

THE ADJECTIVE IN TSHIVENDA

BY

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*Assignment presented in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Master of Arts at the
University of Stellenbosch*

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March 2000

DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, hereby declare that the work contained in this assignment is my own original work that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it at any university for a degree.

Signature:

Date: December 1999

ABSTRACT

In this study the adjective constructions in Tshivenda are investigated within a set of criteria in order to characterize the adjectival category and to differentiate it from other categories. An adjective can be defined as a word which modifies a noun that prototypically denotes visible or tangible objects.

Different linguists give different accounts which deal with criteria for adjectives where they give attention to prototype and certain multiple criteria. Dixon establishes seven different semantic types under which the adjectives can be grouped, e.g. one of them is dimension.

It has been established by Schachter that there are languages that have no adjectives at all, in which the meanings that they express are conveyed by nouns or verbs. In other words what is universal is not adjectives but to modify, or elaborate on the meaning of a noun.

Morphological adjectives are marked by a noun class prefix on the adjectival stem. The prefix agrees in class with the noun to which it refers. Morphological adjective can appear attributively and predicatively.

When adjectives are used attributively in Tshivenda they usually appear as complements of a noun. But when they are used predicatively, they occur in copulative constructions.

Syntactic evidence relates to the fact that different categories of words have different distributions. Adjective can not be identified by looking at it in isolation, because the form of a word does not necessarily indicate its syntactic function.

Descriptive possessives as semantic adjectives describe the noun they refer to in a way that is different to that of possessives. The descriptive part can be shown as the head of the noun and can also be shown as a complement of possessive [-a-] where they indicate location, time, event and gender.

OPSOMMING

In hierdie studie word die adjektief konstruksie in Tshivenda ondersoek binne die raamwerk van 'n stel kriteria met die doel om 'n karakterisering te gee van die adjektief kategorie en om dit te onderskei van ander kategorieë.

'n Adjektief kan gedefinieer word as 'n woord wat 'n naamwoord bepaal wat prototipies verwys na konkrete voorwerpe.

Linguïste gee verskillende aannames wat handel oor kriteria vir adjektiewe waarin hulle aandag gee aan prototipe en sekere meervoudige kriteria. Dixon het sewe verskillende semantiese tipes bepaal waaronder adjektiewe gegroepeer kan word bv. een daarvan is dimensie.

Daar is vasgestel deur Schachter dat daar tale is wat geen adjektiewe het nie waarin die betekenis wat hulle uitdruk gedra word deur naamwoorde of werkwoorde. Wat dus universeel is, is nie adjektiewe nie maar om die betekenis van 'n woord te modifiseer.

Morfologiese adjektiewe is gemerk deur 'n naamwoord klasprefiks op die adjektiefstam. Die prefiks kom ooreen in klas met die naamwoord waarna dit verwys. Morfologiese adjektiewe kan attributief en predikatief voorkom. Wanneer adjektiewe attributief gebruik word, verskyn hulle as komplement

van die naamwoord. Maar wanneer hulle predikatief gebruik word kom hulle voor in kopulatief konstruksies.

In sintaksis kan verskillende kategorieë van woorde verskillende distribusies hê. Adjektiewe kan nie geïdentifiseer word deur na dit te kyk in isolasie want die vorm van 'n woord dui nie noodwendig sy sintaktiese funksie aan.

Deskriptiewe possessiewe as semantiese adjektiewe beskryf die naamwoord waarna hulle verwys op 'n wyse wat verskillend is van dié van possessiewe.

Die deskriptiewe deel kan aangetoon word as die kern van die naamwoord groep en kan ook aangetoon word as 'n komplement van die possessiewe [-a-] waar hulle plek, tyd, gebeurtenis en geslag aandui.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to express my gratitude to my supervisor Prof. J.A du Plessis, without whose expert supervision this study would not have been a reality.

My heartfelt thanks also go to my husband, Gerson, for his encouragement throughout the years of my study.

I also wish to record my indebtedness to the following persons: Mr. Silidi Wilson and Mrs. N[^]emakonde Reginah for their advice and encouragement.

Last but not least, I wish to thank, in a special way, my mother, my two daughters and a son who encouraged me to go on during those moment of despair.

CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1

1.	INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1.	GOVERNMENT THEORY.....	10
1.2.	ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY.....	14

CHAPTER 2

2.	THE SEMANTIC ADJECTIVE.....	15
2.1.	AIM.....	15
2.2.	PREVIOUS STUDIES ON THE ADJECTIVE.....	16
2.3.	CRITERIA FOR ADJECTIVES.....	19
2.3.1.	INTRODUCTION.....	19
2.3.2.	PROTOTYPE.....	21
2.3.3.	MULTIPLE CRITERIA.....	23
2.4.	SEMANTIC PROTOTYPES.....	24
2.4.1.	DIXON.....	24
2.4.2.	ADJECTIVE IN WORDNET.....	26
2.4.3.	JONES.....	31
2.4.4.	RODFORD 1997.....	34
2.4.5.	QUIRK et al 1979.....	37
2.4.6.	SEMANTIC TYPES IN TSHIVENDA.....	46
2.4.7.	THE MORPHOLOGICAL ADJECTIVES.....	47
2.4.8.	DESCRIPTIVE POSSESSIVES.....	49
2.4.9.	RELATIVE CLAUSES.....	52
2.4.9.1.	VERBAL RELATIVE CLAUSE.....	52
2.4.9.2.	COPULATIVE RELATIVE CLAUSE.....	57
2.4.9.3.	THE COMPLEMENT OF THE COPULATIVE VERB IS PP WITH na AS HEAD.....	59
2.5.	CONCLUSION.....	60

CHAPTER 3

3. THE MORPHOLOGICAL ADJECTIVE.....	62
3.1. AIM.....	62
3.2. THE MORPHOLOGY OF THE ADJECTIVE.....	65
3.2.1. THE CLASS PREFIX.....	65
3.2.2. THE ADJECIVAL STEM.....	68
3.2.2.1. SEMANTIC CLASSIFICATION.....	68
3.2.2.2. SUFFIXES.....	73
3.2.2.3. REDUPLICATION OF ADJECTIVE STEM.....	77
3.2.3. MORPHOLOGICAL STRUCTURE OF THE ADJECTIVE.....	79
3.2.4. TRANSPOSITION.....	81
3.2.5. COMPOUND NOUNS WITH ADJECTIVE.....	84
3.3. THE ADJECTIVAL PHRASE.....	85
3.4. DISTRIBUTION OF THE ADJECTIVE.....	86
3.4.1. COMPLEMENT OF A NOUN.....	86
3.4.2. COMPLEMENT OF A PREPOSITION.....	88
3.4.3. COMPLEMENT OF COPULATIVE VERB.....	91
3.5. COMPARISON.....	92
3.6. EXCLAMATIONS.....	93
3.7. CONCLUSION.....	94

CHAPTER 4

4. THE DESCRIPTIVE POSSESSIVE.....	96
4.1. AIM.....	97
4.2. THE NOUN PHRASE.....	97
4.2.1. THE DESCRIPTIVE PART IS THE HEAD OF THE NOUN PHRASE.....	97
4.2.1.1. GROUPS.....	98
4.2.1.2. COLLECTION.....	103
4.2.1.3. HEAPS.....	104
4.2.1.4. BUNDLES.....	106

4.2.1.5.	GATHERING.....	109
4.2.1.6.	SERIES.....	110
4.2.1.7.	QUANTITY.....	112
4.2.1.8.	STATES.....	117
4.2.1.9.	ANIMALS.....	121
4.2.2.	THE DESCRIPTIVE PART IS THE COMPLEMENT OF THE POSSESSIVE -a-.....	123
4.2.2.1.	THE DESCRIPTIVE PART IS AN NP.....	123
4.2.2.2.	THE DESCRIPTIVE PART IS A LOCATIVE.....	146
4.2.2.3.	THE DESCRIPTIVE PART INDICATE TIME.....	148
4.2.2.4.	THE DESCRIPTIVE PART INDICATE AN EVENT.....	149
4.2.2.5.	THE DESCRIPTIVE PART INDICATE GENDER.....	151
4.3.	CONCLUSION.....	153
 CHAPTER 5		
5.	CONCLUSION.....	155
	BIBLIOGRAPHY.....	159

CHAPTER 1

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The main aim of this study is to explore the interpretation of the adjective and to establish a set of criteria for the adjectival category in order to differentiate it from other categories in Tshivenda sentence constructions, i.e. to establish a set of criteria that can determine the identity or non-identity of adjectives from words belonging to other categories like nouns, verb and many others.

A brief outline is provided at the outset of the views on the adjective of linguists such as Bhat, Dixon and Jones. Bhat details prototype and certain multiple criteria whereas Dixon points out seven different semantic types under which the adjectives can be grouped.

The criteria indicated which are generally used to differentiate adjectives from other categories are semantic prototypes which differ from language to language.

The item can function in ATTRIBUTIVE position: the N

The item can function in PRIDICATIVE position following the intensive verb SEEM: The N seemed

The item can be premodified by the intensifier **very**.

Morphological adjectives are marked by a noun class prefix on the adjectival stem. The prefix agrees in class with the noun to which it refers.

1.	Class	prefix	stem
	1	mu-	-hulu.
	7	tshi-	-hulu

Adjective used attributively in Tshivenda usually appear after the noun:

1. Tshifhato tshihulu
(The big building)

When they are used predicatively, they occur in copulative constructions and not as nominal modifiers.

2. Goloi [ndi [tseta]
(The car is grey)

But this is a case where adjectives occur as specifiers in Tshivenda. This occurs in emphasis:

3. [Mulapfu munna] o farwa.
(The tall man is arrested)

The item can be premodified by the intensifier **very**. The suffix [-sa] in Tshivenda when used with the adjectival stem, conveys the meaning of augmentation:

4. Muri mulapfusa.
(A very tall tree)

Kholomo khulusa.

(A very big cow)

It is also indicated by the reduplication of adjective stem:

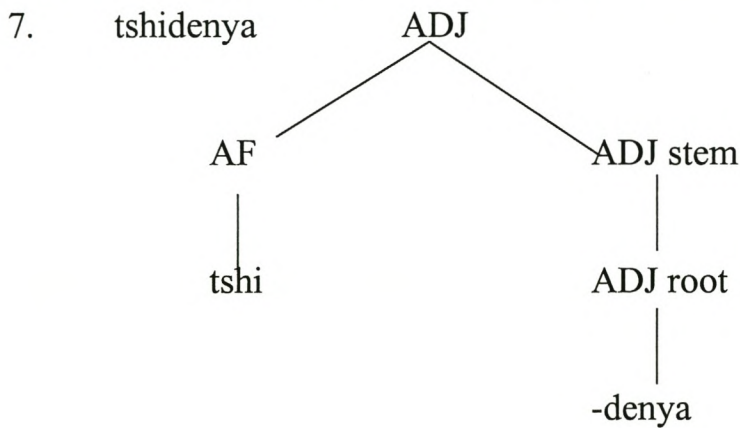
5. Munna muhulu-hulu o tshipa n̄wana.

(A very big man raped the child)

N̄wana mutuku-tuku o fariwa.

(A very small child was arrested)

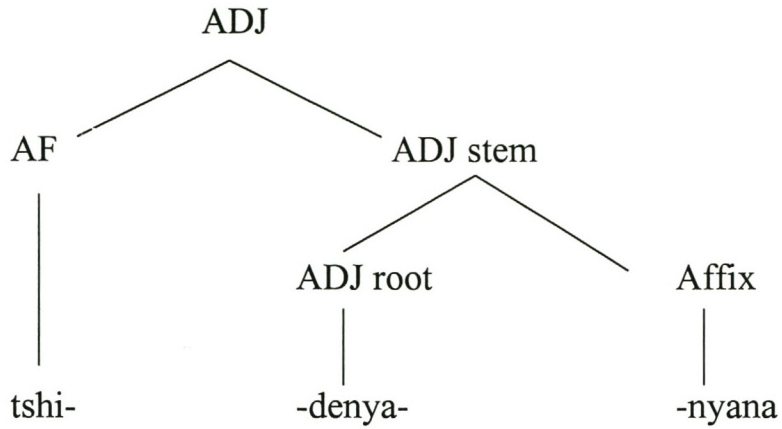
The morphological adjective may appear with the following structure:



With a diminutive suffix:

8. tshidenyanyana

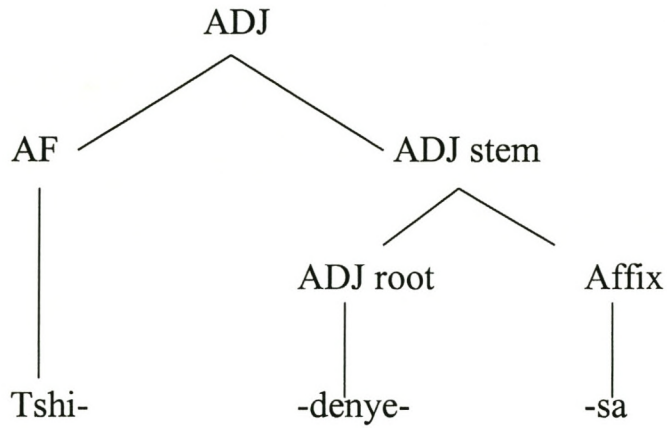
Class	prefix	stem	affix
7	tshi-	-denya-	-nyana.



With the morpheme [-sa]

9. tshidenyesa

Class	prefix	stem	affix
7	tshi-	-denye-	-sa.



Adjective can be derived from other word categories:

Adjective become a noun:

10. **denya** (thick) **vhudenya**

Adjective become adverb:

11. **thihi** (one) **luthihi**

Adjective become verb:

12. **nu** (wet) **nukala**

Adjective may occur with nouns to form compounds:

- | | | | | | |
|-----|--------|---|-----------|---|------------------|
| 13. | noun | + | adjective | > | compound |
| | Lufu- | + | -luvhi | > | lufuluvhi |
| | Mbilu- | + | -mmbi | > | mbilummbi |

Adjective as nominal modifiers appear as specifier or complement of the noun in subject position.

14. **Ṃwana mutuku** o wa.
(A small child has fallen)

as specifier of noun

15. **mutuku** ṁwana o wa.
(A small child has fallen)

with an empty head:

16. **mutuku** o wa.
(The small has fallen)

Adjective also appear as complement of noun in the object position:

17. Munna o renga goloi **thukhu**.
(The man has bought a small car)

Munna o renga **thukhu**.
(The man has bought a small one)

Adjective as nominal modifier, appear freely as complement of preposition:

An instrumental [nga]:

18. Musidzana u tshea [nga [lufhanga lulapfu]]
(The girl cuts with a long knife)

An associative [na]:

19. Mutukana u tshimbila [na [musadzi mulapfu]]
(The boy walks with a tall woman)

The locative [kha]

20. Vele u shuma [kha [muḍi muhulu]]
(Vele works in a big house)

Adjective occur as complement of copular verb

21. Mutukana [ndi [mulapfu]]
(The boy is tall)

Arali rokho [i [tshena] ndi yanga]

(If the dress is white is mine)

Comparison with sa or kha:

22. Vele ndi muhulu kha Maemu.

(Vele is older than Maemu)

Mvuvhu ndi khulu sa tshugulu.

(Hippopotamus is big as rhino)

There are other cases where adjectives modify selective nouns:

23. Mutshelo mugaga.

(Raw fruit)

The word **mugaga** strictly modifies the fruit. It is ungrammatical if it modifies **muroho**.

24. *Muroho mugaga.

Adjective in wordnet provides different ways to express qualificative. For example, if knife alone is not adequate to select the particular knife a speaker has in mind a more specific explanation can produced. Adjective may be expressed in different ways in relative clauses:

25. (a) Lufhanga [lu re nduni]
(Knife in the room)
- (b) Lufhanga [lu [no tshea]
(Knife which cuts)
- (c) Lufhanga [lune [lwa tshea]
(Knife which cuts)
- (d) Lufhanga [lu [tsheaho]
(Knife which cuts)

Syntactic evidence relates to the fact that different categories of words have different distributions. Adjective can not be identified by looking at it in isolation, because the form of word does not necessary indicate its syntactic function. There is a case where certain words are on the borderline between the adjective and other word categories.

25. Zwiliwa zwavhuḍi zwo fhela (adjective)
(Nice food has finished)

U dzhaiva zwavhuḍi (adverb)
(He dances well)

- (b) Musadzi vhukuma ndi wanga (adjective)
(A real wife is mine)

The descriptive possessive may appear as a semantic adjective in noun phrases which is a complement of a noun. A noun phrase may also appear as complement of a possessive [a] which has no possessive meaning. In the second place, the descriptive part or the semantic adjectives in the NP is not always a complement of possessive –a-, but it may be the head of the noun phrase.

It will be indicated that the descriptive part is the head of a noun phrase. The head noun may have the following semantic features: group of people, group of animals, group of insects, collections, heaps, bundles and many other groups which will be discussed in Chapter 4. Different examples and structures will be given where the descriptive part is the complement of the possessive [-a-]

The descriptive part is an Np and it will be the second N which is the complement of –a-:

26. Lufo lwa [thanda]
(Wooden spoon)

Lufhanga [lwa [tsimbi]
(Steel knife)

The descriptive part is also the head of the noun phrase, where it may indicate location, time, event and gender.

