Basic Locative Constructions and Simple Clause Structures of English, Akan, and Safaliba

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Abstract
This paper discusses some basic locative constructions and simple clause structures of English, Akan (a majority language in Ghana), and Safaliba (a minority language in Ghana). Specifically, the paper compares the simple clause of and the basic locative constructions in these three languages by showing clearly how native speakers of these languages produce forms to express meaning. Structures such as clause functions, relative clause, verb forms, serial verb constructions, noun phrase, negation, and locative constructions have been employed as touchstones in juxtaposing the three languages. The data used, were drawn from native speakers’ intuition and expressions about the location of entities (this has been vividly explained in section 1.3). Several observations were made. For example, it was realised that while English and Safaliba are pre-determiner languages, Akan is post-determiner language. Again as English recognises prepositions, Akan and Safaliba use postposition.

Keywords: Basic locative constructions, Simple clause, Akan, Safaliba, Adpositional phrases

1. Introduction

A sign, according to Saussure (1915/1966) is a combination of a concept and a sound-image, a combination that cannot be separated. Kreidler (1998:22), describing linguistic signs indicates that:

Words are linguistic signs, similar in certain respects to natural and conventional signs. They do not ‘have meanings’ but rather are capable of conveying meanings to those who can perceive, identify and interpret. Words go together to form sentences which in turn are capable of conveying meanings – the meanings of the individual words and the meaning that comes from the relation of these words to one another. (1998:22).

Consequently, most linguistically sensitive people can describe every individual word in the structures of every language. But, the sine qua non is semantics. The structures are only meaningful if the reader can identify and interpret the linguistic signs – words. Another point in Kreidler’s
The definition is ‘perceive’. Before one can identify and interpret linguistic signs, one should possess the ability to perceive. Linguistic signs are perceived with our senses of sight, hearing, and touch (e.g., the use of the braille by visually impaired persons).

In this paper, three languages – English, Akan, and Safaliba – have been paralleled to see how they relate or differ in terms of basic locative constructions and simple clause structure. The discussion commences with synopses of two of the languages – Akan and Safaliba.

1.1 A brief information about the minority language, Safaliba

According to Schaefer and Schaefer (2003:1) Safaliba is a Gur language which is spoken in the western part of the Northern region of Ghana. Naden (1988) categorises it as a Niger-Congo, Atlantic-Congo, Volta-Congo, North, Gur Central, Northern, Oti-Volta, Western, Northwest language. The closest relatives include Waali, Farefare, and Dagaare. The Safaliba villages are, however, geographically distant from the towns and villages where its sister languages are spoken. One distant relative of Safaliba is Sissala. Both the language and the people are referred to as Safaliba; but the indigenous people usually use the word Safalu in reference to a Safaliba person.

According to Schaefer (2009:5), the language is spoken by about 5000 – 7000 people in the north-western part of Ghana. Thus, the speakers can be found in several towns and villages located near the Black Volta River, which serves as a border with Côte d’Ivoire. The language is not known to have any dialects. Many of the Safalibas whose L1 is Safaliba are able to conduct business and basic communication activities in either Gonja or Vagla (Naden 1989 as cited in Schaefer and Schaefer 2003:2). A number of Safalibas understand Jula or Birifor, and majority of them are able to communicate in Waali partly because of the natural similarities between the two languages. Again, there are several other languages which are employed sporadically by a smaller number of the Safalibas. These languages include: Twi, Hausa, French, and the official language of Ghana, English.

According to our informant, the Safaliba communities are primarily agricultural. A vast majority of the people engage in subsistence farming, whose main activities include: growing of yam, cassava, millet, and maize. Recently, cashew farming has become very popular. Therefore, a lot of farmers are now going into small, medium, or large scale cultivation of the cash crop. Many of the women also engage in sheabutter making and gari processing.

1.2 A brief information about Akan

Akan is a kwa language. Kwa happens to be one of the branches of Niger-Congo language family. The Akans are the largest ethnic group in both Ghana and the Ivory Coast. It therefore has a lot of speakers in Ghana. (www.vibeghana.com/.../ghanaiian-languages). In Ghana, the dialects of Akan include: Fante (or Fantse), Akuapem, Asante, Agona, Bron, Wasa, Akyem, and Kwahu (Saah 1994). ‘From the 15th century to the 19th century, the Akan people dominated gold mining and the gold trade in the region; ... and from 17th century on, the Akan were among the most powerful group(s) in West Africa. They fought many battles against the European colonists to maintain autonomy. (www.saylor.org/site/...//akan-people.pdf).

