

A DESCRIPTION OF THE MORPHOSYNTACTIC STRUCTURE OF THE SUBA LANGUAGE

¹Lilian A. Ochieng² Vicky Khasandi³ James Mutiti

1. PhD student Moi University- Kenya
2. Senior Lecturer Laikipia University-Kenya
3. Associate Professor Egerton University- Kenya

ABSTRACT

A systematic description of a language empowers a language for public use, gives it a utilitarian value and also preserves it for future generations. This paper presents a description of the morphosyntactic structure of the Suba language of Kenya. The study is guided by the theory of Distributed Morphology: An approach which highlights the fact that the machinery of what traditionally has been called morphology is not a single component of grammar but rather is distributed among several different components. Data was collected in Mfangano Island because the Island is a homogeneous set up of Suba indigenous people. Focus group discussion was used to collect a corpus of the Suba language. Elicitation was employed as backup methods of data collection. This study contributes immensely to linguistic scholarship; it is an addition to the repertoire of knowledge on linguistic description. To the Suba, the study is expected to confer a certain status on their language that was previously considered to be of little importance; it will give them a sense of equality and worth.

Keywords: Morphosyntax, Suba, agglutinating, noun-centric

1. INTRODUCTION

Suba language is the language of the Suba people (Abasuba) found in Kenya and Tanzania. It has six identifiable dialects spoken in Kenya:-Olwivwang'o:- spoken in Mfangano, Rusinga, Takawiri and Kibwogi Islands. Ekikuna:- spoken in Kaksingri, Ekingoe:- spoken in Ngeri, Ekigase:- spoken in Gwasi hills, Ekisusuuna:- spoken in Migori and finally Olumuulu :-spoken in Muhuru bay. Of the six dialects four have become almost extinct, leaving only the Olwivwango spoken in the Islands and Ekigase spoken in Gwasi. (Rotland and Okombo, 1986) The two are however very closely related morphologically. The study focused on Olwivwango dialect because of the two, it is the dominant since it has more speakers.

The population of the Suba native speakers in Kenya totals to around 139,271 (Census report, 2010) most of who have lost the ability to speak and understand their native language. In some communities, the Suba language and culture can be considered as endangered, in others perhaps it is more fitting to classify them as severely endangered or even extinct. The fact that the Suba people live in different geographical locations, has meant that some communities have been more exposed to outside linguistic and cultural influences than others thus leading to a considerable variation concerning the degree of competence of speakers. Some Suba people, who are fluent in Dholuo, with Luo spouses and names, cannot speak their extinct mother tongue, practice their culture, or pass their own history to the next generation (UNESCO, 2007).

Grimes (2000) calls for a linguistic description of the minority and threatened languages as a measure towards preservation of the same. Hale (1992) effectively argues that, the loss of diversity that language extinction represents is a scientific human tragedy. NgugiWaThiongo (2009) echoes the same when he posits that language is the carrier of culture and to starve or kill a language is to starve and kill a people's culture. He argues that a renaissance of the threatened languages is a necessary step in the restoration of the respective speech community's wholeness.

1.1. Statement of the problem

Although a number of studies have been conducted on the Suba language, more so with the aim of re-defining the language, culture and identity, little has been done towards describing any grammatical aspect of the language. Describing and documenting human languages not only helps preserve the languages but also promotes their legitimacy and recognizes the heritage of the languages and associated cultures. This study therefore describes the morphosyntactic structure of the Suba language; it has analyzed how the Suba syntax interfaces with its morphology.

1.2. Purpose of the study

The wider goal of this paper is in response to a call by the international workshop on “Sharing Best Practices in the Safeguarding of the Endangered Languages of Africa”, organized in Addis Ababa in February 2007, the main concern was how to identify best practices in the safeguarding of the endangered languages in the continent. The clarion call for the workshop was to accelerate the process of description and documentation as a strategy of revitalization of the endangered languages of Africa.