The study of Tshivenda adjective will be conducted within the general framework of the Government-Binding (GB) theory of generative grammar, of which the main principles will be directly outlined below:

1.1 GOVERNMENT THEORY

Government theory relates to the (sisterhood) relation between the lexical head of a phrase and the categories that is subcategories. A lexical head governs its complement in the phrase of which it is the head. Government of any lexical head is from left to right with the exception of (INFL) where government occurs from right to left.

Haegeman (1994:135) defines government as follows:

Government could be defined as a relationship of mutual c-command.

A govern B if and only if

- (i) A is a governor; and
- (ii) A C-commands B and B C-commands A

Sells (1985:40) defines it as follows:

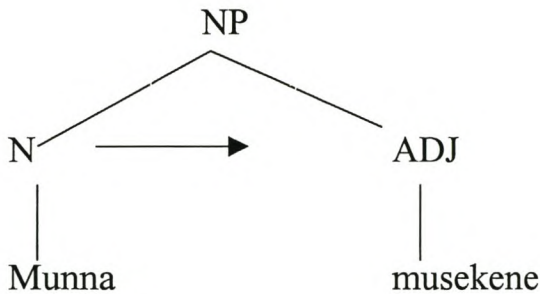
- α governs β
- (a) α c-commands β
 - (b) α is an x^0 , i.e., $\alpha \in \{N, V, P, A, INFL\}$ and
 - (c) every maximal projection dominating β dominates α :

The list of governors includes the lexical categories nouns, verbs, adjectives and preposition, i.e. everything that can be the head of a phrase. A lexical head governs the categories for which it subcategories.

Government is a more restricted version of c-command in that only certain elements are allowed to govern (lexical heads) and these can only govern as far as their complement, but no further.

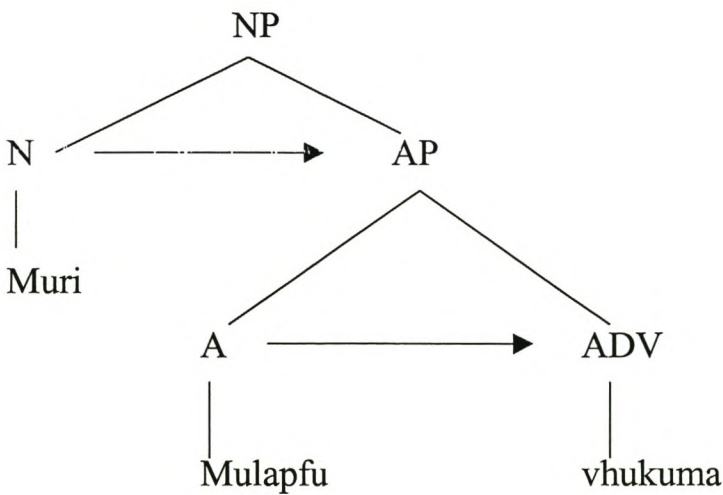
The following diagrams are relevant to the above definitions:

28.



NP is the governing category of N and ADJ.

29.



NP is the governing category of N and AP.

N and AP are sisters. AP is the governing category of A and ADV.

Case theory

Case theory deals with the spreading of NPs in a sentence. When a noun phrase is governed by any lexical head, we get case. Case in some languages (including English and African languages) is not expressed morphologically while in others it is expressed morphologically.

Sells (1985:52) define case as follows:

Case theory is responsible for determining in large part of the distribution of NPs and possibly other maximal projection too.

Haegeman (1994:155) defines case as follows:

Case theory accounts for some of the formal properties of overt NPs and integrates the traditional notion of case into the grammar.

Case theory deals with the principles of case assignment to constituents.

In the context of GB the essential point is that there can be no case-making without government, ungoverned positions can not receive case.

Cowper (1992:99) defines case as follows:

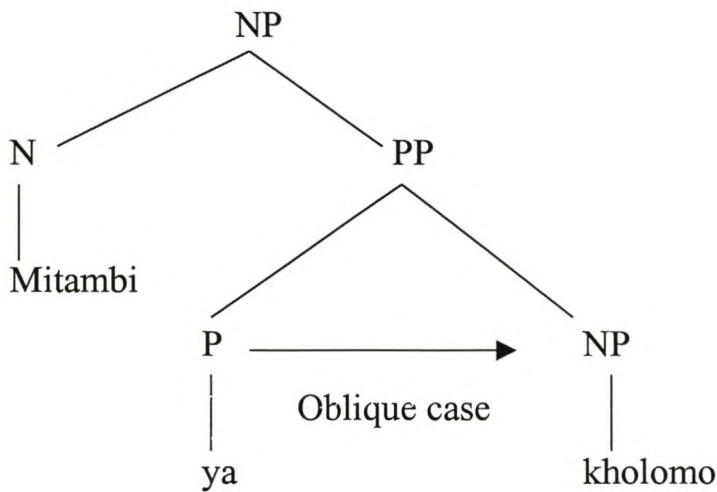
The case filter NP, where NP has a phonological matrix but no case.

If some NP fails to be assigned case, or more strictly, fails to be in a position to which case is assigned then the structure is ruled ungrammatical.

Principle of case assignment

- (i) NP is assigned nominative case if governed by AgrS (of Inflection)
- (ii) NP is assigned accusative (i.e. if it occurs as object of a transitive verb.
- (iii) NP is assigned oblique case if governed by P (preposition).
- (iv) NP is assigned locative case if governed by locative preposition **kha** in Tshivenda and NP is assigned locative case by the locative morphology (-ni in Tshivenda).
- (v) NP is assigned genitive case if governed by [a]

30.



NP is governed by P in the structure (30): oblique case is assigned.

1.2 ORGANISATION OF STUDY

Chapter 1: deals with the introduction of the study.

Chapter 2: deals with the semantics of the adjective, previous studies on the adjective, criteria for adjectives, semantic prototype, morphological evidence and syntactic evidence.

Chapter 3: deals with the morphological adjective.

Chapter 4: is concerned with the descriptive possessive.

Chapter 5: gives the conclusions.

CHAPTER 2

2. THE SEMANTIC ADJECTIVE

2.1. AIM

The aim of this section is to establish the criteria to characterize the adjective and to differentiate it from other word categories like verbs, nouns and adverbs in the case of Tshivenda in which adjectives form a distinct category.

It will also be the aim to promote a view of the adjective category as an interesting object of inquiry rather than simply a set of rules to be learnt and applied.

It will be indicated how four criteria are generally used to define this class in Tshivenda and to differentiate adjectives from other categories with semantic prototypes which differ from language to language.

Two other issues will also be investigated:

To show that adjectives may belong to more than one category and that it is not easy to identify it by looking at it in isolation.

To give an account of previous views of different linguists concerning the adjectives as a category.

2.2. PREVIOUS STUDIES ON THE ADJECTIVE

An adjective can be defined as a word which modifies a noun that prototypically denotes visible or tangible objects. It is a word added to a noun in order to describe or to limit it.

Quirk et al (1972:231) emphasize the fact that an adjective can not be identified as an isolated word, which means that the form of a word does not necessarily indicate its syntactic function.

An item may belong to more than one class in the following ways:

- (31) A round of golf (noun)
They round the corner (verb)
A round object (adjective)
He come round to see us (adverb)

They also characterize adjective with four features:

- (a) They can freely occur in attribute position.
- (b) They can freely occur in predicative position, i.e they can function as subject complement.
- (c) They can be premodified by intensifier 'very'
- (d) They can take comparative and superlative forms.

According to them adjectives and adverbs are similar in having the same function of modification, but they are different concerning the kind of lexical items that they modify.

Milubi N.A (1987:85-86) views adjectives as words which qualify nouns or pronouns e.g

(32)	Adjective		adjectival concord		adjectival stem
	litaluli		liimela la litaluli		livhumbi la litaluli
	litaluli		liimela la litaluli		livhumbi la litaluli
(a)	muhulu	>	mu-		-hulu
(b)	tshidala	>	tshi-		-dala

Mathivha M.E.R et al (38) point out that an adjective is a word which qualify a thing or describe the colour or the length or the quantity etc.

According to them the structure of adjectives can be recognised through an agreement morpheme which is exactly the same as the prefix of the head noun and an adjectival stem or the verb stem ending in **-ho** or the concordial element, and the possessive stem which is, in fact a noun.

(33) Munna a shuma-ho o swika.
(The man who works has arrived)

(34) Mmbwa ya vhuhali yo fa.
(The brave dog has died)

Bhat (1994:1-12) gives a set of criteria in order to characterize the adjectival categories like nouns, verbs and adverbs in the case of languages in which adjectives occur.

He also established sets of criteria which can determine the identity or non-identity of adjectives (property words with words belonging to other categories like noun). Adjectives differ from nouns and verbs in their morphosyntactic properties.

He considered a definition which says that an adjective is a word which shows properties or qualities to be inadequate because there are other nouns which denote properties such as **whiteness** and **height**. He gives the work of different linguists for the notion of prototypicality. For example, Dixon (1982:3) divides adjectives into seven different semantic types.

Crystal (14) groups adjectives according to four characteristic features as done by Quirk et al.

Jones (1996:310) emphasizes the point given by Quirk. He sees adjective and adverbs as lexical categories which have similar functions. While adjectives are used to modify nouns, adverbs act as modifiers of other categories (Principal verb). He deals with types of adjectives which are adnominal and predicative. Adjective can be used in two basic ways as modifies of a noun and as complement of copular verb.

Radford (1997:37-43) suggests that a grammatical category is a class of expressions which share a common set of grammatical properties e.g adjectives like tall, hot, narrow etc.

They can take comparative and superlative, the prefix and suffixes can be attached to them. He shows syntactic evidence which relates to the fact that

different categories of words have different distributions, they occupy a different range of positions within phrases. Example in the use of **very** (in the sense of extremely): It only occurs with adjective or adverb:

(35) He walks very fast (adjective)

He walks very fastly (adverb)

He drove the car slow (adjective)

He drove the car slowly (adverb)

2.3. CRITERIA FOR ADJECTIVES

2.3.1. INTRODUCTION

Bhat's view (1994:11-12)

Adjectives are quite different from nouns and verbs in several languages including Tshivenda. The issue in different languages is the exact nature of this distinction, and the criteria that can be used for defining or describing it.

Traditionally adjectives are defined as words that show properties or qualities and are differentiated from nouns and verbs by the fact that nouns denote persons, places and things, and verbs denote events or actions. Such knowledge of this definition has been considered to be inadequate because there are other nouns which denote properties such as whiteness or height.

Adjectives differ from nouns and verbs by their morphosyntactic properties. In other languages including Tshivenda it is possible to use degree modifiers with adjectives but not with nouns and verbs.

Adjectives do not show tense, aspect and mood distinctions. When occurring as referring expressions adjectives tend to neutralize the number distinction and similarly while occurring as predicate they require an auxiliary support.

Morphosyntactic characteristics are not shown by all the lexical items that belong to the adjectival category, for example degree modification is not allowed by all of them and some of these characteristics may not be available in some languages, for example inflection is not present in some languages.

Some linguists suggested the third approach in order to differentiate between adjectives and other categories like noun and verb.

One must make use of their function in syntax or discourse.

For example, in English where adjectives occur primarily as modifiers of noun in noun phrases whereas nouns and verbs occur primarily as heads of noun phrases.

There is a problem where there are lexical items which are in the borderline cases, that is where the lexical items do not show the same tendencies of occurrence in adjectives, adverb and noun. For example, the word **ablaze** is on the borderline between the adjective and adverb classes in English (Quirk et al 1992:234):

Some are restricted and occur in only one of them whereas others occur in two or all three of them.

There is also a problem of languages in which these primary functions are not properly distinguishable from one another. For example, in languages like Manipuri there is no clear-cut distinction between modification/ predication whereas in other languages like Sanskrit the distinction between modification and reference is left unspecified.

Languages like Mundari and Squamish would fail to provide any basis for a functional approach of the above type in which adjectives are differentiated from other lexical items because the function of reference does not appear as the property of a major word class of nouns but rather of a minor class of personal affixes.

It is difficult to differentiate adjectives from other categories due to their failure to be general enough to be applicable to all languages and due to their failure to account for variations inside word classes.

2.3.2. PROTOTYPE

Bhat observes the following in prototype:

Several linguists have been arguing in order to resolve the first problem mentioned in their criteria for adjectives. According to them the classical theory of categorization need to be thrown away.

Lakoff (1987:39): Lexical categories like nouns, verbs and adjectives do not appear to support such a claim. They show internal variations concerning the type of meaning they express, the type of morphosyntactic characteristics they manifest and the type of function in which they occur.

Rosch et al (1978) developed prototype theory. Such a theory of categorization would be more suitable than the classic one for defining and characterizing lexical categories in language. Human categorization, according to this prototype theory, proceeds from central to peripheral instances.

Things are grouped according to super-ordinate and subordinate level. For example, lexical items like chair, car, dog can be regarded as basic which are subordinate whereas lexical items like furniture, vehicle, mammal are super-ordinates. Many linguists list very few attributes of category members at super-ordinate level.

Relevance of this notion of prototype for characterization of adjectives can be concluded from Dixon whose study on adjectives is based upon data from seventeen different languages.

He divides adjectives into seven semantic types and points out the following four, namely Dimension, age, value and colour which are associated with an adjectival category, languages that have only a limited class of adjectives include at least four types of concepts however small the class of adjectives may be, semantic types like physical property, Human propensity and speed are included in other categories like verbs, nouns and adverbs respectively.

According to Croft (1991:272) when faced with internal variability it can maintain such a position only by severing the link between a universal grammatical concept and particular grammatical construction that manifest it.

He argues that only a functional approach would be able to make use of the prototype theory.

McCawley (1982:177): the problem of internal variability of word class has led to two different approaches in generative grammar. The first one, put forth by interpretive “semanticists” like Jackendoff 1992, is to take items that are treated as different categories, the second one put forth by “generative semanticists” like Ross (1969), is to take items that are treated alike by a transformation as belonging to the same category.

He points out that the former approach leads to profusion of categories whereas the latter approach leads to paucity of categories.

2.3.3. MULTIPLE CRITERIA

Bhat points out that adjectives are defined as a distinct category and to differentiate them from other categories is their failure to be general enough to apply to all languages. None of those various criteria that have been proposed by different scholars for characterizing it appear to be general enough to cover all languages. This issue can be resolved by using several of those criteria at the same time in characterization of adjectives.

Various criteria reveal that most of them are interconnected, they form a unified system of explanation. Several scholars have recognized multiple criteria for a proper characterization of categories.

Lakoff (1987) points out that categorization does not depend upon the nature of the existence that are being recognized, but also upon the needs,

experiences and motivation of human beings who establish the categories. Some linguists consider semantic features to be inadequate for categorization. They claim that “prototypicality” in linguistic categories depends not only on independent semantic properties but also on function in the discourse. They claim that there are contexts in which the two notions conflict with one another, and in such context, languages favour sentential function against the lexical content.

Croft (1991:93) also considers the major syntactic categories of noun, verb and adjective in terms of two independent but prototypically correlated parameters, the semantic class of the lexical item and pragmatic function. Adjectives can be defined in terms of their belonging, prototypically to the semantic class of properties and they are having modification (of noun) as the primary (categorial) function.

Parameters of syntactic categories

	Noun	Adjective	Verb
Semantic class	Object	Property	Action
Pragmatic function	Reference	modification	Predication

2.4. SEMANTIC PROTOTYPES

2.4.1. DIXON

Adjectives can be differentiated from nouns by the fact that there is a semantic prototype which forms the central concept for this category and contrasts with the semantic prototype of nouns. This is the approach described in Dixon

(1982), where he takes a field-descriptive perspective on the taxonomic classification of adjectives.

He establishes seven different semantic types under which the adjectives can be grouped, on the basis of both semantic as well as morphosyntactic criteria. He adds three more semantic types and this gives the total of the following ten adjectival semantic types. Eight of them appear readily in Tshivenda.

(36) Semantic types		Examples
1. Dimention	-	big, great, short
2. Physical property	-	hard, strong, sick
3. Speed	-	quick, fast, slow
4. Age	-	new, old, young
5. Color	-	white, grey, black
6. Value	-	good, bad, strange
7. Difficult	-	easy, tough, simple
8. Qualification	-	possible, normal
9. Human propensity	-	angry, happy
10. Similarity	-	like, unlike, similar

He claims that in language that have the major class of adjective, the semantic content of the class is fairly constant from language to language. For example, English adjectives normally would be translated by adjective in the Australian language Dyrbal and vice versa.

In languages that have only a limited class of adjectives there is considerable similarity in the concepts that are expressed through adjectives languages

which have very few members of an adjective class have the following semantic type: age, dimension, value and color. For example, Igbo with a closed class of eight adjectives, has two each of:

Age (old, new)

Dimension (large, small)

Color (white, black)

Value (good, bad)

2.4.2. ADJECTIVE IN WORDNET

Wordnet classify adjectives into two classes: ascriptive and nonascriptive. An ascriptive adjective is one that ascribes a value of an attribute to a noun. Ascriptive adjectives that do not have direct antonyms have indirect antonyms.

Every known language has open classes of words such as nouns and verbs but not every language has an open class of adjectives.