1.3 Data and data collection procedure
Data and the way they are collected are essential in every field linguistic work. The main primary data were elicited from some sources. Firstly, ten (10) of Bowerman and Eric’s (1993) TRPS\(^1\) were used in addition to fourteen (14) other sentences (see appendix B) in English with transcriptions in Akan and Safaliba. The TRPS used were 6, 27, 69, 58, 31, 40, 49, 10, 2, and 64 (see appendix A). Again, we relied on native speaker’s intuition\(^2\) of Akan. Lastly, the data (TRPS translation in Safaliba, the short story, and the 14 other sentences) on the minority language were provided by a respondent\(^3\). The raw data (from Safaliba and Akan) elicited, were glossed by using Audacity and Praat\(^4\).

2. Basic locative constructions and simple clause structures

2.1 Basic locative constructions

Levinson and Wilkins (2006:1-2) have indicated that basic locative constructions (BLCs) are the expressions that are commonly used in response to a ‘where’-question in delivering the basic locative function. Thus, these expressions are the answers we give to a questioner when a question is posed about the location of an object. In field linguistics a lot of works (for example: Bobuafor 2013, Dorvlo 2008, Levinson and Wilkins 2006, and Ameka et al. 1999) have been done in this area.

The locative constructions in both Safaliba and Akan consisted of two adjacent nouns, the vocative verb, and postpositional phrase which included the final noun – NP\(^5\), V\(^6\) [loc\(^7\)], NP Postpp\(^8\). However, there was a slight variation in the two languages about the position of the locative notions (adpositions). This variation has been explained below. The objects used for this exercise (as already mentioned in section 1.3) were from Bowerman and Eric’s (1993) TPRS. The materials were about the location of an entity (figure) as against its environment (ground).

In the case of Safaliba, most of the locative verbs were realised as be ‘is’. This, however, does not mean that Safaliba does not recognise locative verbs. The possibility of the respondent in Safaliba realising most locative verbs as be ‘is’ could be a factor. But, in Akan, quite a number of them were found. Some of the verbs used in locative constructions in Akan and Safaliba have thus been projected below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. Verb (Safaliba)</th>
<th>Gloss (English)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>be</td>
<td>is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tiili</td>
<td>lean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dobi</td>
<td>squat</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2. Verb (Akan)</th>
<th>Gloss (English)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

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\(^1\) Topological Relations Pictures Series

\(^2\) Two of the writers, (Owusu and Adade-Yeboah) are native speakers of Akan. Therefore, all the Akan data were provided by them.

\(^3\) Miss Ruth Karehina Bodua-Mango, an MPhil Linguistics graduate of University of Ghana, Legon, was our respondent for the data on Safaliba. We want to use this opportunity to thank her immensely for the precious time she spent with us.

\(^4\) These are software used in processing raw voice data elicited from the field.

\(^5\) Noun phrase

\(^6\) Verb

\(^7\) Locative

\(^8\) Postpositional phrase
2.1.1 The Safaliba locative verb be ‘is’

This verb almost functions as the English copula verb, *be*, which has one of the present forms as ‘is’. It appears *be* can be used to denote *sit*, *top*, and *hang*. Every language has the unmarked locative verb. From the data collected, it can be inferred that *be* ‘is’ is the unmarked locative verb in Safaliba. Two illustrations are portrayed below:

a) A baadii keree.
   DET9 dog COP10 DET house side
   ‘The dog is by the side of the house.’ [See TRPS 58: Appendix A]

b) A nmanibe daazu.
   DET fruit COP DET tree head
   ‘The fruit is on the tree.’ [See TRPS 27: Appendix A]

2.1.2 The Safaliba locative verb tiili ‘lean’

*tiili* ‘lean’ is used for objects (figures) that do not stand straight but rather the upper part of them are touching the upper part of the ground (the affected entity) that the figure leans against. When this verb is used, the postposition that is selected is *zu* ‘head.’ This is illustrated below:

A dunigutii a dijkpinizu
DET ladder lean DET wall head/top
‘The ladder leans on the wall’ [See TPRS 58: Appendix A]

2.1.3 The Safaliba locative verb dobi ‘squat’

dobi ‘squat’ is used to denote entities that are squatting on the surface of a ground. A human being is an example of this entity since *dobi* ‘squat’ is not normally used for most animate and inanimate objects. *pore* ‘back/behind’ is a postposition that can be used for *dobi* ‘squat.’ See the example below:

---

9 Determiner

10 Copular
A be-dabili dobi a koke pore
DET child-male-small squat DET chair behind/back
‘The boy squats behind the chair’ [See TRPS 64: Appendix A]

2.1.4 The Akan locative verb te/si ‘sit’

te/si ‘sit’ is used for objects that position on the surface of an object. It can also be used in reference to where an object is situated. By this all the surface of entity A is placed on entity B. This verb can be used for both animate and inanimate objects. The postposition that is normally selected for te/si ‘sit’ is so ‘on’. The examples below clearly illustrate this assertion.

a) ṭкра no te kɛtɛ no so
cat DET sit mat DET Postp
‘The cat sits on the mat’ [See TRPS 40: Appendix A]

b) ɛdua no si asoredan no ho
tree DET sit church.house DET Postp
‘The tree is planted by the chapel’ [See TRPS 64: Appendix A]

2.1.5 The Akan locative verb sen ‘hang’

sen ‘hang’ is used to describe a figure suspending on the surface of a ground. sen ‘hang’ is especially used when a figure is attached to an entity by a person. By this, one has to apply a relative amount of force if one wants to remove the figure from the entity. Some expressions that can use sen include: the man hangs himself on the ceiling fan, and she hangs the clothes on the line. sen normally uses the postposition, so ‘top.’ The example below shows this assertion:

ɛduabano sen ɛdua no so
fruit DET hang tree DET top
‘The apple hangs on the tree’ [See TRPS 27: Appendix A]

2.1.6 The Akan locative verb hye ‘wear/enter’

When the whole circumference of a figure is positioned or submerged under/inside another object hye ‘wear/enter’ is used. Examples of such sentences in English are: the animal enters its cage, and he wears a particular t-shirt every Saturday. By this it is assumed that the whole perimeter or part of the figure is inundated in another figure. Therefore, part or the whole body of the figure cannot be seen. mu ‘in’ is the postposition that is normally selected for hye. See the examples below:

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11Postposition
2.1.7 The Akan locative verb twere ‘lean’

The Akan locative verb *twere* ‘lean’ is used for objects that cannot stand vertically. They are therefore positioned diagonally with the tip of the edge contacting the upper part of the reference entity receiving support from the base of the two objects. A walking stick, a cane and a ladder are examples of objects that cannot stand without part of them resting on the skin of another object. *ho* ‘skin’ is the postposition that is normally chosen for *twere*. See the example below:

\[
\text{atwedeɛ no twere ban no ho ladder DET lean wall DET skin}
\]

‘The ladder leans on the wall’

[See TRPS 58: Appendix A]

2.1.8 The Akan locative verb da ‘sleep’

*da* ‘sleep’ is used in reference to an entity which is lying on the skin of another figure. By this, the whole circumference of an entity is on the surface or the interior of another entity. A vegetable or a fruit in a bowl is a perfect example. *da* is normally used with the postposition *mu* ‘inside or upper surface.’ TRPS 02 is an example:

\[
\text{ɛduaba no da kyɛnsen no mu apple DET sleep bowl DET inside/stomach/interior}
\]

‘The fruit is in the bowl’

[See TRPS 02: Appendix A]

2.2 Adpositions and adpositional phrases

‘Adpositions refer to both prepositions and postpositions’ (Dorvlo 2008:117). English recognises prepositions as one of the minor word classes. Examples are: *in, under, on, beside, and at.* English prepositional phrase ‘consists of a preposition followed by a prepositional complement, which is characteristically a noun phrase or a *wh*-clause or V-ing clause’ (Quick and Greebaum 2012:155). In the English examples below, the prepositions have been highlighted while the prepositional phrases have been underlined:

a) The earring is *in* the earhole

b) The ladder leans *on* the wall

c) The cat is *under* the table
Looking at the position of the prepositions in the above structures, one realises that they all occur at the initial position of the prepositional phrases. This, thus, makes English a prepositional language. It would therefore be ungrammatical for a structure like: *the cat is the table under*, to be produced in English language.

Akan, unlike English, is a postpositional language. Thus, prepositions normally occur at final positions. Examples are shown below:

a) Asomadeɛ no hye aso no mu 
   earring DET wear ear DET Postp-in (stomach) 
   ‘The earring is in the ear’ [See TRPS 69: Appendix A]

b) atweder no twere ban no ho 
   ladder DET lean wall DET Postp-side (skin) 
   ‘The ladder leans on the wall’ [See TRPS58: Appendix A]

c) ɛkra no hye ɛpon no ase 
   cat DEF enter table DEF Postp-under (bottom) 
   ‘The cat is under the table’ [See TRPS 31: Appendix A]

These postpositional words in Akan have been grammaticalized as nouns which portray their semantic root. So, words like mu ‘in’, ho ‘side’, and ase ‘under’ are used in reference to the human body parts, stomach, skin, and bottom respectively. These words are used to indicate locative notions in Akan.

