Chapter One

Introduction

1.0 Introduction

This introductory chapter provides a description of the theoretical framework of the study with special focus on the statement of the problem, study questions, hypotheses, objectives and the methodology of the study.

1.1 Context Of The Study

Language is a great gift given to people in the universe. It enables people to express their thoughts, ideas, behaviors and cultures. It is also one of the most important media of transforming people cultures from one generation to another. So with language we can go deep in the past and know the present and future.

Sudan as the largest Country in Africa, is rich in its language varieties, some of these languages are still surviving and others dwindling gradually before “Arabic” the common language that is spoken all over Sudan.

Tama language is one of these languages which is spoken by a group of people who live in a lively and rich area of Sudan “Western Sudan” It is an African Sudanese language that has its properties among human cultures.

The Geographical position of Sudan spanned Arab world and other culture. This position gives significance to Sudan that it contains within its borders representatives of all major defined groupings of languages in Africa. In addition, it has an ancient history which goes back to pre-historic periods.

As the title of this research states, the research will be a comparison of English and Tama noun morphology. The research seeks to compare the derivational and inflectional morphology of the noun of the two languages.
References will be made to other word classes only to highlight morphological processes.

1.2 Statement Of The Study

The main factor behind conducting the present research, is the fact that, the existence of linguistic minorities in an area such as western Darfur which witnesses an ongoing transitions in all walks of life, with the effect of creating a drastic competition among the minorities and becomes a potential threat to the internal cohesion of them. However, there are many factors affecting the existence and usage of these languages, one of such effective factors, is the size of native speaking population which daily dwindles compared to the increasing number of those who speak Arabic as an official language, and English as an international language. Consequently, the state of linguistic minorities in the area is considered to be in danger of disappearance, and since Tama is one of these minorities, hence the researcher set out to explore this area with intention of providing adequate information and sufficient awareness of linguistic knowledge for the future students of research. This state cannot be arrived at, unless efforts are launched to help protecting the language from the hazard of disappearance as long as to provide opportunities to learn, use, and maintain the language, this is because, language is a genuine asset to the users, and it stands as a sign of their identity and their very existence.

This study investigates some facts of morphology. Noun-formation as a sub process of words-formation is a complex area of morphology in Tama language in comparison to English language. The study also seeks to apply contrastive techniques to a language hardly explored before (Tama) to a modern language (English).
In addition to that, the present study seeks to introduce the possibility of a new writing system for the language in question. Moreover the study investigates to what extent the findings can be used for developing methods of TEF to Tama native speakers

1.3 Objectives Of The Study

This study takes objectives which are:

(i) It seeks to apply contrastive techniques to an ancient language Tama language to a modem one “English language.

(ii) to find out the possibility of developing a writing system for Tama language.

(iii) To what extent the findings of such investigation can be used for developing methods of teaching Tama to its native speakers.

1.4 Significance Of The Study

It seems that from the previous studies about Tama people. The area of comparative linguistics is absent in the studies. Most of these studies investigated the history of the tribe” along the line of origin, place and relation with others. The researcher finds that these studies have not made use of linguistics, namely contrastive analysis. So this present research is an attempt to explore this area.

Furthermore, the researcher believes that the present study will be helpful to those who work in the field of linguistics, particularly to those who intended to work in contrastive studies and make comparison in other linguistic area and with other languages moreover the researcher expects that this present study will be of great interest to all who work in the field of teaching and learning such as teachers, student, syllabus designer etc. In this connection
the study seeks to attain a number of important factors, first and foremost is the identification and analysis the process of noun formation in both Tama and English Language. Secondly, the study seeks to establish similarities and variations between the two languages. Thirdly, the study also intends to provide an up-to-date description of Tama language to help users of the language to possess adequate linguistics awareness of their language. Fourthly, one of the important things that this study seeks to establish an increase of the awareness of the morphological system of Tama to further help in designing syllabuses.

1.5 Questions Of The Study

As far as the present study is concerned, a number of questions were raised

1. To what extent can Tama Language be studied contrastively with English Language?
2. To what extent can a writing system be devised for Tama Language?
3. What are the hazards involved in using an indigenous language as Tama as a medium of instruction at higher education?

1.6 Hypotheses Of The Study

1. Tama language can be studied contrastively with English language.
2. It is possible to have an independent writing system for Tama language with full representation of its sound system and can be used at lower levels of general education.
3. There are now hazards in using an indigenous language at higher education.
1.7 Methodology Of The Study

In this study an interview with the informants and a questionnaire were used as tools of data collection. The questionnaire was distributed to tutors at university to fill. It was analyzed afterwards.

1.8 Limits of the Study

The present study will be limited to one of the basic level of linguistic “such as morphology, to investigate attitudes of Tama native speakers and tutors of universities about the morphological process of noun- formation in both Tama language and English. Also the researcher will consider some linguistic elements (pronoun, adjective, and, verb. ) in both languages .
2-0 Introduction

This chapter reviews relevant literature on the issue of morphological processes of noun-formation. It covers two parts; part one involves the following topics, Tama minority, Tama language, history of Tama, the geography of Tama, language situation in Sudan, indigenous language in education, the hypothesis and methodology of Contrastive analysis CA, and linguistic Models. Part two includes, phonology of English and Tama, syntax of English and Tama, morphology of English and Tama, Noun-formation in English and Tama, Affixations processes in English and Tama, Non-Affixation processes. In addition to these topics, the chapter also reviews all the available previous studies relevant to the present study.

2.1 Background

As recently as 1997, African state representatives gathered in Harare, Zimbabwe for an intergovernmental conference on language policies in Africa hosted by UNESCO in order to discuss the question of language planning and policy in Africa. The conferees have arrived at a number of points that all heads of delegates have pledged to observe back home. The Sudan was one of these countries that assembled in that African country, as we are all aware that Sudan has diverse minorities being a multi-racial nation and hence a multilingual community. As it was already mentioned a number of crucial points in relation to the issue in question have been voiced. This led to emerging of a new African vision which reflected in
viewing the whole continent as a democratic Africa that seeks to reinforce the partaking of all African citizens in all socio-economic and political institutions. The new vision also embraced the fact of culturally and peacefully co-existing and mainly thinking of economic development in a narrow manner at the expense of other important variables as peaceful and cultural coexisting. The question of culture is enormously linked with the issues of languages which are considered as the vehicle of thought. Again, all the different minorities need to live within a broader context of justice, fairness and equity for all; respect for linguistic rights as human rights, including those of minorities. This can further be interpreted in looking at the continent as one that acknowledges its ethno-linguistic pluralism and accepts this as a normal way of life and as a rich resource for development and progress.

The new vision of Africa as portrayed above is only realizable through the promotion of peaceful coexistence of people in a society where pluralism does not entail replacement of one language or identity by another, but instead promotes complementary of functions as well as co-operation and a sense of common destiny. Living in a pluralistic context can only mean seeking to produce through sound and explicit language policies Africans who are able to operate effectively at local levels as well as at regional and international levels; Africa that provides the environment for the promotion and preservation of an African identity as well as the cultivation of a proud and confident African personality; where scientific and technological discourse is conducted in the national languages as part of our cognitive preparation for facing the challenges of the next millennium.
Therefore, for the success of the above cited issues, positive steps must be taken to implement language planning and policy and raising the status of indigenous language to the level of classroom applicability. I would like to discuss in the small project the importance and viability of using the indigenous languages in classroom environment as languages of learning and instruction with special reference to Tama language paying special attention to our predecessors in this domain that is those African countries that have already walked long strides in this respect like Nigeria, Tanzania and Zimbabwe. The study shall address certain issues such as the rationale behind using indigenous languages for learning and teaching, and then the study will give a brief description of the language situation that of Tama in relation to other Sudanese indigenous languages. The study will conclude by how Tama language can actually be applied to teaching and learning in wider scale, not to mention the discussion of its future use in higher institutions of learning and whether it is possible to extend its use beyond that level to mass media.

2.2. Tama Minority

It goes without saying that Sudan is a country in northeast Africa, the third largest country. The country’s north and south stand in stark contrast to one another the thing which made it possible for the south to split and become an independent State. The dry, desert north is populated largely by Arab Muslims, while the west, swampy south is populated by black African Christians and animists. The site of several powerful ancient states, Sudan was controlled by Egypt and Britain until the 20th century. An estimated 1.5 million Sudanese people died in a long and brutal civil war between the north and south, lasting from 1983 to 2004. Another conflict that erupted in
the western region of Darfur in 2003 has claimed more than 200,000 lives and left more than 2 million people displaced from their homes. The conflict in Darfur continued in 2007 despite international mediation efforts.

Sudan is therefore a multilingual and multicultural nation. The population of Sudan is composed principally of Arabs in the north and black Africans in the south; many Arabs are of mixed ancestry. Other ethnic groups in northern Sudan include the Beja, Jamala, and Nubian peoples. The northern two-thirds of Sudan is an area of Islamic culture. The major black ethnic groups in southern Sudan, before cession is the Azande, Dinka, Nuer, and Shilluk. European culture and religion have influenced the southern peoples, but traditional customs remain strong.

Tama minority folk lives in Dar Fur. Minority groups share common ethnic, racial religious backgrounds, especially when constituting a comparatively small proportion of a given population. Tama, in Sudan, is such a minority with fewer rights and less power than majority groups. Socialists argue that a primary factor in the existence of minorities is immigration, but settlement by one people can also result in the indigenous or conquered people becoming a minority, as in the case of Native Americans or the Aboriginal Australians. In Europe, throughout history, ties of minority peoples with their countries of ethnic origin have led to international disputes and wars, as in the case of the Sudetenland. In a heterogeneous society, cultural and class differences between diverse elements of the population can become more pronounced, causing inequalities through discrimination.

Tama is Non- Arab African ethnic group of people who live in North East Chad and Western Sudan in Darfur, they practice Islam. Population is
estimated 63,000 in Chad and 70,000 in Darfur in Guereda province, they are farmers who live in sedentary settlement cultivate millet, beans, cucumber and sesame. They also raise cattle, camels and sheep. (Nasr El deen, 2006:46). Due to the famine that caused by the drought and war many people in Darfur have fled their area to other part of Sudan or into Chad. In the civil war in Chad (2005 – 20100), Tama were involved in ethnic conflict with Zagahawa tribe, consequently refugees frequently exchange between Chad and Sudan (http://user. Mildura. Net). Tama are known by their own iron industries, they have many names associated with their industries such as Tema, Tama, Bani Tameem and Tumamm, (Abdal Azeem, 2000:32, in Darfur ministry of culture, 1974) Tama people in both Chad and Darfur are governed by a traditional leader called sultan, he consults with a council of elders. In Chad sultan has Chadians government soldiers under his command, the sultan successors will be chosen from among his son (Abdal Azeem, p44). Yousif Ismeel, one of Tama leaders, claims that, the clan of the sultan, the Oroguk is to be descended from the prophet Mohammed and originated in Iraq, the rest of Tama clan are said to have originated in the vicinity of Nyere mountain which is considered sacred and is located between Guereda and Amizoer. Tama tribe comprises number of subgroups such as Asungor, Dagi, Erenga, Gimr, kibet, Mararri, Mileri, and Tama proper, the traditional home of the tama is DarTama. In Sudan the most popular subgroup is Argug (the family), and others (Nasr El deen, p45).

The following table shows some divisions of Tama tribe.
Table (2-1) Tama subgroup (Nasr El deen p48)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>taouruk</th>
<th>keyeh</th>
<th>arugog</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tessnek</td>
<td>maganuk</td>
<td>kadruk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kararnok</td>
<td>Neri</td>
<td>foukumuk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>anenga</td>
<td>baruk</td>
<td>macau</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sebhybok</td>
<td>galouluk</td>
<td>tooouruk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>beyeh</td>
<td>karaunk</td>
<td>gilmesi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>keyseh</td>
<td>maraou</td>
<td>fudruk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shala</td>
<td>tetor</td>
<td>mouby</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>krarmouk</td>
<td>kanuk</td>
<td>mooruk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>erek</td>
<td>aowra</td>
<td>marrari</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, Tama people have become more active in fighting discriminatory injustices and all types of discrimination. They have become powerful to such an extent that they now want to have their language be used in equal footings with other languages.
Map (2-1) Dar Tama (as Nasr El deen cited in p218)
2.3. Historical Background About The Tama.

There is no doubt that people of Darfur are a mixture of Arab and Non-Arab people. The majority live in southern Darfur and the rest live in North Darfur. Nasr El deen(p50) attributes the origin of Tama to some big groups of Arab tribes who came to Sudan such as Bani Tameem, Bani Helal, and Bani Yoshkar.

Some Archaeologist such as Arkal claims that Tama people are remains of (Tamuho). Pharaonic Archaeology of Egypt spoke about the Libyan communities before pharaonic families because some western Archaeologists mentioned that the word Libya has been mentioned in the Choreographic text which is found as a part of the fifth family of the ancient Egyptian state. (AbdalAzeem, p42-43). “At the time of (Herodotus), the Greek Archaeologist said that the word “Tamoho” is used not to mean only the Geographical region of western River Nile but also all African continent. Tamoho is Libyan tribe with individual having blue eyes, black skin, and red hair. Some historians described Tamoho land as stretching from the Libyan desert up to west Egypt. Also Arkeal explains that the remaining of southern Tamoho ( Tama now) is in west north Darfur. Southern Tamoho people represent a cultural group in the second phase of the Nubian civilization and belong to the so-called race” Nasr El deen(p45).

Arkeal also thought that the southern Tamoho who are descendants are current Tama moved from the south towards west north Dar Bargo. Tama now are also known as Arab people. They originated from Bani Tameem, one of the greatest Arab tribes. They are known by their continued movement and migration.
Map (2-2) sites of old Darfurian Kingdoms (Nasr El deen p217)
2.4. The geography Of Tama

Tama land is a fertile land which made people in Darfur in particular the Sultans of Darfur and Wadai compete to conquer it. It locates west Dar Gemir at the border between Wodai and Darfur. It is surrounded by areas of some western tribes, the Marrari in the west, Zaghwa in the north, Gemir in the East and Gebel tribe in the south, it also has great extension in western Sudan, and stretches from the south to the North. Its Southern part extends towards the area of Marari then extend to the South east Darfur where we can find the most important mountains, springs. (Nasr El deen, p28)

Tama land is described as an agricultural land which contains many mountains with Tama Mountain, as the most important one. It is large with rivers, springs and it is full of thick complicated long trees. On the top of it, Tama governor (Tama sultan) resides. The line that separates Wodai from Darfur is drawn by trigs borders, these borders are hills having gaps; these gaps are filled with stones two meter high. People do not know when these borders are drawn or existed, but it is said that, they have been built in accordance to an agreement between Wodai traditional governor (sultan) and Tama traditional governor. Tama area which lies East Chad has a hot climate in summer and it is cold in winter. It has three seasons in the year: summer which is very hot, autumn with plentiful heavy rains, and in winter the dry air blows causing dust especially in the desert area. In Tama area there are several seasonal valleys which are quite active when rains fall. The most important valleys are Kary, Germa and Behya. All these valleys surround Gerada the current town of Tama people. Tama land is full of long thick trees which provide people with fruits and wood. Among these trees are
Habaso trees. They are well known with their remarkable length and their leaves are used as dyes.

Map (2-3) Areas of Darfur Tribes
2.5 Tama Language

The existence of patterned variations in a language makes it possible to identify ourselves and others as belong to certain groups. Social prestige or stigma associated with these variations makes language a source of social and political power (Bernard, 1998:5)

A person can commonly be identified by his language because language is inherently involved in socialization so the social group whose language a person speak, is an important identity group for him, (Brown,1993: 260) . Although there are other markers of ethnic identity such as food or clothing or religion, but language has a special role because it organizes thoughts, (Dulay, 1982:16). Tama people as an ethnic group regularly use their own language as one of their most significant identifying feature. Although, it is hard to find other features that distinguish them from their neighbors, their language is the best medium.

Tama language embodies areas of other languages , Mararri, Abu Sharb, Keyebt, Mora ,Senyar, and Messeria Gabel. Tama area is surrounded by villages and dwelling centers. Around this area are areas of languages which are intelligible to Tama language some of these are Gemir, Zagahwa, Kobe, Assungor. Others areas have different languages but people can speak Tama as theirs, namely Assungor and Mararri. This indicates that Tama language is flexible with its neighboring languages and there is great homogeneity among them. This kind of behavior which Tama language owns might not be available in any other languages. (Kapeplnios(2013,162) states, while a vast amount of information is available on the internet or elsewhere, much of it ,is inaccessible because of language barriers. Thus
barriers of languages distract the amount of information that is transferred between them.

