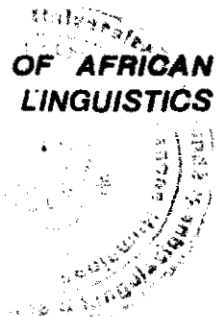


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THE NOUN CLASS SYSTEM  
OF  
KOLE

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfilment of the  
Requirements for the Award of a  
Post-Graduate Diploma (Maîtrise) in Linguistics

By

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Dedicated to my parents, brothers  
and sisters, with all my love.

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Thank the Lord

Irene S. Asobo

## List of Abbreviations and Symbols

CL	Class
NP	Nominal prefix
NPc	Nominal prefix
AP	Adjective prefix
DP	Demonstrative prefix
PP	Possessive prefix
APs	Associative prefix
DPe	Determinative prefix
VP	Verbal prefix
+	Morpheme boundary
//	Phonological representation
[ ]	Phonetic representation
Pl	Plural
sg	Singular
-->	realised as
V	vowel
C	Consonant
N	Noun
β	β (voice bilabial fricative)
β̥	β̥ (voiceless bilabial fricative)

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## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 Geographical Situation

The Kole language is a language spoken in the South West Province of Cameroon. The speakers of the language occupy six villages along the creeks of the coast namely, Betika, Njangasa, Bekanje, Ubenikang or Bekumu, Yenda and Bamusso. Bamusso has the native population and is also a sub-divisional headquarters.

According to Ardener (1956:13) these villages are surrounded by Efik fishing stations and are "bounded on the east by Lundu, by an enclave of the Lombi and by the Mboko villages". In addition to the six native villages, there are also a number of fishing settlements, scattered along the coast of Rio del Rey on the Gulf of Guinea in an area now known officially as Ida-Bato Sub-district. The surface area is flat and only broken by lagoons. It should be noted that the only means of transport between these villages is by use of a canoe since each village is surrounded by water and impenetrable swampy mangrove forest.

#### 1.2 History

According to informed sources, the people believe they have the same origin as the Dualas. As the story

goes, the clan came from Piti. The Chief of Piti had two sons, Ngassa Mbongo and Mbedi Mbongo. Mbedi Mbongo had the following sons, Kollé Mbedi, Duala Mbedi and Bojongo Mbedi who in turn had their own sons and daughters.

Duala Mbedi decided to marry one of his relatives but the other brothers disagreed. This led to fighting amongst themselves, especially as their father and grandfather had died. Bojongo begged for peace but to no avail, so he gathered his own clansmen and they took off in the night. They went their own way and the result today is the village of Bojongo in Fako Division.

After their brother deserted them, Duala and Kollé stopped fighting and left Piti. They then decided to separate as their brother was no longer on their side.

Mbedi Kollé took his clan and moved along the coast stopping first at Poka, then travelled further to Eyenge (a place near present-day Idenau). He decided to settle there because of its accessibility to the sea, for fishing was his main occupation. But due to very strong waves, he left Eyenge for Bekenje, another fishing settlement along the coast of Idenau, where he had the same problems. So he left again, leaving behind some of his followers. He reached Mbowe 'e ndene but food was lacking since they were basically a fishing tribe. Kollé eventually abandoned the open sea and moved up the creeks where he built on a large island, which is present-day



Bemusso, known then as Dibenye (bald head), because it was seen as trees surrounded by water.

It is also held that Mr. Clause, a white, visited the area and asked to know its name. The chief said it was called "bato ba mosso" meaning "people of the creeks."

The chief then sailed around the creeks, discovering and staking ownership on the smaller islands, until he reached the sea again. Such is the reason why the speakers of the Kols language are not united under one big village but are scattered amongst the creeks in fishing settlements. Ardener<sup>(1958:21)</sup> also records the same history.

### 1.3 Socio-economic Background

Socially, the Kols people are of a heterogenous nature, living in their various settlements with their chief at Bemusso. They interact mainly with the Nigerians, such as the Efiks, the Ibibios, the Ibos and the Ijaws. The natives themselves are outnumbered in their own villages. They number about four hundred, meanwhile immigrants from other tribes (both from Cameroon and Nigeria) number above five thousands, thus putting the overall population between five thousand and ten thousand, according to Alcam. They share cultural aspects with their hinterland neighbours, namely the Belundus, the Barombis, the Bambokos and the

Bakweris with whom they share the elephant dance and wrestling.

At the economic level, the Kola people are basically fishing orientated. All their efforts are bent on fishing which they barter on the Ekondo Titi beach at specific dates for foodstuffs such as plantain, cocoyams etc. Fishing here is done by men, women and children alike. Since the bulk of trade in this area is with Nigeria, the currency much used is the Naira, rather than the Francs. They buy clothes household utensils, tinned food, bathing materials etc. directly from Nigeria.

#### 1.4 The Language

##### 1.4.1 Linguistic Situation

Since the Kola language is of the same origin as the Duala language, there is a degree of intelligibility between them. There is also a degree of intelligibility between the Kola people and the Barombis, Bimbias, Bakweris, Balundus and the Botas.

It is a common occurrence to find a Kola speaker expressing a great degree of multilingualism by speaking efik, ibibio, balundu and the duala languages.

The Kola people, even though they understand the other afore listed languages, speak to them in their own respective languages.

Below is a chart comparing kole to the duala and the bakweri languages, which proves the point that there is genetic affinity between them.

Kole	Duala	Bakweri	English gloss
màríwá	médibá	málivá	water
mùréamá	mùléamá	ɔmèémá	heart
mbóri	mbódi	mbóli	goat
nyóró	nyólò	nyó	body
dísò	dísò	líhzò	eye
itámè	lémè	límè	jaw
iyóngó	iwóngó	jóngó	cooking pot
kpèrí	kwédí	kpèlí	death
mùkárásá	mùkálá	mòkálá	european
gbàmù	bwàm	gbàmù	goodness

The kole language has various names given by various tribes. The Efiks call it usem irombi "language of irombe", the Lundus call it motoko nwa bosama "language of bosama", the kweris call it mbosi ja banoko "language of banoko" and the kole themselves call it mbosi ja bano "language of bano". The appellation kole is derived from the leader or founder of the clan whose name was Kole.

The kole language is spoken in all the six fishing settlements (Bekanje, Ubenikang, Betika, Njangasa, Bekumu, Yenda and Bamusso), but it is not the lingua franca. The reason for this is because the immigrants

who make up more than half of the population tend to speak their own respective languages such as efik, ibo, ibibio and balundu. The whole community is a melange of all these languages and the people, both indigenes and immigrants speak them interchangeably. The lingua franca is pidgin English. Both the indigenes and the immigrants use it for wider communication, thus it is a bridge across ethnic groups.

As already mentioned, of all the various languages used in this zone, the kola language does not feature as the most widely used language. Actual native speakers are few and might continue to decrease due to pressure from other languages in the community. The mother tongue has become 'contaminated' with frequent loan words from various languages and even the English language. It was a common experience, while in field to have native speakers debate whether a particular word was in their own language or the other languages in the zone.

This situation is one of concern especially to the native speakers, because there might be just a possibility that, the four hundred remaining speakers will eventually disappear. The absence of secondary schools in the vicinity send away youths in quest of knowledge to towns like Kumba and Limbe. These youths after their education do not come back to settle but remain in the towns where their knowledge

will be put to use. This accounts for the gradual dying out of the ~~native speaker~~, after all, after studying who will want to come back to start acquiring fishing skills they had long lost, not only acquire skills but face the tough competition mounted by the Nigerians in fishing and in trade.

#### 1.4.2 Classification

Because of their similarities African languages are divided into language families, namely; Niger Kordofanian, Nilo Saharian, Afro Asiatic and Khoisan. According to Ardener, kole is a coastal bantu language. Coastal Bantu constitutes a minor division of Benue Congo, a sub classification of the Niger Kordofanian family. He goes further to classify it under the duala-limbe group which consists of duala, mongo, pongo, oli, Bodiman, kole and limbe. However, the Alcm presents a most clear classification. It places the coastal Bantu languages under zone 6. These are languages spoken from Limbe to Campo and inland. They are classified into groups A10, A20, A30 which are "Lundu-belong, duala" and "bube bengas" respectively by Guthrie. Under zone 6 kole appears as bakole on number 625.

### 1.4.3 Literature Review

It is most regrettable to note that the kolo language so far has not been an object of linguistic analysis. This might be because its sister language duale has been the main attraction right from when the Missionaries arrived in Cameroon and used it as a means of disseminating religion in the Coast of the Country. Duale has attracted linguists' attention and they tended to devote adequate analysis to it before breaking into new fields.

So far the little work on kolo has been carried out by Ewota Jemea, a lecturer in the Yaounde University. In this work The Phonology of Kolo (D.E.S 1973) he analyses the phonological structure of the Language, making an inventory of sounds and placing it in a chart, thus establishing a kind of alphabet for the language.

In 1956 Edwin Ardener published a book, Coastal Bantu of the Cameroons, which was more of a historical and sociological work than a Linguistic exploration. In it, kolo together with other coastal languages were studied from the point of view of their history, economy, geography, the degree of intelligibility between them and finally some sort of classification. In short, it was a general survey of all or most of the languages at the coast of Cameroon.

### 1.5 Goal and Methodology of Work

At a time when traditional societies are becoming rare and speakers are disappearing either through death or through assimilation into urban life, the continued existence of our diverse folk languages can no longer be ensured through their present oral mode of transmission. After all if we cannot save a people from extinction we can at least save their culture. And what better way than to codify language especially if we consider it as a very significant means of expressing culture.

The noun class system, which is the object of our study is a contribution and progress in linguistic science. The phonology of kole had been studied and this work <sup>does</sup> constitutes another dimension to the language. This research project, modest as it might be, is a contribution to the description of our national Languages. It lays the foundation for more exciting and detailed studies which, it is hoped, will further bring out the grammar of the language. This will eventually throw more light on the structure and rules that govern the language and finally to the establishment of the writing system of the language. Hopefully, this will be of benefit to the native speakers who will then be able to boast of knowing not only the structure and the rules but also how to write their own language.

As a matter of fact, it is hoped that a study of this language will make it possible to compare it with other languages, and this might bring about significant generalisations that will hold true for all the coastal Bantu languages of the Country.

### Methodology

The study focuses on the noun class system, and to get an apt description of this system, it will be necessary to use two linguistic theories; the structural and the generative approaches. The key notion in structuralism is that language is a system that can be broken down into smaller units, described scientifically and empirically, contrasted, compared and added up to form a whole. Given the above view, this theory seems apt in describing the noun class system because it means breaking down a noun, studying it empirically and scientifically and then adding it up to form a whole. But there is a catch. In analysing nouns, irregularities are noticed in the morphology where as theory claims that a language is systematic and regular. The solution to this problem is to postulate a deeper level where morphophonological regularities exist and a surface level where irregularities are found, but are linked to the former level by phonological rules. We are now in



the realm of the generative approach. Consequently, in this work pure structuralism is not used but knowledge is borrowed from the generative theory to fill in gaps otherwise left out.

The method herein thus consists of an analysis of nouns in terms of their respective prefixes in order to come out with the possible noun classes and corresponding prefixes that exist in the language. The concord system will then be considered to establish that chosen classes are correct and then texts to show their occurrence in context.

This study required a step by step analysis of a corpus of about 1,000 words. Those that began with the same prefixes were classified together, *not only that, but* other criteria were used to establish differences. The prefixes were then separated from their stems and placed in their various classes. The classes were paired into class genders be it single or double class, one class singular the other plural. To analyse the concord system, adjectives, numerals, pronominal forms were studied in the form of phrases from which the concordial prefix was then picked out. Texts were recorded, transcribed and their word for word and free translation obtained.

All the above required a journey into the field. We travelled to Kumba, from there to Ekondo Titi beach where We took an engine boat or flying boat as it is called, to Bamusso, the stronghold of the language.