In Safaliba, the situation is not different from the observation made in Akan. The data revealed that the language is a postpositional language. Consequently, we see the prepositions in the following examples occurring at the final position of the structures (See appendix A for TRPS 69, 40 and 31):

a) A simdiya be a tobe poku poo 
   DET earring COP DET ear hole Postp-inside (stomach) 
   ‘The earring is in the earhole’

b) A dogite be a kalaŋ zu. 
   DET cat COP DET mat Postp-top (head) 
   ‘The cat is on the mat.’

c) A dogite be a tabuli puraa 
   DET cat COP DET table Postp-under (bottom) 
   ‘The cat is under the table’
Just like Akan, these prepositions in Safaliba have undergone grammaticalization as nouns to indicate the human part from which they emerged. Thus, *poo* ‘inside’, *zu* ‘top’ and *praa* ‘under’ are derived from *stomach*, *head*, and *bottom* correspondingly; and these are some of the words that are used to indicate locative notions in Safaliba.

3. Simple clause structures

This section discusses the similarities and disparities among the three languages in relation to clause structure and functions, relative clause, verb forms, verbal structures such as: transitive, intransitive, ditransitive structures and serial verb constructions. Again, the section focuses on noun phrase structures and negations.

3.1 The clause structure of the three languages

3.1.1 According to Quirk and Greenbaum (2012:179) English has seven clause types: SVA, SVC, SVO, SVOA, SVOC, SVOO and SV. So, basically English has an SVO structure as illustrated below:

1. Abu beat the child

   S   V   O

   ‘Abu beat the child.’

   Native speakers of Akan also use this structure to show that an action is complete. Looking at the structure above, one realises that if the phrase, *abofra no* ‘the child’ is deleted, the structure, *Abu buu* ‘Abu beat’ will be meaningless.

3.1.2 Basically, Akan is also an SVO language (Saah 1994:4). This is shown in the example below:

1. Abu bu-u abofra no - AKAN

   S   (V) beat-COMPL\(^{12}\) O
   Abu   beat   child   DET
   ‘Abu beat the child.’

   Native speakers of Akan also use this structure to show that an action is complete. Looking at the structure above, one realises that if the phrase, *abofra no* ‘the child’ is deleted, the structure, *Abu buu* ‘Abu beat’ will be meaningless.

3.1.3 Schaefer (2009:120-121) has also argued that Safaliba has subject-verb-object (S-V-O) word order in simple clauses. This example from my native respondent of Safaliba confirms this position: See appendix B (1)

   Abu to á bie

   S   V   O
   Abu   beat   DET   child
   ‘Abu beat the child.’

   Just like Akan, if the phrase, *á bie* ‘the child’ is deleted, the rest of the structure will be meaningless.

3.2 Clause functions

\(^{12}\)Completive
Quirk and Greebaum (2012:203) and Biber et al. (2002:248-256) group simple clause structures into four major syntactic classes as: statements (declarative), questions (interrogative), commands (imperative), and exclamations. The uses of these types correlate with different communicative functions (Quick and Greebaum 2012:203). The analyses on structure functions in the three languages under study are based on three – declarative, interrogative and imperative clauses – of the four major syntactic classes.

### 3.2.1 Declarative clauses

A declarative sentence states an idea and ends with a period. These sentences normally have SV (subject-verb) structures. The subject is always present and generally precedes the verb (Quick and Greebaum 2012:203). An example is:

Kofi will go home today.

In Akan, *be* ‘will’ is used to denote future marker in declarative structures (see appendix B [2]):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>a.</th>
<th>Kofi</th>
<th>bɛ-kɔ</th>
<th>fie</th>
<th>ɛnɛ.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>FUT</td>
<td>V(INF)</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘Kofi will go home today.’

The structure of declarative sentences in Safaliba, is not different from that of English and Akan. The data elicited from my respondent revealed this (see appendix B [2]):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>a.</th>
<th>Kofi</th>
<th>na-ti</th>
<th>zaka</th>
<th>dinaa.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>FUT</td>
<td>V(INF)</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘Kofi will go home today.’