Tama language is known as one of the Nilotic Saharan languages. People use Arabic as a mean of communication with others. Tama language compared to all darfurian languages is distinctive except Assungor and Gimir language. These are closely related to Tama. Also Assungor is considered the most ancient people who came to Chad from Yemen (Nasr El deen, p47).

It becomes clear to the language learners that, there are many dialects with quite confusing differences. Tama language is one of a whole network of the related languages spoken by different tribes in Sudan and Chad the Mararri and Assungor languages are reported to be closely linked to Tama language and both of them come from the same root. Relationship between different ethnic and language groups across Sudan can hardly be denied. Researchers have shown a probable correlation of some 90-95% between Tama and Assungor language. A Tama person and an Assungor can communicate with each other and each understands what the other says. Coupland, (2013, 29) states, the world of languages have been homogenizing by convergence at the expense of diversity.

2.6 Linguistic Situation In Sudan

There is only one main language in Sudan that is Arabic which acts as a national official language and many other minority indigenous languages. According to Abdal Azeem (p48) classification, the languages of the Sudan belong to three out of four language families. Sudan is, therefore a
multilingual/ multicultural country. Regarding, western Darfur, Tama language only embodies many languages such as Asungor, Dajo, Erenga, Gimir, Kibet, Marrari, Milris, and Tama proper. And although Sudan is a multilingual country, Arabic is the sole official language since it obtained its independence, it is used in parliament, trade, industry, the mass media, and education. And it continues to dominate as the national official language. While the minority indigenous languages enjoy some small degree of prominence, Arabic continues to enjoy the central role and considered as the language power and economic wellbeing. In western Sudan, where the majority of indigenous language are spoken along with Arabic which is the medium of instruction, this would make learning difficult for pupils at their basic level, and detract from whatever they would have learnt so far in the mother tongue. This because they were born to parents excessively speak Tama or other indigenous language in their daily conversations or chats, and even in the external environment, when they get to play with their age group, their mother tongue is dominant. Based on my own experience in teaching, in Dar Tam, it appeared that two third of the total number of the pupils spent half of their year, without understanding their classes. However, those who were exposed to glorious Quran during they were studying in Khalwa (Quranc school), were much better in getting along with their classes than those who were deprived from this opportunity. Another problem might arise when indigenous languages are to be used as a medium of instruction, this also more difficult because, the few teachers, who are proficient in the language, are not deployed in the relevant areas, because deployment of teachers does not involve consideration of using minority languages as medium of instruction. There also an added problem in Sudan as well as
elsewhere in Africa, bilingualism has tended to be subtractive, because the socio- cultural attribute of indigenous language have been denigrated in favor of Arabic which is considered to be more prestigious. This has even resulted in some Sudanese who educated through the medium of Arabic or English.

The above situation has had some of the following serious consequences for educational development in Sudan:

- Indigenous languages have not been taken seriously as subjects of study.
- Too much emphasis has been placed on proficiency in Arabic which in many cases, is introduced to children from the first day of school.
- Proficiency in the mother tongue is, in sometimes threatened, because teachers and parents focus on learning Arabic at school and home. It is sad in some cases that, children come proficient in their mother tongue but soon begin to lose this as the focus is shifted to developing proficiency in Arabic both at school and home.

Despite what appears to be negative picture regarding Sudan’s indigenous languages, some steps have been taken towards stabiling them, this has been felt when Sudan acknowledges its pluralism and accepts it as a way of life and as a source for development and progress. Also many studies have been conducted recently in the field of using indigenous languages and have emphasized that using indigenous languages is urgent. The present study has gone on the same walk and appeals for using indigenous languages at school.
2.7. Indigenous languages in education

On the question of the status and usage of indigenous languages as medium of instruction at basic level of general education versus Arabic language. Suggestions have been put forward for maintaining the exclusive official status and usage of Arabic language. Although the use of Arabic in education for pupils who do not speak a language rather than their mother tongue, might cause problem, however, it has huge advantages, such as access to knowledge, creativity, and entertainment of entire Arab world as well as global trade and commerce. Furthermore, indigenous languages have become integral parts to lives of Sudanese people and are indeed resources to be nurtured and develop.

Another trend believes that, learning indigenous language does not involve taking on a new cultural identity So it is possible to adopt a language to give expression to the cultural and intellectual peculiarities of another world, According to William &Sinpper(1990,50) language comprises not only communication, but also heritage, culture, and feelings .It is, therefore. Important to note that maintaining speakers’ native language has an affective dimension, that of enhancing the speakers’- self-concept and their pride in their cultural background and identity.

There are other two factors that justify the use of indigenous languages as a language of teaching and learning. First, Kambo(2000) states, cognitive and effective development occur more effectively in a language that, the learner knows very well. This is, similar to what I concluded from my interview with some teacher from Dar Tama, they explained that most of the learners are not proficient in Arabic, when they enter school since their exposure to Arabic languages, the medium of instruction, is often
minimal in home, so they need to be taught in a language that they familiar with (mother tongue). Second, learning in general (including second language learning) occurs more effectively if the required cognitive development has already taken place through the use of a first language as a language of learning. This emphasizes that learning through language tongue provide readiness for the acquisition of the second language, and that the literacy and cognitive skills already acquired in the first language provide easy transition to second- language medium education.

Bilingualism/ multilingualism, is a reality for most people live in bilingual/multilingual societies. So any solution for any linguistic problem should be sought in the context of bilingualism multilingualism. It was believed that bilingualism creates more task for the brain than is necessary, leads to mental confusion as the child tries to work out which language to use in a particular communicative situation, slows down acquisition of the second language, leads to split personality, and created cultural and political division( Sure& Webb,2000)

A recent research, however, has pointed out that contrary to the belief above, bilingualism has a number of advantages, Peal &Lamba, ( in Sure&Webb,2000) bilinguals perform better in intelligence tests than do monolinguals, that they have greater mental flexibility and superior abstract thinking and concept formation, and that bilingualism stimulates further IQ development. It is noted, however that bilingualism can only be positive when children are trained to a level of stable bilingualism, where competence in the mother tongue is comparable to that in the second language. Bilinguals with a high level of bilingual proficiency showed positive cognitive effects while limited bilinguals, weak in both mother
tongue and second, language, showed negative cognitive effects (Williams & Sinnper, p55). The contradicted two beliefs above are concerned to their writers’ own view, for me, I agree with those who positively believe in bilingualism, I think bilingualism endows access to knowledge and provides time to develop cognitive and social skills, and this what the learners need to build themselves.

In seeking to stabilize Sudanese languages, it should be noted that, in Sudan and elsewhere, multilingualism is a norm. Many children grow up in environment where more than one indigenous language is spoken and they develop proficiency in one or more of these (Sure & Webb, 2000: 122). It appears here that the conclusion should be to turn all bad past thoughts into something positive, and bilingual education seems to offer acceptable possibilities. The term bilingual education is used to describe ”any system of school education in which, at a given moment in time and for varying amount of time, simultaneously or consecutively, instruction is planned and given in at least two languages.”(Hamers & Blanc, 1992:189), they have also identified three categories as follow;

- Instruction is given in both languages.
- Instruction is given first in the first language, and the pupil is taught until such time as he/she is able to use the second language as a medium of learning.
- The largest part of instruction is given through the second language, and the first language is introduced later- first as a subject and later as a medium of instruction.

On the ground of promoting bilingualism, in my view, the first option, instruction given in both languages, would be the most desirable, however in
Sudanese contexts and elsewhere, one has to be realistic and consider the practicality of such a move, in view of multiplicity of languages within most countries. Government would need to set aside vast amount of money, for the development of dictionaries, teaching materials, and bilingual teacher-training programs. That kind of money may not be readily available, and the process takes time to plan and implement. A more practicable alternative in the short time is the second option above. Initially a local indigenous language would be used through primary grades while Arabic would be taught as a subject and later as medium of instruction.

2.8. The Contrastive Analysis And A Linguistic Models

Contrastive studies have undergone changes through time affected by linguists from different schools. First, the structuralisms, focus on forms in carrying out their studies and as a result similarities and differences between the contrasted languages are revealed. Later other grammarians, Halliday et al (1964), and Catford (1968), adopted the “poly systematic”, approach which was built on the assumption called,” a system of systems”. They carried out their studies totally on phonology and partially on syntax. Other grammarians, such as, Hadra(1979), adopted this model and went further in studying syntax. They compared deep structure and surface structure. Consequently, they reached to results which are so useful to be applied in the field of teaching. Most researchers find this model most suitable for their research.
2.9. Phonology Of Tama Language

This section gives a general introduction about the term phonology as a major branch of linguistics, then followed by a description of the Tama phonology.

Phonology as one of the most investigated disciplines in linguistics is defined as the study of the sound system of a language, (Larry, 1975:p57). The above definition doesn’t mean the study of all sounds human being can produce but a limited number of sounds which are specific to a given language. Chomsky (1986) stated that phonology is defined as a sub-field of linguistics which studies the systematic patterning of sounds in a particular language. In Tama the word 'esing' meaning ‘receive’ is made up of "v +c +v +c+ c" while the word "lambit" meaning ‘bee’ has the pattern: "c+ v+ c+ c+v+c". Meanwhile, the sound patterns of the word" ngane" meaning "bite" is not acceptable in English because the nasal consonant "ng" does not occur in the initial position. Similarly the sound patterns of the word “xidime" which meaning "work” is unfamiliar in English because it is very rare to find a word begins in "x” consonant. These examples prove that the patterns of sounds are varied among languages.

Ladefoged (1982, p3) explained that the method of carrying out this study of sounds is through the establishment of a set of rules that describe the set of changes that occur in these sounds when they occur in relationship with other sounds. Many phonologists such as Roach(1983, p6) classifies sounds as consonants and vowels.

Koenraad(p138) stated that the description of consonants is based on a combination of some factors such as voicing, that all consonants are either voiced or voiceless, or place of obstruction( for instance dental, alveolar, or
palatal) or the degree of obstruction (for example stop, fricative or approximant). It is this combination of voice, place, and manner that defines the quality of each consonant using these three quantities; we are able to provide description labels for all Tama consonants.

**Vowels:** The description of vowels is determined by the shape of the vocal tract. We can alter the shape of the vocal tract by varying the position of the tongue high or low and the shape of the lips.

On the base of sounds Crystal (1971:175) distinguished between phonetics and phonology. Phonology concern with sounds system and the relation between them while phonetics concerns with the production of sounds without any specific references to their function in a language sound system.

Martha (1996, 12) defines phonology as the study of the sound pattern of languages or the study of pronunciation patterns of speakers. From this angle a phoneme of a sound has both phonetic and phonological realization.

### 2.9.1 Classification of Tama Consonants

This section generally shows the divisions of consonants phonemes. Moreover, it explains the number of consonants that Tama language has. In table (2-2 &2-3), there are 24 constants in English and only (18) in Tama so we can infer that English has different consonant phonemes from those of Tama. The differences are mainly in plosive, of affricates, and fricatives. It is clear that the phoneme /b/ in English is equal to the phoneme /b/ in Tama, but /p/ in English is absent in Tama. Tama doesn’t have affricate, and fricative, , . The nasal sounds and semivowels of Tama are similar to those of English. The nasal sound /ng / occurs finally in both languages, but
in Tama, it can occur initially and medially as in *ngarong /throat*, *ngyngat/fingernail*, *ngong/ horn*. In Tama, /t/ is both flapped and trilled. Tama people sometimes trill instead of flap when the word is given in isolation. This appears in the word *(dor/dur)* – meaning - camel.

Furthermore, the nasal /m,n, ng/ when followed by a plosive /k,g/, they form consonant cluster as in the following words. *-niamk* - *ngkosui* - *gngang*.

Moreover, the sound /y/ forms constant cluster with /n, ng, t/ in words such as *kayngto* → *foolish*, *kyne* → *wise*, *keyto* - *flowers*.

Table (2–2) show English consonants Jones, D. (1917)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Place of articulation</th>
<th>Bilabial</th>
<th>Labio dental</th>
<th>Dental</th>
<th>Alveolar</th>
<th>Post alveolar</th>
<th>Palatal</th>
<th>Vela</th>
<th>Glottal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Plosive</td>
<td>P b</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Td</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affricate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fricative</td>
<td>fv</td>
<td>s z</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nasal</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>n</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lateral</td>
<td></td>
<td>l</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approximant</td>
<td>w</td>
<td></td>
<td>r</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>j</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table (2-3) Tama Consonants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Place of articulation</th>
<th>bilabial</th>
<th>Labial</th>
<th>Dental</th>
<th>Alveolar</th>
<th>Postalveolar</th>
<th>Palatal</th>
<th>Vela</th>
<th>Glottal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Plosive</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>d</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>K</td>
<td>g</td>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affricate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fricative</td>
<td>f v s z</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>H</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nasal</td>
<td>m n</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Ng</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lateral</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approximant</td>
<td>w r j</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table (2-4) Consonants of Tama with examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tama</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/b/</td>
<td>/b/</td>
<td>bifi</td>
<td>knife</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/t/</td>
<td>/t/</td>
<td>Teyni</td>
<td>light</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/d/</td>
<td>/d/</td>
<td>dahato</td>
<td>mid-morning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/k/</td>
<td>/k/</td>
<td>kale</td>
<td>outside</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/g/</td>
<td>/g/</td>
<td>gaba</td>
<td>neck</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/h/</td>
<td>/h/</td>
<td>he:ta</td>
<td>court yard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/j/</td>
<td>/j/</td>
<td>juwa:b</td>
<td>letter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/m/</td>
<td>/m/</td>
<td>meti</td>
<td>eye</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/n/</td>
<td>/n/</td>
<td>nabude</td>
<td>pull</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ng/</td>
<td>/ng/</td>
<td>ngarum</td>
<td>monkey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/w/</td>
<td>/w/</td>
<td>wi</td>
<td>Dog</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/r/</td>
<td>/r/</td>
<td>ri:ha</td>
<td>Perfume</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/y/</td>
<td>/y/</td>
<td>lya</td>
<td>Meat</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.9.2 Classification of Tama vowels.

Several phonetic transcriptions for Tama vowels have been devised. The change in symbol reflects different interpretations. In Tama language, vowel length always alters the meaning of the word. For example the difference between the word ‘gin’ meaning ‘milk’ and the word ‘gi:n’ meaning ‘grass’, is the length and quality of the vowel. Jones, D. (P156) represents the difference between “seat” and “sit” as essentially a contrast of vowel length using the symbol {1} and {i} respectively, whereas Stockwell (1965.85) represents it as a contrast of both length and quality using a different symbol for length {1:} and {i} . All the authors are transcribing the same set of contrasts. Their symbol simply draws our attention to different aspects of the way the vowels are produced.

Vowels are very difficult to be illustrated and distinguished. English has seven short vowels or monophthongs. Monophthong vowels are those in which the sound remains relatively unchanged during its production, English also has five long vowels, when the sound of the vowels continuously changes within a single syllable, we call it diphthong (Roach, p7). English has eight diphthong vowels and five triphongs which refer to a type of vowel where there are two noticeable changes in a syllable.

Table (2-5) English vowels and diphthongs with examples. Jones, D. (1917)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Short vowels</th>
<th>pit</th>
<th>pet</th>
<th>pat</th>
<th>Putt</th>
<th>pot</th>
<th>put</th>
<th>another</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Long vowels</td>
<td>bean</td>
<td>barn</td>
<td>born</td>
<td>Boon</td>
<td>burn</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>diphthongs</td>
<td>Bay</td>
<td>buy</td>
<td>boy</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>now</td>
<td>peer</td>
<td>pair</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Tama language exhibits five short vowels and each short vowel has long counterpart as follows.

Table (2-6) shows Tama vowels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Short Vowel</th>
<th>In such as</th>
<th>Long Vowel</th>
<th>Translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>(i)</td>
<td>(ilya)</td>
<td>(i:ya)</td>
<td>Meat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(l:ya)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Dead</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>(e)</td>
<td>(eriwi)</td>
<td>(e:ta)</td>
<td>Sweep</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(e:ta)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Over there</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>(a)</td>
<td>(ayt)</td>
<td>(a:fe)</td>
<td>Moon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(a:fe)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>(o)</td>
<td>(oree)</td>
<td>(o:ra)</td>
<td>Inside</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(o:ra)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Secret</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>(u)</td>
<td>(ungun)</td>
<td>(ku:t)</td>
<td>Mother</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(ku:t)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Harvest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.10 Syntax of Tama Language

In this part, the researcher first provides a general review of syntax, then explains the syntax of Tama language.

