à gö go haws. OR
(p) Ramadan 1sP –R go house
A gö go haws (fôr) Ramadan.
1sP –R go house (p) Ramadan.
‘I will go home during Ramadan.’

object of valence-increasing verb
A gö tek Ramadan go ples.
1sP –R takeV+ Ramadan go+ village
‘I will go home during Ramadan.’

compound
A gö go haws (fôr) Ramadan-taym.
1sP –R go house (p) Ramadan-time
‘I will go home during Ramadan.’

2.1.1.6.1.7 Seasons There are two principal seasons: harmatân ‘dry season’ and rênisisin ‘rainy season’:

word order/preposition
(Fôr) harmatân à gö go haws. OR
(p) dry season 1sP –R go house
A gö go haws (fôr) harmatân.
1sP –R go house (p) dry season.
‘I will go home during the dry season.’

object of valence-increasing verb
A gö tek harmatân go ples.
1sP –R takeV+ dry season go+ village
‘I will go home during the dry season.’

compound
A gö go haws (fôr) harmatân -taym.
1sP –R go house (p) dry season-time
‘I will go home during the dry season.’

in some lects (by a process of truncation):

A gö go haws (fôr) harmatâym.
‘I will go home during the dry season.’
2.1.1.6.2
Frequentative

2.1.1.6.2.1–4 Frequentative Reduplication of the temporal adverbial nominals listed in the preceding sections lends to them a frequentative meaning. A similar result is achieved by using these same nominals after the quantifier *evri* ‘every’, which may itself be reduplicated for emphasis. Nominals that refer to times of the day may not be preceded by *evri* and reduplication of months of the year is not possible:

Time of day

(735) reduplication
Im gö tek tu oklōk-tu oklōk dè baf.
3sP −R takeV+ two o’clockR −C bathe
‘(S)he will bathe at two o’clock every day.’

(736) evri construction (de ‘day or taym ‘time’ used for time of day)
Im gö tek tu oklōk dè baf evri taym.
3sP −R takeV+ two o’clock −C bathe every time
‘(S)he will bathe at two o’clock every day.’

Period of day

(737) reduplication
Im gö tek moning-moning dè baf.
3sP −R takeV+ morningR −C bathe
‘(S)he will bathe in the morning every day.’

(738) evri construction
Im gö dè baf evri moning.
3sP −R −C bathe every morning
‘(S)he will bathe every morning.’

Day of the week

(739) reduplication
Im gö tek monde-monde dè baf.
3sP −R takeV+ MondayR −C bathe
‘(S)he will bathe every Monday.’

(740) evri construction
Im gö dè baf evri monde.
3sP −R −C bathe every Monday
‘(S)he will bathe every Monday.’

Month of the year

(741) evri construction
The punctual future is most often expressed via serialized valence-increasing construction marked by the irrealis auxiliary ḡò:

(742) A ḡò tek tu mọnt rìtòn.
    1sP −R take +V two month return+
    ‘I will return in two months.’

2.1.1.6.4 Punctual past

The punctual past is most often referred to by means of a circumlocutory construction that utilizes the completive aspect auxiliary don together with (s)te, a copular verb of existence in time (see 1.2.1.1.6.7). In acrolectal varieties, adverbial clauses introduced by sins ‘since’ may also be used (see 1.1.2.4.2.10):

(743) A don rìtòn tu mọnt wè i don (s)te.
    1sP +C return two month rcl 3sD +C cv
    ‘I returned two months ago.’

2.1.1.6.5 Duration

A temporal adverbial noun phrase may be used to indicate duration if the main verb of the clause in which it occurs is (s)te, a copular verb of existence in time (see 1.2.1.1.6.7). In such cases, the adverbial noun phrase is optionally preceded by the general preposition fòr:

(744) A (s)te Legos (fòr) tu mọnt.
    1sP cv Lagos (p) two month.
    ‘I lived in Lagos for two months.’

2.1.1.6.6–11 Anterior and posterior marking

Anterior marking is usually expressed by means of the temporal modifying noun bìfò ‘before’. To indicate duration in the past, bìfò is used with the past auxiliary bìn or with a nonstative verb that is factatively past in tense (see 2.1.3). In the future anterior duration is marked by the irrealis auxiliary ḡò plus bìfò:

(745) A go Kano bìfò mọnde.
    1sP goF Kano before Monday
‘I went to Kano before (previous to) Monday.’

(746) No enibodi kom bifô monde.
ng anybody comeF before Monday
‘Nobody came before Monday.’

(747) No enibodi gò kom bifô monde,
ng anybody −R comeF before Monday
‘Nobody will come until Monday.’

Posterior marking is usually indicated by means of the temporal modifying noun *afta* ‘after’ or by the preposition/verb *fròm* ‘from’. To indicate anterior duration in the past, *afta* or *fròm* is used with the past auxiliary *bin* or with a nonstative verb that is factatively past in tense (see 2.1.3). In acrolectal varieties, *sins* ‘since’ may also occur here. In the future anterior duration is marked by the irrealis auxiliary *gò* plus *afta* or *fròm*:

(748) A gò go Kano afta m monde.
1sP −R go Kano after Monday
‘I will go to Kano after (subsequent to) Monday.’

(749) No enibodi kom afta mondo.
ng anybody cameF after Monday
‘Nobody came since Monday.’

(750) Sombodi gò kom fròm mondo,
somebody −R comeF from Monday
‘Somebody will come from Monday on.’

2.1.1.7
Double case marking

2.1.1.7.1–4
Double case marking

There are no conventional cases of double case marking in Nigerian Pidgin. A few cases exist in the language, however, that could be marginally related to double case marking. Most of these cases involve the use of a single lexical item to fill more than one sentential slot (see 1.2.5.3). The coalescence of the object of a verb with the subject of a verb which follows it in a serialized verb construction (see 1.2.1.2.1) and the double role played by question-words when they occur at the beginning of headless relative clauses (see 1.1.2.3.6) are good examples of word order being used to mark nominal elements in more than one way for case simultaneously. In complex associative/possessive constructions, a single nominal may serve both as the modifier/possessor nominal of the following nominal and as the modified/possessed nominal of the preceding nominal (see 1.2.5.1.1). Word order and prepositions may at times be combined to doubly mark a particular nominal for case:
A tek Ade im pikin bit -am for Uche im haws.
1sP takeFV+ Ade 3ps child beat+-3oP p Uche 3ps house
‘I beat Ade’s child in Uche’s house.’

The only phonological variation resulting from the juxtaposition of two case markers affects the parsing of
the constituents which share the doubly marked element into phrase stress groups or compound stress units
(see 3.3.2.3 and 2.2.6.3). In such cases, two noun phrases which might ordinarily have been parsed into
different phrase or compound stress units are often combined into the same group for phrase stress
assignment.

2.1.1.8
Number marking in nouns

2.1.1.8.1–2
Number marking in nouns

Beside an optionally marked singular-plural distinction, no other number classification system is available
for nouns in Nigerian Pidgin. The pluralizer dem is the most commonly utilized means to show plurality in
nouns (see 1.2.5.2.6):

(752) A gö tek dì go maket.
1sP −R takeV+ ar goat go+ market
‘I will take the goat(s) to market.’

(753) A gö tek dì dem go maket.
1sP −R takeV+ ar goat pl go+ market
‘I will take the goats to market.’

Nominals are occasionally reduplicated to mark plural number (see 2.2.6.3 and 2.1.1.8.4). When used
without the article dì, reduplicated nouns can be utilized to show nonspecific plurality:

(754) Got-got plentì fòr maket.
goatR be plentyF p market
‘There are plenty of goats in the market.’

A few human nouns have distinct suppletive singular and plural forms. The plural forms of these nouns may
in nearly every instance be replaced by the singular form alone, reduplicated or followed by dem:

(755) A gö tek dì pikìn go maket.
1sP −R takeV+ ar child go+ market
‘I will take the child(ren) to market.’

(756) A gö tek dì chudren go maket.
1sP −R takeV+ ar children go+ market
Plural marking is always optional. Where the specification of number is felt to be relevant in any way to the successful realization of a particular speech act, most nouns are assumed to be in the singular unless otherwise indicated by morphosyntactic or pragmatic/contextual cues. Collective and mass nouns such as hyar ‘hair’ and wòta ‘water’ are rarely marked in any way to show plurality and are anaphorically referred to by third-person singular pronouns. When marked for indefiniteness, however, mass nouns and collective nouns take the plural ‘article’ som rather than the singular won (see 2.1.1.11):

(758) Wòta ì gò ful yò hyar.
water 3sD −R be full 2ps hair
‘Water will fill your hair.’ OR ‘Your hair will be full of water.’
*Wòta dém gò ful yò hyar.
*Wòta gò ful yò hyar dém.

2.1.1.8.3
Other means of number marking

Besides the reduplication of nouns and their use with the pluralizer dém, there are many other methods available for signalling that the referent of a noun is plural which do not involve marking the noun itself, but the marking instead of some other element of the sentence to which it belongs. These methods include the following:

(759) stative verbs, such as plenti ‘be plenty’, mènì ‘be many, etc.
Got gò plenti für maket.
goat −R be plenty p market
‘Goats will be plenty in the market.’ OR ‘There will be plenty of goats in the market.’

(760) reduplication of modifier nouns
A gò tek dì smol pikìn go maket.
1sP −R takeV+ ar be small/mn child go+ market
‘I will take the child(ren) to market.’
A gò tek dì smol-smol pikìn go maket.
1sP −R takeV+ ar be small/mnR child go+ market
‘I will take the children to market.’

(761) quantifiers
A gò tek tu fish giv ünà.
1sP −R takeV+ two fish give+ 5oP
‘I will give you two fish.’
(762) reduplication of quantifiers
A gò tek tu-tu fish giv ùnà.
1sP −R takeV+ twoR fish give+ 5oP
‘I will give you each two fish.’

(763) serialized verbs, such as trowè ‘overflow, etc. (see 1.3.1.1.4 and 2.1.1.4.9)
Got de maket nyàfùnyafu trowè.
goat cvF+ market be very many+ overflow+
‘Goats are very plentiful in the market.’ OR ‘There are very many goats in the market.’

(764) reduplication of adverbs and ideophones
Got de maket wèlwèl.
goat cvF+ market ipR
‘Goats are very plentiful in the market.’ OR ‘There are very many goats in the market.’

2.1.1.8.4
Collective and distributive plurals

There is no special way to mark collective plurality (see 2.1.1.8.1–2). Reduplication in general and the reduplication of numerals in particular are used to show distributive plurality:

(765) A gò tek tu fish giv ùnà.
1sP −R takeV+ two fish give+ 5oP
‘I will give you two fish.’
A gò tek tu-tu fish giv ùnà.
1sP −R takeV+ twoR fish give+ 5oP
‘I will give you each two fish.’

(766) A gò sel di fish nayra-nayra. OR
1sP −R sell ar fish nairaR
A gò sel di fish wùn-wùn nayra.
1sP −R sell ar fish oneR nairaR
‘I will sell the fish at one naira apiece.’

2.1.1.8.5
Singulative from collective nouns

Singulatives are not usually formed from collective nouns.

2.1.1.8.6
Marking of number distinctions in nouns

The marking of number distinctions in nouns is described in detail in sections 2.1.1.8.1–4.
2.1.1.8.7
Number marking in foreign words

Given the fact that the great majority of lexical items in Nigerian Pidgin are of English origin, it is often difficult to make a clear distinction between ‘foreign’ and ‘native’ words in the language. In this work, no attempt will be made to establish the criteria for making such distinctions. Keeping this in mind, the following preliminary generalizations seem to account best for the sample data.

When nonhuman nouns have come into the language, the most commonly occurring form in the donor language has usually been adopted for both singular and plural in Nigerian Pidgin:

(767)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>word</th>
<th>meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>hyar</td>
<td>‘hair(s)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hed</td>
<td>‘head(s)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nel</td>
<td>‘fingernail(s)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BUT</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bins</td>
<td>‘bean(s)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sus</td>
<td>‘shoe(s)’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For some human nouns, both a singular and a plural form have been borrowed:

(768)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>word</th>
<th>meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pesin</td>
<td>‘person(s)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pipul</td>
<td>‘people’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gel</td>
<td>‘girl(s)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gels</td>
<td>‘girls’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(769) A gò tek di pikín go maket.  
1sP −R takeV+ ar child go+ market  
‘I will take the child(ren) to market.’

(770) A gò tek di chudren go maket.  
1sP −R takeV+ ar children go+ market  
‘I will take the children to market.’

The English plural /-s/ suffix system as well as the plural demonstratives diz ‘these’ and doz ‘those’ are employed in some acrolectal varieties, especially with items recently borrowed from English.

2.1.1.9
Noun clauses

2.1.1.9.1–5
Tone classes

There are no classes of nouns which are marked by gender morphemes or which determine agreement or concord phenomena in Nigerian Pidgin. Most nouns in the language, however, can be classified into one of three suprasegmental classes: a high tone class, a low tone class and a low-high tone class (other less
common tonal patterns are found over nouns as well, see 3.3.3.8). Monosyllabic nouns belong almost without exception to the high tone class while disyllabic nouns may belong to any one of the three classes:

(771) high toned nouns (bearing a single high tone)
monosyllabic nouns: fish ‘fish’, ay ‘eye’, etc.
disyllabic nouns: faya ‘fire’, sista ‘sister’, etc.

(772) low toned nouns (bearing a single low tone)
disyllabic nouns: wòta ‘water’, sista ‘nurse’, etc.

(773) low-high toned nouns (bearing a low tone followed by a high tone)
disyllabic nouns: pikîn ‘child’, dòmôt ‘doorway’, etc.

Newly adopted nouns from English are usually assigned to the high tone class. Polysyllabic nouns and nouns recently borrowed from Nigerian languages may bear a wide variety of tonal melodies including (but not restricted to) all of those just mentioned. In some lects low-high nouns are pronounced as if they bore a high-high sequence. Certain tones over loan words from other Nigerian languages do not interact with the stress system in the same way as do other tones. The tonal properties of a noun help to determine the eventual pitch sequence that will occur over the entire phrase stress group to which that noun belongs (see 3.3.2.3).

Noun classes cannot be distinguished from one another on the basis of meaning. It could be argued, however, that low and low-high toned nouns represent a set of words which came into the language via Sierra Leone Krio during the nineteenth century. A more detailed discussion of the suprasegmental systems in Nigerian Pidgin may be found in Faraclas (1985b).

2.1.1.10
Definiteness

2.1.1.10.1–4
Definiteness marking in noun phrases

The principal marker of definiteness is the general article *dì*. Although *dì* may be said to be optional in most cases, the great majority of speakers tend to use it whenever possible, that is, whenever definiteness is even remotely suggested. The spatial relationship between the speaker and the entity under discussion may optionally be indicated by using the demonstratives *dis* ‘this’ and *dat* ‘that’ which also signal definiteness:

(774) A bay möto.
1sP buyF car
‘I bought a car.’ OR ‘I bought the car.’ OR ‘I bought cars.’ OR ‘I bought some cars.’

(775) A bay di möto.
1sP buyF ar car
‘I bought the car (the cars).’
Definiteness may also be expressed by the use of ordinal numbers:

(776) A bay dis mòto.
1sP buyF this car
‘I bought this car (these cars).’

(777) A bay dat mòto.
1sP buyF that car
‘I bought that car (those cars).’

2.1.10.5–6
Definiteness, proper names and abstract nouns

Proper names and abstract nouns are not usually marked in any way for definiteness:

(778) Audu tok se fayt i no gud.
Audu talkF ncl fight/n 3sD ng be goodF
‘Audu said that conflict is not good.’
*Di Audu tok se fayt i no gud.
*Audu tok se di fayt i no gud.

It is only in instances where a proper noun or an abstract noun serves as the head nominal of a relative clause that it may be optionally marked for definiteness:

(779) (Di) Legos we yù bin sàbi bifò no de ègèn.
(ar) Lagos rcI 2sP +P know before ng cvF again
‘The Lagos that you knew no longer exists.’

(780) (Di) gud we yù du gò swit yò màma.
(ar) be good/n rcI 2sP doF –R be sweet 2ps mother
‘The good that you did will please your mother.’

2.1.11
Indefiniteness

2.1.11.1–6
Indefiniteness marking in noun phrases

Nouns may be preceded by the numeral won in the singular or by the quantifier som in the plural to show indefiniteness. Indefiniteness is marked with much less frequency than is definiteness although both are optional in nearly every case (see 2.1.10):

(781) A bay bayro.
1sP buyF pen
‘I bought a pen.’ OR ‘I bought the pen.’ OR ‘I bought pens.’ OR
‘I bought some pens.’

(782) A bay won bayro.
1sP buyF one pen
‘I bought a pen.’

A bay som bayro (dêm).
1sP buyF some pen (pl)
‘I bought some pens.’

Indefiniteness markers do not vary in any way according to the spatial relationship between the entity under
discussion and the participants in the speech act. Indefiniteness is optionally indicated with mass nouns
using the plural marker som. Singular won is not normally found with mass nouns:

(783) A bay gàri.
1sP buyF gari
‘I bought gari.’

(784) A bay som gàri.
1sP buyF some gari
‘I bought some gari.’
*A bay won gari.

2.1.1.12
Types of indefiniteness

2.1.1.12.1–4
Referential and nonreferential indefiniteness

There is no formal means available to differentiate referential from nonreferential indefiniteness.

2.1.1.13
Genericness

2.1.1.13.1–2
Genericness in noun phrases

A generic interpretation is often available for nouns which occur without articles. Otherwise, there is no
special way to mark genericness:

(785) Pikîn gud.
child be goodF
‘Children are good.’ OR ‘Children are a joy.’
2.1.14
Importance of actors

2.1.14.1–4
Degree of importance of actors

The only methods utilized for signalling the importance of actors are the regular topicalization and emphasis/focus processes available to most noun phrases in the language (see 1.11 and 1.12). There are no restrictions as to the number or animacy of the actors involved in the various uses of these processes, which are always optional.

2.1.2
Pronouns

Pronouns fall into two basic classes in Nigerian Pidgin: the free (independent) pronoun class and the bound (dependent) pronoun class (called the emphatic pronoun and the nonemphatic pronoun classes in Faraclas (1986a)). Bound pronouns are dependent on verbs to the extent that they never occur without the verb for which their referents function as arguments. The occurrence of free pronouns is not limited in this way. Free pronouns often form independent phrase stress groups unto themselves and thus become eligible to receive a phrase stress separate from that received by any other elements in the sentence (verbs and verb phrases included, see 3.3.2.3). Bound pronouns, in contrast, may never receive any type of stress and may never be part of any stress group that does not contain the verb for which they play the role of subject or object. Although much of this section has free pronouns as its principal focus, an attempt will be made to account for all of the salient characteristics of both pronominal sets wherever possible, since it is difficult to fully understand the distribution and behaviour of one set in isolation from the other set. For a full listing of pronominal forms, see 2.1.2.1.10.

2.1.2.1
Personal pronouns

2.1.2.1.1
Free pronouns

2.1.2.1.1.1–2 Distribution and obligatoriness/optionality

Pronominal persons. There is both a free and a bound pronoun available for each of six persons (first person singular and plural, second person singular and plural, and third-person singular and plural). No other pronominal persons are expressed by means of pronouns (or any other structure) in the language.

Subject, object and reciprocal pronouns. Both a free and a bound pronoun exist for subject and object arguments for each of the six pronominal persons. For the first, third and fourth persons, object forms differ from subject forms. For the second, fifth and sixth persons, subject and object forms are identical and can only be differentiated by the sentential slot that they occupy (see 1.2.5.3). There is absolutely no distinction made between various types of objects (direct, indirect, oblique, prepositional, etc., see 1.2.1.2.2–6 and 2.1.2.1.10). Reduplicated forms of the free subject pronouns for any of the plural persons may be utilized as
reciprocal pronouns. Reflexive pronouns and invariant pronouns are occasionally used as reciprocal pronouns as well (see 1.7.1.2).

Possessive and reflexive pronouns. There is a single separate possessive pronoun form for each of the six pronominal persons. These forms could be said to be bound forms, in as much as they may not occur without a following possessed nominal in an associative/possessive construction (see 1.2.5.1.1). ‘Free’ possessive pronominals are formed for each of the pronominal persons by following the possessive pronouns with the possessive pronominal form on (see 1.2.5.1.1). Reflexive pronouns are derived for each of the six persons by following the possessive pronouns with bôdi or sef (see 1.6.1.2). Possessive and reflexive pronouns may be used in either subject or object noun phrases.

Obligatoriness/optionality. A bound subject, object or possessive pronoun is obligatorily present wherever its referent serves as an argument for a given verb or preposition or as a modifier for a given nominal element in an associative/possessive construction, except in cases where: (a) a free pronoun with the same referent is present; (b) the referent has been mentioned previously so that pronouns referring back to it are subject to the anaphoric omission processes outlined in sections 1.5.2.1–5; (c) omission of sentence elements under co-ordination occurs (see 1.3.2.1); (d) the special second person singular imperative form is used (see 1.1.3.1); (e) special omission processes which affect dummy subjects apply; (f) subject/object argument coalescence takes place in a serialized verb construction (see 1.3.1.1.4. and 1.2.1.2.1); or (g) a possessive pronoun is omitted under identity in reference with the subject of the sentence when it is the inalienable owner of the possessed nominal (see 1.10.2). In the special cases just listed, the use of bound pronouns is optional.

Free pronouns are optional in all cases where the corresponding bound pronoun is present or has been omitted through the application of the processes described above. In all other instances, the use of free pronouns is obligatory. With the exception of the special second-person imperative form, the occurrence of neither free nor bound pronouns is conditioned in any way by the person or number co-ordinates of their referents.

2.1.2.1.3 Environments where free pronouns may occur

2.1.2.1.3.1–7 Special distribution of free pronouns: Free pronouns are not normally found in noncontrastive nonemphatic contexts, regardless of whether the sentence is declarative, imperative or interrogative. Bound pronouns are generally utilized in such cases. It is primarily in sentences where the pronominal referent is topicalized, emphasized or focused that free pronouns are used:

(786) as head nominal for a relative clause (see 1.1.2.3.4)
   A kôm aks yu wë (yù) no sàbì enì ting.
   1sP +R ask 2EP rcI (2sP) ng knowF any thing
   ‘I ended up asking you, who don’t know anything.’

(787) as head nominal in a cleft sentence under emphasis/focus (see 1.11.2.1.4)
   Nà mi wë bit dì got.
   EI 1EP rcI beatF ar goat
   ‘It is I who beat the goat.’

(788) as head nominal in a pseudocleft sentence under emphasis/focus (see 1.11.2.1.5)
   Yu bì di pësin we bit dì got.
   2EP cvF ar person rcI beatF ar goat
‘You are the person who beat the goat.’

(789) as head nominal in a truncated sentence under emphasis/focus (see 1.2.1.6.2)
Nà mi (we de).
EI 1EP (rcI cvF)
‘It is I (who am here).’ (answering ‘Who is that?’)

(790) dislocated under topicalization (see 1.12.1.3)
Mi (kwana), à de bush.
1EP (T) 1sP cvF bush
‘As for me, I am in the forest.’

(791) in topic-switching questions (see 1.1.1.4.4)
Mi nk?
1EP TQ
‘What about me?’

(792) in echo questions (see 1.1.1.2.3.1)
(Yù min) mì?
(2sP meanF) 1EP Qù
‘(Do you mean) me?’

In this example, the low tone over the first-person emphatic pronoun mi is due to yes-no question rising intonation.

(793) in vocatives and exclamations (see 1.1.1.4)
Yu (sef)!
2EP (E)
‘Hey you!’ OR ‘You (of all people)!’

2.1.2.1.4 Structure of free and bound pronouns
At the segmental level, the only difference between free and bound pronouns is found in the first-person (singular) subject forms, the bound form being à and the free form being identical to the object form mi. At the suprasegmental level all bound forms bear low tone and can never be stressed, while all of the free forms (with the exception of fifth person ünà, which is invariably low) bear high tone and may be said to be inherently stressed (see 1.11.2.1.1). These differences are illustrated in 2.1.2.1.10.

2.1.2.1.5 Distributional restrictions
Bound (reduced) subject and object pronouns may not occur after the focus introducer nà, before any focus/ emphasis markers or topicalizers or in any of the other environments listed in 2.1.2.1.3 where free pronouns are found.

2.1.2.1.2
Person distinctions in pronouns

Three persons (each with a separate singular and plural form) are distinguished. The first person corresponds to the speaker(s), the second person to the hearer(s) and the third person to all others. In some
lects there is a tendency to collapse certain person distinctions (see Faraclas 1986a) but in most varieties all distinctions based on person are maintained.

2.1.2.1.3
Inclusive/exclusive distinctions in pronouns

No distinctions are made in the language on the basis of any type of inclusive/exclusive dichotomy.

2.1.2.1.4
Number marking in pronouns

2.1.2.1.4.1–8 Number distinctions in pronouns

The only distinction made on the basis of number in pronouns and all other subsystems of the language is a singular/plural distinction. A separate singular and a separate plural form exists for each of the pronominal persons. In some lects there is a tendency to collapse certain number distinctions, especially in the third person (see Faraclas 1986a) but in most varieties all distinctions are maintained. No other type of overlapping reference is attested in the data. Paucal, collective, distributive, universal set vs. subset, dual and trial distinctions are not made in pronouns. Cardinal numbers of any magnitude may follow subject pronouns or precede possessive pronouns to specify the number of referents concerned:

(794) Wi tre gô go Opobo.
4EP three −R go Opobo
‘The three of us will go to Opobo.’

(795) Tu àwa frend dèm gô go Opobo.
two 4ps friend pl −R go Opobo.
‘Two of our friends will go to Opobo.’

2.1.2.1.5
Obviative distinctions in pronouns

Obviative distinctions are not made in pronouns. Emphasis/focus and topicalization are generally used for showing obviative distinctions (see 1.11 and 1.12).

2.1.2.1.6
Proximal distinctions in pronouns

Proximal distinctions are not made in pronouns. Demonstratives are normally used for showing proximal distinctions (see 2.1.2.5).

2.1.2.1.7
Special anaphoric pronouns

Besides the reduced form of the third-person subject pronoun i, which tends to be used in relative clauses (see 1.5.2.3.1), and the use of the possessive pronominal on to refer to entire assertions (see 1.5.2.5) there
are no special anaphoric pronouns in Nigerian Pidgin. *We* is not considered to be an anaphoric pronoun in this work, despite the fact that other authors have characterized it so in the past (see 1.1.2.3.4 for more discussion).

2.1.2.1.8  
Gender/class distinctions in pronouns

No gender or class distinctions are made in pronouns, except in some acrolectal varieties, where the third-person feminine form *shi* is sporadically used (see Faraclas 1986a).

2.1.2.1.9  
Ethnic and family marking in pronouns

Ethnic and family affiliation are not marked by means of pronouns. The pluralizer *dèm*, which is identical in form to the sixth-person bound pronoun, may be employed after proper nouns to indicate the family or some other group of people usually associated with the referent of the proper noun:

(796)  
Bòni dèm ã go Opobo.  
Bonny pl –R go Opobo.  
‘The people of Bonny will go to Opobo.’

(797)  
Chidi dèm ã go Opobo.  
Chidi pl –R go Opobo.  
‘Chidi’s family will go to Opobo.’

2.1.2.1.10  
Personal pronoun forms

Personal pronouns have the following forms:

(798)  
*personal pronouns*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person number</th>
<th>Free EP subject</th>
<th>Bound subject</th>
<th>Free EP object</th>
<th>Bound object</th>
<th>Possessive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>mi</td>
<td>à</td>
<td>mi</td>
<td>mà</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>yu</td>
<td>yù</td>
<td>yu</td>
<td>yò</td>
<td>ìm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>im</td>
<td>im</td>
<td>am</td>
<td>-am</td>
<td>ìm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>wi</td>
<td>wì</td>
<td>òs</td>
<td>òs</td>
<td>àwa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>ùnà</td>
<td>ùnà</td>
<td>ùnà</td>
<td>ùnà</td>
<td>ùnà</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>dèm</td>
<td>dèm</td>
<td>dèm</td>
<td>dèm</td>
<td>dèm</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.1.2.1.11  
Tense/aspect/modality distinctions in pronouns

Tense/aspect/modality distinctions are not made in pronouns.
2.1.2.1.12
Status marking in pronouns

2.1.2.1.12.1–3 Status distinctions in pronouns and titles
Status distinctions are not made in pronouns. Titles are used according to local custom. In some areas, the use of titles is very common, while in others it is relatively rare. Titles may be grouped roughly into two broad open classes: traditional titles, many of which vary regionally, and modern titles, which are used throughout Nigeria:

(799) some traditional titles
ògà 'traditional ruler, powerful man'
malam 'teacher, wise man'
alaji 'man who has made the pilgrimage to Mecca'
alaja 'woman who has made the pilgrimage to Mecca'

(800) some modern titles
sà 'sir'
màdàm 'madam'
sìsta 'nursing sister'
prof 'professor'

Despite the complete absence of status distinctions in pronouns in the Port Harcourt data, Obilade (1976:87–9) states that in the midwest, ụnà or dém can replace yù to show ‘special social distance’.