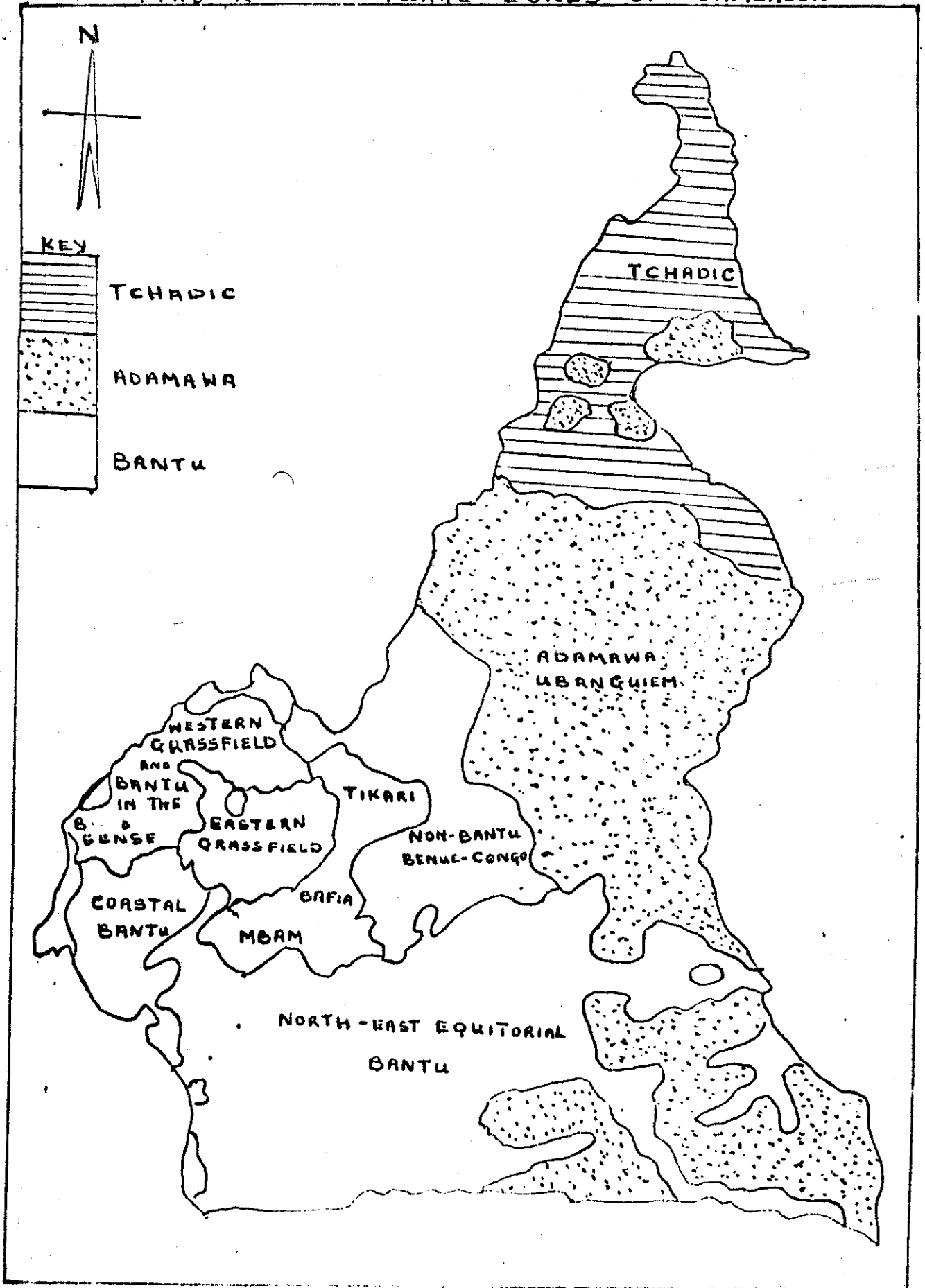
### 1.6 The Data Sources

This work was realised with a corpus of about 1000 words, a substantial number of phrases, a few texts collected through the help of six principal informants namely:

NAMES	AGE	PROFESSION	RESIDENCE
Johnson Ewea Etienne	49	Secretary General council Isangele	Bamusso
Harry E. Mokongo	64	Municipal Administrator Bamusso	Bamusso
Emmanuel M. Mbulah	64	Nightwatch MIDEPECAM	Bamusso
Ngenje Njoh Thomas	50	Nursing superinten- dent	Limbe
Etongo Gabriel	52	Member of Parliament	Bamusso
Chief Mbola	60	Retired civil servant	Kumba

The informants were asked to translate orally from English to kole. Four of the informants were at Bamusso, and during working sessions before a translation was given, they often argued amongst themselves and, I am convinced, often came out with the accepted version. The data collected was partly verified through the kind assistance of Ewota James who is a native speaker of the Language. A written text of the history was got from Bamusso from the chief.

## 2. MAJOR LANGUAGE ZONES OF CAMEROON



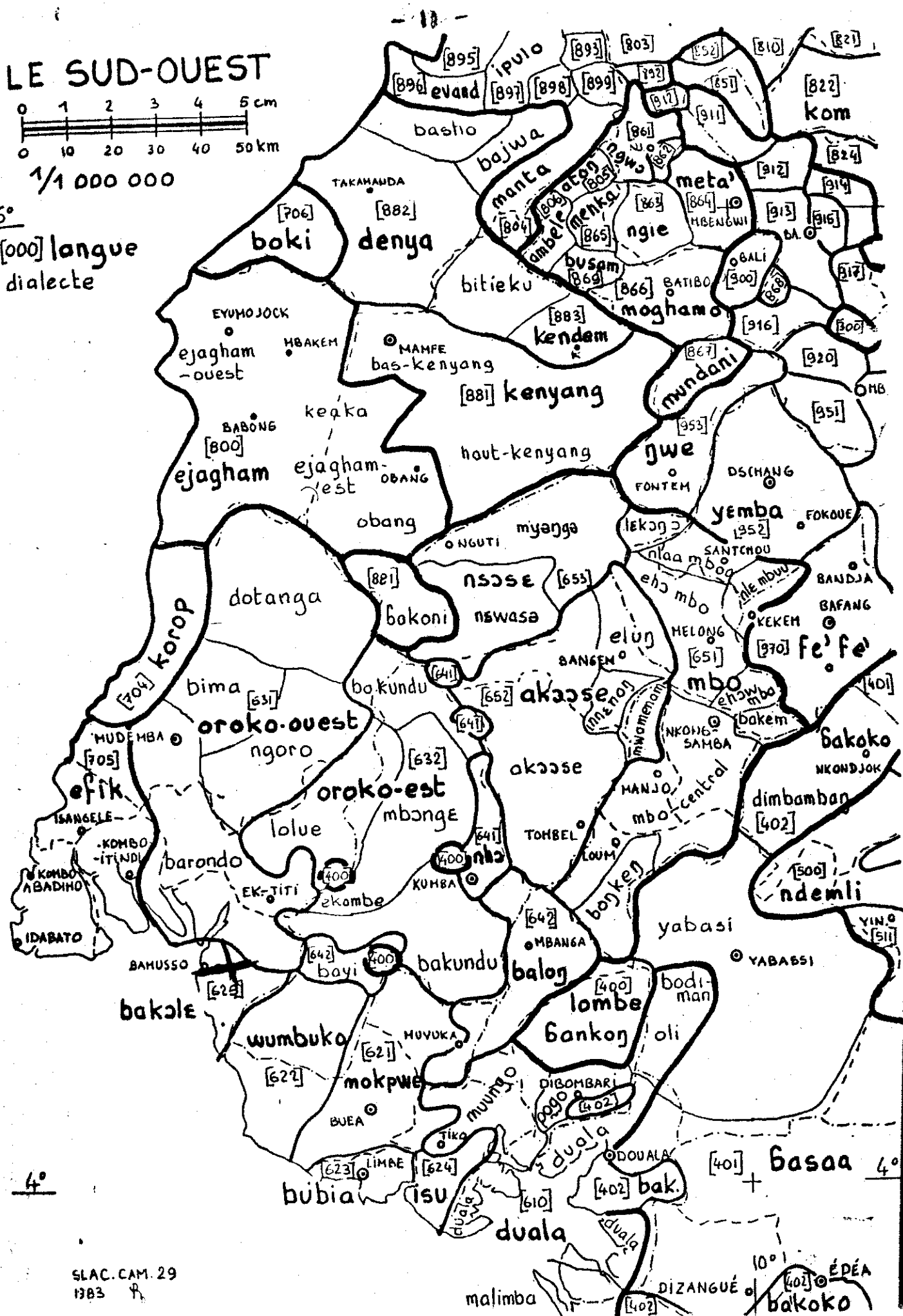
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# LE SUD-OUEST



1/1 000 000

6°  
[000] langue  
dialecte



4°

CHAPTER II

GENERAL PHONOLOGY OF KOLÉ

Introduction

Although this work is based on the analysis of the various noun classes in Kolé, , a brief sketch of the phonology will be necessary. This is because it provides the material used for the phonetic transcription of the data for the purposes of this study.

Consequently, I will, . . . , refer to Jemea Ewota's Phonology of Kolé (1973) . The vowel system will be looked at, followed by the consonant system. Next will be the syllable and morpheme structure of the nouns and then a resumé of the tonal system. The phonetic transcription used in this work has been adopted from the General alphabet of Cameroon languages (M. Tadedjeu and E. Sadembouo 1984).

2.1 Phonetic Vowels

The following are the phonetic vowels found in kolé: i, e, ε, u, o, ɔ, and a.

It is possible to have the above vowels lengthened, *though it is not phonemic*  
Below are examples:

dií	"hair"	mùú	"ghost"
mèà	"palm"	ngòó	"wind"

Vowels in the morphology of a word might become semi-vowels. This is noticeable in closed and mid vowels where [e] and [u, o] become semi vowels [ɥ] and [w] respectively. Thus the vowels have two allophones which are semi-vowels.

Rules

/mù/	-->	[mw]	/ - v
/bò/	--->	[bw]	/ - v
/mè/	--->	[my]	/ - v
/bè/	--->	[by]	/ - v

There are times, when a continuous sequence of two vowels occur, one vowel is dropped and the other kept.

Examples

/mù + òrì/	--->	[mòrì]
/mù + òsó/	--->	[mòsó]

At other times when there is a continuous sequence of two vowels, a glide is introduced or inserted. For a sequence of back rounded vowels u, ə; o, ə; a /w/ glide is interposed. For a sequence of front/front or front/back vowel e.g. e, ə; e, i; a /j/ glide is interposed.

Examples

wès	--->	wèʷs	"fire"
ngès	--->	ngèʷs	"road"
mbis	--->	mbiʷs	"groundnuts"
mbùs	--->	mbùʷs	"rain"
ngòs	--->	ngòʷs	"pig"

It is important to stress here that for the sake of keeping transcription uniform with that of other Bantu languages e.g. duals the intervening glides have been omitted. Any reader who comes across such words should remember the implications.

The chart below illustrates these vowels.

POSITION OF HEIGHT OF TONGUE OF TONGUE AND LIPS	FRONT UNROUNDED	CENTRAL	BACK ROUNDED
HIGH (CLOSED)	i ii		u uu
HIGH (MID)	e ee		o oo
LOW (MID)	ɛ ɛɛ		ɔ ɔɔ
LOW (CLOSED)		ə əə	

## 2.2 Phonetic Consonants

The following are the phonetic consonants found in kolé

P, t, k, j, ŋ, b, d, b, ɸ, ɸ, m, l, f, r,  
 nj, nd, ny, mb, s, y, gg, w, n, kp, gb, ggʷ  
 ngb,



It should however be noted that /p/ a bilabial plosive is becoming quite rare in kòlè. It is either replaced by the voiceless labio dental /f/ or it is a cross between /p/ and /f/ becoming a voiceless bilabial fricative [ɸ]

Examples	<u>fóndé</u>	póndé	"time"
	<u>éfùfà</u>	èpùpè	"rainy season"
	<u>mòfémbé</u>	mòpémbé	"nose"

Also segments like [l], [d], [r] occur in free variation in all environments except in the sequence /nd/ where [d] is a distinct phoneme.

Examples	ndáwò	"house"
	ndùtù	"sorrow"

The [l] segment is fast disappearing from the language. So that a native speaker would say "kòrè" instead of "kòlè". Similarly, /d/ becomes /r/ as in

màribá	<u>màriwá</u>	"water"
idádi	<u>iràrè</u>	"stone"
èlèlè	<u>èrèrè</u>	"duck"

In some cases /b/ and /w/ occur in free variation

màribá	<u>màriwá</u>	"water"
ndábo	<u>ndáwò</u>	"house"

The accompanying chart illustrates the manner and place of articulation of these consonants.

	PLACE OF ARTICULATION	LABIALS	LABIO-DENTALS	ALVEO-LARS	PRE-PALATALS	PALATALS	VELARS	LABIO-VELARS
VOICELESS STOPS	p			t				kp
VOICE	b, bw			d				
VOICELESS AFFRICATES								gb
VOICE								
VOICELESS FRICATIVES	o		f	s				
VOICE	B							
PRE-NASALISED STOPS	mb		nd		nj			gb
NASALS	m, mw		n			ny		gb
LATERALS			l					
VIBRANTS			r					
GLIDES					y			w

### 2.3 Syllable and Morpheme Structure of Nouns

Kole nouns have a basic syllable of a nucleus V and an optional C element which can either be at the onset or coda position. Thus the canonical form is (C) V (C) and the most dominant of these syllable patterns is CV. Below are the possible patterns with examples.

