The Phonology and Morphosyntax of Kol

by

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Abstract

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The Maka-Njem [A.80] languages of Cameroon are still very understudied compared to the better known Bantu languages. Many variants are endangered by virtue of their contact with both French, the language of education and government, and more prestigious neighboring languages. In this study, I describe one such language, Kol [A.832], focusing on its phonology, morphology and basic syntax. In addition, Kol is compared to neighboring (and closely related languages) and the historical development of Kol is explored by examining sound correspondences with reconstructed Proto-Bantu words and grammatical structures. In the course of the description, it is shown that Kol has important consequences not only for our

understanding of Bantu descriptive and historical linguistics but also for certain grammatical issues in general linguistic theory. An appendix includes texts and a Kol-English lexicon.

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1 Introduction

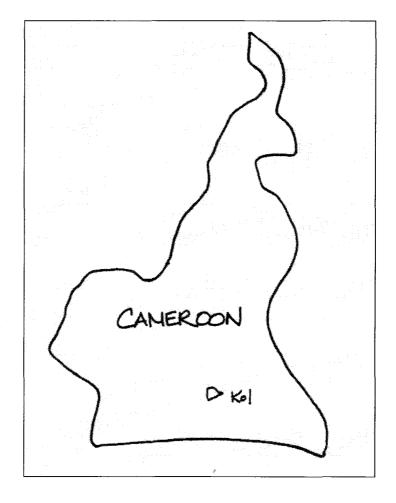
The purpose of this work is to offer a description of Kol, a narrow

Bantu language spoken in Cameroon, in the Upper Nyong division of the

Eastern Province. The morphosyntax of Kol has been previously undescribed.

Bantu languages are spoken south of a line extending from Cameroon in the west across the continent to southern Somalia in the east. The Bantu language area extends down to the southern tip of Africa. There are between 400 and 500 Bantu languages. Nearly a third of Africans today speak a Bantu language as their first language (Nurse 2001).

The Kol language is spoken in eastern Cameroon, primarily around the town of Messaména. Kol speakers refer to themselves and their language as *Bòkól*. Both the language and the speakers are called *Bikele* in French. A map is given below.



Map 1.1 Cameroon and Kol

Kol differs from many Bantu languages in that its preverbal morphemes are words or clitics and not prefixes. Morphologically, it is of typological interest because many of its tenses illustrate a tonal concord throughout the verbal sequence. Additionally, while Kol has a number of proclitics and enclitics, it also has a typologically rarer circumclitic, marking the non-past perfective negative. Syntactically, Kol is of interest because it offers evidence that it is one of the languages where *second position* is important, which in Kol

is the first position within the verb. Phonologically, Kol is interesting because it has a postnasal devoicing process in its nouns, and it allows long vowels in closed syllables.

1 Background Information

1.1 THE LANGUAGE

Kol belongs to the A.80 Maka-Njem language family. The authors of the *Cameroon Linguistic Atlas* (Dieu and Renaud 1983) listed Kol as a dialect of Makaa (A.83). More recently, it has been recognized as a distinct language and has been given its own classification number of A.832 (Maho 2003).

Its Ethnologue (Gordon 2005) classification is as follows:

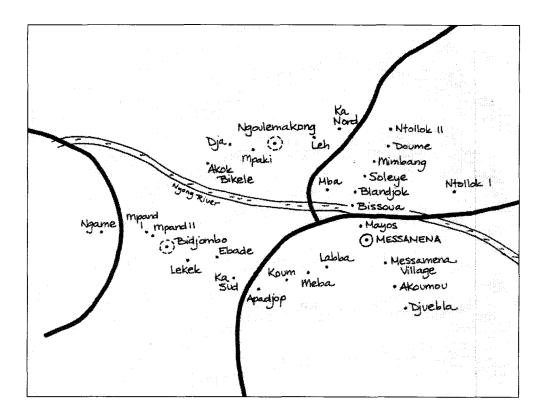
Niger-Congo, Atlantic-Congo, Volta-Congo, Benue-Congo, Bantoid, Southern, Narrow Bantu, Northwest, A, Maka-Njem (A.80), Kol (BIW)

The Kol language area is surrounded by other A.80 languages. It is bordered by the Makaa area to the north and by Badwe'e, one of the Konzime/Njem subvarieties, to the south and east. Kol is bordered on the west by the So language area.

There are a number of Kol dialects. Speakers agree that there are at least four distinct varieties of Kol, but some report that there are as many as seven. Those who report that Kol has four distinct dialects divide the Kol language area into a western dialect, a central dialect, and two eastern dialects, as shown in the map below.

Those speakers who make further distinctions separate the central dialect into two zones using the river as their boundary. Other speakers believe that the villages in the southeastern quadrant can be further subdivided, with those along the Bidjombo road (Labba, Meba, Koum and Apadjop) forming one group and those on the southern road (Messamena village, Akoumou, and Djuebla) forming the other. Data for this study was elicited from villages in the central dialect area.

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Map 1.2 Kol dialects

Kol is a SVO language. In general, Kol phrases are head-initial, e.g. objects, other complements and adjuncts follow verbs, most noun modifiers follow the noun, and complements of prepositions follow the preposition.

(See chapters 3 and 5 for more information.)

The Kol orthography uses 28 letters to express the 40 phonemes found in Kol. These letters are given below.

In general, the values of most orthographic symbols are consistent with the International Phonetic Alphabet. The exceptions are found in the palatal sounds. The alveopalatal affricates [tʃ] and [dʒ] are represented in Kol with the letters |c| and |j| respectively. Additionally, the alveopalatal fricative [ʃ] is written as |sh| and the palatal glide [j] is written as |y|. Though the Kol orthography uses |ny| for the palatal nasal [n], this study will use the IPA symbol so as to reserve Cy clusters for representing palatalization. For more information on Kol phonology, see chapter 2.

1.2 THE PEOPLE AND THEIR CULTURE

There are between 12,000 and 16,000 Kol speakers in eastern

Cameroon. The Kol live in a densely-forested, hilly region which is the headwaters area of the Nyong river. One of the larger rivers divides the Kol

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language area in two, but the whole region is criss-crossed with smaller bodies of water. The waterways are still frequently used for transportation, being often more direct than the roads.

Many houses are made using wood. Wood planks are readily available since the Kol region is near an area known for its logging industry. More traditional houses made with poles and mud are also common. Roofs are either made of tin sheeting or thatched with palm leaves.

The economy in the Kol region is primarily agricultural. Families grow their own food, and there are also many coffee and cocoa plantations, though most of these are not currently being tended or harvested due to lower prices on the world market. Men clear the fields, but women are responsible for planting, weeding and harvesting. Meat comes from domesticated animals, fishing or hunting in the surrounding forest.

The Kol region was colonized by the Germans in the early 1900s. The Eastern Province took nine years to subdue; much longer than was originally anticipated (Mveng 1985:52). Colonial brick buildings can still be seen on

the outskirts of Messaména. After World War I, this part of Cameroon became a French colony.

Unlike other people groups in Cameroon, the peoples of eastern Cameroon, including the Kol, do not have a traditional hierarchical authority structure. Communities are run by groups of elders. Specific elders have authority only as long as they can persuade people to follow them. Colonial powers assumed that the eastern people groups were like the coastal people groups and wanted to govern through local kings or chiefs. When asked to send them their chiefs, the Kol complied in that they sent someone, but this person did not necessarily have any more authority than any other adult member of the community. This set up tensions between the colonial structure and the traditional egalitarian structure. While I am unaware of any indepth anthropological studies on the Kol people, a number of articles and books have been written on the Makaa, their close neighbors (Geschiere 1982, 1993a, 1993b).

The Kol were traditionally animists. The Catholic church arrived soon after colonization. Today a number of Protestant churches are also present in the Kol region.

Elementary schools are found in many Kol villages. However, for a secondary education, Kol children must travel to the towns of Messaména, Ayos, or Abong Mbang. Travel is not easy in the Kol region, so most children board with relatives or family friends in the bigger towns during the school year.

Marriages are exogamous. Families belong to clans, and marriages occur outside of the clan. It is also common for the Kol to marry people from other people groups. After a marriage, a wife always moves to where her husband lives, traditionally to his father's compound. If any children are born to the marriage, they belong to the father's family. That is to say, should the husband die, the children stay with his family, while the wife may stay or may go back to her family of origin.

2 Previous Research

Previous work on Kol has been limited to Kol's sociolinguistic situation (Johnson 1989) and its phonology (Begne 1980, Fokou Tamafo et al 2004).

Johnson (1989) reports that a majority of Kol speakers who participated in intelligibility testing demonstrated high levels of comprehension for both Makaa and Badwe'e. However, there were a few speakers who had very low levels of comprehension, suggesting that there may be high levels of bilingualism (vs. high levels of mutual intelligibility). Accompanying sociolinguistic questionnaires showed positive attitudes towards Kol and both of the neighboring languages (Makaa and Badwe'e). The Bokol responding to the questionnaires stated that children begin to learn the neighboring languages between the ages of 6 and 10.

Begne's (1980) phonology of Kol provides inventories of consonants, vowels & tonal phonemes as well as a discussion of phonotactics in each domain. While it contains a lot of good information, it also has some gaps.

For example, Begne, though ethnically Kol, does not give any information as to what dialect of Kol he speaks or to what level. Additionally,

he includes basic associative phrases in his discussion of noun root shapes. In his lexicon, he glosses over the fact that there is not a one-to-one correspondence between singular and plural noun classes. Both class 5 and class 9 nouns mark their plurals in class 6. This merger and the lack of traditional noun class numbers makes his lexicon not especially useful in identifying class membership of various nouns.

The phonology sketch written by Fokou Tamafo et al (2004) was intended to be the basis for orthographic decisions. It was not intended to be an in-depth phonological study.

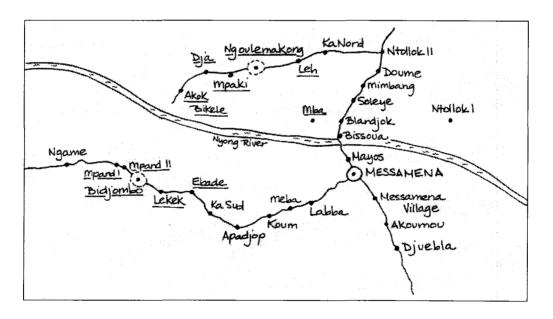
3 Methodology of Current Study

This current study is based on 18 months of fieldwork in the Eastern province. While for practical reasons, I did not live in the Kol language area, I made regular trips to the Kol region from the neighboring subdivision of Abong Mbang. Additional work was done with Kol speakers who traveled to visit me in either Abong Mbang or Yaounde.

Kol is primarily spoken in the Messaména arrondissement. Where the Kol language area borders the Makaa and the Badwe'e language areas, the

variety of Kol spoken is reportedly strongly influenced by these neighboring languages. Therefore, efforts were made to collect data only from speakers who lived in an area where Kol speakers in general report that "good" Kol is spoken. This area was that of the central dialect, located west of Messaména, along the Nyong river. (A map of Kol dialects was given above in Map 1.2.)

On the map below, villages found in the central dialect area are underlined. Data was primarily collected from speakers from four of these villages: Bidjombo, Ebade, Leh and Ngoulemakong. These villages were chosen due to relative ease of access from the main road.



Map 1.3 Source villages

4 Organization of current study

This current study is organized into seven chapters. Chapter two describes the phonology of Kol: its phonemic inventory, syllable structure and phonological rules. Chapter three introduces the reader to nouns, describing their internal structure as well as the structure of the noun phrase. Chapter four contains information on the elements found in Kol verb phrases, e.g. verbs, auxiliary verbs, copulas, adverbs, and tense, negation and aspect markers. Chapter five describes the syntactic structure of the verb phrase. Chapter six looks at the bigger picture of how Kol fits into the A.80 language family, i.e. its similarities and differences with its neighbors. Chapter seven will examine how Kol has changed over time by comparing Kol today with what is known about Proto-Bantu. A number of texts and a lexicon may be found in the appendices.

Examples are numbered separately in each chapter. Throughout this study, in Kol examples, the hyphen '-' is used to mark boundaries between roots and affixes, while the equal sign '=' marks the boundary between clitics

and roots. Grammatical morphemes are glossed in small caps while lexical ones are in lower case. Floating tones are marked by the '+' plus sign.

(1)
$$p = \check{a} = kw = \grave{e}$$
 $n\acute{a}g...$ $d\grave{i}$ $d\grave{u}k.$ $n\grave{e} = \acute{e} + H$ $n\acute{a}g + H$ $d\grave{i}$ $d\check{u}g$ he/she-Neg-again-Neg more stay forest 'He doesn't stay in the forest anymore.'

In all of the Kol examples, the first line given will represent the way the speaker actually said the phrase. If morphophonological processes have blurred the forms of the morphemes found in a particular example, the second line will show the underlying representations of the morphemes involved. Examples taken from texts in the appendix have a reference to the text and its sentence number in parentheses.

Below is a list of the abbreviations used in glossing examples.

Abbreviations used to gloss grammatical morphemes are in small caps, while those used for lexical morphemes will be in lower case.

(2) Abbreviations

adj – adjective

FUT – future

adv - adverb

gen - genitive

APPL - applicative

IMP - imperative

Assoc – associative marker

IMPF - imperfective

att – attributive

INF - infinitive

aux - auxiliary verb

INCL - inclusive

chg - change (of state)

interr - interrogative

COND - conditional

Loc - locative

conj – conjunction

loc – locative (copula)

DEF – definite determiner

n - noun

dem - demonstrative

NEG - negative

det - determiner

num - numeral

Eмpн – emphatic pronoun

OBJ - object

F2 – distant future

P1 – near past

Foc - focus

Pass - passive

Fr - French

P2 – far past

RELCL - relative clause

Perf – perfect

spec - specific

pl - plural

SG – singular

Poss - possessive

SUB - subject

Pres - present

SUBJ – subjunctive

QUAL - qualificative

TAM - Tense, Aspect, Mood marker

quant - quantifier

v - verb

RECIP - reciprocal

2 Phonology

This chapter will provide a summary of the Kol phonological system.

In the first section below, an overview of the phonemes found in Kol will be given. This will be followed by a discussion of ambiguous segments, synchronic variation, and phonological rules.

1 Phonemic Inventory

Kol has 32 consonants, 8 phonemic vowels and two underlying tones, high (H) and low (L). Below is a consonant chart for Kol.

| | labial | alveolar | palatal | velar | labiovelar |
|----------------------|--------|----------|----------------|--------|------------|
| stop | (p), b | t, d | c [tʃ], j [dʒ] | k, g | kp |
| prenasalized stop | mp, mb | nt, nd | nc, nj | ŋk, ŋg | ŋkp, ŋgb |
| nasal | m | n | л | ŋ | |
| fricative | f, (v) | s, z | S | | |
| approximant | | l, r | у | | w |

Table 2.1 Kol consonants

The sounds {p, v, kp, ŋkp, and ŋgb} are quite rare. Most of the words with these sounds can be identified as borrowings, particularly from Ewondo (Begne 1980:32). Word-finally, voicing distinctions are neutralized thanks to a rule devoicing consonants before pause. (See section 4.2.5.1.)

If borrowed words are excluded, there is only one voicing distinction in the fricative series, at the alveolar place of articulation, unlike the stop series.

/s/ and /z/ only contrast root-initially. Additionally, /f/ is weakened to [h] in some words for some speakers. (See section 1.1)

Kol has a nearly symmetrical vowel system, with three front vowels, two central vowels and three back (and round) vowels.

| | front | central | back |
|------|-------|---------|------|
| high | i | (i) | u |
| mid | e | ə | 0 |
| low | 3 | a | Э |
| | 1 | 1 | |

Table 2.2 Kol Vowels.

The status of a ninth vowel, the high central vowel, is questionable, as represented by the parentheses in the table above. It will be discussed in

section 2.2.1. Below are words illustrating the phonemic difference between the eight vowels.

(1)
$$b\hat{\imath}$$
 'startle, surprise' $b\hat{\imath}$ 'be scarce' $b\hat{\epsilon}$ 'toilet, latrine' $b\hat{\imath}$ 'be' $b\hat{\imath}$ 'place' $b\hat{\imath}$ 'sow, cultivate' $b\hat{\imath}$ 'cut' $b\hat{\jmath}$ 'lip'

Length is phonemic for 7 of the vowels given above, all but the schwa. Some minimal pairs are given below (from Begne 1980:47-60). It is interesting that these long vowels can occur in closed syllables, since that is typologically rare.

Kol has two tones, high (H) and low (L). These may combine to form the contour tones HL and LH on single vowels. LH primarily occurs in environments where a grammatical H tone has been added to a L tone syllable.

(3) $b\hat{a}$ 'a little' adverb $b\hat{a}$ 'two' numeral $b\hat{a}$ 'marry' verb

In addition to the lexical tones, Kol has other tones which carry grammatical information. Grammatical tones within the noun phrase are discussed in chapter 3, while grammatical tones within the verb phrase are discussed in chapters 4 and 5.

1.1 SYNCHRONIC VARIATION

As was mentioned above, voicing distinctions are neutralized for obstruents before pause. However, word-finally (not before pause), there is also an optional process which transforms voiced stops to voiced continuants, with the exception of /b/.

Fokou Tamafo (2004:11) observed that some words show variation of [g] when it is the second consonant, but not word finally. He gives a rule where [g] becomes the voiced fricative [γ] when it is found between two occurrences of the low central vowel [a] but stays [g] everywhere else.

Examples are given below in (5a), followed by examples of other environments where no alternation is possible. (Examples taken from Fokou Tamafo et al (2004:11).)

While /b/ is not weakened to a voiced continuant before pause (it is consistently devoiced), it may be weakened between vowels when it is the second consonant.

(6)
$$/\hat{e}$$
-sáb/ \rightarrow [\hat{e} -sá β \hat{e}] 'illness' (5)

Two other sources of variation may be found within the fricative series.

Some dialects have /s/ where other dialects have /ʃ/, as shown below.

Additionally, the fricatives /f/ and /h/ are in free variation for many speakers.

(8) fámò varies with hámò 'true, real'fá há HORTATIVE

2 Syllable structure and Phonotactics

Kol allows both open and closed syllables, with the following syllable shapes being represented in the language: V, CV, CVC, and CVVC. Below are some examples of words illustrating the different syllabic structures allowed. There are no monosyllabic words which illustrate the V syllable type though there are proclitics which then form V syllables at the beginning of prosodic words.

| (9) | V | á= | NEGATIVE (proclitic half of circumclitic) |
|-----|------|------|---|
| | | á.bâ | 'vulture' (1/2) |
| | CV | jò | 'tooth' (5/6) |
| | | ko | 'go' |
| | CVV | jìì | 'cry, weep' |
| | CVC | kâŋ | 'guinea fowl' (3) |
| | | dêg | 'see' |
| | CVVC | tóòb | 'sheep' |
| | | bììl | 'trap (an animal)' |

Vowel initial words in general are quite rare. There are a number of vowel-initial nouns, which are either borrowings or possibly examples of a 1a class prefix a-, as shown below. There are no examples of vowel-initial verbs.

(10)ábâ 'vulture'

âbyôlô

'traitor'

ăbwòmb ndòlê 'mud wasp'

ådùŋgû

'toad'

ădwàm

'frog'

ăfíyò

'lemon'

ămpígà

'dragonfly'

PHONOTACTICS 2.1

Phonotactic constraints for both consonants and vowels are discussed in the sections below. Generalizations are made on the basis of a lexicon of approximately 2000 entries.

2.1.1 Consonants

Kol has more phonemic consonant contrasts word-initially than it does word-medially or word-finally.

2.1.1.1 **Onsets**

Most of the phonemes in Kol may occur word-initially. The exceptions are /ŋ/ and /g/. /ŋ/ never occurs word-initially, and /g/ only occurs wordinitially in two words, shown below. One is definitely a borrowing from English, and the other is most likely a borrowing from an A.70 trade language like Ewondo ('catfish' is *ŋgol* in Fang (A.75)).

(11) gyòndô 'catfish, mudfish' gólòd 'gold' (from English)

Within a word, as the onset to a word-medial syllable, /g/ is common,
but /ŋ/ is not. Voiceless obstruents are rarer at the beginning of a wordmedial syllable than they are at the beginning of a word.

The two alveolar fricatives /s/ and /z/ only contrast at the beginning of a word (or root).

(12) bì-sá '8-thing' *from* /bè-sá/ bì-zúŋ '8-our'

More oddly, the palatal stop /j/ does not occur as the onset of a word-medial syllable (or as a coda). Only the prenasalized /nj/ occurs in those positions.

Secondary articulations, i.e. labialization or palatalization, are extremely common for word-initial consonants (C1s) and extremely rare for non-word-initial consonants (C2s). (Evidence for these being secondary

articulations and not consonant clusters is given below in section 3.2.)

Example (13) lists all of the words with secondarily articulated C2s in my lexicon. These may be all originally C1s. The first example is definitely a case of reduplication, where the reduplicated consonant (now C1) has lost its secondary articulation. The rest (except for the latter) look like examples of reduplication, but for most of them there are no obvious bases in the lexicon.

(13) $\int \hat{u} \int w dg = \text{'be in front'}$

kúkwó lû 'skull of head'

lúlwúŋ 'flute' ($lwú\eta = 'vine'$)

pùpwó 'pawpaw, papaya'

mbúmbwá 'poor man, poverty'

mpìmpyâŋ 'red pepper, hot pepper'

sùſwáàz 'naked'

2.1.1.2 Codas

The distinction between voiced and voiceless obstruents is neutralized word-finally, thanks to the devoicing rule discussed in section 4.2.5.1. Word-medially and word-finally, [r] is an allophone of /d/, as discussed above in section 1.1.

The voiced velar consonants, both oral and nasal, are the most common consonants word-finally. /l/ is the third most common consonant

found at the end of words. The palatal consonants are rarer than obstruents at other places of articulation.

| Coda Consonants | | | | | | | |
|-----------------|----|----|-----|----|-----|----|----|
| b | 57 | d | 39 | g | 147 | j | 1 |
| mb | 44 | nd | 34 | ng | 10 | nj | 20 |
| m | 69 | n | 46 | ŋ | 112 | n | 2 |
| | | S | 45 | | | | |
| | | 1 | 106 | | | | |

Table 2.3 Coda consonants

2.1.2 Vowels

For disyllabic words, the most common vowels found in the initial syllable (V1s) are {i, u, a} while the most common vowels found in the second syllable (V2s) are {ə, ɔ, a}. However, the tendency is more extreme for verbs, especially when the overall number of verbs (580) vs the total number of nouns (1016) is taken into account. Compare the two tables below.

| | i | e | ε | u | o | Э | Э | а |
|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|
| V1 | 48 | 23 | 2 | 69 | 11 | 11 | 14 | 55 |
| V2 | 16 | 20 | 10 | 28 | 15 | 40 | 38 | 81 |

Table 2.4 Vowel counts for nouns

| | i | е | 3 | u | 0 | Э | ə | а |
|------|----|----|----|----|---|----|----|----|
| V1 | 34 | 11 | 10 | 52 | 5 | 13 | 4 | 46 |
| V2 . | 2 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 4 | 65 | 60 | 50 |

Table 2.5 Vowel counts for verbs

For nouns, it is much more common to have the high vowels $\{i, u\}$ in the first syllable than the second syllable. The mid vowels $\{e, a, o\}$ are somewhat more evenly distributed, though the central mid vowel is more commonly found in the second syllable. All of the low vowels $\{\epsilon, a, a\}$ are much more common in second syllables than in first syllables.

For verbs, the most common vowels in the first syllables are the vowels at the three corners of the vowel space {i, u, a}, while the only vowels which are commonly found in the second syllable are the central vowels {ə, a} and the low back vowel [ɔ].

3 Ambiguous Segments

Kol has a number of sound sequences which are ambiguous as to whether they should be analyzed as a single phonemic unit or as a series of phonemes. In this section, I will discuss the nasal plus consonant series in section 3.1, the consonant plus glide series in section 3.2 and the status of the high central vowel in section 3.3.

3.1 NC = PRENASALIZED STOP

Researchers in the A.80 language family differ as to whether NC series should be analyzed as prenasalized stops or as homorganic nasal consonant clusters. I believe that these NC series in Kol are prenasalized stops for the following reasons.

First of all, there are no clear consonant clusters in native Kol words.

Below are some examples of borrowed words, containing consonant clusters.

(14) àlkôl 'alcohol'

brík 'mud block' (Fr. brique)

krístùs 'Christ'

klìsé 'x-ray' (Fr. cliché)

The only candidates for consonant clusters in Kol are the NC series currently under discussion, or the Cw / Cy units discussed in the section below.

Additionally, the prenasalized series contains more sounds than the oral series. /p/ is rare in Kol, occuring primarily in borrowings and ideophones. However, /mp/ is very common.

| (15) | pààr | 'threshing floor' | págá | 'cane' |
|------|-------|-------------------|------|----------|
| | pé | 'totally' | pyèb | 'winnow' |
| | pùpwó | 'pawpaw' | pùù | 'calm' |

The other piece of evidence for asserting that Kol has prenasalized stops and not consonant clusters is from a reduplication process. In Kol, a diminutive can be formed by reduplicating the first C of the root and inserting a templatic vowel (usually schwa, the epenthetic vowel) between the prefixed reduplicant and the root.

| (16) | kág | 'child' (7) | kákág | 'small child' |
|------|------|--------------------|--------|--------------------|
| | fòg | 'wisdom' (9) | fèfóg | 'small wisdom' |
| | mwân | 'son/daughter' (1) | mèmwân | 'small son' |
| | ntà | 'grandchild' | ntìntà | 'great grandchild' |

As can be seen in the word for 'great-grandchild', the prenasalized stop is reduplicated. This contrasts with the word for 'small son' where only the [m] is reduplicated. This is not a perfect minimal pair though since [mwân] is a complex word made up of /mw-ân/, the class 1 prefix and the root.

While neither reason for treating NC series as prenasalized stops is conclusive, together, along with the lack of clear underlying consonant clusters in native Kol words, they are indicative that NC series should be considered as a single unit and not a consonant cluster.

3.2 CONSONANT + GLIDE (CW / CY)

Also ambiguous are the sequence of consonants plus glides. These are very common in Kol, and the question is to whether these are consonant clusters, secondary articulations, or consonants followed by diphthongs.

To begin with, the consonant cluster analysis will be rejected for the same reason that it was doubted for the NC series. Kol has no other consonant clusters, which makes it unlikely that these are underlyingly consonant clusters.

The question as to whether these consonant plus glide sequences are secondary articulations or consonants plus underlying vowels is harder to

determine. The reduplication process described above in section 2.1 suggests that [mw] does not form a single phonemic unit, since it is not reduplicated. However, as was mentioned above, [mwân] is a complex word, so there may be differing analyses depending on whether the consonant and glide series is in a single root or not.

Kol also has a productive gliding rule which will be discussed in more detail in section 4.2.1.1 below. These gliding rules show that many glides following C in complex words are underlyingly vowels. Examples are given below, with examples on the left showing gliding and examples on the right showing the underlying form of the prefixes.

Fokou Tamafo (2004:12) suggests that labialization is underlyingly a consonant followed by the high back vowel [u]. However, the synchronic

gliding process of the nominal prefixes [Co-] to [Cw-] argue that maybe labialization should be considered to be underlyingly a consonant followed by the close-mid back vowel [o].

If there were any apparent co-occurrence restrictions, that would be evidence for the contrary analysis of consonant plus glide sequences being secondary articulations. However, almost all Kol consonants may be labialized. Aside from the rare stops {kp, η kp, and η gb}, the only other gap in the stop series is the palatal affricate /c/, i.e. *cw. Only the velar nasal does not allow labialization, but / η / also does not occur word-initially. In the approximant series /l/ is the only approximant to co-occur with labialization.

There does not appear to be a phonetic reason why /c/ should be excluded from labialization when /nc/, /j/, and /nj/ allow it. This may be an accidental gap in the lexicon. Below are examples of labialized consonants.

| (18) | pùpwó | 'pawpaw, papaya' | bwéyá | 'everywhere' |
|------|--------|------------------|--------|--------------|
| | mpwàm | 'python' | mbwŝ | 'arm' |
| | fwén | 'corn, maize' | | |
| | mwáz | 'daytime' | | |
| | twámbá | 'elder' (n) | dwôb | 'day' |
| | ntwòmb | 'fight' (n) | ndwàŋg | 'valley' |

| nwî | 'rain' (v) | | |
|-------|--------------------|---------|--------------|
| lwâg | 'bail' (v) | | |
| | | jwábèrà | 'tangle' (v) |
| ncwâŋ | 'mold pottery' (v) | njwǎŋ | 'river' |
| ∫wêl | 'lizard' | | |
| ŋwèl | 'drink' (v) | | |
| kwè | 'help' (v) | | |
| ŋkwêŋ | 'leopard' | ŋgwâlà | 'town' |

Palatalization is much more restricted than labialization. The table below shows the consonants that may be palatalized. Note that these are all articulated toward the front of the mouth.

Table 2.6 Kol consonants allowing palatalization

These include almost all labial and alveolar consonants. The exceptions are {nd, n, l}. The exclusion of /n/ is not surprising since a palatalized /n/ could be confused with the palatal nasal already existing in the Kol phonological system. The absence of /nd/ and /l/ is harder to understand.

| (19) | pyèb | 'winnow' (v) | byâ | 'beget (child)' |
|------|------|----------------|-------|-------------------|
| | mpyô | 'dog' | mbyêl | 'relative' (n) |
| | myég | 'fish dam' (n) | fyàl | 'test' (v) |
| | tyèl | 'love' (n) | dyà | 'chair, seat' (n) |
| | ntyé | 'who?' | syê | 'work' (v) |

Palatalized consonants are excluded for obvious reasons. The absence of velars can be explained on historical grounds, namely that the Proto-Bantu voiced velar *g corresponds to synchronic {c, j} when the *g would have occurred before front vowels. For more information, see chapter 7.

In the absence of strong co-occurrence restrictions for labialization or palatalization and with the evidence of the existence of a regular gliding rule, I suggest that consonant plus glide sequences are neither consonant clusters, nor secondary articulations, but rather consonants followed by an underlying /e/ or /o/. The mid vowels are glided to avoid vowel hiatus situations. See section 4.2 below for more details.

3.3 THE HIGH CENTRAL VOWEL

In the summary of the vocalic phonemic inventory above, Kol was reported to have eight vowel phonemes. However, there are at least 9

phonetic vowels. The central vowels in particular have been analyzed differently by different linguists.

One area of debate is with respect to the epenthetic vowel (see section 4.1 for details as to where it occurs). Fokou Tamafo et all (2004) suggest that the epenthetic vowel is the high central vowel [i], and that [i] is therefore not a distinct vowel in Kol. Begne (1980) agrees that [i] is the epenthetic vowel but also lists [i] as a distinct phoneme.

In contrast to the above analyses, my own data suggests that the schwa is the epenthetic vowel and not [i] as suggested by Fokou Tamafo and Begne.

However, it is also the case that the distribution of the high central vowel [i] is predictable, and it is therefore not a distinct phoneme, but an allophone of /e/. [i] only occurs before nasals and the alveolar fricatives /s/ and /z/. This environment is a common one for vowel centralization (see section 4.2.3 for more details). Below are examples where the underlying form of the central vowel can be seen from other contexts followed by examples in (d) where the environment is suggestive that the surface [i] corresponds to an underlying /e/.

(20) a. [bimpânc byâŋ] 'my sides' /bè-mpânc bè-âŋ/ 8-side 8-my Γbí b. ndé] 'you were' /bé ndé/ be (loc) you (pl) [bisá] 'thing' c. /bè-sá/ 8-thing d. kwind possibly from /kwénd/ 'fish hook' (3) mpwing /mpwéŋg/ 'problems' (10)

4 Phonological rules

In this section, I will discuss phonological processes which are found in Kol. This section is organized by the environments in which the rules operate. This wll be followed by a summary of the domain in which the rules operate (lexical vs post-lexical).

4.1 AVOIDING CONSONANT CLUSTERS

As has been previously mentioned, Kol does not have clear examples of consonant clusters within morphemes. Additionally, when the environment for a consonant cluster arises, with two consonants meeting across a

morpheme or word boundary, an epenthetic vowel is inserted to repair the cluster, as described in the section below.

The schwa is also common as the first vowel of the relics of verb extensions (for more on these, see chapter 4 section 1.1). This suggests that the epenthetic vowel may be inserted between morphemes as well as between words.

4.2 VOWEL HIATUS

Kol allows CV or CVC syllables. Kol has phonemic long vowels, but non-identical vowel hiatus situations are avoided, either by transforming one of the vowels into a glide, or by deleting one of the vowels. The first strategy will be discussed below in section 4.2.1, and the second strategy will be discussed in section 4.2.2.

4.2.1 Gliding

The majority of vowel-final or vowel-initial morphemes have mid vowels. A common solution to the problem of vowel hiatus is to either transform the mid vowel into a glide (if it is a prefix) or to insert a glide between the two vowels in order to provide an onset to the second vowel.

4.2.1.1 Mid vowels become glides

As mentioned above, prefixal /e/ and /o/ become their corresponding glides (/y/ and /w/) when they occur before vowels. This is most frequently seen in class 1 nominal prefixes and in class 4, 6 and 8 concord markers.

Compare the glided versions of the concord markers on the left with their non-glided versions on the right.

(23) a. [myóób] /mè-óób/ 4-which b. [mètôn]
/mè-tôn/
4-five

c. [mwɛ̂z]
/mò-ɛ̂z/
6-all

d. [mòzúŋ]/mò-zúŋ/6-our (dual)

4.2.1.2 Glide insertion

When vowel hiatus occurs across word boundaries, and one of the vowels is a high-mid vowel [e], the palatal glide is inserted. Two examples are given below.

4.2.2 Deletion

An alternative solution to the "problem" of vowel hiatus is deletion. Surprisingly, deletion may occur in a similar environment to that of glide insertion. Relative clauses in Kol are marked by a H boundary tone on the left and by an enclitic on the right. When this enclitic $/=\hat{e}/$ is hosted by a verb which ends in the vowel [a], the final vowel of the verb is deleted, as shown in (25).

4.3 VOWEL ASSIMILATION

Cross-linguistically, assimilation processes are very common. Kol has three active assimilation processes seen in vowels. A centralizing process targets mid vowels before nasals and alveolar fricatives, as described in 4.3.1. A raising process targets /e/ when it precedes or follows palatal consonants, as described in 4.3.2. A rounding process targets high front vowels in the environment of the labiovelar glide, as described in 4.3.3.

4.3.1 Vowel centralizing before nasals and alveolar fricatives

The mid vowels /e/ and /o/ are centralized before nasals, as shown by the examples below. Compare the phonetic forms on the right with those (minus a nasal) on the right.

(27) a. [bɨ-mpânc]
/bè-mpânj/
8-side
'sides'

b. [bè-kák]
/bè-kág/
8-child
'children'

c. [bá-nè]
/bó-nè/
2-that
'those'

d. [bó-bá] /bó-bá/ 2-two 'two' However, this centralization process is not exactly parallel for both mid vowels. To begin with they correlate to different central vowels, with the front mid vowel being both centralized and raised. Therefore, the mid vowels will be discussed independently below.

4.3.1.1 Centralization of the back mid vowel

The back mid vowel [o] becomes the mid central vowel [ə] when it appears before a nasal or a prenasalized stop.

| (28) | a. | [bá-nè] | b. | [bó-bá] |
|------|----|----------|-----------|----------|
| | | /bó-nè/ | | /bó-bá/ |
| | | 2-that | | 2-two |
| | | 'those' | | 'two' |
| | c. | [mà-ŋgà] | d. | [mó-lôl] |

'these' 'three'

The back mid vowel [o] is also centralized before the alveolar and

palatal fricatives. In (29) below, the same concord prefixes shown above are

/mó-lôl/

6-three

given before a modifier beginning with /s/.

/mò-ŋgà/ 6-this

(29) a. [bè-sís] b. [mè-sís]

/bò-sís/

2-another

'another, different'

'another, different'

Additionally, [o] is centralized before the palatal fricative, as shown by the nouns below. Compare the forms of the noun class prefixes on the left before /ʃ/ with those on the right before other consonants.

Teresa Heath notes for Makaa, a neighboring and related language, that:

"The fricatives are not prenasalized as in neighbouring languages such as Ewondo (A70). However, when z and zh occur medially or finally, they always occur following phonetically nasalized vowels. It may be that z and zh were prenasalized historically, but now the prenasalization is reflected in nasalation of the preceding vowels." (Heath 2003a:336)

Therefore, it may be a characteristic of this language family that the alveolar and palatal fricatives pattern with nasal consonants (nasal stops and prenasalized stops).

4.3.1.2 The front mid vowel

The front mid vowel [e] becomes the high central vowel [i] before nasals or prenasalized stops, as shown by the examples below.

(31) a. [bí ndé]
/bé ndé/
you (pl) be (loc)
'you are'

b. [bè fyál]

/bé fyál/
you (pl) test

'you test'

(32) a. [bɨ-mpânc]
/bè-mpânj/
8-side
'sides'

b. [bè-kák]
/bè-kág/
8-child
'children'

As was for the case for the other mid vowel /o/, this same centralizing process occurs before the alveolar and palatal fricatives /s/ and /{/.

(33) a. [bɨ-sá]
/bè-sá/
8-thing
'things'

b. [bè-kèkènà]/bè-kèkènà/8-proverb'proverbs'

c. [mà-ʃùk]
/mè-ʃùg/
4-stem, stalk
'stalks'

d. [mè-kâŋ]
/mè-kâŋ/
4-guinea fowl
'guinea fowl' (pl)

e. kwis /kwés/ 'cough' Interestingly, this process is consistently avoided by the class 5 noun prefix \hat{e} - (or $l\hat{e}$ -). Below are class 5 nouns which begin with a nasal, prenasalized stop or alveolar fricative. In none of these is the /e/ of the prefix ever centralized.

(34) lè-mpyàb

'wing'

è-nέk

'summit'

è-ntò

'crop (of bird)'

è-sêb

'illness'

4.3.2 Front mid vowel raising

Additionally, the front mid vowel /e/ may be raised (but not centralized) to [i] before or after palatal consonants.

(35) a. [mì-sùmb]

/mè-ſùmb/

4-brook, stream

'brooks'

b. [mè-lélà]

/mè-lélà/

4-shiver

'shivers'

c. [mì-njà]

/mè-njà/

4-intestine

'intestines'

d. [bì-jwàlà] e. [bè-kák]

/bè-jwàlà/ /bè-kág/

8-banana 8-child

'bananas' 'children'

f. [n-i] g. [m-é] he/she-P1 I-P1

Again, this raising process does not apply to the class 5 prefix, even though it contains the mid vowel /e/.

(36) lè-∫ù 'sake'
lè-∫wì 'death'
lè-cônj 'broom'
lè-jígé 'lesson'

Additionally, some speakers raise /e/ to [i] before the alveolar fricatives. This is may be because some dialects have /s/ where others have /ʃ/ as was noted in section 1.1. This also functions as a way for some speakers to maintain the distinction between what would otherwise be identical prefixes (for class 2 and class 8 or for class 4 and class 6) if both the /o/ and /e/ centralized to the schwa.

(37) a. [mì-sís] b. [mé-bá]
/mè-sís/ /mé-bá/
4-another 4-two
'other ones' 'two'

c. [bí-zùŋ] d. [bé-tón]
/bé-zùŋ/ /bé-tón/
8-our (dual) 8-five
'our' 'five'

However, it should be noted that these processes are optional, as shown below.

(38) a. [bì-sá] [bì-sá] [bè-sá] /bè-sá/
8-thing 'things'

b. [mì-sís] [mè-sís]
/mè-sís/
4-different
'different ones'

c. [mì-sísìm] [mò-sísìm]

/mè-sísìm/

4-spirit

'bad spirit'

4.3.3 High vowel Rounding

Additionally, the vowel /i/ is rounded when it precedes or follows the glide /w/.

(39) a. [w-úz] /w-íz/ 3-our 'our' b. [d-íz] /d-íz/ 5-our 'our'

c. [w-ún]
/w-ín/
3-your (pl)'your (pl)'

d. [b-ín]/b-ín/2-your (pl)'your (pl)'

Interestingly, this rounding process may target a derived [i] as shown below.

(40) a. $p = \acute{u}$ wàzà he-P1 forgot 'he forgot'

b. n=í bwògá
he-P1 collect
'he collect'

4.4 PHRASE-FINALLY

Cross-linguistically, a number of phonological processes occur at the end of a word or sentence. In Kol, the crucial environment is at the end of a sentence, i.e. before pause.

4.4.1.1 Devoicing

Kol obstruents are devoiced when they occur before pause.

| | míddle | before pause | gloss |
|------|--------|--------------|------------|
| (41) | dùg | dùk | 'forest' |
| | -ób | -óp | 'their' |
| | -êz | -ĉs | 'each,all' |

4.4.1.2 Phrase-final tone lowering

Intonationally, pitch is lowered at the end of phrase. The result is to have a low tone where one would expect a high or rising tone, or to have a superlow tone where one would expect a low tone.

- (42) $\mathfrak{n}=\mathfrak{i}$ sí ncò bárà. $\mathfrak{j}=\mathfrak{e}$ sè+ \mathfrak{h} ncò+ \mathfrak{h} bárà+ \mathfrak{h} he/she-P1 PERF come greet 'He came to greet.'
- (43) n=ă ncè dì dùk.

 n=á- ncè dì dùg

 he/she-P2- come stay 7-forest

 'He came to stay in the forest.'

4.5 TONE RULES

Tone rules in Kol almost always involve high tone – spreading, absorption or lowering. The only tone rule where a low tone is part of the trigger is downstep.

4.5.1 General tone association rules

Floating tones in Kol may associate to either the right or the left.

Though it appears that speakers have a choice as to the direction of association, in general, associations are made in such a way as to avoid downstep (described in section 4.5.1.2) and increase the number of tonal contours.

In example (44) below, the grammatical tone (marked by a +H) associates to the right, delinking the underlying low tone. The new floating low tone merges with the following low tone. The underlying high tone at the end of the sentence is lowered due to the phrase-final tone lowering rule described above. In (45), which is unattested, the grammatical tone associates to the left. This would result in a downstepped high tone, followed by two low tones. This is apparently less optimal than the attested (44).

(44) tóòb
$$\acute{a}=j=\grave{e}$$
 dí dùk. tóòb $\acute{a}=j\grave{i}=\grave{e}+H$ dì dùg 7-sheep NEG-be (att)-NEG stay 7-forest 'Sheep don't stay in the forest.'

(45) *tóòb
$$\acute{a}=j='\acute{e}$$
 dì dùk.
tóòb $\acute{a}=j\grave{i}=\grave{e}+H$ dì dǔg
7-sheep Neg-be (att)-Neg stay 7-forest
'Sheep don't stay in the forest.'

In the example below, the grammatical high tone associates to the left, merging with the previous high tone. If the grammatical tone had associated to the right, the result would be three high tones in a row. Again, merging the floating high tone with the high tone of the verb results in more variation in the overall tonal contour.

Again, in the example below, the grammatical high tone associates to the left, docking on the epenthetic vowel. If it had associated to the right, it would have resulted in an overal H-L-L-H contour, which is apparently less optimal than the H-L-H-L contour attested below.

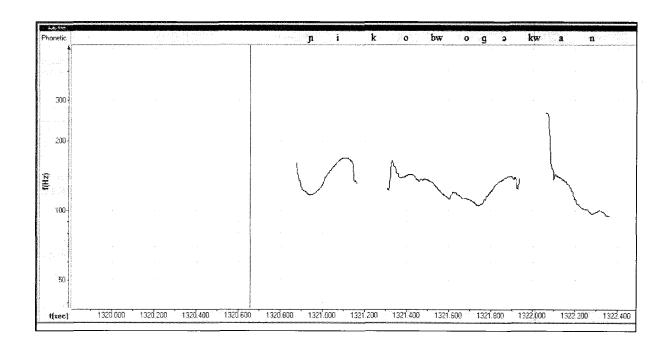
If a floating high tone associates to the left and the preceding tone is a low tone, it will delink the low tone and trigger downstep. This is described in the section below.

4.5.2 Downstep

In Kol, whenever there is a floating low tone between two high tones, the second high tone is lower than the first high tone. Most grammatical tones in Kol are high. In the example below, the grammatical tones marking the recent past tense (shown by + H) are added. The first tone associates to the left, delinking the underlying low tone of the verb ji 'be'. The resulting floating low tone triggers downstep on ji.

Below is another example of downstep, followed by a chart of its pitch contour. Note the drop between the tense vowel [i] and the following syllable $k\hat{o}$.

(49) $\mathfrak{n}=\mathfrak{i}$ k'ó bwògó kwàn. $\mathfrak{n}=\mathfrak{e}$ kò+H bwòg+H kwàn+H he/she-P1 go harvest 9-honey 'He went to harvest honey.'



4.5.3 Optional H tone absorption rule

In general, in Kol, if two underlying H's are next to each other on the tonal tier, the first H tone may be merged into the second. This has the effect of reducing the number of contour tones.

Paradigms of low tone verbs show that the underlying tone of the far past (P2) tense marker is a H tone, as shown in (49) and (50) below.

- (50) mw-ân dì ŋgùmbá fùm á dùgá ngùmbá mw-ân á dì dŭg fùm stay 7-forest entire 1-child P2 3-night 'The child stayed in the forest all night.'
- (51) $\mathfrak{n} = \check{a}$ nc $\grave{\partial}$ d \grave{i} d \grave{u} k. $\mathring{\mathfrak{n}} = \acute{a}$ nc $\grave{\partial}$ d \grave{i} d \check{u} g he/she-P2 come stay 7-forest

'He came to stay in the forest.'

Similarly, the underlying tone of the prefixal portion of the non-past negative marker is a H tone, as illustrated by the following examples.

- (52) $t\acute{o}\acute{o}b$ $\acute{a}=j=\grave{e}$ $d\acute{i}$ $d\grave{u}k$. $t\acute{o}\acute{o}b$ $\acute{a}=j\grave{i}=\grave{e}+H$ $d\grave{i}+H$ $d\check{u}g$ 7-sheep Neg-be (att)-Neg stay 7-forest

 'Sheep don't stay in the forest.'
- (53) n=ă=wàzà=yè.

 jì=á=wàzà=è+H

 he/she-NEG-forget-NEG

 'He doesn't forget.'

When these H tone grammatical markers precede a H tone verbs (or any lexically H tone morpheme), the H tones of the tense/negation may be absorbed into the H tone of the verb. The low tone of the subject pronoun remains on the vowel of the tense/negation marker. Examples (53) and (54)

illustrate what happens with the underlyingly H tone of the far past marker precedes a high tone verb. Example (54) also illustrates the schwa epenthesis rule.

- (54) mbwá làngé n=à bárà mùr.

 mbwá làngé n=á bárà m-ùr

 3-year last he/she-P2 greet 1-man

 'Last year, he greeted the man.'
- (55) mbwá làngé $n = \lambda$ bínà ŋồ. mbwá làŋgé $\hat{\mathbf{n}} = \hat{\mathbf{a}}$ bín лò 3-year last he/she-P2 raise him/her 'Last year, he lifted him up.'

Below, examples (56) and (57) illustrate what happens with the H tone of the prefixal portion of the non-past negative marker precedes a H tone verb.

- (56) $n = \hat{a} = b \acute{a} r \grave{a} = y \grave{e}$ nán m-ûr. $n \grave{a} = \acute{a} = b \acute{a} r \grave{a} = \grave{e}$ nán m-ùr he-Neg-greet-Neg + H more + H 1-man 'He doesn't greet the man anymore.'
- (57) múùz, $n = \hat{a} = d\acute{e}g = \acute{e}$ lè-kán. múùz $\hat{n} = \acute{a} = d\acute{e}g = \grave{e}$ lè-kán today he-Neg-see-Neg + H 5-antelope 'Today, he didn't see the antelope.'

This absorption process is optional, as may be seen by the examples below where it fails to apply.

- (58) n=ă bárà mùr.
 n̂=á bárà m-ùr
 he-P2 greet 1-man
 'He greeted the man.'
- (59) n=ă bínà nồ.

 n=á bîn nò

 he/she-P2 raise him/her

 'He raised him.'

This process is not restricted to these two markers, but it may occur with any H tone. Below are examples illustrating a similar process with the near future tense marker \acute{e} and the present tense marker \acute{o} .

- (60) n=è bwó bárà.

 jì=é bwó+н bárà+н

 he/she-Fuт F2 greet

 'He will greet.'
- (61) $m = \hat{o}$ lén lòŋ $m = \acute{a}$ jôk nà dêk kwár-é. $\hat{m} = \hat{o}$ $l\acute{\epsilon}\eta + H$ lòŋ+н $m = \acute{a}$ H+jwôg kwád-è. nò dêg I-PRES tell 5-speech RELCL-hear I-P2 and see 9-village-RELCL 'I tell about what I heard and saw in the village.'

4.5.3.1 Polar tone

The Near Past (or P1) tense marker *e* is unique in the Kol Tense-Aspect-Mode (TAM) system in that it appears to be a polar tone, sensitive to the underlying tone of the word on its right.

- (62)ndé ké dùló m = esìgá... $\dot{m} = \acute{e}$ ndé+н ké+н dùlà+н sìgá I-P1 be (loc) NEG smoke (v) cigarette 'I neither smoked (..nor drank).' (Illness.15)
- (63) p = ibà lé ncò... kǎbò bìyà. n=1 $\hat{\mathbf{n}} = \hat{\mathbf{e}}$ $H + \epsilon d$ lè+н ncò+н kăbò $\hat{\mathbf{n}} = \hat{\mathbf{e}}$ bìyà + H he/she-P1 be **IMPF** come but he/she-P1be.seized 'He was coming but he got caught (in route).'

However, an alternative description would be that the Near Past tense marker has an underlying H tone but that this is the only tense that requires the normally optional H tone absorption rule.

(64)n=ij!í ncò... kǎbò míyòŋ sé yò. míyàŋ $\hat{\mathbf{n}} = \hat{\mathbf{e}}$ jì +н ncò+н kăbò yò+H sè+н he/she-P1 be(att) but 1-brother come PERF die 'He was coming but his brother died.' (coming to see his brother)

It is more elegant to have an already existing rule be required by a particular morphological environment than it is to posit a completely new kind of tone in the Kol tonal system.

4.6 LEXICAL VS. POSTLEXICAL PHONOLOGY

The table below organizes the rules discussed above by the domain in which they apply.

| Between morphemes | Between words and clitics | Post-lexical |
|----------------------|---------------------------|---------------------|
| Glide creation | Glide insertion | Glide insertion |
| | Vowel deletion | Vowel epenthesis |
| Vowel raising | Vowel raising | |
| Vowel rounding | Vowel rounding | |
| Vowel centralizing | Vowel centralizing | |
| | H tone absorption | H tone spreading |
| | | Final tone lowering |
| | | Final devoicing |
| | Downstep | Downstep |

3 Morphosyntax of the Noun Phrase

Simple noun roots in Kol may be monosyllabic or disyllabic. Nouns longer than two syllables are derived from verbs or other nouns. Simple noun roots have the following shapes: CV, VC, CVC, VCV, CVCV, and CVCVC. For the examples below, most occur with a zero noun class prefix. (This is possible for all singular classes; see section 1 below for details.) Noun class membership is given in parentheses.

(1) CV roots¹

dá 'father, ancestor' (1)

kù 'foot' (5)

ſû 'fish' (1)

CVC roots VC roots

dìg 'bush (land), rural area' (7) mw-ân 'child, offspring' (1)

kág 'child' (7) m-ùr 'person, man' (1)

¹ There are 110 CV roots, 2 CVV roots, 3 VC roots, 399 CVC roots, 38 CVVC roots, 3 VCV roots, 205 CVCV roots, 4 CVVCV roots, 43 CVCVC roots, 1 CVVCVCV root, 58 CVCVCV roots and 2 CVCVCVCV roots in the lexicon.

CVCV roots

VCV roots

è-wàlà 'hour' (5)

mw-àrá

'woman, wife' (1)

kálá

'goat' (7)

kúbò

'chicken' (1)

CVCVC roots

fàfèm

'wall' (7)

tútúl

'old man' (3)

sísìm

'soul, spirit' (3)

There are also roots which have been created from complex verb stems. These are primarily CVCVCV roots. Derived nouns are described in more detail in section 5.

1 Noun Classes

Kol nouns are distributed among 10 noun classes. This is a relatively small number of noun classes when compared to the amount found in some eastern Bantu languages, and many of the noun class prefixes are themselves phonologically reduced.

The table below shows the prefixes which mark each noun class, as well as the ways in which the noun classes are grouped in singular/plural pairs (or genders).

| | | Singular | | | | Plural | |
|---|---------|----------|-----------------|----|-----------------|---------|------------------|
| 1 | Ø | kól | 'sister of man' | 2 | bò- | bò-kól | 'sisters' |
| | mw- | mw-àrá | 'woman' | | | bw-àrá | 'women' |
| | m- | m-ùr | 'man, person' | | b- | b-ùr² | 'men, people' |
| 3 | Ø | mbìl | 'hole' | 4 | mè- | mè-mbìl | 'holes' |
| 5 | è-, lè- | è-bùrà | 'sweet potato' | 6 | mò- | mò-bùrà | 'sweet potatoes' |
| | Ø | kù | 'foot' | | | mò-kù | 'feet' |
| | d- | d-û | 'nose' | | m- | m-û | 'noses' |
| 7 | Ø | kág | 'child' | 8 | bè- | bè-kág | 'children' |
| 7 | Ø | bùmó | 'fruit' | 10 | m- ³ | m-pùmó | 'fruits' |
| 9 | Ø | kwád | 'village' | 6 | mò- | mò-kwád | 'villages' |

Table 3.1 Noun Class Prefixes (NPx) and Gender Pairings

Some speakers reduce the distinctions among the plural prefixes, saying [mè-] for both class 4 and class 6 noun prefixes and [bè-] for both class 2 and class 8. This is probably due to a reinterpretation of the mid vowel centralization rule.

² May also appear as [bwùr], unlike the singular which never occurs as *[mwùr].

³ Class 10 is marked by a homorganic nasal prefix as well as devoicing of the initial root consonant. See section 1.6.

There are semantic tendencies for some of the noun classes. These will be discussed below, along with the phonological conditioning of the different forms of the noun prefixes.

1.1 CLASSES 1/2

Nouns indicating people tend to be found in classes 1/2, though a few nouns referring to people can be found in classes 3/4, 7/8 and 9. Below are singular and plural pairings of Kol class 1 and 2 nouns. Singulars (class 1) are given first, followed by their plurals, and then the gloss.

| (2) | mw-àrá | bw-àrá | 'woman' |
|-----|--------|-------------|-------------------------|
| | m-ùr | bw-ùr, b-ùr | 'man, person' |
| | kól | bò-kól | 'sister (to a brother)' |
| | mw-ân | bw-ân | 'child, offspring' |

However, not all nouns found in classes 1 and 2 are people. It is also common to find animals in this gender.

| (3) | kúbò | bò-kúbò | 'chicken' |
|-----|------|---------|-----------|
| | ∫û | bò-∫û | 'fish' |

Additionally, there a number of inanimate nouns found in class 1 with their plurals in class 2.

(4) kwòndó bò-kwòndó 'stripe (insignia of rank)'

ʃùmó bò-ʃùmó 'construction (site)'

wàl bò-wàl 'cookie'

Class 1 nouns which begin with a consonant are zero-marked, as shown above. These nouns are marked by the class 2 marker $b\hat{o}$ - in the plural.

Before most vowel-initial roots, the class 1 marker is *mw*- and the class 2 prefix surfaces as *bw*-. For the class 2 prefix it is clear that there is an [o] in the underlying form of the prefix which is glided before most vowel-initial noun roots. This may also be true for class 1 nouns, but since consonant-initial roots are zero-marked, the form /mo-/ never appears in a surface form.

(5) mw-ân bw-ân 'child, offspring'

If the noun root begins with a [u], the class 1 prefix surfaces as m-, while the vowel of the class 2 prefix is optionally deleted. If the vowel is not deleted, then it is glided. This is shown below in example (7).

(6) m-ùr bw-ùr, b-ùr 'man, person'

Some speakers have an additional allomorph for the class 2 prefix, namely [bà-]. This allomorph occurs before nasals and the alveolar fricative.

(While this may not seem like a natural class cross-linguistically, it is common

for the alveolar fricative to trigger similar changes to neighboring vowels as nasals in both Kol and at least one neighboring and closely related language.

See chapter 2 for more information on Kol phonology.)

1.2 CLASSES 3/4

There is no clear semantic tendency for the nouns found in classes 3 and

4. Below are some sample nouns.

| (8) | mbìl | mè-mbìl | 'hole' |
|-----|------|---------|-------------|
| | sìlò | mè-sìlò | 'girl' |
| | nòŋ | mè-nòŋ | 'kilometer' |

Class 3 nouns are zero-marked. However, a number of class 3 nouns begin with a nasal, which may be a remnant of the historical *mu- class 3 noun prefix. The vowel of the historical prefix *mu- has been lost completely, and the nasal has assimilated in place to the initial root consonant.

⁴ This French loan still has the French vowel and not one of the eight Kol vocalic phonemes.

| (9) | mbì | mà-mbì | 'type, sort' |
|-----|-------|----------|--------------|
| | mbìl | mè-mbìl | 'hole' |
| | njà | mì-njà | 'intestines' |
| | njáb | mè-njáb | 'house' |
| | njônd | mì-njônd | 'trip' |

In contrast to the consistent zero-marking of class 3, the class 4 prefix has 3 common allomorphs: [mè-], [m-], and [mè-]. [mè-] occurs in the widest number of phonological environments and will therefore be considered to be the underlying form. In addition, for a number of nouns, the other two allomorphs alternate with [mè-].

| (10) | kâŋ | mè-kâŋ | 'guinea fowl' |
|------|-------|--------------------|---------------|
| | mìr | mà-mìr, mè-mìr | 'medicine' |
| | njà | mì-njà, mè-njà | 'intestine' |
| | sísìm | mì-sísìm, mò-sísìm | 'bad spirit' |

However, generalizations can be made as to where the latter two allomorphs occur, namely that $[m\hat{\sigma}]$ - occurs before nasals and the alveolar fricatives, while $[m\hat{\iota}]$ occurs before palatals (and the alveolar fricatives for some speakers).

1.3 CLASSES 5/6

Semantically, classes 5 and 6 are more homogenous than classes 3/4.

Many (but not all) nouns referring to body parts belong to classes 5/6

Classes 5/6 also include many nouns referring to trees and plants, as shown below.

| (12) | è-bùrà | mò-bùrà | 'sweet potato' |
|------|--------|---------|------------------|
| | d-úmó | m-úmó | 'kapok tree' |
| | è-lát | mò-lát | 'palm tree' |
| | è-lòb | mò-lòb | 'blade of grass' |

Additionally, the infinitives in Kol are marked with the class 5 noun prefix, and some nouns found today in classes 5/6 are derived from infinitival verbs.

Modifiers marking infinitives take class 5 concord markers as shown by the associative phrase example below.

(14) ê-fyâl lé-ʃùkúl

INF-exit 5Assoc-school

'school leaving' or 'graduation'

Finally, the class 6 prefix is used to mark a number of mass nouns which have no singular counterpart.

However, the semantic tendencies given above still do not completely account for the members of classes 5/6, as shown below.

Phonologically there is a wide range of variation in the way that class 5 nouns are marked. They may be marked with a d- prefix, with a $l\hat{e}$ - prefix (which alternates with \hat{e} -) or zero marked. In spite of the different noun class prefixes, these nouns all trigger the same concord marking on their modifiers, showing that they do indeed belong to the same class.

Many class 5/6 nouns begin with the alveolar consonants {d, l}. This is not surprising since the proto noun prefix for class 5 has been reconstructed as *di, and many *d's correspond to /l/ in Kol. (For more information on the historical development of Kol, see chapter seven.) However, these two initial consonants behave very differently, as shown below in (16).

[d-] functions as an allomorph of the class 5 marker for vowel-initial roots. It always corresponds to the plural allomorph [m-] of class 6. Below is a full list of the pertinent nouns.

| d-úmó | m-úmó | 'kapok tree' |
|-------|--------|--------------|
| d-ŭnj | m-ŭnj | 'fist |
| d-úŋò | m-úŋɔ̀ | 'pelican' |
| d-úúg | m-úúg | 'beak' |
| dw-ób | m-ób | 'day' |

However, class 5 nouns that begin with a consonant can be split into two lexical classes. In one, the synchronic noun prefix is \emptyset , while for the other class, the synchronic noun prefix is \grave{e} (or \grave{le}). All zero-marked class 5 nouns begin with [1] as shown below.

| (20) | làg | mò-làg | 'horn' |
|------|------|---------|---------------|
| | làl | mò-làl | 'ethnic area' |
| | lárà | mò-lárà | 'difficulty' |
| | lôŋ | mò-lôŋ | 'speech' |
| | lû | mò-lû | 'head' |
| | lùt | mò-lùt | 'wrinkle' |
| | lùùg | mò-lùùg | 'dew' |
| | lwô | mò-lwĵ | 'ear' |
| | lwùŋ | mò-lwùŋ | 'beehive' |

Other class 5 nouns beginning with /l/ behave like the majority of class 5 nouns and are marked with the $l\hat{e}$ - prefix (which alternates with \hat{e} -).

| (21) | è-lâmb | mò-lâmb | 'trap' |
|------|---------|---------|----------------------|
| | è-lát | mò-lớt | 'palm tree' |
| | è-lòb | mò-lòb | 'blade of grass' |
| | è-lúnd | | 'palmnut tree' |
| | lè-lúŋò | mò-lúŋò | 'woven construction' |
| | lè-lwí | mò-lwí | 'insult' |

In addition to the zero prefix and the *d*- prefix, the class 5 marker has an additional two forms, [*lè-]* and [*è-]*, which occur with all non-liquid-initial roots. These two are in complementary distribution with each other with [*è-]* appearing after words ending in a consonant and [*lè-]* appearing after words ending in a vowel. The following examples are taken from a single folktale, about a serpent and an antelope.

- (22) a. #è-kán mớ ncò 5-antelope be (chg) come 'Antelope came.'
 - b. ɲə̀ nə̀ lè-kán
 he with 5-antelope
 'he and Antelope'

Speakers vary as to which form they use after pause, suggesting that the choice of the underlying form varies from speaker to speaker. Speakers themselves are aware that there are two forms, though they do not seem to be

aware of individual variation due to phonotactics. Some suggest that others are lazy and 'drop' the /l/, while others suggest that those who 'add' the /l/ are imitating the French definite article *le*. Historically, *[lè-]* is the more conservative form, being the most clearly derived from the historical prefix *di-.

It is interesting that the class 5 marker does not participate in the otherwise regular centralization (or raising) process triggered by the front mid vowel /e/.

The class 6 marker also has two allomorphs, $[m\delta-]$ and $[m\delta-]$. As is the case for the preceding plural markers discussed, the non-reduced vowel allomorph, that is to say $m\delta-$, occurs in the widest number of phonological environments and is therefore the underlying form. The allomorph $m\delta-$ occurs before nasals, just as was seen above with respect to the other plural marker allomorphs.

Class 6 also has some "double-marked" nouns. These appear to have belonged to class 10 at one point. (Class 10 nouns are marked with an initial

voiceless prenasalized stop.) However, these nouns are now marked with the class 6 plural marker and trigger class 6 concord.

(23) Double-marked nouns

| bâl | mè-mpâl | 'bowl' |
|------|----------|-------------------|
| bé | mè-mpé | 'toilet, latrine' |
| díbá | mě-ntĭbě | 'brook, fountain' |
| dĭg | mð-ntǐg | 'bush (land)' |
| bòòg | mà-mpòòg | 'hoe' |

1.4 CLASSES 7/8

Class 7 is the default class for inanimate objects.

However, there are some exceptions to this trend, as shown below.

Class 7 nouns are consistently zero-marked, but the class 8 noun prefix marker has three allomorphs, parallel to what was seen for class 4: [bè-], [bì-], and [bà-].

| (26) | (26) kùndá bè-kùndá | | 'cultivated ground' |
|------|---------------------|----------------------|---------------------|
| | ntwòmb | bè-ntwòmb, bè-ntwòmb | 'fight' |
| | sá | bè-sá, bì-sá | 'thing' |

Begne (1980) consistently marks the plural of class 7 nouns as beginning with $b\hat{r}$. In my corpus, the pattern for class 8 is very similar to that seen for the class 4 noun prefix. [$b\hat{e}$ -] occurs in the widest number of phonological environments (as was the case for the class 4 allomorph [$m\hat{e}$ -]) and will therefore be considered to be the underlying form. [$b\hat{e}$ -] occurs before nasals and the alveolar fricatives, while [$b\hat{i}$ -] primarily occurs before palatals (or for some speakers the alveolar fricatives).

| (27) | ntwòmb | bè-ntwòmb, bà-ntwòmb | 'fight' |
|------|---------|----------------------|----------|
| | míshwàn | bà-míshwàn | 'church' |
| | sí | bè-sí | 'land' |
| | sá | bìsá, bèsá | 'thing' |
| | ſwêl | bì-∫wêl | 'lizard' |
| | jwàlà | bì-jwàlà | 'banana' |

1.5 CLASS 9

Classes 9 and 10 are identical in their concord agreement. They have been kept distinct in this analysis because class 9 nouns are singular, with

their plurals formed in class 6, while class 10 nouns are all collective nouns (and therefore plural), primarily formed from class 7 stems.

Below are some examples of class 9 nouns with their corresponding class 6 plurals.

Many class 9 nouns have a prenasalized stop as their initial consonant.

This is probably a historic remnant from the Proto-Bantu class 9/10 noun

prefix which has been reconstructed as a non-syllabic homorganic nasal.

In contrast to class 10 nouns, discussed below, class 9 nouns begin with both voiced and voiceless prenasalized stops. However, a few of the derived nouns which end up in class 9 show evidence of the devoicing process seen with class 10 nouns.

(30) bwâg 'be big' mpwàag 'bigness, fatness' (9)

dúgè 'agonize' ntǔgě 'agony' (9)

jàm 'destroy' ncàm 'leprosy (destroyer)' (9)

1.6 CLASS 10

As was noted above, class 10 nouns are all plural. All class 10 nouns begin with a voiceless prenasalized stop, which is in part a reflex of the homorganic nasal prefix reconstructed for both class 9 and class 10 nouns in Proto-Bantu. However, for those nouns which have a singular form, a difference can be seen between the historic nasal prefix and the synchronic situation in that the class 10 plural is marked both by a prenasalization and a devoicing of the initial consonant, as shown by the example below.

(31) Class 7/10 nouns

bàanj mpàanj 'bamboo stick'
búúmb mpúúmb 'palm branch'
bùùnd mpùùnd 'skin of fruit'
bùmó mpùmó 'fruit'

Some nouns contrast a countable class 8 plural and an uncountable class 10 plural, as shown below.

(32) class 7/8 bùùnd 'skin, shell' bèbùùnd (as in eggshells) class 10 mpùùnd (as in peanut shells)

Oddly enough, all the class 10 nouns in my lexicon also begin with /mp/ as can be seen below.

(33) mpùmó 'fruits'

mpwing 'problems'

mpànj 'bamboo'

mpí 'palmnuts'

mpìgibà 'suppository'

mpyèl 'trousers'

mpúgá 'fracture'

mpwěj 'corn grain'

2 Pronouns

Pronouns in Kol are marked for noun class, number and person. They do not mark gender (masculine vs. feminine). Personal pronouns (first and second person) are extremely common in Kol discourse, as are third person pronouns for classes 1 and 2, with pronouns for the other classes occurring much less frequently. First and second person pronouns are reserved for human referents or for animal protaganists in folk tales and proverbs.

Coordinate noun phrases which include a pronoun (e.g. he and she) require that the first pronoun be plural, to reflect the plurality of the entire

group. In these constructions, the third person pronoun is replaced by the noun $n \acute{o}b$ meaning 'other,' $b \grave{o}n \acute{o}b$ in the plural. It is interesting that this morpheme bears a strong resemblance to the genitive stem for 'their,' i.e. $-\acute{o}b$.

- (34) a. bɨzɨ nób 'we (dual)'
 - b. bɨzá bà-nób 'we (plural)'
 we 2-other

In the example sentence below, the narrator refers to a time when he and his wife were both gravely ill but recovered.

(35) bw = á ʃùŋà bɨzə́ nób bə́-b-ɛ̂z.

they-P2 discuss us other 2-2-each, all

'They saved both of us.' [intended 'me and her, each of us'] (Joy.37)

It is interesting to note that this construction does not require that the second participant also be referred to by means of a pronoun, as in the example above. In the example below, the second participant in the coordinate subject noun phrase is a full noun.

(36)mà= nŝ "kí náŋ nè d-úl dw-áp twò still even,if 5-another 5-day me that neg and lè-sís, bìzá nà mà-nók é kwó bwàmè." 5-different we and 4-wine fut again meet 'I said that, "Never again will wine and I meet." (Perils.97)

2.1 SUBJECT PRONOUNS

Personal pronouns are common in Kol discourse. When the tense marker immediately follows a pronoun, the pronoun cliticizes to the tense marker, forming a single phonological unit.

(37) é-màn-é n=ě bárà m-ûr.

on-morning-Foc he/she-F1 greet 1-person

'Tomorrow, he will greet the man.'

When a full noun phrase (NP) is present as the subject of a clause, no additional subject marker is required, as shown in (38) and (39). This is evidence that these morphemes are not subject agreement markers.

- (38) lè-wúg á bà lé-byôl.

 5-hole P2 be in-canoe

 'There was a hole in the canoe.'
- (39) mpú é bándà nwî.7-rain FUT really fall (rain)'It will certainly rain.'

However, when the subject noun phrase is longer than a single noun, a subject pronoun may also be used, as shown below.

(40) mò-kwàbèlá mé-nè mw=ô sé yè nó fòk.
6-problem 6-that (spec) 6-Pres Perf give him/her 9-wisdom
'Those problems gave him wisdom.'

(41) bì-mpáànc by-áŋ by = â sè bà fùbán 8-side (of body) 8-my 8-P2 PERF be (be) clean 'My sides were clean.'

A table giving the subject pronouns is below. The first person dual is obligatorily inclusive, referring only to the speaker and the hearer. If the hearer is not included, the speaker must use *bìzó*, even if only referring to himself and one other person.

| | Singular | Plural |
|------------------------------|----------|--------|
| 1 st person excl. | m = . | bìzó |
| incl. | | bìzá |
| dual incl. | | ncwà |
| 2 nd person | w= | bé |
| 3 rd person (1/2) | n= | bwó |
| 3/4 | w= | myò |
| 5/6 | dw= | mwò |
| 7/8 | jw= | byò |
| 9/10 | n= | bwò |
| Non-ref | y= | |

Table 3.2 Subject Pronouns

The last pronoun given is a non-referential pronoun. It is commonly used in cleft constructions. An example of its use is given below.

(42) yớ = jì kònòkò nô mpú é nwì.

Non-ref Sub be (att) true that 7-rain F1 fall (rain)

'It is certain that it will rain.'

Subject pronouns are analyzed as clitics, as syntactic words (not affixes) who are not independent phonological words. Most subject pronouns can be analyzed as being phonologically reduced. If they appear before the vowel initial tense markers, they form a phonological unit with the tense markers, as can be seen in (43). However, if subject pronouns appear before a consonant-initial word, the regular schwa epenthesis rule applies, as shown in (44).

- (43) by = á lè dì njì lé-mò-kôk

 8SUB-P2 IMPF stay only in-6-enclosure

 'They [animals] stayed only in enclosures.' (*History*.10)

Subject agreement markers are typically prefixes, but syntactically, Kol subject pronouns do not act like prefixes. If they were prefixes, we would anticipate that they would have specific selectional requirements. However,

subject pronouns may appear before any element in the verbal sequence, e.g. tense markers, verbs, adverbs, or even a prepositional phrase, as shown below.

(45) mà = nò kwó ncà tér lè-jwák bè-wàl.

I with again come start INF-feel 8-fear

'I started to be afraid.'

To summarize, since subject markers can be analyzed as phonologically reduced and do not have the strict selectional criteria of affixes, they can be analyzed as clitics.

2.2 OBJECT PRONOUNS

Object pronouns may only appear after the verb stem. They may not occur before the verb.

(46)těm bé-dóp bwá = á bà sá wú m = ăncógó yîm byò. nà 8-food be they-P2 do there I-NEGP2 even can and eat 8O_BJ 'I couldn't even eat the food that they prepared there.' (*Joy.*08)

| | Normal | | Emphatic | |
|------------------------------|----------|--------------------|----------|--------|
| | Singular | Plural | Singular | Plural |
| 1 st person | mò | b ì zə́ | mè | |
| incl | | b ì zá | | |
| dual | | ncwà | | |
| 2 nd person | wò | bè | wè | |
| 3 rd person (1/2) | лò | bwò | лè | bwέ |
| 3/4 | wò | myò | wέ | myέ |
| 5/6 | dwò | mwò | dwέ | mwé |
| 7/8 | yò, jwò | byò | jwé | byé |
| 9 or 10 | лò | лò | ηwέ | ηwέ |

Table 3.3 Postverbal Object Pronouns

Kol has an emphatic form which is in complementary distribution with the normal form for almost every class, but not necessarily for every person.

(47) bé túgó lé númbò nš
you (pl) Neg IMPF know him (EMPH)
'You don't know it (the giraffe).' (*History*.07)

2.3 REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS

These pronouns, which mean 'him alone' are formed by adding **mé** to the emphatic form of the object pronoun. Personal pronoun versions use a reduplicated form of the emphatic object pronoun.

(48) m=ăncógó náŋ lè jwógərà mè mè mé
I-NEGP2 still IMPF feel me me self
I didn't feel like myself anymore.

| | Singular | Plural |
|------------------------------|----------------------------------|------------|
| 1 st person | mè mè mé | bìzá bé mé |
| dual | | ncwá mè |
| 2 nd person | wê wê mé | bé bè mé |
| 3 rd person (1/2) | ກ _e ກ _e mé | bwè bwè mé |
| 3/4 | wé mé | myé mé |
| 5/6 | dwé mé | mwé mé |
| 7/8 | jwέ mé | byé mé |
| 9 or 10 | ກ _w é mé | ŋwέ mé |

Table 3.4 Exclusive Pronouns

2.4 LOCATIVE PRONOUN

The locative pronoun $t\acute{e}$ is unlike the other pronouns in that it bears no resemblance to either the object pronoun stems or to the concord markers. However, it functions as a pronoun in that it replaces noun phrases referring to a location. It is invariable. Its form does not change in accordance with the noun class of the head noun in the locative noun phrase that it replaces. Below is an excerpt from a text.

(49) Té bó m=á tér bì-syé.

Loc be I-P2 start 8-work

'That's where I started my job.'

Antecedents for the locative pronoun can be proper nouns, one of Kol's locative nouns, or a non-locative noun modified by the locative prefix *lé*-. A partial list of locative nouns is given below.

Kol has a distinction in its locatives meaning 'here' between a specific location and a general location. There are two words used: *kôg* and *wôg*. The former is used to refer to a general location, while the latter is used to refer to a specific location and is frequently accompanied by a gesture indicating the location referred to. Below are some examples.

(51) $m\hat{a} = j\hat{i}$ kàn lé-bì-sá bízá ndé lé dêk n^wàŋ wó Ι take want in-8-thing you story H + webe (loc) IMPF see wók ná t∫ààŋgà bèmíjòn nà b-íz-é. 2-brother that with 2-our-RELCL here 'I will tell you a story about something that we see here today with our brothers.'

(52) "és kà mà = jì nò ŋkùl yà wógà?"

est-ce que I be with power die here (spec.)

"Will I die here?" (Illness.23)

Example (51) above also illustrates the locative prefix *lé*- which can be glossed as 'in, on, or about.' Another example is given below.

(53) "mpwàm bà wók lé-mbìl gă ?"

python be here Loc-hole this

"The serpent was here in this hole?" (Serpent.026)

Additionally, some of these locative nouns can function as locative particles or prepositions. One example of this is *si* whose primary sense is 'ground, earth.' However, *si* is also used to express 'down,' as in example (54) and 'under' as in example (55).

- (54)mà= ji = kbúŋ má kó kò jâ sí. ji = g + H bùŋ kò kò jâ mà= H+mà sí ask-Subj place RelCl-I go go lie 1-earth '[I didn't have enough sense to] ask where I could go lie down.' (Perils.36)
- (55) $n \hat{\theta} = n \hat{\Omega} = \eta k$ sì jwòŋ. $n \hat{\theta} = n \hat{\Omega} = g + H$ sí jwòŋ and I enter-SUBJ 1-earth bed '...and should I go under the bed?

3 Concord systems

Noun modifiers (such as determiners, demonstratives and possessives/genitives) agree with the class of the head noun. Kol does not have a large set of adjectives, but those that it does have do not show any concord with the head noun.

There are two large categories of concord systems which are phonologically determined. One pattern has a different prefix for every noun class (except for class 9 and class 10 which share the same concord marker). This pattern is found for all of the vowel-initial modifier stems, i.e. determiners, genitives, pronouns and the words for 'which' and 'each, all.'

The second pattern is found with all consonant-initial modifier stems. It only marks plurals (numerals and the interrogative 'how many') or marks plurals and the single class 5 (demonstratives, associative markers, and the word for 'different'). Below is a chart showing concord prefixes for those modifiers which mark every noun class. The singular class 1 exhibits the most variation. It has three different prefix possibilities with slightly different distributions. The concord markers for class 1 differ from those for class 3

only when it comes to the indefinite determiner and the interrogative 'which'.

They share the same prefix for the definite determiner, all genitives, and the quantifier 'each, all.'

| Noun Class | indefinite determiner & 'which' | definite determiner & genitives | 3sg genitive & 'each, all' | Example phras | e |
|---------------|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|----------------------------------|--|---|
| 1 | n- | W- | y- | núlègà mwàrá ntúm wàn mùr yêz | 'another woman' 'my brother' 'each person' |
| 2 | b- | b- | b- | bwàrá bòŋgɔ́ | 'those women' |
| 3 | w- | w- | у- | myà wòŋgó njáb yé | 'that time' 'his house' |
| 4 | mi- | mìy- | me- [my-] | mílàgà mámyà mènjáb mìyàngá mènjáb myó | 'certain times' 'those houses' 'your (sg) houses' |
| 5 | d- | d- | d- | dwób dòŋgɔ́ | 'that day' |
| 6 | m- | m- | m- | mób mêz | 'all the days' |
| 7 | j- | j- | j- | kág jíz | 'our child' |
| 8 | be- | biy- | be- [by-] | bàkág byób | 'their children' |
| 9 | n- | n- | n- | ло́b kwád | 'which village?' |
| 10 | n- | n- | n- | <i>πρὰπό ɲε̂z</i> | 'all fruit' |

Table 3.5 Concord Pattern 1 – before V-initial stems

Below is a chart showing the concord prefixes which exhibit the second pattern, where most singular noun classes are zero-marked.

| Noun Class | demonstratives, associative markers, 'another' | numerals, how many | Example phrase |
|---------------|--|-----------------------|--|
| 1 | | | |
| 2 | bò- | bò- | bwàrá bóná 'four women' |
| 3 | | | |
| 4 | mè- | mè- | mèmyà métón 'five times' mènjáb mìsís 'different houses' |
| 5 | lè- | | èbùrá lèsís 'a different potato' |
| 6 | mè- | mò- | mòkwád màŋgà 'those villages' mòbùrá móníyé 'how many sweet potatoes?' |
| 7 | | | |
| 8 | bè- | bè- | bèsá bìsís 'different things' bèkág béná 'four children' |
| 9 | | | : |
| 10 | | | |

Table 3.6 Concord Pattern 2 - before C-initial stems

4 Modifiers

Kol is an SVO language. In general, Kol phrases are head-initial. For example, objects follow verbs, and complements of prepositions follow the preposition. While most noun phrases in Kol are head-initial, there are also three modifers which precede the head. These preposed modifiers tend to

give new information or request new information. Additionally, when demonstratives or genitives are put in focus, they are moved from their default position after the noun to a position before the noun.