2.1.2.1.13
Nonspecific indefinite pronouns

2.1.2.1.13.1–3 Nonspecific pronouns
There are no special nonspecific indefinite pronouns, although there are nonspecific uses attested for pronouns such as the possessive pronominal on when it is used to refer to entire assertions (see 1.5.2.5). Personal pronouns may be employed as nonspecific indefinite pronouns in such cases as the impersonal ‘passive’ construction, where dém functions as an impersonal subject (see 2.1.3.1.1) or where reduced forms of the third-person subject pronouns are utilized as dummy subjects (see 1.2.1.2.1) or as special anaphoric pronouns (see 1.5.2.3.1). The nouns pesin ‘person’ and man ‘man’ occasionally function as special indefinite pronouns:

(801) Pesin nó dè si wọk ègèn.
person ng –C see work again
‘One can no longer find any work.’

2.1.2.1.14
Specific indefinite pronouns

Specific indefinite pronouns are usually noun phrases headed by the pronominalized numeral won ‘one’, such as: som won ‘someone’, àmodà won ‘another one’, som oda won ‘some other one’, enì oda won ‘any other one’, etc.
2.1.2.1.15
Emphatic pronouns

2.1.2.1.15.1–3 Special emphatic pronouns Free pronouns may be considered to be emphatic pronouns (see 2.1.2.1.1.3–5). Pronouns may also be used with the emphasis marker *sef* to form emphatic pronouns (1.11.2.1.2). The similarity in form between nonemphatic (bound) pronouns and emphatic (free) pronouns suggests that derivational processes are involved to some degree in the relationship between the two pronominal categories. The inherent stress which differentiates free pronouns from other pronouns could be said to be motivated by their emphatic nature (see 2.1.2) while the low tone that differentiates bound pronouns from other pronouns would be motivated by their semi-clitic status (see 1.16.2). Selective emphatic pronouns do not exist. Selective emphasis is normally expressed by means of contrastive emphasis/focus (see 1.11).

2.1.2.1.16
Special complex pronouns

Special complex pronouns do not occur, although the pronoun object of a verb may be coalesced with the pronoun subject of a following verb in a serialized verb construction (see 1.2.1.1).

2.1.2.1.17
[Pronoun+noun] constructions

Any free pronoun may be specified by inserting it into a topic-comment construction where the pronoun is followed immediately by a noun phrase with the same referent:

(802) Unà onyibo pipul no dè chu kola àt̩l.
5EP white people ng −C chew kola ngE
‘You white people don’t chew kola nut at all.’

2.1.2.1.18
Special conjoined pronouns

There are no special conjoined pronominal forms.

2.1.2.1.19
Secondary pronoun systems

2.1.2.1.19.1–3 Secondary pronoun systems No secondary pronoun system exists in Nigerian Pidgin.

2.1.2.1.20
Case and pronouns

2.1.2.1.20.1–5 Case distinctions in pronouns As shown in 2.1.2.1.10, pronouns are segmentally marked for three cases: subject (nominative; see 1.2.1.2.1), object (accusative, dative, oblique and others; see 1.2.1.2.2) and possessive (genitive, associative; see 1.2.5.1.1). Although nouns are not marked segmentally for case, the three pronominal cases correspond to the three nonadverbial sentential slots where noun phrases
may occur: the subject slot, the object slot and the associative modifier/possessor slot (see 1.2.5.3). It may therefore be concluded that, while nouns are marked for case by word order only, pronouns are doubly marked for case (by both word order and segmental differences). Both nouns and pronouns occur as prepositional objects and prepositions play some role in case marking as well (see 2.1.1.4).

2.1.2.2

Pronouns and reflexivity

2.1.2.2.1–7

Reflexive pronouns

Reflexive pronouns are derived for each of the six persons by following the possessive pronouns with bòdi ‘body’ or sef ‘self’ in an associative/possessive construction (see 1.6.1.2):

(803)  reflexive pronouns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person/number</th>
<th>Reflexive (bòdi)</th>
<th>Reflexive (sef)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>mà bòdi</td>
<td>mà sef</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>yò bòdi</td>
<td>yò sef</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>im bòdi</td>
<td>im sef</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>àwa bòdi</td>
<td>àwa sef</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>ùnà bòdi</td>
<td>ùnà sef</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>dèm bòdi</td>
<td>dèm sef</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reflexive pronouns may be used in subject or object noun phrases, but they are marked for case by word order only and do not change their phonological shape to show case distinctions. Reflexive pronouns do not normally occur as the modifier/possessor nominal in an associative construction, except in acrolectal speech, where the possessive pronominal on is substituted for bòdi or for sef.

No semantic or grammatical distinctions beside those just described (person, number and subject vs. object) are made in reflexive pronouns. Other methods available for signalling reflexivity are: (a) the invariable pronoun bòdi; (b) the use of certain verbs which have a reflexive meaning when no object follows them, such as baf ‘bathe’, wund ‘wound’, etc.; and (c) the use of the realis modality auxiliary kom (see 1.6.1.4 for examples of these). Reflexive sef pronouns are sporadically utilized in place of reciprocal pronouns (see 1.7.1.2). No other uses of reflexive pronouns are attested in the data, although the relationship between reflexivity and emphasis needs further exploration (see 1.6.9.1).

2.1.2.3

Pronouns and reciprocity

2.1.2.3.1–7

Reciprocal pronouns

Reciprocal pronouns are formed by reduplicating the plural emphatic subject pronouns (see 1.7.1.2):
(804) reciprocal pronouns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person/ Number</th>
<th>Reduplicated Reciprocal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>wi-wi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>únà-únà</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>dém-dém</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reciprocal pronouns may be used in subject or object noun phrases, but they are marked for case by word order only and do not change their phonological shape to show case distinctions. Reciprocal pronouns do not normally occur as the modifier/possessor nominal in an associative construction, except in acrolectal speech, where the items *ich oda* ‘each other’ and *won ànoda* ‘one another’ may function in this way (see 1.7.7). No semantic or grammatical distinctions besides those just described (person and subject vs. object) are made in reciprocal pronouns. Other methods available for signalling reciprocity are: (a) the invariable acrolectal forms *ich oda* ‘each other’ and *won ànoda* ‘one another’; (b) the use of certain verbs which have a reciprocal meaning when no object follows them, such as *fayt* ‘fight’, *kos* ‘curse’, etc.; and (c) the occasional use of reflexive *sef* pronouns to indicate reciprocal relations (see 1.7.1 for examples of these). No other use of reciprocal pronouns is attested in the data, although the relationship between reciprocity in particular and the processes of reduplication and compounding in general deserves more attention (see 2.2.6.3).

2.1.2.4

Pronouns and possession

2.1.2.4.1–11

Possessive pronouns

Possessive pronouns always occur as the modifier/possessor nominal in an associative/possessive construction (see 1.2.5.1.1). The possessive pronouns are marked for all of the person and number distinctions possible in the language. A full listing of the possessive pronouns can be found in section 2.1.2.1.10. Distinctions between different types of possession (alienable vs. inalienable, temporary vs. permanent, etc.) are not marked in any way on possessive pronouns. Deletion of possessive pronouns is possible, however, when the possessed nominal is inalienably owned by the referent of the subject of the sentence (see 1.10.2). Possessive pronouns may be used in subject or object noun phrases, but they are marked for case by word order only and do not change their phonological shape to show case distinctions. Reflexive and reciprocal possessive structures exist, but are rarely used in most lects of Nigerian Pidgin (see 2.1.2.2–3). Emphasis of possessive pronouns is impossible, but any of the means listed for the emphasis/focus of noun phrases listed in section 1.11 may be employed to emphasize the entire associative/possessive construction in which a given possessive pronoun occurs. Other methods available for signalling possession are: (a) the use of the acrolectal preposition *df* ‘of’; (b) the use of the general preposition *för*, and (c) the use of certain verbs that have a possessive meaning, such as *get* ‘have’, *hold* ‘hold’, etc. (see 1.10 and 2.1.1.4.6–7 for examples of these). Possessive pronouns are used together with *bòdi* or *sef* in an associative/possessive construction to form reflexive pronouns (see 2.1.2.2).
A special invariable possessive pronominal *on* fills the modified/possessed nominal slot of associative/possessive constructions. *On* is not only used to show possession, but may also be utilized to refer anaphorically to an entire assertion (see 1.5.2.5).

### 2.1.2.5

**Pronouns and demonstratives**

2.1.2.5.1–8

Demonstrative pronouns

There are two basic demonstrative pronouns: *dis* ‘this’ and *dat* ‘that’. Complex demonstrative pronominals may be formed by using one of the demonstratives to modify a following generic noun or pronominalized numeral: *dis/dat pesin* ‘this/that person’, *dis/dat won* ‘this/that one’, etc.

There are no special neutral demonstrative pronouns apart from the third-person pronouns. The phonological structure of demonstrative pronouns is not altered in any way to show the degree of distance between the referent and any of the participants in the speech act. In general, *dis* is used to refer to entities relatively close to the speaker, while *dat* is employed with reference to entities relatively far from the speaker or on the far side of the hearer from the speaker. When referring to events in the present (actual or narrative) or in the proximal past or future *dis* is utilized, while *dat* usually implies appreciable temporal distance from the present. Entities referred to in previous discourse are normally referred to by *dat*. Demonstrative pronouns may be used in subject or object noun phrases, but they are marked for case by word order only and do not change their phonological shape to show case distinctions. Because they normally serve as modifiers in other positions (see 1.2.5.2.5 and 1.2.5.3) demonstrative pronouns do not occur as the modifier/possessor nominal in an associative construction, except where they serve as part of a complex demonstrative pronoun:

(805)  
\[
\text{Dis pesin im pìkîn no dè go skul.}  
\text{this person 3ps child ng −C go school}  
\text{‘This person’s child doesn’t attend school.’}  
\]

*Dis im pìkîn no dè go skul.

INSTEAD MEANS: ‘This (one), his/her child doesn’t attend school.’

*Dis pìkîn no dè go skul.

INSTEAD MEANS: ‘This child doesn’t attend school.’

No semantic or grammatical distinctions besides those just described (proximal vs. distal and subject vs. object) are made in demonstrative pronouns. *Dis* may also be used to lend a pejorative or mocking connotation to the referent of a nominal which it modifies, especially when it is followed by an associative construction where *kaynd* ‘kind’ plays the role of modifier noun:

(806)  
\[
\text{Dis (kaynd) pìkîn no g\text{-}et sens ãt\text{-}ôl.}  
\text{this (kind) child ng haveF sense ngE}  
\text{‘This (kind of) child doesn’t have any sense at all.’}  
\]
2.1.2.6

Interrogative pronouns and other question words

There is no clear distinction between general and selective interrogative pronouns on one hand and between interrogative pronouns and question-words on the other in Nigerian Pidgin. All items which may be substituted for a questioned element in question-word questions together with yes-no question, alternative question, topic-switching question and echo question markers will be treated in this section.

Question-words in question-word questions. Words which replace questioned items in question-word questions are referred to as question-words in this work. Question-words are of three types: simple interrogative pronouns, compound interrogative pronouns and question-word expressions. Simple interrogative pronouns include haw ‘how?’, hu ‘who?’, way ‘why?’, we ‘where?’ and, in acrolectal varieties, wen ‘when?’ Compound interrogative pronouns consist of one of the interrogative markers (hus-, war-, wich- or, less commonly, we- or wus-) followed by one of the pronominal bases such as pesin ‘person’, ples ‘place’ or ting ‘thing’ (see 2.2.6.3). The pronominal base kaynd ‘sort, kind’ may precede another pronominal base in a compound interrogative pronoun. Examples of compound interrogative pronouns are watîng ‘what?’, wetîng ‘what?’, wich kaynd ting ‘which (kind of) thing?’, huskaynd pesin ‘who?’ and wusplês ‘where?’ Question-word expressions occurring in the data are for we ‘where?’ watîng mek ‘why’, haw moch ‘how much/many?’ and haw meni ‘how many?’ (see 1.1.1.2.2 for examples and further discussion).

Quantifiers within noun phrases may be questioned using the question-word expressions haw moch and haw meni (these two items are used interchangeably in many cases). All other noun phrase elements except the general article, the pluralizer, topicalizers and emphatic markers may be questioned using compound interrogative pronouns, especially those incorporating the interrogative marker wich ‘which’ and/or the pronominal base kaynd ‘kind’ (see 1.1.1.2.2.1.3 for examples and further discussion). To question elements in prepositional and adverbial phrases which are not included in local noun phrases the following question-words may be employed: (a) the simple interrogative pronouns haw ‘how’, way ‘why?’, we ‘where?’ and, in acrolectal speech, wen ‘when?’; (b) compound interrogative pronouns containing pronoun bases such as taym ‘time’, ples ‘place’ and we ‘means, way’ (these are often preceded by the general preposition för); and (c) the question-word expressions för we ‘where?’ and watîng mek ‘why?’ (see 1.1.1.2.2.1.4 for examples and further discussion).

All question-words are inherently stressed (see 3.3.2.3) and none is marked for any grammatical categories except for case, which is signalled primarily by means of word order and secondarily by the use of prepositions, as is the case for nouns. Question-words may serve to introduce headless relative clauses (see 1.1.2.3.6).

Yes-no question markers. Almost any declarative sentence may be transformed into a yes-no question by replacing the normal sentence-final falling into-nation contour by a rising contour. A yes-no question marker àbi (shebi in the midwest?) may be used (usually together with a sentence-final rising into-nation contour) at the beginning, in the middle or at the end of a sentence in order to transform it into a yes-no question. A negative copular construction such as i no bi so? ‘isn’t it so?’ or i no bi-am? ‘isn’t it so?’ may also occur sentence-finally or (more rarely) sentence-initially as a tag-like yes-no question marker (see 1.1.1.2.1 for examples and further discussion).

Alternative question markers. Weda ‘whether’ sometimes functions as a yes-no question marker at the beginning of a sentence, but it more often serves as an alternative question marker. Alternative questions include two or more conjoined sentences in an or-coordination construction (see 1.3.1.1.3). The forms àbi, òr and weda are most often used here, but ayda is also attested (see 1.1.1.2.1.3 for examples and further discussion).
Topic switching question markers. The topic of a verbal exchange can be changed by asking a question beginning with *Wat ọf...* ‘What about...’ and/or ending with a variety of particules taken from different Nigerian languages, such as: *nko, kwanu, fa, sha, ba*, etc. (see 1.1.1.4.4 for examples and further discussion).

Echo question markers. Most yes-no question markers and question-words may be used to mark echo questions as well. The clause *Yù min (se)* ‘you mean (that)’ can be employed to introduce yes-no echo questions, in which case the yes-no question becomes a noun clause. In question-word echo questions a rising intonation contour replaces the usual falling contour (see 1.1.1.2.3.1 for examples and further discussion).

2.1.2.7
Pronouns and relativization

2.1.2.7.1–3
Relative pronouns and other relative words

There are no special relative pronouns in Nigerian Pidgin. The relative clause introducer *we* is invariable in both phonological form and syntactic position, therefore it is never marked in any way for grammatical categories such as number, class/gender, case, etc. *We* may in fact be omitted in most relative clause constructions with little or no semantic or morphosyntactic change resulting (see 1.1.2.3.1). In previous works written on relativization in Nigerian Pidgin, *we* has often been classified as a relative pronoun. On the basis of the evidence and the arguments presented in section 1.1.2.3.4, however, it may be concluded that in most lects of Nigerian Pidgin, *we* is best classified as a relative clause introducer when it occurs in subordinate clauses. There are no means available to distinguish restrictive from nonrestrictive relative clauses besides intonation, which is more likely to be reset over the initial syllables of a restrictive relative clause than over a non-restrictive relative clause (see 1.1.2.3.2).

The regular personal pronouns as listed in 2.1.2.1.10 may be considered to function secondarily as relative pronouns, in as far as they are employed within relative clauses to refer anaphorically to the head nominal as well as to other elements in their superordinate clause. When used as relative pronouns in this sense, personal pronouns are marked for the usual categories that are marked on them in all other environments: person, number and case (see 2.1.2.1). There is a tendency for the reduced third-person subject pronoun *ì* to be utilized in relative clauses, and in basilectal varieties *ì* could even be characterized as an invariant relative subject pronoun along with its third-person object counterpart -*am*. Since both of these are invariant as well, the only grammatical category they could be said to signal would be case (subject vs. object; see 1.1.2.3.4 and 1.5.2.3.1). Question-words may serve to introduce headless relative clauses (see 1.1.2.3.6). Question-words used in this way cannot even be said to signal the only grammatical category normally marked on question-words, case, since question-words are marked for case by virtue of their position in the sentence and the position of question-words in headless relative clauses is invariable.

2.1.3
Verb morphology

Factative tense/aspect/modality. Verb morphology in Nigerian Pidgin cannot be sensibly discussed without an understanding of what has come to be called factative tense/aspect/modality, which is assigned to verbs according to their value for the feature [+stative] (Welmers 1973). If a verb is not otherwise marked for
tense/aspect/modality by auxiliaries, adverbials of time, or other contextual elements, it is assigned factative tense/aspect/modality values by default. If a nonstative (active) verb is not otherwise marked for tense/aspect/modality, it will by default be marked for past tense, completive aspect, and realis modality. If a stative verb is not otherwise marked for tense/aspect/modality, it will by default be marked for nonpast tense, incompletive aspect and realis modality. The factative (default) values for tense/aspect/modality in verbs could be formalized in the following way:

(807)  
\[ \text{factative (default) tense/aspect/modality} \]
\[ [−\text{stative}] \quad [+\text{past}], [+\text{completive}], [+\text{realis}] \]
\[ [+\text{stative}] \quad [−\text{past}], [−\text{completive}], [+\text{realis}] \]

(808)  
\[ [−\text{stative}] \text{ verb kari ‘carry’ with no overt marking has factative} \]
\[ \text{tense/aspect/modality marking by default} \]
\[ \text{A kari nyam.} \]
\[ 1\text{sP carryF yam} \]
\[ \text{‘I carried ([+past], [+completive], [+realis]) yams.’} \]

(809)  
\[ [−\text{stative}] \text{ verb go ‘go’ with no overt marking has factative} \]
\[ \text{tense/aspect/modality marking by default} \]
\[ \text{A go Kano.} \]
\[ 1\text{sP goF Kano} \]
\[ \text{‘I went ([+past], [+completive], [+realis]) to Kano.’} \]

(810)  
\[ [+\text{stative}] \text{ verb layk ‘like’ with no overt marking has factative} \]
\[ \text{tense/aspect/modality marking by default} \]
\[ \text{A layk nyam.} \]
\[ 1\text{sP likeF yam} \]
\[ \text{‘I like ([−past], [−completive], [+realis]) yams.’} \]

(811)  
\[ [+\text{stative}] \text{ copular verb de with no overt marking has factative} \]
\[ \text{tense/aspect/modality marking by default} \]
\[ \text{A de Kano.} \]
\[ 1\text{sP cvF Kano} \]
\[ \text{‘I am ([−past], [−completive], [+realis]) in Kano.’} \]

The co-occurrence of particular values for the features [±past], [±completive] and [±realis] in the factative marking of verbs reveals some of the most salient characteristics of the tense/aspect/modality system in Nigerian Pidgin. One value for a given feature regularly corresponds to certain values for other features, even when verbs are overtly marked for tense, aspect and/or modality. For example, when a verb is marked for incompletive aspect by the incompletive auxiliary dè, it is assigned a [−past] value for tense and a [+realis] value for modality by default, if there are no overt tense or modality markers present:

(812)  
\[ [−\text{stative}] \text{ verb kari ‘carry’ with [−completive] dè is [−past] and} \]
\[ [+\text{realis}] \text{ by default} \]
\[ \text{A dè kari nyam.} \]
1sP –C carry yam
‘I am carrying ([−completive], therefore [−past], [+realis]) yams.’

(813)  [+stative] verb layk ‘like’ with [+past] adverbial bifô is [+completive] and [+realis] by default
A layk nyam bifô.
1sP likeF yam before
‘I liked ([+past], therefore [+completive], [+realis]) yams before.’

The following default marking patterns generally hold for verbs which are overtly marked for tense only, aspect only or modality only:

(814)  *default marking patterns for partially marked verbs*

If verb is overtly marked only for

Then, by default, it is also

Tense

[+past]  [+completive], [+realis]
[−past]  [−completive], [+realis]
[−past], ‘future’  [−completive], [+realis]

Aspect

[+completive]  [+past], [+realis]
[−completive]  [−past], [+realis]
[−completive], ‘abstract’  [−past], [−realis]

Modality

[+realis]  [+past], [+completive]
[−realis]  [−past]

These patterns define a web of relations that hold between the tense, aspect and modality subsystems in Nigerian Pidgin. A given verb in a given context will situate itself on this web by virtue of its stativity if it is not overtly marked for tense/aspect/modality or, according to the ‘default paths’ that link the various values for tense, aspect and modality, if it is only partially marked by overt means:

(815)  *web of default relations between the tense, aspect and modality subsystems*

Finally, it should be noted that the [+past] tense auxiliary *bin* differs from other auxiliaries in that it represents relations other than those linked by the default paths in the preceding diagram. *Bin* as [+past] marker is much less closely linked to [+completive] aspect than the [−completive] aspect markers are linked to the [+]past tense. In fact, *bin* in many cases brings with it a [−completive] rather than a [+completive] meaning (see 2.1.3.3.2.1.2). *Bin* could therefore be said to represent semantically marked paths on the tense/aspect/modality web, as opposed to the semantically unmarked default paths.
2.1.3.1
Voice

2.1.3.1.1
Passive voice

2.1.3.1.1–4 Passive While there is no true passive in Nigerian Pidgin, several constructions exist which express passive meanings to one degree or another. It should be noted that no special agentive marking system is used and that ‘passive’ sentences have the same range of possibilities for tense/aspect/modality marking as do other sentences in the language. There is a tendency, however, for the realis modality auxiliary *kom* to be employed with greater than average frequency in ‘passive’ sentences. This is no accident, given the general propensity of speakers to utilize both passive voice and realis modality to minimize any perception on the part of the listener that the assertion is motivated by personal ambitions or coloured by value judgements, feelings or any attribution of guilt or responsibility for events (see 2.1.3.4 and Farclas 1987). There is no formal way to distinguish dynamic passivity from static passivity. ‘Passive’ constructions include the following.

*Impersonal* *dèm* construction. The sixth-person bound subject pronoun *dèm* may be used impersonally to express a passive meaning (see 1.2.1.2.1 and 2.1.1.2.13 for more examples):

(816)  Dèm tek layt.
  6sP takeF light
  ‘Power has been cut.’ OR ‘There is a power shortage.’

*Impersonal* *yù* construction. The second-person bound subject pronoun *yù* may also be utilized impersonally with a passive meaning, especially in procedural texts:

(817)  Yù tek nayf kòt nyam put fôr faya boyl finish
  2sP takeV+ knife cut+ yam put+ p fire boil+ +C
  pawnd -am chop belêfûl.
  pound+-3oP eat+ be satiated+
  ‘(To eat yams,) you cut the yams with a knife and put them to boil completely to be pounded and eaten to satiation.’

*Role reversal verbs.* Verbs such as *kach* ‘catch’ and *chop* ‘eat’ may take subjects (often derived from stative verbs) which refer to mental or physical states such as *hongri* ‘hunger’ or *taya* ‘tiredness’ (see example in 2.1.1.2.13). In these constructions, the experiencer is expressed via the element in the object slot, rather than the element in the subject slot:

(818)  A kom hongri.
  1sP +R be hungry
  ‘I was hungry.’

(819)  Nyam kom hongri mì.
  yam +R be hungry 1oP
  ‘I was hungry (for yams).’
Hongri kom kach mi.
be hungry/n +R catch 1oP
‘Hunger caught me.’ OR ‘I was hungry.’

Obilade (1976:75) records *Chye tu fol mi*, meaning ‘I fall (too) easily from chairs.’

2.1.3.1.2
Decreasing the valence of verbs

2.1.3.1.2.1–4 Means of decreasing the valence of verbs Besides the ‘passive’ constructions described and exemplified in 2.1.3.1.1., the following means are available for decreasing the valence of verbs:

*Objectless active verbs.* An active verb may be used without an object:

(821)      A kom chop nyam.
1sP +R eat yam
‘I ate (yam).’

(822)      A kom chop.
1sP +R eat
‘I ate.’

Verbs which often take more than one object may be used with only one of their objects overtly marked (see 1.2.1.2.3):

(823)      A kom giv di man di nyam.
1sP +R give ar man ar yam
‘I gave the yam to the man.’

also acceptable (where the other object is understood):

A kom giv di man.
A kom giv di nyam.

*Objectless stative verbs.* When a stative verb does not have an overtly marked object, it is the subject, in as much as it is the experiencer of the event, which (by default) could also be said to be the sufferer or recipient of the consequences of that event (see 2.1.1.2.1–8 for more examples and extensive discussion of this phenomenon):

(824)      A kom spoyl di sup.
1sP +R be spoiled ar soup
‘I spoiled the soup.’

(825)      Di sup kom spoyl.
ar soup +R be spoiled
‘The soup is spoiled.’
Objectless ‘reciprocal’ verbs. Certain verbs, such as *kos* ‘curse’ and *fayt* ‘fight’, have an inherently reciprocal meaning when they are used without an overtly marked object (see 1.7.1.4):

(826) Snek kom fayt di bed.
snake +R fight ar bird
‘The snake fought with the bird.’

(827) Di bed dem kom fayt.
ar bird pl +R fight
‘The birds fought with one another.’

Objectless ‘reflexive’ verbs. Certain verbs, such as *baf* ‘bathe’ and *wund* ‘wound’, have an inherently reflexive meaning when they are used without an overtly marked object (see 1.6.1.4):

(828) A kom wund di bed.
1sP +R wound ar bird
‘I wounded the bird.’

(829) Di bed kom wund.
ar bird +R wound
‘The bird hurt itself.’

 Dummy subjects and subject omission. A reduced form of the third-person bound subject pronoun *i* is employed as a dummy subject, especially in copular constructions that express existence in time or in quantity (see 1.2.1.1.6.7–8). This dummy subject is semantically empty and is often omitted (see 1.2.1.2.1):

(830) (I) no bi mi du -am.
(3sD) ng cvF 1EP doF-3oP
‘It is not I who did it.’ OR ‘I am not the one who did it.’

(831) (I) rimên tu nayra.
(3sD) remainF two naira
‘There remain two naira.’ OR ‘Two naira are left.’ OR ‘You still owe two naira.’

2.1.3.1.3
Increasing the valence of verbs

Serialized verb constructions. The principal method utilized for increasing the valence of verbs is the use of serialized verb constructions. A fuller listing of some of the possibilities for the use of this very productive process for increasing valence (with examples of each major subprocess) may be found in section 1.3.1.1.4:

(832) A fray dòdo.
1sP fryF plantain
‘I fried plantain.’
Prepositions. Another important method which may be utilized to increase the valence of verbs is the use of prepositions, especially the general preposition *fôr* (see 2.1.1.1.4 and 2.1.1.4–7. for a full listing and more examples):

(834) A fray dòdo *fôr* oyil *fôr* pan *fôr* Akpan.
1sP fryF plantain p oil p pan p Akpan
‘I fried plantain in oil with a pan for Akpan.’

2.1.3.1.3–3 Causative There are two causative constructions which may be used interchangeably. The most commonly employed construction utilizes the verb *mek* ‘make’ followed first by an object whose referent is the causee and then by a verb in series whose subject is the causee. This is one of the few serialized verb construction types where verbs in series do not share the same subject (see 1.3.1.1.4):

(835) Im gò mek mì go.
3sP −R make+ 1oP go+
‘(S)he will make me go.’

The other construction consists of a superordinate clause containing a verb such as *du* ‘do, make’ or *pôshû* ‘pursue’ which takes the causee as its object, followed by a subjunctive noun clause headed optionally by the noun clause introducer *se* and then obligatorily by the subjunctive clause introducer *mek* (which is identical in form to the verb *mek* ‘make’; see 1.1.1.3 and 1.1.2.2.2). The subject of the noun clause is co-referent with the causee object of its superordinate clause:

(836) Im gò du mì (se) mek à go.
3sP −R do 1oP (ncI) SJcI 1sP goSJ
‘(S)he will make me go.’

The two constructions just described are the only methods available for expressing the causative voice. Their use is in no way sensitive to the type and/or number of objects usually associated with the verbs they contain:

(837) Im gò mek mì chop (gàri).
3sP −R make+ 1oP eat+ (gari)
‘(S)he will make me eat (gari).’

(838) Im gò mek mì giv yù gàri.
3sP −R make+ 1oP give+ 2oP gari
‘(S)he will make me give you gari.’

(839) Im gò du mì (se) mek à chop (gàri).
3sP −R do 1oP (ncI) SJcI 1sP eat+ (gari)
‘(S)he will make me eat (gari).’

(840)   Im gò du mì (se) mek à giv yù gàri.
   3sP −R do 1oP (ncI) SJcI 1sP give+ 2oP gari
   ‘(S)he will make me give you gari.’