Syllable Pattern	Example	Gloss	Noun Pattern
V	èkà	market	VCV
CV	kó	snail	CV
CVV	mbóà	village	CVV
CVCV	mòtò	person	CVCV

The kole noun permits initial and medial complex consonants such as ngb, nd, nj mw, bw etc. The complex consonants usually belong to the same syllable, thus no successful articulatory attempt can be made, to separate them before their syllabic peak.

Examples	ngbâ	"dog"	CV
	mwàitò	"women"	CV'CV
	wàngá	"forest"	CVCV
	njɔ	"tiger"	CVC

The above structures are all of the open type. There are also closed syllabled nouns existing in the language but because they are so few, one can say that kolo has an open syllable structure. Not more than three CVC structures have been registered in the kolo transcription in the text.

Examples	ngèn	"bell"	CVC
	ngbàn	"wealth"	CVC
	mbòṅ	"good/fine"	CVC

As already mentioned, the basic syllable structure is CV but there are cases where CVV is observed and in this case the boundary is CVV. This might be as a result of rapid speech where the intervening C in a CVCV structure is dropped through contraction.

Example

à ómbòéří "he looks at you" V V CV V CV

In rapid speech the above is rendered as a single word. Mean while it is

à	w	ó	mbòéří	V	CV	CV	CV	CV
he	you		look					

Another process, affixation, can lead to a CV V structure. This is realised when a noun prefix that ends with a vowel is brought in front of a stem that

begins with a vowel. The following nouns in their plural forms illustrates the process.

m-òngò	-->	mè-òngò	"friends"	cl 3/4
m-òrì	-->	mè-òrì	"ropes"	cl 3/4
m-òsò	-->	mè-òsò	"rivers"	cl 3/4

Most nominal prefixes which are morphemes have a CV structure such as classes 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 13 and 14. There are V structures in classes 7 and 9. As for the concordial morphemes, classes 7 and 19 are basically V structured together with classes 9 and 10. The rest of the the classes have a CV structure. This can be seen in the table containing the nominal and the concordial morphemes at the end of the section treating the concord system.

#### 2.1.4 Tones

The kòlè language makes use of four level tones. These tones are H (high), L (low), LH (low-high rising tone), HL (high-low falling tone).

Examples	kpérì	"death"
	èkpà	"bag"
	ngbâ	"dog"
	yètà	"reply"

The following tonal systems are found in kòle

a) monosyllabic

kó "snail"

mbò "honey"

b) disyllabic

dìbé "breast"

ngóli "belt"

mbóà "village"

ngirà "lion"

c) trisyllabic

kárará "corn"

mótútù "smoke"

mùkèyé "egg"

mòkókó "sugercane"

iréndè "knife"

C H A P T E R III

NOUN CLASS SYSTEM

This section deals with the bulk of this work. As the title suggests, it treats the noun classes, prefixes, the concord system and finally the gender and semantic contents of the classes

3.1 Noun Classes

A noun class is a group of words that distinguish themselves in a language by common affixes which can be a prefix, suffix, or both. The affix is added to a stem and each affix will belong to a particular class listing 10-25, according to Guthrie (1967).

In a noun class there is an amalgamation of both the grammatical category and the number.

Examples	mò-tò	"person"	cl 1
	bà-tò	"persons"	cl 2

mo- signifies both the class which is cl 1 and the number which is singular.

ba- signifies class two and plurality.

There is no affixe to mark number separately from class.

In languages that have the noun class system especially Bantu, distinction in sex is not pertinent

i.e. there is no difference between masculine and feminine as in English "he" or "she".

In "Noun classes in the Grassfields Bantu Borderland" edited by Hymen (1980) Hedinger, in his paper, "The Noun class system of Akoose" discusses possible criteria used to establish individual noun classes as contrastive. Below are the criteria.

1) The occurrence of nouns with a specific set of noun prefixes. A particular class will have a specific nominal prefix plus a root.

Example:

cl 7	è-fùmá	"fruit"
	è-bárá	"scor"
	è-rèrà	"duck"
cl 8.	bè-fùmá	"fruits"
	bè-bárá	"scars"
	bè-rèrà	"ducks"

So words beginning with the prefix /e-/ will be considered as belonging to a particular class (cl 7) and the prefix /be-/ belongs to class 8.

2) The occurrence of nouns with a particular set of concording elements. This is seen in the light that a particular class of nouns will have a specific set of



concordial prefix to mark the class. This aspect is discussed at length in Chapter III.

3) The pairing of a certain class with another class as singular/plural. In the above example class 7 can only pair with class 8. This criterion can of course not be applied when the singular/plural dichotomy is irrelevant i.e. for mass and abstract nouns.

It is worthwhile to add here that certain nouns distinguish themselves in a particular class by being semantically correlated. It has been known that the semantic correlation of class 1 nouns is that they are human beings and it is common to find animals belonging in class 9.

Generally, the kolo noun is composed of a prefix and a stem. But in some cases, especially in class 1, there is a prefix, a stem and a *suffix*. This occurs when the noun is derived from a verb. That is, to get a word like "a traveller", the kolo language will construct it as "somebody who goes". Below are examples.

- mù - prefix (cl.1)  
kéisè - stem (verb) "to judge"  
ri - suffix  
mùkéisèri "judge"
  
- mù - prefix (cl.1)  
réè - stem (verb) "to teach"  
ri - suffix  
mùréèdi "teacher"
  
- mù - prefix (cl.1)  
bènè - stem (verb) "to own"  
ri - suffix  
mùbènèri "owner"

It should be noted that the classification of nouns into classes is not inherent in the noun stems but rather, it is associated with the prefix. Thus a stem is unchangeable while the prefix changes according to class. The stem accepts the prefixes, which are on it, because on it's own, it is not a noun. They have to be always attached to the stem. These grammatical morphemes (prefixes) which is our focus in the next section, will be treated by means of analysis and commentaries thus bringing out basic forms and stating their distribution.

### 3.2 Noun Prefixes

In this section the identified noun prefixes of kolo will be treated systematically. It should however be noted that all the corresponding proto-Bantu prefixes were collected before stems with initial consonants. These prefixes are therefore bound to change, thus resulting in allomorphy, when they occur before a stem with an initial vowel. The basis then, on which a particular prefix is chosen as basic allomorph is gotten firstly from the distribution taking into consideration the environments in which they occur. Secondly the frequency of occurrence of a particular prefix in class will also be considered. Below are the various classes and their prefixes with examples.

#### Class 1 /mù-/

This class has three allomorphs from the morpheme of the nominal prefix. The allomorphs are [mò-], [mù-], [mw-]. A lot of problems arise here due to the fact that it is difficult to pose one of the allomorphs as basic. The main difficulty is between [mò-] and [mù-]. If [mò-] is chosen as the basic allomorph, how can we explain the process of [o] becoming [u]? One can say it is a raising process where the high-mid [o] becomes a complete high vowel [u]. This cannot be the case,

because the process does not occur in all contexts where [u] is concerned, as seen from the corpus. Now if /mù-/ is taken as the basic allomorph, it will be more natural to see a lowering process occurring where [u] becomes [o] because one deduces that /mù/ becomes [mo-] when the preceding segment resembles it. This can further be explained by the fact that the vowel of the prefix becomes lowered in relation to that of the stem. Thus the prefix CV has V as [o] each time the root CV also has V as [o]. As for [mw-] one can easily see that it is the realisation of /mù-/ in front of a vowel. A prose statement of the above is that /mù-/ is realised [mò-] in front of a consonant followed by a vowel [o], and [mw-] in front of a vowel, and [mù] elsewhere. The following are examples:

- /mù/ ---> [mw-] / - V
- /mù + éná/ ---> [mw-éná] "child"
- /mù + èítò/ ---> [mw-èítò] "woman"
- /mù + èndéři ---> [mw-èndéři] "traveller"
  
- /mù-/ ---> [mò] / - CV<sub>1</sub> V : [o]
- /mù + tò/ ---> [mò-tò] "person"

It should not be that almost half of the nouns of this class are constructed from the word "mòtò" which can roughly be translated as "person of..." thus

mò-t? à ngàngà "medecine man"

- /mù-/	-->	[mù]	/ elsewhere	
/mù + tìnè/	-->	[mù-tìnè]		"elder"
/mù + kènèrì/	-->	[mù-kènèrì]		"chief"
/mù + rèmbà/	-->	[mù-rèmbà]		"witch"

### Class 1(a)

This class is related to class 1. It treats parental relationships. No known prefix belongs to this class. Below are examples.

tátà	"father"
iyè (	"mother"
ngùndèrì	"girl"
nyùwé	"orphan"
sàngwémè	"father"

Those that have plural formation do so with class 2 which will next be examined.

### Class 2 /bà-/

There are two allomorphs of the nominal prefix which are [ba-] and [b-]. Here it will not be so difficult to postulate a basic allomorph for one can clearly see that [b-] is a realisation from /bà-/ when it occurs before stems with an initial vowel. Thus /bà-/ is realised [b-] in front of a vowel, and [bà-] elsewhere. The following are examples of this class.

- /bà-/	--->	[b-] / - V	
/bà + èndéři/	--->	[b-èndéři]	"travellers"
/bà + éná/	--->	[b-éna]	"children"
/bà + àítò	--->	[b-àítò]	"women"
/bà + ètá/	--->	[b-ètá]	"beggars"
- /bà-/	--->	[bà-] / elsewhere	
/bà + wòrèdi/	--->	[bà-wòrèdi]	"neighbours"
/bà + kéré/	--->	[bà-kéré]	"Europeans"
/bà + tìnà/	--->	[bà-tìnà]	"elders"
/bà + sèngwémè	--->	[bà-sèngwémè]	"fathers"
/bà + tò/	--->	[bà tò	"persons"

Class 3 /mù-/

At first glance this class looks just like class 1 in terms of nominal prefix. Even the allomorphs of the morpheme are almost the same and these are [mò- mù- mw-]. Thus, it will be necessary to first postulate reasons why they are considered different classes. There are two main differences. The first is that the Bantu noun class double gender 1/2 contains personal nouns, and this is evident in kòle while 3/4 contains objects (non-personal). The second difference is that nouns of these two classes 1 and 3 take their plural from two different classes 2 and 4 respectively. Thus the semantic content and plural formation make it possible

to postulate a difference between class 1 and class 3 eventhough they have the same prefixes.

Now we look on to which of the allomorphs can be postulated as a basic allomorph. We think and as can clearly be seen, that the same process for class 1 holds true for this class. /mu-/ is realised [mw-] in front of a vowel, [mɛ] in front of the vowel [o-] and [mɛ] elsewhere.

- /mù-/ --> [mw-] / - V
  - /mù + àngé/ --> [mwàngé] "root"
  - /mù + èngé/ --> [mwèngé] "song"
  - /mù + èndé/ --> [mwèndé] "foot"
  - /mù + èndi/ --> [mwèndi] "news"
  
- /mù-/ --> [m-] / - V [o]
  - /mù + òsó/ --> [mòsó] "river"
  - /mù + òrí/ --> [mòrí] "rope"
  - /mu + ongo/ --> [mòngó] "friend"
  
- /mù-/ --> [mò-] / - CV V [o]
  - /mù + kòrí/ --> [mòkòrí] "hill"
  - /mù + ròngì --> [mòròngì] "sheep"
  - /mù + kòyíkòyì --> [mòkòyíkòyì] "frog"
  
- /mù-/ --> [mù-] / - elsewhere
  - /mù + nyèrè --> [mùnyèrè] "earth"

/mù + rémà/	--->	ɛmùrémə]	"heart"
/mù + rùmbù/	-->	ɛmùrùmbù]	"mouth"
/mù + yá/	-->	ɛmùyá]	"in-law"

Class 4 /mè-/

This class is normally the plural for class 3. It has two allomorphs realised as [me-] and [my-]. The first allomorph is realised in front of stems with an initial consonant and the second one is in front of stems of an initial vowel. Which can we now choose as the basic allomorph? A complication arises because [me-] which can be said to occur before consonants also has vowels occurring. If [my-] is chosen as basic allomorph the problem will be to decide how [y] becomes [e]. One cannot say it is a lowering process, where /y/ --> [e] because it will have to pass through [i], thus a chain /y/ --> /i/ --> [e] is formed but this has not been attested in the language. As a result [my-] cannot be chosen as basic allomorph. If [mè-] is considered as basic allomorph one would take into consideration the fact that in this language high closed or mid vowels, can easily be transformed into glides, when they are followed by another vowel. The front vowels become [y] and the back vowels [w]. The prose statement of this will be that /mè-/ becomes [my-]



infront of vowels and /me-/ infront of consonants.