Schachter (1985) has discussed languages that have only a small closed class of adjectives as well as languages that have no adjectives at all, in which the meanings that adjectives express are conveyed by nouns or verbs functioning as modifiers. In other words, what is universal is not adjectives but some linguistic means to modify, modulate or elaborate the meaning of noun and verb components.

English syntax provides different ways to express qualification. For example, a chair can be qualified as follows: by using adjective (**large chair**), or with a

locative prepositional phrase (**chair by the window**) or with a relative clause (**chair that you are sitting on**), or with a compound noun (**armchair**). There are two kinds of modifiers: those that modify nouns are called adjectives and those that modify anything else are called adverbs.

Presently wordnet contain approximately 12,000 adjective word forms organized into approximately 10,500 word meanings, but no adverbs. Many adverbs are derived from adjectives by adding only a suffix. The semantic organization of adverbs closely parallels that of adjectives.

Edward Sapir (1944) points out that many adjectives take on different meanings when they modify different nouns. For example, the word **tall** indicates one range of height for a building, tree and for a person. There is a range of expected values for the attribute height. Adjectives express values of relational attributes i.e, attributes with respect to which comparisons can be drawn.

Ascriptive adjectives

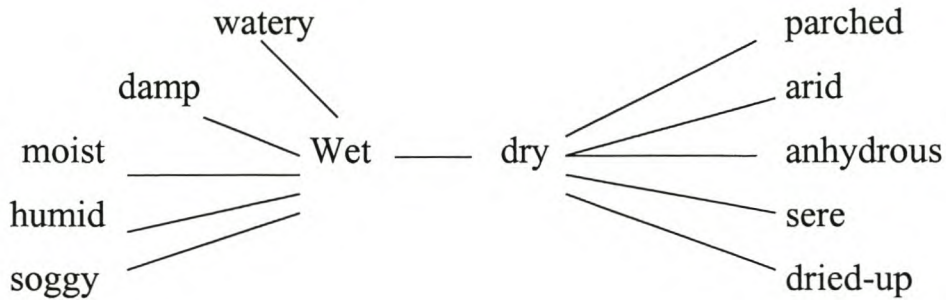
An ascriptive adjective is one that ascribe a value of an attribute to a noun. the basic semantic relation among ascriptive adjective is antonym. The importance of antonym in the organization of ascriptive adjectives is understandable when the function of these adjectives is to express values of attributes.

Ascriptive adjectives that do not have direct antonyms are said to have indirect antonyms. Antonyms express opposing values of an attribute. For example, the antonym of **heavy** is **light**, which expresses a value at the opposite pole of the weight attribute.

In wordnet, this binary opposition is represented by reciprocal labelled pointers **heavy!** → **light** and **light** → **heavy**.

Wordnet consist of direct antonym and indirect antonym which are inherited through similarity e.g.

(37)



The above structure indicates the words **wet** and **dry** as direct antonyms whereas the word **damp** is similar to **wet** but it has indirect antonyms i.e synonyms of adjectives that have direct antonyms.

Nonascriptive adjective

Nonascriptive mean something like 'of', pertaining to or associated with (some noun) and they modify nouns. Nonascriptive adjective can be conjoined with nouns, they can not be nominalized. They do not have direct antonyms and like noun are not gradable (An electrical instrument).

An electrical instrument is not an instrument that is electrical but an instrument used in electricity. The meaning may vary even more depending on the noun being modified than in the case of ascriptive. The border between ascriptive and nonascriptive adjectives cannot be sharply drawn.

e.g chemical can be used predicatively in some contexts (the reaction is chemical) but not others (* the engineer is chemical).

Gradation

Gradation is a degree in development. Most adjectives are gradable, that is to say, can be modified by adverbs which convey the degree of intensity of the adjective such as **very, extremely**

Examples of some graded adjectives:

(38)	Size	Whiteness	Warmth
	very large	snowy	torrid
	astronomical	white	hot
	huge	ash-gray	warm
	large	gray	tepid
	standard	charcoal	cool
	small	black	cold
	tiny	pitch-black	frigid

Gradability include comparison. For example, tall, taller, tallest.

Markedness

Markedness is a phenomenon that characterizes nearly all direct antonyms.

The antonyms (big) – (small) shows a general linguistic phenomenon known as markedness. An unmarked adjective takes measure phrases and marked adjectives do not take measure phrases.

For example:

- (39) a. The length of a tree is 3 metres.
b. The shortness of a tree is 2 metres.

The example (39)a above is acceptable but unmarked whereas example (39)b is unacceptable but marked.

Markedness has not been coded in wordnet. It has been indicated that the marked member of a pair is obvious and does not need an expressed indicator.

Colour adjectives

Ascriptive adjectives does not hold for colour adjectives. Only one colour attribute is clearly described by direct antonyms: **Light/ dark** or **white/ black**, both of which are coded in wordnet.

Students of colour vision can produce evidence of oppositions between **red** and **green**, and between **yellow** and **blue**, but those are not treated as direct antonyms. In wordnet, the opposition chromatic/ achromatic is used to introduce the name of colours. Chromatic colors are coded as similar to chromatic, and the shades of gray from white to black are coded as similar to achromatic with a cross-reference to the white/ black cluster.

Selectional preferences

Adjectives modify selective nouns: This clearly show that adjectives vary widely in their breadth of application.

For example, a building or a person can be tall because all these have height as an attribute, but streets and stories do not have height, so tall street, river and story do not admit literal reading.

Adjective expressing evaluations (good/ bad, clean/ dirty, desirable/ undesirable) can modify almost any noun; those expressing activity (active/ passive, fast/ slow, strong/ weak, brave/ cowardly) also have wide ranges of applicability.

Coding

Ascriptive adjective is coded by organizing them into double cluster. The cluster for **wet/ dry** which define the attribute wetness or moistness, illustrate the basic coding devices used, and shows the variety and range of senses that can be represented within a cluster:

- (40) WET: watery, damp, moist, humid, soggy etc.
DRY: parched, arid, anhydrous, sere, dried up etc.

2.4.3. JONES 1996

Adnominal and predicative

Jones' (1996) views are as follows:

Adjectives and adverbs have similar functions- while adjectives are used to modify nouns, adverbs act as modifiers of other categories (principally verbs).

Adjectives can be used as modifiers of a noun or as complements of copular verbs.

For example, in French:

- (41) (a) un livre interessant.
(b) le petit chat.

- (a) Ce livre est interessant.
- (b) Ce chat est petit.

According to Jones adjectives can be used adnominal (i.e occurring with the noun) and predicative (i.e forming part of the predicate or VP).

When adjective is used adnominally, it usually provides the particular existence which the speaker has in mind whereas adjective used predicatively say something about existence which has already been identified. Adnominal will be distinguished as post-nominal whereas predicative is distinguished as pre-nominal as indicated in examples (41)a and (41)b above respectively.

Gradability

Jones states that most adjectives are gradable. Gradable adjectives can be accompanied by degree modifiers and describe properties which can be possessed by different degrees. All gradable adjectives are 'relative' to some degree (e.g the norm for **intelligent** may be different for human beings than for other animals.)

An adjective like **excellent** which referred to an intrinsically superlative property. Adjectives like, petit, grand, gros, long court etc represent a subclass of gradable adjectives which are here referred to as relative.

Classification and argumental adjectives

Many non-gradable adjectives belong to a class which will be called classificatory indicated below:

- (42) (Financier 'pertaining to money/ finance,' social 'pertaining to societ etc)

These adjectives are typically derived from nouns.

Class of adjectives which have a similar noun-like status is indicated below, where the adjectives have an argument function, denoting participants in the action of event: Example in French:

- (43) (a) a victoire gaulliste.
(b) un decret minsteñiel.

‘Intensional’ adjectives

This type of adjective do not describe properties of the person or thing indicated by the noun, but they modify the meaning of the noun.

e.g in French:

- (44) (a) Un bon menteur
(b) Un gros buveur.

In example (44a, b) above, the adjectives describe the manner of an activity which forms part of the definition of the noun – e.g **‘Someone who lies well,’** **‘someone who drinks heavily.’**

This type of examples are more widespread in English than in French: e.g a **slow writer** can not be translated as ***un ecrivain lent**, but must be rendered by an expression like **quelgu’ un qui ecrit lentement**.

Attitudinal adjectives

Attitudinal adjectives do not describe definable properties, but convey an attitude towards the thing referred to (e.g irritation in these dratted mosquitos).

In English there are few like **dratted, blasted, blooming** etc. But there are few adjectives in French which can be used in this way.

Specificational adjectives

Specificational adjectives can also be used as determiners. There are two major subtypes: Those which express quantity. The quantity class includes all the cardinal number, like million. Specificational adjectives help to identify which member of the class described by the noun is being referred to and they include ordinal numbers.

e.g. (45) Premier, deuxieme.

2.4.4. RADFORD 1997

Morphological evidence

Radford defines a grammatical category as a class of expressions which share a common set of grammatical properties.

The following words which belong to grammatical adjective category (i.e. tall, hot, narrow, old, wise and sad) can share a number of grammatical properties in common. For example, they can take the comparative + er suffix i.e. **tall taller tallest**.

Particular derivational affixes can only be attached to words belonging to a particular category. For example, prefixes **-un+** and **-in+** can be attached to adjectives to form corresponding negative adjective (c.f pairs such as **happy/unhappy, correct/incorrect** and **flexible/inflexible**).

Syntactic evidence

Syntactic evidence relates to the fact that different categories of words have different range of positions within phrases.

For example, the use of **very** (in the sense of extremely) It only occurs with adjective or adverb.

- (46) (a) He is **very** fast (adjective)
(b) He walks **very** fast (adverb)
(c) ***Very** fools waist time (noun)

The word **very** can be used to modify adjectives/ adverbs which by virtue of their meaning are gradable. Adjectives (but not adverbs) can serve as the complement of the verb **be** (i.e can be used after **be**):

They are very **tall/ pretty/ kind/ nice**.

Another way of differentiating between an adjective like **real** and adverb like **really** in syntactic terms is that adjectives are used to modify nouns, whereas adverbs are used to modify other types of expression:

- (47) (a) He is really nice (really + adjective)
(b) He walks really slowly (really + adverb).

The word **known** in an expression such as a **known criminal** in an expression seems to function as an (attributive) adjective and it has a negative un + counterpart (cf expressions like the tomb of the unknown warrior).

The substitution technique to differentiate between comparative adjectives and adverbs ending in **+er** can be used, since they have identical forms.

- (48) (a) He is better at French than you (adjective)
(b) He speaks French better than you (adverbs)

Functional categories

Adjectives and determiners are syntactically distinct in a variety of ways, in respect of their distribution. Determiners and adjectives can be used together to modify a noun, but when they do so any determiner modifying the noun has to precede any adjective(s) modifying the noun.

- (49) My nice new car.

It is already noted that nouns like car have the property of countable.

- (50) (a) one car
(b) two cars.

A singular count noun like car can not stand on its own as a complete noun expression, it can be premodified by an adjective like comfortable, rather a singular count noun requires a premodifying determiner and it stands to be restricted to modifying nouns which have specific number/ countability properties. But adjectives like nice, simple, comfortable, modern can be used to modify all three types of nominal.

- (51) We need a **nice, simple, comfortable modern** car.

2.4.5. QUIRK et al 1979

Characteristic of the adjectives

These linguists differentiate adjectives from other categories by giving characteristics of them. Adjectives can not be identified by looking at it in isolation because the form of a word does not necessarily indicate its syntactic function.

An item may belong to more than one class. The word round can be used in the following ways:

- (52) (a) A **round** of golf (noun).
(b) They **round** the corner (verb).
(c) A **round** object (adjective).
(d) He came **round** to see us (adverb).
(e) They sat **round** the table (preposition).

There are four features which are considered to be characteristic of adjectives:

They can freely occur in attribute position i.e they can premodify a noun.

- (53) (a) The **short** man.
(b) The **angry** child.

An adjective can freely occur in predicative position i.e they can function as subject complement.

A language like English requires an auxiliary verb to be associated with the adjectives in order to show tense, aspect and mood distinctions.

- (54) (a) The man seemed **old**.
(b) The blanket is **wet**.
(c) The girl is **thin**.
(d) Their house seemed **ablaze**.

They can be premodified by intensifier very and take comparative and superlative forms. This type of adjectives are gradable that is to say, which can be modified by adverbs which convey the degree of intensity of adjective.

- (55) (a) The children are **very** happy.
(b) This boy is **very** short.

They can take comparative and superlative forms:

- (56) (a) The children are **happier** now.
(b) They are the **happiest** people I know.
(c) These students are **more intelligent**.
(d) They are the **most beautiful** paintings I have ever seen.

According to Quirk, not all words that are traditionally regarded as adjectives possess all of the above four features.

Words can belong to more than one class, we place them in the context of a sentence, so that it should be clear which use of the words is being tested. However, there are certain words which are on borderline cases, e.g **ablaze** is on the borderline between the adjective and adverb classes.

- (57) (a) John is **hungry**.
(b) The universe is **infinite**.
(c) Bob is an **utter** fool.
(d) Their house is **ablaze**.

The words **hungry**, **infinite**, **utter** are adjectives while **ablaze** is on the borderline.

Adjectives are distinguished positively by their ability to function attributively and their ability to function predicatively after intensive verbs including **seem**.

Quirk, in his work compares adjectives and other word-classes like adjective and adverb, adjective and noun and adjective and participle.

Adjective and adverbs

There are some words which are on a borderline as indicated in 57(d) above. Adjectives and adverbs are similar in having the same function of modification but they differ concerning the kind of lexical items that they modify. They have common semantic and syntactic characteristics as well. The purpose of the adjective is to modify the meaning of the head noun in order to identify a specific individual or object whereas the purpose of adverb

is to provide certain additional information about the action that the verb denotes.

In some languages adverbs are closely attached to verbs whereas adjectives occur as detached optional entities in noun phrases.

- (58) (a) The patient was **asleep** (adjective).
(b) The boy is **abroad** (adverb)
- (59) (a) The patient **seemed** to be **asleep** (adverb).
(b) The boy **seemed** to be **abroad** (adverb).
- (60) (a) They **looked asleep** (adjective)
(b) They **looked away** (adverb)

There is contrast between the examples in 57, 58 a, b. With **asleep, looked** is an intensive verb, synonymous with **seemed**. With **away**, it is an intransitive verb, similar in meaning and use to **glanced**.

Some items that function as adjective are also used to define in some way the process denoted by the verb which is a typical use of adverbs . For example, **quick** in:

- (61) He came back quick.

IF in its adverbial use the item is not restricted to a position after the verb or the object, it belongs to both the adjective and adverb classes.

For example, **long** and **still**, which usually function as adjectives, are in pre-verb position in the following sentences and must thereafter be adverbs:

- (62) (a) Such animals have long had to defend themselves.
(b) They still can't make up their minds whether to go or not.

There are many cases where the adjective form and corresponding **-ly** adverb form can be used interchangeably, with little or no semantic difference.

- (63) (a) He spoke loud and clear.
(b) He spoke loudly and clearly.

- (64) (a) He drove the car slow.
(b) He drove the car slowly.

- (65) (a) She buys her clothes cheap.
(b) She buys her clothes cheaply.

There are other cases where there is no corresponding adverb form of the same lexical item, so that only the adjective form is available.

- (66) (a) He always talks **big**.
(b) They run **fast**.
(c) We finish **late** today.
(d) They will come **round**.

The adverbs lately and roundly do not correspond to the adjective form late and round in the above sentences. The adjective form, if admissible at all, is restricted to a position after the verb or the object.

- (67) (a) He **slowly** drove the car into the garage.
(b) He drove the car **slowly** into the garage.
(c) *He **slow** drove the car into the garage.

The adjective form cannot be the focus of a cleft sentence, though this is possible for some corresponding adverbs.

- (68) (a) It was **slowly** that he drove the car into the garage.
*(b) It was **slow** that he drove the car into the garage.

Quirk concluded by saying that few items that normally function as adverbs can also be used attributively, like adjectives, e.g: **the then chairman**. Some items are available to postmodify noun phrases.

Adjective and noun

According to Quirk et al, some items can be both adjectives and nouns. There are several languages in which adjectives are similar to nouns.

For example, it can be used attributively:

- (69) (a) A criminal attack.
It can be used predicatively.
(b) The attack seemed criminal to us.

But **criminal** also has all the characteristics of a noun since it can be.

- (70) (a) Subject of a clause: The criminal pleaded guilty to all charges.
- (b) Subject complement: He is probably a criminal.
- (c) Object: They arrested the criminal.
- (d) Inflected for number: One criminal, several criminals.

Noun commonly function attributively, as premodifiers of other nouns.

- (71) (a) The city council.
- (b) A stone wall.
- (c) A love poem.

Nominal character of these premodifiers is shown by their correspondence to prepositional phrases with the noun as complement.

- (72) (a) The council of the city.
- (b) A poem about love.
- (c) Weather in August.

Noun can function like adjectives predicatively after intensive verbs.

- (73) (a) That man is a fool.
- (b) The noise you heard was thunder.

Some nouns can even function both attributively and predicatively. The nouns can show material from which things are made.

