

THE ADJECTIVE IN XHOSA

BY

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DECLARATION

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

SUMMARY

Adjectives in Xhosa represent a small, closed class of descriptive nominal modifiers, which are categorized as the adjective because of their morphological behaviour, i.e. they all have to appear with the prefix of the noun which is the head of the Noun Phrase.

There are other nominal modifiers in Xhosa, which may have the same descriptive function as the small class of morphological adjectives. Attention focuses on the relative clauses and descriptive possessives.

The term "Adjective" in Xhosa includes the semantic adjective. Various scholars define the adjective as a distinct category by establishing specific criteria for. Semantic prototypes with noun, adjective and verb types, i.e. semantic types according to Dixon (1991) are considered. Semantic types in Xhosa may also have this feature. The following categories have been considered: morphological adjective, descriptive possessive, relative clauses, i.e. nominal relative clauses and the verbal relative clauses.

With regard to the morphological adjective: Some basic notions on the morphological adjectives, specifically the morphology of adjectives, adjectival phrases, the distribution of the adjectives, comparison and the co-ordinated adjectives, and the definite morpheme are dealt with.

The following values have been dealt with regarding the structure of the relative clause, i.e. the nominal relative clause with the definite morpheme [a], the copulative verb and the nominal relative complements of the copulative verbs.

Two issues have been discussed in the case of the descriptive possessive: firstly, where the descriptive part is the head of the Noun Phrase with meanings such as groups, nouns denoting quantity, cardinal numbers, the partitives, units of measure and mass, humans with the features of psychological and physical features, the infinitive clause, and secondly, the descriptive part is the complement of the preposition [-a-].

OPSOMMING

Adjektiewe in Xhosa verteenwoordig 'n klein geslote klas van deskriptiewe nominale bepalers wat as 'n adjektief kategorie beskou word op grond van hul morfologie, d.i. hulle moet almal voorkom saam met die prefiks van die naamwoord wat die kern is van die naamwoordgroep.

Daar is ander nominale bepalers in Xhosa wat dieselfde deskriptiewe funksie as die klein klas van morfologiese adjektiewe kan hê. Aandag is gegee aan die relatiewe en deskriptiewe possessiewe.

Die term "adjektief" in Xhosa sluit die semantiese adjektief in: verskeie taalkundiges definieer die adjektief as 'n aparte kategorie deur spesifieke kriteria vir adjektiewe te bepaal. Semantiese prototipes met naamwoorde, adjektiewe en werkwoordtipes, d.i. semantiese tipes volgens Dixon (1991) is ondersoek. Semantiese tipes in Xhosa kan ook hierdie kenmerk hê. Die volgende kategorieë is ondersoek: Morfologiese adjektief, deskriptiewe possessief, relatief klouse waaronder nominale en werkwoordelike relatiewe klouse.

Met verwysing na die morfologiese adjektief: sekere basiese begrippe ten opsigte van die morfologiese adjektief is nagegaan, waaronder spesifiek die morfologie van adjektiewe, adjektief frases, die distribusie van die adjektiewe, vergelyking en die neweskikkende adjektiewe sowel as die bepaaldheidsmorfeem.

Die volgende sake is oorweeg met betrekking tot die struktuur van die relatief klous: die nominale relatief klous met die bepaaldheidsmorfeem [-a-], die kopulatiewe werkwoord en die nominale relatiewe komplemente van die kopulatiewe werkwoorde.

Twee sake is bespreek in die geval van die deskriptiewe possessief: eerstens, die deskriptiewe deel is die kern van die naamwoordfrase met betekenis soos groepe, naamwoorde wat kwantiteit aandui, hooftelwoorde, partitiewe, eenhede van maat en massa, mense met sielkundige en fisiese kenmerke, die infinitief klous, en tweedens die deskriptiewe deel is die komplement van die preposisie [-a-].

I dedicate this work to:

My mother, Dorothy Bottoman,
who left me on this earth while struggling to get this degree.

My father, Ashington Bottoman

and to these special people in my life:
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 AIM

The aim of the study is to establish how Xhosa may represent the descriptive nominal modifier. It is well known that adjectives in Xhosa represent a small, closed class of the descriptive nominal modifiers which are categorized as the adjectives because of their morphological behavior i.e. they all have to appear with the prefix of the noun which is the head of the NP.

It is the aim of this study then to look for other nominal modifiers in Xhosa, which may also have a descriptive function as the small class of morphological adjectives. Attention will be focused on relative clauses, descriptive possessives and others.

1.2 ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

Section I of this research project consists of an introduction where the aims, organization of the work and an introduction of principles will be discussed.

Section II of this work consists of the semantic adjective where scholars define adjectives as a distinct category by establishing the criteria for adjectives. Prototype Theory, multiple criteria, antonymy, gradation, markedness, polysemy and selection, attribution and predication will be considered. Semantic prototypes with noun, adjective and verb types, semantic types according to Dixon (1991) with five major types will be considered:

- ◆ Concrete Reference
- ◆ Abstract Reference
- ◆ States and properties
- ◆ Activities
- ◆ Speech Acts

The semantic types in Xhosa, which may have this feature: the morphological adjective, descriptive possessive, relative clauses, i.e. nominal relative clauses and the verbal relative clauses.

Section III of this project sets out to discuss some basic notions on the morphological adjectives, specifically, how other scholars view the adjectives, the morphology of adjectives, adjectival phrases, the distribution of the adjectives, comparison and the co-ordinated adjectives, previous studies on the adjective, the definite morpheme, morphological structure e.g. possessives, relative clauses, demonstrative, negatives and vocatives, the class prefixes, the adjectival stems which consists of the semantic classification, selectional restrictions, the individual- level v/s the stage-level, affixes with the diminutive affixes, augmentative suffix-kazi- the prefix -bu- and the suffix -rha-, reduplication of adjective stems, the morphological structure of an adjective, transposition, compound nouns with the adjective, adjectival phrase, the distribution of the adjective i.e. the complement of a noun, complement of a verb i.e. copulative verb LI and ba, syntactic position in a clause, the comparison and the adjective, exclamations, co-ordination and the adjectives with na will also be dealt with.

Section IV will discuss the structure of the relative clause i.e. the nominal relative clause with the definite morpheme [a], the copulative verb, the nominal relative complements of the copulative verbs i.e. states, dimension, taste, quantity, the physical property, human features, animal features, comparatives, the distribution of the nominal relative clause within a noun phrase, the subject position of a sentence, the object position of a sentence, the complement of a preposition i.e. with na as a head, with ku as a head, with a possessive a and its summary.

Section V of this work shall consist of the descriptive possessive where the descriptive part is the head of the Noun Phrase such as groups i.e. group of people, group of animals, or quantity i.e. nouns denoting quantity, cardinal numbers, the partitives, units of measure and mass, humans i.e. psychological and physical features, the classification of the features, the infinitive clause and secondly where the descriptive part is the complement of the preposition [-a-]. The descriptive part may be a natural object or a natural phenomenon, the descriptive part indicates food, the descriptive part is a plant, the descriptive part is an artifact, the descriptive part is a locative, the descriptive part indicates time, the descriptive part is an infinitive clause and also the descriptive part is an ukuba clause.

1.3 THE METHOD OF RESEARCH

1.3.1 Literature Review

Material from other linguistic researches and other published works will be reflected in the bibliography.

1.3.2 Collection and Organization of data

Data was collected through consultations and the forming of sentences within the framework of each separate section.

CHAPTER 2

THE SEMANTIC ADJECTIVE

2.1 AIM

The major aim of this chapter is to give the criteria for adjectives. Its introduction will be given below, a brief explanation of a prototype; multiple criteria, antonym, gradation, markedness, polysemy and selection, attribution and predication, semantic prototypes, universal semantic types and semantic types in Xhosa will be dealt with.

2.2 CRITERIA FOR ADJECTIVES

2.2.1 Introduction

In languages like English, adjectives as a word class are different from nouns and verbs. The exact nature of this distinction and criteria that can be used for defining or describing it is disputed in the case of this language. Adjectives are defined as words that refer to properties or qualities and are differentiated from nouns and verbs because nouns mean person, places and things and verbs mean events or actions.

Another possible approach is to differentiate adjectives from nouns and verbs on the basis of their morphosyntactic properties. Let us take English as an example where you can use degree modifiers with adjectives but not with nouns and verbs. Nouns show number distinction and take a possessive marker whereas verbs show tense, aspects and mood distinction. You will not find these characteristics in adjectives. Adjectives generally tend to neutralise the number distinction, even when occurring as predicates, they require an auxiliary support so that it may get associated with tense, aspect and mood distinction.

All lexical items that belong to the adjectival category do not show morphosyntactic characteristics. Degree modification is not allowed with all of them. Some of these characteristics may not be found in some languages, for example, inflection.

To make use of function in syntax or discourse is another approach of the linguists in order to differentiate between adjectives and other categories like nouns and verbs. Adjectives

in English occur primarily as complements of nouns in noun phrases whereas nouns and verbs occur primarily as heads of noun phrases and the predicates of the sentence.

You find a problem in the case of English, of lexical items that need to be regarded as adjectives but which do not occur with the primary function of modifying a head noun in a noun phrase. We also find a problem in languages in which these primary functions are not always properly recognisable from one another. Different attempts to define adjectives as a distinct category and to differentiate them from other categories gave two types of problems e.g.:

- ◆ Failure to account for variations inside word classes.
- ◆ Failure to be general enough to apply to all languages.

Scholars suggest other ways to resolve these problems.

2.2.2 Prototype

A classical theory of categorisation needs to be discarded in order to resolve the problem that is mentioned above. In relation to this classical theory properties that define a category are to be shared by all its members and all members are considered to have equal status as category members. Lexical categories like nouns, verbs and adjectives do not seem to support such a claim. They only appear to display internal variation concerning the type of meaning they express the type of morphosyntactic characteristics they manifest and the function they have.

There is another theory of categorisation, which is called "Prototype Theory", and it has been developed in cognitive psychology. Linguists have to find out that such a theory would be more suitable than the classical one for defining and characterising lexical categories in language. According to Prototype Theory human categorisation proceeds from central to peripheral instances, central instances of a given category being 'prototypical' for that category. According to the researchers subjects overwhelmingly agree in their judgements of how good examples are of a category, even for categories about whose boundaries they disagree.

Rosch (1978:37) points out that the more prototypical a member is rated, the more attributes it has in common with other members of the category and fewer attributes in common with members of contrasting categories. In natural language category, the extent to which items have attributes common to the category was negatively correlated with the extent to which they have attributes belonging to members of contrasting categories. He also suggests that this is part of the structure of real- world categories.

Rosch and her associates gave the notion of categories at the basic level as against those at the superordinate and subordinate levels. Lexical items like [table, motor] can be taken as basic as compared to lexical items [like furniture, and vehicle], which are superordinates and [table and sports car] which are subordinates respectively.

Lakoff (1987:51) as quoted by Bhat (1994) points out that this distinction in the "level" of lexical items depends upon the way people interact with objects and the way people perceive, image and organise information about them as well as behave towards them with their bodies. When subjects are asked to list the attributes of categories, very few list attributes of category members of the superordinate level, but most of what they know is at the basic level, whereas at the subordinate level you find virtually no increase in knowledge over basic level.

The importance of this idea of prototypes for characterisation of adjective scan be inferred from Dixon (1982) as quoted by Bhat (1994) in a study of adjectives based primarily upon data from seventeen different languages. He divides adjectives into seven different semantic types and points out four of them that are consistently associated with an adjectival category. Languages that have only a limited class of adjectives are likely to have four of these concepts at least. Semantic types like physical property; human propensity and speed may be included in other categories like verbs, noun and adverbs showing that they are less prototypical than the former.

According to Croft (1991:272) as quoted by Bhat (1994) an approach of this nature, in which members of a given word class are considered to show the properties of that class to different degrees would be unavailable for a formalist approach to language. This approach will rely on criteria definitions for grammatical concepts with sharp boundaries. He continues that only a functional approach would be able to make use of the Prototype Theory.

McCawly (1982: 177) as mentioned by Bhat: the problem of internal variability of word classes has led to two different approaches in generative grammar:

- ◆ "interpretative semantics"
- ◆ "generative semantics"

- ◆ Is treated differently by a transformation as belonging to different categories.
- ◆ Is treated alike by the transformation as belonging to the same categories.

2.2.3 Multiple criteria

None of the various criteria that have been proposed by different scholars for characterising the adjectival category can be resolved by using several of those criteria together in our characterisation of the adjectives. When you examine different kinds of criteria it reveals that most of them are interconnected and they form a unified system of explanation. Several scholars saw the need of making use of two or more criteria for a proper characterisation of categories. Categorisation does not merely depend upon the nature of the entities that are being categorised, but also upon the needs, experiences and motivations of human beings who established the categories namely "experienced realism" in contrast to classical "objective realism".

Bhat (1994) says that Hopper and Thompson (1984:708) saw semantic features to be inadequate for the purpose of categorisation. They claim that "prototypically in linguistic categorisation depends not only on independently verifiable semantic properties but also on linguistic function in the discourse. Contexts in which two notions conflict with another appear to favour sentential function against lexical content.

The major syntactic categories of noun, verb and adjective can be analysed in terms of two independent but prototypically correlated parameters:

Semantic class of the lexical item and the pragmatic function of the role it plays in its manifestation in a position in the clause structure (Croft 1991:93)

Adjectives may be defined in terms of there:

- ◆ belonging, prototypically to the semantic class of properties
- ◆ Having modification as the primary function.

McCawley (1982:185) saw the necessity to use a multiplicity of factors in order to resolve problems in defining syntactic categories. He has the option of replacing the notion of syntactic category by such factors. His proposal is to operate directly in terms of a number of distinct factors to which syntactic phenomena can be sensitive. Syntactic category names, according to this proposal will be merely informal abbreviations for combinations of these factors. He also suggests that factors like logical category, lexical category, morphological differences, grammatical relations and constraints on transformations would be relevant for syntactic purposes. Taking for granted the lexical categories as distinct from syntactic, semantic and functional factors that support their postulation would be helpful in explicating the correlation's that are among the functional factors and notion of decategorization and recategorization.

2.3 ANTONYMS

According to WordNet antonyms is the basic semantic relation among descriptive adjectives. In other words antonyms is the principal semantic relation among adjectives and its distribution among members of the two other open word classes is even more limited. There are also verbs and nouns that have antonyms and they operate with an adjective pair sharing the same base morpheme. Let us look at the following examples of nouns and verbs:

Beauty	-	beautify
Ugly	-	uglify

Their related antonymous adjectives are beautiful-ugly.

Productive suffix -ify - do form the verbs. Antonymous verbs are stative and they can be expressed in terms of attributes. Victory and defeat form an antonymous pair and the related adjectives are victorious and defeated. Antonymous adjectives do occur in the same sentence in context where adjectives are substituted for one another.

The semantic relation we are talking about in antonyms is between word forms. These word forms imply that a word form with two different meanings has two different word forms. According to WordNet digits represent the difference. Generally the word antonyms is a relation described in terms of semantic opposition and it is properly defined over pairs of lexical items rather than concepts.

Associations between antonymous adjective pairs are formed. Adjectives occur in identical context and furthermore are mutually substitutable. The importance of antonym became popular from the results received with word association test: when the probe is a familiar adjective, the attitude given by the adult speakers is its antonym e.g. probe [good] response is [bad]. The mutuality of association is a salient feature of data for descriptive adjectives. This importance of antonyms in the organisation of descriptive adjectives is understandable when you notice that the work of these adjectives is to express values of attributes and they tend to be bipolar.

Antonymous adjectives show the opposing values of an attribute e.g. antonym of [heavy is light], a value is shown at the opposite pole of the weight attribute. Antonym organised certain sub-areas of noun and verb lexicons e.g. there are semantically opposed verb pairs that show a change of physical state e.g. [live-die] or are distributed in a systematic fashion throughout the verb lexicon. Lot of antonymous noun pairs show the opposing like -[life-death]

Since antonyms are the organising principle of speaker's mental adjective lexicon, antonyms relate to many nouns and verbs, not only to adjectives. It is shown that antonyms are more pervasive among adjectives. We also find a problem in antonyms that the antonym relation between word forms is not the same as the conceptual opposition between word meanings. A number of antonyms of descriptive adjectives are formed by a morphological rule that totally changes the polarity of the meaning by just adding the negative prefix. Morphological rules apply to word forms and not to word meanings. A semantic reflex is found in case of antonyms and this semantic reflex is striking in that it turns aside the attention from the hidden cause of morphological process. The important results of the morphological origin of antonyms is that word form antonyms is not primarily a relation between meanings, so making impossible simple representation of antonyms by pointers between synsets.

Miller (1989:51) points out that there are direct and indirect antonyms. All adjectives that are descriptive have antonyms, that is a direct or indirect antonym. Direct antonyms are those that are similar in meaning to adjectives. The antonym pointer represents direct antonyms. The indirect antonyms are inherited through similarity that indicated the similarity pointer and meaning is similar. The example is that [prompt] does not have a direct antonym that can be in the path. [Prompt] is similar to [fast], it is antonymous to [slow].