No formal differences are made depending on the agentivity of the causee. Items that refer to the causee may never be omitted from a causative construction:

(841)   Audu gò mek dì klòt kòm wayt.
   Audu −R make+ ar cloth +R be white+
   ‘Audu will make the cloth white.’
   *Audu gò mek kòm wayt.

(842)   Audu gò du dì klòt (se) mek dì klòt kòm wayt.
   Audu −R do ar cloth (ncI) SJcI ar cloth +R be white
   ‘Audu will make the cloth white.’
   Audu gò du dì klòt (se) mek-am kòm wayt. BUT *Audu gò du dì klòt (se) mek kòm wayt.

2.1.3.1.4
Special reflexive and reciprocal verb forms

There are no special reflexive or reciprocal verb forms in the language (see 1.6 and 1.7).

2.1.3.2
Tense

Where tense is not overtly marked by means of auxiliaries, time adverbials or other contextual cues, factative tense values are assigned by default (see 2.1.3). All of the tense markers described in this section are used optionally rather than obligatorily.

2.1.3.2.1
Formal marking of tense distinctions

In most cases, tense is not formally marked. The future is the most consistently marked tense, but its marker is borrowed from the modality auxiliary system (see 2.1.3.2.1.4 and 2.1.3.4). Time adverbials are employed at least as often as are auxiliaries to specify the location of an event in time:

(843)   Yestàdè à de haws,
   yesterday 1sP cv house
   ‘Yesterday I was at home.’

(844)   Naw à de haws,
   now 1sP cv(F) house
'Now I am at home.'

(845)   Tûmoro à de haws,
tomorrow 1sP cv house
‘Tomorrow I will be at home.’

2.1.3.2.1.1 Universal tense There is no formal means available to mark universal tense, although incompletive aspect may at times be used for this purpose (see 2.1.3.3):

(846)   [+stative] verb, [−C] by default
Snake bad.
snake be badF
‘Snakes are bad.’

(847)   [−stative] verb, must be marked overtly for incompletive
Snake dè bayt.
snake −C bite
‘Snakes bite.’

2.1.3.2.1.2 Present tense There is no formal means available to mark present tense. Incompletive aspect is normally utilized for this purpose (see 2.1.3 and 2.1.3.3):

(848)   [+stative] verb, [−C] by default
I am at home.
A de haws.
1sP cvF house
‘I am at home.’

(849)   [+stative] verb, must be marked overtly for incompletive (present)
I am going home.
A dè go haws.
1sP −C go house
‘I am going home.’

2.1.3.2.1.3 Past tense

2.1.3.2.1.3.1–2 Past tense: Factatively, nonstative verbs are past tense by default (see 2.1.3). The past tense marker bin may be used with stative verbs to show past tense:

(850)   [+stative] verb, must be marked overtly for past
I was at home.
A bin de haws.
1sP +P cv house
‘I was at home.’

(851)   [−stative] verb, [+P] by default
I ate yams.
A go haws.
1sP goF house
‘I went home.’
The past tense is not divided up in any way to show degrees of remoteness. Pluperfect or past anterior tense/sequence can be signalled by the use of *bin* with nonstative verbs or by the combined use of the completive auxiliary *don* and either *bin* or the realis auxiliary *kom*:

(852)  

| [−stative] verb, past by default, pluperfect when used with *bin* |
|---------------------------------|------------------|
| A *bin* go haws.                | A *bin* chop yam. |
| 1sP +P go house                 | 1sP +P eat yam   |
| ‘I had gone home.’              | ‘I had eaten yams.’ |

(853)  

| [−stative] verb, past by default, pluperfect when used with *don* |
|---------------------------------|------------------|
| A *don* tif *kom* ritaya.       |                  |
| 1sP +C steal+ +R retire+        |                  |
| ‘I had been stealing (for a living) but then I stopped.’ |

(854)  

| [+stative] verb, nonpast by default, needs both *bin*+*don* to show pluperfect |
|---------------------------------|------------------|
| A *bin* *don* layk yam bifô yû *kom* chop-am. |                  |
| 1sP +P +C like yam before 2sP +R eat -3oP |                  |
| ‘I had liked yams before you first ate them.’ |

Past tense in the superordinate clause of a conditional construction is marked by the modal verb *fô* ‘should’ (see 1.1.2.4.2.5):

(855)  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>−stative verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If à <em>bin</em> get möto, a <em>fô</em> go Kano.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>avcI 1sP +P have car 1sP should+ go+ Kano</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘If I had a car, I would have gone to Kano.’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 2.1.3.2.1.4 Future tense

2.1.3.2.1.4.1–3 Future tense: The irrealis modality auxiliary *gô* may be used with any verb either to show irrealis modality (see 2.1.3.4) or to mark future tense:

(856)  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>[+stative] verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A <em>gô</em> de haws.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1sP −R cv house</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘I will be home.’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(857)  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>[−stative] verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A <em>gô</em> go haws.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1sP −R go house</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘I will go home.’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The modal verbs *want* ‘want’ and *fô* ‘should’ are often employed to mark events which are about to occur in the immediate future (see 2.1.3.3.2.1.6):

(858)  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>[−stative] verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A want go haws.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A <em>fô</em> chop yam.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Future anterior tense/sequence is expressed by using ṣò together with the completer auxiliary don:

(859) [+stative] verb
A ṣò don de haws fôr di taym yù ṣò slip.
1sP +R +C cv house p ar time 2sP −R sleep
‘I will have been home (for some time) by the time you (will) go to sleep.’

(860) [−stative] verb
A ṣò don chop nyam bifô yù ṣò rich dì haws.
1sP −R +C eat yam before 2sP −R reach ar house
‘I will have eaten yams before you (will) arrive at the house.’

2.1.3.2.3 Absolute vs. relative nature of tenses

2.1.3.2.3.1–3 Absolute tense vs. relative tense Just as noninitial verbs in serialized verb constructions tend to have their tense/aspect/modality properties determined by those of the initial verb in the construction, so do all verbs tend to have their tense/aspect/modality properties determined by those of verbs which precede them in superordinate or co-ordinate structures or even in distinct sentences within the same discourse unit:

(861) Yëstàdê à go tawn. A no de haws.
yesterday 1sP goF town 1sP ng cv house
‘Yesterday I went to town. I wasn’t at home.’

In the preceding example, the stative verb de is not in the nonpast tense, as we might expect it to be given the default value for tense assigned to unmarked verbs by factative tense/aspect/modality (see 2.1.3). Instead, de is in the past tense because the verb of the previous sentence is marked as [+past], both by the time adverbial yëstàdê and by the factative assignment of past tense to unmarked nonstative verbs.
2.1.3.3
Aspect

Where aspect is not overtly marked by means of auxiliaries, adverbials or other contextual cues, factative aspect values are assigned by default (see 2.1.3). All of the aspect markers described in this section are used optionally rather than obligatorily. In most cases, aspect is not formally marked. Aspect is, however, more commonly marked than is tense. Adverbials, ideophones and serialized verbs are employed as often as are auxiliaries to specify how an event occurs or unfolds in time (see 1.3.1.1.4):

(862) [+stative] verb, [−completive] by default
A sik.
1sP be sick fi
‘I am sick.’

(863) marked [+completive] by auxiliary don
A don sik.
1sP +C be sick
‘I have become (completely) sick.’

(864) marked [+completive] by auxiliary/serial verb finish
A sik finish.
1sP be sick +C
‘I have become (completely) sick.’

(865) marked [+completive] by ideophone kpakpa:
A sik kpakpa.
1sP be sick ipR
‘I have become (completely) sick.’

2.1.3.3.1
Perfect/completive aspect

2.1.3.3.1.1 Perfect/completive Past situations with present relevance are indicated in the following ways: (a) by the use of adverbials such as bìfô ‘before’ or sins ‘(long) since’; (b) by the use of completive auxiliaries such as don and taya; and (c) by the use of realis modality markers such as kom and ò:

(866) A don kom (ò).
1sP +C came (f)
‘I have come.’ OR ‘Here I am.’

(867) A (don) kom sins (ò).
1sP (+C) come since (f)
‘I have long since come.’

(868) Yù don kom ò!
2sP +C come f
‘You have come.’ OR ‘You finally understand what I have been trying so long to tell you!’

2.1.3.3.1.2 Perfect/completive aspect and tense/sequence Pluperfect, future perfect and present perfect tense/sequence may be signalled by the use of the completive auxiliaries and/or other perfect markers together with the appropriate tense markers (see 2.1.3.2):

(869) \[ \text{pluperfect tense/sequence} \]
A bin dön layk nyam bifō yù kom layk-am.
1sP +P +C like yam before 2sP +R like -3oP
‘I had liked yams before you first liked them.’

(870) \[ \text{future perfect tense/sequence} \]
A gö dön chop nyam bifō yù gö rich dì haws.
1sP −R +C eat yam before 2sP −R reach ar house
‘I will have eaten yams before you (will) arrive at the house.’

(871) \[ \text{present perfect tense/sequence} \]
Awa taym dön dè finish.
4ps time +C −C be finished
‘Our time has nearly finished.’

2.1.3.3.1.3 Meanings expressed by perfect/completive aspect

2.1.3.3.1.3.1 A present result of a past situation: A present result of a past situation is most often referred to by means of the use of the completive auxiliary dön. The phrase-final particle/realis modality marker ô is also quite commonly employed to express this aspectual relation:

(872) A dön chop.
1sP +C eat
‘I have eaten.’ (in response to: ‘Will you eat now?’)

(873) A neva chop ô.
1sP ng+C eat f
‘I haven’t eaten.’ OR ‘I am hungry.’

With [+stative] verbs, perfect/completive marking indicates that the state referred to by the verb has been entered into and continues into the present:

(874) A dön veks.
1sP +C be angry
‘I have become angry.’ OR ‘I am angry.’

When the realis auxiliary kom is utilized in this way, it may at times refer to some state that continues into the present, but more often refers to some state that continued until some moment in the past that is of relevance to the discussion at hand. This illustrates the semantic linkage ‘by default’ between [+realis] modality, [−completive] aspect, and [+past] tense:
Finally, certain verbs inherently refer to events which occurred in the past but which have present relevance. The verb *si* ‘see’, for example, is more accurately translated as ‘catch sight of. For this reason *si* behaves as a [−stative] verb, and causes great confusion in its usage for speakers of English, where *see* behaves more like a stative verb. This explains as well the use of *si* with the meaning ‘discover, find’, while the verb *faynd* means ‘search (for)’:

(876)    A bin faynd-am, bôt à no si -am.
1sP +P find -3oP but 1sP ng seeF-3oP
‘I looked for it, but I didn’t find it.’

Some verbs straddle the boundary between [+stative] and [−stative] and can be used both to refer to entering a particular state as well as to existing in that state. The verb *get*, for example, usually occurs as a [+stative] verb meaning ‘have’, but it occasionally takes on the [−stative] meaning ‘obtain’, especially where completive auxiliaries or markers for the ingressive aspect such as *kom* are present (see 2.1.3.2.1.6):

(877)    get as [+stative], dè marking is unnecessary because of factative tense/aspect/modality (see 2.1.3)  
A get mòto.
1sP haveF car
‘I have a car.’

(878)    get as [−stative]
A kom get mòto.
1sP +R obtainF car
‘I obtained a car.’ OR ‘I bought a car.’

2.1.3.3.1.3.2 A situation that has held at least once in a previous period: A situation that has obtained at least once in a past period is most frequently indicated by the adverbial *bìfô* ‘before’. The completive auxiliary *don* and its negative counterpart *neva* are also quite commonly employed to express this aspectual relation:

(879)    A:    Yù dön sik bìfô ? 2sP +C be sick before Qù  
B:    A ngva sik (bìfô). 1sP ng+C be sick (before)  
A:    ‘Have you ever been sick?’  
B:    ‘(No,) I have never been sick.’

2.1.3.3.1.3.3 A situation that began in the past and is still continuing: A situation that began in the past and is still continuing is usually signalled by the adverbial *sins* ‘(long) since’. The completive auxiliaries *don* and *taya* may be utilized together with the incompletive auxiliary *dè* for this same purpose:

(880)    A (dè) wet yù sins.
1sP (−C) wait for 2oP since
‘I have been waiting for you for a long time.’

(881) A dè wet yù taya.
1sP –C wait for 2oP +C
‘I have been waiting for you for a long time.’

(882) A don dè wet yù (sins).
1sP +C –C wait for 2oP (since)
‘I have been waiting for you for a long time.’

2.1.3.3.1.4 Perfect/completive aspect and past tense Besides the default relationship between [+completive] aspect, [+realis] modality and [+past] tense (see 2.1.3) there is no special relationship between the perfect/completive aspect and any particular type of past tense in Nigerian Pidgin.

2.1.3.3.2 Aspect and duration of events

2.1.3.3.2.1 Aspect as different ways of viewing the duration of a situation

2.1.3.3.2.1.1 Perfective/completive aspect: By default (factative tense/aspect/modality) nonstative verbs refer to events in their totality, unless otherwise marked (see 2.1.3). Stative verbs, however, must be used with completive aspect auxiliaries to express the same aspectual relation:

(883) [−stative] verb, perfective because of factative tense/aspect/modality (see 2.1.3)
A wɔsh plet.
1sP washF dish
‘I washed (the) dishes.’

(884) [+stative] verb, perfective marked by don
A don ste fɔr Ilorin.
1sP +C stay p Ilorin
‘I (have) lived in Ilorin.’

2.1.3.3.2.1.2 Imperfective/incompletive aspect: By default (factative tense/aspect/modality) stative verbs refer to events which are viewed with respect to their internal constituency, unless otherwise marked (see 2.1.3). Nonstative verbs, however, must be used with the incompletive aspect auxiliary dè to indicate imperfective/incompletive aspect:

(885) [+stative] verb, imperfective because of factative tense/aspect/modality (see 2.1.3)
A ste fɔr Ilorin.
1sP stayF p Ilorin
‘I live in Ilorin.’

(886) [−stative] verb, imperfect marked by dè
A dè wɔsh plet, bɔt dèm no gri klin.
1sP −C wash dish but 6sP ng agreeF+ be clean+
‘I am washing (the) dishes, but they aren’t getting clean.’

Since the past auxiliary *bin* is semantically marked in that it signals [−completive] aspect more readily than [+completive] aspect (see 2.1.3) the use of *dè* is optional when *bin* marks past tense:

(887)    A *bin* ste ñ̂r Ilorin.
1sP +P stay p Ilorin
‘I was living in Ilorin.’

(888)    A *bin* (dè) wɔsh plet, bɔt dèm no gri klin.
1sP +P (−C) wash dish but 6sP ng agreeF+ be clean+
‘I was washing (the) dishes, but they wouldn’t get clean.’

2.1.3.3.2.1.3 Habitual/incompletive aspect: In most cases, the habitual/ incompletive aspect is signalled by the use of a reduplicated adverbial of time or an adverbial consisting of the item *evri* ‘every’ followed by a nominal referring to some unit of time together with the incompletive aspectual marker *dè*. In nonpast tenses, *dè* is employed with most verbs (both non-stative and stative) while in the past tense *bin* may be employed with or without *dè* with verbs of any category:

(889)    A *dè* ste ñ̂r Ilorin evri taym.
1sP −C stay p Ilorin every time
‘I always stay in Ilorin.’

(890)    A *dè* wɔsh plet sɔnde sɔnde.
1sP −C wash dish SundayR
‘I wash (the) dishes every Sunday.’

(891)    A *bin* (dè) ste ñ̂r Ilorin evri mont.
1sP +p (−C) stay p Ilorin every month
‘I used to stay in Ilorin every month.’

(892)    A *bin* (dè) tek sɔnde sɔnde (dè) wɔsh plet. OR
1sP +P (−C) takeV+ SundayR (−C) wash+ dish
A *bin* (dè) wɔsh plet sɔnde sɔnde.
1sP +P (−C) wash dish SundayR
‘I used to wash (the) dishes every Sunday.’

2.1.3.3.2.1.4–5 Continuous/incompletive and progressive/incompletive aspect: Both the continuous/ incompletive and the progressive/incompletive aspects are indicated by the use of unmarked (factative; see 2.1.3) stative verbs or by nonstative verbs used together with the incompletive aspectual marker *dè*. In the past tense *bin* may be employed with or without *dè* with verbs of any category to show continuous/ incompletive or progressive/incompletive aspect:

(893)    A ste ñ̂r Ilorin.
1sP stay in Ilorin
‘I am staying in Ilorin.’

(894) A dé wósh plet.
1sP -C wash dish
‘I am washing (the) dishes.’

(895) A bin ste för Ilorin.
1sP +P stay in Ilorin
‘I was staying in Ilorin.’

(896) A bin (dè) wósh plet.
1sP +P (-C) wash dish
‘I am washing (the) dishes.’

2.1.3.2.1.6 Ingressive aspect: The modal auxiliary verbs (see 1.3.1.4) bigín ‘begin’, want ‘want’ and fò ‘should’ can all be utilized with an ingressive meaning:

(897) A bigín wósh plet.
1sP beginF+ wash+ dish
‘I began to wash (the) dishes.’

(898) A want wósh plet.
1sP wantF+ wash+ dish
‘I am about to wash (the) dishes.’

(899) A fò wósh plet.
1sP shouldF+ wash+ dish
‘I am about to wash (the) dishes.’

As noted in the discussion of perfect/completive aspect, when stative verbs are used together with completive aspect or realis auxiliary marker, the reference is to having entered the state in question and many verbs (such as si ‘see’) which refer to states in languages like English refer instead to entering into a particular state in Nigerian Pidgin (si=‘catch sight of’). Finally, certain verbs such as get ‘have, obtain’, sidôn ‘sit (down)’, stanôp ‘stand (up)’ and laydôn ‘lie (down)’ may be utilized with either a stative or an ingressive meaning (see 2.1.3.1.3.1).

2.1.3.2.1.7 Terminative aspect: To express terminative aspect any completive aspect auxiliary may be used alongside a verb of any category. Nonstative verbs can occur in the unmarked (factative, see 2.1.3) form to show terminative aspect. Focus on termination of a situation may also be expressed by the use of ideophones (see 1.2.1.3 and 2.1.3.2.1.14):

(900) [--stative] verb
A (dôn) wósh plet finish.
1sP (+C) wash dish +C
‘I have already washed (the) dishes.’ OR ‘I have finished washing (the) dishes.’
also acceptable:

A dön wosh plet (kpakpa).
A wosh plet.

(901)  [+stative] verb
A (dön) ste för Ilorin finish.
1sP (+C) stay p Ilorin +C
‘I have already lived in Ilorin.’ OR ‘I have finished living in Ilorin.’

also acceptable:

A dön ste för Ilorin (kpakpa).

To indicate the completion of another situation prior to one being described in the present tense, a serialized verb construction may be utilized in which the verb that refers to the prior situation is used together with a completive auxiliary and is then followed by the verb that refers to the present situation, which is marked for realis modality:

(902)  A dön tif kóm ritaya.
1sP +C steal +R retire
‘I stole and then retired.’ OR ‘I used to make my living as a thief, but now I’m retired.’

(A past tense interpretation is also possible in (902); see 2.1.3.2.1.3).

To indicate the completion of another situation prior to one being described in the past tense or in the future tense, pluperfect or future perfect tense/sequence may be used. The completive auxiliaries occur together with the appropriate tense markers (see 2.1.3.2) to show pluperfect and future perfect tense/sequence (see 2.1.3.3.1.2):

(903)  pluperfect tense/sequence
A bin dön layk nyam bifó yù kóm chop-am.
1sP +P +C like yam before 2sP +R eat -3oP
‘I had liked yams before you first ate them.’

(904)  future perfect tense/sequence
A gò dön chop nyam bifó yù gò rich dì haws.
1sP −R +C eat yam before 2sP −R reach ar house
‘I will have eaten yams before you (will) arrive at the house.’

2.1.3.3.2.1.8 Iterative/incompletive aspect: Iterative/incompletive aspect is marked in the same way as is habitual aspect: by incompletive auxiliaries (optional with bin), time adverbials with evri (especially evri taym ‘every time, all the time’) and reduplicated adverbials of time (see 2.1.3.3.2.1.3). Verbs are often reduplicated as well to indicate iterative/incompletive aspect:

(905)  A wàka-wàka-wàka go tawn.
1sP walkRRF+ go+ town
‘I walked and walked and reached town.’

2.1.3.3.2.1.9–10 Semelfactive/completive and punctual/completive aspect: Events viewed as single occurrences or as temporally unanalysable situations are marked in the same way as are situations which are viewed in their totality: by the use of completive auxiliaries with stative verbs and by default (factative; see 2.1.3) marking with nonstative verbs (see perfective aspect; 2.1.3.2.1.1 for examples).

2.1.3.3.2.1.11–12 Durative/incompletive simultaneous/incompletive aspect: Durative/incompletive and simultaneous/incompletive aspects are indicated in the same way as are continuous and progressive/incompletive aspects: by the use of incompletive marking (overt or by default; see 2.1.3) (see also 2.1.3.2.1.4–5 for examples).

2.1.3.3.2.1.13 Other aspects: completive and incompletive: The feature [±completive] defines the general contours of the aspectual system of Nigerian Pidgin. Almost all of the aspects listed in this section can be subsumed under [+completive] or [−completive] aspect:

Complete aspect covers the semantic space which includes (to one degree or another) the following aspects:

1 Perfect aspect (see 2.1.3.3.1).
2 Perfective aspect (see 2.1.3.3.2.1.1).
3 Terminative aspect (see 2.1.3.3.2.1.7).
4 Semelfactive aspect (see 2.1.3.3.2.1.9–10).
5 Punctual aspect (see 2.1.3.3.2.1.9–10).

The general markers used to show completive aspect are:

1 the completive aspect auxiliary don
2 the completive aspect auxiliary finish
3 default marking (factative; see 2.1.3)

Incompletive aspect covers the semantic space which includes (to one degree or another) the following aspects:

1 Imperfective aspect (see 2.1.3.3.2.1.2).
2 Habitual aspect (see 2.1.3.3.2.1.3).
3 Continuous aspect (see 2.1.3.3.2.1.4–5).
4 Progressive aspect (see 2.1.3.3.2.1.4–5).
5 Iterative aspect (see 2.1.3.3.2.1.8).
6 Durative aspect (see 2.1.3.3.2.1.11–12).
7 Simultaneous aspect (see 2.1.3.3.2.1.11–12).

The general markers used to show incompletive aspect are:

1 the incompletive aspect auxiliary dé
2 default marking (factative; see 2.1.3)
Telic marking: To show accomplishment in a telic sense, completive aspectual markers and ideophones may be employed in roughly the same way that they are used to show terminative aspect (see 2.1.3.3.2.1.7). Ideophones are probably the most frequently occurring telic markers (see 1.2.1.3):

(906) A gò drink dì ogogoro gorogoro gologo kpatakpata.

1sP −R drink ar palm wine ipR ipR

‘I will drink up all of the palm wine, enjoying each and every swallow.’

Serialized verbs such as trowè ‘overflow’ and belèfûl ‘be satiated’ may also convey telic-like meanings:

(907) A chop di nyam belèfûl.

1sP eatF+ ar yam be satiated+

‘I ate the yam to satiation.’ OR ‘I ate the yam up.’

2.1.3.3.2.2 Compatibility of aspectual markers

2.1.3.3.2.2.1 Combinations of aspectual values: Almost any conceivable combination of aspectual values is possible. Interesting examples may be found in sections 2.1.3.3.1.2 and 2.1.3.3.1.3.3.

2.1.3.3.2.2.2 Neutralization of aspectual distinctions

2.1.3.3.2.2.2.1–4 Reduced aspect distinctions

The only auxiliary markers which may be used in imperative sentences (see 1.1.1.3.1.1), in subjunctive clauses (see 1.1.2.2.2) and with noninitial verbs in serialized verb constructions (see 1.3.1.1.4) are the realis modality marker kom, the incompletive aspect auxiliary dè and postverbal completive aspect markers such as finish and taya. Apart from these restrictions, aspectual markers are generally compatible with all other markers of tense, modality and voice in the language (see 2.1.3.3.1.2 for some examples).

2.1.3.4 Modality

2.1.3.4.1 Indicative/realis modality

Indicative/realis modality is indicated by the use of realis modality marking. Both stative and nonstative verbs are by default [+realis] (see factative tense/aspect/modality; 2.1.3). Realis modality may be overtly marked, however, when the speaker wishes to reassure the hearer that what is being said is an accurate statement of objective fact, unaffected by the speaker’s personal ambitions, value judgements, feelings, etc. (see Faraclas 1987). Overt marking of realis modality occurs most often in contexts such as the narration of stories where the hearer tends to assume that what (s)he is being told is not some neutral account of a situation, but rather a highly subjective interpretation of events which is coloured to a significant extent by the speaker’s desires and/or imagination. Besides factative default marking, the most common method employed to signal realis modality is the realis modality auxiliary kom. The phrase-final particle ò may be utilized as well to show realis modality. The realis force of kom explains the fact that it does not normally occur in such environments as question-word questions and negative sentences, where the truth value of an assertion is explicitly questioned or negated:
(908) [+stative] verb, [+R] by default
A de haws. A layk nyam.
1sP cvF house 1sP likeF yam
‘I am at home.’ ‘I like yams.’

(909) [−stative] verb, [+R] by default
A go haws. A chop nyam.
1sP goF house 1sP eatF yam
‘I went home.’ ‘I ate yams.’

(910) [+R] marked by kom
A kom fødôn (ò).
1sP +R fall (f)
‘I fell down (through no fault of my own).’
*A no kom fødôn.

2.1.3.4.2 Conditional/irrealis modality

As explained and illustrated in 1.1.2.4.2.5, the irrealis auxiliary gò marks conditional modality in nonpast superordinate clauses in conditional constructions, while the modal verb fò ‘should’ indicates conditional modality in past tense superordinate conditional clauses:

(911) (If layk se) yù de Kano, yù gò si dì Emiya
   (avcI avcI ncl) 2sP cvF Kano 2sP −R see ar Emir
   ‘If you are in Kano, you will see the Emir.’

(912) (If) yù bìn de Kano, yù fò si dì Emiya.
   (avcI) 2sP −R cv Kano 2sP should+ see+ ar Emir
   ‘If you were in Kano, you would have seen the Emir.’

(913) Eni ting im layk, im gò bay-am,
     any thing 3sP likeF 3sP −R buy-3oP
     ‘(S)he will buy anything (s)he likes.’

2.1.3.4.3 Imperative modality

The subjunctive clause introducer mek is normally employed to show imperative modality (see 1.1.1.3). Mek is identical in form to the verb mek ‘make’ which is used both as a main verb and in causative serialized verb constructions (see 2.1.3.1.3.1). While the mek imperative construction may be used with any pronominal person, a special subjectless imperative construction is available in the second person (singular) only (see 1.1.1.3.1):

(914) Mek à go haws!
Let me go home!

Mek yù go haws! OR Go haws!
SJcI 2sP goSJ house goSJ house
‘Go home!’

2.1.3.4.4
Optative modality

Optative wish statements are a subtype of the *mek* subjunctive imperative construction described in section 2.1.3.4.3:

(915) Mek à bọn gel-pikîn!
SJcI 1sP bearSJ daughter
‘Let me have a female child!’ OR ‘My wish is to have a daughter.’

(916) Mek à no go ègên!
SJcI 1sP ng goSJ again
‘Let me not go there any more!’ OR ‘I never wish to go (there) again.’

2.1.3.4.5
Intentional modality

Intentional modality is indicated by a variety of modality markers, including: (a) the subjunctive marker *mek* introducing an adverbial subjunctive purpose clause (see 1.1.2.4.2.3); (b) the modal verb *want* ‘want’ used in serialized verb constructions to show intention to do something, but not necessarily the resolve to carry the project out; and (c) the irrealis auxiliary *gò* to signal strong intention and resolve:

(917) A chop nyam (se) mek hôngri no chu mì fòr rod.
1sP eatF yam (ncI) SJcI hunger ng chewSJ 1oP p road
‘I ate yam so that I wouldn’t get hungry on the road.’

(918) A want go skul.
1sP wantF+ go+ school
‘I want to go to school.’ OR ‘I have a desire to go to school.’

(919) A gò go skul.
1sP −R go school
‘I will go to school.’ OR ‘I have concrete plans to go to school.’
### 2.1.3.4.6 Debitive

#### 2.1.3.4.6.1–2 Debitative modality

Moral obligation is expressed by the use of the modal verb *fo* ‘should’. In acrolectal varieties, the modal verb *mos* ‘must’ may be utilized instead of *fô*:

(921)  
A *fô* go skul.  
1sP shouldF+ go+ school  
‘I should go to school.’

(922)  
@A *mos* go skul.  
1sP mustF+ go+ school  
‘I should go to school.’ OR ‘I must go to school.’

Physical obligation is normally signalled by the use of the modal verb *want* ‘want’:

(923)  
A *want* pis.  
1sP wantF+ urinate+  
‘I need to urinate.’

Distinctions between degrees of obligation are not usually made, except in some acrolects, where *mos* may be employed (usually inconsistently) with a stronger debitative force than *fô*.