### 3.2.2 Interrogative clauses

An interrogative structure asks a question and ends with a question mark. According to Biber et al. (2002:249) there are three main types of independent interrogative clauses in English: wh-questions, yes/no-questions, and alternative questions. The illustration below shows how native speakers of the three languages produce a typical wh-question, *what is your name*?:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What</th>
<th>is</th>
<th>your name?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wo</td>
<td>din</td>
<td>ɛn?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2POSS</td>
<td>name</td>
<td>COP</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘What is your name?’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ɛ</th>
<th>yoore</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

---

13 Future marker
14 Infinitive
15 Adjunct/Adverb
16 Possessive
2POSS name?

‘What is your name?’

The illustration above shows that in English, interrogative pronouns used in interrogative clauses occur at initial positions of structures. So, in the English illustration above, the \textit{wh}-word, \textit{what}, begins the structure. Again, possessive adjectives appear before the entities they qualify. Therefore, the possessive adjective, \textit{your}, in the English illustration above, occurs before the nominal item, \textit{name}.

In the Akan example, however, the \textit{wh}-question word, \textit{sen} ‘what’, occurs at the final position of the example. Repositioning of this word, \textit{sen}, from the final to the initial position of the structure will lead to grammatical error in Akan. Thus, it does not make sense to produce a structure like this in Akan: \textit{Sen de wo din}? Another observation made is that in Akan, \textit{wo}, could mean ‘you or your’. Again, like the case of English, possessive adjectives qualify nouns by way of pre-modification. We see this in the Akan example above -- \textit{wo din} ‘your name’.

According to the data collected from the field, in Safaliba, the structure, \textit{what is your name}?, will not recognise the use of the interrogative pronoun, \textit{what}? Therefore, the debate whether it (what) will appear at the final or initial position is absent. Just like English and Akan, possessive adjectives in Safaliba do occur at the initial position of entities they qualify. Another observation made in Safaliba is that the structure \textit{eyoore} ‘what is your name’ does not recognise the use of a verb. So, the glossing showed that the verb, \textit{is}, is missing.

### 3.2.3 Imperative clauses

Imperative clauses convey command and end with either a period or an exclamation mark. An imperative clause can have different degrees of intensity which is shown by fluctuating loudness and abruptness of voice quality (Dixon 2005:30). Examples are: \textit{go home}, \textit{come here}, and \textit{stand up}. Although, these structures do not have palpably stated subjects, it is assumed that the subjects for each of them is the pronoun, \textit{you}. Thus, the subject, \textit{you}, is implied (Wiredu 2009). The structures below illustrate how simple imperative clauses are formed in the three languages:

| a. Beat him. | \textit{ENGLISH} |
| Beam \textit{OBJ}\textsuperscript{17} | \textit{AKAN} |
| ‘Beat him.’ |
| Tɔ.ɔ | \textit{SAFALIBA} |
| ‘Beat him’ |

| b. Put it down! | \textit{ENGLISH} |
| Fa to ho Take throw there | \textit{AKAN} |
| ‘Put it down!’ |

\textsuperscript{17} Object
As indicated earlier, most English imperative clauses have the implied subject – you. This is seen in the two structures above, where beat him and put it down though do not have clear-cut subjects, could both be preceded by the second person pronoun, you. In the case of Akan this theory still holds as bu no ‘beat him’ and fatuhɔ ‘put it down’ could be preceded by wo ‘you’. This is also the case in Safaliba, where the structures, too ‘beat him’ and diguɔ beŋe ‘put it down’ could be preceded by the implied subject (pronoun) ɩ ‘you.’

3.3 Relative clause structures

According to Dixon (2005:32) a relative clause ‘is a constituent of an NP and provides a description of the referent of the head noun, parallel to an adjectival or adverbial modifier’. In this comparative analysis of the three languages, the relative clause: I know the boy who killed the snake, has been used. (see appendix B)

I know the boy who killed the snake – ENGLISH

Me-nim abarimaa no a o-kum ɔwɔ no – AKAN
1SG.SUBJ knowboy DEF RP 3SG.SUBJ-kill snake DEF
‘I know the boy who killed the snake’

D baŋe a bidaba ni ɑŋ ku a waafu – SAFALIBA
1SG know DET child.male that RP kill.PST DET snake
‘I know the boy who killed the snake’

The Akan example above shows that relative clauses in Akan are marked by relative marker a. It (a) normally appears after the determiner of the subject of the independent clause and at the beginning of the relative clause. In English, it (relative pronoun) can be located at the same position. The only difference is that while English is a pre-determiner language, Akan is a post-determiner language.