4.1 DETERMINERS

Kol has both an indefinite and a definite determiner. The determiners always agree with the noun class of the noun they modify. They follow the first concord pattern described above because both stems begin with a vowel.

| Class | Definite | Indefinite | Examples | |
|-------|----------------------|------------|----------------------|---------------------------|
| | -ວ້າງgວ໌ | -úlègà | | |
| 1 | wàŋgś | núlègà | núlègà mwàrá | 'a certain woman' |
| 2 | bòŋgó | bílègà | bwàrá bòŋgó | 'the women' |
| 3 | wòŋgó | wúlègà | wúlègà mbì | 'a certain ty p e' |
| 4 | mìyòŋgó | mílègà | mènjáb mìyòngó | 'the houses' |
| 5 | dòŋgó | dúlègà | dwób dòŋgɔ́ | 'the day' |
| 6 | mòŋgó | mílègà | mòkwád mòŋgɔ́ | 'the villages' |
| 7 | jàŋgś | júlègà | júlègà kèkènà | 'a certain proverb' |
| 8 | bìyàŋgá | bílègà | bènún bìyòngó | 'the birds' |
| 9 | ກວ້າງgວ໌ | núlègà | núlàgà kwád | 'a certain village' |
| 10 | _{ກວ້} ກູຊວ໌ | núlègà | <i>πρὰπό ɲɔ̀ŋgɔ́</i> | 'the fruits' |

Table 3.7 Kol Determiners

The definite determiner /-ɔngɔ/ is used to refer to old or given information, e.g. 'the aforementioned.' The indefinite determiner /-úləgà/ is used to introduce new participants in a text, and is generally glossed as 'a certain, another.' The definite determiner always occurs after the head noun, while the indefinite determiner always occurs before the head noun.

Both determiners may be abbreviated without any change of meaning. The full form of $n\hat{u}l\partial g\hat{a}$ for example may be abbreviated as $n\hat{u}l\partial g\hat{a}$ or $n\hat{u}l\partial g\hat{a}$. The definite determiner may be abbreviated as $b\partial g$ instead of $b\partial gg\hat{a}$.

The definite determiner may be used pronominally, as shown in the following example. When this occurs, the initial vowel is lengthened, and the final vowel is deleted.

(56) bw-ân jì boǒng mó míyòn w-ànó.

2-child be(att) 2-Def 2-Poss 1-sibling 1-my

'The children are my nieces and nephews.' (lit. those of my younger sibling)

This pronominal form of the definite determiner can itself be modified as shown by the examples below.

(57) a. ê-j-ɔ̀ɔngə́ j-é.

Loc-7-Def 7-his (BD.38)

'in his one'

4.2 DEMONSTRATIVES

Kol has two demonstratives, indicating 'this' /gà, ŋgà/ and 'that' /né/.
Both demonstratives follow the head noun unless they are in focus, in which case they are moved to before the noun as shown in (59).

- (58) a. dá ŋgà 'this father' (1) bè-kèkènà bé-ŋgà 'these parables' (8)
 - b. b-ùr bó-nè 'those people' (2) dw-àb é-nè 'that day' (5)
- (59)bwáànt myâ bwó ncè mè-bá, ně njùm... 3-time they INCP create 6-sexual.relations that (SPEC) husband 'When they began an affair, that husband...'

As was mentioned above, demonstratives in general show fewer concord distinctions than the determiners (or quantifiers). They all begin with a consonant and thus follow the second concord pattern described above, primarily marking the plural classes.

| Class | this | that | Examples | |
|-------|---------------|-----------|----------------|------------------|
| | ga, ŋgà | né | | |
| 1 | gà, ŋgà | né | dá ŋgà | 'this father' |
| 2 | bèŋgá | bánè | bùr bớnè | 'those people' |
| 3 | gà, ŋgà | né | njáb né | 'that house' |
| 4 | mèŋgà | mèné | mènjáb mèngà | 'these houses' |
| 5 | léŋgá, lègà | léné, énè | dwàb énè | 'that day' |
| 6 | mə́gà, mə̀ŋgà | mèné | mòwàrà mớgà 'í | these vacations' |
| 7 | gà, ŋgà | né | kágè né | 'that child' |
| 8 | béŋgà | bèné | bèkèkènà béŋgà | 'these parables' |
| 9 | gà, ŋgà | né | kwár né | 'that village' |
| 10 | gà, ŋgà | né | трѝто́ ŋgà | 'this fruit' |

Table 3.8 Kol Demonstratives.

The stem for the first demonstrative, meaning 'this,' may begin with either the voiced velar consonant [g] or the prenasalized [ŋg]. Speakers report that there is no difference in meaning between the two forms. Some speakers report that the underlying form is *only* the non-nasalized one, that those who add the velar nasal are doing it to "make the liasion" (as in French where final consonants are pronounced before vowel-initial words).

However, the centralization of the [o] of the concord marker in class 2 and

class 6 suggests that the prenasalized allomorph is the underlying one, which would then provide a trigger for the mid-vowel centralization rule.

(60) a. [bèŋgá] b. bó-bá /bò-ŋgá/ 2-two

2-this

c. [mègá] d. mó-lôl
/mò-ŋgá/ 6-three

4.3 ANOTHER, A DIFFERENT ONE

The morpheme sis, meaning 'another' or 'a different one,' is difficult to categorize. Semantically, it seems to be closest to the demonstratives or the determiners. Since it begins with a consonant, it shares the consonant-initial concord pattern with the demonstratives (but not the determiners). It also occurs after the head noun, as do the demonstratives and the definite determiner. In this study, it is being kept distinct from both the determiners and the demonstratives because it can co-occur with both sets of modifiers, as illustrated by the examples below.

(61) d-úl dw-áp lè-sís
5-a certain 5-day 5-another
'a certain other day' (*Perils*.97)

(62) mpwò nè sís
9-accusation 9-that 9-another
'that other accusation' (*Perils*.82)

Below is a chart illustrating the concord patterns found with sis. Those classes who do not show overt concord have been excluded (classes 1, 3, 7, 9 and 10).

| Class | 'different' | Examples |
|-------|-------------|---------------------------------|
| 2 | bèsís | bòkúbò bàsís 'other chickens' |
| 4 | mìsís | mènjáb mìsís 'different houses' |
| 5 | lèsís | èbùrá lèsís 'different potato' |
| 6 | mèsís | mòbùrá màsís 'other potatoes' |
| 8 | bìsís | bèsá bìsís 'other things' |

Table 3.9 Examples of sis 'another, a different'

4.4 GENITIVES

Kol speakers may express possession by using a modifer marked for the person of the possessor, i.e. the genitives described in this section, or by using a possessive associative phrase in which the possessor is expressed by means of a full noun, as described in section 4.8.

Genitives must also agree with the class of the noun that they are modifying (in Kol, the possessed item), as shown in the example below.

| Class | 1SG | 2SG | 3SG | 1PL excl. | 1PL incl | 1PL dual | 2PL | 3PL |
|-------|-------|------|----------|-----------|--------------------|-------------|-------------------|-------|
| | -àŋ | -ó | -é | -éz | -ézà | -zùŋ | -én | -ób |
| 1 | w-àŋ | w-ó | y-é | w-úz | w-úzà | wú-zùŋ | w-ún | w-ób |
| 2 | b-àŋ | bw-ó | b-é | b-éz | b- í zà | bé-zùŋ | b-ín, b-ín | b-ób |
| 3 | w-àŋ | w-ó | ɲ-έ, y-é | w-úz | w-úzà | wú-zùŋ | w-ún | w-ób |
| 4 | my-àŋ | my-ó | my-é | m-íz | m-ízà | mí-zùŋ | m-ín | my-ób |
| 5 | d-âŋ | dw-ó | d-é | d-íz | d- í zà | dé-zùŋ | d- í n | d-ób |
| 6 | m-àŋ | mw-ó | m-é | m-éz, | m-ízà | mó-zùŋ | m- í n | m-ób |
| | | | | m-íz | | | | |
| 7 | j-àŋ | jw-ó | j-é | j-íz | j-ízà | jí-zùŋ | j-ín | j-ób |
| 8 | by-àŋ | by-ó | by-é | b-íz | b-ízà | bí-zùŋ | b-ín | by-ób |
| 9 | ɲ-àŋ | лw-ó | ɲ-é | ŋ-íz | ɲ-ízà | ní-zùŋ | ɲ-ɨn | л-ób |
| 10 | n-àŋ | nw-ó | ɲ-é | ŋ-íz | ɲ-ízà | ní-zùŋ | ɲ-ɨn | л-ób |

Table 3.9 Kol Genitives

Genitives follow the first concord pattern, with markers for every class, as shown in the table above. Genitives also have the only exception to the phonologically-conditioning of the concord system, since the 1st person dual

genitive begins with a consonant and yet patterns with the rest of the genitives which are all vowel-initial.

Genitives follow the head noun as in (64) unless they are in focus, in which case they are moved to before the noun as in (65).

(64) ntúm wàŋ 'my brother' (1)

ηkwòŋ μέ 'his responsibility' (9)

bòmpám bíz 'our ancestors' (2)

bíyól jób 'their canoe' (7)

(65) byâŋ béyàbèrá 'my efforts' (8)

jé tíé 'his position' (7)

wúz mbì 'our manner' (3)

bób bwán 'their children' (2)

Possessive constructions with a noun phrase (NP) possessor are syntactically associative phrases. Associative phrases are constructions which associate or link a head noun with a modifying noun. The associative marker or connective agrees with the head noun. Kol has three different associative phrase constructions (to be discussed in section 4.8).

In the possessive associative phrase, the head noun is the possessed item. The possessive associative marker has a low tone when the head noun is class 1, 9 or 10, and a high tone in all other classes.

- (66) a. míyoŋ mà njúm
 1-brother 1Poss 1-husband
 'my husband's brother'
 - sísìm m

 ncììmbé
 3-spirit 3Poss God
 'the spirit of God,' 'the Holy Spirit'
 - c. lè-wálà má ncììmbé 5-hour 5Poss God 'God's time'

4.5 QUANTIFIERS

In addition to numerals, Kol also has a modifer which can mean 'each' or 'all.' All quantifier modifiers follow the head noun.

4.5.1 'Each, all'

The quantifier $-\hat{\epsilon}z$ meaning 'each, all' begins with a vowel and therefore follows the first concord pattern, as illustrated below.

| Class | each, all | Examples | |
|-------|-------------|------------|---------------------|
| | -ĉz | | |
| 1 | y-êz | mùr yêz | 'each person' |
| 2 | b-êz, bèbêz | | |
| 3 | y-ĉz | njáp yêz | 'each house' |
| 4 | my-êz | | |
| 5 | d-êz | èbùrá dêz | 'each sweet potato' |
| 6 | m-êz | mòkwár mêz | 'all the villages' |
| 7 | j-ĉz | kág jêz | 'each child' |
| 8 | by-êz | bèsá byêz | 'everything' |
| 9 | ɲ-êz | kwár nêz | 'each village' |
| 10 | ɲ-ĉz | | |

Table 3.10 Kol Quantifier 'each, all'

As illustrated by the example phrases in the table above, this modifier means 'each' if modifying a singular noun or 'all' if modifying a plural noun.

4.5.1.1 *Emphasis*

The quantifier may be emphasized by reduplicating the first consonant of the noun concord prefix. This can be seen in (59) below, where the noun class prefix is doubly marked in each example.

4.5.2 Numerals

In Kol, certain numerals have a different form in isolation than they do when they appear as modifiers to a noun. This is common to the whole Kol-Makaa-Konzime family.

| Number | counting | w/agreement ⁵ | Examples: |
|--------|----------|--------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1 | fóg | ŋgúrùg, wúrùg | sá wúrùg 'one thing' (7) |
| 2 | bè | bóbà | bwàrá bóbá 'two women' (2) |
| 3 | lél | bólôl | ncòò lôl 'three times' (10) |
| 4 | ná | bóná | bèkág béná 'four children' (8) |
| 5 | tón | bótón | mèmyà métón 'five times' (4) |
| 6 | twób | twób | bwàrá twób 'six women' (2) |
| 7 | tábèl | tábèl | mènjáb tábèl 'seven houses' (4) |
| 8 | mwòm | mwòm | bòkwônt mwôm 'eight months' (2) |

⁵ Agreement in chart is for classes 1 and 2.

| 9 | èbú | èbú | mèntèr èbù 'nine hundred' (4) |
|------|---------|------|------------------------------------|
| 10 | èwúm | èwúm | bòntá èwúm 'ten grandchildren' (2) |
| 11 | èwúm nà | | |
| | fóg | | |
| 20 | mòwúm | | |
| | màbá | | |
| 100 | ntèr | | |
| 1000 | tóyíŋ | | |

Table 3.11 Kol Numbers.

As modifiers, the numbers 2-5 agree with the head noun and occur post-nominally. Numbers 1 and 6-9 also occur post-nominally but do not show any concord. The number 10 is actually a noun and not a modifier. It therefore forms an associative phrase with the noun being counted.

Associative phrases will be discussed below in section 4.8.

If the number ten is the second noun in the associative phrase, the phrase means '10,' but if the number ten is the first noun in the associative phrase, then it means 'approximately 10.'

(68) a. bè-kàg è-wúm 8-child 5-ten '10 children' b. è-wúm é bè-kág
5-ten 5Assoc 8-child
'approx. 10 children' (in French 'une dizaine d'enfants')

Below is a chart showing the concord patterns for the four numerals which exhibit concord, i.e. numbers 2-5.

| Class | Ex word | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|-------|---------|------|-------|------|-------|
| 2 | bwàrá | bóbá | bólôl | bóná | bótón |
| 4 | mènjèb | mébá | mélôl | méná | métón |
| 6 | mòbùrá | móbá | mólôl | móná | mótón |
| 8 | bèkág | bébá | bélôl | béná | bétón |

Table 3.12 Concord for Kol Numbers

4.6 INTERROGATIVES

Kol interrogatives do not all behave the same way morphosyntactically. The Kol interrogative meaning 'which', i.e. $-\delta\delta b$, precedes the noun (and is requesting new information) and is marked by the first concord pattern for vowel-initial roots. The interrogative $-niy\acute{e}$ 'how many?' follows the noun and is marked by the second concord pattern for consonant-initial stems.

Below is a table showing the concord patterns of the two interrogatives which agree with the head noun.

| Class | which? | how many? | Examples |
|-------|--------|-----------|-----------------------------------|
| | -óób | -níyé | |
| 1 | л-óób | | ло́о́в mwàrá? 'which woman?' |
| 2 | b-óób | bó-níyé | bwàrá bóníyé? 'how many women?' |
| 3 | w-óób | | wóób njáb? 'which house?' |
| 4 | my-óób | mé-níyé | mènjáb méníyé 'how many houses?' |
| 5 | d-óób | | dóób èbùrá? 'which sweet potato?' |
| 6 | m-óób | mó-níyé | móób mòkwád? 'which villages?' |
| 7 | j-óób | | jóób sá? 'which thing?' |
| 8 | by-óób | bé-níyé | byóób bèkág? 'which children?' |
| 9 | n-óób | | றóób kwád? 'which village?' |
| 10 | n-óób | níyé | mpùmó níyé 'how many fruit?' |

Table 3.13 Kol Interrogatives

The quantifier meaning 'which' has differing tone patterns if it occurs with its head noun or stands alone as a pronoun. If it occurs with its head noun, it occurs prenominally and has a H tone (as shown in the chart above). However, if it occurs as a stand-alone question 'which one?' then it has a LH tonal melody and occurs with a final vowel *e*.

(69) wóób njáb? 'which house?' (3) wòòbé? 'which one?' byóób bèkág? 'which children?' (8) byòòbé? 'which ones?'

While Kol does have other interrogatives, these are not words which modify a noun but rather question words which stand alone. These include the words yé meaning 'where', ncé meaning 'who' and wô mbì meaning 'how'. These question words remain in situ, as shown by the example below.

4.7 ADJECTIVES

Kol has very few adjectives. A list is given in (63). These do not show any concord, which distinguishes them from other nominal modifiers. They occur before the noun as shown in the examples below. A number of them are derived by means of total reduplication. The source word may be a verb (as in the case of 'big') or a noun (as in the case of 'good' and 'bad'). These will be discussed in more detail in section 4.7.1 and 4.7.3 below.

| (71) | Adjectives | | Examples | |
|------|------------|-----------------------|------------------|-------------------|
| | bèdá | 'big' | bèdá kwád | 'big village' |
| | bwàgbwàg | 'big' | bwàgbwàg mò-kwád | 'big villages' |
| | fám | 'real, true, good' | fámá bìjôl | 'good canoe' |
| | fúbán | 'be clean' | | |
| | mbápmbáp | 'bad, evil' | mbápmbáp sísìm | 'evil spirit' |
| | ŋwàŋɲwàŋ | 'good, holy' | րwàŋnwàŋ lám | 'sacred heart' |
| | ntúlá | 'a lot' (uncountable) | ntúlá bè-sá | 'a lot of things' |
| | bùbù | 'a lot' | bùbù mè-njáb | 'a lot of houses' |
| | ŋgúmbà | 'entire, whole' | ŋgúmbà fùm | 'entire night' |

Adjectives can also occur post-nominally, as shown in (64).

(72) bìyól áncógó bà fáámá.
7-canoe NegP3 be good
'The canoe wasn't in good condition.'

Dixon (2004) gives a list of the semantic types most typically associated with members of an adjective word class. Kol adjectives fit into the *dimension* subtype (the first in Dixon's list), the *value* subtype (third on the list), and the *quantification* subtype (number 11 in Dixon's list). Many of the other semantic types associated with adjectives in other languages are associated with nouns or verbs in Kol. The various subtypes will be discussed in the sections below.

4.7.1 Dimensions

As was mentioned above, the semantic subtype of dimension is very commonly associated with the adjective word class. This is the case for Kol, though there are also verbs which convey information about size. The second adjective listed is clearly derived from the verb *bwàg* 'be big' via a total reduplication process.

(73) Adjectives

bèdá 'big' bèdá kwád 'big village' bwàgbwàg 'big' bwàgbwàg mò-kwád 'big villages'

Verbs

bwàg 'be big'

twágèbò 'be small'

jà 'be long, be tall, be far'

Nouns

mwâ 'small' (derived from mwân 'child')

Many qualities are described by verbs. In the example below, the adverb *ŋkòné* modifies *bwâg* 'to be big,' the main verb and is preceded by *ncò* the auxiliary 'come.' For more on verbs, see chapters 4 and 5.

(74) nô ncè nkòné bwâg.

he/she come INCR (be) big

'He became big (little by little).'

Comparative and superlative constructions are also formed verbally, using the verb *làng* 'to pass' as shown by the two examples below.

- (75) mw-ân jì bwâg mìyòŋ gà làŋg jì bwâg làng míyòŋ mw-ân ŋgà 1-child 1-this be (att) (be) big pass 1-sibling (same sex) 'This child is bigger than his brother.' (or 'her sister')
- bélágá. jì (76) mw-ân gà bwâg làn mw-ân jì bwâg bè-úlàgà ηgà làng 1-child 1-this be (att) (be) big pass 8-INDEF 'This child is the biggest.' (lit. 'passes any others')

In Kol, smallness can either be described using the verb $tw\acute{a}g\grave{a}b\grave{b}$ as shown in example (77) below or by using an associative phrase construction with the noun $mw\^{a}$ 'small thing' as its head noun. A plural example is given in (78), and a singular non-human example is given in (79). This noun is clearly derived from the word for 'child,' $mw\^{a}n$, but the /n/ has been lost.

- (77)mìyòŋ jì twágèbò làng ηà. míyòŋ jì twágèbà làng ηà 1-sibling be (att) (be) small him/her pass 'His brother (or her sister) is smaller than him (her).'
- (78) bwá bá ntòmp
 2-small 2Assoc 7-younger
 'small children'

(79) mwâ lôŋ
1-small 5-speech
'little story'

4.7.2 Age

Most words which fit into the semantic subtype of *age* which is commonly associated with adjectives are nouns. These words are classified as nouns because they have plurals, trigger concord agreement on their modifiers and may be the heads of associative phrase constructions.

There is also a verb *jwèm* 'to become old, to age' and a verb *ntwómá* 'to be young.'

4.7.3 Value

There are three Kol adjectives which fit into the semantic subtype of value. However, two of these are reduplicated forms of nouns. An example of the nouns is given in (82).

(81) Adjectives

fám 'real, true, good'

mbápmbáp 'bad, evil'

nwànnwàn 'good, holy'

Nouns

mò-nwàn 'good things' (6)

mò-mbáb 'bad things' (6)

(82)dêk mà-báp m-êz ndé kók ŋà jî bá-sí, jì dêg mò-mbáb m-êz ndé bò-sí дè kóg he be (att) see 6-bad 6-all be (loc) here 2-ground

mà-nwàn mêz ndé kók bà-sì. mò-nwàn m-êz ndé kóg bò-sí 6-good 6-all be (loc) here 2-ground

'He sees all the bad things here on earth and all the good things here on earth.'

4.7.4 Physical property

One of Kol's adjectives, *fúbán* 'be clean,' fits into this semantic subtype.

Below is an example where this adjective is coordinated with a value adjective.

(83)bì-mpáànc by-án $by = \hat{a}$ sè bà fúbán nà nwàn nwàη. bè-mpànc bè-àη $b\dot{e} = \acute{a}$ sé bà fúbán nà pwâŋ ງາwâŋ 8-side 8-my 8SUB-P2 **PERF** clean be and good good 'My sides were clean and good.' (Illness.30)

Other physical properties are described using nouns or verbs as shown below.

(84) *Nouns* bùl 'rotten thing' (1/2)dílô 'fullness' mò-bwêz 'wetness' (6) mpwògέ 'health' (9) 'loose thing' (1/2)ntwì tîtìm 'blind person' (3/4) Verbs bwâz 'be wet' bšl 'be bald' 'be wrinkled' kâz 'be tired' tègá

4.7.5 Human propensity

There are no Kol adjectives which describe character traits or what Dixon calls the "human propensity" semantic subtype. Character traits are described using either nouns or verbs.

(85) Verbs

bízə́bə́ 'be patient'

yág 'be unaware'

ſwáàg 'be crazy'

ſwààz 'be happy'

Nouns

kέη 'wise one'

làd 'crazy person, fool'

ŋkóŋ 'brave one'

wágèlà 'stupid one'

There are also two nouns which are used to describe wealth, which is neither a character trait nor a physical property. These are given below.

(86) kúkúm 'rich man' (3/4)

mbúmbwá 'poor man' (3/4)

4.7.6 Quantification

Three Kol adjectives fit into this semantic subtype. These are given below.

(87) ntúlá 'a lot' (uncountable)

bùbù 'a lot, many'

ngúmbà 'entire, whole'

Other quantifying constructions use the quantifier $-\hat{\epsilon}z$ 'each, all.' The adjective $b\hat{u}b\hat{u}$ can also appear as a complement of a preposition in an adverbial construction as shown below.

(88) $y=\acute{a}$ nték mà ná bùbù. $y=\acute{a}$ ntég mà ná bùbù NONREF-P2 annoy me with many 'That bothered me a lot.'

4.8 OTHER NOUNS (IN ASSOCIATIVE PHRASES)

Associative phrases are constructions which associate, or link, a head noun with a modifying noun. The associative marker, or connective, always agrees with the first noun, the head noun, as shown in the example below.

(89) è-wàlà lé-mí∫wàn
5-hour 5Assoc-7-church
'church time'

In Kol, there are three kinds of associative phrases. In possessive associative phrases, the first noun in the associative phrase refers to the possessed item and the second to the possessor. The possessive associative marker is $m\lambda$.

(90) sísìm má-ncììmbé
 sísìm H+mà-ncèmbê
 3-spirit 3+PossAssoc-God
 'spirit of God, God's spirit'

The second kind of associative phrases is the qualificative, or attributive, associative phrases, where the second noun expresses a quality of the first. This may include location or origin. The qualificative associative marker is \grave{a} .

(91) ∫wànjí á-kwár-ê ∫wànjí H+à-kwád-è

3-young.man 3+QUALASSOC-9-village-Foc

young man of/from the village

Finally, there is a 'basic' associative phrase, as shown below.

(92) ncùg mó-díbó
ncùg H+mò-díbó
7-elephant 7Assoc-6-water
'hippopotamus'

This has been given the name 'basic' because it has the least specialized meaning, and the least specialized associative marker. For most singular nouns, the 'basic' associative marker is either zero or a tonal marker. The exception is the class 5 marker.

Below is a table giving the various forms of the markers used in these three kinds of associative phrases.

| Noun Class | Basic Assoc | Possessive Assoc | Qualificative Assoc | |
|------------|-------------|------------------|---------------------|--|
| 1 | Ø | mè | à | |
| 2 | bó | H+mè | bá | |
| 3 | Н | H+mè | á | |
| 4 | mé | H+mè | myá (mé+á) | |
| 5 | lé | H+mè | á | |
| 6 | má | H+mè | má | |
| 7 | Н | H+mè | á | |
| 8 | bé | H+mè | byá (bé+á) | |
| 9 | Ø | mè | á | |
| 10 | Ø | mè | á | |

Table 3.14 Associative Markers

Below are some examples of basic associative phrases followed by some examples of possessive associative phrases.

- (93) a. twámbá mw-àrá 1-elder 1-woman 'old woman'
- b. bw-án bó- bíjùmp
 2-child 2Assoc- Bidjombo
 'Bidjombo children'
- c. njáb bw-ûr
 3-house H+2-people
 'family'
- d. mè-njáb mé- bw-ûr4-house 4Assoc 2-people'families'

- èsáp lé ncám f. mòwúm mà tón e. 5-illness 5Assoc 9-leprosy 5-ten 5Assoc five 'leprosy' 'fifty'
- g. ncùg mó-díbó h. bè-kág bé ʃùkùl 7-elephant H+6-water 8-child 8Assoc 7-school 'hippopotamus' 'school children'
- i. ntú mò-cì9-diarrhea 6-blood'dysentery'
- (94) a. míyoŋ mè njúm
 1-brother 1Poss 1-husband
 'my husband's brother.'
 - sísìm mó ncììmbé
 3-spirit 3Poss God
 'the spirit of God,' 'the Holy Spirit'
 - c. lè-wálà má ncììmbé 5-hour 5Poss God 'God's time'

In the neighboring language of Makaa, the forms of the possessive and qualificative markers are formed by adding the basic associative marker to the possessive and qualificative roots ($m\acute{a}$ and a with polar tone⁶). In Kol

⁶ Polar to the first tone of the second noun.

however, only the qualificative associative morpheme shows concord, while for the possessive morpheme it is only the tone of the basic associative marker which is added. Below are the Makaa forms (Heath 2003:341).

| Noun | Associative | Associative Marker + | Associative Marker+ | |
|-------|-----------------|----------------------|----------------------|--|
| Class | Marker | Possessive Marker | Qualificative Marker | |
| 1 | Ø | ḿə | á | |
| 2 | ó | ó | wía | |
| 3 | Н | т́ә | á | |
| 4 | mí | mí | mýa | |
| 5 | l 'u | ḿə | ľ u -ía | |
| 6 | ḿə | т́ә | mýa | |
| 7 | Н | ḿə | á | |
| 8 | í | í | y <i>ʻ</i> a | |
| 9 | Ø | т́э | a | |
| 10 | Ø | ḿə | á | |

Table 3.15 Associative Markers in Makaa

4.8.1.1 Ordinal Numbers

Ordinal numbers in Kol are formed via qualificative associative phrases. (For more on associative phrases, see section 4.8.) The Kol ordinal numbers for second through fifth are based on the numbers used for counting in isolation. The expression 'first' is derived from the word meaning 'front.'

'First' and 'second' may describe plural head nouns, but the remaining numbers in the series may only modify singular nouns.

| Number | counting | ordinal | Examples: | |
|--------|----------|---------|-----------------|----------------|
| 1 | fóg | mèshwôg | mwàrá á mèshwôg | 'first woman' |
| 2 | bè | bèè | mwàrá á bèè | 'second woman' |
| 3 | lél | lêl | mwàrá á lêl | 'third woman' |
| 4 | ná | nà | mwàrá á nà | 'fourth woman' |
| 5 | tón | tên | mwàrá á tên | 'fifth woman' |
| 6 | twób | twóbé | mwàrá á twóbé | 'sixth woman' |

Table 3.16 Ordinal Numbers

5 Derivational morphology

Kol has a number of derivational processes which either modify or create nouns. Reduplication is used to create new noun stems from existing noun stems. Additionally, nouns may be created from verbs through a number of different processes.

5.1 NOUN TO NOUN DERIVATION

Nouns which are derived from other nouns are formed by means of reduplication. Most of these new nouns are dimunitives, but there are exceptions. One is given below.

(95) ncàm 'leprosy' (9) ncíncâm 'leper' (3)

5.1.1 Diminutive

Nouns meaning 'small x' are formed by reduplicating the initial consonant of the base noun on its left edge. The regular epenthetic schwa rule will insert a schwa between the two consonants, as illustrated in the examples below.

5.2 DEVERBAL NOUNS

Kol creates both agentive nouns and result nouns from verbs. Both can be created by using a homorganic nasal prefix or by adding a final vowel or both. However, they each have their own unique processes as well.

5.2.1 Agentive nouns

In Kol, there are a number of different processes which may be used to create nouns out of verbs. For creating the agent of a particular action, these include: adding a suffix vowel, adding the suffix -la (or -l), or adding a nasal prefix.

For agentive nouns which are formed by adding a suffix vowel, the most common vowel to add is -e. Below are some examples.

Other nouns can be formed by adding the suffix –*l* or –*la*, as shown below.

Additionally, agentive nouns can be formed by adding a homorganic nasal prefix. This is the most common way to form agentive nouns. The agentive nasal prefix does not trigger devoicing on the following consonant. This agentive nasal prefix is probably a reflex of the class 1 prefix *mo which can still be seen prefixed to vowel-initial nouns. However, synchronically, class 1 nouns which begin with a consonant are zero-marked.

It is extremely common for more than one strategy to be used at a time, as illustrated below, where in (76a), the noun is formed by both adding the

nasal prefix mentioned above and the suffix -l, while in (100b), the nouns are formed by adding the nasal prefix and the suffix vowel -e.

5.2.2 Result nouns

Deverbal nouns which refer to the result of the action may be formed by changing the tonal contour, changing the final vowel of the root verb, adding a suffix vowel, or adding a nasal prefix. Unlike the nasal prefix seen with agentive nouns, the nasal prefix found on these nouns may devoice the following consonant.

As mentioned above, some nouns can be formed by changing the tonal contour of the root verb. Examples are given below.

Other nouns are formed by changing the final vowel of the verb root.

This is the second vowel in disyllabic roots and the first vowel in monosyllabic roots.

Deverbal nouns may also be created by adding a vowel to the end of the verb root.

As was the case with agentive nouns, non-agentive deverbal nouns may also be created by adding a nasal prefix. These nouns group into two classes. Those which end up in class 9 have a nasal prefix followed by a voiceless consonant, even if the initial consonant of the verb root was voiced. This is similar to the process seen synchronically for class 10 nouns and is most likely a reflex of the nasal prefix reconstructed for both class 9 and class 10 nouns. The nasal prefix for nouns which are assigned to other noun classes

does not trigger devoicing, as shown by the last two examples given in the list below. These non-devoicing nasals may be reflexes of the Proto-Bantu class 3 prefix, reconstructed as *mo.

As was the case for agentive nouns, more than one strategy may be used.

In example (105) below, the noun is formed by both adding a nasal prefix and a suffix vowel.

The noun below is formed by both adding a nasal prefix and changing the last vowel of the verb stem.

In (107), the noun is formed by adding a nasal prefix and changing the tonal contour.

Additionally, there are some non-agentive nouns who do not seem to follow strictly any of the patterns given above. This may be because they are derived from related verb stems existing in the language but not found in my current corpus. For example, the word for 'sleeping mat' could be derived from the simplex verb root *bwàg*, though only the complex verb given below has been elicited (which appears to include a derivational suffix).

Additionally, result nouns may be formed by zero-derivation or conversion, as illustrated below.

6 Word order within the noun phrase

As was mentioned above, most modifiers follow the noun. The exceptions are the indefinite determiner, the interrogative 'which,' adjectives, and focused demonstratives or genitives.

6.1 MULTIPLE POSTPOSED MODIFIERS

A single noun may of course be modified by more than one element at a time. Genitives consistently appear closest to the noun, while quantifier and sís 'another' appear on the periphery of the noun phrase. This is shown below.

(110) Head Noun Genitive Demonstrative Definite Determiner

Another

Quantifier

Examples are given below.

| (111) | a. | ntúm 1-brother | w-ǎŋ 1-my | w-òòŋgá 1-Der | |
|-------|----|-------------------|-----------------|-------------------------------|--|
| | b. | mw-án 1-child | w-àŋá 1-my | ŋgà 1-this | |
| | c. | ŋkùl 9-power | n-óp 9-their | ຸກí-ກ-ĉz 9-9-ea c h | |

The demonstratives appear before the quantifier and sis 'another.'

6.2 RELATIVE CLAUSES

Relative clauses in Kol are formed by adding a H tone to the left edge of the embedded clause. Many relative clauses also have an enclitic $=\hat{e}$ on the right edge of the relative clause, as shown below. Unlike what is seen in some other Bantu languages, including the closely related language Makaa, there is no change in the tonal contour of a verbal sequence found inside of a relative clause.

(113) bímp b
$$\mathbf{i}\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{e}$$
 kwàg = \mathbf{e} mbímbì b $\mathbf{i}\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{e}$ kwàg- \mathbf{e} amount RELCL-we-FUT put.up-RELCL 'The amount we can put up with...'

The right edge enclitic is not obligatory, as shown by the relative clause below which lacks it. That is to say, there is no enclitic found after 'eight,' which is the end of the embedded clause.

 $(114) m = \check{a}$ bà nè mw-án á bà nà bò-kwônt mwôm bò-ŋkùùnd $\dot{m} = \acute{a}$ bò nò mw-ân $H+\acute{a}$ bò nò mwôm I-P2 be with 1-child RelCL-P2 be with 2-month eight 'I had with me my child who was eight months old.'

Some of the head nouns of the relative clauses which lack a right boundary enclitic are locative nouns which have special relative clause markers in related languages (e.g. Makaa, see chapter 6 for more information).

fág bɨzá têr bờ lê-dúmp
fág н+ bɨzó tér bờ lé-dúmp
where RELCL-we first be
'...where we first were at the party...' (Perils.34)

Kol permits relative clauses to be hosted by nouns with all kinds of grammatical relations. In addition, all relative clauses in Kol are examples of gapping. That is to say, the noun within the relative clause that would have been co-referential with the head noun is deleted and not replaced with a resumptive pronoun. Below is an example of a subject relative clause.

(116) nò jì m-ùr ndé lê dùbà má-kwindè. jì nò= m-ùr н+ ndé lè dùb mì-kwindè he/she be (att) 1-person RELCL-be (loc) **IMPF** fish 4-hook-RELCL 'He is someone who fishes with hooks.'

Relative clauses can also be formed from either of the two objects allowed in Kol clauses. One is prototypically the patient while the other is prototypically the beneficiary. In example (117), the head noun of the relative clause below is underlyingly the patient of the embedded clause.

Again, there is no resumptive pronoun present in the relative clause.

```
(117) bìy-ɔ̀ɔ̀ŋgə́ m=á têr nwàŋ-é
bè-ɔ̀ɔ̀ŋgə́ H+m=á tér nwàŋ-è
8-Def RelCl-I-P2 first take-RelCl
'...what I first took...." (Perils.34)
```

In the example below, the head noun is underlyingly the beneficiary in the embedded clause.

(118) bw-ân
$$m=\acute{e}$$
 jâmb bè-dób=è bò-ân $H+\grave{m}=\acute{e}$ jâmb bè-dób=è 2-child RELCL-I-P1 prepare 8-food-RELCL 'The children that I prepared food for...."

The head noun of the relative clause below is underlyingly a location in the embedded clause below. This is a third semantic role possibility for direct objects in Kol.

(119) búŋ $m=\acute{a}$ $b=\grave{e}$.

bùŋ $H+m\grave{o}=\acute{a}$ $b\grave{o}=\grave{e}$ place RELCL-I-P2 be-RELCL

'...where I was.' (*Perils*.94)

Finally, Kol also allows adjunct relative clauses. In the example below, the head noun is underlyingly an adjunct, an optional temporal noun phrase, in the embedded clause.

(120) m = 6 nùmb twóng= 6 d-wóp = 6 jâmb bwò bè-d= 6 I-Pres know think 5-day = 6 prepare them 8-food-RelCL 'I remember the day that I prepared food for them.'

Nouns which are the heads of a relative clause can fulfill any grammatical relation in the matrix clause. Below is an example where the noun modified by the relative clause is the subject.

(121)bw-ân $m = \acute{e}$ jâmb $b\dot{e}$ - $d\acute{o}b = \dot{e}$ iì bw-ân bò-ân $H + \dot{m} = \acute{e}$ jâmb $b\dot{e}-d\acute{o}b=\dot{e}$ jì bò-ân 2-child RELCL-I-P1 8-food-RELCL be (att) 2-child prepare "The children that I prepared food for are the children...."

In the example below, the head noun is the object of the main verb.

(122) $m = \acute{o}$ nùmb twóngèlà d-wóp $m = \acute{a}$ $b\dot{e}-d\acute{o}b=\dot{e}$. jâmb bwò I-PRES know think 5-day H+I-P2 prepare 8-food-RelCl them 'I remember the day that I prepared food for them.'

Relative clauses can also modify a noun marked with the locative prefix *lé*- as shown below.

It is also very common to have adjunct clauses with relative clauses modifying temporal or locative head nouns, as shown below.

(124) myǎ yô= kò nìgò jê
$$w\acute{u}=\acute{1}$$

myà $H+y\grave{o}=$ kò nìgò jê $w\acute{u}=\grave{e}$
3-time RelCl+7Sub go return arrive there-RelCl
'Arriving there, ...'

6.2.1 Clefting Construction

In addition to the prototypical relative clauses seen above, Kol speakers also frequently use a construction which is a cross between a cleft construction and a relative clause. It is not exactly like a relative clause because, as can be seen in the example below, the head noun of the relative

clause, which is the object of the copula is co-referential with the subject and is therefore deleted. So out of three co-referential noun phrases (the subject, the object and the object of the embedded clause), only one is overtly expressed, i.e. the subject of the matrix clause.

(125) è-kán bớ
$$\mathfrak{n}=\acute{\mathrm{e}}$$
 dég=è.
è-kán bờ $\mathfrak{n}+\mathfrak{n}=\acute{\mathrm{e}}$ dêg=è.
5-antelope be he-P1 see-RELCL
'It's the antelope that he saw.'

The negated version of this cleft construction makes use of the negative copula. However, in the negated version, the copula appears first, which means that of the three co-referential nouns present underlyingly, the only one which is overtly expressed is the direct object of the copula.

(126) tùg
$$\acute{a}$$
 lé-kán $\acute{n}\acute{a}$ ndé lé dég=è. túg lè-kán $\acute{n}\acute{a}$ ndé lè dêg=è. be (neg) 5-antelope he be (loc) IMPF see-RELCL 'It's not the antelope that he saw.'

6.2.2 Relative Clause Enclitic

Since the relative clause enclitic occurs at the right boundary of a clause, it may be hosted by a verb as shown in (127) or a noun, i.e. the direct object of the clause, as shown in (128). This morpheme may be hosted by

members of two different parts of speech, which is morphosyntactic behavior typical of a clitic and not a suffix.

- (127) è-kán bớ n=é dég=è. è-kán bờ H+n=é dêg=è. 5-antelope be he-P1 see-RELCL 'It's the antelope that he saw.'
- (128) $m = \delta$ nùmb twóngèlò d-wóp $m = \delta$ jâmb bwò bè-dób=è. I-PRES know think 5-day H+I-P2 prepare them 8-food-RELCL 'I remember the day that I prepared food for them.'

While it is not obviously phonologically deficient, being a vowel and therefore possibly something which could stand on its own, it does seem to form a phonological word with its host. This may be seen in the way that the enclitic $= \hat{e}$ is affected by the shape of its host, as shown below in example (129) as well as the way that it impacts the shape of the host itself, as shown in example (130).

(129) myǎ yô= kò nìgò jê
$$w\acute{u}=\acute{i}$$

myà $H+y\grave{o}=$ kò nìgò jê $w\acute{u}=\grave{e}$
3-time RelCl+NonRef go return arrive there-RelCl
'Arriving there, ...'

Below, the presence of the enclitic causes the final vowel of the verb to be deleted.

(130) /mw-ùr bà $H + \hat{p} = \hat{e} = w$ àzà = è/ [mùr bá píwàzè]

1-man be RELCL + he-P1-forget-RELCL

'This is the man that he forgot.'

To summarize, the lack of strict co-occurrence restrictions suggests that it is not a suffix, while the phonological processes seen suggest that the clitic and its host form a single phonological word, and that the relative clause boundary marker therefore is not an independent word. Since the evidence shows that it is neither a suffix nor an independent word, then it must be a clitic.

4 Elements of the Verb Phrase

This chapter will discuss the various elements found within the Kol verb phrase, e.g. tense markers, auxiliaries, main verbs, etc. The following chapter, chapter 5, will discuss the ways in which these elements may be combined and examine the syntax of the verb phrase.

In Kol, the verb phrase is the heart of the language. Verb phrases may be very complex, containing multiple auxiliaries, as well as tense, aspect and modal markers. All preverbal elements in Kol are independent words or clitics.

In the sections below, the Kol verb stem will be described, followed by discussions of tense, aspect, and mode markers. Section 3 will discuss auxiliaries, followed by a description of negation strategies in section 4.

Section 5 will address the question of adverbs. (1) below gives the relative ordering of these preverbal elements, with the exception of adverbs which can appear between any two words.

(1) Tense Copula Aux Aspect/Mode Auxiliary Verb

1 Verb Stem

Kol verbs may be CV, CVC or CVCV.⁷ The initial consonant may be palatalized or labialized. Below are some examples of different verb root shapes.

(2) CV roots

| bì | 'startle, surprise' | kwè | 'help' |
|-----|---------------------|------|---------|
| sá | 'act, do' | byâ | 'beget' |
| tû | 'dig' | | |
| CVC | roots | | |
| làb | 'speak' | fyàl | 'test' |

bír 'leave to one side' kwǐr 'save' dêg 'see' kwêz 'cough'

CVCV roots

dùmà

kúŋá

'fall'

'defecate'

bìló 'find after searching' límà 'dream' bwámò 'meet'

For many Bantu languages, it is descriptively useful to distinguish between the verb *root* (or *minimum radical*) and the verb *stem*, which consists

cèlà

∫wézá

'love'

'be dry'

⁷ There are 39 CV verb roots (+14 CGV roots), 135 CVC roots (+53 CGVC roots) and 81 CVCV roots (+14 CGVCV roots), making up almost 60% of the lexicon.

of the verb root, plus any valence-changing derivational suffixes (or *extensions*), and an inflectional final vowel marking tense or mood.

However, in Kol there are only relics remaining of the proto-Bantu extensions. There are a number of longer verbs (CVCVC etc) which appear to contain frozen relics of an extension system, but these relics are not productive. This will be discussed in section 1.1 below.

Neither does Kol have an inflectional final vowel which marks tense and aspect as many Bantu languages do. Morphemes which fill those functions are all found preverbally. Kol verbs may end in a number of different vowels, but this vowel does not change in different tense, aspect or mode constructions.

Verbs ending in different vowels are given below. The front vowel $/\epsilon$ / is relatively rare in this position. The high vowels /i/ and /u/ and the mid front vowel $/\epsilon$ / primarily occur in monosyllabic verbs. These have most likely have ended up in final position due to erosion on the right edge.

| (3) | /i/ | | /u/ | |
|-----|-------|------------------------|----------|------------------|
| | bì | 'startle, surprise' | tû | 'dig' |
| | dì | 'stay, dwell' | jû | 'vomit' |
| | jí | 'ask' | kù | 'fail' |
| | jwî | 'rule over' | lû | 'sting' |
| | /e/ | | /o/ | |
| | | | | |
| | kwè | 'help' | dò | 'eat' |
| | jê | 'arrive' | nìgò | 'return' |
| | ∫wè | 'bleed' | jò | 'climb' |
| | fyê | 'suck' | jwábò | 'respect' |
| | /٤/ | | /ɔ/ | |
| | bè | 'nlant' | bàdèbò | lm amah l |
| | | 'plant' | | 'perch' |
| | ∫úmè | 'build' | mìnò | 'swallow' |
| | | | bùbò | 'roast' |
| | | | lwômbèlò | 'send on errand' |
| | /ə/ | | /a/ | |
| | dùmà | 'fall' | sá | 'act, do' |
| | bìlá | 'find after searching' | byâ | 'beget' |
| | bwámè | 'meet' | cèlà | 'love' |
| | kùrè | 'beat (heart)' | límà | 'dream' |

The central vowels /ə/ and /a/ and the back vowels /ɔ/ and /o/ are all common as the last segment in polysyllabic verbs. These vowels form a natural class of the non-high, non-front vowels as can be seen below.

| front | | central | back | |
|-------|----------------|---------|--|--|
| high | | (i) | r sein ^{e l} u _{ne} 23 | |
| mid | | Э | 0 | |
| low | e Transport | a | Э | |

Table 4.1 Final vowels in polysyllabic verbs.

The four vowels which are common as the last segment in polysyllabic words are all possible reflexes of the proto-Bantu vowel *a (see chapter 7, section 4.3 for more details). In Bantu languages with an inflectional final vowel marking tense or mode, the final vowel -a is the most common final vowel, generally used to mark the indicative. (Miti 2001, Mohammed 2001)

As was noted above, the final vowel of Kol verbs does not change due to inflectional processes. However, it may change when a deverbal noun is derived, as was described in chapter 3, section 5.2.2.

In general, the final vowel may not be deleted either. The one exception to this is found in the relative clause construction, where if a verb hosts the relative clause right boundary enclitic $= \hat{e}$ and if the verb ends in /a/, the /a/ is deleted. It is interesting that this only occurs with the vowel /a/, which as was alluded to above, is the most direct descendent of the most common inflectional final vowel in the inherited proto-Bantu system. (See chapter 3, section 6.2.1.)

1.1 EXTENSIONS

Bantu languages are well known for their valence-changing suffixes, known as extensions. In Kol, while there are a number of verbs which appear to contain such suffixes, these are synchronically only frozen relics. Only the passive extension may still be productive.

| | Proto-Bantu | Kol |
|--------------|-------------|-------|
| causative | *ic-i | -èzè, |
| | | a→e |
| benefactive/ | *-ıd | -èà |
| applicative | | |
| passive | *ıb-u | -ówà |

Table 4.2 Extensions in Proto-Bantu and their relics in Kol

The passive suffix is more productive, though still relatively rare, than the other extension candidates. However, it has a number of different forms. One, -ówà, is clearly related to the passive suffix found in other Bantu languages, like –Vw in Mòkpè (Kagaya 1992:29), -w in Swahili (Mohammed 2001:205), and –iw in Cinsanga (Miti 2001:91). Example sentences are given below.

- (4) tír sé d-ówà.

 tír sé dò-ówà

 meat PERF eat-PASS

 'The meat is eaten.'
- (5) bìzô ncò kò lê-dómp á s-ówà-wè
 we come go to-dance (n) + H P2 do-PASS-RELCL
 'We went to the party that had been organized.' (*Perils*.11)

However, there are other passive constructions which suggest that the underlying form of the passive may be underspecified as a glide plus the vowel /a/. In the example below, the last word is a passive verb which has the glide /y/ instead of /w/.

(6) $\mathbf{n} = \mathbf{i}$ bà lé ncò... kǎbò $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{i}$ bì-yà. $\hat{\mathbf{n}} = \hat{\mathbf{e}}$ н+éd lè+н ncò+н kǎbò 'n-é bì-yà+н he/she-P1 be **IMPF** come but he/she-P1 seize-Pass 'He was coming...but he got caught.'

Below is a complete list of passive verbs present in my corpus.

Sentences meant to elicit passive verbs mostly failed. As can be seen from the three examples above, when a passive is possible, it is the object with the semantic role of patient which becomes the new subject.

| (7) | dówà | 'be eaten' | from | dò | 'eat' |
|-----|---------|---------------|------------|------|------------|
| | sówà | 'be done' | | sá | 'do' |
| | sówàwà | 'be done' | | sá | 'do' |
| | bìyà | 'be seized' | | bì | 'seize' |
| | númbàwà | 'be known' | | númb | 'know' |
| | kégàwà | 'be organized | l ' | kég | 'organize' |

There are no productive causative processes. There are two words which may have reflexes of the proto-Bantu causative suffix *ic-i.

(8) ságèzè 'shake' *from* sá 'do' kwámèzà 'prepare'

There are also a number of words which correlate to what has been described as an ablaut causativization process in related languages. Below are some examples. This is not currently productive in Kol either.

(9) wûl 'take out' wòl 'get up'bêr 'put, place' bâr 'climb in'bwêd 'clothe' bwâd 'wear clothes'

- (10) bùr mé wòl lê-mò-wàlà má-lôl,
 b-ùr mé wòl lé-mò-wàlà н+mò-lôl
 2-person be (chg) get.up Loc-6-hour 6-Poss-6-three(3)
 'The people got up at 3 am....' (*Perils*.66)
- (11) myă bà lè m-ûr jí wúl mà kwînt $l\acute{e}$ - $l\acute{u}$ = $w\acute{e}$, myà н+m-ùr á bò lè jí wûl kwéndè lé-lú=è mà IMPF want remove me time RELCL-1-man P2 be hook Loc-head-RelCL When the man wanted to take the hook out of my hair, [I told him, "While you're taking that out, time is going by."]

There are also two possible relics left from the proto-applicative suffix *Id. A small set of verbs appear to have a frozen derivational morpheme -l. However, these appear to have somewhat passive semantics.

(12) byêl 'be born' *from* byâ 'give birth' bwîl 'be broken'

There is another relic where the *d has been lost, but the vowel of the applicative and the inflectional final vowel has been retained (as is common in other Bantu languages. An example is given below.

(13) ncw=é d-éà nò bwà.

we (dual)-F1 eat-Appl with them

'They will take care of us.' (lit. We will eat from them.)

Finally, there is a possible frozen element which may be a reflex of a reflexive extension, shown below, though it differs in shape quite a bit from

the reconstructed *-an reflexive extension, which is very common in other Bantu languages.

(14) bìz = á túk lê yìg-òlà nò dá.

we-P2 be (neg) IMPF pretend-RECP with ancestor

'We shouldn't compare ourselves to the father.' (*Ram.*42)

This is not productive, and in general to express meanings like 'himself' or 'themselves,' Kol speakers will use the exclusive pronoun described in chapter 3.

Another relic, possibly of the *-ud reversive extension, is illustrated by the two examples below. The relationship between the two verbs seems to be one of antonymy, or reversive.

- (15) n=ì sé dìp lé-bέ.

 jì-é sè+H dìb+H lè-bέ
 he/she-P1 already open 5-door
 'She opened the door.'
- (16) n=ì sé dìbèlò lé-bé. jì-é sè+н dìbèlò+н lè-bé he/she-P1 already close 5-door 'She closed the door.'

In other pairs, a similar frozen suffix (which differs in its final vowel) seems to mark the relationship between related intransitive and transitive verbs.

- (17) mpyó bándà dímbà dùk. yé sé mpyó é sè+н bándà+н dìmbè dùk 1-dog P1 Perf really be.lost forest 'The dog is lost in the forest.'
- (18) n = isé dímbələ dùk. mpyó y-é 'n-é sè+н н+clédmíb mpyò y-é dùg he/she-P1 **PERF** 1-dog 1-his lose forest 'He lost his dog in the forest.'

In Kol, there are three additional frozen suffixes which when affixed to a verb root may alter the semantics of the verb in irregular ways. The differing semantic relationships between root and derived stem are intriguing, as is the number of times the semantics does *not* seem to change. A listing of related words is given below.

(19) -èlè

| jábèlè | 'call back' | jáb | 'call (s.o.)' |
|---------|-------------|------|-----------------|
| jígələ | 'teach' | jîk | 'learn' |
| fyàzələ | 'examine' | fyàl | 'test, examine' |
| bwègèlé | 'bring up' | bwèg | 'bring up' |
| ntégèlè | 'annoy' | nték | 'annoy' |

| | bámbálá | 'shout at' | bâm | 'roar' |
|------|---------|------------|------|--------------|
| (20) | -èbè | | | |
| | jógèbè | 'hear' | jwôk | 'hear, feel' |
| | bùgùbà | 'prosper' | bù | 'be scarce' |
| (21) | -èrè | | | |
| | jwàgàrà | 'suspect' | jwôk | 'hear, feel' |

In summary, while synchronically Kol does not have any productive valence-changing suffixes, there is evidence that it may have in the past.

These suffixes are now frozen, non-productive, and non-transparent in their semantics.

2 Tense, Aspect, and Mode

Tense, aspect and mode may be marked in Kol by auxiliaries, clitics or independent words, or by a combination of all three. Auxiliaries will be discussed in section 3. In the sections below, tense markers will be discussed first, followed by discussions of aspect and mode.

2.1 TENSE

Kol has five absolute tenses and one relative tense. In the affirmative, there are two past tenses, a present tense, and two future tenses. The time spans that the absolute tenses cover are given below.

| Aff | P2 | | P1 | Pres | F1 | F2 |
|-----|----------------|-----------|-----------|-------|----------|-----------|
| • | Ancestors' Era | Last Year | Yesterday | Today | Tomorrow | Next Year |

Kol marks tense through a combination of tense morphemes and grammatical tones. Most tenses are marked by a single vowel, but two tenses, the distant future and the relative immediate past tense, combine a tense vowel with an additional tense morpheme. All of the tenses except the far past share a similar tonal contour, in that a high tone is added after every word in the verbal sequence. This will be discussed in more detail in section 2.1.7.

The tense morphemes are the first element in the verb and form a phonological word with pronominal subjects. As is to be expected, the tense vowels are all in complementary distribution with each other. In addition, they are in complementary distribution with the proclitic portion of the perfective negative marker, discussed in section 4.1.

The absolute tenses are marked by the following morphemes:

far past (P2)

recent past (P1) é + H

present ó + H

near future(FUT) é + H

distant future (F2) $\acute{e} + bw\acute{o} + H$

While the recent past and the future morphems have the same underlying shape, they trigger different phonological processes as will be discussed in section 2.1.2 and 2.1.3 below.

The relative immediate tense is marked by the morpheme $lw\acute{a}nd\grave{o}b\grave{o}$ 'just' which co-occurs with either the absolute present tense vowel \acute{o} or the far past tense vowel \acute{a} .

Tense markers are not obligatory. Frequently, if the tense has been already established, via context or previous utterances, tense will not be overtly marked.

2.1.1 The Far Past

The far past is used to refer to events that occurred yesterday or more distantly in the past. It is the only tense which does not exhibit tone concord.

- (22) mólú wàzà mpízé n = ǎ mùr.

 H + mò-lú wàzà mpìzé n = á m-ùr

 6-era forget back he/she-P2 1-man

 'In times past, he forgot someone.'
- (23) m=ă bà mpànd d-úlágá dwábà. I=P2 be Mpand 5-certain 5-day 'I was at Mpand one day.'

2.1.2 The Recent Past

The recent past is used for events that occurred earlier that day or yesterday. In the example below, the speaker is telling his wife about the illness that hit him since he left the house that morning. The recent past, like all other tenses in Kol, adds a grammatical high tone after every preverbal element and the main verb, represented by H in the example below (and all following examples).

(24)m = enúmá kò kúŋá ncòò lôl támà sé ncì. I-P1 also + H go + H defecate + H time 3 mid 3-path 'I had to stop three times along the way to go to the bathroom.' (Joy.12)

While the recent past and the immediate future both consist of the front mid vowel /e/, the recent past marker undergoes raising after the palatal nasal, as seen below and the future marker does not.

(25) nò kùgú
$$p=i$$
 nìgó kò njáp.
nò kùgú $\hat{p}=\hat{e}$ nìgò+ μ kò + μ njáb
with evening he/she-P1 return go house
'Yesterday, he returned home.'

Additionally, the recent past vowel will undergo the regular rounding rule whereby /i/ becomes [u] if it neighbors the labiovelar glide /w/, as shown below.

Finally, the recent past is the only tense wherby the normally optional H tone merger rule is required. This means that if the recent past tense vowel \acute{e} is followed by a verb with an underlying H tone on its first syllable, the high tone of the tense vowel will merge with the H tone of the verb, allowing the underlying L tone of the subject clitic to surface. This results in an apparent polar tone. Compare (26) above with example (27) below.

2.1.3 The Immediate Past

The immediate past is used for events that just happened. It adds the additional tense morpheme $lw\acute{a}nd\grave{o}b\grave{o}$ 'just' to either the present tense marker \acute{o} as shown in (28) or the far past tense marker \acute{a} as shown in (29). $Lw\acute{a}nd\grave{o}b\grave{o}$ does not occur as a main verb nor may it appear in other places in the verbal sequence as do adverbs.

- (28) n=ó lwándəbə́ bwəgə́ kwan.

 n=ó lwándəbə+н bwəg+н kwan

 he/she-Pres just harvest 9-honey

 'He just harvested honey.'
- (29)ná tùgá bíz = á lwándèbè bè lê-ncòn nà ncàá ŋgà? $biz = \acute{a}$ lwándèbè nâ tùg bò lé-ncòŋ nò ncà ŋgà we-P2 and be (neg) just Loc-dance this be with now 'Weren't we just at the party now?' (*Perils*.77)

2.1.4 The Present Tense

The present tense is used for events that are happening at the current moment or in the immediate future. It is marked by the tense vowel δ , as shown below and the high tone tense concord.

(30) n=6 bwɔ̀gə́ kwàn.

he/she-PRES harvest + H 9-honey

'He harvests honey.'

The present tense marker is also used to express a habitual sense, when it is combined with the perfect aspect marker *sé*. This will be discussed in section 2.2.5.

In a larger discourse context, once the time of the events under discussion has been established, it is common to leave out overt tense marking. However, in isolation, this is only allowed for the present tense. It is very common for speakers to use an alternative present tense construction with the auxiliary verb ji to be (attributive). Even though this construction lacks the tense vowel, it still exhibits the tonal concord found with other present tense constructions.

(31) múùz nề= jí bárà múr. н+mùùz nề jì +н bárà +н m-ùr today he/she be (att) greet 1-man 'Today, he greeted a man.'

2.1.5 The Near Future

The near future is used to refer to events which will occur later today, tomorrow, or shortly thereafter. It is marked by the tense vowel \acute{e} which differs from the recent past marker in that it does not undergo raising to /i/ after a palatal nasal.

(32) émáné n=ě bwògó kwàn.

tomorrow he/she-Fut harvest+H 9-honey
'Tomorrow, he will harvest honey.'

2.1.6 The Distant Future

The distant future is used for events that are further away in the future, i.e. next month or next year. It is marked by the future tense vowel \acute{e} and the additional tense morpheme $bw\acute{o}$.

(33) m=ě bwó bù lá.

I-F1 F2 break + H glass

'I will break the glass (in a month).'

The additional tense morpheme is not required if the idea of a more distant future has been established by means of a temporal expression. In that case, the future tense vowel will be used alone, as shown in the example below.

(34)ngúmbà nkúúnd múùz, $n = \check{e}$ wàzà m-ûr. ngúmbà ŋkúúnd н+mùùz $\hat{\mathbf{n}} = \hat{\mathbf{e}}$ wàzà + H 1-man month follow today he/she-Fut forget 1-man 'Next month, he will forget someone.'

2.1.7 Tense tonal concord

As was mentioned above, all of the tenses except the far past share a similar tonal contour, in that in addition to the tense marker, a H tone suffix

is added. Compare an example of a sentence in the far past in (35) with sentences marked for other tenses in (36)-(39), namely the near past, the present, the future, and the distant future.

- (35) n=ă bwɔgə kwan.

 n=á bwɔg kwan.

 he/she-P2 harvest (honey) 9-honey

 'He was harvesting honey.'
- kwàn. (36) nò kùgú, p=ibwàgá nò kùgú, $\hat{n} = \hat{e}$ bwàg+н kwàn. he/she-P1 with evening harvest (honey) 9-honey 'Yesterday, he harvested honey.'
- (37) $p = \delta$ bw $\partial g \delta$ kw $\partial h n$. $p = \delta$ bw $\partial g + H$ kw $\partial h n$. he-PRES harvest (honey) 9-honey 'He harvests honey.'
- (38) émáné n=ě bwògó kwàn.

 émáné n=é bwògó kwàn.

 tomorrow he/she-Fut harvest (honey) 9-honey

 'Tomorrow, he will harvest honey.'
- (39) $p = \check{e}$ bwó bwɔʻgə́ kwàn. $\mathring{p} = \acute{e}$ bwó+H bwɔʻgə́+H kwàn. he/she-FUT F2 harvest (honey) 9-honey 'He will harvest honey [in a month].'

Not only is this H tone added after the verb as shown above, but it is also added after every preverbal element in the verbal sequence (and the

main verb itself). Again, compare (40) with (41) where a H tone is added after both the imperfective marker and the verb stem in (41) but not in (40).

- (40) n=ă lè bwɔgə kwan.

 n=á lè bwɔgə kwan.

 he/she-P2 IMPF harvest (honey) 9-honey

 'He was harvesting honey.'
- (41) n=ŏ l'é bwògó kwàn.

 n=ó lè+н bwògó+н kwàn.

 he-PRES IMPF harvest (honey) 9-honey

 'He harvests honey.'

This additional H tone triggers downstep in the imperfective marker which is underlyingly low. Specifically, the floating H delinks the underlying L of the imperfective marker. The underlying L cannot merge with the preceding tone because the preceding syllable is already hosting a complex contour tone. The underlying L must remain floating and thus triggers downstep.

Similarly, compare (42) with (43) where a H tone is added after the auxiliary verb and the main verb in (43) but not in (42). Since the auxiliary has an underlying L tone in (42), it surfaces with a downstepped H tone in (43).

- (42) n=ă ncè bwògè kwàn.

 n=á ncè bwògè kwàn.

 he/she-P2 come harvest (honey) 9-honey

 'Il est venu cueillir du miel.'
- (43) $\mathfrak{n}=\mathfrak{i}$ $\mathfrak{n} c^! \hat{\mathfrak{o}}$ $\mathfrak{b} w \hat{\mathfrak{o}} g \hat{\mathfrak{o}}$ $\mathfrak{k} w \hat{\mathfrak{o}} \mathfrak{n}.$ $\mathfrak{n} = \hat{\mathfrak{o}} \qquad \mathfrak{n} c \hat{\mathfrak{o}} + \mathfrak{n} \qquad \mathfrak{b} w \hat{\mathfrak{o}} g \hat{\mathfrak{o}} + \mathfrak{n} \qquad \mathfrak{k} w \hat{\mathfrak{o}} \mathfrak{n}.$ $\mathfrak{n} = \hat{\mathfrak{o}} \qquad \mathfrak{n} c \hat{\mathfrak{o}} + \mathfrak{n} \qquad \mathfrak{b} w \hat{\mathfrak{o}} g \hat{\mathfrak{o}} + \mathfrak{n} \qquad \mathfrak{k} w \hat{\mathfrak{o}} \mathfrak{n}.$ $\mathfrak{n} = \hat{\mathfrak{o}} \qquad \mathfrak{n} c \hat{\mathfrak{o}} + \mathfrak{n} \qquad \mathfrak{b} w \hat{\mathfrak{o}} g \hat{\mathfrak{o}} + \mathfrak{n} \qquad \mathfrak{k} w \hat{\mathfrak{o}} \mathfrak{n}.$ $\mathfrak{n} = \hat{\mathfrak{o}} \qquad \mathfrak{n} c \hat{\mathfrak{o}} + \mathfrak{n} \qquad \mathfrak{k} w \hat{\mathfrak{o}} \mathfrak{n}.$ $\mathfrak{n} = \hat{\mathfrak{o}} \qquad \mathfrak{n} c \hat{\mathfrak{o}} + \mathfrak{n} \qquad \mathfrak{k} w \hat{\mathfrak{o}} \mathfrak{n}.$ $\mathfrak{n} = \hat{\mathfrak{o}} \qquad \mathfrak{n} c \hat{\mathfrak{o}} + \mathfrak{n} \mathfrak{$

The grammatical H tone may be absorbed into a following lexical H tone. If there are no surrounding H tones, it delinks the tone to its left and docks there, triggering downstep if there are no merger possibilities for a floating L. Both strategies are shown below in (44). (45) is a parallel sentence in the far past (P2) tense without the grammatical H tone.

Below in (44), the floating H after the auxiliary surfaces on the final syllable of the first verb of the verbal sequence *nìgò*. Its underlying L tone is retracted to only appear on the first syllable. The floating H after the main verb merges with the underlying H tone of the object.

(44) nò kùgú n=inìgó kò njáp. kùgú nò $\hat{\mathbf{n}} = \hat{\mathbf{e}}$ nìgó+н kò + н njáb with evening he-P1 house return go 'Today he returned home.'

However, it is not possible to say that it is inserted after every element in the verb phrase, since it is not added after the direct object. Rather, the scope of this tonal concord is only the preverbal elements and the main verb, not the verb phrase. This interesting fact will be taken up again in chapter 5, section 3.1.

Since all of the tenses which trigger the tonal concord are marked by morphemes with underlying H tones, i.e. \acute{e} (P1), \acute{o} (PRES), and \acute{e} (FUT), it has been suggested that maybe the tonal concord is not a suffixal H tone but rather H tone spreading from the left. I have rejected this analysis because in polysyllabic preverbal morphemes, such as the auxiliary verb $nig\grave{o}$ 'return' below, we can see that the H tone does not spread across both syllables. The underlying L tone of the verb is maintained on the first syllable.

(46) nò kùgú
$$n=1$$
 nìgó kò njáp.

nò kùgú $\hat{n}=\hat{e}$ nìgó + h kò + h njáb

with evening he-P1 return go house

'Today he returned home.'

Additional evidence for the tense concord not being a case of tone spreading can be found in sentences which are interpreted as being in the present tense, possibly because of the tense concord, but which lack overt tense marking. In the example below, there is no present tense vowel to be a source of the H tone of the tense concord, but the tense concord is still present as can be seen by the surface high tones of the imperfective marker and the verb 'stay,' both of which have underlyingly low tones.

(47)
$$\hat{n} = \hat{j}$$
 $\hat{n} = \hat{j}$ $\hat{n} = \hat{j}$ $\hat{n} = \hat{j}$ $\hat{n} + \hat{n} = \hat{j} + \hat{n} = \hat{n} = \hat{j} + \hat{n} = \hat{n$

This is most common with the attributive copula $j\hat{\imath}$ shown above and the negative copula $t\hat{\imath}g$ shown below.

2.2 ASPECT

Kol has all six of the aspectual categories commonly seen across Bantu languages (Nurse 2003). The perfective aspect is unmarked, while the

imperfective, perfect (anterior), progressive and persistive are marked with the morphemes shown below.

| Aspect | |
|--------------|-----|
| Perfective | Ø |
| Perfect | sé |
| Imperfective | lè |
| Progressive | gò |
| Persistive | léŋ |

Table 4.3 Aspect in Kol

The sixth common aspect seen across Bantu languages is the habitual. Kol marks the habitual by a combination of the present tense vowel \acute{o} and the perfect (anterior) marker $s\acute{e}$.

Unsurprisingly, aspect markers may not co-occur with each other.

They are also not required to co-occur with tense markers, though if they do that may lead to specialized semantics, as in the case of the *habitual* mentioned above.

2.2.1 Perfect

The perfect, also known as the anterior, is relatively common in Kol discourse. It is marked by the preverbal morpheme *sé*. The perfect refers to a

past action with present consequences (Nurse 2003) and is frequently translated as 'already.'

Another example is given below. This sentence is interpreted as being in the past, without overt tense marking, due to the aspectual marking.

2.2.2 Imperfective

The imperfective is marked by the preverbal morphme *lè*. The imperfective marks verbs as being non-punctual; instead they are activities that occur over an undefined period of time. Below is an example marked for the far past tense. This tense inserts no additional tonal contour, allowing the underlying tones of the morphemes to surface.

(51)
$$\mathfrak{n}=\check{a}$$
 lè bwògè kwàn. $\mathring{\mathfrak{n}}=\acute{a}$ lè bwòg kwàn he/she-P2 IMPF harvest 9-honey 'He was harvesting honey.'

Nurse (2003) notes that the imperfective may be used to contrast background information with foregrounded information marked by the perfective. In Kol, the perfective is unmarked, but the imperfective and the perfect are occasionally used in the contrastive nature that Nurse describes. Below is an example.

2.2.3 Progressive

Kol also has a progressive marker, *gó*. The term 'progressive' is generally used to refer to an action which is going on when a second action begins.

(53)nà= jí syè bísìzà $n = \hat{o}$ gó sìnè fwán. n= syè+н bè-sìzà $\hat{\mathbf{n}} = \mathbf{o}$ jì+н gó+н sìpè+н fwàn he/she be(att) sing 8-song he/she-Pres Prog grind corn 'She sings while grinding corn.'

In Kol, multiple clauses may be marked with the progressive, showing that they are ongoing with respect to each other, as illustrated by the example below.

(54)nî mò-díbá, $biz = \acute{o}$ lwâk. $v = \acute{o}$ gó gó gó+н mò-díbá biz = 6lwâg $y = \delta$ nî gó 7SUB-PRES Prog enter 6-water we-PRES **PROG** empty 'As the water was coming in, we were bailing it out.'

The progressive only occurs with the present tense, as shown above, which may explain way Kol speakers have developed other grammaticalized structures, using the verb $k\grave{o}$ 'go' or the copula $j\grave{i}$ 'be (attributive),' with similar semantics to fill in the gaps. $j\grave{i}$ is discussed below in section 3.1.2, while $k\grave{o}$ is discussed in section 3.2.2.

While it may be tempting to suggest that gó is a grammaticalization of the verb $k\grave{o}$ 'go,' this will be rejected as a possibility for two reasons. First of all, voicing is distinctive in Kol, unless the obstruent is in word-final position. Speakers are unlikely to confuse /k/ and /g/ in initial position, nor is there evidence for weakening in initial position. Secondly, and more convincingly, the progressive markers in related languages are similar to $g\acute{o}$ but also maintain a separate verb 'go' which in all cases begins with a voiceless stop.

| | Makaa | Kol | Nzime |
|-------------|-------|-----|-------|
| progressive | ŋgè | gó | ŋgà |
| 'go' | kə | kò | to |

Table 4.4 Progressive in Makaa, Kol and Konzime

Additionally, there are three examples of the marker $\eta g \hat{\sigma}$ in my corpus. Since it is identical to the Makaa progressive marker, this may be another reflex of the progressive marker. $\eta g \hat{\sigma}$ also appears in contexts where, if any tense is present, it is the present tense.

- (55) bwó ŋgá jágàlà, bwó ŋgá jágàlà.

 they Prog pray they ITER pray

 'They were praying and praying.'
- (56)bwó wiink mbàp mbàp mísísìm. ŋgá bwó ŋgá wiing mbàp mbàp mè-sísìm they Prog chase bad bad 4-bad.spirit 'They chased [exorcised] a bad spirit.'
- (57) $y = \check{o}$ ŋgá bùlù nték nò kùgú. $y = \acute{o}$ ŋgá+H bùlù + H nték + H kùgú nò **7SUB-PRES P**ROG many annoy with evening 'Yesterday, it really bothered us.' (Funeral.06)

2.2.4 Persistive

Though 'persistive' is not an especially common aspect crosslinguistically, it is found in a number of Bantu languages. It is commonly translated as 'still' or 'to keep doing X.' Kol also has an adverb *náŋ* meaning 'still.' It is able to co-occur with another aspect marker, e.g. the imperfective *lè*, as well as negatives, unlike the aspect marker currently under discussion.

- (58) mè-díbá lêŋ kwá nî.6-water PERS again enter'The water kept coming in.'
- (59) ko ko ko, bwó lêŋ kó kùrò nténè [sound made at door] they PERS go hit (with hand) like.that 'Ko ko ko, they kept on knocking.'

2.2.5 Habitual

As was mentioned above, the habitual in Kol is marked by a combination of the present tense vowel \acute{o} and the perfect (or anterior) aspect marker $s\acute{e}$. It is unusual to have an anterior marker combined with non-past tenses, though the idea in this habitual construction is that it is a regular event which has been completed multiple times in the past but which will be undertaken again.

(60)
$$\mathfrak{p} = \acute{o}$$
 sé $b^w \grave{\circ} g \acute{\circ}$ $k^w \grave{\circ} n$.
 $\mathring{\mathfrak{p}} = \acute{o}$ sé $+ H$ $b^w \grave{\circ} g + H$ $k^w \grave{\circ} n$
he/she-PRES PERF harvest 9-honey
'He harvests honey.' (habitually)

(61)
$$p = 0$$
 sé bìì dwôm tô mèmbú mébá njì $p = 0$

$$p = 0$$

$$p$$

'He had been getting medical care for two years, but he was still sick.'

(62) myà
$$w=\hat{o}$$
 sé bùl \hat{o} dìg \hat{o} b= \hat{e} , $w=\hat{o}$ jî sáŋ myà+ \hat{h} $w=\hat{o}$ sé+ \hat{h} bùl \hat{u} + \hat{h} dìg \hat{o} b= \hat{e} $w=\hat{o}$ jì+ \hat{h} sáŋ time-RelCl you-Pres Perf many sweat-RelCl you-Pres be search

sá
$$m \hat{\vartheta} = t \hat{\epsilon} l \hat{\epsilon}$$
 $\eta k^w \hat{\delta} \hat{\delta} \hat{m} \hat{n}$.
sá + H $m \hat{\vartheta} = t \hat{\epsilon} l \hat{\epsilon}$ $\eta k w \hat{\delta} \hat{m} \hat{n}$
7-thing-RelCl I refresh throat

'When you sweat a lot, you look for something to refresh your throat.'

2.3 MODE

The Kol language has four modal distinctions: indicative, subjunctive, interrogative and conditional. Only two of these are marked by preverbal elements, namely the subjunctive and the conditional. The indicative mode is unmarked, which is common cross-linguistically. Interrogatives are marked by the use of special question words.

2.3.1 Subjunctive

The subjunctive in Kol includes hortative and imperative constructions. It may be marked by an enclitic = g or a preverbal element $h\acute{a}$.

2.3.1.1 The subjunctive enclitic

The subjunctive enclitic -g is used to mark both hortative and imperative forms. It is always accompanied by a grammatical H tone. If the subject is plural, the enclitic included an additional vowel, resulting in the form $-g\acute{a}$. An example of the singular imperative, marked with the subjunctive enclitic is given below in (63) while an example of the plural imperative is in (64).

- (63) jí-k bwá náð jê"

 jí-g+H bwð nâ jè

 ask-SubJ them that what?

 "Ask them what they want!"
- (64) myâ bé bè-kèkák ndé ŋgà jwábó-gá this when you (pl) 8-small child be (loc) respect-SUBJ (PL) + H bàsángà nè bànángà bín,.... 2-father 2-mother 2- your (pl) and 'When you children here respect your fathers and your mothers,..'

The enclitic = g appears on the first element of the verbal sequence, whatever that may be. It may appear on a main verb in (65), an auxiliary in

(66), and the word *kwó* in (67). (*Kwò* is a challenge when it comes to assigning parts of speech. It will be discussed in more detail in section 5 in this chapter and in chapter 5, section 1.4.)

- $b \acute{o} = k$ (66)wò ké fèndà nà mà. ké fèndà nò wò $b\hat{a} = g + H$ mà be-IMP (SG) NEG be.in.rivalry you (SG) with me 'You must not put yourself in competition with me.'
- (67)mà= kwó=k túgá jì nâ $m = \hat{o}$ bár è-byól. m̀= jí tùg nâ $m = \acute{o}$ $kw\dot{o} = g + H$ bár+н lè-byôl be (neg) want that I-PRES again-SUBJ climb in-canoe 'I don't want to get in a canoe anymore!'

2.3.1.2 Fǎ

The morpheme $f\check{a}$ (or $h\check{a}$ for some speakers) is also used to mark imperatives or hortatives. In all the examples I have, it occurs at the beginning of the verbal sequence, before auxiliaries, and also before the consecutive marker $k\grave{a}$. It does not co-occur with the subjunctive enclitic described above. It is generally be translated as 'should.' Below are two examples, one of a full clause and one of an imperative.

- (68) bw = ó hǎ kwìr bá-nòòngá bóp.

 bwó-ó fǎ + H kwìr + H bò-nòòngâ b-ób

 they-Pres should help 2-mother their

 'They should help their mothers.'
- (69) "hǎ kà wú."

 fã kà wú

 should Cons exit

 'Come out then." (Serpent.34)

2.3.2 Conditional

Kol primarily marks conditional clauses via subordinate conjunctions. It has two conditional complementizers, $\eta g \acute{e}$ for simple conditionals and $tw\grave{e}$ for concessive conditionals. In addition though, there is a counterfactual conditional marker which may be used independently of the complementizers, or with them, as illustrated in example (70) below. This clarifies that the situation described in the clause marked by the counterfactual morpheme did not actually take place.

(70) myá
$$m=\hat{o}$$
 twóng ślá $n\hat{o}$ ngé $m=\check{a}$ mbá $m\hat{a}+H$ $m=\hat{o}$ twóng ślá $n\hat{o}$ ngé $m=\check{a}$ mbá time-RelCl I-Pres think that if I-P2 Cond

kò yè $l\acute{e}m\grave{o}d\acute{i}b = \acute{\epsilon}$ kò yè $l\acute{e}-m\grave{o}-d\acute{i}b\acute{o} = \grave{e}$ go die in-6-water-RELCL

'When I think that I could have died in the water...'

In this case, the narrator did not actually die, as is evidenced by the fact that she is telling the story now, in a time past the time of the near-death experience.

2.4 CONSECUTIVE

Kol also has a consecutive marker $k\hat{a}$, which is common (both the form and the function) in Bantu languages. In Kol, it may occur with a number of different tenses and aspects. In discourse contexts, $k\hat{a}$ is generally found in the first clause after an aside or digression. The example below is found directly after an extended quotation.

Other clauses within that same sentence may also be marked with $k\hat{a}$. In the example below, the relative clause at the beginning is the first clause after a digression. Both it and the main clause are marked with $k\hat{a}$.