It acknowledged that the extinction of a language is a distressing matter, since the cultural tradition connected to it and the socio-cultural or even ethnic independence of the group that speaks it very often perishes with it.

1.3. Objectives of the study

1. To identify the morphological elements of the Suba language.
2. To describe the rules of combinations of the morphological units in Suba language.
3. To establish the inter-relatedness between the Suba morphology and its syntax.

1.4. Significance of the study

Language description and documentation is both crucial and central to the characterization, definition and preservation and of languages, more so the minority languages. The mere existence of a grammatical description, however small, confers a certain status on a language that may previously have been considered to be of little importance. It brings with it the resurgence of ethnic pride. It enables the said language speakers to recognize that their language is equally important and deserves to be treated with dignity; it empowers the languages for public use, preserves them for future generations as well as giving them a utilitarian value. It communicates to the minority language, and to surrounding groups, that the minority language is viable and worthy of respect.

The products of descriptive linguistic research constitute part of the reference materials necessary to develop indigenous educational materials and written literature. The materials will also certainly be of interest to morphologists and syntax scholars, who will primarily be concerned with the patterns uncovered and their relevance to morphological and syntactic theories.

Language description also assists in the overall understanding of human language and its organization: the development of a linguistic theory cannot be elaborated on the basis of just a few languages, but on an analysis of several inputs from a variety of languages.

2 Methodology

2.1. The sample and sampling procedure

The study used a sample of 40 subjects. These were selected from among the old natives of Mfangano Island. The choice for elders was based on the premise that Suba has significantly lost young speakers, they have succumbed to the loss of their language. A sample of 40 subjects is deemed sufficiently representative of the elders of Mfangano Island. Mfangano Island posts about 15% of the total population of the Abasuba which comes to a total of 20,890, of these a minimal figure of 2% meets the definition of elders in this study and that comes to 417 elders. Gay (1981) suggests that for a descriptive research 10% of the accessible population is sufficient. 10% of the elders will give 41. A sample size of 40 therefore conformed to requirements for a

sample for a descriptive study. Kombo and Tromp (2006) also point out that, linguistic studies do not require the statistical analysis of hundreds of speakers' records. He says that variations can emerge even from samples as few as twenty five speakers, In the light of such views, a sample drawn from 40 respondents is deemed sufficient to enable an exhaustive description of the morphosyntactic structure of the Suba language. This also follows that there aren't many fluent Suba speaking people within Suba.

To pick the initial subjects, purposive sampling was employed as part of a multistage sampling procedure. Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) define purposive sampling as a sampling technique that allows researchers to use cases that have the required information with respect to the objectives of the study. From the purposively selected sample, snowball sample technique was then employed to arrive at the exact sample; in snow-balling, the few subjects already identified, name others that they know have the required characteristics until the targeted number in the sample is realized. Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) say that snowball technique is useful when the population that possesses the characteristics under study is not well known.

2.2. Instruments

With regard to morphosyntactic analysis, Samarin's (1967) requirements for a good corpus imply the following recommendations for gathering textual data: First, for a varied corpus, there is need to make recordings of several types of text spoken by different kinds of people, such as traditional narratives (epics, legends and other forms of prose), spontaneous narratives (anecdotes, personal histories among others), descriptions of activities, descriptions of objects and conversations. As the corpus should also be repetitious, each genre should be represented more than once. Austine (2003) concurs by emphasizing on the need for a variety of genres-; that is texts spoken by different kinds of people and dealing with diverse topics. Himmelmann (1998) says that the selection of certain grammatical constructions depend on the linguistic and extra linguistic context of the speech event.

To collect data representative of the fore mentioned requirements, the study used two data collection instruments: Focus group discussion and elicitation. The informants in their groups participated in narrations, dialogues, descriptions of events among other activities. The interest of the researcher was not on the activities but on the utterances made in the process of

interaction. The researcher used field notes and audiotape recording to collect raw data as the activities progressed. Tape recording reduces the tendency of selective data collection, and also allows for play back which facilitates better data analysis. Care should however be taken to control observer's paradox.