The adjectives that have no satisfactory antonyms are of the strongest and most colourful in the language. Antonymous pairs showing the same sense or a related sense and representing values of the same attribute pose another problem. In such a problem the same set of satellite synsets can be related to two different antonymous pairs:

Big - little
Large - small

These are equally salient as antonyms explaining the attribute size. A pair of [large and little] are not antonymous pairs and [big and little] and [large and small] are considered a pair. So in these two pairs we see a demonstration that antonyms is a semantic relation between words rather than a relation between concepts.

The claim is that two adjectives are antonyms and that antonyms must be the basic organising principle for learning and remembering the meanings of adjectives. Two adjectives we talked about are learned as direct antonyms because they occur together, are being heard and are spoken together in the same sentence more often.

2.4 GRADATION

Gradation is considered as a semantic relation organising lexical memory for adjectives. Ordered strings of adjectives can express gradation for some attributes. In the discussion of antonyms we find a distinction between contradictory and contrary terms. Logically two propositions are said to be contradictory if the truth of one suggests the falsity of the other and they are said to be contrary if one proposition can be true but both can be false.

WordNet quotes Lyons (1977, vol. 1) by pointing out that this definition of contrary terms is not limited to the opposites but it is also applied to meaningless terms. He further argues that gradability provides the better explanation of these differences and not truth functions. So contraries are gradable adjectives but contradictories are not.

These are lexicalized gradations for size, quality, lightness, body weight and temperature. The neutral middle of each attribute is a very uneasy grade to find. It is not easy to lexicalize in some cases whereas extremes are extensively lexicalized. Gradation is usually completed in other ways by means of adverbs of degree e.g. very, quite, rather. Most of grading is done by morphological rules for the comparative and superlative degrees. The relation of gradation does not play a central role in organisation of adjectives. Generally gradation is the arrangement in order e.g. of rank.

2.5 MARKEDNESS

A general linguistic phenomenon called markedness show the antonyms [deep and shallow]. Unmarked spatial adjectives can take measure phrases. Depth is the acceptable measure phrase. But when the antonym is used, shallow is not acceptable. Deep is an unmarked term while shallow is marked and it does not take measure phrases. Measure phrases are not suitable with many attributes. All direct antonyms can be characterised by markedness as a general phenomenon.

The point of origin is the default value and deviation from it merits comment and is known as the marked value of an attribute. The primary or unmarked term is the default value of the attribute. The value would be assumed in the absence of information to the contrary. In cases like wet and dry there will be an argument of which term should be regarded as primary but in many pairs the marker is morphological explicit in the form of a negative prefix.

Markedness has not been clearly coded in WordNet. Nouns that name an attribute e.g. depth and adjectives expressing values of that attribute are linked in WordNet by pointers e.g. in case of deep and shallow.

2.6 POLYSEMY AND SELECTION

WordNet quoted Justeson and Katz (1993) by saying that the different senses of polygamous adjectives occur with specific nouns, e.g. old, meaning not young modifies a hyponym of a person. On the other hand the meaning of old i.e. not knew often modifies hyponyms of an artefact. Noun context may disambiguate polygamous adjectives.

There is a view that holds that adjectives are monogamous but with different extensions. According to Murphy and Andrew (1993) speakers compute the appropriate meanings in combination with the meanings of the nouns that the adjectives modify. They further argue against the fact that antonyms is a relation between the two word forms on basis of the fact that the speakers generate different antonyms for an adjective like fresh depending on whether it modifies clothes or bread. WordNet also stated that Justeson and Katz (1993) has adopted this view and pointed out that the different antonyms can help to disambiguate polygamous adjectives.

Different senses of an ambiguous word often have different antonyms. We notice that polygamous adjectives are very selective about the noun they modify. If the referent shown by a noun does not have the attribute of a value that can be expressed by the adjective, then the general rule is that the adjective -noun combination requires a figurative or idiomatic interpretation e.g. [tall]: a building or a person can be tall because they have height as an attribute.

[Streets and stories] do not require [height], so a literal reading is not admitted in tall streets and tall stories. Let us compare a short story and a tall story or a short order with a tall order. Thus adjectives differ widely in their breadth of application. It is said that adjectives expressing evaluations can modify almost any noun. But other adjectives are limited with respect to the range of nouns they can modify.

The semantic contribution of an adjective is secondary to the nouns they modify and it is also dependent on the nouns they modify. Different adjectives take on different meanings when they modify different nouns. Let us use the example of tall, which can refer to a person or a tree or to a building.

Part of the meaning of each of the nouns is a range of expected values for the attribute height. Tall is interpreted relative to the expected height of objects of the kind denoted by the head noun. A nominal concept contains the information about the expected values of those attributes in addition to containing a mere list of its attributes e.g. [person and building] have the attribute of height, but the height of a building is greater than the height of a person.

2.7 ATTRIBUTION AND PREDICATION

There is a relation between predicative and attributive adjectives. There are many attributive adjectives that are never predicative e.g.

- 1(a) the main problem - *the problem is main.
- (b) A fond student - *the student is fond

Adjectives that allow particular attributive uses lack a predicative counterpart:

2. (a) a quiet storm - * the storm is quiet
- (b) an angry wave - * the wave is angry

Few adjectives are predicative but never attributive in the same sense :

- 3 (a) the boy is drowsy - * a drowsy boy
- (b) the woman is rich - * a rich woman

Let us look at the example of a [sorry look and the look is sorry]. Sorry does not allow predication but it allows attribution. Many adjectives are restricted to attributive positions rather than to predicative positions. The chief advantages of generative grammar are that it enables one to disambiguate constructional ambiguity. Instead of clearing up ambiguity, the traditional predicative versus attributive transformation creates it. Together with most adjectives the contrast is difficult to describe.

According to Bolinger (1967):

There is a clear functional difference between predicative modification and attributive modification. Two solutions are offered to account for the restrictions. The first is that [be] predication in so far as they are involved at all are of the spectral types, which selects adjectives whose meaning can have a temporal spread. The second is that two types of generation be recognised, one, termed reference modification, being in the kernel and allowing for a "kind of" slot among the determiners, the other, termed referent modification, being by way of a predication which is joined by the conjunction rather than by subordination.

He further goes on saying that:

There are adverbial predications from which the adverb is recovered as an adjective. There are some attributive that are accounted for only on the theory that adjectives exercise a kind of hegemony in modification and tend to crowd out adverbs e.g. There is a definite shortage of gum (there is definitely a shortage of gum).

Better case can be made for deriving the stative [be] predicative from attributive than for reversing. If we derive these sentences it seems best to go to the passive voice directly: Predication from which the verb is recovered as well as its complements. These are typical compound [-ings] and compound deponent [-eds]

- 4 (a) The man walks slow - a slow walking man
- (b) The girl loves home - a home loving girl

Great majority of predications is not transposable to attributive position. Possible sources of attributive adjectives leaves us in doubt whether to include a [be-] predicative stage or not. Take adjectival [-ed-] suffix, which can be related to predications with [have]:

- 5 (a) The man has one eye - the one-eyed man
- (b) The road has crooks - the crooked road

It is obvious that the transformation that can fill the attributive slot have many sources other than simple [be] predications. The question is whether the [be] predications themselves can all be used. First step is how predicative and attributive have restrictions that bear out semantic labels' characterisation and suggests the need for recognising two kinds of [be] predications. The attributive set with most striking restrictions is that of the perfect participles. The predicative set similarly endowed is that of adjectives called "temporary"

- ◆ Perfect participles that can be used attributively are the ones that leave marks on something e.g. a smashed car.
- ◆ Temporary adjectives. If an adjective names a quality that is too fleeting to characterise anything it is restricted to predicative use.

Temporary adjectives are in a weak position for attributive use, attribution is proportionately more difficult. A temporary adjective may be cemented in place by a context that is equivalent to a predication. One set of temporary adjectives is distinguished formally, those having the prefix -a-. These have been restricted to predicative and post -adjunct position both by their adverbial origin and by their sense of temporaries

Adjectives with complements of their own may of course be excluded by that fact from attributive position.

6. The man was loth to speak, * the loth man.

2.8 SEMANTIC PROTOTYPES

Lexical words of a language can be grouped into a number of semantic types, each of which has a common meaning component, and a typical set of grammatical properties. One of the grammatical properties of a type is its association with a grammatical word class or part of speech.

Semantic and syntactic characteristics of those semantic types are in English associated with the verb class. Some semantic types are associated with noun and adjective classes in English and also the division of primary and secondary verb types. Semantic types are

not mutually exclusive. Words of specialised meaning may combine the semantic properties of more than one type.

2.8.1 Semantic types

According to Dixon (1991), semantic types are associated with the noun class. There are five major types associated with grammatical class noun in English:

(1) Concrete reference - this type can be divided into human, other animate, parts.

Inanimate can be subdivided into flora, celestial and weather, environment. Subgroup of human relates to rank and social group, to kin terms and social group. Members of this type are almost basic noun roots although there are few which are derived from verbs e.g. building

(2) Abstract reference:

Subtype here includes time, place, quality, variety, language and general abstract noun or terms like idea, unit, problem, method, result and truth. Also in this type members are almost or predominantly basic noun roots although there are some derived stems e.g. distance, height.

(3) States and (properties):

This covers both mental and corporeal like aches and strength. Some nouns are basic nouns but many are derived from adjectives and few from verbs e.g. delight

(4) Activities:

Some are basic nouns e.g. war, game but most are derived from verbs e.g. decision, speculation, whipping.

For almost every activity noun there is a corresponding verb, even if it is not always cognate e.g. play for game.

(5) Speech acts:

Example of a question, order, report, description, talk and promise: in each case there is a related verb, this is usually cognate e.g. answer, congratulations although there are some exceptions e.g. question or ask.

Every language has words of these five types but they do not belong to the same noun class, others belong to the verb or adjective classes. The main significance of five noun types lies in the verbs with which they occur.

Types associated with adjective class:

1. Dimension - measurement
2. Physical properties - strong, heavy, stout, including corporeal
3. Speed - Fast, slow, quick
4. Age - Old, young, new
5. Colour - purple, orange, yellow, maroon
6. Value - good, bad
7. Difficult - tough, hard, simple, smooth
8. Qualifications with subtypes
 - ◆ Definite - factual qualification regarding an event: is it definite.
 - ◆ Possible - opinion of a speaker about an event: is it possible.
 - ◆ Usual - opinion of a speaker about how common: is it the happening
 - ◆ Likely - opinion of a speaker: is it likely to happen again.
 - ◆ Sure - is an opinion but having the stronger attention on subject's control.
 - ◆ Correct - is it correct, appropriate or right.
9. Human propensity with subtypes
 - ◆ Fond - tender, fond of
 - ◆ Angry - explaining an emotional reaction to a certain happening e.g. mad, jealous
 - ◆ Happy - responding to a certain happening, cheerful, glad
 - ◆ Unsure - speakers uncertainty about potential event
 - ◆ Eager - be willing or be prepared

- ◆ Clever - to have ability or attitude towards certain relation, kind or generous

10. Similarity - comparing two things or events

Almost all the members of the dimension, physical property, speed, age, difficulty and qualification are basic adjectives. Many of the less central colour terms are derived from verbs in the value type and some of the human propensity and similarity types e.g. thankful, prepared, different. Few words in value and human propensity are derived from nouns like [lucky].

These adjective types have different grammatical properties. The prefix [un] occurs with a fair number of qualification and human propensity adjectives. Some prefix occurs from the value type and few occur from physical property and similarity types. You find none from the dimension, speed, age, colour, or difficulty types. The verbalising suffix [-en-] is used with many adjectives from the following types:

- ◆ Dimension
- ◆ Physical property
- ◆ Speed
- ◆ Age and colour

Derived adverbs may be formed from almost all adjectives in speed, value, qualification, human propensity and similarity.

Adverbs based on adjectives in dimension and colour tend to be restricted to a metaphorical meaning e.g. "warmly commend". An adjective will modify the meaning of a noun and can be used as either "attributively" as modifier with a NP e.g. "that clever man is coming" or "predicatively" following a copula e.g. "that man is clever"

Dimension, physical property, colour and age adjectives typically relate to a concrete noun. Speed type can modify concrete or an activity noun. Human propensity adjectives as the label implies, generally relate to a human noun. Difficulty and qualification adjectives tend to refer to an event and may have as subject an appropriate noun or a complement clause. Value adjectives may refer to anything, the subject can be any kind of noun or a complement clause, this type of adjectives may take as subject an [ing] or

[that] complement clause, (that clause will generally be extraposed), e.g. "Mary 's baking a cake for us was lovely ", It is lucky that John came on time.

Similarly adjectives relate to two things that can be concrete, abstract or activities, but should normally both come from the same category. Value and difficult types can also take in subject relation a complement clause, which has no subject, stated. This applied to [ing] clauses for value adjectives e.g. "helping poor people is good " and both for Modal (for) [to] and [ing] clauses for difficulty adjectives e.g. "operating our mower is hard ", It is hard to operate our mower"

Value and difficulty adjectives occur in a further construction, one in which what could be object of complement clause functions as subject of the adjective. Within qualification type we get various subtypes that differ in kinds of complement clause they accept. The overall possibilities are:

- I. a [that] complement as subject, often extraposed e.g. "That John will win is probable, It is probable that John will win.
- II. a Modal (for) [to] complement as subject e.g. It is unusual for a baby to talking at one year.
- III. a variant of (two) where the complement clause subject is raised to fill main clause subject slot, replacing it and [for] is then dropped e.g. a baby is likely to talk by thirty - six months, John was wrong to resign.
- IV. an [ing] complement clause in subject slot (often with the subject omitted) e.g. "your taking out accident insurance was sensible.

Human propensity adjectives normally have a human noun as subject. Various subtypes of human propensity have differing complement possibilities:

Similarity adjectives have similar meaning and syntax to comparing verbs. There may be NP 's or [ing] complement clauses, with comparable meanings, in subject slot and in post -predicate slot. There are various adjectival types for the semantic explanation for the differing complement possibilities. Almost all languages have major word classes that can be labelled Noun and Verb, some do not have a major word class Adjective. A fair number of languages have a small, closed adjective class, which generally comprises dimension, age, value and colour. In those languages the human propensity type tends

to be associated with Noun class and the physical property type with the verb class. Many languages do not have words for qualification as members of the Adjective class, they may be adverbs or grammatical particles.

VERB TYPES

Each semantic type associated with the verb class takes a number of semantic roles. A [giving] verb involves donor, gift and recipient. If a verb has two or more semantic roles then one will be mapped onto transitive and one onto a transitive object syntactic function. There is a semantic principle determining which role corresponds to which function.

Semantic roles are mapped onto syntactic relations. If a verb has only one core role this is always corresponds to intransitive subject at the level of syntax. Some semantic types include alternative lexemes, which differ in that one focus on a particular non- A role as most salient while others focuses on a different role. Some verbs from semantic types that have three core roles appear in two kinds of construction, with alternative roles being mapped onto transitive objects. These two constructions have different semantic implications, the role identified as transitive object is focused on, as particularly salient in this instance of the activity.

What is done by morphology in one language may be achieved through syntax in another language. English puts the subject before the verb and the object after it. Some languages have derivational morphemes that correspond to separate lexemes in other languages. Examples could be given for a concept that is expressed by a derivational process in one language but only as a separate lexical verb in another. It is not, however the case that anything, which is a verb, root in one language may be a derivational morpheme in another.

We have primary and secondary verbs. Primary are those that directly refer to some activity or state i. e. verbs that can make up a sentence themselves with appropriate NP 's filling the various semantic roles. e.g. "I hit her, She munched peanuts". These are lexical verbs in every language.

Secondary verbs are those that provide semantic modification of some other verbs, with which they are in syntactic or morphological construction. i.e. verbs that are printed in

capitals, I MAY hit her, we stopped her munching peanuts. Some may be realised as verbal affixes in languages that show morphology.

2.8.2 Semantic types in Xhosa

2.8.2.1 Aim

The aim of this section is to establish which categories may appear with the meaning of an adjective e.g. as a semantic adjective. The following categories may have this feature:

2.8.2.2 The morphological adjective

The following examples are examples of adjectives with nouns i. e.

- (a) **umfana ombi**
"the ugly young man "
- (b) **intombi entle**
"the beautiful girl "
- (c) **umfazi omdala**
"an old woman "

In (a, c) there is a morpheme [a] appearing as [o] which is a definite morpheme as well as [m] which is the agreement morpheme. This agreement morpheme agrees with its head e.g. [umfana or umfazi] and then we have an adjective stem [-bi- and -dala-]. In the example of [intombi entle], the definite morpheme appears as [e] and [n] is the agreement morpheme which agrees with its head [intombi].

In Xhosa morphologically all adjectives are marked by the presence of these three elements:

1. definite morpheme
2. agreement morpheme which has to be the same as the prefix of the head and
3. an adjectival stem

They can appear attributively and predicatively. They are few in numbers and they form a closed class. More details will be given in Chapter 3.