In order to exploit Language lexical items so as language meets the needs of the language user, words need to be put in different orders within the utterances or sentences. Vallins(1976, 1) states that, each Language has a realm of meaning bearing elements and different ways of combing them to express different meaning; Tama e.g.

- John sam ta hediya adwnga – English---- John sent a gift to Sam
- Sam John ta hediya esingnga –English--- Sam received a gift from John

In the previous two sentences we notice that, words are arranged or organized so as to convey the message that is required. Wardhaugh(1995,4) agrees with Vallins, when he says that, “English language contains a very
large number of words, and when we speak or write in English we combine these words in various ways.

Corder (1973, 101) mentions, “A language as a symbolic system of communication will only work if the thoughts, ideas, concepts or subjective events with its various items and relation codified are shared by both speaker and hearer. The language system sometimes we infer or acquire from culture of the society in which we grow up. From the idea above, it is very obvious that syntax is not only responsible for arranging language items but ideas, thoughts, concepts have the same responsibility. Wilkins (1972, 100) & Widdson (1996, 52) agree that, word order is a syntactic device in a language. Grammar and words relate to each other in a constituent called meaning. Based on what the two linguists viewed, word order is the mirror through which one can see how a language is organized. Here other sentences in both English and Tama languages are examined as follow;

1- Mainir matir awanga --------English--- the girl asked the boy
2- wa wa:l ajurnini -------- English------ I rent a house
3- Wa galam knenini --------English----- I break a pen

From sentence (1), we notice that Tama language has the definite article (ir). In sentences (2 and 3) the English indefinite articles (a/an) have no equivalent in Tama. The absence of the definite article in Tama indicates the presence of the indefinite articles (i.e. Tama has no indefinite articles). Also the definite article of Tama is considered to be like a suffix, it is always attached at the end of the word, unlike the English one which always comes independently at the front of the word. Moreover, we find that Tama language has the past tense marker (nga) in the verb, it is like the English past tense marker (ed) at the end of the regular verb.
Diagram below shows the constituents of a sentence in Tama. The sentence can be explained as for

Figure (2-1) shows the constituents of a sentence in Tama

```
NP               VP
  N               art            art
              (Main)          (Mata) (ir) (awanga)
              girl            the     boy        asked
```

Mainir matir awanga (the girl the boy asked) -- the girl asked the boy

With the use of this simple sentence we recognize what kind of inflection the plural norms, then what kind of transformations do take place for the Tama sentence to behave in the same manner as the English sentence. If we change the number of the noun constituents in the preceding sentence. We shall have (maino) instead of (main), and (matin) instead of (mata).

In the case of (main) and (mata), there are specific morphemes for signifying the plural form. These are (o and in), respectively. In this way, we arrive at the plural form of noun as in this sentence;

Mainor matinir awanga (the girls the boys asked) -- English: the girls asked the boys.

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There are many changes needed in the terms of inflections when we consider the grammatical functions of the plural morphemes. For example, when we add the definite article to singular nouns such as main/girl, lel/donkey, bel/goat, we get maino/girls, leli/donkeys, belay/goats respectively. Since the plural morpheme like the definite article is added to the end of the word, we need to drop the vowel ‘i’ from the definite article ‘ir’ in these words. This is one of the rules of Tama language which does not permit putting two vowels together in a word. English on the other hand allows putting two vowels to occur.

A- Pronoun:

In English pronouns are independent. They are used instead of the nouns. Personal pronouns in Tama are of two types; dependent and independent. The dependent pronouns usually come in connection with verbs in the sentence, and they always fall at the end of the word such as (nini) for first person both singular and plural (I, we); (esi) for third person singular (he, she, it); (ne) for second person (you) as singular; (nee) for you (plural); (ney) for third person plural. We can notice these in the following sentences:

1) jikiney ----- sits down he/ she/ it).-----English--he/she/it sits down
2) jikine --- sit down you (singular ).---English, you sit down
3) jikinini sit down I.-------------------English---I sit down
2) Jikinini→ sit down we.-------English-- we sit down.
4) Jikineney → sit down they.------English, they sit down.
5) Jikinee------ sit down (you plural) –English, you sit down

In the example above, when we add the pronoun “nini” to the verb ‘jikin’ we drop the consonant ‘n’ from the verb to avoid doubling the consonant. This rule is not allowed in Tama while English permits it. The independent personal pronouns always occur in isolation and don’t stick to the word. Look at these examples: wa for I, i for you (singular), ay for you(plural), wey for we, asi/esi for she/he/it, and oney for they.

B- Interrogative forms:

Ikaijo, Ikinaingo, ikoo, questions patterns which means- Does he have?, Do you have?, do you (Pl) have? Respectively

C- Imperative mood:

Commands in most cases have words of their own in English for example we have (stop), that comes from the same root as (he stops). In Tama when we say (he stops) we use the expression (asi urukey) but for command we say (eita) urukinik→ stop over there, eitaurukiingk→ stand there. We observe that in command, we add the article (inik) to the verb, unlike the English command where the verb stands alone. In conclusion, Tama has two types of personal pronouns dependent and independent while English pronouns are all independent.

2.11. Morphology of Tama language

In this section the researcher generally introduces the term morphology with its different components as a fundamental branch of
linguistics, then discusses the morphology of Tama as a basic topic of this study.

In the nineteenth century, morphology emerged as a sub-discipline of linguistics. It is one of the crucial aspects of the languages. The term morphology has originally been taken from biology to denote the study of form. It was first used for linguistic purposes in 1859 by the German linguist August Schleicher to refer to the study of the forms of words.

Kristin (1976, 141) mentions that, the word morphology is from the Greek word ‘morph’ which means form /structure, and ‘logy’ which means study. Accordingly, he defines “morphology” as the study of words and parts of words. This definition as it seems, includes the study of the system of rules underlying our knowledge of the structure of words. Bernard Spolsky (1989) aims to find a basic universal grammatical structure of words that could account for the similarities in the organization of language. In that he followed structural linguists such as Leonard Bloomfield in choosing to study language autonomously as self-sufficient system. Ralph (1984) defines morphology as the study of form.

Depending on the total definitions one can emphasize that morphology can be defined as the study of the form of words and their internal structure.

While Richard & David (2006, 144) went further in their definition. They define morphology as a branch of linguistics that is concerned with the relation between meaning and form within words and between words. However, in present day linguistics, the term morphology refers to the
study of the internal structure of words and the systematic form-meaning correspondence between words.

**Consider the words below:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bill/goat</td>
<td>Billay/goats</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dor/camel</td>
<td>Dorong/camels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lel/donkey</td>
<td>Leli/donkeys</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the sets of words above we observe the systematic form-Meaning correspondence. The words in group (a) are “lexemes” in that they can’t be decomposed into further meaningful units while words in group (b) are derivative words, and they can thus be decomposed into further meaningful units. That is why the words in (A) have a correspondences meaning difference.

(Katamba (1993, 132) defines morphology as the system of categories and rules involved in word formation and interpretation.

According to these intuitive definitions, it comes to our knowledge that morphology plays a vital role in linguistics and its sets of rules look at the rules of word-formation. Consequently, all other linguistic branches such as syntax, phonology, and semantics use words. Ralph (1984) adds that, the term morphology encompasses two main processes; creating new words in a language and modifying existing ones. Based on this definition we can
conclude that, the two morphological processes are processes of words-formation. This area of study associates a word with a certain basic idea, image, or event, but modifies the exact form of a word.

2.11.1. Word Formation:

The existence of words is usually taken for granted by the speaker of a language and understand a language means, among many other things, knowing the words of that language. More specifically, it deals with the internal structure of complex words. For example, the word ‘maring’ meaning old man seems to consist of two elements (ma–ling). This word may be paraphrased as having a definite meaning. As the term “word-formation” suggests, we are dealing with the creation of new words. Bauer(1982:7) points out “Any discussion of word-formation makes two assumptions: that there are such things as words, and that at least some of them are formed”. Matthews (1974:37) conceives that “word-formation is more strictly, ‘lexeme formation’ we may define it as the branch of morphology which deals with the relation between a complex lexeme and a simple lexeme.”

In the domain of word-formation, we find words that are obviously formed by putting together smaller elements to form a longer word with more complex meaning. In this respect, we are dealing with morphologically complex words, for example the adjective ‘kayneto’ meaning ‘unhappy’ can be analyzed as being composed of the adjective (kayne) and the attachment of the element ‘to’. Similarly, in the word Kaling / sorghum, you find that it composes of two dependent elements ‘ka’ and ‘ling’.
Also the adjective ‘Kala ngan’ can be decomposed into its two elements kalang which means thirst and the adjectival suffix ‘an’.

Geoffry (1998) Bauer (1982:9) and Ingo (2003:2) agree that word-formation is lexeme formation, and through word-formation rules we create new words in the language. It is very rare that we actually make up something entirely new. We usually either borrow a word from another language or more often adapt an existing one by adding an affix onto the word.

”The vocabulary of any language means words of that language. We think of words as freestanding elements of language that have meaning, if we take the word ‘workers’ for instance, it is a freestanding element in itself and within it, there is a freestanding element ‘work’ independently meaningful from the two other elements ‘er’ and ‘s’ which are meaningful but bound, and are not freestanding” (McCarthy,1990:3).

As we see from the explanation above, the words of a language are either free morphemes or bound morphemes. The rules of word-formation keep the language active, and there are many ways through which word-formation are applied to create new complex words in both English and Tama.

2.11.2. Words and lexeme in Tama

Knowing words comprises knowing not just the meaning attached to combinations of sounds, but it is much more. Usually we share some kind of common knowledge that allows us to recognize words in any language even if we don’t use the same vocabulary. This understanding of a word comes
from a vast amount of unconscious knowledge about the structure of words in our language. In language terms, when we talk about a word, we mean a separate, independent phonological unit. On the basis of this term, Kristin (1976) defines a word phonologically as a sound or combination of sounds to which speaker attaches meaning.

Bloomfield (1933: 61), Katamba (1993) come out with the same definition. They define words as minimal free forms (i.e. the smallest pieces of a language which can by themselves constitute complete utterances). For example, in English, the words ‘refill, preschool and slowly’ we know perfectly well what (re, pre, ly) mean but these don’t constitute words. They are the smallest meaningful elements in a language. They are called morphemes. The former (re, pre, ly) can’t exist except when joined to other morphemes and so are called bound morphemes. But (fill, school, and slow) are also words and are therefore free morphemes. Emmal (2010, 8) thinks that defining a word is considered to be easy but when we speak, of course, we don’t mark word breaks.

In Tama language, a word also represents smallest meaningful element that may stand alone, such as; Kitab/book, galam/pen, wigit/bird, ki:we/salt. These are freestanding words, so they are called free morphemes. Other words such as Ka:le means ‘to laugh’ and kidi means ‘hot’ both words consist of two morphemes the first word consists of the morphine ‘ka’ and ‘le’ both of them are dependent elements neither of them stand alone as a word but they form a word with meaning when they are joining together in one word ‘ka:l’ .Similarly, the word ‘Kl:de’ constitutes ‘ki:’ and ‘de’ so they form a word when they are linked together (ki:de). Ingo
(p8) emphasizes that, it is not easy to decide whether a given string of sounds (or letters) should be regarded as a word or not. So he adds some other criteria to the definition of a word such as “stress”, integrity and syntax criteria to lead to sufficiently clear result. In addition, he believes that a word should have some prosperity to be known as a word. That, a word is indivisible, a syntactic atom and one of the parts of speech.

2.11.3 Morphemes

As a syllable and sentence have structure consisting of smaller units which are organized with respect to each other in particulars ways, a word also has structure, the most important components of a word are the morphemes.

The most important characteristics of the morpheme are that, it is conceived as a unit of ‘form and meaning’. For example the morphemes to/un in both languages as in (sisiyoto/not hot) and (naningato/not cold) are entities that consist of the content or meaning.

Charles (1980:20) and Kiristin (1986: 41) Provide similar definition for morphemes as the smallest meaningful units or elements in a word. (Katamba (p132) adds more to the definition, he describes a morpheme as a minimal unit of grammar or lexical meaning in a sentence (i.e. the smallest unit of a language that carries information about meaning or function. Some words consist of a simple morpheme in both English and Tama. For example; the word, mata / boy, gan/ tree, these words can’t be divided into smaller parts. Such words are said to be simple. However, many words are complex, and accordingly, they contain two or more morphemes. the word
(eley/singer), for example consists of two morphemes ‘el /sing’ meaning (to sing and ‘ey/er’) which indicates the entire word function as ‘noun’ with the meaning (the one who sings). Similarly the word (wa:li/houses) is made up of the morpheme (wa:l/ house) with meaning of dwellings and ‘i/s’ with the meaning of more than ones. In this part of discussion, we need to consider the surface realization of morphemes (allomorphs) as follows:

2.11.3.1. Allomorphs:

Morphemes have different surface realizations called allomorphs. Allomorphs are known as different morphs representing the same morpheme. Thus different morphs realize one and the same morpheme the phenomenon is known as allomorph. For instance; the definite articles in English is taken on different shapes depending on the kind of words they precede.

The shape of articles in English:

a. The indefinite articles ‘a’ ( ) question. ( ) answer.
   In isolation (ei ).

b. The definite article ‘the’ ( ) question. ( ) answer
   In isolation ( )

The data clearly shows that there are three distinct realizations of the indefinite and define articles. The indefinite articles (a) has two different morphs ( ) and ( ) likewise the definite article (the) has two different morphs ( ) and ( )
When they are spoken in isolation each articles has a third stressed variant (ei) and ( ) respectively.

In Tama there is definite article only (ir/the) and the absence of the definite articles indicates the indefiniteness. However, the definite articles (ir) have no different surface realizations. There is only one morph (ir). This can be shown in the example below:

ganir-----means ‘the tree’- wa:lir---means the house

Another example for allomorph variant is found in the pronunciation of the plural morpheme (S) in the following words

cats ( s ), dog ( z ), judge ( iz ).

A third consideration concerning allomorphs is in the suffix for regular verbs in the past and past participle.

a) stopped (ed )------ (t)
b) moved (ed )------ (d)
c) needed (ed )------ (id)

For the plural morphemes Tama has no common suffixes for forming its plural. There are different ways using different suffixes unlike English language, which has common suffix (s) for forming the plural nouns, with the exception of fewer words that have irregular ways of forming nouns. For that reason, Tama has only one morpheme realization for the past tense verb and past participle (nga), because all verbs in Tama are regular so both past and past participle of the verb are formed by adding the suffix (nga). This can be shown in the following;
‘lenga’ means ‘drank or drunk’ - ‘longa’ means ‘went or gone’

The following diagram by Yule (1985: 62), illustrates the different categories of morphemes. figure (2-2)
2.11.3.2. Free Morpheme

Ingo (p10) defines a free morpheme as a morpheme that can stand by itself as a single word. It consists of only one morpheme and it can’t be decomposed into smaller meaningful units. They are mono morphemic. e.g. Ne:ne/eat , nakatube / write , soyo/sand , le / drink , gan/tree, mata/boy

A free morpheme is an element that can occur in isolation and whose position with respect to neighboring elements is not entirely fixed. Some words such as ‘the’ don’t normally occur in isolation however they are still free form since their position with neighboring categories is not entirely fixed, Katamba,(p124). But in Tama the position of the definite article (ir) meaning (the) the relation amongst its neighboring words is entirely fixed. It is always fixed at the end of the word. So it is not a free morpheme. e.g. Atir/ the person, lelir / the donkey, ganir/the tree

Ralph (p62) states that in building words, two basic kinds of morphemes are used; a lexical morpheme and a functional morpheme.

A. **Lexical morphemes:**
These are morphemes which belong to the major part of speech, such as nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs such.
Wangk/cup, lok/come, , naninga/cold, sisiyo/warm.

B. **Functional morphemes**
The morphemes that contribute mainly grammatical information or indicate the relation between the lexemes are called functional or
grammatical morpheme. These are morphemes such as pronouns, articles, conjunction and preposition (wey, ta, ir, hina, e)

2.11.3.3. **Bound Morphemes:**

Bound morphemes are morphemes that cannot stand alone by themselves as single words. They can occur only, if they attach to some other morphemes. Affixes are used to refer to bound morphemes,(Michael Swan, 2005:445).

English allows the addition of meaningful dependent elements (bound morphemes) both before and after the base form; these are called affixes(Crystal1997:18).