#### 2.1.3.4.7 Potential modality

Both physical ability and permission are expressed by the modal verb *fit* ‘be able’ (with reference to its subject) and by the modal verb *gri* ‘agree, allow’ (with reference to its object):

(924)  
A *fit* go tawn.  
1sP be ableF+ go+ town  
‘I am physically able to go to town.’ OR ‘I have permission to go to town.’

(925)  
Mà màma no *gri* mì go tawn. OR  
lps mother ng agreeF+ 1oP go+ town  
Mà màma no gri se mek à go tawn.  
lps mother ng agreeF+ ncl SJcI 1sP goSJ town  
‘My mother won’t allow me to go to town.’

(926)  
Mà leg no *gri* mì go tawn.  
lps leg ng agreeF+ 1oP go+ town  
‘My legs won’t allow me to go to town.’ OR ‘I’m too tired to go to town.’

There are a number of other constructions used to express ability, including:

(927)  
*get* ‘*have*’+pawa ‘*power*’/blod ‘*blood*’/bòdi ‘*body*’
A no get pawa go tawn.
1sP ng haveF+ power go+ town
‘I am not physically able to go to town.’

also acceptable:

A no get b旅游度假 go tawn.
A no get 伯地 go tawn.

(928) hand ‘hand’+ rich ‘reach’
Mà hand no rich bay mòto.
lps hand ng reachF+ buy+ car
‘I’m not able to buy a car (because I don’t have enough money).’

2.1.3.4.8
Degree of certainty

Degree of certainty may be indicated in the following ways, listed first in order of increasing certainty, then in order of decreasing certainty:

(929) neutral, [+realis] by default (see 2.1.3)
Dèm go tawn.
6sP goF town
‘They went to town.’

(930) greater certainty with [+realis] auxiliary kom
Dèm kom go tawn.
6sP +R go town
‘(It came to pass that) they went to town.’

(931) greatest certainty with [+realis] ò
Dèm go tawn ò.
6sP go town f
‘They went to town (whether we like it or not).’

(932) less certainty with [−realis] auxiliary gò
Dèm gò go tawn.
6sP +R go town
‘They will go to town.’

(933) less certainty with modal fit ‘be able, maybe’
I fit bè se dèm go tawn.
3sD be ableF+ cv+ ncl 6sP goF town
‘They might have gone to town.’
also acceptable: *wedə* ‘whether, maybe’ and (acrolectal varieties only) *mebi* ‘maybe’:

Wǝda dǝm go tawn.
@Mebi dǝm go tawn.

(934) *less certainty with modal* fò ‘should’

Dǝm fò don go tawn.
6sP shouldF+C go+ town
‘They should have gone to town.’

(935) *least certainty with modal* want ‘want’

Dǝm want go tawn.
6sP wantF+ go+ town
‘They want to go to town.’

2.1.3.4.9
Authority for assertion

Authority for assertion may be indicated in the following ways, listed first in order of increasing authority, then in order of decreasing authority:

(936) *neutral, [+realis] by default* (see 2.1.3)

Dǝm go tawn.
6sP goF town
‘They went to town.’

(937) *more authority with* sàbi ‘know’+noun clause

A sàbi (se) dǝm go tawn.
1sP knowF (ncI) 6sP goF town
‘I know that they went to town.’

also acceptable (in more acrolectal speech) *no* ‘know’:

A no (se) dǝm go tawn.

(938) *most authority with* si+noun clause

A si (se) dǝm go tawn.
1sP seeF (ncI) 6sP goF town
‘I saw them going to town.’

(939) *less authority with* tink ‘think’+noun clause

A tink (se) dǝm go tawn.
1sP thinkF (ncI) 6sP goF town
‘I think that they went to town.’
An air of impartiality and/or objectivity can be added to any of the preceding sentences by using the realis modality auxiliary "kom" and/or the final particle "ò".

### 2.1.3.4.10
**Hortatory modality**

Hortatory statements usually take the form of "mek" subjunctive imperative constructions, as described in section 2.1.3.4.3. Subjectless imperative constructions, however, are sometimes used in an encouraging way, especially when they are punctuated by the phrase-final particle "ò", which lends a spirit of solidarity between speaker and hearer to the assertion:

(940)  
Mek yù tray, ò! OR Tray, ò!  
SJcI 2sP trySJ f trySJ f  
‘Try your best and don’t be discouraged.’

(941)  
Mek yù no fyar ò!  
SJcI 2sP ng be afraidSJ f  
‘Don’t be afraid.’

### 2.1.3.4.11
**Monitory modality**

Warning statements are negated versions of the subjunctive imperative constructions described in section 2.1.3.4.3:

(942)  
Mek yù no fôdôn! OR No fôdôn ò!  
SJcI 2sP ng fallSJ ng fallSJ f  
‘Don’t fall down!’

Monitory statements are often used together with the expressions "Tek taym!" or "Jeje!", which mean ‘Be careful!’ or ‘Take it easy!’ To express the sentiment that the warning is in the best interest of the hearer, the speaker often utilizes the phrase final-particle "ò":

(943)  
Tek taym ò! Mek yù no fayt ègèn! Jeje ò!  
takeSJ time f SJcI 2sP ng fighSJ again easy/ip f  
‘Be careful! Don’t fight any more! Take it easy!’

### 2.1.3.4.12
**Narrative modality**

As mentioned in section 2.1.3.4.1 (where indicative/realis modality is treated), the realis modality auxiliary "kom" is very frequently used in narratives, in a way that resembles the English ‘It came to pass that…’ narrative construction. Since the narrative context is one in which subjectivity and fantasy are the norm, realis markers are employed to stress that what is being related by the speaker is a true, objective fact and that the narrator is in no way attempting to influence or trick the listener:
The verb *go* ‘go’ and the adverb *jost* ‘just’ are sometimes used as markers of a narrative modality that implies a negative value judgement on the part of the narrator concerning the characters or the events in the narrative:

(945)   Im jost tok laylay go ron go haws tel mà
       3sP just talkF+ lie/nR go+ run+ go+ house tell+ lps
       màma se à kom tif di móni.
       mother ncl 1sP +R steal ar money
       ‘(S)he just ran to the house and went and told my mother a lie, saying that I had stolen the money.’

2.1.3.4.13
Consecutive modality

As noted in section 2.1.3.3.1.3.1, the realis modality auxiliary *kom* may be used with stative verbs to mark the point in time at which the experiencer entered the state denoted by the verb:

(946)    Im kom kres.
       3sP +R be mad
       ‘(S)he went mad.’

In so far as *kom* can be utilized to show the beginning point of a stative event, it can also be used to show sequence when it follows a verb marked for past tense or completive aspect in a serialized verb construction (see 2.1.3.3.2.1.7):

(947)    Im bin fayt kom kres finish.
       3sP +P fight+ +R be mad+ +C
       ‘(S)he fought and then went completely mad.’

2.1.3.4.14
Contingent modality

Any of the methods used to show lesser degrees of certainty in 2.1.3.4.8 or to show lesser degrees of authority for assertion in 2.1.3.4.9 may be employed as well to signal contingent modality.
2.1.3.4.15
Other modalities: realis, irrealis and subjunctive

The feature [±realis] defines the general contours of the modality system of Nigerian Pidgin. Almost all of the aspects listed in this section can be subsumed under [+realis] or [−realis] modality:

Realis modality covers the semantic space which includes (to one degree or another) the following modalities:

1 Indicative modality (see 2.1.3.4.1).
2 [+certainty] markers (see 2.1.3.4.8).
3 [+authority] markers (see 2.1.3.4.9).
4 Narrative modality (see 2.1.3.4.12).
5 Consecutive modality (see 2.1.3.4.13).

The general markers used to show realis modality are:

1 the realis modality auxiliary *kom*
2 the phrase-final particle *ò*
3 default marking (factative; see 2.1.3)

Irrealis modality covers the semantic space which includes future time reference as well as (to one degree or another) the following modalities:

1 Conditional modality (see 2.1.3.4.2).
2 Intentional modality (see 2.1.3.4.5).
3 Debitative modality (see 2.1.3.4.6).
4 Potential modality (see 2.1.3.4.7).
5 [−certainty] markers (see 2.1.3.4.8).
6 [−authority] markers (see 2.1.3.4.9).
7 Contingent modality (see 2.1.3.4.14).
8 Subjunctive modality, which includes:

(a) Imperative modality (see 2.1.3.4.3).
(b) Optative modality (see 2.1.3.4.4).
(c) Intentional modality (see 2.1.3.4.5).
(d) Hortatory modality (see 2.1.3.4.10).
(e) Monitory modality (see 2.1.3.4.11).

The general markers used to show irrealis modality are:

1 the irrealis modality auxiliary *gò*
2 the modal verbs (see 1.3.1.1.4 for a full list)
3 the subjunctive clause introducer *mek* (see 1.1.1.3)
2.1.3.5

Finite vs. nonfinite verbs

Finite and nonfinite forms

In general, there is no clear distinction between finite and nonfinite forms in Nigerian Pidgin (see 1.1.2.2.6 and 1.1.2.3.7). The only auxiliary markers which may be used in imperative sentences (see 1.1.1.3.1.1), in subjunctive clauses (see 1.1.2.2.2) and with noninitial verbs in serialized verb constructions (see 1.3.1.1.4) are the realis modality marker *kom*, the incompletive aspect auxiliary *dè* and postverbal completive aspect markers such as *finish* and *taya*. The irrealis modality marker *gó* (which is also used to mark future tense) may not occur in the same verb phrase with the past tense marker *bin*. Apart from these restrictions, all markers of tense, aspect, modality and voice in the language are generally compatible with one another (see 2.1.3.3.1.2 for some examples).

2.1.3.6

Coding of person, number and other distinctions

Subjects, objects and coding in the verb

*Distinctions coded in the verb.* Subjects and a wide variety of different types of objects may be coded in the verb (see 1.2.1.2.1–2). All coding of subjects and of objects is marked solely by the use of pronouns which are inserted into syntactic slots according to the role that each plays in the sentence (see 1.2.5.3). Besides the bound third-person object pronoun which takes the form of the clitic *-am*, all other pronouns are nonclitic. Both a free and a bound pronoun exist for subject and object arguments for each of the six persons (first person singular and plural, second person singular and plural, and third-person singular and plural; see 2.1.2.1.10 for a full listing). The use of free pronouns instead of bound pronouns is largely conditioned by topic/comment structure, with free pronouns being employed in topicolized, emphasized or focused environments and bound pronouns being utilized elsewhere (see 2.1.2.1.3.1 and 2.1.2.1.5). Apart from the distinctions described thus far (subject vs. object, singular vs. plural, first vs. second vs. third person and free vs. bound) no other features of the noun phrase are coded in the verb. Neither the definiteness nor the animacy of a noun phrase is encoded in the verb. The order of objects following verbs which take more than one object, however, is to some degree influenced by the animacy of their referents (see 1.2.1.2.5).

*Deletion constraints.* A bound subject or object pronoun is obligatorily present wherever its referent serves as an argument for a given verb, except in cases where (a) a free pronoun with the same referent is present; (b) the referent has been mentioned previously so that pronouns referring back to it are subject to the anaphoric omission processes outlined in sections 1.5.2.1–5; (c) omission of sentence elements under coordination occurs (see 1.3.2.1); (d) the special second person singular imperative form is used (see 1.1.1.3.1); (e) special omission processes which affect dummy subjects apply; or (f) subject/object argument coalescence takes place in a serialized verb construction (see 1.3.1.1.4. and 1.2.1.2.1). In the special cases just listed, the use of bound pronouns is optional. Free pronouns are optional in all cases where the corresponding bound pronoun is present or has been omitted through the application of the processes described above. In all other instances, the use of free pronouns is obligatory.
2.1.3.6.5
Special coding problems

Among the discrepancies between syntactic and semantic features that have been attested, probably the most important are those which involve the clash and/or coalescence of object and subject argument markers in serialized verb constructions (see 1.3.1.4, 1.2.1.2.1 and 2.1.3.1.3.1). Since there are no distinct agreement classes to which different types of noun phrases belong, there are no restrictions on how noun phrases may be co-ordinated with respect to agreement class.

2.1.3.6.6
Consistency of agreement

All of the coding processes outlined in this section apply in the same way in all voices, tenses, aspects and modalities. There are no truly nonfinite forms in the language (see 1.1.2.2.6).

2.1.3.6.7
Identity of subjects

Identity between subjects of consecutive verbs is signalled primarily by the use of serialized verb constructions (see 1.3.1.4) and secondarily by the omission processes described in 1.5.2.1–5. and 1.3.2.1.

2.1.3.6.8–9
Special reflexive and reciprocal verb forms

No special reflexive or reciprocal verb forms exist. Methods employed to show reflexivity are outlined in section 1.6 and a full discussion of reflexive pronouns may be found in section 2.1.2.2. The various means used to show reciprocity are listed in section 1.7 and a full treatment of reciprocal pronouns appears in section 2.1.2.3.

2.1.3.6.10
Directional distinctions in verbs

2.1.3.6.10.1–7 Directionality  The direction of actions is signalled mainly by the use of serialized verb constructions (see 1.3.1.4 and 2.1.1.5). To indicate that an action is directed towards the speaker, the hearer or some third person, the verb which refers to that action is followed by another verb such as kom ‘come’ or kômôt ‘evacuate’ in a serialized verb construction:

(948)  
Im kari di nyam kom.  
3sP carryF+ ar yam come+  
‘(S)he brought the yams.’

To refer to an action directed away from the speaker, hearer or a third person, the verb which denotes the action is followed by another verb such as go ‘go’ in a serialized verb construction:

(949)  
Im kari di nyam go.  
3sP carryF+ ar yam go+
‘(S)he took the yams away.’

Other verbs that may be used in serialized verb constructions to show the directionality of actions include rich ‘arrive, reach’, klam ‘climb’, fodôn ‘fall’, etc.

### 2.1.3.6.11
**Body orientation**

Body orientation is expressed principally by means of serialized verb constructions (see 1.3.1.1.4). To indicate the body orientation that accompanies a particular action, the verb which refers to that action is used together with a verb such as sidôn ‘sit’ or stanôp ‘stand’ in a serialized verb construction:

\[(950)\]
\[
\text{Im dè stanôp chop.} \\
3sP - C stand+ eat+ \\
‘(S)he eats standing.’
\]

The valence-increasing serialized verb tek is very frequently employed to show body orientation:

\[(951)\]
\[
\text{Im dè tek stanôp chop.} \\
3sP - C takeV+ stand/n eat+ \\
‘(S)he eats standing.’
\]

\[(952)\]
\[
\text{Im dè tek hand chop.} \\
3sP - C takeV+ hand eat+ \\
‘(S)he eats with his/her hand.’
\]

### 2.1.3.6.12
**Incorporation**

**2.1.3.6.12.1–2 Incorporation** Besides marginal cases, such as the omission of dummy subjects (see 1.2.1.2.1) and the cliticization of bound pronouns (the third-person bound object pronoun in particular; see 1.16.2) incorporation into the verb does not occur in Nigerian Pidgin. Elsewhere in the verb phrase, however, two cases are attested: the invariable negative completive marker neva and the variable negative irrealis marker noò, which is the product of the coalescence of the negative marker no and the irrealis auxiliary gò (see 1.4.1). Since the irrealis marker always directly follows the negative marker, the fusion of these two elements does not alter the usual sentential word order in any way (see 1.2.5.3). Neva, on the other hand, poses some interesting problems, since it replaces no and the completive auxiliary don wherever they would otherwise have occurred in the same sentence, despite the fact that both the irrealis marker gò and the past marker bin usually occupy the verb phrase slots in between the no slot and the don slot. The question to be asked, then, is what happens when neva is used together with gò or bin? Does neva precede them in the negative slot, or does it occupy the completive auxiliary slot instead and follow them? There is, in fact, no clear-cut answer to this question, since both orders are possible and in variation in most lects of Nigerian Pidgin, although neva seems to follow gò and bin more often in basilectal and mesolectal varieties than it does inacrolectal speech.
2.1.3.7
Strings of verbs

Serialized verb constructions are one of the most frequently used grammatical structures in Nigerian Pidgin. A full description of serialized verb constructions with examples of each major subconstruction involving verb serialization may be found in section 1.3.1.1.4. Each verb in a serialized construction may take its own objects, adverbial modifiers, auxiliaries, etc., but in practice most noninitial verbs in serialized constructions adopt the same subject and polarity/tense/aspect/modality values as the initial verb. Where they are identical, the subject and all polarity and tense/aspect/ modality markers are obligatorily marked only on the first verb and then optionally marked for emphasis on verbs which follow it in the series. The irrealis auxiliary gò, the past auxiliary bìn and the completive auxiliary don may only occur before the initial verb of a serialized verb construction. Verbs in serialized constructions all normally share the same subject, with two exceptions: (a) in causative constructions the object of the verb mek ‘make’ is the subject of the verb that follows it in a serialized construction (see 2.1.3.1.3.1); and (b) the object of one verb in series may coalesce with the subject of the following verb when they share the same referent (see 1.3.1.1.4).

2.1.4
Adjectives

There is no motivation for any separate category ‘adjective’ in Nigerian Pidgin.

‘Adjectives’ as stative verbs. Almost all lexical items whose meanings correspond to items classified as adjectives in many Indo-European languages and whose function is to describe certain qualities of nouns may occupy the same sentential slot normally occupied by verbs and may take any and all of the auxiliaries, modals, objects, adverbial modifiers, ideophones, etc., normally taken by verbs in the language (see 1.2.5.1–3. and 2.1.1.2):

(953) item: wayt=‘white’ (adjective) or ‘be white’ (verb)?
Blich gò bìgîn jost dè wayt dì klot fyay.
bleich −R begin+ just −C (be) white+ ar cloth ip
[s] [aux/modal] [av] [aux] [adj? v?] [o] [ip/av]
‘The bleach will just start whitening the cloth brightly, in a flash.’

These same ‘adjective-like’ lexical items are assigned values for factative tense/aspect/modality which are identical to those assigned to stative verbs (see 2.1.3) and they may be employed in serialized verb constructions in exactly the same way as are all other verbs (see 1.3.1.1.4):

(954) item: big=‘big’ (adjective) or ‘be big’ (stative verb)?
Dì mòto big.
ar car (be) big(F?)
[s] [adj? v?]
‘The car is big.’ (tense: [−past], aspect: [−completive], modality: [+realis]=factative values for [+stative] verb)

(955) item: big=‘big’ (adjective) or ‘be big’ (verb)?
Dì mòto big pas ol big rich lori sef.
ar car (be) big+ pass+ all (be) big+ reach+ truck E
Finally, the roles assigned to subjects and objects of these ‘adjective-like’ items are in no way different from the roles normally assigned by stative verbs to their arguments. These role assignments also show the same variation patterns with ‘adjectives’ as they do with stative verbs (see 2.1.1.2):

(956)  
**item:** fyar=‘be afraid’ (stative verb)  
\[\text{Dì mòni de.}\]  
\[\text{ar money cvF}\]  
\[\text{[s] [+stative]}\]  
\[\text{‘The money exists.’ OR ‘The money is there.’}\]

(957)  
**item:** fyar=‘be afraid’ (stative verb)  
\[\text{Dì mòni de mì. OR Dì mòni de mà hand.}\]  
\[\text{ar money cvF}\]  
\[\text{[s] [+stative]}\]  
\[\text{[o]}\]  
\[\text{[+stative] [o]}\]  
\[\text{‘The money is (with) me.’ OR ‘The money is (in) my hands.’}\]

(958)  
**item:** de=locative/existential copular (stative) verb  
\[\text{Dì mòni de.}\]  
\[\text{ar money cvF}\]  
\[\text{[s] [+stative]}\]  
\[\text{‘The money exists.’ OR ‘The money is there.’}\]

On the basis of the arguments just presented, it seems reasonable to conclude that lexical items whose characteristics might lead one to classify them as adjectives are in fact stative verbs in Nigerian Pidgin.
‘Attributive adjectives’ as nominalized stative verbs. As soon as the class of ‘adjectives’ is subsumed under the category of stative verbs, it becomes readily apparent that no special lexical classes, syntactic slots or morphological devices are necessary to accommodate them, beyond those already necessary to account for the behaviour of stative and nonstative verbs in general. The multifunctional properties of many lexical items in Nigerian Pidgin allow them to function in different grammatical classes, according to the syntactic slot into which they are inserted (see 1.2.5.3 and 1.1.2.2.6):

(962)   multifunctional use of the verb kot ‘cut’
A si di kot-kot klot we kot-kot man dön tek
  1sP seeF ar cut/mnR cloth rcI cut/mnR man +C takeV+
  kot mashîn kot -am kotkotköt.
cut/mn machine cut+-3oP ipRR

‘I saw the shredded cloth that the shredder shredded with the shredding machine, shred-shred-shred.’

As illustrated in the preceding example, it is very common for a verb to be utilized multifunctionally as a modifier noun in an associative/possessive construction (see 1.2.5.1.1). The same process could be said to yield what might otherwise be classified as ‘attributive adjectives’ from stative verbs. In this manner, the entire category of ‘attributive adjective’ is eliminated, not by inventing any new grammatical apparatus, but rather by fully exploiting processes and categories already established for the language:

(963)   multifunctional use of the stative verb old ‘be old’
A si di old-old klot we dön old för old man im bôdi.
  1sP seeF ar old/mnR cloth rcI +C be old p old/mn man 3ps body
  ‘I saw the old cloth that had become old on the old man’s body.’

‘Predicate adjectives’ as nominalized stative verbs. Multifunctionality does not only allow verbs to function as modifier nouns, but also allows them to fill the head noun slot:

(964)   multifunctional use of nonstative verb pawnd ‘pound’
A hyar ol dì pawnd wê ūnà bìn tek dë pawnd
  1sP hearF all ar pound/n rcI 5sP +P takeV+ −C pound+
  dat nyam.
  that yam
  ‘I heard all of the pounding that you (all) did to pound that yam.’

(965)   multifunctional use of the stative verb old ‘be old’
A si òl dì old we im dön old för old man im fes.
  1sP seeF ar old/n rcI 3sP +C be old p old/mn man 3ps face
  ‘I saw all of the oldness that age had brought to the old man in his face.’

As shown in section 1.2.1.1, copular verbs behave exactly as do other verbs in Nigerian Pidgin and their nominal complements behave exactly as do objects of other verbs in the language (see 1.2.1.2.2):

Any verb can take a truncated nominal as its object (see 1.2.1.1). Truncated nominals usually take the form of a pronominalized demonstrative, numeral or other noun phrase modifier:

(967) A si ol di nyam. A si ol.
1sP seeF all ar yam 1sP seeF all/P
‘I saw all the yams.’ ‘I saw all (of them).’

(968) A get tu nyam. A get tu.
1sP haveF two yam 1sP haveF two/P
‘I have two yams.’ ‘I have two (of them).’

(969) Mà nyam bi dat nyam. Mà nyam bi dat.
1ps yam cvF that yam 1ps yam cvF that/P
‘My yam is that yam.’ ‘My yam is that (one).’

As a modifier element of a noun phrase, it is reasonable to assume that a modifier noun in an associative construction could be pronominalized, isolated and used as a truncated nominal object. If this is so, all instances of what might otherwise be considered to be ‘predicate adjectives’ could be considered instead to be pronominalized modifier nouns derived multifunctionally from stative verbs and used as truncated nominal objects of copular verbs:

(970) Mà pot bi smol. pot. Mà pot bi smol.
1sP pot cvF be small/mn pot 1ps pot cvF be small/mn/P
‘My pot is a small pot.’ ‘My pot is small.’

(971) Mà pot de smol pot. Mà pot de smol.
1ps pot cvF be small/mn pot 1sP pot cvF be small/mn/P
‘My pot is a small pot.’ ‘My pot is small.’

The distinction between bi as an identity copular verb (see 1.2.1.1) and de as a locative/existential copular verb (see 1.2.1.1.3) is reflected in the semantics of sentences in which they are followed by pronominalized modifier noun objects derived from stative verbs. The state denoted by the nominalized stative verb is conceived of as an inherent or relatively permanent state when it is the object of bi, while the same state is conceived of as an ephemeral or relatively temporary state when it is the object of de (see 1.2.1.1.1). More precise readings of the copular sentences with truncated nominalized stative verb objects in the preceding set of examples would look something like the following:

(972) Mà pot bi smol.
1ps pot cvF be small/mn/P
‘My pot is small.’ OR ‘My pot is a small one.’ OR ‘My pot is one of smallness.’
The bi- permanent/de-temporary distinction which follows from the semantic properties just discussed is illustrated in the following examples:

(974) Mà pikîn bi big.
1ps child cvF be big/mn/P
‘My child is a big one.’ OR ‘My child is one of bigness.’ OR ‘My child is big (in stature).’

(975) Mà pikîn de big.
1ps child cvF be big/mn/P
‘My child is a big one.’ OR ‘My child exists/is located in a state of bigness.’ OR ‘My child is big (in age).’

‘Predicate adjectives’ as serialized stative verbs. Sentences where truncated modifier nouns derived from stative verbs are objects of copular verbs may also be analysed as serialized verb constructions in which a copular verb is followed by a stative verb:

(976) Mà pot de smol.
1ps pot cvF+ be small+ +C
‘My pot is very small.’

This analysis is in many ways as satisfactory as the [copular verb+pronominalized modifier noun] analysis, in that it involves the use of no syntactic or morphological devices which are not necessary for the analysis of other subsystems in the language. The only possible drawback stems from the fact that the usual range of auxiliaries available to noninitial verbs in serialized verb constructions (kom, dè, and the postverbal auxiliaries; see 1.3.1.1.4) is further restricted to postverbal auxiliaries only when the initial verb is a copular verb and the noninitial verb is a stative verb:

(977) Mà pot de smol finish.
1ps pot cvF+ be small+ +C
‘My pot is very small.’
*Mà pot de kom smol.
*Mà pot de dè smol.

To deal with such exceptional behaviour, either the category ‘copular verb’ or the category ‘stative verb which can follow copular verbs’ would have to be specially marked as exceptional, which, to some extent, would simply mean the resurrection of the category ‘copula’ and/or the category ‘adjective’ for the sole purpose of making the serialized verb analysis workable.

‘Adjectives’: a summary. It is very likely that in different lects of Nigerian Pidgin different systems or combinations of systems are involved in generating the forms that would otherwise be called ‘adjectives’. Serialized verb constructions, associative/possessive constructions, the stative/nonstative dichotomy,
multifunctionality and even (for acrolectal varieties) some notion of a separate category ‘adjective’ would all have to be cited as motivating forces in a full account of all realizations in all lects.

2.1.4.1
Predicative vs. attributive ‘adjectives’

As shown in detail in section 2.1.4, ‘attributive adjectives’ are best considered to be modifier nouns derived from stative verbs in associative/possessive constructions:

(978) [Dì sup] [swit] .
    [ar soup] [be tastyF]
    [s] [+stative v]
    ‘The soup is tasty.’

(979) [dì [swit] [sup]]
    [ar [[be sweet/mn][soup]]]
    [np[[mn] [n]]]
    ‘the tasty soup’

‘Predicate adjectives’ are best considered to be truncated associative/possessive constructions, consisting solely of a pronominalized modifier noun derived from a stative verb which serves as the object of a copular verb:

(980) [Dì sup] [de] [swit].
    [ar soup] [cvF] [be tasty/mn]
    [s] [v] [mn/n/oP]
    ‘The soup is tasty.’

2.1.4.2
Permanent vs. temporary states

As shown in detail in section 2.1.4, when a pronominalized modifier noun derived from a stative verb serves as the object of the identity copular verb bi, it denotes an inherent or relatively permanent state, while when it serves as the object of the locative/existential copular verb de, it refers to a relatively temporary state:

(981) Dì sup bì swit.
    ar soup cvF be tasty/mn
    ‘The soup (that they make back home) is tasty.’

(982) Dì sup de swit.
    ar soup cvF be tasty/mn
    ‘The soup (that is in front of us now) is tasty.’
2.1.4.3
‘Adjectival’ agreement

2.1.4.3.1–3
Agreement patterns

As shown in section 2.1.4, what might be called ‘adjectives’ in another language are in fact verbs, modifier nouns or pronominal objects in Nigerian Pidgin, and the agreement patterns exhibited by them in a particular sentence conform in every way to those of the particular category to which they belong in that sentence (for agreement in verbs, see 2.1.3; for modifier nouns, see 1.2.5.1.1 and 2.1.1; for objects, see 1.2.1.2.2 and 2.1.1).

2.1.4.4
Degrees of comparison

Equative, comparative and superlative relations are almost exclusively signalled by the use of serialized verb constructions in which a verb that sets the parameter for comparison is followed by a verb (either \textit{pas} ‘pass’ for the comparative and superlative or \textit{rich} ‘reach’ for equatives) whose object sets the standard for comparison.