In the Safaliba example of the same structure, the relative pronoun, aŋ, is located between ni ‘that’ and ku ‘kill.PST’. Thus, in Safaliba too, relative pronouns begin relative clauses; but where necessary, another RP structure (for example: ni ‘that’ as seen in the example) is introduced to precede the main relative pronoun that come before the relative clause.

3.4 Verb forms and verbal structures

3.4.1 Verb forms
According to Quick and Greebaum (2012:38) all main verbs in English have five forms: the base (V), the present (V-s), the past (V-ed1), the present participle (V-ing), and the past participle (V-ed2). The illustrations below only consider how past form/time/tense is marked in the three languages under study:

a. I called you

| Me-fre-ɛ | wo |
| 1SG.SUBJ-call-PST | 2^{2}\text{SG.OBJ} |

‘I called you’

b. S/he ate the food

| ŋò-di-i | aduane no |
| 3SG.SUBJ-eat-Pst | food | DET |

‘S/he ate the food’

Looking at the examples (a. and b.) above, one realises that English has a past marker (-ed) for regular verbs; while irregular verbs form their past differently. So, we have called (regular verb) and ate (irregular verb) as past forms of the above structures – a. and b.

In the case of Akan, it is clear that there is also a marker for past tense; but the marker is derived from the main verbs of structures. So in the examples above, we have free ‘called’ and dii‘ate’ as the past forms of the verbs: fre ‘call’ and di‘eat’. Thus, in Akan, most past times/tenses are marked by a repetition of the last vowel of the main verb in a given structure. It is important to note that this is always the case when the verb in the structure has been used transitively. So, in the simple clause: Me fre-ɛ’I called’, the vowel, e, has been used to mark past time. This is so; since the verb has been used transitively.

In Safaliba, the past tenses of both regular and irregular verbs are marked by different markers. Consequently, in example, a, ñbole.ya‘I called’ the marker, ya, has been employed in marking past time; while ye in ñ di.ye ‘s/he ate’ has been used in marking past time.

3.4.2 Transitive, intransitive and ditransitive verbs

Biber et al. (2002:461) argues that transitivity is a valency pattern that includes one or more objects. A transitive verb therefore, is a verb that requires an object before the meaning of a structure is complete; while a ditransitive verb requires two or more objects before the meaning of a structure is complete. For example, in the example below:

\textit{They gave the child to the man},

\footnote{2^{2}\text{2nd person}}
the structure ... the child to the man, completes the sense of meaning in the clause, they gave. Akan and Safaliba also recognise transitive and ditransitive structures:

Wɔ-de abofra no ma-a papa no – AKAN

3PLU.SUBL-take child DEF give-COMPL man DEF

‘They gave the child to the man’

Ba di a bie ku a daba – SAFALIBA

3.PLU.SUBL give.PST DET child give DEF man

‘They gave the child to the man’

Intransitive verbs on the other hand are those verbs that do not necessarily require an object before the verb is complete semantically. An example of such a structure in English is: I cried.

Akan recognises intransitive verbs:

a) Me-su-ɛ.  
1SG.SUBJ-cry-PST
‘I cried.’

Safaliba also recognises intransitive verbs:

a) D Kɔŋ.ya
1SG.SUBJ cry.PST
‘I cried.’

3.5. Serial verb constructions (SVC)

Nordquist (2014) writes that Serial verb constructions (SVCs) in English are structures that have ‘verbs that occur together in a single verb phrase without a marker of coordination or subordination.’ These constructions contain two or more verbs, neither of which is an auxiliary. According to him, serial verbs are more common in creoles and in certain dialects of English than in Standard English. Examples of this construction in English are:

a) Go get him now.
b) Come tell me about it.
c) Don’t make me come get you (Nordquist 2014).
d) Come see a snake.

Serial verb constructions also exist in Akan and Safaliba as Osam (2003:14) and Schaefer and Schaefer (2003:6) have noted. ‘Serialization in Akan has had a fairly good coverage in the linguistics literature’ (Osam 2003:14); ‘Serial verbs occur frequently in Safaliba’ (2003:6). Examples of Safaliba serial verb constructions given by my respondent include:

a. Buŋ iŋ cheŋ ti da?
What 2SG walk go buy
‘What did you walk to go and buy?’

b. Nyina Aziz ti dogi a diibu?
Where Aziz go cook DEF food
'Where did you go and cook the food?'

Examples of serial verb constructions in Akan are:

a)  Be- dikoko
come eat porridge
‘Come and eat porridge.’

b)  Be- kye aboa no
come catch animal DET
‘Come and catch the animal.’