Use of more than one data collection method is in accordance with a data collection principle which states that inclusion of multiple sources of data collection in a research project is likely to increase the reliability of the observations. Denzin (1989) coined the term triangulation to refer to the use of multiple methods of data collection. Campbell and Fiske (1958) suggest a similar strategy which they call multiple-operationism. Both of these concepts refer to the use of a variety of methods and techniques of data collection in a single study. The underlying assumption is that, because various methods complement each other, their respective shortcomings can be balanced out.

2.1.1. Communicative Focus group discussions

Focus group discussion is a form of qualitative research in which a group is identified and involved in a discussion that will elicit their perceptions, opinions and beliefs towards certain issues (Kombo and Tromp, 2006).

The group identified is then engaged in an interactive setting where the participants are free to talk with other group members and with the facilitator in a natural setting. This study opted to use focus group discussion to collect data because Olusuba is not the dominant language in the region hence it is only used selectively.

The sample of 40 was be divided into 5 groups of 8 members each this was be on the basis of proximity. Each group was brought together in an interactive setting, where the participants were involved in sessions of spontaneous narrations, conversations, topical discussions, description of activities and events, anecdotes and personal histories in a group communicative-interactive sessions. The sessions were captured through audio-recording. Any other note worthy aspects of the communication engendered were also noted. The Suba language communicative data elicited from the sessions provided enough basis for the morphosyntactic description of the language.

2.1.2. Direct Elicitation

Elicitation refers to the process of collecting linguistic data by asking native speakers to produce words, phrases or sentences that can serve as data for analysis of a particular linguistic phenomenon. It is often used in broader sense to mean generally making data available for collection. Data on morphosyntactic phenomena can be gathered by various methods of elicitation, for this study non-translational elicitation was employed.

Since linguistic elicitation is artificial even under the best of circumstances (Samarin, 1967) for purposes of this study, it was used as a backup method, a means of filling in gaps in the data. The researcher prepared a list of specific questions that he or she wanted to ask the consultant in order to obtain data for hitherto unexplored areas of grammar or to clarify problems that had come up when analyzing the results of preceding sessions.

3. RESULTS, DISCUSSION AND ANALYSIS

This chapter presents the results, discussion and analysis of the data collected from Mfangano Island. The analysis is based on a quantity of tape-recorded text material drawn from a variety of Suba native elders. The text (a corpus of the Suba language) included a number of folk stories, general narratives, discussions, descriptions and anecdotes. Audio recordings were made of naturalistic speeches taken from five focus groups. Elicitation was used as a backup data collection tool to fill in the gaps. This resulted in about 150 sentences from which this discussion is based.

3.1. Morphosyntactic structure analysis

Morphosyntactic analysis amounts to a description of that part of morphology that covers the relationship between syntax and morphology and is capable of explaining why a word is included in a particular grammatical category. Anderson (1986), in his quest to challenge this hypothesis, says that, inflectional morphology consists of exactly those aspects of word structure that are syntactically relevant, in the sense of being determined by or are accessible to syntactic rules. Marantz (1997) sums it up by saying that a theory of inflectional morphology becomes precisely a theory of the qualification of the lexicalist hypothesis.

This study used the item-and-arrangement approach of morphological structure analysis. This approach takes a structuralistic approach to word analysis, unlike the item-and-process approach which concerns itself with the operation of process of simpler words resulting in complex ones. The item-and-arrangement approach proceeds from a picture of each language as a set of elements and the patterns in which those elements occur. This way of analyzing word forms treats words as if they were made of morphemes put after each other like beads in a string.

To arrive at the morphemes and their possible set of rules of combinations a linguistic paradigm of declensions of nouns and pronouns and conjugation of verbs was developed from the data. This resulted in an exhaustive collection of forms of each of the words.

The word forms of the various nouns and verbs were conveniently arranged into tables by classifying them according to shared inflectional categories such as word class, number, case and person.