2.8.2.3 Descriptive possessive

Let us have a look at the examples of the descriptive possessive as well as the way they are formed:

- (a) **umnyobo wemoto**
"a very beautiful car "
- (b) **inkintsela yesela**
"a very strong thief "
- (c) **ipokomela lendlu**
"a very big house"

We have a possessive preposition [a] and this [a] has no possessive meaning. A noun phrase appears as complement of a possessive [a]. The descriptive possessive will be dealt with in Chapter 4.

2.8.2.4 Relative Clauses

Several relative clauses may appear as complements of noun phrases but they have an interpretation of semantic adjectives. The following relative clauses may have this interpretation:

(i) NOMINAL RELATIVE CLAUSES

- (a) **ingca eluhlaza**
"green grass"
- (b) **indlela emxinwa**
"the narrow road "

- (c) **amanzi adikidiki**
"luke warm water"

A noun phrase, which appears as a relative stem, is a complement, which is exclusive to the copulative verb. They form an open class. This relative stem has the same meaning as the adjective of description. One may recognise them through a noun class prefix. On the other hand they do not function syntactically as a noun. More details are going to be discussed in Chapter 5.

(ii) VERBAL RELATIVE CLAUSES

In these relatives the verb in the clause is a stative verb. Mncube (1931) has this to say about stative verbs:

...certain verbs form their immediate past tense by modifying the vowels of the last two syllables of the verb stem, the majority of such verbs have the vowel -a- in this syllable which is modified to -e-. Such verbs reveal that the state indicated is however always the result of the action completed. They give a present -tense meaning though perfect in form :

(a)	lala	(sleep)	>	lele	(asleep)
	zala	(be full)	>	zele	(full)
	sala	(remain)	>	sele	(behind)
	thwala	(carry)	>	thwele	(carrying)
	enzakala	(be hurt)	>	enzakele	(hurt)

The following subcategories of stative verbs may give an indication of the wide use of verbs, which show a descriptive meaning:

Stative verb shows the result of a process, a condition which has began and is still continuing. They express in the past-tense while having a meaning of present tense.

PHYSICAL FEATURES

(1) AGE

Old

(a) indoda egugileyo

"a shabby man"

(b) ixhego elinkothovayo

(c) indoda engwevuzayo

Middle Age : umfana oqinayo

Old, sickly : ixhego elixekexileyo

(2) PHYSICAL DISADVANTAGED

Blind : omfamekileyo

Cripple : olimeleyo, odaliweyo, oqhwaelayo.

(3) BODY SHAPE

GOOD SHAPE

Slender : ongcothozayo, oqhathulayo

Well-built : oqushumbayo, oqhumayo

WOMAN WITH SHAPELY BODY : osudukayo

STRONG AND POWERFUL : equkanyayo

TALL : osethulukayo

HEALTHY : oqishimbayo

BAD SHAPE

LEAN : oqutsuzayo

LEAN AND EMACIATED : oqwangayo, oqhovuzayo

EMACIATED : oqhovuzayo, orhoqozayo

THIN : ongcekezayo

STOUT AND HUGE : oxazileyo

FAT : otekezayo, otyebileyo

SHORT : okhakhasholwayo

DWARF	:	obheveleyo
THICKEST	:	otukuzayo
SICKLY	:	ogulayo
PALE AND SICKLY	:	othwebeshayo

BODY PART

White teeth	:	oqaqambayo
Bushy beard	:	orhwanqayo
Broad chest	:	otsobhileyo
Short legs	:	ontlatywayo

BODY POSITION

Stooped	:	oqozayo
Stiff	:	osheshenxayo
Stiff and rigid	:	oqinileyo
Misshaped	:	oqhombonqayo

COLOUR

Pitch black	:	otshunyelayo
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(4) PSYCHOLOGICAL FEATURE

INTELLIGENT:

Resolute	:	oqelezayo
Alert, agile, virile	:	oququzelayo
Bright and alert	:	oqavileyo

RETARDED

Retarded	:	owathalazayo, othwaxuzelayo
Half -wit	:	ontsinayo
Mad	:	othonqozayo, obhanxayo, ogezayo, orhaduzayo

TIMID

Meek	:	othambileyo, olulamileyo, olungileyo
Useless	:	oxathabanayo

Undecided	:	othingazayo, owexuzayo, oqalaphelayo
Helpless	:	oqhongileyo
Nervous	:	othwasuthwasuzayo
Weak	:	otyefezayo, otatamshayo
Clumsy	:	oqhitalayo
Vacillating	:	orhatyuzayo
Stammer	:	othintithayo

GOOD BEHAVIOUR

Brave	:	okhaliphileyo
Gentle	:	ochwenezayo
Good	:	olungileyo, olungisayo
Conservative	:	oqhanqalazayo
Industrious	:	oqwanguzayo
Hearty, jovial	:	oqhakrazayo
Lively	:	oqhathuvayo
Haughty	:	eqhayisayo

BAD BEHAVIOUR

Hasty, forward	:	oqhajazayo
Stubborn and obstinate	:	oqwaqwaduzayo
Troublesome	:	obhovuzayo
Deceitful	:	orhumshayo, oqothaqikilayo, orhebeqayo
Cunning	:	orhoqolozayo, oqhetsebayo, Omenemenezayo, oqhongayo, ogquthayo
Cruel	:	okhohlakalayo,
Greedy	:	ogqolozayo, orhubaxayo, Orwaphilizayo, ombafulayo, Obhimbilizayo, ogrwambilizayo omamfuzayo
Bad and overweening	:	oqavuzayo
Hardened criminal	:	oqwebedayo
Despicable	:	orhabaxanayo
Immoral, corrupt	:	orhathangayo
Liar	:	oxokayo, orhushayo

HABITS

Dirty	:	orhaphilizayo, orhixizayo, Orhubaxayo
Lazy	:	ovilaphayo, othwaxuzayo,
Gluttonous	:	orhufuzayo
Talkative	:	otshafuzayo
Officious	:	otsalelayo
Lascivious	:	orheletyayo
Big, sexual appetite	:	orhofuzayo
Thief	:	ochalarhayo
No lover	:	oshumanekileyo
Untidy	:	oxathaxazayo

SKILLS

Experienced	:	oqholorhayo, orhuqayo
Orator	:	oqhajizayo

WEALTH

Poor	:	ohlwempuzayo, Olambayo odlakazelayo
Rich	:	otyebileyo

(iii) COPULATIVE RELATIVE CLAUSE

There are two types of copulative verbs in Xhosa. The first one is the one, which introduces a [stative copulative]. It refers to a state of affairs that remains unchanged. This verb has no overt form in the surface structure of sentences in Xhosa. LI is the form that, this verb has been assumed to have in the hypothetical Proto-Bantu. This form is represented in the structural analysis of the sentences in an abstract form as COP with the meaning of stative. This copulative verb form is not found in present day Xhosa. (Du Plessis and Visser:1992)

There are certain noticeable remnants of its existence though there is no overt representation of this copulative verb. Take for instance the form of negative [nga] and [sa] of the progressive aspect where the [a] of [nga and sa] seem to have undergone vowel coalescence to form [e]. This happens because of the influence of [I]. This [I] which coalesces with [a] of [nga and sa] seems to be remnants of the copulative verb LI. Copulative verb LI in Xhosa occurs in the Indicative, Relative, and Situate moods only.

The other copulative verb in Xhosa is [ba]. We found an inchoate meaning in this [ba] that refers to a relation of attribution. The inchoate meaning entails "becoming " that is a passage from a non-being to being. [Ba] is overtly represented in Xhosa. The copulative verbs in Xhosa may have this lexical entry :

FEATURES

Morphophonological	Li	ba
Categorical	[+V,-N]	[+V,-N]
Subcategories	+[- XP]	+[- XP]
Semantic	<stative, Attribution >	<inchoate, attribution >

The complement of the copulative verb may comprise of various categories such nominal relative stems above or various noun phrases or prepositional phrases which may have the meaning of description i. e signifying semantic adjectives.

THE COMPLEMENT OF THE COPULATIVE VERB IS A NOUN PHRASE:

The two copulative verbs, that is, abstract copulative verb LI and the inchoate [ba] may take NP's as their complements.

Du Plessis and Visser (1992: 231) has this to say about noun phrases which appear as complements of these copulative verb:

... it is a condition imposed by this copulative verb that all such noun phrases has to appear with a copula in the case of Xhosa.

This copula depends on the class of the noun with which it occurs as it is derived from it. This copula syntactically seems to function as a preposition :

12. **Le ndoda linxila**

" this man is a drunkard"

This copula LI precedes the noun [inxila]. Subjective agreement may appear in copulatives as above but this is not obligatory. When it occurs it is used to show emphasis:

13. **u Thabo uyinkulumbuso**

"Thabo (AGR) is the Prime Minister"

Let us look at the following example:

14. **Le ntombi ingumakoti**

"this girl is a bride"

The copula [ngu] occurs with noun [umakoti]. Such a copula has the status of a preposition.

These copulative noun phrases above may then appear in a relative clause, which is a complement clause of a NP:

15. **indodo elinxila**

"the man which is a drunkard "

In the noun phrase above the relative clause is [elinxila], which has the definite morpheme [a] appearing, as [e] and a copula [li] derived from the noun of class 5 of the noun [inxila]. The copulative verb [li] does not appear in these cases where a stative interpretation is found.

Various nouns may appear with this interpretation of description of which the following list will be an indication of this widespread use:

(a) **HUMANS**

Physical Features

Age

Old, sickly

1 (a) indoda engumxenge

(b) umfazi ongumxekekexwa

Physical disadvantaged

Cripple

2. umntwana ongumlwelwe

Body shape

Good shape

Small, slender child	-	umntwana ongutabalabana
Slender	-	intombi engumqhathu umfana ongungcothoza
Well built	-	umntwana ongusambuntsuntsu Umfazi ongumagumede Indoda engumtsetse
Woman with shapely body	-	Umfazi ongusuduka
Tall	-	intombi engumsethuluka
Healthy	-	indoda engumqabaqaba

Bad shape

Lean

- (a) intombi enguqutsumani
- (b) inkwenkwe enguqelekana

Lean and emaciated:

8. Intombazana engumxhalagube

Lean and protruding abdomen:

9. umakoti ongumqhaphusana

Thin:

10. umfana ongumqhathalala

Stout and big bodied:

11. indoda engusiqushulu

Short, not respected:

12. umfazi ongumakatyana

Dwarf:

13. indoda enguhili

Sickly:

14. intombi engumguli

Pale, sickly:

15. umfazi onguthwekeshana

Flat buttocks:

16. impundu ezingumtshwebelele

Body position

Stooped

17. umzali onguqongqothwane

Stiff:

18. umntu ongumsheshenxa

Stiff and rigid

19. intombi engusiqiniwe

Misshaped

20. intombi engunomasele

Colour

Pitch -black:

21. (a) intombi engumtshunyela

(b) umfana ongumthintсила

Psychological features

Intelligent

Alert, agile, virile

22. (a) indoda engusiquququ
(b) umfana ongurhabulani

Bright and alert :

23. (a) inkwenkwe enguqavashe
(b) intombi engumqhathu

Retarded:

Half-wit:

24. (a) intombi engumhlahlavu
(b) umntwana onguthathatha

Stupid:

25. inkwenkwe enguthwaxu

Mad:

26. umfazi ongumradu

Timid

Meek:

27. umfana ongulunga

Useless:

28. indoda engumququ

Undecided:

29. intombi engusithubeni

Good behaviour

Brave:

30. umfana onguqaqambashe

Gentle:

31. umfana onguchwenene

Conservative:

32. indoda engumqhanqalazi

Joker:

33. umfundisi ongumqhuli

Lively:

34. imveku engumqhathuva

Bad behaviour

Hasty, forward

35. inkwenkwe enguqhajana

Stubborn and obstinate:

36. inkwenkwe enguqwaqwadu

Deceitful:

37. umntwana ongumaqhingashe (ongumaqhingana)

Greedy:

38. indoda engugrwambu-grwambu

Hardened criminal:

39. intwazana engumqwebedu

Immoral and corrupt:

40. intwana engumqhaji

Bad-tempered:

41. ititshala engurhelejane

Evil:

42. umfazi ongumrhuqa

Liar:

43. udade ongumrhusi

Habits

Dirty:

44. intombi engurhixi

Lazy:

45. umfazi onguthwaxu

Spendthrift:

46. intombi engumchithachithi

Not interested in opposite sex:

47. indoda engubhulu

Vagabond:

48. intombazana engusithubeni

No lover:

49. indoda engusisusinamanqobo

Skills

Experienced:

50. ititshala engumakhwekwetha

Knowledge about news:

51. umfundi onguqalazive

Orator:

52. imbongi enguqhaji

Wealth

Rich:

53. indoda engusambuntsuntsu

Prepositional phrase with [na] as the complement of a copulative verb:

A preposition is a lexical category which typically combines with a noun phrase to form the constituent, which we call a prepositional phrase. In Xhosa such prepositions are [nga, na, ku,] the possessive preposition [a] and copulas which seemingly function as prepositions. We will focus on the preposition [na]:

The prepositional phrase with [na] as a head normally has an interpretation of possession when it appears with a copulative verb:

1. Le ntombi [inelokhwe entle]
"this girl has a beautiful dress"

However, noun phrases, which indicate states, may frequently appear as complement of [na] to express some description:

2. [Le ntombi [inobubele]]
"this girl is generous "

In the above sentence the noun denoting a state is [ububele](generous) which is the head of the NP which appears as complement of the preposition [na]. The copulative verb LI is not present above but the subjective agreement morpheme, which is [i] above, is compulsory. Such copulative predicates as above may appear attributively as relative clauses which are complements of NP's:

3. intombi inobubele
"the girl, which is friendly"

A definite morpheme [a] which appears as [e] has been added above. The following list, which has head noun of a NP, which is the complement of [na], a noun indicating a state may give an indication of this range of description:

Trustworthiness:

1. indoda enentembeko

Willingness:

2. umzalwane onentumekelelo

Condition of being crazy:

3. umfundi oneqwakaza

Repulsiveness/ loathsomeness

4. intombi enetyheneba

Brightness

5. umfundi onobuqaqawuli

Splendour, glorious array

6. istiyebi esinobuqheleqhele

Deceit/ cunning

7. ibanjwa elinobuqhophololo

Intelligence

8. umfundi onobuqili

Untrustworthiness

9. umntwana onoburhumsha

Sleepy

10. umqhubi onobuthongo

Enmity, hostility

11. uhlanga olunobutshaba

Deceit, villainy

12. umfundisi onobutshijolo

Rascality

13. umfazi onobutshinga

State of being rich/ wealthy

14. intombazana enobutyebi

Foolishness

15. ummelwana onobutyhakala

Turmoil, commotion, dissension

16. indoda enoqhushululu

Thrift, economy

17. umzali onoqoqosho

Suspicion

18. ipolisa elinorhano

Misery

19. umzali onosizi

Slowness in doing something

20. umfundi onotyefezo

CHAPTER 3

THE MORPHOLOGICAL ADJECTIVE

3.1 AIMS

This chapter sets out to discuss some basic notions on the morphological adjectives specifically, how others scholars view the adjectives, the morphology of adjectives adjectival phrases, distribution of the adjective, comparison and co-ordinated adjectives

3.2 PREVIOUS STUDIES ON THE ADJECTIVES

According to McLaren (1994:61) adjectives are used as either attributes e.g. umthi omkhulu 'a large tree' or as predicates e.g. umthi mkhulu'the tree is large'. In Xhosa the form of connecting prefix shows the difference. Adjectives are divided into two principal kinds according to the manner in which they are connected with the nouns, which they qualify. Those of the first kind are the only adjectives properly so called, and have their own proper prefixes derived from the noun prefixes. They express ideas of age, size, number and quantity. These are called Simple Adjectives. The second kind is connected to their nouns by the pronominal and relative particles.

Simple Adjectives are used as predicates. They take a prefix, which is the same as that of the noun they qualify:

1. (a) Ilitye likhulu
"The stone is big"

- (b) Umthi mhle
"The tree is beautiful"

When adjectives are used as attributes to nouns, which have the article, the relative particle in the form a, e, or o, is prefixed to the forms given as in:

2. (a) ilitye elikhulu
"the big stone"

- (b) umthi omde
"the tall tree"

According to Mncube(1931:16) adjectives are one of four parts of speech, which qualify a substantive (noun or pronoun), in Xhosa. The other three being possessive, the relative and the enumerative. Every adjective consisting of an adjectival stem can be used without the concord referring to the noun it qualifies. The concords, therefore change in accordance with their reference, but stem changes only when used with nouns of class 5 and plural 6.