2.1.4.4.1
Equatives

As explained in detail in section 1.9, the following serialized verb construction containing the verb \textit{rich} ‘reach’ is normally employed to show equative relations:

(983) \begin{align*}
[D\textit{i sup}] & [swit] [rich] [d\textit{i nyam}]. \\
[ar soup] & [be tastyF+] [reach+] [ar yam] \\
[\text{parameter}] & [\text{standard}] \\
\text{‘The soup is as tasty as the yams.’}
\end{align*}

2.1.4.4.2
Comparative

As explained in detail in section 1.8, the following serialized verb construction containing the verb \textit{pas} ‘pass’ is normally employed to show comparison:

(984) \begin{align*}
[D\textit{i sup}] & [swit] [pas] [d\textit{i nyam}]. \\
[ar soup] & [be tastyF+] [pass+] [ar yam] \\
[\text{parameter}] & [\text{standard}] \\
\text{‘The soup is tastier than the yams.’}
\end{align*}
2.1.4.4.3 Superlative

2.1.4.4.3.1–4 Superlative

As explained in detail in section 1.8, the following serialized verb constructions containing the verb *pas* ‘pass’ are normally utilized to show superlative relations.

**Superlative in relation to other entities.** In order to indicate a superlative in relation to other entities, the standard-setting object position is usually filled by a noun phrase whose referent is the entire set of relevant candidates for the standard. The pronominalized quantifier *ol* ‘all’ is commonly used for this purpose:

(985)  
[Di sup] [swit] [pas] [ol].  
[ar soup] [be tastyF+] [pass+] [all/oP]  
[parameter] [standard]  
‘The soup is tastier than anything else.’

**Superlative in relation to the entity itself.** In order to indicate a superlative with reference to the same entity, the standard-setting object position is usually left empty or filled by an adverbial specifying the standard:

(986)  
[Di sup] [swit] [pas] .  
[ar soup] [be tastyF+] [pass+]  
[parameter]  
‘The soup is tastier than ever.’ OR ‘The soup is the best I have ever tasted.’

(987)  
[Di sup] [swit] [pas] [bifô] .  
[ar soup] [be tastyF+] [pass+] [before]  
[parameter] [standard]  
‘The soup is tastier than before.’

2.1.4.5 Degrees of quality

2.1.4.5.1 Quality in large measure

Quality in large measure can be expressed in the following ways:

(988)  
*postverbal completive aspect auxiliary finish*  
Dî sup swit finish,  
ar soup be tasty +C  
‘The soup is very tasty.’

(989)  
*serialized verbs such as plenti ‘be plenty’, tumôch ‘be very much’ or mo ‘be very much’*  
Dî sup swit tumôch.  
ar soup be tastyF+ be very much+  
‘The soup is very tasty.’
ideophones such as welwel, or nyafùnyafu
Di sup swit welwel.
ar soup be tastyF+ ipR
‘The soup is very tasty.’

reduplicated modifiers
Di swit-swit sup don spoyl.
ar be tasty/mnR soup +C be spoiled
‘The very tasty soup has become sour.’

nominalized stative verb bèta ‘be very good’
Di bèta sup don spoyl.
ar be very good/mn soup +C be spoiled
‘The very good soup has become sour.’

2.1.4.5.2
Quality in superabundance

Quality in superabundance is usually expressed by the use of the preverbal adverb tu (see 1.2.1.3.1):

Yù tu tink.
2sP too much thinkF
‘You think too much.’

Yù tu big.
2sP too much be bigF
‘You are too big (tall, old etc.).’

2.1.4.5.3
Quality in small measure

Quality in small measure is most frequently expressed by the use of a stative verb denoting the quality in question followed by the verb smol ‘be small’ in a serialized verb construction:

Di sup swit smol.
ar soup be tastyF+ be small+
‘The soup is a bit tasty.’
2.1.4.6

*Predicate ‘adjectives’*

2.1.4.6.1–2

Verbal morphology and ‘predicate adjectives’

As shown in detail in section 2.1.4, ‘predicate adjectives’ are best considered to be truncated associative/possessive constructions, consisting solely of a pronominalized modifier noun derived from a stative verb which serves as the object of a copular verb:

(996)  
[Dì sup] [de] [swìt] .  
[ar soup] [cvF] [be tasty/mn/oP]  
[s] [v] [mn/n/oP]  
‘The soup is tasty.’

In such cases, the copular verb itself expresses the categories that characterize the verbal morphology of the language (tense/aspect/modality, etc.; see 2.1.3). When, however, stative verbs are utilized as main verbs in the sentence (often with ‘adjectival’ meanings) they themselves express these same categories:

(997)  
[Dì sup] [swìt] .  
[ar soup] [be tastyF]  
[s] [+stative v]  
‘The soup is tasty.’

2.1.5

*Prepositions*

2.1.5.1–4

*Prepositions*

Prepositions do not agree for any grammatical category with the nouns that they govern, nor do they combine in any way with personal pronouns or articles, with the minor exception of the third-person bound object pronoun -*am*, which is a clitic and derives its tonal properties from the preceding verb or preposition.

In addition to the prepositional usages listed and exemplified in section 2.1.1, the following are attested in the data:

(998)  
*general preposition för marks existence in a state*  
Nà dì taym à bin de för smol pikàn.  
EI ar time 1sP +P cv p be small/mn child  
‘It was when I was a small child.’

(999)  
*general preposition för marks participation in an action*  
A joyn -am för kom.  
1sP joinF-3oP p come/n  
‘I joined her/him in coming.’
universal preposition for marks involvement in process
Im de för chop.
3sP cvV p eat/n
‘(S)he is in the process of eating.’

universal preposition for marks role
Wi go put-am för prêzident.
4sP –R put-3oP p president
‘We will elect him/her as president.’

universal preposition for with particular objects (see 1.2.1.2.2):
A no si -am för ay.
1sP ng seeF-3oP p eye
‘I didn’t see it (myself).’

universal preposition for with dative object of tok ‘talk’
Yù no tok -am för mî.
2sP ng talkF-3oP p lOP
‘You didn’t tell me.’

2.1.6.
Numerals and quantifiers

2.1.6.1–3
Cardinal numerals

Only one set of cardinal numerals exists. These may be used both for counting and as attributes. No special set of objects triggers the use (either attributively or for counting) of any special set of cardinal numerals. The cardinal numbers are as follows:

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>cardinal numerals</th>
<th>won</th>
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Combinations of the numerals listed above bear polytonal compound stress patterns (see 2.2.6.3):

(1005)  
segvinti-won ‘71’  
won hondred-sevinti-won ‘171’  
won tawsend-won hondred-sevinti-won ‘1,171’

When they are used as attributes, cardinal numbers fill the cardinal number slot in the noun phrase (see 1.2.5.3):

(1006)  
twenti nyam  
twenty yam  
‘twenty yams’

Only two fractions of whole numbers are regularly referred to: haf ‘(one) half’ and kwota ‘(one) quarter’. These are mainly utilized for telling time (see 2.1.1.6.1.1). When fractions are used attributively, they normally do not combine with whole numbers and they occupy the modifier noun slot rather than the cardinal numeral slot in the noun phrase (see 1.2.5.3):

(1007)  
haf pas sevin  
half pass seven  
‘7:30’

(1008)  
haf nyam  
half yam  
‘one half of a yam’

tu haf nyam  
two half yam  
‘two yam halves’

2.1.6.4  
Ordinal numerals

Ordinal numerals are polytonal compounds consisting of the item nomba ‘number’ followed by a cardinal number and fill the ordinal numeral slot in the noun phrase (see 1.2.5.3 and 2.2.6.3):

(1009)  
ordinal numerals  
1st nomba-won  
2nd nomba-tu  
7th nomba-sevin  
17th nomba-sevintîn  
100th nomba-won hondred

(1010)  
dî nomba-sevin nyam  
ar seventh yam  
‘the seventh yam’
A few items such as fest ‘initial’, last ‘final’, hol ‘whole’ and sekond ‘second’ may also fill the ordinal numeral slot (see 2.1.6.6):

(1011)  
A don sel di fest nyam.  
1sP +C sell ar first yam  
‘I have sold the first yam.’

2.1.6.5  
Derivatives of numerals  
Besides methods such as compounding and reduplication (see 2.1.6.6.1–2) the following may be employed to form derivatives from numerals:

(1012) compounds of two cardinal numbers for approximation  
A sel tu -tre nyam.  
1sP sellF two-three yam  
‘I sold two or three yams.’

(1013) compounds of free plural pronoun plus cardinal number  
A si dem-tu fôr mòto-pak.  
1sP seeF 6EP-two p terminal  
‘I saw the two of them at the transport terminal.’

Cardinal numerals may be pronominalized by using them without a head noun in a truncated noun phrase:

(1014)  
A sel tre nyam. A sel tre.  
1sP sellF three yam 1sP sellF three/P  
‘I sold three yams.’ ‘I sold three (of them).’

Ordinal numbers followed by won ‘one’ may also be used pronominally:

(1015)  
A don sel di fest won.  
1sP +C sell ar first one  
‘I have sold the first one.’

2.1.6.6  
Quantifiers  
Some quantifiers occupy the quantifier slot in the noun phrase while others occupy the ordinal number slot (see 1.2.5.3). Pronominalized quantifiers occur alone or followed by won ‘one’ in a truncated noun phrase. Quantifiers include the following.

Quantifiers which occupy the quantifier slot

(1016) ol ‘all’  
A sel ol di nyam. A sel ol.
1sP sellF all ar yam 1sP sellF all/P
‘I sold all of the yams.’ ‘I sold all (of them).’

(1017) som ‘some’; also used as an article (see 1.2.5.2.4)
A sel som nyam. A sel som.
1sP sellF some yam 1sP sellF some/P
‘I sold some yams.’ ‘I sold some (of them).’

(1018) evri ‘every’
A sel evri nyam. A sel evri won.
1sP sellF every yam 1sP sellF every one
‘I sold every yam.’ ‘I sold every one.’

(1019) eni ‘any’; usually used with [-realis] modality (see 1.4.2 and 2.1.3.4)
A no gò sel eni nyam. A no gò sel eni won.
1sP ng −R sell any yam 1sP ng −R sell any one
‘I won’t sell any yam.’ ‘I won’t sell any one.’

(1020) ich ‘each’ (used mainly in acrolectal speech)
@ A sel ich nyam. A sel ich won.
1sP sellF each yam 1sP sellF each one
‘I sold each yam.’ ‘I sold each (of them).’

(1021) bot ‘both’ (used mainly in acrolectal speech)
@ A sel bot nyam. A sel bot.
1sP sellF both yam 1sP sellF both/P
‘I sold both yams.’ ‘I sold both (of them).’

Quantifiers which occupy the ordinal numeral slot

(1022) oda ‘other’
A sel di oda nyam. A sel di oda won.
1sP sellF ar other yam 1sP sellF ar other one
‘I sold the other yam.’ ‘I sold the other one.’

(1023) sem ‘same’
A sel di sem nyam. A sel di sem won.
1sP sellF ar same yam 1sP sellF ar same one
‘I sold the same yam.’ ‘I sold the same one.’

(1024) last ‘final’
A sel di last nyam. A sel di last won.
1sP sellF ar last yam 1sP sellF ar last one
‘I sold the last yam.’ ‘I sold the last one.’
hol ‘whole’; pronominalized with ting ‘thing’ instead of won
A sel di hol nyam. A sel di hol ting.
1sP sellF ar whole yam 1sP sellF ar whole thing
‘I sold the whole yam.’ ‘I sold the whole thing.’

Other quantifiers. The negative marker no could be considered to be a quantifier when it is used in constituent negation (see 1.4.2):

No nyam we à no gò fit sel-am
ng yam rcl 1sP ng −R be able+ sell+-3oP
‘There is not a yam that I won’t be able to sell.’

The pluralizer dèm is the only quantifier that follows the noun that it quantifies (see 1.2.5.3). Dèm may only be pronominalized by replacing it by the sixth person pronoun (see 2.1.2.1) with which it is identical in form:

A sel di nyam dèm. A sel dèm.
1sP sellF ar yam pl 1sP sellF 6oP
‘I sold the yams.’ ‘I sold them.’

2.1.6.6.1
Quantifier compounds

Any of the quantifiers listed in 2.1.6.6 except for dèm may be followed by a generic noun such as pesin/ pipul ‘person/people’, ples/sayd ‘place’, taym ‘time’, ting ‘thing’, we/fashon ‘manner’, man/wuman ‘man/ woman’, etc., to form a pronominalized compound (see 2.2.6.3):

A faynd -am evri ples, bôt à no si -am.
1sP searchF-3oP every place but 1sP ng seeF-3oP
‘I looked for it everywhere, but I didn’t find it.’

Only som, evri, and eni may combine with -bodi to form a high-toned compound [+human] pronoun. Sometimes items such as ting, taym, ples and sayd, which usually function as separate words, may also combine with these quantifiers to form compounds (see 2.2.6.3):

A kôs sômbodi für maket.
1sP curseF somebody p market
‘I swore at someone in the market.’

A bay somting für maket.
1sP buyF something p market
‘I bought something in the market.’

Dèm may follow a proper noun to refer to the family or some other group of people associated with the referent of the noun (see 2.1.2.1.9):
(1031) Ade dém kom kos mì fôr makèt.
Ade pl +R curse 1oP p market
‘Ade’s people swore at me in the market.’

2.1.6.2
Other means for expressing quantification

Other means for expressing quantification include the following (see also 2.1.1.8):

(1032) stative verbs such as meni ‘be many’, plenti ‘be plenty’, smol ‘be small, be few’, etc.
Yò pikin don plenti.
2ps child +C be plenty
‘Your children have become plenty.’ OR ‘You have many children.’

(1033) reduplication of stative verbs (see 2.2.6.3)
Yò pikin bóku-bóku.
2ps child be plentyRF
‘Your children are very plentiful.’

(1034) modifier nouns derived from stative verbs
Yù get plenti pikîn.
2sP haveF be plenty/mn child
‘You have many children.’

(1035) reduplication of modifier nouns derived from stative verbs (see 2.2.6.3)
Yù get fayn-fayn pikîn.
2sP haveF be beautiful/mnR child
‘You have some beautiful children.’

(1036) distributive reduplication of quantifiers (see 2.2.6.3)
Démm get tre-tre pikîn.
6sP haveF three child
‘They have three children each.’

(1037) ideophones such as nyafûnyafu
Yò pikin plenti nyafûnyafu. OR Yù get pikîn nyafûnyafu.
2ps child be plentyRF ipRF 2sP haveF child ipR
‘You have very many children.’

(1038) adverbials such as tu ‘very, too much’
Yò pikin tu plenti. OR Yù tu get pikîn.
2ps child too much be plentyRF 2sP too much haveF child
‘You have too many children.’
2.1.7
Adverbs

2.1.7.1
Degrees of comparison

Because ‘adjectives’ are verbs in Nigerian Pidgin (see 2.1.4) all of the patterns described and illustrated in 2.1.4.4 for ‘adjectival’ comparison are the same patterns as are employed to signal adverbial comparison. Equative, comparative and superlative relations are almost exclusively signalled by the use of serialized verb constructions in which a verb that sets the parameter for comparison is followed by a verb (either pas ‘pass’ for the comparative and superlative or rich ‘reach’ for equatives) whose object sets the standard for comparison.

2.1.7.1.1
Equality

As explained in detail in section 1.9, the following serialized verb construction containing the verb rich ‘reach’ is normally employed to show equative relations:

\[
(1039) \quad [\text{Ade}] \ [\text{chop} \ \text{nyam}] \ [\text{rich}] \ [\text{Audu}]. \\
[\text{Ade}] \ [\text{eatF+ } \text{yam}] \ [\text{reach+}] \ [\text{Audu}] \\
[\text{parameter}] \ [\text{standard}] \\
\text{‘Ade ate (yams) as much as Audu (did).’}
\]

\[
(1040) \quad [\text{Ade}] \ [\text{chop} \ \text{kwik}] \ [\text{rich}] \ [\text{Audu}]. \\
[\text{Ade}] \ [\text{eatF+ } \text{be quick+}] \ [\text{reach+}] \ [\text{Audu}] \\
[\text{parameter}] \ [\text{standard}] \\
\text{‘Ade ate as quickly as Audu (did).’}
\]

2.1.7.1.2
Comparative

As explained in detail in section 1.8, the following serialized verb construction containing the verb pas ‘pass’ is normally employed to show comparison:

\[
(1041) \quad [\text{Ade}] \ [\text{chop} \ \text{nyam}] \ [\text{pas}] \ [\text{Audu}]. \\
[\text{Ade}] \ [\text{eatF+ } \text{yam}] \ [\text{pass+}] \ [\text{Audu}] \\
[\text{parameter}] \ [\text{standard}] \\
\text{‘Ade ate (yams) more than Audu (did).’}
\]

\[
(1042) \quad [\text{Ade}] \ [\text{chop} \ \text{kwik}] \ [\text{pas}] \ [\text{Audu}]. \\
[\text{Ade}] \ [\text{eatF+ } \text{be quick+}] \ [\text{pass+}] \ [\text{Audu}] \\
[\text{parameter}] \ [\text{standard}] \\
\text{‘Ade ate more quickly than Audu (did).’}
\]
2.1.7.1.3
Superlative

As explained in detail in section 1.8, the following serialized verb constructions containing the verb *pas* ‘pass’ are normally utilized to show superlative relations.

Superlative in relation to other entities. In order to indicate a superlative in relation to other entities, the standard-setting object position is usually filled by a noun phrase whose referent is the entire set of relevant candidates for the standard. The pronominalized quantifier *ol* ‘all’ is commonly used for this purpose:

(1043)    [Ade] [chop nyam] [pas] [ol].
           [Ade] [eatF+ yam] [pass+] [all/oP]
           [parameter] [standard]
           ‘Ade ate (yams) more than anyone else (did).’

(1044)    [Ade] [chop kwik] [pas] [ol].
           [Ade] [eatF+ be quick+] [pass+] [all/oP]
           [parameter] [standard]
           ‘Ade ate more quickly than anyone else (did).’

Superlative in relation to the entity itself. In order to indicate a superlative with reference to the same entity, the standard-setting object position is usually left empty or filled by an adverbial specifying the standard:

(1045)    [Ade] [chop nyam] [pas].
           [Ade] [eatF+ yam] [pass+]
           [parameter]
           ‘Ade ate (yams) more than ever.’

(1046)    [Ade] [chop nyam] [pas] [bifô].
           [Ade] [eatF+ yam] [pass+] [before]
           [parameter] [standard]
           ‘Ade ate (yams) more than before.’

(1047)    [Ade] [chop kwik] [pas].
           [Ade] [eatF+ be quick+] [pass+]
           [parameter]
           ‘Ade ate more quickly than ever.’

(1048)    [Ade] [chop kwik] [pas] [bifô].
           [Ade] [eatF+ be quick+] [pass+] [before]
           [parameter] [standard]
           ‘Ade ate more quickly than before.’
2.1.7.2

Degree of quality

Because ‘adjectives’ are verbs in Nigerian Pidgin (see 2.1.4), many of the patterns described and illustrated in 2.1.4.5 for showing degrees of ‘adjectival’ quality are the same patterns that are employed to signal degrees of adverbial quality.

2.1.7.2.1

Quality in large measure

Quality in large measure can be expressed in the following ways:

(1049)  
ideophones such as wel-wel or nyafûnyafu  
Aya chop nyam wel-wel.  
Aya eatF+ yam ipR  
‘Aya ate (yams) plentifully.’

(1050)  
postverbal completive aspect auxiliary taya  
Aya chop nyam taya.  
Aya eatF yam +C  
‘Aya ate (yams) plentifully.’

(1051)  
serialized verbs such as plenti ‘be plenty’, tumôch ‘be very much’ or mo ‘be very much’  
Aya chop nyam tumôch.  
Aya eatF+ yam be very much+  
‘Aya ate (yams) plentifully.’

(1052)  
reduplication of stative verbs (see 2.2.6.3)  
Ade chop nyam kwik-kwik.  
Ade eatF+ yam be quickR+  
‘Ade ate (yams) very quickly.’

(1053)  
reduplication of nominalized stative verbs (see 2.2.6.3)  
Ade tek kwik-kwik chop nyam.  
Ade takeFV+ be quick/nR eat+ yam  
‘Ade ate (yams) very quickly.’

2.1.7.2.2

Quality in superabundance

Quality in superabundance is usually expressed by the use of the preverbal adverbial tu (see 1.2.1.3.1.1):

(1054)  
Ade tu chop nyam.  
Ade too much eatF yam  
‘Ade ate (yams) too much.’
2.1.7.2.3
Quality in small measure

Quality in small measure is most frequently expressed by the use of a serialized verb construction containing the verb *smol* ‘be small’:

(1056)
Aya chop nyam smol.
Aya eatF+ yam be small+
‘Aya ate (yams) a bit.’

(1057)
Aya chop kwik smol.
Aya eatF+ be quick+ be small+
‘Aya ate a bit quickly.’

2.1.7.2.4
Other ways of expressing degree of modification

Many adverbials can be reduplicated to intensify their modifying force:

(1058)
A gò du dì wok tude-tûdê.
1sP −R do ar work todayR
‘I will do the work this very day.’

2.1.8
Clitics

The criteria for cliticization utilized in this section are the following:

1 *Dependency*: prototypically, clitics do not occur alone, but always co-occur with a particular class of word.
2 *Attachment*: prototypically, no nonclitic element may be inserted between a clitic and the item upon which it is dependent.
3 *Marginality*: prototypically, clitics always serve to modify another element and may not themselves be modified.
4 *Phonological incorporation*: prototypically, the boundary between a clitic and the item upon which it is dependent is in no way different from the boundaries that normally divide one syllable from another in the words of the language.
2.1.8.1
Types of clitics

2.1.8.1.1
Personal pronouns

A case could be made for the clitic status of all bound pronouns on the basis of these facts: (a) they may never stand alone without a verb; (b) they may in no instance be modified; and (c) they bear an unstressable low tone. It is not possible, however, to consider bound subject pronouns to be cliticized because nonclitic elements such as the negative marker, auxiliaries, etc. may be inserted between a bound subject pronoun and the following verb. This is true as well of the dummy subject pronoun i, despite the fact that it may undergo phonetic reduction or be deleted altogether (see 1.2.1.2.1). The bound object pronouns are better candidates for clitic status, since they follow the verb for which their referent serves as an argument almost without exception. The only remaining argument against classifying the bound object pronouns as clitics is a phonetic one: consonants that are normally deleted in word-final position (see 3.4.4.1) are still deleted before all of the bound object pronouns, with the exception of the third-person -am. The third-person bound object pronoun -am has in fact been written with a ligature and without a tone mark throughout this work to show that it could be said to derive its tonal properties to some extent from the preceding verb (which is true of all bound object pronouns; see 3.5.2.3) and that word-final consonants that are normally deleted are conserved when -am follows.

2.1.8.1.2
Possessive pronouns

A case could be made for the clitic status of possessive pronouns on the basis of the same arguments put forward for bound pronouns in general: (a) they may never stand alone without a possessed object; (b) they may in no instance be modified; and (c) they bear an unstressable low tone. It is not possible, however, to consider possessive pronouns to be cliticized because of the fact that nonclitic elements such as numerals may be inserted between a possessive pronoun and its object (see 1.2.5.3).

2.1.8.1.3–4
Reflexive and reciprocal pronouns

There is little evidence to suggest that either reflexive or reciprocal pronouns are clitic (see 2.1.2.2–3).

2.1.8.1.5
Auxiliaries

While all auxiliaries never occur without the verb which they modify and many auxiliaries undergo phonetic reduction or incorporation (see 3.4.4.1 and 2.1.3.6.12), all but the incompletive aspectual auxiliary dè may be separated from the main verb by a nonclitic adverbial (see 1.2.5.3). Dè bears an unstressable low tone and is often reduced to è in rapid speech. Dè and the main verb which follows it are used in a proto-nonfinite construction in acrolectal speech in which dè becomes even more completely dependent, attached and marginal in relation to the verb that it modifies (see 1.1.2.2.6). For all of these reasons, it would not be...
unreasonable to classify *dè* as a clitic or an item which is currently undergoing cliticization. Given its unclear status, however, *dè* is written as a separate word in this work, rather than as part of a larger word.

2.1.8.1.6

Sentence particles

*Modal particles.* There is little evidence to suggest that either the subjunctive clause introducer *mek* or the phrase-final particle *ò* is cliticized (see 2.1.3.4) even though *mek* is subject to phonological reduction (see 3.4.4.1).

*Interrogative particles.* The interrogative markers *hus-*, *wat-*, *wich-*, *we-* and *wus-* meet all of the criteria for cliticization listed above when they are used to form compound interrogative pronouns (see 1.1.1.2.2). Since none of these interrogative markers can be used in any other environment, compound interrogative pronouns are written as single unhyphenated words in this work (see 2.2.6.3).

*Negative particles.* Despite the fact that the negative particle *no* does undergo incorporation in some cases (see 2.1.3.6.12) there is no other evidence to suggest that it is cliticized in any way (see 1.4).

2.1.8.1.7

Sentence connectives

There is little evidence to suggest that sentence connectives are cliticized (see 1.3).

2.1.8.1.8

Anaphoric particles

In so far as the third-person bound object pronoun *-am* and the other bound object pronouns function as anaphoric pronouns (see 2.1.2.7.1) a case may be made for the clitic status of anaphoric pronouns (see 2.1.8.1.1).

2.1.8.1.9

Other clitics

There are no other clitics in Nigerian Pidgin.

2.1.8.2–5

*Position and relative order of clitics*

Bound object pronouns immediately follow the verb, while the incompletive auxiliary immediately precedes (see 1.2.5.3). The interrogative particles precede generic nouns to form compound interrogative pronouns (see 1.1.1.2.2 and 2.2.6.3). Because the positions occupied by these clitic elements are noncontiguous, there are no restrictions related to their relative order or co-occurrence:

(1059) Hus(-)sâyd yù dè(-)tek dè(-)giv -am dì mòni?
where? 2sP −C takeV+ −C give+-3oP ar money
‘Where do you give her/him the money?’
2.2 DERIVATIONAL MORPHOLOGY

The principal derivational processes in Nigerian Pidgin are the following, listed roughly in order of their frequency of use for this purpose:

1. Word order (multifunctionality) (see 1.1.2.2.6, 1.2.5.3 and 2.1.1.1.5).
2. Reduplication (see 2.2.6.3 and 2.1.1.1.6).
3. Compounding (see 2.2.6.3 and 2.1.1.1.6).
4. Prepositions (see 1.2.1.3.1.2, 2.1.1.5 and 2.1.1.1.4).
5. Serialized verb constructions (see 1.3.1.1.4).

2.2.1 Derivational processes

2.2.1.1 Nouns from nouns

(1060) word order to derive modifier nouns from other nouns (very productive)
A si Ade. A si Ade (im) mòto.
1sP seeF Ade 1sP seeF Ade/mn (3ps) car
‘I saw Ade.’ ‘I saw Ade’s car.’

(1061) reduplication to show distributive plurality (productive)
A si mòto-mòto fôr rod.
1sP seeF carR p road
‘I saw many cars all over the road.’

(1062) compounding using generic nouns such as ples ‘place’, pgsin ‘person’, etc. (productive)
A si mòto-man fôr rod.
1sP seeF car -man p road
‘I saw the driver (and/or owner) of the car on the road.’

2.2.1.2 Nouns from verbs

(1063) word order to derive nouns from verbs (productive)
Dì wọsh we à wọsh no bi smol ò.
ar wash/n rcI 1sP washF ng cv be small/mn/o f
‘The washing that I washed was not small.’ OR ‘The washing that
I did was no small chore.’

reduplication also possible here (fairly productive):
compounding using generic nouns such as ples ‘place’, pesin ‘person’, etc. (productive)

Dì wosh -ples no smol ò.

ar wash/n-place ng be smallF f

‘The washing area is not small.’ OR ‘The washing area is surprisingly big.’

reduplication also possible here (fairly productive):

Dì wosh-wosh-ples no smol ò.

general preposition for (limited to a few items)

A joyn -am fôr kóm.

1sP joinE-3oP p come/h

‘I joined her/him in coming.’

serialized verb constructions (fairly productive)

A gò tek wosh klin dì haws.

1sP –R takeV+ wash/n be clean+ ar house

‘I will clean the house by washing it.’

reduplication also possible here (not very productive):

A gò tek wosh-wosh klin dì haws.

2.2.1.3
Syntax of deverbal nouns

The syntax of deverbal nouns is exactly the same as that of nonderived nouns, even in cases where nouns are derived from ‘adjectival’ stative verbs (see 2.1.4). The only possible exception to this pattern is the focalization construction described in 1.1.2.2.6.

2.2.1.4
Nouns from adverbs

Although noun phrases are often used adverbially (see 1.2.1.3.1.3) nouns cannot be derived from adverbs.

2.2.1.5
Nouns from other categories

Nouns from ideophones

word order to derive nouns from ideophones (fairly productive)

Dì kpam we à kpam-am kpam kpawây no smol.

ar ip/n rcI 1sP ip/v -3oP ip ip ng be small
‘The beating that I beat him/her was not small.’ OR ‘The beating that I gave him/her was not small.’

Reduplication also possible here (not very productive):

Dì kpam-kpam we à kpam-am no bì smol ò.