It should be noted that the inflectional categories used to group the word forms into paradigms were not arbitrarily chosen; they are categories that are relevant to stating the syntactic rules of Olusuba. For instance person and number are categories that are predominantly used to define paradigms in any Bantu language; this is because Bantu languages have grammatical agreement rules that require the verb in a sentence to appear in an inflectional form that matches the person and number of the subject and object. In other words the syntactic rules of Olusuba care about the difference between omwala ‘girl’ and awala ‘girls’. The choice between these two word forms determines which form of the verb is to be used. This paper would therefore not suffice if we do not briefly look at the noun classes in Olusuba; they are central to agreement properties and agreement is a morphosyntactic feature.

3.1.1. Noun classes

As is typical of most Bantu languages, Olusuba nouns are grouped into a number of noun classes. A noun class can be thought of as being similar to the gender system found in Romance and Germanic languages, in that it is an arbitrary lexical feature. The noun class system treats singular and plural as distinct in that they have distinct prefixes unique to each. As is the case with most languages, the distribution of nouns among the classes is essentially arbitrary but there

exists some loose patterns. The class that a noun belongs to, can usually be determined by its prefix. Table 4 below exemplifies the same:

Table 1: Olusuba noun classes

	class	Example singular	Gloss	plural	gloss
1	Mu-wa	o-mwana	child	a-wana	children
2	Mu-mi	o-muti	Tree	e-miti	Trees
3	n-n	e-ngoko	hen	e-ngoko	hens
4	Ki-bi	e-kitabu	A book	e-bitabu	books
5	li-ma	i-toke	banana	amatoke	bananas
6	Ka-bu	Ka-nafu	laziness	Ba-nafu	Laziness
7	Lu-n	O-lusuba	olusuba	-----	-----
8	Gu-ga	Gu-bwa	Bad dog	Gu-bwa	Bad dog
9	Ku-ma	Ku-tumbula	To boast	ma-tumbula	To boast
10	Tu	Tu-baka	A little sleep	---	-----

As can be deduced from table 4 above, the morphology of Olusuba nouns is striking in its lack of free root morphemes; most if not all Olusuba noun roots are bound and cannot exist as free morphemes unlike a language like English with quite a number of free root morphemes standing on their own. Whereas the English words like, girl, chair are acceptably used without inflections, their Olusuba equivalents *o-m-wala* and, *e-n-tewe* are meaningless if used without the appropriate inflections. The ‘o-‘ ‘m-’ and ‘e-‘ ‘n-’ are bound prefixes denoting the noun class and number of the noun.

It must be noted that this is so because as Ngonyani (1996) says, the Bantu noun form must convey not only the basic idea but it must also contain morphemes conveying the noun class and the number of the noun in question.

Like other Bantu languages, the Olusuba noun class system involves singular and plural patterns as well as agreement marking triggered by these noun classes. The agreement markers (concord) manifest on syntactic constituents like adjectives, numerals verbs and others. The concords play an important role in separating one class from the other. Any feature which marks either agreement or government is a morphosyntactic feature. The first feature which registers a lot of morphosyntactic variation is the number feature, which is manifested through agreement.

3.1.2. Number

Like the grammars of most Bantu languages, Olusuba's grammar can be said to be noun-centric in the sense that most words in a sentence agree with a noun. Agreement is by number, person and is indicated by prefixes and infixes attached to the word stems. Number in morphosyntax is manifested through subject agreement which is obligatory in all contexts. Evidence from the data attests to the fact that in Olusuba, the noun cannot stand alone as in English, but must be prefixed by a pronominal concord proper to the noun which forms its subject. This is morphosyntactic, for the choice of pronominal is influenced by a feature outside it (controller) (Giorgi et al, 1997).