He further goes on saying that adjectival concords are very closely associated with the distinguishing noun class prefixes. Thus adjectival concord of classes 1 and 2) are om and aba derived thus:

3. a + um > om
a + aba > aba

It should be remembered that concords of class 1 and 1(a) are identical. Adjectives comes after the noun it qualifies:

4. (a) abantwana abade babona abafutshane
"tall kids sees the short ones"
- (b) ubawo ujonga umfazi omhle
"father is looking for a beautiful wife"

According to Oosthuysen (1967:60):

"...following group of adjectives must be studied as a group because they are not connected in the same way as other adjectives when they are used in the phrase of a sentence i.e. :

- | | | |
|----|-------|---------|
| 5. | -dala | -ninzi |
| | -hle | -ngaphi |
| | -bi | -khulu |

-ncinci/ncinane	-tsha
-de	-nye
fuphi/futshane	-bini
-thathu	-ne
-hlanu	-thandathu

As we have seen the subject connection is derived from the original form by letting the first syllable and nasal sound (n, m) fall away. But in the above adjectives the subject connections make use of the nasal sounds.

In case of classes 1 and 2 singular forms the links are not mu anymore, but rather m so that it may become a single syllable. Class 5 singular links are in instead of ni. Instead of the normal subject, ndi (-I-) si(we) u (you) and ni - (they) adjectives are now used with forms of connection ndim (-I-), siba(we) um(me) and niba (they).

The subject should be combined with these adjectives, when they are used as phrases in a sentence:

6. Person	Class	Sing	Plural	Examples
1		Ndim-	Siba-	ndimde (I am tall)
2		um-	niba-	umde (she is tall)
3	1	m-	ba-	umntu mde
	2	m-	mi-	umthi mde
	3	li-	ma-	ilitye lide
	4	si-	zi-	isitya side

He continues saying that when these adjectives are used in an adjectival subordinate clause -a- melts and the subject combines and undergoes the sound change in the same way as before normal subject connection:

7. (a) mna endimde
"I who is tall / I am tall"

- (b) nina enibade
"You who are tall"

3.3 THE ADJECTIVE IN XHOSA

3.3.1 The definite morpheme

All adjectives in Xhosa are morphologically marked by the presence of three elements:

- (a) a definite morpheme [a],
- (b) an agreement morpheme: this morpheme has to be exactly the same as the prefix of the head noun, and
- (c) an adjectival stem:

8. [u-m-ntu [o-m-dala]]

The definite morpheme [a] appears as o, the agreement morpheme is m, which exactly agrees with its head umntu and an adjective stem -dala.

The definite affix -a- does not belong to adjectives only but appears in a variety of morphological structures, e.g. in possessives and relatives:

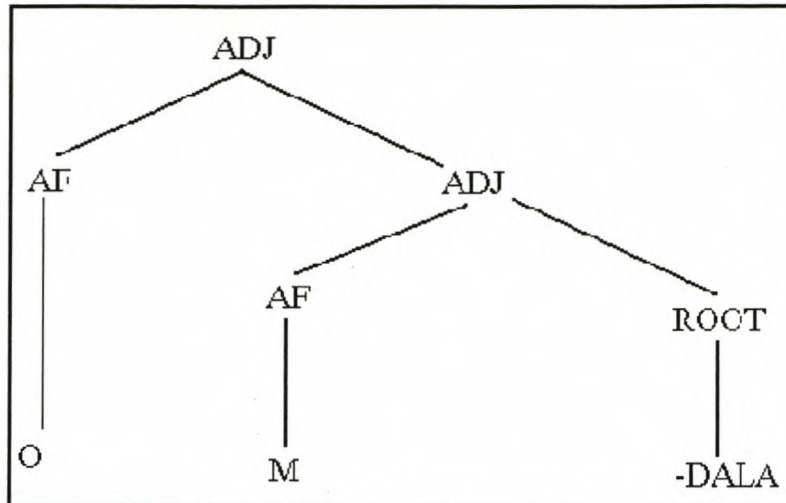
Possessives:

9. (a) [a – i -a] [intombi]==eyentombi

Relative clauses

(b) [a-u-lil-a-yo] ==olilayo

The definite morpheme always has a high tone. The definite morpheme may appear in a structure such as the following:



(Give a name for this figure)

The form of the definite morpheme depends on the form of the noun class prefix. The definite morpheme may then change to either e or o or remain a:

With the prefix containing the vowel i and class 9, it will be e :

10. isitulo esihle
"the beautiful chair"

With a prefix containing the vowel u, and class 1 and 3 the morpheme is o :

11. ubuso obuhle
"beautiful face"

With a prefix containing the vowel a, the prefix remains a :

12. abantu abadala
"old people"

The definite morpheme [a] may fall away in cases where the head noun has lost its initial vowel. The cases we are talking about are i.e. demonstratives and the negatives. In the above structure it is apparent that the category adjective may appear without the definite morpheme:

Demonstratives

When the demonstrative occurs with an adjective the definite [a] has to fall away. The tone of the agreement morpheme is low as in (a) below but with copulatives in predicative use the agreement morpheme ba is high:

14. (a) aba bafazi bàkhulu
 "these big women"
- (b) aba bafazi bákhulu
 "these women are big"

In class 9 the prefix n: receives a stabilizing -i-

15. le ntombi intle

In a noun phrase the adjective may be far removed from the demonstrative. Even so, the definite morpheme [a] is lost as is evident in mhle below:

16. [lo myeni wam mhle]ufuna imali eninzi yokuthenga utywala
 "This beautiful husband of mine wants a lot of money to buy liquor"

Negatives:

The definite [a] of the adjective may fall away or may not fall away in negative sentences depending on the scope of the negative morpheme:

17. (a) Asiyontwana [incinane]
 "it is not a small thing"
- (b) Asiyontwana [encinane]
 "it is not thing which is small"

Vocatives:

With vocatives the adjective retains its definite morpheme [a] though its head has no initial vowel. Since all vocatives are definite this occurs regularly:

18. Mngwevu omhle
"beautiful Mngwevu"

3.3.2 The Class Prefix

Within the structure of the adjective the class prefix is compulsory before an adjectival stem:

Class	1	umfazi [o-m-hle] "the beautiful wife"
Class	2	abafazi [a-ba-hle] "beautiful wives"
Class	3	umthi [o-m-de] "long tree"
Class	4	imithi [e-mi-de] "long trees"
Class	5	ilitye [e-li-khulu] "big stone"
Class	6	amatye [a-ma-khulu] "big stones"
Class	7	isitya [e-si-ncinci] "small dish"
Class	8	izitya [e-zi-ncinci] "small dishes"
Class	9	inja [e-m-futshane] "short dog"
Class	10	izinja [e-zim-futshane] "short dogs"
Class	11	uluthi [o-lu-tsha] "new stick"

Class	14	ubuthi [o-bu-tsha] “new bewitch”
Class	15	ukutya [o-ku-dala] “stale food”

Adjectives may also appear with first and second person pronouns as heads:

First person:

Singular : e-ndi-m-hle
: e-ndi-m-bi
: e-ndi-m-khulu

Plural : e-si-ba-hle
: e-si-ba-bi
: e-si-ba-khulu

Second person:

Singular : o-m-hle

Plural : e-ni-ba-hle

In all these cases the noun class prefix of class 1, i.e. m has to appear with the first and second person singular, while the noun class prefix of class 2, i.e. ba appears with plural of the first and second person. Together with this noun class prefix, the subjective agreement morpheme of the first and second person has to appear:

First person: : e-ndi-m-hle
: e-si-ba-hle

Second person: : a-u-m-hle=(omhle)
: e-ni- ba-hle=(enibahle)

The prefix of class 9 and 10 contains a nasal n, which has an influence on certain adjectival stems:

hl-tl

indoda entle
"a beautiful man"

tfh - tʃ

intambo entsha
"a new rope"

kh - k

inkomo enkulu
"a big cow"

f - pf

intaba emfutshane
"a short mountain"

The nasal morpheme n may also change or it may remain alveolar:

n n : intombi ende
 "tall girl"

n ŋ : inyoka enkulu
 "a big snake"

n m : indoda embi
 "an ugly man"

n ɲ : inyosi entsha
 "a new bee"

When the head of a noun phrase is a locative noun, adjectives may not occur with such locative nouns.

With locative noun:

*emva	okude	- far back
*phakathi	okubi	- bad middle
*phambili	okuhle	- beautiful front
*kude	okukhulu	- very far end

The adjective, which appears with the noun class prefix of class 9 also has the definite morpheme [a] as with all other adjectives:

intombi [e-n-de]
 “the tall girl”

However, when the definite morpheme which is e, above falls away, as for instance with the presence of a demonstrative the adjective will need a stabiliser i:

[le ntombi inde]
 “this tall girl”

Negatives

In negative sentences, the definite [a] may fall away or may not fall away depending on the scope of the negative morpheme:

- (a) Asiyontwana incinane
 “it is no small thing”
- (b) asiyontwana encinane
 “it is no thing which is small”

Adjectives may appear as complements of the verb enza and the copulative verb ba. In such cases the adjective appears with the noun class prefix without the definite morpheme -a-:

22. (a) umfazi oza kuba m-hle
"the woman who is going to be beautiful"

indlu eza kuba n-tle
"the house that is going to be beautiful"

23. (a) indlu endiyenza n-kulu
"the house that I am making it big"

indlela endiyenza m-futshane
"the road that I am making it short".

In class 10 only n of the prefix occurs as the agreement morpheme, zi falls away:

The reflexive zi is frequently used, see example (a) and in (b) below, reflexive zi when combined with the stem hle gives an ambiguous meaning:

24. (a) lo mntwana uzenza mhle
"this child makes herself beautiful"

(b) uzenza mhle
"she makes herself beautiful/innocent"

In class 9 the prefix may only be n with ba and enza, i.e. it will not need a stabiliser like[-i-]:

With ba:

25. (a) indoda iza kuba nde
"the man is going to be tall"

(b) inkomo iza kuba nkulu
“the cow is going to be big”

(c) intaba iba mfutshane
“the mountain becomes short”

With enza :

26. (a) wenza ncinci lo nto
“he is making that thing small”

(b) uyenza ncinci lo nto
“he is making that thing small”

(c) uzenza mfutshane
“making herself short”

3.3.3 The Adjectival Stem

3.3.3.1. Semantic classification

There are eight adjectival stems, which have to appear with noun class prefixes i.e.

1. -khulu
2. -ncinane
3. -futshane
4. -de
5. -dala
6. -tsha
7. -hle
8. -bi

An example with each of these is as follows:

1. umama [o-m-khulu]
“mother who is big”

2. umntwana [o-m-ncinane]]
the child who is young”
3. umfana [o-m-futshane]]
the young man who is short”
4. [umfundisi [o-m-de]]
“the minister who is tall”
5. [inkwenkwe[e-n-dala]]
“the boy who is old”
6. [umakoti [o-m-tsha]
“the bride who is new”
7. [umzi [o-m-hle]]
“the house which is beautiful”
8. [umzalwana [o-m-bi]]
“the brother who is ugly”

These eight adjective stems form a closed class and they may be classified according to their meaning into three sub-categories:

1. Dimension : khulu, ncinane, and futshane
2. Age : dala, tsha
3. Value : hle, bi

There are another eight stems, which also have to appear with a noun class prefix. However, they are not descriptive in character but denote quantity especial numerals. These stems denoting quantity are the following:

Nye, bini, thathu, ne, hlanu, thandathu, ngaphi, ninzi.

Examples are as follows:

1. [umzi [o-m-nye]]
"one house"
2. [iigusha [e-zi-m-bini]]
"two sheep"
3. [izikolo [e-zi-thathu]]
"three schools "
4. [amasimi [a-ma-ne]]
"four fields"
5. [amakhwenkwe [a-ma-hlanu]]
"five boys"
6. [iinkomo [e-zin –tandathu]]
"six cows"
7. [unamabala [a-ma-ngaphi]]
"how many fields"
8. [amabala [a-ma-ninzi]]
"many fields"

3.3.3.2 Selection Restrictions:

There are some restrictions on the appearance of certain adjectives with nouns. The adjective-khulu- may appear with any noun denoting a person, animal or concrete object:

Person:

1. umntu o-m-khulu
"big person"

Animal :

2. inja e-nkulu
“big dog”

Concrete Object

3. intaba e-nkulu
“big mountain”

Concrete mass nouns cannot appear with adjective -khulu-:

- *ubisi olukhulu
- *isidudu esikhulu
- *amanzi amakhulu
- *udaka olukhulu

Abstract nouns may appear with the adjective -khulu- :

- (a) umonde o-m-khulu
“big patience”
- (b) ugezo o-lu-khulu
“big madness”
- (c) uthando o-lu-khulu
“big love (much love)”

Ncinane

The adjective stem -ncinane has different but related meanings i.e. it may have the meaning of young, i.e. not old. This meaning may appear with animate beings:

Person:

27. (a) umntu o-m-ncinane
“young person”

- (b) umntwana o-m-ncinane
"small child"

Animal :

28. (a)inja e-ncinane
"young / small dog"

In the second place it may have the meaning which is the opposite of -khulu-i.e. small. This meaning has nothing to do with the age of the person as above. This meaning may appear with persons, animals or concrete objects:

Person:

- (a) lo mntu m-ncinane ngesiqu
"this person is small (in weight)"

Animal :

- (a) le ndlovu i-ncinane ngokuzalwa
"this elephant is small (its birth weight)"

Concrete Object :

- (a) intonga e-ncinane
"small stick"

With mass nouns this adjective has the meaning of a small quantity and it may appear with any mass noun:

29. (a) ubisi o-lu-ncinane
"little milk"
- (b) amanzi a-ma-ncinane
"little water"
- (c) uthando o-lu-ncinane
"little love"

Futshane:

The adjective -futshane- may appear with any noun denoting a person, animal or concrete object. In animals it does not refer to specific animal but it refers to the species of animals e.g. isilwanyana i.e.:

Person:

30. (a) umntu o-m-futshane
“a short person”

Animal:

- (a) isilwanyana e-si-futshane
“short animal”

Concrete Object:

- (a) usiba o-lu-futshane
“a short pen”

This adjective -futshane- does not appear with mass nouns.

- *amanzi a-ma-futshane
- *ubisi o-lu-futshane
- *udaka o-lu-futshane
- *uthando o-lu-futshane

“-de”:

The adjective -de- may appear with any noun denoting a person, animal or concrete object. It has the meaning of “tall” which is the opposite of -futshane-, short:

Person:

31. (a) indoda e-n-de
“tall man”

Animal :

- (a) indlulamthi e-n-de
“tall giraffe”

Concrete Object :

- (a) ileli e-n-de
“tall ladder”

Adjective -de- may not appear with mass nouns:

- *ubisi o-lu-de
- *uthando o-lu-de
- *amanzi a-ma-de
- *udaka o-lu-de
- *isidudu e-si-de

-dala-

The adjective stem -dala- has something to do with age. This adjective stem may appear with persons, animals or concrete objects also with food:

Person

- umntu o-m-dala
“old person”

Animal

- inkomo e-n-dala
“old cow”

Concrete object

- itafle e-n-dala
“old table”

Food

- isonka e-si-dala
“old /stale bread”

ukutya o-ku-dala

“old/stale food”

This adjective -dala- may appear with any mass nouns:

- (a) ubisi o-lu-dala
“old milk”
- (b) amanzi a-ma-dala
“stale water”
- (c) ugezo o-lu-dala
“old madness”
- (d) uthando o-lu-dala
“an old love”

-tsha-

The adjective stem -tsha- has different but related meaning i.e. it may have the meaning of (a) new not old (b) young, and (c) fresh. This meaning may appear with animate beings:

Person

- (a) umntu o-m-tsha
“young person”
- (b) umntwana o-m-tsha
“a new born child”

Animal:

- (a) igusha e-n-tsha
“young sheep”

In the second place it may have the meaning which is the opposite of dala- i.e. fresh. This meaning has nothing to do with the age. This meaning may appear with persons, animal or concrete objects and food:

Person

- (a) intombi e-n-tsha
“ a fresh girl “ (very active)

Animal

- (a) inkonyane e-li-tsha
“a fresh calf”

Concrete object

- (a) i-oyile e-n-tsha
“fresh oil”

Food

- (a) ukutya o-ku-tsha
“fresh food”

The adjective stem –tsha – which have the meaning of (a) new or (c)fresh may appear with the mass nouns like:

- (a) ubisi o-lu-tsha
“ fresh milk”
- (b) uthando o-lu-tsha
“ new love”
- (c) amanzi a-ma-tsha
“fresh water”

-hle-

The adjective stem -hle- may appear with any noun denoting a person ,animal or concrete object .It has the meaning of “beautiful “which is opposite of -bi-

Person

- (a) indoda e-n-tle
“beautiful man”

Animal

- (a) ingonyama e-ntle
"beautiful lion"

Concrete object

- (a) indlu e-ntle
"beautiful house"

Mass nouns may not appear with the adjective stem -hle-:

- *ubisi o-lu-hle
- *amanzi a-ma-hle
- *uthando o-lu-hle
- *ugezo o-lu-hle
- *udaka o-lu-hle

.-bi-

The adjective stem has two meanings that is (a)the ugly and the (b)bad. This meaning is different but related. This meaning may appear with animate beings and concrete objects and body parts:

Person

- (a) umfazi o-m-bi
"ugly woman"
- (b) indoda e-m-bi
"a bad man"

Animal

- (a) imfene e-m-bi
"an ugly baboon"
- (b) imfene e-m-bi
"a bad baboon"

Concrete object

- (a) indlu e-m-bi
“an ugly house”
- (b) icwecwe e-li-bi
“a bad record”

Body PartsUmlomo: (mouth)

umlomo o-m-bi
“bad mouth”

When you have a “bad mouth“ it refers to having a bad wish to people, , i.e. when you wish for somebody to be caught by the police or gangsters then all of a sudden that person is being caught. That is a bad mouth “umlomo ombi” .It only happens to mouth because it is something that is being uttered by the mouth. Sometimes bad mouth refers to a bad smell.