Below are examples:

- /mè/	--->	[my-] / - V	
/mè + èndé/	--->	[myèndé]	"feet"
/mè + àngá/	--->	[myàngá]	"roots"
/mè + àngò/	--->	[myàngò]	"drying lines"
/mè + éni/	--->	[myèni]	"fingers"
- /mè/	--->	[mè-] / - C	
/mè + kùmbè/	--->	[mèkùmbè]	"guns"
/mè + rôngi/	--->	[mèrôngi]	"sheep"
/mè + kòrì/	--->	[mèkòrì]	"hills"
/mè + nyèrè/	--->	[mènyèrè]	"earth"

The analysis of this class is not finished. From the corpus it is noticed that the prefix [mè-] does also occur: infront of stems with an initial vowel.

But ) but if we look closely it will be realised that mé- only occurs if the following vowel is [o]. It seems as if we come back to class 3, its singular counterpart, where /m-/ is realised, if the following vowel of the root is [o]. Examples are as follows:

/mè/	--->	[mè-] / - V, V [o]	
/mè + òrì/	--->	[mèòrì]	"ropes"

/mè + ósó/	---	[mèósò]	"rivers"
/mè + ongó	---	[mèòngó]	"friends"
/mè + ónà/	---	[mèónà]	"doors"

Class 5 /dì-/

The prefix formation of this class is very complex. There are as many as six allomorphs, [dì-, d-, lí, l, ì, j-] including a zero prefix. The choice of any of these as a basic allomorph is a monumental task. In reality we will be considering, the five first allomorphs, since it will not be logical to say a  $\emptyset$  prefix is the basic allomorph. Most researchers often encounter this problem and they end up by choosing one or the other for various reasons. For practical and logical reasons, which will become clear as we progress, the allomorph [dì] has been chosen as the basic allomorph. Now, how does dì- move to [d-] then to [ì], [lí] and [j-]. The [lí-] allomorph does not need any justification for its presence for [ì] and [d] are in free variation when they occur as prefixes [dì] becomes [d] in front of vowels.

~~This will further be discussed when treating class 13~~  
[dì-] occurs in front of the alveolar sounds [t, s, r]. We are now left with [j]. How does a simple consonant [dì-] pass to a complex one [j]. Considering the other classes we notice that it is not [dy-] in front of vowels

but [d-] One can conclude that, because language is a system, instead of [dy-], kɔle language uses [j] in front of vowels, when it is not [d-] i.e. [d] palatalised becomes [j]. Therefore, as always been the case, if a vowel of a prefix does not drop, a glide is formed. In this case, each time a vowel occurs at the initial stem position, we have [d-] and when it is to become a glide [dy-] we have [j-] as [dy-] is non-existent in the language. Below are examples:

- /dì-/ --> [d-] / - V
  - /dì + òwá/ --> [dòwá] "stool"
  - /dì + ísù/ --> [dísù] "eye"
  
- /dì-/ --> [j-] / - V [ə]
  - /dì + àá/ --> [jàá] "hand"
  - /dì + àrábè --> [jàrábè] "reply"
  
- /dì-/ --> [li] / - C (free variants with tendency towards [di])
  - /dì + bàtò/ --> [dibàtò] "cloth"
  - /dì + bɔngɔbɔngɔ/ --> [dibɔngɔbɔngɔ] "knee"
  
- /dì-/ --> [i-] / - C t  
s  
r
  - /dì + sùngá/ --> [ísùngá] "tooth"
  - /dì + rárè/ --> [írárè] "stone"
  - /dì + támà/ --> [ítámà] "jaw"

- /dì-/	-->	[dì-]	/ elsewhere	
/dì + kəkò/	-->	[dikəkò]		"crab"
/dì + βùndè/	-->	[dìβùndè]		"cup"
/dì + kpàmbà/	-->	[dikpàmbà]		"cassava"
/dì + wúní/	-->	[dìwúní]		"okra"
/dì + bá/	-->	[dìbá]		"marriage"

It is now necessary to say something about the zero prefix. We noticed that the nouns considered as having a zero prefix always had one of the allomorphs (prefixes) as an initial consonant. Thus the allomorphs [d-, l-, i-] all occurred as the initial consonant of the stem.

Below are examples:

- døkò	"game"
- dìí	"hair"
- lèndé	"journey"
- ìndí	"anus"

The above are considered as not having a prefix on the basis that, in their plural formation, the prefix is added to what we have above thus it then becomes a stem. Examples will be given when treating class 6.

Class 6 /mè-/

This class is not as complex as its singular counterpart. It has two allomorphs from the prefixal morphem [mè-], [m-]. The problem of choosing a basic allomorph

is the same as that of class 2 [bè-] and [b-].

If [m-] is chosen, there will be an insertion rule where [ə] is inserted when the prefix occurs before stems with an initial vowel. Let us consider the other allomorph [mə-]. It will be said that [mə-] occurs before consonants and [m-] in front of vowels where the [ə] is deleted in front of other vowels. This is a more natural rule than the first one for as already seen, vowels are dropped or changed to glides when they occur in front of other vowels. It is more convincing than the first rule because there is no need for inserting a vowel and then introduce a low tone. Moreso mə- is the proto Bantu form for class 6 and most languages have it too. The following are examples:

- /mə-/ --> [m-] / - V
- /mə + òwá/ --> [mòwá] "stool(s)"
- /mə + ísù/ --> [mísù] "eyes"
- /mə + ìndí/ --> [mìndí] "anuses"
  
- /mə-/ --> [mə-] / - elsewhere
- /mə + réndè/ --> [məréndè] "knives"
- /mə + rokò/ --> [məròkò] "games"
- /mə + sùngá/ --> [məsùngá] "teeth"
- /mə + bàtò/ --> [məbàtò] "cloths"

Class 6 (a) / /mə/

The main difference between this class and cl 6

lies in their semantic contents. Class 6 which is the plural counterpart of cl. 5 and 9, has parts of the body utensils etc as semantic content while class 6 (a) has non-countable nouns, in particular, liquids. In terms of allomorphs, it has only [mə] thus, it is the basic allomorph. Below are examples:

- /mə-/	--->	[mə-] / - C	
/mə + riwá/	--->	[məriwá]	"water"
/mə + Búrú/	--->	[məBúrú]	"oil"
/mə + yà/	--->	[məyà]	"blood"
/mə + nyàngà	--->	[mənyàngà]	"palm-nut-oil"

#### Class 7 /è-/

This class is very rich in terms of nouns, in kòle language. In terms of prefix, it is one of the least complex of classes. This is because it has two phonetic realisations of the prefix and this is [è-] and [éy-]. If [éy-] is taken as the basic allomorph, we have to account for the passage of /éy-/ to [è-]. One can easily see that a deletion process occurs when [éy-] occurs before stems with an initial consonant. Now let us consider /è-/ as the basic allomorph. We find that it is more natural (because it is a process that has been occurring in the previous classes). Thus, [è-] becomes [éy-] in front of vowels. The following are examples of this class

- /è-/ ---> [èy-] / - V  
/è + òndí/ ---> [èyòndí] "island"  
/è + óngókòrí/ ---> [èyóngókòrí] "chameleon"  
/è + àrí/ ---> [èyàrí] "leaf"
- /è-/ ---> [è-] / - C  
/è + sùmbú/ ---> [èsùmbú] "grass"  
/è + mùnè/ ---> [èmùnè] "wave"  
/è + wèkè/ ---> [èwèkè] "chimpanzee"  
/è + fùmó/ ---> [èfùmó] "fruit"  
/è + kpà/ ---> [èkpà] "bag"

Class 8 /bè-/

This class is the plural counterpart of class 7. It has the same realisation in terms of prefix formation. There are two phonetic realisations [be-] and [by-]. Because it is the same phenomenon<sup>as</sup> in the preceding class we will just go straightaway and say [bè-] is the basic allomorph and [by-] is realised only when the stem has an initial vowel. Examples of this class are:

- /bè-/ ---> [by] / - V  
/bè + òndí/ ---> [byòndí] "islands"  
/bè + óngókòrí/ ---> [byóngókòrí] "chameleons"  
/bè + àrí/ ---> [byàrí] "leaves"

- /bè-/	--->	ɾbè-ɾ/	0	
/bè + tàndá/	--->	ɾbètàndáɾ		"ants"
/bè + bò/	--->	ɾbèbòɾ		"shells"
/bè + rèrè/	--->	ɾbèrèrèɾ		"ducks"
/bè + fùfà/	--->	ɾbèfùfàɾ		"dry seasons"
/bè + mùnè/	--->	ɾbèmùnèɾ		"waves"
/bè + wàkè/	--->	ɾbèwàkèɾ		"chimpanzees"

Class 9 /N-/

This class is greatly represented, in terms of nouns in kòle language. At first glance one might be tempted to say the sequence [mb-] [nd] [ng] [nj-] are composed of one unit. It holds quite true that most of the above sequences are separate phonemes. It is also quite true that they occur in initial position only in this class and class ten. It is granted that the nasal sounds can not be separated from the oral ones, or it might result in a strange sound that is artificial to the language. Thus the prefix for these group of sequences is zero since the NC structure is considered as initial of the stem

To take the above stand will be assuming a morphology that is not adequate to describe the kòle noun. Consider it this way. The morphem /N-/ a non-syllabic nasale, is postulated as the basic allomorph of this



class. It is homorganic when found in front of voiced segments. This is then realised as a zero allomorph in front of voiceless segments, and has the [ny]realisation in front of vowels. The above is based on the fact that [d-] [b-] [j-] can be found in initial position on stems. This is true because the sounds do exist without being prenasalised in the language consequently the language has [b] [d] [j] at an initial stem position rendering /N-/ as a prefix of this class. It should be noted that though these sounds are separated the nasal is non-syllabic and is pronounced as homorganic with the stem consonant. Thus it will be better to choose this analysis than the previous because it makes a significant generalisation about the facts of the language. It should also be noted that it is only at word initial that [mb-] and the other homorganic nasals are separated. In word medial position they are regarded as one segment. Below are examples of this class.

- /N-/	-->	[m-]	/ - /b/	
/N + bóà/	-->	[mbóà]		"country"
/N + bóri	-->	[mbóri]		"goat"
/N + bòtí/	-->	[mbòtí]		"dress"
/N + bùs/	-->	[mbùs]		"rain"

- /N-/ --> [ŋ-] / - :g]
- /N + gòndó/ --> [ŋgòndó] "groundnuts"
- /N + gbwà/ --> [ŋgbwà] "dog"
- /N + gbèré/ --> [ŋgbèré] "bush"
- /N + gòmbé/ --> [ŋgòmbé] "porcupine"
- 
- /N-/ --> [n-] / - :d]
- /N + dùmbú/ --> [ndùmbú] "nest"
- /N + dǎwà/ --> [ndǎwò] "house"
- 
- /N-/ --> [n] / - :j]
- /N + jèkù/ --> [njèkù] "elephant"
- /N + jóh/ --> [njǎ] "tiger"
- /N + jònji/ --> [njònji] "whale"
- /N + jǎwá/ --> [njǎwá] "bee"
- 
- /N-/ --> [ny] / - V
- /N + àkà/ --> [nyàkà] "cow"
- /N + órò/ --> [nyórò] "body"
- /N + èkè/ --> [nyèkè] "snail"
- /N + àmà/ --> [nyàmà] "fish"
- 
- /N-/ --> [ɸ] / - C voiceless
- /N + kémà/ --> [kémà] "monkey"
- /N + kàràrà --> [kàràrà] "corn"
- /N + sùkànéri --> [sùkànére] "beginning"
- /N + fòé/ --> [fòé] "rat"
- /N + fíndì/ --> [fíndì] "gun powder"

Class 10 /N-/

The structure of the prefix of class 10 is identical to that of class 9. It is thus difficult to say one set of nouns are class 9 and the other class 10, since the prefixes are the same. But this task is made easier if we consider the fact that class 9 is the plural of class 10. The same basic allomorph /N-/ is chosen. Below are examples.

- /N-/ ---> [m] / - [b]
- /N + bàmbà/ ---> [mbàmbà] "snakes"
- /N + bõ/ ---> [mbõ] "honey"
- /N + bújá/ ---> [mbújá] "nets"
  
- /N-/ ---> [g] / - [g]
- /N + girà/ ---> [rgirà] "lions"
- /N + gèá/ ---> [rgèá] "roads"
- /N + gùá/ ---> [rgùá] "pigs"
  
- /N-/ ---> [n] / - [d]
- /N + dǎwò/ ---> [ndǎwò] "houses"
- /N + dùmbù/ ---> [ndùmbù] "nests"
  
- /N-/ ---> [n] / - [j]
- /N + jèrì/ ---> [njèrì] "chins"
- /N + úgù/ ---> [njúgù] "navel"
- /N + jàkì/ ---> [njàkì] "rings"

- /N-/ --> [ny] / - V
  - /N + ìgó/ --> [nyìgó] "throats"
  - /N + ònjó/ --> [nyònjó] "mushrooms"
  - /N + áfàfè/ --> [nyáfàfè] "armpits"
  
- /N-/ --> [ɸ] / - C voiceless
  - /N + kémà/ --> [kémà] "monkeys"
  - /N + fòé/ --> [fòé] "rats"
  - /N + tòkò/ --> [tòkò] "calabashes"
  - /N + kàràrà --> [kàràrà] "corn"

The main difference between class 9 and 10 can only be brought out by the concord system. More details will be got from the chapter on concord.