The following sentences exemplify the same:

- (1) i) *O-mual-a* *o-ku-gul-a* *engege*
 1Sng girl SA3 INF-go FV
 ‘The girl is going to buy tilapia’
- ii) *ma-n-yire* *o-ku-joj-a* *ebaruwa*
 Sim Pre-1PERS Know SA3—INF--WRITE
 ‘I know how to write a letter’
- iii) *Embwa* *e-rind-a* *e-nkembo mu o-murisi*
 3SNG SA3 wait IND

‘the dog is waiting for the monkey in the garden’

iv) *Omutoka* *gu – ging- re* *awantu* *awangi*

5SNG SA3 Carry Pres Perf

‘ the vehicle has carried many people’

The verbs forms: *okugula*, *okujoja*, *erinda* and *gugingre* are influenced by the underlined subjects (controllers) respectively. The verbs have acquired a pronominal concord (o-, e- and gu-) to suit the noun class and number (singular or plural) of the subject which has also acquired a prefix for its class. This is reflective of all verb structures in Olusuba. This is in conformity with Barlow and Kimuli (2009) who said that the subject marker is an indispensable component of the verbal complex in Bantu languages. Nida (1965) is just as unequivocal, when he says the important fact is that the subject affix is an obligatory morphological category of the verb.

The root of a given noun can also be combined with an appropriate prefix to convey descriptive information about the noun. Consider the example –wala ‘girl’ the meaning of the root noun can fluctuate depending on the prefix used and this may even change the class of the noun;

(2) m-wala-----girl (class 1)

 ka-wala-----girl; diminutive (class 6)

 gu-wala-----girl; ugly big girl (class 8)

It was also noted that even nouns borrowed from other languages acquire the initial vowels to conform to the noun class it belongs to. The noun *esikuli* ‘school’ borrowed from the English word ‘school’ acquires the initial vowel ‘e’ of the noun class 4. Examples of nouns belonging to some of the classes are;

(3)

Noun class 1: omugaka, omwana, omukazi, omwizukulu, omuaruku

‘man’, ‘baby’ ‘wife’ ‘grandchild’ ‘co-wife’

Plural: awagaka, awana, awakazi, awizukulu, awiaruku

‘men’ ‘babies’ ‘wives’ ‘grandchildren’ ‘co-wives’

Noun class 2: omuti, omufuko, omutoka

‘tree’, ‘bag’ ‘vehicle

Noun class 3: enzovu, enyamu, embua, engoko

‘elephant’ ‘cat’ ‘dog’ chicken

Plural: enzovu, enyamu, embua, engoko

‘Elephants’ ‘frogs’ ‘dogs’ ‘chicken’

From the illustrations, the morphosyntax is asserted by defining every morpheme position as a set of its morphemes.

3.1.3. Verbs

It is evident from the data collected that Olusuba has a rich agglutinating verbal morphology that can represent complex sentences mono-lexically. An overview of the morphological skeleton derived from the utterances is as follows:

(4) SM – TM - (LM) – (OM) –ROOT –(EXT) –FV

Abbreviations follow generally observed Bantu verbal morphological positions

SM: Subject marker TM: Tense marker LM: Limitative marker

OM: Object marker EXT: Extension FV: Final vowel

The illustration above shows the subject agreement marker on the extreme left periphery, followed by tense marker, then object agreement then the verb root itself. The verb is followed by a suffix which normally indicates the mood. The example below shows the complexity of verbal glosses

(6) N- sa- nyase- o- ku- laba ‘nice to meet you’

SM TM ROOT OM ASPECT

‘N’ is the prefix for ‘I’, sanyase means to be happy, the ‘o’ is a prefix for ‘you’ in verb conjugation (here it is used objectively), ‘ku’ means ‘to’ forming the infinitive of ‘laba’ ‘to see you’, thus the word ‘nsanyaseokulaba is one word containing five different features.

Of these elements, subject agreement, tense, and final vowel, are the only ones which are obligatorily present with the root in every affirmative Olusuba utterance.

Using these constraints on the morphosyntactic interface creates structures that would be considered semantically coherent. However, verb extensions which can augment the argument structure often necessitate extra verbal information to create a completely coherent semantic form, preventing some cases of monolexical semantic completeness (Nida, 1965).