(1068) *serialized verb constructions (fairly productive)*

A gö tek kpam bit yù.
1sP −R takeV+ ip/n beat+ 2oP
‘I will beat you heavily.’

Reduplication also possible here (not very productive):

A gö tek kpam-kpam bit yù.

---

### 2.2.2 Derivation of verbs

#### 2.2.2.1 Verbs from nouns

(1069) *word order to derive verbs from nouns (fairly productive)*

A fyar loya. Im kôm loya mi taya.
1sP be afraidF lawyer 3sP +R lawyer/v 1oP +C
‘I fear lawyers.’ ‘(S)he argued with me.’

Reduplication also possible here (not very productive):

Im kôm loyâloya mi taya.

(1070) *compounding using generic nouns such as ples ‘place’, pesin ‘person’, etc. (limited to a few items)*

Mek yù no loya -man mi ò.
SJcI 2sP ng lawyer-man/vSJ 1EP f
‘Don’t lawyer me!’ OR ‘Don’t try to convince me with your clever arguments!’

#### 2.2.2.2 Verbs from verbs

(1071) *word order to derive auxiliaries from verbs (limited to a few items)*

A kôm haws. A kôm go haws.
1sP comeF house 1sP +R goF house
‘I came home.’ ‘I went home.’
reduplication to show repetition or duration (very productive)
A ron-ron-ron fər rod.
1sP runRR p road
‘I ran and ran down the road.’

serialized verb constructions to increase the valence of a verb (see 2.1.3.1.3), to make verbs causative (see 2.1.3.1.3.1) etc. (see 1.3.1.1.4) (extremely productive)
A gö mek yù tek nayf kari go giv Audu.
1sP −R make+ 2s/oP takeV+ knife carry+ go+ give+ Audu
‘I will make you go and give the knife to Audu.’

2.2.2.3
Verbs from adjectives

As explained in sections 2.1.4 and 1.2.1.1.2, there are no adjectives in Nigerian Pidgin.

2.2.2.4
Verbs from adverbs
Although verbs may be derived from adverbial noun phrases, it is not possible to derive verbs from adverbs (see 2.2.2.1):

Mek yù no tùmoro mi ègèn ò.
SJcI 2sP ng tomorrow/vSJ 1EP again f
‘Don’t tomorrow me again!’ OR ‘Don’t keep putting off doing what you should already have done for me.’

2.2.2.5
Verbs from other categories

Verbs from ideophones

A kəm kpam-am kpam kpawây.
1sP +R ip/v -3oP ip ip
‘I beat him/her heavily.’

reduplication also possible here (not very productive):

A kpam-kpam-am kpam kpawây.

Verbs from prepositions. In some lects, prepositions (especially the preposition fròm ‘from’) behave more like serialized verbs than like prepositions (see 2.1.1.5, 1.3.1.1.4 and 1.1.1.2.2.1.4).
2.2.3
Derived modifier nouns (‘adjectives’)

As explained in sections 2.1.4 and 1.2.1.1, there are no adjectives in Nigerian Pidgin. In place of adjectives, items which may fill the modifier noun slot will be considered here (see 1.2.5.1.1). It should be noted that there is no distinct class of lexical items which might be categorized as the set of modifier nouns: all modifier nouns are derived from some other class.

2.2.3.1
Modifier nouns from nouns

(1076)  word order to derive modifier nouns from other nouns (see 1.2.5.1.1) (very productive)
A get flawa. A get flawa dres.
1sP haveF flower 1sP haveF flower/mn dress
‘I have flowers.’ ‘I have flowered clothing.’

reduplication also possible here (fairly productive):

A get flawa-flawa dres.

2.2.3.2
Modifier nouns from verbs

(1077)  word order to derive modifier nouns from verbs (see 2.1.4 and 1.2.5.1.1) (very productive)
A don sik. A get sik pìkîn.
1sP +C be sick 1sP haveF be sick/mn child
‘I have become sick.’ ‘I have a sick child.’

reduplication also possible here, often with plural meaning (fairly productive):

A get sik-sik pìkîn.
‘I have some sick children.’

2.2.3.3
Modifier nouns from modifier nouns

Apart from the complex associative/possessive constructions described and illustrated in section 1.2.5.1.1, modifier nouns are not usually derived from other modifier nouns.

2.2.3.4
Modifier nouns from adverbs

Although modifier nouns may be derived from adverbial noun phrases, they may not be derived from adverbs (see 2.2.2.1):
(1078) Nà yếṣtàdè sup wě yù ṃ di lìk ṃ̀. 
EI yesterday/mn soup rCI 2sP –C lick f 
‘That’s yesterday’s soup that you are eating.’

2.2.3.5 
Modifier nouns from other categories

Modifier nouns from ideophones

(1079) word order to derive modifier nouns from ideophones (fairly productive) 
Nà zawây slap wē ā gò tek slap yù. 
EI ip/mn slap/n rCI 1sP –R takēV+ slap+ 2oP 
‘It will be with a stinging slap that I will slap you.’ 

reduplication also possible here (not very productive):

Nà zaway-zawây slap wē ā gò tek slap yù.

2.2.4 
Derivation of adverbs

2.2.4.1 
Adverbs from nouns

(1080) word order to derive adverbs from nouns (very productive) 
Yù gēt wōn awa. Im kōm slip wōn awa. 
2sP haveF one hour 3sP +R sleep one hour 
‘You have one hour.’ ‘(S)he slept for one hour.’

(1081) reduplication to show repetition (productive) 
Mōndè-mōndè ā dè go fam. 
MondayR 1sP –C go farm 
‘Mondays, I go to the farm.’

(1082) compounding using generic nouns such as ples ‘place’, taym ‘time’, etc. (very productive) 
Mōning taym ā dè go fam. 
morning time 1sP –C go farm 
‘Mornings, I go to the farm.’

(1083) prepositions (very productive) 
Fōr moning (taym) ā dè go fam. 
p morning (time) 1sP –C go farm 
‘Mornings, I go to the farm.’
(1084) **serialized verb constructions** (very productive)

A dè tek m̩̃ning (taym) go fam.
1sP −C takeV+ morning (time) go+ farm
‘Mornings, I go to the farm.’

2.2.4.2

**Adverbs from verbs**

(1085) **word order and/or reduplication** (fairly productive)

Sm̩ol-sm̩ol à g̩o go fam.
be small/nR 1sP −R go farm
‘I will go slowly to the farm.’

(1086) **serialized verb construction** (fairly productive)

A g̩o tek sm̩ol-sm̩ol go fam.
1sP −R take+ be small/nR go+ farm
‘I will go slowly to the farm.’

2.2.4.3

**Adverbs from adjectives**

As explained in sections 2.1.4, 1.2.1.1.1 and 1.2.5.1.1, there are no adjectives in Nigerian Pidgin.

2.2.4.4

**Adverbs from adverbs**

(1087) **reduplication** (a few items only)

A no g̩o go fam àtol-àt̩ol.
1sP ng −R go farm at allR
‘I will under no circumstances go to the farm.’

At times it is difficult to distinguish adverbs from serialized verbs (see 1.3.1.1.4).

2.2.4.5

**Adverbs from other categories**

Adverbs from ideophones. As shown in sections 1.2.1.3.1.1 and 1.3.11.4, the division between the categories ‘adverb’ and ‘ideophone’ is not always clearly defined.

2.2.5

**Other possibilities**

Reduplication and compounding are not restricted to the word classes treated in this section. For a full listing of the possibilities for reduplication and compounding, see section 2.2.6.3. A demonstrative, a
A cardinal numeral or a modifier noun can be pronominalized and used alone in a truncated noun phrase (see 1.2.1.1 and 2.1.4). More complete descriptions of the wide range of uses for prepositions and serialized verb constructions may be found in sections 2.1.1 and 1.3.1.1.4, respectively.

2.2.6
Derivation of prepositions

2.2.6.1
Complex prepositions

2.2.6.1.1–5
Complex prepositional structures

Series of two or more prepositions are not attested in the data. [Verb+preposition] constructions occur with greatest frequency and variety in acrolectal speech, while they are limited to the use of [verb+fôr] to express locative and other case relations in other lects (see 2.1.1.4–6). Prepositions are quite often followed by associative/possessive constructions, however, which serve to specify the meaning of the preposition (see 1.2.1.3.1.2 and 2.1.1). The modifier noun in these [preposition+associative/possessive construction] structures is a locational noun or a body part, such as bak ‘back’, insâyd ‘inside’, onda ‘under’, etc. (see 2.1.1.5–6):

(1088) A de fôr [insâyd mòto].
1sP cvF p [inside car]
‘I am inside the car.’

2.2.6.2
Derived prepositions

2.2.6.2.1–4
Derived prepositions

Denominal prepositions. It is not uncommon for the preposition to be omitted from a [preposition +associative/possessive construction] structure, leaving the modifier noun to play a role which suggests that it be classified as a denominal preposition (see previous section and example):

(1089) A de insâyd mòto.
1sP cvF inside car
‘I am inside the car.’

This omission process is especially common before locational/temporal nouns bifô ‘before’ and afta ‘after’ (see 2.1.1.6.1). It should be noted, however, that in instances where such ‘denominalized prepositions’ occur, fôr may optionally precede them.

Deverbal prepositions. The verb-like behaviour of prepositions (especially frôm) and the preposition-like meanings assigned to some serialized verbs (such as comparative pas and directional go) indicate that the
demarcation between the categories ‘verb’ and ‘preposition’ is in some cases unclear (see 1.3.1.1.4). A general class (or even a specific instance) of ‘deverbal prepositions’, however, is not to be found in the data.

De-adjectival prepositions. There are no adjectives in Nigerian Pidgin (see 2.1.4). The use of the copular extension layk ‘like’ is illustrated in section 2.1.1.

2.2.6.3

Compounds and reduplication

In this work, reduplicated items are subsumed under the general category ‘compounds’, since ‘classical’ compounds and reduplicated items share the following characteristics:

1 Complexity: prototypically, compounds are composed of two or more lexical entities that can occur independently as separate words in other contexts.
2 Attachment: prototypically, no item can be inserted between the lexemes that make up a compound, unless that item itself is integrated into the compound structure to form a more complex compound.
3 Phonological incorporation: compounds behave phonologically as if they were simple lexical items.

Compounds and reduplicated items fall into two general morphological classes: monotonal compounds and polytonal compounds, which are distinguished by their suprasegmental properties. Monotonal compounds bear a single tone and are written as single words, while polytonal compounds bear at least one tone over each component lexeme, each of which is separated from the other component lexemes by a hyphen in its graphemic representation.

Monotonal compounds and reduplicated compounds. Monotonal compounds are of two types: low-toned reduplicated verb compounds and high-toned nominal compounds.

Low-toned reduplicated verbal compounds. The class of low-toned reduplicated compounds may only be formed from verbs. A single low tone is assigned to the final syllable of the penultimate lexical building block of the reduplicated compound. By the stress rules outlined in section 3.3.2, this tonal configuration yields a sequence of low tones over all syllables of all of the nonfinal lexical components of the compound and a sequence of high tones over all syllables of the final component. This type of reduplicative compounding adds a durative, repetitive or intensifier force to the basic meaning of the verb:

(1090)    Verb low-toned reduplicated form:
        bênd ‘be bent’ bêndbênd ‘be twisted’
        gosip ‘gossip’ gosipgosip ‘gossip constantly’
        wàka ‘walk’ wakàwaka ‘walk constantly’

High-toned nominal compounds are a restricted set of items composed of two lexical units which form a single word that bears one high tone over its initial syllable. By the stress rules outlined in section 3.3.2, this tonal configuration yields a single initial high tone followed by a sequence of low tones. All high-toned nominal compounds function pronominally in the sentences where they occur. The initial element of a high-toned nominal compound may be any one of the following demonstratives or quantifiers: dat ‘that’, dis ‘this’, som ‘some’, eni ‘any’, evri ‘every’, and oda ‘other’. The final element is restricted to the items ting ‘thing’, won ‘one’ and bòdi ‘body’:

(1091)    disting ‘this thing’


êvriting ‘everything’
datwôn ‘that one’
ôdawôn ‘other one’
sômêbdî ‘somebody’

Dis, dat, and oda may not be used with bôdi.

*Polytonal compounds and reduplicated compounds.* As noted above, each component lexeme in a polytonal compound is normally assigned one tone. The final lexeme within a polytonal compound is usually assigned a single high tone, although a low tone or a low-high tone sequence occasionally occurs here as well. When stress is assigned to a polytonal compound, it is only this final tone that is stressed and only the syllables of the final lexical component of the compound are available for stressed tone spreading (see 3.3.2). The result of this set of circumstances is a final falling pitch over polytonal compounds whose spread is most often restricted to one or two syllables. To show the limits for tone spreading, polytonal compounds are not written as single words as are monotonal compounds, but as hyphenated words instead:

(1092) bêle ‘belly’+ful ‘be full’=bêle-ful ‘be satiated’
Legos ‘Lagos’+sayd ‘side’=Legos-sayd ‘near Lagos’

It should be noted here that the set of associative/possessive constructions (see 1.2.5.1.1) and the set of nonreduplicated polytonal compounds overlap to a great extent. When it is possible to interpret a sequence of words as a modifier-modified or possessor-possessed sequence, it is classified as an associative/possessive construction and its component lexemes are written as separate words. It is only when associative constructions are considered to be a type of polytonal compounding, however, that the full productivity of this process can be appreciated. Modifier nouns can be derived from nouns, verbs, adverbials and ideophones (see 2.2.3.1–5). Modified nouns may also be derived from any of these classes, making the combinatory possibilities quite numerous. The modifier noun slot is often occupied by one of a set of words that gives the construction a pronominal or generic meaning. According to the stress rules for polytonal compounds and noun phrase constructions, these items regularly attract phrase stress when they appear in this position. For these reasons, these items could be termed ‘pronominal bases’ or inherently stressed nominals:

(1093) pronominal bases

*Personal*

bôdi           ‘body’
boy            ‘boy’
gel            ‘girl’
pikîn          ‘child’
man            ‘man’
wuman          ‘woman’
pesin          ‘person’
pipul          ‘people’

*Place*

ples           ‘place’
sayd           ‘side’
kontrî         ‘country’
land ‘land’
Manner
we ‘way’
fashion ‘manner’
Other
ting ‘thing’
taym ‘time’
Kaynd ‘kind, sort’

The clitic interrogative markers hus-, wat-, wich-, we- and wus- (see 2.1.8.1.6) combine with these items to form compound interrogative pronouns (see 1.1.1.2.2).

Polysyllabic loan words from English often behave suprasegmentally as if they were polytonal compounds, that is, they tend to bear a falling pitch contour over their final syllables:

(1094)
agrikocha ‘agriculture’
egrèd ‘age grade
envêlôp ‘envelope’
wartûr ‘waterproof (raincoat)’

Polytonal reduplicated compounds may be composed of two or more iterations of elements from the following categories:

(1095)
Nouns
fish ‘fish’ fish-fish ‘many fish’
kop ‘cup’ kop-kop ‘by the cup’
mûtô ‘car’ mûtô-mûtô ‘many cars’
tûdê ‘today’ tûdê-tûdê ‘this very day’

Pronouns
dem ‘they/them’ dem-dem ‘themselves (reciprocal)’

Modifier nouns
smol ‘be small’ smol-smol ‘many small (plural)’ OR
‘very small’
tyar ‘be torn’ tyar-tyar ‘shredded up’
wàka ‘walk’ wàka-wàka ‘walking’

Cardinal numbers:
won ‘one’ won-won ‘one each (distributive)’

Verbs
wosh ‘wash’ wosh-wosh ‘wash repeatedly or with effort’
mek ‘make, do’ mek-mek ‘scheme, plot’
trowe ‘overflow’ trowe-trowe ‘overflow profusely’

Adverbs (rare)
âtôl ‘at all’ âtôl-âtôl ‘under no circumstances’

Ideophones
gbûdûm ‘heavily’ gbûdûm-gbûdûm ‘very heavily’
Complex compound and reduplicated forms. Triplicated and quadruplicated forms occur:

   1sP runRR p road
   ‘I ran and ran down the road.’

Complex compound forms are also attested in the data:

(1097)  A de för mòto-pak -sayd.
   1sP cvF p car -park-side
   ‘I am near the terminal.’
Chapter 3
Phonology

3.1
PHONOLOGICAL UNITS (SEGMENTAL)

3.1.1
Distinctive segments

(1098) the consonantal system of Nigerian Pidgin (orthographic symbols in parentheses, where these differ from the IPA symbols)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Labial</th>
<th>Alveolar</th>
<th>Post-alveolar</th>
<th>Velar/ glottal</th>
<th>Labial-velar</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>vl</td>
<td>/p/ /t/</td>
<td>/tʃ/ (ch)</td>
<td>/k/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fricatives</td>
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<td>/b/ /d/</td>
<td>/dʒ/ (j)</td>
<td>/ɡ/</td>
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<td>/ʃ/ (sh)</td>
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<td>vd</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Questionable segments and minimal pairs. Faraclas et al. (1984) list /kʷ/, /ɡʷ/ and /ɾ/ as phonemes, but since clusters such as /sw/, /wj/ and /ʃj/ exist (see 3.2) these are perhaps best analysed as clusters as well. Some sets of minimal pairs of words which provide evidence for the phonemic status of the consonant sounds in the preceding table are listed here:

(1099) sets of minimal pairs showing consonant phonemes

<p>| /paj/ | pay ‘pie’ | /bit/ | bit ‘beat’ |
| /baj/ | bay ‘buy’ | /fit/ | fit ‘be able’ |
| /taj/ | tay ‘tie’ | /mit/ | mit ‘meat’ |
| /daj/ | day ‘die’ | /tit/ | tit ‘tooth’ |
| /kaj/ | kay exclamation | /it/ | shit ‘defecate’ |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Front/ unrounded</th>
<th>Central</th>
<th>Back/ rounded</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>/i/</td>
<td>/u/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High-mid</td>
<td>/e/</td>
<td>/N/ (m, n) (syllabic /o/ nasal)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low-mid</td>
<td>/ (e)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>/a/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Questionable segments and minimal pairs.** There is some question as to whether vowel nasalization is significant in Nigerian Pidgin. For midwestern dialects, Elugbe and Omamor (ms. 88–90) agree with Oyebade (1983) that ‘a feature of significant vowel nasalization’ exists, and propose an underlying segment /N/ to follow nasalized vowels. In the eastern dialects which supplied the data on which this work is based, however, all vowel nasalization can be traced to adjacent nasal consonants which actually occur at the surface. Some sets of minimal pairs of words which provide evidence for the phonemic status of the vowel sounds in the preceding table are listed here:

(1101) Sets of minimal pairs showing vowel phonemes:

- /səl/ sa ‘sir’
- /səl/ se ‘say’
- /si/ si ‘see’
- /sʊl/ so ‘sew’
- /pət/ pat ‘part’
- /pət/ pot ‘pot’
- /pət/ put ‘put’

The orthographic system used in this work to represent the distinctive sounds of Nigerian Pidgin is that recommended by Faracalas et al. (1984):

(1102) Orthographic equivalents of the distinctive sounds of Nigerian Pidgin:
3.1.2
Distinctive segments and their allophones

All of the distinctive sounds of Nigerian Pidgin involve the use of a pulmonic egressive air stream mechanism and no special glottal closure is employed besides the closure utilized for ordinary voicing.

3.1.2.1
Nonsyllabic segments and their allophones

Phonetically conditioned variation. Word-final plosives tend to be omitted before a pause or another consonant, while word-final fricatives and sonorants tend to be omitted in all environments. It should be noted that in past analyses of Nigerian Pidgin many fewer word-final consonants are posited underlyingly than in the present study. All of the final consonants included here do in fact occur in the data in the (sometimes quite rare) cases where omission does not take place. If these consonants are ignored in phonemic representations, there is absolutely no way to predict which consonant will appear at the end of which word when omission does not occur. For this reason, it is necessary to incorporate these sounds into underlying forms, despite the fact that many of them are more often than not eliminated before they take concrete phonetic form:

(1103) Put! /pút=/ [pû]/[pût]
putSJ
‘Put (some)!’ OR ‘Dish out (some)!’
Put sup! /pút+súp=/ [pú súp]/[pút súp]
putSJ soup
‘Put soup!’ OR ‘Dish out some soup!’
Put eg! /pút+ég=/ [pú têg]
putSJ egg
‘Put eggs!’ OR ‘Dish out some eggs!’
Undeleted word-final obstruents may be devoiced:

\[ \text{(1104) Boyl!} \quad \text{/bójl=/} \quad \text{[bój]/[ból]} \]
\[ \text{boilSJ} \]
\[ \text{’Boil (some)!’} \]
\[ \text{Boyl sup!} \quad \text{/bójl+súp=/} \quad \text{[bój súp]/[bój súp]} \]
\[ \text{boilSJ soup} \]
\[ \text{’Boil the soup!’} \]
\[ \text{Boyl eg!} \quad \text{/bójl+ég=/} \quad \text{[bój èg]/[bój leg]} \]
\[ \text{boilSJ egg} \]
\[ \text{’Boil the eggs!’} \]

Voiceless word-final plosives may be unexploded:

\[ \text{(1106) Put!} \quad \text{/pút=} \quad \text{[pû]/[pût]} \]
\[ \text{putSJ} \]
\[ \text{’Put (some)!’ OR ‘Dish out (some)!’} \]

Voiceless word-final fricatives may be lengthened:

\[ \text{(1107) Boyl rays!} \quad \text{/bójl+rájs=} \quad \text{[bój râjs:/râjs]} \]
\[ \text{boilSJ rice} \]
\[ \text{’Boil the rice!’} \]

Undeleted nasal consonants are normally homorganic to following consonants:

\[ \text{(1108) Klam tri!} \quad \text{/klám+trí=} \quad \text{[klán/klám trî]} \]
\[ \text{climbSJ tree} \]
\[ \text{’Climb the tree!’} \]

[t] and [k] are often aspirated word-initially and sometimes word-finally under stress:

\[ \text{(1109) Tek!} \quad \text{/ték=} \quad \text{[tʰékʰ]/[ték]} \]
\[ \text{takeSJ} \]
\[ \text{’Take (some)!’ OR ‘Have some!’} \]
\[ \text{Tek sup!} \quad \text{/ték+súp=} \quad \text{[tʰék/ték súp]} \]
\[ \text{takeSJ soup} \]
\[ \text{’Take some soup!’ OR ‘Have some soup!’} \]

[b], [d] and [g] are sometimes tapped or fricated in intervocalic position:
Morphophonologically conditioned variation. All word-final consonants which are otherwise subject to omission according to the rules just outlined tend to be preserved when either the third-person bound object pronoun -am or the phrase-final particle ò follows:

(1111)    Hyar wod!    /hyár+wɔd=/    [hyá wɔd]
    hearSJ word
    ‘Hear the word(s)!’ OR ‘Listen (to me)!’
    Hyar -am!
    /hyár+-am=/    [hyá ràm]
    hearSJ-3oP
    ‘Hear (it)!’ OR ‘Listen!’
    Hyar ò!
    /hyár+ò=/    [hyá rô]
    hearSJ f
    ‘Hear (it)!’ OR ‘Listen!’

The initial consonants of words which serve to signal grammatical categories, such as auxiliaries, determiners, etc., may be tapped, fricated, approximated or deleted entirely:

(1112)    A gò slip.
    /à+gò+slíp=/    [à ò/wò/ò/gò slîp]
    1sP −R sleep
    ‘I will sleep’

(1113)    A dè go.
    /à+dè+gó=/    [à è/jè/rè/dè gô]
    1sP −C go
    ‘I am going.’

Socially and geographically conditioned variation. Acrolectal varieties often show variation between [d] and [ð], [t] and [ ], [w] and [hw] and/or [ ] and [3] in words where [ð, , hw and 3] occur in Nigerian Standard English. Basilectal varieties often show variation between [h] and [?], [t ] and [ ], and/or [z] and [s] in areas where local languages do not have [h, t , or z]:

(1114)    tɔzde ‘Thursday’ /tɔzde=/ [tɔzde]@[ tɔzde]/#tɔzde]

In southern Cross River State, voicing distinctions are often not made in obstruents, reflecting the lack of such distinctions in the Lower Cross languages of that region. In the midwest some non-nasal consonants are nasalized when they occur in a word that contains a nasal consonant (Elugbe and Omamor ms.)

Free variation. Some speakers sporadically use a uvular [R] or a lamino-alve-olar approximant []] instead of the usual alveolar tap [r] for /r/. This variation could not be correlated with any linguistic or sociolinguistic conditioning factors and could very well represent the initial or final stages of a sound change.
3.1.2.1.1
Plosives and africates

For allophones, see the rules listed under 3.1.2.1.

labio-labial
voiceless /p/ voiced /b/

lamino-alveolar
voiceless /t/ voiced /d/

lamino-postalveolar
voiceless /t/ voiced /d3/

dorso-velar
voiceless /k/ voiced /g/

labial—velar
voiceless /kp/ voiced /gb/

3.1.2.1.2
Fricatives

For allophones, see the rules listed under 3.1.2.1.

labio-dental
voiceless /f/ voiced /v/

lamino-alveolar
voiceless /s/ voiced /z/

lamino-postalveolar
voiceless / /

glottal
voiceless /h/

3.1.2.1.3
Nasals

For allophones, see the rules listed under 3.1.2.1.

labio-labial
voiced /m/

lamino-alveolar
voiced /n/

dorso-velar
voiced / /
3.1.2.1.4 Liquids

For allophones, see the rules listed under 3.1.2.1.

*lamino-alveolar (central)*
voiced tap /ɾ/

*lamino-alveolar (lateral)*
voiced /ɻ/

3.1.2.1.5 Glides

For allophones, see the rules listed under 3.2 and 3.1.2.1.

*high front unrounded*
plain /j/

*high back rounded*
plain /w/

3.1.2.2 Syllabic segments and their allophones

**Phonetically conditioned variation.** Vowels are nasalized by adjacent nasal consonants before any omission of final consonants takes place (see 3.1.2.1):

(1115) won boy ‘one boy’ /wən+bój=/ [wən+bój=/]

Vowels are normally lengthened when they bear a gliding tone due to stress (see 3.3.2):

(1116) Go fam! Go!
\( /gó+fám=gó=/> \)

‘Go to the farm! Go!’

[i] is often slightly lowered and centralized to [I] closed syllables:

(1117) Giv mi!
\( /gɪv+mɪ=//> \)

‘Give (it) to me!’

**Morphophonologically conditioned variation.** The vowels of some words which serve to signal grammatical categories, such as auxiliaries, determiners, etc., are centralized in some cases, while at other times they take on the quality of neighbouring vowels:

(1118) A dè wok.
\( /à+dè+wɔk=//> \)

1sP –C work
‘I am working.’

Elugbe and Omamor (ms.:117) report that in the midwest the negative marker no is pronounced with a higher vowel [o] when a higher vowel follows and with a lower vowel [a] when a lower vowel follows. A low-mid vowel occurs in all instances of the negative marker in Obilade’s (1976:95) midwestern data set.

_Socially and geographically conditioned variation_. Elugbe and Omamor record /o/ in many midwestern words where /u/ is found in the east:

\[(1119)\] East: tûdê ‘today’ midwest: tôdê ‘today’

Nasalization seems to be more prominent in midwestern dialects than it is in eastern dialects (see 3.1.1). Basilectal speakers of vowel harmony languages often pronounce the narrow pharynx (retracted tongue root) counterparts of /i/ and /u/ ([I] and [ ] ) in words where other narrow vowels occur:

\[(1120)\] gârî ‘gari’ /gârî=/ [gâ rí]/# [gà rí]

_Free variation_. In individual words, cases of variation between any given vowel quality and an adjacent vowel quality can be found:

\[(1121)\] watîng ‘what?’ /wâti′ /= [w′ tî′ ]/[wátî′ ]

\[(1122)\] wunch ‘witch’ /wûnt′/= [wînt′]/[wûnt ]

3.1.2.2.1
Vowels

For allophones, see the rules listed under 3.1.2.2.

**high front unrounded**
plain /i/

**high-mid front unrounded**
plain /e/

**low-mid front unrounded**
plain /a/

**low central neutral rounding**
plain /a/

**high back rounded**
plain /u/

**high-mid back rounded**
plain /o/

**low-mid back rounded**
plain /ɔ/
3.1.2.2 Other syllabic segments

Syllabic nasals. In words borrowed from other Nigerian languages, a nasal may occur alone in a syllable and thus constitute by itself the syllable nucleus, in which case it is called a syllabic nasal /N/ (see 3.2). Most syllabic nasals are found word-initially and followed by a syllable with a consonantal onset. Syllabic nasals have no underlying place of articulation and are completely homorganic to the consonant that follows (see 3.1.2.1). The orthographic symbol \( m \) is used in this work to represent all syllabic nasals which are followed by consonants which involve any type of labial articulation, while \( n \) is employed to represent all other occurrences of syllabic nasals:

(1123) mkpùrùndù ideophone /Nkpurùndù/ [m kpù rùn dù]

(1124) ngwa ‘OK’ / gwá/ [gwá]

Other sonorants may be syllabified when they follow another consonant in a cluster, especially in stressed environments. This phenomenon has more to do with syllable structure patterns than with any underlying syllabicity associated with non-nasal sonorants and will be discussed in greater detail in section 3.2.4.