3.6 Noun phrase structures

Wiredu (1999:67) defines a phrase ‘as a group of words which together can be replaced by a single word in a sentence.’ He again argues that a noun phrase is ‘called so because it is a noun which can replace the whole group of words.’ To Biber et al. (2002) ‘a phrase with a noun as its head is a noun phrase.’ Thus, in a noun phrase (NP), the noun, which is the head element of the structure, is the most important word. The examples below demonstrate how NPs in the three languages under study, are formed (see TRPS 27 and 69):

a)  The apple hangs on the tree  – ENGLISH
    ɛduabano sen ɛdua no so – AKAN
    fruit DET hang tree DET top
    ‘The fruit hangs on the tree.’

    A nmani be a daa zu – SAFALIBA
    DET fruit COP DET tree head
    ‘The fruit is on the tree’

b)  The earring is in the earhole  – ENGLISH
    Asomadeɛ no hyɛ aso no mu – AKAN
    earring DET wear ear DET in
    ‘The earring is in the earhole.’

    A simdiya be a tobe poku poo – SAFALIBA
    DET earring COP DET ear hole inside
    ‘The earring is in the earhole’

It is obvious that native speakers of English form noun phrases by placing the determiner before the noun. Thus, English is a pre-determiner language. So, in the English structures underlined above (examples a. and b.), the determiner (definite article), the, appears before the nouns or NPs, fruit/apple and earring. Another observation made in the English examples is that the notions of location – on and in– appear before the NPs, the tree and the ear in examples a) and b) respectively. This also makes English a pre-determinerlanguage.
But in Akan, the determiner, no ‘the’, in the two examples above, appears after the nouns, eduaba ‘fruit’ and asomadee ‘earring’. Again, we see the same determiner, no, appearing after the nouns, edu ‘tree’ and aso ‘ear’. This clearly portrays that Akan is a post-determiner language. Consequently, determiners in Akan NPs will always occur after the head elements in those NPs. Looking at the locative notions – so ‘top’ and ñmu ‘in’ – used in the Akan structures, it is conspicuous that they correspondingly occur in final positions of the structures. This makes Akan, a post-determiner language.

In Safaliba, the determiner, a, ‘the’ appears before the nouns, nmani ‘fruit’ and simdiya ‘earring’ in examples a) and b) respectively. The same determiner, a, ‘the’ appears before the nouns daa ‘tree’ and tobe ‘ear’ in the prepositional phrases of examples a) and b) respectively. The indication that this state of affair portrays is unambiguous – like English, Safaliba is a pre-determiner language. But, other complex structures should be used in another study to verify whether there could be an instance where determiners could occur after nominal groups.

### 3.7 Negation

The negation of a simple sentence is accomplished by inserting not, n’t between the operator and the predication (Quick and Greebaum 2012:195). Native speakers of English thus, produce negative meaning of structures by inserting a negator (mostly not) between the lexical item and the predicator. We see examples in the structures below:

- The dog is by the house – the dog is not by the house. Declarative structure.
- Is the dog by the house? – Is the dog not by the house? Interrogative structure.

Biber et al. (2002:239) on the other hand, have the opinion that there are two main kinds of clause negation: not-negation and no-negation. Not-negation is formed with not or –n’t while no-negation is formed with other negative words such as no, nothing, and none (Biber et al. 2002:239):

> There is nothing I can do about this situation.

Saah (1994:14) has argued that in Akan, the inflected verb carries a number of affixes to indicate tense, aspect, mood and negation. Osam (2003) states that negation in Akan, is marked by ‘a homorganic nasal which is normally said on a low tone.’ These examples confirm these positions:

- ɔkkraman no te ɛdan no ho – positive declarative structure.
- Dog DET sit house DET skin

> ‘The dog is by the house’ –

- ɔkkraman no ñ-te ɛdan no ho. – NEG declarative structure.
- Dog DET NEG25-sit house DET skin

> ‘The dog is not by the house’

The illustrations above only indicate how native speakers of Akan produce positive and negative declarative structures. It is obvious that in the second illustration (negative declarative structure), n, which is a nasal alveolar voiced consonant, has been used in a low tone to express a negative

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25 Negative/negator
meaning of the structure. But, how do Akans produce negative interrogative structures? This example shows how:

Na Kofi ǹ-kɔ fie?
CONJ 26 Kofi NEG-go home

‘Is Kofi not going home?’

One realises that native speakers of Akan use the same sound, ǹ, to produce negative interrogative structures.