(72) myà
$$m = \acute{a}$$
 sé kà nc \grave{a} já n-é-njwòŋ-è myà+H $\grave{m} = \acute{a}$ sé kà nc \grave{a} jâ n \grave{a} -lé-jwòŋ-è 3-time-RelCL I-P2 Perf Cons come sleep with-Loc-bed-RelCL

èsáp sé kà lál númá. á ncè è-sáp á sé kà ncè lál númá. 5-illness **P2** PERF Cons come be.strong also 'By the time I laid down, the illness had already hit me hard.' (Illness.09)

Kà occupies an unusual place in the morphosyntax of the Kol verb.

The Kol verb is quite templatic, as will be described in chapter 5, section 1. It allows one slot for a tense vowel, one slot for an additional tense marker (for the immediate past or distant future), and one slot for aspectual markers. Kà co-occurs with both kinds of tense markers and with aspect markers, so it may not be classified with either of these sets of morphemes.

Additionally, $k\dot{a}$ resembles adverbs in having freer word order than the rest of the preverbal morphemes. Its syntax will be discussed in more detail in section 1.2.2. Part of this freer word order can be seen in the way that $k\dot{a}$ plus the basic copula $b\dot{a}$ have been grammaticalized to form a conjunction meaning 'but.' An example is given below.

(73) kǎ bà bw = á ʃùŋà bɨzá nób bá-b-ɛ̂z.

but they-P2 discuss us other 2-2-each, all

'They saved both of us.' [lit. discussed with death] (Joy.37)

3 Auxiliaries

Kol has a large set of full verbs which may also be used as auxiliaries. Some of these are more grammaticalized than others. These verbs have been analyzed as auxiliaries and not serial verbs or light verbs because they do not impact the argument structure of the predicate, they can be separated from the main verb, and remain affirmative while the main verb is negated. This will be discussed in more detail in chapter 5, section 1.5.

If a verb precedes a verb prefixed with the infinitive (or class 5) marker, as shown in the two examples below, the initial verb is *not* considered to be an auxiliary but rather the main verb of the clause.

- (74) n=ă tér lè-bwɔgə kwan.

 n=á tér lè-bwɔg kwan

 he/she-P2 start INF-harvest 9-honey

 'He started to harvest honey.'
- (75) m= ǎ kwàmòzà lê-kò wú.

 m= á kwàmòzà lè-kò wú

 I-P2 prepare INF-go there

 'I got ready to go there.'

Occasionally, a verb, such as the verb *têr* 'to start' may occur as either an auxiliary, as will be described below, or as a verb taking an infinitival

complement as shown above. The two constructions are distinct, both in meaning, and in syntactic structure. Infinitival complements will be discussed in chapter 5, section 2.1.2.

The verbs which may occur as auxiliaries are divided into three sections. Copula verbs will be discussed first. The next section will discuss the verbs which can occur as *phasal* auxiliaries, contributing to the aspectual reading of the clause. The verbs which add modal information will be discussed last.

3.1 COPULAR VERBS

Kol has at first glance an overabundance of copulas, with four affirmative copulas and one negative copula. However, all four affirmative copulas have different semantic functions: $nd\acute{e}$ is the locative copula, expressing 'to be at'; $j\grave{\imath}$ is the attributive and equative copula; $m\acute{e}$ is used whenever there is a change of state; and $b\grave{o}$ is the basic copula, with the widest and most general meaning.

The affirmative copulas occur in independent clauses as the only verb and also occur as auxiliaries. When they are functioning as auxiliaries, they appear as the first verb in a multi-verb construction. That is to say, they are

marked for tense, while following verbs are marked for aspect and other grammatical categories. This will be discussed in more detail in chapter 5, section 1.

3.1.1 Locative Copula

The copula *ndé* is used in independent affirmative clauses to express location. It is restricted to clauses unmarked for tense or marked for present tense. It does not co-occur with aspectual markers.

(76) mà = á bè lè jwák cíè mè ndé yàùnt.

I-P2 be IMPF feel illness I be (loc) Yaoundé
'While I was in Yaounde, I got sick.' (*Illness*.02)

As an auxiliary, it expresses simultaneity. It frequently occurs in subordinate clauses which refer to an event which happened at the same time as the event in the main clause.

(77) n=incò ndé lé twô ŋkà пá jwôg tyè. $\hat{n} = \hat{e}$ ncò+н ηkà пà ndé lè twô jwóg tyè he-P1 come even as he be (loc) IMPF feel sick 'He came even though he felt sick.'

Kol also has a word *ndé* which means 'while.' Given the similarity in semantics between simultaneity and 'while,' it is likely that these two words are related. At this point though, it is difficult to know in which way the

historical development went, i.e. whether *ndé* began as a conjunction and has been reinterpreted into a copula or vice versa. An example of the conjunction *ndé* is given below.

3.1.2 Equative and Attributive Copula

The copula ji is used in independent affirmative clauses to express equation and attribution. It primarily occurs in unmarked clauses or with the present tense, and as the main verb never co-occurs with aspectual markers. Below is an example of an equative clause using ji, followed by an example of an attributive clause.

(79) mwâ lóŋ-gà jì lóŋ kwár Bìjùmp.
 little discourse-this be discourse village Bidjombo
 'This little story is the story of Bidjombo village.' (Bidjombo.001)

(80) ntúm w-àŋɔ́ jì bèrá
1-brother 1-my be (att) big
'My brother is big.'

This copula may also be used to express location, overlapping with the semantic function of $nd\acute{e}$. Below are two comparable sentences, said by a single speaker within one text. Both copulas are the only verb within their clause, though $j\grave{i}$ is found in a simple clause, while $nd\acute{e}$ is in a subordinate clause.

- (81) myâ njwúŋ ndé té.

 myà H+njwúŋ ndé té-è
 time-RELCL 9-respect be (loc) Loc-RELCL
 '[The family prospers] when respect is there.' (Family.09)
- (82) nèbè nê njwúŋ jì té.

 nèbé nê njwúŋ jì té

 because that 9-respect be Loc

 'Because there is respect.' (Family.16)

This copula does not occur with the far past tense which may be due to its historical development. In the neighboring language of Makaa, the copula $b\hat{\sigma}$ has a distinct form $-s\hat{\sigma}$ in the present tense. This present tense form obligatorily agrees with the subject noun. For class 7 (the default inanimate noun class in Makaa, as in Kol), the form is $j\hat{\imath}$ -s $\hat{\sigma}$. Modern-day Makaa speakers

frequently drop the copula bound root in speech. If Kol has a similar history, this could have led to the reanalysis of ji as a distinct copula in the present tense, which could slowly be expanding morphosyntactically to occur with multiple tenses, though not the far past (yet).

The copula $j\hat{\imath}$ is also commonly used with the preposition $n\hat{o}$ 'with' to express possession, i.e. 'to have.' (This is also the case for the basic copula $b\hat{o}$ to be discussed below.)

(83) mò-wázá jì nò w-úl mbì kwóŋ
6-northerner be with 3-another 3-type sorcery
'Northerners have a different kind of sorcery.'

As an auxiliary, *jì* gives an imperfective aspectual reading. An example is given below. Interestingly, such examples are negated using a specifically imperfective strategy as seen in section 4.2.1.

(84) nà = jì bándà jwóg tyè.

nì = jì bándà jwóg tyè
he be (att) really feel sick

'He is really feeling sick.'

The copula $j\hat{i}$ can also be used to express a present tense reading in the absence of the tense vowel δ , as shown below.

(85) mòtáŋ jî jáp é-cè d-ɔ̀ɔŋgə́ nə̂ "diarrhée rouge."

white be(att) call 5-illness 5-DEF that red diarrhea (in French)

'White people call this illness 'red diarrhea.' (actually dysentery)

However $j\hat{\imath}$ may also appear with the nonverbal imperfective marker $l\hat{e}$ suggesting that $j\hat{\imath}$ may contribute some more specific information to the whole clause than simply imperfective. This combination is frequently translated as 'be in the process of.'

3.1.3 Change of state

The copula *mé* marks a change of state. Below are two examples which contrast the use of *mé* with that of the attributive copula *jî*. As a main verb, it only co-occurs with the present tense or is found in clauses unmarked for tense.

(87) $m = \hat{o}$ jí ngwâm.

I-PRES be (att) + H single
'I am single.' (never married)

(88) m=ò mé ŋgwâm.

I-Pres be (chg) +н single
'I am single.' (widowed or divorced)

As an auxiliary verb, *mé* also marks a new state. It is sometimes translated as 'already.' Unlike the perfect marker, it does not refer to a completed action in the past.

(89) $p = \delta$ mé lè syé. $p = \delta$ mé + H lè + H syé he/she-PRES be (chg) IMPF work 'He is already working.'

New events, or changes of state, frequently correspond to pivotal moments in a discourse. However, $m\acute{e}$ is not the only way to highlight information, so its frequency in texts varies from very low (nonexistent) to very high. The following sentence is taken from a story where the narrator chose to use this discourse marker as the primary way to mark storyline (or eventline) information.

(90) mà lê mé kò kúná ná tìtìtì, ě-nàk mácì. Ι be (chg) **IMPF** defecate with regularity INF-defecate go 6-blood 'I was having bloody diarrhea, all the time.' (Joy.22)

3.1.4 Basic Form

The copula *bò* is by far the most common of the four affirmative copulas. It occurs with all tenses, may be marked for aspect and may be modified by auxiliary verbs. It may express equation as in (91), attribution as in (92), or location as in (93).

- (91) twě n=á bà ncícâm...

 twě n-á bò ncícâm

 even.if she-P2 be leper

 'Even though she was a leper,...' (Funeral.18)
- (92) y=á bò njùk.
 í=á bò njùg
 7Sub-P2 be difficult, hard
 'It was very hard.'
- (93) mè bìz=á bò lè-mò-díbó.

 mè bìzè=á bò lè-mò-díbó

 but we-P2 be in-6-water

 'But we were in the water.'

The copula $b\dot{o}$ is frequently pronounced as [b \dot{o}]. Much of the time this can be explained by the mid-vowel centralization process already described, where [o] centralizes to [\dot{o}] before nasals and the alveolar fricatives. This is the case for (91) and (92) above. However, some speakers also use the form [\dot{o}] when this environment is not present, as seen in (93). When the

subjunctive clitic is added though, speakers consistently use the [bo] form, suggesting that if, for some speakers, the underlying form of this copula is becoming [b $\dot{\theta}$], the result may be a suppletive subjunctive form, as is already the case for $nc\dot{\theta}$ 'come' (subjunctive form $nc\hat{a}$ -).

If this copula is used with the preposition $n \hat{\sigma}$ 'with', it may also express possession.

(94) tèm bà nà fà n-òòngá.

even be with 9-machete 9-that

...even having that machete.

As an auxiliary, it adds a stative meaning to the verbal sequence.

(95) nàbá myà w-òòngá
$$m=\check{a}$$
 bà lê syé njáp nàbá myà w-òòngá $\check{m}=\check{a}$ bà lé sⁱê njáb because 3-time 3-Def I-P2 be IMPF work 3-house

mớ kôl. mó kôl 3Poss cord

'Because, at that time, I worked at the radio station.' (Perils.27)

Below is an example where three of the copulas occur, each used in a typical way. The basic copula is used to express the beginning state, $j\hat{\imath}$ is used imperfectively, and $m\acute{e}$ marks the change of state at the end.

(96)
$$p = \acute{a}$$
 bà lé bùlú jwóg tyè, $p = \check{a}$ jì jò, $\mathring{p} = \acute{a}$ bà lè bùlú jwóg t^jè $\mathring{p} = \acute{a}$ jì jò he-P2 be IMPF a.lot feel sick he-P2 be (att) die

$$n\grave{\Rightarrow}$$
 $c\check{a}g\grave{a}$ $n=\grave{o}$ $m\acute{e}$ $mpw\grave{o}g\acute{e}$. $n\grave{\Rightarrow}$ $c\check{a}g\grave{a}$ $\grave{n}=\acute{o}$ $m\acute{e}$ $mpw\grave{o}g\acute{e}$ with now $he-Pres$ be (chg) $be.well$

'He was very sick, he was dying, but now he's healthy.'

3.1.5 Negative Copula

Kol also has a negative copula *túg*. It can appear on its own as shown below or as an auxiliary. Negation strategies will be discussed in section 4. The negative copula does not co-occur with tense markers.

(97) bìyól né túk fámá bìyôl.
canoe that (spec) be (neg) true, real, good canoe
'...that canoe wasn't a good canoe.'

3.2 PHASAL AUXILIARIES

Kol has a number of non-copula auxiliaries. These pattern together syntactically, in that they occur after the tense markers, copula auxiliaries, and aspect markers. However, they differ in that some auxiliaries have more of an aspectual meaning, i.e. describing the nature or internal structure of the event, while others have more of a modal meaning, i.e. describing desires or

obligations. The phasal auxiliaries described in this section fufill the aspectual functions. The modal auxiliaries will be described in section 3.3 below.

3.2.1 'Come' = Inceptive

The auxiliary verb $nc\delta$ from the verb $nc\delta$ meaning 'to come' is used as an auxiliary to mark the beginning point of a process. This is one of the most

common auxiliaries. Below is an example of $nc\dot{o}$ as a main verb, followed by an example showing $nc\dot{o}$ as an auxiliary with inceptive semantics.

- (98) n=ě ncò nò mò-mìr.

 n=é ncò nò mè-mìr

 he-Fut come with 4-medicine

 'He will bring medicine.' (Joy.18)
- (99) myǎ bíz = ó ncò bâr ébíyólé,

 myà H+bìzò = ó ncò+H bâr+H lé-byôl-è

 3-time RELCL-we-PRES come climb, ascend Loc-canoe-RELCL

 'As soon as we got in the canoe, [water began to come in].'

It can also have a purpose reading, along the lines of 'came in order to.'

An example is given below.

(100) n=ă ncò bárà m-ùd.

n=á ncò bárà m-ùd

he/she-P2 come greet 1-man

'He came to greet the man.'

3.2.2 'Go' = Continuous

The verb $k \delta$ means 'to go, leave' as a main verb but is also very commonly used as an auxiliary to focus on the midpoint of a process. As a main verb, Kol can be either intransitive as in example (101) or transitive as in (102).

- (101) kùkúmá sè bwě kò.

 kùkúmá sè bwě kò
 chief PERF long.time.ago go
 'The chief already left a while ago.'
- (102) n=á nìgò kò njáp.

 nìgò kò njáp

 he/she-P2 return go house

 'He went back home.'

As a transitive verb, $k\hat{o}$ can also be used metaphorically.

(103) mw-ăn sé kò lé-jwò.

mò-ăn sé kò lé-jwò
1-child PERF go 5-sleep

'The child fell asleep.' (lit. went into sleep.)

Below is an example of $k\hat{o}$ as an auxiliary. In this case, the auxiliary adds the idea that the subject is in the middle of a process.

(104)
$$p = \delta$$
 kó bw $\delta g \delta$ kw δh .

 $\hat{p} = \delta$ k δh bw $\delta g \delta h$ kw δh .

 $\hat{p} = \delta$ ko havest 9-honey

'He is in the process of harvesting honey.'

In other cases, the auxiliary is less grammaticalized, maintaining its motion verb semantics. This is parallel to what was seen with the verb *nc*ò 'come.'

(105)
$$n = 6$$
 kò bárà mûr.
 $n = 6$ kò + H bárà + H m-ùr
he/she-PRES go greet 1-man
'He goes to greet the man.'

 $K\grave{o}$ differs from the progressive marker $g\acute{o}$ in that it may occur with all of the tenses while $g\acute{o}$ is restricted to present tense constructions. They are not completely in complementary distribution since $k\grave{o}$ may occur in the present tense as well, as seen in (104) and (105) above.

3.2.3 'Return' = Repetitive

The auxiliary nigo has been grouped with the phasal auxiliaries because it also describes part of a process. The non-auxiliary verb nigo means 'to go back, to return.'

 $(108) m = \check{a}$ nûmp nê mě bòſú. nìgò nà nûmb nô $\dot{m} = \acute{e}$ nìgò bò-∫ú m̀≃á nà I-P2 know that I-Fut return with 2-fish 'I thought that I would come back with fish.'

The auxiliary means 'to go back to the beginning, to repeat, to do again.'

- (109)têm bà ntáŋ bìzá ncà nìgò kò kwár. tèm bà ntáŋ bìzá-á nìgò kà ncè kwád like that we-P2 again village even be come go In spite of that, we started to go back home to the village.
- (110) n=é nìgò bárà mûr.

 jì=é nìgò+н bárà+н m-ùr
 he/she-Fuт return greet 1-man
 'He will regreet someone.'

It is very similar in meaning to the adverb *kwó* 'again,' described below in section 5, but the adverb and the auxiliary may co-occur with each other, giving in cases like example (111) below an iterative reading. The shades of semantic difference remain a question for further research.

(111) $p = \check{o}$ nìgó kwó bínà ηó. $\hat{n} = \hat{o}$ nìgò+н kwó+н bén+н лò he/she-PRES return again raise him/her 'He keeps raising him.'

3.2.4 Do first

The verb *tér* as a main verb means 'to start.' It requires an infinitival complement.

(112) n=ă tér lè-bwɔgə kwan.

n=á tér lè-bwɔg kwan

he/she-P2 start INF-harvest 9-honey

'He started to harvest honey.'

The auxiliary verb tér means 'to do first.'

(113) bà-sár bwó mê ncè tér fyàl má màcì. bè-sér bwó mé ncà tér fyàl mà mà-cì they 2-sister (nun) be (chg) come first test (v) 4-blood me 'The Sisters first tested my blood.' (Joy.24)

3.3 MODAL AUXILIARIES

In addition to the phasal auxiliaries described above, Kol also has a number of modal auxiliaries, which express desires, obligations and potentialities. Unlike the copula and phasal auxiliaries described above, two of these verbs only appear as auxiliaries.

3.3.1 Optative mode (need, want)

The optative auxiliary, used to express needs and desires, is *jí* meaning 'to want.' It is related to another non-auxiliary verb *jí* meaning 'to ask.' Below

is an example of *jí* 'want' used as a main verb followed by an example of it used as an auxiliary.

- (114) w=ŏ jí mò-kùmà ŋké bè-kàbà.

 ŵ-ó jí mò-kùmà ŋké bè-kàbà
 you (sg)-Pres want 6-manioc or 8-cocoyam
 'You want manioc or yams.'
- (115) myă m-ûr bà lè jí wúl mà kwint lélúwé, á lè jí kwéndè lé-lú-è myà н+m-ùr bà wûl mà RELCL-1-man P2 be IMPF want remove me hook in-head-RELCL time When the man who was rowing wanted to take the hook out of my hair, [I told him, "While you're taking that out, time is going by."]

3.3.2 Deontic mode (must)

The auxiliary verb *jàlànà* expresses obligation. It only occurs as an auxiliary.

(116) é-jî jàlànà yè bé fòk.

INF-ask must give you (pl) 9-wisdom

'Asking must give you wisdom.' (*Advice.*17)

3.3.3 Potential mode (can)

The potential auxiliary, translated as 'can, be able to,' is *kwóg*. The example below shows this modal auxiliary in the negative.

(117) m=ă=kwóg=é bâr é-byôl.

I=NEG=can=NEG climb in-canoe
'I couldn't climb in the canoe.'

3.3.4 Really

There is only one example of *bándà* as a main verb in my corpus. As a main verb, it means 'to go well' while as an auxiliary it means 'really.'

(118) ntíbátí té nùmá nè kè bándà náŋ.

Ntibati Loc too that Neg go.well still

'At Ntibati too, it didn't go well.'

It is quite common as an auxiliary verb and tends to co-occur with other auxiliary verbs. As can be seen in the two examples below, there is non fixed order among the non-copula auxiliary verbs.

- (119)bándá bwó mê ncè ∫ùŋà má. bwó mé+н ncò+н bàndà+н ∫ùŋà+н mà be (chg) come really discuss they me 'They saved me.' [lit. They really discussed me [impl. with death].]
- (120) $m\grave{\vartheta} = nd\^{a}k$ bándà ncó mpwógé. bà m̀= ndâg bàndà ncò bà mpwógé there really come healthy be 'I refound my health.' (Illness.28)

4 Negation

Negation in Kol is sensitive to differences in scope, tense, and aspect.

Kol speakers may choose to a negation strategy which has scope over the entire sentence, or they may choose to negate a smaller portion of the clause.

If the whole verbal sequence is to be negated, the negative element must show up in the first position of the verbal sequence. If only part of the verbal sequence is to be negated, then Kol speakers use the morpheme $k\acute{e}$ which behaves like an adverb.

The example below is a command to not do something. Thus the imperative (suffixed to the copula auxiliary $b\hat{a}$ which has a stative interpretation) is affirmative, while the main verb is negated.

(121) w=ò bó-k ké fèndà nò mà.
you (sg) be-IMP (sg) NEG be.in.rivalry with me
'You must not put yourself in competition with me.'

Below is another example where the copula auxiliary *ndé*, which has a 'simultaneous' interpretation, is in the affirmative while the main verbs are both negated.

(122) m=è ndé ké dùló sìgá ké bè nê ɲwɛ̀l mé-ŋòk. I-P1 be+н Neg+н smoke cigarette Neg be with drink+н 6-wine 'I neither smoked nor drank.' (Illness.15)

Negation in Kol is also sensitive to tense distinctions. Kol has more tense distinctions in the past in negative clauses than it does in affirmative clauses, but it has fewer distinctions in the non-past. A comparative chart is given below.

| Aff | P2 | | P1 | Pres | F1 | F2 |
|-----|----------------|-----------|-----------|-------|----------|-----------|
| Neg | Р3 | P2 | P1 | á. | è | F2 |
| | Ancestors' Era | Last Year | Yesterday | Today | Tomorrow | Next Year |

Additionally, negation is sensitive to aspect. Imperfective sentences have fewer negation strategies available than do perfectives. Below is a chart giving the negative TAM system. These forms are based on three basic negation strategies: a circumclitic, a negative prefix and a negative copula.

| Mode | Aspect | Tense | |
|-------------|--------------|---------|----------|
| Indicative | Perfective | F2 | àbwéyè |
| | | Pres/F1 | à= + =é |
| | | P1 | áncé + H |
| | " | P2 | áncé |
| | | Р3 | áncégé |
| | Imperfective | PRES | túg |
| | | P1 | áncé +H |
| | | P2 | áncé |
| | | Р3 | áncégé |
| Subjunctive | | | ké |

Table 4.5 Kol Negation

4.1 PERFECTIVE CLAUSES

In the perfective, speakers may appeal to one of three negative strategies. The most common negation strategy for perfective clauses is the circumclitic $\acute{a}....\grave{e}$. The circumclitic is used when the scope of the negation is the entire clause. The circumclitic is always hosted by the first element of the verb. The distant future is formed by combining the negative circumclitic with the distant future marker $bw\acute{o}$. Three of the negative tenses are

historically derived from combining the auxiliary *ncò* 'come' with the negative circumclitic.

If a speaker does not want to negate the entire sentence, he will use the negative prefix $k\acute{e}$, as shown by example (123) below.

(123) m=è ndé ké dùló sìgá ké bè nê nwɛl mé-nòk.

I-P1 be+н Neg+н smoke cigarette Neg be with drink+н 6-wine
'I neither smoked nor drank.' (Illness.15)

4.1.1 Non-Past Perfective Negation

Clauses in the perfective present and immediate future are negated via the circumclitic $\dot{a}=...=\dot{e}$ on the first word of the verbal sequence. It is interesting to note that using circumclitics to mark sentential negation is not crosslinguistically unusual, being found in a number of different languages in different language families, e.g. French, Breton and Old Icelandic.

This morpheme is being analyzed as a circumclitic because it has less strict co-occurrence requirements than we might expect of an affix and relatively strict positioning. The other logical option, that these are two independent words which co-occur to mark negation, seems unlikely since there is no evidence that these markers may occur independently on their

own. If \acute{a} occurs alone, it is understood as being the far past tense marker \acute{a} , and if \grave{e} occurs alone on a word, it will be understood as being the relative clause boundary marker described above in chapter 3, section 6.1. While the far past tense morpheme and the first element of the negation marker may occur in the same position (immediately following the subject noun or pronoun), the positioning of the second element of the negative marker and the relative clause marker is very different.

As was mentioned above, the non-past perfective negative circumclitic is hosted by the first word of the verbal sequence. This can be the main verb as seen in (124) and (125). The proclitic vowel behaves like the tense vowels in that it cliticizes to the subject pronoun, if it directly follows it, resulting in the deletion of the vowel of the subject pronoun, as can be seen below.

- (124) múùz, $p=\grave{a}=d\acute{e}g=\acute{e}$ lề-kán. $\mathring{p}-\acute{a}-d\acute{e}g-\grave{e}+H$ lề-kán today he/she-NEG-see-NEG+H 5-antelope 'Today, he didn't see an antelope.'
- (125) émáné n= ǎ=wàzà=yè mûr. émáné n̂-á-wàzà-è +н mw-ùr tomorrow he/she-NEG-forget-NEG 1-man 'Tomorrow, he will not forget anyone.'

If an auxiliary is the first element in the verbal sequence, then it hosts the circumclitic as shown below in (126) for a copula auxiliary and in (127) for a non-copular auxiliary.

- (126) $t \circ b$ a = j = e $d \circ d \circ k$. sheep Neg-be(att)-Neg+H stay+H Forest 'Sheep don't stay in the forest.'
- (127) $p = \hat{a} = nig = \hat{e}$ wàzà m-ûr. he/she-Neg-return-Neg+ μ forget+ μ 1- man 'He doesn't forget anyone anymore.'

The negative circumclitic may also be hosted by a morpheme marking tense. In affirmative clauses, the relative immediate past tense marker may host the negative circumclitic, as seen below.

(128) $\mathfrak{n}=\hat{a}=lw$ ánd $\hat{a}b=\hat{e}$ wàzà m- $\hat{u}r$. he/she-Neg-just-Neg+ μ forget+ μ 1-man 'He didn't just forget someone.'

This circumclitic may also appear on its own with an epenthetic consonant. Examples for this in my database are severely restricted to cases with the morpheme *kwó*, the verb *tér* 'start,' and the verbs meaning 'finish' *síl* and *dwág*.

4.2 DISTANT FUTURE NEGATION

The distant future is negated by adding the negative circumclitic to the distant future tense morpheme $bw\acute{o}$. In the affirmative, $bw\acute{o}$ must co-occur with the immediate future tense marker \acute{e} . However, when the distant future is negated, the proclitic element of the circumclitic appears in the place of the tense vowel.

(130)
$$p = \hat{a} = bw\hat{e} = y'\hat{e}$$
 wàzà m-ûr.
 \hat{p} -á-bwó- \hat{e} +H wàzà+H mw-ùr
 \hat{b} -NEG-F2-NEG forget 1-man
'He will not forget anyone.'

There is a lot of variation (even among the utterances of a single speaker) with the distant future negation. This suggests that this is either a newer part of the speech system, or at the other end of the spectrum, a dying part of the speech system. Below are two other forms of the negative distant future, both given by the same speaker as example (130) above.

- (131) $p = \hat{a} = bw\hat{e} = n'\hat{e}$ wàzà mûr. $\hat{p} = \hat{a} = bw\hat{o} = \hat{e} + H$ wàzà + H mw-ùr he/she-NEG-F2-NEG forget 1-man 'He will not forget anyone.'
- (132) ŋ=à=bwé=!é wàzà.

 jì=á=bwó=è+н wàzà+н

 he/she-NEG-F2-NEG forget

 'He will not forget.'

4.3 PAST NEGATION

Kol has more tense distinctions in the past for negative constructions than for affirmative constructions. In the affirmative, there is a two way distinction in the past (the recent past marker \acute{e} and the far past marker \acute{a}). However, in the negative, there is a three way distinction between the recent past, the far past, and the very far past. These will all be described below.

4.3.1 Negation in the Recent Past

The negation marker for the recent past is **áncé**. It always appears directly after the subject and before any other grammatical markers or auxiliaries. It appears to be derived from the present tense negated form of the verb *ncè* which means 'to come' as a full verb though both syllables have underlying H tones instead of the expected HL contour. This construction is

marked by the H tone tense concord, just as is the case for the affirmative recent past tense.

Negated recent past clauses imply that the negative state is not permanent. In stories, the negative situation may have appeared permanent at that point in the story, but the situation is reversed before the end.

4.3.2 Negation in the Far Past

The negative marker for the far past is also *áncé*, but the far past negative construction differs from the recent past negative in that it is *not* marked with the H tone tense concord, as can be seen by the lack of a H on the last syllable of the verb or the first syllable of the direct object. This is similar to the affirmative far past tense.

(134) mbwá làngé, n=àncé wàzà mùr.

mbwá làngé n=áncé wàzà mw-ùr

year past he/she-NEGP2 forget 1-man

'Last year, he didn't forget anyone.'

4.3.3 Negation in the Very Far Past

As has been mentioned above, there are more tense distinctions in the negative than in the affirmative for the past tenses. The negation marker for the very far past is $\acute{a}nc\acute{e}g\acute{e}$. Again, it appears directly after the subject and before any other pre-stem material. It too is derived from the verb $nc\grave{a}$ 'to come.' The [g] may be related to the subjunctive suffix (discussed in section 3.6.1).

(135) n=ăncégé wàzà mùr.

jì=áncégé wàzà mw-ùr

he/she-NegP3 forget 1-man

'He didn't forget anyone.'

What is interesting from a tone rule perspective though is the variation found in tonal behavior at the left boundary of the verb. Below are examples using the very far past negative marker áncégé. In example (14) below, there is no subject pronoun, which allows the underlying H tone of the negative marker to surface on all three vowels.

(136) á-myâ, myá bámpámp, nkwin áncégé lè dí dùk á-myâ н + bò- mpámp myá ŋkwɨn áncégé lè dì dùg ?-time 3-time 3AM-2-ancestor leopard NEGP3 **IMPF** stay forest 'In the time of the ancestors, the panther didn't stay in the forest.'

In the following example, the H tone is only associated with the last two vowels of the negative marker. The L tone of the subject pronoun surfaces on the first vowel of the negative marker.

(137) n=àncégé dì dìk.

jì=áncégé dì dìg

he/she-NEGP3 stay forest

'He didn't stay in the forest.'

Some speakers have an alternative form *ancógó*, as shown in the example below.

bíyôl fáámá. (138) myà mê j-é, bìyól áncógó bà 3-time be (chg) arrive-RELCL NEGP3 canoe canoe be good 'When the canoe came, it wasn't in good condition.'

4.4 IMPERFECTIVE CLAUSES

Imperfective clauses show fewer distinctions than do perfective clauses, having only a distinction between the present (non-past) and past tenses.

4.4.1 Present (Non-Past) Imperfective

Present sentences marked with the imperfective marker *lè* may only be negated using the negative copula *túg*, as shown below.

(139) ŋè túgś lé wàzà m-ûr. he/she be (NEG) +н IMPF+н forget+н 1-man 'He wasn't forgetting anyone.'

It is interesting that clauses which are not overtly marked for the imperfective may be interpreted as being imperfective as seen by the negation strategies chosen. For example, it is extremely common for speakers to choose to negate a construction of $j\hat{\imath}$ + main verb (without the imperfective marker $l\hat{e}$) by means of the $t\hat{u}g$ + $l\hat{e}$ negation strategy. This is illustrated by the affirmative/negative paradigm below.

- (140) ŋkwɨŋ jí dí dûk.

 ŋkwɨŋ jì+H dì+H dùg
 leopard be (att) stay forest

 'The leopard stays in the forest.'
- (141)lé dûk. tóòb túgá dì tóòb túg + H lè +н di + Hdùg sheep be (neg) **IMPF** stay forest 'Sheep don't stay in the forest.'

The use of the present imperfective negative strategy is in spite of the fact that speakers *could* negate the copula using the negative circumclitic, as shown below. This strategy though occurs relatively rarely in my corpus.

(142)
$$t\acute{o}\acute{o}b$$
 $\acute{a}=j=\grave{e}$ $d\grave{i}$ $d\grave{u}k$. $t\acute{o}\acute{o}b$ $\acute{a}=j\grave{i}=\grave{e}$ $d\grave{i}$ $d\grave{u}g$ sheep Neg-be (att)-Neg stay forest 'Sheep don't stay in the forest.'

4.4.2 Past Imperfective

Unlike the present imperfective described above, past imperfective clauses in the past tense are negated in the same way as past perfective clauses using *áncé* for the recent past and far past, as illustrated by the example below.

(143) n=àncé lè bínà nò.

n=áncé lè+H bén+H nò
he/she-NEGP2 IMPF raise him/her
'He wasn't raising him.'

To negate imperfective clauses in the distant past, Kol speakers use áncégé, as shown below.

(144) ámyâ, bémpámp, myá ŋkwɨn áncégé lè dí dùk. á-myà myà н + bò-mpámb ηkwín áncégé lè dì dùg ?-time 3-time 3Assoc-2-ancestor leopard NEGP3 IMPF stay forest 'In the ancestors' time, the leopard didn't stay in the forest.'

4.5 PROGRESSIVE CLAUSES

Interestingly, the progressive aspect marker permits the negation strategy described for perfective clauses, even though progressive is more similar to the imperfective aspect than to the perfective aspect. Compare the affirmative and negative sentences below.

- (145) n=ò gó wàzà m-ûr.

 jì=ó gó wàzà m-ùr

 he-Pres Prog forget 1-man

 'He continues to forget someone.'
- (146) n=a=g=e wàzà m-ûr. n=a=g=e wàzà m-ùr he-Neg-Prog-Neg forget 1-man 'He doesn't continue to forget someone.'

4.6 NEGATIVE PREFIX

The negative prefix is used, as mentioned in the introduction, whenever the speaker does not wish the negation to have sentential scope but intends to only negate part of the construction.

(147) wò bók ké fèndà nò mà.
you (sg) be-IMP (sg) NEG be in rivalry with me
'You must not put yourself in competition with me.'

This means that the negative commonly used in subjunctive clauses – either hortative or imperative - since it is generally the case that the speaker does not want to negate the part of the construction which adds the subjunctive (e.g. imperative as in the example above) element but rather the event in question.

Ké is also used to negate 'bare' clauses, which lack independent tense or aspect markers. In a discourse context, once the subject and tense information have been established, they do not need to be repeated until either the subject or tense changes or there is a discourse boundary. Since such clause chains are common in Kol, ké is the most common negation strategy in texts.

(148) mò-lú mó-bá $n=\acute{a}$ kò dì bèrtwà ká nìgέ, mò-lú mó-bá $H + \hat{n} = \hat{a}$ kò dì bèrtwà ké nìgò-è 6-era 6-two RELCL-he-P2 go stay Bertoua NEG return-RELCL During the two days that he stayed in Bertoua without returning home,'

4.7 NEGATIVE ADVERB

Kol has a negative adverb *tútú* meaning 'never.' It is not necessary for this to co-occur with any other negative markers, unlike the adverb described in the section below.

(149) mbàmpyòn nâ "tútù! mà= bá ndé jwî." mbàmpyòŋ nâ tútù mà bà ndé jwî lion that never Ι be be (loc) chief, ruler 'The lion said, "Never! I am the chief here." '

4.8 NEGATIVE + ADVERB

One adverb, $n\acute{a}\eta$, which in isolation means 'still, yet', frequently occurs with the negative markers. It may either co-occur with the negative copula as illustrated in (150), or with the morpheme $k\acute{e}$, as shown in (151). When combined with these negative morphemes, the construction acquires the meaning 'no longer,' translated in French as 'pas encore' or 'ne plus'.

- (150)mè-njà lè sá mà tû wo nâ myá tùk náŋ. mè-njà á lè sá tû fym mà wò nâ tùg náŋ 4-intestine P2 IMPF do me inside manner that 4SUBJ be (neg) still 'I was feeling like my intestines weren't there inside me anymore.'
- (151) mà mé tègá kí ŋkùl. náŋ nò mà mé tègá ké náŋ ŋkùl nò be (chg) (be)tired neg still, and, with force, power 'I was tired, had no energy.' (Joy.21)

5 Adverbials

The label *adverb* in this study has been restricted to a set of words which have traditional adverbial semantics (they add temporal, locative or manner information) and which have relatively free word order and therefore contrast with other lexical categories which appear within the verb phrase.

As was mentioned in chapter 3, Kol also has a class of locative and temporal nouns. These may be translated as adverbs but in Kol they do not belong to this lexical class, having a different syntactic distribution.

Additionally, Kol also has prepositional phrases which may be used to express manner, temporal or locative information. These are adjuncts and will be discussed in chapter 5.

Some Kol adverbs are particularly free. These adverbs may appear outside of the verb phrase (on the left periphery of the sentence), outside of the verbal sequence (after the main verb, between objects or on the right periphery), and in multiple places within the verbal sequence.

In the examples below, the adverb nji occurs within the verbal sequence in (152) and outside in (153).

- (152) m = è númэ́ njì lé lèlà.

 I-P1 also,too+н only+н IMPF+н shiver,tremble
 'I kept trembling.'
- (153) m \hat{a} = sá kwân njì lê-mbègəlá ncììmbé, má $\dot{m} =$ sá kwân njì lé-mbègèlá н+mà ncììmbé do 7-meeting only Loc-9-protection 3Poss God 'I participated in the meeting under the protection of God.' (Joy.07)

Other adverbs which have similar patterns are given below.

Another class of words is very free within the verbal sequence but does not appear to occur outside of the verbal sequence.

In the example below, *bwè* 'for a long time' occurs before the aspect marker in (156) and after in (157). This is typical of the words given in (155).

lè dì dùk.
lè dì dùg
IMPF stay forest
In the ancestors' time, the leopard stayed in the forest.

It is possible that instead of adverbs, these are actually verbs.

However, I have decided to classify them as adverbs because they do not pattern like other clear verbal classes. In (156) above, if *bwè* is a verb, it occurs in what would normally be the copula verb slot (see the following chapter for more on the fixed order of the Kol verb), but in (157) it appears in the non-copula auxiliary slot. While it could be an auxiliary verb, it does not clearly pattern with either of the auxiliary classes.

Similarly for kwò 'again', another word which patterns with bwè, kwò can appear as the object of a preposition, which is not a syntactic slot available to verbs. Admittedly, it is also odd for adverbs to appear as the complement of a preposition. However, there are a number of prepositional phrases with adverbial semantics in Kol, as discussed in section 2.2 of the following chapter. Kwò itself will be discussed in more detail in chapter 5, section 1.4.

(158)têr dwóp dòòngó, m=ăncé ná lè kwò kò náŋá wú. tér dw-ôp d-ààngá $\dot{m} = \dot{a}nc\dot{e}$ nò kwò lè kò náŋ wú 5-day 5-Def I-NEGP1 with again **IMPF** go still there 'Starting that day, I didn't go there anymore.'

It is very common to have more than one adverb in a clause. It is also possible to have adverb stacking. That is to say, it is not necessary to spread adverbs out throughout the clause, but in general no more than two adverbs appear next to each other. These adverbs do not appear in a fixed order.

Below are two examples where adverbs are stacked within the verbal sequence.

- (159) m=è númэ́ njì lé lèlà. I-P1 also,too+н only+н IMPF+н shiver, tremble 'I kept trembling.'
- (160) mè $m = \acute{o}$ kò númá ſwàlá làŋ nâ ncè kwár." $\hat{\mathbf{m}} = \hat{\mathbf{o}}$ kà nùmà ∫wàl làŋ nâ ncè kwád but I-PRES also directly happen 9-village go that come '...but I'm going to leave for the village.' (Ram.35)

5 Morphosyntax of the Verb Phrase

Having described the various elements which may occur within the verb phrase in the last chapter, we now turn our attention to the way in which the verb phrase can be organized.

Kol is similar to many central, eastern and southern Bantu languages in that its verbal sequence is quite templatic. However it differs from these same languages in that the morphemes which fill the different slots of the template are independent words or clitics, and not affixes. Verbal clitics in Kol have strict positioning requirements which can be explained by referring to the crosslinguistic tendency for clitics to occur in second position.

This chapter will also discuss some exceptions to the templatic nature of the Kol verb and offer additional evidence as to why non-main verbs in Kol are analyzed as auxiliary verbs and not complex predicates (serial verbs, compound verbs or light verbs).

Complementation and adjunct patterns will be explored in section 2 and section 3 will examine aspects of Kol verbal morphosyntax in light of formal syntax. In particular, Role and Reference Grammar will offer insight

as to the scope of the tense tonal concord, though some complications will arise when RRG predictions about operator scope are compared to the Kol patterns seen.

1 Structure within the Verb Phrase

Bantu languages, of which Kol is one, are assumed to have the minimal structure shown below (Brauner 1995, Meeuwis 1998, Miti 2001, Mohammed 2001 among others).

(1) Subject Marker – Tense – Verb Stem

This structure is illustrated by an example from Swahili, an eastern Bantu language. In addition to the categories above, Swahili also allows a preverbal object marker.

(2) ni- na- wa- heshimu
I PRES them respect
'I respect them.' (Mohammed 2001:ii)

Many Bantu verbs are of course even more complex. (3) gives an example from Cinsenga, a Bantu language spoken in Zambia and Malawi.

This language allows for an initial negative marker, followed by a subject marker, tense morpheme, object marker, verb root, derivational suffix (known 209

as an *extension* in Bantu linguistics) and a final vowel. These slots are labeled above the illustrative morphemes in the example below.

| (3) | Neg | SM | Tense | OM | Verb Stem | | | |
|-----|--|-----|-------|---------|-----------|------|----|--|
| | | | | | Root | Ext | Fv | |
| | si- | ni- | ka- | mu- | lil- | il- | a | |
| | NEG | I | FUT | him/her | cry | APPL | | |
| | 'I will not cry for him/her.' (Miti 2001:79) | | | | | | | |

The Kol verb structure is also fairly templatic in that it has a relatively fixed ordering of the elements in the verbal sequence. A table below gives the typical ordering of verbal units, followed by an example. In natural discourse, it is difficult to find all slots attested in a single utterance, though when slots are filled, they occur in the relative order given below.

| Te | nse | Tense2 | Cop Aux | Asp/Mode | Aux | Verb |
|----|------|-----------------|----------------|----------|---------------|------|
| é | F1 | bwó F2 | bà 'be' | lè Impf | ko 'go' | |
| ó | PRES | lwándèbè 'just' | ndé 'be (loc)' | sè Perf | ncè 'come' | |
| é | P1 | | jì 'be (att)' | mbá Cond | nìgò 'return' | |
| á | P2 | | mé 'be (chg)' | | | |

Table 5.1 Ordering of Verbal Constituents.

<u>Cop Asp Aux Verb</u>

(4) mà= mé lê kò kúŋá ná tìtìtì, ěnàk mácì. be (chg) **IMPF** go defecate with regularity INF-defecate 6-blood 'I was having bloody diarrhea, all the time.' (Joy.22)

Across Bantu languages, when there are construction which contain multiple verbs, it is common for the tense to be encoded on the first verb while aspect is encoded on the second verb (Nurse 2003). This is not the case for Kol however, as can be seen by the example below. Here both tense and aspect precede the auxiliary where we might expect that tense would precede the auxiliary while the aspect marker preceded the main verb.

Tense Aspect Adv Aux Verb

(5) m=è sé númá kò kúŋá lôl ncòò támà ncì. I-P1 PERF + Halso+н go+н defecate+н time three middle 3-path 'I had to stop three times along the way to go to the bathroom.' (Joy.12)

However, if the first verb is a copula auxiliary, then the expected pattern holds. The tense marker precedes the copula, and the aspect marker follows the copula, preceding any other verb.

(6) myă m-ûr á bà lè jí wúl mà kwint $l\acute{e}$ - $l\acute{u}w = \acute{e}$, jí myà á bò lè wûl kwindè H+m-ùr mà $l\acute{e}$ - $l\acute{u}$ = \grave{e} time RELCL-1-man P2 be IMPF want remove me hook in-head-RELCL When the man wanted to take the hook out of my hair, [I told him, "While you're taking that out, time is going by."]

In parallel to the affirmative copulas, it is possible for the negative copula to appear in a multi-verb construction where it is marked for tense and the main verb is marked for aspect (and other grammatical categories).

(7) by =
$$\acute{o}$$
 túg \acute{o} lê njêp.

bè = \acute{o} túg + H lè + H njèb

8-PRES be (neg) IMPF lack

'They are not lacking.'

While many of the preverbal elements do not allow multiple exponence of the same slot, there are some exceptions. While the tense vowels and the aspect markers always appear in complementary distribution (i.e. only one may appear at a time, though it is always possible to have a clause unmarked for tense or aspect or both), the auxiliary verb slots permit that more than one occur at a time.

As was just described, it is quite common to have a clause containing both a copula auxiliary and a phasal (or modal) auxiliary. However, it is also possible to have multiple copula auxiliaries in the same sentence or multiple phasal auxiliaries. An example of multiple copula auxiliaries is given below.

(8) njwúŋ bá ndé sá nô mò-bùgùbà $nc\hat{a} = k$. bà ndé njwúŋ sá nô mò-bùgùbà $nc\dot{o} = g + H$ 9-respect be be (loc) 6-prosperity come-SubJ do that 'Respect works to bring prosperity.' (Family.10)

It is also possible to have multiple non-copula auxiliaries, as illustrated below.

- (9)vô= myǎ kò nìgò jê $w\dot{u} = \dot{i}$ myà $H + y \hat{o}$ nìgò jê wú-è kò RELCL + 7SUB go time return arrive there-RELCL 'Arriving there, ...'
- (10)bèsér bwó mê ncè tér fyàl má màcì. bè- soeur bwó mé ncè tér fyàl mà-cì mà 2- sister (nun) they be (chg) first come test (v) 4-blood me 'The Sisters first tested my blood.' (Joy.24)

Adverbs and the consecutive marker $k\dot{a}$ are the exceptions to the fixed word order since they may intrude at numerous places within the verbal sequence as will be discussed in more detail in section 1.3. This fixed word order is not necessarily arbitrary, as will be discussed in section 3.2.

1.1 WORD-HOOD IN THE VERB PHRASE

As was mentioned above, Kol differs from the well-known Bantu languages of central, eastern, and southern Africa in that the morphemes which fill its templatic slots are independent words and not prefixes. (The

morphemes in the initial tense slot may be clitics and not independent words.

These are discussed in section 1.2 below.)

Evidence for the word-hood of the preverbal morphemes can be found in three different areas of the Kol grammar. These are: clitic placement, the tense concord H tone found in many tenses, and the placement of adverbs. The discussion in this section will primarily focus on the morphemes of the *Tense2* slot and on the aspect markers, since these are cross-linguistically likely to be affixes, in contrast to the auxiliary verbs which are likely to be independent words.

Non-past perfective negation in Kol, as was discussed in chapter 4, section 4.1.1, is marked by the circumclitic $\dot{a} = ... = \dot{e}$. This circumclitic appears on the first word of the verbal sequence, as shown below.

(11) tóòb $\acute{a}=j=\grave{e}$ dí dùk. tóòb $\acute{a}=j\grave{i}=\grave{e}+H$ dì+H dùk. sheep NEG-be(att)-NEG stay forest 'Sheep don't stay in the forest.'

This circumclitic may also be hosted by morphemes from the *Tense2* slot, as seen in (12) and (13), which is evidence that these morphemes have the same word status as the copula auxiliary verb seen in (11).

- (12) $p = \hat{a} = lw$ ánd $\hat{b} = \hat{e}$ wàzà m- \hat{u} r. $p = \hat{a} = lw$ ánd \hat{b} \hat{b} \hat{e} \hat{e} + \hat{h} wàzà+ \hat{h} m- \hat{u} r. \hat{h} e/she-NEG-just-NEG forget 1-man 'He didn't just forget someone.'
- (13) $p = \hat{a} = bw\hat{e} = y'\hat{e}$ wàzà m-ûr. $\hat{p} = \hat{a} = bw\hat{o} = \hat{e} + H$ wàzà + H m-ùr he/she-NEG-F2-NEG forget 1-man 'He will not forget anyone.'

The non-past perfective negative circumclitic may also be hosted by an aspect marker.

(14) $p = \hat{a} = g = \hat{e}$ wàzà m-ûr. $\hat{p} = \hat{a} = g = \hat{e}$ wàzà m-ùr he-NEG-PROG-NEG forget 1-man 'He doesn't continue to forget someone.'

This suggests that the progressive aspect marker go is also an independent word. The subjunctive clitic behaves in the same way as the negative circumclitic and so will not be discussed further here though the morphosyntax of verbal clitics is discussed in section 1.2 below.

Another aspect of the morphosyntax of Kol which offers evidence that preverbal morphemes are independent words is the suffixal H tone which marks tense concord. This tonal tense concord was discussed in chapter 4, section 2.1.7. To review, in Kol, all tenses but the far past (P2), share a tonal contour in that every word in the verbal sequence is marked by a suffixal H tone. This can be seen by comparing a sentence in the recent past (P1) with its far past (P2) equivalent.

- (15) nò kùgú n = inìgó kò njáp. kùgú $n = \acute{e}$ nò nìgò+н kò +н njáb with evening he- P1 return 3-house go 'Today he returned home.'
- (16) n=á nìgò kò njáp.

 n=á nìgò kò njáb

 he/she-P2 return go 3-house

 'He went home.'

Crucially, this high tone is also suffixed to aspect markers, as can be seen by comparing (17) and (18) below. The suffixal high tone delinks the underlying low tone of the imperfective marker, resulting in downstep.

(17) $\mathfrak{n} = \check{o}$ l'é bw \grave{o} g \acute{o} kwàn. $\mathfrak{n} = \acute{o}$ lè+ \mathfrak{n} bw \grave{o} g+ \mathfrak{n} kwàn. he-PRES IMPF harvest (honey) 9-honey 'He harvests honey (habitually).'

(18) n=ă lè bwɔgə kwan.

n=á lè bwɔg kwan

he/she-P2 IMPF harvest (honey) 9-honey

'He was harvesting honey.'

Finally, adverbs (and the consecutive marker $k\grave{a}$) can appear in multiple places in the verbal sequence. (See section 1.3 for more information.) One of the places where an adverb can occur is between the aspect marker and the following verb as illustrated in (19) with the adverb $n\acute{u}m\acute{a}$ 'also.' This would not be possible if the aspect marker was an affix, since affixes have strict selectional criteria.

(19)m = e sé númá kò lôl kúŋá ncòò támà ncì. I-P1 Perf+н also+н go+н defecate+н time three middle 3-path 'I also had to go to the bathroom three times along the way.' (Joy.12)

To summarize, the positioning of clitics, the suffixal H tone marking tense concord, and adverbs all give evidence that preverbal morphemes in Kol, particularly aspect markers and the morphemes in the *Tense2* slot, are independent words and not affixes.

1.2 CLITIC POSITIONING

As was noted in the discussion of the perfective negative circumclitic and the subjunctive enclitic, clitics appear in very specific places in Kol. This

is a characteristic of all of the central A.80 Bantu languages. Heath (2003) has described the characteristic placement of the subjunctive marker (and the nature of the tense concord) by making reference to the inflection and the macrostem.

1.2.1 Inflection vs. the Macrostem

The inflection consists of the subject marker and the tense vowel. The macrostem consists of everything else. This distinction is shown for Kol by the table below. This terminology is borrowed from Mutaka and Hyman (1990) where the macrostem was used to refer to the stem plus object prefix, which was the domain of reduplication.

| Inflection | Macrostem | | | | |
|---------------|-----------|---------|----------|-----|------|
| Subject Tense | Tense2 | Cop Aux | Asp/Mode | Aux | Verb |

This division served two purposes. It explained where the subjunctive enclitic could appear, i.e. on the first element of the macrostem, and it also grouped all the elements which could be marked by the tense tonal contour together. (This is why the grammatical H tone marking most tenses is referred to by Heath and Heath as the Macrostem H tone.)

However, it also created a structure which is not universally common.

It would be more elegant if Kol could be described in terms of known crosslinguistic tendencies. In the case of the clitic placement, a possible option would be to refer to the tendency for clitics (like the enclitic portion of the perfective negative and the subjunctive enclitic) to occur in second position.

This however would not resolve the second advantage of the Inflection/Macrostem distinction, namely that of offering a concise description of the scope of the tense tonal concord. This issue will be brought up again in section 3.

1.2.2 Second Position

Second position effects are not usually associated with Bantu languages. However, they are attested in a number of different language families around the world, and therefore, a second position analysis is worth considering for Kol.

Second position is used by different researchers to refer to either the position after the first phonological word or after the first syntactic daughter.

When enclitics are hosted by the main verb, the verb is either initial or in second position, depending on whether the subject is a proclitic as shown in (20) or a full noun as shown in (21). The clitics do not occur on the full noun subject because nouns never host clitics.

- (20) n= ă= wàzà = yè. he/she-Neg-forget-Neg 'He doesn't forget.'
- (21) tóòb $\dot{a}=\dot{j}=\dot{e}$ dí dùk. sheep Neg-be-Neg+H stay+H forest 'Sheep don't stay in the forest.'

When an object or adjunct is topicalized, the verb is also in second position, as in (22).

(22) múùz,
$$p = \grave{a} = d\acute{e}g = \acute{e}$$
 lề-kán. \mathring{p} -á-dég-è+H lề-kán today he/she-NEG-see-NEG+H 5-antelope 'Today, he didn't see an antelope.'

All the examples above are of the negative circumclitic. However, there is another candidate for a second position clitic, i.e. the subjunctive enclitic. The subjunctive however may occur with a tense vowel.

(23) $w = \hat{o}$ $b\acute{o} = k$ ké fèndà nè mà. ké b = g + Hfèndà nò w = omà be-IMP (SG) NEG be.in.rivalry with you-Pres 'You must not put yourself in competition with me.'

This tense vowel appears to nullify the second position hypothesis because in the example above, the subjunctive enclitic now appears to occur in third position. However, it may be possible that the tense vowels are themselves clitics. Though they are not phonologically deficient, they do occur in complementary distribution with the proclitic half of the negative circumclitc.

If the tense vowels are also clitics, this would result in clitics again occurring after the first word, since both the subject marker and the tense vowel would be clitics hosted by the first word and invisible to the syntax.

In spite of the fact that the Kol verb is relatively templatic, there *are* words which have freer word order. In some cases, this can be directly related to the question of scope. For example, the negative marker k e differs

from other negation strategies in that it is not required to appear at the

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1.3

beginning of the verbal sequence. Instead, it appears directly before the element it is negating, as shown by the example below where the initial copula is in the affirmative while the first main verb is negated, along with the second clause.

(24) mè ndé ké dùló sìgá, ké bà nê n^wèl mánòk. I -P1 Simul+н Neg+н smoke cigarette Neg be with drink+н 6-wine 'I neither smoked nor drank.' (*Illness*.15)

The words with the most options are the lexical class of adverbs and the consecutive marker $k\hat{a}$. The syntactic placement of adverbs will be discussed first in section 1.2.1, followed by a discussion of the syntax of the consecutive marker $k\hat{a}$.

1.3.1 Adverbs

Adverbs differ from other verbal elements in having the most free word order. They can appear in a number of different positions within the verbal sequence and may also appear outside of the verbal sequence all together.

Below is an example where the adverb númá 'also, too' appears as the first element in a phrase.

(25) númbw =kò (wâmb nô $m\hat{a} =$ jì nà ntú mà-cì. they-P2 also discover that be(att) with 9-diarrhea 6-blood go 'Then they discovered that I had dysentery.' (Joy.27)

Adverbs may also appear between object noun phrases, as illustrated by the adverb *njì* 'only' below.

(26) y=á ŋkwó bì mờ njì lé-mpùŋð.

7SUB-P2 again seize me only in-10-hair

'It snagged me in the hair.'

Adverbs differ from other preverbal elements with fixed templatic slots because they may insert themselves between any two words in the verbal sequence. Since there are four main possible elements, i.e. the copular auxiliary, the aspect marker, the non-copular auxiliary and the main verb, this results in three possible adverb slots. Examples will be given of each possibility below. The first available position for adverbs is after a copular auxiliary and before an aspect marker. This may be seen in (27) and (28). Example (29) also illustrates an adverb appearing in this same position, though this example lacks a copular auxiliary.

(27) ŋð = jí náŋ l'é bwðgó kwàn
he be (att) +н still+н IMPF+н harvest (honey) +н 9-honey
'He still collects honey.'

- (28) ŋð = jì njí l'é bwògó kwàn he/she be (att) +н only+н IMPF +н harvest (honey)+н 9-honey 'He still collects honey.'
- (29) m=è núḿə njì lé lèlà. I-P1 also,too+н only+н IMPF+н shiver,tremble 'I kept trembling.'

The second available position for adverbs is after the aspect marker and before the non-copular auxiliary. The fact that adverbs can appear both before and after the aspect marker offers evidence (in addition to tonal behavior) that aspect markers too are independent words.

(30) m = esé númá kò kúŋá ncòò lôl ntámà ncì. I-P1 middle PERF + Halso+H go+H defecate+н time 3 fork 'I also had to go to the bathroom three times along the way.' (Joy.12)

Finally, adverbs can occur between the non-copular auxiliaries and the main verb.

(31) n=ă kò númó jwák ciè.

he/she-P2 go also,too hear, feel sick

'She got sick too.' (Joy.36)

Adverbs may also appear after the verb, but in that position, they are outside of the verbal sequence. This may be seen because there is no extra H

tone found in that position; the last two words both surface with their underlying low tones.

(32) л=ě kwó d'í njì dùk.

he-Fuт again+н stay+н only forest

'He will continue to stay only in the forest.'

In a number of other Bantu languages, e.g. Chichewa, adverbs may not intrude between the verb and the direct object, unless a prononimal object marker appears on the verb. This pronominal object marker fulfills the valency requirement of the verb and permits freer word order in the verbal dependents and even omission of the full NP object (Mchombo 2001). However, as seen above in (32), Kol does allow an adverb to be inserted between a verb and a following noun phrase. The verb 'stay' in Kol is one of a class of intranstive verbs which has the option of being followed directly by a locative noun. It may be that the locative noun $d\hat{u}g$ is an adjunct and not a complement of the verb $d\hat{t}$. However, if 'forest' was an adjunct, we might expect that it would occur with the locative prefix. More research needs to be done to determine the status of these locative nouns.

1.3.2 Ka

The consecutive morpheme $k\hat{a}$ also has freer word order than most preverbal elements. It may for example occur before the aspect marker as in (33) or after it as in (34).

- (33)myà dì bìzá kă lé lè-sí bízá kà lé dì myà è-sí 3-time we CONS **IMPF** stay Loc-world '...while we are in the world, ...' (Funeral.21)
- (34)myà já $m = \acute{a}$ sé kà n-é-njwòŋ-è ncè myà + H sé kà jâ nà-lé- jwòŋ-è $\dot{\mathbf{m}} = \dot{\mathbf{a}}$ ncè 3-time-RelCL I-P2 PERF CONS come sleep with-Loc-bed-RELCL èsáp sé kà ncè lál númá. númá. è-sáp á sé kà ncè lál 5-illness P2 PERF Cons come be.strong also 'By the time I laid down, the illness had already hit me hard.' (Illness.09)

Additionally, $k\hat{a}$ may occur before the phasal auxiliary as above in (34) or after as below in (35).

(35) bé nìgó kwŏ cíndà kà kà. bé-é kwó+н nìgò+H kà+н cènd+н kò+н you (pl)-FUT return again **CONS** other.side 'You will return again to the other side.'

Kà may even occur after the main verb as illustrated by the example below.

This range of syntactic possibilities makes $k\hat{a}$ similar to the lexical class of adverbs even though the consecutive marker is generally considered to be part of the tense-aspect-mode (TAM) system.

1.4 EMBEDDED PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES

Kol prepositional phrases can express adverbial semantics, i.e. information on time or manner. Most prepositional phrases occur after the verb as shown in the example below.

However, there are some prepositional phrases which appear to be embedded within the verbal sequence. The phrase *nò ŋkùl* 'with power'

occurs between the copula auxiliary and the main verb in the examples below. It is frequently translated as 'can' as seen in (39).

This phrase also occurs outside of the verbal sequence in the expected postverbal position. However, there are actually more examples in the corpus of the embedded construction than the postverbal construction.

The morpheme *kwò* which was mentioned in the *Adverbials* section of chapter 4 can also occur as the object of an apparently embedded prepositional phrase as shown by the two examples below.

- (41) têr dwóp dòòngó, m=ăncé ná kwò 1è kò náŋá wú. tér dw-ôp d-òòngá $\dot{m} = \dot{a}nc\dot{e}$ nò kwó lè kò náη wú 5-day 5-Def I-NEGP1 start with again **IMPF** still go there 'Starting that day, I didn't go there anymore.'
- (42) mà = nò kwó ncà tér lè-jwók bè-wàl.

 I with again come start INF-feel 8-fear
 'I started to be afraid.'

Unlike *nò ŋkùl* 'with power,' there are no examples of this prepositional phrase in a non-embedded position outside of the verb phrase. However, *kwò* is extremely common as a word on its own (classified in chapter 4 as an adverb) within the verbal sequence, and parallel to the behavior of the prepositional version, also does not occur as an adverb outside the verbal sequence though many adverbs can. Perhaps most interestingly, speakers very as to whether this word is pronounced with a prenasalized stop or an oral stop.

(43)nkwó bì lé-mpùŋà. $y = \acute{a}$ mà njì $y = \acute{a}$ kwò bì mà njì lé-mpùŋà. again Loc-10-hair 7SUB-P2 seize me only It snagged me in the hair.

(44) $\hat{n} = \hat{j}$ kwò bárà. $\hat{n} = \hat{j} + \hat{n} + \hat{n}$ kwò + n bárà he be (att) again greet 'He greets again.'

I suggest that this construction began as a prepositional phrase with adverbial semantics (there are many of these in Kol as will be discussed in the section on *Adjuncts* below). Once it was allowed to become embedded in the verbal sequence, the boundary between the preposition and its complement began to erode. Some speakers, such as the one who gave example (43), have collapsed the two into a single phonological word, while others have completely lost any trace of the original preposition.

It remains to be seen whether a similar process will occur with *nò ŋkùl* 'with force' or 'can,' though it is interesting that it is already much more common in my corpus than the modal auxiliary *kwóg* 'can.'

1.5 THE STATUS OF NON-MAIN VERBS

Many Kol verbal sequences contain more than one verb. I have labeled those verbs which are not the main verb (the last verb in the verbal sequence) as auxiliary verbs but up to this point have given only cursory justification of that classification. This section will provide more information as to why I

believe the non-main verbs in Kol are auxiliary verbs and not compound verbs, serial verbs or light verbs.

Since definitions for these terms have varied over the years and from scholar to scholar, I will be making explicit which definitions and criteria I am using throughout the course of this discussion. Scholars with different criteria could of course come to different conclusions.

Bowern (2006) includes both serial verbs and light verbs in her classification of complex predicates. She does not particularly discuss auxiliary verbs, with the implication being where they are mentioned, that these do not fall within the scope of complex predicates. Bowern gives the following criteria for identifying complex predicates (2006:30).

- event structure the predicate describes a single event and not a sequence of events
- selection criteria complex predicate constructions contain
 verbs from a restricted class, unlike coordinate constructions;
 they exhibit non-compositional semantics

- word order the verbs in a complex predicate cannot be separated by intervening material
- nominalization the whole predicate may be nominalized
- interrogatives the predicate functions as a single unit in interrogatives (particularly with respect to interrogative marking)
- negation and temporal adverbs have scope over the whole
 predicate not just particular verbs within the predicate

According to the above criteria, the Kol verbal sequence is *not* a complex predicate. The two criteria which are problematic are *word order* and *negation*. Kol auxiliary verbs may be separated from the main verb by aspect markers, in the case of the copula auxiliaries, or by adverbs. (45) below is an example of a copula auxiliary separated from the main verb by both an adverb and an aspectual marker.

(45) ŋð = jí náŋ l'é bwɔ̂gó kwàn
he be (att) +н still+н Iмрг+н harvest (honey) +н 9-honey
'He still collects honey.'

Below is an example where a non-copula auxiliary is separated from the main verb by an adverb.

(46) n=ă kò númá jwák ciè.

he/she-P2 go also,too hear, feel sick

'She got sick too.' (Joy.36)

Additionally, it is also possible to negate only part of the predicate, as shown below where the first copula auxiliary is outside the scope of the negation.

(47) m=è ndé ké dùló sìgá ké bà nê nwèl má-nòk. I-P1 be +н Neg+н smoke cigarette Neg be with drink+н 6-wine 'I neither smoked nor drank.' (*Illness*.15)

If serial verbs and light verbs are subtypes of complex predicates, and

Kol verbal sequences do not fit the criteria for complex predicates, then that

suggests that the non-main verbs seen in Kol are in fact auxiliary verbs.

Auxiliary verbs do not assign theta roles and function as the heads of

inflectional projections, not as the heads of verbal projections.

This would work for Kol since the auxiliary verbs contribute information to the predicate about the internal structure or mode of the event as described in chapter 4. There are no non-main verbs which impact the

argument structure of the predicate. The argument structure is always defined by the main verb. An intransitive verb remains intransitive even if it is modified by an auxiliary verb as can be seen by the intransitive verb 'die' in the example below.

(48)lé cwòŋgələ méé mà mèè nô mà ncè yà. mà mé lè twàŋgàlà nô mà mé ncè уà be (chg) I IMPF think be (chg) that me come die 'I thought that I would die.'

2 Valence and word order

Kol verbs may be intransitive, transitive or ditransitive. In addition, they may contain additional optional clauses, or adjuncts. An example with two intransitive verbs is given below.

(49)ncò kábò míjòn n=1jí yò. $\hat{\mathbf{n}} = \hat{\mathbf{e}}$ jì+н ncò+н kábò míjàŋ sé yò he-P1 be (att) come but brother PERF die 'He was going to come, but his brother had already died.'

In the sections below, various complementation options will be described in 2.1 followed by a discussion of adjunct possibilities in 2.2.

Some intransitive verbs with semantic patients (or undergoers) as their syntactic subject may express the semantic agent by using a prepositional

phrase, as shown below. Note though that this verb ends in /l/ which is one of the reflexes of the frozen applicative extension. This may explain this relatively odd syntactic patterning.

(50) lá nè bwîl nà mw-ân.

glass this be.broken by 1-child

'This glass was broken by the child.'

2.1 COMPLEMENTS

Kol transitive verbs can have nominal complements, infinitival complements or sentential complements. Each type of complement will be discussed in its own section below.

2.1.1 Nominal Complements

Unmarked nominal complements include prototypical patients as well as locative objects.

2.1.1.1 Direct Object

A large number of Kol verbs are transitive, requiring both a subject noun phrase (or pronoun) and an object noun phrase. The object noun phrases are prototypically fulfilling the semantic role of patient. An example is given below.

(51) n=ă bwɔ̀gə̀ kwàn.

he/she-P2 harvest (honey) 9-honey

'He was harvesting honey.'

2.1.1.2 Locative object

Kol also has a few verbs which would in many languages be intransitive, but in Kol always appear with a locative noun complement. The verb $j\acute{a}$ 'sleep' is one of these verbs. An example is given below. Note that the noun 'hospital' is not marked with the locative prefix $l\acute{e}$ - or a preposition.

(52) m=ă já wàləfírə.
I-P2 sleep hospital
'I slept at the hospital.' (Joy.31)

Many other Kol nouns which can occur without an object may also occur with a locative object. Below are two examples.

- (53)nèbé $m = \acute{a}$ jì уè njwàŋ dwăb d-àŋ. nèbé $\dot{m} = \acute{a}$ jì уà njwăŋ dwôb d-òòngá I-P2 be (att) die river 5-day 5-Def because '...because I was dying on the river that day.'
- (54) ŋkwɨŋ jí dí dûk.

 ŋkwɨŋ jì + H dì + H dùg
 leopard be (att) stay forest

 'The leopard stays in the forest.'

2.1.1.3 Two object constructions

When there are two arguments which follow the verb, the animate one occurs immediately after the verb. Frequently, the animate argument is expressed by a personal pronoun, as in (49). This leads to the hypothesis that maybe the parameter to consider is pronoun vs. full noun phrase, but sentences like (50) suggest that indeed the important parameter is animacy.

- (55) sá jòòngá á lè mà là-nkwùnt sâ j-òòŋgá á lè sá mà lè- ŋkwùnt 7-thing 7-Def P2 **IMPF** do me 5-fear 'That situation scared me...'. (Illness.20)
- (56) si byìn nê $m = \check{a}$ ncììmbé àkíbà bùbù. nìgò уè ná sì bìen nâ $m = \acute{a}$ nìgò νò ncììmbé èkíbà bùlú nò so that I-P2 return give God thanks with a.lot So that I thanked God a lot. (*Illness*.29)

Bearth (2003) states that: "For three argument verbs, most Bantu languages preferentially place the goal or beneficiary immediately after the verb with the patient following the goal." While this is true in Kol for inherently ditranstive verbs like 'give,' it is possible to add a beneficiary using the $l\hat{e}$ - $f\hat{u}$ 'sake of construction. This argument always occurs second as shown in the examples below.

(57)
$$p = \check{e}$$
 sá jwó $l\grave{e}-\check{\int}\acute{u}$ d-àŋ.
 $\grave{p}=\acute{e}$ sá + H jwò $l\grave{e}-\check{\int}\acute{u}$ d-àŋ
he/she-Fut do 70BJ 5-sake 5-my
'He will do it for me.' (lit. 'for my sake')

(58)
$$n = \check{e}$$
 $j\grave{u}$ $m\acute{y}\grave{o}n$ $l\grave{e}-\acute{y}\acute{u}$ $mw\grave{a}n\acute{e}$. $\grave{n}=\acute{e}$ $j\grave{u}+H$ $m\acute{y}\grave{o}n$ $l\grave{e}-\acute{y}\acute{u}$ $mw\grave{a}n\acute{e}$ he/she-Fut kill brother 5-sake money 'He will kill his brother for money.'

2.1.2 Infinitival Complements

Infinitival complements may consist of only an infinitive verb or of an infinitive along with its own complements. Kol allows infinitival complements to occur in the subject or object position. Kol also allows infinitival adjuncts, which will be discussed in 2.2.5.1.

2.1.2.1 Object infinitival complements

As was mentioned above, verbs may take an infinitive verb as a complement. This infinitive may appear with its own complements as in (59) and (60).

(59) m=ă kwàməzà lê-kò wú.

m=á kwàməzà lè-kò wú
I-P2 prepare INF-go there
'I got ready to go there.'

(60) n=ě tér lé-wàzà m-ùr.

jì=é tér+н lè-wàzà m-ùr

he/she-Fuт start InF-forget 1-man

'He will start to forget someone.'

2.1.2.2 Subject infinitival complements

Infinitive verbs can also be used as subjects, as shown by the following examples.

- (61) é-jî jàlànà yè bé fòk.
 lè-jí jàlànà yò bé fòg
 INF-ask must give you (pl) 9-wisdom
 'Asking must give you wisdom.'
- (62) é-lêŋ bè ndé mbînt. nê ηà lé-lên ndé nô nà bà mbînt INF-tell that he/she be be (loc) boss 'He says that he is the only boss.' (lit. 'Telling that he is the boss [here].'
- (63) è-fwálá tùk."

 lè-fwálá tùg

 INF-waste.time be (neg)

 'Don't waste time.' (*lit.* 'Time wasting isn't.')

2.1.3 Complement clauses

Kol also permits entire clauses to appear as the complement of the verb.

- (64) $m = \check{a}$ $m = \check{e} \quad nig\grave{o}$ bò∫ú. nûmp nô nè $\dot{m} = \acute{a}$ nûmb $\hat{m} = \acute{e}$ nìgò bò-ſú nô nà I-P2 know that I-FUT return with 2-fish 'I thought that I would come back with fish.'
- $m = \lambda = búgálá = yé nâ$ múùz. (65)mpú é nwì $\hat{m} = \hat{a} = b\hat{u}g\hat{a}\hat{a} = \hat{e}$ nô é mùùz mpú nwì + H I-NEG-believe-NEG that rain fall FUT today 'I don't believe that it will rain today.'

2.1.3.1 Reported speech

Quotations form a subset of the complement clause genre in that the matrix verb is frequently deleted. Below is an example with the matrix verb included followed by an example where it is deleted.

(66)
$$m = \hat{o}$$
 $nc\hat{o}$ $l\hat{\epsilon}\eta$ $n\hat{o}$ $m-\hat{u}r$ \acute{a} $l\hat{e}$ $d\acute{u}g\hat{o}$ $n\hat{o}$ $m=\hat{o}$ $nc\hat{o}+H$ $l\hat{\epsilon}\eta+H$ $n\hat{o}$ $m-\hat{u}r$ \acute{a} $l\hat{e}$ $d\acute{u}g\hat{o}$ $n\hat{o}$ I-Pres come say with 1-man P2 IMPF paddle that

[When we got to the middle of the river,] I said to the man who was rowing that he turn off with us into the reeds, [so that if the canoe starts sinking, it won't sink too far.]

Below is an example of reported speech where the speech verb has been omitted.

The only difference between indirect and direct reported speech is the pronouns. Compare the direct reported speech example below where the quotation includes the pronoun 'you' with the indirect reported speech example given in (66) where the quotation includes the pronoun 'he.'

(68)
$$m = \check{a}$$
 $nc\grave{\circ}$ $l\hat{\epsilon}\eta$ $n\grave{\circ}$ $n\grave{\circ}$ $n\grave{\circ}$ "myà $w = \acute{\circ}$ $nd\acute{\circ}$ $m = \acute{a}$ $nc\grave{\circ}$ $l\hat{\epsilon}\eta$ $n\grave{\circ}$ $n\grave{\circ}$ $n\grave{\circ}$ $n\grave{\circ}$ myà $w = \acute{\circ}$ $nd\acute{\circ} + H$ I-P2 come say with him that 3-time you-Pres be (loc)

[When the man who rowed wanted to take the hook out of my hair,] I told him that "While you're taking that out, time is passing."

2.2 ADJUNCTS

In Kol, as in most languages, it is possible to add further information to the clause by the use of adjuncts (optional elements). These adjuncts may syntactically be nouns, adverbs, prepositional phrases, and clauses of various kinds. They serve to add additional information about the time or location of

the event or the reason for the event. Additionally, they may serve discourse functions.

Syntactically, adjuncts also vary as to whether they may be topicalized, i.e. moved to the beginning of the sentence (its left periphery). For example, prepositional phrases marking location or manner are always found on the right periphery. Some examples are given below.

However, prepositional phrases marking time may appear either at the beginning or at the end of the sentence.

In the subsections below, adjuncts have been grouped by their function (time, location, manner, purpose, or discourse).

2.2.1 Temporal Adjuncts

Some clauses have additional information included about the time of the event. Kol speakers have a wide range of choices as to the kind of

element used to add this information. They can use temporal nouns, prepositional phrases, relative clauses, or verb phrases, as discussed in the various sections below.

2.2.1.1 Temporal nouns

Some time expressions in Kol are single words, specifically nouns.

Evidence for these being nouns may be found in the expression 'tomorrow' *émán* or *émáné*, which is literally 'in the morning,' formed by prefixing the locative morpheme to the noun 'morning.'

(72) é-mán-é n = ě bwɔ̀gə́ kwàn.

Loc-morning he/she-F1 harvest (honey) + н 9-honey

'Tomorrow, he will harvest honey.'

Additionally, they may be modified by other nominal modifiers, as can be seen in the expression 'now' which frequently occurs with the demonstrative $\eta g \hat{a}$. Below is an example of $c \hat{a}$ 'now' without the demonstrative and an example of $c \hat{a}$ with the demonstrative.

(74)é-jî kǎ jì ncwá nâ cà ná lê-jí kà jì ncwà nâ nò cà INF-need CONS be (att) we (dual) that with now 'It's necessary that the two of us...' (Ram.20)

These temporal nouns may be fronted as shown by the example above or may occur postverbally, as illustrated by the example below.

(75)mw-ân á dì dùgá ŋgùmbá fùm. mò-ân á dì dùg ngùmbá fùm 1-child **P2** stay forest entire night 'The child stayed in the forest all night.'

2.2.1.2 Temporal Prepositional Phrases

As was mentioned above, Kol has at least two temporal prepositional phrases. These may appear both postverbally and at the beginning of the sentence.

(76) nò kùgú 'yesterday, lit. with evening' nó cà 'now'

2.2.1.3 Temporal Relative Clauses

One of the most common strategies in Kol for providing temporal information is to use a relative clause headed by the noun *myà* 'time,' as illustrated below.

(77) myå bízá ndê kă nìgé, myà + H bìzà ndé kà nìgà-è 3-time-RELCL be (loc) we Cons return-RELCL 'When we were returning,.....'

2.2.1.4 Temporal verb phrases

Temporal information can also be given by means of a full clause, as seen by the introductory clause below. Interestingly, this is not an infinitival clause, but is more of a sentence fragment, lacking both a subject and the infinitive prefix.

(78) têr dwóp dòòng \acute{a} , m= \check{a} nc \acute{a} ná kwò lè kò náná wú. d-ààŋgá tér dw-ôp $\dot{m} = \dot{a}nc\dot{e}$ nò kwó lè wú kò náŋ start 5-day 5-Def I-NEGP1 with again IMPF still there go 'Starting that day, I didn't go there anymore.'

2.2.2 Locative Adjuncts

As has been mentioned elsewhere, Kol has a large number of locative nouns which function as complements of some verbs and which also function as the heads of locative relative clauses.

However, Kol also has a locative adverb *nwà* and a locative prepositional phrase *ná bwéyá* 'everywhere.'

bwéyá. bwéyá. bwéyá bwéyá everywhere everywhere

'When the man of the nations arrived, he found blood everywhere.' (In this story, Fox, the narrator, is telling Lion about Man, who he calls *the man of the nations*.)

2.2.2.1 Locative Relative Clauses

The numerous locative nouns in Kol can be the heads of relative clauses which add additional information to a sentence.

(81) búŋ bɨzá á dèsì né
búŋ H+bɨzə á dèz nè-è
place RELCL-we P2 drown that-RELCL
'the spot where we almost drowned'

2.2.3 Manner Adjuncts

As was mentioned in the introduction to this section, manner adjuncts in the form of prepositional phrases always occur on the right edge of the sentence.

- (82) nó yíŋ 'too much' nô bùbù 'a lot, many' nó pé 'totally' nó tìtìti 'regularly'
- (83)lî bè-fàmp bwá: ná pé. $bw \acute{o} = \acute{a}$ lî bè-fàmb nò рé they-P2 clear 8-fields with totally 'They totally cleared the fields.'

2.2.4 Purpose Adjuncts

In order to express the purpose of an action, Kol speakers can either use the auxiliary 'come,' as described in chapter 4, or they can use the noun $l\hat{e}$ - $\hat{\mu}$ 'sake.' This noun is also commonly used to express beneficiaries.

2.2.4.1 Purpose noun phrases

The noun $l\hat{e}$ - $f\hat{u}$ can appear as a postverbal adjunct. It can be modified as in (84) or can appear with its own complement as in (85).

2.2.4.2 Purpose clause

The noun $l\hat{e}$ - $\int \hat{u}$ can also be used with the subordinate conjunction $n\hat{\sigma}$ to form purpose clauses. This construction is generally translated as 'so that.'

An example is given below.