Affixes which precede the base form are called prefixes, those which follow it are suffixes, and these have purely lexical role in Tama and allow the construction of a number of new words. E.g.


Suffixes are of two kinds

A. **Derivational suffixes:**

These are purely bound morphemes, their primary function is to change or alter the class of the base form. These suffixes are called derivational suffixes such as, ness, ive, ful, able, ity ,ly, ship .They show the derivational field of a single word form. See digram by Mohammed Adam(2004, 49) below, Figure (2-3) below:
B. Inflectional suffixes:

In English inflectional suffixes are purely grammatical elements their function is to show the relations between words within a sentence. For example, the plural marker (s), the past tense and past participle of regular verb marker (ed), the case marker (‘s), the progressive marker (ing), the
comparative adjective marker (er), and the superlative adjective marker (est). As we see, inflectional suffixes show various grammatical functions. These different morphemes with their different functions can be explained as follow:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Root</th>
<th>inflected form</th>
<th>morpheme</th>
<th>definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>come</td>
<td>comes</td>
<td>-s</td>
<td>3rd person singular present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cup</td>
<td>cups</td>
<td>-s</td>
<td>plural marker for singular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>play</td>
<td>played</td>
<td>-ed</td>
<td>past and past participle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clean</td>
<td>cleaning</td>
<td>-ing</td>
<td>progressive marker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>take</td>
<td>taken</td>
<td>-en</td>
<td>participle marker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>long</td>
<td>longer</td>
<td>-er</td>
<td>comparative degree marker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>short</td>
<td>shortest</td>
<td>-est</td>
<td>superlative degree marker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>girl</td>
<td>girl’s</td>
<td>-‘s</td>
<td>singular possessive marker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>girl</td>
<td>girls’</td>
<td>-s’</td>
<td>plural possessive marker</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As it appears above the English inflectional morphemes are ‘a closed class’. As far as noun is concerned, there are only three inflectional suffixes for inflecting nouns. Tama languages as well as English language have bound morphemes. These morphemes are called affixes. Neither English nor Tama has infixes. New words in Tama are created or formed through either a combination of prefixes and suffixes or by adding suffixes to stem words. These are some affixes in Tama;
e.g.

ka ,am,ba ,ga, ana, ta , ma , te , wa , etc. These affixes can be used for creating some words such as, ambu/blind, mata/boy, kalok/cotton, galik/livestock, etc.

This way of forming new words in Tama is different from English. English always adds suffixes to the stem words. For the progressive marker, in written form, Tama often uses both (ir/ iro) suffixes. /ir/ is used with all pronouns, particularly singular pronouns and /iro/ is normally used for plural pronouns. In spoken form, Tama has certain word and sentence structure with each pronouns as in the sentences below

Wa  ka:l ni:le nakai  - English     I am drinking water.

i  ka:l aley  - English     you(singular) alesay.

ay ka:l alesay  - English     you(plural) are drinking water.

esi  ka:l le kai  - English     he/she/it is drinking water.

wey  ka:l ni:lesay ngkngay  - English     we are drinking water.

Osung  ka:l lesay kngay  - English     they are drinking water.

In the sentences above we notice that with singular first person,(wa/I), they add the prefix ‘ni:’ to the verb and the adverb (nakai) which means ‘now’. With second person singular they attach the prefix ‘a’ and the suffix ‘y’. With you(plural) they attach the prefix ‘a’ and the suffix ‘say’. Also with first person plural (wey/we) they attach the prefix ‘ni:’ and the
suffix ‘say’ to the verb and add the adverb ‘ngkngay’. With third person singular (asi means he/she/it), they add the adverb ‘kai’ only to mean ‘now’. And with third person plural (osung/they) they attach the suffix ‘say’ and the adverb ‘kngay’ which means ‘now’. This rule distinguishes Tama from English language, in English the verb is only linked with the progressive marker ‘ing’.

2.11.3.4 Roots, Stems, Bases:

In the literature on morphology the term ‘root’, ‘base’, and ‘stem’, are not clearly defined. They are potential sources of confusion. In this section, we need to draw a destination between them.

A. Roots:

The term “root” is the core of the word. It is used to refer to bases that cannot be analyzed further into morphemes, it is a single morpheme.

The word root is used when we want to refer explicitly to the indivisible central part of a complex word. It is mono morphemic or made up of just one morpheme.

paper, girlfriend, kick, smoke, act, etc.

Similarly Tama has its own words that represent roots: galike/wealth - dum/bed - malu / slowly -Lo/go - le / drinks - minak /bad/.

B. Bases:

Base is used to refer to the part of a word to which an affix is attached. If the base is a word on a base word, the derived word is often
referred to as a derivative. The base or the suffix, al in the derivative ‘Colonial’ is the base of the suffix – ize in the derivative colonlize. In the same relevance, Tama derives lawni /dryness, lawasite/dry from the verb(lawasesy) means ‘to dry’ giritu/ adrunk from the adjective (girit) and kalingan/thirsty from the noun kalanga/thirst.

C. Stems:

The term stem is usually used for bases of inflection and sometimes for bases of derivational affixes. E.g. work is the stem that forms the basis for word – formation, not the whole word form.

e.g. “machine” is used as the basis for word- formation for the words machines and machinist. Also the word ‘product’ is a base for the words production and productive. Sometimes stem is used to refer to combination of two single words such as ‘bookcase’.

For Tama the word “main/girl” is the base for the word “maino”, and “siya/breath” for the verb “siya:r” means to breathe.

2.11.3.5. Productivity:

The notion of productivity is used quite frequently in morphological descriptions of languages. It presupposes the idea of rule-governed. Morphological creativity means the ability of a language user to create new well- Formed complex words, (Green Booij, 2007:67).

The rules of word- formation provide consistent set of models from which new words are created from day to day… this shows the frequency and flexibility with which the rules are used to coin new words, (Geofry
Green Baun, 1972:p72). The word productivity is used to refer to the property of an affix to be used to coin new complex words (Ingo, p44).

Some affixes are often used to create new words, whereas others are less often used or not used at all. Even among those which are used to create new words, some don’t possess the property of productivity to the same degree.

When we call a morphological pattern productive, we mean that this pattern can be used to form new words. On the other hand when we say a morphological pattern is unproductive this means that it is not used for coining new words. For example the nominal “th” (as in depth, Width, strength, length, worth) can only be attached to a small number of specified words, but cannot be attached to any other words beyond that. This suffix has no counterpart in Tama. Another example is in the formation of plural noun by means of vowel change as in the English words foot/feet, man /men, etc. A third example is found in the use of vowel alternation for the past tense verb formation, speaks / spoke/spoken, sing / sang. All the affixes in the examples above are considered to be unproductive in English and Tama, while the suffix – “ness” in (happiness) is considered to be more productive than “ity” as in (stability). In Tama, the plural suffix (ei) is considered more productive than the suffix (o).

Within the class of productive morphemes as we mentioned above, we find differences in the degree of productivity that means morphological patterns are not used to the same degree.
2.12. Previous Studies:

Pan Wenguo&Tham Wai Mum (2007) wrote a book entitled “Contrastive Linguistics” on the histories and principles of comparing and contrasting Chinese and English Languages. It aims at opening a window for the world to see what new generations of Chinese linguists are doing in this exciting field. It also intended to start dialogue between scholars of different background and linguistic tradition. They arrived at the conclusion that, English sentence structures are closed in nature while those of the Chinese language are open in nature. This book is as goldmine to the present study which offers methodological tools to the study through which relevant data are obtained and analyzed.

Another book (2003) on “word- formation in English” written by Ingo Plag. It is an introduction to the study of word- formation. The book’s didactic aim is to enable students who have little or no linguistic knowledge to do their own practical analysis of complex words. The present study relates to this book in considering the same phenomenon, (Noun- Formation) in Tamae language to be compared to English language. The book provides the study with myriad morphological processes on how new words are built on the bases of other words focusing in English.

Geert booij (2002) “The Grammar of Words” this book aims to come up with consistent picture of what Morphology is about, and gives the linguistic entity of the word a pivotal role in understanding morphology. The book represents a fundamental reference to the present study. It supplies the study with up-to-date information about the morphological rules which the researcher operates to accomplish the current study.
Mohammed (2004) accomplished a PhD research, investigates the role of affixes and contextual clues in learning English. The research supposes that the study of common roots, prefixes and suffixes, contextual clues (examples, definitions, inference and contrast), helps students to understand lexis meaning, consequently their comprehension improves. To achieve objectives the program is taught to experimental groups with exclusion of the control ones to point out the differences of the performance of the two groups. After the experimental group was tested and after the information is analyzed the results revealed a highly significant difference in the performance of the two groups, this indicates the effectiveness of the study of contextual clues and affixes in the improvement of understanding lexical meaning. The present study and that of Mohammed are relevant to each other, in both the mechanism of operating affixes in forming words, specifically noun is extremely effective.

Manal (2007) carried out a PhD research on “The effect of using affixes on enhancing vocabulary building among first year at Riyadh university. The study found outs that, using effective teaching and learning strategies and techniques provides learners with an important opportunity to focus not only on the language but also on the learning processes. This research strongly relates to the present study. In both, the rules of affixes are employed to form new complex words.

Nasr Eldeen (2006) achieved an M.A study entitled “The construction of Tama state in Sudan”. It traced the history and geography of Tam through different periods. The research provides information about Tama linguistics
with adequate amount of information which will become a solid base of literature to the present study.

A contribution from, Abdal Azeem(2000) a PhD on “The impact of migration to Madani and El managel on the economic and social construction of Tama emigrants”. This study aims to give detailed information about how and why Tama people move to settle in Madani and Elmanagel and to what extent their migration was influenced their economic and social status. This research and the above one are the first of their kind that offer the present study a guideline to be carried out successfully.

An M.A research conducted by Al Fred Kilo(1999), entitled “Comparative Analysis of English and Bari noun morphology “ The study aims to provide an up-to- date description of Bari language and discovers similarities and differences between English and Bari. The methodology is mainly descriptive; most of the data is collected from Bari and those who speak Bari language. The study arrived at the conclusion that there are similarities and differences in some linguistic aspects between the two languages. The research is greatly related to the present study. Both of them apply a contrastive method to find out the similarities and differences in Tama or Bari language in contrast to English.

Ameera(2000) investigated a study entitled “Phonological analysis of English language for mother – tongue speakers of Shilluk language “ An experiment was conducted to reveal the verification of the hypothesis that Shilluk transfer sounds from their native language to English and to test what substitutions or omissions Shilluk might do when they were faced with English sounds. The experiment was given to two groups. It was a text
contains most of the English sounds to read. The results indicated that Shilluk had difficulties in pronouncing the sounds which were missing in their language.
Chapter Three

Research Methodology

3.0 Introduction

This chapter provides a full description of the Methodology of Contrastive Study(CA) and research methodology adopted as well as the research instruments employed. Moreover, the validity and reliability of these instruments are confirmed.

3.1 Methodology Of Contrastive Analysis(CA)

The core function of contrastive analysis when we bring pairs of languages in comparison is to find out what are the similarities, and differences there are between them. Carter(1993, 15) states, a contrastive analysis hypothesis claimed that:

…………….. “A learner’s first language will have a crucial influence on the learning of the second language. Most obvious, errors made in the process of learning a second language will bear significant traces of interference from the first language. The learner’s difficulties can be analyzed or even predicted in advance by a systematic contrastive comparison of the two languages involved”

From the quote above one can realize that the elements which are similar allow easiness, and the elements which are different allow difficulty to occur. A group of linguists such as Brown (1987), Dulay, et, al. (1982), Ellis (1985), Selinke & Lakshamanan(1992) agree with the statement of contrastive analysis hypothesis. They believe that: the learner’s first
language significantly influences the acquisition of the second language. On the basis of this claim, Oldin (1989, 9) defines the word transfer as “The Influence resulting from the similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously acquired and accordingly he distinguishes between two types of transfer; “positive transfer” which results from similarities and “negative transfer” results from differences.

Within the range of linguistic assumptions, contrastive analysis assumes that, when we put two languages specifically the mother tongue (MT) and the target language (TL) in a situation of comparison or contrast, some common basic points appear. These are points of similarities and points of differences. The CA presumes that points of similarities will not cause learning problem, while points of differences may cause difficulties and allow errors to happen as a result of the MT interference. From my own experience in teaching English as a second language, I agree with contrastive analysis presumption, because my students tend to apply the rules of their mother tongue during learning English whenever they encounter different elements than theirs. Klein (1986, 26) believes that a contrastive analysis varies along “weak and strong claim”. This is, in the same line that, Mackey (1965, 125) and Mickel (1971, 9) distinguish between two versions; strong version and weak version

The strong version: In this version linguists claim that, the difficulties which the learners of the second language encounter are due to the fact that, the second language differs from the first language in a particular element. Lee (1983, 180) supports this version saying “prime cause or even the sole cause of difficulty or error in second language learning is that, interference
comes from a learner’s first language “. Lado, R.( 1968:18) agrees that “ errors are often assumed to be the result of transfer from the learners’ native language.

This version is exposed to a spectrum of criticisms by, Di Pietro(1971:74), Lipinska(1968:18), corder(1967:120) and Marton, w.(1985:126),state that, CA confirms that first language interference is the unique source of errors . They emphasized that, CA fails to predict errors whose causes are non-linguistic in nature. Wardhuagh(1970:125) , one of the strong version critics, states that “ at the very least this strong version demands of linguistic knowledge that they have available a set of universal linguistic within a comprehensive linguistic theory which deal adequately with syntax”. This prompts him to suggest another version termed as a week version.

The weak version; this version is in disagreement with the strong version of CA. It does not require prediction of difficulties. However, it suggests the use of linguistic knowledge to explain the actual committed errors.

Richard (1974, 174), Brown(1987,82), Robin(1974,27), the proponents of the weak version, believe that errors are not only caused by the interference of the first language, but they attribute them to overgeneralization of rules, in that learners are unable to delimit the rules of second language, while ,et al(Ibid,59) , states that other errors that the weak version explains are attribute to “ transfer “. Wardhuagh(1970) explains that, the weak version does not require the prediction of the errors but it demands the explanation of similarities and differences between the systems of two languages after observing the interference of the phenomenon.
Therefore, the weak version has an explanatory power, and what makes Wardhuagh, believes that many contrastive analysts agree with the weak version, because the weak version has been proved to be helpful in the field of linguistics away from attacks or critics.

3.2 The Study Methodology

This research is greatly contrastive in nature as it sets out to handle the Tama linguistic system as involved in the Tama Language. The research seeks to display through formal linguistic analysis the similarities and differences between the Tama Language and English Language. There are various morphological processes for forming nouns in Tama in comparison to English language, and it becomes obvious that Tama language is basically inflected language rather than derivative while English tends to be derivative. The chapter also shows the different derivative processes of forming nouns in English which have no equivalents in Tama, the thing that makes it difficult for learners to go on with English learning and acquisition. This chapter describes the methodology, which is used to compare the processes of forming nouns in Tama in contrast to English processes.

3.3 Resources for Data Collection

The information of the research is collected from primary and secondary resources. The primary resources are interviews, discussions and questionnaires. The secondary resources are books, magazines and the internet.
3.4 The Research Tools for Data Collection (Population Sample)

3.4.1 Interview and discussion Sample

The primary information is drawn from interviews and discussions with a sample of Tama’s native speakers (50 informants) from the grand population number 63,000 who were born in Darfur (Dar Tama) and some of them moved to live in White Nile, Gezira, and Khartoum states. They are both men and women; some of them are above 50 years. The majority are Secondary School teachers who came from their original states to participate in the marking of secondary school certificate 2015-2016. Their ages range between 30 - 40 years. This group has been chosen for a number of factors, namely: They have learned English as well as practicing English Language teaching. So compared to the first group of informants, they are a better position to predict, correct and eliminate errors committed by their students, because they knowledgeable about where the areas of interference between the contrasted languages are. Their good command of English also enables them to provide the researcher with detailed information about their native language in a way that serves the purpose of this study to the best. Moreover, this group with this range of ages have up-to-date information about the two languages in question. Other group of informants is students of English at various Sudanese universities, their age’s ranges between 18-20 years.
### Table (3-1) Groups of Informants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Average People</td>
<td>45 to 60</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Secondary School Teachers</td>
<td>30-40</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Undergraduates</td>
<td>18-20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 3.4.2 Questionnaire Sample

The sample of this study included predominantly English language teachers at universities because they are well acquainted of linguistics and can assess the morphology, phonology and syntax of languages. They were also exposed to studying indigenous language during their undergraduate program. They also have good knowledge of contrastive studies as part of their courses in linguistics. It is for the above cited reasons, as many as 38 teachers at university have been asked to fill out the forms of the questionnaires. They are both males and females.