Amehlo: (eyes)

amehlo a-ma-bi
“ugly eyes”

When you disagree with people with certain things, you look at them with eyes that show a negativity, or disagreement, it is said you have “bad eyes” and it only happens to eyes.

Ubuso (face)

ubuso o-bu-bi
“ugly face”

When somebody does not like what somebody else is saying, then the face got twisted or you grin. That shows dissatisfaction. In this case we do not refer to face with pimples.

Adjective stem -bi- may appear with mass nouns like the following:

ubisi o-lu-bi

amanzi a-ma-bi

isidudu e-si-bi

Individual-level vs. stage level

The individual –level vs. stage-level distinction will be a useful device for distinguishing adjectives.

Stage –level predicates are usually identified with non-permanent states of individuals with properties such as -ncinane- for an example of a child who will grow and leave the status of being a child.

There are some restrictions on the appearance of certain adjectives with nouns. These adjectives may appear with any noun denoting a person, animal, or concrete object. The adjective stem such as -ncinane- has the meaning of young not old this meaning may appear with animate beings.

The following adjectives may have a non –permanent state, i .e stage-level:

- Ncinane (small with regard to age)
- tsha (new, young becomes old or stale)

1. ncinane -with animate nouns :

person

umntwana o-m-ncinane

“young child”

Animal:

inja e-ncinane

“young dog”

2.-tsha – with animate nouns: young,with food = fresh

person

indoda e-n-tsha

“young man”

umntwana o-m-tsha

“new-born child”

Animal:

injana e-n-tsha

“young puppy”

Food:

ukutya o-ku-tsha

“fresh food”

Individual – level which retains its property throughout its lifetime.

Adjectives may appear with any nouns denoting person animal or concrete object and food:

Adjectives that may appear with individual-level are :

- dala - old

- de - tall

- bi - ugly

- hle - beautiful

-khulu - big

The above adjectives will retain their property throughout lifetime: old never becomes young, de never becomes futshane (tall never becomes short) etc.

◆ -dala

umntu o-m-dala
 “an old person”

◆ -de

umfazi o-m-de
 “a tall woman”

◆ futshane

indonda e-m-futshane
 “a short man”

◆ -bi

ixhego e-li-bi
 “an ugly old man”

◆ -hle

utitshala o-m-hle
 “a beautiful teacher”

◆ -khulu

umfazi o-m-khulu
 “a big woman”

Adjective -ncinane- and -tsha- may both appear in both individual –level and stage –level.

3.3.4 Affixes

3.3.4.1. Diminutive Affixes

- (a) Diminutive refers to a suffix, which is added to a word to show affection or to indicate that something is small. For an example suffix ana is suffixed to adjective stem i.e. omhle becomes omhlana. It also appears as ane, anyana, anyane:

Adjective with diminutive suffix ana and anyana :

Adjective	Ana	anyana
1. intombi embi	-embana	-embanyana
2. umntwana omhle	-omhlana	-omhlanyana
3. ilokhwe	-endalana	-endalanyana
4. ilaphu elitsha	-elitshana	-elitshanyana
5. umfana omde	-omdana	-omdanyana
6. indlu emfutshane	-emfutshanana	-emfutshananyana
7. umzi omkhulu	-omkhulwana	-omkhulwanyana
8. isonka esincinane	-esincinana	-esincinananyana

Degree of a feature: -ana

...slightly lesser degree of a meaning: -anyana

...still slightly lesser degree than with -ana-

(b) Both noun and adjective may appear with the diminutive:

- ◆ ilokhwanaendalana
- ◆ umzana omncinanana
- ◆ umthana omdana

There is no difference in meaning between the above and the example in (b) [intombi entlana] and [intombana entlana]

intombi entlana refers to the degree of a feature, i.r. a slightly lesser degree of meaning, intombana entlana refers to a young or small girl with this feature of slightly lesser degree of meaning.

3.3.4.2 [-kazi-]

(a) Augmentative suffix -kazi- refers to something large. Adjectives with augmentative show a higher degree of the meaning in the adjective which is opposite of -ana-:

- (1) umlambo omkhulukazi
“ a very big river”
- (2) umzi omhlekezi
“ a very beautiful house “
- (3) umthi omdekazi
“a very tall tree”

(b) Both noun and adjective may appear with -kazi-:

- ◆ umlambokazi omkhulukazi
- ◆ umzikazi omhlekezi
- ◆ umthikazi omdekazi

3.3.4.3 Prefix -bu- and suffix -rha-

Prefix -bu- and suffix -rha- refers to a degree of a feature, i.e. a slightly lesser degree of meaning. They may appear with the adjectives as in the following:

- ◆ intombi e-bu-ntle
- ◆ ilokhwe e-bu-ntsha
- ◆ ibhulukhwe e-bu-ncinane

...-bu- may appear with -ana-, it shows a lesser degree in meaning:

- ◆ indlu ebuntlana
- ◆ inkwenkwe ebundalana
- ◆ ibhulukhwe ebuntshana

-bu- with -rha-

- ◆ umzi obukhulurha
- ◆ ilokhwe ebuncincirha
- ◆ umfana obudalarha

Adjective stems may take the diminutive suffix -ana which is a nominal affix. They may also appear with the prefix -bu- or suffix -rha-, both of which are also nominal affixes and the nominal affix -kazi- (augmentative) may also occur with the adjectives. All nominal suffixes are found with adjectives with the exception of the locative affix -ini-

3.3.5 Reduplication of adjective stems

Reduplication is a morphological phenomenon in which some morphological material is repeated within a single form for lexical or grammatical purposes. The process of reduplication may bring an additional feature into that adjective. The adjective stem is repeated to convey the meaning:

- ◆ usana olubi- bi
- ◆ umzi omhle- hle
- ◆ isihlangu esidala- dala
- ◆ ilokhwe entsha- tsha
- ◆ ileli ende- de

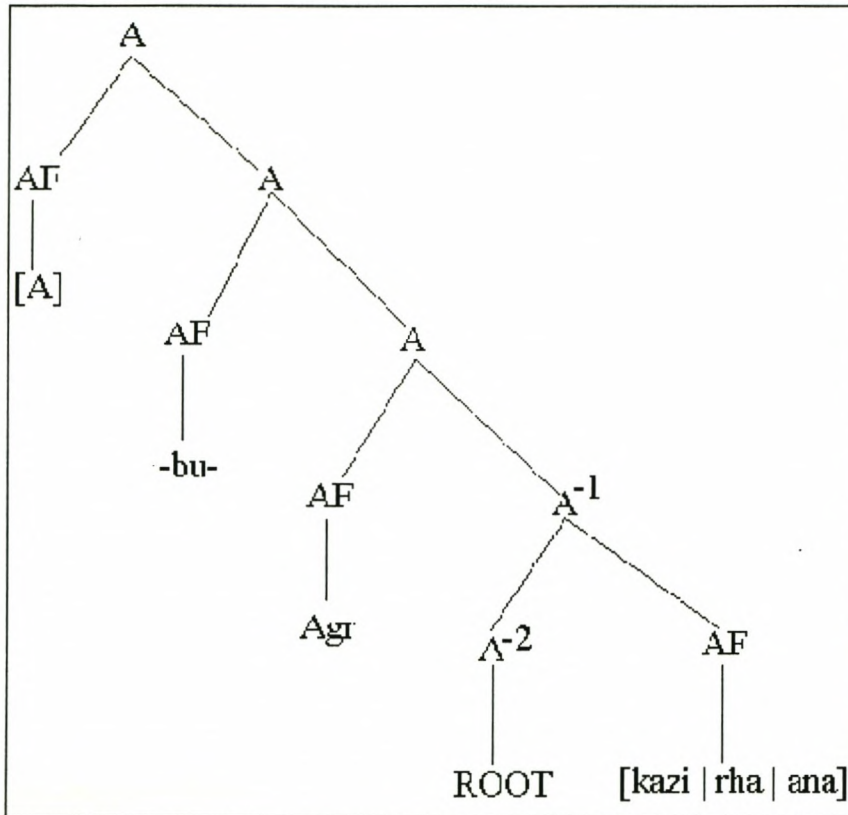
The effect on the meaning of the stem is that it is stressed. If it is beautiful in reduplication it becomes more beautiful. If it is bad it becomes more bad in reduplication. There is no change in the actual meaning but the fact that it becomes worse.

The noun class prefix is always on the stem:

- ◆ prefix is only on the first stem, in the second stem there is no prefix
- ◆ meaning of the adjective is emphasised :

3.4 MORPHOLOGICAL STRUCTURE OF AN ADJECTIVE

-ebuntlarha-



Morphological structure has the following:

3 prefixes :

- ◆ the definite prefix [a] which is not peculiar to adjectives
- ◆ comparative [bu]
- ◆ the agreement [n]

1 Suffix :

A complementary distribution of [kazi, rha, ana]. These suffixes may not appear together at the same time, only one at a time.

Adjectives may appear with suffixes like the following:

-kazi may appear without -bu- :

umzi	omkhulukazi
umthi	omdekazi
isilwanyana	esibikazi
ibala	elihlekazi

-rha must appear with -bu- :

ubuhlanti	obuncincirha
idyasi	ebunkulurha
ilokhwe	ebundalarha
umthi	obumdarha
umntwana	obumbirha
indlu	ebuntlarha
ibhulukhwe	ebuntsharha
umzi	obufuphirha

-ana can appear with and without -bu-:

ana with -bu-

ilokhwe	ebumbana
umntwana	obumdana
ilaphu	elibundalana
umzi	obumkhulwana
ijezi	ebuncinanana
intombi	ebumfutshanana
itafile	ebuntshana
imoto	ebuntlana

ana- without -bu-

indlu	entlana
ileli	endana
umfazi	omdalana

umzi	omkhulwana
intombi	embana
inyoka	ebuncinana
isitya	esitshana
umfana	obufutshanana

3.5 TRANSPOSITION

Adjective → Verb

A → V

-khulu- khuluphala (suffix-phal-)

A → N

- bi	ububi
- hle	ubuhle
- khulu	ubukhulu
- dala	ubudala
- de	ubude
- ncinane	ubuncinane
- futshane	ubufutshane
- tsha	ubutsha

Class 14 is the class for abstracts and the above nouns denote states .

A → Adv

- hle	kakuhle
- bi	kakubi
- de	kade
- khulu	kakhulu
- ncinci	kancinci
- fuphi / futshane	kufuphi

In the above examples we get morpheme -ka- that shows the manner and the degree e.g. kakuhle, kakubi , is the manner and kancinci, kakhulu, kade is the degree.

3.6 COMPOUND NOUNS WITH ADJECTIVE

Compound nouns are compounded from a variety of stems. Compound nouns are formed this way:

Compounds of which the first part is an abbreviated noun and compounds composed of two parts of speech e.g.

Noun and Adjective:

- (1) uMandlamakhulu → amandla (“strength”)
amakhulu (“big”)

uMandla is in Class 1(a) and amakhulu is in Class 6

- (2) uNtombentle → intombi (“girl”)
ntle (“beautiful”)

uNtombi is in Class 1(a) or Class 9 and intle is in Class 9

- (3) umamomncinci → umama (“mother”)
ncinci (“small”)

we find umama in Class 1(a) and omncinci in Class 1.

- (4) uNtwendala → into (“thing”)
ndala (“old”)

uNtwendala is in Class 1(a) or in Class 9 into and ndala falls under Class 9.

Compound nouns of which the first part is an abbreviated noun are all found in Class 1(a) and are mostly proper names, though they include many personifications, names of animals and birds. The abbreviated nouns use So in names of men and No in names of a women:

uSobahle (“the beautiful man”)

uSokhulu (“ the big one in the house”)

uNontsha (“ the new one /girl “)

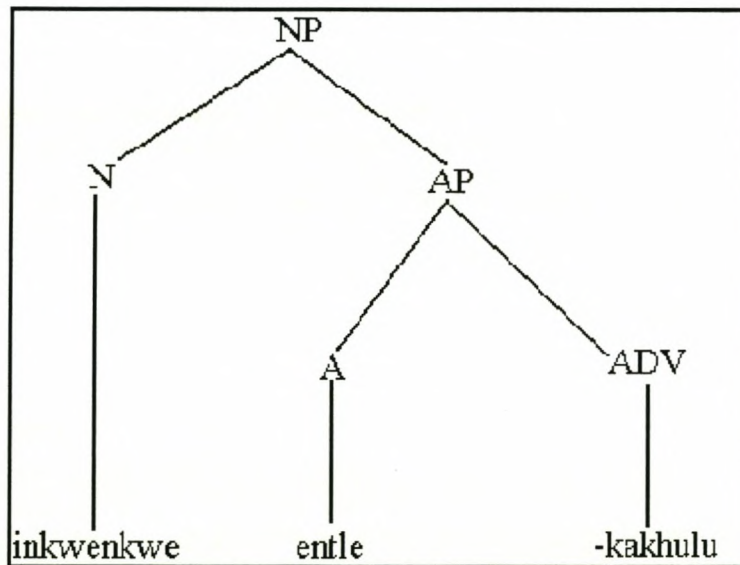
uNontle (“the beautiful girl”)

uNombi (“the ugly girl “)

Compound: first noun gives Class prefix of the Compound:

Adjective: It has the noun class prefix of the original real noun.

4 .The Adjectival Phrase



Adjectives may appear in Adjectival phrases as complements of their heads. Adverbs and PP's may occur as complements of these adjectives:

- (a) inkwenkwe [entle kakhulu] Adverb
 “a very beautiful boy”

- (b) intombi [entle ngokumangalisayo] PP=nga
 “an astonishing beautiful girl “
- (c) inkwenkwe [entle kunale] yeyam PP=ku
 “ a boy more beautiful than this is mine “
- (d) inkwenkwe [entle ngokwale yeka Sipho] PP=nga
 “a boy more beautiful than this one is Sipho’s”

Distribution of the adjective:

Complement of a noun:

Normally an adjective appears or follows the noun it is describing :

1. (a) umfazi [o-m-dala] it is a complement
- (b) [omdala] umfazi - it is the specifier

In Xhosa the adjectives are used either as attributes:

2. (a) umthi [omkhulu] “a large tree”

...or as predicates...

- (b) umthi mkhulu “the tree is large”.

As complement:

- (a) umzi [o-m-hle]

As specifier

- (b) [omhle] mzi
- (c) intambo [e-n-tsha]
 [entsha] intambo
- (d) umthi [o-m-de]
 [omde umthi]

Complement of a verbCopulative verbCopulative verb LI

Copulative is the word, which does the work of a predicative. There are only two verbs, which may play any role in copulatives i.e. copulative verb, which traditionally introduces a stative copulative. This verb in hypothetical Proto –Bantu was said to have the form LI. This form of verb is no longer in the present-day Xhosa but also this LI is still found in languages like Sotho.

In the case of a progressive sa and the negative nga certain remnants of this verb are observed e.g. sa and nga where the a of nga and the sa have coalesced to form e under the influence of i. In Xhosa this copulative verb may be represented in an abstract form in the lexicon as COP with the meaning of stative. The other copulative verb is:

Copulative verb –ba-

- (a) umntwana u-ba mhle
“the child is becoming beautiful”
- (b) indoda i-ba-nde
“the man is becoming tall”

Therefore the explicit sign of attribution i.e. the subject –predicate relation may be interpreted as an explicit relation of attribution that holds between a referent and a specific type. Referent of the subject belongs to the type shown by the predicate. This belonging term applies to the referent of the subject of all clauses with a copulative verb.