(86)
$$\hat{n} = \hat{m} \hat{a} \hat{g} = \hat{n} \hat{b} \hat{z} \hat{e} - \hat{d} \hat{n} = \hat{f} \hat{u} = \hat{n} \hat{g} \hat{e} = \hat{b} \hat{v} \hat{d}$$

$$\hat{n} = \hat{n} \hat{g} \hat{e} = \hat{n} \hat{o} = \hat{b} \hat{z} \hat{e} - \hat{d} \hat{n} = \hat{f} \hat{u} = \hat{n} \hat{g} \hat{e} = \hat{b} \hat{v} \hat{d} \hat{d} \hat{g} = \hat{f} \hat{u} = \hat{$$

'He turned off with us into the reeds so that if the canoe sank, it would stop at a certain point.'

2.2.5 Discourse Adjunct

In the course of telling a story or exhorting an audience, speakers can also use adjunct words or clauses in order to highlight information or make the story flow better.

2.2.5.1 Discourse linking

Infinitive clauses are also common at the beginning of sentences. In this position, they are functioning as the 'head' of a tail-to-head linkage, a common discourse strategy where the beginning of a sentence repeats the information given at the end of the last sentence. For example, a speaker could say something along the lines of "John went to the store. Having gone to the store, he bought some bread."

In Kol, such tail-to-head linkage markers mark a boundary in the discourse and begin a new paragraph. Sometimes they repeat exactly what just occurred in the previous clause, as in (87), but much of the time they are a paraphrase as in (88).

bìnàm (87) è-jé, mùr mà jé kwèb má-cì ná mé lè-jê m-ùr bì-nàm kwèb jê mà-cì nâ INF-arrive 1-man 8-nation be(chg) arrive find 6-blood with bwéyá
bwéyá
everywhere
'When he arrived, he found blood everywhere.'

(88)kèl bìy- \dot{a} ê-ncè nà têr pwan = elê-ncò kèl bè-ààŋgá πò $H + \dot{m} = \acute{a}$ tér pwan = ebeside with 8-Def RELCL-I-P2 INF-come first take-RELCL 'Added to what I first took...." (Perils.34)

3 The Verb vs. the Verb Phrase

Crosslinguistically, the verb frequently forms a constituent with its direct or primary object. Those languages which provide surface exceptions are usually head-marking languages which permit freer word order among the head's complements or modifiers.

The tonal tense concord found in Kol is interesting because its scope is only the verbal sequence and not the verb plus its direct object. This suggests that maybe the verb phrase is not a constituent in Kol. Yet, the discourse-linking adjuncts discussed above are examples of the verb forming a consitutent with its complement in that an infinitive along with its complements may appear in the head portion of tail-head linkage marking.

One solution to this problem is to posit two constituents, one which would include the elements of the verbal sequence and another which would include the elements of the verbal sequence and its arguments.

3.1 TENSE CONCORD REVISITED

As has been previously mentioned, in all the tenses but the far past, a grammatical H tone is suffixed to every word within the verbal sequence.

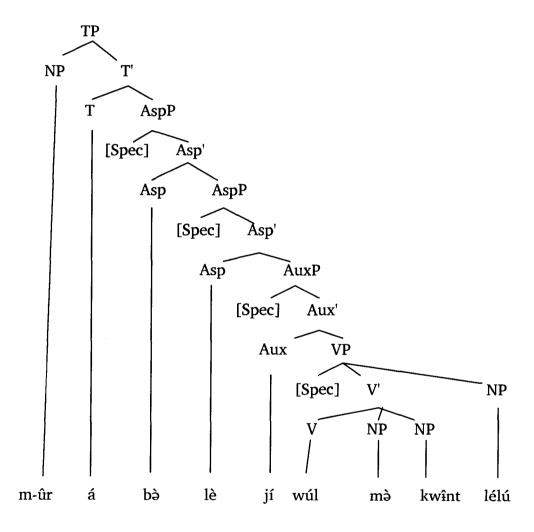
However, this tone is not added after the direct object. This is illustrated by the example below where there is no H gone seen after 'brother.'

(89) ŋ=ĕ jù míyòŋ lè-∫ú mwàné. n̂=é jù+H míyòŋ lè-∫ú mwàné he/she-Fut kill brother 5-sake money 'He will kill his brother for money.'

Since the Kol verbal sequence is made up of independent words and clitics, it would be reasonable to suggest that the scope of the tense tonal concord could be the verb phrase (VP) or inflectional phrase (IP). However, both of these syntactic constituents would not only include the preverbal elements and the main verb, but they would also include the direct object. A tree is given below of the following sentence. This sentence is in the far past

(P2) and does not therefore have tonal concord, but it demonstrates a possible structure of the VP and TP in Kol, illustrating the problem.

(90) m-ûr á bà lè jí wúl mà kwint lélú m-ùr bà lè jí wûl kwindè lé-lú mà 1-man P2 **I**MPF hook want remove me in-head 'The man wanted to take the hook out of my hair.'



However, not all syntactic theories include a VP (or TP) constituent.

One in fact, argues explicitly against such a constituent. Instead, Role and

Reference Grammar (Van Valin and LaPolla 1997) offers a layered clause

structure, where a clause consists of three elements: the nucleus, the core and
the periphery. The nucleus includes only the predicating element, the core
includes the predicate and its arguments (subject, object, etc.), and adjuncts
are found in the periphery.

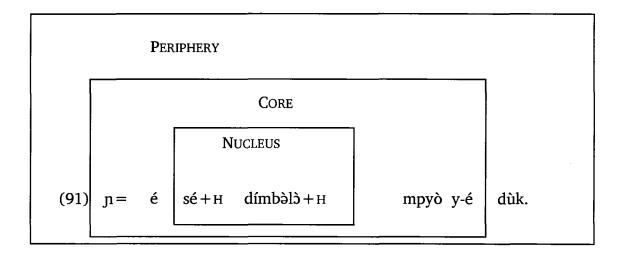
CLAUSE

CORE

PERIPHERY

NUCLEUS

Since the tense tonal concord has scope over only the verbal sequence and not over any of a verb's arguments (subject or objects), then the tonal concord may be characterized as a H tone which is suffixed to every element of the nucleus as shown below.



(91)
$$p=i$$
 sé dímbələ mpyó y-é dùk.
 $p=i$ sè+H dìmbələ+H mpyò y-é dùg
he/she-P1 PERF lose 1-dog 1-his forest
'He lost his dog in the forest.'

While positing a layered clause structure appears to solve the question of what exactly the scope of the tense tonal concord is, it also raises some other questions. The hypothesis above puts all verbal elements but the initial tense vowel inside the nucleus. Van Valin and LaPolla suggest that certain operators of a clause have scope over different elements of the layered clause structure which may not be compatible with the amount put into the nucleus above. This will be examined in the section below.

3.2 **OPERATORS**

Van Valin and LaPolla (1997:40ff) describe a class of morphemes which they call *operators* which modify the clause. They state that a crucial fact about operators, which include tense, aspect, mode, directional and evidential markers among others, is that different operators modify different parts of the layered clause structure (1997:45).

In a horizontal table below is given the crosslinguistic predictions about operator scope (originally given as a vertical projection).

| | Nucleus | Core | Clause |
|-----------|--------------|-----------------|------------------|
| Operators | Aspect | Directionals | Status, negation |
| | Negation | Modality (root) | Tense |
| | Directionals | Negation | Evidentials |
| | | | Illocutionary |
| | | | force |

Table 5.2 Scope of Operators

Compare these predictions above with the verbal template given at the beginning of this chapter below. Here a row has been added at the top which shows which portions of the verbal sequence are predicted to be within the

nucleus according to the tense tonal concord patternings described in the section above.

| | Nucleus | | | | | | | | |
|------|---------|-------------------------|-------------------------------------|---|--|--|--|--|---|
| nse | Tense2 | | Cop | Aux | Asp/ | Mode | Aux | | Verb |
| F1 | bwó | F2 | bà | 'be' | lè | IMPF | kò | 'go' | |
| PRES | lwándà | bè 'just' | ndé | 'be (loc)' | sé | PERF | ncè | 'come' | |
| P1 | | | jì | 'be (att)' | mbá | COND | nìgò | 'return' | |
| P2 | | | mé | 'be (chg)' | | | | | |
| | PRES | F1 bwó PRES lwándè P1 | F1 bwó F2 PRES lwándèbè 'just' P1 | nse Tense2 Cop F1 bwó F2 bè PRES lwándèbè 'just' ndé P1 jì | nse Tense2 Cop Aux F1 bwó F2 bè 'be' PRES lwándèbè 'just' ndé 'be (loc)' P1 jì 'be (att)' | nse Tense2 Cop Aux Asp/ F1 bwó F2 bè 'be' lè PRES lwándèbè 'just' ndé 'be (loc)' sé P1 jì 'be (att)' mbá | nse Tense2 Cop Aux Asp/Mode F1 bwó F2 bè 'be' lè IMPF PRES lwándèbè 'just' ndé 'be (loc)' sé PERF P1 jì 'be (att)' mbá COND | nse Tense2 Cop Aux Asp/Mode Aux F1 bwó F2 bè 'be' lè IMPF kò PRES lwándèbè 'just' ndé 'be (loc)' sé PERF ncè P1 jì 'be (att)' mbá COND nìgò | nse Tense2 Cop Aux Asp/Mode Aux F1 bwó F2 bè 'be' lè IMPF kò 'go' PRES lwándèbè 'just' ndé 'be (loc)' sé PERF ncè 'come' P1 jì 'be (att)' mbá COND nìgò 'return' |

Table 5.4 Ordering of Kol Verbal Constituents

The aspect markers and the phasal auxiliaries offer no complications.

The phasal (non-copula) auxiliaries have for the most part a directional component ('go, leave,' 'come' or 'go back'). Directionals and aspect markers are predicted to have scope over the nucleus and indeed these appear closest to the verb in the template above.

For the opposite reason, the initial tense slot also fits in with Van Valin and LaPolla's predictions. It is predicted to be clausal, i.e. outside of the nucleus, and that could work with what we know about the tense tonal

concord thus far. The tense vowels in the Tense 1 slot are not necessarily the source of the tense tonal concord, and since they are all marked with an underlying H tone anyway, they do not need to be within the nucleus to explain variations in tonal behavior.

However, the morphemes found in the *Tense2* slot, some modal morphemes in Kol, and certain aspects of negation could be problematic.

These will each be discussed below, beginning with the *Tense2* morphemes.

The morphemes <code>bwó</code> 'distant future (F2)' and <code>lwándðbð</code> 'immediate relative past, or just' are a challenge because Van Valin and LaPolla predict that all tense morphemes function on the clausal level, but at least <code>lwándðbð</code> needs to be within the scope of the tense tonal concord to explain its varying tonal behavior in the far past and present tense constructions.

- (92) n=ó lwándábá bwògá kwàn.

 jì=ó lwándábà+н bwòg+н kwàn
 he/she-Pres just harvest 9-honey
 'He just harvested honey.'
- (93)ná tùgá bíz = á lwándèbè bè lê-ncòŋ nà ncàá ngè? nŝ tùg $biz = \acute{a}$ lwándèbè bà lé-ncòŋ nà ncà ŋgà be (neg) we-P2 and just Loc-dance be with this now 'Weren't we just as the party now?' (*Perils.*77)

I do not have any solutions to offer to the above conundrum. This will have to be a topic for further research. It is however important to note that these tense morphemes are at the far edge of the verbal template and are relatively new innovations, since they do not have direct correlates (particularly <code>lwándàbà</code>) in the closely related neighboring languages. This "edge" confusion may be a result of an incomplete grammaticalization.

Modal morphemes in Kol are all problematic for different issues. Mode can be marked in Kol by auxiliaries, an enclitic or preverbal non-auxiliary words. The modal auxiliaries occur in the non-copula auxiliary slot which puts them firmly within the nucleus according to the tense concord hypothesis above while Van Valin and LaPolla theorize that modality is a core operator. One possible solution to this issue would be to suggest that the modal plus main verb constructions are examples of serial verb constructions. This has some complications of its own and will be discussed in section 3.3 below.

Mode can also be marked by the subjunctive clitic or by modal words like *fă* 'subjunctive' and *mbá* 'conditional.' The subjunctive clitic also appears

to occur within the nucleus but this may be an accident of its requirement to be in second position as described above. The modal words få and mbå offer a potentially more serious complication. In all of my examples of the modal word hà, it occurs at the beginning of the verbal sequence. It is after any tense vowel, which is theorized to be at the clausal level, so the subjunctive morpheme could be at the clause level, with the nucleus starting with the main verb in (94) and the consecutive marker in (95). This would however require positing the underlying tone of the subjunctive morpheme as a rising (LH) contour which is relatively rare in Kol as a lexical tone It would be more common to have the combination of a L lexical tone and a H tense concord tone as would be the case if the subjunctive marker had an underlying L tone and was inside the nucleus and therefore marked with the H tone tense concord, as could happen in (94). However, since this is a relatively minor consideration, I will suggest that the subjunctive marker does have a LH tone and can therefore be theorized to be a the clause level and not at the nucleus level (within the scope of the tonal concord).

- (94) bw = 6kwìr bá-nòòngá hă bóp. bwó-ó fă kwìr+H bò-nàồngê b-ób 2-mother they-Pres help should their 'They should help their mothers.' (Sœur.20)
- (95) "hǎ kà wú."

 fǎ kà wú

 should Cons exit

 'Come out then." (Serpent.34)

This leaves $mb\acute{a}$, the conditional marker. This was originally placed within the same position in the template as the aspect markers because it never co-occurs with the aspect markers and it is always directly in front of the phasal auxiliary verb. However, it is also true that it is never preceded by anything but the tense vowels. Therefore, this is not actually a problem for either of the hypotheses above. Since $mb\acute{a}$ is underlyingly H, there is no direct evidence that it falls within the scope of the tense tonal concord.

(96) myá
$$m=\hat{o}$$
 twóngálá nâ ngé $m=\check{a}$ mbá $my\grave{a}+H$ $\grave{m}=\acute{o}$ twòngál $\grave{a}+H$ nâ ngé $\grave{m}=\acute{a}$ mbá time-RelCl I-Pres think that if I-P2 Cond

kò yè lémèdíbé kò yè lé-mò-díbó-è go die in-6-water-RELCL

'When I think that I could have died in the water...'

(97)mbá bà wúndè m = ambá dììp wúndè á nò fyál á mbá nò wúndè mbá dìb wúndè bà $m = \acute{a}$ fyál **P2** COND window I-P2 with COND open window exit be

tón fúndà.

tón fúndò.

outside flee

'If there had been a window, I would have gone out it and fled.'

Finally, there is the question of negation. Negation can appear at any level of the layered clause construction, according to Table 5.2 above, depending on its scope. Of the differing negation strategies in Kol, the negative morpheme $k\acute{e}$ is not problematic because it has limited scope and will fit into the same layer as whatever follows it. However, the sentential negation marked by the negative circumclitic could be an issue for this particular theory. The negative circumclitic definitely has scope over the whole clause and is therefore expected to function on the clause level. However, it is a clitic which is hosted by elements which have been hypothesized to fall within the nucleus.

The solution here may be to fall back on the nature of clitic positioning which frequently has more to do with prosodic concerns than syntax. The

negative circumclitic occurs in second position and any tense concord which appears on the enclitic portion could be theorized to be due to the nucleus position of the host.

Below is a revised table based on the Kol data described above.

| | Nucleus | Core | Clause |
|-----------|--------------------|-----------------|---------------------------------|
| Operators | Aspect | hă subjunctive | $\acute{a}==\grave{e}$ negative |
| } | ké negative marker | mbá conditional | Tense |
| | Phasal auxiliaries | =g subjunctive | |

Table 5.5 Scope of Kol Operators

As was mentioned above, this leaves the question of the morphemes found in the *Tense2* slot as a subject for further research.

3.3 SERIAL VERBS

Role and Reference grammar predicts that predicates can be coordinate, subordinate or co-subordinate at any level of the layered structure, i.e. the nucleus, core or clause. Serial verbs are co-subordinate constructions, but they can presumably be co-subordinate at the nucleus or core level.

If $k\acute{e}$ is a nuclear operator as hypothesized above, then the copula + main verb construction cannot be an example of nuclear serialization since it is possible to negate the main verb while leaving the copula in the affirmative as shown below. If $nd\acute{e}$ is an auxiliary providing aspect information, then all three elements, $nd\acute{e}$, $k\acute{e}$, and the main verb are all at the level of the nucleus and offer no challenges to the theory.

(98) m=è ndé ké dùló sìgá ké bà nê nwèl mə́nòk. I-P1 be +н Neg+н smoke cigarette Neg be with drink+н 6-wine 'I neither smoked nor drank.' (*Illness*.15)

However, this same example, *is* an example of core serialization, since in the example above, each main verb introduces its own complement while also sharing an argument, i.e. the subject. Another example is given below. Here the conditional, theorized to be operating at the core level in Kol, has scope over all three predicates, 'open,' 'exit,' and 'flee.'

(99)wúndè á mbá bà nò m = ambá dììp wúndè fyál á mbá bà nò wúndè mbá dìb fyál $m = \acute{a}$ wúndè P2 window COND be with window I-P2 open COND exit

tón fúndè.

tón fúndò.

outside flee

'If there had been a window, I would have gone out it and fled.'

This still leaves the question of modal + verb constructions. These were an issue in the section above because mode is theoretically at least a core level operator and yet the modals are within the scope of tense tonal concord which is a reflex of the nucleus.

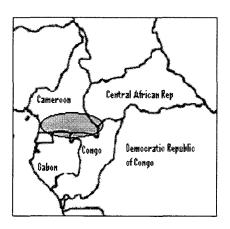
 $(100) \quad biz = \acute{o}$ jàlànà númp jígàlà bw-ân. biz = oildownjàlànà+н nûmb+н jîgələ + H bò-àn teach we-PRES must know 2-child 'We must teach the children well.'

The modal + verb constructions do not pattern in the same way as the core serialization examples in (98) and (99). The modal auxiliaries do not occur with their own separate consitutents and indeed none of the examples in my corpus show any word intruding between the modal verb and the main verb. (This cannot be said for the phasal auxiliaries.) This is what we would expect from nuclear serialization, which would fit in with the tense concord facts, but leaves unexplained the prediction that modality is a core-level operator. This too will have to be a question for further research.

6 Situating Kol within the A.80 language family

The internal cohesion of Guthrie's (1953) A.80 group and its relationship to other Bantu Azone languages has been called into question almost from the beginning. The *Linguistic Survey of the Northern Bantu*Borderland described this group as being 'a most loosely knit and unbalanced conglomeration of languages.' (1956:33)

The Maka-Njem (A.80) language family is located at the intersection of three countries. A.80 languages are found in southeastern Cameroon, in the southwestern tip of the Central African Republic and in northern Congo.



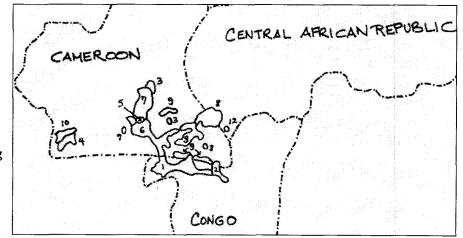
Map 6.1 A.80 languages

Sociolinguistic surveys seem to indicate that there are three language clusters within A.80: the Coastal A.80 languages (Gyele, Kwasio, Ngumba –

A.801-A.81), the Makaa/Kol/Konzime chain (A.83-84), and the eastern A.80 languages (Mpongmpong, Mpyemo, Bekwel – A.85-A.86).

The Gyele-Ngumba-Kwasio cluster is near the southwestern coast of Cameroon and is separated from the other A.80 languages by the A.70 language family. Byep, Makaa, Kol and the subvarieties of Konzime form a second cluster. Finally, a third cluster can be found in eastern Cameroon, north Congo, and southwestern CAR, made up of Mpyemo, Mpongmpong and Bekwel.

- 1. Bekwel
- 2. Bomwali
- 3. Byep
- 4. Gyele
- 5. Kol
- 6. Konzime, Badwe'e
- 7. Makaa
- 8. Mpiemo
- 9. Mpong-mpong
- 10. Ngumba, Kwasio
- 11. So
- 12. Ukhwejo



Map 6.2 Members of the A.80 Language Family

The authors of the *Linguistic Atlas of Cameroon* (ALCAM – Dieu and Renard 1983) suggested that this third cluster was actually one language, which they called "mpo." They identified the following speech varieties as

being dialects of "mpo": Mpyemo, Mpompo, Medjime, Bangantou,
Konabembe, Boman and Bekwel. The *Ethnologue* (Gordon 2005) identifies
Medjime, Bangantou, Konabembe and Boman as all being dialects of
Mpongmpong.

It is not clear to which cluster the So, Bomwali and Ukhwejo languages belong, though geographic proximity would suggest that So could be included in the Byep-Makaa-Kol-Konzime cluster, while Ukhwejo and Bomwali could be included with the Mpyemo-Bekwel-Mpongmpong cluster.

There are roughly 300,000 speakers of A.80 languages (Gordon 2005). The languages of the central cluster (the focus of this chapter) have the most speakers, with approximately 140,000 people speaking languages of the Makaa/Kol/Konzime chain. The eastern cluster is the next largest (with approximately 86,000 speakers), followed by the coastal cluster (with approximately 21,000 speakers).

The people of the central cluster are primarily farmers. They live in a region which is crisscrossed with rivers and streams, so waterways remain a common form of transportation. They also fish and hunt.

This chapter will examine some of the similarities and differences between several of the languages of the middle cluster: Makaa, Kol, and the Konzime varieties (Nzime, Badwe'e and Njem). Makaa and the Konzime varieties have been the subject of more research than any of the other A.80 languages thus far (by Dan and Teresa Heath for Makaa and by Keith and Mary Beavon for the Konzime varieties). The data given for Kol is taken from my own research.

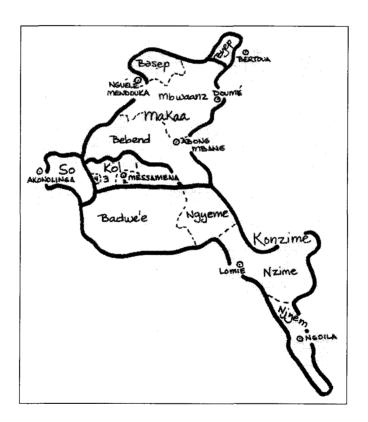
1 Sociolinguistic Situation

The sociolinguistic situation of the A.80 languages is complicated by the proliferation of dialects within languages. Just looking at the second cluster, the focus of this paper, it is important to note that Kol, Makaa and Konzime each have at least four dialects.

Language development projects for Kol and Makaa have each decided to focus their efforts on one dialect. For Makaa, this dialect is Mbwaanz.

Mbwaanz was chosen because it is spoken by the largest number of Makaa speakers (almost half the total population), it is understood by speakers of all the other dialects, and it is geographically central (Heath and Heath 1982:1).

With respect to Kol, the dialect chosen for development is also the central dialect, labeled with the number 3 on the map below. Kol informants reported that speakers of the central dialect spoke "good" Kol that was easy to understand and avoided mixing with Makaa or Badwe'e. For the Konzime varieties, Nzime and Badwe'e have both been developed (that is to say they each have an official alphabet, literacy classes, and literature – including New Testaments), and plans are underway to develop Njyem.



Map 6.3 The central A.80 languages

A series of surveys in eastern Cameroon were undertaken in 1988 and 1989 by SIL. Surveyors collected Swadesh 100 word-lists and looked at the percentage of similar lexical items between particular members of the A.80 language family. In the following table, the levels of lexical similarity between certain languages are given. This table summarizes the results given in several different survey reports. Surveyors compared the central cluster languages Makaa, Kol and Byep with each other, while Mpyemo was compared to the neighboring languages of Nzime and Mpongmpong (Johnson 1989, Etter 1988, Beavon and Johnson 1989).

| | Makaa | Kol | Nzime | Mpongmpong |
|--------|-------|-------|-------|------------|
| Kol | 86% | | | |
| Byep | 76% | 73.5% | | |
| Mpyemo | | | 73.5% | 77.5% |

Table 6.1 Levels of lexical similarity

In addition, during the course of the sociolinguistic surveys, texts were recorded and played for speakers of neighboring languages to try to determine the levels of mutual intelligibility. (This is known as recorded text testing, or RTT. Methodology for such testing is described in Casad 1974.)

The chart below summarizes the RTT results. The number in angled brackets is the standard deviation. All of the standard deviation numbers given are relatively high, suggesting that some subjects performed better on the test due to exposure to the tested language.

Again, some cells in the table are blank because surveyors compared the central cluster languages Makaa, Kol and Byep with each other, while Mpyemo was compared to the neighboring languages of Nzime and Mpongmpong (Johnson 1989, Etter 1988, Beavon and Johnson 1989).

| | Makaa | Badwe'e | Kol | Nzime | Mpongmpong |
|--------|-------|---------|-------|-------|------------|
| Kol | 87% | 82% | | | |
| | <15> | <14> | | | |
| Вуер | 51% | | 38.5% | | |
| Mpyemo | | | | 22.1% | 86.8% <21> |
| | | | | <25> | |

Table 6.2 Summary of RTT results

While the levels of lexical similarity seem to be relatively high for all of the examined languages, the RTT results show a much broader variation in comprehension levels. The most interesting numbers are those for Mpyemo.

While the levels of lexical similarity are only slightly higher between Mpyemo

and Mpongmpong than between Mpyemo and Nzime, the RTT results show more variation. Speakers of Mpyemo understood much more of the Mpongmpong story than they did of the Nzime story.

It is important to note though that lexicostatistics and recorded text testing can only give indications as to what the levels of mutual intelligibility and bilingualism might be. They are not a substitute for in-depth comparative linguistic research.

Interviews with speakers of the central cluster languages suggest that these languages, at least, could be considered to form a dialect chain. Kol speakers report that their language is closest to Makaa (specifically the Bəbɛnd dialect which borders them to the north) and Badwe'e, one of the Konzime/Njem subvarieties, which borders them to the south and east.

Makaa speakers agree that Kol is understood by Bəbɛnd speakers and also report that speakers of a northern Makaa dialect, Besəp, can understand Byep, the language bordering them to the north (Heath 2003a:335).

2 Phonology

The languages of the Makaa/Kol/Konzime chain are very similar in their syllable inventories but differ with respect to their phonemic inventories (sections 2.2 and 2.3 below). With respect to tone, while these languages are similar in their inventories, they differ with respect to the ways in which tones interact. See section 2.4 for a comparison of the tone rules present in these languages.

The data in this section is a summary of the information found in Makaa (A.83) (Heath 2003a), A Phonology of the Makaá Language (Heath and Heath 1982), A Phonology of Konzime (Beavon 1983a), and A Phonology of Njyem (Beavon 2005). The latter also includes a fair amount of information on Badwe'e. Further information on Badwe'e has been gleaned from Koozime Verbal System (Beavon 1991). The information on Kol is taken from my own fieldwork, as well as from the research of Fokou Tamafo (2004a).

2.1 SYLLABLE SHAPES

The Makaa, Kol and Konzime languages have similar syllable inventories. They all allow V, CV and CVC syllables (Heath 2003a, Beavon

1983a, Beavon 2005). In addition, these languages all have a high percentage of monosyllabic words. This is primarily a result of two different phenomena.

On the one hand, preverbal elements are independent words or clitics and not a series of prefixes. This will be described below in section 4.1.

Additionally, languages of this group have consistently lost the final vowels of stems. For nouns, this final vowel was part of the root, while for verbs, the final vowel was an inflectional morpheme indicating tense and aspect information. The loss of this final vowel has resulted in many monosyllablic reflexes of historically disyllabic stems. It has also meant that closed syllables are common, while for many Bantu languages they are rare. In the chart below, the ProtoBantu verbal roots are generally considered to be bound, appearing with a required final vowel. The A.80 words given do not require any suffixes. For more information on diachronic changes in Kol, see chapter 7.

| | | | | Konzime | | | |
|----------|--------|-------|------|--------------------|---------|-------|--|
| Gloss | *PB | Makaa | Kol | Nzime | Badwe'e | Njyem | |
| 'five' | *táanɔ | tòon | tón | tên | tân | tên | |
| 'chase' | *beng | wiing | wîŋg | e-p î m | | | |
| 'winnow' | *pépet | fyàf | fyàb | e-pyèb | - | | |

Table 6.3 Some cognates in ProtoBantu, Makaa, Kol and Konzime

2.2 VOWEL INVENTORIES

The languages of the Makaa/Kol/Konzime chain share the vowels shown in the table below. Languages vary slightly in the phonemic status of this subset (with respect to $\{9, 9\}$), and none of the languages have only this subset. Vowel length is phonemic for all of the languages in this cluster.

| i | | u |
|---|---|---|
| e | ə | O |
| 3 | a | Э |

Table 6.4 Common Vowel Phonemes

The Kol language has the smallest vowel inventory. It adds a high central vowel [i] to its vowel inventory. It remains unclear though whether [i] is only an allophone of [e] or whether it is a phoneme in its own right. [a]

is used as the epenthetic vowel wherever two consonants would meet across morpheme boundaries.

| i | i | u |
|---|---|---|
| е | ə | 0 |
| ε | a | Э |

Table 6.5 Kol Vowel Inventory

Makaa also adds a high central vowel to its phonemic inventory.

However, it is a rounded one, i.e. [u]. This is the epenthetic vowel in Makaa.

While Makaa has phonetically a difference between [o] and [ɔ], these two vowels are in free variation for at least the reference dialect. Makaa also has a front high lax vowel [ɪ], though it lacks a back lax vowel. Additionally, Makaa is unique in that it has a phonemic contrast in the high-mid vowels between nasal and oral vowels, that is between [e] and [e] and between [o] and [o] (Heath 2005).

| i | | u | u |
|---|---|---|-------|
| I | | | |
| e | ẽ | Э | o/o õ |
| ε | | a | |

Table 6.6 Makaa Vowel Inventory

The Konzime/Njem subvarieties are unique in that they all have front rounded vowels, but they vary as to which vowels they have. Nzime has the most, with three front rounded vowels. Badwe'e has two, and Njyem has one.

The Nzime dialect has the most vowels of any of the languages of this chain, with 12 vocalic phonemes. It has high lax vowels ([1] and [0]), as well as the three rounded vowels mentioned above. The schwa is used as the epenthetic vowel, but it is not considered to be a phoneme. However, unlike Makaa and Kol, it does not have a high central vowel. Nor is nasalization phonemic. Nzime requires that its stems be harmonic with respect to their vowels. Stems may either have all [+back] vowels or all [-back] vowels. The low central vowel [a] is neutral and may occur with either [+back] vowels or [-back] vowels (Beavon 1983a).

| i | у | | u |
|---|---|-----|---|
| I | Y | | υ |
| e | Ø | (ə) | 0 |
| 3 | | a | Э |

Table 6.7 Nzime Vowel Inventory

Badwe'e also has 12 vocalic phonemes. Its vocalic inventory is almost identical to Nzime's, but its third front rounded vowel is a lower-mid rounded vowel instead of a higher-mid rounded vowel.

| i | у | | u |
|---|---|---|---|
| I | Y | | υ |
| е | | | 0 |
| ε | œ | a | Э |

Table 6.8 Badwe'e Vowel Inventory

In contrast, Njyem has high lax vowels but no high central vowel. It only has one front rounded phoneme. There are other front rounded allophones, but they can all be analyzed as the combination of the unrounded front vocalic phoneme plus [w], while [ø] contrasts with a sequence of [w] plus [e]. (Beavon 2005:6)

| i | | | u |
|---|---|-----|---|
| I | | | υ |
| e | Ø | (ə) | 0 |
| 3 | | a | Э |

Table 6.9 Njyem Vowel Inventory

2.3 CONSONANT INVENTORIES

The languages of the Makaa/Kol/Konzime cluster also differ in the consonantal inventory. They all share the consonants shown in the chart below.

| | labial | alveolar | palatal | velar | labio-velar |
|-------------|--------|----------|---------|------------------|-------------|
| stops | | t | с | k | kp |
| | b | d | j | g | |
| nasals | m | n | л | | |
| fricatives | | S | | | |
| | | z | | 1 1 6 6 | |
| lateral | | 1 | | | |
| semi-vowels | w | | у | | |

Table 6.10 Common set of Consonants

Researchers working in this cluster continue to debate as to whether a nasal followed by an oral consonant at the same point of articulation are one unit or two. Heath and Heath (1982) have decided that Makaa has prenasalized stops (nasal + consonant = one unit) while Beavon (1983a) has decided that Konzime has homorganic nasal consonant clusters.

Additionally, researchers debate as to the status of glides (or semi-vowels). Beavon (1983a) and Henson (chapter 2 this volume) have argued

that glides are underlyingly vowels, while Heath and Heath (1982) argue that the glides are underlyingly consonants. The Heaths point out for Makaa that the glides do not contribute any tonal information and that analyzing them as vowels would result in an extra-long nucleus of 3 moras in some cases.

The languages of the central cluster also all share a weakening process. In Makaa, Kol and Nzime, voiced consonants become voiceless at the end of a word. It is also common for /d/ to be weakened to [r] at the end of a word. In Nzime, this weakening process for /d/ may also occur intervocalically, and is paralleled for /s/ and /k/, with /s/ weakening to [h] and /k/ to [?]. (Beavon 1983a)

Below are a series of charts showing the phonetic inventories for languages of this middle cluster. As was the case for vowels, the status of particular consonants may differ from language to language. This will be noted where pertinent.

In general, it is interesting to note that languages in this cluster vary widely in their fricative subset. Makaa has the most with seven, followed by Kol with six, and Badwe'e with three, possibly four.

Glottal consonants are also analyzed quite differently (on a phonological level) from language to language. Almost all of the languages in the central cluster (Konzime is the only exception) have a /h/, but in Makaa and Kol, this sound has been listed in the velar column since there is no separate velar fricative, nor are there other glottal consonants. Badwe'e is the only language of the cluster to have the glottal stop as a separate phoneme, though Njyem has the glottal stop as an allophone of /k/.

The first chart, given below, shows the consonant inventory of Makaa.

| | labial | alveolar | palatal | velar | labio-velar |
|--------------|--------|----------|---------|-------|-------------|
| stops | | t | с | k | kp |
| | ь | đ | j | g | |
| prenasalized | mp | nt | nc | ñk | |
| stops | mb | nd | nj | ñg | |
| nasals | m | n | ny | ñ | |
| fricatives | f | s | sh [ʃ] | h | |
| | v | z | zh [ʒ] | | |
| lateral | | 1 | | | |
| semi-vowels | w | у | | | |

Table 6.11 Makaa Consonant Inventory

The consonant inventory of Kol is given below. The consonants /p/
and /v/ in Kol have a questionable phonemic status. As independent
consonants (i.e. not preceded by a nasal) they are only found in borrowings
and ideophones. This has been one of the pieces of evidence used to suggest
that /mp/ is a single phonemic unit, since there is minimal evidence for /p/
as a phoneme on its own.

| | labial | alveolar | palatal | velar | labio-velar |
|--------------|--------|----------|---------|-------|-------------|
| stops | (p) | t | С | k | kp |
| | ь | d | j | g | |
| prenasalized | mp | nt | nc | ŋk | ŋkp |
| stops | mb | nd | nj | ŋg | ŋgb |
| nasals | m | n | n | ŋ | |
| fricatives | f | s | ſ | | |
| | (v) | | | | |
| lateral | | 1 | | | |
| semi-vowels | w | r | у | | |

Table 6.12 Kol Consonant Inventory

Beavon (1991:67) notes that the epenthetic consonant in Badwe'e is /w/. Additionally, /r/ may be an allophone of /d/ and not a separate

phoneme. As was noted for Kol, /v/ appears to be of questionable phonemic status in Badwe'e.

| | labial | alveolar | palatal | velar | labio-velar | glottal |
|------------|--------|----------|---------|-------|-------------|---------|
| stops | p | t | с | k | kp | 1 |
| | ь | d | j | g | gb | |
| prenasal. | | | | | | |
| stops | | | | | | |
| nasals | m | n | | ŋ | ŋm | |
| fricatives | f | S | | | | h |
| | (v) | z | | | | |
| lateral | | 1 | | | | |
| approx. | | r | у | | w | |

Table 6.13 Badwe'e Consonant Inventory

In contrast to Badwe'e, Beavon (1991:67) notes that the epenthetic consonant is /b/ in Nzime. Also, he suggests that [n] and [n] may be allophones of a single phoneme. As was noted for Badwe'e above, /r/ may be an allophone of /d/ and not a separate phoneme.

| | labial | alveolar | palatal | velar | labio-velar |
|--------------|--------|----------|---------|-------|-------------|
| stops | p | t | С | k | kp |
| | ь | d | j | g | gb |
| prenasalized | | | | | |
| stops | | | | | |
| nasals | m | n | л | ŋ | ŋm |
| fricatives | | S | | | |
| | | z | | | |
| lateral | | 1 | | | |
| approx | | r | у | w | |

Table 6.14 Nzime Consonant Inventory

Below is the consonant inventory for Njyem. Beavon (2005:12-15) notes that /d/ becomes [r] at the end of a word, thus [r] is considered to be allophonic and not a separate phoneme. /ts/ and /dz/ become palatalized (becoming the alveo-palatal fricatives) before a high vowel or the palatal glide, as does /s/. /k/ becomes the glottal stop word-medially and word-finally. /w/ becomes [y] or [v] by fusing with [i] or [i]. If there is no fusion, before front vowels, it becomes a labio-palatal glide.

| | labial | alveolar | palatal | velar | glottal | labio-velar |
|--------------|--------|----------|---------|-------|---------|-------------|
| stops | р | t | c = ts | k | | kp |
| | ь | d | f = dz | g | | gb |
| prenasalized | | | | 1 | | |
| stops | | | | | | |
| nasals | m | n | л | | | |
| fricatives | f | s | | | h | |
| | | | | | | |
| lateral | | 1 | | | _ | |
| approx | w | | j | | | |

Table 6.15 Njyem Consonant Inventory

2.4 TONOLOGY

The languages of the Makaa/Kol/Konzime language chain all have underlyingly two tone systems, with high (H) and low (L) tones. These languages have both lexical and grammatical tones. These tones may be underlyingly associated with a tone bearing unit, or alternatively, be left unassociated, or floating.

Floating low tones are found in at least two different grammatical contexts. They have most likely arisen due to the loss of vowels. Floating low tones may mark noun class membership, as they do in Makaa. Noun class

prefixes for classes 3 and 7 in Makaa are both marked by a floating low tone, where historically these are reconstructed as segmental prefixes, *mo- for class 3 and *ki- for class 7. Beavon (1991) notes that for Badwe'e, the floating L tones marking noun classes may remain unassociated. (See Table 6.18 in section 3 below for examples of noun class prefixes.)

Finally, a floating L tone may mark tense, as it does in Makaa, Nzime and Badwe'e where the recent past tense marker is a floating low tone (plus a segmental marker in Makaa).

Floating H tones are also found in at least two additional grammatical contexts. For certain noun classes, concord in an associative phrase is marked by a floating H tone. For both Makaa and Kol, classes 3 and 7 mark their concord with a floating H. This can be seen by the change in the tone of the noun class prefix of the second member of the associative phrase. Below are examples from Kol.

(1) (a) ncùg módíbó
ncùg H-mò-díbó
7-elephant 7Assoc-6-water
'hippopotamus'

(b) mbì mélòp

mbì H-mè-lòb

3-sort, type 3Assoc-4-problem

'sort of problems'

Tenses may also be marked by a floating H tone. A floating H functions as the present tense marker in Makaa, Nzime and Badwe'e. In addition to post-subject tense markers, in Makaa and Kol all tenses but the distant past are marked with a tonal contour. For both of these languages, this tonal contour includes a floating H tone suffix after each word in the verbal sequence.

Below is a chart illustrating which Makaa tenses have this H tone suffix (named the Macrostem H, or MacH, in Heath and Heath 1995).

| Tense | | Affirmative | · | Negative | | |
|-------|--------------------|-------------|-------|----------|----------------------------|-------|
| | tense ⁸ | clause mkr | MacH? | tense | clause mkr | МасН? |
| P2 | a + H | | no | a+ H | shígé | yes |
| P1 | ámà | | yes | | shígé | yes |
| PRES | Н | | yes | | $a-L+H+-\dot{\varepsilon}$ | yes |
| F1 | e+H | | yes | | <i>a-H</i> + + <i>-</i> ε | yes |
| F2 | | b'a | yes | | àb ú lè | yes |

Table 6.16 Makaa Absolute Tenses in the Indicative Mood

In Konzime, this H tone marking tense concord is different from the other floating tones in that it is a replacive H. That is to say, it can replace a preceding L tone, instead of creating a tonal contour.

Makaa and Kol have downstep (Heath & Heath 1995, chapter 2 this volume) while Nzime does not have downstep or downdrift (Beavon 1982).

Njyem has surface mid tones which are formed by the interaction of high and low tones (Beavon 2005:42,45). Nzime's lack of downstep or downdrift can be explained in part by its Macrostem H tone being a replacive H. By having this floating H replace a preceding L, the environment for downstep, or midtones (as in Njyem) is bled.

The high tone occurring in the tense marker might look like a Macrostem High tone reanalyzed to occur before the Macrostem as well as after each morpheme in the Macrostem.
But this tone is not realized in the same way as the Macrostem High, and it occurs in P2 whereas the Macrostem does not.

When discussing the tonal system of these languages, it is worth mentioning that Makaa, Badwe'e and Njyem all have a small set of toneless verbs. There is currently no conclusive evidence as to whether the Kol cognate verbs are toneless or have an underlying low tone. In the absence of such evidence, they have been analyzed as low tone verbs.

| Makaa | a | Kol | | Badw | e'e | Njyem | |
|--------|----------|-----|--------|--------|---------------|-------|--------|
| (Heath | a 2003a) | | | (Beavo | (Beavon 1991) | | 2005) |
| · · | | bò | 'be' | be | 'be at' | | |
| zə | 'come' | ncò | 'come' | ze | 'come' | nsye | 'come' |
| уә | 'die' | yò | 'die' | jwe | 'die' | jwe | 'die' |
| уә | 'give' | yò | 'give' | jwe | 'give' | je | 'give' |
| də | 'eat' | dò | 'eat' | de | 'eat' | | |
| | | | , | cwe | 'stumble' | | |
| kə | 'go' | kò | 'go' | | | | |

Table 6.17 Toneless verbs

Beavon (1997:01) notes that: "By positing a toneless lexical form for these verbs, one is able to account for why their surface forms are low in the remote past tense but high in the recent past."

Finally, there is a common general oddity in both Makaa and Badwe'e, which is the tonal stability of the morpheme meaning 'with' (e or le). It has a

lexical low tone which is never replaced by the replacive H tones of verbal constructions (Beavon 1991:54).

3 Nominal morphosyntax

Central A.80 languages resemble each other in their noun class, pronominal systems, and relative clause constructions. Data referred to in this section may be found in *Makaa* (A.83) (Heath 2003a,b), *Anaphora*, *Pronouns and Reference in Konzime* (Beavon 1986), and *The relative clause in Konzime* (Beavon nd). The Kol data comes from my own research, and additional information may be found in chapter 3 of this study.

3.1 NOUN CLASSES

Central A.80 languages are typical Bantu languages in that they do have noun classes. However, they are similar to each other (and contrast with other Bantu languages of eastern and southern Africa) in that they have relatively few noun classes (ten) and a number of these noun classes are zero-marked or marked only by a floating tone. For example, Lingala has three more noun classes (11, 14 and 15), Swahili has six more (11, 14-18), and

Cinsanga has seven more (12-18) (Meeuwis 1998, Mohammed 2001, Miti 2001).

| Class | PB | Makaa | Kol | Nzime |
|-------|------|------------------------|----------------------------|---------------------|
| 1 | *mo- | mù-ùd 'person' | mw-àrá 'woman' | m-ur 'person' |
| | | n-jôŋ 'stranger' | m-ùd 'man, person' | n-jwéela 'guard' |
| | | Ø-kâm 'monkey' | Ø-kól 'sister' | Ø-céme 'monkey' |
| 100 | | | | a-bu' 'pipe' |
| 2 | *ba- | bù-ùd 'people' | bw-àrá 'women' | b-ur 'people' |
| | | ò-joŋ 'strangers' | <i>bw-ùr</i> 'men, people' | o-jwéela 'guards' |
| | | <i>ò-kâm</i> 'monkeys' | bò-kól 'sisters' | o-céme 'monkey's |
| | | w-àcéncénî 'stars' | | ba-abu' 'pipe' |
| 3 | *mo- | L-lâm 'heart' | Ø-mbìl 'hole' | Ø-ku 'hole' |
| 4 | *me- | mì-lâm 'hearts' | mè-mbìl 'holes' | mi-ku 'holes' |
| 5 | *i- | Ø-lùùn 'hole' | è-bùrà 'sweet potato' | e-bura 'sw.potato' |
| | | d-ánd 'home village' | Ø-kù 'foot' | Ø |
| | | j-wôw 'day' | dw-ób 'day' | <i>d̂₦o</i> 'day' |
| 6 | *ma- | mà-lùùn 'holes' | mò-bùrà 'sweet potatos' | me-bura 'sw.potato' |
| | | m-ánd 'home villages' | mò-kwád 'villages' | me-kwár 'villages' |
| | | m-wôw 'days' | m-ób 'days' | muto 'days' |
| 7 | *ke- | L-ká 'leaf | Ø-kág 'child' | L-ká 'leaf' |
| | | | Ø-bùmó 'fruit' | bumó 'fruit' |
| 8 | *bi- | ì-ká 'leaves' | bè-kág 'children' | bi-ká 'leaves' |
| 9 | *n- | Ø-fà 'machete' | Ø-kwád 'village' | m-pumó 'fruits' |
| | | | | Ø-kwár 'village' |
| 10 | *n- | m-pùm'ə 'seed' | m-pùmó 'fruits' | o-luŋ 'ladder' |

Table 6.18 Noun classes in Makaa, Kol and Konzime

Nzime may actually have one more noun class than Kol and Makaa.

The nouns which are found in its noun class 10 (according to Beavon and Beavon 1995) are marked quite differently from class 10 nouns in Makaa and Kol, where class 10 nouns are marked with a nasal prefix that triggers devoicing. (Compare 'fruit' for Kol and 'seed' for Makaa in class 7 with the plural in class 10.) The related word in Nzime is listed as a class 9 noun. In Beavon (1986:169), he lists these same nouns as belonging to a class 11/14, so named because its members come from proto-Bantu class 11 and proto-Bantu class 14.

Additionally, Heath and Beavon have both noticed reflexes from the Proto-Bantu locative classes in Makaa and Konzime, respectively. Heath (p.c.) has noted that certain locative nouns have idiosyncratic relative clause concord markers. Beavon (1983) noted that the Nzime dialect of Konzime has a locative noun *kwá* which could include the locative class (class 17) prefix *ko*-.

3.2 PRONOUNS

The central A.80 languages differ in whether or not their subject markers are agreement markers or pronouns (as will be discussed in section

4.2), but they make similar distinctions between 1st person plural inclusive, exclusive or dual. Additionally, the shapes of many of the subject markers are similar. Kol subject pronouns are clitics, as was described in chapter 3.

Makaa subject markers form a prosodic unit with the following tense vowel, suggesting that they too are clitics.

Below is a chart showing subject markers in Makaa, Kol and Konzime.

| | Makaa | | Kol | | Nzime | |
|--------------------------|---------|------|---------|-------------------|-------|------------------|
| Subj | Sing | Pl | Sing | Pl | Sing | Pi |
| 1 st p. excl. | mè | śə | mè | b ì zó | me | b ì s |
| incl. | | she | | bìzá | | mina |
| dual incl. | | shẃə | | ncwà | | mɨna gá |
| 2 nd person | wò | bí | wò | bè | go | b ì n |
| 3 rd person | nyə⁄ à9 | bwo | лè | bwó | лè | bé |
| 3/4 | í | mí | w- | myè | wé | myé |
| 5/6 | í | í | dwó | mwà | lé | mé |
| 7/8 | í | í | i-, jwò | byò | yé | byé |
| 9/10 | í | í | лò | bwò | лè | лè |
| 11/14 | | | | | wé | |

Table 6.19 Subject markers in Makaa, Kol and Konzime

Below is a table giving the object markers for Kol and Makaa. Kol does not allow object agreement, so all of the morphemes below are independent object pronouns which can only appear post-verbally. Makaa has limited object agreement (see section 4.2.2).

⁹ "nyò indicates a change in action or subject; à indicates continuing action and same subject as the previous clause. nyò is always used before vowels, and to introduce reported speech. nyò becomes mowhen occurring in non-narrative affirmative sentences and before a morpheme beginning with a consonant." (Heath 2003)

| | Kol | | Makaa | | | Nzim | e |
|------------------------|------|-------------------|--------|--------|------|------|-------------------|
| Object | Pron | | Pron | | Agr | Pron | |
| | Sing | Pl | Sing | Pl | Sing | Sing | Pl |
| 1st p. excl. | mè | bìzó | m-ʻə | s-´ə | m-`ə | me | bis |
| incl. | | b ì zá | | sh-e | | | m ì na |
| dual incl. | | ncwè | | shw-ʻə | | | mɨna gá |
| 2 nd person | wò | bè | wò | bí | wò | go | b ì n |
| 3 rd person | лè | bwó | ny-ʻə | bw-ʻə | 3 | лè | bé |
| 3/4 | w- | myə | w-`ə | my-è | | wé | myé |
| 5/6 | dwó | mwə | é-wb | mw-`ə | | lé | mé |
| 7/8 | jwò | byò | gw-`ə | by-`ə | | yé | byé |
| 9/10 | лò | bwò | nyw-`ə | nyw-`ə | | лè | лè |
| 11/14 | | | | | | wé | |

Table 6.20 Object markers in Makaa, Kol and Konzime

3.3 RELATIVE CLAUSES

Relative clauses in Kol, Makaa and Nzime resemble each other in that they have a H tone boundary marker on the left and a segmental marker on the right. However, the right boundary markers in Makaa and Nzime agree with the head noun, while it is invariable in Kol. The Kol markers are enclitics, as was discussed in chapter 3.

| Class | Makaa | Nzime | Kol |
|-------|-------|----------------|-----|
| 1 | ýε | лá | =è |
| 2 | ẃa | bá | = è |
| 3 | у́ı | Wí | =è |
| 4 | mýa | mí | =è |
| 5 | yı́ | lí | =è |
| 6 | mía | má | =è |
| 7 | yı́ | yí | =è |
| 8 | у́ı | bí | =è |
| 9/10 | yí | лí | =è |
| 11/14 | | W Í | |

Table 6.21 Relative Clause Markers in Makaa, Kol and Nzime

- (3) míə bùl cεεl b-ang ďʉ bùl b-wo sεy wía 2-those lot Н want 2-they Нав H lot Н work REL MKR Mo bùl ú cèel bàng bwo du bùlu sey wa. 'I admire those who work hard.'
- (4) лò jì ndé lê dùbà m-ùr $m \hat{a}$ -kw \hat{i} nd = \hat{e} . nò= lè jì m-ùr н+ ndé dùb mì-kwénd = è he/she be (att) 1-person RELCL-be (loc) **IMPF** fish 4-hook-RELCL 'He is someone who fishes with hooks.'
- (5) bìy-òòng \acute{a} $m=\acute{a}$ têr \jmath^{w} à $\jmath=\acute{e}$ bè-òòng \acute{a} $H+\grave{m}=\acute{a}$ tér \jmath^{w} à $\jmath=\grave{e}$ 8-Def RelCl-I-P2 first take-RelCl '...what I first took...." (*Perils*.34)

Beavon (nd:27-28) notes that in Nzime it is also possible to find an uninflected (invariable) relative marker at the right boundary of relative clauses, i.e. \hat{i} . It is also possible, and indeed more frequent, to find the demonstrative $n\hat{i}$ 'that.' Beavon also notes that in Badwe'e, it is very common to have an invariable relative pronoun, which in this language is \hat{e} . This is extremely similar to the situation in Kol.

Additionally, in Makaa, the verbal contour also changes, in that an additional H tone is added to the first verbal element within the relative clause. This may be seen in (6) where the habitual marker hosts a H tone, though it is underlyingly marked with a low tone.

(6) míə c'è'el bul b-ang b-wo ďu bùl sεy wa want 2-those 2-they HAB H lot Η work REL MKR Mə bùl ú cèel bàng bwo du bùlu sêy wa. 'I admire those who work hard.'

Makaa also has a special locative marker which is hosted (or affixed) to the relative clause marker whenever the head noun of the relative clause is a location. An example of this may be seen below.

(7) L-njaw mə ngə jì-sə yı -d
C3-house I PROG C3-STATIVE C3-REL MKR LOCATIVE SUFFIX
Njaw mə ngə ji yıd... 'The house where I stay...'

Kol does not have a similar suffix. Locative head nouns do not trigger any special marking on the right edge of the relative clause.

(8) búŋ $m = \acute{a}$ $b = \grave{e}$.

bùŋ $H + m\grave{e} = \acute{a}$ $b\grave{e} = \grave{e}$ place RELCL-I-P2 be-RELCL

'...where I was.' (*Perils*.94)

Nzime does not have such a suffix either. However, if a locative becomes the head of a relative clause, a resumptive pronoun is required within the relative clause (Beavon nd:28).

(9) dímé nkwâl á bè tɨk lɨ
5-raphia.tree snail P2 be in-it 5RELCL
'the raphia tree the snail was in'

4 Verbal morphosyntax

The languages of the central cluster, i.e. Makaa, Kol and the Konzime varieties, have a number of morphosyntactic similarities and differences in their verbal systems. They all have a loosely bound verbal sequence which contrasts to that which is seen in central, eastern and southern Bantu languages. These languages differ though in their subject and object agreement systems, or lack of said. In addition, while they make similar

distinctions in their tense, aspect and mood (TAM) systems, the syntax of particular constructions can be quite different. I will specifically discuss imperfective, habitual and negative constructions. I will also point out some differences in the number and function of copula verbs in the languages of this central cluster. Finally, Makaa and Kol are similar in that they have a reduced set of verbal derivational suffixes (or extensions) with, in the case of Kol, very limited productivity.

The Makaa data is primarily taken from two articles, a grammar sketch by Teresa Heath in *The Bantu Languages* (Nurse and Philippson 2003) and an article on the Tense and Aspect system of Makaa by Daniel Heath in *Tense and aspect of eight languages of Cameroon* (Anderson and Comrie 1990. The Badwe'e data is taken from an article on the Kəəzime verbal system in the same book by Keith H. Beavon. The Kol data is from my own field work. I am unaware of any in-depth published work on the verbal system of Nzime, though some information can be gleaned from an article published on the discourse structure of Nzime (Beavon 1984).

4.1 LOOSELY BOUND VERBAL SEQUENCE

The languages of the Makaa/Kol/Konzime cluster are similar in that what would correspond to a single word in many Bantu languages (prefixes + verbal root + suffixes) can be analyzed as a sequence of independent words.

Evidence for this in Kol was given in chapters 4 and 5.

However, they differ in the specific nature of the verbal sequence.

Makaa and Kol are very templatic in nature, with similar internal structures.

Konzime is also analytic but differs quite a bit from Makaa and Kol in the ordering of its prevebal elements. These differences will be discussed in more detail in sections 2.2.4-2.2.6 below, dealing with negative, imperfective and habitual constructions, respectively.

Heath and Heath, in their work on Makaa, have found it helpful to separate the verbal sequence into two parts: the Inflection and the Macrostem. Below is a chart for Makaa (Heath 2003a:343) showing what may occur in the Inflection vs. the Macrostem.

| Inflection | | Macrostem | | | | |
|----------------|--------------|--|----------------|--------------------------------|---------------|--------------|
| subject mkr | tense mkr | clause mkr* | aspect mkr* | adverb and/or auxiliary* | object mkr | STEM* |
| | _ | | | , | · | radical + |
| | | | | | | extension(s) |
| | | *An infl | ectional o | whatever | | |
| | | morpheme occurs first in the Macrostem | | | | |

Table 6.22 The Makaa verb

As can be seen above, the Inflection consists of the subject and the tense markers. The Macrostem consists of the verb stem (root plus any suffixes) and any other preverbal markers that may be present. These other markers may be clause markers (a counter-assertive marker or distant future marker), aspect markers, adverbs or auxiliaries.

As was noted in chapter 5, there are two primary forms of evidence which have been used to justify this division. One is that a division into Inflection and Macrostem helps to account for the positioning of certain morphemes, namely the subjunctive marker¹⁰ and sentential negation clitic which may be hosted by the first element of the Macrostem, whatever that

Beavon states that "no formally distinct subjunctive mood exists" for Badwe'e (Beavon 1990:91)
However, the imperative and hortative share the same marker –g, although they differ in their tonal contours. It is this common morpheme which I am calling the subjunctive marker. The same is true for Makaa.

may be, as shown by the chart above. The other piece of evidence is the behavior (or positioning) of suffixal tones which mark certain tense contours. I argue for Kol, however, in chapter 5 that it is not necessary to divide the verbal sequence into these two elements but that the relevant data can be accounted for by turning to the notion of *second position* and a *tense tonal concord* whose scope is the nucleus of the clause.

Makaa resembles Kol in the behavior of its subjunctive marker, which marks both hortative and imperative constructions. This subjunctive marker may be hosted by the first element of the Macrostem. If the verb stem is the only element in the Macrostem, the subjunctive suffix will be affixed to that. However, if there is another element which precedes the main verb, it then becomes the host, as illustrated by the distant future marker (in the "clause marker" slot) in Makaa, as shown in the example below (Heath 2003b:22).

(9) bà cal mə-ləndu -g -a Η Η Η L Η L-HH F2 MacH MacH IMP PLcut C6-palm tree Baga cal malandu. '(You PL) will cut down the palm trees!'

In Badwe'e, the subjunctive suffix may appear on an auxiliary, suggesting that the suffix also appears on the first word of the Macrostem,

whatever that may be (Beavon 1990:95-96). Both examples given, one in the imperative and one in the hortative, show the same auxiliary verb $d\hat{i}$ 'stay.'

Makaa and Kol also have very similar negative circumclitics, which appear on the first element of the verbal sequence. They differ in this respect though with Badwe'e. (These differences will be discussed in section 2.2.4 below.) Heath (2003a:345-6) reports that the negative circumclitic is hosted by a fixed form in the past tenses, by the distant future clause marker in the distant future, or by the first word in the Macrostem in the present and future. This positioning is identical to what was seen in Kol. Below are examples from Makaa.

- (10)Mə cal mə-ləndu -ε L L L HH LHΗ Η Ι cut + NEG NEG MacH C6-palm tree Ma acale malandu 'I do not cut down palm trees.'
- (11)Мə abulε cal mə-ləndu HLΗ L L Η L HH MacH NEG (FUT) cut MacH C6-palm tree Mə àbule cal mələndu. 'I will not cut down palm trees.'

This suggests that the notion of second position will work for Makaa, but that it may not be necessary for the Konzime varieties.

The other form of evidence is tonal. Many tenses in languages of this cluster have a tonal contour associated with them. A common tonal contour is to have a floating H tone suffix which appears after every word in the Macrostem. (The one tense consistently *not* marked with a floating H tone is the far past.)

An example from Makaa illustrating this H tone (commonly called the Macrostem H tone or MacH) is given below (Heath 2003a:344).

(12) Mà ámà nyìŋgǎ gǔ gwòó.

I P1 again + MacH pick + MacH c7-mushroom
'I again picked a mushroom.'

An example from Kol illustrating the same phenomenon, but in a different tense, is given below.

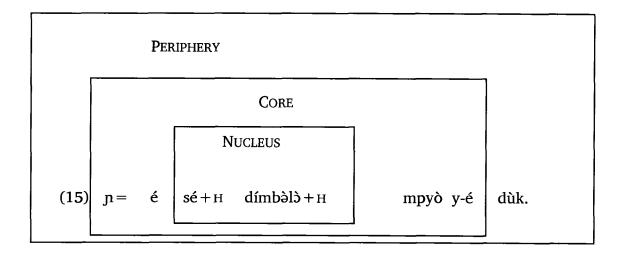
(13) $n = \check{e}$ nìgó kò njáp. he = FUT again + H go + H home 'He will return home.'

In Badwe'e, some of the tonal contours involve floating L's instead of H's. Beavon notes that up to four additional tones may be found in a single clause, since the perfective marker, an adverbial, and a serial verb (to use his terminology) may all appear before the main verb and each is marked with a

stem tone. His analysis contrasts with mine and that of the Heaths since he suggests that the distant past is marked with floating low tones (versus our analysis for Kol and Makaa where the far past is the only tense *not* marked with floating high tones). Below is an example for Badwe'e (Beavon 1991:68).

(14) Be si ka fumo mi-mber a ze Н H Ø + L L + LL+LL+LLH PFTV finally come build they P2 4-house 'It was they who then finally built houses.'

For Kol, this tense tonal concord has been analyzed in terms of Role and Reference Grammar (RRG) as a high tone which is suffixed to every word in the nucleus. A sample clause is repeated below from the previous chapter.



dímbələ (15) n=isé dùk. mpyó y-é $\hat{\mathbf{n}} = \hat{\mathbf{e}}$ sè+н н + clédmíb mpyò y-é dùg he/she-P1 **PERF** 1-dog 1-his forest 'He lost his dog in the forest.'

While this works for Kol, there are some complications when it comes to explaining the tense tonal concords in Makaa and Konzime. In Makaa, the progressive marker blocks the tonal concord. If it were just the case that the H tone suffix did not appear on the progressive marker, that could possibly be explained as a co-occurrence restriction. However, as can be seen by the example below, the H tone suffix also does not appear on any word within the nucleus to the right of the progressive marker (e.g. the main verb below). The example below also offers evidence that the tense tonal concord in Makaa cannot be a case of H tone spreading since (as was the case in Kol), the first syllable of 'again' remains low in spite of the suffixal H immediately to its left.

(16)Mə ku waambulə i-fambə nyingə ŋgə H+LΗ Η HHLL L NEG HORT MacH MacH again PROG clear Mə ku nyìngə ngə waambulə ifambə. 'I am not again clearing the fields.'

Badwe'e illustrates a separate complication. Beavon (1991:65-66) describes a tonal system where there are three different kinds of tones marking tense. One is found to the left of the verbal sequence in the location of the Kol tense vowels. Some tenses are marked with morphemes with overt segmental content while others are marked with morphemes consisting only of a floating tone. The second kind of tones are the "stem tones." These are roughly equivalent to the tense tonal concord described for Kol. They are floating tones suffixed to each word in the verbal sequence. However, Badwe'e differs from Kol in that some tenses have one floating tone which is suffixed to every word in the verbal sequence except the last word and a different tone which is suffixed to the last word. This is the case in the recent past (P1) sentence illustrated below where the non-final verbal sequence words have a floating high tone (+H) suffix and the main verb, the final word in the verbal sequence, has a floating L tone suffix.

(17)Be si ka ze fumo mi-mber Ø + H L + HH+L LH L L+HL+LP1 PERF finally come build 4-house 'It was they who then finally built some houses (earlier today).'

This example also illustrates the third kind of tense tones described by Beavon, namely the floating tone which marks the end of the verbal nucleus (my terms, not his). This is the H tone floating before the direct object in (17) above. This boundary tone, if present, is always a floating H tone, whereas the stem tones may be L or H or a combination thereof, as in (17).

It is possible that postulating a distinction between nucleus and core would still prove to be helpful in describing the Badwe'e system. In effect, there are floating tones on the left edge (the tense marker tones) and on the right edge. Within the nucleus there is a tonal melody which could be considered to be anchored at either internal boundary of the nucleus, with the tone on the left permitting reiteration (unlike the tone on the right). More research will have to be done though to test this hypothesis for Badwe'e.

4.2 AGREEMENT

4.2.1 Subject Agreement

Subject agreement is one of the hallmarks of a canonical Bantu language which is why the variations across the Makaa/Kol/Konzime cluster is interesting. None of these languages have obligatory subject agreement.

In Makaa, subject agreement may occur with subjects belonging to noun classes 3-10. However, subject agreement is not required all the time, since it may be omitted in the middle of a discourse when the referent is clear. Subjects belonging to classes 1 or 2 may be expressed by either a full noun or a subject pronoun. The subject pronouns are analyzed as pronouns (instead of subject agreement) since they usually replace the full noun and do not co-occur with it, in contrast to what occurs with class 3-10 subjects.

(Heath 1995:27)

- (18) a. mudá gúú kə bwə kúwo.... kill 1-woman them 1-chicken go 'Woman goes and kills a chicken for them.' (Heath 2002)
 - **b**. mbwoól w-òngú béégulig. trunk 3-this 3SUBJMKR must be kept 'This trunk must be kept.' (Heath 2003b:12)

The subject pronouns form a phonological word with the following tense vowel, so they are probably clitics, as was the case in Kol.

The copula in Makaa agrees with its subject when it is in the present tense. For more on this phenomenon, see section 2.1.6 below.

Konzime has a phenomenon which resembles subject agreement, but it is dependent upon the tense of the verb and the tone of the prefix. Beavon (1986:185) notes that a recapitualitive pronoun is required "if the tense of the verb is past perfective and if the concording prefix of the pronoun includes a high tone." If the prefix is a low tone prefix, then the recapitulative pronoun may not appear.

- (19) a. B-ud, bé á si de.
 2-people 3p:cl.2 P2 PFTV eat
 'Some people ate.'
 - b. núú m-ud á si de 1-certain 1-person P2 PFTV eat 'A certain person ate.'
 - c. *núú m-ud, ne á si de 1-certain 1-person 3s:cl.1 P2 PFTV eat

Kol shows no evidence of subject agreement. It has a full set of subject pronouns, which appear in complementary distribution with full nouns. The only exception to this tendency is when the subject is a complex noun phrase (e.g. the head of an associative phrase), in which case there may be a subject pronoun which is used recapitulatively, generally after a pause.

- (20) a. mw-àrá w-àŋə́ á kò
 1-woman 1-my P2 go
 'My wife went.'
 - b. mpú é bándà nwî.
 7-rain F1 really fall (rain)
 'It will certainly rain.'
 - c. mò-kwàbəlá mó-nè mwô sé jà nó fòk.

 6-obstacle 6-that(spec) 6SUBJ already give him 9-wisdom

 'His problems gave him wisdom.'

4.2.2 Object agreement

In Makaa, object markers may appear preverbally for certain dialects, if the object is from noun class 1. Kol does not allow object markers to appear preverbally. Objects are only expressed after the verb stem, either as pronouns or as full verb phrases. Beavon does not mention object agreement for either Nzime or Badwe'e. Below is an example sentence from Makaa illustrating a preverbal object marker.

(21) wò bá mà lúlà mì-cwôl. (or wò bá lúlà mà mì-cwôl.)
you F2 me forge 4-arrows
'You will make me arrows.' (Heath 2003b:15)

4.3 TENSE/ASPECT/MODE CONSTRUCTIONS

The languages of the Makaa/Kol/Konzime cluster also have similar

Tense-Aspect-Mood (TAM) contrasts and morphemes. The tense and mood

markers resemble each other more than the aspect markers though in all three
systems, the languages have similar contrasts.

Makaa and Kol both have five distinct tense distinctions, while the Konzime varieties (Nzime and Badwe'e) only have four. This is shown in the chart below. In general, Makaa and Kol show more commonalities with each other (as do Nzime and Badwe'e) than they do with the Konzime varieties. The recent past tense shows the most variation, suggesting that this is a later innovation.

| | Makaa | Kol | Nzime | Badwe'e |
|---------------|---------------------|---------------|-------|---------|
| remote past | a + H ¹¹ | á | á | á |
| recent past | `ámè | e+ polar tone | L | L |
| present | Н | ó | Н | Н |
| near future | e + H | é | ó | ó |
| remote future | bá | é bwó |] | |

Table 6.23 Tense in Makaa, Kol and Konzime

¹¹ The Makaa remote past and near future are analyzed as being toneless morphemes followed by a floating H tone. (Heath 1995:34)

Languages of this cluster have almost the same number of aspect contrasts, though they differ quite a bit in the way individual aspects are marked. In Makaa and Kol, the perfective aspect is unmarked. It is interesting that the perfective aspect markers in Badwe'e and Nzime resembles the perfect marker in Kol. Below is an example from Badwe'e. Beavon notes that this marker may only occur with past tenses (1991:61).

(22) Be si fumo mi-mbɛr

H+L H L+L L LH

they-P1 PFTV build 4-house

'They built some houses.' (earlier today)

| | Makaa | Kol | Nzime | Badwe'e |
|--------------|----------------|-------|-------------------------|--------------------------|
| perfective | Ø | Ø | si | si |
| progressive | ŋgè | gó | ŋgà | |
| habitual | d u | ó +sé | | bɨbé 'be' (redup.) – |
| | | | | pres. |
| | | | | sɨsâ 'do' (redup.) -past |
| | | | | dì '?'(aux) -fut |
| imperfective | | lè | lf ¹² | lf ¹³ |
| perfect | má + L | sé | n | chg in vowel height? |

Table 6.24 Aspect in Makaa, Kol and Konzime

¹² The imperfective in Nzime requires an auxiliary verb in the past or future tenses. (Beavon 1991)

¹³ The imperfective in Badwe'e requires an auxiliary verb in the past or future tenses. This auxiliary <u>must</u> be followed by the focus marker δ , otherwise the sentences are ungrammatical. (Beavon 1991)

Makaa is the only language of the cluster without a generic imperfective marker, though it does have two imperfective aspects, the progressive and habitual, which can co-occur with each other as shown in example (9) below (Heath 2003b:23). This contrasts with Kol where the aspect markers are in complementary distribution. In Makaa, the habitual marker may form a gerund, suggesting that it is in fact an auxiliary verb.

(23) Mə a du ŋgə bwas 0-kwesh
L H L L H
I P2 HAB PROG be sick C7-cough
Mə á du ŋgə bwas kwesh. 'I often was sick with a cough
(but not all the time).'

It is interesting that for Kol, Nzime and Badwe'e, the imperfective marker is always homophonous (or maybe identical to) the locative marker. The syntax of the imperfective constructions differs substantially though between Kol and the Konzime varieties, as will be discussed in section 2.2.5 below.

The habitual constructions are also very different. Makaa uses an auxiliary verb, while Badwe'e uses a reduplicated form of a verb, and Kol combines the present tense vowel and the perfect marker. No information is

available as to whether Nzime has a habitual construction. More information on these constructions will be given in section 2.2.6.

The languages of this cluster are especially similar when it comes to marking mood. They all differentiate between two moods: the indicative and the subjunctive. The indicative is the default. The subjunctive is marked by a clitic consisting of a velar stop, as shown below. The subjunctive may be subdivided into two moods, the hortative and the imperative. These add different tone melodies to the verbal sequence, in addition to the subjunctive clitic which they have in common.

As was mentioned above, in Makaa and Kol, the subjunctive clitic is hosted by the first word of the verbal sequence. In Badwe'e, the subjunctive suffix may appear on an auxiliary, suggesting that the suffix also appears on the first word of the verbal sequence, whatever that may be.

| | Makaa | Kol | Nzime | Badwe'e |
|------------|---------------------------|--------|------------|-------------------|
| indicative | Ø | Ø | Ø | Ø |
| hortative | -g+H (1stV) ¹⁴ | -g + H | -k + H + L | $-k^{15} + H + L$ |
| imperative | -g+H (finV) ¹⁶ | -g+H | -k + H | -k+H |

Table 6.25 Mode in Makaa, Kol and Konzime

Beavon (1991:68) notes that in Badwe'e, an independent sentence in the past tense must have either an aspect marker, a focus marker or be negated. This is not the case in Makaa or Kol.

4.3.1 Imperfective

Kol and the Konzime varieties resemble each other at first glance in that they both have an imperfective marker which resemble the locative prefix, *lè* in Kol and *li* in Badwe'e. However, syntactically, these two markers behave very differently. Kol's imperfective marker behaves as do all the other aspectual markers, occuring after in the template slot after the copula auxiliary and before any other verbs, as shown below.

¹⁴ This H tone appears on the first vowel of the first word in the Macro-stem.

¹⁵ Badwe'e has a number of subjunctive allomorphs, but /-k/ is the most frequent. Others include: /-ke/, /-ko/, copy root vowel, /-a/, and /-ŋ/. (Beavon 1991:93)

¹⁶ This H tone appears on the final vowel of the first word in the Macro-stem.

In the Konzime varieties however, the imperfective marker has an infinitival verb as its complement as shown in (23). In the past and future tenses in Badwe'e, it is required to occur with a copula as in (24).

- (25) Be li e-fumo mi-mbɛr

 H H L L+L H+L LH

 they Loc Inf-build 4-house

 'They are building houses.' (Beavon 1991:63)
- (26) Be a be o li e-fumo mi-mbɛr H H Ø +L H H L L+L H+L LH they P2 be Foc Loc INF-build 4-house 'They were building houses.' (Beavon 1991:63)

4.3.2 Habitual Constructions

While Makaa, Kol and Badwe'e all have a habitual construction, these constructions are formed using very different syntactic strategies. Makaa and Badwe'e both use auxiliary verbs, though Badwe'e uses different auxiliaries for each tense and has a special reduplicated form in the past and present

tenses. In contrast, Kol uses an unusual tense/aspect combination (present tense plus perfect aspect).

Makaa marks the habitual with the morpheme du which can appear as a gerund dula which means 'being in the habit of.' This suggests that this morpheme is an auxiliary verb.

(27)Мə ba du wiing o-mpyə L Η L HL Η Η Ι HABIT MacH C2-dog chase MacH Mo b'a du wing ompyo. 'I usually will chase the dogs.' (habitual)

Badwe'e also uses auxiliary verbs to form the habitual. However, it differs from Makaa in that the past, the present and the future all use different auxiliary verbs. The far past and the recent past both use the locative copula be, while the present uses the verb $s\hat{a}$ 'make, do,' and the future uses the auxiliary verb di 'remain, stay.' The locative copula be and the verb $s\hat{a}$ are both reduplicated, while di is not (Beavon 1991:64-65).

- (28) Be a bi-be o li e-fumo mi-mber

 H H L H H L L+L H+L LH

 they P2 Red-be Foc Loc Inf-build 4-house

 'They used to build houses.' (in the recent past)
- (29) Nye si-sa o fumo mi-mbɛr

 L+H H+H H L+L H+L LH

 he-Pres Red-do Foc build 4-house

'He usually builds houses.'

(30) Nye o di li e-fumo mi-mbɛr

L H L+L H L L+L H+L LH

he Fut stay Loc Inf-build 4-house

'He will habitually build houses.'

Kol, unlike the other two languages, uses the present tense marker with the perfect aspect to form habitual constructions.

(31) p = 6 = sé bwg = kwan. p = 6 = sé + h bwg + h kwan he/she-Pres Perf harvest 9-honey 'He harvests honey.' (habitually)

4.3.3 Negation

Makaa, Kol and Badwe'e resemble each other in that they all have what appears to be a negative circumclitic for sentential negation. However, they differ in the positioning of this circumclitic. For both Makaa and Kol, it occurs in second position, but in Badwe'e it is hosted by the main verb. Below is an example of a negated sentence in Badwe'e with an auxiliary, followed by a negated sentence in Kol, also containing an auxiliary. These are in different tenses, with the Badwe'e example in the recent past and the Kol example in the present.

- (32) Be be a fumo

 H+L H H+L L+L

 they- be NEG build

 P1

 'They did not build anything.'
- (33) $t\acute{o}\acute{o}b$ $\acute{a}=j=\grave{e}$ $d\acute{i}$ $d\grave{u}k$. sheep Neg-be(att)-Neg+H stay+H forest 'Sheep don't stay in the forest.'

Though Makaa and Kol both have a negative circumclitic for indicative sentential negation, Kol requires that a different negation strategy be used for the present imperfective tense, namely the negative copula *túg* plus the imperfective marker *lè* instead of the circumclitic. As was mentioned above, Makaa does not have a specific imperfective tense marker.

- (34) ŋӚ túǵ lé wàzà m-ûr. he/she be (NEG) + н IMPF+ н forget+ н 1-man 'He wasn't forgetting anyone.'
- (35) $n = \hat{a} = g = \hat{e}$ wàzà m-ûr. $\hat{n} = \hat{a} = g = \hat{e}$ wàzà m-ùr he-NEG-PROG-NEG forget 1-man 'He doesn't continue to forget someone.'

Additionally, the two languages have both created fixed past negative forms by adding the circumclitic to a frozen host. In Kol, the past forms are

based off of the auxiliary verb $nc\hat{\sigma}$ 'come,' while in Makaa the past forms are built on the counter assertive morpheme $sh\hat{\iota}$. Both Makaa and Kol insert an extra [g] which may be related to the subjunctive morpheme. Makaa does so in both past tense forms, while Kol only inserts a [g] in the far distant past (P3).

| TAM | Makaa | Kol | Badwe'e |
|-------------|-------------|-----------------------------|------------|
| F2 | abule | àbwéyè | |
| F1 | а- н + +-ε | á=+=è+н | а+ŋá+ L+н |
| PRES | a- L+ H +-ε | $\dot{a} = + = \dot{e} + H$ | н+а+ь+н |
| P1 | shíge | áncé +н | L+н+а+нL+н |
| P2 | a shíge | áncé | á+н+à+L+н |
| Р3 | | áncégé | |
| IMPF PRES | | túg+ н | н+а+L+н |
| Subjunctive | kú | ké | |

Table 6.26 Negation in Makaa, Kol and Badwe'e

The Badwe'e forms are made up of the tense marker (which is the same for affirmative and negative constructions), a grammatical tone, the negative prefix, the tonal contour added after each preverbal element, and the

grammatical tone inserted after the main verb. Negative forms in the past also require the presence of the copula auxiliary *bè*. Below is an affirmative sentence contrasted with a negative sentence in the same tense.

- (36) Be a si fumo mi-mbɛr

 H H Ø +L L+L L LH

 they P2 PFTV build 4-house

 'It was they who then finally built houses.'
- fumo (37) Be be mi-mber a Н \emptyset +L H+L L+L+H L LH Н build thev P2 be NEG 4-house 'It was they who then finally built houses.'

4.4 COPULA VERBS

The languages of the Makaa/Kol/Konzime cluster also vary in the number of copula verbs they have and in the semantics of these copulas. Kol has the most, with five. In Kol, the copulas may co-occur with a variety of tenses in simple sentences, and they may also appear as auxiliaries. In copular auxiliary constructions, the auxiliary is marked for tense, while the main verb is marked for aspect or information structure, as needed. (See chapter 4, section 3.1 for more information.)

For Makaa, Heath (2003a:347) notes that:

"Non-verbal clauses include both those with the copula $-s \hat{\partial}$ and those with the focus marker $\hat{\partial}$. Clauses with the copula as the predicate express attribution, equation, location, or possession. In the present perfective indicative, the copula takes a concord prefix [see Table 6.9]. Often the $-s\hat{\partial}$ is deleted, leaving only the concord. In other TAM constructions, the copula becomes $b\hat{\partial}$ without concord prefix, and takes limited TAM inflections."