### Class 13 /dè/ or /lò/

This is a plural class even if it differs from the usual even to an odd number. This class has very few nouns. The allomorphs are :lò-] and :dò]. One could be wondering what is happening. This language permits the occurrence of free variation between the :d] and the :l] sounds. Infact the only situation where this is not possible, is when :d] occurs in a /nd/ sequence. All this had already been discussed at the beginning of this chapter. Because :l] is fast disappearing from kola language and for convinience

sake, [dò] will be henceforth, used in this work, since difference between [dò-] and [lo-] causes no meaning difference. Back to the problem of choosing a basic allomorph. If we choose either [do-] or [d-] we will be faced either with a deletion or an insertion rule, of vowel to derive either of the forms. It should be very logical to follow what had been Choden, where the cases are the same, in the previous classes. Moreover the canonical form of a Bantu prefix is CV so why not choose [do-] and say [d] is realised in front of a vowel. Thus the rule and following examples will illustrate the point.

- /do-/    --> [d-] / - V
  - /do + úngú/    --> [dúngú]    "eagles"
  - /do + óngó/    --> [dóngó]    "cooking pots"
  
- /do-/    --> [do-] / - C
  - /dò + kùrè/    --> [dòkùrè]    "tortoises"
  - /dò + nónì/    --> [dònónì]    "birds"
  - /dò + ðwángá/ --> [dòðwángá]    "crayfishes"
  - /dò + dìsè/    --> [dòdìsè]    "sacrifices"

Class 14 /bò-/

Contrary to other classes where singular is an odd number class 14 is a singular class. It seemed to have

reversed order with the preceding class, only they do not pair with each other. It has three phonetic realizations of the nominal prefix. They are [bò-ɔ], [bw-ɔ], [b-ɔ]. If [bw-ɔ] is taken as basic allomorph the problem will be to derive [bo-ɔ] from [bw-ɔ] and then delete either /o-/ or /w/ from the /b/ sound. This is difficult if one considers that [w] is the corresponding glide for both [oɔ] and [uɔ]. How can one be obtained leaving out the other? That is the question. The next allomorph is [b-ɔ] as basic allomorph. An insertion rule is needed here to explain the fact that the form /b-/ is realised [b-ɔ] in front of all vowels except when the first two vowels of the root resemble each other, then it is realised [bw-ɔ] with insertion of [w]. In front of stems with an initial consonant [òɔ] is inserted with a low tone. If [bo-ɔ] is considered, it occurs before consonants, in front of stems that can be said to harmonize in terms of vowels, the [oɔ] of [bò-ɔ] becomes a glide [bw-ɔ] or completely drops off when it occurs elsewhere (vowels). The following are examples:

- /bò-/    --->    [bò-ɔ] / - C
- /bò + sóbòjǎ/    --->    [bòsóbjǎ]    "bone"
- /bò + rò/    --->    [bòrò]    "canoe"
- /bò + jǎ/    --->    [bòjǎ]    "gathering"
- /bò + kà/    --->    [bòkà]    "loft"

-	/bò-/	--->	[bw-]	/ - V	$\begin{Bmatrix} a \\ e \end{Bmatrix}$	a, e
	/bò + èlè/	--->	ɛbwèlè]			"tree" type
	/bò + èndè/	--->	ɛbwèndè]			"circumcision"
	/bò + àngá/	--->	ɛbwàngá]			"chest"
-	/bò-/	--->	ɛb-]	/ - V	$\begin{Bmatrix} o \\ u \\ i \end{Bmatrix}$	
	/bò + itò	--->	ɛbitò]			"death"
	/bò + ùràngwà/	--->	ɛbùràngwà]			"foofoo"
	/bò + ùmà/	--->	ɛbùmà]			"grain"
	/bò + òbé	--->	ɛbòbé]			"bed"
	/bò + óngò/	--->	ɛbóngò]			"fear"

Class 19 /i-/

This is a singular class that forms a pair with class 13. This class has four allomorphs for the prefix marker [i-], [è-], [iy-] or [ey-] which form is derived from which is the essential question. It should be noted that [èy-] and [iy-] are grouped together. This is because they occur in front of vowels and the form we choose between [i-] and [è-] as basic allomorph will have its associated pair [èy-] or [iy-] realised in front of a vowel. So we will be concerned here with four allomorphs [i-], [è-], [èy-] and [iy-]. If [èy-] or [iy-] is chosen as basic allomorph the problem will be on how we eventually arrive at either [è-] or [i-] even if [y] is their glide correspondent.

Will it not be more natural to say that either  $\text{ci-}$  or  $\text{cè-}$  is the basic allomorph, then their glide counterpart, is introduced, in the occurrence of two vowels in a continuous sequence? We hope so.. Now the problem is to choose between  $\text{[é-]}$  and  $\text{ci-}$  looking at their stems we see no reason why one could be considered as basic. Also looking whether it was semantically determined gave a blind end. Then on the basis of majority occurrence between the two, and the fact that the proto form is  $\text{/pí-}/$  made one decide to postulate it as the basic form. Thus it is  $\text{ci-}$  with  $\text{[iy]}$  in front of vowel as the basic allomorph.

A hypothesis that can be adopted is that the occurrence of  $\text{cè-}$  as prefix might be, some sort of movement of the nouns of this class to class 7 where the prefix is also  $\text{cè-}$ . Why this hypothesis has been set up, is because in the collection of data the informants tended to debate on whether it was  $\text{cè-}$  or  $\text{ci-}$  for a noun in class 19. One fact remained clear. No matter their arguments it always turned out that, the plural prefix was  $\text{cdo-}$  class 13. We know this is the regular counterpart of class 19. Consequently, the noun on which  $\text{cè-}$  were used, were nouns that had already had the class 7 prefixal form but had not yet changed its plural form to  $\text{cbé-}$  class 8. If this



hypothesis is agreeable then the following are examples:

- /i-/    -->    ɛiy-ɾ / - V
- /e-/    -->    ɛey-ɾ / - V
- /i-/    -->    ɛè-ɾ / - C
- /i-/    -->    ɛí-ɾ / - C
- /i-/    -->     $\left[ \begin{array}{c} \overset{i}{y} \\ \underset{y}{è} \end{array} \right]$  / - V
- /e + óngó/    -->    ɛiyóngóɾ            "pot"
- /i + úngò/    -->    -èyúngòɾ            "eagle"
- /i/        -->    ɾè-ɾ / - C
- /i + ðòngò/    -->    ɛèðòngòɾ            "box"
- /i + díṣè/    -->    ɛèdíṣèɾ            "sacrifice"
- /i + kùrè/    -->    ɾèkùrèɾ            "tortoise"
- /i-/    -->    ɾiɾ / - C
- /i + nḡnī/    -->    ɛinḡnīɾ            "bird"
- /i + séréré/ -->    ɾiséréréɾ            "grasshopper"
- /i + kèngéwèndé/ -->    ɛikèngéwèndéɾ    "ankle"

Overleaf is a recapitulative table of the kòlè noun classes and their prefixes not forgetting the distribution of the various allomorphs.

PROTO-BANTU CL	KOLE	DISTRIBUTION	EXAMPLE	GLOSS
1	mū	/mū- / → [mw-] / - V	mw-ānā, mw-āitō	child, woman
		/mū / → [mō-] / - CV, V = [o]	mō-tō	person
		/mū / → [mū-] / elsewhere	mū-tīnā, mū-rēmbā	elder, witch
1a	∅	-	tātā, iyē	father, mother
2	bā	/bā- / → [b-] / - V	b-ānā, bāitō	children, women
		/bā- / → [bā-] / elsewhere	bārēēdi, bā-kārā	teachers, Europeans
3	mū	/mū- / → [mw-] / V	mw-ā-gā, mw-ēndī	root, news
		/mū- / → [mō-] / - CV, V = [o]	mō-kōrī, mō-rōngī	hill, sheep
		/mū- / → [mū-] / elsewhere	mū-nyērē, mū-yā	earth, in-Law
4	mē	/mē- / → [m̄-] / - V	m̄-ēndē, m̄-ēni	feet, fingers
		/mē- / → [mè-] / - V, V = [o]	mē-ōrī, mē-ósō	ropes, rivers
		/mē- / → [mè-] / elsewhere	mē-kūmbē, mēkōrī	guns, hills
5	dī	/dī- / → [d-] / - V	d-ōwā	stool
		/dī- / → [j-] / - V = [a]	j-āā, jārābē	hand, reply
		/dī- / → [lī-] / - C (free variants)	lī-bātō, l-Indē	cloth, cocoayam
		/dī / → [dī] / - C	dī-kpāmbā, dī-Būndē	cassava, cup
	∅		dōkō, lēndē	games, journey

PROTO-BANTU CL	KOLE	DISTRIBUTION	EXAMPLE	GLOSS	
6	mā-	/mā-/ → [m-] / - V	m-ōwā	stools	
6a	mā	/mā-/ → [mā] / elsewhere	mā-rëndé, mā-ngéá	journeys, roads	
7	ki	/è/ → [èy-] / V	mā-ǂúrā, mā-ríwā	oil, water	
8	bī	/è-/ → [è-] / elsewhere	èy-òndí, èy-àrí	island, leaf	
9	N-	/bè-/ → [bè-] elsewhere	è-bárā, è-mūnè	scar, wave	
			by-òndí, by-àrí	islands, leaves	
			bè-tándá, bè-bō	ants, shells	
			m-bōā, m-bōrí	country, goat	
			ngōndō, ngbwā	groundnut, dog	
			n-dūmbū, n-dāwō	nest, house	
			n-jékū, n-jō	elephant, tiger	
			/N-/ → ø / - C = voiceless	kémā, fōé	monkey, rat
			/N-/ → [n] / - V	n-āmā, nākā	fish, cow
10	N-	same realisations as in 9.			

PROTO-BANTU	KOLE	DISTRIBUTION	EXAMPLE	GLOSS
13 dũ	dō	/dō-/ → [d-] / - V	d-ũngũ, d-ōngó	eagles, pots
		/dō-/ → [dō] / elsewhere	dō-nōni, dō-kuré	birds, eagles
14 bũ	bō	/bō-/ → [bw-] / V - V (e) (a)	bw-ëndē, bwāngā	circumcision, chest
		/bō-/ → [bō-] / - C	bō-rō, bō-kā	boat, loft
		/bō-/ → [b-] / - V = {u} {o}	b-ōngó, b-úmā	friend, grain
19 pĩ	ĩ-	/ĩ-/ → [è-] / - C	è-Bōngó	box
		/ĩ-/ → [iy] / - V	èy-ũngú	eagle
		/ĩ-/ → [ey] / - V	èy-ōngó	pot
		/ĩ-/ → [ĩ-] / - elsewhere	ĩ-nōni	bird

### 3.3 Concord System

#### Introduction

In the previous section, noun prefixes were discussed. This section will be a presentation and discussion of the concord system, which is, the agreement between nouns and noun determiners. This is in the light that the concord phenomena is determined by the noun that it precedes. It is the noun, in relation to its class which determines the concord or the concordial affixe. If the form of the concordial affix is related to the class of the noun concerned, it therefore holds that, there exists many concordial prefixes as there exist many classes. As a result, the number of nominal classes that exist in a Language will reflect the same number of concordial affixes that exists. The importance of the concord system in a noun class system analysis is very great for it's one of the criteria used to establish the individual noun classes as contrastive i.e. the occurrence of the noun with a specific set of concording elements. The following concordial elements will be presented

Numerals: Cardinal numerals 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 How many

Possessives: my, your, his, your (pl), our and their

Demonstratives: this (near), that (far off)

Determinatives: another

Associatives:

Verbal concord

### 3.3.1 Numerals

1	yòkó	4	bénéí
2	bébà	5	bétánù
3	béráró		

It is very obvious that the number "1" is singular. It will therefore concord only with the singular classes of this language. The singular classes are 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 14 and 19. In all there are seven. The class of the concord is determined by that of the noun concerned. Below are examples of nouns from these classes used with the numeral 1.

cl. 1 /mù/

mù-kárá	m-òkó	"one European"
european	one	

mù-àítò	m-òkó	"one woman"
woman	one	

cl. 3 /mù-/

Like the above the morpheme /mù-/ is realised as [m-] when it precedes a stem with an initial vowel.