Table (3-2) shows tutors’ numbers and their distribution according to sex.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SEX</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MALE</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>63.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEMALE</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>36.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table (3-3) shows tutors’ years of experience.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching Experience</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-5 years</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10 years</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>23.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 10 years</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>68.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>38</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tables (3-2&3-3) indicate that male respondents were more than 63% compared to 36.8% female. More than 68% of the teachers had teaching experience more than 10 years, more than 23% had teaching experience ranging between 6-10 years, while only 7.9% had teaching experience between 1-5 years.

### 3.4.3 Validity of the Tools (Face validity).

The interview questions and questionnaire have been given to other groups of informants and specialized teachers to provide the researcher with their comments and recommendations for which the researcher made the necessary corrections.

### 3.4.4 Teachers' Questionnaire

The teachers questionnaire (SQ.), consists of two parts, Personal data, and the questions of the statement. There are 15 multiple statements and two open-ended questions. The statements were divided into three parts (see appendix): Part 1: included 5 statements, surveying political
situation in English, with Liker 5-point scale: (Strongly agree, agree, not sure, disagree, and strongly disagree).

(i) Part 11: included 5 statements, surveying teachers’ attitudes towards using teaching indigenous languages, with Liker 5-point scale: (Strongly agree, agree, not sure, disagree and strongly disagree).

Part 111: included 5 statements, surveying the possibility of introducing a writing system. How often should Tama be used in English classroom? With Liker 5-point scale: (Strongly agree, agree, not sure, disagree, and strongly disagree). The following table gives a brief summary of teachers’ questionnaire:

Table (3-4) summary of teacher’s questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable measured</th>
<th>Measured by</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Part one, on political situation.</td>
<td>Items No: 1,2,3,4, and 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part two, teachers’ attitudes towards using an indigenous language</td>
<td>Items No: 6,7,8,9 and 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part three, How often Tama language used in English Classroom</td>
<td>Items No: 11,12,13,14, and 15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.5 Procedures

The procedures followed in this study are of two types, theoretical and practical.

A) The theoretical one comprises:

1) A detailed descriptive analysis of nouns in English on the basis of the literature available.

2) A detailed descriptive analysis of nouns in Tama language on the basis of the literature available. In this the researcher used notebook to write the words and their structure during the interviews. She also used a recorder in the interview and discussion with the informants.

3) Contrasting the results of (1) and (2) above in order to determine points of similarities and points of differences between the two languages in the area noun, with the view of predicting potential problematic and non-problematic area expected to encounter Tama learners to analyze complex nouns,

B) The practical part of the procedures whether the claims in (3) above are valid or not
Chapter Four
Data Analysis, Discussion And Results

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis of data obtained from interviews, discussions with Tama native speakers and teachers’ questionnaire. It is divided into two parts, the first part describes and discusses the noun in both English and Tama language, the second part analyzes tutors’ questionnaire. Then the discussion and results.

Part one:

4.1 Description and Analysis of Morphological Rules of Forming Nouns in English and Tama

4.1.1 Description of Noun in English and Tama language

Nouns can be classified in a number of ways. There is a fundamental distinction between the nouns that refer uniquely to particular entities or individuals and nouns that do not refer to unique entities or individual. On one side, nouns which refer to unique entities and individuals are called proper nouns e.g. Ali, Sam, Khartoum, Paris, etc. These nouns are names of people, places, time and other entities. There are two types of proper nouns; one is non-countable nouns. These refer to unique entities but do not occur in plural form. They occur alone without modifies or determiners because of their uniqueness of reference. The other type is countable nouns. They are countable and therefore occur in plural form with determiners.
before them e.g. Two Arab, several Baddish, those Spaniard. Etc. Most proper nouns are uncountable nouns.

On the other side, nouns that do not refer to entities or individuals are called common nouns (e.g. dog, tree, table, beauty, fear, etc.). Common nouns can be divided into countable and uncountable. Countable nouns, as the name implies, indicate countable entities. These nouns are either concrete, such as (mice, child, tree, and book.), or abstract like (ideas, thought, question, and belief). Uncountable (mass) nouns denote uncountable entities. They are either, concrete (e.g. butter, oil, water, sugar, Sault) or abstract (e.g. happiness, gravity, beauty, incorporation, etc.) . To lift these nouns from being uncountable to countable state, it is necessary to have what is called “a measure word“ which delimits specific amount of the substance (e.g. Cups of juice, types of food, bottles of water, four times, kind of drink). This information can be represented in the following diagram:

**figure (4-1) below displays the classes of nouns**
Some nouns do not neatly fit in the classes shown in the diagram. Some nouns are always plural (e.g. scissors, shears, trousers, pants, pillows, jeans, knickers, binoculars, scales, and spectacles). To lift these nouns to count nouns, they also need (a measure word) so you can say a pair of spectacles, two pairs of trousers, five pairs of pants etc.

More through nouns like people, police, cattle and vermin are used as plural nouns, they do not take plural ending. They permit the use of quantifiers restricted to countable nouns (e.g. some people, two police, several people). The noun people are used to refer to a tribal or national group, so it is normal to be preceded by an adjective or a noun (e.g. Kurdish people, Muslim, Japanese people).

Collective nouns such as administration, government, committee, crowd, audience, board (of director) and junta (council, convention, tribunal, an assembly) are used as a singular form while English uses it as plural form e.g. Government has/ have announced it.

In Tama nouns can also be divided in two types; countable and uncountable. Countable nouns will be discussed later, when we handle Tama inflectional processes. But uncountable noun is like English can be classified into:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abstract nouns</th>
<th>Concrete nouns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Niling/sleeping</td>
<td>labit/honey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>saykay/truth</td>
<td>ana/earth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ora/secret</td>
<td>ka:l/water</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>siya/breath</td>
<td>ki:we/salt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
marta/hunting                    sisimbo/sugar
ngini/ discussion              gu:m/wilderness
wafugut/agreement              lek/urine         Tama

**Tama also has collective nouns;**

kuwat/flock of birds
mang/ lice
binging/clothes
minay/stars

**4.1.2 Affixation**

Affixes are bound morphemes that occur before or after a base form. There are two types of affixes, prefixes and suffixes. Unlike the roots, affixes do not pertain to lexical categories and are always bound. Stagberg (1987, 91) explains that affixes are the elements which we add to the beginning or to the end of a base form.

Affixes are classified into inflectional or derivational according to their function in words. Brengelman (1985, 125) mentions that affixes may be called productive or unproductive depending on whether or not they can be used to form a new word.

According to the (Wikipedia dictionary website), affixes are divided into two kind depending on their position with reference to the root. And as
the present research is titled “noun formation” this section will focus on affixes which are used to form nouns in both languages.

4.1.2.1 Noun prefixes in English and Tama

4.1.2.1.1 Nouns Prefixes in English

In English and Tama, prefixes are bound morphemes which are attached at the front of a word. The main function of a prefix is to alter the meaning of the word and it rarely alters the word class. Randolph(1973, 431), states that, prefixes can be classified on the basis of their meaning and the word to which they are attached. Hough(1993, 18) states that, prefixes are small class of morphemes, numbering about seventy five, Chanko (2005, 51) adds, prefixes are those bound morphemes that occur before a base form, as in ‘irrelevant’, ‘insufficient’.

From the views above, it is plain that morphemes affect the meaning of the word rather than its class. Graves & Hammond (1980, 180) argue that, there are three reasons for identifying prefixes. Firstly, they are relatively few and usually used in a large number of words. Secondly, they have relatively consistent meaning (i.e. unchanged through meaning), and can easily be defined. Thirdly, they are very consistent in their spellings (i.e. they are of dependable nature, according to some calculation). White et.al. (1989, 3006) reports that the most common prefixes (un, re, in, and dis) account for about half of the common prefixed words in English and 20 prefixes account for nearly all prefixed word.
The addition of prefixes to the word results in modification of the meaning but rarely changing the function of the word.

Table(4-1) shows noun prefixes in English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefixes</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>anti</td>
<td>Against</td>
<td>anticlimax, antithesis, antidote</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>auto</td>
<td>Self</td>
<td>autobiography, automobile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>co</td>
<td>Joint</td>
<td>co-four, co-owner, co-descendant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>counter</td>
<td>Against</td>
<td>counter-argument, counter-example, counter-part, counter-proposal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dis</td>
<td>Not</td>
<td>discomfort, dislike</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ex</td>
<td>Former</td>
<td>ex-chairman, ex-hunter, ex-ministre,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hyper</td>
<td>Extreme</td>
<td>hyper-inflation, hyper-surface.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in</td>
<td>-not</td>
<td>inattention, incoherence, inpatient, incompatibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kilo</td>
<td>Thousand</td>
<td>Kilobyte</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mal</td>
<td>Bad</td>
<td>malfunction, maltreatment, malnutrition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mega</td>
<td>Million</td>
<td>Megabyte</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mis</td>
<td>Wrong</td>
<td>misconduct, misdeed, mismanagement, misleading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mini</td>
<td>Small</td>
<td>mini-publication, mini-theory, mini-skirt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mono</td>
<td>One</td>
<td>monosyllable, monograph, monogamy,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neo</td>
<td>New</td>
<td>neo-colonialism, neo-impression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>---------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>out</td>
<td>Separate</td>
<td>outbuilding, outdoor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>poly</td>
<td>Many</td>
<td>Polysyllable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pseudo</td>
<td>False</td>
<td>pseudo expert</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>re</td>
<td>again</td>
<td>reorganization, re-assessment, re-examination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>semi</td>
<td>Half</td>
<td>semicircle, semi-darkness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sub</td>
<td>Below</td>
<td>subset, subway, subdivision.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>super</td>
<td>more than</td>
<td>superset, superimposition, superpower</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sur</td>
<td>over and above</td>
<td>Surtax</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tele</td>
<td>Distant</td>
<td>Telecommunication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ultra</td>
<td>Beyond</td>
<td>Ultrasound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>under</td>
<td>below- too little</td>
<td>underpayment, underdevelopment, undergraduate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vice</td>
<td>deputy</td>
<td>vice-president</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.1.2.1.2 Nouns prefixes in Tama

Table(4-2), nouns prefixes in Tama

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefixes</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ka</td>
<td>kaling/bowl, kalit/sugar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ki:</td>
<td>ki:wi/salt, kI:di/hot, kI:to/flower</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ni:</td>
<td>ni:le/drink, NI:ne/take,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>di:</td>
<td>di:ko/ daytime</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ma</td>
<td>malitit/ necklace, maling/old man</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a:</td>
<td>a:fi/easy/well, a:ful/wing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fa</td>
<td>fara/shelter, fala/fence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Si</td>
<td>sibe/suck, sike/want</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the list above, Tama prefixes are relatively few, and have no consistent meaning. However, their meaning becomes clear when they combine some prefixes so as to form new lexemes.

4.1.2.1.3 Contrast

It is clear from the table(4-1) & table(4-2) that both English and Tama language use different prefixes for forming different nouns from different word classes. Prefixes are always attached to a base word, while Tama prefixes are attached to suffixes to form nouns.
4.1.2.2. Nouns Suffixes in English and Tama

Suffixes are bound morphemes. They occur after a base word to change its meaning or part of speech. They made up to the number of three or four while prefixes are commonly single except for the negative “un” before another prefix “co- socializers” we perhaps reach the limit with four, the base form plus the four suffixes – al- ize- er-s. Suffixes modify the meaning of a word and frequently determine its function within a sentence.

4.1.2.2.1 Noun suffixes in English

1- Suffixes added to a verb ------ becomes a noun
2- Suffixes added to a noun ------ still a noun
3- Suffixes added to an adjective—becomes a noun

Table (4-3) changes English verbs into nouns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>suffixes</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tion</td>
<td>alteration, demonstration, education, pollution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sion</td>
<td>expansion, exclusion, submission, admission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Er</td>
<td>advertiser, computer, silencer, driver,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ment</td>
<td>development, punishment, employment, improvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ant</td>
<td>assistant, applicant, consultant, defendant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ent</td>
<td>competent, dependent,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>age</td>
<td>breakage, wastage, package</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>al</td>
<td>denial, proposal, refusal, arrival, dismissal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ance</td>
<td>Importance, attendance, acceptance, endurance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ence</td>
<td>Preference, dependence, inference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suffix</td>
<td>Meaning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>er</td>
<td>astronomer, geographer, moister</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ism</td>
<td>Marxism, Maoism,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ship</td>
<td>friendship, citizenship, fellowship, professorship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>age</td>
<td>baggage, plumage</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4-4) English suffixes added to a noun— to give a noun

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffixes</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ity</td>
<td>ability, similarity, responsibility, curiosity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ness</td>
<td>darkness, preparedness, consciousness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cy</td>
<td>urgency, efficiency, frequency</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4-5) English suffixes added to an adjective—becomes a noun

The affixes above can very often help determining the class of the word for example; most words that end in ‘ly’ are adverbs. These are a few examples of affixes that can be used to change words to other classes.
4.1.2.2.2 Noun Suffixes in Tama

Suffixes in Tama are relatively very few. They are not added only to a base form to create new words, but most of them are also used to combine with prefixes to form new words.

Table (4-6) Tama suffixes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffixes</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>An</td>
<td>kalangan/thirsty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O</td>
<td>di:ko /daytime</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sit</td>
<td>basit/ripped</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ing</td>
<td>baing/millet beer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Byer</td>
<td>babyer/sour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>ki:r/ owner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>ka:l/ water, ki:l/morrow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May</td>
<td>samay/beautiful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wey</td>
<td>sawey/spy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wad</td>
<td>sawa/ same</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be</td>
<td>Sibe/ suck</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ke</td>
<td>sike/trot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dum</td>
<td>ledum/ a drink</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tu</td>
<td>giritu/a drunk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ne</td>
<td>ne:ne/to take</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ke</td>
<td>ko:ke/crowl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rne</td>
<td>ko:rne/scratch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oy</td>
<td>netoy/sell</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.1.2.2.3. Contrast

Suffixes are always attached at the end of a base word. English suffixes in table (4-3) alter a verb to a noun, table (4-4) shows suffixes added to a noun to create a noun, and suffixes in table (4-5) change an adjective into a noun, while Tama suffixes in table (4-6) are added to some prefixes rather than a base word to form words in different grammatical categories. Those which create nouns are (o, ing, byer, r, dum, tu) as shown in the table. This rule in Tama which has no counterpart in English might cause problem to Tama learners of English, and interference is likely to occur.

4.2. Inflectional and Derivational Processes in English and Tama

Inflection is a morphological process used to create new words by means of affixes. It is variation in the form of a word. In contrast to derivation, inflection creates forms of a lexeme, while derivation creates new lexeme. Crystal (2001, 90), states that inflectional morpheme vary the form of a word in order to express grammatical features, for example; the word ‘walk’ can be inflected in to three forms walks, walking and walked. These three words carry different grammatical features of the same word ‘walk’ another example; the word ‘house and houses’ are two different word of the same word ‘house’ and the choice between them is a matter of grammar (singular versus plural) is and thus the business of the inflection of morphology. Inflectional morphology is a branch of the study of linguistics. Inflectional rules change the form of a word so as to give it extra meaning.
English is relatively poor in inflectional morphology. Its rules are not as flexible as the rules of Tama. Therefore, nouns are not categorized in classes since all plural nouns are created by adding plural marker ‘s’ to the singular, beside other ways of creating nouns, while Tama language has a richer system of inflection.

### 4.2.1 Inflection in English and Tama

#### 4.2.1.1 Inflection in English

Stageberg (p94) classifies, the bound inflectional suffixes in present day English as follows,

- a) noun plural marker ----------------- s (cups)
- b) noun possessive -------------- ‘s/s’ (dog’s/ dogs’)
- c) third person singular present tense ------- s( comes)
- d) present progressive------------------ing(walking)
- e) past regular verb and past participle-------ed (walked)
- f) past participle verb ------------------en(written)
- g) comparative degree---------------------er (taller)
- h) superlative degree-------------------est(tallest)

Depending on the list above, we can sort out the inflectional morphemes in English into the following:

**Noun inflectional suffixes**

a- noun plural marker -----------------(s)  
- b- noun possessive marker -----------------(‘s/s’)
Verb inflectional suffixes

a- third person singular present tense ---- - (s)
b- present and past progressive--------- (ing)
c- past regular verb and past participle------(ed)
d- past participe irrégulier verb ----------------(en)

Adjective inflectional suffixe

a-comparative marker ------------------- (er)
- b-superlative marker--------------------- (est)

In addition to the inflectional process of forming noun, English has some other process of forming plural nouns from the singular ones. In that, when the singular ends in consonant (f), it is changed to (v) in the plural form, as these examples show;

Knife/knives, wife/wives, self/shelves, scarf/scarves, leaf /leaves.

other singular nouns end in (f) but they follow the regular form of plural nouns, E.g.

belief/beliefs, chief/ chiefs

Some singular nouns modify their forms when they are turned into plural ones. E.g.