Badwe'e also has a suppletive present tense form of the basic locative copula be (which is underlyingly toneless). Beavon describes the copulas found in Nzime in more functional terms, reporting that $m\hat{u}$ only occurs in main and relative clauses while $d\hat{u}$ appears in subject focus constructions. Below is a chart showing the copulas found in Makaa, Kol and Nzime, along with their semantic or syntactic differences. For more information on Kol copulas, see chapter 4.

| Makaa | | Kol | Nzime | Badwe'e | |
|-------|-----------|-----------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|--|
| bà | 'to be' | bò | bè | be locative | |
| jì-sè | Pres-cl.7 | jì equative, attributive | | | |
| | | ndé locative | dí subj. focus | | |
| | | mé change of state | m û main, rel.cl. | m û locative-PRES | |
| tùg | negative | túg <i>negative</i> | | | |

Table 6.27 Copula verbs in Makaa, Kol and Konzime

4.5 EXTENSIONS

In this language cluster, while there are segments which may be identified as the modern cognates of reconstructed Proto-Bantu valence-changing suffixes, also known as extensions, most of these are no longer productive. Kol, in particular, has a number of longer verbs with identifiable frozen extensions, but only the passive extension is marginally productive today. In the chart below are a few of the relics of reconstructed proto-Bantu extensions.

| | Proto-Bantu | Makaa | Kol |
|--------------|-------------|----------|------------|
| causative | *ic-i | -àl, a→e | -èzè, a→e |
| benefactive/ | *-1d | -yà | -èà |
| applicative | | | |
| passive | *ɪb-u | -òw | -ówà, -íyà |

Table 6.28 Related extensions in Proto-Bantu, Makaa and Kol

The sound correspondences seen in the chart above are not especially surprising, with the exception of the ablaut causative seen in Makaa and Kol, if that is indeed inherited and not an innovation. Many Bantu languages illustrate the weakening process seen in the passive and the deletion of the alveolar stop seen in the applicative. It is also common for the palatal stop of the causative to surface as an alveolar fricative. What is more noteworthy is the non-productivity of the extensions. As was mentioned for Kol in chapter 4, there are very few examples in modern Kol of related verb roots and derived root plus extension stems.

In this respect, Makaa differs from Kol, being perchance more conservative in this respect. Below is a chart showing the variety of valence-changing processes which may be identified in Makaa (Heath 1995:59). However, as in Kol, these are not fully productive; there are also verb roots

which may only appear with an extension; and the relationship between these processes and Proto-Bantu is not always clear.

| Passive | -òw | cil - ∂ 'to write' + - ∂w → cil - ∂w 'to be written' | | | | |
|--|---------------------|--|--|--|--|--|
| Reciprocal | -là | $b\hat{\underline{\varepsilon}}$ 'to follow' $+ -l\hat{a} \rightarrow b\hat{\underline{\varepsilon}}\hat{\underline{\varepsilon}}-l\hat{a}$ 'to resemble each other' | | | | |
| Benefactive | -yà | $d\acute{u}g$ 'to see' $+-y\grave{a} \rightarrow d\acute{u}g-y\grave{a}$ 'to see each other' | | | | |
| Reflexive | -là | cìng 'to be agitated' $+$ -là \rightarrow cìng-ù-là 'to turn self' | | | | |
| | -yà | cìl- $∂$ 'to write' + -y $∂$ $→$ $cìl$ -y $∂$ 'to register oneself' | | | | |
| Causative | -àl | jìg 'to be burned' + -àl → jìg-àl 'to burn (something)' | | | | |
| | a→e | bwáád 'to get dressed' → bwééd 'to clothe someone else' | | | | |
| Resultative | -yà | + radical vowel change | | | | |
| | | jáámb 'to cook' + -yà → jéémb-yà 'to be cooked' | | | | |
| Transitive | -à | lûl 'to purify' + -à→ lûlà 'to forge' | | | | |
| augmentative | e: | reduplication + - ú g | | | | |
| | | à-ŋgò-lás-lás-úg 'he is only talking' (he is not expected to | | | | |
| | | follow through on any action discussed) | | | | |
| verbs with tw | vo exte | ensions | | | | |
| | ьи | váád 'to clothe oneself' + causative + passive → bwééd-òw | | | | |
| | cà | àg 'to sculpt' + causative + benefactive → cèèg-à 'to have | | | | |
| į | something sculpted' | | | | | |
| fànd 'to braid hair' + causative + benefactive → fènd-yà 'to | | | | | | |
| have someone else braid your hair' | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | |

Table 6.29 Extensions in Makaa

Additionally, Nzime has a productive "simultaneous" suffix (-ŋɔ or -ɔ) which can appear on verbs (Beavon 1984:212). This suffix appears to correspond to a remote past consecutive relative tense with third person plural human subjects in Badwe'e (Beavon 1991:82).

5 Conclusion

This chapter has examined some of the similarities and differences between the languages of the middle cluster of the A.80 language family:

Makaa, Kol, Konzime, Badwe'e and Njem. These languages are primarily monosyllabic and allow closed syllables. They differ in their phonemic inventories, showing considerable variation in their vowel systems. They are all tonal, with two phonemic tones H and L.

The languages of the central cluster have similar noun class marking systems, though Nzime appears to have an additional noun class, class 11/14. Their relative clause structures are all marked by a H tone at the left edge and a morpheme on the right edge, though these differ in whether or not they show concord with the head noun.

Extensions are rare and mostly unproductive. Their tense/aspect systems, while not the same, demonstrate strong similarities. They differ as to whether or not their verbs agree with their arguments, either subject or object.

The following chapter will examine how Kol has changed over time.

7 Correspondences to Proto-Bantu

1 Introduction

This chapter will explore Kol's relationship to Proto-Bantu, both with respect to sound correspondences and grammatical systems. Section 2 below will review Kol's phonemic inventories and synchronic variation. Section 3 will then discuss consonant correspondences between Kol and Proto-Bantu, while section 4 will discuss vowel correspondences. Section 5 will compare some aspects of Kol morphosyntax with what is reconstructed for Proto-Bantu by Meeussen in his 1967 Bantu Grammatical Reconstructions.

1.1 SOURCES

This study is a comparison of current day forms of Kol with Proto-Bantu. The Proto-Bantu forms are taken from Meeussen's *Bantu Lexical Reconstructions*, as referenced in the 1980 reprint and on the BLR3 website.¹⁷
The Kol data is taken from a lexicon begun by Félix Fokou-Tamafo as part of

17 http://linguistics.africamuseum.be/BLR3.html

his work for NACALCO¹⁸ in Cameroon. This lexicon has been added to and amended on the basis of my own fieldwork.

1.2 METHODOLOGY

A careful comparison of Meeussen's reconstructions with the Kol lexicon resulted in approximately 450 cognate pairs. Of these, around 130 were determined to be confident matches and around 320 were classified as possible matches. Sound correspondences were determined based on these cognate pairs. The vowels of the Proto-Bantu words have been transcribed as $\{i, e, \epsilon, a, o, o, u\}$, instead of Meeussen's $\{i, i, e, a, o, u, u\}$ system, in order to facilitate comparison with the Kol lexicon.

2 Modern Kol

Today, as was described in chapter 2, Kol has 31 consonants and 8 vowels. It permits both open and closed syllables, with the following syllable shapes being represented in the language: V, CV, CVC, CVVC

¹⁸ NACALCO is an acronym for the National Association of Cameroonian Language Committees.

Below is a consonant chart for Kol. The sounds {p, v, g, kp, ŋkp, ŋgb} have a marginal status in Kol. Each only occurs initially in a few words, all of which may be borrowed.

| | labial | alveolar | postalveolar | velar | labiovelar | glottal |
|--------------|--------|----------|----------------|--------|------------|---------|
| stop | (p), b | t, d | c [tʃ], j [dʒ] | k, g | kp | |
| prenasalized | mp, | nt, nd | nc, nj | ŋk, ŋg | ŋkp, ŋgb | |
| stop | mb | | | | | |
| nasal | m | n | л | ŋ | | |
| fricative | f, (v) | s, z | ſ | | | |
| approximant | | y, 1 | | | w | |

Table 7.1: Kol consonants

Kol has a nearly symmetrical vowel system, with three front vowels, two central vowels and three back (and round) vowels. An additional vowel, the high central vowel, is an allophone of the vowel /e/. (For more information see chapter 2.)

| | front | central | back |
|------|-------|---------|------|
| high | i | (i) | u |
| mid | е | Э | 0 |
| low | ε | a | Э |

Table 7.2: Kol Vowels.

2.1 SYNCHRONIC VARIATION

Word-finally, voicing distinctions are neutralized for stops. Most C_2 stops are underlyingly voiced, and they may appear on the surface as either voiceless stops or as voiced continuants.

(1)
$$/tid/$$
 'animal' \rightarrow [tít] or [tíɪ]
/è-bùg/ 'holiday' (5) \rightarrow [è-buk] or [èbùy]

Some dialects have /s/ where other dialects have /ʃ/. This is illustrated by the variants below.

Additionally, the fricatives /f/ and /h/ are in free variation for many speakers.

(3) fámè 'true, real' varies with hámè

With respect to vowels, Kol mid vowels are optionally centralized before nasals and the fricatives /s/ and /ʃ/. There is some morphological conditioning since this process is very common for the noun class prefixes marking classes 2 ($b\dot{o}$ -), 4 ($m\dot{e}$ -), 6 ($m\dot{o}$ -) and 8 ($b\dot{e}$ -) but very rare for the class 5 prefix $l\dot{e}$ -. Examples are given below.

(4) a. [bɨ-mpânc]
/bè-mpânj/
8-side
'sides'

b. [bè-kák]
/bè-kág/
8-child
'children'

- c. [bɨ-sá]
 /bè-sá/
 8-thing
 'things'
- (5) a. [bɔ́-nè]
 /bó-nè/
 2-that
 'those'

- b. [bó-bá] /bó-bá/ 2-two 'two'
- c. [bà-sís]
 /bò-sís/
 2-another
 'another, different'
- d. [bà-ʃwá] /bò-ʃwá/ 2-friend 'friends'

Additionally, the front mid vowel /e/ may be raised (but not centralized) to [i] before or after palatal consonants.

(6) a. [mì-∫ùmb]
/mè-∫ùmb/
4-brook, stream
'brooks'

b. [mè-lélà]
/mè-lélà/
4-shiver
'shivers'

c. [mì-njà]
/mè-njà/
4-intestine
'intestines'

d. [bì-jwàlà]
/bè-jwàlà/
8-banana
'bananas'

e. [bè-kák] /bè-kág/ 8-child 'children'

f. [n-i] he/she-P1 g. [m-é] I-P1

In the sections below, the correspondences between the current-day phonemes of Kol and the reconstructed phonemes of Proto-Bantu will be explored.

3 Consonant correspondences

The discussion of consonant correspondences below have been organized by places of articulation, beginning at the front of the mouth and moving towards the back. Meeussen (1965:83) notes that the occurrence of voiceless nasalized stops is very restricted. These will be discussed where there are correspondences, but there are not correspondences at each place of articulation.

3.1 LABIAL CONSONANTS

3.1.1 *b

In modern-day Kol, the most common reflex of *b is a direct correspondence, i.e. that *b stays /b/, in both C_1 and C_2 positions.

The plural of 'hoe' is worthy of note. This appears to be a class 10 plural which has been moved to class 6. Historically, class 9 nouns formed their plurals in class 10, while synchronically in Kol they form their plurals in class 6. This noun and other "double-marked" nouns are discussed in chapter 3, section 1.3.

(8)
$$*b_2 > b$$
 $*d5b$ 'fish with a line' $>$ dùb 'fish with a line'

 $*gùbà$ 'shield' (9) $>$ ŋkùbɔ̀ 'shield' (9)

 $*jib$ 'steal' $>$ jibɔ̀ 'steal'

 $*kúbà$ 'chicken' (9/6) $>$ kúbɔ̀ 'chicken' (1)

If *b occurs at the beginning of a verb, it becomes /w/, as shown below.

There are a few verbs which have maintained the *b, but they are all very common verbs (be, marry, bear children). These are shown in (7) above.

Their lexical frequency may have maintained the proto-sound.

The *b has two prenasalized reflexes /mp/ and /mb/. As has been noted for other A-zone languages, this "double reflex" may be explained by looking at the morphological environment (Janssens 1993). All of the words which have /mp/ or /mb/ reflexes in their C₁ slot are nouns. The nouns with /mp/ are all nouns which belong to proto classes 9 or 11. Class 9 is noted for having a historic noun class prefix which was a non-syllabic homorganic nasal. It is possible that class 11 nouns were absorbed into class 9, and then

underwent this sound change before moving again to other classes (mostly 1 and 7). The fact that both class 9 and class 11 nouns had their plural in class 10 may have made it relatively easy for these two noun classes to merge.

As was noted in chapter 3, most NC initial words in class 9 have a voiceless consonant after the nasal. The class 10 nasal prefix still actively devoices the following consonant. This synchronic evidence makes it less surprising that *b corresponds to /mp/.

Of the two nouns with a /mb/ C_1 reflex, one is historically class 3, and thus would have had a *mo- noun prefix marker, while the other is historically class 15. In many languages, the *mo- of class 3 (and the similar prefix in class 1) lost its vowel and became a syllabic nassal prefix.

Finally, there is one noun which appears to have a /mpy/ reflex. It is not clear what is the source of the palatalization. It is a historic class 9 noun,

and we would expect a non-palatalized pre-nasalized stop as a reflex of the *b.

In C_2 position, /b/ is the most common reflex of *b, as was mentioned above. However, there is also a word with a /m/ correspondence.

3.1.1.1 Summary

To summarize, the primary correspondence of *b is /b/ in both C_1 and C_2 positions. At the beginning of a noun, *b would have corresponded to /p/ when following a nonsyllabic nasal prefix (class 9 or 10) and would have remained /b/ when following a syllabic nasal or CV- prefix. The syllabic nasal then became assimilated into the nominal stem, resulting in the difference between the /mb/ and /b/ correspondences. At the beginning of verbs, *b became /w/, except for some common verbs where *b stayed /b/.

As $*b_2$ *b remained /b/.

3.1.2 *p

Synchronically, there are no native voiceless bilabial stops in Kol. There are a few words which begin with /p/, but these can all be identified as Ewondo borrowings (Begne 1989:32). In root-initial position, the historic *p has either been weakened to the voiceless labiodental fricative /f/, has become voiced as in /b/, has become part of a prenasalized stop as in /mp/ or /mb/, or has been weakened and voiced as in /w/. /b/ may be found in either the C_1 or C_2 position, but /f/, /w/, /mb/ and /mp/ only occur rootinitially.

3.1.2.1 *p in C_1 position

In order to explain the numerous correspondences of *p in C_1 position, it is necessary to separate nominal roots from verbal roots. As the C_1 in verbal roots, *p has the following reflexes: {f, w}.

The primary reflex of *p at the beginning of verbal roots is /f/.

| (14) *pép | 'winnow' | > | fyàb | 'winnow' |
|-----------|----------|---|------|----------|
| *pènd | 'braid' | > | fènd | 'braid' |
| *poon | 'admire' | > | fààg | 'admire' |
| *píp | 'suck' | > | fyê | 'suck' |

The /w/ reflex is the easiest to describe, since there are only two examples. It appears that *p became /w/ when it occurred at the beginning of a verbal stem, followed by *a. This is very similar to the environment suggested above for the *b > w correspondence, where *b₁ > w in verbal stems. Since *p can become /b/ between vowels, as it does when it is in C_2 position as described below, I will suggest that this is an example of a sound change chain, where *p > b > w.

In nominal roots, *p has the following correspondences: {w, mp, b, mb, f}. Since for *b, different reflexes occurred when following different kind of nominal prefixes, it could be important to separate nouns according to their historical class membership. The reflexes /f/, /w/, /mp/ and /b/ occur in historic class 9 nouns, while the reflexes /mb/ and /v/ only occur in class 3 nouns.

Below are the class 9 cognate pairs which have been found for nouns beginning with *p. It is interesting that all but four of these correspondences are completely missing the nasal that was historically the noun class marker.

(The exceptions are in (20).) However, it is not that surprising, since for a number of related languages (e.g. Ewondo), the nasal prefix was deleted before voiceless stops (Janssens 1993:147). If this did occur in Kol, then that suggests that the words showing the /mp/ correspondence may be borrowings.

| (16) | *pígò | 'kidney' (9) | > | mbǎŋ fìg | 'kidney' |
|------|--------|---------------------|------|----------|------------------|
| | *pókò | 'mouse, rat' (1,5,9 | 9) > | fû | 'mouse' (1) |
| | *pótá | 'wound' (7,9) | > | fóŋ | 'wound' |
| | *pénjù | 'cockroach' (9) | > | fînj | 'cockroach' (1) |
| | *pùùpà | 'wind' (9) | > | fùbó | 'wind' (7) |
| | *pómpó | 'pigeon' (7, 9) | > | lè-fàb | 'pigeon' (5) |
| | *pempa | 'night' (9) | > | fùm | 'night' (3) |
| | | | | | |
| (17) | *pádè | 'polygamy' (9) | > | wál | 'polygamy' (7) |
| | *pàkò | 'tree-hollow' (9) | > | è-wúg | 'hole' (5) |
| | *pédè | 'puff-adder' (9) | > | wúrò | 'puff adder' (7) |
| | *púdì | 'foam' (9) | > | è-wúlè | 'foam' (5) |
| (18) | *pádà | 'forehead' (9,11) | > | è-bàdà | 'forehead' (5) |
| (10) | • | | | | |
| | *pákù | 'honey' (9) | > | bwšg | 'harvest honey' |
| (19) | *pákà | 'cat' (9) | > | mpà | 'wild cat' (7) |
| | *pukɔ | 'hair' (6) | > | mpùŋɔ̀ | 'hair' (10) |
| | *pàpá | 'wing' (5,11) | > | mpyàb | 'wing' (5) |
| | *póngó | 'bird, eagle' (9) | > | mpàl | 'eagle' (7) |

In trying to establish conditioning for these different reflexes of *p, it is hard to know whether to look at the historical environment or the synchronic environment. It is interesting that synchronically, /w/ appears mostly before /u/, while /b/ appears mostly before /a/. However, /f/ also appears before both /u/ and /a/. Synchronically, these nouns mostly belong to the same classes, classes 5 and 7. They do not change their initial consonant when the plural mò- or bè- is added.

Looking at nouns that were historically in class 1 or 3, I was only able to find one clear cognate set for *p.

There is also a *p > /v/ correspondence. /v/ is a marginal phoneme in Kol, so this word is probably borrowed.

3.1.2.2 *p in C_2 position

In C_2 position, *p consistently has a reflex of /b/.

3.1.2.3 Summary

To summarize, *p always corresponds to the voiced bilabial stop /b/ in C_2 position. As the initial consonant of verbs, *p corresponds to /w/ before /a/, and /f/ everywhere else. As the initial consonant of nouns, *p corresponds to /mb/ after the nasal prefix of class 3, and as /f/, /w/, /b/ or /mp/ after the nasal prefix (synchronically no longer present) of class 9.

3.1.3 *m

In C_1 position, all examples of *m directly corresponds to /m/.

(23) *mea 'calm, quiet' (7)
$$>$$
 myòŋ 'quiet'
*mìd 'swallow, devour' $>$ mìnɔ̀ 'swallow'

In C₂ position, this is also the case most of the time, as is shown below.

However, there is one example where *m seems to correspond to /mb/. It is interesting that this is a word which also begins with a

prenasalized stop. The opposite correspondence is much more common and will be discussed below.

To summarize, *m directly corresponds to /m/ in C_1 position and most of the time directly corresponds to /m/ in C_2 position. However, there is one example of a *m > mb correspondence, as demonstrated above.

3.1.4 *mb

No roots have been reconstructed with an initial *mb. However, in the C_2 position, sometimes *mb corresponds to /mb/, sometimes it corresponds to /m/, and sometimes it corresponds to /b/. The latter two appear to be a case of simplification.

3.1.5 *mp

As was mentioned above, there are few reconstructed words containing voiceless prenasalized stops. Below are two correspondences. The *mp here shows the same reflexes as *mb described above. In Kol today, voiced and voiceless stops are neutralized at the ends of words. It may be that *mp was neutralized with *mb once the final vowel was lost.

3.2 ALVEOLAR CONSONANTS

3.2.1 *d

*d has a number of reflexes in current-day Kol. It may correspond to $\{d, j, nj, l, r, n, nd \text{ or } y\}$. The C_1 reflexes will be examined first, followed by

those for the C_2 position. /j/ is the most common correspondence for both nouns and verbs.

3.2.1.1 *d in C_1 position

Since morphological category may be important, below is a discussion of the C_1 correspondences in nouns, followed by a discussion of the C_1 correspondences in verbs.

The clearest case will be dealt with first. *d corresponds to /nj/ for nouns in noun classes which have nasals in their reconstructed singular prefixes.

```
(30) *démà 'bat' (3) > njêm 'bat' (3) (pl. mèjêm)

*dómè 'husband, male' > njùm 'husband, male' (1) (pl. bòjûm)

*dòngà 'river' (3) > njwăŋ 'river' (9)

*dèdò 'boundary' (3) > njì 'frontier' (9)

*dà 'entrails' (11) > njà 'intestines' (3)
```

Below are also three examples where *d corresponds to /j/ where there used to be a nasal prefix. In general, historic class 11 nouns seem to have been absorbed into class 9, maybe due to their common plural in class 10.

These nouns may have regularized their singular forms with their plural. As

can be seen for 'bat' and 'husband' above, some singulars which begin with a nasal synchronically do not have a nasal in their plural form.

Below are two examples which are both nominalizations of verbs and therefore may have passed through a stage where they were in a class that began with a nasal prefix. For example, in the the F and G zones, the nominalized form of the verb 'to deceive' is a class 3 noun.

There is also one odd occurrence where *d corresponds to /t/ after the nasal prefix and one example where it corresponds to /s/ in a similar environment. The first example below is parallel to what was seen for *b, which had a number of /mp/ correspondences. However, this is the only example of its kind (nor are there /nc/ correspondences). The latter is likely to be a borrowing through the church languages of Bulu or Ewondo.

The direct correspondence of *d to /d/ is found where the proto consonant would have been between two vowels. Perhaps more importantly though, two of these are class 5 nouns, where it is hard to know whether the synchronic /d/ which remains is a reflex of the * d_1 of the root, or of the *d of the class 5 prefix. Note that 'beak' and 'chin, jaw' lose their /d/'s in the plural.

The class 5 prefix is synchronically either è- or lè-, making /l/ also a correspondence of *d, because the proto-class 5 forms are *i- (nominal prefix) and *di- (concord prefix). This reflex also shows up in a few nouns, most of them class 5 nouns synchronically, as shown below. Here, if the initial /l/ is due to the class 5 prefix historically, it has been reinterpreted over the course of time, since the plural also has /l/.

The correspondence of *d to /y/ is very rare in nouns though there are also a few examples of the same correspondence in verbs. When *d corresponds to /y/ it tends to be followed by a front vowel, though this is not enough to completely distinguish this correspondence from those given above.

Finally, there is one cognate pair where *d corresponds to /n/. This is a common reflex across Bantu languages, particularly where the second C is also a nasal.

(37) *
$$d\delta m\delta$$
 'entry, mouth' (3) > nùm 'mouth' (3)

This might have been an example of Meinhof's rule, where by complex nasal units are simplified when they precede another nasal. A possible series of changes is shown below.

(38)
$$*NV-domo > ndomo > nomo > num$$

For verbs, *d commonly corresponds to /j/, as shown below. These verbs tend to have non-high vowels in the reconstructed forms.

The direct correspondence also occurs fairly frequently. These verbs tend to have high vowels in the reconstructed forms.

There are also a couple of examples where *d corresponds to /l/, which is consistent with one of the nominal patterns and with the synchronic class 5 marker.

Additionally, *d corresponds to /y/ and /n/ in exactly the same places in verbs as it did in nouns. /y/ is a reflex of *d when *d precedes front vowels, and /n/ is a reflex of *d when the second consonant in the word is also a nasal. However, once again, this is not enough to account for why there are not more pairs with /y/ and /n/ reflexes since more than the words below would fulfill those conditions.

Additionally, there is one other correspondence, /t/, with only one cognate pair. There is not enough data to understand the conditioning, and it probably a borrowing since it exists alongside a word with the expected correspondence.

(44) *dò 'fight' > túnà 'fight with weapons'
$$j\text{\'un\`a} \quad \text{`fight (v)'}$$

3.2.1.2 *d in C_2 position

The primary correspondence of *d in a C_2 position is /l/.

If *d is followed by a low vowel, then *d corresponds to /d/, which for many speakers is weakened to [r].

*d can also correspond to /nd/. Words with this reflex all begin with a palatal or velar nasal. However, there are also palatal and velar initial roots which have /l/ correspondences.

If the first consonant in the word is a nasal, then it seems that *d can correspond to /n/, as is illustrated below. Again, this is the only cognate pair illustrating this pattern.

Finally, there are some correspondences of *d to /z/. These are all synchronically after back vowels, though it is not clear why they would be a trigger for such a weakening process (which differs from the synchronic weakening of /d/ to [r]).

3.2.1.3 Summary

To summarize, * d_1 corresponds to /j/ after a nasal prefix and to /d/ when it occurs after a CV- prefix. The environments which led to the /l/ and

¹⁹ Also sàndàlà.

/y/ reflexes are less clear. /l/ corresponds to *d in the class 5 prefix, as well as in a few nouns and verbs. /y/ only occurs as a reflex of *d when *d was followed by a front vowel (in both nouns and verbs), but this vowel cannot be the only conditioning factor. It is possible that an alveolar C_2 is the other conditioning factor. Finally, there is one correspondence /n/ in a conditioning environment that would be consistent with Meinhof's law.

In C_2 position, the most common reflex of *d is /l/. If *d precedes a low vowel, it corresponds to /d/ which is weakened to [r] for many speakers. Some words also show a *d to /z/ reflex which could also be the result of weakening. Some words also exhibit a /nd/ reflex, but the conditioning reflex is not clear. Finally, it may be the case that when the C_1 is nasal, a nasal harmony is triggered, resulting in a correspondence of /n/.

3.2.2 *t 3.2.2.1 *t in C₁ position

There are three correspondences to *t at the beginning of a noun: /t/, /d/, and /l/. The /d/ correspondence seems the easiest to explain. *t corresponds to /d/ after the nasal prefix of class 9. It is not surprising that there is no trace of the nasal prefix in the reflexes of the class 9 words below,

since as has already been mentioned, the nasal was generally deleted before a voiceless stop.

It is interesting that /d/ is also a reflex for a historical class 5 noun, since the historical prefixes for class 5 were *i and *di-.

Discovering a conditioning environment, either phonological or morphological for /t/ vs /l/ is trickier. Both occur before the same vowels, before the same tones, and in the same root shapes. There is also a mixing of morphological categories. /t/ occurs in what would have historically been an intervocalic environment (after a CV- prefix, as for class 5 nouns and the word 'five' which agrees with the head noun it modifies and thus would have followed several CV- concord prefixes). However, it also occurs with class 3 nouns, which would have been marked by a syllabic nasal.

/l/ also occurs after what would have been a nasal prefix in a number of the historic class 3 and 9 examples below. The historically class 9 noun with an /l/ reflex is especialy surprising.

At the beginning of a verb, /l/ is the most common correspondence for *t. It is interesting however, that for the examples below, *t only once precedes a front vowel.

In fact, there are only five examples where *t precedes a front vowel, the one given above (*tèd), the three given in (55) and (56), and the first example of (58). For two of these, *t corresponds to /s/.

For another, *t corresponds to /c/, as shown below.

However, this is an interesting semantic field to look at. To begin with, there is another proto-Bantu root, $c\varepsilon\varepsilon c$, also meaning 'to cut.' It is not clear which root the Kol word is related to. It may be a direct reflex *c > c, or rather *t > c. The *c root is attested in Zone C, but not in A, while the *t root is attested in Zones A, B and C. Since there are no other reflexes of *c > c or of *t > c at the beginning of a word (other than what is shown below), the origin of 'cut' remains a mystery. The /s/ at the beginning of 'cut open' is also odd in light of the rest of the semantic field.

cíg 'cut'
cígèlò 'cut into pieces'
*kếk 'cut' kèŋ 'cut hair'

For the fourth example of *t before a front vowel, given as the first example below, *t corresponds to /t/. The next two examples are confusing, since /t/ corresponds to *t in the same phonological environments as was shown for /l/ above, namely before a back vowel.

In fact, there are an additional two correspondences for *t before a back vowel, /ʃ/ and /j/. There is only one example for /ʃ/, so it may be able to be ignored, but there are three for /j/. Again, this is an area for further research.

3.2.2.2 *t in C_2 position

In C_2 position, *t corresponds to /l/ when there is a final vowel and to /d/ when it is root-final synchronically, as shown below.

3.2.2.3 Summary

For $*t_1$, after the non-syllabic nasal prefix of class 9, *t corresponds to /d/. There are also examples where it appears that the /d/ correspondence has been influenced by noun membership in class 5. *t also corresponds to /t/ and /l/ at the beginning of nouns.

At the beginning of verbs, /l/ is the most common correspondence, though it appears to only occur before back vowels. When preceding a front vowel, *t corresponds to /s/, /t/ and /c/. Before back vowels, there are also a few correspondences of *t to /t/, / \int / and /j/.

As was described above, in C_2 position, *t corresponds to /l/ when the final vowel has been preserved and to /d/ when it is root-final synchronically.

3.2.3 *n

In nouns, adjectives and function words, the proto-alveolar nasal always corresponds to a synchronic alveolar nasal, in both C_1 and C_2 positions.

$$(63) \quad *n_1 > n$$

$$*n\grave{a} \quad 'and, with' \quad > \quad n\grave{o} \quad 'and, with'$$

$$*n\grave{a} \quad 'four' \quad > \quad n\acute{a} \quad 'four'$$

$$*n\acute{e}n\grave{e} \quad 'big' \quad > \quad n\acute{e} \quad 'big, important'$$

$$(64) \quad *n_2 > n$$

$$*n\acute{e}n\grave{e} \quad 'big' \quad > \quad n\acute{e} \quad 'big, important'$$

$$*j\acute{a}n\grave{a} \quad 'child' \quad > \quad -\hat{a}n \quad 'child, offspring' \ (1)$$

$$*j\acute{n}a \quad 'name' \ (5) \quad > \quad d\acute{n}\grave{o} \quad 'name' \ (5)$$

$$*g\grave{a}n\grave{o} \quad 'tale' \ (9,11) \quad > \quad k\grave{a}n \quad 'tale' \ (3)$$

$$*t\acute{a}n\acute{o} \quad 'five' \quad > \quad t\acute{o}n \quad 'five'$$

In verbs, however, *n seems to correspond to /n/, as shown by the three examples below. (The only verb found with a direct correspondence is the word for 'big' above, which may actually be a verb 'to be big.') In Kol, infinitives are marked with the class 5 prefix, and Meeussen notes that it may be possible to reconstruct that in proto-Bantu (1965:111). The historic class 5 prefix *i- may have conditioned palatalization of the alveolar nasal.

There is also one more verb beginning with *n which seems to have a correlate in modern-day Kol. There are no other examples with a similar /t/correspondence.

3.2.4 *nd

There are no clear examples of *nd in C_1 position. However, in C_2 position, *nd almost always corresponds to /nd/.

There are a few examples, where *nd may correspond to /nj/. This may be palatalization since the *nd is otherwise surrounded by palatals or the front vowels {i, e}. It cannot be just the vowel, since otherwise we would

expect the *nd in 'heel' to also become palatalized under the effect of the high front vowel /i/.

Finally, there is one possible example of simplification of the final consonant. This is most likely a correspondence of *nd > nj > j. It is common for final prenasalized stops to be simplified to a single segment, either oral or nasal, as seen for *mb and *mp above.

There is also one example where *nd may correspond to /d/. This could be seen as an example of simplification.

(70) *kèndó 'palm tree' (3)
$$>$$
 lè-kúdó 'palm tree' (5)

3.2.5 *nt

As was mentioned above, voiceless prenasalized stops are very rare.

There are two possible examples, and in both cases *nt corresponds to /d/.

3.3 PALATAL CONSONANTS

3.3.1 *j

There are no examples of *j in the C_2 position, which is consistent with the synchronic lack of palatal consonants in the coda position. However there are a plethora of reflexes, many of them contradictory, for the C_1 position. These are discussed below.

3.3.1.1 *j in C_1 position

At the beginning of nouns, *j corresponds to /c/ after the nasal prefix.

This is illustrated below. Since *j was voiced, the nasal prefix remains (it is only deleted before voiceless consonants).

However, there are a few examples of a direct correspondence in what appears to be the same morphological environment.

There is also one occurrence where the *j seems to have been deleted. There is some question though, with many of the initial *j's whether they were there at all. Janssens notes that: "The researcher has the impression from time to time that those establishing the reconstructions posited the existence of a voiced palatal sound in PB (*j in Meeussen, *y or *j in Guthrie) more for reasons of economy than on the basis of definite indications" (1993:331). The example below could just be the nasal prefix of the class 9 occurring before a vowel-initial root. It is interesting though that it is the palatal nasal, which is the form we would expect before *j but not a expected reflex of *n in a noun.

There is also one example where *j corresponds to /d/. This is interesting because synchronically, /d/ alternates with /j/ in some dialects for at least this word. The Kol speakers who live along the Mbama-Messaména road say [jínò] while the Kol speakers who live further away from the road say [dínò].

(75)
$$*j$$
ínà 'name' (5) > dínò 'name' (5) (pl. mínò)

Finally, there are a number of minor correspondences which may all be borrowed. The word for 'cooking pot' is quite unusual, since the expected correspondence is /nc/.

As the initial consonant in verbs, *j corresponds to /j/ or /y/. The conditioning environment may be the following consonants. The /j/ reflexes are followed (or were followed) by labial consonants, while the /y/ reflexes are followed by alveolar consonants. However, it remains unclear why a labial consonant would maintain the proto-sound while an alveolar would condition weakening.

Finally, one verb in Proto-Bantu has two different correspondences in modern-day Kol, neither one of which shows the /j/ or /y/ correspondences illustrated above!

3.3.1.2 Summary

As was mentioned above, there are no examples of $*j_2$. $*j_1$ in nouns primarily corresponds to /c/ or /j/. All examples of /c/ are preceded by the class 9 nasal prefix. In verbs, $*j_1$ corresponds to /j/ or /y/, with the difference possibly being triggered by the following consonant.

3.3.2 *c

3.3.2.1 *c in C1 position

The primary reflexes of *c at the beginning of a noun are /s/ and /ʃ/. As was noted in the section above on synchronic variation, some dialects of Kol have /s/ where other dialects have /ʃ/. Not enough is known about this synchronic variation to know how it might have interacted with the historical evolution of *c. The /ʃ/ reflexes are always followed by a back vowel as seen in (81), while the /s/ reflexes are followed by both front and back vowels.

Finally, there are four correspondences of which there is only one or two examples each. One, 'axe,' appears to have an incorporated nasal prefix which may be due to its shifting classes from class 5 to class 9 which is historically (though not synchronically) marked by a nasal prefix. The next is the voiced equivalent of *c, /j/, and this example historically belongs to class 14 which does not exist synchronically in Kol. The other three have /k/ and /t/ correspondences. There is not enough information to know right now what conditioned these different reflexes.

There are four correspondences for *c at the beginning of a verb. The most common reflex for *c at the beginning of a verb is /j/.

The most consistent environment is found for the change *c > s, as shown below. All verbs which began with *c followed by *i synchronically begin with /s/. However, as can be seen by the last verb below, *c also changed to /s/ before *a in 'do.'

This overlaps with the more common correspondence of *c to /j/ as well as two other correspondences which seem to occur in the same environment. These are illustrated below. Each of these is in complementary distribution with the /s/ correspondence before *i, but it is not clear at all what the conditioning environment is that determines whether *c corresponds to /j/, /k/ or / $\frac{1}{2}$.

As was the case for nouns, /ʃ/ only appears before back vowels.

However, /k/ and /j/ also appear before back vowels.

3.3.2.2 *c in C_2 position

There are only three examples of *c_2 , as shown below. This is not enough data to be able to draw any sort of conclusions about the correspondences of *c_2 . However, it is interesting that one of these is /z/ which is the voiced correlate to one of the *c_1 correspondences, /s/.

3.3.2.3 Summary

In nouns, $*c_1$ primarily corresponds to /s/ or $/\int/$. $/\int/$ is only found preceding back vowels, while /s/ is found preceding both front and back

vowels. In addition, there is an /nc/ correspondences which may have been caused in part by interaction with the class 9 prefix.

In verbs, *c corresponds to /s/ when it precedes *i, and to /j/, /s/, /k/, or / \int / elsewhere. The correspondences /j/, /s/, /k/ and / \int / occur in the same environments, but only /s/ occurs before *i.

In C_2 position, *c corresponds to /z/ or /k/, but there is not enough data to know which of these is the primary correspondence and/or what the conditioning environment is.

3.3.3 *n

There are only three clear cognate sets with the palatal nasal. It appears that the *n directly corresponds to /n/.

3.3.4 *nj

In contrast to *j where there were no clear examples of it occurring in C_2 position, for *nj, there are no clear examples of it occurring in C_1 position. The examples showing correspondences of *nj in C_2 position are themselves not numerous (two). As was mentioned above, palatal consonants are rare as

codas. The example below illustrates a direct correspondence between *nj and /nj/, while the following example shows an erosion of *nj to /n/.

3.4 VELAR CONSONANTS

Meeussen does not reconstruct a velar nasal (1965:83). Below the sound correspondences for *g, *k, *ng, and *nk will be discussed.

3.4.1 *g

3.4.1.1 *g in C_1 position

In the C_1 position, *g has multiple reflexes. /g/ does not occur synchronically in C_1 position. For nominal roots, the most common correspondence is /k/. This is true for nouns in all of the nasal prefix classes as well as those in other classes.

There is a less common reflex, where *g corresponds to /c/. This reflex only occurs before *i, but it occurs in all classes. This corresponds to the synchronic gap of palatalization occurring with velar consonants.

There are also a few isolated examples of other reflexes.

In verbs, there are two reflexes, /k/ and /c/. It appears that /k/ is the reflex before back vowels and /c/ is the reflex before front vowels, which would parallel the noun correspondences. The one exception 'tell story' may differ because it forms a paradigm with $k\hat{a}\hat{a}n$ 'tale.'

3.4.1.2 *g in C_2 position

In C_2 position, *g has only one reflex, a direct correspondence /g/. This is true for both verbs and nouns, as shown below.

3.4.1.3 Summary

In C_1 position, the correspondences to *g seem to primarily reflect the location of the following vowel. In nouns, *g corresponds to /c/ before *i, and to /k/ everywhere else. In verbs, though with only two examples, it is impossible to tell for sure, it appears that *g corresponds to /c/ before front vowels and to /k/ before back vowels.

As was mentioned above, in C_2 position, *g has only one reflex, a direct correspondence /g/.

3.4.2 *k

3.4.2.1 *k in C_1 position

The primary correspondence for *k when it is the initial C of a noun is /k/.

However, there are also three other minor correspondences, each with one example. It is interesting that the /c/ correspondence occurs before a historic front vowel, but there are also front vowels represented in the examples above.

It is also interesting that the two labial correspondences, /w/ and /f/, occur before labial C_2 's and before back vowels, but again, this is not sufficient to explain this correspondence, since that is also true for some of the /k/ examples above.

The primary correspondences for *k at the beginning of a verb is /ʃ/. However, there are also two other correspondences, /s/ and /k/. It is possible that the vowel following *k played a part in determining the correspondences. All of the occurrences of *k corresponding to /ʃ/ shown below are when *k is followed by a back vowel.

Two out of the three examples showing the /s/ and /k/
correspondences are when *k preceded a front vowel, as shown below.

However, there is no apparent conditioning environment to determine which of these two reflexes should emerge.

Finally, there is one example where *k corresponds to /s/ before a back vowel. As was noted in the section on synchronic variation, /s/ and /ʃ/ are in dialectal variation. This may have played a role here.

(101) *kəng 'look for, seek' > sáŋ 'look for'

3.4.2.2 *k in C_2 position

As a C_2 , *k has three reflexes: /ŋg/, /ŋ/ and /g/. It seems logical to suggest that the original change was *k > ŋg, followed by a simplification of /ŋg/ to either /ŋ/ or /g/. In fact, this is what I will be proposing below for *ng when it is in C_2 position.

It is however not clear what would have triggered (or blocked?) a simplification of the final consonant in some words, much less why certain words have a $/\eta$ / simplification while others have a /g/. It is interesting that there is only one example of the non-simplified $/\eta g$ /.

3.4.2.3 Summary

The primary correspondence of *k as the initial consonant in a noun is /k/, and the primary correspondence for *k as the initial consonant in a verb is $/\int/$. However, for both nouns and verbs, there are numerous other minor correspondences: /s/, /c/, /w/ and /f/ for nouns and /s/ and /k/ for verbs.

As a C_2 , it is likely that *k changed to /ŋg/ at one stage and is now undergoing a simplification process with some words having only /ŋ/ and some words having only /g/. This is similar to the changes that *ng has undergone.

3.4.3 *ng

There is only one example of *ng in C_1 position, and it demonstrates a *ng > nk correspondene.

In C_2 position, there are a few examples of a direct correspondence, as shown below.

*káng 'threaten' > ʃwàngələ 'threaten'

However, most of the examples show a simplification of the *ng to either $/\eta$ / or /g/. The conditioning for the different reflexes remains unclear. Both correspondences occur in nouns and verbs, and both are in the same phonological environments.

| (107) | *túng | 'build, plait' | > | lúŋò | 'build by weaving' |
|-------|--------|--------------------|----|----------|-------------------------|
| | *gòngò | 'back' | > | kwàŋ | 'back' (3) |
| | *gàngà | 'medicine man' | > | ŋkàŋ | 'medicine man' (1) |
| | *congo | 'banana' | > | ∫úŋɔ́ | 'hand of plantains' (3) |
| | *dòngà | 'river' (3) | > | njwǎŋ | 'river' (9) |
| | *gòngó | 'caterpillar' (5) | > | kùŋ | 'caterpillar' (3) |
| | *kíngó | 'neck' (9) | > | cóŋ | 'neck' (9) |
| | *kángà | 'guinea fowl' (9) | > | kâŋ | 'guinea fowl' (3) |
| | *jango | 'gall' (9) | > | ìcóŋ | 'bile or gall' |
| | *tàngá | 'cattle post' (5) | > | dàŋ | 'herd (cattle, sheep)' |
| | *dóng | 'suggest' | > | bì-jáŋ | 'lies' (8) |
| (108) | *cóngó | 'poison' (14) > | jv | vòg | 'poison' (9) |
| | *dongo | 'beak' (3) > | d١ | íúg | 'beak' (5) (pl. múúg) |
| | *kéng | 'cheat, deceive' > | sì | g | 'deceive' |
| | *còng | 'suffer' > | jù | g | 'suffer' |
| | *táng | 'be first' | ſû | ig, ∫wôg | 'be in front' |

3.4.3.1 Summary

As a C_1 , the one example found shows a correspondence between *ng and /nk/. In C_2 position, there are a couple of direct correspondences, but the most common reflex is a simplification of *ng to /ŋ/. However, there are also a couple of examples which suggest a simplification of *ng to /g/. The environment which triggered a maintenance of the original sound vs. the environments which triggered the two simplification processes remains unclear.

3.4.4 *nk

As was mentioned above, voiceless prenasalized stops are rare. *nk only has one correspondence.

(109) *nínk 'give' > nìg 'give back'

3.5 GENERAL OBSERVATIONS ON CONSONANT CORRESPONDENCES

In this section I will attempt to make generalizations over the consonant correspondences detailed above. In order to best complement the discussion above, which was organized around places of articulation, this section will be organized by manner of articulation.

3.5.1 Nasals

The nasals in Kol are all in direct correspondence with the protonasals. The only slight modification is that *n appears to correspond with /p/ when it is the initial consonant of a verbal root. This may be due to the infinitival form, probably the class 5 marker *i- (which has been preserved in modern Kol). The high vowel could have conditioned palatalization in the following segment. Otherwise, *n corresponds to /n/ whether it is in the C_1 position or the C_2 position. The same is true for *m, which always corresponds to /m/. While there are not a lot of clear cognate sets for the palatal nasal, for the two examples that exist, *p directly corresponds to /p/. Meeussen does not posit a proto velar nasal.

3.5.2 Voiced NC

There is only one example found of a NC occurring in C_1 position. In this one case, *ng corresponds to $/\eta k/$.

However, in C_2 position, there are a number of examples. Each NC demonstrates a direct correspondence, while additionally each shows some evidence of erosion at the right edge, with simplification of the NC to either N or C. That is to say, *mb corresponds directly to /mb/, but there are also

examples where *mb corresponds to /m/. Likewise, *nd mostly directly corresponds to /nd/, but there is also one example where it corresponds to /d/. Additionally, there are some examples where *nd has been palatalized to /nj/. Again, of the two examples found for an *nj correspondence, one is /nj/ and the other is /n/. Finally, there are a number of *ng correspondences. The most common is /ŋ/, but there are also examples of /ng/ and /g/.

For all of the NC's, it is not possible with the current data to determine why erosion happened in certain cases and not others, and why in some cases it was the C that was preserved instead of the N.

3.5.3 Voiceless NC

Meeussen notes that voiceless prenasalized stops are rare. Cognate forms all show similar reflexes to the voiced NC's. *mp has a /b/ reflex and a /m/ reflex, as seen for *mb. *nt has a /d/ reflex. *nk has a /g/ reflex. There were no examples of *nc correspondences.

3.5.4 Voiced oral stops

3.5.4.1 When in C_1 position

The C_1 position is the most diverse, probably because roots in Kol can be preceded by so many different kinds of affixes. Direct correspondences between the proto voiced stops and the current day stops are most common in morphological environments which would have placed the stop in question between vowels (that is to say, at the beginning of verbs or after a (C)V- noun prefix).

It is interesting that the reflexes for *g can be completely explained by the phonological environment, i.e. whether the following vowel is front or back, while this most definitely cannot be the explanation for the various correspondences of the other three voiced stops.

To review, in nouns, *g corresponds to /c/ before *i, and to /k/ everywhere else. In verbs, it appears that *g corresponds to /c/ before front vowels and to /k/ before back vowels. This additionally explains why velar consonants do not occur synchronically with palatalization.

In contrast, the various reflexes for *b, d, j seem to be partially explained by looking at the various possible morphological environments. It

seems to be important, for at least some correspondences, whether the C1 is at the beginning of a noun or a verb. If it is at the beginning of a noun, then for some voiced stops, it is important to consider the nature of the noun class prefix. There were most likely three different types of noun class prefix. The most widely spread would have been a (C)V- prefix (singular classes 5, 7 and all the plural classes). These singular prefixes have all been lost in modernday Kol. The second type of noun class prefix would have been a non-syllabic nasal marking classes 9 and 10 (and probably extended to class 11 due to it having its plural in class 10). The third type of prefix would have been originally a NV- prefix, but many Bantu languages show evidence of vowel deletion in this prefix, resulting in a syllabic (possibly tone-bearing) nasal prefix.

A chart is given below, showing the correspondences for *b, d, j in these different kinds of morphological environments.

| | N- (cl. 9) | NV- (cl. 1, 3) | CV- (cl. 5, 7) | verbs |
|----|------------|----------------|----------------|---------------|
| *b | mp | mb | Ъ | w |
| *d | j | j | d, l, y, n | j, d, l, y, n |
| *j | c, j | ? | j | j, y |

Table 7.3 Voiced consonant reflexes

*d has the highest number of correspondences. The correspondences

/y/ and /n/ occur in both nouns and verbs. /y/ only occurs as a reflex of *d

when *d is followed by a front vowel, while /n/ only occurs when the other

C in the word is also a nasal. The conditioning environment for /l/ remains

unclear, as does the reason for having both /j/ and /d/ as common reflexes in

verbs.

It is interesting that both *b and *j have a voiceless reflex in the morphological environment of the noun class prefix for class 9. This is in effect a voicing dissimilation.

This same process is synchronically present in Kol today.²⁰ When a class 7 noun is pluralized as a mass noun in class 10, this process is marked by a nasal prefix. However, this nasal prefix also devoices the root-initial consonant, as shown below.

²⁰ And in Makaa.

It is odd that *d completely lacks this voicing dissimilation. It is also interesting that *d and *j, in contrast to *b and *g, have completely lost the nasal portion of the noun class markers.

Such a voicing dissimilation in this particular morphological environment is common in other Bantu languages, including languages of the A.zone (Bubi A.31 and Nen A.44 among others, see Janssens 1993).

3.5.4.2 When in C_2 position

Three of the four voiced oral stops, *b, *d and *g, have direct correspondences when they occur as the second consonant in a root. *j has no clear correspondences as a C_2 . Palatal consonants are very rare as coda consonants in Kol today.

*b has a minor secondary correspondence of /mb/. While there is not enough data to be sure of the conditioning environment, both of the occurrences of /mb/ occur when the initial consonant is labialized.

The situation with *d is much more complicated. In C_2 position, the most common reflex of *d is /l/. If *d precedes a low vowel, it corresponds to /d/ which is weakened to [r] for many speakers. Some words also exhibit a /nd/ reflex, but the conditioning reflex is not clear. Finally, it may be the

case that when the C_1 is nasal, a nasal harmony is triggered, resulting in a correspondence of /n/.

3.5.5 Voiceless oral stops

3.5.5.1 When in C_1 position

When looking at the voiceless stops in the C₁ position, it is necessary to keep a clear division between verb-initial voiceless stops and noun-initial voiceless stops. There are quite different correspondences found on either side of this morphological line. However, in contrast to the voiced stops, the differing noun prefixes do not seem to correlate much with the differing correspondences.

| | N- (cl. 9) | NV- (cl. 1, 3) | CV- (cl. 5, 7) | verbs |
|----|-------------|----------------|----------------|--------------------------------|
| *p | f, w, b, mp | mb | ? | w, f |
| *t | d | t, l | d, t, l | l, s, t, c, ∫, j |
| *c | nc | s, ∫ | s, ∫ | l, s, t, c, ∫, j s, j, k, ∫ |
| *k | k | k | k,s, c, w, f | ∫, s, k |

Table 7.4 Voiceless consonant reflexes

One major difference between the voiced and voiceless stops is the impact of the vowel following the C1. For voiced stops, the phonological environment only seemed to be important for the velar stop. For voiceless

stops, the phonological environment appears to play a role for every voiceless stop *except* the velar stop, especially in verbs.

As the initial consonant of verbs, *p corresponds to /w/ before /a/, and /f/ everywhere else.

In this same environment, *d primarily corresponds to /l/, though it appears to only occur before back vowels. When preceding a front vowel, *t corresponds to /s/, /t/ and /c/. Before back vowels, there are also a few correspondences of *t to /t/, / \int / and / \int /.

In verbs, *c corresponds to /s/ when it precedes *i, and to /j/, /k/, or / \int / elsewhere. The correspondences /j/, /k/ and / \int / occur in the same environments, but each contrasts with the environment for /s/.

The phonological environment also seems to be important for *c when it is the first consonant in a noun. This is not apparently the case for the other three voiceless stops. Again, it is strange that *k does not seem to have any phonological conditioning when its voiced counterpart's correspondences could be entirely explained by reference to the phonological environment.

In nouns, *c_1 primarily corresponds to /s/ or $/{}^f$ /. $/{}^f$ / is only found preceding back vowels, while /s/ is found preceding both front and back vowels. In addition, there are two /nc/ correspondences which may have been caused in part by interaction with the class 9 prefix.

3.5.5.2 When in C_2 position

In general, the voiceless stops are voiced when they appear as the second consonant in a word. The only exception is possibly for *c, which has a /k/ correspondence as well as the voiced /z/ correspondence.

With respect to their manner of articulation, the bilabial stop has remained the most conservative, while the alveolar stop has undergone the most weakening. The voiceless bilabial stop *p has remained a stop, just undergoing voicing assimilation, to become the voiced bilabial stop /b/ in all cognate pairs established.

The velar stop is also fairly conservative. *k has become the prenasalized stop /ng/ in the C_2 position, which is then undergoing erosion (or simplification) to the nasal /ŋ/ or the stop /g/.

The palatal stop *c has become the voiced fricative /z/ in at least one cognate set.

Finally, the least conservative alveolar stop *t corresponds to /l/ when the final vowel has been preserved and to /r/ when it is root-final synchronically.

4 Vowel correspondences

In Kol, the Proto-Bantu high vowels *i and *u and the low vowel *a have the most direct correspondences. The proto mid vowels (*e, *ɛ, *o and *ɔ) show a lot more variation. This may be due to a period of time when vowel harmony was present in the system among the mid vowels. This is common in other Bantu languages, both within and outside of the A-zone. There are no vowel harmony processes active today in any of the languages of the Makaa-Kol-Konzime group.

4.1 HIGH VOWELS

As was mentioned above, the high vowel correspondences are fairly direct.

4.1.1 *i

The high front vowel $\ast i$ has direct correspondences both as a V_1 and as a V_2 , as illustrated below.

4.1.2 *u

The most common correspondence for the back high vowel *u is a direct one, as shown below.

There is one example of *u corresponding to /o/ after a labialized consonant. Synchronically, it is quite common to have a $u \sim$ wo variation after palatal stops. Below are examples from the southern Kol dialect on the left, and examples from the central dialect on the right.

Thus, though the correspondence below is after a velar stop, this may not actually be a separate correspondence.

However, there is also one example of *u corresponding to /a/. There are no known examples of this sort of variation synchronically.

There were no examples found demonstrating a cognate set for *u as a V_2 . Synchronically, /u/ is allowed as a V_2 for nouns, though it is very rare for verbs.

4.2 MID VOWELS

For each of the four mid vowels, there are no clear cognate pairs for the V_2 position. Thus, the sections below will only look at the correspondences of the proto mid vowels in the V_1 position. Also, each vowel has several cognate pairs showing a direct correspondence between the proto-

vowel and the modern-day vowel. However, for each, this direct correspondence is only one among many other correspondences.

4.2.1 *e

The direct correspondence *e > e is quite common, as shown by the examples below.

It is, however, also common to find cognate pairs which illustrate a vowel raising process, resulting in a correspondence of *e > i.

Much more rare are correspondences between *e and a back vowel, though there is one example for each of the vowel heights shown above. That is to say, in the first example below, *e has maintained its level in the vowel system but has been moved back to correspond to the back vowel /o/. In the

second example, *e has been raised one level (to the same level as /i/) and moved back to correspond to the back vowel /u/.

4.2.2 *o

The proto-vowel *o also has some direct reflexes in Kol, as shown below.

However, much more common is the correspondence *o > u, which is an example of raising, parallel to the one seen for *e, where *e > i.

There is also one example of *o corresponding to /i/. This is the inverse of one of the processes seen for *e, where *e was raised and then moved back. In this case, *o is being raised (to the level of /u/) and then moved front to correspond to /i/.

Finally, there is one example, where *o seems to correspond to $/\epsilon$ /. This would involve lowering the vowel one level and then moving it to the front of the vowel space. There was no parallel to this process for *e.

4.2.3 *ε

The open-mid (or level 3) front vowel *ε also has a direct correspondence in modern-day Kol, as shown below.

As was the case for *e above, there are also examples of *ɛ being moved to a back vowel. However, in this case, the vowel has also been raised, since it corresponds to /o/ and not to the back open-mid vowel /ɔ/. Since in three of the examples shown below, the second vowel in the word is

a back vowel, this may be a back (or rounding) assimilation in combination with a raising process.

Synchronically, there is at least one example where a word varies along this same pattern across dialects.

4.2.4 *3

Unlike the case for the other mid vowels, *o only has one cognate pair which illustrates a direct correspondence with /o /.

There are also a number of examples illustrating a raising process, where the open-mid vowel *o corresponds to the close-mid vowel /o/. This is similar to what has been seen for *e and *o.

Additionally, there are a number of examples which illustrate a more drastic raising process, with *o corresponding to the high vowel /u/. This process is not parallel to anything seen for the other mid vowels.

There are examples of a fronting rule, as well. Below is one example where *ɔ has maintained its level in the vowel system, but has been moved to the front of the vowel space, corresponding to /ɛ/. Interestingly enough, the modern reflex is also labialized. It is possible that the rounding has been separated out into the /w/, leaving the unrounded version, i.e. the front vowel, behind.

There are also examples showing a combination of fronting and raising, given below. Here *a has been raised one level (to the level of /o/)

and then shifted to the front of the vowel space, corresponding to /e/. Most of these words also have an initial labialized consonant. These may be similar examples to the reflex described above, where the rounding has been separated out, with the added complication of a raising process. For 'elbow' it is interesting that both synchronic vowels are /e/, which suggests that some sort of assimilation process targeted both the *a and the *a.

Additionally, as we saw for $*\epsilon$, there is a correspondence of $*\mathfrak{d}$ to $/\mathfrak{a}$. Since both of these modern words also have a labialized consonant, this could again be an unrounding process.

Finally, there is one example where *o corresponds to /ə/. This is again probably an unrounding process, but it may also be a raising process, since in the synchronic Kol system, /ə/ is on the same level as /e/ and /o/.

(133)
$*j$
ðgà 'fungus' (14) $>$ jwà 'mushroom' (7)

4.3 LOW VOWELS

The low vowel *a most frequently corresponds to /a/, in both the V_1 and V_2 positions, as shown below.

The next most common correspondence is when *a corresponds to /o/. Interestingly, for two of the five cognate pairs shown below, the V_2 is /o/. This V_2 has been lost for all five pairs, but before it was deleted, it may have triggered vowel harmony on the *a₁. Otherwise, this is a raising and rounding process; one that has raised *a two levels.

This raising process probably also have occurred for the following two example words. The vowel found in the word 'be' varies between /o/ and /ə/. The second vowel in 'jaw' is /o/ while the first vowel is /ə/. However, the first vowel is before a nasal, which is a common position for /o/ and /e/ to be centralized.

A similar process may have occurred for the following cognate pairs, where *a corresponds to /ɔ/. /o/ and /ɔ/ are in free variation in Makaa, and could conceivably have been in free variation in Kol at one point. This seems fairly plausible for the first example, but a big stretch for the second.

There is one example where *a appears to be both fronted and raised to correspond with /e/. This cannot be a case of vowel harmony since the second vowel in the word is already identical to the first. However, it may be

a case of the following nasal raising the first vowel. Synchronically in Kol, the vowel /e/ is raised to /i/ when it precedes a vowel, as was discussed in the section on synchronic variation above.

(139) *bánjá 'family' > bèn 'extended paternal family' Finally, there is one example where *a corresponds to /5/ when it is in the V_2 position. Since it is the V_2 , vowel harmony cannot be triggered by a following vowel, though since the first vowel is high and rounded, this might be a progressive vowel harmony, similar in everything but direction to the regressive vowel harmony discussed above.

(140) *kúbà 'chicken' > kúbò 'chicken' (1)

4.4 GENERAL OBSERVATIONS ON VOWEL CORRESPONDENCES

Looking at the vowel system as a whole, it may be noted that while the high vowels *i and *u have remained remarkably stable, the rest of the vowel system has undergone some major shifts.

*i and *u both have as their primary reflex the direct correspondences
/i/ and /u/. *i has no other correspondences, and *u has two minor ones

which can probably be ignored. *a has also remained fairly stable, with most occurrences of *a corresponding to /a/ today.

The most common process to have occurred among all the vowels (except for *i and *u) is a raising process. For the close-mid vowels, *e and *o, their major correspondence (other than the direct one, which is fairly numerous for *e but less so for *o) is one where they have been raised one level, i.e. where *e > i and *o > u. There appears to be a similar process occurring with *o. One of its primary correspondences is one where *o > o. However, if /o/ and /o/ are in free variation, then this process becomes moot. *a also has two examples where *a > o which would be a parallel pattern.

The most numerous correspondence for *5 though is one where *5 has been raised two levels to correspond to /u/. This process could have also occurred for *a and * ϵ , though for both of these latter proto-vowels, an additional process co-occurs with the raising one.

The open-mid vowel * ϵ does not really have enough cognate pairs to be able to determine which correspondence is really the primary one. However, the one with the most examples at the moment is one where * ϵ >

o. Of the four examples, three have a back (and round) vowel as the V_2 , which might explain how * ϵ was shifted to the back. The height shift (one level) could be part of an overall shift in the system where vowels were raised one height (as might have occurred for * ϵ , * ϵ 0, and * ϵ 1).

For the low vowel *a, the second-most common reflex is where *a corresponds to /o/. Again, for three of the five cognate pairs shown, the second vowel is a round vowel, either /o/ or /ɔ/ which means that the raising process could have been combined with a rounding assimilation. (Otherwise, a global raising process could have resulted in a mid or high central vowel, both of which do currently exist in the Kol vowel inventory.)

Finally, there is one more significant correspondence which must be mentioned. *5 can also correspond to /e/, $/\epsilon/$ and /a/, which is appears to be an unrounding process since these unrounded variants primarily occur with a labialized consonant.

5 Grammatical Correspondences

In the sections below, some aspects of Meeussen's grammatical reconstructions (1967) will be compared with modern day Kol grammatical

stuctures. Nominal morphosyntax will be discussed first followed by verbal morphosyntax.

5.1 Nouns

5.1.1 Noun Classes and Agreement

Synchronically, Kol has a reduced noun class set, only having classes 1-10 from Proto-Bantu. However, within the A.80 central cluster, Heath and Beavon have both noticed reflexes from the Proto-Bantu locative classes in Makaa and Konzime, respectively. Heath (p.c.) has noted that certain locative nouns have idiosyncratic relative clause concord markers. Beavon (1983) noted that the Nzime dialect of Konzime has a locative noun *kwá* which could include the locative class (class 17) prefix *ko*-.

| 1 | *mo- | mò- | mwàrá | woman |
|---|------|---------|---------|-------------------|
| | | m- | mùr | man, person |
| | | Ø | kól | sister (to a man) |
| 2 | *ba- | bò- | bw-àrá | women |
| | | | bw-ùr | men, people |
| | | | bò-kól | sisters |
| 3 | *mo- | Ø | mbìl | hole |
| 4 | *me- | mè- | mè-mbìl | holes |
| 5 | *i- | è-, lè- | èbùrà | sweet potato |
| | | Ø | kù | foot |
| | | d- | dwób | day |

| 6 | *ma- | mò- | mò-bùrà | sweet potatoes |
|----|------|------------------|---------|----------------|
| | | | mò-kù | feet |
| | | m- | m-ób | days |
| 7 | *ke- | Ø | kág | child |
| | | | bùmó | fruit |
| 8 | *bi- | bè- | bè-kág | children |
| 9 | *n- | Ø | kwád | village |
| 10 | *n- | m- ²¹ | m-pùmó | fruits |

Table 7.5 Correspondences between Proto-Bantu and Kol noun classes.

With respect to the noun class pairings, the proto-Bantu pairing of classes 9 and 10 does not occur in Kol. Rather, class 9 nouns take their plurals in class 6. Class 10 functions as a mass plural for class 7 nouns.

One of the striking aspects of Bantu morphology is the concord system.

Below is a chart comparing the Proto-Bantu subject pronoun and subject agreement system with the subject pronouns of Kol and Makaa. The Proto-Bantu data is taken from Meeussen 1965 (agreement system found on p.97, pronominal system on p.98).

²¹ Plus devoicing of the root-initial consonant.

| | Proto-Bantu | | | | Kol | |
|------------------------|-------------|----|-------|------------|---------|-------------------|
| Subject | Agr | | Pron | | Pron | |
| | Sing | Pl | Sg | Pl | Sing | Pl |
| 1st p. excl. | n | to | i-n-ε | ί-cό-ε | mè | b ì zó |
| incl. | | | | | | bìzá |
| dual incl. | | | | | | ncwà |
| 2 nd person | 0 | mo | ο-ε | ί-μό-ε | wò | bè |
| 3 rd person | o, a | ba | ο-έ | bá-ə, gú-ə | лà | bwó |
| 3/4 | mo | me | | | w- | myə |
| 5/6 | i | ma | | | dwó | mwə |
| 7/8 | ke | bi | | | i-, jwò | byò |
| 9/10 | n | n | | | лò | bwò |

Table 7.6 Subject Agreement/Pronouns in PB and Kol.

Kol does not require that verbs agree with their subject (as will be in the following section on verbs).

The central A.80 languages, including Kol, have innovated three distinctions in the first person plural: inclusive, exclusive and dual. It appears that Kol has added a plural marker to the front of the inherited Proto-Bantu pronoun form. However, this has only occurred in the first person inclusive and exclusive forms, since the dual form lacks the initial *b*- and has

a closer resemblance to the Proto-Bantu form than do the other two forms of the first person plural.

5.1.2 Noun derivation

In Kol, there are a number of different processes which may be used to create nouns out of verbs. Some of these seem to correspond to processes described by Meeussen for Proto-Bantu. For more information on deverbal nouns, see chapter 3.

In Proto-Bantu, Meeussen theorized that a final -a indicates an action. In Kol, some nouns are created by adding a vowel, including an -a, to the verbal stem, as shown below.

Other deverbal nouns are formed by adding a final -a and a nasal prefix.

Meeussen also reconstructed an agent-creating process formed by adding an -i to the root. In Kol one reflex of *i is /e/, and some agentive nouns are formed by adding a -e suffix.

Other agentive nouns can be formed by adding the suffix -l or -la, as shown below. This may be a reflex of the reconstructed * $-ed\epsilon$. If this is the case, some vowels have been lost and *d has become /l/, which is a common sound correspondence in Kol. A bigger issue is that this suffix is reconstructed as creating 'a way of doing,' while in Kol it creates an agent.

It is extremely common for more than one strategy to be used at a time, as illustrated below, where in (76a), the noun is formed by both adding the nasal prefix mentioned above and the suffix -l, while in (76b), the nouns are formed by adding the nasal prefix and the suffix vowel -e.

Meeussen also theorized that a final –o to a verbal root indicates an action, an instrument, or a place. In Kol, some nouns appear to correspond to this pattern, as demonstrated below.

5.1.3 Word Order

Meeussen (1967:117) reconstructs that proto-Bantu noun phrases had the following phrase structure: Noun (Connective) (Adjective) (Numeral).

Kol agrees with this for the most part, though in Kol, adjectives may precede the noun as shown by each of the examples below.

| (147) | bèdá kwád | 'big village' |
|-------|------------------|-------------------|
| | bwàgbwàg mò-kwád | 'big villages' |
| | ntúlá bè-sá | 'a lot of things' |
| | bùbù mè-njáb | 'a lot of houses' |

Indefinite determiners may also precede the noun, but determiners are not mentioned by Meeussen. Below is the post-nominal word order found in the Kol noun phrase. (See chapter 4 for more information.)

(148) Noun Genitive Demonstrative Definite Determiner

Another

Quantifier

Meeussen suggests that demonstratives might have differed from the otherwise regular head-initial structure, with demonstratives preceding as well as following the noun. This is somewhat true in modern day Kol since demonstratives are one of the word classes which can be fronted for focus (along with possessives). Example (149) shows the default word order with the demonstratives following the nouns, while (150) shows a focus construction where the demonstrative (in bold) precedes the noun.

- (149) a. dá ŋgà 'this father' (1)

 bè-kèkènà bé-ŋgà 'these parables' (8)
 - b. b-ùr bớ-nè 'those people' (2) dw-àb é-nè 'that day' (5)
- (150) myâ bwó ncè bwáànt mèbá, ně njùm...

 when they INCP create 6-sexual.relations that (SPEC) husband

 'When they began an affair, that husband...'

5.2 VERBS

5.2.1 Agreement

One of the striking differences between Kol and the Proto-Bantu system is the lack of subject and object agreement in Kol. The subject pronouns in Kol are completely in complementary distribution with full nouns. If a full noun is the subject of a sentence, the verbal sequence starts with a tense marker; the subject pronoun is not allowed, much less required as it would be if it were actually a subject agreement marker. In the example shown below, the subject is a class 5 noun, which is one of the few remaining classes consistently marked by both a segmental agreement marker and concord markers on all modifiers. We would therefore expect that if Kol required a subject agreement marker on the verb that it would be noticeable in the sentence below. (The subject pronoun for class 5 nouns is dwó.)

(151) lè-wúg á bè lé-byôl.

5- hole P2 be in-7-canoe

There was a hole in the canoe.

However, having said that, there may be vestiges of subject agreement. There are two forms for a class 7 subject. One, *jwò*, is a pronoun which may appear separate from the tense morpheme. The other, *y*-, only appears bound

with tense morphemes and is generally used as the dummy subject, as shown below. Class 7 is the generic class for inanimate objects, and it is the only class that shows these two forms.

(152)
$$y = \hat{a}$$
 $b\hat{a}$ $n\hat{a}$ $esap$ $y = \hat{a}$ $b\hat{a}$ $n\hat{a}$ $esap$ 7sub-P2 be that 5-illness, disease 'It was an illness that.....' (*Illness*.08)

bùl

cèl

(153) m = 6

kèné

nèbé

Objects only appear after a verb, either as a full noun or as a pronoun. Object markers cannot be prefixed before the verb.

5.2.2 Negation

For both Kol and Proto-Bantu, the negative marker is the first element in the verbal sequence. However, in Proto-Bantu, this means that the

negative marker precedes the subject agreement. Since Kol does not have subject agreement, the negative marker comes *after* the subject pronoun or full noun.

(155)
$$m = \hat{a} = d\acute{e}g = \hat{e}$$
 m-ûr.
I-NEG- see-NEG 1-person
'I didn't see anyone.'

5.2.3 Tense

Meeussen (1967:113) gives a list of tense markers for Proto-Bantu as "illustrative tries" rather than reconstructions.

| Tense prefixes | Proto-Bantu | Kol |
|----------------|-------------|---------|
| far past | á | á |
| recent past | a | é |
| present | da, Ø | ó |
| future | ka | é |
| distant future | | é + bwó |
| conditional | ngá | mbá |

Table 7.7 Tense markers in Proto-Bantu and Kol

Only one of the Kol tense markers, the far past marker, seems to correspond to the proto-Bantu marker. However, Kol has a conditional conjunction, $\eta g \acute{e}$ 'if, which may be a reflex of the proto-Bantu preverbal conditional marker.

5.2.4 Extensions

As was previously mentioned in chapter 4, only relics of the Proto-Bantu extensions remain in a few Kol verbs. The table below compares reconstructed extensions with the frozen Kol relics (Meussen 1967:92).

| | Proto-Bantu | Kol |
|-------------------------|-------------|------|
| Passive | -ó | -ówà |
| Reciprocal | -an | -èlà |
| Benefactive/Applicative | -ed | -éà |
| Causative | -i, -ic | -àzà |
| Reversive | -od, -ok | -bà |
| ?? | -ad | |

Table 7.8 Extensions in Proto-Bantu and Kol

(156) Passive 'do + passive' sówà sá 'do' kègàwà 'plan + passive' 'plan' kèg Reciprocal/Reflexive 'compare, claim' yìgàlà 'compare self' yìg **Applicative** 'eat from' déà dà 'eat'

Causative

ságèzè 'shake' sá or ságè 'do'

wûl 'take out' wòl 'get up'

bêr 'put, place' bâr 'climb in'

Transitive

bέεbèlè 'wound (tr.)' bèb 'wound (intr.)'

Reversive

bùgùbà 'prosper' bù 'be scarce'

6 Summary

This study has been an initial attempt to explore some of the ways that Kol, a Bantu language from the A.zone in the northwestern corner of the Bantu language area has changed over time from the Proto-Bantu system it inherited.

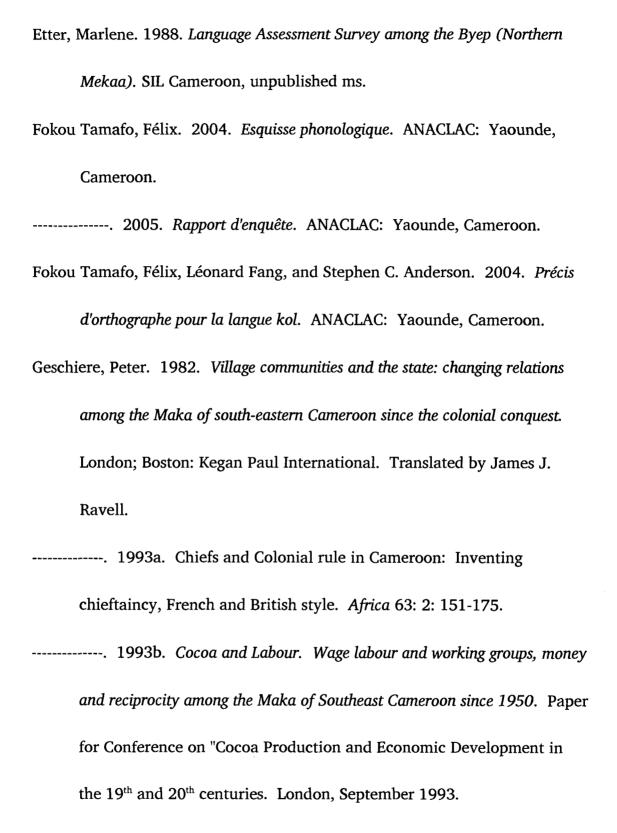
While the Kol system is reduced in many ways from the classical Bantu systems seen in eastern Africa, it is still clearly a Bantu language, complete with noun classes and complex preverbal inflectional systems.

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Appendices

Texts

1 A Deadly Sickness

told by Pierre Bengomo Mossi (of Bidjombo), transcription help and translation (into French) by Benoit Meboma Moankoen (of Leh)

- (1) $m\grave{o} =$ ó ncá lέŋ mwáà láŋ è-sú é-sáp ηgà mà= ó ncè+н lêŋ+н mwâ láŋ ŋgà è-∫ù н+è-sáb **PRES** come tell small happening this 5-sake 5-illness mέ mè mé á bò nò té. á mέ mὲ mé bò té nò me self **P**2 with Loc me
 - 'I will tell this little story about an illness I had.
- (2) m = aabà lè jwák cìè $m\hat{\partial} =$ ndé yàùnt. $\dot{\mathbf{m}} = \dot{\mathbf{a}}$ bà lè jwôg tyè mà= ndé I-P2 **IMPF** feel illnessbe be (loc) Yaounde When I was in Yaoundé, I got sick.
- (3) è-sáp d-òòŋgá tér à mà ntà è-sáb d->>ngə á tér mà ntà lè-yôŋ 5-Def **P2** start 5-cold.weather me since This illness started with the cold.
- (4) mà lè fyês.

 mà lè fyêz

 I IMPF neglect

 I ignored it.

- (5) è-y5ŋ lè ŋkwò kò.
 è-yôŋ lè kwò kò
 5-cold.weather IMPF again go
 It stayed cold.
- (6) mwâ kwis má ncà nìgó bwàmbà. kwéz bwàmbà mwá mé nìgò ncè 7-cough follow 1-small be (chg) come return I got a little cough.
- (7) mwâ kwis j-òòŋgá lè bà kwis á mwâ j-òòngá mwá kwéz j-òòŋgá á lè kwéz bò mwá j-òòŋgá 1-small 7-cough 7-Def **P2 IMPF** be 1-small 7-cough 7-Def

kwis swiza. kwez sweza 7-cough (be) dry

It was a little dry cough.

(8) lè kwíz mà= mà= lè númp nô m = aabà mpwògé mà= lè kwéz mà= lè nûmb nô $\dot{\mathbf{m}} = \dot{\mathbf{a}}$ bà mpwògέ I **IMPF** cough me **IMPF** know that I-P2 be 1-health

ndè $y = \acute{a}$ bà nâ è-sáp á sé nkwà têr ndé $y = \acute{a}$ bà nâ è-sáb á sé kwò têr while NonRef-P2 be that 5-illness **P2 PERF** again start

lè-bì mò hámá. lè-bì mò fámà INF-seize me good

I was coughing, thinking that I was healthy, while the illness really took hold.

(9)myà $m = \acute{a}$ sé kà njá ncà n-é-njwòŋ á è-sáp $H + \dot{m} = \acute{a}$ kà myà sé ncè jâ nà=lé-jwòŋ è-sáb á 3-time RELCL-I-P2 PERF **CONS** come lie.down with-Loc-bed 5-illness **P2** sé kà ncò làlé sé kà ncò làl PERF CONS come (be) strong

When I was lying down in bed, the illness really struck hard.

- (10)númá $bw = \acute{a}$ ncò kò nà cílá cílá wàlàfírà. mó númá $bw \circ = a$ ncò kò nà mò cílá cílá wàlèfírè also they-P2 come go with quickly hospital me quickly Immediately, they took me to the hospital.
- (11)bwó kà kà nà wàlàfírà. mó kà bwó kò пà mó wàlèfírè CONS they go with me hospital They took me to the hospital.
- (12) bwó kò sá bò-zéksàmễz.

 bwó kò sá

 they go do 2-test (examens -French)

 They did tests.
- (13)bwó kò fyàlá má-cì mè-bí. nà dégà bwó kò fyàl mò-cì nò dêg mà-bî they go test 6-blood with see 6-feces They did blood tests and looked at my stool samples.
- (14)bwô dégà nô ndè bì-mpànc by-áŋ á sé têr bwó dêg ndé bè-mpànc nô bè-àŋ á sé tér they see that while 8-side 8-my **P2** PERF start

é-jwók cíè lè-jwôg tyè INF-feel illness

They noticed that my sides (lungs) were already sick.

(15)
$$m = \grave{e}$$
 $nd\acute{e}$ $k\acute{e}$ $d\grave{u}l\acute{o}$ $s\grave{i}g\acute{a}$ $k\acute{e}$ $b\grave{e}$ $m = \acute{e}$ $nd\acute{e} + m$ $k\acute{e} + m$ $d\grave{u}l\grave{o} + m$ $s\grave{i}g\acute{a}$ $k\acute{e}$ $b\grave{e}$ I-P1 $b\acute{e}$ (loc) Neg smoke cigarette Neg be

nê nwêl mó-nòk.

nò nwêl mò-nwòg

with drink 6-wine

I didn't smoke cigarettes; I didn't drink.

- (16)dòctéur bò-zéksàmêz m-ùr á kà sá mà á jí mà á m-ùr kò sá mà á jí mà doctor (Fr) 1-person **P2** do 2-test (French) P2 go me ask me nô $m\hat{a} =$ jî jî dùlò tâk. nwèl nô $m\hat{a} =$ jì nâ mà= jì ŋwèl nâ mà= dùlò tàg Ι drink that be (att) that I be (att) smoke tobacco The doctor who did the tests asked me if I drank or if I smoked.
- (17) mà nô "à ó".

 mà nô à ó

 I that no

 I said, "No."
- (18)n = aá jî ndé sì bìen nô ntáŋ nâ á jí n = anô ndé ntáŋ nâ he-P2 that **QUES** ask be (loc) like.that like.that (Fr) that

fwárà (klì∫é) wàlàfírà ŋgà $bw = \acute{a}$ wúl klì∫é fwárà ŋgà $bw \acute{o} = \acute{a}$ wûl wàlàfírà photo this they-P2 take hospital x-ray

á dêg nô bì-mpáànc by-áŋ, $by = \acute{a}$ sé bà ntámè? á dêg nâ bè-mpânc bè-àŋ bè=á sé bà ntámè **P2** see that 8-side 8-my 8-P2 PERF little rot

He asked why then the x-ray that they took at the hospital showed that my lungs were already a bit damaged.

(19)númá $bw = \acute{a}$ kò dìl kómb ncè mà centre **zàmó** $bwó = \acute{a}$ dìl númá ncà kò kómb mà they-P2 dwell side also come go me center Jamot

 $m=\acute{a}$ kò lè s-ówà $m\`{e}$ - $m\`{i}r=\acute{e}$. $H+\grave{m}=\acute{a}$ kò lè sá-ówà $m\`{e}$ - $m\`{i}d=\acute{e}$ RELCL-I-P2 go IMPF do-PASS 4-medicine-RELCL

They took me to the Jamot Center to get treated.