- (74) (a) That concrete floor.
(b) That floor is concrete.
(c) Those kidney pies.
(d) *Those pies are kidney.

Some nouns can appear predicatively after seem, one of the diagnostic criteria for adjectives:

- (75) (a) He seems intelligent.
(b) His friends seems very much an Englishman.
(c) Your remark seems nonsense to me.

There are several languages in which adjectives are found to change from being “property word” adjectives to “thing word” noun, when used in the nominal function.

They do not refer to the property that they denote but instead to the person or thing that is considered to have that property. An adjective used as nouns like black, white, weekly and poor.

- (76) (a) A person with **black** or **white** skin.
(b) Magazine which appear **twice** weekly.
(c) A man who is **poor**.

Adjective and participle

Quirk et al compare adjective with participle in their work. According to them there are many adjectives that have the same form as participles in –ing or ed.

- (77) His views were very **surprising**.
The man **seemed** very offended.

They include forms that have no corresponding verbs:

- (78) (a) The result were unexpected.
(b) His children must be downhearted.
(c) All his friends are talented.

These adjectives can also be attributive:

- (79) (a) His surprising views.
(b) The offended man.
(c) The unexpected results.

In other cases there are corresponding verbs but the –ed participle is interpreted as passive.

- (80) (a) The escaped prisoner ('the prisoner who has escaped').
(b) The departed guests ('the guests who have departed')

The participle sometimes reaches full adjective status when it is compounded with another element, which result in the following:

- (81) (a) He is looking (at a painting) He is very good-looking.
(b) The eggs are boiled hard. The eggs are (very) hard boiled.

The difference between the adjective and participle is not clear, and lies in the verbal force retained by the latter. The verbal force is explicit for the –ing form when a direct object is present. The following –ing forms are participles that give a verb phrase with the preceding auxiliary.

- (82) (a) His views were alarming his audience.
(b) You are frightening the children.

A few adjectives are differentiated from participles by taking the –en suffix where participles with the same base have the –ed suffix shared or without suffix drunk: drunken.

2.4.6. SEMANTIC TYPES IN TSHIVENDA

The aim of this section is to establish which categories in Tshivenda may possibly appear with the meaning of an adjective, i.e as semantic adjective. Dixon distinguishes adjectives according to the general semantic field associated with the term.

2.4.7. THE MORPHOLOGICAL ADJECTIVE

The morphological adjectives in Tshivenda can be recognized through an agreement morpheme which has to be exactly the same as the prefix of the head noun and an adjectival stem. For example

(83)	Class	prefix	stem	adjective
	1	mu-	-sekene	musekene
	2	vha-	- <u>t</u> uku	vha <u>t</u> uku
	3	mu-	-dala	mudala
	4	mi-	- <u>n</u> u	mi <u>n</u> u
	5	<u>l</u> i-	-hulu	<u>l</u> ihulu
	6	ma-	-pfufhi	mapfufhi
	7	tshi-	-lala	tshilala
	8	zwi-	-denya	zwidanya

There are limited number of adjectival stem in Tshivenda. Morphological adjective can appear attributively and predicatively. This attribute position in Tshivenda does not occur as they occur in other languages like English.

(84) Tshikolo **tshihulu** ndi hetshi.

(The big school is this one)

Muri **mulapfu** wo wa.

(The tall tree has fallen)

Bugu **khulu** ndi Bivhili.
(The big book is the bible)

Rokho **thukhu** ndi ya nnyi?
(Small dress is for whom?)

Muroho **mudala** ndi wanga.
(Green relish is mine)

Tshinoni **tshituku** tsho fa.
(The small bird is dead)

Rokho **tswuku** ndi ya nnyi?
(The red dress is for whom?)

Danda **lidenya** lo swa.
(The thick wood has burnt)

Mutukana **muhulwane** u gai?
(Where is the elder boy?)

An adjective in predicative position:

According to Jones (1996) adjectives can be used predicative (i.e forming part of the predicate (or VP).

It can be used as modifiers of noun or as complement of copular verb **ndi**:

(85) Goloi ndi **tseta**.
(The car is grey)

Musidzana ndi **musekene**.
(The girl is thin)

Kholomo ndi **nnzhi**.
(The cattle are many)

Muri ndi **mulapfu**.
(The tree is tall)

Muroho ndi **mudala**.
(The relish is green)

Nguvho ndi **nnu**.
(The blanket is wet)

The morphological adjective will be dealt with in more detail in chapter 3.

2.4.8. DESCRIPTIVE POSSESSIVE

The descriptive possessives are phrases that refer to some quantity or feature other than possession or belonging. This means that they describe the noun they refer to in a way that is different to that of possessives. Noun phrases may appear as complement of possessives. Noun phrases may appear as

complement of possessive (-a) where this (-a) has no possessive meaning, i.e. where they give the meaning of adjectives.

(86) [L[^]ofo] ya vhurotho.
(A loaf of bread)

[B[^]odelo] l[^]a mafhi.
(Bottle of milk)

[Ph[^]akhethe] ya swigiri.
(Packet of sugar)

The head noun may have different semantic features:

(87) Group of people: [Tshigwada] tsha vhalwadze.
(Group of patient)

Collection: [Tshith[^]opho] tsha khuni.
(Collection of wood)

Bundle: [B[^]uto] l[^]a zwiambaro.
(Bundle of clothes)

Gathering: [Mu[^]ṭangano] wa kereke.
(Gathering of the church)

Series: [Muduba] wa vhathu.
(Line of people)

Heap: [Thulwi] ya mavu.
(Heap of soil)

Partitives: [Tshiteki] tsha nama.
(Piece of meat)

In the second place, the descriptive part or semantics adjective in the NP may be a complement of possessive –a-: The descriptive part may indicate the following:

- (88) (a) Locative: Vhathu vha [kapa]
(People of cape)
- (b) Time: Vhana vha [musalauno]
(Children of these days)
- (c) Event: Tshifhinga tsha u [vhala]
(Time of studing)
- (d) Gender: Liswole la [musadzi]
(Female soldier)

The descriptive possessive will be dealt with in detail in chapter 4.

2.4.9. RELATIVE CLAUSES

There are various relative clause which may appear as complements of noun phrases but which have the interpretation of semantic adjectives. Relative clauses are basically formed with two, namely verbs and copulative. The following relative clauses may have this function:

2.4.9.1. VERBAL RELATIVE CLAUSE

In these relative clauses, the verb in the clause is a stative verb. Relative clause contains the so called “relative verb” with a relative marker [-ho]:

- (89) Vhana vho **takalaho**.
(Happy children)

The relative clause in the above sentence is [vho-takalaho] which is based on the verb root –**takal-**.

This relative clause in Tshivenda is a so called “relative predicate”. It provides us with some additional information about the preceding noun or antecedent **vhana** in example 89 above. In Tshivenda the normal word order is “noun” (or antecedent, followed by “relative”).

- (90) Mutukana a **bvafhaho**.
(The boy who is lazy)

These verbs can be classified into different smaller categories:

(a) Size: (lapfa)

sekena

pfufhifha

denya

hula

(91) Muri wo **lapfaho**.

(The tree which is tall)

Musidzana o **sekenaho**.

(The girl who is thin)

Mukegulu o **pfufhifhaho**.

(The old woman who is short)

Muri wo **denyaho**.

(Tree which is thick)

Tshikolo tsho **hulaho**.

(School which is big)

(b) Feelings: sinyuwa

takala

tungufhala

^

lwala

vhenga

ofha

rothola

fhisa

dudela

(92) Munna o **sinyuwaho**.

(The man who is angry)

Ñwana o **takalaho**.

(The child who is happy)

Maḍi a **rotholaho**.

(Water which is cold)

Ñwana a **ofhaho**.

(The child who is afraid)

Mukegulu a **vhengaho**.

(The old woman who hates)

Nguvho i **dudelaho**.

(Blanket which is warm)

(c) Body shape: khwaṭha
 nona
 sekena
 onda

(93) Musadzi o **khwa^hhaho**.
(Woman who is fat)

Kholomo yo **nonaho**.
(The cattle which is fat)

Musidzana o **sekenaho**.
(The girl who is thin)

Mukalaha o **ondaho**.
(The old man who is lean)

(d) State: fa
 edela
 dala
 oma

(94) Khuhu yo **faho**.
(The chicken which is dead)

^oNwana o **edelaho**.
(The child who is asleep)

Mulambo wo **dalaho**.
(The river which is full)

Nguvho yo **omaho**.

(Blanket which is dry)

- (e) Age: kegula
kalaha

(95) Muthu o **kalahaho**.

(A male person who is old)

Muthu o **kegulaho**.

(A female person who is old)

- Colour: Tshena
Tswuku
Dala

(96) Labi lo **tshenaho**.

(Cloth which is white)

Maḏi o **tswukahho**.

(Water which is red)

Muroho wo **dalafhalaho**.

(Vegetable which is green)

2.4.9.2. COPULATIVE RELATIVE CLAUSES

The following are NPs which have the descriptive function: they appear with copulative verb [-re]:

(97) Munna [a [re mushayi.]
(The man who is poor)

Munna [a [re mudededzi.]
(The man who is a teacher)

Musadzi [a [re mupfumi.]
(The woman who is rich)

Musidzana [a [re muongi.]
(The lady who is a nurse)

Munna [a [re muvhadi.]
(The man who is a carpenter)

Munna [a [re ramilayo.]
(The man who is an advocate)

Munna [a [re mufunzi.]
(The man who is a preacher)

Munna [a [re mulugisi.]
(The man who is mechanic)

Munna [a [re muvhulahi.]
(The man who is a killer)

Munna [a [re mufh_Λati.]
(The man who is a builder)

Munna [a [re [ramabindu.]
(The man who is a business man)

Munna [a [re muñwaleli.]
(The man who is a secretary)

Munna [a [re mushumi.]
(The man who is a worker)

Muthannga [a [re tshivhotswa.]
(The young man who is a prisoner)

In all the examples in (97) above nouns appear as head of an Np which is complement of a copulative verb. These nouns have the meaning of adjectives and those relative clauses appear with the copulative verb **re** as indicated.

2.4.9.3. THE COMPLEMENT OF THE COPULATIVE VERB IS A PP WITH na AS HEAD

A prepositional phrase with preposition (na) in Tshivenda may appear as complement of copulative verb. This construction may also give the meaning of adjectives. These prepositions may never appear on their own but they must always be followed by a complement which may be a noun phrase.

(98) Mutukana [a [re [na vhutshivha.]
(The boy who is rude)

Musadzi [a [re [na vhubva.]
(Woman who is lazy)

Musadzi [a [re [na luambo.]
(The woman who is talkative)

Musidzana [a [re [na lugungulo.]
(The girl who grumbles)

Munna [a [re [na khakhathi.]
(The man who is troublesome)

CONCLUSION

The semantic adjective dealt with in this chapter included different aspects such as criteria to characterize the adjective and differentiate it from other word categories such as nouns, adverbs and participles.

It is in this chapter where it is indicated how those four criteria are used to define their class in Tshivenda and to differentiate adjectives from other word categories with semantic prototypes which differ from language to language. It is also indicated that not all words that are traditionally regarded as adjective possess all of these four criteria. Out of these four criteria, the acceptance of premodification by **very** and the ability to take comparison are determined by a semantic feature, the gradability of an item.

There are many examples showing an overlapping between adjective class and other word-classes. The overlapping may be due to syntactic features central to other classes but displayed by some adjectives, or to features central to the adjective class but displayed by some member of other classes. It is shown by different examples that adjectives can not be identified by looking at it in isolation, because the form of a word does not necessarily indicate its syntactic function. An item may belong to more class.

(99) Zwiliwa **zwavhuḁi** zwo fhela (adjective)
(Nice food has finished)

U tshina **zwavhuḁi** (adverb)
(She dances well)

Lufu **luvhi** ndi lwa u ḍihunga (adjective)

(Bad death is of who hangs himself)

Hu na **luvhi** a ri shumi (noun)

(If there is death, we don't work)

With those examples above an overlapping between adjective and other classes is also shown in Tshivenda.

CHAPTER 3

3. THE MORPHOLOGICAL ADJECTIVE

3.1. AIM

This chapter aims to deal with the morphological adjective and to give an account of some previous views of different linguists on the subject.

The following issues will receive attention: The morphology of the adjective consists of the class prefix and the adjectival stem.

This is shown in Tshivenda where adjectives are marked by a noun class prefix on the adjectival stem. The prefix agrees in class with the noun to which it refers, e.g.

(100)	Class	prefix	stem	adjective
	1	mu-	-lapfu	mulapfu
	7	tshi-	-denya	tshidenya

In Tshivenda the meaning of some adjectival stems can be modified by adding the suffixes [-nyana], [-ana] and [-sa].

Reduplication of adjectival stems may be found. In Tshivenda, reduplication can be done to convey the meaning of a augmentation. Most of the reduplicated stems are used with prefixes except in class 9 and class 10 where prefixes are not visible.

(104) Munna musekene.

(A thin man)

Musidzana mulapfu.

(A tall girl)

Adjective as complement of a copula verb:

(105) Mutukana ndi **mupfufhi**.

(The boy is short)

Tshienda ndi **tshiswa**.

(The shoe is new)

Adjectives may occur in exclamations and comparison with certain comparative element.

(106) Uyu muri ndi **mulapfu** hani!

(How tall is this tree!)

Mbudzi ndi **khulu** hani!

(How big the goat is!)

(107) Vele ndi **mulapfu kha** [^]nne.

(Vele is taller than me)

Vule ndi **musekene sa** [^]Matodzi.

(Vule is thin like [^]Matodzi)

3.2. THE MORPHOLOGY OF THE ADJECTIVE

3.2.1. THE CLASS PREFIX

Adjectives in Tshivenda are marked by a noun class prefix on the adjectival stem. These adjectives form a closed class. The prefix agrees in class with the noun to which it refers:

(108) Class	Prefix	Adjectives
1	mu-	mudenya
2	vha-	vha [^] tuku
3	mu-	musekene
4	mi-	mihulu
5	li- [^]	li [^] tswu
6	ma-	malapfu
7	tshi-	tshi [^] nu
8	zwi-	zwinzhi
9	n-	nthihi
10	dzin-	dzin [^] u
11	lu-	luvhi
14	vhu-	vhutete
15	u-	huvhi
20	ku-	ku [^] tuku
21	di- [^]	di [^] denya

Class 9 and 10

Class 9 and 10 are nasal classes where the nasal N of these two classes causes certain sound changes to take place in the initial consonants of certain adjectival stem. Stems that are affected are those which start with the consonant: vh, t, l, sw, and s.

Changes take place in the following way:

(109)	N	+	vh	>	mb:	mbili (two)
	N	+	t	>	th:	[^] thukhu (small)
	N	+	l	>	nd:	Ndapfu (long)
	N	+	sw	>	tsw:	ntswu (black)
	N	+	h	>	kh:	khulu (big)
	N	+	s	>	ts:	[^] tsetha (grey)
	N	+	r	>	th:	tharu (three)
	N	+	vh	>	mb:	mmbi (bad)
	N	+	sw	>	tsw:	ntswa (new)

As was noted with nouns of class 10, there is a prefix that is commonly left out i.e prefix [dzi]

(110) Hemmbe ntswu < -tswu
(A black shirt)

Mbudzi mbili < -vhili
(Two goats)

Kholomo ṭhukhu < -ṭuku

(A small cow)

Class 15

The class prefixes of class 15 and the locative classes can also appear with adjective stems:

The [hu] can be used with infinitive as subject agreement morpheme:

(111) U- shuma **huvhuya** hu- a-takadza.

(To work good is pleasing)

U- vhala **huvhi** hu-a-pengisa.

(To study badly makes a person mad)

Locative noun class

Class

(112)	16	fha	>	fhasi	hudala (down green)
	17	ku	>	kule	hutswu (far black)
	18	mu	>	murahu	hutshena (back white)

[Hu] in class (16-18) above is a locative agreement morpheme, not a class prefix. It only occurs in the colour adjectives because if they can appear in other adjectives except colour the sentence become ungrammatical.

(113) * fhasi hudenya.
(down wide)

* murahu husekene.
(back thin)

* kule hulapfu.
(far long)

3.2.2. THE ADJECTIVAL STEM

3.2.2.1. SEMANTIC CLASSIFICATION

There are few adjectival stems in Tshivenda, the most important of which are distinguished in the following semantic categories.

Character

-vhuya (good natured)

-vhisi (raw, immature)

-vhi (bad)

(114) (a) Nwana **muvhisi**.
(Immature child)

- (b) Mukegulu **muvhi**.
(A bad old woman)

In example 114 (a) and (b) above the adjectives **muvhisi** and **muvhi** have the adjectival stems of **-vhisi** and **-vhi**. Then appear as the complement of nouns **nwana** and **mukegulu** respectively. They have the semantic reading of character.

Colour

-rema	(black)
-tshena	(white)
-tswu	(black)
-dala	(green)
-setha	(grey)

- (115) (a) Goloi **tsetha** yo tswiwa.
(Grey car was stolen)
- (b) Tshikete **tshidala** tsho kuvhiwa.
(Green skirt was washed)

In example 115(a) and (b) above the adjectives **tsetha** and **tshidala** have the adjectival stem of **-setha** and **-dala** respectively. They appear as the complement of nouns **goloi** and **tshikete** respectively. They have the semantic reading of colour.