This is the lexical entry of a copulative verb:

Features

Morphophonological	<u>li</u>	<u>ba</u>
Categorical	[+V,-N]	[+V,-N]
Subcategorical	+ [XP]	+ [XP]

Semantic <stative, attribution> <inchoatic, attribution>

Complements of these verbs are indicated as XP in the above examples. The X may be anyone of the following categories:

- ◆ NP
- ◆ AP
- ◆ PP or
- ◆ S

The fixed rule for the adjectives is that they can never appear without a₂. The prefix -n- of class 9 receives a stabilizing -i-:

- (a) Le ndoda intle
"this beautiful man"

In class 10 only -n- of the prefix occurs as the agreement morpheme, -zi- falls away:

With verb -enza-

- (a) wayenza ncinci le ndlu
"he made this house small"
- (b) wenza le ndlu ncinci
"he made this house small"

Syntactic position in a clause

Noun phrases comprising of a head and a nominal modifier will be examined in the syntactic position of subject and complement of a verb and a preposition to ascertain whether these noun phrases may have any restrictions on their distribution in the clause:

Subject:

- (a) [umfazi omdala] ngowam
“the old woman is mine”
- (b) [omdala]ngowam
“the old one is mine”

Nominal modifier may appear as object of verbs in clauses:

- (a) ndifuna [umntwana omdala]
“I want the older child “
- (b) ndifuna omdala
“I want the older one”

Nominal modifier regularly occurs as complements of preposition like -nga- and -na- the locative -ku-, possessive a and as a complement of the copula. There are no restrictions on their appearance as complements of prepositions, either or without a noun as head:

The complement of -nga-

There is no restriction on the appearance with prepositions:

- (a) bathini ngo [mfana omhle] ?
“what do they say about the beautiful one”
- (b) bathini ng[omhle]?

The complement of na

The preposition na has the meaning of association or have the possessive interpretation :

- (a) une ntliziyo embi
“he is having a bad heart”

- (b) isitya sina manzi amatsha
“the dish has fresh water”

Comparison and the adjective :

To construct comparison in Xhosa we can sometimes use the locative noun phrases for instance we have locative with ini and ku

- (a) utata mncinci emfazini wakhe
“father is younger than his wife “
- (b) intombi intle kunomama wayo
“the girl is beautiful than her mother”

They can be used with animals, plants ,and non-living this :

- (a) indlovu inkulu kwindlulamthi
indlovu inkulu endlulamthini
“the elephant is bigger than the giraffe”
- (b) ibhasi inde kwimoto
ibhasi inde emotweni
“the bus is taller than the car”

Adjectives in Xhosa have no inflection corresponding to the comparative and superlative degree in English .In the sense that “in comparison with “ after the adjectives are used when one object is compared with another in regard to its possession of some particular quality ,the preposition -ku- or -kuna- appears:

- (a) ndimfutshane kunawe
“I am shorter than you”
- (b) ndimde kumama
“I am tall to my mother”

Exclamations

Exclamations are interjections that are exclamatory and emotional and have no effect on the grammatical construction of a sentence.

Exclamations are negative with the positive meaning:

akumhle!

awumdala!

awumde!

awumkhulu!

ayintsha!

ayintle!

ayimfutshane!

Co-ordination

Co-ordinated adjectives are two or more adjectives that may co-operate or work together. Such co-ordination may then be found as complements of verbs. Any number of adjectives may appear in co-ordinated AP's next to a head:

- (a) yindlu enkulu entle le
"this is a big and a beautiful house"
- (b) ndifuna izinja ezinkulu ezindala
"I want big and old dogs "

With na (adjectives with na)

In copulative verb clauses with -na- the -na- may fall away and the noun can then occur as a complement of the copulative verb. In cases like that the adjective loses its definite [a] because its head has also lost its initial vowel:

- (a) abafundi banezinxibo azintle
"students are having beautiful kit"

- (b) abafundi bazinxibo zintle
- (c) Le moto inamavili amancinci
"this car is having small wheels"
- (d) Le moto imavili mancinci
- (e) Lo mzi uneendonga ezindala
"this house has old walls"
- (f) Lo mzi undonga zindala

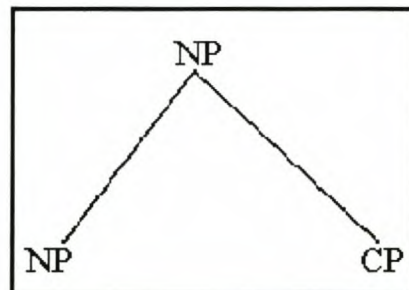
CHAPTER 4

THE NOMINAL RELATIVE CLAUSE

4.1 AIM

This chapter sets out to discuss the nominal relative clause, the definite morpheme [a], the copulative verb, and the nominal relative complements of the copulative verbs, the comparatives, the distribution of the nominal relative clause and its summary.

The nominal relative clause in Xhosa is a complementizer phrase (CP) which appears as a complement of a noun phrase in a structure such as the following:



The relative clause in Xhosa may furthermore be divided into two separate types of clauses, i.e. nominal relative clauses and verbal relative clauses.

These two types of relative clauses are distinguished by the presence of different types of verbs in the relative clause. In the case of the verbal relative clause the verb in the clause is always a non-copulative verb while the nominal relative clause has a compulsory copulative verb in the relative clause.

Another major difference between these two types of relative clauses is concerned with the antecedent of the relative clause. It is compulsory for the antecedent to be present in all relative clauses in Xhosa.

Such an antecedent may be present in the relative clause in various forms i.e. as objectival agreement:

[abantu] [e-ndi-ba-funa-yo]

In this noun phrase the antecedent is abantu. This antecedent is present in the relative clause through the objective agreement ba, which is co-indexed with an empty pro. This empty pro is referred to as a presumptive pronoun, which is a variable, bound by an operator who is its antecedent:

[abantu _i] [e-ndi-ba_i-funa-yo pro_i]

The nominal relative clause only allows its antecedent as a subject of the relative clause, i.e. the presumptive pronoun in such a relative clause will always refer to subjectival agreement of the antecedent:

[abantu] [a-ba-ntsundu]

In this NP the relative clause has subjectival agreement ba which is co-indexed with its antecedent abantu and an empty pro as subject of the relative clause.

The copulative verb does not appear and it is indicated as an abstract verb LI. The relative marker -yo also never appears with the nominal relative :

[abantu _i] [pro_i a-ba-_i LI -ntsundu]

In the nominal relative clause as above one may then notice the following:

- (a) a definite morpheme a
- (b) subjectival agreement ba
- (c) a copulative verb LI
- (d) a complement of the copulative i.e. ntsundu

Attention will be given to these issues as well as the distribution of these relative clauses within a sentence.

4.2 THE DEFINITE MORPHEME [a]

The definite [a] that appears is the same morpheme as the one, which is found above in adjectives. It may appear as a, e, or o depending on the vowel of the agreement morpheme in the relative clause:

(a) a → e	class
	4 imithi <u>e</u> manzi
	5 ilitye <u>e</u> lilula
	7 isitya <u>e</u> size
	8 izitya <u>e</u> zize
	9 Indoda <u>e</u> ntsundu
	10 izinja <u>e</u> zimbuna

(b) <u>a</u> → <u>o</u>	<u>: class</u>
	1 umntu omnyama
	3 umthi obomvu
	1 uluthi oluluhlaza
	14 ubuso obumanzi / obubomvu
	15 ukwindla okumnandi
	16

(c) <u>a</u> → <u>a</u>	class
	2 abantu ababomvu
	6 amatye alukhuni

The definite morpheme may fall away in the same circumstances as with the morphological adjective.

with the demonstrative

In Xhosa there is a problem of the establishment of a demonstrative root that is further complicated by the presence of a definite morpheme [a]. This morpheme has the meaning of definiteness as in demonstratives and it can occur with -adjectives, relatives, or possessives:

Relative: a- zi- luhlaza → eziluhlaza
 “DEF –AGR-green” → “green ones”

When a demonstrative appears with the categories above, the definite morpheme [a] falls away because the demonstrative has a definitive meaning and with [a] this meaning would be given twice which is thus redundant:

- (a) eziluhlaza “green ones”
- (b) ezi ziluhlaza “these green ones”

with a negative verb

- (a) andizifuni ezimhlophe
“I do not want the white ones”
- (b) andifuni zimhlophe
“I do not want white”

4.2.1 The Copulative verb

There are two types of copulative verbs, which may play some role in copulatives. The first one is a copulative verb, which traditionally introduces a stative copulative. In Xhosa this verb has no overt form in the surface structure. This verb has been assumed to have the form LI in hypothetical Proto-Bantu. In present-day Xhosa this form of the copulative is not found. In isolated cases, certain remnants of this verb may probably be observed. For example, the progressive sa and the negative nga where the a of nga and sa seems to have coalesced to form e under the influence of an i, this being the usual circumstances of coalescence of the vowels in Xhosa. The progressive sa becomes se:

- (a) le ntloko i-se- ngwevu
“this head is still grey”

the negative nga becomes nge

- (a) xa i-nge manzi ,ndiyayithatha
“if it is not wet ,I am taking it”

These are remnants of the verb LI in these cases, probably only the i of LI since it does not cover all instances of coalescence of a.

The second copulative verb is ba. This ba carries an inchoative meaning that refers to a change in state. The ba is overtly represented in Xhosa.

Verbs LI and ba in Xhosa are the only copulative verbs (Du Plessis and Visser 1992 : 225)

The copulative verbs may have the following lexical entry.

Features

Morphophonological	li	ba
Categorical	[+V, -N]	[+V, -N]
Subcategorical	+ [-XP]	+[-XP]
Semantic	<stative, attribution>	<inchoative attribution>

XP is an indication of the complements that the copulative can take.

X of XP may be any of these categories NP, AP, PP, Locative, NPrel or S.

4.2.2 The nominal relative complements of the copulative verbs

1. States

Difficulty: Nzima

- (a) ezi zibalo zinzima ngenxa yamanani amakhulu
"These sums are difficult because of big numbers"
- (b) ezi zifundo zinzima kuba azifundeki
"These lessons are difficult because you can not read "

Easy: Lula

- (a) impendulo zombuzo zilula
"The answers of a question are easy"

DimensionWeight:

- (a) le tasi inzima ngenxa yobukhulu bayo
"This case is heavy because of its big size "
- (b) esi sitya silula ngokuba sisincinci
"This dish is light because of its small size"

Depth: nzulu

- (a) umlambo unzulu xa amanzi ebaleka
"The river is deep when the water runs"
- (b) lo mngxuma usidibi kuba unamatye
"This hole is shallow because of stones"

Width: banzi

- (a) le ndlela ibanzi kuba iyalungiswa
"This road is wide because of reconstruction"
- (b) le ndawo imxinwa kuba ivaliwe
"This place is narrow because it is closed"
- (c) lo mmango usityaba xa kuhamba imoto
"This way is broad and flat when cars are going"
- (d) lo mfazi usixwexwe ngenxa yesiqu
"This woman is broad and flat because of her body"
- (e) lo mzimba usicaba ngulo matshini
"This body is flat and thin because of this machine"

Figure

- (a) le ntombi imbhoxo ngenxa yokuthanda ukutya
"This girl is oval shaped because she loves food"

Temperature:shushu

- (a) umzimba ushushu kuba ilanga liyatshisa
“the body is hot because the sun is scorching “
- (b) umzimba ushushu ngenxa yengqele
“the body is hot because of flu”

dikidiki

- (a) oku kutya kudikidiki kuba kuvuliwe
“this food is lukewarm because it is opened”
- (b) amanzi adikidiki kuba ahleli elangeni
“the water is lukewarm because they are in the sun”

savusavu

- (a) oku kutya kusavusavu ngenxa yeswekile
“this food is lukewarm because of sugar”
- (b) la masi asavusavu lilanga
“this sourmilk is lukewarm because of the sun”

sivisivi

- (a) lo mqa usivisivi ngumoya
“this stiff-porridge is cool because of wind”
- (b) esi siselo sisivisivi ngumkhence
“this drink is cool because of ice”

manzi

- (a) umzimba umanzi ngumbilo
“the body is wet with perspiration”
- (b) lo mngqusho umanzi ngumhluzi
“this stamp is wet with gravy”

Taste :switi :

- (a) oku kutya kuswiti yiswekile
“this food is sweet because of sugar”
- (b) le keyiki iswiti yijamu
“this cake is sweet because of jam”

muncu

- (a) amasi amuncu xa kushushu
“milk is sour when it is hot”
- (b) ukutya kumuncu xa ukugcinile
“food is sour when you keep it”

krakra :

- (a) ukutya kukrakra yityuwa
“this food is bitter because of salt”
- (b) umlomo ukrakra yinyongo
“mouth is bitter because of gall”

shoqolo :

- (a) amasi aba shoqolo xa kushushu
“the sourmilk becomes very sour when it is hot”
- (b) utywala bushoqolo kukuhlala etotini
“beer becomes very sour to stay in cans”

mnandi :

- (a) isiselo simnandi xa sibanda
“cool-drink is nice when it is cold”
- (b) inyama imnandi xa yosiwe
“the meat is nice when roasted”

myoli :

- (a) isiselo simyoli xa usipholele
“ drink is pleasant when you are taking your time to drink”
- (b) uhambo lumyoli xa nibaninzi
“the journey is pleasant when you are too many”

javujavu :

- (a) ukutya kujavujavu ngenxa yamanzi amaninzi
“food is tasteless because of too much water “
- (b) amanzi e-oreni ajavujavu kuba zimuncu
“orange –juice is tasteless because they are sour”

Quantity:

Ze

- (a) iintlanti zize yimbalela
“kraals are empty because of drought “
- (b) imilambo ize lilanga
“rivers are empty because of sun”

mbalwa :

- (a) iigusha zimbawala ngamasela
“sheep are few because of thieves”
- (b) abafundi bambalwa xa kunetha
“students are few when it is raining”

thile :

- aba bantu balinani lithile lukwayayo
“ these people are certain number because of strike

Physical property :Filth

Mdaka

- (a) lo mntwana umdaka ngenxa yokuphela kwamanzi
“ this child is dirty because of the finished water”
- (b) lo mzi umdaka kuba awucocwa
“this house is dirty because of not cleaning it”

rhapilili :

- (a) umntwana urhapilili kukutya
“the child is filthy because of food”
- (b) usana lurhapilili lubisi
“an infant is filthy because of milk”

rhinirhini :

- (a) umfundi urhinirhini ngamafutha
“a student is dirty because of fat”
- (b) uLolo urhinirhini ngumngqusho
“Lolo is dirty because of stamp”

vagueness :

luzizi

- (a) le ndlela iluzizi ngenxa yenkungu
“this road is dim because of mist”
- (b) eli tyholo liba luzizi xa kunetha
“this bush becomes dim when raining”

lufifi :

- (a) amehlo aba lufifi xa kumnyama
“eyes becomes dim when it is dark”

- (b) amehlo aba lufifi kuba kuwa ikhephu
 “eyes becomes dim because snow is falling “

Touch

ethe-ethe

- (a) igilasi iba ethe-ethe xa ingenanto
 “the glass becomes soft and tender when empty”
- (b) ibhaloni iba ethe-ethe xa ingenamoya
 “the baloon becomes soft when it has no air”

tofotofo

- (a) uboya buba tofotofo xa bungenwe ngamanzi
 “wool becomes soft when it is entered by water”
- (b) ibhaloni itofotofo xa igqabhukile
 “the baloon is soft when blasted

qhaphu-qhaphu

- (a) le ntambo iqhaphu-qhaphu kuba ithambile
 “this rope is brittle because it is soft”
- (b) isitya siqhaphu-qhaphu kuba senziwe ngeglassi
 “the dish is brittle because it is made of glass

bhetye-bhetye :

- (a) uswazi lubhetye-bhetye kuba luthambile
 “the stick is soft because it is light “
- (b) isihlangu sibhetye-bhetye kuba sitshiswe lilanga
 “a shoe is soft because it is scorched by the sun”

tam-tam

- (a) umqamelo utam-tam kuba wenziwe ngoboya
 “a pillow is soft because it is made of wool “
- (b) ibhola iba tam-tam xa iphelelwe ngumoya
 “the ball becomes soft when the air is finished”

votyovo

- (a) umthi uvotyovo ngenxa yomoya
 “the tree is soft because of wind”
- (b) imvubu ivotyovo xa imanzi
 “ the whip is soft when it is wet”

lukhuni

ucango olulukhuni

qe

- (a) ibrashi iba qe xa inamanzi anetyuwa
 “the brush becomes hard when in salty water”
- (b) intloko iba qe xa ibotshiwe
 “the head becomes hard when it is tied up”

rhabaxa

- (a) impahla irhabaxa kuba ayinasithambisi mpahla
 “clothes are rough because they do not have fabric softner”
- (b) indlela irhabaxa kuba iyalungiswa
 “the road is rough because of reconstruction”

qatha

- (a) ibaqaqa imfundiso kuba bayageza
 “the treatment is hard because they are silly”

lushica

- (a) lo mbona ulushica kuba awuvuthwanga
“this mealies is tough because it is not ripe”
- (b) inyama ilushica ngenxa yokuba ayipholanga
“the meat is tough because it did not cool”

Value

Dulu

- (a) indlu idulu xa yenziwe ngezitena
“the house is so expensive when it is made up of bricks”
- (b) ezi zihlangu zidulu kuba zenziwe phesheya
“this shoes are expensive because they are made overseas”

tshiphu

- (a) into etshiphu iyithengwa ngenxa yexabiso
“a cheap item is bought because of its price”
- (b) impahla etshiphu ithengwa kuba yenziwe ntle
“cheap clothes are bought because they are made beautiful”