Datum/data, medium/media, basis/bases, crisis/crises, criterion/ criteria.

Phenomenon/phenomenon.
4.2.1.2 Inflection in Tama

It is axiomatically that, any word which is marked by number is considered to be a noun. As a matter of fact, Tama language is an inflectional language. Its inflections are based on singular versus plural forms. English plural nouns as mentioned before are generally formed by adding the plural marker (s) to the singular e.g. boy/boys, book/books. Such generalization is difficult if not impossible to be applied to Tama, because Tama language has various ways of forming plural nouns using different types of suffixes.

Sometimes there are roots from which both singular and plural nouns are formed. This part is restricted to countable nouns. Thus plural nouns are grouped according to their plural suffixes in seven classes as follows:

**Class 1:** The plural suffix (ing)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) meti/eye</td>
<td>meting/eyes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) tay/ cow</td>
<td>taeng/cows</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) i:/woman</td>
<td>i:ring/women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) at/person</td>
<td>aring/people</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Class one above shows that Tama uses the suffix “ing” to form its plural noun, unlike English which adds the common plural marker “s” to the singular or alters the vowel in the singular as in woman/women. According to its sound system, Tama suffix ‘ing’ has a phonological
realization, in that the tone of this suffix is always high. However, there is no clear logic why such words have the plural marker ing .

**Class 2: The ( ong) plural suffix**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dor/camel</td>
<td>dorong/camels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ngaw/lion</td>
<td>ngawong/lions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ngur/head</td>
<td>ngurong/heads</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ngor /elephant</td>
<td>ngorong/elephants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ngir/wife</td>
<td>ngirong/wives</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The suffix ‘ong’ is mostly added to a singular nouns beginning with ‘ng’ sound and ends in a consonant it is of less productivity compared to the suffix ‘ing’. It also has high tone.

**Class 3: The plural suffix ( o)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>main/girl</td>
<td>maino/girls</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unn/mother</td>
<td>unno/mothers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>anong/father</td>
<td>anongo/fathers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>irog/grandmother</td>
<td>iroo/grandmothers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maring/grandfather</td>
<td>maringo/grandfathers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Class 4: The plural suffix (ay)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>wa:l/house</td>
<td>wa:lay/houses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bill/goat</td>
<td>billay/goats</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mingit/fly</td>
<td>mingay/flies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wit/worm</td>
<td>way/worms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bolet/youth</td>
<td>boleyay/youths</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kolbot/hole</td>
<td>kolbay/holes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wigit/bird</td>
<td>wigay/birds</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This class is also rich in either highly productive or rich in noun forming suffixes. This plural marker is seemed to be added to a singular ending in the consonant (t) proceeded by a vowel.

### Class 5: The plural marker ‘k’.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>firat/horse</td>
<td>firak/horses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ko:ma/hen</td>
<td>ko:mok/ hens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>emit/nose</td>
<td>emik/noses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mar/leg</td>
<td>marik/legs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aron/rope</td>
<td>aronok/ropes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
angir/scorpion                 angrik/scorpions

The singular noun of this group of noun ends in either a vowel or consonant preceded by a vowel. So to make plural noun, the plural marker (k) is used to follow a vowel. Therefore all singular nouns which end in consonant should drop the consonants and have a plural form ending in ‘k’ preceded by one of the vowels (a, e, i, o).

**Class 6: The (in) plural suffix**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mata/boy</td>
<td>matin/boys</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ngit/tooth</td>
<td>ngin/teeth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>arat/tongue</td>
<td>aratin/tongues</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This class is of less productivity compared to the above classes.

**Class 7: the plural suffix (i)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lel/donkey</td>
<td>leli/donkeys</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dik/roaster</td>
<td>diki/roasters</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Suppletive class of noun**

In this class a noun is inflected by an unrelated form. In other words there is no similarity between the singular and the plural form. This class is similar to English.
Singular                  plural

tat/child           tojing/ children
i:/ woman            I:wing/women
at/person            aring/ people
etu/ear              etuing/ears

**Verbal noun (noun of instrument)**

Tama has no verbal noun like English. Instead, Tama borrows this kind of noun from Arabic and adds the suffixes (lut) to the Arabic form. This can be shown in following example; amollut/worker

From the seven classes above, Tama has no common patterns of nouns to be generalized as a morphological rule for forming the plural nouns. In contrast, English plural nouns are commonly formed by adding the plural marker (s) to the singular form. Beside the inflectional system of nouns, Tama has inflectional system related to verbs. And since all verbs in Tama are regular, they have the following inflectional processes:

1) simple present marker(ey, nini, ne, nee,ney) each pronouns has verb marker as follow,( ‘ey’ for he/she/it), (‘nini’ for first person singular and plural I/we), (‘ne and nee’ for second person ‘you’ singular and plural respectively) ,( ‘ney’ for third person plural ‘they’).

2) past tense and past participle--------(nga) as in longa/went

3) for progressive marker, each pronoun has its own marker.

With the pronoun wa/I, the verb is attached by the prefix ‘ni:’.
With, wey/we, the verb is attached by the prefix ‘ni:’, and the suffix ‘say’. With, asi/she/he/it, the verb is followed by the adverb ‘kai’, which means ‘now’. With i/you(singular) the verb is attached by the prefix ‘a’ and the suffix ‘y’. With ay/you(plural) the verb is attached by the prefix ‘a’ and the suffix ‘say’. With the pronoun osung/they, the verb is attached by the suffix ‘say’.

From the discussion above inflectional morphemes in Tama are classified as follows:

**Noun-inflectional suffixes**

This type of morphemes is used to form the plural noun, as mentioned in the seven classes above(ing, ong,o,ay,k, in,i,).

**Verb inflectional suffixes**

1) Simple present markers(ey, nini, ne, nee, ney)
2) past tense and past participle-----------------( nga)
3) present progressive marker for each pronoun as seen Above.

**Adjective inflectional suffix**

Adjectives in Tama are pluralized. People add the some suffixes such as (in,com, ong, ay) to the adjective when it is used with plural noun, as in the adjective ‘afe’ meaning (good or well) while the plural is afin. e.g. wa afe/ I am well------ plural------ way afin/we are well. (Lak/long) the plural is ‘lakcom’. (goul/short) the plural is ‘goulong’. (Ambue/blind) the plural is ‘ambuong’. (Fornik/quick) thr plural is
‘fornikay’. (guyay/difficult) the plural is ‘guyn gay’ Tama has few adjectives, most adjectives are borrowed from Arabic language.

4.2.1.3 Contrast

Both English and Tama language have morphological rules for forming nouns, verbs and adjectives. English noun has common plural marker ‘s’ and possessive marker for singular and plural such (‘s and s’). While Tama language has seven inflectional rules for forming plural nouns from singular ones as stated in the seven classes above according to each suffix on page 78-81. English simple present is marked by (s), present and past progressive is marked by the suffix(ing), past and past participle regular verb (ed) , past participle irregular verb(en). Tama present and past progressive verb is marked by the prefix (ir/iro) because it comes before the verb, simple present tense is marked by (ey, nini, ne, nee, sey), past and past participle is marked by (nga) since all verbs in Tama are regular. Present and past participle morpheme in Tama and English has a same function, but the distinction between them is a matter of placement. English adjectives have two markers, comparative and superlative (er and est) respectively. Tama adjectives are marked by the plural suffix (in) as shown in the example above. These processes reveal that, Tama language in comparison to English is more inflectional language. English inflectional rules are not as extensive as Tama ones. All inflectional rules in Tama which have no equivalent in English represent a source of problems for Tama learners of English.
4.2.2 Derivation in English and Tama

Words in this section in both languages undergo some derivational processes, such as the class- maintaining process and the class changing process. A class –maintaining process of derivation produces a lexeme of the same grammatical class of the base. For example, if we add sub- to the noun way, we obtain the noun ‘subway’. The result of this process is class- maintaining since there is no change in the grammatical class. The class changing, however, leads to a change in the part of speech of a word For example, if -ment- is added to the verb ‘develop’, we get a new word , the noun ‘development’ its grammatical class has been changed from verb to noun.

4.2.2.1 Derivation in English

Derivation is a process of creating new lexemes, for instance, ‘wideness’ is a derivative noun from the adjective ‘wide’. Gunter, R.(1978:64) .Thus the mechanism of derivation changes the base word from its class to another class as has been seen in the example above. Another example is ‘effective’. It is an adjective which is derived from the noun ‘effect’. Here, the noun is changed from its class to the class of adjectives.

Derivational suffixes do not only necessarily modify the syntactic category of a word. They also modify the meaning of the base form. In most cases derivational affixes change both the syntactic category and meaning e.g. use/useful, social/socialize. As it appears from the example, derivational
affixes are added to a word to change its meaning or class or both. Here are some examples of English derivational suffixes:

1) adjective to – noun-----------ness(aware - awareness)-
2) adjective to - verb-------------en ( wide – widen)
3) noun to adjective-------------- al (nature- natural)
4) verb to noun------------------- ment(develop-development)

A distinction that we must understand between derivational affixes and inflectional suffixes is this. First inflectional affixes are always suffixes while derivational affixes can be prefixes or suffixes. For instance the word ‘unemployment’ has the derivational affix ‘un’ and ‘ment’. Second, inflectional affixes compared to derivational affixes may involve a change in word meaning and class. The ‘ive’ suffix changes the noun ‘progresses into the adjective ‘progressive’. Third, when both inflectional and derivational affixes are attached to the same word, inflectional affixes follow derivational affixes, e.g. In the word ‘specialized’, the inflectional suffix ‘ed’ follows the derivational suffix ‘ize’. Another affix can be added to the word. Finally, inflectional and derivational affixes can sometimes be identical, e.g. the suffix ‘ing’ can be accounted as inflectional suffix as in “He is reading” or can be derivational suffix as in ‘reading is my hobby’.

4.2.2.2. Derivation In Tama

Derivation is a morphological process that employs affixes to create a new lexeme rather than creating forms of a lexeme. Tama language is poor in its derivation, thus it has few words which are derived by operating
derivational rules compared to English language. Tama as well employs affixes to create new words through having two patterns;

1- **adds suffixes to the root to form new words.** e.g. It,

   a) le/to drink--------changes to the noun----- ledun/drinking.
   b) ngari/ to sleep---------changes to the noun-------- ngarigun/sleeping.
   c) ka:/have----------------changes to the noun------- ka:lit/sugar.
   4) ma/ man----------------changes to the adverb------malu/ slowly

   This pattern of forming new words specifically nouns is very rare in Tama.

2- **A noun and other words in other syntactic categories are created by combining affixes (prefixes + suffixes),** e.g.

   a) ba+gu--------------adjective-------------bagu/ripped
   b) ki: +ri ------------adjective------------- ki:ri/wide
   c) ki: +wey------------noun------------------ ki:wey/salt
   d) ki: +di ------------adjective------------- ki:di/wood

   This way of forming nouns compared to the above way is very productive and common pattern in Tama.

**Here are some examples of Tama derivational suffixes:**

- verb to noun----(fa:r/to jumb)+ nek---- -------(fa:rnek/ a jumb).

  ( siya:/breathe)+ne----(siya:ne/breath).

- Noun to verb------- (kare/wilderness)+say---- ---(karesay/ to stretch).
- Adjective to verb-----(lawan/dry)+ay----------(lawanay/to dry).

- noun to adjective-----(kalanga/thirst)+an------(kalangan/thirsty).

- (ki:r/owner)+i----------(ki:ri/strong).

- noun to noun-------------(ewi/ostrich)+k----------(ewik/ ostriches

### 4.2.2.3 Contrast

Although English and Tama languages originally differ from one another, they have similar derivational patterns to a great extent. They both operate affixes. Nevertheless, the English derivational processes are flexible and more extensive compared to Tama. Along with creating new words by attaching an affix to the base word, Tama has a unique process of derivation, in that it joins two affixes (a prefix + a suffix) to form a new word. This keeps it different from English language. The question which remains a long about whether a word may be attached to more than one plural suffix or not has been verified. Hence we arrived at the fact that, neither English nor Tama allows such process since it yields incorrect words.

### 4.3. Non-Affixation Morphological Rules in English and Tama

As far as word-formation is concern, a change in the grammatical function of a word without operating affixes. This is one aspect of the morphology business of English (flexibility). This comprises many processes as follow:
4.3.1 Conversion in English and Tama:

4.3.1.1 Conversion in English

Conversion is a morphological process in which content word is altered from one class to another without adding an affix. Bauer (1983,24) states that,” Conversion is the change in the lexical class of a lexeme without any corresponding change of its form”. There is a great argument among linguists concerning conversation. For Lyon (1977)&Marchand(1969) for example conversion is a sub-field of derivation, but for others it is an independent process of word –formation. Conversion is known as zero affixation or zero- derivation .For example; the word “water” is a noun that can be used as “a verb” /to water”. Also the verb “walk” can be used as a noun “a walk”. Conversion is a productive process in English. Conversion takes the following types.

a- **Verb- noun conversion**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>to walk</td>
<td>a walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to jump</td>
<td>a jump</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b- **Adjective – noun conversion**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>poor</td>
<td>the poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>blind</td>
<td>the blind</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
empty the empty
quick the quick
difficult the difficult

In the examples above, the adjectives are converted to be nouns by having the definite article “the”.

Thus, in some group of words conversion from verbs to nouns or from nouns to verbs is done through the following processes:

**C-1 Voicing of final consonant (noun --- verb)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>advise( z)</td>
<td>advice( s )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>house (z)</td>
<td>house (s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>use (z)</td>
<td>use (s)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**C-2. Shift of stress**

In English, in identically spelt words, when a verb of two syllables is converted into a noun, the stress is shifted from the second syllable to the first syllable in the related noun, e.g.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>conduct</td>
<td>conduct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>import</td>
<td>import</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>contrast</td>
<td>contrast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>export</td>
<td>export</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.3.1.2 Conversion in Tama

In Tama meaning is changed through changing the pitch of a word (tone) which distinguishes meaning. This can clearly be seen when the length of a vowel is changed, as in the following examples:
(I / you, I:/woman) , (Ing / this , Ing:/these) , (ning/ that , n:ing / those) (gin /mlk , g:n/stand up ), ( gone/see , go:ne/ ), (dik/roaster, di:k/daytime)

4.3.1.3 Contrast

English has three morphological rules for converting a verb to a noun, first one is by adding the indefinite article (a) to the verb as in (to walk/ a walk), the second is by changing the voice of the final consonant as in (advice ’z’ /advice ’s’), the third is by shifting the stress from second syllable of identical word to the first syllable as in(product ’v’/ product ’n’). Also it converts an adjective to a noun by adding the definite article ‘the’ to the adjective as in (poor/ the poor), while Tama language has only one rule of converting a word from its class into another class or changing the meaning of the word, this is done by lengthening the vowel of the word e.g. gin/milk , gi:n/ stand up

4.3.2 Compounding In English and Tama

The process of compounding is a worldwide language phenomenon. “Compounding is a joining of two words to express a single meaning”, (Katamba, 1993). The compounding process is one way of increasing English vocabulary. Tama as well involves compounding of words. Not only nouns do have compounds, but all other opened classes are
compounded. “Compounding is a “combination of two words to form a new word”, (Ingo Plog, 2003). This definition is similar to that of Katamba (1993) but the two definitions are very restricted when they assume that, compounding is a combination of two words. In fact, compounding is a result of putting two or more words together, this is shown in the examples below:

- Power source requirement
- Engine communication error

Tama does not possess the process of creating new words by combining more than two words. This means its compounding is made up of two elements only.

Compounding process can result in various classes of words, nouns, verbs, adjectives or adverb. Most English compound words are interpreted as; the left hand member modifies the right hand member. The right hand member is sometimes referred to as “a head”. Take these examples

- A park commissioner

  This example means “a commissioner occupied in a park.

  Similarly, in Tama the word ”kuma-kiye” means “eggs of kuma”.