Texture/ state

-tete	(soft, tender)
- <u>nu</u>	(wet)
-vhis ⁱ	(raw, unripe)

- (116) (a) Mutshelo **mu^vhisⁱ** a u qifhi.
(Raw vegetable does not taste good)
- (b) Nguvho **nn^u** i a rothola.
(Wet blanket is cold)

In example 116(a) and (b) above the adjectives **mu^vhisⁱ** and **nn^u** have the adjectival stem of **-vhisⁱ** and **-nu** respectively. They appear as the complement of nouns **mutshelo** and **nguvho** respectively. In this case they have the semantic type of texture.

Quantity

-ngafhani	(how much?) (not measurable e.g liquid)
-ngana	(how much, how many)
-nzhi	(many, much)

- (117) (a) Luambo **lun^zhi** ndi lwa zwiliwa.
(Many quarrels are for food)
- (b) Vhana **vha^tuku** vho feila.
(Few children have failed)

In example 117(a) and (b) above the adjectives **lunzhi** and **vhatuku** have the adjectival stem of **-nzhi** and **-tuku** respectively. They appear as the complement of the noun **luambo** and **vhana** respectively. They have the semantic reading of quantity.

Number

-thihi (one)

-vhili (two)

-raru (three)

-[^]na (four)

-^ˆnwe (another, other)

(118) (a) Lufhanga **luthihi** lwo wanala.

(One knife was found)

(b) Miri **mivhili** yo renwa.

(Two trees were chopped)

In example 118(a) and (b) above the adjectives **luthihi** and **mivhili** have the adjectival stem of **-thihi** and **-vhili** respectively. They appear as the complement of the nouns **lufhanga** and **miri** respectively. In this case they have the semantic reading of number.

Size

-ngafhani (how big)

-hulu (so big)

-denya (thick)

- sekene (thin, slender)
- hulwane (older)

- (119) (a) Muri **muhulu** wo wa.
(The big tree has fallen)
- (b) Musidzana **musekene** o swika.
(The slender girl has arrived)

In example 119(a) and (b) above the adjectives **muhulu** and **musekene** have the adjectival stem of **-hulu** and **-sekene** respectively. They appear as the complement of the nouns **muri** and **musidzana** respectively. In this case they have the semantic reading of size.

Age

- lala (old)
- swa (young, new)

- (120) (a) Rokho **ntswa** ndi a i funa.
(I like a new dress)
- (b) Muthu **mulala** u a dina.
(An old person is troublesome)

In example 120(a) and (b) above the adjectives **ntswa** and **mulala** have the adjectival stem of **-tswa** and **-lala** respectively. They appear as the

complement of the nouns **rokho** and **muthu**. They have the semantic reading of age.

Length

-lapfu (long, tall)

-pfufhi (short)

(121) (a) $\overset{\wedge}{\text{Thud}}\overset{\wedge}{\text{wa}}$ **ndapfu**.
(Long giraffe)

(b) Munna **mupfufhi**.
(The short man)

In example 121(a) and (b) above, the adjectives **ndapfu** and **mupfufhi** have the adjectival stem of **-lapfu** and **-pfufhi** respectively. They appear as the complement of the nouns $\overset{\wedge}{\text{thud}}\overset{\wedge}{\text{wa}}$ and **munna** respectively. In this case they have the semantic reading of length.

3.2.2.2. SUFFIXES

Some adjectival stems may be modified by adding the suffixes [-nyana], [-ana], [-sa] in Tshivenda

Suffix **-nyana**

When the suffix [-nyana] is used with the adjectival stem, it resulted in a diminutive meaning:

- (122) -tuku > tukunyana (slightly small)
 -lapfu > lapfunyana (slightly tall, tallish)
 -pfufhi > pfufhinyana (slightly short)
 -ntswu > ntswunyana (slightly black)

When they are used with nouns, they give the following:

Noun	Adjective
(123) Vhurukhu (Small trouser)	vhutuku
Vhurukhwana (Very small trouser)	vhutukunyana
Bugu ntswu (black book)	
bugwana (booklet)	ntswunyana (blackish)
tafula pfufhi (short table)	
tafulana (small table)	thukhunyana (slightly small)
Donngi pfufhi (short donkey)	
Donngana (small donkey)	pfufhinyana (slightly short)

Suffix –ana

When the suffix [-ana] is used with the adjectival stem, it also results in the diminutive. This suffix is mostly used with colour adjective:

- | | | | | |
|-------|--------|---|---------|------------------|
| (124) | -ntswu | > | tswana | (slightly black) |
| | -tseta | > | tsetana | (slightly grey) |
| | -dala | > | dalana | (slightly green) |

When they appear with nouns they give the following examples:

- | | | |
|-------|-----------------|-------------|
| (125) | Mbudzi | ntswu. |
| | (black | goat) |
| | mbudzana | tswana. |
| | (slightly | black goat) |
| | Khuhu | tseta |
| | (grey | chicken) |
| | Khukhwana | tsetana |
| | (Slightly grey | chicken) |
| | Rokho | dala |
| | (green | dress) |
| | Rokhwana | dalana |
| | (Slightly green | dress) |

If the suffix **-ana-** occur with other adjectives the sentence become ungrammatical:

- * Muri mudalana
- * musadzi mutswana
- * tshikolo tshitsetana

The suffix [-sa]

When the suffix [-sa] is used with the adjectival stem, it conveys the meaning of augmentation.

- (126) -nzhi > nnzhisa (very many)
- tuku > thukhusa (very small)
- > -
- nu > nnnusa (very wet)
- lapfu > ndapfusa (very tall)
- tswuku > tswukusa (very red)
- pfufhi > pfufhisa (very short)
- hulu > khulusa (very big)

The suffix [-sa] can be used with any adjectives in order to give a grammatical adjective in Tshivenda.

- (127) Kholomo nnzhisa.
 (very many cattle)

Vhana vha_Λtukusa.
(very small children)

Muri mulapfusa.
(very tall tree)

Mukegulu mupfufhisa.
(very short old woman)

3.2.2.3. REDUPLICATION OF ADJECTIVE STEM

Some stems can be reduplicated to form one word to emphasize the basic meaning. In most reduplicated adjective stems, the structure can be recognised through an agreement morpheme on the first stem which is exactly the same as the prefix of the headnoun, except in class 9 and 10 where reduplication occurs with an agreement morpheme on both stems.

Reduplication with agreement morpheme on first stem

(128) -hulu-hulu: Munna [mu- + -hulu-hulu] o tshipa n̄wana.
(A very big man raped the child)

-tuku-tuku: N̄wana [mu- + -_Λtuku-_Λtuku] o fariwa.
(A very small child was arrested)

-lapfu-lapfu: Muri [mu- + -lapfu-lapfu] wo wa mulovha.
(A very tall tree fell yesterday)

- denya-denya: Davhi [li- + -denya-denya] lo vunde_Λa.
(A very thick branch has broken)
- sekene-sekene: Lubwanana [lu- + -sekene-sekene] lwo fa.
(A very thin dog is dead)
- ntswu-ntswu: Tshimange [tshitswu-tshitswu]
(A very black cat)
- vhisi-vhisi: Mutshelo [mu- + -vhisi-vhisi] u a ha_Λta.
(A very raw fruit is sour)
- tshena-tshena: Rokho [tshena-tshena] ndi ya munyanya.
(A very white dress is for wedding)
- tete-tete: Muroho [mu- + -tete-tete] u a di_Λfha.
(A very fresh relish is delicious)

Reduplication with agreement morpheme on both items

This reduplication occurs in class 9 and 10.

- khulu-khulu: Kholomo [khulu-khulu] yo fa.
(A very big cow is dead)
- _Λthukhu-_Λthukhu: Mmbwa [_Λthukhu-_Λthukhu] yo xela.
(A very small dog is lost)

In structure 129(a) above the suffix (-ana) convey the meaning of diminitive. This suffix is mostly used in colours in order to give grammatical adjectives. The suffix –ana has meaning when used with stem rather than with adjective.

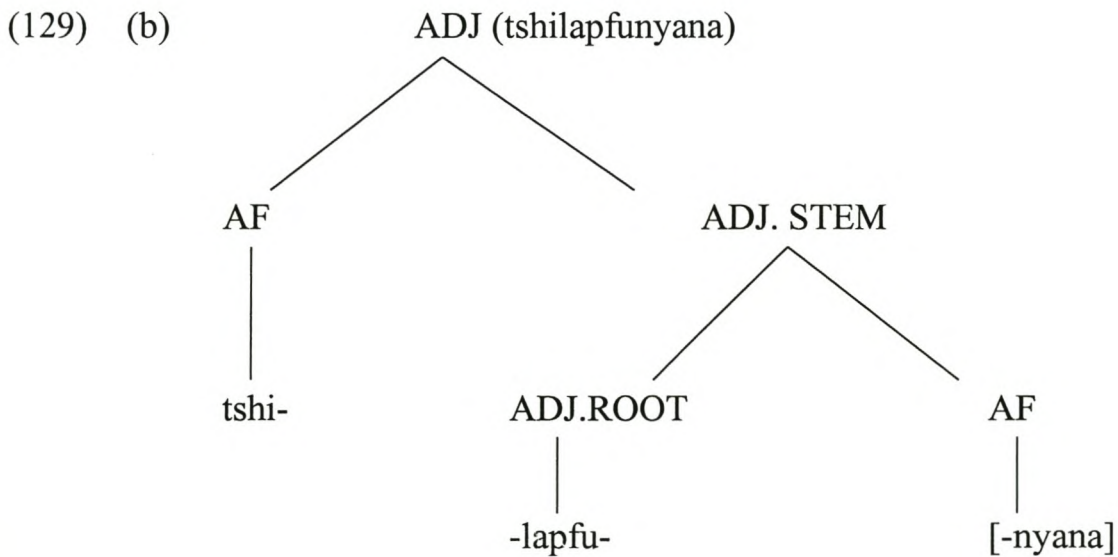
Kholomo ya **tsetana**.

(A greyish cow)

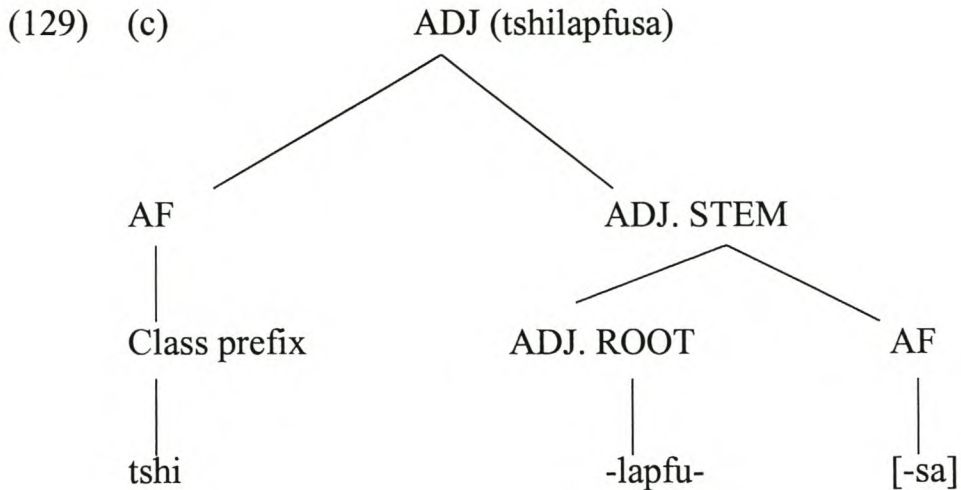
Mbudzana ya **tswana**.

(A slightly black goat)

* **mudalana**, **musetana** and **mutswana** are not commonly used in Tshivenda.



When the suffix [-nyana] is used in the above structure, for example with the stem [-lapfu] the meaning is diminitive. This suffix can be used with adjective, such as **tshilapfu** as indicated in the structure above.



When the suffix [-sa] is used in the above structure, for example with the stem [-lapfu-] the meaning very tall is conveyed.

3.2.4. TRANSPOSITION

Marchand (1967) named semantic reclassification rules TRANSPOSITION and argued that they represent a major type of derivation rule which can not be explained in the same terms as semantic rules.

Most investigators focus on the form and distribution of individual affixes found in a language, instead of trying to establish what categorial functions may be expressed on the level of word formation in this or that language. The lexicon may transpose any member of any major lexical class (N,V, A) to any other major lexical class by providing it only with the lexical G-features of the target class and neutralizing the inherent G-features of the base. Derivational data of Tshivenda are as follows:

(130)	Adjective	→	noun
	ADJ		Noun (Class 14)
	hulu (big)		vhuhulwane
	denya (thick)		Vhudenya
	lapfu (tall)		vhulapfu
	hulu (big)		vhuhulu
	sekene (thin)		vhusekene
	tuku (small)		vhutuku

Vhutswu hawe ho mu vhifhisa.

(Her blackness makes her ugly)

Vhupufhi hawe ho mu thusa.

(Her shortness helps her)

Vhulapfu hawe ho mu nakisa.

(Her tallness makes her beautiful)

Vhusekene hawe ho mu thusa.

(Her slenderness helps her)

(131) Adjective → adverb

The adjectival stem in Tshivenda which are distinguished in the semantic category of number can become adverb.

-thihi (one)	→	luthihi (one)
lufhanga luthihi		O mu rwa luthihi
(One knife)		(He beats him once)
-raru-	→	kararu
Zwivhoni zwiraru		O mona kararu.
(Three mirrors)		(He round three times)
-nnzhi	→	kanzhi
Kholomo nnzhi		U wa kanzhi
(Many cattle)		(He usually falls)
-vhili-	→	luvhili
Mbudzi mbili		O fariwa luvhili
(Two goats)		(He was arrested twice)
- [^] tanu-	→	lu [^] tanu
Vhana vha [^] tanu		O beba lu [^] tanu
(Five children)		(She gave birth five times)
- [^] na	→	lu [^] na
Bugu n [^] na		Vho rwiwa lu [^] na
(Four books)		(They have been beaten four times)

It is indicated clearly in examples above, that when adjective become adverb the prefixes **ka** and **lu** are mostly used.

(132)	Adjective		become	verb
	- <u>nu</u>	>	<u>n</u> ukala	(wet)
	-tete	>	tetefhala	(fresh)
	-pfufhi	>	pfufhifhala	(short)
	-denya	>	denyefhala	(thick)
	- <u>tuku</u>	>	<u>t</u> ukufhala	(small)
	-dala	>	dalafhala	(green)
	- <u>tseta</u>	>	<u>t</u> setefhala	(grey)
	-lala	>	lalama	(old)
	-lapfu	>	lapfa	(tall)
	-sekene	>	sekena	(thin)
	-hulu	>	hula	(big)

3.2.5. COMPOUND NOUNS WITH ADJECTIVE

In Tshivenda adjectives may occur with nouns to form compounds.

The following compounds are the combination of the following:

	Noun	+	adjective	>	compound
(133)	musi-	+	-muvhi	>	Musimuvhi (bad day)
	nndwa-	+	-mmbi	>	nndwammbi (bad fight)
	lufu-	+	-luvhi	>	lufuluvhi (horrible death)
	nndwa-	+	-tswuku	>	nndwatswuku (bad fight)
	mbilu-	+	-mmbi	>	Mbilummbi (cruetly)
	thavha-	+	-ntswu	>	Thavhantswu (black mountain)
	mafhungo-	+	mavhisi	>	mafhungomavhisi (raw news)
	<u>thoho</u> -	+	-thema	>	<u>t</u> hohothema (black head)

thoho-	+	-ntswu	>	thohontswu (black head)
mafhi-	+	-luvhisi	>	Mafhiluvhisi (fresh milk)
muthu-	+	-muvhi	>	muthumuvhi (bad person)

Most of the compound in Tshivenda are formed with noun and adjective. There are few examples which are formed by the following:

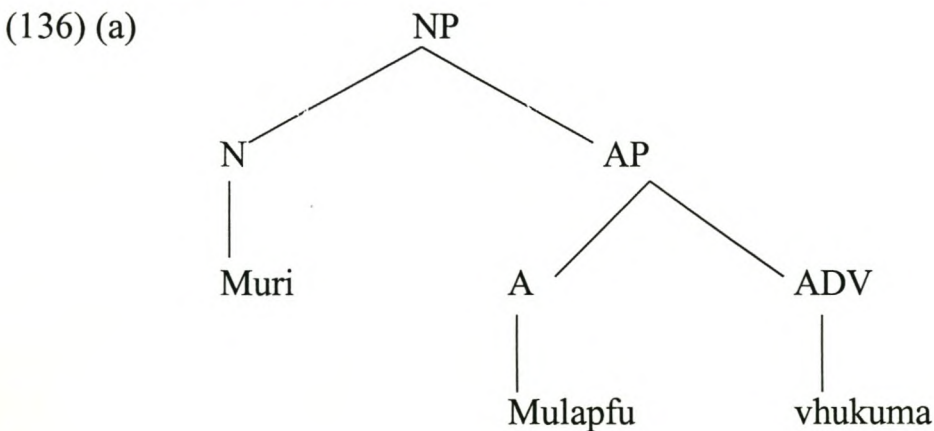
	Prefix +	verb +	adjective	
(134)	mu-	+ -ita	+ zwivhi	> muitazwivhi (sinner)
	ma-	+ -lala	+ mavhi	>malalamavhi (to sleep badly)

3.3. THE ADJECTIVAL PHRASE

Adjectives appear in the adjectival phrases as complement of their heads:

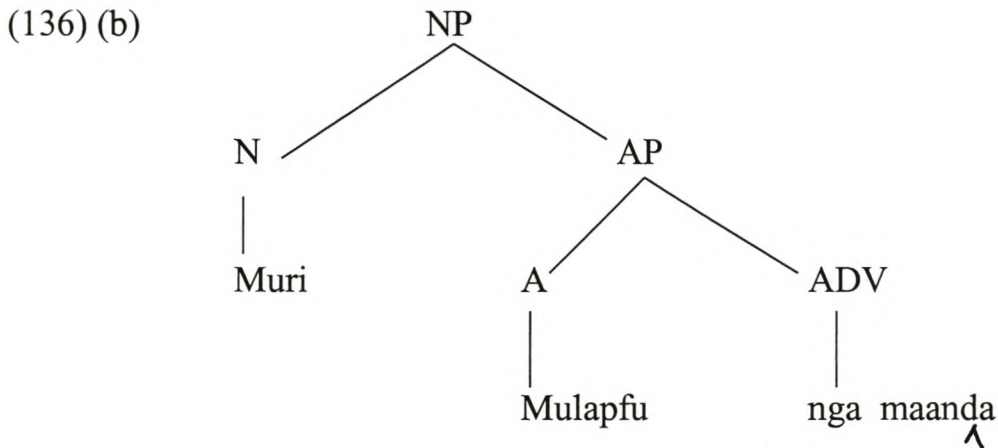
- (135) (a) Muri mulapfu vhukuma.
(A very tall tree)

In example (135) above the adverb **vhukuma** may appear as a complement of adjective as shown in the structure below:



(b) Muri mulapfu nga maanda.