(20)sá j-òòŋgá á lè là-ŋkwùnt sá má myà má mà á lè lè- ŋkwùnt sá j-òòŋgá sá mà myà H+mà mà 7-thing 7-DEF P2 **IMPF** do me 5-fear 3-time RELCL-me me

 $m = \acute{a}$ lè mbúk n-é-njwòŋ wàlàfírà mé bò mà nà mú mé $m = \acute{a}$ lè bò mà mbúg nò-lé-njwòŋ wàlèfírè nà mú I self I-P2 with Loc-bed **IMPF** be lie hospital with reason

cík nŝ wú á bò m-ùr ké kò m-ùr nô wú á bò ké kò cíg that there P2 be 1-person NEG go cross

m-ùr ké kò dêk wó. m-ùr ké kò dêg wó 1-person NEG go see you

This situation scared me because while I was lying there in the hospital, no one could come visit me.

- (21)lè wò jâ njì wò wò mé njì bé nà bà-dwábàrà. wò wò lé já njì njì bé bò-dwábèrà wò mé nò **IMPF** sleep only self you you you only you with 2-nurse You sleep all alone, with only the nurses.
- (22)sì bìen bà fúndò bá $m = \check{a}$ mí-l mó-myà. $m = \acute{a}$ bà fúndò bà mì-úlágá mè-myà I-P2 be flee little 4-another 4-time

I was quite afraid.

Will I die here?

- (24)bwùr bá njáp bwó ndé ké nûmp. bò-ùr bó njáb ké bwó ndé nûmb 2-man 2-Assoc 3-house they be (loc) NEG know My family won't know....
- (25) $m = \acute{a}$ njì ntà $m = \acute{a}$ bò búgó nò nâ twè $\hat{\mathbf{m}} = \hat{\mathbf{a}}$ njì ntà $\hat{m} = \hat{a}$ bò búgó πâ nò twě I-P2 only since I-P2 be with faith that even.if n-è-sáp á sê jâk nò ŋkùl ncììmbá nô-è-sáp á sé jâg nò ŋkùl ncììmbê that-5-illness **P2** (be) serious PERF with force God рà nìgò ηà mé é sá má mpwògá.

дà дà mé é nìgò+н sá+н mpwògá. mà him him self FUT return do me (be) healthy

I had faith that even if the illness had already gotten bad, God himself will heal me.

- (26)jwá $m = \acute{a}$ bándà bò jízàbà $m\acute{e}$ - $m\grave{r}$ = \acute{e} . bó jwá bò bàndà jízàbà mè-mìd = è $\dot{m} = \acute{a}$ bò 7S_{UB} be I-P2 really be endure 4-medicine-RELCL That's why I put up with the treatment.
- (27) $bw = \acute{a}$ $l\grave{e}$ $s\acute{a}$ $m\grave{o}$. $bw\acute{o} = \acute{a}$ $l\grave{e}$ $s\acute{a}$ $m\grave{o}$ they-P2 IMPF do me They treated me.

- (28)mà ndâk bándà ncò bà mpwògé. ndâg mà bàndà ncò bà mpwògé. Ι ? really be (be) healthy come I regained my health.
- (29)sì bìen nâ $m = \check{a}$ nìgò ià ncììmbé àkíbà ná bùbù. nô nìgò ncìmbé àkíbà nâ bùbù $m = \acute{a}$ jò that I-P2 God again give thank with many So I really give thanks to God.
- (30)nà mù nŝ $bw = \acute{a}$ kà sâ contre-examens nà nò nâ $bw \circ = \acute{a}$ kò mú sá nà with reason that re-tests they-P2 go do with mà-ngwàgàlá $m = \acute{a}$ lè sê, $bw = \acute{a}$ kà dêk nâ mè-ŋgwàgèlá $m = \acute{a}$ lè sá $bw \acute{o} = \acute{a}$ kò dêg nâ 4-prayers I-P2 **IMPF** do they-P2 go see that bì-mpáànc by-áŋà sé nó kwò bò fúbán nà nwàn nwàn. bè-mpànc bè-àn sé kwò bò fúbán nà ŋwâŋ nwâŋ 8-side 8-my PERF again be clean and good good After they retested me, and all my prayers, they found that my lungs were healthy and clean.
- (31)è-kál é-sâp kè lík. ná kwà nìgò è-kál H + e-sapké nò kwó nìgò lígò 5-illness 5-spot NEG with again again stay No trace of the illness remained.
- (32)dónc bìzó ká bùl lè fúndò lè-∫wì bìzó ké bùlù lè fúndò è-∫wì thus we NEG many **IMPF** fear 5-death

myà w = 6 ndé $n-é-jw \circ n$ lé-sáp = e. myà h + w = 6 ndé $+ m \circ -1e-jw \circ n$ + + le-sáp = e3-time RelCl-you-Pres be (loc) with-Loc-bed 5-illness-RelCl

Thus we shouldn't have so much fear of death when we're lying on a sickbed.'

2 A Funeral at Bidjombo

told by Pierre Bengomo Mossi (of Bidjombo), transcription help and translation (into French) by Benoit Meboma Moankoen (of Leh)

- (1) nò kùgú bìzò bà mpáànt è-∫wì nè, mà ηòη пò kùgú bìzá bò né è-ſwì mà nàngá with 3-evening Mpand 5-death 1-mother we be that Poss
 - mè bòkwáálà.
 - mà bòkwáálà
 - Poss Bokwaala

'Yesterday, we were at the funeral for Bokwaala's mother at Mpand.

- (2) è-[wì d-òòngá jì nô bà bwó sá $y = \acute{a}$ nô d-ààŋgá è-[wì jì nâ $y = \acute{a}$ bò nô bwó sá 5-death 5-Def be (att) that NonRef-P2 be that they do ndèlá ntà уè kùgú á bè. $n=\acute{a}$ ndèlá ntà $n = \acute{a}$ yò kùgú á bὲ 9-burial she-P2 die 3-evening since QUAL second They needed to bury her because she died the day before yesterday.
- (3) sá bà mpwògé nò mú nô mùŋ áncé ntámà. sâ mpwògé nò bò mú nâ múŋà áncé ntámà 7-thing be 1-health with reason that 3-corpse NEGP2 rot It was a good thing because the body was not decomposed (yet).
- (4) bìzá kà númá sá mí∫wàn mpwògé. bízá kà númá sá mí∫wàn mpwògé **CONS** also 7-church 1-health we do We also had a good service.

m

mé nciìmbé.

mó nciìmbé

5Poss God

The only thing that caused problems was the *kambaga* [traditional funeral dance], because the women were doing it during the service and not setting it aside to respect God's time.

bùlù ntégè nò kùgú.
bùlù ntég nò kùgú
many annoy with 3-evening

The kambaga kept going on and really annoyed us.

nàbò y-ês mí∫wàn ndé lè-∫wĭ myà syé bwó hà nàbá y-êz mí(wàn ndé syê è-∫wì hà myà bwó because 3-time 3-each 7-church be(loc) work 5-death they HORT bîr lòβà kámbègà myà mí∫wàn má sí bír lòb kàmbàgà myà H+mí∫wàn mé sé 3-problem fun'l.dance 3-time RelCL-7-church leave be (chg) PERF syê nè nŝ ncììmbá mú дà ŋà má bò ndê... syê nò mú nâ ncììmbé дà дè mé bò ndé God work with reason that him him self Ъe be (loc) lέŋ ná m-ùr $y \circ = k$ ŋgè ndágà nô m-ùr cìgé. lên nâ m-ùd $y\hat{o} = g + H$ ŋgé ndâg nô m-ùd cìgà say that 1-person die-SUBJ if ? that 1-person live We told them that from now on, during the funeral service, they have to stop the kambaga, because it is God himself who says when man lives or dies.

- (8) donc è-wàlà lé mí∫wàn é mò-∫wì bìzà jí è-wàlà lé donc mí∫wàn mò-∫wì bìzò jí thus 5-hour 5Assoc 7-church and(Fr) 6-death we want bùlù ně kándèbè jàlànà dw-ób jàlánà bùlù né kándèbè dw-ób that must many respect 5-day We should really respect the church time.
- (9) ká jé kò númá nô è-∫wì lá twámbá mw-àrá kà kò jê númá nô è-[wì lé twámbá mw-àrá **CONS** go arrive also that 5-death 5Assoc 1-elder 1-woman túgá ká bùlú náŋ bà ná mà-cě lè-lámà náŋ+H bùlù+H túg + H kà+H bò + н lè-lâm nò mà-tyè be (neg) still Cons many be with 6-pain 5-heart

$$n \ni m u$$
 $n \ni n = \check{a}$ sé sá syé.
 $n \ni m u$ $n \ni n = \check{a}$ sé sá syê
with reason that she-P2 PERF do 7-work

Arriving at the death of an old mother doesn't give much heart pain because she had done the work that she should do.

- (10)á bò $s\acute{a} = g\grave{a}$ nâ nà= $n=\check{a}$ sé byá bw-án. á $s\dot{a} = g + H$ bò nô nà= $\hat{n} = \hat{a}$ byâ bò-ân sé P2 be she do-Subj that she-P2 PERF bear (child) 2-child She had already had children.
- (11)bw-án mé nùmá b-ób bw-ân. nà bò-ân númá b-ób mé nò bò-ân 2-child be (chg) also with 2-their 2-child Her children had also had their children.
- (12) n=ă lígò bà-ntá è-wúm.

 n=á lígò bè-ntá è-wúm

 she-P2 stay, leave 8-grandchild 5-ten

 She left ten grandchildren.
- (13)té $y = \acute{a}$ sé bò bèrà sá. té $y = \acute{a}$ bèdà sé bò sâ Loc NonRef-P2 **PERF** be big 7-thing That was a big thing.
- é-∫wí (14)d-òòŋgá уè númá fógà bìzá né. è-∫wì d-òòŋgá númá bìzá уò fóg né 5-death 5-Def give also 9-wisdom us that This death also gives us wisdom.
- (15)myǎ biz = oildingndé dì, bìzá ndé = gèé símèzè nŝ $H + biz = \acute{o}$ ndé+н myă dì + н bìzá $nd\acute{e} = g + H$ símèzè nô 3-time **RELCL-we-PRES** be (loc) stay we be (loc)-SUBJ think that

bìzó ndé = gé sá là-nwàn. bìzó ndé = g + H sá lè-nwàn we be (loc)-Subj do 5-good

While we're living, we should think about doing good.

(16)nà mú nŝ mw-àrá γà nò kùgé, myă mò-àrá nò mú nâ yò nò kùgú myà + H with reason that 1-woman die with 3-evening 3-time-RELCL

è-sáßá $n=\acute{a}$ bà nà té è-sáp lá ncám tùgá è-sáb $n = \acute{a}$ bà nò té è-sáb lé ncàm túg 5-illness 5-illness she-P2 be with Loc 5Assoc 9-leprosy be (neg)

hám è-sáp. fám è-sáb real, good 5-illness

Because the woman who died yesterday, she had leprosy which is not a good disease.

(17) $y = \check{a}$ là bà ákíká $bw = \acute{a}$ lè wùl bw-ùr $y = \acute{a}$ lè bò ákíká $bw \circ = \acute{a}$ 1è wùl bò-ùd NonRef-P2 **IMPF** colonial.times they-P2 be **IMPF** take.out 2-person

é bw-ùr kó nìgó dìlà j-óbá bwá bùŋ bòη á bò-ùd kò nìgò dìl j-ób bùŋ á bwó bóŋ and(Fr) 2-person 7-their return dwell them 7-place there go **P2**

móŋgòmá kò kómb m-íl mé-ncícàm á bèè kò kómb mè-úlágá á mè-ncícâm side Mongoma 4-INDEF **P2** go 4-leper

In colonial times, they took them away and isolated them in a leprosarium [at Mongoma] where there were other lepers.

(18)mé $ncicam n = \check{a}$ $n = \acute{a}$ bò sé sá nŝ njáp bw-ùr $n=\acute{a}$ bò ncícâm sé njáb $n = \acute{a}$ sá nô н+bò-ùd but(Fr) she-P2 be 3-leper she-P2 PERF 3-house 2-person do that

fúk y-é wá ná bùbù nà $n = \check{a}$ kò mú nâ y-é wá fúg bùbù nò nò mú $n = \acute{a}$ kò nâ 3-her 3S_{UB} be.numerous with with she-P2 many reason that go sáŋ míyòŋ njúm mw-àrá tíé lómìè. mà sáŋ míyòŋ mà njûm mw-àrá tíé lómìè look.for 1-sibling 1Poss 1-husband 1-woman Lomie 7-position Even though she was a leper, she worked so that her family would be numerous because she looked for a wife from Lomié for her husband's brother.

(19)è mw-àrá w-òòngá $n = \check{a}$ sé ncà byá númá bùbù mw-àrá w-òòŋgá ì≃á sé ncè byâ númá bùbù and(Fr) 1-woman 1-DEF she-P2 PERF come bear also many

njáp bw-ùr. njáb H+bò-ùd 3-house 2-person

That woman came and she also had a big family.

- (20)njáp bw-ûr w-òòŋgá $n = \check{a}$ sé sá bèrà syé. njáb н+bò-ùd w-òòŋgá $\hat{n} = \hat{a}$ sé sá bèdà syê 3-house 1-DEF 2-person she-P2 PERF do big 7-work For this family, she did a big work.
- (21)ntá w-òòŋgá ndé $jàlàn = \hat{e}$ bìzá lè myà kă ntà w-òòngá jàlànà=è н+ndé myà н+bìzэ́ kà lè 1-DEF RelCl-be(loc) since must-RELCL 3-time **CONS** RELCL-we **IMPF** dì le-sí bìzó kà dêk nŝ twò nô bìzá iwók njì dì lè-sí bìzá kò dêg nâ twò nậ bìzá njì jwóg stay INF-finish we go see that even that we only feel cè twò nâ bìzá jì mpwògé bìzó ká sá njáp cè jì twò nô bìzá mpwògέ bìzá ké sá njáb illness that 1-health even we be NEG 3-house we do

bw-ùr lè-mbáp. H+bò-ùd lè-mbáp 2-person 5-bad.thing

Like that, while we are here finishing [life], we see that even if we're sick, even if we're healthy, we shouldn't do bad things to the family.

- (22)lè-nwàn nà mú nô wò ndé sá njáp nò mú nô lè-nwâŋ $H + w\dot{o}$ ndé sá njáb 5-good.thing with reason that RELCL-you (be) loc do 3-house bw-ur=encììmbé yò wáà myánè, è-sú $H + b\hat{o} - \hat{u}d = \hat{e}$ ncììmbé yò wò myánà è-∫ú 2-person-RELCL God give you (sg) compensation 5-sake lé-nwàŋ ndé wò sá njáp bw-ùr. lè-nwâŋ wò ndé н+bò-ùd sá njáb be (loc) 5-good.thing you (sg) do 3-house 2-person Because God will reward you for the good that you do to your family.
- (23)è-ſwí d-òòngá bùl sá bìzá hámá bé-twòngàlá kùgú è-∫wì d-òòŋgá bùlù sá bìzá fám bè-twòŋgəlá nò kùgú 5-death 5-Def many do we good 8-thought with 3-evening mbìì m-ùr ndé jàlànà cìgà é-njáp bw-ùr. mbì н+m-ùd ndé jàlànà cìgà lé-njáb н+bò-ùd RELCL-1-person be (loc) must live Loc-3-house 2-person This death has given us good thoughts on how people ought to live in families.

3 Bidjombo

told by Pierre Bengomo Mossi (of Bidjombo), transcription help and translation (into French) by Benoit Meboma Moankoen (of Leh)

- (1)mwâ lóŋ-gà jì lán kwár bìjùmp. kwád mwá lôn-ngà jì lôn 1-small 5-speech-here be (att) 5-speech 9-village Bidjombo This little story is the story of Bidjombo village.
- (2)kwár bìjùmp bwûr á bà bèrà kwár á bà kwád á bò bèdà kwád н+bò-ùd á bò 9-village Bidjombo **P2** be big 9-village RELCL-2-person P2 be é cèl nó bùbù. cèlà nò bùbù and (Fr) love with many Bidjombo village was a big village that people loved a lot.
- (3)bà númá kwár bw-ûr $y = \acute{a}$ á bùlù bù nò $y = \acute{a}$ bò númá kwád н+bò-ùd á bùlù bù nò NonRef-P2 be also 9-village RELCL-2-person P2 many many with mè-njáp bw-ùr gà mú mé mé kwár cèlá á mè-njáb bò-ùd mú mé mé kwád cèlà á ŋgà 4-house 2-person 9-village reason 4Assoc 4Assoc this love P2 bùlà bà fágálá bwó bwó mè. bùlù bò fágálá bwó bwó mé between self many they they

It was also a village with a lot of people because the families of the village loved each other a lot.

When we of Bidjombo were children, we saw boys and girls leaving other places and coming here because love and other good things were at Bidjombo.

Thus, Bidjombo became a village that God blessed and that prospered.

(6)dónk bw-án bó bíjùmp jì bèrà bw-ùr cà ná bò-ân bó jì bèdà bò-ùd nò cà thus 2-child 2Assoc Bidjombo be(att) big 2-person with now

ŋgà n-é-mà-yììgà. ŋgà né-lé-mè-yììgà

this with-Loc-4-government

Thus the children of Bidjombo are now important people in the government.

dóŋk bw-ùr (7) bìzó má kà lig = ebìzó jì bìzó bò-ùd $H + m\acute{e}$ kà lígò = e bìzó jì 2-person we (excl) RELCL-be (chg) thus Cons stay-RelCl we (excl) be (att) bèlà númá lè jàlànà bì-sá syê lé-mà-lú mpiz = é. númá bèlà jàlànà bè-sá H + lesyê lé-mò-lú mpízò = èmust imitate also 8-thing RELCL-IMPF work Loc-6-era back-RelCL

Therefore, those of us who remain, we must imitate what happened in older times.

- (8)bágèlà kwár ná bìzá n-íz né nô bìzá bàgàlà kwád n-iz né keep 9-village that we 9-our that So that we can keep our village.
- (9)nŝ kwár n-ízé dégè ndì kò sá bò jì nâ kwád n-iz kò dêg sá bò jì ndé that 9-village 9-our 7-thing be see be (att) be (loc) go

SúgènèSwógènèSwôgSo.forwardfront

So that our village keeps heading forward.

(10)bìzó ké nìgó ncá nwàn tíé á mà mpízà. bìzá nìgò ké ncò nwàn tíé á mpízò mé NEG return come P2 we take 7-position be (chg) back We should not take last place.

4 How Families Used to Be

told by Mathieu Zoula (of Bidjombo), transcription help and translation (into French) by Benoit Meboma Moankoen (of Leh)

(1) é àkékà niáp kwòmbèlá bw-ùt $w = \acute{a}$ là bà é àkíká njáb+н bò-ùd 1è kwòmbèlá $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{a}$ bò and (Fr) colonial 3-house 2-person 3Sub-P2 **IMPF** be organize mè-mbì mí-ngà nŝ bwó nè bètwámbá bw-ùr wó mè-mbì mè-ŋgà nô bwó bò-twámbá bò-ùd nò bó 4-sort 4-this 2-person that they with 2-elder 2Assoc

mè-cígó mé-cígó. mè-cígó mè-cígó 4-division 4-division

In the time of the ancestors, the family was organized like that, in that there were the elders and people in divisions.

- (2) nà w->>n m-ûr ndé é-làp mè-lòβ-é. nò w-òòŋgá m-ùd ndé lè-làb mè-lòb with 1-DEF 1-person be (loc) 4-problem **INF-speak** And someone dealt with problems.
- (3) nà w-òòŋ m-ûr ndé é-k⁺é é-mè-lómbálé. w-òòngá m-ùd nò ndé lè-kò lé-mè-lómbálé with 1-DEF 1-person be (loc) INF-go Loc-4-errand And someone ran errands.
- (4) nà w-ààŋ ndé é-bàgàlà m-ûr é-kùnjí. nò w-òòngá m-ùd ndé lè-bàgèlà lé-kwònjí with 1-DEF 1-person be (loc) INF-keep, watch Loc-cashbox And someone was treasurer.

- (5) nà m-ùr y-ês jì dènà j-é tíé m-ùd y-êz jì dènà j-é nò tíé with 1-person 1-each be (att) like 7-his 7-position Each person had their job.
- (6) $n\hat{a} =$ ndé é-njáp bw-úr, bà-kákák syê nò ŋà= ndé syê lé-njáb н+bò-ùd bè-kákák nò he be (loc) Loc-3-house 8-small.child work 2-person with

j-óbè tíé j-ób tíé 7-their 7-position

He works in the family, the children with their jobs [too].

- (7) è bàgàlò m-ùr v-ês nkwón η-έ. y-ĉz m-ùd bàgàlà ŋkwóŋ n-é and (Fr) 1-person 1-each keep, watch 9-responsibility 9-his The small children had theirs, and each person looked after their own responsibility.
- (8) m-ùr y-ês njwúŋ $b \acute{o} = k$ é-njábè bw-ût. m-ùd y-êz njwúŋ $b\dot{o} = g + H$ lé-njáb н+bò-ùd 1-person 1-each respect be-SUBJ Loc-3-house 2-person Each person has [should have] respect for the family.
- (9) njáp bw-ûr $w = \acute{o}$ jì bùgùbà bô myâ njáb н+bò-ùd $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{\acute{o}}$ jì bùgùbà bò myà 3-house 2-person 3SUB-PRES be (att) 3-time prosper be

njwúŋ ndé té. njwúŋ ndé té respect be (loc) LOC

The family prospers when there is respect.

- (10)ndé njwúŋ bá sá nô mò-bùgùbà $nc\hat{a} = k$. ndé njwúŋ bò sá nâ mò-bùgùbà $nc\hat{a} = g$ respect be be (loc) do that 6-prosperity come-Subj Respect does in such a way that prosperity comes.
- (11) njwúŋ bớ ndé cèl = é. ndjwúŋ H+bô ndé cèl = è respect RELCL-be be (loc) love-RELCL Respect is love.
- (12)cèl jì è-∫ùk má-bùgùbà. é cὲl jì è-∫ùg é mò-bùgùbà love be (att) 5-stalk 5Assoc 6-prosperity Love is the root [stalk] of prosperity.
- (13)bìzá njî númp cììmb á kwàmbèlò nŝ myǎ bìzá njì nûmb nâ myà + H ncììmbé á kwàmbèlà we (incl) only know 3-time-RELCL God **P2** that create njáp bw-ûr, kò númá c ϵ l a = k. $y = \acute{a}$ $w = \delta$ $y = \acute{a}$ njáb н+bò-ùd kò númá $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{o}$ cèlà-là=g NonRef-P2 3-house 2-person also love-REFL?-SUBJ go 3SUB-PRES We know that when God created the family, it was for them to love.

bà

lè

àkákà

mè-njáb bò-ùd á lè mé bò àkíká 4-house **Poss** 2-person P2 be **IMPF** colonial.times ná lùgà lùgà lùgà. lùgà nô lùgà lùgà that prosper prosper prosper The families during the time of the ancestors prospered.

á

bw-ûr

(15) nèbè jé? nèbé jé because what Why?

mè-njáp

má

(14)

- (16)nèbè njwúŋ jì té. nŝ nèbé jì té nâ njwúŋ because that respect be (att) Loc Because there is respect.
- bè-kèkák (17)myà bé ndé jwábó=gá ŋgà bè-kákág ndé myà н+bé jwâbà = gá ŋgà 3-time RELCL-you (pl) 8-small.child be (loc) this respect-SUBJ(pl)

bà-sángà nà bà-nóngà, jwábó = gá bà-twámbá b-ín, jwâbà = gá bò-sóngô nò bò-nàngâ bò-twámbà b-én 2-father 2-mother respect-Subj(pl) 2-your (pl) with 2-elder

jwábó=gá bòmíyòn b-ín, mìyà w-òòngó jwâbò=gá bò-míyòn b-én myà w-òòngó respect-SUBJ(pl) 2-sibling 2-your (pl) 3-time 3-DEF

ó njáp bw-ûr ndé kwégè mpwógé. ó njáb ndé н+bò-ùd kwég mpwògé. 1-health PRES 3-house be (loc) 2-person work

When you the children who are there respect your fathers and your mothers, respect your elders, respect your brothers, it is in that time that the family works well.

(18)mè-njáp bw-ûr á má bò myà bé ó byêl ŋgà, mè-njáb mé bò-ùd á bò myà bé ó byêl ŋgà 4-house **Poss** 2-person P2 be 3-time you (pl) **PRES** be.born this

sá á bà ná ງາwàŋ nwàn, é bìzá mé sá á é bò nò nwân nwâŋ bìzá mé 7-thing **P2** 9-good.thing 9-good.thing be with and(Fr) be(chg) we

ndé ncè ntámà mé-njáp bw-ûr nà má cà nó ndé ncò ntámà mè-njáb bò-ùd mé nò cà nò be (loc) come rot 4-house **Poss** 2-person with now with nàbà njwùn kí nán bò. nàbá njwún ké nán bò because respect NEG still be

The families, when you were born, what was already good will ruin the families because there is no respect.

- (19)jí bìzá jàlànà njwúŋ é-mè-njáp kí wá má bw-ûr bìzá jì jàlànà wá njwúŋ lé-mè-njáb mé bò-ùd ké we (incl) be (att) Loc-4-house must give respect **Poss** 2-person NEG bó ŋkà bé ndé njì ncôm ncôm ncôm. ŋkà bé ndé bò njì ncôm ncôm ncôm like be (loc) be you (pl) only disorder disorder disorder We must put respect in the family, not like you are always in disorder.
- (20) \dot{e} -jwóg \dot{e} = gá édìà mwâ ntòmbà númá twòŋgèlò. mé e-jwóg = gá + Hlé-dìyà ntòmb númá twòngàlà mwá mé younger INF-hear-SUBJ(pl) Loc-place 1-small also be(chg) thought Listen also to the younger ones when they have thoughts.
- (21) $m = \acute{o}$ bwúnà ŋkà njáp bw-ûr á lè bò té. bwúnà $m = \acute{o}$ ŋkà njáb н+bò-ùd á lè bò té I-PRES believe like 3-house **P2** 2-person **IMPF** be Loc I believe that it was like that that the family was organized.
- (21)njáp bw-ûr jì bè-tíé bé-tíé. njáb н+bò-ùd jì bè-tíé bè-tíé 3-house 2-person be (att) 8-position 8-position The family has its positions.
- (22)m-ùr v-ês nà n-é ŋkwáŋ kí kà ſùηà m-ùd y-êz nò n-é ŋkwóŋ ké kò ſúηà 1-person 1-each with 9-his 9-responsibility discuss NEG go

ŋkwóŋ mó n-úlógó m-ût. ŋkwóŋ mó n-úlógá m-ùd 9-responsibility Poss 1-person 1-person

Each person has his responsibility, and he shouldn't discuss the responsibility of someone else.

- (23) $b=\dot{a}=jw\dot{a}g=\dot{e}?$ $b\dot{e}=\dot{a}=jw\dot{a}g=\dot{e}$ you (pl)-Neg-hear-Neg Do you understand?

5 A History of Bidjombo

told by Mathieu Zoula (of Bidjombo), transcription help and translation (into French) by Benoit Meboma Moankoen (of Leh)

- (1) bìjùmp bé γò dék bìjùmp á bò ŋgà, bìjùmb bé ó dêg ŋgà bìjùmb á bò Bidjombo you (pl) **PRES** this Bidjombo **P2** see be bèdà kwát têr mbů. myà mó nàm bèdà kwád tér myà mó mbú 9-village 3-time 3Assoc 7-nation big start 3-season The Bidjombo that you see here was a big [and important] village since the time of Nam Mbu.
- (2) namb = atêr bò kúkúmá jé ncò mó myà nàm mbù = á kúkúmá tér bò ncè jé myà mó Nam Mbu-P2 3-chief first be come arrive 3-time 3Assoc

bókwáànt.

Bokwaand

Nam was the first chief until the time of Bokwaand.

(3) b-ùd bé ndé dék mpàndá m-ûr nè н+bé b-ùd ndé dêg né m-ùd 1-person RELCL-you(pl) be (loc) Mpand that 1-person

y-ês á dì wógà bíjùmp. y-êz á dì wôk bìjùmp 1-each P2 stay here Bidjombo

The people that you see at Mpand used to live here at Bidjombo.

- (4) kúkúmá á ∫wôk nàm mbů. mà á bà kúkúmá á bò nàm mbú 3-chief first **P2** be 7-nation 3-season The first chief was Nam Mbu.
- bòkwáànt (5)mpízè má nàm mbŭ elias. mpízò mbú má nàm back Poss 7-nation 3-season After Nam Mbu was Bokwaand Elias.
- (6)bèjǔmbó é kwòlà tér ngét, kò jé njwèndé, tér jé kò Bidjombo **P1** start go arrive

kwár nà nó byòt.kwár nà nò byòd9-village by with fullness

Bidjombo started at Kola Nget (the hill of naughtiness) and went to Njwende (the swamp), and throughout the village was packed [with people].

- (7) $w = \check{o}$ dégéé nŝ tít nè jèè! sá $\dot{\mathbf{w}} = \dot{\mathbf{o}}$ dêg+H nŝ tíd sá nò jèè you (sg)-PRES see that 1-animal do with 9-arrival You saw lots of animals!
- (8) n-úlágá tít ă bò wôk bé lè túg n-úlágá á tíd bò wôg Ъé túg lè 1-INDEF 1-animal **P2** be here you (pl) be (neg) **IMPF**

ndwâŋk, númb ηĚ è kwígà wók nûmb ŋέ ndwâŋg é kwîg wôg know him(emph) giraffe P1 walk here

tón nà tón ŋkà bè-tóòb. tón nò tón nkâ bè-tóòb outside with outside as 8-goat, sheep

An animal was here that you don't know, the giraffe who walked around outside like goats and sheep do today.

(9)mà-lú mpízò bè-tóòb lé áncé dì ήkà mò-lú bè-tóòb mpízò áncé lè dì ŋkà 6-era back 8-goat, sheep NEGP2 **IMPF** stay as

 $by = \acute{o}$ ndé kwêk byíŋgèlè mè $b\grave{e} = \acute{o}$ ndé kwég byíŋgèlè mè 8SUB-PRES be (loc) walk all.over that

In the old days, the sheep didn't do as they do now, walking all over the place.

- (10) $by = \acute{a}$ lè dì njì lé-mò-kôk, è-fúndò βó-ŋkwìn. $b\hat{e} = \hat{a}$ lè dì njì lè-mò-kôg è-fúndò bò-ŋkwèn 8SUB-P2 **IMPF** stay only Loc-6-pen INF-flee 2-leopard They only stayed in the pens, out of fear of leopards.
- (11)bè-bóŋ bé kékák ná cà nc = ebè-bóŋ н+bé nò cà ncò=è 8-place RELCL-you (pl) 7-small.child with now come-RELCL bé númbà túgá... sá j-òòŋgó. bé túg nûmb sá j-òòŋgó you (pl) be (neg) know 7-thing 7-Def You the children of today, you don't know about that.
- (12)sá bà é-sì ŋgà ŋkwìn. sá bò lé-sí ŋgà ŋkwèn 7-thing be Loc-earth this 1-leopard That was something, the leopard!

- (13)vùk bé ndé ŋkà bé túgé sá sá mè. nkâ bé túg sá vùg bé ndé sá mè you (pl) be (neg) do jokes be (loc) as you (pl) do this You didn't mess around the way you do now.
- (14)bèjùmbà jì kwáré ndé nò d-ínò. nwàn jì kwáré ndé πò nwàŋ d-ínò Bidjombo be (att) 9-village be (loc) with good 5-name Bidjombo is a village with a good name.
- bw-ùr (15)bá mpànd $bw = \acute{a}$ b-áángà ncè bô kò dì á bò-ùd bò $bw \acute{o} = \acute{a}$ ncò bò b-śśŋgà kò dì 2-person be Mpand they-P2 come be 2-DEF go stay at(Fr)? mpànd nèbè nŝ mpànd bá móŋgwààl má ncèt nàbà пâ bò mà Mpand because Mpand that be Mongwaal Poss Ncet

á tér dì.á tér dìP2 start stay

Makaa

he/she

The people of Mpand are separated because it was at Mpand that Mongwaal, son of Ncet, first lived.

(16)njú b-ùd á ∫ùŋà, á wûl bèkól lé-mà-lwà njwî + H b-ùd á ∫ùŋà á wûl bò-kól lé-mò-lwà 3-chief 2-person **P2** discuss P2 take.out 2-Kol Loc-6-slavery mákè, ηà bá bò mòngwààl má ncèt. mákè nà bò mòŋgwààl mà

be

The chief who discussed [fought] and liberated the Kol from the slavery of the Makaa was Mongwaal, son of Ncet.

Poss

(18)myà móngwààl má ncè $y = \check{e}$, myà w-òòŋgó bá myá H+mòŋgwààl mé $y\hat{o} = \hat{e}$ myà w-òòŋgó ncò bò 3-time **RELCL-Mongwaal** be(chg) die-RELCL 3-Def come 3-time be

mw-án dìyà. y-é lángà nò ncò pwàn mw-ân y-é ncò ηwàη dìà nò 1-child 1-his Langa he come take seat When Mongwaal died, at that time, his son Langa took the position.

(19)ě làngà $n=\check{a}$ dì lé-dìyà njì ngùmbà mbù. dì lé-dìà $\hat{n} = \hat{a}$ njì ngùmbà mbù he-P2 and (Fr) Langa stay Loc-seat only entire year Langa was only chief for a year.

(20)bâ ngwómànà ncò bà nà mè-lòβá nŝ $n=\acute{a}$ γò ngwómànà mè-lòb bâ ncò bò nò nâ γò $n = \acute{a}$ give with governor come be with 4-problem that he-P2 ndé lè-sáp, ngwómànà mw-árà nà ncè kindà ŋgwómènè mw-árà ndé nò lè-sáb ncò kènd 1-governor be (loc) 1-woman with 5-illness come send

ŋò lé-mò-mbùk lúmó.

nà lé-mò-mbùg

him Loc-6-prison Lomie

He had problems with the colonial administrator because he gave the administrator a woman who had an illness, so the administrator threw him in to prison at Lomie.

- (21)wú lúmó bó kò ηó y = e. wú H+дà bò kò $y\hat{o} = \hat{e}$ there RELCL-Lomie be he die-RELCL go It was there at Lomié that he died.
- (22)myǎ bó kàk né bwó ncò nwàn mpwám mà myà né bò+н bwó ncò nwàn mà 3-timethis be-RELCL they come take **Poss**

njú b-ùd. njwî+H bò-ùd 1-chief 2-person

In that time, they took Mpwam, son of Kak, to be chief.

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- (23)njú b-ùd bà-kólò á é wú yè? njwî + H bò-ùd á bò-kól é wù+H yé 1-chief 2-person P2 2-Kol P1 come.from where Where did the Kol chief come from?
- (24) é wù wók bèjùmp.
 é wù wôg
 P1 come.from here Bidjombo
 Here from Bidjombo.
- (25)dóŋk bèjùmbà jì bìzá bwùbwàg lígó bízá jì bìzá bwàg lígó H+bìzá thus (Fr) Bidjombo be(att) us(incl) big inheritance RELCL-we(incl) ndé jàlànà kándèbè nà bìzá bágèl = è. ndé jàlànà kándèbè nò bìzá bàgàlà = è be (loc) must respect with we (incl) keep-RelCL Thus, Bidjombo is an important heritage for us that we should respect and take care of.
- (26) nèbè jé?
 nèbè jé
 because arrive
 Why?
- (27)bèjùmbà bá ndé lé-∫ùgà ná kól. bò ndé lè-ſùg nò kól Bidjombo be be (loc) 5-stalk with Kol Bidjombo is the root of the Kol language.
- (28)è bìzá b-ùr jàlànà bá béjùmbà ndé làb kól. bìzá bò-ùd bò ndé kól jàlànà làb we (incl) and 2-person be Bidjombo be (loc) must speak Kol And we the people of Bidjombo, we should speak Kol.

- (29) hámó kól á kólò.

 fám kól á kól

 true, good Kol QUAL Kol

 The real Kol of the Kol.
- (30) bè bà jwógè?
 bé bò jwóg
 you (pl) be hear
 Do you understand?
- (31) wôk bèjùmp bá nè.
 wôg bò nè
 here Bidjombo be this
 It's here at Bidjombo.

6 An Invitation

told by Pierre Bengomo Mossi (of Bidjombo), transcription help and translation (into French) by Benoit Meboma Moankoen (of Leh)

(1) bò-ntwómá béjùmp bó bwá jì cà nó ŋgà nê bò-ntwómá jì bò bwó nò cà ŋgà nâ 2-young be Bidjombo they be (att) with now this that

 $bw = \check{e}$ ncò sá bèrà é-mò-wàrá mó-ŋgà. bwó=é ncò + H sá+H bèdà lé-mò-wàdà mò-ŋgà 6-this they-Fut come do big Loc-6-vacation The young people of Bidjombo here now, they will do a big thing during this vacation.

- (2) $bw = \acute{e}$ $nc\grave{o}$ sá bèrá ∫ámpìònèn é-sú é βó-bùmó. $bw \acute{o} = \acute{e}$ ncò+H sá+H bèdà championnat lè-∫ú lé bò-bùmó they-Fut come do big championship 5-sake 5Assoc 2-ball They will have a sports championship.
- (3) biz = 6nó w-úzá. jì 'ʒik' $b \hat{z} \hat{z} = \hat{o}$ iì+H w-éz nò gic we-Pres be (att) GIC with 1-our We have our GIC [Groupement d'Intervention Communautaire or Community Intervention Organization].
- (4) mà= bá ndé vísdělègé mà mw-ás bákwán. má mà= vicedelegué bò ndé mà mò-áz mà be be (loc) vice-delegate Poss 1-twin? Poss Bekwan I am the vice-delegate, me the twin of Bekwan.
- (5) mà= bá ndé vísdělègé á ʻʒík' pám nè gáp mà= bò ndé vicedelegué á nè I vice-delegate (Fr) be (loc) QUAL GIC **GAP PAM** that

è-dégè mèsámèná y-éz = è. è-dêg y-êz-è INF-see Messaména 1-all-RELCL

I am the vice-delegate of GIC-GAP PAM which is seen throughout the Messamena area.

(6) dónk ndé flas = 1 $biz = \acute{o}$ mè-táŋ wú $bw = \acute{a}$ $b \hat{z} \hat{o} = \hat{o}$ н+ndé flas = emè-táŋ wû $bw \acute{o} = \acute{a}$ we-PRES 4-white RelCl-be(loc) come.from thus (Fr) France-RELCL they-P2

kà tíl mà nê mà $nc\hat{a} = k$ kà lwándèbè tíl mà nô mà $nc\hat{a} = g + H$ Cons just write Ι come-Subj me that

òrgànìzê kúp.organiser coupeorganize (Fr) cup (Fr)

Thus, we and the whites who come from France who just wrote me that I should organize a Cup [like World Cup for soccer].

(7) ká bò kúp, tùrnwá é-∫ú bó-ntwámá nê bwá ké bò соире lè-∫ú bò-ntwámá tournois nâ bwó NEG be cup (Fr) tournament 5-sake 2-young that they

sá nô bwó níŋgà nè gáf pám. sá nâ bwó nîŋg né gáp do that they ioin that **GAP**

Not really a cup, but a tournament so that young people will join the GAP PAM.

(8)dóŋ $m = \check{a}$ sé ncò nò bò-bùmó. $\hat{m} = \hat{a}$ sé ncò nò bò-bùmó I-P2 thus (Fr) PERF come with 2-ball Thus, I've come with balls.

(10)
$$m = \hat{o}$$
 sé kà β é mó-kwár búŋ bó-súsgrùp bó $m\hat{o} = \hat{o}$ sé kà b mò-kwád búŋ $H + b\hat{o}$ -sousgroupe bó I -Pres Perf share 6-village 7-place RelCl-2-subgroup(Fr) 2Assoc gáf pám ndé. $nd\hat{e}$ GAP PAM be (loc) I already gave some to villages where there are GAP PAM subgroups [teams?].

(11) dóŋ wók béjòmbó m
$$\grave{=}$$
 jì náŋ nỏ wôg m $\grave{=}$ jì náŋ nỏ thus (Fr) here Bidjombo I be (att) still with

bò-bùmó bó-bá.
bò-bùmó bó-bá
2-ball 2-two

So here at Bidjombo, I still have two balls.

(12)
$$m\grave{o}=$$
 $j\grave{i}$ $c\grave{c}l$ $n\^{e}$ $\acute{e}-my\grave{a}$ $bw=\acute{a}$ $b\acute{o}-nt\grave{o}mp$ $b\acute{o}-b-\^{e}z$ $m\grave{o}=$ $j\grave{i}$ $c\grave{c}l\grave{a}$ $n\^{o}$ $l\acute{e}-my\grave{a}$ $H+bw\acute{o}=\acute{a}$ $b\grave{o}-nt\grave{o}mb$ $b\grave{o}-b-\^{e}z$ I be (att) $love$ that $loc-3-time$ $RELCL-they-P2$ $2-younger$ $2-2-all$

mí-
$$\int$$
wàànc my- $\hat{\epsilon}$ s é jé wógà bò-jwór = è m=è mè- \int wènj mè- $\hat{\epsilon}$ z é jé wôg bò-joueurs = è mà = é 4-young.man 4-all Fut arrive here 2-players (Fr)-RelCl I-Fut

sá kwán = é. sá kwán = è

do 7-meeting-RELCL

I would like that when all the young people, all the young men arrive, the players, that I will hold a meeting.

mò-wàrá (13)bízá ndé mò= lên bwó sá jàlànà sá mà= bwó sá H+bìzá ndé lêŋ jàlànà sá mò-wàdá Ι tell they RelCL-we be (loc) 6-vacation do must do $m\acute{o}$ - $\eta g = \grave{e}$ ndè mbint myà ηkwóòndà gó nc = endé mbénd nkwòònd $m\grave{o}$ - $\eta g\grave{a} = \grave{e}$ myà + H gó $nc\hat{o} = \hat{e}$ 6-this-RELCL be (loc) rule 3-time-RELCL 9-month PROG come-RELCL mé-tán bízó bò-nóp ndé syê è jé bwó bwànà bìzá bò-nob ndé é jé mè-táŋ syê bwó ? 4-white we 2-other be (loc) work Fut arrive they kwib nê ncó tùrnwá w-òòngó má sé têr. ncò kwìb nô w-òòŋgó mé sé tournois tér come find that tournament 3-DEF be (chg) PERF start I will tell them that we must work during the vacations so that next month when the whites we work with arrive, they will find that the tournament has already started.

é tér = è.é tér = èFut start-RelCL

This will help the young people a lot from the beginning of the vacatio to the time when the schools re-start.

ndê (15)bwó sâ bé-júŋ mè-mbì mè-my-êz. bwó ndé sâ bè-jún mè-mbì mè-mè-êz they be (loc) do 8-game 4-type 4-4-each, all They will play all kinds of games.

tílèbè mà-∫wànjí bwó jí jàlànà ncŏ é (16)mò-sás nò mò-sés mè-∫wànj bwó jí jàlànà ncò tílàbà nò et 6-girl with 5-young.man they want must come sign.up and bé nê é-∫ú spór w-òòŋgó nà mú nŝ jí lè-∫ú nô sport w-òòŋgó nò mú nâ bé jì 5-sake 1-DEF with sport (Fr) that you (pl) be (att) that reason númbè nô bùmó spór ánzènèrálè bó ndé ၂**ာ**ခဲ = bùmó bò nûmb nŝ sport en general __ jià = ndé that 7-ball sport (Fr) in general(Fr) she/he be be (loc) know bùlú b-ûr. làr bùlù lààd bò-ùd

a.lot sew 2-person

The young woman and young men, they should come sign up for the sport because you know that sports brings people together.

ndé (17)nò= bó númá bò-ntwómá nà sá nŝ mà-sás nà= bò ndé sá númá nô bò-ntwómá πò mò-sês he/she Ъe be (loc) do also that 2-boy 6-girl with bó kók mà-∫wó ně bò nà b-òòŋgá b-úr nò mò-∫wó bò kôg nâ b-òòŋgá bò nò bò-ùd nò here 6-friend 2-Def be that be with with 2-person b-áŋg ndé bò-míyòn ndé nê nò ndé bò-míyòŋ b-òòŋgá H+ndé né nò be (loc) with 2-sibling 2-Def RELCL-be (loc) that

mò-kwár mò-sísì. mò-kwád mò-sís 6-village 6-different

It works so that the young women and young men have friendships with other people and with their brothers from other villages.

nò mó-wàlá mó-ŋgà.
nò mò-wàlà mò-ŋgà
with 6-hour 6-this

Thus during the vacation, next week, I will hold this meeting to say to the sons of Bidjombo what we will do together so that this vacation will be filled with good times.

- (19) m=é yò bwó bò-bùmó.
 mà=é yò bwó bò-bùmó
 I-FUT give them 2-ball
 I will give them balls.
- (20) $bw = \acute{e}$ nè lé bò-bùmó bìy-àŋgó ké bà $bw = \acute{e}$ nà $bw \acute{o} = \acute{e}$ lè bò-bùmó bè-àŋgó ké nè bò nò $bw\acute{o} = \acute{e}$ 2-ball ? they-Fut **IMPF** 2-Def NEG be with they-Fut

lè jànà byó. lè jànà byó IMPF pay 8OBJ

They will play with the balls for free [without paying].

(21)
$$m = \hat{e}$$
 dâz bwó byó $m = \hat{e}$ dâz bwó byó I-Fut give.as.present them 80BJ

é-tùrnwá bìzó bà-nóp é $s=\acute{e}$. lé-tournois + H bìzà bò-nób é $s\acute{a}=\grave{e}$ LOC-tournament(Fr)- RELCL we 2-other FUT do-RELCL Lwill give them the balls as a present during the

I will give them the balls as a present during the tournament that we're doing.

(23) dóŋ
$$m\grave{\partial}=$$
 $j\acute{i}$ $j\grave{i}$ $n\^{e}$ $m\grave{\partial}-s\acute{a}s$ $n\grave{\partial}$ $m\grave{\partial}-\int w\grave{e}nc$ $m\grave{\partial}=$ $j\acute{i}$ $j\grave{i}$ $n\^{e}$ $m\grave{\partial}-s\acute{e}s$ $n\grave{\partial}$ $m\grave{e}-\int w\grave{e}nj$ thus (Fr) I want be (att) 6-girl with 4-young.man

bìjùmp má my-ês è bwó mò bá nà ncò nó bùbù má bìjumb mè-ĉz é bwó bò bùbù πò ncò nò 6QUAL Bidjombo 4-all Fut F2 ? be with with come a.lot

é- \int ú kwán m=é s=é. lè- \int ú kwán H+m=é sá=è 5-sake 7-meeting RELCL-I-FUT do-RELCL

Thus I want that all the young woman and the young men of Bidjombo come to the meeting that I will have.

sá tùrnwá é-∫ú ná lé nò sá tournois lè-ſú nò nò do tournament (Fr) 5-sake with with

bèlá bó súgrùp.

bò sousgroupe

be subgroup

We need to organize how we will do the tournament so that we can play with other subgroups.

(25)
$$m = \check{e}$$
 $c\grave{e}$ $n\hat{o}$ $s\acute{u}gr\grave{u}p$ \acute{a} $b\grave{i}j\grave{u}mb\grave{o}$ $n\grave{o} = b\acute{o} = g\grave{o}$ $m = \acute{e}$ $c\grave{e}$ $l\grave{o}$ $n\hat{o}$ $sousgroupe$ \acute{a} $b\grave{i}j\grave{u}mb$ $n\grave{o} = b\grave{o} = g$ I-Fut love* that subgroup Qual Bidjombo 1Sub be-Subj

súgrúpò á mà ſwôk 'ʒic' gáf pám mà =
$$sousgroupe \\ subgroup \\ first \\ GIC \\ GAP \\ PAM \\ I$$

ndé vísdèlègé. ndé vice-delegué be (loc) delegate

I want the Bidjombo subgroup to be the first [best] subgroup in GAP PAM which I am a delegate of.

(26) àkíbà nó bùbù.

àkíbà nò bùbù

thanks with a.lot

Thanks a lot.

7 Joy After Uncertainty

told by Benoit Mbagué (of Leh), transcription help and translation (into French) by Benoit Meboma Moankoen (of Leh)

(1) w-úlàgà myà $m = \check{a}$ té $m\grave{o} = \acute{o}$ kó ncè nà w-úlàgà myà $\dot{m} = \acute{a}$ ncà té nò $\dot{\mathbf{m}} = \dot{\mathbf{o}}$ kò+H 3-INDEF 3-time I-P2 come Loc with I-PRES go

lé-kwán, míswàn kwân, kwár á kwán, lé-kwán mí[wàn kwád á kwán kwán 9-village Loc-7-meeting 7-church 7-meeting QUAL meeting

nwàn nwàn lám. nwàn nwàn lâm good good 7-heart

One day I left to go to a church meeting in the Kwan village, for the community that they call "Sacré Cœur."

(2) myà $m = \acute{o}$ kò jé w-úl támè nci = i, $m\hat{a} =$ náŋ jé+н w-úlègà nci = emyà $H+m=\acute{o}$ kò+н tám mà= náŋ 3-time RELCL-I arrive 3-INDEF middle 3-road-RELCL still go I

lè k-ě. mà= mé tér lè-jwógà lè ηkòná mwà 1è kò mà= mé tér lè-jwóg mwà 1è ηkòná **IMPF** go-? be (chg) INF-feel Ι start 3-stomach **IMPF** INCR

kúŋgəlà mə́. kúŋgəlà mə́ hurt me

When I had arrived, during the trip, before I left again, I started to feel stomach pains.

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- (3) má= è sá má bè-dùŋ nwà tú kr, kŗ, kŗ. é mà= sá+н mà bè-dùŋ nwà tú Ι **P1** do me 8-noise there inside My stomach made noises inside me. [sounds].
- (4) m\(\partia\) = n\(\partia\) "\(\epsilon\) k\(\partia\)!

 I that
 I said, "Uh oh!
- (5) jî jòŋ náŋ mê?"

 jé jòŋ náŋ mé

 what thing still that

 What is that?"
- (6) mô jé kwán=è myà kò mà= jônè á sá jé myà H+mà kò kwán = è mà= jônè á sá 3-time RELCL-I arrive meeting-RELCL Ι P2 go in spite of do

míswàn mpwògé. míswàn mpwògé 7-church 1-health

When I arrived in Kwan, I still managed to lead the meeting well.

- (7) mà= kwân lê-mbègèlá má ncììmbé, sá njì $m\hat{a} =$ mà= kwán njì lé-mbègèlá ncììmbé sá H+mà mà= Ι do 7-meeting only Loc-9-protection Poss God I lè jwók njì ŋká ndê sá m = e. mwà lè njì nká + H ndé sá jwóg mwà m = eonly like-RELCL be (loc) do **IMPF** 3-stomach me-RELCL I led the meeting under God's protection, since my stomach kept hurting.
- (8)těm bè-dóp $bw\dot{a} = \dot{a}$ bà sá $w\dot{u} = \dot{i}$ m =åncé nà yîm bé-dób $H + bw \acute{o} = \acute{a}$ tèm bò sá $w\dot{u} = \dot{e}$ yîm nò m = áncéRELCL-they-P2 even be 8-food do there-RELCL I-NEGP2 with can

dò byò.dò byò.eat 80BJ

Even the food that they cooked there, I couldn't eat it.

- (9)mà= kwár. mé nìgò ncò, ncè jé mà= mé nìgò ncò. ncò jé kwád Ι be (chg) return 9-village come come arrive I returned, arrived back home.
- (10)mà= nî njáp mé $m\hat{a} =$ jáp mw-àrá w-àŋá. mà= njáb mé nî mà= jáb mw-àrá w-àŋ be (chg) 3-house arrive I call 1-woman 1-my I came back home, called my wife.
- (11)"tíé mà= nè má kò kwán mùùz-é, ηà nŝ mà= nò дà nâ tíé н+mà kò kwán mùùz-è Ι her with position RelCl-I 7-meeting today-RELCL that go ncí nà ncì má = bà lè myà k = e $k\hat{o} = \hat{e}$ ncì nà ncì myà + m = 6m + Hbà lè 3-path with 3-path 3-time RELCL-I little **IMPF** go-RELCL $m = \acute{e}$ lè jwók ήkà mwà kò nà ntégèlè mέ. $\dot{\mathbf{m}} = \dot{\mathbf{e}}$ lè+н jwóg+н ŋkà cwm kò nò ntég mέ I-P1 **IMPF** feel like 3-stomach annoy go with me(emph) I told her, "Since I left for Kwan today, along the way, my stomach has been bothering me.
- (12)m = esé númá kò kúŋá ncòò lôl lôl $\dot{\mathbf{m}} = \dot{\mathbf{e}}$ sé+н númá+н kò+н kúŋá+н ncòò I-P1 PERF also poop time three go

ntámè ncì. tám ncì middle 3-path

I also had to go to the bathroom three times along the way.

- (13)mέ. w-òòŋgá ó ndê ntégèlè mwà mwà w->>ngá ó ndé ntég mέ 3-Def **P**RES 3-stomach be (loc) annoy me (emph) It's my stomach that's bothering me."
- (14)mw-àrá w-àŋá á kò, nà= mé kò jáp dwábèrà. mw-àrá á kò nò= w-àŋ mé kò jáb dwábèrà. 1-woman 1-my **P2** go she be (chg) call 1-nurse go My wife went to call the nurse.
- (15)dwábèrà mê ncà, jì mà-mìt. sá dwábèrà. mé jì mè-mìd ncè sá 1-nurse be (chg) come be do 4-medicine The nurse came to try some medicine.
- (16) mé fámè mé-mìr ké bò.
 fámè mè-mìd ké bò
 but (Fr) good 4-medicine NEG be
 They didn't work.
- (17)dwábàrà nô nìgó kó bêrtwà. $n = \check{o}$ dwábèrè nô $\hat{n} = \hat{n}$ nìgò+н kò + н 1-nurse he-PRES that return go Bertoua The nurse said that he was going to Bertoua.
- (18) pš ncò nò mò-mìr.

 nš ncò nò mè-mìd

 he (emph) come with 4-medicine

 He will bring back some medicine.
- (19)mà-lú má-bá p = akò dì bèrtwà ká $nig = \acute{e}$, mò-lú mò-bá $H + \hat{n} = \hat{a}$ dì ké nìgò = è kò 6-era RELCL-he-P2 6-two stay Bertoua NEG return-RELCL go

è-cè bùlú ncè mé nìgó yâk. è-tyè mé nìgò bùlù ncò yâg 5-illness be (chg) return many come be.strong

The two days that he stayed in Bertoua before returning, the illness got worse.

- (20)mê lè làl è-cè ŋkûl. è-tyè mé lè làl ŋkúl 5-illness be (chg) **IMPF** be.strong 9-power It became stronger.
- (21)mà= mé tègá kí náŋ nò ηkùl. mà= mé tègá ké ŋkúl náŋ nò be (chg) be.tired 9-power NEG still with I was tired, with no energy.
- (22) $m\hat{a} =$ mé lè kò kúŋá ná tìtìtì, ě-nàgà má-cì. mà= lè kúηá mé kò nò tìtìtì è-nàg mò-cì Ι be (chg) **IMPF** poop with regularity **INF-poop** 6-blood go I went to the bathroom all the time; I was having bloody stools.
- (23)númá bw=á ncè ηkéηg kò mí∫wàn nà mà númá bwó=á ncè ŋkéŋg kò nà mí∫wàn mà also 7-church they-P2 come carry go with me

messamena wàlàfírà bèsœr.

wàlàfírà bò-sœr

Messamena hospital 2-nun (Fr)

Then, they came to take me to the nuns' hospital at the Messamena church.

(24)bà-sœr bwó mé ncè tér fyâl mà mà-cì. bò-sœr bwó mé ncè fyâl mò-cì tér mà 2-nun (Fr) they be (chg) come start test 6-blood me The nuns tested my blood.

- (25) bwó fyâl mè mè-bí.

 bwó fyâl mè mò-bí

 they test me 6-poop

 They took stool samples.
- (26)á fyàl mà-ncêlà nà bwó dégà sá jú jwó fyàl á mò-ncêlà nò bwó dêg sá H+jwó jwó 6-urine with test QUAL they see 7-thing RELCL-7OBJ 7O_BJ mé ndé lè ntég = e. mé ndé lè ntég = eself be (loc) **I**MPF annoy-RELCL

They tested my urine to see what it is that was bothering me.

(27) $bw = \acute{a}$ númá kò **Swamb** nô $m\hat{a} =$ jì ntú mà-cì. nà númá $bw \acute{o} = \acute{a}$ kò **swâmb** nâ mà= jì nà mò-cì ntú also they-P2 go search that I be with diarrhea 6-blood

Then they found that I had dysentery.

- (28)mà-tán jî jábà é-cè d-òòngá "diarrhee rouge.' mè-táŋ jì jáb è-tyè d-òòŋgá 4-white be call 5-illness 5-DEF diarrhea (Fr) red (Fr) The whites call this illness "red diarrhea."
- (29)é-bò-kól bìzó jì jábà dwó nŝ ntú mà-cì. lé-bò-kól jì bìzó jáb dwó nô ntú mò-cì Loc-2-Kol be call **50**BJ we that diarrhea 6-blood In Kol, we call it bloody diarrhea.
- (30) w=ó lè nâk mó-cì.
 w=ó lè+H nàg+H mò-cì.
 you-PRES IMPF poop 6-blood
 You have bloody stools.

- (31) $m = \check{a}$ wàlèfírè ká bín mbwô, ká bín kù. já já wàlèfírè ké bén mbwô ké bén kù $m = \acute{a}$ I-P2 sleep hospital NEG lift 9-hand NEG lift 9-foot I slept at the hospital without lifting a hand or a foot.
- (32)mà= ndé njì tègá nún ké nò ŋkùl. mà= ndé njì tègá ké nún nò ŋkúl. be.tired 9-body with Ι be only NEG 9-force I was tired, no more energy.
- (33)myêr kòŋ w-òòngá bò-dwábèrà $bw = \acute{a}$ ncè wá w-òòngá bò-dwábàrà myêd kòη $bw \acute{o} = \acute{a}$ ncè wá 3-DEF 2-nurse they-P2 come take

ŋkùl ní-n-êz, lágəlà númbá mbímbà n-óp w-óp, ŋkúl n-ób ní-n-êz, lágèlà númbá w-ób mbímbì 9-force 9-their 9-9-all show 3-knowledge 3-their 7-amount

bôŋ á jig = e. H + bôŋ á jig = eRELCL-they (emph)? P2 learn-RELCL

After that, the nurses took all their force, showed their knowledge, all that they have learned.

- (34)bwó mé ncè bándà ſùηà má. bwó ncè mé bándà **[ùŋà** mà they be (chg) come really discuss me They succeeded in saving me. [lit. They really discussed me. [implied with death].]
- (35) $m\hat{a} =$ mé ncè mpwògé. sá mà= mé ncà sá mpwògé be (chg) come do 1-health I regained my health.

- (36)mw-àrá w-àŋá nà= má m-ùr á lè yílà mò-àrá w-àŋ nà= mé m-ùd $H + \acute{a}$ lè yílò 1-woman be (chg) 1-person RELCL-P2 look.after woman she **IMPF** $m = \check{e}$, $n = \check{a}$ kò númá jwók è-cè. $m\hat{a} = \hat{e}$ $\hat{n} = \hat{a}$ kò númá jwóg è-tyè me-RELCL she-P2 also feel 5-illness My wife who was looking after me, she fell ill too.
- (37)kǎ bà $bw = \acute{a}$ ∫ùŋà bìzá nóp bá-b-êz. kà bà $bw \circ = \acute{a}$ ſùηà bìzá nóp bá-b-êz. Cons be they-P2 discuss us other 2-2-all They saved us, both of us.
- (38)dw-óp biz = akwár=é bw-ân á nìgò ncè nà dw-ób $H + biz = \acute{a}$ á nìgò ncà kwád = énò bò-ân 5-day P2 RELCL-we return 9-village-RELCL 2-child come with b-ûr b-áŋ nà njáp w-áŋ, m-ùr á bà y-êz nà b-âŋ nò njáb н+b-ùd á w-áŋ m-ùr y-ĉz bò nò 2-my and 3-house 2-person 3-my 1-all P2 1-person be with

mà-∫wòòzògò.

mò-∫wòòzògò.

6-joy

The day that we returned to the village and my children and my family, everyone was happy.

- (39)m-ùr jwìmbá. y-êz mé ncè m-ùr y-êz mé jwìmbá ncè 1-person 1-each be (chg) rejoice come Everyone rejoiced.
- (40) $biz = \acute{o}$ mé ncè bándà ∫wààz. $b \hat{z} = \hat{o}$ mé ncè bándà ∫wààz we-PRES be (chg) really come be.happy We were really happy.

- (42) pàpá mô sá mpwògé !"

 mé sá mpwògé

 papa be (chg) do 1-health

 Papa is in good health!"
- (43) w-òòŋgá mpwògé ກຈ້= mâ= ndé bá té nà mpwògé w-òòŋgá ŋခဲ= bò = 6m + Hndé té nò 1-health 1-DEF 1SUB be RELCL-I be (loc) with Loc

kùmà nò nó càá-g=è.
kùmà nò nò cà-ŋgà=è
until with with now-this-RELCL
It's this good health that I still have.'

8 The Panther and the Ram

told by Barthélemy Lefoumbou (of Leh), transcription help and translation (into French) by Benoit Meboma Moankoen (of Leh)

- kèkènà á fágárá ntwìmbè. (1) bà ŋkwin bâ kèkènà á bà fágárá ŋkwèn bâ ntwèmbè **P2** 7-story be between 1-leopard and 7-sheep 'This story is about the panther and the ram.
- (2)ntwìmbè jì tôp ndé wógà tám dindé. ntwèmbè jì tóòb ndé wôg tám díndé goat 7-sheep be (att) be (loc) here (spec) middle courtyard The sheep is in the courtyard.
- (3) ŋkwɨn jî dì dìk.

 ŋkwèn jì dì dìg

 1-leopard be (att) stay 7-forest

 The panther stays in the forest.
- (4) myá bâ bwàmá $bw = \acute{a} k\grave{o}$ bwàmá nóp mò kò myà+н bâ nób mé kò bwàmá $bw \acute{o} = \acute{a}$ kò bwàmá 3-time-RELCL and other be? they-P2 go meet meet go

dìk.

dìg

7-forest

When they met each other, they met each other in the forest.

k⁴ó bwàmá (5) myá bwó $dig = \acute{e}$ bwó któ myà+H bwó kò+H bwàmá+H dig = ebwó $k\dot{o} + H$ 3-time-RELCL they-PRES forest-RELCL meet they go go

bágèré sá wùrùk nô bwó sá lè-∫wó. bágèrè + H sá wùrùg bwó sá è-∫wó nô 7-thing 5-friend join one that they do

When they met each other in the forest, they decided to join forces and became friends.

- k⁺ó (6) è-∫wó d-òbá, myà bwó k⁴ó d⁴í, bwó è-∫wó d-ób $k \hat{o} + H$ myà H+bwó kò+H dì + H bwó 5-friend 5-their 3-time **RELCL-they-PRES** they-Pres go stay go k⁺ó ∫ùmá sá bà-kól ndé è-bàndà. jáp nô kò+H **fùmè** sá н+bò-kól ndé è-bàndà jáb nâ build 7-thing RELCL-2-Kol be (loc) call 5-hut go that Because of their friendship, when they stayed somewhere, they build what the Kol people call a shelter.
- (7) bwó k⁺ó dì bún wùrùk. bwó $k\dot{o} + H$ di + Hbùŋ wùrùg they-PRES go stay 7-place one They stayed in the same spot.
- (8) bwó jì ká bà ∫ú∫wók nô nô bwó bwó jì+H kà + H bò + н ∫ú∫wóg nê nâ bwó they-PRES be **CONS** in.front.of be that that they $j\dot{a} = g = \dot{e}$, é-jì nô bwò san = galé bwó $j\dot{a} = g = \dot{e}$ lè-jì nô bwó sán = gálé bwó sleep-SUBJ-RELCl look.for-SUBJ(pl) INF-be that they 5-wood they

tíràg kwàrà. tíràg kwàrà light 9-fire

But before they slept, they needed to look for wood for their fire.

- (9) sáŋ lè? ncí á bà nô $n = \delta$ ká á ncé bò nô $\hat{\mathbf{n}} = \hat{\mathbf{o}}$ kà+H sán + H lé who Ques he-PRES look.for be that **CONS** 5-wood Who will go look for wood?
- túk (10)ntwimbè á lêη nò ŋkwìn nô "bírá, lé ntwèmbè á ŋkwèn bír lé lêŋ nò nâ túg 7-sheep P2 say with 1-leopard that leave 5-wood be (neg)

nò sá.nò sâwith 7-thing

The sheep said to the panther, "Let it be, the wood is no big deal.

- lé." (11)m = eekò, m = ee kò sáŋ ncwó $\dot{\mathbf{m}} = \dot{\mathbf{e}}$ $k\grave{o} + H \quad \grave{m} = \acute{e}$ kò+H sán + H ncwò lé I-FUT go I-Fut go look.for us (dual) 5-wood I will go and look for wood for both of us."
- lé." (12)ŋkwìn "éŋkùgù ncw=ó kò nŝ sáŋ ŋkwèn nâ éŋkùgù $nc\dot{w} = \acute{o}$ kò+H sáη+H lé that together we (dual)-PRES 1-leopard look.for 5-wood go The panther said, "Let's go! We'll both go look for wood."
- (13)myǎ ntwimbè á jê lé-fùmbà lé, myà + H ntwèmbè á jê lé lé-fùmbà 7-sheep **P2** Loc-dead 3-time-RELCL arrive 3-tree

ntwɨmbè á nìgò ámpízémpíz. ntwòmbè á nìgò ámpízémpíz 7-sheep P2 return backwards

When the sheep came across a dead tree, he moved backwards.

(14) myà
$$p=\acute{a}$$
 $k=\grave{e}$, $p=\check{a}$ wá àlú nà lú y-é myà $h+\grave{p}=\acute{a}$ kò= \grave{e} $\grave{p}=\acute{a}$ wá àlú nò lú 3-time RelCl-he-P2 go-RelCl he-P2 put 1-hit with 5-head 1-his

ntáŋ nó kú lớ-fùmbà pṛ: dùmà
$$\mathfrak{f}$$
í.

ntáŋ nò kú lé-fùmbà dùmà sí like.that with hit Loc-dead fall 1-ground

Running towards the tree, he hit it with his head, and it fell down.

(15) myà
$$\eta$$
kwín mớ dêg = è, η kwin nô myà η mé dêg = è η kwèn nô 3-time RELCL-1-leopard be (chg) see- RELCL 1-leopard that

fùmbà Jùgèlà.

fùmbà ʃùgə̀là

dead fall.in.pieces

When the panther saw that, he said, "Well, he hit the tree like that and it fell down in pieces.

(17) á myà
$$p=\acute{e}$$
 kà wó $m=\acute{e}$, $m=\check{e}$ k \acute{a} á myà+H $\mathring{p}=\acute{e}$ kà+H wá+H $m=\grave{e}$ $\mathring{m}=\acute{e}$ kà+H QUES 3-time-RELCL he-Fut Cons put me-RELCL I-Fut Cons

bò w-ób mbì?" bò+н w-óób mbì be 3-which 3-manner

If he did that to me, how would I be?"

(18)númá bwó ηkê lé, jé té ncè ncà nà jé té númá bwó ŋkêŋg lé nò ncè ncè also they come carry 5-wood come arrive with Loc

lè-bàndà.

lè-bàndà

5-hut

Then they carried the wood back to their shelter.

(19)ŋkwin "èś númá má ncè lêŋ nŝ ncwó númá ŋkwèn mé ncè lêŋ nâ è ncwó also 1-leopard be (chg) come say that we (dual)

> sé bò nò lé. sé bò nò lé PERF be with 5-wood

Then, the panther said, "Well, we already wood already.

(20)kă jì é-jí ncwó nŝ ná cà nâ lè-jí kà+н jì+H ncwó nô nò cà nô INF-want **CONS** be (att) we (dual) that with that now

Now we need food."

(21)númá ntwimbè á lêŋ nô m = esé sáŋ lé, númá 7-ntwèmbè á lé lêŋ nô $\hat{\mathbf{m}} = \hat{\mathbf{e}}$ sé+н sán + H also sheep P2 I-Fut **PERF** look.for say that 5-wood kà sáŋ bè-dóp."
kà sáŋ bè-dób
Cons look.for 8-food

Then the sheep replied, "I already went and looked for wood, go look for food."

(22)myà ŋkwìn má ncě kò $n = \delta$ kò dégà ŋkwèɲ myà+н mé ncè kò $\dot{n} = \dot{n}$ kò+H dêg+H 3-time-RELCL 1-leopard be (chg) come go he-Pres see go

lé-kán.

lè-kán

5-antelope

When the panther left, he saw an antelope.

- (23)è-bì è-kán-é lè-kán. $\mathbf{n} = \mathbf{a}$ kò bì лà lè-bì $\hat{\mathbf{p}} = \hat{\mathbf{a}}$ bì lè-kán kò лà lè-kán **INF-seize** he-P2 seize 5-antelope go tear 5-antelope He seized it and tore it up.
- (24) ntwɨmbè dêk.

 ntwèmbè dêg
 7-sheep see
 The sheep saw it all.
- ncè (25)númá ntwimbè á lêŋ nô "á: ? númá ntwèmbè á ncè lĉŋ nâ also 7-sheep P2 come say that say Then the sheep said, "Eh?
- (26)nà= tér lè-kán дà ntáŋà. nà= tér лà è-kàn ntán he first tear 5-antelope like.that First he tore the antelope up like that.

- mè nà?" (27)ŋkàmà á nà mà $n = \check{e}$ sá á ŋkàmà nò $\hat{\mathbf{n}} = \hat{\mathbf{e}}$ sá + H mà mà **OUES** how.many with he-Fut me do me How much more could he do to me?
- (28)númá ŋkwìn á ncè lêŋ nô "ɲà tér wá àlú númá ŋkwèn á дà tér àlú ncà lên nŝ wá also 1-leopard hit P2 come say that he first put lá-fùmbà, ntwimbà $\mathbf{w} = \hat{\mathbf{e}}$ á ŋkàmà nà mè?" lé-fùmbà á ntwòmbè $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{\acute{e}}$ ŋkàmà nò mὲ Loc-dead 7-sheep you-Fut **QUES** how.many with me(emph) Then the panther said, "First he hit the dead tree with his head, how much more could the sheep do to me?"
- (29)jé ndé myà уô kà nô bwó jì kà jê nô jì ndé myà $H + y \hat{o}$ bwó RelCL-7sub 3-time **CONS** arrive that they be (att) be (loc)

lè-bàndà lá wùrùgá. lè-bàndà lé wùrùg 5-hut 5Assoc one

Having arrived back home, they stayed in the same shelter.

(30)númá ŋkwin á "èé fă bwáánt ncè té дà nŝ númá ŋkwèn á ncè té дè nŝ fă bwéndê also 1-leopard P2 come Loc he that HORT wait

má. mà me

Then the panther got up and he said, "Well, wait for me.

- (31) $m = \delta$ gó $nc \partial n$." $\dot{m} = \delta$ gó $nc \partial n$.

 I-PRES PROG come-that

 I'm coming back."
- (32)è-kò ŋkwin á kè ∫wàlá kò. lè-kò ŋkwèn á **[wàl** kò kò INF-go 1-leopard **P2** go directly go But in going, he then left for good.
- (33)ntwìmbè dêk ncínè, ntwìmbè myă má ncè myà+н ntwèmbè mé ncè dêg nténè ntwèmbè 3-time 7-sheep be (chg) like.that 7-sheep come see

n
 "jám j-ɔ̀ɔ̀ŋgə́ bó-n
n
 njám j-ɔ̀ɔ̀ŋgə́ bò-né
that 7-moment (good) 7-DEF be-that

When the sheep saw that, he said, "It's the perfect moment!

nèbó (34)ká kò kwár myà n=ó bì mà kwád nàbá H + jh = 6kà kò myà bi + Hmà I Cons 9-village RELCL-he-PRES because 3-time seize go

> tír ntáŋà nặ. tíd ntáŋ pà 7-animal like.that tear

I will go to the village because he seizes animals like that and tears them.

(35)myà $n = \acute{e}$ bì númá má n = enà númá mà, myà $H + \hat{n} = \hat{e}$ bi + Hnúmá mà $\hat{\mathbf{n}} = \hat{\mathbf{e}}$ лà + н númá mà RELCL-he-FUT 3-time seize also me he-Fut tear also me

mè $m = \acute{o}$ kò númá ſwál làn nô ncò kwár." $\dot{m} = \acute{o}$ kò + н númá+H (wàl+H làn+H nô kwád ncò but(Fr) I-PRES also directly happen 9-village that come go Since he could do the same thing to me, I'm going to leave for the village."

- ndé kwár=é. (36) $jw = \acute{o}$ bó ntwimbé $j\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \hat{\mathbf{o}}$ ntwèmbè ndé kwád = è bò 7SUB-PRES be 7-sheep be (loc) 9-village-RELCL That's why sheep are in the village.
- (37) jw = 6 bó $\eta kw in$ ndé dig = é. jw = 6 bò $\eta kw in$ ndé dig = e7SUB-PRES be leopard be (loc) 7-forest-RELCL That's why the panther is in the forest.
- ndé $biz = \acute{a}$ (38)ntá jí lêη nô myá $biz = \acute{a}$ jí $H + biz = \acute{a}$ $H + biz = \acute{a}$ ntà lêη nô myà ndé 3-time RELCL-we-P2 be (loc) RELCL-we-P2 since want say that

ndé wôk mè, b
$$iz = a$$
 j $i = g$ è númp nê ndé wôg mè b $iz = a$ j $i = g$ nûmb nê be (loc) here that we-P2 need-SUBJ know that

sá ndé dá. sâ ndé dá 7-thing be (loc) 1-father

This means that since we are here now, we need to know who is the father (ancestor).

(39) dâ jì ncììmbé.

dá jì ncììmbê

1-father be (att) God

The father is God.

they

(40)é-jì m-ùr ndé nâ bìz=á túk nò ŋkùl lè-jì ndé $biz = \acute{a}$ túg ŋkùl m-ùd nô nò INF-be we-P2 9-force 1-person be (loc) that be (neg) with bwá yìgəlà nà ŋà. bwó yìgàlà дà nò

That's someone that we shouldn't compare ourselves to.

(41)tèm mwáz, tèm fùm, ká nà dw-óp lá-wúrùk, tèm tèm mwáz fùm ké nò dw-ôb lé-wùrùk 3-night 5-day even 3-daytime even NEG with 5Assoc-one

bíz = é yìg-èlà nè dê. bìz = é yìg-èlà nò dá we-Fut pretend-Refl with father

compare with him

Even during the day, even during the night, not on one single day should we compare ourselves to the father.

- (42) $biz = \acute{a}$ túk lê yìgàlà nà dá. $biz = \acute{a}$ yìg-àlà dá tùg lè nò we-P2 be (neg) pretend-REFL with **IMPF** father We do not compare ourselves with the father.
- (43)bìzá dì kók básí, dì ηĚ jwáp. bìzá dì b-sí dì jwáp. kóg $n = \acute{e}$ we (incl) stay here 2-ground he (emph) sky stay We stay here on earth, he stays in the heavens.

He sees all the bad things here on earth and all the good things here on earth.

(45) kǎ bà
$$\mathfrak{n}=\grave{\mathrm{e}}$$
 jî bwáánt njǐ dwáp là-wúrùk kà bà $\mathring{\mathfrak{n}}=\acute{\mathrm{e}}$ jì bwéndê njì dwôp lè-wùrùk only he-P1 be (att) wait only 5-day 5Assoc-one

dwáp
$$n=é$$
bwàcígòkòrw-òàngá.dwôp $H+n=é$ bwócígòkòdw-òàngá5-dayRelCl-he-FutF2judgedecision3-Def

He is waiting for a single day, the day that he will come and judge all that.

9 The Perils of Drunkenness

told by Jean SédarAtangana, transcription help and translation (into French) by Benoit Meboma Moankoen (of Leh)

(1)
$$m\grave{\partial}=$$
 $j\acute{i}$ $j\grave{i}$ $l\grave{\epsilon}\eta$ $mw\grave{a}$ $l\acute{5}\eta\grave{\partial}$ $m\acute{o}$ $m\grave{\partial}$ $m=\acute{a}$ $m\grave{\partial}=$ $j\grave{i}$ $j\acute{i}$ $l\grave{\epsilon}\eta$ $mw\acute{a}$ $l\acute{5}\eta$ $m+m\grave{\partial}$ $m\grave{\partial}$ $m\acute{e}=\acute{a}$ $m\acute{e$

númb nà cìgè = è. nûmb nò cìgè = è know and live-RELCL

'I want to tell something that I myself have seen and lived.

I had those who love me, those one could call friends.

(4) bìzá $b \hat{\partial} - n \hat{\partial} \beta = \hat{a}$ kwikwêg, m-ùr nè my-έ má-mbì. bìzá $b\hat{o}-n\acute{o}b=\acute{a}$ kwîg m-ùr nò mè-έ mè-mbì 2-other-P2 walk we 1-person with 4-his 4-sort Them and me, we walked together, each with his own habits.

Only as one says in Kol: you walk with dogs, you will have fleas.

(6)
$$w = \dot{a} = d\acute{e}g = \acute{e}?$$

 $w = \acute{a} = d\acute{e}g = \grave{e}$
you-Neg-see-Neg
Don't you see?

(7)
$$m\hat{o} = kw\hat{i}g$$
 $n\hat{o}$ $b\hat{o}$ - $nw\hat{c}$ l- e $b\hat{o}$ - $m\hat{o}$ - $n\hat{o}$ k \hat{o} $n\hat{u}$ m \hat{o} $m\hat{o}$ $k\hat{o}$ $n\hat{u}$ m \hat{o} $n\hat{o}$ $n\hat{o}$ $n\hat{o}$ $n\hat{o}$ $n\hat{o}$ $n\hat{o}$ $n\hat{o}$ $n\hat{o}$ - $n\hat{o}$ - $n\hat{o}$ - $n\hat{o}$ - $n\hat{o}$ $n\hat{o}$ $n\hat{o}$ $n\hat{o}$ $n\hat{o}$ - $n\hat{$

You walk with wine-drinkers, you will also end up with elbow-benders [alcoholics].

(8)
$$w = \hat{a} = d\acute{e}g = \acute{e}?$$

 $w = \acute{a} = d\acute{e}g = \grave{e}$
you-NEG-see-NEG
Don't you see?

m-ùr á lè bàgàlà mà
$$\hat{n}$$
 \hat{n} \hat

bò-kwòndóè-fyâllé-ſùkúlb-ăcígókùk.bò-kwòndólè-fyâllé-ſùkùlbò-á-cígókùg2-stripesINF-exit5ASSOC-7-school2?-police

One day, with a sign, the wife of my elder who looked after me in Yaoundé got her stripes and graduated from the police academy.