From these notions one can infer that compounding inherits its semantic information from its head. So, if a head is a verb, the compound word is a verb, e.g. (deep fry), and if the head is a noun, the compound word is a noun, e.g. (frying pan).

4.3.2.1 Compounding in English

English has the following types of compounding nouns

1- Noun + noun e.g.
Motorcycle, oil well, television screen, tears gas. Etc.

2-Noun + a verbal Noun. e.g.
Daydream, sunrise, earthquake, blood-test, self-control. etc.

3- Verb + noun. e.g.
Dance hall, flash light, knit wear, play thing, hangman. Etc.

4- Verbal Noun + Noun. e.g.
Washing machine, spending money, walking stick, cooking
Apple, adding machine. Etc.

5- Noun + verbal Noun, e.g.
Air conditioning, brain washing, dress making, and story telling
Sun bathing, sleep walking, hand writing. Etc.

6- Adjective + Noun. e.g.
Darkroom, hard board, mad man, pale face. etc.

7- Noun + a genitive (instrument noun). e.g.
Game keeper, record player, song writer, window cleaner,
Sun-bather, daydreamer, factory worker. Etc.

**4.3.2.2 Compounding in Tama**

Tama has similar ways of forming compound nouns but, it is very restricted and is not as productive as English. Tama uses compounds of Arabic words. This is extremely obvious in the proper noun. The following are example of Tama compound words:

**1-Noun + noun. e.g.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compound word</th>
<th>meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>kumakoye</td>
<td>eggs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
tamungKu:n Tama language
metiturgy eye brow

2- Adjective + noun. e.g.
- amalanay greedy heart
  irrnk green sauce
  awot little brother
  karangadut a large rock
  ga:natat small bushes
  karanga i:li:t small rock
  su:ratat i:li:t small wadi

3-Noun + deverbal noun. e.g.
  arir wirungo sunset
  ma:runggo foot print

4-Genitive compound.

This type of compound words is Arabic loaned words. It seems to be more productive, but restricted to the names of people for both sexes. The following names are used to call males;

Compound words names
  Rahmt Allah Rahmt + Allah
Another type of nouns are used to call females, as in the following:

- Nimt Allah
- Mint Allah
- Amt Allah
- Om Al Khair
- Om Al Hasan
- Om Jadain

From the examples above, it becomes clear that, the Tama compounding process is not as productive as English and most of its genitive compound words are borrowed from Arabic.

4.3.2.3 Contrast

Compounding is more productive process in English compared to Tama language. Both languages apply compounding rules to create new complex words. English joins two or more base words to form new ones while Tama joins only two base words.
4.3.3 Reduplication in English and Tama

4.3.3.1 Reduplication in English

Reduplication is a process of forming new complex words by repeating the whole word or a part of it. It creates words of different syntactic categories. Reduplication in English often has phonological realization, in that it occurs by repeating the entire word with a change in the initial consonant or in the medial vowel, the examples below shows a change in the initial consonant: E.g mumbo/jumbo, roly/poly, hanky/panky Hotch/potch, hocus/pocus, hodge/podge.

The medial vowel change occurs in the following example:-

Shilly /shally, wishy/washy, mish/mash, tick/tock, zig/zag, ping/pong, filp/flap.

4.3.3.2 Reduplication in Tama

For Tama language the process of reduplication occurs by repeating the whole word. Consider the examples below:-

Barabara/warric , dildil/small bird, fashfashl/lung, gang gang/drum Goulgoul /very short, wilwil/ leg, ferofero/youth,
4.3.3.3 Contrast

Reduplication is a productive morphological rules in both languages. Both languages repeat the whole word, but English sometimes differs than Tama that it changes the initial consonant or the medial vowels of the word as shown on page 96.

4.3.4 Borrowing in English and Tama

Lexical items in any language are important to understanding and comprehension. In fact English vocabulary always receives new words from other languages and perpetually loses some of its vocabulary from time to time. Ulman(1963, 7) states that, new words are continuously borrowed and formed, some existing terms are dropped and others are revived. “During 2000 years, the language has been formed, altered, and added to by borrowing from almost every language in the world. The result is a very large vocabulary. Many new words are added every now and then and it is estimated that twenty words at least make their way into the everyday vocabulary of the people.” (Brook, 1938:7).

4.3.4.1. Borrowing in English

From the quotation above, it is quite clear that English vocabulary is altered continuously and new words are borrowed. “During three centuries or more, the vocabulary of English has displayed the characteristics of a living tongue. Words have absolutely become altered. Words have altered in meaning, words have been created. In addition, many words have been borrowed and borrowing has been world-wide” (Sampson, 1970:76)
From the three comments above, the following facts are stated as follow:

1- English words as well as Tama are continuously changed and new words come to existence every now and then.
2- Some words are dropped from the vocabulary and other is renewed.
3- Scientists, politicians, philosophers have introduce wide range of new words.
4- Social life needs new words to go side by side with the new development.
5- The industrial revolution and the new invention seek to use new words.

4.3.4.2 Borrowing in Tama

Borrowing a basic morphological process in Tama. Most of Tama vocabulary is borrowed from Arabic language.

4.3.4.3 Contrast

With regard to borrowing processes, both languages have enriched their vocabulary through borrowing. It is a productive process for both of them. Tama borrowed most vocabulary from Arabic. English borrowed from various languages.
4.4 Other processes of non-affixation Morphological Rules of creating nouns.

Yule (1996, 50) summarizes the ways words are created in English language as follow:

4.4.1 Clipping:

It is a chopping off part of the original word. It occurs when a word is reduced to a shorter form, e.g.,

Laboratory/Lab, Microphone/Mike, Advertisement/Advert, Gasoline/Gas. Clipping is widely used in language word-formation, it has some fundamental processes:

1- Retaining the initial part. In this process the initial part of the word is kept, e.g.
   Mike/microphone. – photo/photograph. fax/faxmail
   Piano/pianoforte

2- Retaining the medial part. e.g.
   Fridge/refrigerator, flu/influenza, jams/pyjamas, specs/spectacles.

3- Retaining the final part. e.g.
   Plane/aeroplane, phone/telephone, bus/omnibus, loid/celluloid.

4.4.2 Coinage:

It is the invention of totally new terms. For example nylon and aspirin originally invented ‘trade names’. Also Kleenex and Xerox began as invented trade names which quickly changed to be everyday words in English.
4.4.3 Blending:

Combining elements from two words to create new words, e.g. (Smoke + fog) ---- smog, (grape+ apple)--grapple, (international +police)----
- Interpol , Oxbridge(Oxford+ Cambridge), Balloonatic (Balloon)+ Lunatic) , Slanguage(Slang+ language), Guesstimate(Guess + Estimate), archeology(architectural ecology) autocide (automobile +suicide), electrodelic (electro + psychedelic).

4.4.3 Acronyms:

Acronyms are formed when the initial letters of a set of other words are used to form new words, and are pronounced as one word. E.g. NATO and SIDA. Some of these acronyms may lose their capital letter to become everyday terms. E.g. (syndrome immune deficiency Agues SIDA), Radar (Radio Detecting and Ranging), Scuba (self-contained under water breathing apparatus). Acronyms are of various types.

- Acronyms used as words, the initial letters of words are combined to pronounce as one word, e.g.
  - NATO ---------- North Atlantic Treaty Organization
  - FIST --------- Federation of Inter-State Truckers
  - NASA -------- National Aeronautics and Space Administration.
  - WASP-------- White Anglo-Saxon Protestant
  - BASIC ------ Beginners All-Purpose Symbolic Instruction Code.

2- Acronyms pronounced as letters; the initial letters of words pronounced as sequence of letters not as words, e.g.
  - BBC------------- British Broadcasting Corporation.
- EEC-------------------European Economic Community
- JAL-------------------Japanese Airlines.

4.4.5 Back formation:

A word of one type is reduced to form another word of different class. e.g. edit from editor, donate from donation, televise from television. televise.

4.4.6 Contrast

English language operates the rules of clipping, coinage, blending, acronyms, and back formation to create new complex nouns which have no equivalent in Tama language. Tama usually borrows words of these rules from Arabic languages.

Part Two: Questionnaire

4.5 Analysis of the Questionnaire

It consists of t interrelated parts to survey attitudes of teachers of English language at universities towards devising a writing system for Tama language to be used as a medium of instruction in an English classroom.

4.6 Test of the Study Hypotheses

As many as 38 tutors or respondents have taken part by filling the questionnaires. A number of variables have been taken into account as will be shown in the tables and the graphs below:
Table (4-7) Tutors’ academic qualifications

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degrees’ obtained</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor’s</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>23.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>68.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PhD</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>38</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is evident from the above table that those holding masters’ degrees constitute the highest frequency which is indicative in the results to be drawn from the questionnaire. They are the backbone of the College staff members and who handle most of the classes. All the respondents have good knowledge of linguistics particularly contrastive studies. Therefore, their responses are highly reliable and have to be reckoned with. Some are actually teaching contrastive analysis to their postgraduate students in MA and PhD programs.
Figure (4-2) Academic qualifications

Table (4-8) Teaching years

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching Years</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Year</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-5</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>36.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>21.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;10</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>31.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>38</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is evident from the table above that MA holders still constitute the highest frequency as far as the years of experience are concerned. So their opinions are worthwhile.
Figure (4-3) Teaching years

Table (4-9) Are Indigenous languages worthy to be used, at least at the lower levels of education, as medium of instruction?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answers</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>44.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>31.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>18.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is clear from the table (4-9) above that (80.%) are in favor of the variable Indigenous languages deserve to be used, at least at the lower levels of education, as medium of instruction. It is axiomatic that basic level pupils were born and brought up by parents who excessively use Tama in their daily conversation or chat. Moreover, the external environment where they
play with their age groups is heavily dominant with the Tama Language. Arabic is a formal language used at schools. Some pupils may have their first contact with Arabic at schools. Hence, it proves that it is difficult for a good number of pupils to have access to their classes.

Hypothesis 2 Confirmed

This variable and the analysis of the responses that followed can account for the confirmation of the first hypothesis which states *Tama is capable of having an independent writing system with full representation of its sound system and can be used at lower levels of general education*. Respondents are in favor of including indigenous language at the basic levels where pupils speak only their native tongue.

In an interview with some teachers who worked in Dar Tama, it turned out that two thirds of the pupils spend the first half of the year without understanding their classes. However, Thanks to the *Khalawa* (Quranic
school). Those who attended *Khalwa* are much better in getting along with their classes than their peers who were deprived of such opportunity.

Table (4-10) to better apply and cope with the first variable we need to explore and adopt the experience of our predecessors (African countries) in the field in question.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answers</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>36.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>36.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>15.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>38</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure (4-5) adopting the experience of our predecessors.
Judging by the table and the graph above, 83% of the respondents do agree that looking into the experience of the countries that have such minorities with indigenous language can enrich our experience should we opt for similar language program. Examining the experience of our predecessors can have the effect of lowering the financial cost of the program and saves us the trouble of looking for the right type of methods and approaches to adhere to. Moreover, the countries that marched far afield in this respect, must have subjected their syllabuses to lots of verifications and modifications. This is bound to help national experts or language planners avoid the potential pitfalls undergoing such experience particularly viewed from the perspective of syllabus design.

The question of which language(s) to use for teaching and learning is a crucial one in bilingual and multilingual contexts. In former colonial countries, it is a question that has occupied the agendas of many governments since they attained independence. Some countries have made strides towards addressing it (e.g., Tanzania and Nigeria), although it continues to haunt others. As recently as 1997, African state representatives gathered in Harare, Zimbabwe for an inter-governmental conference on language policies in Africa hosted by UNESCO in order to discuss the question of language planning and policy in Africa. The meeting resulted in the Harare Declaration in which each country represented declared its commitment to the vision for Africa in the following statements: A democratic Africa that seeks to enhance the active participation of all citizens in all institutions—social, economic, political, etc. A democratic Africa where development is not construed in narrow economic goals but instead in terms of a culturally valued way of living together; and within a
broader context of justice, fairness and equity for all; respect for linguistic rights as human rights, including those of minorities; In broader terms, Africa that acknowledges its ethno-linguistic pluralism and accepts this as a normal way of life and as a rich resource for development and progress.

For these reasons taken together, in a country like the Sudan that seeks to promote peaceful coexistence of people in a society where pluralism does not entail replacement of one language or identity by another, but instead promotes complementary of functions as well as co-operation and a sense of common destiny. So the steps to be taken in this connection are guided by such parameters as taken from the experience of these countries that have had such realities.

Table (4-11) it is preferable to adopt Arabic script as it is used for writing several languages of Asia and Africa such as Mandinka, Central Kurdish, Luri.....

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answers</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>34.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>38</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure (4-6) adoption of Arabic script

It is evident from the table and the graph above, that almost (80%) of the respondents believe that Arabic script is most suitable for writing Tama Language though there are greater similarities between Tama and English language as far as their syntactic and morphological systems are concerned. What makes Arabic script appropriate for writing Tama can be attributed to the Glorious Quran to which most of the Tama tribe children have been exposed during the time they were studying in Khalwa. Hence, Arabic would seem the most suitable script for writing Tama.
Table (4-12) the use of a local language in schooling in a country where Arabic is the first language for communication can have serious political implications (first step in cession or split)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answers</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>18.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>28.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>28.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>23.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Judging by the table above 74% are in favor of the idea that using an indigenous language can represent first step on the march of political split and forming a new political entity. However, there are as many as 38% who remained neutral as there are many minorities across the world that use their indigenous language in schools but remained united in the parent State. 23% of the respondents disagree and believe that this has nothing to do with political changes.
Figure (4-7) using an indigenous language can lead to cession.

Table (4-13) A local language can initially be used at lower levels of general education, however it can be developed and used even at undergraduate levels.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>44.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>23.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>38</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is evident from the table as many as 90% of the respondents believe this to be absolutely true. Many countries have a language policy designed to favor or discourage the use of a particular language or set of languages. Although nations historically have used language policies most often to promote one
official language at the expense of others, many countries now have policies designed to protect and promote regional and ethnic languages whose viability is threatened. Indeed, whilst the existence of linguistic minorities within their jurisdiction has often been considered to be a potential threat to internal cohesion, States also understand that providing language rights to minorities may be more in their long term interest, as a means of gaining citizens’ trust in the central government.

Developing Sudanese local languages is always encouraged by the central government and has never felt that can pose any kind of future threat. Therefore, developing Tama language to be used in classroom settings can be in this respect. The preservation of cultural and linguistic diversity in today's world is a major concern to many scientists, artists, writers, politicians, leaders of linguistic communities, and defenders of linguistic human rights. More than half of the 6000 languages currently spoken in the world are estimated to be in danger of disappearing during the 21st century. Many factors affect the existence and usage of any given human language, including the size of the native speaking population, its use in formal communication, and the geographical dispersion and the socio-economic weight of its speakers.
Figure (4-8) shows the responses garnered for further developing Tama to be used in higher institutions.

Table (4-14) Tama Language cannot be used at university as English is the language of scientific research and that there is no good host of literature in Tama in various disciplines.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answers</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>71.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>23.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>38</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As seen from the table above that (94.8%) of the respondents do agree that Tama is not useful, at least for the time being, to be used as medium of instruction at the university level. Higher institutions of learning require a
kind of English language where a host of literature in every discipline is available. Certainly, the next best expedient for solving the problem of using Tama at university level is to resort to translation. Definitely this is quite unlikely.

![Bar chart showing the percentage of responses to a survey question.](chart.png)

Figure (4-9) Tama cannot be used at university level.

Table (4-15) Inventing or using a script for writing indigenous languages can raise the status of these local languages to their written counterparts.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answers</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>63.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>31.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>38</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Judging by the table above (4-15) it is evident that as high as (94.85%) believe that a writing system can be extremely effective as to raise the standard of the indigenous languages to the level of the languages with written systems. This confirms the third hypothesis which demonstrates that there are involved hazards in using an indigenous language at higher education. Most scientific records which hold today’s scientific knowledge are written in English and the possibility of translating this corpus into Tama Language is nil. So it is hazardous to elevate the level of the Tama Language to that of higher institutions as access to modern science will be rendered inaccessible.

![Bar graph showing the percentage of responses to the question: Tama is dangerous to be used at higher institutions of learning.]