In example (136) (b) above ADV **nga maanda** appear as complement of **mulapfu**. The above sentence may be illustrated by the following structure:



3.4. DISTRIBUTION OF THE ADJECTIVE

3.4.1. COMPLEMENT OF A NOUN

Subject position

Adjectives as nominal modifiers appear as specifier or complement of the noun in subject position.

(137) **Ṃwana musekene** o wa.
(A thin child has fallen)

In example 137 the adjective **musekene** appears as complement of the noun **ṁwana** in the subject position.

As specifier of noun

- (138) (a) **Musekene** ^ˈnwana o wa.
(A thin child has fallen)
- (b) **thukhu** ^ˈgoloi yo rengwa.
(Small car was bought)

The adjective **musekene** in example(138)(a) above, appears as specifier of the head noun **nwana** in subject position.

With an empty head

- (139) **Musekene** o wa.
(A thin has fallen)

In example(139)above, the adjective **musekene** appears with an empty head.

Object position

Adjectives can also appear as complement of noun in the object position.

- (140) Munna o renga goloi **thukhu**.
(The man has bought a small car)

In example (140) above **thukhu** appears as a complement of the noun **golo** in the object position.

- (141) Munna o renga **thukhu**.
(The man has bought a small one)

In example (141) above, the adjective **thukhu** appears on its own with an empty head in the object position of the sentence.

3.4.2. COMPLEMENT OF A PREPOSITION

Adjectives as nominal modifier, appears freely as a complement of a verb.

Instrumental nga

Complement

- (142) Musidzana u tshea [nga [lufhanga lulapfu]
(The girl cuts with a long knife)

In (142) above the adjective **lulapfu** appears with the noun **lufhanga** as the complement of the instrumental preposition **nga**.

Specifier

- (143) U tshea [nga [lulapfu lufhanga]
(She cuts with a long knife)

The adjective **lulapfu** in example (143) above appears as specifier of the head noun **lufhanga** in the object position.

Empty

- (144) U tshea [nga lulapfu]
(She cuts with long one)

Associative [na]

Complement

- (145) Mutukana u tshimbila [na [musadzi mulapfu]
(The boy walks with a tall woman)

In example (145) above the adjective **mulapfu** appears with the noun **musadzi** as the complement of the associative prepositions [na].

Specifier

- (146) Mutukana u tshimbila [na [mulapfu musadzi]
(The boy walks with a tall woman)

The adjective **mulapfu** in (146) above appears as specifier of the head noun **musadzi**.

Empty

- (147) Mutukana u tshimbila [na [mulapfu]
(The boy walks with a tall one)

In example (147) above the adjective **mulapfu** appears with an empty head as the complement of the associative preposition [na].

Locative kha

Complement

- (148) Vele u shuma [kha [muḍi muhulu].
(Vele works in a big house)

In example (148) above the adjective **muhulu** appear with the noun **muḍa** as complement of locative preposition **kha**.

Specifier

- (149) Vele u shumia [kha [muhulu muḍa].
(Vele works in a big family)

The adjective **muhulu** in example (149) above appears as specifier of the head noun **muḍi**.

Empty

- (150) Vele u shuma [kha [muhulu]
(Vele works in big one)

In example (150) above the adjective **muhulu** appears as the complement of the locative preposition [kha] with an empty head.

3.4.3. COMPLEMENT OF COPULATIVE VERB

Adjectives occur as complement of copulative verb. Of all the possible complement of the copulative verbs, it must be noted that this is only one which is found with copulative verbs only and not with any other verb. This is adjectival phrase.

In descriptive the complement describes the subject.

(151) Uyu mutukana [ndi [mupfufhi]

(This boy is short)

Arali rokho [i [tshena] ndi $\underset{\wedge}{\text{do}}$ i renga.

(If the dress is white I will buy it)

Ndo mu sia [e/a mut $\underset{\wedge}$ uku]

(I have left her being young)

Vhathu vhane vha $\underset{\wedge}{\text{do}}$ $\underset{\wedge}{\text{la}}$ munyanyani [vha $\underset{\wedge}{\text{do}}$ vha [vhanzhi]

(The people who will eat to the feast will be many)

Muvhili wawe u shanduka [wa vha[mutswu]

(His body changes to become black)

3.5. COMPARISON AND THE ADJECTIVE

The locative **kha** in Tshivenda can sometimes be used to construct a comparison.

- (152) (a) Vele ndi muhulu **kha** Maemu.
(Vele is older than Maemu)
- (b) N^hne ndi mulapfu **kha** Vele.
(I am taller than Vele)
- (c) Munna ndi mupfufhi **kha** musadzi wawe.
(The man is shorter than his wife)
- (d) Uyu muri ndi mudenya **kha** hou^hla.
(This tree is thicker than that one)

The comparative **sa** can sometimes be used to construct a comparison.

- (153) (a) Mvuvhu ndi khulu **sa** tshugulu.
(Hippopotamus is big as rhino)
- (b) Ndau ndi ndapfu **sa** nmbwe.
(The lion is tall as leopard)
- (c) Mpopi wo hula **sa** n'wana.
(The doll is big as a baby)

- (d) Thavha ndi ndapfu **u fhira** nndu.
(Mountain is taller than the house)
- (e) Maṭodzi ndi mupfufhi **u fhira** mme.
(Maṭodzi is shorter than her mother)
- (f) Mutukana ndi musekene **u fhira** khotsi.
(The boy is thinner than his father)
- (g) Vhana nānwaha ndi vhanzhi **u fhira** mahola.
(This year children are many than last year)

With those different examples indicated above, it is clear that adjective in Tshivenda can also use the infinitive **u fhira** in a comparison.

3.6. EXCLAMATIONS

Exclamations indicate strong feeling such as anger, joy and surprise. The characteristics of denoting a single property allows adjectives to be the base of exclamations whereas the absence of this makes a nominal base. In Tshivenda exclamations there are also additional constraints, for example [hani]:

- (154) (a) Ndi **mulapfu** hani!
(How tall he is!)

- (b) Mbudzi ndi **khulu** hani!
(How big the goat is!)
- (c) Mutukana ndi **mutswu** hani!
(How black is the boy!)
- (d) Mahatsi ndi **madala** hani!
(How green is the grass!)
- (e) Nwana ndi **mutuku** hani!
(How small is the child!)
- (f) Vhasidzana ndi **vhanzhi** hani!
(How great number are the girls!)
- (g) Nguvho ndi **n̄u** hani!
(How wet is the blanket!)
- (h) Zwiliwa ndi **zwituku** hani!
(How little is the food!)

3.7. CONCLUSION

Morphological adjectives are mostly marked by noun class prefix on the adjectival stem.

It is also shown how the meaning of some adjectival stems can be modified by adding the suffixes. Stems are reduplicated to form one word to emphasize the basic meaning. The morphological structure of the adjectives have also been indicated.

Distribution of the adjective include adjective as complement of noun, complement of the verb and characteristic of adjective are clearly shown as both attributive and predicative position.

Adjectives are the base of exclamations and they can be used to construct comparison when using comparative **sa**, **u –fhira** and locative **kha**.

CHAPTER 4

4. THE DESCRIPTIVE POSSESSIVE

4.1. AIM

The aim of this chapter is to deal with noun phrases which may appear as a complement of a noun i.e those types of possessives which are traditionally regarded as descriptive possessives.

The descriptive possessives are possessives that refers to some quality or feature other than possession or belonging. This means that they describe the noun they refer to in a way that is different to that of possessives.

The possessives are PPs. Noun phrases may appear as complement of possessive [a] which may be pronoun and this possessives [a] has no possessive meaning. The agreement which appears with the possessive [-a] is the same as subjectival agreement which appears with verbs. These constructions are widely used in African languages where they give the meaning of adjectives.

The structure of noun phrase and construction in Tshivenda may be noted with all types of nominals which may be found in such phrases.

4.2. THE NOUN PHRASE

The descriptive possessive is a misleading term because of two reasons: in the first place there is no possession in such a noun phrase but only the presence of a possessive –a- which in this case, has no meaning of possession.

It does, however, have a grammatical function as a link in the description of such adjectives. In the second place, the descriptive part or the semantic adjective in the NP is not always a complement of the possessive –a-, but it may be the head of the noun phrase. The semantic adjective may also appear in various categories such as NP locative and complementizer phrase.

The noun phrase will be dealt with in regard to these possibilities: the descriptive part is the head of the NP, and the descriptive part is the complement of preposition –a-.

4.2.1. THE DESCRIPTIVE PART IS THE HEAD OF NOUN PHRASE

Various possibilities may be discerned in this case and they will conform to an ultimate surface structure such as the following:

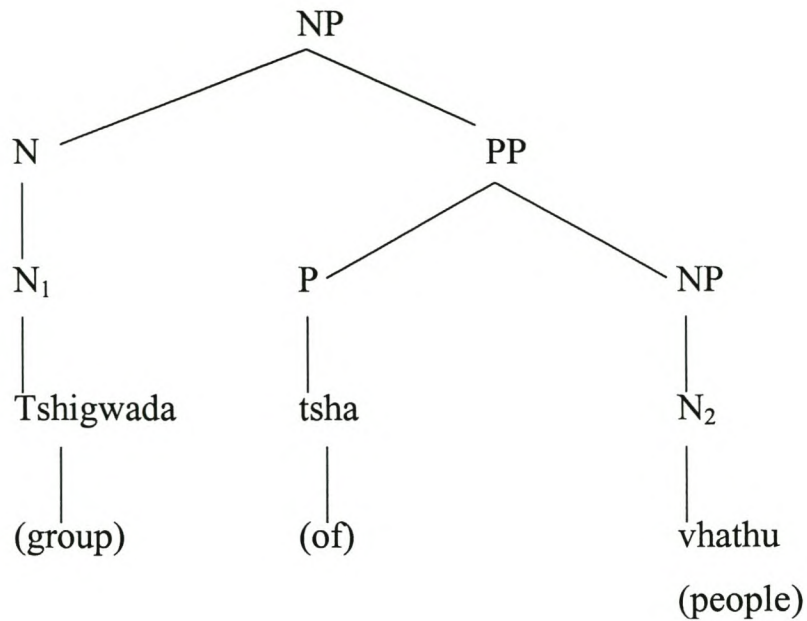
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The noun phrase will be dealt with in regard to these possibilities: the descriptive part is the head of the NP, and the descriptive part is the complement of preposition –a-.

4.2.1. THE DESCRIPTIVE PART IS THE HEAD OF NOUN PHRASE

Various possibilities may be discerned in this case and they will conform to an ultimate surface structure such as the following:



The descriptive part in this NP will be the first N, i.e. N₁ above which is the head of the NP. This head noun may have the following semantic features:

4.2.1.1. GROUPS

The term group refers to a number of people, things or organizations which are placed together or which are connected in a particular way. The following types of groups may be discerned in Tshivenda.

Groups of people

Groups of people may be classified into various subgroups:

(a) Group

The specific term which refers to a group of people is tshigwada. This term may appear with any grouping of people e.g.

[Tshigwada] tsha vhathu.

(Group of people)

[Tshigwada] tsha vhalidzi.

(Group of mourners)

[Tshigwada] tsha vhairimbi.

(Group of singers)

[Tshigwada] tsha vhatambi.

(Group of players)

The head noun above, i.e. **[tshigwada]** may also appear in the diminutive class:

[Kugwada] kwa vhana.

(Small group of children)

[Kugwada] kwa vha[^]aleli.

(Small group of spectators)

Crowds

There are words which refer to a large number of people who are gathered together:

[Gogo] [^]la vhalidzi.

(Multitude of mourners)

[Mavhuthu] a vha[^]taledi.

(Large group of spectators)

Specific groups

There are various terms which refer to specific groups of people:

[Mmbi] ya maswole.

(Army of soldiers)

[Lushaka] lwa Vha[^]venḁa.

(The Venda nation)

[Tshavhi] dza Vhatonga.

(Refugees of Tsonga)

[Tshitshavha] tsha vha[^]taledi.

(Group of spectators)

Loan words

Some loan words appear in Tshiv[^]enḁa with a reference to specific groups as above:

[Ki[^]asi] ya luambo.

(Class of language)

[Komiti] ya tshikolo.

(Committee of school)

[Khoniferentsi] ya vhafumakadzi.
(Woman's conference)

[Thimu] ya bola.
(Team of ball)

Group of animals

Groups of animals may be classified into various subgroups.

Specific group

- (a) [Sambi] ^Λla kholomo.
(herd of cattle)

- (b) [Masambi] a kholomo na mbudzi.
(Herd of cattle and goat)

- (c) [Mi^Λtambi] ya kholomo.
(Herd of cattle)

Examples (b) and (c) are the plural of **sambi** in (a) above. The word **sambi** and plural **masambi** refers to herd of cattle, flock of goats, birds. The plural **mi^Λtambi** is favoured for cattle.

[Mutavha] wa mapfene.^Λ
(Troops of baboons)

Group of insects

[guma] la notshi.

(Swarm of bees)

[Murutshe] wa nzie.

(Pack of locust)

[Mutshotshonono] wa masunzi.

(Group of ants)

[Vhuukhula] ha nzie.

(Swarm of young locust)

[Gole] la nzie tshikhalani.

(Swarm of locust on the air)

[Mushinzhi] wa notshi.

(Cluster of bees)

[Mapunyunyu] a mitomboti.

(Group of mitomboti worms)

Birds

[Murivha] wa zwiṇoni.

(Flock of birds)

4.2.1.2. COLLECTION

This term refers to a set of things of the same type that have been collected or a group or pile of things that has been gathered together.

The head noun may have the semantic features: [+ collection]:

[Matshakatshaka] a vhurotho.

(Collection of small pieces of bread)

[[^]Thasana] dza khuni dza mulilo.

(Collection of twigs for fire)

[Thanda] dza matshesi.

(Sticks of matches)

[Madzadza] a zwiambaro.

(Old dirty clothes)

[Makope] a mavhele.

(Cobs of maize)

The above examples are in plural whereas in singular they do not show collection. For example:

[[^]Lutasana] lwa khuni ya mulilo.

(One twig for fire)

[Lutanda] lwa matshesi.

(One stick of matches)

[Dzadza] la tshiambaro.

(Old dirty clothes)

The head nouns above may also appear in the diminutive class:

[Vhutasana] ha khuni dza mulilo.

(Collection of thin twigs for fire)

[Vhutanda] ha matshesi.

(thin sticks of matches)

[Vhudzadza] ha zwiambaro.

(Tiny rag clothes)

[Vhukope] ha mavhele.

(Small maize cob with no grains)

4.2.1.3. HEAPS

The term refers to a disorderly pile or mass of things on top of the other. The head noun may have the semantic features: [+ heap]:

[Thulwi] ya mavhele.

(Heap of maize)

[Thulwi] ya mavu.

(Heap of soil)

[Khokho] ya matombo.

(Heap of stones)

[Tshithopho] tsha khuni.

(Heap of wood)

[Tshitake] tsha hatsi.

(Heap of grass)

[Ganelo] la mavhele.

(Place in a maize field where reaped cobs are heaped up)

[Tshiulu] tsha madzhulu.

(Anthill of termites)

[Daledale] la mathukhwi.

(Heap of rubbish)

[Thulwi ya gorou.

(Stack of wheat)

The head noun above may also appear in the diminutive class with the prefix **ku** and they still have the semantic meaning of heap.