3.1.2.3–4 Segments restricted to loan words or to particular word classes

The segments /z/, /kp/, /gb/ and the syllabic nasal /N/ are largely restricted in occurrence to loan words and ideophones (see 4.1). There are enough items containing /z/ and /kp/ that form part of the basic lexicon of Nigerian Pidgin, however, to justify their inclusion in the consonantal system of the language. The case for the inclusion of /gb/ and /N/ is weaker, given the fact that these sounds are mainly utilized in ideophones and no more than a few sporadically employed loan words. It is argued in this work that ideophones are an integral part of the language and the phonological and grammatical systems of Nigerian Pidgin cannot be understood without taking into account their ideophonic components. It is this argument that provides the main basis for considering /gb/ and /N/ to be part of the basic sound system.

3.2 PHONOTACTICS

Syllable and word structure. The following elements may be included in a syllable:

(1125) Possible syllable structures in Nigerian Pidgin:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>((C_1))</th>
<th>((C_2))</th>
<th>((C_3))</th>
<th>(V/N)</th>
<th>((C_4))</th>
<th>((C_5))</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(C_1)</td>
<td>(V)</td>
<td>(N)</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>à ‘I’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(C_1)</td>
<td>(V)</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>ngwa ‘OK’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(C_1)</td>
<td>(V)</td>
<td>(C_5)</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>si ‘see’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(C_1)</td>
<td>(V)</td>
<td>(C_4)</td>
<td>(C_5)</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>won ‘one’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(C_1)</td>
<td>(C_2)</td>
<td>(V)</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>want ‘want’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(C_1)</td>
<td>(C_2)</td>
<td>(V)</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>()</td>
<td>ste ‘stay’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(C₁)</td>
<td>(C₂)</td>
<td>(C₃)</td>
<td>V/N</td>
<td>(C₄)</td>
<td>(C₅)</td>
<td>Examples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
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<tr>
<td>C₁</td>
<td>C₂</td>
<td></td>
<td>V</td>
<td>C₅</td>
<td></td>
<td>ston</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C₁</td>
<td>C₂</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>C₄</td>
<td>C₅</td>
<td></td>
<td>plant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C₁</td>
<td>C₂</td>
<td>C₃</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>C₅</td>
<td></td>
<td>styu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C₁</td>
<td>C₂</td>
<td>C₃</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>C₅</td>
<td></td>
<td>klyar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C₁</td>
<td>C₂</td>
<td>C₃</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>C₄</td>
<td>C₅</td>
<td>strayk</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Conditions:**

1. **V**: V must be included in all syllable structures except N structures.
2. **N**: N must always stand alone as a syllable.
3. **C₁**: C₁ alone may be any consonant except ng.
4. **C₁C₂ clusters**:
   (a) C₂ may be y if C₁ is any consonant except v, m, z, r, j, y, ng, kp or gb.
   (b) C₂ may be r if C₁ is p, b, f, t, d, k or g.
   (c) C₂ may be l if C₁ is p, b, f, s, k or g.
   (d) C₂ may be w if C₁ is s, k or g.
   (e) C₂ may be p, m, t, n or k if C₁ is s.
5. **C₁C₂C₃ clusters** include spr, spy, str, sty, strw, skr, skw, swy and kly.
6. **C₅**: C₅ alone may be any consonant except h, kp or gb.
7. **C₄C₅ clusters**:
   (a) C₅ may be p, t, d, s, ch, j, k or g if C₄ is a homorganic nasal consonant.
   (b) Other C₄C₅ clusters include: yp, yt, yd, ys, yl, yk, wt, wd, ws, lt and ld.

### 3.2.1–2

**Consonant clusters**

Any of the consonants or consonant clusters described in section 3.2 may occur word-initially, word-medially or word-finallly, as long as they obey the syllable structure conditions listed there.

### 3.2.3

**Vowels**

Any vowel may occur in any position in a word. While u is relatively rare in occurrence word-initially, e and ə are less likely to be found word-finally than are other vowels. Underlying sequences of syllabic segments are not permitted, although syllabification in stressed environments sometimes results in such sequences at the phonetic level (see 3.2.4). It should be noted that in most works on Nigerian Pidgin to date, what are analysed as glide-vowel or vowel–glide sequences here are handled as vowel–vowel sequences. Arguments for or against the analysis adopted in this work are numerous, but none is conclusive.
In connected speech, phonologically conditioned processes tend to reduce many of the complex syllable structures listed in 3.2 to CV structures. The following processes should be cited in this connection.

_Deletion._ As described and exemplified in section 3.1.2.1, word-final consonant omission eliminates a great number of syllable-final consonants.

_Epenthesis._ Vowels are often inserted between two consonants in sequence, especially at word boundaries:

(1126)  Stik de fôr haws.  [sì tí kì dé fɔ hâws]

stick cvF p house
‘There is a stick at the house.’

\( y \) is sometimes inserted before a syllable-initial vowel when a front vowel precedes it, while \( w \) may be inserted before a syllable-initial vowel when a back vowel precedes it:

(1127)  Nà yu ò. No bì mi ò.  [nà jú wɔ nós bì mī jɔ]

EI 2EP f ng cvF 1EP f
‘It is you. It is not me.’

If a verb ends in a front vowel and the third-person bound object pronoun -am follows, \( y \) is sometimes inserted, while \( w \) or even \( r \) may be inserted if the verb ends in a back vowel:

(1128)  A folo -am go.  [à fó ló wâm/râm/ám gö]

1sP followF+-am go+
‘I went with him/her.’

\( h \) is sometimes inserted before a word-initial vowel:

(1129)  A ënta haws.  [à h n n tá hâws]

1sP enterF house
‘I entered the house.’

_Syllabic sonorants._ Sonorants may become syllabic when they follow other consonants in clusters, especially in stressed environments (see 3.3.2.3):

(1130)  A dè fyar.  [à dè fì jà/fyà]

1sP −C be afraid
‘I am afraid.’

(1131)  Nà flawa.  

EI flower
‘It is a flower.’
Assignment of medial units and clusters to syllables. In connected speech, medial units and clusters are often separated from the syllables to which they normally belong, in order to allow the utterance to be parsed as much as possible into CV syllables. This process does not depend on morphological structure in any way, since it occurs across all types of boundaries except for pauses:

(1132) A faynd -am taya. [à fáyⁿ dãⁿ tâ jà]
IsP searchF+-am +C ‘I really looked for it.’

(1133) Nà sòlt ò. [nà sɔl tɔ] El salt f ‘It is salt.’

In general, the structure of lexical morphemes corresponds with the possibilities outlined in this and the previous sections for word structure.

3.2.6 Phonotactics

3.2.6.1–7 Other phonotactic restrictions

There are no co-occurrence restrictions on adjacent units, nonadjacent units or clusters in the language besides those outlined in 3.1.2.1. Vowel harmony plays a very limited role in some basilectal varieties, as illustrated in 3.1.2.2. The only word class that does not conform to all of the phonotactic patterns described thus far is the class of ideophones (see 4.1).

3.3 SUPRASEGMENTALS

3.3.1 Length distinctions

Length plays no distinctive role in Nigerian Pidgin, except perhaps as a secondary cue for stress (see 3.3.2). Under various conditions, the following may be lengthened nondistinctively in connected speech: word-final voiceless fricatives (see 3.1.2.1) stressed vowels (see 3.1.2.2) and stressed sonorants (see 3.2.4).
3.3.2
Stress

3.3.2.1
Role of stress

Alongside tone and intonation, stress plays a major role in determining the pitch-related suprasegmental patterns found in Nigerian Pidgin. For a more detailed account of the stress and tone systems of the language, see Faraclas (1985b).

3.3.2.2
Phonetic correlates of stress

The phrase stress group is the basic unit to which stress is assigned. All types of stress have the same phonetic cues. The primary cues for stress are change in pitch and the height of the resulting peak of pitch prominence: stressed high tones become falling tones which fall from a higher than usual pitch level and stressed low tones become rising tones which rise to a higher than usual level. Secondary cues for stress include extra length of stressed syllables (see 3.1.2.2) or of a sequence of stressed syllables (see 3.2.4) and an increase in perceived loudness. Despite the fact that stressed syllables are more prominent than others, reduction of unstressed syllables is minimal, and Nigerian Pidgin can safely be said to be a syllable-timed language.

3.3.2.3
Types and levels of stress

Grammatically controlled stress. All sentences in Nigerian Pidgin consist of one or more phrase stress groups, each of which has a main (head) verb, an adverbial or a non-subject noun phrase as its nucleus. Each phrase stress group is assigned a single stress, which is signalled by a falling pitch contour if the final tone of the phrase stress group is high or by a rising tone if the final tone of the phrase stress group is low:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{(1134) } & \quad \text{stressed high tone over a single syllable becomes a falling tone} \\
\text{Go!} & \quad /'gô=/ \quad [gô] \\
\text{goSJ} & \quad \text{‘Go!’}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{(1135) } & \quad \text{stressed low tone over a single syllable becomes a rising tone} \\
\text{Mì tù.} & \quad /mì+'tù=/ \quad [mì tû] \\
\text{1sP also} & \quad \text{‘Me also.’}
\end{align*}
\]

Stress-derived falling and rising tones spread from the final tone-bearing syllable of the stress group to any following syllables in the group, creating high-low(-low) and low-high(-high) sequences, respectively. All toneless syllables copy the tone of the syllable to the left after stress is assigned:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{(1136) } & \quad \text{stressed high tone becomes a falling tone, then spreads to create a high-low sequence} \\
\text{Go!} & \quad /'gô=/ \quad [gô]
\end{align*}
\]
Nà mà fada.  
EI 1ps father
‘It is my father.’

(1137) stressed low tone becomes a rising tone, then spreads to create a low-high sequence
Nà mà màma.  
EI 1ps mother
‘It is my mother.’

(1138) stressed high tone becomes a falling tone, then spreads to create a high-low-low sequence
A folo -am.  
1sP followF
‘I followed her/him.’

(1139) stressed low tone becomes a rising tone, then spreads to create a low-low-high-high sequence
Im day kpatàkpata.  
3sP dieF ipR
‘(S)he dropped dead.’

Speaker controlled stress (emphasis). As explained in section 1.11.2.1.1, any major sentence constituent can be focused either contrastively or noncontrastively by separating it off from the rest of the sentence as a separate phrase stress group that receives its own phrase stress:

(1140) Mà fada go tawn.  
1ps father goF town
‘My father went to town.’

a. normal stress pattern (subject noun phrase not separated from verb phrase stress group)
/mà+fáda+gô+táwn=/  
[mà fá dá gô táwn]

b. subject focused (subject noun phrase separated from verb phrase stress group)
/mà+fáda=gó+táwn=/  
[mà fá dá gô táwn]

This type of stress is controlled by the speaker (who chooses to focus or emphasize a particular part of the utterance) rather than being assigned automatically by the sentence-parsing rules described for grammatically controlled stress.

Lexically controlled stress. Some words may be said to be lexically (inherently) focused or stressed, due to the fact that they bear stress in nearly every environment in which they occur. Lexically stressed words coincide rather neatly with those words which are used to signal categories which are likely to attract grammatically and/or speaker controlled stress, such as interrogation (see 1.1.1.2.2.2.4–5), negation (see 1.4), the imperative (see 1.1.1.3), other subjunctive relations (see 1.1.2.2.2), emphasis/non-boundedness in pronouns (see 2.1.2), associative/possessive constructions (see 1.2.5.1.1), compounds, certain reduplicated forms and recent loans from Standard English (see 2.2.6.3). Lexically stressed items either attract the prominence peak of the phrase stress group to which they belong or they separate themselves from the rest of the sentence to form a distinct stress group:
(1141) *lexically stressed question words*
Huspeşin go tawn? /hus′p sin=gó+táwn=/
who? goSJ town [hús p sin gó tâwn]
‘Who went to town?’

(1142) *lexically stressed negative markers*
Mà fada no go tawn. /mà+fáda+nó=gó+táwn=/
1ps father ng goF town [mà fá dá nò gó tâwn]
‘My father didn’t go to town.’

(1143) *lexically stressed imperative forms*
Go tawn! /′gó=táwn=/
goSJ town [gô tâwn]
‘Go to town!’

(1144) *lexically stressed subjunctive marker* mek
A rôn mek à go tawn. /à+rôn+mék=à+gó+táwn=/
1sP runF SJcI 1sP goSJ town [à rôn mêk à gó tâwn]
‘I ran in order to get to town.’

(1145) *lexically stressed free (emphatic) pronouns*
Mi à go tawn. /′mí=à+gó+táwn=/
1EP 1sP goF town [mî à gó tâwn]
‘It is I who went to town.’

(1146) *lexically stressed generic noun used in an associative construction*
Aba man dön go. /àba+′mân=dön=gó=/
Aba man +C go [à bà mân dôn gô]
‘The man from Aba has gone.’

*Unstressable items.* Certain grammatical words never attract pitch prominence or any other stress-related marking, due to the fact that they always occur in the same phrase stress group with an item that regularly attracts stress or because by position they may never contain the final tone-bearing syllable of a stress group. Such unstressable words include bound pronouns (see 2.1.2), the general preposition för (see 1.2 1.3.1.2), the general article dì (1.2.5.2.4), the pluralizer dèm (see 1.2.5.2.6), the focus introducer nà (see 1.2.1.1.6) and the identity copular verb bi (see 1.2.1.1.1). Other items are exempt from stress rules because they have been borrowed into Nigerian Pidgin from other Nigerian languages, including some ideophones (see 4.1), most topicalizers and the topic-switching question marker nko (1.12.1.1):

(1147) *lexically unstressable topic-switch question marker*
Mà fada nkọ? /mà+fáda+ kọ=/
1ps father TQf [mà fá dá kọ]
‘What about my father?’
3.3.2.4–6

Position of stress

Stress is normally assigned to the final tone-bearing syllable of a phrase stress group. Occasionally the stress will be attracted to some other tone-bearing syllable in the group, especially if that syllable belongs to a lexically (inherently) stressed item (see 3.3.2.3). When this occurs, all of the syllables following the stressed syllable usually lose their tones. In a very few cases, tonal distinctions are still maintained after the stressed syllable, but only within a reduced range or envelope of pitch change. The phonotactic structure of words has no bearing on the assignment or position of stress. Stress is only predictable in terms of the tonal structure of phrases. Forms which are exempt from either the scope or the application of stress rules are listed at the end of section 3.3.2.3.

3.3.3

Tone

3.3.3.1

Role of tone

Alongside stress and intonation, tone plays a major role in determining the pitch-related suprasegmental patterns found in Nigerian Pidgin. For a more detailed account of the stress and tone systems of the language, see Faraclas (1985b).

3.3.3.2–3

Tone used for lexical distinctions

A few items are distinguished lexically from one another only by differences in the tones that they bear:

(1148)  
minimal tone pairs

High tone Low tone

sista ‘sister’ ̀sìsta ‘nurse’

awa ‘hour’ àwa ‘our’

fôr ‘four’ för preposition

tu ‘two, very much’ tù ‘also’

de ‘day’ dé incompletive

3.3.3.4

Tone used for morphological distinctions

In several cases, pitch is used to distinguish morphologically different forms of the same word. Most of the bound pronouns may be distinguished from their free (emphatic) counterparts only by the low tone that the former bear as opposed to the high tone borne by the latter (see 2.1.2). As put forward in section 1.2.1.1.3., a strong argument can be made for the lexical identity of the high-toned locative/existential copular verb de and the low-toned incompletive aspect auxiliary dè. A weaker argument could be advanced to show that the low-toned irrealis modality auxiliary gò is a low-toned version of the high-toned verb go ‘go’.
The basic tone-bearing unit in Nigerian Pidgin is the syllable (more specifically, a vowel or a syllabic sonorant). Underlyingly, syllables may bear a high tone, a low tone or no tone at all. High tone has two allotones: (a) a spreading falling tone or high-low sequence which is borne by stressed syllables: and (b) a level high tone which occurs in all other environments. Low tone has two symmetrically opposite allotones: (a) a spreading rising tone or low-high sequence which is borne by stressed syllables: and (b) a level low tone which occurs in all other environments (see 3.3.2.3 for examples of stressed and unstressed high and low tones):

(1149) ànọda ‘another’ stressed high tone becomes high-low
       A sì àngda. /à+sí+à+n 5 da=/
       1sP seeF another [à sì à n 5 dà]
       ‘I saw another (one).’

(1150) ànọda ‘another’ unstressed high tone becomes high-high
       A sì ànọda won. /à+sí+à+n 5 da+’w 5 n=/
       1sP seeF another one [à sì à n 5 dà w 5 n]
       ‘I saw another one.’

(1151) màma ‘mother’ stressed low tone becomes low-high
       A sì mà màma. /à+sí+mà+màma=/
       1sP seeF 1ps mother [à sì mà mà mà]
       ‘I saw my mother.’

(1152) màma ‘mother’ unstressed low tone becomes low-low
       A sì mà màma möto. /à+sí+mà+màma’mòto=/
       1sP seeF 1ps mother car [à sì mà mà mà mò tó]
       ‘I saw my mother’s car.’

Despite the fact that neighbouring Cameroonian Pidgin is generally recognized to have a tonal system, there has been some reluctance among researchers to say the same about Nigerian Pidgin. While Eze (1980) and Agheyisi (1971) do not mention tone at all, Oyebade (1983) calls Nigerian Pidgin a pitch-accent system. Elugbe and Omamor (ms: 138) dispute Oyebade’s claim, and deny that the language has either pitch-accent or tone. Only Ofuani (1979) and Obilade (1976) posit tone underlyingly. Obilade seems to have given the most attention to pitch configurations in general, and his observations are usually quite compatible with the machine analyses performed by the present author. Obilade (1976:31) sets up four distinct tonal units; (a) level high, (b) falling, (c) level low and (d) rising, each with level and contour allotones in word-medial and word-final position. The analysis presented in this work accounts for all of the phenomena observed by Obilade with only two basic tones, each with an unstressed level allotone and a stressed contour allotone. This avoids the complicated rules with over-lapping environments that Obilade must formulate to accommodate a four-tone system, while explaining other non tonal suprasegmental processes such as the lengthening of stressed syllables, which Obilade does not mention at all.
3.3.3.6–7

Restrictions on the occurrence of tones

Tones are not restricted in any way by the segmental composition of the units that bear them.

3.3.3.8–9

Possible sequences of tones over words

Phonemically, a lexical item may not be assigned more tones than it has syllables, with no more than two tones being assigned to any underlying form. As a result of these constraints, most words of more than one syllable bear fewer tones than the number of syllables they contain. Lexical items may differ from one another not only by the number and sequence of tones that they bear, but also by which syllables bear these tones and which remain toneless. In non-compound forms, a low tone can never follow a high tone. Verbs may not consist of more than two syllables and disyllabic verbs may only bear high tone over their final syllable, and then only if that tone is preceded by a low tone. Therefore, only three possible tonal configurations may be found over verbs: a high configuration, a low configuration or a low-high configuration. The class of nouns and the class of verbs may each be subdivided into tone classes (see 2.1.1.9):

(1153) possible tonal configurations (x indicates a toneless syllable)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of syllables</th>
<th>Tone patterns</th>
<th>Noun classes</th>
<th>Verb classes</th>
<th>Other words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>hêd ‘head’</td>
<td>si ‘see’</td>
<td>sins ‘since’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>L</td>
<td></td>
<td>tû ‘also’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>H-x</td>
<td>brôdâ ‘brother’</td>
<td>kari ‘carry’</td>
<td>enî ‘any’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>x-H</td>
<td>hêdmân ‘chief man’</td>
<td></td>
<td>fîftîn ‘fifteen’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>H-H</td>
<td>lôylôy ‘casava’</td>
<td></td>
<td>kpâkpa ipR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>L-x</td>
<td>bêlê ‘belly’</td>
<td>sàbî ‘know’</td>
<td>âbî YNQ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>L-L</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>ùnà 5P</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>L-H</td>
<td>pikîn ‘child’</td>
<td>sidôn ‘sit’</td>
<td>ëgên ‘again’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>H-x-x</td>
<td>fâmili ‘family’</td>
<td></td>
<td>sômbodi ‘somebody’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>x-H-x</td>
<td>hedwumân ‘chief woman’</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>x-x-H</td>
<td>langatrôt ‘greed’</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>x-L-x</td>
<td>onyîbô ‘European’</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>L-H-x</td>
<td>wàhala ‘trouble’</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>x-L-H</td>
<td>maskûrêd ‘masquerade’</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For some speakers, the class of low-toned and low-high-toned forms is shrinking at the expense of the class of high-toned forms. For example, the words móto ‘car’ and sidôn ‘sit’ are sometimes pronounced [mó tô] and [sî dôn] respectively, as if their underlying forms were /móto/ and /sidôn/. Words of more than three
syllables are in nearly every case compounds, reduplicated items or words recently loaned into the language (see 2.2.6.3).

3.3.3.10
Interaction between tone and stress

The interaction between tone and stress is considerable, as explained and illustrated in sections 3.3.2.3 and 3.3.3.5.

3.3.3.11
Tonal processes

3.3.3.11.1–2
Downdrift and other tonal processes

Downdrift. High tones and sequences of high tones are lowered by a preceding low tone in the same intonation unit. Low tones are sometimes lowered by preceding low tones as well:

(1154) downdrift
Mi ba à want plant ànoda nyam
1EP T 1sP wantF+ plant+ another yam
‘As for me, I want to plant another yam.’
/mí+bá+à+wánt=plant=ànôda nyâm=/
[mí bá à wán plant ànôda nyâm]

Elugbe and Omamor (ms.: 138) attribute this pattern to statement intonation rather than to downdrift. It is true that the distinction between downdrift and intonational lowering is unclear in many languages, but the fact that low tone in particular causes this type of lowering in Nigerian Pidgin would seem to suggest a tonal rather than an intonational explanation. The rate of downdrift is not changed by the occurrence of any other segmental or suprasegmental sequences.

Updrift is not attested in the data.

Uphitch. High tones are often raised by following low tones. The pitch peak of a falling tone is in most cases at a higher level than a high tone not followed by a low tone. Since a falling tone could be said to consist of a sequence of a high tone followed by a low tone, a case could be made for attributing this phenomenon to uphitch. Because falling tones are associated with stress, however, it is unclear whether this higher than normal pitch is due to uphitch or to stress-related prominence (see 3.3.2.2).

Downstep and upstep. Any high-low-high sequence may be simplified to a high-downstepped high sequence in connected speech. Since the phrase-final particle ò almost always occurs at the end of a phrase stress group, its low tone should normally be realized as a rising (low-high) tone (see 3.3.2.3). But when the syllable preceding ò bears a high tone, a high-low-high sequence is created, which almost invariably is reduced to a high-downstepped high sequence. The result is that ò is commonly pronounced with a downstepped high tone. Some speakers have made this pattern invariable, and pronounce ò at downstep level in all cases, even when a low tone precedes it. In such instances, the low tone preceding ò is itself ‘upstepped’ to a high tone, in order to conform with the normal high-downstepped high pattern (see 3.5.2.4.1–2).
Assimilation to high tone. A low tone is sometimes slightly raised between two high tones.
Final falling low. A low tone tends to fall in pitch before a pause.

3.3.4
Intonation

3.3.4.1–2
Declarative and yes-no question intonation

Declarative intonation. Under normal declarative intonation, the pitch register remains constant or slopes slightly downwards until the final stressed syllable or series of syllables is reached. At this point the intonation melody reaches its peak of prominence (in terms of both pitch and perceived loudness) and then rapidly falls or fades away:

(1155) Dèm want go.
       6sP wantF+ go+
       ‘They want to go.’

(1156) Dèm want go tawn.
       6sP wantF+ go+ town
       ‘They want to go to town.’

(1157) Dèm want go tawn tùmoro.
       6sP wantF+ go+ town tomorrow
       ‘They want to go to town tomorrow.’

Yes-no question intonation. Under normal yes-no question intonation, the pitch register remains constant or slopes slightly downwards until the final stressed syllable or series of syllables is reached. At this point the intonation melody rapidly falls and then rises almost as rapidly to a pitch level equal to or higher than the pre-fall level:

(1158) Dèm want go ?
       6sP wantF+ go+ Qù
       ‘Do they want to go?’

(1159) Dèm want go tawn tùmoro ?
       6sP wantF+ go+ town tomorrow Qù
       ‘Do they want to go to town tomorrow?’

3.3.4.3–4
Emphatic intonation and contrastive stress

Contrastive and noncontrastive emphasis/focus can be signalled by sentence stress, clause stress, constituent stress or inherent stress (see 1.11.2.1.1 for a full description of these processes). Any item or set of items
stressed in any of these ways usually becomes the peak of the intonation contour (instead of the final stressed syllables in the sentence, which usually mark the intonation peak; see 3.3.4.1):

(1160)  Dèm want go tawn túmero.
6sP wantF+ go+ town=tomorrow
‘They want to go to town tomorrow (not to school).’

If more than one element in a given sentence is stressed, each can be made a separate intonation peak, resulting in an undulating contour:

(1161)  Dèm want go tawn bay nyam för maket túmero.
6sP wantF+ go+ town=buy+yam=p market=tomorrow
‘They want to go to town (not to school) to buy yams (not casava) in the market (not at the store) tomorrow.’

3.3.4.5
Intonational subtypes

Other types or subtypes of intonational contours are not attested in the data, although further machine analysis might reveal a richer system than that outlined above.

3.3.4.6
Hierarchy of interaction between suprasegmentals

When there is a conflict between a marker of one suprasegmental system and a marker for another suprasegmental system, intonational contours normally supersede stress markers, and stress markers usually pre-empt tonal configurations. The yes-no question intonation contour, for example, often completely erases the stress and tone markers over the final syllables of the sentence (see 3.3.4.1). The stress-induced downstep/upstep mechanism described for the phrase particle ḍ in section 3.3.3.11 can result in the replacement of low tone by a high tone.

3.3.4.7
Effect of intonation on segments

Stress-induced effects, such as the lengthening of vowels (see 3.1.2.2) and the syllabification of sonorants (see 3.2.4), are also attested in segments which form part of the peak of an intonation contour. Since all intonation peaks consist of stressed elements, it is difficult, if not impossible, to separate effects due to stress from those due to intonation in such cases.
3.4
SEGMENTAL MORPHOPHONOLOGY

3.4.1
Segmental and morphophonological processes

3.4.1.1
Assimilatory processes

The following segmentally-based assimilatory processes have been attested in the data:

1. Homorganicity of nasal consonants and syllabic nasals to following consonants (extremely productive; see 3.1.2.1 and 3.1.2.2.2).
2. Nasalization of vowels by adjacent nasal consonants (extremely productive; see 3.1.2.2).
3. Vowel quality assimilation in grammatical words (not very productive; see 3.1.2.2).
4. Basilectal vowel harmony (see 3.1.2.2).

The tapping, frication, approximation and deletion of intervocalic consonants and of initial consonants in grammatical words (moderately productive; see 3.1.2.1) could conceivably be interpreted to be instances of assimilation of these consonants to the less occluded quality of the adjacent vowels. Likewise, word-final consonant omission and devoicing (extremely productive; see 3.1.2.1) could be conceived of as instances of assimilation of those consonants to the voiceless, featureless nature of the pause that serves at times as a signal for word boundaries.

3.4.1.2–3
Dissimilatory processes and other segmental alternations

Regular patterns of dissimilation and other segmental alternations have not been attested in the data.

3.4.2
Metathesis

Regular occurrences of segmental metathesis have not been attested in the data.

3.4.3
Coalescence and split

No widespread patterns of coalescence or split are to be found in the data. The reduction of consonants and vowels in words which serve to signal grammatical categories (see 3.1.2.1 and 3.1.2.2) can, however, lead to such phenomena as the use of a low-toned central vowel in place of both the irrealis modality marker ɡò and the incompleteive aspect marker dè in the same utterance.
3.4.4
Deletion and insertion processes

3.4.4.1
Deletion processes

The following segmentally based deletion processes have been attested in the data:

1. Word-final consonant deletion (extremely productive; see 3.2.1.2).
2. Deletion of word-initial consonants in grammatical words (moderately productive; see 3.2.1.2).

As noted in section 3.4.1.1, these processes could be interpreted as cases of assimilation as well.

3.4.4.2
Insertion processes

The epenthesis processes listed below are described in greater detail in section 3.2.4:

1. Epenthetic vowel insertion (fairly productive, especially in basilectal varieties). There is probably some link between this process and the use of the dummy subject ɨ (see 1.1.2.3.4 and 1.2.1.2.1).
2. Insertion of glides and ɻ between a syllable-final vowel and a syllable-initial vowel that follows it (very productive).
3. Insertion of ʰ before word-initial vowels (not very productive).

As noted in section 3.2.1.2, past analyses of Nigerian Pidgin often included elaborate sets of insertion rules to account for the occasional occurrence of some word-final consonants. In the present study, these consonants are assumed to be part of the basic forms of the lexical items in which they are found.