Below are some examples:

mù- kòrì	m- òkó	"one hill"
hill	one	

mù- rémà	m- òkó	"one heart"
heart	one	

cl. 5. /dì/

As already mentioned the kola speakers tend to use [d] and [r] [l] interchangeably. So in this case the morpheme /di-/ becomes [r] which is then realised [r-] in front of a stem with an initial vowel.

Examples:

ì- támà	r- òkó	"one cheek"
cheek	one	

dìkòkè	r- òkó	"one dry season"
dry season	one	

cl. 7. /è/

The morpheme /è/ is semi-vowelised when it occurs before a stem with an initial vowel especially a back one. Thus /e/ --- [y] / - [o]

Examples:

è-kòróngwà	y- òkó	"one lizard"
lizard	one	

è- kpà	y- òkó	"one bag"
bag	one	

cl. 9. /N-/

It is difficult to precise the change here from a nasal to a fricative. For a temporal measure, we will say a nasal sound becomes oral. Below are examples:

n- dáwò	f- òkó	"one house"
house	one	
n- gèn	f- òkó	"one bell"
bell	one	

cl. 14. /bò-/

The morpheme /bò-/ is realised [b-] in front of a stem with an initial vowel

Examples:

b- òrò	b- òkó	"one boat"
boat	one	
bò- kǎ	b- òkó	"one loft"
loft	one	

cl. 19. /i-/

The morpheme /i-/ like in class 7 becomes semi vowel in front of stems with an initial back vowel.

Examples

i- nòní	y- òkó	"one bird"
bird	one	



è- kùrè	y- òkó	"one toitoise"
toitoise	one	

We have come to the end of the singular classes dealing with the numeral 1. Now we are going to look at the plural classes in relation to the numeral 2, 3, 4 and 5.

cl. 2. /ba-/

The concordial prefix in this case is same with the class prefix except for the change in tone.

Examples

bà- kéré	bá- bá	"two Europeans"
European	two	
b- àiti	bá- rárò	"three women"
women	three	
b- ónà	bá- nè	"four children"
children	four	
bà-réèdi	bá- tánù	"five teachers"
teachers	five	

cl. 4. /mé-/

mè-kùrì	mé- bá	"one hill"
hills	two	
mè-kùmbè	mé-rárò	"three alligators"
alligators	three	

mè-sǎngà beads	mé-nè four	"four beads"
mèsǎngà ropes	mé-tǎnú five	"five ropes"
cl. 6 /má-/ mà-támà cheeks	má-bá two	"two cheeks"
mà-bàtò cloths	má-rérò three	"three cloths"
mà-Bòndé cups	má-nè four	"four cups"
mà-mbówà countries	má-tǎnú five	"five countries"
cl. 8 /bé-/ bè-kùrúngwà lizards	bé-bá two	"two lizards"
bè-kpè bags	bé-rérò three	"three bags"
bè-tàndé ants	bé-nè four	"four ants"
bè-támí shoes	bé-tǎnú five	"five shoes"

Cl. 10 /N-/

ngbwà dogs	í-bá two	"two dogs"
ny-àkà cows	í-rérò three	"three cows"
m-bòrì goats	í-né four	"four goats"
n-jòh tigers	í-tánù five	"five tigers"

Cl. 13 /dó-/

dò-kùrè tortoises	dó-bá two	"two tortoises"
dò-nónì birds	dó-rérò three	"three birds"
dò-séréré cricket	dó-nè four	"four crickets"
dò-dìsè sacrifices	dó-tánù five	"five sacrifices"

Humeral Prefixes

cl. 1	m-	cl. 2	bá	cl. 3	m-
cl. 4	mé-	cl. 5	r-	cl. 6	mé-
cl. 7	y-	cl. 8	bé-	cl. 9	f-
cl. 10	i-	cl. 13	dó-	cl. 14	bó-
cl. 19	y-				

HOW MANY

This is some sort of a qualification to show number, thus it will be appropriate to treat it under numeral. It should be noted that it is used only with the plural class since it is obvious that one can not be asking the number seeing it is only one.

cl. 2	b-àné children	bé-tíngá how many	"how many children?"
	b-àítò women	bé-tíngá how many	"how many women?"
cl. 4	mè-kùrì hills	mé-tíngá how many	"how many hills?"
	mè-rùmbù mouths	mé-tíngá how many	"how many mouths?"
cl. 6	mà-támè cheeks	mé-tíngá how many	"how many cheeks?"
cl. 8	bè-kùrúgwè lizards	bé-tíngá how many	"how many lizards?"
	bè-kpè bags	bé-tíngá how many	"how many bags?"
cl. 10	n-gòs pigs	i-tíngá how many	"how many pigs?"
	m-bòrì goats	i-tíngá how many	"how many goats?"

cl. 13	dò-nóní	dó-tíngé	"how many birds?"
	birds	how many	
	dò-kúrè	dó-tíngé	"how many tortioses?"
	tortoises	how many	

Prefixes	cl. 2	bá-	cl. 8	bé-
	cl. 4	mé-	cl.10	ĩ-
	cl. 6	má-	cl.13	dó-

### 3.3.2 Adjectives

The adjectival prefix is a concordial prefix because its form will depend on the type of noun that it qualifies. In kola there are very few adjectives. This does not mean there are no qualifications done in the language, but adjectives in terms of adjectives in the English or french language are few. Most often than not the language makes use of verb forms to express qualification. An expression like "black shoes" in a word for word translation will come out as "shoes that blacking"

Since adjectives depend on nouns for their form and since nouns are organised in classes, adjectives are also organised in classes according to their various prefixes.

The adjectives to be used as illustration are:

big	ndénè	small	sári
-----	-------	-------	------

Cl. 1			
	mwàitò women	nú-ndénè big	"big women"
	mò-tò person	nú-ndénè big	"big person"
	mw-énè child	nú-séri small	"small child"
	mw-àitò women	nú-séri small	"small women"
cl 2			
	b-àitò women	bé-ndénè big	"big women"
	bà-tò persons	bé-ndénè big	"big persons"
	b-ánà children	bé-séri small	"small children"
	bè-rèèdi teachers	bé-séri small	"small teachers"
cl. 3			
	mù-rùmbù mouth	mú-ndénè big	"big mouth"
	mù-síbé horn	mú-ndénè big	"big horn"

	mù-rùmbù mouth	mù-séri small	"small mouth"
	mù-sibá horn	mù-séri small	"small horn"
cl. 4			
	my-éndè feet	mě-ndéné big	"big feet"
	mè-kèyi eggs	mé-ndéné big	"big eggs"
	my-éndè feet	mé-séri small	"small feet"
	mè-kèyi eggs	mé-séri small	"small eggs"
cl. 5			
	dí-bàtò cloth	dí-ndéné big	"big cloth"
	ì-bè breast	dí-ndéné big	"big breast"
	ì-sùngá tooth	dí-séri small	"small tooth"
	dí-kàkè crab	dí-séri small	"small crab"
cl. 6			
	mà-sùngá teeth	má-ndéné big	"big teeth"

mà-ràrè	má-ndénè	"big stones"
stones	big	

mà-réndè	má-séri	"small knives"
knives	small	

mà-bè	má-séri	"small breasts"
breasts	small	

cl. 7

è-bérá	é-ndénè	"big scar"
scar	big	

èy-òndí	é-ndénè	"big island"
island	big	

è-kà	é-séri	"small market"
market	small	

è-fùmá	é-séri	"small fruit"
fruit	small	

cl. 8

bè-tàndá	bé-ndénè	"big ants"
ants	big	

bè-kpà	bé-ndénè	"big bags"
bags	big	

bè-fùmá	bé-séri	"small fruits"
fruits	small	

bè-kà	bé-séri	"small markets"
markets	small	



cl. 9

m-bòwà village	ì-ndénè big	"big village"
n-dáwò house	ì-ndénè big	"big house"
ù-gbwà dog	ì-sári small	"small dog"
m-bòri goat	ì-sári small	"small goat"

cl. 10

ù-gàndó caiman	é-ndénè big	"big caimans"
fèjéikú cockroach	é-ndénè big	"big cockroaches"
n-jèkù elephant	é-sári small	"small elephants"
ny-àkà cows	é-sári small	"small cows"

cl. 13

dò-nǎni birds	dǒ-ndéni big	"big birds"
d-òggó pots	dó-ndénè big	"big pots"
d-ùggó eagles	dó-sári small	"small eagles"

	dò-séréré crickets	dó-sári small	"small crickets"
cl. 14			
	bò-kǎ loft	bó-ndéné big	"big loft"
	bò-rò boat	bó-ndéné big	"big boat"
	bò-kǎ loft	bo-sári small	"small loft"
	bò-rò boat	bo-sári small	"small boat"
cl. 19			
	è-kùrè tortoise	i-ndéné big	"big tortoise"
	i-nóni bird	i-ndéné big	"big bird"
	i-séréré cricket	i-sári small	"small cricket"
	i-nóni bird	i-sári small	"small bird"

Adjectival Prefix

cl 1	nú	cl 2	bá	cl 3	mú
cl 4	mé	cl 5	dí	cl 6	má
cl 7	é	cl 8	bé	cl 9	í
cl 10	é	cl 13	dó	cl 14	bó
cl 19	í				

Looking at the above, it is noticed that the difference from the noun prefixes and the adjectival prefixes come in the change of tones i.e. from high to low and change in the prefixes of classes 1, 9, 10.

### 3.3.3 Demonstratives

Demonstratives are also known to be determined by nouns. It serves as indicatives. In kòle there are two main types of demonstratives. This and that and its plural counterparts. If a speaker wanted to indicate something 'over there' he uses the normal construction of 'that' but 'that' is repeated after the noun again. Below is an illustration.

That woman	òné	mwàitò	
That women over there	òné	mwàitò	òné

For the above reason only the following will be treated: this, that, these and those.

cl 1

The demonstratives 'this' and 'that' differ in this class in relation to the other classes. This cannot be easily explained. One can only assume that it is some sort of a change that has taken place in the language. We are sure further work on it will reveal the process which cannot be done here because of limited time.

ò-né	mw-àítò	"this woman"
ò-né	mw-ónà	"this child"
à-ṅgó	mw-àítò	"that woman"
à-ṅgó	mw-àítà	"that woman"

For convenience and as a temporary measure the prefix for 'this' will be chosen as concordial prefix but much work still has to be done.

cl 2	bá-nò	b-ánà
	these	children
	bá-nò	bà-tò
	these	men
	bá-ò	t-ónà
	those	children
	bá-ò	bà-tò
	those	men
cl 3	mó-nò	mò-kùrì
	this	hill
	mó-nò	mù-nyèrè
	this	earth
	mó-ò	mò-kùrì
	that	hill
	mó-ò	mù-nyèrè
	that	earth

cl 4	mé-nè these	mè-sébsá horns
	mé-nè these	mè-kùrí hills
	mé-ò those	mè-sébsá horns
	mé-ò those	mè-kèyì eggs
cl 5	dí-nè this	dí-sò eye
	dí-nè this	dì-wìní okra
	dó-ò that	dí-sò eye
	dó-ò that	dì-wìní okra
cl 6	mé-nò these	mà-wìní okras
	mé-nò these	mà-bàtò cloths
	mé-ò those	mà-wìní okras
	mé-ò those	mà-bàtò cloths
cl 7	é-nè this	è-kpà bag

é-nè	è-kà
this	market
yó	è-kpà
that	bag
yó	è-kà
that	market

It is worth noting that because two vowels can not occur on their own in a VV structure, one of the V becomes a semi-vowel. Thus we have /e/ ---> [y] / V - V.

cl 8	bé-nè	bè-kpà
	these	bags
	bé-nè	bè-kà
	these	markets
	bé-ò	bè-rèrè
	those	ducks
	bé-ò	by-òndi
	those	islands
cl 9	è-né	m-bòrí
	this	goat
	è-né	ŋ-gèé
	this	road
	yó	ŋ-gèé
	that	road

	yó	m-bórí
	that	goat
cl 10	í-nè	ny-àkà
	those	cows
	í-nè	n-jèkù
	those	elephants
	yó	ŋ-girà
	those	lions
	yó	n-jó:
	those	tigers
cl 13	dó-nò	dò-nóní
	these	birds
	dó-nò	dò-yóngó
	these	pots
	dó-ò	dò-kùrè
	those	tortoises
	dó-ò	dò-nóni
	those	birds
cl 14	bó-nò	bò-rò
	this	boat
	bó-nò	bò-jă
	this	gathering
	bó-ò	bò-rò
	that	boat

	bó-ò	bò-jǎ
	that	gathering
cl 19	è-nè	ì-nòní
	this	bird
	é-nè	è-kùrè
	this	tortoise
	yó	ìséréré
	that	cricket
	yó	è-dísé
	that	sacrifice