Figure (4-10) Tama is dangerous to be used at higher institutions of learning
Table (4-16) economically, such kind of writing system program needs to be sponsored by a financially competent institution to meet the cost of its construction.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answers</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>78.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>18.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>38</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is apparent from the table (4-16) that (97.3%) of the respondents believe that the economic cost of devising a writing system will be extremely improbable. In order to be carried out this project requires the intervention of international agencies, organizations and donors. To be written, Tama needs to undergo graphization. Graphization refers to development, selection and modification of scripts and orthographic conventions for a language. The use of writing in a speech community can have lasting socio-cultural effects, which include easier transmission of material through generations, communication with larger numbers of people, and a standard against which varieties of spoken language are often compared.
Figure (4-11) devising a writing system can be costly.

Table (4-17) one of the merits of such writing program creates better learning condition.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer s</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>31.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>36.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>18.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>38</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Seeing from the table (4-17) that (68.4%) do agree that a writing system is important. Linguist Charles A. Ferguson made two keys observations about the results of adopting a writing system. First, the use of writing adds
another variety of the language to the community’s repertory. Although written language is often viewed as secondary to spoken language, the **vocabulary**, **grammatical structures** and **phonological structures** of a language often adopt characteristics in the written form that are distinct from the spoken variety. Second, the use of writing often leads to a folk belief that the written language is the ‘real’ language, and speech is a corruption of it. Written language is viewed as more conservative, while the spoken variety is more susceptible to language change. However, this view ignores the possibility that isolated relic areas of the language may be less innovative than the written form or the written language may have been based on a divergent variety of the spoken language.

![Graph showing the importance of creating a writing system](image)

**Figure (4-12) importance of creating a writing system**

In establishing a writing system for a language, corpus planners have the option of using an existing system or inventing a new one. The **Ainu** of **Japan** chose to adopt the **Japanese language**’s **katakana** syllabary as the
writing system for the **Ainu language**. Katakana is designed for a language with a basic CV **syllable structure**, but Ainu contains many CVC syllables that cannot easily be adapted to this syllabary. As a result, Ainu uses a modified katakana system, in which syllable-final **codas** are **consonants** by a **subscript** version of a katakana symbol that begins with the desired consonant.[14] An example on an invented script includes the development of the **Armenian script** in 405 AD by **St. MesropMashtots**. Though the script was modeled after the **Greek alphabet**, the original script distinguished Armenian from the Greek and **Syriac alphabets** of the neighboring peoples. Tama morphological system greatly resembles that of the English system and is capable of being contrasted with. This confirms **hypothesis one**: *Tama language can be studied contrastively with English language.*

Table (4-18) the independent writing system may have the effect of strengthening the writing system of both English and Arabic to be introduced afterwards

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>57.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>39.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>38</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Evident from the table above (97.4%) believe that introducing a writing system will afterwards help students to master that of English and Arabic. Students would come to study Arabic and English after they have had enough training in writing their indigenous language.
Figure (4-13) introducing a writing system can have the effect of strengthening English and Arabic afterwards.

Table (4-19)tutors do not need to be trained excessively as they are all native speakers and have good knowledge of the writing system.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answers</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>55.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>31.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>38</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Judging by the table (4-19) (86.9%) acknowledge that teachers to be entrusted with the teaching of Tama Language do not need to be trained excessively to operate adequately. This is because they are native speakers of Tama and they had received training in disciplines other than languages.
Their training in other disciplines can be transferred to help with the teaching of Tama.

Figure (4-14) tutors can use their training to teach Tama at basic level of general education.

Table (4-20) the introduction of a writing system could have positive effect on the neighboring language minorities to develop their own systems

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answers</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>42.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>44.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>38</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Seeing from the table above (4-14) that (86.8%) understand that devising a writing system for Tama language can positively affect the neighboring languages or other languages in the same area without a writing system. The
other minorities or ethnic groups might feel the need to develop a writing system likewise. Definitely upon setting about devising their systems as aspired by the Tama model, the cost will likely to be less or affordable.

Figure (4-15) Tama writing system could urge other linguistic groups to develop their own systems.

Tables (4-21) the introduction a writing system will open doors for the future students of research to enrich the linguistic fields of their native languages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answers</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>78.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>18.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As evident from the table above that (97.3%) of the respondents admit that upon devising a writing system, the future of indigenous languages in general is likely to be favorable as far as scientific research is concerned. So many researchers are likely to develop interest particularly the locals to explore the language syntactic, morphological and vocabulary systems. Researches could be carried out with the intention to find out whether the language can accommodate new nomenclature and thus become useful for scientific research and be used at higher institutions.

Figure (4-16) future research on Tama
4.7 Discussion

The phenomenon that is dealt with in this study is based on the noun; there are many things to know about nouns such as number, gender, possession, and case. In this study the nouns morphology (number: singular, plural formation) of Tama has been analyzed and compared with English noun morphology, and the affixes (prefixes and suffixes) used in forming them in both languages.

Regarding noun-formation, English and Tama employ affixes (prefixes and suffixes) in forming a noun through inflectional or derivational processes. Prefixes in English are placed at the front of a base word to modify its meaning rather than its function, e.g. happy/unhappy – play/display. In Tama prefixes have one role that they are only used to derive new words and they are not placed in front of a base word, instead, they are attach to suffixes (a prefix + a suffix, both of them are dependent), these, in such words; ki: +wi---ki:wey/salt- ki: +di---ki:di/wood. Suffixes on the other hand, are placed at the end of a base word in English, they are mainly used in derivation and very few of them used in inflection. They always alter the meaning and the word class as well. They may pile up to the number of three or four, e.g. the word “co-socializers”, one word perhaps reaches the limit with four suffixes al- ize- er- s. While prefixes are commonly single except the negative ‘un’ before another prefix. In Tama, suffixes have two roles; First, they are derivatives, when they are attached to prefixes (a prefix + a suffix) to derive a noun, e.g. kala +ing—kaling/bowls--, kala+it— kalit/flower. Second, they are inflectional, when they are attached to a singular base word to form a plural noun.
From this, one can infer that English prefixes and suffixes are added to a base form, in contrast to Tama, prefixes and affixes are combined together to derive new words meanwhile, suffixes are added to a base form to inflect it into a new word.

Comparing the inflectional processes for making plural, English plural noun is generally dominant by the –s plural marker houses/houses, English noun is also inflected by case marker (‘s’ or ‘s’), boy’s/boys’. Considerable attention is given to comparing singular and a plural formation pattern in Tama since very little has been written about that. Based on the inflectional procedures, noun roots in Tama have been discovered and their relevant suffixes. This led to the classification of Tama nouns into seven classes. The criteria of classification are based on the similarities of singular and plural suffixes. Thus, similar suffixes have to be classified into one class (plural markers: ing, ong, o, ay, k, in, i). These plural markers can be seen in the following words; (tay/cow—taing/cows, dor/camel—dorong/camels, —main//girl-maino/girls, wa:l/house—wa:lay/houses, emit/nose—emik/noses, mata/boy—matin/boys. lel/donkey—leli/donkeys. ).

Beside inflection, there are other important morphological processes such as derivation. In English, as mentioned above, derivation is applied through affixes which play the role of altering the meaning of a word as seen in inflection above or altering its syntactic class in derivation, e.g. clever/cleverness, able/ability. In the same process of derivation, Tama derives new word by combing suffixes and affixes as shown in the examples above. But other than that Tama has bases from
which both singular and plural noun are derived, this is clearly seen in the following patterns; (weet/worm—weeyo/worms, both from the base ‘wee’. Also, meti/louse—ming/lice both are created from the base ‘me’, etc). Inflection and derivation rules represent the major processes of forming nouns in either language. From this analysis, it becomes obvious that inflectional processes are the main rules in Tama to the extent that the researcher ensures that it is an inflectional language compared to English which is mainly derivative. Inflection affixes are “a closed set” of morpheme while derivation affixes are “an open set” of morphemes” (Katamba, p215). The distinction between them is that inflectional affixes are fixed; they cannot be altered any more while derivational affixes are devices for creativity in languages. Derivation and inflection constitute the bigger area in morphology (Lyon, 1979:60).

In addition to the above two major processes (inflection and derivation), Tama and English have irregular processes of forming plural nouns from singular ones, e.g. tat/child—tojing/children, i:/woman—i:wing/women, etc. Also singular nouns in either languages modify their forms when they turn to plural, for example; in Tama, mali/eye turns to maling/eyes, at/person turns to aring/people, whereas English has datum/data, phenomenon/phenomena, basis/bases. Furthermore, vowel length and stress are effectively operated in creating nouns. Tama uses vowel length to modify meaning such as dik/roaster—becomes di:k/daytime, gin/stand up, becomes gi:n/milk , ing//this, ing:/thes, ming/that—ming:/those. In English stress is used with identical spelt words such as subject, export, conduct, in these words when a primary stress is placed on the first syllable, the word constitutes a noun, and when it
is shifted to the second syllable, it represents a verb. English has genitive nouns, drive/driver, act/actor, play/player, etc. Tama on the other hand has no this process instead Tama borrows such kind of words from Arabic such as sawag/driver, fanan/singer, katib/writer, etc.

Other significant non-affixation processes are conversion, compounding and reduplication, and borrowing. Conversion process in English e.g. to walk /a walk, to jump/ a jump. Tama does not possess conversion rules. Compound occurs when two nouns or lexical items are combined together to form one meaning, compound contributes greatly to the lexicon of all languages. In English compound is created by joining two or more words, e.g.e skyline, tears gas or power source requirement, engine communication error, while in Tama it is created by joining only two words, e.g. (kumakoye meaning egg), (‘meti-turg’ meaning ‘eye-brow’), (tololnak meaning skin-spot). Regarding reduplication process, the whole word or part of a word is repeated to form single meaning, in that Tama repeats the whole word for instance, met met—meaning ‘pigeon’, ferofero—meaning ‘youth’, dildil—meaning small bird, contrastively English repeat the whole word but changes the initial consonant or the medial vowel such as roly/poly, hotch/potch, or hanky/panky, zig/zag, ping pong and flip flop. This process is used for emphasis while compounding is used to yield a new word. Reduplication constitutes a productive process of word coinage in Tama. Borrowing in both languages constitutes a rich source that, the entire borrowed words of Tama are from Arabic, and English borrows from different languages. Moreover, English applies other rules of forming nouns, such as clipping, coinage, acronym, back formation, however, Tama does not possesses these rules and makes no use of them. All the above
processes have formulated rules in Tama such as ‘consonant deletion rule’ and ‘vowel deletion rule’. All these rules are necessary for forming nouns in Tama.

In order to investigate the area in question empirically the researcher opted for the questionnaire which investigate the possibility of introducing a writing system in Tama to be used as a medium of instruction at least at the basic levels of general education depending on the following factors: First children of Tama were born and brought up to parents who excessively speak Tama language in their daily conversations or chats. Second in the external environment where children play with their mates, the dominant language is Tama. And since Arabic language is language of instruction at school, it is difficult for most of the pupils to understand their subjects, because they need to understand Arabic first, then their subjects, so this is a big problem. The questionnaire also seeks for what a script Tama should opt, Arabic script or African countries that have language minorities as well as Sudan. Each of the two experiences might be selected for some reasons. Arabic script, for instance, considered to be more suitable as it is used to develop many languages in the world, some pupils of Tama were exposed to Arabic, when they were studying Quran in Khalwa (Quranic school), this somewhat helps them to get with their lessons where Arabic is used. It is also possible to adopt the predecessors(African countries), because, their experience might lower the financial cost of Tama experience and save it the troubles of looking for the right method and approach to adhere to, and since their experience might subject to some verifications and modifications, it
could help the national experts or language planners to avoid the potential pitfalls that undergone such experience.

4.8 Results

Depending on the procedures of describing, analyzing, and contrasting the data taken from the interview, discussion and questionnaire. The study found out that:

1- Tama language has seven inflectional rules for forming plural nouns from singulars ones while English has only two rules.
2- Both English and Tama language employ suffixes in inflection.
3- English attaches affixes (prefixes and suffixes) to a base word to derive new words.
4- Tama language join affixes (a prefix + a suffix) to derive new words.
5- Tama language is mainly inflectional language.
6- English language is excessively derivative.
7- Tama language uses vowel length to derive nouns from other word classes while English uses stress shifting.
8- Tama does not allow double consonant and vowels, while English allows them.
9- English language has definite and indefinite articles while Tama has only definite.
10- Tama language has dependent and independent pronouns while English has only dependent.
11- Adjectives in Tama language are pluralized.
12- English language has regular and irregular verbs, whilst all verbs in Tama are regular.
13- English has simple present marker for third person singular.
14- Tama has simple present marker for all independent pronouns.
15- Tama language is capable of having an independent writing system with full representation of its sound system and can be used at lower levels of general education.
16- Arabic writing system is the most suitable script for Tama language to adopt.
17- The predecessors’ script (African countries which have similar linguistic minorities as Sudan) can be adopted to write Tama language.
18- The use of local language in schooling in a country where Arabic is the first language for communication can have serious political implementations.
19- Using indigenous language at school can lead to cession.
20- Tama language cannot be used at university as English is the language of scientific research and that there is no good host of literature in Tama in various disciplines.
Chapter Five
Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations

5.0 Introduction

This chapter provides a summary of the study, conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for further studies.

5.1 Summary and Conclusions

This study is an attempt to investigate the use of Tama language initially inside classrooms at lower levels of general education. The study looked into the immediate effect of using Tama on teaching all subjects. Moreover, it explored possible reasons for developing a writing system which helps in the future for using the language at higher levels of education. Moreover, the study tried through looking into the experiences of the countries that have such minorities, their efforts in this regard can enrich our experience should we opt for similar language program. Examining the experiences of our predecessors can have the effect of lowering the financial cost of the program and saves us the trouble of looking for the right type of methods and approaches to adhere to. Moreover, the countries that marched far afield in this respect, must have subjected their syllabuses to lots of verifications and modifications. This is bound to help national experts or language planners avoid the potential pitfalls undergoing such experiences particularly viewed from the perspective of syllabus design.

The study has also explored the possibility of using Arabic script as the most suitable for writing Tama Language though there are greater
similarities between Tama and English language as far as their syntactic and morphological systems are concerned. What makes Arabic script appropriate for writing Tama is the fact of the Glorious Quran which most of the Tama tribe children have been exposed to during the time they were studying in Khalwa. Hence, Arabic would seem the most suitable script for writing Tama.

Finally, the study arrived at the conclusion that Tama language can have its independent writing system which when written will initially be used at lower levels of education. This situation will further be developed into a kind of language which can be hoisted to higher levels of education after scientific research was carried out in its syntactic, vocabulary and morphological systems.

It was also envisaged that an independent writing system may lead to cession in the foreseeable future. The new language will be used in media, press and TV.

As far as the present study is concerned, a number of questions were raised:

4. To what extent can Tama Language be studied contrastively with English Language?
5. To what extent can a writing system be devised to write Tama Language?
6. What are the hazards involved in using an indigenous language as Tama as a medium of instruction at higher education?
To achieve the set objectives, the study used an interview and questionnaire, which were analyzed. It is through the answers of informants both of those still stationed at Dar Tama, and teachers who have come to Khartoum for marking Sudan Certificate Exams 2015-2016, the researcher has managed to get hold of the core information. The researcher also interviewed old people here in Khartoum who had come from Dar Tama with the aim of revealing whether their language is somewhat different from the younger generations. It was noted that there are slight differences as far as the two versions of the language are concerned. The morphological systems are not affected but lots of new lexical items have found their way into the body of the language of the new generation.

The study also surveyed the situation of African multilingual communities with respect to developing writing systems for indigenous languages. It was found out that in the future Africa needs face scientific and technological discourse. This is conducted in the national languages as part of our cognitive preparation for facing the challenges of the next millennium.

5.2 Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are suggested:

(i) Indigenous languages should be taken care of;
(ii) Tama Language can have its independent writing systems, which can then be used at higher levels of education;
(iii) The countries that have such minorities should acknowledge their
ethno-linguistic pluralism and accepts this as a normal way of life and as a genuine asset for development and progress;

(iv) If the State seeks to promote peaceful coexistence of people in a society where pluralism does not entail replacement of one language or identity by another, but instead promotes complementary of functions;

(v) Across the country, which is heavily multilingual, development is not construed in narrow economic goals but instead in terms of a culturally valued way of living together; and within a broader context of justice, fairness and equity for all; respect for linguistic rights as human rights, including those of minorities;

(vi) Having a national language provides the environment for the promotion and preservation of an African identity as well as the cultivation of a proud and confident African personality.

5.3 Suggestions for Further Study

This study puts forward the following suggestions:

(i) More contrastive studies to be carried out on larger scale to shed light on the reality of indigenous languages

(ii) Much research is needed on the potential of these indigenous languages to be used at higher levels of education.

(iii) Further research is needed to expand this study on Tama Language.
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Appendices