3.1.3.1. Subject and object

The subject of a verb is indicated with a prefix that agrees with the antecedent in person and number. In the third person the prefix also agrees in noun class with its antecedent. The subject prefixes for the personal pronouns are:

(7)

- First person: singular *n-* 'I', plural *tu-* 'we'
- Second person: singular *o-* 'you (singular)', *mu-* 'you (plural)'
- Third person: singular *a-* 'he, she', *wa-* 'they (Class I)'

This is evidenced in the illustration below:

- (8)
- | | |
|-----------------|---------------------------|
| <i>ny-agala</i> | ‘I want’ |
| <i>Tu-gala</i> | ‘we want |
| <i>o-gala</i> | ‘you _(sg) want |
| <i>mu-gala</i> | ‘you _(pl) want |

a-gala 'she/he wants

wa-gala 'they want

Olusuba syntax is heavily influenced by number agreement. Analyse the following sentences.

(9) i) *omwana agala okukuba omupiira*

'the baby wants to play with the ball'

ii) *awaana wagala wakukuba omupiira*

'the babies want to play with the ball'

iii) *omugaka agona ku ekitanda*

'the man is sleeping on the bed'

iv) *awagaka wagona ku ekitanda*

'the men are sleeping on the bed'

Subject agreement is also quite transparent in the use of demonstrative pronouns;

(10) i) *ono no omukazi* (class 1 sng)

'this is my wife'

ii) *Ono no omwala wange* (class 1 sng)

'this is my daughter'

iii) *Ono no omwana wange* (class 1 sng)

'this is my child'

iv) *Rino ni itoke* (class 5 sng)

'this is my banana'

v) Gino ni omuti (class 2 sng)

‘this is my tree’

vi) Rino ni eria engoko (class 3 sng)

‘this is a chicken’s egg’

From the illustrations (10) above, it is evident that unlike the English language, the choice of the form of demonstrative pronoun to use is determined by the word class of the noun; its syntax is influenced by the choice of morpheme, the nouns igi ‘egg’ and itoke ‘banana’ belong to the same noun group (5) they have the same form of demonstrative pronoun rino ‘this’. On the other hand, the nouns emeza(sg) ‘tree’ and emeza (pl) ‘trees’ are forms of the same word, the only difference is that the former is singular while the latter is plural, they therefore do not take the same demonstrative pronoun. This is because linguistically they belong to different word groups.

From the exemplification (11) below, it is evident that the choice of form of the demonstrative pronoun and verb is influenced by the subject noun. Examples i, ii and iii use the form ‘ono’ for the demonstrative ‘this’ and the verb ‘no’ for ‘is’ while examples iv, v and vi use ‘ni’ for ‘is’. The nouns omukazi, omwana and omwala in 1, 2, and 3 are from the noun class1.

The demonstrative ‘that’ and its counterpart plural ‘those’ are also influenced by the word class of the noun in question:

(11) i) Oria no omuzia (class 1 sng)

‘that is a boy’

ii) awona awaazia(class1 plr)

‘those are boys’

iii) Riri ani igi (class5 sng)

‘that is an egg’

iv) Gari ana amagi (class 5 plr)

‘those are eggs’

The demonstratives decline to suit number and noun class of the subject.

3.1.4. Person

A category of person exists in a language if it is possible to make a distinction between at least two of the basic participants in a speech act. This could be: The addressor or the addressee (Crystal, 1980). It is evidenced from the data collected that the person feature is manifest in Olusuba via the personal pronouns.

3.1.4.1. Pronouns.

The Olusuba pronouns can be declined for number (singular and plural), person (first second and third) and case (nominative, oblique and possessive). The pronouns decline to reflect their relationship to a verb or preposition. Case being a feature of both agreement and government in syntax plays a vital role in the morphosyntax of Olusuba. applicatives are seen as examples of morphosyntactic alternations – affecting the linking of arguments to syntactic functions but not predicate meaning The table below illustrates this.