One might have noticed the constant change in the stem where at times it is -nè and at times -nò. A tentative reason for this alternative might be that kole has aspects of its sister language duala where the stem is -ne

#### Prefixes

cl 1	ò-	cl 2	bá-	cl 3	mú-
cl 4	mé-	cl 5	dí-	cl 6	mé-
cl 7	é-	cl 8	bé	cl 9	è-
cl 10	í-	cl 13	dó-	cl 14	bó-
cl 19	è-				



### 3.3.4 Possessives

Here too possessives are determined by nouns. We will be treating the following possessives.

my	our
your (sg)	your (pl)
his	their

cl 1	mw-én	àmé	"my child"
	child	my	
	mw-én	òngó	"your child"
	child	your	
	mw-én	àí	"his child"
	child	his	
	mw-an	àsú	"our child"
	child	our	
	mw-én	ànyú	"your child"
	child	your	
	mw-én	àwú	"their child"
	child	their	

Notice that because there is a VV structure, one V is dropped, in favor of, another. This will further be discussed in the section where some phonological processes are treated.

cl 2	b-àíṣò	bámé	"my women"
	women	my	

	b-àitò women	bóngó your	"your women"
	b-áitò women	béí his	"his women"
	b-aitò women	bású our	"our women"
	b-aitò women	bányú your	"your women"
	b-aito women	báwú their	"their women"
cl 3	mò-kùri hill	múmé my	"my hill"
	mò-kùri hill	móngó your	"your hill"
	mò-kùri hill	móí his	"his hill"
	mò-kùri hill	mósú our	"our hill"
	mò-kùri hill	mónyú your	"your hill"
	mò-kùri hill	mówú their	"their hill"
cl 4	mè-róngí sheep	mémé my	"my sheep"
	mè-róngí sheep	meṅgò your	"your sheep"

	mè-róngì sheep	méí his	"his sheep"
	mè-róngì sheep	mésú our	"our sheep"
	mè-róngì sheep	ményú your	"your sheep"
	mè-róngì sheep	méwú their	"their sheep"
cl 5	ì-súngà tooth	rámé my	"my tooth"
	ì-súngà tooth	róngó your	"your tooth"
	ì-súngà tooth	ráí his	"his tooth"
	ì-súngà tooth	rású our	"our tooth"
	ì-súngà tooth	rányú your	"your tooth"
	ì-súngà tooth	ráwú their	"their tooth"
cl 6	mè-rèndè knives	mámé my	"my knives"
	mè-rèndè knives	mángó your	"your knives"

	mè-rèndè knives	máí his	"his knives"
	mà-rèndè knives	mású our	"our knives"
	mà-rèndè knives	mányú your	"your knives"
	mè-rèndè knives	məwú their	"their knives"
cl 7	è-kpà bag	émé my	"my bag"
	è-kpà bag	érgó your	"your bag"
	è-kpà bag	éí his	"his bag"
	è-kpà bag	ású our	"our bag"
	è-kpà bag	ényú your	"your bag"
	è-kpà bag	əwú their	"their bag"
cl 8	bè-kà markets	bémé my	"my markets"
	bè-kà markets	béngó your	"our markets"

	bè-kà markets	béí his	"his markets"
	bè-kà markets	bésú our	"our markets"
	bè-kà markets	bényú your	"your markets"
	bè-kà markets	béwú their	"their markets"
cl 9	ṛ-gbà dog	ámé my	"my dog"
	ṛ-gbà dog	àngó your	"your dog"
	ṛ-gbà dog	àí his	"his dog"
	ṛ-gbà dog	àsú our	"our dog"
	ṛ-gbà dog	ànyú your	"your dog"
	ṛ-gbà dog	àwú our	"their dog"
cl 10	m-bòrì goat	ámé my	"my goats"
	m-bòrì goat	àngó your	"your goats"

	m-bòrì goat	sí his	"his goats"
	m-bòrì goat	ású our	"our goats"
	m-bòrì goat	ányú your	"your goats"
	m-bòrì goat	àwú their	"their goats"
cl 13	dò-yóngó pots	dómè my	"my pots"
	dò-yóngó pots	dóngó your	"your pots"
	dò-yóngó pots	dóí his	"his pots"
	dò-yóngó pots	dósú our	"our pots"
	dò-yóngó pots	dónyu your	"your pots"
	dò-yóngó pots	dówú their	"their pots"
cl 14	bò-rò boat	bámě my	"my boat"
	bò-rò boat	bóngó your	"your boat"

	bò-rò	bóf	"his boat"
	boat	his	
	bò-rò	bósú	"our boat"
	boat	our	
	bò-rò	bónyú	"your boat"
	boat	your	
	bò-rò	bówú	"their"
	boat	their	
cl 19	ì-nónì	ímé	"my bird"
	bird	my	
	ì-nónì	ingó	"your bird"
	bird	your	
	ì-nónì	yé	"his bird"
	bird	his	
	ì-nónì	ísú	"our bird"
	bird	our	
	ì-nónì	ínyú	"your bird"
	bird	your	
	ì-nónì	iwú	"their bird"
	bird	their	

In fluent speech the native speakers elide a V in a VV sequence. That is, in cases where one of the vowels does not become a semi-vowel.

Possessive prefixes

cl 1	à	cl 2	bé	cl 3	mú
cl 4	mé	cl 5	rá	cl 6	má
cl 7	á'	cl 8	bé	cl 9	à
cl 10	é	cl 13	dó	cl 14	bó
cl 19	i-				

3.3.5 Associatives

Associatives are connected to construction. That is noun in association with another ( $N_1 N_2$ ). What will be treated here is an equivalent of the English apostrophe s ('s). It's form varies in relation with the first noun ( $N_1$ ). Below is an illustration.

cl 1

mw-ánà	à	mw-àítò	"the women's child"
child	's	woman	

mw-àítò	à	mò-tò	"the man's wife"
woman	's	man	

cl 2

b-ánà	bé	mw-àítò	"the women's children"
children	's	women	

b-àítò	bé	mò-tò	"the man's wives"
women	's	men	



cl 3	mw-éndè foot	mú 's	mw-àìtò woman	"the woman's foot"
	mù-rémè heart	mú 's	mw-àìtò woman	"the woman's heart"
cl 4	ny-éndè feet	mé 's	mw-àìtò woman	"the woman's feet"
	mè-rémè hearts	mé 's	mw-àìtò woman	"the woman's hearts"
cl 5	i-sùngá tooth	rá 's	mw-àìtò woman	"the woman's tooth"
	i-tóì ear	rá 's	mw-àìtò woman	"the woman's ear"
cl 6	mà-sùngá teeth	mé 's	mw-àìtò woman	"the woman's teeth"
	mà-tóì ears	mé 's	mw-àìtò woman	"the woman's ears"
cl 7	è-kpà bag	yé 's	mw-àìtò woman	"the woman's bag"
	è-tám̀bì shoe	yé 's	mw-àìtò woman	"the woman's shoe"
cl 8	bè-kpè bags	bé 's	mw-àìtò woman	"the woman's bags"
	bè-tám̀bì shoes	bé 's	mw-àìtò woman	"the woman's shoes"

cl 9	m-bòrì goat	yà 's	mw-àìtò woman	"the women's goat"
	ḡ-gbà goat	yà 's	mw-àìtò woman	"the women's dog"
cl 10	m-bòrì goat	yá 's	mw-àìtò woman	"the woman's goats"
	ḡ-gbà dog	yá 's	mw-àìtò woman	"the woman's dogs"
cl 13	do-yòngó pot	dé 's	mw-àìtò woman	"the woman's pots"
	d'ùngú eagles	dé 's	mw-àìtò woman	"the women's eagles"
cl 14	bò-rò boat	bó 's	mw-àìtò woman	"the woman's boat"
	bò-kǎ loft	bó 's	mw-àìtò woman	"the woman's loft"
cl 19	ì-nónì bird	yá 's	mw-àìtò woman	"the woman's bird"
	è-kùrè tortoise	yá 's	mw-àìtò woman	"the woman's tortoise"

Associative prefixes

cl 1	à	cl 2	bá	cl 3	mú
cl 4	mé	cl 5	rá	cl 6	mà

cl 7	yá	cl 8	bé	cl 9	yà
cl 10	yá	cl 13	dá	cl 14	bó
cl 19	yá				

The prefixes of the associative 's in this language are the same as that of 'of'. For example:

cl 9	η-géà	yà	mw-àítò	"the road of the woman"
	road	of	woman	

cl 15	di-fondi	ra m̀-ò-kùmbà	"the hole of the gun"	
	hole	of	gun	

### 3.3.6 Determinatives

As the name ~~goes~~ determinatives in this case are to determine whether one noun <sup>is</sup> different from another not in the sense of prefixes and classes but in the light of "other" and "which". But after looking at the data we noticed that the form "which" in kole is not affected by class. That is it does not have a particular prefix marking a class, consequently it is prefixless. Let us illustrate this point.

cl 1	njúkù	mw-àítò	"which woman?"
	which	woman	

cl 4	njúkù	mè-kókò	"which sugarcanes?"
	which	sugarcanes	

cl 9 njùkù n-jèkù "which elephant?"  
which elephant

As a result we will be looking only at the determinative "other". It is determined by the noun with which it is used. . Thus it has prefixes to mark it's classes same as the nouns too

cl 1	mw-àítò women	nú-féfè another	"another woman"
	mù-réédi teacher	nú-féfè another	"another teacher"
cl 2	bè-tò persons	bá-féfè other	"other persons"
	bà-réédi teachers	bá-féfè other	"other teachers"
cl 3	mò-kókò sugarcane	mú-féfè another	"another sugarcane"
	mù-rùmbù mouth	mú-féfè another	"another mouth"
cl 4	mè-kókò sugarcanes	mú-féfè other	"other sugarcanes"
	mè-rùmbù mouths	mé-féfè other	"other mouths"
cl 5	dí-kàkò crab	dí-féfè another	"another crab"

		di-bòngsá stomach	dí-féfè another	"another stomach"
cl 6		mè-kàkò crabs	má-féfè other	"other crabs"
		mà-bòngsá stomachs	má-féfè other	"other stomachs"
cl 7		è-wàkè bhimpanzee	í-féfè another	"another chimpanzee"
		è-kà market	í-féfè another	"another market"
cl 8		bè-wàkè chimpanzees	bé-féfè other	"other chimpanzees"
		bè-kà markets	bé-féfè other	"other markets"
cl 9		n-ǰèkù elephant	é-féfè another	"another elephant"
		n-déwò house	é-féfè another	"another house"
cl 10		ny-àkà cows	í-féfè other	"other cows"
		ŋ-girà lions	í-féfè other	"other lions"
cl 13		dò-nónì birds	dó-féfè other	"other birds"

	dò-séré	dó-féfè	"other crickets"
	crickets	other	
cl 14	bò-rò	bó-féfè	"another boat"
	boat	another	
	bò-kǎ	bó-féfè	"another loft"
	loft	another	
cl 19	ì-yóngó	ì-féfè	"another pot"
	pot	another	
	ì-séré	ì-féfè	"another cricket"
	cricket	another	

Looking at the above it is noticed that two forms are used 'another', 'other'. But it should be noted that both mean the same thing only that 'another' is for singular and 'other' is for plural. The prefixes for this determinatives are like that of adjectives.

cl 1	nú-	cl 2	bé-	cl 3	mú
cl 4	mé-	cl 5	dí-	cl 6	má
cl 7	ì-	cl 8	bé-	cl 9	é-
cl 10	í-	cl 13	dó-	cl 14	bo-
cl 19	ì-				

### 3.3.7 Verbal Concord

One might get very surprised when ~~onesessverbs~~ appearing when the topic of concern is Nouns. One

should have been suprised too when adjectives were treated. The explanation is that whenever a noun is the subject of a onjugated verb, the noun reappears in a pronominal form before the verb. This pronoun is a personal pronoun which we call the verbal prefix because it helps in the conjugation. This interests us because it depends on the form of the noun class and thus varies from class to class.