(10)bìzó kò lè-dúmp á ncò á s-ówàwà nò bók bìzó kò lé-dúmb á á ncè sá-ówà nò bóg Loc-party P2 act-Pass reception **P2** we come and go

kègàwà.

kèg-ówà

plan-Pass

We went to the party which was planned and the reception that was organized.

(11)bìzó má-∫wòòzògò kò sá s-ówà lé-wààngá d

ná bìzá mè-ſwòòzògò kò sá sá-ówà lè-wààŋg dènà we go do 4-joy do-Pass 5-song like bá-dâ bôη á lè sê nò kúl nò н+bò-dà bóη á lè $s\dot{a} = \dot{e}$ nò kúl nò RELCL-2-father they(emph)? P2 IMPF do-RELCL with 3-tam-tam and

ŋkòòm.

ŋkòòmb

9-medium.drum

We rejoiced, singing like the ancestors did, with the tam-tams and drums.

(12) bìzó kò nwàn bò-fònó nà bàmîl.

bìzá kò nwàn

we go take musical instruments

We took musical instruments.

sé bùlá dìgàb = e wò jí sán sá mà sé+
$$\mu$$
 bùl μ + μ dìgàbà= μ e wò jí sán sâ mé Perf many sweat-RelCl you want look.for 7-thing be (chg)

télélé nkwóómin.

télálé nkwómìn

refresh throat

After that, you yourself know that when you have really sweated, you look for something to refresh yourself with.

- (14)tέlέlé m =kò nwàná sá mà mó ŋkwòómìn. ó $m = \acute{o}$ kò ງາwàŋ sâ $H + m\acute{e}$ tέlálé mà nkwjmin I-PRES take 7-thing go RELCL-be(chg) refresh me throat I took something to refresh my throat.
- (15)kùgú by-òòŋgó ndé lè ncàabara ŋgà bô kùgú ŋgà bò bè-òòngá H + ndélè ncààbàrà 3-evening this be 8-Def RELCL-be (loc) **IMPF** turn.upside.down m-ûr lú. ndé mà iábè nà $m \hat{\theta}$ - $p w \hat{\theta} g = \hat{e}$. m-ûd lú mà ndé iáb nò mò-nwòg = è 5-head Ι be (loc) call 1-person with 6-wine-RELCL

That evening, that something was head-spinning, that which I call wine.

- (16) w=à=dég=é? wò=á=dêg=è you-NEG-see-NEG Don't you see?
- (17)dìná ndé mwâ m-ùr myà nà = ndé lè kwígà dèná mwá m-ùr ndé myà nà= ndé lè kwîg like 1-small 1-person be(loc) 3-time he be (loc) **IMPF** walk

lé-wáŋgé cὲl númá sá dìná bw-ûr bá nà= jí lé-wáŋgé jí cèlà númá sâ dèná bò-ùr bó nà= Loc-gathering also he want love do like 2-person 2Assoc

cèlá mà cèlà mà love me

When a small [unimportant] man is in a group, he wants to do like his friends.

- (18)bà-ſwó bà-nóp ndé lè lé b-έ bâ kwîg ndè sέε. ndé bò-∫wó b-é bò-nób ndé lè kwîg bâ lè sá 2-friend 2-his and 2-other be (loc) **IMPF** walk be (loc) **IMPF** do His friends and others walk the same way.
- (19) $m = \hat{o}$ bándà kŏ nwàŋ mò-bwês mà cóŋ. sá mà=ó bàndà+н kò + H ງາwàŋ sâ mò-bwêz mó cóŋ I-PRES really take 7-thing 6-wet 6Assoc 9-neck go bè-sá má ntámá lú = wi,mà-nòk. bè-sâ H+mé ntámà $l\acute{\mathbf{u}} = \grave{\mathbf{e}}$ mò-nwòg

8-thing RELCL-be (chg) rot 5-head-RELCL 6-wine

I took something to wet my throat, something that rots the head, wine.

- bà-nóp (20)bìzó má sé nwèl má-nòk ntínè, bìzó bò-nób mé sé nwèl ntínè mò-nwòg 2-other be (chg) we PERF drink 6-wine like.that Me and them, we drank wine like that.
- (21)bìzó cíndé búŋá dúmp á bέὲ ncò bìzá bùŋ dúmb á bèè ncò cînt we come change 7-place dance QUAL second We went to a second party location.

(22) $biz = \acute{o}$ nìgó kò sís. fâg biz = 6nìgó+н kò+н fág sís we-PRES return go place another We went to a different place.

(23) $biz = \acute{o}$ nìgó kò jé lêjînà búηέ, myǎ myà+H $b \hat{z} \hat{z} = \hat{o}$ nìgó + H k \dot{o} + н jé+н bùη 3-time-RELCL we-Pres return arrive ?another 6-place go bwó kò númá yàg mà wú nô "áà kwò nâ bwó kò númá yàg mà wú kwò they also recognize me there that again go w-òòŋgá fíyò jànt nà bè-bìlà. bó mè." jând bè-bìlà w->>ngá bò mè nò 1-DEF step with 8-sad.news be that (pointing)

When we got to the other spot, someone recognized me saying "The guy who gives the obituaries, that's him there.

(24)nèbé myà w-òòŋgá $m = \acute{a}$ bà lè syé é-njáp má nàbá myà w-òòŋgá lè lé-njáb $m = \acute{a}$ bò syê má I-P2 because 3-time 3-DEF work Loc-3-house be **IMPF** Poss

kôlò.

kôl

cord

Because, at that point in time, I worked at the radio station.

(25)kàlà bw-ùr mò-fòk mò-kóŋ $m = \hat{o}$ gó nà m-á $m\hat{a} = \hat{o}$ gó kàlà bò-ùd mò-fòg nò mò-kóŋ m-á I-PRES **PROG** send? 2-person 6-wisdom 6-intelligence 6-QUAL with bízá bá sí bà-kólò lè-njáb á mîl.

bìzá sí bò-kól lé-niáb bà á 2-Kol Loc-3-house QUAL we 1-ground

I transmitted the intelligence and wisdom of the Bikele to people.

kèèlà (26)ncě nìgó kwó má bwó kò yàg mà, kèèlà+н bwó yàg ncà+ H nìgò+H kwò+н mà kò mà recognize return again add they go me come me

mô-m-íl mó-nòk jwáp. mò-mò-úlágá mò-nwòg jwáb 6-6-INDEF 6-wine sky

They recognized me and gave me more wine [on top].

- (27)sá $m = \acute{e}$ tùká lè bwè yô. sá lè sá νò sâ $H + m = \acute{e}$ túg bwè be (neg) **IMPF** long.time do **7**овЈ 7-thing RELCL-I-P1 It was something that I was not in the habit of drinking.
- (28)kò bò nwă nèbè lŏb jì $y = \acute{o}$ mé w-âŋ mé kò bò nwà nèbé lòb w-àŋ jì $y = \acute{o}$ 7SUB-PRES be (chg) go be there because 3-word 3-my be (att)

kò njì bè-kèkènà "á-mpèlá-mpèlá bwè nà kò nà kà kò kò njì bè-kèkènà á-mpèlá-mpèlá kò bwè nò ?-imitation only with 8-story long.time go go go

búgà ncwògè lè-bwóŋ."
búg ncwòg lè-bwóŋ
break 1-elephant 5-knee

But now, since my words always come with proverbs: "Imitation will lead to the elephant breaking his knees."

(29)ô ă-mpèlá-mpèlá mé sá númá ncwòòk w-àŋá ncè ô á-mpèlá-mpèlá mé ncà sá númá ncwòg w-àŋ 1-elephant Voc ?-imitation be (chg) come do that 1-my

búgà lè-bwóŋ.
búg lè-bwóŋ
break 5-knee

Imitation will lead to my elephant breaking his knee.

- kèlé má-nòk (30) $m = \acute{o}$ kwó $m = \acute{a}$ nì pàné. kwò+н $k \hat{\epsilon} l + H$ mò-nwòg mò-á nî $m = \acute{o}$ add 6-wine 6-P2 I-PRES again enter I kept adding strong wine.
- (31)tíé nà tíé lú mà jìrèbà mà njwâp. tíé nò tíé lû jìdàbà jwáb mé mà 7-position with 7-position 5-head spin be sky me At that moment, my head was spinning.
- kέl bìy-òòngá (32)è-ncà nè $m = \acute{a}$ térè pwan = elè-ncà kὲl bè-òòngá nwan = enò $H + \dot{m} = \acute{a}$ tér 8-Def first take-RELCL INF-come add with RELCL-I-P2 fág biz = alé-dúmp á njwáŋməlint. têr bò fág fág H + biz i = ilé-dúmb fág á tér bò RELCL-we-P2 first be Loc-dance where QUAL Ndjong-Melen I was adding to what I had originally drunk back when we were at the

first party along the edge of Ndjong-Melen [neighborhood of Yaoundé].

- (33) mà = mé nà tế tề tế tế tế.
 mà = mé nò
 I be (chg) with
 I couldn't control myself anymore, had no more strength.
- (34)kí nà ηkùl má= bì fògà nô è mà= ké nò ŋkùl mà= bìì fòg nô mà= NEG with 9-force seize 9-wisdom that Ι ii = kbúη sí. má kò kò è-jâ ii = g + Hbùŋ kò è-jâ sí $H + m \hat{a}$ kò ask-Subj 7-place RELCL-I 5-sleep 1-ground go go I didn't still have enough intelligence to ask where I could go lie down.

(35)
$$m\grave{\partial} = m\acute{e} n\^{o} m=\grave{o} n\acute{g}\acute{o} n\grave{g}\acute{o} n\grave{o} m\acute{p}\acute{z}\grave{o}$$
 $m\grave{\partial} = m\acute{e} n\^{o} m=\acute{o} n\grave{g}\acute{o}+H n\grave{g}\acute{o}+H n\acute{o} mp\acute{z}\acute{o}$
I be (chg) that I-PRES return return with back

kò njwánmálint.

kò njwáŋmálint

go Ndjong-Melen

I wanted to retrace my steps, go back to Ndjong-Melen.

(36) bà-
$$\int$$
wó b-âŋ bìì má ná jìì mà= ké bà nà bò- \int wó b-àŋ bìì mà nâ jèè mà= ké bà nò 2-friend 2-my seize me that 9-arrival I NEG be with

mbì má= mé jwágà nà bwà. mbì н +mè= iwág bwà mé nò RELCL-I be(chg) listen with them 3-sort

My friends stopped me just before the point where I wouldn't have been able to hear [heed?] them anymore.

m-á mánè.

m-á mán

6-QUAL morning

I headed out into the night, at 3 o' clock in the morning.

(38)
$$y = 6$$
 sé ntàŋ tám fùm.
 $y = 6$ sé ntàŋ tám fùm
7SUB-PRES PERF cross middle 3-night
It was already past midnight.

- (40) $m = \hat{a} = n \hat{u} m \hat{b} = \hat{e}$ náŋà kò njwónmálínd = é. ncí mà $m = \acute{a} = n\mathring{u}mb = \grave{e}$ náŋ ncí + H mà kò still I-NEG-know-NEG 3-path-RELCL 3Assoc Ndjong-Melen-RELCL go I didn't know anymore which road went to Ndong-Melen.
- (41)mà= nìgó twàgèbà mê fág á bíyimá sí. mà= mé nìgò twàgàbà fág+H á Ι be (chg) return where-RELCL QUAL Biyima Si

I ended up going toward Biyima Si.

- (42)é-kò, kò fè-fók $m = \acute{o}$ gó mwâ má ŋgá, lè-kò $m = \acute{o}$ gó+H kò+H mwá fà-fòg ŋgà $H + m\hat{a}$ INF-go I-Pres this **PROG** go 1-small DIM-9-wisdom RELCL-I jé m-é-lú. nìgó jì nìgò jì jê mà-lé-lú be (att) arrive me-Loc-head As I was going, a remnant of wisdom came to me.
- (43) mò = yàgè ná "á kyè!

 mò = yàg nô

 I recognize that EXCL

 I realized "Uh oh!
- (44)yî $m = \acute{o}$ gó kò mê ?" náŋ yî $m = \acute{o}$ gó+H kò+н náŋ mè where I-PRES **P**ROG go still that Where am I going?"
- (45)mà= fâ mpízò. nìgò nà mà= fă nìgò mpízò nò I back HORT return with I need to retrace my steps (go back the way I came).

- (46)ká nígó mpízò, ncá nìgó jwábèrà. jì nà m = 6kà jì nìgò nò mpízò $m = \acute{o}$ ncэ+н nìgò+н jwábèrà Cons be (att) return with back I-PRES come retrun tangle Trying to return, I got muddled again.
- (47)lé èncí n = 6kò jè é-njáp bá-júŋ fág lé-ncí lè jé lé-njáb bò-júŋ n = 6kò fág where Loc-3-house Loc-3-path **IMPF** 9SUB-PRES arrive 2-party go

bɨz=á nìgò kò óbìlì. bɨzɨ=á nìgò kò óbìlì we-P2 return go Obili

I arrived on the path that led to where we were at the party in Obili [the second party].

(48)é-jwábàrà, jwábèrà bó mé má ŋgà, mò nó mpwò bòη lè-jwábèrà $m\hat{a} = \hat{a}$ jwábèrà bà mé nò bóŋ ŋgà mà INF-tangle I-PRES tangle this I be be with there

lê-ncá ê-dínd mà kán. lè-ncò lé-díndè

INF-come Loc-courtyard

Since I was all muddled, I stumbled into somebody's compound.

(49)bùmbèlà è mpyó mâ bέ lé-mò-wàlà má lôl mpyó mé bùmbèlà lé-mò-wàlà má 1ô1 1-dog be (chg) ? Loc-6-hour **Poss** three get.up

m-á mánè. m-á mán

6-QUAL morning

The dog suddenly woke up, just like that, at three o'clock in the morning.

(50) mpyó gó bwámbèlè.

mpyó gó bwàmbèlò
1-dog PROG bark

He barked and barked.

490

- báfílá b-òòngá b-ûr ndé lè bàgàlà jèlé. (51)ndé b-òòngá b-ud lè bàgàlà 2-Def be (loc) keep 2-person **IMPF** The people were those who watch over government officials,
- kùbě (52)bw-ùr bá mó-wúzá ndê bà nà mò-kwàŋ nò ndé kùbě bò-ùd bò mò-wázá bò nò mò-kwàn nò be (loc) 2-person 6-northerner be with 6-lance with bow be

mô bùmbèlà númé té lê-bàgé. mò bùmbèlà númé té lè-bààg 6SUB get.up also Loc 5-side

The men from the North with their spears and their bows, they also quickly got up in their turn.

jwók bà-mpyó bwámbèl = e, (53)myà $bw = \acute{a}$ lè bwô têr $H + bw \acute{o} = \acute{a}$ bò-mpyó lè bwàmbàlà=è tér myà jwág bwó 3-time RELCL-they-P2 hear 2-dog **IMPF** bark-RELCL they first

lêŋ nô "jíbèlè! jíbèlè! jíbèlè!" lêŋ nô jîbèlò jîbèlò jîbèlò say that thief thief thief

When they heard the dogs barking, to started to say "Thief! Thief!"

- (54)é-kònòkò, bé númp ngwálà yáùnt. è-kònòkò bé nûmb ŋgwâlà yáùnd Loc-truth you (pl) know 9-city Yaounde Truly, you know the city of Yaoundé.
- lâl á fús (55)lé-mò-wàlà m-òòŋgá á bò tέ bὲ ∫wôk sì lé-mò-wàlà m-òòŋgá á té bò Loc-6-hour 6-Def P2 be Loc

càmèrûn wús.

w-éz

Cameroon 3-our

At that time, the governor of the central province had established strong laws.

- (56) fús sí á centre á mòmànt má lâl.
- númbà bwàgàlà lê-bàkól. (57)è-∫ù nô mà= bwàgàlà è-∫ù nâ mà= nûmb lé-bòkól explain 5-sake that Ι know Loc-Kol (I want to explain in Kol.)
- (58)lú á á bwó bí jíbèlè, bwó té lêŋ nô lû á té á lêŋ nô bwó bì + н jîbələ bwó 5-head P2 Loc P2 say that they-PRES seize thief they

 $j\acute{u} = g\grave{o}$.

 $j\hat{\mathbf{u}} = g\hat{\mathbf{a}}$

kill-SubJPL

The head [governor] said that if they catch a thief, they should kill him.

- (59)mà bà mé lè ncè jábè nô jíbàlà mέ. mé lè jîbələ mà bò ncò jáb nâ mé be be (chg) **IMPF** call that thief that Ι come I am the one being called 'thief.'
- (60) hèéh jíbəlè!

 hèéh jíbəlò

 thief

 "Thief!"

- (61) hèéh jíbəlè!

 hèéh jîbəlò

 thief
 "Thief!"
- lé-mò-wàlà mánè (62)b-ùr má wòl má lôl b-ùd mé wòl lé-mò-wàlà lôl mánè má be (chg) get.out Loc-6-hour **Poss** 3-morning 2-person three é-ncò bè-bílè nà mà-fà nà mè-báák. wà nà é-ncò wá nò bè-bílò nò mò-fà πò mò-báág with 8-club with 6-machete with 6-knife INF-come put The people got up at 3 o'clock, bringing with them their clubs, machetes, and knives.
- (63) $l\acute{e}$ - $l\acute{u}$ = $w\acute{e}$, kì mà-nòk mó $mw = \acute{a}$ bà mà $mw = \acute{a}$ $l\acute{e}$ - $l\acute{u}$ = \grave{e} ké mò-nwòg mó $m\hat{o} = \hat{a}$ bò mà $m\hat{o} = \hat{a}$ 6-wine 6Assoc 6sub-P2 be me Loc-5-head-RELCL NEG 6sub-P2 bà lé wú kì $mw = \acute{a}$ bà nô mà túgà náŋ lè 1è ké 1è bò wû $m\grave{o} = \acute{a}$ bò nò mà túg náŋ 6sub-P2 with be (neg) be **IMPF** leave NEG be Ι still **IMPF** nàbà númp mè= mé fágárá mà-fà nò mò-kwâŋ. nûmb nèbé mà= mé fágárá mò-fà nò mò-kwàŋ know because Ι be (chg) between 6-machete with 6-lance The wine which was in my head, where it went, I don't know, or how, but I was already between machetes and spears.
- "ă! (64)bw-àrá nô gó lêŋ bò-àrá nâ gó lêη 2-woman **PROG** say that **EXCL** The women said, "Ah ha!
- bò-kúbá lè (65)b-ízé wógà, mùùntí má dîmp ngà bò-kúbò b-íz mé 1è dímb wôg mùùntí ngà 2-chicken 2-our be (chg) **IMPF** lose here mister this

bò-kúbà." dá lè n-òòngá bó ncè jíbà bízá ngà bò bò iíbò bìzá bò-kúbà dá ŋgà bà lè n-òòngá ncò this be 1-DEF be come steal 2-chicken 1-father **IMPF** us Our chickens keep going missing, he is the one who has come to steal them."

 \mathfrak{g} ké $m \mathfrak{d} = j \mathfrak{d}$ $t \mathfrak{d} l$ $j w \mathfrak{d} p$. \mathfrak{g} ké $m \mathfrak{d} = j \mathfrak{d}$ $t \mathfrak{d} l$ $j w \mathfrak{d} b$ or l be (att) ? sky

I didn't know anymore where I was, below or above.

- dímbà (67)fók má sé mà. mé sé dímb mà fòg 9-wisdom be (chg) PERF lose me Wisdom had left me.
- (68)lú jwábèrè mà-nòk má sê ſwàl jwáp nà mà lû ∫wàl jwôb mò-nwòg mé sé jwábàrà mà nò sky 6-wine 5-head be (chg) PERF directly tangle me with

nè by-áŋ by-ês. nò bè-áŋ bè-êz with 8-fear 8-all

My head was all muddled with wine and fear.

(69)kò jé é té, ήkà ncììmbé túgà lé wàzà mwá jê é té ncììmbé kò ŋkà túg lè wàzà mwá then God be (neg) arrive FUT Loc **IMPF** forget 1-small go ndé lè w-òòngá m-ûr jáànt lê-bà-tétèlé $b = \epsilon$ lé-bò-tétèlè $b-\acute{e}=\grave{e}$ w-òòngá mò-ùd н+ndé lè jáànd 1-DEF 1-person RELCL-be (loc) **IMPF** walk Loc-2-honest 2-his-RelCL twámbá w-àŋá á bà lê dì fág sí w-òòŋgá óbìlì twámbá lè w-àŋ á bà dì fág sí w->>ngə 1-elder P2 1-my be **IMPF** stay where 1-ground 3-Def Obili

mô ncò làn té. mé ncò làn té be (chg) come happen Loc

Arriving on the scene, since God does not forget those who walk in his righteous ways, was my elder who lived on the edge of Obili, just passing by.

- (70) $n = \check{o}$ kă á dêk njì b-ùr ntùntùmà. $n = \delta$ kà+H dêg+H njì b-ùd á ntùtùmà he-PRES **CONS** only 2-person QUAL crowd He saw a crowd.
- (71)kà dêk támà mò-kwàŋá mà-fà. ηó má nà dêg дà kà mà tám mò-kwàn mò-fà nò he CONS see middle 6-lance with 6-machete me He saw me in the middle of spears and machetes.
- (72)"àwá (d-ínə́ nó= ncè bú kómp $bw = \acute{u}$ bò njábè <u>၂</u>၁ခဲ = ncè bù d-ínò $H + bw \acute{o} = \acute{e}$ bò njáb he come many 5-name RELCL-they-P1 3-house be ndé mà bô sàmàdí) sàmàdí!

mə nde bo samədi) samədi!
mè ndé bò
me be (loc) be Saturday Saturday
He cried out, "Oh no, (they called me Samedi [Saturday])
Samedi!"

(73)túgá bíz = á lwándèbè bà lé-ncòn nè ncàá ŋgà? túg $biz = \acute{a}$ lwándèbè bò lé-ncòn nò ncà ŋgà be (neg) we-P2 just be Loc-9-dance with now this Weren't we just at the party now?

- (74) wô ncé?" kà kò byèk mw-àrá mè wò kà kò byèg mò-àrá mà ncé **CONS** provoke 1-woman 1Poss who you go Did you go and bother someone's wife?"
- (75)"túgè lóbà mw-árá mà= nô mé. mà= nô lòb+H mw-àrá mé túg I that be (neg) 3-problem 1-woman that I said that, "It's not women problems.
- (76)á mw-àrá $\dot{a} = i = \check{e}$ bà nà mò-kwàŋá nà mà-fà. á bò mò-fà mò-àrá $\dot{a} = i\dot{i} = \dot{e} + H$ nò mò-kwàŋ nò 1-woman NEG-be (att)-NEG with 6-lance 6-machete QUES be with Women don't have spears and machetes.
- (77) w=ó dék ntángè?

 wò=ó dêg ntán

 you (sg)-Pres see like.that

 You see?
- (78) $bw = \acute{o}$ sé nìgò nígò sá ncə mà $bw \acute{o} = \acute{o}$ sá sé+н nìgò+н ncэ̀+н nìgò+н mà they-PRES return PERF come return me 7-thing sís bó mé mpwò nè sís bá mà mé sís bò sís mé mpwò nè Ъè mà mé 9-that 7-different be 9-accusation 9-another that be I be (chg) nô $m\hat{a} =$ jì jíbèlè." nâ mà= jì jîbàlà

They're accusing me of something else, of being a thief."

thief

(79) "ə́!" "Oh!"

that

Ι

be (att)

númá (80)cílá lé-mò-kù nàbá рô nwàn nè áncógó bà númá cílá lé-mò-kù nàbá рà ງາwàŋ nè áncógó bò quickly he take also Loc-6-foot because this NEGP3 be jábà bún mò kò jwábèrè nò ncí mè. jăbà nò búŋ $H + m\hat{\partial}$ kò jwábèrà ncì mè far with 7-place RELCL-I tangle go 3-path that He took off running because the second house where we were wasn't far from the point where I lost my way.

- (81)n = 6kò jáp mw-àrá á bwâr bò-kwòndó wú jáb $n = \delta$ kò mw-àrá $H + \acute{a}$ bwâd bò-kwòndó wú he-PRES go call 1-woman RELCL-P2 wear 2-stripes there nŝ "ncáá kò cíló, ncáá kò dêk! ncò cíló nâ kò ncò kò dêg that come (IMP) go quickly come (IMP) go see He went to call the woman who wore stripes there, saying "Come quick!
- (82)sàmèdí bá ndé kógà tám mò-kwâŋ mà-fà. nà bò ndé kóg tám mò-kwàŋ nò mò-fà Saturday be be (loc) here middle 6-lance with 6-machete Come see Samedi in the middle of spears and machetes.
- (83) $n=\delta$ ják nàbá má-nwòk sé ncí $n=\hat{1}$ $n = \delta$ sé jág nèbé ncì mò-nwòg $H+n=\acute{e}$ he-PRES PERF (be) unaware 3-path because 6-wine RELCL-he-P1

 $pw \hat{\epsilon} l$ $w \hat{\delta} g = \hat{\epsilon}$." $pw \hat{\epsilon} l$ $w \hat{\delta} g = \hat{\epsilon}$ drink here-RELCL

He went the wrong way because of the wine that he drank here."

(84)mw-àrá cílá. nè númá má ncè mw-àrá númá nè mé ncò cíló 1-woman this also be (chg) quickly come That woman also came running.

- ácígókùk àcígókùk (85) $\hat{\eta}$ ká $\eta = \hat{a}$ bà náné njûm náné. ácígókùg náné njûm ácígókùg náné ηkà bò $n=\acute{a}$ police big police big he-P2 be 1-husband as Since she was a member of the police [or military] as was her husband.
- (86)bwô ncè lêŋ nà b-ùr bà-né nâ "mwá b = iyodêk bwó b-ùd bò-né $b\acute{e} = \acute{o}$ ncò lêη nò nô mwá dêg 2-this they come say with 2-person that 1-small you-PRES see jì nûmbà tìgàlétí númbà ŋgà, bìzó bóŋ ŋà, рà bìzó bóη jì nûmb ηà tìgàlétí nûmb ŋà ŋgà we (excl) place? specifically this be (att) know him him know

twò lè-ſùgè d-é. twò è-ſùg d-é even 5-stalk 5-his

They came and told the people that "The child that you see here, we know him personally, as well as his origins.

- (87)bìzó bôη $\hat{a} = h = \hat{\epsilon}$ jwàgàrà lé-mbì á ηà né jíbò. bìzó bóŋ $\dot{a} = \dot{e}$ jwágàrà + H рà lé-mbì á né jíbó we (excl) there NEG suspect him Loc-3-sort that theft QUAL We have never suspected him of stealing.
- (88)lê-kònòkò, sé jwábèrà ŋkà $n = \delta$ ncí ní ŋwὲl lé-kònòkò jwábèrà + н n = 6sé+H ncì ηkà ní ŋwèl Loc-truth he-PRES PERF tangle 3-path as drink enter má-nòk.

mò-nwòg 6-wine

Truly, he got muddled because he got drunk.

mè-nòk." (89)bìzó númá bé уè дà bìzó númá yò bò лà mà-nwòg we (excl) also give him 6-wine be We're the ones who gave him the wine.

kí (90)bwó ncè bîr $m = \epsilon$, $m\hat{a} =$ jì nà myă myà + H bwó ncà bíd $m\hat{a} = \hat{e}$ mà= jì ké πò 3-time- RELCL leave me-RELCL I be (att) NEG they come with

náŋ númbè bóŋ m=á $\beta=$ è. náŋ nûmb bóŋ H+m=á bò=è still know place RELCL-I-P2 be-RELCL

When they let me go, I didn't know anymore where I was.

- $bw = \acute{a}$ númá bwîk sí. (91)kò mà kò númá mà sí $bw \acute{o} = \acute{a}$ bwîg also they-P2 go keep me ground They made me lie down.
- (92) lê-mán á té, m=á wòl. lé-mán á té m=á wòl Loc-3-morning P2 Loc I-P2 get.up The next morning, I got up.
- d-úl bìzá (93)mà= nô "kí náŋ nà twò dw-áp lè-sís, mà= пŝ ké náŋ nò twò d-úlágá dw-ôb lè-sís H+bìzà Ι still 5-INDEF 5-day RELCL-we that NEG with even 5-another

nà mà-nwòk é kwò bwám = è."
nò mò-nwòg é kwò bwámà = è
with 6-wine Fut again meet-RelCl
I said, "Never again will wine and I meet."

lôŋ (94)té bá á ncè sî. á sí té bò 1âŋ ncò Loc be 5-speech P2 come finish Here is the end to my story.

10 The Serpent and the Antelope

told by Barthélemy Bangbot (of Ngulmakong), transcription help and translation (into French) by Benoit Meboma Moankoen (of Leh)

- lé-bì-sá bìzá ndé (1) mà= kàn jí nwàn wó kàn lé-bè-sá н+bìzә́ ndé jí wó mà= ŋwàŋ 3-folk.tale Loc-8-thing RELCL-we be (loc) Ι want take you dêk wók bà-míyàŋ b-iz=e. lè ná càà-ŋgà nà lè dêg wôg nò cà-ŋgà πò bò-míyòŋ b-iz=e2-sibling here with now-here with 2-our-RELCL **IMPF** see 'I will tell you a story about what we see today with our brothers.
- (2)kàn w-òòngá mpwam, á bà nô mpú ncè kàn w-òòŋgá á mpwàm bò nŝ mpú ncà 3-folk.tale 3-Def P2 be that 1-python rain come

ງາwáŋ៦ nwî, nwî, mpwàm mpú lé ncè nwî mpwàm á nwáŋ mpú lè ncè nwî take fall (rain) fall (rain) 1-python **P2** rain **IMPF** come

té $n=\check{a}$ bà lè sán $mpwó = \delta$:. $mp\dot{u} = \dot{e}$ té $H + n = \acute{a}$ bò lè sáŋ Loc RelCl-he-P2 be **IMPF** look.for rain-RELCL

This folk tale is about a serpent who was looking for rain before the rain came.

(3) $i\acute{o} = \grave{o}$:. $n=\check{a}$ bò lè té sán té $H + p = \acute{a}$ bò lè sáŋ $jw\dot{o} = \dot{e}$ RELCL-he-P2 be **IMPF** look.for 70BJ-RELCL He was looking for something.

- $l\hat{e}$ -mbì $l = \hat{e}$. (4) té $n = \acute{a}$ bà lè kò ní té $H+p=\acute{a}$ bò lè kò nîiŋk lé-mbìl = è Loc RELCL-he-P2 be enter Loc-hole-RelCL **IMPF** go He went into a hole.
- sáŋ (5) $n = \check{o}$ kó ntàŋ á bà té, yó sán + H ntàŋ н+á bò té yò+H $n = \delta$ kò+H he-Pres go look.for 1-rat RELCL-P2 be Loc **70BJ-RELCL**

 $m = \hat{a} = n\hat{u}mb = \hat{e}$. $m = \hat{a} = n\hat{u}mb = \hat{e}$

I-NEG-know-NEG

If he was looking for a rat, that I don't know.

- fárèbè. (6) kà nî kò myà $n = \delta$ mô fárèbè myà $H + p = \acute{o}$ kà nî kò mé 3-time **RELCL-he-PRES** CONS stuck, wedged enter be? go After he went in, he got stuck.
- (7) dêk dégá cínà. $n = \hat{0}$ kà bá $\hat{\mathbf{n}} = \hat{\mathbf{o}}$ dêg+н bò + н cínà kà+H dêg+н he-Pres Cons hare see be see He saw a hare.
- (8) bò-∫wàndà bò-bá, nwà lé-mbìl $\mathbf{n} = \hat{\mathbf{o}}$ sè já nwá $\hat{n} = \hat{o}$ sé já bò-∫wàndà bò-bá nwà lé-mbìl nwá he-PRES PERF sleep there 2-week 2-two there Loc-3-hole

y-ê-n

y-é-né

3-his-that

He had to sleep in that hole for two weeks.

- dêk lé-kán jé. (9) mà $n = \delta$ jê dêg+H è-kán mé $\hat{n} = \hat{0}$ he-PRES see 5-antelope be (chg) arrive He saw an antelope coming towards him.
- lè-kán "lè-kán míyòŋ w-àŋá, (10)nà= nè nŝ è-kán nŝ è-kán míyòŋ w-àŋ nà= nò 5-antelope 1-brother 1-my he with 5-antelope that
 - ô mà = yúm wôk lé-mbìlé.
 ô mà = yúm wôg lé-mbìl
 I (be) stuck here Loc-3-hole

He said to the antelope, "Antelope my brother, here I am stuck in this hole.

- (11) ncá wúlè mè!"

 ncâ wûl mè

 come (Imp) take.out me

 Come get me out!"
- è-kán (12)má ncò, sá nè ŋgwàn y-é ncè è-kán mé ncò, ncò sá nò ŋgwàn y-é be (chg) 5-antelope do with 3-paw 3-his come come

sá sá. ná sá sá sá nò sá sá sá sá sá with do do do do do

The antelope came and began to dig with his paw. Dig, dig, dig, dig.....

(13) mpwàm wúlà nún.

mpwàm wûl nûn

1-python take.out 9-body

The serpent got his body out.

dí dí dí lè-kán nô "ŋkà (14)dí dì, mpwàmè nò mpwàm nò lè-kán nâ ŋkà 1-python with 5-antelope that as

> ndé $w = \acute{o}$ nwă nè, mέ jî jàk jwók ncà, ndé+н né mέ jì jàg jwóg ncà $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{\acute{o}}$ nwà I (emph) you-Pres be (loc) there that be (att) hear 9-hunger

 $m = \check{o}$ $d\acute{o}$ $w\acute{o}$." $\grave{m} = \acute{o}$ $d\grave{o} + H$ $w\grave{o}$ I-Pres eat you (sg)

After a time, the serpent said to the antelope, "Since you're here, and I'm so hungry, I'm going to eat you."

- (15) è-kán nò mpwàmè "á kè!
 è-kán nò mpwàm
 5-antelope with 1-python
 The antelope said, "What!
- lè-bé. (16)wúlà wó míyòŋ w-àŋ, m = elé-bé míyòŋ w-àŋ $m = \acute{e}$ wûl+H wò 1-brother 1-my I-P1 take.out Loc-9-pit you (sg) My brother, I just got you out of the hole.
- $\mathbf{w} = \check{\mathbf{o}}$ (17) $w = \check{o}$ ká nìgó lέŋ dó má nô $\dot{\mathbf{w}} = \dot{\mathbf{o}}$ kà+н nìgò + H nô $\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \hat{\mathbf{o}}$ dò+H lêŋ mà tell you-Pres **CONS** return that you-PRES eat me

nèbé nè jè?" nèbé nò jè because with what

Why do you say that you're going to eat me?"

- (18)m = ejì $m = \hat{o}$ dó wó." nà= nô nô jí dò + н nà= nâ $m = \acute{e}$ nâ $m = \acute{o}$ wò I-P1 I-PRES you (sg) he that want that eat He said, "I want to eat you."
- (19)kúl kà jê, wúgèrè má ncè mpò, kûl kà jê mé ncè 1-tortoise be (chg) CONS come arrive wúgàrà mpò.

The tortoise came, in his way as tortoises do (ideophone).

- (20) "jí ndé làŋè?"

 jé ndé làŋ

 what be (loc) happen

 "What's going on?"
- (21)wúl lébé ŋgà." nà= nô $m = \hat{o}$ gò mpwàm wôk gò wûl nà= nâ $m = \hat{o}$ mpwàm wôg lé-bé ŋgà he I-PRES **P**ROG take.out 1-python here Loc-9-pit here that He answered [the antelope], "I was getting the serpent out of this hole."
- (22) "mpwàm bò wógè?"

 mpwàm bò wôk

 python be here

 "The serpent was here?"
- (23) "àá." "Yes."

- (24)"á jí ndé kă làŋè?" á ié ndé kà làŋ be (loc) Cons **OUES** what happen "What happened then?"
- (25)"mpwàm nâ $n = \hat{o}$ dó má." mpwàm nâ $n = \delta$ dò+н mà 1-python that he-Pres eat me "The serpent said that he is going to eat me."
- (26)lé-mbìl "mpwàm bà wók gă?" mpwàm bò wôg lé-mbìl ŋgà 1-python be here Loc-3-hole this "The serpent was here in this hole?"
- (27) "èé." "Yes."
- (28) "mpwàm w=ú bà wógà?"

 mpwàm w=é bò wôg

 1-python you-P1 be here
 "Serpent, you were here?"
- (29) "àá." "Yes."
- (30)"hă nìgò kwá ní, mà dégà ŋkà $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{u}$ $b = \hat{e}$." fă kwò nìgò nî mà dêg ŋkà $H + \hat{w} = \acute{e}$ $b\dot{o} = \dot{e}$ HORT again return enter I see RELCL-you-P1 be-RELCL as "Go back in so that I can see how you were."

- (31)mpwàm bìgàlà nún, bígàlà bígàlà bígàlà bígèlò. mpwàm bìgàlà րûn bìgàlà bìgàlà bìgàlà bìgàlà 1-python enter body enter enter enter enter The serpent got his body back in, little by little.
- (32) "nwà bó w=ú $b=\grave{e}$?"

 nwà bò $H+w=\acute{e}$ bò= \grave{e} there be RelCl-you-P1 be-RelCl

 "You were like that?"
- (33) "èé." "Yes."
- (34) "hǎ kà wú."

 fǎ kà wú

 HORT CONS come.out

 "Ok, come out."
- (35)mpwàm mà ká jì wú, mβέŋ! mpwàm kà jì mà wú 1-python **CONS** be come The serpent wanted to come out, but wham! he got stuck again.
- (36)kúl nà lè-kán "njám nè." nô j-òòŋgá bá kûl è-kán j-òòŋgə́ nò nâ njám né tortoise with 5-antelope that 7-good.moment 7-DEF be that The tortoise said to the antelope, "It's a good time to leave."
- (37)ntáná jí dêk bà-míyàŋ mà jwá ná b-áŋ jì ntáŋ mà dêg jwò nò bò-míyòŋ b-àŋ like.that Ι be (att) **70**_BJ 2-brother see with 2-my

nó cà ŋgà.

nò cà ŋgà

with now this

I see the same thing with our brothers now.

- (38)lè-bú jì mà fèrá lé-mà-mbùk. jì è-bú mé fèr lé-mè-mbùg Loc-4-prison 5-many be (att) be? close Many are shut up in prisons.
- (39)bé-ntwòmp túk lè míyòŋ w-àŋ, cìk nwàŋ, nâ cìg н+bè-ntwòmp lè nâ míyòŋ w-àŋ túg ŋwâŋ 1-my that 1-brother 7-life 7Assoc-8-fight be (neg) **IMPF** (be) good cìk bé-ntwòmp túk lè nwàŋ. cìg H+bè-ntwòmp túg lè ງາwâŋ 7-life 7Assoc-8-fight be (neg) **IMPF** (be) good To my brother [I say] a life of fighting isn't good.
- (40) m-ùr kớ jwôk.

 m-ùd ké jwôg

 1-person NEG hear

 He doesn't hear.
- ndê (41) ກລ້= mà jwôk bìzá sá ŋkà sá ŋà= н+ndé sá ŋkà $H + s\hat{a}$ mé jwôg bìzá he as RELCL-7-thing be (chg) hear RELCL-be (loc) do us kò kók lé-bè-mí∫wàn = é, sà ŋkà sá mà lé-bè-mí∫wàn = è kò kóg sá ŋkà н+sâ mé Loc-8-church-RelCl RELCL-7-thing here do as be (chg) go

$$jwóg = \hat{\epsilon}$$
.
 $jwôg = \hat{\epsilon}$
 $hear-RelCL$

He acts as if he hears us at church, acting as if it is heard.

- (42)ká bwè nô $n = \acute{o}$ nìgó kwó kò sâ bìzá $\hat{n} = \acute{o}$ ké bwè nâ nìgò + H kwò+H kò+H sâ bìzá NEG long.time that he-PRES return again do us go $y = \acute{e}$ ká lè bír nô bwó ká kò ně $y = \acute{e}$ kà+H kà kò nâ lè+H bír+H nâ bwó NonRef-P2 **CONS** they **IMPF** leave that **CONS** go that é-kò lá-mà-mbùk ŋkà bwó ndé kò-n è-kò lé-mè-mbùg ŋkà bwó ndé kò-né go-that INF-Loc-4-prison they be (loc) as go
 - Not long after, he returns again, leaving us and going back to prison.
- (43)té bó kàn w-àŋ ndê ſì. té bò w-àŋ ndé sí kàn 3-folk.tale 3-my be (loc) finish Loc be Here is the end of my folk tale.
- (44) bwó bò bò-mpwàm.

 bwó bò bò-mpwàm

 they be 2-python

 They are serpents.'

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Kol-English Lexicon

A - a

trunk'. á mkr. Qualificative Associative Marker ădùŋgû Pl: bădùŋgû. n. toad. (QUAL). á ădwàm Pl: bădwàm. n. frog. interr. Interrogative (QUES). **âfîfî** *n*. deaf mute. *TAM.* Distant past (P2). **ăfíyò** *Pl:* **băfíyo**. *n*. lemon. $\mathbf{\acute{a}} = \mathbf{\grave{e}}$ TAM. Perfective negative (NEG). àkákà ábâ Alt. [kikà]. n. colonial times. n. vulture. **âbůl fûz** *v.* be impotent. **ăjâ cínd** *Pl:* **băjâ cínd**. *n*. waterhole. ăbwòmb ndèlê Pl:băbwòmb ndèlê. n. **àlkôl** *n.* alcohol (general). mud wasp. àlú. n. hit. **âbyôlô** *Pl:* **bâbyôlô**. *n.* 1/2. traitor. **ămpíga** *Pl:* **bămpíga**. *n*. dragonfly. **ăcé lààbê** n. tarantula. ámpízámpíz adv. backwards. Etym: ăcícéné Pl: băcícéné. n. star. from mpízò 'back (of something)'. ácígókúg n. police/military. Lit: 'cutters--ân Sg: mwân. Pl: bwân. n. 1/2. child, son. Etym: *jánà (1).

ǎnàrâ *Pl:* **bǎnàrâ**. *n*. bedbug.

áncé TAM. Perfective past negative

(NEGP1 or NEGP2).

áncógó *TAM*. Perfective far past negative

(NEGP3).

ăndàgà Pl: băndàgà. n. okra.

ântôkntòk Pl: bântôkntòk. n. beggar.

-ǎpô Pl: bǎpô. n. bee.

-ăŋɔ̂ kwàn Pl: băŋɔ̂ kwàn. n. swarm.

Lit. bee honey [Note: no singular]

ἄμὸz Pl: bǎμὸz. n. onion, garlic.

-àŋ gen. my.

-áŋ Pl: byáŋ. n. 8. fear.

ăŋkò jíjò Pl: băŋkò jíjò. n. army ant,

soldier ant.

áŋkòŋgò n. free-for-all fight. [Note:
everyone gets involved; could become
a feud on the village or tribal level]

-àrá Sg: mwàrá. Pl: bwàrá. n. 1/2.

woman, wife. mwàrá mớ ʃwôg Pl:

bwàrá bá mờ ʃwôg. n. principal wife,

first wife. mwàrá mwân Pl: bwàrá

bó bwân. n. daughter-in-law. Lit:

'woman child'.

-ăsísìm Pl: băsísìm. n. demon, evil spirit.

[Note: no singular?]

âtîmtìm v. (be) myopic, (be) shortsighted.

ǎwúbò Pl: b**ǎwúbò**. n. dove.

ăyìnò ŋkwènjî Pl: băyìnò móŋkwènjî.

n. ring (finger).

áyô mpám *n*. grandmother.

bà bámbélé

B - b

bà **bâb** *v*. (be) bad. adv. a little. bà v. cut. Etym: *béd 'cut, break.' bàdèbò v. perch. bá bàgábà n. liver. num. two (2). bâ conj. and. [Note: used with human bàgàlà v. keep, store, watch. noun phrases] Nominalization: mbègèlá (9) 'protection.' bâ v. marry. Etym: *bád. **bágèrè** v. join, put together. bâ Sg: èbâ. Pl: mòbâ. n. 5/6. marriage **bâl** *Pl:* **mòmpâl** [mèmpâl]. *n.* 9/6. bowl. (not ceremony), sexual relations. -bààg Sg: èbààg. Pl: mòbààg. n. 5/6. **bálà** v. find again. shoulder. [Note: also used as 'beside'] **bàm** n. scar. -báág Sg: èbáág. Pl: mòbáág. n. 5/6. **bâm** v. roar. knife. Etym: *báká (5). bámbà Pl: mòbámbà n. grasshopper. **bàb** *n.* hallway, small courtyard. [Note: bámbálá v. shout at. Etym: from bâm Also used for a house built on the

'to roar?'

outskirts of a big village.]

bêr

bán Pl: mòmpán [mèmpán]. n. 9/6.

buttock.

bân Pl: mòbân. n. difficulty.

bànd Pl: mèbànd. n. gizzard.

-bàndà Sg: èbàndà. Pl: mòbàndà. n.

5/6. hut, camp.

bándà v. go well.

bándà aux. really.

bándòlò v. invite, assemble (people).

bǎn *n*. beam, rafter.

bâr v. climb, ascend. [Note: as in a hill]

bárà v. greet.

-bàdà né mpúmb [bàra] Sg: èbàdà

né mpúmb. Pl: mòbàdà má mpùmb.

n. 5/6. forehead. Etym: pádà (9,11).

 $\mathbf{b}\hat{\mathbf{e}} = pro$. 8subject

bè *num.* two (when counting in

isolation).

bé *n.* potter's kiln.

bé *Pl:* **mòmpé** [mèmpé]. *n.* 9/6. 1. pit.

2. latrine, toilet, bathing place.

3. thicket.

bé *pro.* you (pl).

bèb v. belch.

bèd *Pl:* **mòmpèd**. *n.* 9/6. chest.

béd n. ladder.

bèdà [bèrà] *adj*. big, important.

bèn *n.* extended paternal family. *Etym:*

*bánjá 'family.'

bén [bɨn] v. lift.

bèncìmbè *n.* army.

bènjὲ ν. answer, reply.

béŋ mbáál v. track. *Lit.* follow traces.

bêr v. put, place, set. *Etym:* caus of bar?

*béek 'put.' bèn v. follow. **bèz** v. slaughter, kill (animal for bəjûm Pl: məjûm. n. gall bladder. butchering). bèlê n. bread. bìzá pro. us. **bèmb lwál** *n.* scorpion. bìzá pro. we. bàn v. refuse. bìzá pro. we (inclusive). bángô Pl: bàbángô. n. 7/8. jaw. Etym: bìzá pro. us (inclusive). *bángá. bìzó pro. we (exclusive). bànkòl bá mîz n. eyebrow. bὲ v. cultivate, sow, plant. bàtàbà v. land, alight. bὲ adj. wrong. bì v. startle, surprise. bê Pl: mòbê. n. 9/6. door. -bî Pl: mòbî. n. excrement. [Note: no **bêb** *n*. scaffolding. singular] Etym: *bîì. bî **bêb** v. wound (animal). v. knead. bî mớ mpônj v. clap (hands). bèè num. second (ordinal number). bèlà v. imitate, resemble. Nominalization: bìgòlò v. enter. mpèlá (9) 'imitation.' bìì v. receive. bèmb v. worry. **bììl** v. 1. seize. 2. trap (animal or fish).

bììló v. catch in the act.

bìlà n. sad news.

bílà n. club, cudgel.

bìnd Sg èbìnd. Pl: mòbìnd. n. 5/6.

testicle.

bír v. leave to one side.

bísìn Pl: bòbísìn. n. 1/2. pot (for water).

bíyà n. beer.

bíyà v. (be) defeated, (be) seized. Passive

of biil 'seize, trap'

bìyèz n. disrespect.

bíyóŋ *pro.* you (pl) emphatic.

bízábá v. (be) patient.

bò v. be. Alt. bà. Etym: *bá.

bóg *n.* reception.

bógà v. separate (intr), become separated.

-bôl Sg: lèbôl. Pl: mòbôl. n. 5/6. breast,

udder. *Etym:* *béèdè (5) 'teat, breast, udder.'

bòl Pl: mèbòl. n. cola nut.

bóŋ n. 7/8. there, place.

bòn məsun Pl: bèbòn məsun. n. 7/8.

cemetery. Lit. place grave.

bòg Pl: bèbòg. n. 7/8. lip.

bšl *n*. bald.

-bɔ́m Sg èbɔ́m. Pl: mòbɔ́m. n. 5/6. plank.

(Begne has long vowel.)

bòòg Pl: mòmpòòg [mòmpòòg]. n. 9/6.
hoe. Etym: *bògà.

bóŋ *Pl:* bòbóŋ. *n.* 1/2. agama lizard (redheaded).

brík *n.* mud block. *Etym:* borrowing from English.

bù ν. (be) abundant, many.

-bù Sg èbù n. 5. roof, thatch. (no plural)

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-bùrà

-bùb

-bùb Sg: lèbùb. Pl: mèbùb. n. 5/6. spider.

Etym: *bòbè (5).

bùbò v. roast.

bùbù *n.* many. [Note: only postverbal as

the object of a preposition]

bùbûl *n*. crown (of head).

bùg Pl: mòbùg. n. pipe-stem.

búg v. break (tr). Nominalization: mpúgá

(9) 'fracture.'

búg bwàz n. clod. Lit. break dirt.

-bûg Sg: èbûg. Pl: mòbûg. n. 5/6. waist,

hip.

bùgò v. accuse. [Note: implied that the

one accused is innocent.]

Nominalization: mbúgè (1) 'accuser,'

mpúgágá (1) accusation.

búgòlà v. believe, hope.

bûgèlà n. praise.

búgó n. faith, hope.

bùgùbà v. prosper. [Note: Numerous

descendants]

bùgùbà Pl: mòbùgùbà. n. 9/6. honor.

bùl Pl: bàbùl. n. rotten thing.

bùlò v. mumble.

bùlù adv. many, a lot. Etym: *bùd

'become plentiful or numerous.'

bùmó *Pl:* **bòbùmó**. *n.* 1/2. ball, sports.

bùmó *Pl:* mpùmó. n. 7/10. fruit.

bùmó fwén Pl: mpùmó fwén. n. 7/10.

kernel (of corn, maize) Lit. fruit corn.

bùmó Pl: mèbùmó. n. 9/6. knot.

bùmbòlà v. get up.

bùŋ *n. 7/8.* place (specific).

bûr *v*. bubble up, boil (water).

-bùrà Sg: èbùrà. Pl: mòbùra. n. 5/6.

búrà bwámà

sweet potato.

búrà v. mix.

bûtèbà v. incubate, set on eggs.

-bùùg Sg: lèbùùg. Pl: mòbùùg. n. 5/6. melon.

búúmb *Pl:* **mpúúmb**. *n*. 7/10. branch, frond.

bùùnd *Pl:* **mpùùnd**. *n.* 7/10. skin (of fruit), shell.

bùùnd éké *Pl:***bìbùùnd móké**. *n. 7/8*. eggshell.

bùùnd éwùnd Pl: mpùùnd éwùnd. n.

7/10. shell (of groundnut). Lit: 'shell
peanut.'

bùùnd kûl Pl: bèbùùnd bókûl. n. 7/8. shell (of turtle). Lit: 'shell turtle.'

bûzələ v. cover.

-bwà Sg èbwà. Pl: mòbwà. n. 5/6. sole.

èbwà nó kù. sole of foot

bwàànd v. create, found.

bwáánd v. wait. Nominalization: mpwěnd

(9) 'delay,' mpwénd 'patience'

(Begne).

bwâd [bwâr] v. wear clothes. Causative **bwêd** 'to clothe' (Begne)

bwâg ν. be big. Nominalization: mpwààg(9) 'fatness' (Begne).

bwàgbwàg *adj.* big. *Etym:* reduplicated form of the verb 'to be big'.

bwàgèbè v. lie down. [Note: related to mpwág (9) 'bed, couchette?']

bwàgòlà v. explain.

bwàl v. dance. Nominalization: mbwòl
(1) 'dancer.'

bwàm v. hoe.

bwámà v. meet. Nominalization:

mpwàmá (9) 'meeting.'

bwàmb *n.* senile person.

bwàmb Pl: bòbwàmb. n. 1/2. adult.

bwàmbà ν. follow (in time).

Nominalization: mpwàmbá (9)

'descendant.'

bwànd v. peel.

bwàŋ Pl: mèbwàŋ. n. 3/4. knuckle,

joint. [Note: same word used for

'wrist.']

bwàn lékù n. ankle. Lit: 'joint of foot'.

bwárá *Pl:* **bèbwárá**. *n.* 7/8. blessing.

bwàz Pl: bèbwàz. n. 7/8. dirt, soil.

bwâz ν. be wet.

bwè *adv.* for a long time.

bwèg v. bring up (a child).

bwèlà v. take revenge. Nominalization:

mpwélá (9) 'debt' (Begne)?

bwéyá *adv.* everywhere.

bwà pro. them.

bwîg v. keep for.

bwîg *n.* ditch.

bwò *Pl:* **mobwò.** *n.* 5/6. footprint

(human).

bwò *pro.* 10Subject

bwó *pro*. they.

bwó *TAM*. Distant future (F2).

bwóŋ *n. 5.* knee.

bwž *n.* brain.

-bwóm Sg èbwóm n. 5/6. log. (Alt. form

of èbóm 'plank'?)

bwôbòlò v. feel (active).

bwòg Pl: mòmpwòg [mèmpwòg]. n. 9/6.

mortar.

bwàg

cààg

bwòg ν . harvest, collect (honey from

hive). Etym: *pákù (9) 'honey.'

bwóg Pl: mèbwóg. n. heap.

bwòg ébyâ n. womb.

bwòm v. ring (bell).

bwòmb v. beat (drum).

bwòmb bósôg Pl: mòbwòmb bósôg. n.

termite hill.

bwòmbòlò v. bark (as dog).

Nominalization: related to mpwəmilə

(9) 'bark of dog.'

bwúnð *v*. believe. *Etym:* borrowed from

Bulu.

byâ v. bear (child), father (child). *Etym:*

*bíad.

byé pro. 8emphatic.

byèg v. injure, incite.

byêl v. (be) born.

byèz v. despise.

byènd Pl: mèbyènd. n. hawk.

byà pro. 8object

byáŋ *n.* bone marrow.

byíŋgəlè adv. all over.

byód *n.* fullness, packed (populous)

by3l *Pl:* **m3l**. *n*. canoe.

C - c

cà adv. now.

cààg v. shape, carve. [Note: Also used to

mean 'make (something)', 'compose

(song), 'light (flame, fire), 'start

(car).']

càl v. fell, cut down (tree). Etym: *tàd 'cut open.'

càz ndî v. wink (eye).

cè v. cut. Etym: *tèet 'cut.'

cè júŋ v. 1. be unconscious. 2. faint.

-cè Sg: ècè. n. 5. 1. illness, disease. 2.
pain. Alt. Class 7 for some speakers.
tyè, cìè.

cè élwî n. earache.

cè léjò n. toothache.

cè lû *n*. headache.

cè mwò n. stomachache, upset stomach.

cě v. give pain, hurt.

cênd Alt. [cɨnd] v. 1. exchange (of goods).

2. alter, change. 3. replace. [Note:

borrowed from English]

cénd [**c**índ] *n*. other.side.of.river.

cèl n. love. Etym: nominalization of cèlà 'love.'

cèl mpóŋ v. make (facial) incisions, tattoo.

cèlà v. love. Nominalization: cèl (7) 'love.'

cì v. abstain. Etym: *gìd 'abstain from.'

cì Pl: bòcì [bècì]. n. 7/8. taboo thing.

Etym: *gìdò 'religious avoidance.'

-cì Pl: mòcì [mècì]. n. 6. blood. Etym:

*gìdá 'blood.'

cì Pl: bòcì [bècì]. n. 1/2. in-law. [Note:

used for father-in-law, mother-in-law,

sister-in-law and brother-in-law]

cícî adj. (be) silent.

cíè n. feelings.

cìg *n. 7.* life.

cig v. cut. [Note: could be used in the sense of 'cut across, take a shortcut']

cúŋ

cìgà n. saw. Etym: Nominalization of cìg

'cut.'

cìgà

cígá n. 7. question. Etym: Nominalization

of cígò 'decide, judge.'

cìgò v. live, (be) alive.

cígòlò v. cut (tr), slice. Etym: Derived from cìg 'cut, cut across.'

cígó Pl: mècígó. n. 3/4. division.

cígò v. decide, judge. Etym: Derived from cìg 'cut, cut across?'

cìl éké v. lay (eggs).

cîl Pl: mòcîl. n. piece.

cìlà \hat{y} $\hat{$

cîləbə v. run. Etym: Derived from cílə 'be fast.'

cíló adv. quickly.

cíló v. be fast.

cíndò n. high.

cípò n. hare.

cìŋgəlà v. go round.

cógázó Pl: màcógázó. n. smell of urine.

còn n. unwanted, unexpected thing.

cóŋ *Pl:* **mòcóŋ** [məcóŋ]. *n. 9/6.* neck.

Etym: *kíngó (9) 'neck.'

-cônj Sg: ècônj. Pl: mòcônj [mòcônj]. n.

5/6. broom.

cóŋ v. agree.

cóŋ Pl: mècóŋ. n. command.

còòl Pl: bòcòòl [bècòòl]. n. 1/2. partridge.

cúŋ *Pl:* **mòcúŋ** [mècúŋ]. *n.* 9/6. voice.

dà

D - d

dà v. draw water.

dá Pl. bòdá. n. 1/2. father, ancestor.

[Note: great-grandparents and further back are dá, but this may also be used as an honorific for grandfather or other.]

dá mpám *Pl:* bòdá bómpám. *n.* 1/2. grandfather.

dá lé kwàrà *n.* embers. *Lit:* 'father in flame?'.

dààg Pl: mààg. n. 5/6. crab.

dàl v. hurt. Nominalization: ndòl 'pain'.

dàŋ n. herd. dàŋ bétɔ́ɔ̀b herd of goats,
herd of goats. Etym: *tàngá 'cattle
pen, cattle post' (5).

n. reeds. [Note: includes all plants
that grow in or under water (as long
as they are rooted under the water).

Contrasts with floating water plants
èsûŋ.]

dâz *n.* gift. *Etym:* borrowed from Ewondo.

dêg v. see.

dèl v. bury. Nominalization: ndèlá (9)
'burial.'

dèná conj. like, as.

déndé [díndé] *n*. courtyard.

dèz Alt. [dìz] v. 1. capsize. 2. drown or almost drown.

dènà Pl: bòdènà. n. bucket, pail.

dì ν. remain, stay. Etym: *jìkád 'dwell,

dì mpúdá

sit, stay.'

dì mpúdá v. cohabit (unmarried man and woman). *Lit.* stay together

dì sí v. sit. Lit. stay ground

dìb v. open (door).

dìbólê v. stop up. Etym: *dìb 'stop up.'

-díbó *Pl:* **mòdíbó**. *n*. 6. water. *Etym:* *dìbà (5).

dìg *n. 7/8.* bush country, rural area.

dìgèbè v. perspire, sweat.

dil v. dwell, inhabit, make stay. Causative

of dì 'stay.' Nominalization: ndìl (1)

'dweller.'

dílô n. fullness.

dîm v. disappear.

dîmb v. be lost. Etym: *dímb.

dímbələ v. lose (tr).

dìnò v. stamp (with feet).

dínò *Pl:* **mínò**. *Alt.* [jínò]. *n. 5/6*. name. *Etym:* *jínà (5).

dìà Alt. [dìyà, dyà]. n. 7/8. seat, chair,place, stool. Etym: nominalization ofdì 'stay.'

dîz Pl: mîz. n. 5/6. eye.

dò v. eat. Etym: *dé 'eat.'

dòb *Pl:* **bèdòb**. *n. 7/8*. food.

-dò Pl: mòdò. n. 6. bait. Etym: from dò 'eat.'

dòg Pl: mòg. n. 5/6. nest.

dόgbó *Pl*: **mógbó**. *n.5/6*. headpad.

dòmb Pl: mòmb. n. 5/6. war.

dôz *Pl:* **môz.** *n.* 5/6. chin, jaw. *Etym:* *dèdù (7,9,11).

dù Pl: mòdù. n. 5/6. leg, thigh. Etym:

*gòdò 'leg' (15/6).

dû *Pl:* **mû**. *n.* 5/6. nose. *Etym:* *jódò (5) 'nose.'

dù kwàrà Pl: mù mó kwàrà. n. 5/6. fireplace. Lit. nose flame.

dùb v. fish with hook and line. *Etym:* *dób.

dùb v. paint.

dùg Pl: mùg. n. 5/6. hornbill.

dùg n. 7/8. forest.

dúgò v. paddle. Etym: *dúg.

dùlà v. pull. Etym: *dùt 'pull, drag.'

dùlò v. smoke (tobacco).

dùlà v. hollow out (log).

dùmà v. fall forward (intr). [Note: must

be touching ground initially and then

fall down/fall forward]

dùmà cóŋ v. persuade.

dúmb *n*. dance. [Note: dance involving singing and loud cries of joy]

dùmò v. 1. pound. 2. thresh, beat (grain).

-dùmò Sg èdùmò. Pl: bèdùmò. n. 7/8. tip (of something), edge.

dúm5 *Pl*: **múm5**. *n*. 5/6. silk-cotton tree, kapok tree.

dǔnj *Pl:* **mǔnj**. *n.* 5/6. fist. [Note: may also refer to a minority, or a handful]

dùŋ Pl: bèdùŋ. n. 7/8. noise, sound.

dúŋɔ̀ *Pl:* **múŋɔ̀.** *n.* 5/6. pelican.

dúúg Pl: **múúg**. n. 5/6. beak, bill. Etym: *dongo (3).

dúúlà ν. make trips back and forth.

dwábèrà Pl: bòdwábèrà. n. 1/2. nurse.

dwâg *v*. leave, stop.

dwàl Pl: mwàl. n.5/6. tumor, abscess,

dwál ètûg cínd

boil. Etym: *tùut 'swell (v).' **dwèb** n. sun.

dwál *n.* nape of neck. **dwó** *pro.* 5emphatic.

dwâng Pl: bèdwâng. n. 1/2. giraffe. dwôb Pl: mób. n. 5/6. day. dwób dêz

Etym: *tòìgà 'giraffe' (9). 'always.' Lit: 'day each/all'

dwè pro. 5emphatic.

èkíbà thank you. Alt. àkíbà.

E - e

-é gen. his/her. èmínjílá n. bladder.

 $\acute{\mathbf{e}} = TAM. \text{ Recent past (P1)}.$ - $\acute{\mathbf{e}}$ n [$\acute{\mathbf{n}}$] $\emph{gen.} \text{ your (pl)}.$

é= TAM. Future (FUT). éŋkùgù adv. together.

= è mkr. Relative clause (RELCL). ètûg cínd n. lake.

èbù num. nine (9). Etym: *bùá 'nine.' -**éz** Alt. [íz] gen. 'our' (exclusive)

èkálò kwòŋ n. spinal column. -ézà Alt. [ízà] gen. 'our' (inclusive)

ε

-è mí půl Pl: myè mé půl [myè mí půl].

singular]

n. 4. hair (of body). [Note: no

-ên Sg: mwên. n. 1. brother. [Note:

singular]

vocative form?]

-è mớtíd Pl: myè mé tíd [myè mó tíd]. n.

-êz quant. each, all.

4. fur. Lit. hair of animal. [Note: no

Ð

è é
yes.

F - f

fà Pl: bòfà. n. machete, cutlass.

-fàb Sg: lèfàb. Pl: mòfàb. n. 5/6. pigeon.

få mkr. Hortative (HORT), should.

Etym: *pómpó (7,9).

fâ bólùl Pl: bòfâ bólùl. n. 1/2. louse.

fábèlò v. greet (with the hand).

fààg v. admire.

fág n. 9. side. Etym: related to fágórá

fâg

fímó

between.

fâg v. be in love.

fágórá Pl: mpágórá . conj. between.

[Note: some dialects use only the old singular while other dialects use only the old plural - no longer strong distinction between 'between 2 people' and 'between many people.']

Etym: derived from fág 'side.'

fámò adj. true, real, good.

fàmb Pl: bèfàmb. n. 7/8. farm, fields.

fànd n. moonlight.

fárèbè v. (be) closed in. [Note: Possible to

be undone - set free, unlocked,

opened, etc]

fàz *v.* revive.

fâz v. germinate, sprout.

fé *n.* muscle.

fég n. 9. pocket.

fèndà v. be, put in rivalry with.

fèndá n. 3. rivalry.

fèr v. ferment (alcohol).

fèr v. close, shut.

fém *n. 9.* lime, whitewash, paint.

fèndé *Pl:* **bòfèndè**. *n.* 1/2. braider. *Etym:* nominalization of **fènd** 'braid.'

féndò v. paint.

fêz v. pick (tr), choose (tr).

fòfà *Pl*: **bòfòfà**. *n*. fish-scale.

fòfèm Pl: bòfòfèm. n. wall.

fànd v. plait, braid (hair). Nominalization:

fèndé (1) 'braider,' fònd (9) 'braid.'

-fì Pl: bèfì. n. 8. ashes.

Etym: *pènd.

fímó Pl: bòfímó. n. abscess.

fínà v. hiss.

fînj *Pl:* **bòfînj**. *n*. 1/2. cockroach. *Etym:* *pénjù (9).

fíyò n. 1. avocado.

fòg Pl: mòfòg. n. 9/6. wisdom.

fóg *num.* one (when counting in isolation).

fònd *Pl:* **mòfònd**. *n.* 9/6. braid. *Etym:* nominalization of **fònd** 'braid'.

fòz n. clitoris.

fðb Pl: mðfðb. n. fish bone. Etym: *kúpà

fôbèlò v. caress.

(5)?.

fón *n.* wound, sore. *Etym:* *pótá (7,9).

fóóg Pl: mòfóóg. n. 9/6. track (animal).

fòrègò Pl: mèfòrègò. n. hoof.

fû Pl: bòfû. n. 1/2. mouse. Etym: *pókò

(1,5,9).

fúbán adj. (be) clean.

fùbó *n. 7.* 1. wind. 2. air (breathed).

Etym: *pùùpà (9).

fùbòlò v. blow.

fùbòlò kwòm v. work the bellows.

fúg v. be numerous.

fûgèlò v. ruminate, chew cud.

fùlàsí n. French.

fùlò v. knead.

fúlú n. 9. habits.

fùm *n. 3.* night. *Etym:* *pempa.

fúm *n*. calf of leg.

fùmb v. unroot.

fûmb v. harvest, dig up (yams).

fùmbà n. dead tree.

fùmbí Pl: bèfùmbí. n. 7/8. orange.

fùmbí kàbàlá n. grapefruit. *Lit.* orange

fyàb v. winnow. Etym: *pép.

horse.

fùnd Pl: bàfùnd. n. 7/8. calabash.

fǔnd díbó Pl: bèfǔnd módíbó. n. 7/8.

river bank.

fúndò v. run away, flee. [Note: in context

may mean 'fear,' since fear is usually

implicit in situations that cause one to

flee]

fùdò [fùrò] v. die.

fùwúlù Pl: mòfùwúlù. n. hat.

fwálá v. waste time.

fwárà n. photo.

fwêg v. move (intr).

fwén Pl: bèfwén. n. 7/8. maize, corn.

[Note: word originally collected was then said (by diff LC) to be 'chicken wing']

fyàb Pl: bèfyàb. n. 7/8. shoulder blade.

fyábòlà Pl: bèfyábòlà. n. 7/8. fan.

fyàl n. test, exam.

fyâl *v.* test, examine.

fyâl v. bleed.

fyálà v. come (or go) out, exit.

fyáŋ Pl: bèfyáŋ. n. soup, broth. (9/6 in

Begne).

fyê v. suck. Etym: *píp.

fyêz v. mistrust, neglect.

jàànd

=g

G - g

 $= \mathbf{g}$ *mkr.* Subjunctive (SUBJ).

gólòd n. gold.

= **gá** *mkr*. Subyunctive (pl).

gyòndô Pl: bògyòndô. n. catfish.

gó TAM. PROG.

I - i

icà n. salt. [Note: only pl?] Etym: *jango

ìcóŋ Pl: ìcóŋ. n. bile, gall. [Note: only pl?]

'bile, salt.'

Etym: *jango 'bile, salt.'

J - j

 $\mathbf{j} = pro.$ 7Subject.

j**â sí** v. lie down.

jà v. (be) long, far

já kám n. palate.

j**ă** adv. far

jàànd v. toddle, totter. [Note: walking as

já v. sleep. Etym: *dáad.

done by toddlers and the

convalescent]

jáánjé n. thirst.

head).

jàb ν. sharpen. Etym: *dupek. jàbébáág. sharpen (knife). jàb ékwàŋ.sharpen, bring to point (arrow's

jáb v. call (someone). Etym: *támb

jág ν. (be) unaware of.

jâg v. castrate.

'call.'

 $j\acute{a}g\grave{b}\grave{b}$ v. lean against (intr).

jágòlà v. pray, ask.

jágòlò v. receive.

jàkâz Pl: bèjàkâz. n. 7/8. donkey, mule.

Etym. borrowed from English.

jàkóló *Pl:* **mòjàkóló**. n. 9/6. thorn. (5/6

in Begne)

jâl v. lick. Etym: *dèet.

jàlà v. befit, suit.

jàlànà v. must. Etym: derived from jàlà

'befit, suit'?

witchcraft.

-jàm Sg èjàm. Pl: mòjàm. n. 5/6.

jâmb v. prepare (food to cook). *Etym:*

jámbèlà v. conceive.

*dámb.

jánà ν. pay (for goods, services, etc.).

jând v. step on.

jàndò v. hello, welcome.

jàndəlà n. floor.

'slip.'

jàndəlà v. slip. Alt. sàndəlà. Etym: *cèd

-jáŋ *Pl:* **bèjáŋ** [bìjáŋ]. *n. 7/8*. lie

(falsehood). Etym: *dóng 'suggest.'

jâŋ v. fry.

jè pro. what?

jé n. place, stead.

jê v. arrive.

jê lớnùn *Pl:* **mòjê mónùn**. *n*. flock (of birds).

jènj v. spill (moving to and from).

jênj v. spread (disease, fire). *Etym:**tànd 'spread.'

jémb n. time.

jέnà ν. (be) generous.

jὲnd ν. slither (snake).

j**ðjé** *prep.* up to. *Etym:* redup. form of **jê** 'arrive'.

jì v. be (att). Etym: *dè 'be.'

 \mathbf{j} í v. ask (for information). *Etym:* *jípòd

'ask questions.'

jí v. need, want.

jíbò n. 9. theft. Etym: nominalization of

jíbò 'steal.'

jíbò Alt. [jíbè]. v. steal. Nominalization:jíbò (9) 'theft,' jíbèlè (1) 'thief.'Etym: *jíb.

jíbòlè *Pl:* **bòjíbòlè** *n.* 1/2. thief. *Etym:* nominalization of **jíbò** 'steal.'

jîg v. learn.

-jígé *Sg:* **lèjígé**. *Pl:* **mòjígé**. *n.* 5/6. lesson, learning.

jígòlè v. teach. *Etym:* Derived from **jîg** 'learn.'

jîgələ mbwə v. wave (hand as a greeting).

jìì v. cry, weep, wail. Etym: *dèd.

jìjâg Pl: bèjìjâg [bìjìjâk]. n. 7/8. gecko.

jîl ν. fly.

jîl cígò Pl: bòjîl cígò [bèjîl cígò]. n. owl.

jínà v. hesitate.

-jìnó

-jûm

-jìnó Sg èjìnó. Pl: mòjìnó. n. 5/6. pus.

(Begne has alt. èyíné)

jìtíl kù n. cripple.

jízèbè ν. put up with.

jò v. climb. [Note: as in a ladder, a tree, gripping with hands]

jò Pl: mòjò. n. 9/6. tooth.

jòb Pl: mòjòb. n. 9/6. shea-butter tree.

-jòb Pl: mòjòb. n. 6. shea-nuts.

jòg n. plan.

jòl n. 9. beard. Etym: *dèdù (7,9,11).

jòm v. wake up (intr). Etym: *dàmok.

jôm *Pl:* **bèjôm** [bìjôm]. *n. 7/8.* tongue.

Etym: *démì (11).

jônè adv. in spite of.

jòŋ *n*. thing. [Note: less commonly used than **sâ.**]

jò Pl: məjɔ. n. fang (of snake). Etym: from jò 'teeth' or mis-spelled?.

jômbòlò lómbwò v. (be) pregnant. *Lit*: shaped in bowstring

jò ŋkûl ν. allow, permit.

jû n. nausea.

jû v. vomit. Etym: *dók.

jû v. kill, murder.

jû lóbâ v. divorce. Lit: 'kill marriage'.

jùg v. suffer. Etym: *còng 'suffer.'

júkóbó n. shadow. Etym: *dúdé (3).

jûl Pl: mûl. n. 5/6. baby sling.

jùlò v. bake (in ashes).

jùlò v. weed.

júló Pl: múló. n. 5/6. den, lair.

-jûm *Pl:* **mòjûm** [mèjûm]. *n. 6.* semen.

[Note: no singular]

júmbúlú jwà

júmbúlú Pl: mèjúmbúlú [mìjúmbúlú]. jwábèrà v. tangle.

n. 3/4. request. jwâbò v. respect, fear. [Note: stronger

júnà ν. fight. than **kándèbè**]

júná Pl: bèjúná. n. 7/8. fight. jwàg v. poison (a person).

jùndó n. fog. jwâgèlo v. polish.

júŋ Pl: bèjúŋ. n. 7/8. party. jwàlà Pl: bèjwàla [bìjwàla]. n. banana.

jûŋ v. honor. jwâm v. beg (for money).

júŋ ŋkûl Pl: bòjúŋ ŋkûl [bèjúŋ ŋkûl]. n. jwàmà n. quarrel.

1/2. chameleon. jwámb n. fistfight. [Note: only involves 2

júŋà adj. (be) hot (of person). Etym: people, chest-to-chest]

*tòkot 'be hot, sweat.' **jwâmb** v. ask, request something

jùzà v. 1. wash. 2. bathe. Etym: *còk jwèm v. become old (age).

'wash.' **jwé** *pro.* 7emphatic.

jùzà bèʃúwá v. wash dishes.

jwò Pl: bèjwò [bèjwò]. n. 7/8.

jùzà mèkánd ν. wash clothes.

mushroom. Etym: *jògà (14) 'fungus

júzê mán adv. day after tomorrow. (edible).'

jwàb Pl: bòjwàb [bèjwàb]. n. civet cat. jwè pro. 7object

jwî

jwòŋ

jwî v. rule over, dominate.

Nominalization: jwî (7) 'boss, employer,' njwî (3) 'chief, ruler.'

jwî *n. 7/8.* boss. *Etym:* nominalization of **jwî** 'rule over.'

jwîlg n. reputable person. [Note: someone who is well-known for doing good/being good, well-known good reputation]

jwíílà v. kill.

jwìl v. be in charge.

jwìmbá v. have fun.

jwimba v. (be) happy, joyful.

Nominalization: mèjwímbà (4) 'joy.'

-jwímbà Pl: mèjwímbà. n. 4. joy. [Note:

no singular] Etym: nominalizatino of jwímbà 'be happy, joyful.'

jwò v. laugh. Etym: *jòd 'laugh.'

jwò n. sleep. Etym: *dɔ.

jwó *Pl:* **bèjwó** [bìjwó]. *n. 7/8.* shoot.

jwób n. 1.sky. 2. heavens. 3. above.

jwòg n. 9. poison. Etym: *cóngó (14)

'poison.'

jwôg v. hear, feel, listen, understand. Alt.jwág.

jwógèbà v. apply (ointment), besmear.

jwógòrà v. feel (passive of 'hear').

jwòŋ Pl: mòjwòŋ. n. 9/6. bed. Alt. njwòŋ.

K - k

kà TAM. Consecutive (CONS).

ká bò *conj.* Perhaps, maybe. *Lit.* consective be.

ká Pl: bèká. n. 7/8. 1. grass, leaf. 2. vegetable. Etym: *gango 'grass.'

ká fwén Pl: bòká fwén. n. corn husk. Lit:
'leaf corn'.

ká n. place (nonspecific).

-kâ Pl: bèkâ. n. 8. rubbish, garbage.

kààn Pl: mèkààn. n. 3/4. story (tale).

Etym: *gànò (9,11)

kàb v. succeed.

kàb v. share.

kàb adj. (be) innocent.

kâb ν. jump. Etym: *càmb 'leap over.'

kàbà v. mount (horse, camel).

kàbàlá Pl: bèkàbàlá. n. 7/8. horse.

mwâ kàbàlá Pl: bwâ kàbàlá. n. 1/2.

colt. Lit: 'small horse'. myɔ́l kàbàlá.

Pl: məmyɔ́l mə́kàbàlá. n. 3/4. mare

(horse). Lit: 'female horse'. njúm

kàbàlá Pl: mènjúm mə́kàbàlá. n.

3/4. stallion. Lit: 'male horse'.

kàbòlà v. share. Etym: Derived from kàb 'share.'

kábòrà v. straddle.

kàg *n.* nasty taste in your mouth when you wake up in the morning.

kág Pl: bèkág. n. 7/8. child.

kâg v. fasten, bind (load), pack.

kàgàlà v. taste.

kágòlò v. joke.

kâgèlò v. embrace, hug.

kàgàrà v. coagulate, clot. Etym: *kác 'coagulate.'

kàl Pl: bòkòlò. n. 1/2. loader. Etym:
nominalization of kálò 'load.'

-kál Sg: èkál. Pl: mòkál. n. 5/6. spot, speckle.

kâl v. hatch.

kàlà Pl: bèkàlà. n. 7/8. mat.

kálà Pl: bèkálà n. 7/8. goat.

kálàr Pl: bèkálàr. n. 7/8. book.

kálò v. load. Nominalizations: kàl (1)

'loader,' bòkòlò (2) 'loaders.'

kǎló Pl: mèkǎló. n. 3/4. root.

kăló dû n. bridge (of nose).

kâm *Pl:* **bòkâm**. *n*. 1/2. monkey. *Etym:* *kémà.

kâm v. praise (someone).

kàmbègè n. traditional funeral dance.

kàmbèlò v. forbid, prevent, protect.

-kán Sg lèkán. Pl: mòkán. n. 5/6. antelope.

kánd Pl: bèkánd. n. 7/8. cloth. Etym:

*kándà (7) 'cloth.'

kánd Pl: mèkánd. n. 3/4. clothes.

kándèbè v. respect, fear.

kândèbò v. avoid.

kàndê n. strap.

kàŋ v. fight en masse. Nominalization:
kéŋè (1) 'fighter.'

kâŋ Pl: mèkâŋ. n. 3/4. guinea fowl.

kâŋ v. grow (of plants).

kàr Pl: bəkar. n. basket.

kàr v. serve (food).

káyàŋ Pl: káyàŋ. n. pineapple.

kâz v. (be) shrivelled, (be) wrinkled, get thin.

ké *mkr.* Negative (NEG).

-ké Sg: èké. Pl: mòké. n. egg. Etym: *gé
'egg.'

-ké m $\partial \hat{u}$. Pl.. m $\partial \hat{u}$. n. 6. pimple.