Table 2: Olusuba personal pronouns (nominative and oblique)

Pronoun	Subjective	gloss	Subjective	gloss	Objective	gloss	Objective	Gloss
	singular		plural		Singular		plural	
1 st person	inze	I	Ifue	we	Ifue	me	ifwe	Us
2 nd person	iwue	you	mbaarria	You	Iwue	You	muri	you
3 rd person	iyie	he	Awu	they	Ekieae	Him	iwo	Them
3 rd person	iyie	she	Awu	they	Ekieae	her	iwo	Them
3 rd person	kiri	it	ekiae	they	ekiae	it	Ekiawu	them

From the illustration (12) above, the role of person as a morphosyntactic feature is evident; note how the verb *gia* 'go' changes its form to agree with the subject, which in this case becomes the controller. The controllers of agreement in person are linguistic elements that express syntactic arguments—these are typically nouns or pronouns and may also be pronominal affixes. The underlined in the illustrations are pronouns.

CONCLUSION

The study evidenced a high level of inter-dependency typical of agglutinating languages, where the morphological structure of words is just but syntactic derivations. Word forms are manipulated by their respective syntactic environments, and this was evidenced in cases of agreement and government. This shows that, all the different levels of grammar are intertwined in one way or the other with an overall objective of communication. True to type, the morphological structures analyzed in this study have shown clear indications of the same. The analysis further authenticated the role of the discrete units (morphemes) in creativity of word forms. In conclusion the study serves as a prelude towards addressing the significance of language description and documentation as a tool of language understanding and empowerment.

REFERENCES

- Anderson, S. (1986) *Disjunctive Ordering in Inflectional Morphology. Natural Language and Linguistic Theory*: Cambridge, Mass:
- Austine, P. (ed.) (2003) *Language documentation and Description*. Vol. 1-6. London: Hans Rausing Endangered Languages Project, School of Oriental and African Studies.
- Campbell, D. and Fiske, D. (1958) *Convergent and discriminate validation by the Multitrait-multi-method matrix*, psychological Bulletin.
- Crystal, D. (1980) *A First Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics*. Colorado: West view Press Boulder Press Boulder.
- Gay, L. (1981) *Educational Research: for analysis and application*. GeorgeTown: Charles E. Mairill Publishing Company.
- Georgi, A. and Fabio, P. (1997) *Tense and Aspect: From Semantics to Morphosyntax* Oxford: OUP
- Grimes, B. (2000) *Ethnologue* (fourteenth edition) Dallas Summer Institute of Linguistics.
- Hale, K. (1992) *Language and endangerment and the human value of linguistic Diversity* Language 68.
- Himmelmann, N. (1998) *Documentary and descriptive linguistics*. Linguistics, vol.36: 161-195. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Kimuli, B. (2009) *Luganda Language: A connection with Nyanja of Zambia* Oxford Clarendon Press.
- Kombo, D. and Tromp, D. (2006) *Thesis and Thesis Writing: An Introduction* Makuyu: Don Bosco Press
- Marantz, A. (1997) *No Escape from Syntax: Don't Try Morphology Analysis in the Privacy of Your Own Lexicon*, University of Pennyslavia. Working Paper in Linguistics.

- Mugenda, O. and Mugenda, A. (2003) *Research Methods: Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches* Nairobi: ACTS Press.
- Ngonyani, D. (1996) *The Morphosyntax of Applicatives*: UCLA PhD Dissertation
- Ngugi Wa Thiongo, N. (2009) *Something Torn and New: An African Renaissance* Nairobi: Basic Books Press.
- Nida, E. (1965) *Morphology: The Descriptive Analysis of Words*, Second Edition Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.
- Rotland, F. & Okombo, D. (1986) *The Suba of Kenya: A Case of Growing ethnicity with Receding Language Competence*. In *Afrikanistische Arbeitspapiere* (sept) pp 115
- Samarin, W. (1967) *Field linguistics. A guide to linguistic fieldwork*. New York etc. Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- UNESCO (2007) *Language Vitality and Endangerment*
<http://portal.unesco.org/culture/en/ev.php-URL=9105>