[Kutulwi] kwa mavhele.

(Small heap of maize)

[Kukhokho] kwa matombo.

(Small heap of stones)

[Kuthopho] kwa khuni.

(Small heap of wood)

[Kutake] kwa hatsi.

(Small heap of grass)

[Kuganelo] kwa mavhele.

(Small place where reaped crops are heaped up)

[Kuulu] kwa madzhulu.

(Small anthill of termites)

[Kudaledale] kwa mathukhwi.

(Small heap of rubbish)

4.2.1.4. BUNDLES

A bundle refers to a number of articles tied, fastened or held together. The head noun may have the semantic features: [+ bundles]:

[Buto] [^]la zwiambaro.
(Bundle of clothes)

[Khatha] [^]ya muroho.
(Bundle of relish)

[Dzanda] [^]la khuni.
(Bundle of wood)

[Nanda] [^]ya muroho.
(Bundle of relish)

[Khulane] [^]ya hatsi.
(Bundle of grass)

[Tshihule] tsha hatsi.
(Bundle of grass)

[Shovu] [^]la muomva.
(Bundle of banana tree)

[Muvhuli] wa maswiri.
(Bundle of oranges)

The head nouns above may also appear in diminutive class with the prefix **ku**.

[Kuputu] kwa zwiambaro.
(Small bundle of clothes)

[Kukāṭa] kwa muroho.
(Small bundle of relish)

[Kudzanda] kwa khuni.
(Small bundle of wood)

[Kuḥanda] kwa muroho.
(Small bundle of relish)

[Kukulane] kwa hatsi.
(Small bundle of grass)

[Kuhule] kwa hatsi.
(Small bundle of grass)

[Kuvhuli] kwa maswiri.
(Small bundle of oranges)

[Kudzanda] kwa muovha.
(Small bundle of sugarcane)

[Kushovu] kwa muomva.
(Small bundle of banana tree)

4.2.1.5. GATHERING

A gathering is in essence a meeting which refers to a gathering of people for a purpose. The head may have the semantic features of [+ gathering].

[Muṭangano] wa vhagudiswa.
(Gathering of students)

[Khunyeleli] ya vhadzulapo.
(Gathering of the civilians)

[Guvhangano] ḽa mahosi.
(Gathering of chiefs)

[Khuvhangano] ya magota.
(Gathering of headman)

[Khoror] ya shango.
(Courtyard of a country)

[Tshivhidzo] tsha vhaswa.
(Gathering of the youth)

[Dzulo] ḽa buthano.
(Gathering of members of parliament)

4.2.1.6. SERIES

This term refers to a group of things of the same kind of related in some way, coming one after another or in order. The head may have the semantic feature of [+ series]:

[Muduba] wa vhathu.

(Line of people)

[Thevhekano] ya dzibugu.

(Series of books)

[Thevhekano] ya miñwaha.

(Sequence of years)

[Thevhekano] ya mahosi.

(Succession of chiefs)

[Laini] ya vhagudiswa.

(Line of students)

[Thevhekano] ya nomboro.

(Sequence of numbers)

[Mutshotshonono] wa masunzi.

(Series of ants)

[Murutshe] wa nzie.

(Series of locust)

[Muduba] wa goloi.

(Series of cars)

[Mutshilinzhi] wa thavha.

(Range of mountains)

[Maduba] wa maswole.

(Procession of soldiers)

[Thevhekano] ya nyimbo.

(Series of songs)

[Mutevhe] wa vhaimbi.

(Line-up of singers)

[Thevhekano] ya mithathabo.

(Thunders after thunders)

[Mutavha] wa mapfene.

(Group of baboons walking in line)

[Thevhekano] ya zwiwo.

(Sequence of events)

[Deu] ɿa domba.

(Que of secondary initiation school)

[Gwilisha] ɿa vhana.

(Trek in a large mass of the youth)

[Mutevhekano] wa vhana.

(Children born after one another)

4.2.1.7. QUANTITY

This term refers to something that is measurable such as an amount or a number. The head noun may have the semantic feature: [+ quantity]:

Nouns denoting quantity

[Vhunguvhi] ha nzie.

(Newly hatched locusts)

[Tshifhango] tsha mavili.

(Hail of fists)

[Suɿhu] ɿa muomva.

(Banana grove)

[Mbunda] ya muroho.

(Bundle of relish)

[Shovu] λ la muomva.
(Banana grove)

Cardinal numbers

The head noun may have the semantic feature: [+ number].

Numerals from 10 upwards may be used as head of NP.

[Fumi] λ la mi^hwaha.
(Ten years)

[Mahumi mavhili] a vhathu.
(Twenty of people)

[λ Dana] λ la vhashumi.
(Hundred of workers)

[Furaru] λ la kholomo.
(Thirty of cattle)

[Tshigidi] tsha dziranda.
(One thousand of rand)

[Mahumi ma λ tanu] a mi^hwaha.
(Fifty of years)

Partitives

The term partitive describe a word which expresses a part of a whole.

Food partitives

[Tshi_Λlai] tsha vhurotho.

(Slice of bread)

[Tshi_Λteki] tsha _Λnama.

(A piece of meat)

[Mu_Λtuvha] wa _Λnama.

(A large piece of meat)

[Thango] ya _Λnama.

(Small piece of meat)

[Matshakatshaka] a vhurotho.

(Small pieces of bread)

[Lurumbu] lwa kholomo.

(Half piece of cow)

[Gaku] _Λla vhuswa.

(Piece of porridge)

[Tshipiḁa] tsha fhafhu.
(Piece of lung)

[Mbabvu] ya nguluvhe.
(Rib of a pig)

Liquid partitives

[Masipho] a halwa.
(Last bit of liquor)

[Shoṁa] la maḁi.
(Drop of water)

[Shoṁa] la mushonga.
(Drop of medicine)

[Zwikadzwa] zwa halwa.
(Last bit of liquor)

Seed partitives

[Thoro] ya gorou.
(Grain of wheat)

[Thoro] ya mavhele.
(Grain of maize)

Usefull objects

[Zwipiḁa] zwa khuni.
(Pieces of wood)

[Tshipiḁa] tsha thambo.
(Piece of rope)

[Lebula] ya swigiri.
(Spoon of sugar)

[Thoho] dza mafhungo.
(Headline of news)

[Tshipiḁa] tsha bambiri.
(Piece of paper)

[Khaphu] ya tie.
(Cup of tea)

[Gwada] ḁa muḁo.
(A lump of salt)

[Boḁelo] ḁa mafhi.
(Bottle of milk)

Units of measure and mass

This term refers to something that is measurable in units.

[Lithara] ya petirolo.
(Litre of petrol)

[Khilogireme] ya ma[^]amatisi.
(Kilogram of tomatoes)

[Phakhethe] ya swigiri.
(Packet of sugar)

[Mithara] wa labi.
(Metre of cloth)

[Gireme] ya mafhi.
(Gram of milk)

[Khilomithara] dza bada.
(Kilometres of a road)

4.2.1.8. STATES

The term state refers to a condition in which a person or thing is or a particular way of being, feeling or thinking considered with regard to its most important or noticeable quality.

The nouns which indicate states are usually derived nouns. The head noun may have the semantic features: [+ states]:

[Vhukonǀdi] ha mushumo.

(Difficult of work)

[Vhuṭali] ha muhumbulo.

(Brilliance of the mind)

[Vhudzivha] ha isha.

(Depth of an ocean)

[Vhutsilu] ha ṁwana.

(Dullness of the child)

[Vhushai] ha munna.

(Poverty of the man)

[Vhuḍiimiseli] ha musadzi.

(The dedication of a woman)

[Vhukoni] ha musidzana.

(Intelligence of a lady)

[Vhuvhi] ha mukegulu.

(The badness of an old lady)

[Vhufhura] ha mutukana.

(Dishonesty of a boy)

[Vhupaṽi] ha ṽwana.

(Unfaithfulness of the child)

[Vhuvhava] ha munna.

(The thieving of the man)

[Vhuṽudzetudze] ha mudededzi.

(Laziness of a teacher)

[Vhuswina] ha vhatukana.

(Enmity of boys)

[Vhuredzimuwi] ha bada.

(The slippery of the road)

[Vhuhulu] ha mushumo.

(Greatness of the work)

[Vhufhulufhedzei] ha mushumi.

(Trustworthy of the worker)

[Vhuṽiimiseli] ha mufumakadzi.

(Seriousness of a woman)

[Thimothimo] ya murengi.
(Doubtful of the buyer)

[Vhuvhaiivhai] ha goloji.
(Shininess of a car)

[Vhukhakhamuwo] ha tshilonda.
(Chappedness of a wound)

[Vhupengo] ha mmbwa.
(The madness of a dog)

[Thungedzo] ya muvuhlahi.
(Hesitation of the killer)

[Pfudzungule] ya matshudeni.
(Strike of the students)

[Phinduwo] ya mushumi.
(Punctuality of the worker)

[Vhupfumi] ha munna.
(The wealthy of a man)

[Vhudahele] ha musidzana.
(The dullness of a girl)

[Vhuveveru] ha mutukana.
(Incorrigible of a boy)

[Vhuhota] ha mukegulu.
(Infirmity of an old lady)

[Vuhovheleli] ha mutukana.
(An ambition of a boy)

[Thambulo] ya munna.
(Tribulation of man)

4.2.1.9. ANIMALS

There are certain nouns which describe some features of animals. Certain nouns may serve as adjective. They also indicate emphasis or may serve as descriptive part.

The head noun may have the semantic features: [+noun]:

[Mavhelete] a kholomo.
(Untamed young cattle)

[Muondo] wa mmbwa.
(Leanness of dog)

[Mutavha] wa mapfene.

(Troop of baboons)

[Tshiondongolo] tsha pfene.

(A male leader baboon)

[Gologodo] ja kholomo.

(A very old cattle)

[Luvhezelele] lwa mmbwa.

(A very thin dog)

[Phangwa] ya kholomo.

(A glutton cow)

[Tshihole] tsha kholomo.

(A crippled cow)

[Khusha] ya nguluvhe.

(A greedy pig)

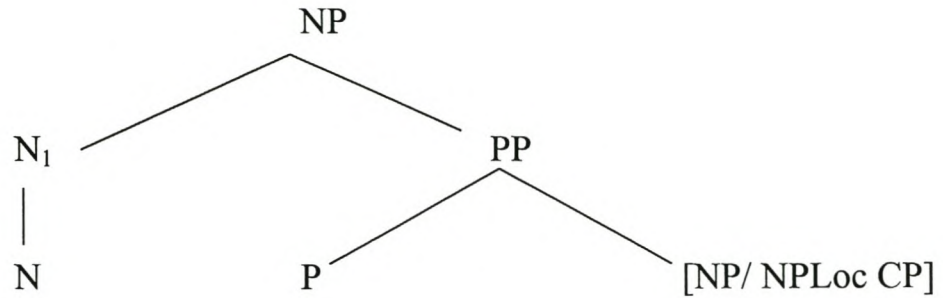
[Lidzhidzhiriba] ja ndou.

(A very tall elephant)

4.2.2. THE DESCRIPTIVE PART IS THE COMPLEMENT OF THE POSSESSIVE –a-

There are various possibilities in this case and such complement may be a NP, NP Loc or a CP, in a structure such as the following:

Fig 2



4.2.2.1. THE DESCRIPTIVE PART IS AN NP

A. The descriptive noun is a natural object

The descriptive possessives refer to some quality of feature other than ownership or belonging. The descriptive possessives describe the noun they refer to.

The descriptive part in this NP will be the second N which is the complement of –a-. this head noun may have the following semantic features: [+ natural object]

The natural objects are:

(a) Objects

[Lufo [lwa [thanda]]

(Wooden spoon)

[Lufhanga [lwa [tsimbi]]

(Steel knife)

[Tombo [la [musina]]

(A rock of copper)

[Rinngi [ya [musuku]]

(A ring of gold)

[Phulethi [ya [daimane]]

(A plate of diamond)

[Khali [ya [vumba]]

(Clay pot)

[Tshienda [tsha [mukumba]]

(Leather shoe)

[Bako [la [tombo]]

(A cave of rock)

[Mulenzhe [wa [bulannga]]

(A wooden leg)

[Tombo [ja [ngwane]]

(A smooth circled rock)

[Tshanda [tsha [tsimbi]]

(An iron hand)

(b) Descriptive objective

[Nkhwe [ya [luṭongwa]]

(A very thin sugarcane)

[Muthannga [wa [nzhololo]]

(A very handsome boy)

[Musadzi [wa [limpho]]

(A very tall woman)

[Muṭa [wa [luvhata]]

(A large enclosed yard)

[Nkhwe ya [tshiguthe]]

(Sugarcane of the stem)

Mumbete wa [vhuphuvhephuvhe]

(A very comfortable bed)

Vhuswa ha [vhutete]

(Fairly fine porridge)

Tshikoli tsha [lukhwakhwa]

(Very fresh cob)

Goloi ya [tshikorokoro]

(A very old car)

Musidzana wa [nyamunaka]

(A beautiful girl)

Vhuswa ha [goko]

(A crusty porridge)

Mushonga wa [tshikwati]

(Medicine of flake)

Bode[^]lo[^] la[^] [liemuthi]

(An empty bottle)

B. The descriptive part is natural phenomenon

The descriptive part is the complement of the possessive [-a-]

- (a) Soil: [Thulwi [ya [mavu]]
(A heap of soil)

[Thavha [ya [mutavha]
(A sandy mountain)

- (b) Mountain: [Nunda [ya [thavha]
(The top of the mountain)

[Bada [ya [tshivhanga]
(A hilly road)

- (c) Water: [Muedzi [wa [madi]]
(The valley of water)

[Madi [a [tshisima]]
(Water of the well)

[Madi [a [mulambo]]
(Water of the river)

- (d) Vegetation: [Mutshelo [wa [daka]]
(A wild fruit)

[Tsimu [ya [deme]]

(Forestry garden)

- (e) Light: [Bako [la [swiswi]]
(A dark cave)

[Livhone [la [tshedza]]

(Lamp of light)

- (f) Weather: [Vhusu_Λto [ha [mvula]]
(Shower of rain)

[N^owedzi [wa [mibvumbi]]

(Month of much rain)

[N^owedzi [wa [muya]]

(A windy month)

- (g) Noise: [Kilasi [ya [phosho]]
(A noisy class)

[Daka [la [tshokotshoko]]

(A noisy bush)

- (h) Smoke: [Tshi_Λanga [tsha [vhutsi]]
(Hut of smoke)

(i) Power: [Dumbu [la [maanda]]
(A powerful storm)

Munna wa mafulufulu.
(Energetic man)

(j) Sky: [Lutombo [lwa [[lita]dulu]]
(The sky of heaven)

[Mutshakavhili [wa [duvha]]
(The eclipse of the sun)

[Tshedza [tsha [n'wedzi]]
(The light of the moon)

C. The descriptive part is a state

Disease: [Vhulwadze [ha [tshii]vha]]
(Epilepsy)

Object: [Nn̄du [ya [vhunzhi]linzhili]]
(Luxurious house)

Humans: [Musadzi [wa [vivo]]
(Jealous woman)

[Musadzi [wa [vhuada]]

(A dirty woman)

[Munna [wa [nde]]]

(A clean man)

[Mutukana [wa [vhuṭali]]

(A wise boy)

[Nwana [wa [ndenwa]]]

(A spoiled child)

[Muthannga [wa [khakhathi]]

(A troublesome young man)

[Munna [wa [tshenzhemo]]]

(Experienced man)

[Musadzi [wa [vhutsha]]]

(Impudent woman)

[Mukalaha [wa [mbiti]]]

(A short temper old man)

[Musadzi [wa [vhuhwavho]]]

(A charitable woman)

[Musidzana [wa [vhubva]]

(A lazy girl)

[Munna [wa [vhuhali]]

(A brave man)

[Musadzi [wa luambo]]

(A very talkative woman)

[Munna [wa [vhutshivha]]

(A stingy man)

[Muthannga [wa [khani]]

(Argumentative boy)

[Musidzana [wa [vhulenda]]

(A polite girl)

[Munna [wa [maanda]]

(A strong man)

[Mudededzi [wa [vhutudzetudze]]

(A negligent teacher)

[Munna [wa [vhufhura]]

(A cheating man)

[Musidzana [wa [vhutsilu]]

(A dull girl)

[Munna [wa [vhushai]]

(A poverty man)

[Mutukana [wa vhukoni]]

(The boy who has ability)

[Munna [wa [vhuḁiimiseli]]

(A deligent man)

[Mukegulu [wa [vhuvhi]]

(A badhearted old woman)

[Mutukana [wa [pfunzungule]]

(A troublesome boy)

[Musadzi [wa [vhuvhava]]

(A thievish woman)

[Musidzana [wa [vhupaḁi]]

(An adulterous girl)

[Mukegulu [wa [vhuvhi]]

(A badhearted old woman)

[Mutukana [wa [pfunzungule]]

(A troublesome boy)

[Musadzi [wa [vhuvhava]]

(A thievish woman)

[Musidzana [wa [vhupa_Λti]]

(An adulterous girl)

D. The descriptive part indicate a quantity

Cardinal numbers

The cardinal number may appear after the [-a-].