Surface

mtyibilizi

- (a) umgangatho umtyibilizi ngamanzi
“the floor is slippery because of water”
- (b) indlela imtyibilizi yimvula
“the road is slippery because of rain”

ncangathi

- (a) izandla zibancangathi xa usitya ilekese
“hands become sticky when you eat sweets”

- (b) umlomo uba ncangathi yikeyiki xa uyitya
“mouth becomes sticky when you eat cake”

ndyengelele

- (a) intambo iba ndyengelele xa ingaqinanga
“the rope becomes loose when it is not tied up”
- (b) icici lindyengelele kuba alibotshwanga
“the earring is loose because it is not fastened”

sharpness

buthuntu

- (a) imela ibuthuntu xa ingalolwanga
“the knife becomes blunt when it is not sharpened”
- (b) isikera sibabuthuntu ngenxa yobudala
“scissors becomes blunt because of oldness”

bukhali

- (a) le mela ibukhali kuba isentsha
“this knife is sharp because it is still new”
- (b) eli lizembe libukhali kuba liloliwe
“this axe is sharp because it is sharpened”

tsolo

- (a) inaliti itsolo kuba ingena lula enyameni
“the needle is sharp because it gets easily into the flesh”
- (b) izihlangu ezitsolo azithengwa kuba zidulu
“sharp-pointed shoes are not bought because they are expensive”

4.2.3 Human Features:

Classification of the features

Psychological features

lusizi

nyulu

mpuluswa

tem-tem

msulwa

tyokololo

tyefe-tyefe

tyhwebe-tyhwebe

tem-tem

lusizi

Physical features

buhlungu

buthathaka

mpuluswa

teke-teke

gosogoso

- (a) umntu ulusizi kuba uve indaba ezibuhlungu
"someone is sad because he heard bad news"

- (b) lo mntwana ulusizi kuba kubhujiwe
"this child is sad because of bereavement"

buhlungu

- (a) amehlo abuhlungu xa ugula
"eyes are painful when sick"

buthathaka

- (a) lo mntwana ubuthathaka yingqele
"this child is weak of flu"
- (b) uSasa ubuthathaka yila ngozi yebhasi
"Sasa is weak because of that bus accident"

nyulu

- (a) le ntombi inyulu kuba ifihliwe
"this girl is pure because she has been hidden"

- (b) lo mfana unyulu ngokuziphatha
“this man is pure because of the way he treated himself

mpuluswa

- (a) uLolo umpuluswa xa engaselanga
“Lolo is pure when not drunk “

- (b) ubuso bumpuluswa kuba umsulwa
“the face is pure because he is innocent”

teke-teke

- (a) le ntombi iteke-teke ngenxa yenyama etyebileyo
“this girl is fat because of fat meat

- (b) umntwana uba teke-teke kuba elala imini
“ the child becomes fat because she sleeps during the day”

tem-tem

- (a) uLolo utem-tem kuba uthatha kade
“Lolo is retarded because he thinks very slow”

- (b) aba bantwana batem-tem kuba abazi nto
“this kids are retarded because they know nothing”

msulwa

- (a) uLizi umsulwa ngenxa yezenzo zakhe
“Lizi is innocent because of her deeds”

- (b) lo mntwana umsulwa xa efuna ukutya
“this child is innocent when she needs food”

goso-goso

- (a) ingalo igoso-goso kuba wophuka
“ the hand is crooked because he broke”

- (b) umlenze wakhe ugosogoso kuba awupholanga
 “her leg is crooked because it did not heal”

tyokololo

- (a) lo mntwana utyokololo kuba akatyi
 (b) “this child is weak because he does not eat”
 (c) umlenze uba tyokololo xa waphukile
 “leg becomes very loose when broken”

tyefe-tyefe

- (a) intombazana iba tyefe-tyefe xa ityebile
 “the girl becomes weak when is fat”
 (b) umntwana uba tyefe-tyefe xa elambile /egula
 “the child becomes weak when hungry or sick”

tyhwebe-tyhwebe

- (a) abantwana batyhwebe-tyhwebe kukufekethiswa
 “kids are lazy or weak because of being spoiled”

Animal feature

- (a) izilwanyana zimbuna kuba izezasekhaya
 “animals are tame because they are domestic ones”
 (b) izilwanyana zibambuna kuba ziqhelisiwe
 “animals become tame because they are trained”

Colors

bomvu red

- (a) amanzi ababomvu xa achithelwe ligazi
 “water becomes red when blood spilled in water”
 (b) mnyama-black amafu amnyama kuba kusebusuku
 “the sky is black because it is the night”

- (c) luhlaza-green
ingca iluhlaza kuba kusehlotyeni
“the grass is green because it is summer”
- (d) mhlophe –white
kuba mhlophe xa kuwe ikhephu
“it becomes white when the snow fell”
- (e) mfusa-purple
uLolo unxibe ilokhwe emfusa kuba sisinxibo senkonzo yakhe
“Lolo is wearing a purple dress because it is the church uniform”
- (f) ntsundu –brown
lo mfazi unebala elintsundu kuba ehleli elangeni
“this woman is having a brown color because she has been sitting in the sun”
- (g) gwangqa-light-brown
le ndoda inepeyinti egwangqa kuba idibanise imibala
“this man is having a light brown paint because he mixed colors”
- (h) ngwevu –grey
umntu ubanenwele ez ngwevu xa ekhula
“a person has grey hair when he grows”
- (i) mthuthu-grey
amalahle abamthuthu xa uphelile /ucimile umlilo
“coals becomes grey when the fire stops”
- (j) lubhelu –yellow
utata uthanda inkomo elubhelu kuba yeyobisi
“my father likes the yellow cow because it is for milk”
- (k) tyheli-yellow
uLizo uthanda ijezi etyheli kuba umbona ekude
Lizo loves the yellow jersey because you see him far away”

- (l) mthubi-yellow
uKoko uthanda ilokhwe emthubi
"Koko loves the yellow dress"
- (m) nco-red and white
uthanda umbala onco kuba ungowabantu abathandanayo
"she likes the red and white color because it is for the lovers"

The above examples that is (h and i) i.e. ngwevu and mthuthu are both color gray but mthuthu specifically refers to the ash (uthuthu) that is the color of the ash and it refers to non-living things and it is lighter than ngwevu and ngwevu has the dark color, the color ngwevu (grey) refers to grey hair rather to living things and non-living things.

Examples (j, k ,l)-are all yellow but differ in degree of strongness i.e.

- Lubhelu light yellow
Tyheli medium yellow (like gold color)
Mthubi strong or deep yellow (and it is like the orange color or close to)

Comparatives

Nje ilokwe inje
"the dress is like this"

njalo indlu yam injalo
"my house is like that"

njeya amasimi am anjeya
"my fields are like yonder"

ngaka umhlaba wam ungaka
"my land are as big as this"

ngakanana impahla yam ingakanana
"my stock is so small"

ngako iibhasi zikatata zingako
 “my father’s buses are as big as that”

ngakaya ilizwe lethu lingakaya
 “our nation is as big as that yonder”

4.2.4 Distribution of the nominal relative clause

4.2.4.1 Within a noun phrase

The nominal relative clause usually appears as a complement of a noun but it may also appear as the specifier for the purpose of emphasis :

1 (a) ilokhwe ebomvu
 “red dress”

(b) ebomvu ilokhw e
 red dress

4.2.4.2 The subject position of a sentence

The appearance of a noun phrase in the position of the subject of a clause will be considered. There are no restrictions that could be found on the appearance of noun phrases with the nominal relative in the position of a subject of a clause. Noun phrases like that may have a noun as a head and a nominal relative clause either as specifier or complement:

2 (a) [iilokhwe ezibomvu] zintle
 “red dresses are beautiful”

(b) [ezibomvu] zintle
 “ the red ones are beautiful”

4.2.4.3 The object position of a sentence

Nominal modifiers may appear as objects of verbs in clauses, either with or without an overt head:

3(a) ndikha [amaqunube abomvu]
"I am picking the red strawberries"

(b) ndikha [abomvu]
I am picking the red ones"

4.2.4.4 Complement of prepositions

With nga as a head

Nominal modifiers regularly occurs as complements of preposition like nga and na and the locative ku, possessive a, and as complements of the copula:

With nga as ahead:

4 (a) utya ntoni nge-[sitya esimnyama]
"What do you eat with a black dish"

(b) utya ntoni ng-[esimnyama]
"What do you eat with the black one"

With na as a head

5 (a) ndihamba ne –[nkomo ebomvu]
I go with a red cow"

(b) ndihamba n- [ebomvu]
" I go with the red one"

With ku as a head :

- 6(a) ndityibilika [engceni emhlophe]
“ I am skating on the white grass”
- (b) ndityibilika kw- [ingca emhlope]
- (c) ndityibilika kw-[emhlophe]
I am skating on a white one”

With a possessive a:

- 7(a) ndifuna iglasi yesiselo esibomvu
“I need a glass of a red drink”
- (b) ndifuna iglasi yesibomvu
I need a glass of a red one”

4.3 SUMMARY

In this chapter we have dealt with the nominal relative clause in Xhosa, the definite morpheme [a], the copulative verb, i.e. its types, the nominal relative complements of the copulative verb e.g. states, dimension, the human property, the human features, animal feature, colors and comparatives; the distribution of the nominal relative clause i.e. within a noun phrase, the subject position of a sentence, the object position of a sentence and the complement of a preposition are dealt with above.

CHAPTER 5

DESCRIPTIVE POSSESSIVE

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 grammatical functions as a link in the description of such adjectives.

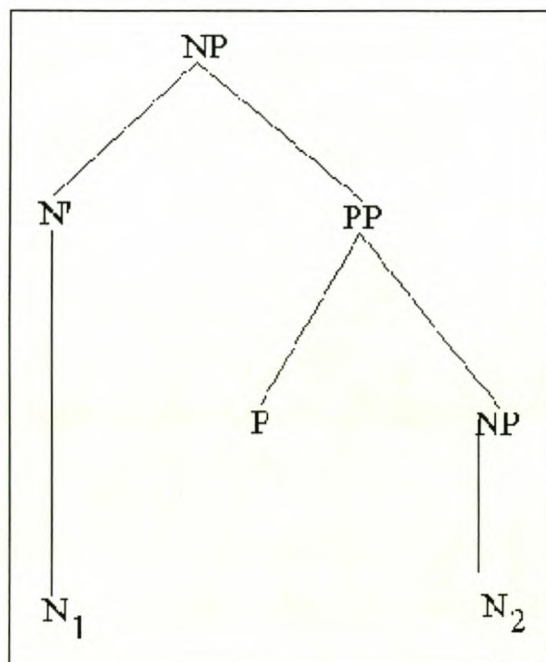
In the second place, the descriptive part or the semantic adjective in the NP is not always a complement of the possessive [-a-], but it may be the head of the noun phrase. The semantic adjective may also appear in various categories such as NP locative and complementizer phrase.

The noun phrase will be dealt with in regard to these two possibilities:

The descriptive part is the head of the NP, and the descriptive part is the complement of the preposition [-a-]

The descriptive part is the head of the 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.

5.1 GROUPS

The word group applies to number of people, animals, things or organizations that gathered close together or linked together in a certain way. Group nouns may have certain features of which the most prominent is their appearance in descriptive possessives i.e. ...

5.1.1 Groups of people

Groups of people may be arranged into different subgroups:

Iqela

This term iqela (group) specifically refers to a group of people:

- (a) iqela lamantombazana
"group of girls"
- (b) iqela leemvumi
"group of singers"

The head of the noun above, iqela may also appear in the diminutive:

- (c) iqelana leemvumi
"small group of singers"

Inyambalala

The term inyambalala refers to a big crowd:

- (a) inyambalala yabazingeli
"big crowd of hunters"
- (b) inyambalala yabafundi
"big crowds of students"

Igqiza

The term igqiza refers to a number of people

- (a) igqiza labathunywa
“a number of delegates”
- (b) igqiza lamadoda
“a number of man”

Specific groups

There are various terms, which refer to a specific group of people i.e. group of young people:

- (a) ikhaba lamakhwenkwe
“group of young boys”
- (b) uququbana lwamantombazana
“a group of small girls”

5.1.2 Group of animals

Ikhazi

The term ikhazi refers to the lobola cattle i.e group of cows:

- (a) ikhazi leenkomo
“lobola cattle”

umhlambi weenkomo

The term umhlambi weenkomo refers to the herd of cattle i.e a group of cows.

umhlambi weenkomo
“herd of cattle”

umqikela weenkumbi

The term umqikela weenkumbi refers to the swarm of young locusts:

umqikela weenkumbi
“swarm of young locusts”

ugxudululu lweehagu

ugxudululu lweehagu refers to litter of pigs:

ugxudululu lweehagu
“litter of pigs”

ibubu leenyosi

The term ibubu leenyosi refers to swarm of bees:

ibubu leenyosi
“swarm of bees”

Igquba lezinja

The term igquba refers to the pack of dogs.

igquba lezinja
“pack of dogs”

umtyino

The term umtyino refers to a certain group of birds i.e. flock of birds

umtyino weentaka
“flock of birds”

Heap

The term heap refers to a disorderly pile or mass of things one on top of one another:

- (a) imfumba yemali
“heap of money”

- (b) infumba yempahla
“heap of clothes”
- (c) umqiko wokudla
“heap of food”
- (d) intabalala yengqolowa
“heap of grain”

Bundle

A bundle refers to a number of things loosely bound together:

- (a) umqulu welaphu
“a bundle of material”
- (b) isithungu sengqolowa
“bundle of wheat”
- (c) isishuqu soboya
“bundle of cotton wool”
- (d) inyanda yeenkuni
“bundle of woods”

Gathering

The term refers to the bringing together or meeting together for a certain purpose in one place, it can be animals ,things or people:

- (a) intlangano yeemvumi
“gathering of choristers”
- (b) intlanganiselo yempahla
“grouping of cows/domestic animals”

- (c) intlanganiso yebandla
“meeting of the congregation”
- (d) intlangano yamazwe-ngamazwe
“gathering of different nations”

Series

Term series refers to a number of things following each other in order or a set of things of the same kind:

- (a) uthotho lwemoto
“series of cars”
- (b) umtyino weembovane
“line of ants”
- (c) umngcelele weebhasi
“procession of buses”
- (d) uhlohlo lweentsimbi
“sequence of beads”
- (e) uluhlu lwezithwala-ndwe
“procession of graduates”
- (f) ukrozo lwabafundi
“line of pupils”
- (g) umqokozo wembongi
“sucession of poets”

Quantity

The term quantity refers to anything that is measurable, which represents an amount or a number of anything:

- (a) intyunkula yemali
“large quantity of money”
- (b) iqaqobana labafundi
“small number of students”
- (c) intlaninge yabashumayeli
“large numbers of preachers”
- (d) amatshuphelele esenti
“small amount of cents”
- (e) isambuku setshekhi
“large amount of cheque”

5.1.3 Nouns denoting quantity:

- (a) ubuncinci bamanzi
“little /small amount of water”
- (b) ubuninzi beenkomo
“large/huge amount of cows”

5.1.4 Cardinal numbers

This term refers to the numbers that are telling how many (i.e. 1,2,3 etc).