[Note: no singular]

kèg v. organize, plan.

kèkènà Pl: bèkèkènà. n. 7/8. story, proverb.

kèn [kìn] v. go in a specific direction.

[Note: implies some duration to the 'going']

kèné v. tell story. Etym: related to kèkènà 'story, proverb.' *gàn 'tell

story.'

kènd v. assign, send.

kéŋ Pl: bèkéŋ [bèkéŋ]. n. 7/8. baby.

kèŋ mpúŋɔ̀ v. cut (hair), shave. Etym:
*kék 'cut.'

kèèlà v. add. Etym: related to the conjunction kèl 'plus.'

kèg v. promise.

kèl conj. plus.

kêm v. scream, cry out. Etym: *kém.

kèmb v. defend.

kéŋè Pl: bòkéŋè. n. 1/2. fighters. [Note:

most often used in the plural] Etym:

nominalization of kàŋ 'fight en

masse.'

kòg v. try, taste. Etym: *gèd 'try.'

k**áká** Pl: bòkáká. n. 1/2. spark. Etym: *cácè 'spark.'

kákág n. 7/8. small child. *Lit*: 'redup.

child'.

kômb v. squeak.

kísìn *n.* 1/2. kitchen.

kìlkámbá n. big bamboo bed.

klì∫é n. x-ray.

kò v. go. Etym: *gì 'go.'

kò nò v. bring, carry. Etym: go with.

-kòg Sg: èkòg. Pl: mòkòg. n. cheek.

Etym: *càjá 'cheek.'

-kóg Sg. lèkóg. Pl. mòkóg. n. 5/6.

mountain.

kóg n. here (generic.).

kól *n*. Bikele language.

kól v. hang up.

kól *n. 5.* voice.

kól Pl: bòkól. n. 1/2. sister. [Note:

opposite sex of ego (sister of a brother)]

kól á twámbá n. elder sister.

kól á ntòmb *n*. younger sister.

kôl *n.* cord.

kómb *n.* side, place. *Etym:* *kɔmbɛ.

-kònòkò Sg èkònòkò. Pl: bèkònòkò. n. 5/8. truth.

kòŋ Pl: bèkòŋ. n. 7/8. razor.

kòŋ Pl: mòkòŋ. n. 9/6. cooking pot

(earthenware). Etym: *jòngó (9)

'cooking pot.'

kòr *n.* 3. decision. *Etym:* from 'court' (as in judicial) borrowed from English.

kôg Pl: mèkôg. n. baboon.

-kôg Sg: èkôg. Pl: mòkôg. n. 5/6. cattle

pen. Etym: from kâg meaning 'to

fasten'.

kògèló kwòŋ

kògèló kwòŋ n. spine, backbone.

kòl Pl: bàkòl. n. winnow.

-kɔ̃l Pl: mòkɔ̃l. n. 6. news, announcement.

kòmb étán Pl: mòkòmb. n. guava.

káŋ n. 3. wisdom, intelligence.

kù Pl: mòkù. n. 9/6. foot.

 $\mathbf{k}\dot{\mathbf{u}}$ v. 1. fail. 2. be guilty.

kú *n.* hit.

kûb v. move (something).

kùbě n. 7/8. bow.

kùbòlà v. move. Etym: borrowed from

Badwe'e.

kùbò v. move (intr).

kúbò Pl: bòkúbò. n. 1/2. chicken. Etym:

*kúbà. mwâ kúbò Pl: bwâ kúbò. n.

chick. Etym: small chicken. myśl

kúbò Pl: mèmyól mé kúbò. n. 3/4.

hen. *Lit:* 'female chicken'. **njúm kúbò** *Pl:* **mònjúm mókúbò**. *n. 3/4*. rooster

(cock). *Lit:* 'male chicken'.

kúkúbè

kûd mớ bwớŋ v. kneel.

kúdà n. 7/8. fist.

-kúdó Sg: lèkúdó. Pl: mòkúdó. n. 5/6.

palm tree. Etym: *kèndó (3) 'palm

tree.'

kúdó n. drizzle.

kúg Pl: mòkúg. n. 9/6. grinding stone.

(5/6 in Begne)

kùgé *n. 3/4.* base of tree trunk.

kúgèbò v. 1. bend down, stoop. 2. bow (as in greeting).

kùgú n. 3. 1. evening. 2. yesterday.

kùgú àbè n. day before yesterday.

kùgú sí n. sunset. Lit. evening ground

kúkúbò v. stutter.

kúkúm kùndá

kúkúm Pl: mèkúkúm. n. 3/4. rich man.

hunchback.

kúkúmá Pl: mèkúkúmá. n. 3/4. chief,

kùlà *n.* generation.

headman.

kùlè Pl: mèkùlè. n. 3/4. string.

kùkúrù n. pap, mushy food.

kúlà *v.* provoke.

kúkwó lû n. skull.

kûlèbò v. limp, crawl.

kùl Sg: l**à**kùl. Pl: **bà**kùl. n. 5/8 or 7/8.

kùm Pl: bèkùm. n. 7/8. mosquito.

leftovers. [Note: sing can just be root]

kŭm Pl: bèkŭm. n. 7/8. stump.

kùl Pl: mòkùl. n. 3/4. 1. storm. 2.

kúmà Pl: mòkúma. n 9/6. cassava,

harmattan.

manioc. (5/6 in Begne)

kùl bítòòb Pl: mòkùl bítòòb. n. flock (of

kùmà v. 1. reach, arrive. 2. until.

sheep, goats).

kúmò n. peanuts. [Note: wùnd (7) is

kùl lớ bíntè Pl: mòkùl mó bíntè. n. herd

more commonly used.]

(of cattle).

-kùn Sg èkùn. Pl: mòkùn. n. 5/6.

kúl *n. 7.* outside my area.

garbage dump.

kúl *n.* 3/4. tam-tam.

kúnò adv. near.

kûl *Pl:* **bòkûl**. *n.* 1/2. tortoise, turtle.

kùndá Pl: bèkùndá. n. 7/8. cultivated

Etym: *kúdù (9).

ground.

-kûl Sg: èkûl. Pl: mòkûl. n. 5/6.

kùndè kwábèlà

kùndò *v.* get back at. [Note: eye for an eye vengeance; returning evil in the same manner]

-kúnj Sg: èkúnj. Pl: mòkúnj. n. 5/6. palm (of hand).

kùŋ Pl: mèkùŋ. n. 3/4. caterpillar. Etym:
*gòngó 'caterpillar.'

kúŋá v. go to the bathroom. [Note: polite euphemistic way to say 'defecate']

kúŋgèlà v. hurt (stomach).

 $\hat{\mathbf{kur}}$ v. fall from high. Etym: *gò 'to fall.'

kùrà v. 1. beat 2. palpitate (of heart). 3. play instrument.

kúrð *Pl:* **mòkúr**ð. *n. 9/6.* basket. (5/6 in Begne)

kúrègó ν. slander.

kùrò *v*. hit, strike (with hand).

kùùbò n. movement.

kúúg Pl: bòkúúg. n. 1/2. uncle.

-kúúg Sg: èkúúg. Pl: mòkúúg. n. 5/6. anvil.

kùùl Pl: mèkùùl. n. 3/4. rope.

kùùnd *Pl:* **mèkùùnd**. *n*. 3/4. barren woman.

kùùnd Pl: mèkùùnd. n. 3/4. tail. Etym:
*kídà (3) 'tail.'

kúúr Pl: bèkúúr. n. 7/8. 1. skin (of man).2. hide (of animal). Etym: *còobod 'skin.'

kùùz Pl: bòkùùz. n. 1/2. parrot. Etym:

*kòcò (9) 'parrot.'

kùzà v. sell.

kùzò v. buy. Etym: *gòd 'buy.'

kúzò Pl: mèkúzò. n. 3/4. widow, widower.

kwábèlà Pl: mòkwábèlà. n. 9/6.

obstacle, distress.

kwád [kwár, kwát] Pl: mòkwád. n. 9/6.

village.

kwàg v. grind.

kwàg n. plaster.

kwâg v. crow (as a rooster).

kwàlá Pl: bèkwàlá. n. 7/8. namesake.

kwálá bê Pl: bèkwálá mèbê. n.

doorway.

kwàlà v. snore.

kwàmòzà v. prepare.

-kwàmb Sg: lèkwàmb Pl: mòkwmb. n.

5/6. virgin forest.

kwàmbèlà v. create.

kwàn n. 9. honey.

kwán *n. 7.* meeting.

kwànd *Pl:* **bèkwànd**. *n.* 7/8. plantain.

Etym: *kòndè 'banana' (5).

-kwàŋ Sg: lèkwàŋ. Pl: mòkwàŋ. n. 5/6.

1. lance (spear). 2. head or shaft of

arrow.

kwár *n. 5.* bell.

kwàrà Pl: mòkwàrà. n. 9/6. 1. fire,

flame. 2. burn (n). (7/8 in Begne)

kwâzèbò v. (be) fast.

kwèb v. find.

kwég v. work, run. Etym: *céec 'run.'

kwèl v. borrow, lend. Nominalization:

kwèlá (7) 'debt.'

kwèlá Pl: bèkwèlá. n. 7/8. debt. Etym:

nominalization of kwèl 'borrow, lend.'

kwém *n. 7/8.* manioc leaves.

kwénd [kwínd] Pl: mèkwénd. n. 3/4.

hook.

kwênd *v.* make offerings to the dead.

kwênj v. assemble, meet. *Etym:* *càng

'assemble, meet.'

kwêŋ Pl: mèkwêŋ. n. fishhook.

kwéz [kwíz] *n. 7.* cough.

kwêz v. cough.

kwîg v. walk, travel. Nominalization:

kwígè (1) 'traveler.'

kwîg dùbó v. stagger.

kwîg èbòg v. trip, stumble.

kwígè *Pl:* **bòkwígè**. *n.* 1/2. traveler.

Etym: nominalization of kwîg

'walk,travel.'

kwind *v*. help emotionally.

kwir v. 1. help physically, assist. 2. save

in religious contexts

kwízà v. prepare.

kwò adv. again.

-kwób Sg: èkwób. Pl: mòkwób. n. 5/6.

flea. [Note: the fleas found on dogs

and cows, bigger than the other kind

of fleas]

kwóg v. (be) able.

kwógèlè v. pray.

kwòm *n.* bellows. *Etym:* *gùbà (3).

kwòmbèlá v. arrange.

kwòmbèlò v. mend, repair.

Nominalizations: ŋkwómbèlò (9)

'repair,' nkwémbèlè (1) 'repairer.'

kwònjí n. cashbox.

kwòndó *Pl:* **bòkwòndó**. *n*. 1/2. stripe.

kwóŋ *n.* sorcery.

kw3 v. pick, pluck (fruit).

kwòb Pl: bòkwòb. n. mistake.

kwóbò Pl: bòkwóbò. n. 1/2. cup. Etym:

*kómbè.

kwòmbòlò lówó v. settle dispute.

kwòfí n. coffee. Etym: borrowing.

-kwóndà Pl: mòkwónda. n. 6. sap. [Note:

kwògòlò v. bite.

no singular]

kwàgàlà v. strike (snake).

kwòŋ Pl: mèkwòŋ. n. 3/4. back. Etym:

kwóm Pl: mèkwóm. n. prisoner, slave.

*gòngò 'back.'

kp

kpèkpà Pl: bèkpèkpà. n. 7/8.

toothbrush.

L - 1

là v. surround.

talk.'

lâ Pl: bèlâ. n. 7/8. bow (hunting). Etym:

làbá jóp jóp v. shout.

*táà 'bow' (14).

làd n. 7. stupidity, crazy person. Etym:

lààd v. sew, patch. Etym: *tèd.

*dàdok 'be mad.'

lààg Pl: mòlààg. n. antenna.

làg Pl: mòlàg. n. 5/6. horn. Etym: *dakə.

làb v. speak, talk. Etym: *dòb 'speak,

lâg v. accuse. [Note: implied that the one

accused is innocent]

lágòlò v. show, demonstrate. Etym: *dàg 'show.'

làl Pl: mèlàl. n. 3/4. country, ethnic area.

làl v. 1. (be) strong, hard. 2. (be) barren (of land).

làlá kùz adj. (be) expensive.

lâm *Pl:* **bèlâm**. *n.* 7/8. heart. *Etym:* *tómà (3).

lâmb v. set (trap). Etym: *támb 'set trap.'

Nominalization: èlâmb (5) 'trap.'

-lâmb Sg: èlâmb. Pl: mòlâmb. n. 5/6.

trap. Etym: nominalization of lâmb

'set trap.'

lámbòlò v. position oneself.

làŋ v. crawl (lizard).

làŋ v. happen, occur.

làn nô nkùl v. conquer, defeat. Lit:

'happen with force'.

láŋ n. happening. Etym: nominalization of làŋ 'happen.'

làng v. pass (tr). [Note: implies quickness, brevity]

láŋgà v. haggle, negotiate a price.

láŋgè n. print (non-human).

lárà Pl: mòlárà. n. 5/6. difficulty.

lé Pl: mèlé. n. 3/4. tree. Etym: *té (3).

lé *n. 7.* wood.

lè TAM. Imperfective (IMPF)

lêŋ TAM. Persistive (PERS).

lé- - *loc*. in, at, on.

lé kǎŋ Pl: mèlé mɨkǎŋ. n. 3/4. mahogany tree.

lé léjwáb
òlò Pl: mèlé léjwáb
òlò. n.

firewood.

lé mójwàg lóóŋ

lé mójwàg Pl: mèlé mójwàg. n. 3/4.

thorn-tree.

lêg ν. play.

lêl *num.* three (when counting in

isolation).

lèlà v. shiver, tremble.

lélà Pl: mèlélà. n. 3/4. shivers.

lêb v. advise. [Note: borrowed from

Ewondo] Etym: *déb 'advise.'

lêŋ v. say, tell, chat.

lêŋ bèjáŋ v. lie (tell lies).

lèngó myà v. spend time.

làbùùl n. ringworm.

-lád Sg: èlád. Pl: mòlád. n. 5/6. palm tree.

[Note: also used for oil palm] Etym:

*dàdá (3).

lớg v. get, obtain.

lâm Pl: mèlâm. n. 3/4. midrib of palm-

frond.

lî v. clear (land for planting).

lìg *n.* beeswax, bee-bread.

líg *Pl:* **bèlíg**. *n*. 7/8. inheritance.

lîgàlà v. touch.

lîgələ v. accompany.

lígò v. stay, leave. Etym: *jìkád 'dwell, sit, stay.'

límà v. dream.

límà v. hollow out (log).

lòb Pl: mèlòb. n. 3/4. affair, problem.

lôl num. three (3). Etym: *tátò.

lómbólé Pl: mèlómbólé. n. 3/4.

errand.

lóón Pl: mòlóón. n. 5/6. news, new

thing.

-lòb

lúŋà

-lòb Sg: èlòb. Pl: mòlòb. n. 5/6. blade (of grass).

15b Pl: mèl5b. n. 3/4. language, word.

l3b Pl: mèl3b. n. 3/4. branch (of tree).

Etym: *tábè.

lôŋ Pl: mòlôŋ. n. 5/6. speech, discourse.

Etym: *dòng 'speak, talk.'

lú *Pl:* **mòlú.** *n.* 5/6. time, era.

lû Pl: mòlû. n. 5/6. head. Etym: *tóè
(3).

lû v. 1. sting. 2. strike (snake). Etym:

*t5 'bite.'

lùd *Pl:* **mòlùd**. *n.* 5/6. wrinkle (on skin).

lùgà v. prosper. [Note: material prosperity (lots of possessions, good harvest)]

lúgà v. respect, honor.

lûl *n*. smithing.

lûl mòlûl Pl: bòlûl mòlûl. n. 1/2.

blacksmith.

lúlò v. hit with a hammer. Etym: *túd 'forge (v).'

lúlwúŋ Pl: bòlúlwúŋ. n. flute.

lúmà v. throw out.

lúmò v. stab. Etym: *túm 'stab.'

lúmó *Pl.* **bèlúmó**. *n.* 7/8. maggot (in rotten meat).

lúmbò v. dive.

-lúnd Sg: èlúnd. n. 5. palmnut palm tree.

[Note: may also be used to refer to the regime of palmnuts the palm tree is producing]

lúŋ v. weave. Etym: *túng 'build, plait.'

lúŋɛ̀ Pl: bòlúŋɛ̀. n. 1/2. builder (by weaving). Etym: nominalization of lúŋò 'build by weaving.'

lúŋà v. fence in.

lúηὸ

lúŋà n. wickerwork.

lúŋàlà n. fence.

lúŋὸ ν. build by weaving. Etym: *túng
'build, plait.' Nominalizations: lúŋὲ
(1) 'builder by weaving,' lèlúŋὸ
'construction by weaving.'

-lúŋò Sg: lèlúŋò. Pl: mòlúŋò. n. construction (by weaving).

-lùùg Pl: mòlùùg. n. 6. dew. [Note: no singular]

-lwá Pl: mòlwá. n. 6. slavery.

lwâl v. shell (groundnuts).

lwándèbè TAM. Immediate past, just.

lwâŋ *v*. whistle, blow (horn), blow (of wind).

lwâŋ Pl: bèlwâŋ. n. 7/8. green mamba.

lwéndólá adj. (be) full.

lwèrèm n. danger.

lwələ Pl: bòlwələ. n. 1/2. duck.

-lwí Sg: lèlwí. Pl: mòlwí. n. 5/6. insult.

Etym: nominalization of lwî 'insult.'

lwôm mùr

lwî v. insult. Nominalizations: lèlwí (5)

'insult,' lwíyè (1) 'insulter.'

lwíyè *Pl:* **bòlwíyè**. *n.* 1/2. insulter. *Etym:* nominalization of **lwî** 'insult.'

lwô v. show.

lw3 v. lead, guide.

lwɔ̂ *Pl:* **mòlwɔ̂**. *n.* 5/6. ear. *Etym:* *tóè (5).

lwóg v. show.

lw3g v. empty, bail. [Note: This verb may be used for a style of fishing primarily done by women, building a small dam and then catching the fish on plates.]

Etym: *tóg 'bail water.'

lwôm mùr n. giant.

lwómèló mâŋ

lwómòló Pl: mèlwómòló. n. 3/4.

'send.'

messenger.

lwóndòlò v. fill.

lwômb v. order (someone to do

lwàng Pl: bàlwáng. n. crest, comb

something).

(rooster).

lwómbòlò *v.* send (something to

lwùŋ Pl: mòlwùŋ. n. 5/6. beehive.

someone or someone to do

lwúŋ Pl: mèlwúŋ. n. 3/4. vine.

something). Etym: Derived from *tóm

M - m

 $\hat{\mathbf{m}} = pro. I.$

màn Pl: mòmàn. n. crossroads,

mààn Pl: bèmààn. n. 7/8. crotch (of tree).

intersection.

májìg n. magic.

mán *n. 3.* morning, tomorrow.

màg v. turn off.

mân ŋkúndo n. 3. sunrise.

màgàlà v. accept, receive.

mànà n. copper.

mâŋ n. 9. ocean, sea. [Note: no plural]

mè = míyàŋ ntòmb

mề = pro. 4subject mề mà mù mà nkùnd n. full moon.

mè dem. this (pointing). mèncánc má ŋkùnd n. new moon.

mé pro. self. mènjíl sí v. (be) seated.

mé v. be (change of state). mètánà mwò n. hail.

mé dem. that (pointing). mètúŋgà n. elephantiasis.

mètánó n. administration. mí n. jackal.

mè pro. me (emphatic) mìd Pl: mèmìd. n. 3/4. medicine.

mèm v. admit (to a wrong). mìnò v. swallow. Etym: *mìd.

mèŋ mèmpè Pl: bòmèŋ bèmémpè. n. mìnjà ν. urinate.

1/2. potter. **mìpìmbòlà** v. whisper.

mà *mkr.* Possessive Associative Marker. mìrà *v.* smile.

(POSS) **mí∫wàn** *Pl*: **bèmí∫wàn** [bèmí∫wàn]. *n*.

màjâmb *n.* evening meal.

mòkà n. Makaa. míyòŋ Pl: bòmíyòŋ. n. sibling, cousin.

7/8. church.

màmà Pl: bèmámà. n. 7/8. insect. [Note: same sex to ego]

mớmâ v. yawn. míyòŋ ntòmb n. younger sibling. [Note:

màmírà n. joy. same sex to ego]

míyòn twámbá n. elder sibling. [Note:

same sex to ego]

mò Alt. mà. pro. me.

mòz n. 3. lamp, torch. Etym: *mòdè

'torch, bright.'

móm *Pl:* **bòmóm**. *n*. 1/2. aunt.

mú n. reason.

múlò v. grunt (from effort), growl.

múŋ Pl: mèmúŋ [mìmúŋ]. n. 3/4. eel.

múŋð Pl: mèmúŋð [mèmúŋð]. n. 3/4.

corpse.

múŋò v. hum.

mùùntí n. mister.

mùùz n. today.

mw = *pro*. 6subject.

mwá Pl: bwá. n. 1/2. little, small. Etym:

from mwân 'child'.

mwâ nùl Pl: bwá bó nùl. n. orphan.

mwâgələ v. harvest, husk (corn).

mwâm mèlwómbèló Pl: bwâm

màlwómàló. n. servant.

mwàz Pl: mèmwàz [mìmwàz]. n. 3/4.

shrimp.

mwáz n. 3. daytime.

mwâz Pl: mòmwâz [mòmwâz]. n. 9/6.

twin.

mwèlá Pl: bòmwèlá [bèmwèlá]. n.

1/2. boyfriend, girlfriend. Etym:

nominalization of **mwɛ̃l** 'issue sexual

invitation'.

mwέ pro. 6emphatic.

mwèl v.court, issue a sexual invitation.

Nominalization: mwèlá (1) 'boyfriend,

girlfriend.'

mwôm num. eight (8).

mwò mbànj

mwò Pl: mèmwò. n. 3/4. stomach myánà n. 9. payment.

(internal). myànj Pl: mèmyànj [mòmyànj]. n. 3/4.

my = *pro.* 4subject.

myà Pl: mèmyà [mìmyà] n. 3/4. time, myàz v. abandon.

era. $\mathbf{my}\hat{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}$ pro. 4emphatic.

mìmyà mí myêz adv. often. Lit. every myég Pl: mèmyég. n. fish dam.

day. **myɔ́l** Pl: **mèmyɔ́l** [mə̀myɔ́l]. n. 3/4.

-myàb Sg: èmyàb. n. 5. chicken wing. female.

myágðlà ν. pray. myòŋ quiet. Etym: *mea (7).

myàn *n*. madness, folly.

Mb - mb

mbá TAM. Conditional (COND). mbál n. 3. trace.

mbàg Pl: mèmbàg. n. shrew. mbàmpyòn Pl: mèmbàmpyòn

mbágðlð Pl: mèmbágðlð [mèmbágðlð]. [mèmbàmpyòn]. n. 3/4. lion.

n. 3/4. load, burden. **mbànj** Pl: **mèmbànj** [mèmbànj]. n. 3/4.

mbàkòlò *n.* herd (cattle, sheep). money, silver.

mbàŋ mbìl

mbàŋ Pl: mèmbàŋ [mìmbàŋ]. n. 3/4.

1. stone, pit. 2. swelling.

-mbàn májòb Pl: mèmbàn májòb. n. 4.

shea-nuts.

mbăŋ jî Pl: mbăŋ jî. n. 3. palm nut.

mbàn ébìnd Pl: mèmbàn mébìnd. n. 3.

testicle.

mbăŋ fîg n. kidney. Etym: *pígò (9).

mbăn mí nkên n. blight, rust.

mbàngà v. shiver. Etym: borrowed from

So.

mbàngá *Pl:* **mèmbàngá** [mìmbàngá]. *n*.

3/4. coconut palm.

mbéb n. passing-through.

mbèg v. (be) open.

mbègèlá n. 9. protection. Etym:

bàgèlà 'keep, store, watch.'

mbênd *n.* disreputable person. [Note:

someone who is infamous, well-

known for causing trouble]

mbéyà mwàrá Pl: mèmbéyà bwàrá.

n. 3/4. groom. [Note: spouse of

woman]

mbéyá mùrûm Pl: mèmbéyá bùrûm.

n. 3/4. bride. [Note: spouse of man]

mbέέg ν. (be) different.

mbέg *n. 3.* separation.

mbèz adv. nothing, in vain.

mbómbón Pl: mèmbómbón

[məmbəmbən]. n. 3/4. hill.

-mbəngé Sg èmbəngé. Pl: mòmbəngé.

n. 5/6. bell.

mbì Pl: mèmbì [mèmbì]. n. 3/4. sort,

type.

mbí mpâmb *n.* grandparent.

mbìl Pl: **mòmbìl** [mèmbìl]. n. 9/6. tuft,

lock (of hair).

mbìl Pl: mèmbìl. n. 3/4. hole in earth.

mbìl bèsâ v. (be) rich (in things).

mbímbì n. 7. amount.

mbîn Pl: mèmbîn. n. 3/4. pestle. Etym:

*pénì (3).

mbòl màmpàg Pl: bòbòl màmpàg. n.

1/2. farmer. Lit: 'sower of seed

(semeur des semences)'.

mbònd Pl: mèmbònd. n. crevice.

mbòn ńcûg Pl: mèmbòn mé ncûg

[mímbòn míncûg]. n. 3/4. elephant's

tusk.

mbû Alt. mbwá. Pl: mèmbû [mìmbû]

n. 3/4. year, season.

mbú bémpú n. rainy season. *Lit*:

'season of rains'.

mbú ncâ n. drought, famine. Lit: 'season

hunger'.

mbùg Pl: mòmbùg [mèmbùg]. n. 9/6.

prison.

mbúg v. lie down.

mbúgè Pl: bòbúgè. n. 1/2. accuser.

Etym: nominalization of bùgà

'accuse.'

mbúl ncûg Pl: mèmbùl mé ncùg

[mìmbùl míncùg]. n. 3/4. elephant's

trunk.

mbúló Pl: mòmbúló. n. in-law.

mbùmb *Pl:* **mèmbùmb** [mɨmbùmb]. n.

3/4. bundle. Etym: *bòmbò.

mbùmbè bíyèz n. skeleton. Lit: 'bundle

bones'.

mbúmbwá Pl: mèmbúmbwá

[mìmbúmbwá]. n. 3/4. poor man.

mbúŋ v. kick.

mbwèzá mpànjèl

mbwèzá n. wet thing. Etym:

nominalization of **bwâz** 'be wet.'

mbwànd mwân Pl: mèbwànd mébwân

[mèbwènd mébwân]. n. 3/4. fetus.

mbwó Pl: mòbwó. n. 9/6. arm, hand.

Etym: *bókò (15).

mbwò n. bowstring.

mbwòb n. 3/4. wire, thread.

mbwòl Pl: bòbwòl. n. 1/2. dancer. Etym:

nominalization of bwàl 'to dance.'

mbyêl n. 3/4. relative.

Mp - mp

mpà Pl: bèmpà. n. 1/2. wild cat.

mpàl Pl: bòmpàl [bèmpàl]. n. 1/2. eagle.

Etym: *póngó (9).

mpám Pl: bòmpám [bòmpám]. n. 1/2.

ancestor.

mpàmb Pl: bàmpàmb. n. spitting cobra.

-mpánâ Sg èmpánâ. Pl: bèmpánâ. n.

5/8. small of back.

mpándá n. way.

mpànj Pl: bèmpànj [bèmpànj] . n. 7/8.

side (of body), breastbone, rib. Etym:

*bànjé (11).

mpànj n. 10. bamboo.

mpánj *n.* shelter.

mpánj məlûl n. forge. [Note: shelter of

blacksmith]

mpànjèl Pl: bòmpànjèl [bèmpànjèl]. n.

1/2. cattle egret.

mpê Pl: mèmpê. n. 9/6. cooking pot

(marmite).

mpê tàg Pl: mèmpê métàg. n. 9/6.

tobacco pipe. Lit: 'pot tobacco

(marmite tabac)'.

mpêd *Pl:* **bèmpêd** [bìmpêd]. *n. 7/8*.

harp.

mpèl Pl: bèmpèl. n. butterfly.

mpèlá n. 9. imitation. Etym:

nominalization of bèlà 'imitate.'

mpéndé Pl: mòmpéndé [mòmpéndé].

n. 9/6. law, rule.

mpí n. 10. white hair. Etym: *búè (9,11).

mpí n. 10. palmnuts.

mpíl *Pl:* **mòmpíl**. *n*. charcoal.

mpìmbò n. 9. anger.

mpìmpyân *n. 1.* red pepper, hot pepper.

mpízò n. back (of something).

mpòg n. fox.

mpòg Pl: mèmpòg. n. seed.

mpú Pl: bòmpú [bèmpú]. n. 1/2. rain.

Etym: *búdà (9).

mpúdá adv. (be) together.

mpúgá n. 9/6. fracture. Etym:

nominalization of búg 'break.'

mpúgágá Pl: bòpúgágá. n. 1/2.

accusation. Etym: nominalization of

bùgà 'accuse.'

mpùl *n*. gazelle.

mpúmá sól n. stone, gravel.

mpùŋ n. 9. flood.

mpùnò Pl: mpùnò. n. 10. hair (of head).

[Note: no singular]

mpùngá Pl: mpùngá. n. 10. earring.

mpúrùm adv. (be) same.

mpùùg Pl: bòmpùùg [bèmpùùg]. n. 1/2.

squirrel. [Note: lives in holes in trees;
eats snakes; tufted tail; loud cry;

mpwààg n. 9. fatness. Etym:

nominalization of bwâg 'be big.'

mpwág n. 9. family line.

bigger than sinj]

mpwág n. 9. bed, couchette. Etym:

nominalization of bwàgèbè 'lie

down.'

mpwàm Pl: bòmpwàm [bèmpwàm]. n.

1/2. python. Etym: *bòmà (9).

mpwàmá n. 9. meeting. Etym: nominalization of **bwàmá** 'meet.'

mpwàmbá Pl: mpwàmbá. n. 10.

descendants. Etym: nominalization of

bwàmbà 'follow.'

mpwélá Pl: mòmpwélá. n. 9/6. debt.

Etym: nominalization of **bwèlà** 'take revenge.'

mpwənd n. 9. delay. Etym:

nominalization of bwaand 'wait.'

mpwənd n. 9. patience. Etym: nominalization of **bwaand** 'wait.'

mpwing n. 10. problems, annoyances.

mpwò n. 9. accusation.

mpwògé n. 1. health.

mpwòmb Pl: mòmpwòmb

[mèmpwòmb]. n. 9/6. face.

mpyà Pl: mèmpyà. n. cowrie shell.

-mpyàb Sg: lèmpyàb. Pl: mòmpyàb
[mèmpyàb]. n. 5/6. wing. Etym:
*pàpá (5,11).

mpyânj ν. grow.

mpyèl Pl: mpyèl. n. 10. trousers.

mpyêm Pl: mòmpyêm. n. yam.

mpyó Pl: bòmpyó. n. 1/2. dog. Etym:

*bóà (9,12). mwâ mpyó Pl: bwá

bámpyó. n. pup. Lit: 'small dog'.

mpyóŋ n. disrespect.

N - n

ná num. four (4). Etym: *nàì 'four.'

nàdèbò ν. try.

nàm Pl: bènàm [bìnàm]. n. 7/8. nation.

nàmbà v. feel (active).

nàndòlò v. tighten.

náŋ adv. still, yet.

né dem. that.

nég v. scapegoat.

nèyà n. poison (on arrow).

nêg adv. now. Etym: borrowed from

Makaa.

-nég Sg: ènég. Pl: mònég. n. 5/6.

summit, highest point.

nô conj. that.

nàbá conj. because.

náné adj. big, important. Etym: *nénè

'big.'

nî v. enter, go in.

níbò mómpyàb v. flap the wings.

nìgò v. go back, return.

nîng v. enter, join.

-níyé interr. how many?

nò Alt. [nè]. conj. and, with. Etym: *nà

'and, with.'

nó mìdìdì adj. (be) shy.

ncàm

nó yín

nó yíŋ adv. too much.

nób *Pl:* **bònób.** *n.* 1/2. other.

nòŋ Pl: mènòŋ. n. 3/4. kilometer.

nóg n. vagina.

nùm Pl: mènùm. n. 3/4. mouth. Etym:

*dòmò (3).

númá adv. also, too.

nùmòlò v. smell. Etym: *dùmb.

nûmb v. 1. know (something or someone).

2. divine, prophesy.

nûmb sâ v. know how to.

númbá n. 3. knowledge. númbá Pl: mònúmbá. n. acquaintance.

númbè *n*. prophecy.

nùn Pl: bènùn. n. 7/8. bird. bènǔn bé

kwár. n. fowl. Lit: 'birds of the

village'.

-núŋɔ́ lə́ díbɔ́ Sg: ènúŋó lá díbó. Pl:

mònúnó módíbó [mònúnó módíbó].

n. 5/6. spring.

nwà adv. there.

nwâg Pl: mònwâg [mònwâg]. n. 9/6.

mango tree.

nwî ν. fall (rain).

Nc - nc

ncà n. 9. hunger. Etym: *jàdà (9)

ncààbàrà v. turn upside down.

'hunger.'

ncàm *n.* leprosy. *Lit.* destroyer.

ncàm à kàg n. breakfast. *Lit*: 'destroyer

of mouth nastiness'.

ncàmb Pl: bèncàmb. n. 7/8. marsh.

-ncáŋ Sg: lèncáŋ. Pl: mòncáŋ. n. 5/6.

balafon.

-ncé interr. who.

-ncêlà Pl: mòncêlà [mòncêlà]. n. 6.

urine.

ncél n. 9/6. brideprice (for bride's family)

(5/6 in Begne).

-ncélè Pl: mòncélè [mòncélè]. n. 6. tears.

[Note: no singular]

ncòl fwέn *n.* silk, hair (of maize).

ncì *Pl*: **mèncì** [mòncì]. *n*. 3/4. 1. path. 2.

fork (in path).

ncícâm Pl: mèncícâm. n. 3/4. leper.

ncììmbé n. God (supreme being). Etym:

*jàmbé (9). mwâ ncììmbé n. god,

fetish (spirit). Lit: 'little god'.

ncìmbè Pl: bèncìmbè. n. 7/8. soldier.

ncíncón Pl: mòncíncón [mòncíncón]. n.

9/6. enemy.

ncìndò Pl: bòncìndò. n. island.

ncíngà Pl: bèncíngà. n. 7/8. cat. mwâ

ncíngà Pl: bwá bóncínga. n. kitten.

Lit: 'child cat'.

ncò v. come.

ncò lêŋ [ncò lêŋ] v. announce. Lit:

'come say'.

-ncóg Sg èncóg. n. 5. cry, sound.

ncôm v. (be) in disorder.

ncóŋ *adj.* (be) jealous.

ncòò *n.* 10. time (countable).

ncòmb Pl: mòncòmb. n. flower.

ncòn Pl: mòncòn. n. music.

ncòŋ

ncòŋ Pl: mòncòŋ. n. 9/6. 1. dance, feast.

3. funeral (at occasion of death).

ncòŋ n. dancer. Etym: related to noun ncòŋ (9) 'dance'.

ncòʻòl Pl: bèncòʻòl. n. pangolin, scaly anteater.

-ncúlè Pl: mòncúlè [mòncúlè]. n. 6.
earwax. [Note: no singular]

ncùmó n. peg.

ncùŋ Pl: bòncùŋ [bòncùŋ]. n. 1/2. fly.

Etym: *gì (9) 'fly.'

'hammer.'

ncûn n. 9. axe. Etym: *còká (5) 'axe.'

ncùùj n. 9. hammer. Etym: *jòndɔ (9)

ncwàmbèló n. paddle, pole. [Note:

long, used to propel canoes]

ncwâŋ n. mold (pottery).

ncwà pro. us (dual).

ncwó *pro.* we (dual).

ncwòg Pl: bòncwòg. n. 1/2. elephant.

Etym: *jògù

ncwòg módíbó Pl: bòncwòg módíbó.

n. 1/2. hippopotamus. Lit: 'elephant water'.

ncwó njì njì adj. border on.

ncwòm Pl: bèncwòm. n. 7/8. buffalo.

Etym: *játé (9) 'buffalo.'

Nd - nd

ndâg adv. really?

ndàmbà n. 9. rubber.

-ndángá Pl: mòndángá [mòndángá].

n. 6. mud. [Note: no singular] Etym:

*tàkà (5) 'earth, mud, marsh.'

ndé v. be (loc).

ndèlá n. 9. burial. Etym:

nominalization of dèl 'bury.'

ndíl v. sit.

ndìl dìg Pl: bòdìl bó dìg [bèdìl bódìg]. n.

1/2. bush dweller. Lit: 'dweller forest'.

Etym: nominalization of dìl 'dwell.'

ndòl n. pain. Etym: nominalization of dàl

'hurt'.

ndù Pl: mòndù. n. virgin.

ndùbé *n.* painter. *Etym:* nominalization

of dùb 'paint.'

ndúgè n. rower. Etym: nominalization of

dúgò 'paddle, row.'

ndùndù n. 3. needle.

ndwang n. valley.

Nj - nj

njà Pl: mènjà [mìnjà]. n. 3/4. intestines.

Etym: *dà (11).

njáb njômbélò

njáb Pl: mènjáb [mìnjáb]. n. 3/4. house.

Etym: *jóbò (9) 'house.'

njáp bûr Pl: mènjáp bûr. n. 3/4. family.

Lit. house people.

njàgələ Pl: menjagələ. n. 3/4. prayers.

njám *n. 7.* moment (good).

njàn n. birdlime (adhesive to catch birds).

njêb v. lack. Etym: *cób 'lack.'

njékólá Pl: mènjékólá. n. 3/4.

initiation (male).

njékálá mwará Pl: menjékálá bwará.

n. 3/4. initiation (female). Lit:

'initiation woman'.

njèè n. 9. 1. arrival. 2. until Etym:

nominalization of je 'arrive.'

njèlè n. 3/4. flame.

njêm Pl: mèjêm. n. 3/4. bat. Etym:

*démà (3).

njì v. mark out, peg out (ground).

njì Pl: **mònjì** [mònjì]. n. 9/6. frontier (of

ethnic area). Etym: *dèdò (3).

njî fàm Pl: **mònjî mó fàm** [mènjî

məfam]. n. 9/6. boundary (of field).

njì adv. only. Etym: *jèká 'only.'

njígè Pl: bòjígè. n. 1/2. student. Etym:

nominalization of jîg 'learn.'

njígèlè Pl: bòjígèlè. n. 1/2. teacher. Etym:

nominalization of jígèlè 'teach.'

njììl Pl: bòjììl. n. 1/2. crier. Etym:

nominalization of jiì 'cry, weep.'

njíndè *n*. machete handle.

njìnέ *Pl:* **mènjìnέ** [mìnjìnέ]. *n*. bamboo.

njômb *n.* cook. *Etym:* nominalization of

jâmb 'to prepare food'.

njòmbálò Pl: mòjòmbálò [màjòmbálò].

n. 9/6. sorcerer (male).

njòmbólò mwárá Pl: mòjòmbólò

bwárá [mèjòmbélò]. n. 9/6. witch

(female). Lit: 'sorceror woman'.

njônd Pl: mènjònd [mìnjònd]. n. 3/4.

trip. Etym: from jand 'step on'?

njón Pl: bòjón. n. 1/2. guest, visitor,

stranger. Etym: *gènì (1) 'stranger.'

njòz Pl: mènjòz [mìnjòz]. n. 3/4.

lightning. Etym: *jàdí (9).

niù n. chisel.

njùg adj. difficult, hard.

njúl Pl: bòjúl. n. 1/2. killer. [Note: add

'people' to clarify if 'murderer']

njûl bètíd Pl: bòjûl bètíd. n. butcher.

njûm Pl: bòjûm [bòjûm]. n. 1/2. male

(sex), husband. Etym: *dómè.

njúm *Pl:* **mènjúm**. *n*. 3/4. male

njûm sìlò Pl; bèjûm bé mésìlò. n. 1/2.

son-in-law. Lit. husband

young.woman

(animal).

njúnè Pl: bòjúnè. n. 1/2. fighter. Etym:

nominalization of júnà 'fight.'

njwăn n. 9. river. Etym: *dòngà (3).

njwî Alt. [njù] n. 3/4. head, king, chief.

 $\it Etym.$ Nominalization of $\it jwi$ 'rule

over, dominate'

njwòmbò Pl: mònjwòmbò [mònjwòmbò].

n. 9/6. bottle.

njwóŋ Pl: mènjwóŋ [mènjwóŋ]. n. 3/4.

path, road. Etym: *jèdà (9) 'path?'

njwúŋ n. respect.

Nt - nt

ntà conj. since.

ntà Pl: bòntà [bèntà]. n. 1/2. grandchild.

-ntág Pl: mèntág n. 4. joy, happiness.

Etym: borrowed from Ewondo.

ntámà v. rot, decompose.

ntàndà n. bean.

ntàŋ Pl: bòntàŋ [bèntàŋ]. n. 1/2. rat.

ntàn v. cross.

ntàŋ díbố v. cross river. Lit: 'cross

water'.

ntán adv. like that.

ntán nô adv. then.

ntè Pl: bèntè [bìntè]. n. 7/8. ox, cow.

myól ntè Pl: mèmyól béntè. n. 3/4.

cow. Lit: 'female cow'. mwâ myɔ́l ntè

Pl: bwâ mèmyól béntè. n. heifer. Lit:

'small female cow'. mwâ njúm ntè

Pl: bwâ mènjúm béntè. n. calf. Lit:

'small male cow'. njúm ntè Pl:

mìnjúm ntè. n. 3/4. bull. Lit: 'male

cow'.

ntég v. punish.

ntégèlè n. accent.

ntégèlè v. annoy, disturb.

ntélé Pl: bàntélé. n. penalty,

punishment.

nténè adv. like that. Etym: nta + -ne.

ntèd n. hundred (100).

ntèg v. abuse. Etym: *tók 'abuse.'

ntég v. annoy.

ntèmbòlà v. (be) slow.

-ntènd Pl: bèntènd [bìntènd]. n. 8.

spider's web. [Note: no singular]

ntí n. sister.

 $ntig \nu$. give, send in response to a request.

ntìntá n. great grandchild. Etym: redup form of ntà 'grandchild'.

ntóbà v. flow, drip. [Note: related to word for 'dysentery'] Etym: *tón 'drip.'

ntòmb *n. 7/8 or 1/2.* younger. [Note:

Variation between speakers in class

membership.]

ntómb v. stagger.

-ntò Sg: èntò. Pl: mòntòk. n. 5/6. crop (of bird).

ntú n. dysentery. [Note: extreme diarrhea - either the kind with blood

or one that doesn't stop]

ntúbá Pl: mòntúbá [mòntúbá]. n. 9/6. sword.

ntúd Pl: mòntúd. n. tusk (of warthog).

ntùg Pl: bòntùg. n. stopper, plug.

ntùgəjù Pl: bəntùgəjù. n. bud.

ntúlá adj. many, a lot (uncountable)

ntúm *n.* brother. [Note: opposite sex of ego (brother of a sister)] Etym: *dòmbò (1,5).

ntùmò Pl: mòntùmò [mòntùmò]. n. 9/6.
big drum, talking drum.

ntúná Pl: bètúnà. n. 7/8. fight with weapons. Etym: Nominalization of túnà 'to fight.'

ntúnè Pl: bòtúnè. n. 1/2. fighter. Etym:

Nominalization of túnà 'to fight.'

-ntúŋɔ´ Sg: èntúŋɔ´. Pl: məntúŋɔ´. n. 5/6.

ntútágú

bump.

ntútágú Pl: mòntútágú [màntútágú]. n.

9/6. hump (of cow).

ntùtùmà Pl: bòntùtùmà. n. crowd.

ntwàr v. (be) alone.

ntwérà adj. surprised.

ntwì Pl: bòntwì [bèntwì]. n. 1/2. 1. lazy

person. 2. loose, slack things.

ntwòmb Pl: bèntwòmb. n. 7/8. fight.

ntwèmbè Pl: bèntwèmbè [bìntwìmbè].

n. 7/8. sheep. Alt. [ntwòmbè]. mwá
ntwòmbè Pl: bwá bíntwòmbè. n.
lamb. Lit: 'little sheep'. njúm
ntwòmbè Pl: mìnjúm mìntwòmbè.
n. 3/4. ram. Lit: 'male sheep'.

ntwôn *n. 3/4.* scarf.

ntwómá Pl: bòntwómá [bèntwómó]. n. 1/2. boy.

ntwómá adj. (be) young.

n

 $\mathbf{n} = pro$. 9subject.

 $\hat{\mathbf{n}} = pro. \text{ he/she.}$

nà tear (tr). Etym: *nòkod 'tear off, extract.'

nâ *Pl:* **bènâ**. [bènâ, bìnâ] *n. 7/8*.

fingernail, claw.

nâ Pl: bònâ. [bònâ] n. 1/2. flea. [Note:
the kind found on poultry and
manioc, very small and fast]

nàg v. defecate. Etym: *nè 'defecate.'

năg ∫ùl v. break wind, fart. Etym: *cùd

'fart.'

pâm v. milk (cows, goats).

nân ná bôl v. nurse, suckle (baby) (tr).

Etym: *nam 'suck, suckle.'

-**pán** *Pl:* **mònán** [mònán]. *n.* 6. milk.

[Note: no singular] Etym:

nominalization of nán 'suckle'?

μάz ν. move, convulse.

μὲg ν. bare, show (teeth).

μὲme ν. (be) alone.

nà pro. him/her.

níbò nó bán v. spank (child).

pìg v. return (give back) (tr).

pìmòzò v. stir.

nômbèlò *Pl:* **mònômbèlò** [mènômbèlò].

n. 9/6. armpit.

ກວ້ວ່າງgó *Pl:* bòກວ້ວ່າgó. n. 1/2. mother.

Etym: *pàŋgó (1a) 'mother.'

nòngô n. channel.

nùlâm adj. (be) kind.

nún Pl: mònún [mònún]. n. 9/6. body.

nwádèbò v. squat.

nwàn v. please, satisfy.

nwàn v. take.

n. 5/6. good things.

ɲwâŋ *Pl:* bòɲwâŋ [bə̀ɲwâŋ]. *n*. 1/2.

snake. Etym: *jókà (9) 'snake.'

nwànnwàn adj. good.

nwè *pro*. 9emphatic, 10emphatic.

nwèl v. drink. Nominalizations: nwèlé (1)

'drinker,' nwêlàgà (7) 'drink.' Etym:

*nó 'drink.'

nwèlé *Pl:* bənwèlé. n. 1/2. drinker.

ŋgúŋgà

nwèlàgà

Etym: nominalization of nwel 'drink.'

nwèlògà Pl: bènwèlògà. n. 7/8. drink.

Etym: nominalization of nwèl 'drink.'

nwà pro. 9subject.

nwógàzà v. tickle.

-ɲwòg Pl: mònwòg [mənwòg]. n. 6.

wine. [Note: no singular] mònwòg

mó lɨnd n. 6. palm wine. Lit: 'wine of palm'.

ŋg

ŋgà dem. this.

ŋgàr Pl: mòŋgàr. n. market.

ŋgé conj. if.

ŋgwàgàlá n. 9/6. prayers. Etym:

borrowed from Ewondo.

ŋgwâlà Pl: mòŋgwâlà [mòŋgwâlà]. n.

9/6. town.

ngwâm Pl: mèngwâm [mèngwâm]. n.

3/4. bachelor, spinster.

ngwàn n. 3. paw.

ngwàndò n. 3. manioc, cassava.

ŋgwáŋ adv. together. [Note: old.]

ngwómànà n. sous-prefet.

ŋgwôg lwô Pl: mòngwô mólwô. n. deaf

person.

ŋgwôŋ *n*. climbing rope.

ngùlô n. dust.

ngúmbà adj. entire, whole.

ngúngà Pl: mòngúngà. n. box.

ŋgb

ŋgbàŋ Pl: bàŋgbàŋ. n. crow.

ŋk

nkà conj. then, as. Etym: *ngà 'as, like.'

nkàb n. goiter.

nkàg Pl: bènkàg [bènkàg]. n. 7/8. eyelid.

nkàm adj. right, (be) correct.

nkàmà interr. how many?

nkànjà Pl: mènkànjà. n. fin.

nkàn Pl: bònkàn [bènkàn]. n. 1/2.

medicine man, trad healer, diviner.

Etym: *gàngà 'medicine man.'

nkàzà Pl: bènkàzà. n. weaver-bird.

nké conj. or.

ŋkêŋg v. carry.

on back. Lit: 'carry child with back'.

nkêng nó lû v. carry on head. Lit: 'carry

ŋkêŋg mwân nê kwòŋ v. carry (child)

with head'.

ŋkêŋg nó mòbwô v. carry in arms. *Lit:*'carry with hands'.

ŋkê ŋûl v. boast, brag.

nkě nûn v. (be) eager, (be) zealous. *Lit.*boast body.

ŋkèg Pl: mòŋkèg [məŋkèg]. n. 9/6.

promise. [Note: Nominalization of kèg

'promise']

nkèl n. shin.

ŋkèŋ n. wise one.

nkòb n. same side.

ŋkòkóg Pl: mòŋkòkóg [mèŋkòkóg]. n.

9/6. molar tooth. *Etym:* *gègò (5,7)

ŋkòl Pl: bàŋkòl. n. eyelash.

'molar tooth.'

ŋkòlo Pl: mòkòlo. n. 9/6. load.

ŋkòná adv. little by little.

ŋkònd Pl: bèŋkònd [bəŋkònd]. n. 7/8.

journey. Etym: *gèndò (11) 'journey.'

ŋkóŋ n. 7. courage.

ŋkòòmb Pl: màŋkòòmb. Alt. [ŋkùmb]. n.

9/6. medium drum. Etym: *gòmà (9).

mwâ ŋkùmb Pl: bwâ ŋkùmb. n.

small drum. Lit: 'small drum'.

nkól Pl: bònkól [bònkól]. n. 1/2. gun.

ŋkśl jwop n. thunder. Lit: 'gun sky'.

ŋkòndô Pl: bòŋkòndô [bèŋkòndô]. n.

1/2. crocodile. Etym: *gàndó (9).

 η k $\dot{\eta}$ ν . (be) brave, courageous,

powerful.

ŋkòòb *Pl:* **mòŋkòòb** [mèŋkòòb]. *n. 9/6*.

paddle. [Note: short and flat] Etym:

*kápí (9).

ŋkù Pl: bèŋkù [bèŋkù]. n. 7/8. fruit bat.

Etym: *gèmbóá 'bat.'

ŋkù Pl: bòŋkù [bòŋkù]. n. 1/2. pig. mwâ

ŋkù Pl: bwá bóŋkù. n. piglet. Lit:

'small pig'. myól nkú Pl: mèmyól

méŋkú. n. 3/4. sow. Lit: 'female pig'.

Etym: *gòdòbè (9) 'pig.'

ŋkǔ dìgî Pl: bòŋkǔ dìgî. n. 1/2.

warthog, boar. Lit: 'pig forest'.

ŋkù lyêndò n. rainbow.

ŋkùbò Pl: bàŋkùbò. n. shield. Etym:

*gùbà.

ŋkúg Pl: màŋkúg. n. upper grinding

stone.

ηkùl Pl: mùkúl. n. 9/6. force, power.

ŋkûl Pl: mòŋkûl [mòŋkûl]. n. 9/6. cane

rat, cutting grass, grass cutter.

ŋkùmb Pl: bèŋkùmb [bəŋkùmb]. n. 1/2.

monitor lizard.

ŋkúmbələ n. diarrhea.

ηkùnd *n. 9.* moon. *Etym:* *gòndὲ (9).

n. scaffolding.

nkùndà n. granary.

ŋkùŋ Pl: mèkùŋ [mèkùŋ]. n. 3/4. arrow.

nkùnkùb Pl: bònkùnkùb. n. umbilical

cord.

ŋkúd [ŋkúr] Pl: mèŋkúd [mèŋkúr]. n.

3/4. cloud.

ŋkùùb Pl: mòŋkùùb [mòŋkùùb]. n. 9/6.

quiver.

ŋkùùnd Pl: mèŋkùùnd [mìŋkùùnd]. Alt.

[ŋkwóònd] n. 3/4. month.

ŋkúúr Pl: bèŋkúúr [bìŋkúúr]. n. 7/8.

bark (of tree).

ŋkwâl Pl: bòŋkwâl [bèŋkwâl]. n. 1/2.

snail.

ŋkwàŋ Pl: màŋkwàŋ. n. cartridge.

ŋkwàŋg Pl: bèŋkwàŋg. n. 7/8. fish trap.

ŋkwéndé *Pl:* bòŋkwéndé [bèŋkwéndé].

n. 1/2. elbow. Etym: *kókòdà (9).

ŋkwèn [ŋkwɨn] Pl: bòŋkwèn [bəŋkwɨn].

n. 1/2. leopard.

ŋkwènê Pl: bàŋkwènê. n. centipede,

millipede.

nkwémbèlè Pl: bòkwémbèlè. n. 1/2.

ŋkwênj

ŋkpágá

repairer. Etym: nominalization of kwòmbàlà 'mend, repair.'

ŋkwênj n. 7. metal. [Note: also used for iron]

-ŋkwòb Sg: lèŋkwòb. Pl: məŋkwòb. n. 5/6. shoe.

nkwómbèlò Pl: mòkwómbèlò. n. 9/6.

repair. Etym: nominalization of

kwòmbèlò 'mend, repair.'

ŋkwóŋ Pl: mèŋkwóŋ. n. 3/4.

responsability, social status.

ŋkwó Pl: mèŋkwó. n. handle (round).

[Note: Used for pot handles, the sides of plates, etc.]

ŋkwòg *Pl:* **mòŋkwòg** [mèŋkwòg]. *n.* 9/6. sugar cane.

ŋkwòmb *Pl:* bòŋkwòmb [bəŋkwòmb]. *n*.

1/2. porcupine. *Etym:* *gòmbá (9).

ηkwòmbòlò ν. plan.

ηkwòmìn n. voice box, larynx, Adam's

apple, throat.

ŋkwòŋ n. pity.

n. terror. [Note: extreme fear]

ŋgb

ŋkpágá Pl: mòŋkpágá [mèŋkpágá]. n.

9/6. fishing line.

ó=

pyὲb

O - 0

 $\acute{\mathbf{o}} = TAM$. Present (PRES).

-ób gen. their.

-ó gen. your (sg).

-óób interr. which?

Э

-òòŋgó det. Definite (DEF).

Aforementioned.

P - p

pààr n. threshing-floor.

pùpwó n. 7. pawpaw, papaya.

pága n. cane.

pùù n. calm.

pé adv. totally.

pyèb ν. winnow, throw in air (grain).

S - s

sà Pl: mòsà [məsà]. n. 9/6. feather.

Etym: *cádá (5,7,11) 'feather.'

sá v. act, do.

sá béjún v. 1. play games. 2. entertain, amuse.

sà kwár v. plunder (a town). *Lit*: 'do village'.

sá mómwòlà v. be engaged, be betrothed. *Lit.* do fiancés.

sâ mpwògé v. get well, heal. *Lit*: 'do health'.

sâ Pl: bèsâ [bìsâ]. n. 7/8. 1. thing. 2.belongings (in plural).

sâ nó bâb bâb n. evil, badness. Lit:
'thing with bad'.

sààl v. 1. cut open. 2. chop into pieces.

Etym: *tàd 'cut open.'

sáb v. get sick.

-sâb Sg: èsâb. n. 5/6. illness, disease.

Etym: borrowed from Baywe'e?

sâdé n. Saturday.

sàgbò v. (be) restless, (be) unsettled.

ságèzè v. shake. Etym: *tèk 'shake.'
Synchronically linked to sá 'do.'

sâl v. peel.

sàmb Pl: bèsàmb [bìsàmb]. n. 7/8. rape.

sámbá n. row.

sâmbələ v. sneeze. Etym: *téamod 'sneeze.'

sàndòla v. slip.

sànjà Pl: mèsànjà. n. 3/4. thumb piano.

sán v. look for. Etym: *kɔng 'look for, seek, hunt.'

sáŋ Pl: mèsáŋ [mèsáŋ]. n. 3/4. mane.

Etym: *jènjè (3) 'mane.'

sángá Pl: mòsángá. n. necklace.

sé TAM. Perfect (PERF).

sèl v. bail out (canoe. boat).

sèn n. 1/2. nail.

séngé Pl: mèséngé. n. 3/4. gift.

sês Sg: lèses. Pl: mèses. n. 5/6. girl,
young woman. [Note: Immature,
without children. For some speakers
in class 3/4.]

sêzələ v. evade.

-sôg Pl: bèsôg [bòsôg]. n. 8. termite. [Note: no singular]

sí Pl: bèsí [bèsí]. n. 7/8. 1. world,

ground, land. 2. underneath, below, down. *Etymr* *cé (9) 'ground, earth.'

sí bêb *v*. hurt oneself.

sí yò v. (be) dead. Lit: 'finish die'.

sìg v. deceive. Etym: *kéng 'cheat, deceive.'

sìgá n. cigarette.

sìgò v. saw (wood).

síl v. finish. Etym: *cíd 'finish.'

sílàbà Pl: bàsílàbà. n. metal pot.

sìlò Pl. mèsilò. n. 3/4. 1. girl. 2. daughter.

sîlò v. approach.

símèlà v. groan (with pain).

símàzà v. think, remember. Etym:

borrowed from Makaa.

sîn Pl: mòsîn [mèsîn]. n. 9/6. point.

síná n. end.

sínj Pl: bèsínj [bìsínj]. n. 7/8. squirrel.

[Note: makes a nest; lives in trees; smaller than mpùùg] Etym: *céndé

(7) 'squirrel.'

sìpè n. 9. sand. Etym: *cèngà 'sand.'

sís adj. another.

sísìm *Pl*: **mèsísìm** [mèsísìm]. *n*. 3/4. soul, spirit (of living person).

sísìm múŋ Pl: mèsísìm mèmúŋ [mèsísìm mèmúŋ]. n. 3/4. spirit (of dead

sísôg Pl: mòsísôg [mèsísôg]. n. 9/6.

person) (invisible).

hiccup. (7/8 in Begne)

síyé n. end. Etym: from si 'finish'.

sìyêng v. get together.

síyèng v. heap up.

sìzà Pl: bèsìzà [bèsìzà]. n. 7/8. song.

sìzó Pl: mèsìzó [mìsìzó]. n. 3/4. tendon, vein.

Sì TAM. Contraexpectation. Etym:

Borrowed from Makaa?

sŏg n. lung.

sốl m**àn**àm *Pl:* bòsôl bó mànàm [bàsôl bá mànàm]. *n.* 1/2. prostitute.

-sòmbàlò *Pl:* mòsòmbàlò [màsòmbàlò].

n. 6. curse. [Note: no singular]

sốngờ Pl: bòsôngờ. n. 1/2. father. Etym:
*cángó (1a) 'father.'

syè v. spit.

syě ν. sing.

syê ν. work.

syê n. 7/8. work.

syègèlé v. frighten. *Etym:* *cìc 'frighten.'

ſ

∫ĉzὲ ν. reyoice.

ʃilò *n. 3/4.* young woman. [Note: Mature, grounded, with children]

∫ù v. pour.

-**ʃù** Sg: **èʃù**. n. 5. sake.

ʃû n. 9. shame. Etym: *cónì (9) 'shame.'

y. empty. [Note: Only used for non-liquids, as in emptying the trash. For liquids see 'empty, bail.']

ʃû Pl: bò**ʃû.** n. 1/2. fish. Alt. sû. Etym:*cúé (9) 'fish.'

ʃùbə̀ *Pl:* **mòʃùbə̀** [mə͡ʃùbə̀]. *n. 9/6.* jigger.

(5/6 in Begne, with an /s/)

sûd n. 7/8. cotton.

-**jùg** Sg: **èjùg**. Pl: **mòjùg** [mə́jùg]. n. 5/6.

stem, stalk (of corn, millet, etc.).

-**jùg lé** Sg: **èjùg lé**. Pl: **mòjùg lé** [mèjùg lé]. n. 5/6. trunk (of tree).

Júg v. cease, stop.

ʃûg *Pl:* bòʃûg [bòʃûg]. n. 1/2. ant. [Note: includes flying ants]

ʃùgəlà v. fall in pieces.

∫ùgèzè v. strain.

ſûkòlà ncò adv. after.

ʃùkùl *Pl:* **bèʃùkùl** [bəʃùkùl, bìʃùkùl]. *n*.

7/8. school.

 $\int \hat{\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{l} \quad v. \text{ unload.}$

fûl nwân *n*. venom (of snake).

∫úl∂ v. rub.

ſùlò v. descend, go down.

-ʃûm Sg: èʃûm. Pl: mòʃûm [məʃûm]. n.
5/6. bracelet, ankle ring, bangle.

Jùmè *Pl:* **bòJùmè**. *n.* 1/2. builder. *Etym:* from **Jùmè** 'build.'

jùmè v. build. Nominalization: **jùmè** (1)

'builder,' **jùmó** (1) 'construction.'

Súmèló mbwô Pl: mèsúmló mémbwô.

n. arm (used for both upper arm and forearm). Etym: *comb 'be on top.'

Jùmó Pl: bò**Jùmó**. n. 1/2. construction.

Etym: from **Jùmè** 'build.'

ʃúmɔ̀ *Pl:* mēʃúmɔ̀ [mīʃúmɔ̀]. n. 3/4. cane, walking stick.

Jùmb *Pl:* **mèjùmb** [mìjùmb].*n.* 3/4. brook, stream.

-**fúmb** Pl: mò**fúmb** [mòfúmb]. n. 6.
intestinal worm. [Note: no singular]

júmb ébwàz Pl: mè**j**úmb ébwàz

[mìʃúmb ébwàz]. n. 3/4. earthworm.

Lit: 'worm Loc-earth'.

fùn Pl: mè**fùn** [mì**fù**n]. n. 3/4. flesh.

ʃùŋ *Pl:* **mòʃùŋ** [mə̃ʃùŋ]. *n. 9/6.* grave. *Alt.* **ʃwòŋ.**

-**ʃùŋ** Sg: **èʃùŋ**. Pl: **mòʃùŋ** [mə́ʃùŋ]. n. 5/6. floating water plants.

ʃúŋ *Pl:* mð**ʃúŋ** *n.* bulb, tuber.

∫úŋà ν. discuss.

Súŋɔ́ kwànd Pl: mèʃúŋɔ́ kwànd [məʃúŋɔ́ kwànd]. n. 3/4. regime (of plantains).

∫ù∫wâz *adj.* (be) naked.

Súswóg n. in front of, before. Etym:

Reduplicated form of the noun **swóg**'front of something'.

jùùg Pl: mòjùùg. n. waterfall.

ʃúwá *Pl:* **bèʃúwá**. *n*. 7/8. plate.

ĵùzègò v. congratulate.

 \int wá n. axe handle.

ſwá *Pl:* **bòʃw**á [bəʃwá]. *n.* 1/2.

winnow.

Swáàg v. be (crazy).

Swààz v. (be) happy.

Jwab v. hide.

swal adv. directly, just.

swàmb v. uncover, discover.

∫wànè ν. load (rifle).

swangələ v. threaten. Etym: *káng

'threaten.'

∫wè v. bleed.

swè *Pl:* **mòswè** [mèswè]. *n.* 9/6.

mourning.

swégá v. be drunk. Etym: *kód-o 'be

intoxicated.'

∫wênj ν. carve, sharpen. *Etym:* *còng

'sharpen to a point.'

ſwêz v. smoke, dry. Etym: *kác-u 'dry.'

śweza v. (be) dry. Alt. **świza.** Etym:

*kác-u 'dry.'

ʃwêl Pl: **bèʃwêl** [bìʃwêl]. n. 7/8. lizard.

fwêm n. 9. nasal mucus, snot.

∫wêm v. deny.

ʃwènj Pl: mèʃwènj [məʃwènj]. n. 3/4.

young man. Alt. Swáànj.

ſwàndà Pl: bòſwàndà. n. 1/2. week.

Swi ν . wither (plant).

-**ʃwì** Sg: **èʃwì**. **mòʃwì**. n. 5/6. death.

-∫wí njà Sg: é∫wí njà. Pl: mò∫wí njà

[mə͡ʃwí njà]. n. 5/6. leech.

ʃwìyé Pl: bòʃwìyé [bə͡ʃwìyé]. n. 1/2.

hunter. Etym: nominalization of $\int w \delta$

'hunt.'

Śwò ν. hunt. Nominalizations: **Śwìyé** (1)

'hunter,' **swòmb** 'hunt.'

swó *n*. 1. friend.

ſwó dîz n. 1. pupil (of eye). lit. friend eye

-∫wó Sg: lè∫wó. n. 5. friendship.

∫**wô** *v.* undress.

fwôg *n*. front (of something). *Etym*:

*táng 'be first.'

ſwógènè v. go forward.

∫wóg∫wóg *adj.* very far.

∫wômònò v. grumble, complain.

 \int wôm ∂ n ∂ Pl: bò \int wôm ∂ n ∂ 1/2.

complaint.

swòmb *n.* hunt. [Note: includes hunting

and fishing] Etym: nominalization of

ſwò 'hunt.'

ſwòòzògò Pl: mòſwòòzògò

[mə̂(wòòzògò]. n. 9/6. joy. Etym:

nominalization of swaaz 'be happy'.

∫wùùmb n. 3. creek.

T - t

tá Pl: mètá. n. 3/4. nephew, niece.

" meta. 11. 3/4. nepnew, mece.

tâb sí v. rise up (intr).

tâb tátèlê v. stand.

táběl num. seven (7).

tád n. sm. bamboo bed.

tàg Pl: bòtàg. n. 1/2. tobacco.

tàg n. fertile soil.

tàgókùz adj. (be) inexpensive.

tàlà v. appease, pacify.

tàm bớ ſû n. 7/8. pool.

tàm módíbó *n. 7/8.* well.

tám n. middle. [Note: used for midnight

when combined with night and noon

when combined with daylight]

támò mwáz n. noon. Lit: 'middle

daylight'.

táŋ Pl: mètáŋ. n. 3/4. white man.

-tàngànò Sg: ètàngànò. Pl: mòtàngànò.

n. 5/6. bridge, ford.

tádà [tárà] v. itch.

té pro. Locative (Loc).

té ripen, become ripe.

tê v. to pull.

tê kù v. to step. Lit. pull foot/leg.

tê mə́sà v. pluck (chicken) Lit. pull

feathers.

tègá v. (be) tired.

tér v. start, begin.

tér aux. first.

têr sâ adv. before.

tétèle n. honest ways, righteousness.

tέl ν. set up, organize.

-télè Pl: mòtélè. n. 6. saliva.

télálé v. refresh.

tèm adv. even.

tíbò v. trample.

tíd *Pl:* **bòtíd**. *n*. 1/2. 1. animal. 2. meat.

3. stupid person (by analogy with

French bête 'animal' also used for

stupid people). Etym: *tító (3).

tìè n. low.

tíé Pl: bètíé. n. 7. position, height.

tìgàlétí adv. specifically.

tììlò v. tether (sheep, goats).

-tíl *Sg:* **ètíl**. *Pl:* **mòtíl**. *n.* 5/6. penis.

tíl v. write.

tílàbà v. sign up. *Etym:* derived from tíl 'write.'

tìlà v. tie (knot).

tíndìgì n. heel. Etym: *tíndí (5).

tìndòlà v. wipe off (excreta).

tíndòlò v. push with pole (canoe, boat).

Etym: *tínd 'push.'

tíràg v. light (fire).

tîtìm Pl: mètîtìm. n. 3/4. blind person.

tìtìtì n. regularity.

tón num. five (5). Etym: *táánó.

tón n. outside.

tóòb Pl: bètóòb. n. 7/8. sheep, goat.

[Note: generic term for both sheep and goats] mwá tóòb ă káká Pl:

bwá bètóòb bă káka. n. kid. Lit:

'child goat/sheep. myál tóòb ă káká

Pl: mèmyál bètóòb bă káká. n. 3/4.

she-goat, nanny goat. Lit: 'female goat/sheep'. mwâ njúm tóòb Pl:

bwâ mènjúm bétóòb. n. lamb, kid

(male). Lit: 'child male goat/sheep'.

tóòb ăkáká Pl: bètóòb băkáká. n.

7/8. he-goat, billy goat.

tóyí η n. thousand (1000).

tôn *Pl:* **mòtôn**. *n.* 9/6. price.

-tù Sg: ètù. Pl: mòtù. n. cocoyam, taro.

tû v. dig.

tû n. inside.

túbò lòlwô v. pierce (ears). Etym: *tób.

tùd [tùr] n. 9/6. bad odor, smell. Etym:

*còdò (9) 'smell.'

-tùd Sg: ètùd. Pl: mòtùd. n. 5/6. raffia

túg v. be (neg).

palm stalk.

-túg Sg: lètúg. Pl: mòtúg. n. 5/6. insult, teasing.

tûg Pl: bòtûg. n. 1/2. spoon, ladle. Etym:
*coga 'ladle.'

tûg v. insult, tease. [Note: as between maternal uncles and their nephews]

Etym: *tók 'abuse.'

tǔg lécèl v. hate. Lit: 'be (neg) love'.

tùgà Pl: bètùgà. n. 7/8. cloth worn by woman.

túl v. set oneself.

túl/ tútúl v. (be) old (not young). Etym:
*nùn 'be old.'

tùmátù Pl: bòtùmátù. n. tomato. Etym.

Borrowed from English.

tùn n. 7/8. room.

tûn v. bless.

túnà v. fight. Etym: *dò.

túncêz *n.* sacrifice. (Also used for 'thank you.')

túndà v. attack.

tún Pl: mòtún. n. 9/6. suffering.

-túŋɔ̂ Sg: ètúŋɔ̂. Pl: mòtúŋɔ̂. n. 5/6. hump (of hunchback).

tùrà ndî v. wink (eye).

tútù adv. never.

tútúl Pl: mòtútúl. n. old man.

tùzěl v. blink.

twâd v. move away, migrate.

twâg v. leave for good.

twâl ncánj n. kingfisher.

twámbâ Pl: bòtwámbâ. n. 1. elder. 2.

firstborn.

twámbá mwàrá Pl: bòtwámbá bó

bwàrá. n. 1/2. old woman.

twámbòlò v. peck (tr).

twànó jwàn n. heron.

twàròlò v. cackle (like a chicken).

twè conj. even if.

twèg v. cook.

twèrà Pl: mètwèrà. n. 3/4. shivers. Eytm:

nominalization of twérà 'be startled.'

twérà v. (be) startled, (be) shocked.

Nominalization: twèrà (3) 'shiver.'

twîg v. pick up, collect.

twîn v. advise. Nominalization: mòtwinà

(6) 'advice.'

-twínà Pl: mòtwínà. n. 6. advice. Etym:

nominalization of twîn 'advise.'

twób num. six (6). Etym: tóóbá.

twôl Pl: mòtwôl. n. 9/6. navel. (5/6 in

Begne)

twòngàlá Pl: mètwòngàla. n. 3/4.

thought. Etym: nominalization of

twòŋgèlò 'think.'

-twòkòbà Pl: mètwòkòbà mó fùm. n. 4.

ghost (visible apparition). [Note: no

singular]

twòngòlò v. 1. think, reflect. 2.

remember.

tyâ n. 1. tax.

U - u

-úlógá *det.* Indefinite (INDEF). A certain, another.

-ùd Sg: mùd. Pl: bwùd. n. 1/2. person.

-ùd kwád Sg: mùd kwád. Pl: bùd kwád.

n. 1/2. inhabitant, resident. Lit:

-ùd ndé nà pòm Sg: mùd ndé nà nòm.

Pl: bùd ndé nà nòm. n. 1/2.

important person.

'person village'.

-ùd sâ Sg: mùd sâ. Pl: bùd bó bésâ. n.

1/2. owner.

-ùrûm Sg: mùrûm. Pl: bùrûm. n. man (male).

-ùrûm á jî yíndê Sg: mùrûm á jî
yíndê. Pl: bùrûm bá jî yíndê. n. 1/2.
black man. Etym: *jíd 'get black,
become black.'

ùtâŋ n. strength.

V - v

vàkàlà v. draw (picture).

-vîn Sg: èvîn. Pl: mòvîn. n. ebony tree.

[Note: rare as singular]

vólà v. help. *Etym:* borrowed from Center province languages (Ewondo?

Bulu?).

wángé

vólán

vólán n. help.

vúndò n. window.

vùg n. jokes.

W - w

 $\mathbf{w} = pro$. 3subj.

wà n. hunt.

wá v. give, put.

-wààŋg Sg: lèwààŋg. n. 5. song. [Note: songs sung in a group, with a lot of noise, hand-clapping, etc. Usually occur at a dúmb 'dance.']

wàdà [wàrà] v. rest.

wàdá [wàrà] *Pl:* mòwàdá. *n. 9/6.* rest, vacation.

wágòlà v. (be) stupid.

wàl Pl: bèwàl. n. 7/8. fear of risk. Etym:

*badek.

wàl Pl: bòwàl. n. 1/2. cookie, biscuit.

wál *Pl:* **bòwál**. *n*. 1/2. 1. fellow-wife. 2.

polygamy. Etym: *pádè (9).

-wàlà Sg: èwàlà. Pl: mòwàlà. n. 5/6.

hour.

wàlàfírà n. 1/2. hospital.

wámb Pl: bòwámb. n. harvest iron.

wâmb v. stalk, chase.

wâmbòlò v. sweep.

-wáŋ Pl: mòwáŋ. n. 6. fat.

wáŋgé n. gathering.

wàzà v. forget.

wázá Pl: mòwázá. n. 9/6. northerner.

wê v. grow up.

wèb v. comb.

-wèb Sg: èwèb. Pl: mòwèb. n. 5/6.

comb.

wènjé Sg: èwènjé. Pl: mòwènjé. n.

5/6. cocoon.

wéyà v. argue.

wè pro. you (singular) (emphatic)

wέ *pro*. 3emphatic.

-wênj Sg: èwênj. Pl: mòwênj. n. 5/6.

stork (marabou).

wôl v. wrap up.

wáz v. heap up.

wììnj v. untie, loosen.

wing v. chase, drive away. Etym:

*bèng.

wîmb v. want, desire.

wò pro. you (sg obj).

 $\mathbf{w} \hat{\mathbf{o}} = pro. \text{ you (sg sub)}.$

wò n. manner.

wó interr. which?

wô Pl: mèwô. n. 3/4. current (river,

stream). Etym: *gèdì, gèdà (3)

'stream.'

wô mbì interr. how? Lit. which type

wô myá interr. when? Lit. which time

wôg n. here (specific).

wòl v. get out, get up.

wómàn Pl: mòwómàn. n. 1. robe

(man's gown). 2. shirt.

-wó Sg: lèwó. Pl: mòwó. n. 5/6.

argument, quarrel

w3z ν. escape.

wú *n*. there.

wû v. leave (place). *Etym:* related to wul? take out?

-wûd Sg: èwûd. Pl: mòwûd. n. 5/6. hunting net, fishing net.

-wúg Sg: lèwúg. n. 5. hole. Etym:*pàkò (9).

wúgèlú adj. (be) empty.

wûl ν. boil over, boil (food). *Etym:* *béd.

 $\mathbf{wul} \ \ \nu$. take out (from container).

-wúlè Sg: èwúlè. n. 5. foam. Etym:

*púdì (9).

wúlógá myà adv. sometimes, olden

times. Lit: '3-INDEF 3-time'.

-wúm Sg: èwúm. Pl: mòwúm. n. 5/6. ten (10). Etym: *kómì (5).

wúmò Pl: mèwúmò. n. 3/4. reputation.

wúmò v. bear fruit.

wùnd Pl: bèwùnd. n. 7/8. groundnut, peanut.

wúrò kòg Pl: bòwúrò kòg. n. 1/2. puff adder. Etym: *pédè (9).

-wúrð má lánd Pl: mòwúrð má lánd.

n. 6. curdled milk, cottage cheese.

[Note: no singular]

wùrùg num. one (1). Alt. ŋgùrùg

wùz Pl: bèwùz. n. 7/8. abdomen (external).

wùzà v. throw away

Y - **y**

y = - pro. Non-referential subject. Etym:
 Derived from class 7 subject
 agreement.

yàbòrá Pl: bèyàbòrá. n. 7/8. attempt.

yàg v. recognize.

yàg n. potter's clay.

yâg look out.

yåg v. (be) serious, difficult.

yágèbè v. keep watch. Etym: derived from yâ 'look out.'

yàgàlò n. potter. Etym: from yàg 'potter's clay'.

yàlà v. answer, reply. Etym: *ját-ab 'answer.'

yàlá Pl: bèyàlá [bìyàlá]. n. 7/8.

response. Eytm: Nominalization of
yàlà 'answer, reply.'

yàŋ Pl: mèyàŋ. n. 3/4. paint.

yàng Pl: bèyàng. n. 7/8. rattle (musical instrument).

yáŋgà v. wander. Etym: díong 'wander.'

yé interr. where? Alt. yí

yénj Pl: bèyénj. n. 7/8. open place, clearing. Etym: *dèndé (5).

yênyén n. light.

yéz n. dry season. [Note: also means 'hot weather', 'daylight', 'sunshine', 'sun']yě nùm v. kiss.

yém n. domesticated animal. Etym:

*dàmá.

yèpèdà v. breathe.

yèpàdà n. breath.

yèsèbò v. (be) courageous, (be) brave,

(be) valiant.

yèz Pl: bèyèz [bìyès]. n. 7/8. bone.

yèg n. 7/8. clay.

yəkələ v. draw (picture).

yôm v. blow nose.

vî v. borrow, hire.

-yìdέ Sg: èyìdέ. n. 5. darkness. Etym:

*jíd 'get dark (v).'

yìg v. claim.

yîgəlè Pl: bòyîglè. n. 1/2. master.

yììg v. measure. Etym: *dèng 'measure.'

-vììgà Pl: mèyììgà. n. 4. government.

yílè n. 7/8. smoke.

yìlà v. incubate, set on eggs.

yîlò v. 1. watch. 2. look after, care for

(someone).

yîm v. (be) able.

yímò n. aardvark, antbear.

yìnó n. 7. finger.

yìnó kù n. 7. toe. Lit: 'finger foot'.

yìnó sóngô n. 7. thumb. Lit: 'finger

father'.

yínjà v. become.

yìtàbà v. turn round (intr).

yîz v. dry up, evaporate.

yò *pro*. 7object.

vò *n.* whetstone.

-yo Sg: lèyó. Pl: mòyó. n. 5/6. tears.

yò v. die. Alt. yà.

yò v. give. Alt. yà.

yò dòb v. feed (animals). Lit. give food

yò mbêz/ yò ntáŋ v. give as present.

Lit. give for nothing (in vain) / give like that.

yôl Pl: bòyôl. n. 1/2. giver. Etym: nominalization of yò 'give.'

yôlòn v. swing. Etym: *déd 'float, swing.'

-yôŋ Sg: èyôŋ. n. cold weather.

-y3 Pl: mòy3. n. 6. wailing, ululation (at funeral) (n). [Note: no singular]

y5g v. (be) fierce.

yôg ν. serve.

yúm v. (be) stuck. [Note: Not possible to get undone (without extreme action): blocked, condemned]
ywâg v. swim.

Z - z

-zùn- gen. 'our' (dual)