Kholomo dza [fumi]

(Ten cattle)

Vhathu vha [tshigidi]

(Thousand people)

Minwaha ya [da_Λna]

(Hundred years)

Miri ya [ta_Λhe]

(Nine trees)

Ordinal numbers

The ordinal are numbers which indicate order to the descriptive noun.

They are formed as adjectives with the adjectival stem together with **vhu-** of class 14.

	Class 14	number		ordinal number
[Kholomo [ya	vhu- +	- <u>t</u> hanu	>	[vhu <u>t</u> anu]]
		(The fifth cow)		
[Kilasi [ya	vhu- +	-rath <u>i</u>	>	[vhu <u>r</u> athi]]
		(The sixth class)		
[Vhuimo [ha	vhu- +	-sumbe	>	[vhusumbe]]
		(The seventh position)		
[Mbalo [ya	vhu- +	- <u>t</u> ahe	>	[vhu <u>t</u> ahe]]
[Musadzi [wa	vhu- +	- <u>n</u> na	>	[vhu <u>n</u> na]]
		(The fourth wife)		
[Khosi [ya	vhu- +	-fumi	>	[vhufumi]]
		(The tenth chief)		
[Nwana [wa	vhu- +	-malo	>	[vhumalo]]
		(The eighth year)		
[Tshikolo [tsha	vhu- +	-fumbili	>	[vhufumbili]]
		(The twentieth school)		

E. The descriptive part is an animal

The descriptive part or the semantic adjective in the NP is the complement of the possessive [-a-].

Cattle (kholomo)

[Kholomo [ya [gunu^hunu]]

(Polled cow)

[Kholomo [ya [tholana]]

(A young cow)

[Kholomo ya [khulukhadzi]]

(An old cow)

[Kholomo [ya [mboho]]

(A bull)

Cat (tshimange)

[Tshimange [tsha [tshisadzi]]

(A female cat)

[Tshimange [tsha [goya]]

(Wild cat)

Dog (mmbwa)

[Mmbwa [ya [khotho]]

(A male dog)

[Mmbwa [ya [tsadzi]]

(A bitch)

Sheep (nngu)

[Nngu [ya [thutha]]

(A male sheep)

[Nngu [ya [tsadzi]]

(A female sheep)

Goat (mbudzi)

[Mbudzi [ya [bokoto]]

(Male goat)

[Mbudzi [ya [phambala]]

(A young female goat)

Baboon (pfene)

[Pfene [l_^a [tshiondongolo]]

(A lonely male baboon)

[Pfene [l_^a [khodoli]]

(A lonely baboon)

F. The descriptive part indicates food

The descriptive part or the semantic adjective in the complement of the possessive [-a-].

(a) Vegetable

[Muroho wa [tshipinashi]]

(Spinach vegetable)

[Thophi ya [mafhuri]]

(Salad of pumpkins)

[Swobo ya ^Λnawa]]

(Soup of beans)

[Atsha ya [khavhishi]]

(Cabbage achar)

(b) Porridge

[Vhuswa ha [makhaha]]

(Sorghum porridge)

[Vhuswa ha [luvhele]]

(Porridge of millet)

[Vhuswa ha [mavhele]]
(Porridge of maize-meal)

[Vhuswa [ha munamba]]
(Porridge made out of milk)

(c) **Meat**

[[^]Nama [ya [mukoki]]
(Biltong)

[[^]Nama [ya [phukha]]
(Meat of wild animal)

(d) **Milk**

[Mafhi [a [luvhisi]]
(Fresh milk)

[Mafhi [a [makhethe]]
(Curdled milk)

G. The descriptive part is a plant

(e) **Trees**

[Muri [wa [maswiri]]
(An orange tree)

[Muri [wa [mupaini]]

(A pine tree)

[Muri [wa [mipfa]]

(A thorn tree)

[Muri [wa [muhuyu]]

(A fig tree)

(f) **Shrubs**

[Maṭari [a [mbanzhe]]

(Dagga leaves)

Muri [wa [maluvha]]

(A flowering plant)

[Tside [ḷa [murambo]]

(A stem of sweet potatoes)

[Tsinde [ḷa [mufene]]

(Stem of a fern tree)

(g) **Vegetable**

[Luranga [lwa [mafhuri]]

(A cucumber plant)

[Nawa [dza [mabongisi]]
^
(Baked beans)

[Nawa [dza luti]
^
(Runner beans)

H. The descriptive part refers to society

The descriptive part or the semantic adjectives in the NP is the complement of the possessive [-a-].

Songs and praises

[Luimbo [lwa [lushaka]]
(National anthem)

[Nyimbo [dza [vhatendi]]
(Christians songs)

[Zwikumelo [zwa [vhalanda]]
(Grunties of kings followers)

[Zwidade [zwa vhana]]
(Ancient youth poems)

[Ofisi [dza [vhashumelavhapo]]

(Social workers offices)

[Ofisi [dza [mbuelo ya muthelo]]

(Offices of the Revenue)

[Tshifhato [tsha [phalamennde]]

(Parliament building)

[Ofisi [ya [mulimisi]]

(Agricultural officers office)

[Tshitemmbe [tsha [tshikolo]]

(School stamp)

J. The descriptive part is an artefact

The descriptive part of the semantic adjective in the NP is the complement of the possessive –a-.

- (a) Clothes:
1. [Nwenda [wa [mukhwekhwe]]
(Clothe of different design)
 2. [Marukhu [a [nzhovho]]
(Tattered trousers)

3. [N̄wenda [wa [mukhasi]]
(Venda traditional female underwear)
 4. [Muṅadzi [wa [tshilemba]]
(Cap of different colours)
 5. [Nguvho [ya [mashaphu]]
(Blanket with edging thread)
 6. [Muṅadzi [wa [thanga]]
(Straw hat)
- (b) Pottery: [Mvuvhelo [ya [makolo]]
(Designed calabash)
- [Khali [ya [vumba]]
(Clay pot)
- (c) Musical tool: [N̄nanga [dza [tshikona]]
(Reed – flute)
- (d) Utensil: [Khavho [ya [mukonyi]]
(Calabash with long tapering neck of water)
- (e) Transport: [Goloi [ya [gwangwangwa]]
(Van)

- (f) Walls: Maguvha a makolo.
(Designed walls)
- (g) Reading material: Bugu ya zwifanyiso.
(Picture book)

K. The descriptive part is a human

The descriptive part or the semantic adjective in the NP is the complement of the possessive [-a-].

- (a) Male: [Mutukana [wa [nde^lle]]]
(A handsome boy)
- [Galaha [la [luv^hovhola]]]
(A grumbled old man)
- [Mutukana [wa [ndeⁿwa]]]
(Spoiled boy)
- [Mutukana [wa [shoma]]]
(A boy who looks like his father)
- (b) Female: [Musidzana [wa [lunako]]]
(A beautiful girl)

[Musadzi [wa [phombwe]]

(A prostitute woman)

[Musidzana [wa [tshelvhete]]

(A talkative girl)

[Musidzana [wa [nambi]]

(A great singer girl)

[Musidzana [wa [phalaphathwa]]

(A teenage girl)

The descriptive part is a body part.

The following descriptive part is the complement of the possessive [-a-]

[Nwana [wa [shenga]]

(A child who firstly develop the front upper teeth)

[Nowa [ya [tsikuhuvhili]]

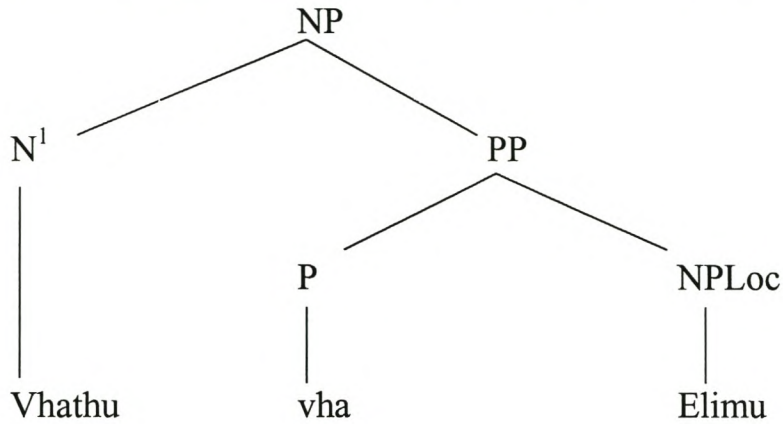
(Snake with two heads)

[Nwana [wa [nyaiṭo]]

(A child with one eye)

4.2.2.2. DESCRIPTIVE PART IS A LOCATIVE

The descriptive part is a locative, as indicated in the following structure:



The descriptive part in this NP will be the second NP Loc which is locative and it is also has the semantic feature of locative .

[Vhathu [vha [Elimu]]

(People of Elim)

[Yunivesithi [ya [Madevhula]]

(University of the North)

[Dorobo [ya [Thohoyandou]]

(Thohoyandou's town)

[Vhuongelo [ha [Siloam]]

(Siloam hospital)

[Muroho [wa [ngadeni]]
(Relish from the garden)

[Mavhele [a [hayani]]
(Maize from home)

[Phukha [dza [dʌkani]]
(Wild animals)

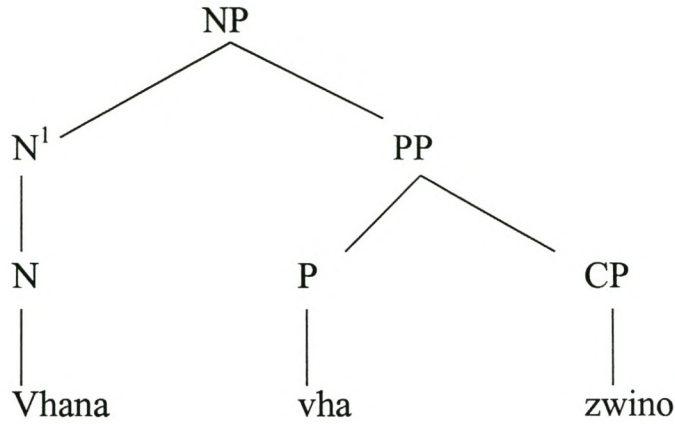
[Vhana [vha [musanda]]
(Children from chief's kraal)

[Mupfudze [wa [dangani]]
(Kraal manure)

[Goloi [dza [Amerika]]
(Cars from America)

[Nʌowa [ya [thavhani]]
(Black mamba)

4.2.2.3. THE DESCRIPTIVE PART INDICATES TIME



The descriptive part may also be complementizer phrase (CP) and it indicate time as indicated in the structure above.

Vhana vha [zwino]
(Children of these days)

Duvha la [khushumusi]
^ ^

(Day of Christmas)

Tshifhinga tsha [kale]
(Olden time)

Zwiliwa zwa [tshifhefho]
^

(Foods of autumn)

Zwiambaro zwa [vhuria]
(Winter clothes)

Nyendo dza [vhusiku]
(Night journey)

Mufhiso wa [tshilimo]
(Summer heat)

Murotho wa [vhuria]
(Cold of winter)

Phepho ya [ma^Λautsha]
(Dawn coldness)

Vhuswa ha [mulovha]
(Yesterday's porridge)

4.2.2.4. THE DESCRIPTIVE PART INDICATES AN EVENT: INFINITIVE

The descriptive part of the semantic adjective in the NP is the complement of the possessive –a-.

Tshifhinga tsha [u kuvha]
(Time of washing)

Vhege ya [u vhalwa]
(Census month)

Tshifhinga tsha [u kudzela]

(Laying time)

Ñwedzi wa [u goba]

(Planting month)

Tshifhinga tsha [u [^]la]

(Time of eating)

Ñwedzi wa [u ka[^]na]

(Harvesting month)

Duvha [^]la [^][u vHINGA]

(Day of married)

Vhege ya [u khetha]

(Voting week)

Tshifhinga tsha [u beba]

((Time of giving birth)

Vhege ya [u khetha]

(Election week)

Uri- clause

The descriptive part may also be complement phrase (CP) in the form of an uri-clause such an NP may indicate event.

[Mulingo wa [uri vha phasele kha inwe gireidi wo swika.]]

(The examination for promotion to the next grade has arrived)

[Nwedzi wa [uri ri ye Stellenbosch wo swika]]

(A month for going to Stellenbosch is arrived)

[Tshifhinga tsha [uri a awele tsho swika.]]

(Time for his retirement has arrived)

[Maḁuvha a [uri a lovhe o swika]]

(Days for his death have arrived)

[Vhege ya [uri a ye livini yo swika]]

(Week for having a leave has come)

4.2.2.5. THE DESCRIPTIVE PART INDICATES GENDER

The descriptive part may also be complementizer phrases (CP) in the form of gender.

[Liswole [la [mufumakadzi]]

(A female soldier)

[Liswole [la munna]]

(A male soldier)

Muongi [wa [musadzi]]

(A female nurse)

Muongi [wa [munna]]

(A male nurse)

[N̄wana wa [mutukana]]

(A baby boy)

[N̄wana wa [musidzana]]

(A baby girl)

Animals

[Mbudzana [ya [phambala]]

(A female goat)

[Mbudzi ya [thongo]]

(A castrated goat)

[Kholomo [ya [mboho]]

(A male cow)

[Kholomo [ya [tsadzi]]

(A female cow)

[Kholomo [ya [phulu]]

(An ox)

[Mmbwa [ya [khotho]]

(A male dog)

Mmbwa [ya [tsadzi]]

(A female dog)

[Nngu [ya [thutha]]

(A male sheep)

[Nngu [ya [tsadzi]]

(A female sheep)

[Tshimange [tsha [tshisadzi]]

(Female cat)

[Pfe_Λne [la [tshiondongolo]]

(A male leader baboon)

4.3. CONCLUSION

This chapter dealt with descriptive possessives that refers to some quantity or feature other than possession or belonging. They describe the noun they refer to in a different way to that of possessives.

Noun phrases may appear as complement of possessive (-a) where this (-a) has no possessive meaning, where they give the meaning of adjectives.

The head noun indicated different semantic features such as group of people, collection, bundle, gathering, series, heap and partitives. The descriptive part is also, shown as the complement of possessive [-a-] where they may indicate locative, time, event and gender.

CHAPTER 5

5.1. CONCLUSION

This chapter concludes the work done in chapter 1 up to 4 which is concerned with the interpretation of the adjective in Tshivenda which has as major function to qualify noun or pronoun:

Musadzi musekene.

(The thin woman)

Munna ndi mulapfu.

(The man is tall)

Various previous studies on the adjective, where different definitions were given, were consulted.

Quirk et al emphasise the fact that an adjective can not be identified as an isolated word, which means that an item may belong to more than one class. Criteria for adjectives treated and it was discovered that not all words that are traditionally regarded as adjectives possess all of these features in Tshivenda. For example in languages like English, they can take comparative and superlative forms which is unapplicable in Tshivenda.

Adjectives can freely occur in attributive position.

They can freely occur in predicative position. They can also premodified by intensifier “very.”

Dixon's semantic types were discussed of which ten of them were mentioned from those the following appear readily in Tshivenda:
^

1. Dimension – muhulu
2. Difficulty – vhukondi
^
3. Human propensity – vivho
4. Speed – tavhanya
^
5. Physical property – haka
6. Value – zwivhi
7. Age – mulala
8. Colour – mutshena

Adjectives were compared with other word class where the following were discovered:

Adjectives and adverbs share the common function of modification and they have common semantic and syntactic characteristics. Adjectives modify the meaning of the head noun whereas an adverb is used to provide certain additional information about actions that the verb denotes.

Some lexical item can be both adjectives and nouns. Compound adjectives can be formed by the combination of adjective and noun.

The relative clause with a copulative verb may also give the meaning of adjectives as reflected in the following construction:

1. Copulative relative clause with **re**:

Munna [a [re [mushayi]

(The man who is poor)

Mu^Λthannga [a [re [tshivhotshwa]

(The young man who is a prisoner)

2. The complement of **na**:

Mutukana [a [re [na [vhutshivha]

(The boy who is rude)

Musadzi [a [re [na vhubva]

(Woman who is lazy)

It has been distinguished that the limited number of adjectival stems in Tshivenda are grouped together in terms of their meanings.

It has been observed in this work that adjectives in Tshivenda can be recognized through an agreement morpheme which has to be exactly the same as the prefix of the head noun and an adjectival stem.

The meaning of some adjectival stem can be modified by adding the suffix [-nyana], [-ana] or [-sa]

Adjectival stems are reduplicated to emphasize their basic meaning.

Adjectives may be derived from other word category or some categories may be derived from adjectives. Adjectives are distributed into the following complement of noun, complement of preposition and complement of copular verb. It is further observed that adjectives are the base of exclamations and they can be used to construct comparison although in Tshivenda exclamations are additional constraints.

The descriptive possessive is a misleading term which does not have any possession in such a noun phrase but only the presence of a possessive [-a] which in this case has no meaning of possession.

Furthermore Du Plessis and Visser (1992:336-337) maintain that the confusion between possessives and descriptive possessives may have resulted because of the presence of a morpheme [a] in both cases. In this case [a] has no possessive meaning.

The descriptive part is also indicated where it is the head of the noun and where it is the complement of the possessive [-a-]. They indicate location, time event and gender.

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