In Safaliba, ba and kʊŋ are used to mark negation. While ba ‘not’ is used with common nouns, kʊŋ ‘not’ is used with proper nouns. These two examples display it:

a) A Baa ba be a donone.
   DET dog NEG COP DET door
   ‘The dog is not by the door.’

b) Kofi kʊŋ ti saka?
   Kofi NEG go home
   ‘Is Kofi not going home?’

The data elicited revealed that in Safaliba, negations normally appear before verbs. Thus, in example a) above, ba ‘not’ appears before the copula verb – is – and in example b) kʊŋ ‘not’ appears before the action verb, go. The opposite is the case in English language, where negations are attached to the operator by way of post-modification.

4. Conclusion

This work has looked at the linguistic parity and disparity of three languages – English, Akan, and Safaliba – in terms of simple clause structure and basic locative constructions. Several observations were made. Key among them include: English shares some similarities with Safaliba in terms of the position of determiners in noun phrases – both languages are pre-determiner languages. It was also seen that Akan and Safaliba have various locative verbs which agree with some locative notions which are derived from the parts of the human body. Again, English uses prepositions which normally occur at the initial position of prepositional phrases; but Akan and Safaliba recognise postposition, which normally occur at the final position of adpositional phrases.

References:


26Conjunction


[www.vibeghana.com/.../ghanaian-languages](http://www.vibeghana.com/.../ghanaian-languages)

[www.saylor.org/site/.../akan-people.pdf](http://www.saylor.org/site/.../akan-people.pdf)
APPENDICES:

APPENDIX A: Topological Relations Picture Series (TRPS)

TRPS 6 – The dog is by the side of the house

&kraman no te &dan no ho

dog DET sit house DET PP

‘The dog is by the side of the house’

A baa be a dii kerega

DET dog COP DET house side

‘The dog is by the side of the house’

1. TRPS27 – The apple hangs on the tree

&duaba no &gn &dua no so

apple DET hang tree DET top

‘The apple hangs on the tree’

A nmani be a daa zu.

DET fruit COP DET tree head

‘The fruit is on the tree.’

2. TRPS69 – The earring is in the earhole

asomadee no hye aso no mu

earring DET wear ear DET in

‘The earring is in the ear’

A simdiya be a tobe poku poo

‘The earring is in the ear’

SAFALIBA
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DET earring COP DET ear hole inside/stomach
‘The earring is in the earhole’

3. TRPS58 – The ladder leans on the wall – ENGLISH
atwedeε no twere ban no ho
ladder DET lean wall DET skin
‘The ladder leans on the wall’
A dunigutiili a diŋkpinizu – SAFALIBA
DET ladder lean DET wall head/top
‘The ladder leans on top of the wall’

4. TRPS31 – The cat is under the table – ENGLISH
DEFINE no hyε epon no ase
cat DEF enter table DEF under
‘The cat is under the table’
A dogite be a tabuli puraa – SAFALIBA
DET cat COP DET table under/bottom
‘The cat is under the table’

5. TRPS 40 – The cat sits on the mat – ENGLISH
DEFINE no te kete no so – AKAN
cat DET sit mat DET PP
‘The cat sits on the mat’
A dogitebe a kalanja – SAFALIBA
DET cat COP DET mat top/head
‘The cat is on the mat’

6. TRPS49 – The tree is planted by the chapel
   – ENGLISH
   Òdua no si asoredan no ho
   – AKAN
   tree DET sit church.house DET PP
   ‘The tree is planted by the chapel’

   A daa be a kyëkyekerega
   – SAFALIBA
   DET tree COP DET church side
   ‘The tree is by the chapel’

7. TRPS10 – The ring is on the finger
   – ENGLISH
   petia no hye nsatia no so
   – AKAN
   ring DET wear finger DET top (upper surface)
   ‘The ring is on the finger’

   A nupini be a numbin zu/ŋna
   – SAFALIBA
   DET ring COP DET finger toph/ody
   ‘The ring is on the finger’

8. TRPS2 – The apple is in the bowl
   – ENGLISH
   Òduaba no da kyënsen no mu
   apple DET sleep bowl DET inside (stomach) interior
   ‘The fruit is in the bowl’

   A nmani be a laa poo
   – SAFALIBA
   DET fruit COP DET bowl inside(stomach)
   ‘The fruit is in the bowl’
9. TRPS64 – The boy squats behind the chair – ENGLISH

abarimaa no koto akongua no akyi – AKAN
boy DET squat chair DET back

‘The boy squats behind the chair’

A be-dabili dobi a koke pore – SAFALIBA
DET child-male-small squat DET chair behind/back

‘The boy squats behind the chair’