3.4.5
Reduplication processes

The following reduplication processes are attested in the data:

1. Low-toned reduplicated verbal compounds (very productive; see 2.2.6.3).
2. Polytonal reduplicated compounds (extremely productive; see 2.2.6.3).
3. Reduplication of ideophones (extremely productive; see 4.1).

Both types of compound reduplication involve complete reduplication only. Though the reduplication of ideophones usually involves complete forms as well, partial reduplication of ideophones is not uncommon.

3.4.6
Other segmental processes

The onomatopoetic use of segments is widespread and very productive in Nigerian Pidgin. For further discussion of these processes, see section 4.1.
3.5
SUPRASEGMENTAL MORPHOPHONOLOGY

3.5.1
Morphophonological processes involving stress

3.5.1.1–2
Morphophonologically induced stress changes

Stress is extremely sensitive to morphological and syntactic structure. The basic units for stress assignment are grammatically defined (compounds, phrase stress groups, sentences, etc.) rather than lexically defined. The details of stress assignment, the means used to signal stress and changes which stress patterns can undergo are discussed in sections 3.3.2, 3.3.3.5, 3.3.4.3, and 1.11.2.1.1. The interaction of stress with the process of compounding is treated in section 2.2.6.3. Intonational contours may interfere with the normal realization of stress patterns (see 3.3.4.6).

3.5.1.3–4
Predictability of the position of stress

The position of stress is predictable, if both lexical and morphosyntactic criteria are considered. Stress is assigned to the final tone-bearing syllable (lexical criterion; see 3.3.3.8) of a stress group (morphosyntactic criterion; see 3.3.2.3). A restricted set of stressed positions is associated with compounds (see 2.2.6.3) and intonational contours may interfere with the normal realization of stress patterns (see 3.3.4.6).

3.5.2
Morphophonological processes involving tone

3.5.2.1–2
Interaction between tone and stress

There is no way to predict the tonal pattern which will be realized over a given word without first knowing that word’s position in a compound, in a phrase stress group and/or in a sentence. While lexically assigned tones are only occasionally altered by stress-related phenomena (see 3.3.4.6), the allotones which are used to express these underlying tones at the surface are almost entirely determined by their interaction with the stress system (see 3.3.2.3 and 3.3.3.5). Compounding often involves the utilization of particular tone and stress patterns (see 2.2.6.3).

3.5.2.3
Irregular tonal behaviour

As noted in section 3.3.3.8, for some speakers the classes of low-toned and low-high-toned forms are collapsing into the class of high-toned forms. The focus introducer nà and the copular identity verb bì are occasionally pronounced with a high tone, while the adverbial clause introducer if sometimes bears low tone. These fluctuations in the tonal configuration over nà and if could be due to the fact that these markers
often occur at sentence boundaries, and are therefore very likely to have their tonal properties superseded by the intonational properties of the sentence (see 3.3.4 and 3.3.4.6). The high-toned variant of *bì* is almost exclusively found before the copular extension *layk* (see 1.2.1.1.6.9).

Some tone-bearing units are exempt from stress, as explained in section 3.3.2.3. Some semi-toneless items also occur, such as the bound object pronouns (the third-person bound object pronoun 

\(\text{-am}\) in particular, see 1.16.2 and 2.1.8.1.1):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Toneless</th>
<th>After a high-toned verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>A folo -am. A folo -am go.</em></td>
<td>'I followed him/her.' 'I went with him/her.'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'à fólo-am=/ à fólo-am+gô=/</td>
<td>[à fó lò àm] [à fó ló ám gô]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>'Semi-toneless'</th>
<th>After a low-toned verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>A såbi -am. A såbi -am taya.</em></td>
<td>'I know it.' 'I know it very well.'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'/à såbi-àm=/ à såbi-àm=tája=/</td>
<td>[à så bí àm] [à så bí ám tá já]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the preceding example, 

\(\text{-am}\) behaves as if it were toneless in all cases except in sentence-final position after a low-toned verb, where it bears a low tone instead of the high tone which should have spread from the stressed low-derived rising tone over *såbi*. In the example, a low tone appears over the underlying representation of this phrase-final instance of 

\(\text{-am}\), but it should be noted that the syllable which bears this 'low tone' is not stressed, even though it is the final tone-bearing syllable of the stress group and the sentence. The peculiar behaviour of 

\(\text{-am}\) in this case could be explained by the fact that it is in sentence-final position and therefore the final falling intonation contour that typifies declarative statements pre-empts stress-related contours (see 3.3.4.6).

### 3.5.2.4

**Tonal terracing processes**

#### 3.5.2.4.1–2

**Downstep and upstep**

As explained in section 3.3.3.11.1, many high-low-high sequences are simplified to high-downstepped high sequences. There is no limit on the number of downstepped tones that can occur in series. Sequences of downstepped high tones are in fact very common in serialized verb constructions, where speakers often opt to assign a separate stress to each verb in the series. If most of the verbs in the sequence bear high tone, a string of alternating highs and lows results, which is frequently realized as a series of downstepped highs instead. A very particular type of ‘upstep’ occurs as well, but only in connection with special downstep properties of the phrase-final particle *ò* (see 3.3.3.11 for details).
3.5.3
Suprasegmentally induced changes in segmental units

As noted in section 3.3.4.7, the only changes in segmental elements that seem to be caused by suprasegmentals are the vowel lengthening and the syllabification of sonorants which are associated with intonation and/or stress (see 3.1.2.2 and 3.2.4). Tone has no apparent effect on segmental units.
Ideophones play an important role in Nigerian Pidgin. It is impossible to understand the phonological and grammatical systems of the language without an understanding of the ideophonic components of those systems. Since ideophone generation is a productive process, it is impossible to list all members of the class of ideophones. As mentioned in section 1.3.1.1.4, there is some overlap between the categories ‘ideophone’, ‘adverb’, ‘auxiliary’ and ‘verb’ (especially ‘serialized verb’). The following criteria define the most important characteristics that serve to demarcate the class of ideophones from other word classes.

**Phonological characteristics.** Ideophones are often onomatopoetic and either fully or partially reduplicated (see 2.2.6.3). The phonemes /gb/ and /N/ are almost entirely restricted in their use to the set of ideophones, as are the majority of the attested occurrences of /kp/ and /z/ (see 3.1.2.3). Syllable structures with clusters of consonants and vowels that are otherwise not permitted are sometimes employed in ideophones (see 3.2). Ideophones often belong to one of the less commonly occurring tone classes (see 3.3.3.8) and are frequently exempt from stress rules (see 3.3.2.3):

(1164) \[ \text{Bed kom dè sing mkprikpriririri.} \]
\[ \text{bird +R –C sing ipRRRRRR} \]
\[ \text{‘The bird started to sing.’} \]

**Syntactic characteristics.** Ideophones normally occupy the postverbal adverb slot or (more rarely) the preverbal adverb slot (see 1.2.5.3 and 1.2.1.3.1). An ideophone may also appear as the nominalized object of a valence-increasing serialized verb (see 1.3.1.1.4) or as the focused item in a cleft or pseudocleft focus construction (see 1.11.2.1.4–5.):

(1165) \[ \text{A gò bit yù mkpùrùndù.} \]
\[ \text{1sP –R beat 2oP ip} \]
\[ \text{‘I will beat you heavily.’} \]

also acceptable

**Semantic characteristics and co-occurrence restrictions.** An ideophone usually serves to intensify or dramatize the event(s) described by the verb(s) that it modifies. Some ideophones may only be used with a particular verb or with a small number of verbs with a similar meaning. The ideophone zàwày, for example,
can only be used with verbs such as *slap* ‘slap’ or *wayp* (fes) ‘wipe (face), slap’. Other ideophones, such as *kpatâkpata* ‘completely’ can be utilized with almost any verb.

\[
\text{A gò mkpùrùndù bit yù.}
\]

(1166)
\[
\text{A gò tek mkpùrùndù bit yù.}
\]
\[1sP \text{–R takeV+ ip/n beat+ 2oP}
\]
\[
\text{‘I will beat you with heaviness.’}
\]

(1167)
\[
\text{Nà mkpùrùndù we à gò tek bit yù.}
\]
\[EI \text{ip/n rcI 1sP –R takeV+ beat+ 2oP}
\]
\[
\text{‘It is with heaviness that I will beat you.’}
\]

4.2 INTERJECTIONS

Interjections usually take the form of exclamations (see 1.1.4.1) but the topicalizing particles (see 1.12.1.1) and the phrase-final particle ò (and its variant form è; see 2.1.3.4) could also be considered to belong to the class of interjections.

**Exclamations.** Exclamatory words usually separate themselves off from the rest of the sentence to form a phrase stress group unto themselves (see 3.3.2.3). Otherwise, exclamations conform to all of the normal phonological patterns outlined in chapter 3:

(1168)
\[
\text{exclamatory words}
\]
\[
\text{chay}
\]
\[
\text{cheyi}
\]
\[
\text{he}
\]
\[
\text{kai}
\]
\[
\text{jeyi}
\]

(1169)
\[
\text{exclamatory phrases}
\]
\[
\text{Nà wa ò!}
\]
\[EI \text{exclamation f}
\]
\[
\text{‘Wow!’}
\]

**Topicalizing particles.** The topicalizing particle *nàw* shows no exceptional phonological behaviour at all, while the other topicalizers are aberrant only to the extent that they bear high tone over all of their syllables (see 3.3.8) and they are exempt from stress rules (see 3.3.2.3).

**Phrase-final particle ò.** The phrase-final particle ò (and its alternate form è) is phonologically exceptional only in as far as it often sets into motion the peculiar downstep/upstep process described in section 3.3.3.11. The meanings associated with ò are best described as part of the modality-marking system (see 2.1.3.4.1, 2.1.3.4.8–12 and 2.1.3.4.15):

(1170)
\[
\text{Yù go Legos, yù go Kano, yù go Aba ò, if yù nak}
\]
\[2sP \text{go Lagos 2sP go Kano 2sP go Aba f avcI 2sP knock}
\]
\[
\text{pidgin, dém gò hyar-am ò.}
\]
\[Pídgin 6sP –R hear-3oP f
\]
‘You go to Lagos, you go to Kano, you go to Aba, if you speak Pidgin, they will understand it.’
OR ‘No matter where you go in Nigeria, if you speak Pidgin, you will be understood.’
5.1
STRUCTURED SEMANTIC FIELDS

5.1.1
Kinship

5.1.1.1–7
Kinship terminology

No distinctions are normally made between kinship by blood vs. marriage vs. adoption vs. fostering vs. affiliation, etc. Same-age cousins, good friends or people from the same village, school, religious organization, etc., may all be referred to as brothers/sisters, no matter if the relationship is temporary or permanent. The following terms are used to express the meanings indicated:

(1171)  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>kinship terms</th>
<th>(grand)father, older male associate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pàpa/fàda</td>
<td>‘(grand)father, older male associate’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>màma/mòda</td>
<td>‘(grand)mother, older female associate’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>onkul</td>
<td>‘uncle, older male associate’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>antf</td>
<td>‘aunt, older female associate’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>màma-pàpa</td>
<td>‘parents, elders’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pàpa (im) pàpa</td>
<td>‘grandfather’ (rarely used)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>màma (im) màma</td>
<td>‘grandmother’ (rarely used)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Siblings/spouses</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sista</td>
<td>‘sister, same-age female cousin/associate’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>broda</td>
<td>‘brother, same-age male cousin/associate’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sinyo</td>
<td>‘older sibling, older associate/co-spouse’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>junyo</td>
<td>‘younger sibling, younger associate/co-spouse’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wayf</td>
<td>‘wife’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hozband</td>
<td>‘husband’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>met</td>
<td>‘co-wife’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inlô</td>
<td>‘inlaw’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.1.2

**Colour terminology**

Four general colour terms (stative verbs) are commonly used in basilectal and most mesolectal varieties: *blak* ‘(be) black, blue, green, purple’, *red* ‘(be) red, orange, yellow, brown’ and *wayt/yelo* ‘(be) white’ (*wayt* and *yelo* can be used interchangeably). In acrolectal speech, more specific colour terms are freely borrowed from Nigerian Standard English, while periphrasis including the basic colour terms is used for this purpose in the other lects: *red layk bànana* ‘(be) red like a banana, (be) yellow’.

5.1.3

**Body part terminology**

(1172)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Upper body, external</th>
<th>Lower body, external</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>hed</strong></td>
<td>‘head’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>he</strong></td>
<td>‘hair’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>fes</strong></td>
<td>‘face’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ay</strong></td>
<td>‘eye’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ygr</strong></td>
<td>‘ear’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>noz</strong></td>
<td>‘nose’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>mawt</strong></td>
<td>‘mouth’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>tit</strong></td>
<td>‘tooth’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>tong</strong></td>
<td>‘tongue’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>nek</strong></td>
<td>‘neck’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>bres/bòbi</strong></td>
<td>‘breast’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>finga</strong></td>
<td>‘finger’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>nel</strong></td>
<td>‘finger(nail)’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.1.4

**Cooking terminology**

(1173)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verbs</th>
<th><strong>Utensils</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>kuk</strong></td>
<td>‘cook’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>boyl</strong></td>
<td>‘boil’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>fray</strong></td>
<td>‘fry’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>slayz</strong></td>
<td>‘slice’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>pisis</strong></td>
<td>‘chop’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>pawnd</strong></td>
<td>‘pound’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>pil/kômôt</strong></td>
<td>‘peel’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>kôt</strong></td>
<td>‘cut’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>buchar</strong></td>
<td>‘butcher’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.1.5 Other structured semantic fields

(1174) human consumption of various substances

lik 'consume soup'
sok 'consume fruit'
drink 'consume fluids, medicine, tobacco'
chu 'consume meat, fish, nuts'
blo 'consume small balls of starchy foods'
chop 'consume starchy substances, general term for consuming, enjoying'

5.2 BASIC VOCABULARY

<p>|   | 1 all   | 2 and   | 3 animal | 4 ashes | 5 at    | 6 back  | 7 bad   | 8 bark  | 9 because | 10 belly  | 11 big   | 12 bird  | 13 bite  | 14 black | 15 blood | 16 blow (v) | 17 bone   | 18 breast | 19 breathe | 20 burn | 21 child | 22 claw  | 23 cloud | 24 cold  | 25 come  | 26 count | 27 cut  | 28 day   | 29 die   | 30 dig    | 31 dirty  | 32 dog   | 33 drink  | 34 dry    | 35 dull   | 36 dust  | 37 ear    | 38 earth  | 39 eat    | 40 egg   | 41 eye    | 42 fall   | 43 far    | 44 fat/grease | 45 father | 46 fear   | 47 feather | 48 few    | 49 fight  | 50 fire   | 51 fish   |
|---|---------|---------|----------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------|---------|---------|-----------|---------|---------|----------|----------|---------|---------|----------|---------|---------|----------|---------|---------|----------|---------|---------|----------|---------|
|   | ol      | ànd     | ânimal, nama, mit | chàkôl | fôr     | bak     | bad (v) | kända, skin | mek (SJcI), bikôs | bêlge | big (v) | bêd     | bayt    | blak (v) | blôd     | blo   | bon      | bòbi, brêgs | brid    | bôn      | pîkîn    | nel     | smok     | kold (v) | km      | kawnt    | kôt      | day      | day      | dig      | dëti (v) | dog      | drink    | dry      | fawê (v), far (v) | pàpa, fada | fyar    | fêda     | som, tu-tre | fôt      | fayt    | faya     | fish     |
| 52 | five     | fayv   | 95 | live     | de, ste, @liv |
| 53 | float    | flot   | 96 | liver    | liva         |
| 54 | flow     | go     | 97 | long     | long (v)     |
| 55 | flower   | flawa  | 98 | louse    | krörkro      |
| 56 | fly      | flay   | 99 | man/male | man          |
| 57 | fog      | smok   | 100| many     | plenti (v),  |
| 58 | foot     | leg    |    |          | meni (v)     |
| 59 | four     | for    | 101| meat, flesh | nama, mit, skin |
| 60 | freeze   | friz   | 102| moon     | mun          |
| 61 | fruit    | frut   | 103| mother   | màma, moda   |
| 62 | full     | ful (v)| 104| mountain | mawnten, hil |
| 63 | give     | giv    | 105| mouth    | mawt         |
| 64 | good     | gud (v)| 106| name     | nem          |
| 65 | grass    | bush, @gras | 107| narrow | smol (v) |
| 66 | green    | blak (v), @grin (v) | 108| near | nyar (v) |
| 67 | guts     | insâyd | 110| new     | nyu (v)      |
| 68 | hair     | he     | 111| night   | nayt         |
| 69 | hand     | hand   | 112| nose    | noz          |
| 70 | he/she   | im     | 113| not     | no           |
| 71 | head     | hgd    | 114| old     | old (v)      |
| 72 | hear     | hyar   | 115| one     | won          |
| 73 | heart    | hat    | 116| other   | _oda         |
| 74 | heavy    | hgevi (v) | 117| person  | pesin        |
| 75 | here     | hyar   | 118| play    | ple          |
| 76 | hit      | bit    | 119| pull    | pul          |
| 77 | hold/take| hold/tek | 120| push    | push         |
| 78 | horn     | bon    | 121| rain    | ren (n), fgl (v) |
| 79 | how      | haw    | 122| red     | red (v)      |
| 80 | hunt     | kil, hont | 123| right/ correct | wel (v), gud (v) |
| 81 | husband  | hozband |   |         |              |
| 82 | I        | à      | 124| rightside | raytsâyd |
| 83 | ice      | ays    | 125| river   | riva         |
| 84 | if       | if     | 126| road    | rod          |
| 85 | in       | für (insâyd) | 127| root    | rut          |
| 86 | kill     | kil    | 128| rope    | rop, string  |
| 87 | knee     | leg    | 129| rotten  | spoyl (v),   |
| 88 | know     | sòbi, @no | 130| round   | rawnd (v)    |
| 89 | lake     | wòta, si | 131| rub     | rob          |
| 90 | laugh    | laf    | 132| salt    | sòlt         |
| 91 | leaf     | lif    | 133| sand    | sànsan       |
| 92 | leftside | leftsâyd | 134| say     | se, tok      |
| 93 | leg      | leg    | 135| scratch | skrach       |
| 94 | lie      | slip   |    |          |              |</p>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Page</th>
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<th>Word 3</th>
<th>Word 4</th>
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<td>si</td>
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<td>sid</td>
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<td>so</td>
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<td>shap</td>
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<td>short</td>
<td>smgl</td>
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<td>sing</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>turn</td>
</tr>
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<td>sit/be seated</td>
<td>sidôn</td>
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<td>walk</td>
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<td>op</td>
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<td>fayn</td>
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<td>split</td>
<td>brok</td>
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<td>skwiz</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>who</td>
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<td>stab/pierce</td>
<td>chuk</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>wide</td>
</tr>
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<td>158</td>
<td>(a) be standing</td>
<td>stand</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>wife</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(b) stand up</td>
<td>stànôp</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>wing</td>
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<tr>
<td>159</td>
<td>star</td>
<td>star</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>wipe</td>
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<td>sun</td>
<td>sgn</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>ye</td>
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<td>swell</td>
<td>swol, swélôp</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>year</td>
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<td>166</td>
<td>swim</td>
<td>swim wòta</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>yellow</td>
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<td>tail</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>168</td>
<td>that</td>
<td>dat</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>169</td>
<td>there</td>
<td>dyar</td>
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<td>dém</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>smgl</td>
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<td>tînk</td>
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<td>this</td>
<td>dis</td>
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<tr>
<td>175</td>
<td>thou</td>
<td>yù</td>
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Index
(by example number)

acrolects
(see Introduction)
adjectives 203–15, 319–21, 334–5, 953–82
(see also 1.16.6)
adjective clauses
(see relative clauses)
adverbs 273–8, 284–8, 993–5, 1080–7
adverb derivation 1080–7
adverbial clause introducers 181–98
(see also 1.1.2.1)
adverbial clauses 181–98, 284–5, 293–6
adverbial phrase 287–96
adverbial word order 286
(see also 1.16.7)
alternative questions 20–1
(see also 2.1.2.6)
anaphora 435–81
(see also 2.1.2.1.7 and 2.1.2.7.1)
and-coordination 337–40
animacy 254–6, 265–72, 751–7
(see also 1.10.4)
answers 76–83
articles 323–4, 335, 774–84
aspect 807–15, 862–904
(see also 2.1.3.3.2.1.13)
aspirated consonants 1109
assimilation 1154
(see also 3.4.1.1)
(see also 1.10.1)
auxiliaries 334, 346–50, 548
(see also 1.16.7 and 2.1.8.1.5)

basic vocabulary
(see 5.2)
basilects
(see Introduction)
benefactive 610–11
body part terminology 1172
bound pronouns 786–804
(see also 2.1.8.1.1)
but-coordination 341–3
cardinal numerals 334–5, 1004–15
case 299–305, 578–758
(see also 2.1.2.1.20)
causative constructions 835–42
(see also 1.3.1.1.4)
cause clauses 188–9
circumstance 625–8
clause stress
(see 1.11.2.1)
clauses
(see subordination)
cleft construction 540–3
clitics 1059
(see also 2.1.8)
coalescence
(see 3.4.3)
cognate objects 261–2, 550
colour terminology
(see 5.1.2)
comitative 381–4, 622–3
comparative constructions 357, 508–21, 984, 1041–2
complements
(see objects and adjectives)
completive aspect 807–15, 862–907, 988, 1051
concessive clauses 194
conditional constructions 190–1, 911–3
consonant clusters 1125
consonant deletion 1003–5
consonants 1098–114
consumption terminology 1174
contradictory stress 536–47
contrastive stress 536–47
cooking terminology 1173
coordination 337–410
copular extension 216, 243–4
  (see also 1.2.1.1.6)
copular identity verbs 199–217
copular locative/existential verbs 199–217, 970–97
copular verbs 199–217, 596–603, 970–97
  (see also 1.2.2.2)
correlative comparison 521
correlative equatives 532
declarative intonation 1155–7
definiteness 774–84
demonstratives 325–6, 334–5, 442–3, 453–4, 473–4
derivation 1060–97
direct speech 1–7
dislocation 557–8
  (see also 1.11.2.1.6.1)
double object constructions 265–7
downdrift 1154
downstep
  (see 3.3.3.11.1 and 3.5.2.4.1)
dummy pronoun 245–53, 830–1
  (see also 1.1.2.3.4)
echo questions 71–4
  (see also 2.1.2.6)
emphasis 144–5, 536–54, 1140
emphatic intonation 1169
emphatic introducer 218–29, 540–7
emphatic pronouns 483–4, 786–804
emphatic/focus marker 331–3, 334–5, 499, 536–9
epenthesis 1111, 1126–31
  (see also 3.4.4.2)
equative constructions 357, 522–32, 983, 1039–40
exclamations 97, 1168–70

factative tense/aspect/modality 807–15
finiteness 142–5
  (see also 2.1.3.5.1)
focus
  (see emphasis)
focus introducer

(see emphatic introducer)
free pronouns 786–804
future tense 807–15
  (see also 1.2.5.3 and 1.3.1.1.4)
glide epenthesis 1111, 1126–31
slides
  (see 3.1.2.1.5)
grammatically controlled stress 1134–9
h-insertion 1129
headless relative clauses 161–4
high-toned relative clauses 1091
homorganicity 1115, 1123
ideophones 247–8, 286, 359, 990, 1037, 1049, 1164–7
  (see also 1.11.2.1.7 and 1.16.7)
impersonal sentences 84–96, 914–15
impersonal constructions 606–7, 816–31
inalienable possession 534–5
incompletive aspect 213–7, 807–15, 862–907
inclusion
  (see 2.1.3.6.12.1)
indirect speech 2–7
inherent stress
  (see lexically controlled stress)
insertion of segments
  (see epenthesis)
instrumental 617–20
interjections 1168–70
intonation 1154–61
irrealis modality 807–15, 908–47
  (see also 2.1.3.4.15)

kinship terminology 1171

length of segments
  (see 3.3.1)
lexically controlled stress 1093, 1141–6
  (see also 1.11.2.1.1)
limit clauses 196
loan words 767–70
location 193, 672–708, 948–52
low-toned reduplicated compounds 1090

manner clauses 185–6
material 643–6
mesolects
(see Introduction)
minor sentence types 97–10
(see also 1.1.5)
modal verbs 354, 908–47
modality 807–15, 908–47
(see also 2.1.3.4.15)
modifier noun derivation 1076–8
modifier nouns 202–7, 334–5, 638–45, 709–12, 1076–8
monotonal compounding and reduplication 1090–1
movement
(see 1.14)
multifunctionality 142–3

nasalized vowels 1115
negation 411–34, 621–52
negative markers 336, 411–34
noncontradictory stress 536–47
noncontrastive stress 536–47
nonpast tense 807–15, 843–61
noun clauses 1–7, 108–45, 466–72
(see also 1.1.2.1)
noun clause introducer 1–7, 126–9, 835–42
(see also 1.1.2.1 and 1.3.1.1.4)
noun derivation 1060–8
noun phrases 306–35
noun phrase adverbial 282–55
noun phrase word order 335–6
nouns 571–785, 1060–8
(see also 1.16.1)
number marking: nouns 752–70;
verbs (see 2.13.6.1)
(see also 1.5.2.5)

objects 254–72, 346, 582–607, 672–87, 821–42, 1002–3
(see also 2.1.3.6.1)
or-coordination 344–5
order of objects 270–2
ordinal numerals 334–5, 1009–11

passive voice 816–20
past tense 807–15, 843–61
phonotactics 1125–33
phrase-final particle 536–9, 908–47, 1170
(see also 2.13.4.15)
phrase stress 1134–47
phrase stress group 1134–9
pluralizer 327, 334–5, 752–7, 1027
polygonal compounding and reduplication 1092–7
possessive constructions 533–5, 630–3
(see also associative/possessive constructions)
possessive pronominal 480–1, 794–5
possessive pronouns 322, 334–5, 798
(see also 1.16.2 and 2.1.2.1.1.1)
preposition derivation 1089
prepositional phrases 279–86, 289–305, 335–6
prepositional phrase word order 335–6
prepositions 279–86, 289–305, 335–6, 571–2, 610–744,
834, 998–1003, 1060–89
(see also 1.3.1.1.4 and 1.16.5)
pronominal bases 1093
pronominal persons 786–804
(see also 2.1.3.6.1)
pronouns 786–806
(see also 1.16.2 and 2.1.3.6.1)
pseudocleft constructions 544–7
purpose clauses 187
quality 634–7, 988–95, 1049–58
quantifiers 327–8, 334–5, 661–7, 752–70, 1016–38
quantity 638–42, 752–70, 988–95, 1004–38, 1049–58
question-words 22–31
(see also 2.1.2.6 and 2.1.8.1.5)
questions 8–74
question-word questions 22–74
realis modality 807–15, 908–47
(see also 2.1.3.4.15)
reciprocity 500–7, 804
reduplication 640, 716, 735–9, 760–6, 991, 1033–5, 1052–
8, 1060–97
(see also 1.11.2.1.7)
reflexivity 482–99, 803
relative clause introducer 146–60, 435–81
(see also 1.1.2.1)
relative clauses 136–80, 334–5, 435–81
(see also 1.11.2.1.1)
relative pronouns 154–64, 435–81
(see also 2.1.2.1.7 and 2.1.2.7.1)
relativization accessibility 165–78
result clauses 192
scope of negation 411–34
segments 1098–124
sentence stress
(see 1.11.2.1.1)
sentential word order 336
  (see also 2.1.1.1.7 and 2.1.3.7)
source 195, 612–16
speaker controlled stress 1140
stress 1134–47
  (see also 1.11.2.1.1)
stressed syllable 1134–9
subjects 245–53, 578–81, 830–1
  (see also 1.3.1.1.4 and 2.1.3.6.1)
subjunctive clause introducer 84–96, 126–9, 835–42, 908–47
  (see also 1.3.1.1.4)
subjunctive modality 84–96, 126–9, 908–47
  (see also 2.1.3.4.15)
subordination 108–98
superlative constructions 357, 508–21, 985–7, 1043–8
suprasegmentals 1134–63
syllabic nasals 1123–4
syllabic sonorants 1131
syllabification 1125–33
syllable structures 1125–33
tense 805–17, 843–61
time 181–4, 709–50
tone 1148–54
tone classes 771–3, 1153
topic 555–69
topic-switching questions 98
  (see also 2.1.2.6)
topicalizers 331–3, 555–6
  (see also 4.2)
transitivity 254–72, 578–607
truncated nominals 199–208, 967–71
unexploded consonants 1106
unstressed items 1147
uphitch
  (see 3.3.3.11.1)
upstep
  (see 3.3.3.11.1)
valence-increasing serialized verbs 346–71, 610–734, 832–42
verb derivation 1069–75
verb phrase word order 333–6
verbs 807–997, 1069–75
(see also 1.16.3)
vocatives 99–101
vowel epenthesis 1126
vowel harmony 1120
vowels 1100–2, 1115–24
word classes
  (see 1.16)
word order 334–6
yes-no questions 8–19
yes-no question intonation 1158–9
yes-no question markers 8–14
  (see also 2.1.2.6)