- (a) ishumi leenkomo
“ten cows”
- (b) ikhulu leminyaka
“hundred years”
- (c) iwaka lezizwe
“thousand nations”

- (d) isibini samahobe
“two doves”
- (e) isihlanu sezihlobo
“five friends”
- (f) isibhozo samakhwenkwe
“eight boys”

5.1.5 Partitives

Partitives may refer to nouns that are subject to gradability in two respects i.e. quality and quantity .The expression of quantity may be done by means of partitives. In African Languages such partitives always appear in descriptive possessives:

Partitives in Xhosa may appear also as the head in a possessive construction as in the case of nouns denoting groups:

- (a) [ikomityi [yeti]]
“a cup of tea”
- (b) [iceba [letshoko]]
“piece of chalk”
- (c) iqhunuza lenyama
“small piece of meat”
- (d) isiqingatha sethanga
“half of pumpkin”
- (e) ibhotile yebranti
“bottle of brandy”
- (f) isilayi sesonka
“slice of bread “

(g) ibhekile yomqombothi
“a tin of sorghum beer”

(h) igilasi yewayini
“ a glass of wine “

(i) icephe leyeza
“a spoon of medicine”

(j) itoti yejamu
a can of jam

(k) iqhekeza lesonka
“piece of bread”

(h) ilofu yesonka
“ a loaf of bread”

(i) ipisi yenyama
“ a piece of meat”

(j) icala legusha
“ half of a sheep”

ukhozo lwengqolowa
“grain of wheat”

umcinga wengca
“a blade of grass”

iqhekeza lengqele
“small block of ice”

iqhezu lezinyo
“piece of tooth”

isijungqe sentambo
“piece of riem”

iqhezu lethambo
“piece of bone”

ikhozo lomngqusho
“grain of samp”

ikhipha lemali
“bundle of money”

isitaki semali
“stack of money”

ibhotile yobisi
“a bottle of milk”

ichebetyu lesepha
“piece of soap”

igaqa lengqele
“piece of ice”

ixamba leswekile
“packet of sugar”

Units of measure and mass

This term refers to a single thing, person or a group especially when considered as part of a larger whole, fixed amount, length used as a standard by which other amounts are measured e.g. metres, litres, centimetres etc.:

- (a) ilitha yesiselo
“litre of cold drink”
- (b) imitha yesiziba
“metre of material”
- (c) ikhilogramu yama-apile
“kilogram of apples”
- (d) ihekthare yamasimi
“hectar of fields”
- (e) isentimitha yesinqe
“centimetre of a waist”
- (f) igram yeswekile
“a gram of sugar”
- (g) i-akile yombona
“an acre mealies”
- (h) ilitha yepetroli
“litre of petrol”

5.1.6 Humans

The term human is a term that has to do with mankind as opposed to animals, having the qualities, feelings natural to mankind. We get the physical and psychological features. Let us look at physical features according to age:

- (a) iqina lendoda
“middle aged man”
- (b) umxenge wexhego
“old and sickly man”

- (c) igatyana lomfana
"young man"
- (d) inkothovu yexhegwazana
"a very old woman"
- (e) intshwabavu yexhego
"an old man"
- (f) ingwevu yendoda
""an old man "
- (g) impobole yexhego
"an old man"
- (h) igqala lendoda
"experienced man"
- (i) iqhayi lendoda
"brave man"
- (j) isigeledwane sendoda
"strong man"
- (k) ityendyana lendoda
"young man"
- (l) isibhovubhovu sendoda
"troublesome man"
- (m) ikrebhe-krebhe lomfana
"handsome young man"

Physical disadvantaged:Deaf:

- (a) isithulu somntwana
“a deaf child”

Blind:

- (a) imfama yendoda
“a blind man”

Cripple:

- (a) isilima somfazi
(b) isidalwa sentombazana
(c) imbedlenge yexhego
(d) umlwelwe wendoda
(e) isiqhwala somntwana

Body shape:Long:

Utyingityingi wendoda
“long and tall man”

umtyongololo wenkwenkwe
“very long boy ”

urhobololo womntwana
“extra-ordinary lengthy child”

urhoqolo wexhego
“long crooked old man”

Well-built:

- (a) usambuntsuntsu wenkwenkwe
(b) umagumede womfazi
(c) isiqingqi sendoda
(d) isigantsontso somfazi

- (e) umtsetse wentombazana

Well-built and short

- (a) isiqhushumba sentombi
- (b) isiqhuma sendoda

Strong

- (a) isigeledwane somfana
- (b) isiqololwane sendoda
- (c) intsingalala yentombazana
- (d) isigantsontso sendoda
- (e) isqengqe somfazi

Healthy

- (a) umqabaqaba womntwana
- (b) isiqishimba senkwenkwe

Lean

- (a) uqutsumani wendoda
- (b) iqekelana lenkwenkwe
- (c) utshoqolo wexhego

Thin

- (a) iqathalala lentombazana
- (b) ingceke-ngceke yomntwana

Stout

- (a) ingxilimbela yendoda
- (b) intsunduba yomfazi
- (c) isiqushululu sentombi

Fat

- (a) isekeseke lentombi
- (b) iteketeke lomfana

Short

Short, not respected

- (a) umsakatyana wentombi
- (b) isilekehlana sendoda
- (c) inqarhumana yomfana

Short and corpulent

- (a) isiqwashumbe sentombazana
- (b) isinqukru sendoda
- (c) isidokodoko somfana

Dwarf

- (a) isithwenga somfazi
- (b) uhili wenkwenkwe
- (c) ubhovele womntwana
- (d) isitwenetwene somntwana

Short, thickset

- (a) isitukutuku senkwenkwe

Sickly

- (a) umguli wendoda

Pale, sickly

- (a) umthwebeshu womfazi
- (b) uthwekeshana womntwana

Body part

White teeth	-	uqaqambashe wamazinyo
Potruding eyes	-	uqhumehlo
Bushy beard	-	urhaphilili wesilevu
Large head	-	uqakalabhomali wentloko
Large face	-	isiqhekevu sobuso
Flat buttocks	-	umtshwebelele wempundu
Broad chest	-	utsobhoyi wesifuba

- Short legs - intlatywa yemilenze
 Broad shoulders - isixangxathi samagxa

Body position

Stooped

uqongqothwane womfazi

Stooped ,tall and slender

uqozolo wentombazana

Stiff

- (a) umsheshenxa wendoda
- (b) usiqiniwe wentombi

Misshaped

- (a) iqhombonqa lentombazana
- (b) unomasele womntwana

Colour

Pitch-black

- (a) umtshunyela wentombi
- (b) intsunguzi yenkwenkwe
- (c) intsikizi yentombazana

Albino

- (a) inkawu yenkwenkwe

Psychological features

Intelligent

- Resolute : iqele lomfana
 Alert : isiquququ senkwenkwe
 Bright and alert : uqavashe wenkwenkwe
 Intelligent : ingqondi yomntwana

Retarded

Idiot	:	isitwayiba somntwana
Retarded	:	I-athalala lentombazana
Half –wit	:	umhlahlamvu wentombazana
Stupid	:	isiyatha somfundi
Mad	:	uthonqo wenkwenkwe
Ignorant and empty headed	:	iqokobhe lentloko

Timid

Meek	:	isilulami somfana
Timid	:	itolotolo lenkwenkwe
Useless	:	umququ wentombazana
Undecided	:	isithingathinga sentombi
Insignificant	:	umqhiqhiba womfazi

Good behaviour

Friendly	:	indlezane yomfazi
Brave	:	ikhalipha lendoda
Gentle	:	uchwenene womfana
Good	:	ilunga lenkwenkwe
Industrious	:	isiqwanguqwangu senkwenkwe
Joker	:	iqhula lomfundisi
Lively	:	umqhathuva womntwana
Haughty	:	iqhayi lendoda
Helpful	:	iqikili lomfazi

Bad behaviour

Self-centred and stubborn	:	umqwangele wenkwenkwe
Stubborn and obstinate	:	uqwaqwadu womfazi
Hasty	:	uqhajana womntwana
Troublesome	:	ubhonyongo wenkwenkwe
Cruel	:	isikhohlakali sendoda
Greedy	:	igqolo lomfana
Despicable	:	urhabaxana womntwana
Corrupt	:	umrhaji wenkwenkwe

Agressive	: isirhalarhala somfana
Bad tempered	: urhelejane womntu
Evil	: umrhuqa wentombi
Liar	: Ixoki lentombi

Habbits

Dirty	: iqathalala lenkwenkwe
Lazy	: ivila lomfazi
Drunk	: inxila lendoda
Talkative	: irhethurhethu lomfana
Officious	: isitsalelwane somntwana
Untidy	: ixelegu lomfundi

<u>Classification Of The Features</u>	
<u>Psychological features</u>	<u>Physical features</u>
isazi	Inkothovu
uqavashe	iqina
isiquququ	ityendyana
itemtem	umxenge
uthathatha	isithulu
Isiyatha	imfama
Isibhanxa	isilima
ithamba	utalabana
itolotolo	umqhathu
umququ	usambuntsuntsu
usithubeni	isiqushumba
umqhiqhiba	usuduka
indlezane	isigantsontso
inene	iqukunya
isitwayiba	igxibha
ilungisa	iqambasholo
iqhayi	Umqabaqaba
uqhajana	uqutsumani

ubhonyongo	uqhovu
uqhwapu	isitukutuku
Isikhohlakali	Uqongqothwane
igqolo	Umtshunyela
isirhalarhala	iqathalala
iqhathalala	ingxilimbela
Igqala	isekeseke
Ichule	iquku
ihlwempu	ibakwana
isityebi	urhoqolo

Infinitive clause

ukuphela kwemini

“when the day ends”

ukuqala konyaka

“when the year begins”

ukungena kwecawa

“when the church starts”

ukutshona kwelanga

“when the sets”

ukuvala kwesikolo

“when the school closes”

ukuphela kweveki

“when the week-ends”

ukuqala kweveki

“when the week begins”

ukufika kweendwendwe
“when the guests arrive”

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

Noun + descriptive noun

Igadi yeentyatyambo
“flower garden”

i-emele yamanzi
“water bucket”

ingxowa yombona
“mealie bag”

indlu yesitena
“brick house”

umthi wepesika
“peach tree”

imela yepokotho
“pocket knife”

ikomityi yeti
“tea cup”

inkomo yobisi
“milk cow”

idyasi yemvula
“rain coat”

intsimi yombona

“mealie land”

uphahla lwengca

“grass roof”

iphepha loviwo

“examination paper”

isifo samahashe

“horse sickness”

umsinga wamanzi

“water current”

ingxowa yebhokhwe

“goat bag”

Descriptive part is a natural object

Noun + descriptive noun

1. imela yentsimbi

“iron knife”

2. iringi yedayimani

“diamond ring”

3. isitulo selitye

“stone chair”

4. umlilo weenkuni

“fire wood”

5. umthi wentlaka

“gum tree”

6. iyeza lobuthi
"poisonous medicine"
7. iblorho yomthi
"wooden bridge"
8. umlilo wentlantsi
"fire spark"
9. umgubo wothuthu
"ash powder"
10. umgodi wezimbiwa
" mineral mine"
11. indlu yelitye
"stone house"
12. isitya setyuwa
"salt dish"

The descriptive part is a natural phenomenon:

Earth:

Soil:

- (a) indlela yomhlaba
"road of soil"
- (b) indlu yentlabathi
"house of sand"
- (c) intsimi yentsinde
"field of virgin soil"(that is to be ploughed)
- (d) indlela yentlalutye
"road of iron stone"(gravel road)

- (e) intsimi yevakavaka
“field of soft sandy soil”
- (f) igadi yesivunda
“garden of fertile loam soil”
- (g) iyadi yomqwebedu
“yard of hard,dry,sterile ground”
- (h) indlela yorhexe
“road of gravelly soil”

Weather:

Rain:

- (a) idyasi yemvula
“coat of rain”
- (b) ingqele yomkhwitsho
“cold of a drizzle”
- (c) invula yomvimbi
“the rain of steady soaking rain”
- (d) invula yentshizane
“rain of a drizzle”
- (e) ingqele yesithi
“the cold of a rain with wind”
- (f) intaba yekhephu
“the mountain of a snow”
- (g) ingqele yeqabaka
“cold of frost”

- (h) imvuthuluka yomthwethwa phantsi
“pieces of thick ground mist”
- (i) ingqumba yelifu
“clod of cloud”
- (j) imiletshezo yombane
“striking of lightning”
- (k) imigqekrezo yeendudumo
“thundering of thunder”
- (l) imitshiso yembalela
“scorching of drought”

The descriptive part indicate food:

N + descriptive noun:

- (a) imbiza yesonka
“pot of bread”
- (b) isitya somphako
“dish of food for the journey”
- (c) inkatshu zamaqotsini
“scrums of the left –over food”
- (d) isitya somkhaphelelo
“dish of food for the children”
- (e) imbiza yombeko
“pot of left –over food”
- (f) ibhekile yomxhesho
“tin of food for the farm workers”

- (g) imbiza yomphokoqo
“pot of stiff porridge”
- (h) isitya seziqhamo
“dish of fruit”
- (i) ipani yesivivi
“pan of big piece of meat”
- (j) isitya senconco
“dish of sour porridge”

The descriptive part is a plant

N + descriptive noun

- (a) umthi wentelezi
“tree of snake flower”
- (b) igqabi lomthathi
“leaf of sneeze-wood”
- (c) umxube womthikhala
“mixture of red aloe”
- (d) i-oyile yomthimbili
“oil of white olive”
- (e) ixolo lomthomboti
“bark of tamboti”
- (f) igaqa lomthombe
“lump of natal- fig”
- (g) ingxowa yentsangu
“ a bag of dagga”

- (h) ubuhle bentyatyambo
“a beauty of a flower”
- (i) isihlahla sameva
“shrub of thorns”
- (j) umcinga womqungu
“stick of lemon grass”

The descriptive part is an artefact

(artefacts are a product of human workmanship) :

Noun + descriptive noun

- (a) imela yentsimbi
“iron knife”
- (b) ipleyiti yeglasi
“glass plate”
- (c) ikomityi yeplastiki
“plastic cup”
- (d) umtshayelo wengca
“grass broom”
- (e) imbiza yenameli
“enamel pot”
- (f) iketile yombane
“an electric kettle”
- (g) isitovu sikagesi
“an electric stove”

- (h) isitulo seplanga
“wooden chair “
- (i) isithebe sengca
“grass mat “
- (j) isitulo sezinki
“zink chair”

The descriptive part is a locative

N + descriptive noun (locative)

- (a) ihotele yaseKapa
“Cape town hotel”
- (b) iYunivesiti yaseFreyistata
“Free State university”
- (c) usisi wase Rawutini
“Johannesburg sister”
- (d) imbongi yakwaGcaleka
“Gcaleka poet”
- (e) abafundi baseKhayamandi
“Khayamandi students”
- (f) abantu baseMpuma-Koloni
“Eastern Cape people”
- (g) izindlu zaseBhayi
“Port Elizabeth houses”
- (h) utata waseKapa
“Cape Town father”

The descriptive part indicates timeN + descriptive noun (time)

- (a) usuku lwecawe
“day of Sunday”
- (b) ukuhlwa koMgqibelo
“Saturday evening”
- (c) ixesha lakusasa
“morning time”
- (d) isidlo sangokuhlwa
“dinner”
- (e) isidlo sasemini
“lunch”
- (f) inesi yasebusuku
“night nurse”
- (g) imini yangomso
“tomorrow’s day”
- (h) intetho yayizolo
“yesterday’s speech”
- (i) izigigaba zanamhlanje
“today’s mishaps”
- (j) ilanga layizolo
“yesterday’s sun”

The descriptive part is an infinitiveN + infinitive clause

- (a) igumbi lokulala
“room to sleep in”
- (b) ikhaya lokuzalwa
“home to be born in “
- (c) umchako wokwenza ilokhwe
“ material to make a dress”
- (d) izinto zokunxiba
“things to wear’
- (e) ixesha lokutyelela
“a time to visit”
- (f) ithuba lokuphumla
“a time to rest”
- (g) ithamsanqa lokuphumelela
“a lucky chance to pass”
- (h) ixesha lokutya
“a time to eat”

The descriptive part is an ukuba clauseN + ukuba clause

- (a) kufike ixesha lokuba kuthandazwe
“the time for the prayer came”
- (b) zifikile iindaba zokuba ubhubhile
“the news that he is dead came”

- (c) wazama into yokuba avule ishishini
"he tried to open up a business"

- (d) ufumene isigwebo sokuba axhonywe"
"he got the death sentence"

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

This study aimed at establishing how Xhosa may represent the descriptive nominal modifiers by looking for other nominal modifiers in Xhosa, which may also have a descriptive function as the small class of morphological adjectives.

Attention was firstly given to the semantic adjectives where we get the criteria for adjectives i.e. a definition of adjectives by other scholars looking at the prototype, multiple criteria, antonyms, gradation, markedness, polysemy and selection, attribution and predication.

Semantic prototypes like noun, adjective and verb types, semantic types as discussed by Dixon with its five major types have been discussed:

1. Concrete Reference
2. Abstract Reference
3. States and properties
4. Activities
5. Speech Acts

Some basic notions on the morphological adjectives, descriptive possessives, relative clauses i.e. nominal relative clauses and the verbal relative clauses have been discussed. The view of other scholars on the adjectives, the morphology of adjectives, adjectival phrases, the distribution of adjectives, comparison and the co-ordinated adjectives, the definite morpheme and the morphological structure of an adjective also shown together with class prefixes, the adjectival stems which have a semantic classification, selectional restrictions, the individual- level v/s stage- level affixes.

Reduplication of adjective stems, morphological structure of an adjective, transposition, compound nouns with adjectives are also dealt with.

A discussion on the structure of the relative clause is also discussed in this work. The descriptive possessive has been extensively dealt with i.e. noun phrase that shows the

descriptive part is the head of the NP, the descriptive part is the complement of the preposition [-a-] the descriptive part is a natural object, the descriptive part is a natural phenomenon, the descriptive part that indicates food, the descriptive part is a plant, the descriptive part is an artifact, the descriptive part is a locative, the descriptive part indicates time, the descriptive part is an infinitive clause and also the descriptive part is an ukuba clause.

In conclusion one can say that in Xhosa, there are only eight adjectival stems which have to appear with the noun class prefixes. These eight adjectives form a closed class and they may be classified according to their meaning and also into subcategories.

Here are the examples:

- (a) Dimension
- (b) Age
- (c) Value

Except for these morphological adjectives it has been clearly established that Xhosa has a vast array of other means at its disposal to give a descriptive nominal modifier function to a noun. Prominent among these are the huge number of nominal relative stems which form an open class of adjectives as well as the vast array of constructions with the descriptive possessive.

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