cl 1

mò-tò	à	dà	"the man eats"
man	he	eats	

mw-ánà	à	médà	"the child ate"
child	he	ate	

cl 2

bà-tò	bá	dè	"the men eat"
men	they	eat	

b-ánà	bá	médà	"the children ate"
children	they	ate	

cl 3

mù-ròngi	mú	dà	"the sheep eats"
sheep	it	eats	

mù-ròngi	mú	médà	"the sheep ate"
sheep	it	ate	

cl 4

mè-ròngi	mé	dà	"the sheep eat"
sheep	they	eat	

mè-ròngí	mé	mádà	"the sheep ate"
sheept	they	ate	

cl 5

dí-sò	dí	dibè	"the eye closes"
eye	it	closes	

dí-sò	dí	mádibè	"the eye closed"
eye	it	closed	

cl 6

mà-tòí	mé	dibè	"the ears close"
ears	they	close	

mà-tòí	mé	mádibè	"the ears closed"
ears	they	closed	

cl 7

è-kòróngwà	é	sáká	"the lizard dances"
lizard	it	dances	

è-kòróngwà	é	másáká	"the lizard danced"
lizard	it	danced	

cl 8

bè-kòróngwà	bá	sáká	"the lizards dance"
lizards	they	dance	

bè-kòróngwà	bá	másáká	"the lizards danced"
lizards	they	danced	

cl 9

ŋ-gbwà	à	nàngà	"the dog sleeps"
dog	it	sleeps	



ŋ-ɔ̀bà            à    mánàngà        "the dog slept"  
dog            it        slept

cl 10

n-jèkù            à    nàngà            "the elephants sleep"  
elephants    they    sleep

n-jèkù            à    mánàngà        "the elephant slept"  
elephants    they    slept

cl 13

dò-nóni          dá    dè                "the birds eat"  
birds            they    eat

dò-nóni          dá    mádè            "the birds ate"  
birds            they    ate

cl 14

bò-rò            bó    tím̀bà            "the boat returns"  
boat            it        returns

bò-rò            bó    m̀stím̀bà        "the boat returned"  
boat            it        returned

cl 19

ì-nóní            é    kónò            "the bird sings"  
bird            it        sings

ì-nóní            é    m̀ákónò        "the bird sang"  
bird            it        sang

Prefixes

cl 1	à	cl 2	bá	cl 3	mú
cl 4	mé	cl 5	dí	cl 6	má
cl 7	é	cl 8	bé	cl 9	à
cl 10	á	cl 13	dá	cl 14	bó
cl 19	é				

3.3.8 Analysis of Concord System

Looking at the concord system the numeral, possessive adjective and verbal concord prefixes are post nominal except for the demonstrative. For example, we have,

Adj.	mw-àítò women	nú-ndénè big	"big woman"
poss.	b-àítò women	bá-mé my	"my women"
dem	bé-nè these	bè-kpà bags	"these bags"

Most of the concordial forms agree with the nominal class of the noun that is used. The most constant of the classes are 2, 4, 6, 8, 13 and 14. Class 1 shows a lot of irregularity in prefixes ranging from m- (NPC). nú- (AP) ò- (DP) à- (PP). In some cases as in the associative the prefix has even died out leaving a

construction with no prefix. Example:

mw-ánà	mw-àítò	"the woman's child"
child	woman	

Fortunately, the nouns of class one, are distinguishable by the nature of their semantic content. It is the only class, that has human beings, as its semantic content, otherwise the concord system would not have been able to further establish the fact, that, a particular noun belong to class one.

For the classes with a V structure as the noun class prefix, the concord prefixes have tended to be the same. This is exemplified in class 7 and 19.

Dem	cl 7	<u>é</u> -nè	è-kpà
		this	bag
	cl 19	<u>é</u> -nè	i-nóni
		this	bird
Poss	cl 7	<u>à</u> -kàróngwè	<u>á</u> -mè
		lizard	my
	cl 19	<u>à</u> -kùrè	<u>í</u> -mè
		tortoise	my

The classes with a nasal as prefix (noun cl) have the tendency of adopting the concordial prefixes of

class 7 and 19. In some cases as in the Associative concord classes 7, 9, 10 and 19 have similar prefixes.

cl 7	è-kpà bag	yá 's	mw-àitò woman	"the woman's bag"
cl 9	m-bóri goat	yè 's	mw-àitò woman	"the woman's goat"
cl 10	m-bóri goats	yé 's	mw-àitò women	"the woman's goats"
cl 19	ì-nóni bird	yá 's	mw-àitò women	"the woman's bird"

What will distinguish the classes in the case of 9 and 10 is the fact that the tones are different, low and high respectively. As for 7 and 19 the difference will come if we consider their plural counterparts. The former is class 8 and the latter is class 13.

### 3.4 Some noun-phrase Phonological Processes

When sound changes occur, because of a contiguity of morphemes, the result is a phonological process. What will interest us is the syllable structure phonological processes in general, and in particular the vowel deletion process, and major class change processes. Syllable structure processes are processes that affect the relative distribution of vowels and

consonants.

When there is a collocation of noun-possessive vowel deletion takes place. In this case there is a contiguous occurrence of two vowels across word boundary, and such a case one vowel drops off. It should be noted that, when the words are in isolation, they are not deleted. This can be illustrated as follows:

mwénè	ámé	-->	mwénámé	"my child"
child	my		child my	
mwénè	ású	-->	mwénású	"our child"
child	our		child our	
mwénè	ányú	-->	mwénányú	"your child"
child	your(pl)		child your	
mwénè	áfí	-->	mwénáfí	"his child"
child	his		child his	

A formal statement to account for the above process is  $V \text{ --> } o / V \text{ -- } V$

Major class change process is a process where a vowel can become a semi vowel. In kolo this occurs in noun-demonstrative collocation i.e. when there are two vowels in a word one vowel becomes a semi-vowel. This mostly occurs in classes where the prefix has a V structure and the concordial stem also has

a V structure. Below an example from a class with a CV prefix and that of V prefix are compared.

cl 6	mé-nà	mà-wini
	these	okras

	má-ò	mà-wini
	those	okras

cl 7	é-nè	èkpà
	this	bag

	yó	èkpà
	that	bag

Thus /èó/ ---> [yó]

The prose statement is that a high front vowel becomes its corresponding glide when followed by another vowel. To put it in formal statement it is:

/e/ ---> [y] / - V

Overleaf is a recapitulative table for the concordial prefixes though not all are filled in the box.

column i	Nominal prefixes
column ii	Numeral prefixes
column iii	Adjective prefixes
column iv	Demonstrative prefixes
column v	Possessive prefixes
column vi	Associative prefixes
column vii	Determinative prefixes
column viii	Verbal prefixes

CL:	NP	: NPC:	AP	: DP	: PP	: APS:	DPe:	VP
1:	mù	: m-	nú	: ò	: á	: à	nú	: à
2:	bà	: bá	bá	: bá	bá	: bá	bá	: bá
3:	mù	: m	mú	: mú	mú	: mú	mú	: mú
4:	mě	: mé	mé	: mé	mé	: mé	mé	: mé
5:	dì	: r	dí	: dí	rá	: rá	dí	: dí
6:	mè	: má	má	: má	má	: má	má	: má
7:	è	: y	é	: é	á	: yá	í	: á
8:	bè	: bé	bé	: bé	bé	: bé	bé	: bé
9:	N	: f	ì	: ì	á	: yà	é	: à
10:	N	: i	é	: é	á	: yá	í	: á
13:	dò	: dó	dó	: dó	dó	: dá	dó	: dá
14:	bò	: bó	bó	: bó	bó	: bó	bá	: bó
19:	ì	: y	í	: e	í	: e	yá	: í

### 3.5 Genders and their Semantic Content

#### Introduction

Nouns of the classes described in the previous section frequently pair as to singular and plural. This pairing is commonly referred to as gender. This singular and plural pairing of nouns is brought out

by their prefixes. When this is the case we talk of double class genders. But certain nouns for which enumeration is irrelevant, such as liquid and mass nouns, are members of one or single class gender as opposed to the double class gender. Apart from these liquid nouns we also have abstract nouns that cannot be counted. These nouns cannot be considered as making a class on their own, it is very unlikely that, they may be grouped with nouns that make up a double class gender.

As concerns semantic content, in the past, the Bantu noun classes may have been based on a semantic classification of the nouns. But now, it appears a purely arbitrary system, where in no one class can nouns of only one semantic content be found. Most permanent of classes are cl 1/2, cl 6a and cl 9/10 in kòle

It should be noted that reconstruction of semantic content of the Bantu noun class is got from Welmers (1973).

Below are elaborate discussion of the two different genders in kòle and their semantic content, beginning with the double class genders.



Double class genders

From studies of the data, it has been discovered that kole has nine double class genders. These have been displayed as follows in the accompanying table: the table class genders are indicated by lines joining two class numbers. The numbers on the left refer to singular nouns, those on the right to plural nouns.

Table for Double Class Genders

<u>Singular class</u>	<u>Plural class</u>
1	2
3	4
5	6
7	8
9	10
14	13
19	13

As the table shows, there are nine double class genders in kòlè and they are as follows:

- Double class gender 1/2
- Double class gender 3/4
- Double class gender 5/6
- Double class gender 7/8
- Double class gender 9/10
- Double class gender 9/6
- Double class gender 14/6
- Double class gender 14/4
- Double class gender 19/13

Gender 1/2 mù-/bà-

This gender is made up of nouns designating people.

Below are nouns that make up this gender.

mù-kànerì	chief(s)
bà-kànerì	
mù-ròngè	farmer(s)
bà-ròngè	
mù-rèédì	tescher(s)
bà-rèédì	
mù-rèmbà	witch(es)
bà-rèmbà	

mù-tinà	elder(s)
bà-tinà	
mw-èndéri	traveller(s)
b-èndéri	

Gender 3/4 mù-/mè-

This gender is marked by a mixed classification of certain objects. Divisions are possible thus membership in this class could be characterised in the following way.

Natural objects

mò-kòrì	hill(s)
mè-kòrì	
mw-énjè	sea(s)
mi-énjè	
m-òsò	river(s)
my-òsò	
mw-àngé	root(s)
my-àngé	

Animals, Insects

mò-ròngì	sheep
mè-ròngì	
mò-kùmbè	alligator(s)
mè-kùmbè	

mò-kòyíkòyi	frog(s)
mè-kòyíkòyi	
mw-àbérés	cat(s)
my-ábérés	

Body parts

mù-rémà	heart(s)
mè-rémà	
mò-ḡémbá	noses
me-ḡémbá	
mw-èndé	foot (feet)
my-èndé	
mò-rófù	head(s)
mè-rófù	

foodstuff

mò-ròkó	cocoayam(s)
mè-ròkó	
mò-kókó	sugar cane(s)
mè-kókó	

Human relationships

mù-kúsà	widow(s)
mè-kúsà	
m-òsàrì	parent(s)
mè-òsàrì	
mù-òngó	friend(s)
mè-òngó	

Birds and related object

mw-èmé	bat(s)
m-èmé	
mú-mímókúbà	rooster(s)
my-émimékúbà	
mù-kèyí	egg(s)
mè-kèyí	

Miscellaneous

m-òrí	rope(s) (a type)
mè-òrí	
mù-kùmbá	gun(s)
mè-kùmbá	
mù-sùséri	price(s)
mè-sùséri	

Gender 5/6 di/mà-

This gender is made up of nouns of various origins but the main content is parts of the body. Below are examples

i-sùngá	tooth (teeth)
mè-sùngá	
d-ísù	eye (s)
m-ísù	
dì-bé	breast(s)
mè-bé	

i-démè  
mà-démè

tongue(s)

Natural objects

dì-~~p~~òndí  
mà-fòndí  
dì-kòkè  
mà-kòkè  
ì-réré  
mè-réré

hole(s) / cave(s)  
dry season(s)  
stone(s)

Household objects and related objects

ì-nòngò  
mè-nòngò  
ì-rèndè  
mè-rèndè  
dì-wè  
mà-wè  
lì-bàtò  
mè-bàtò

bed(s)  
knife (knives)  
broom(s)  
cloth(s)

Plant life

dì-~~k~~pàmbà  
mè-~~k~~pàmbà  
l-~~l~~ndé  
l-~~l~~ndé  
dì-bòkè  
mè-bòkè

cassava  
cocoayam(s)  
pumpkin(s)

Miscellaneous

di-bé	marriage(s)
mà-bé	
-dòkò	game(s)
mà-ròkò	
-lèndè	journey(s)
mà-rèndè	
li-sàngó	inheritance
mà-sàngó	
di-kàkò	crab(s)
mà-kàkò	

Gender 7/8 è-/bè-

Nouns found in this gender are:

Animals, birds, insects

è-wàkè	chimpanzee(s)
bè-wàkè	
èy-óngòkòrì	chameleón(s)
by-óngòkòrì	
è-kòróngwà	lizard(s)
bè-kòróngwà	
è-rèrà	duck(s)
bè-rèrà	
è-tàndà	ant(s)
bè-tàndà	

è-ròki

bè-ròki

Plant related items

è-sùmbú

grass(es)

bè-sùmbú

èy-àrí

leave(s)

by-àrí

è-fùmá

fruit(s)

bè-fùmá

Natural objects

èy-òndí

island(s)

by-òndí

è-rìngè

shadow(s)

bè-rìngè

è-kòmi

country

bè-kòmi

è-mùnè

wave(s)

bè-mùnè

Household objects

è-rìngè

mirror(s)

bè-rìngè

è-wóndò

axe(s)

bè-wóndò

è-kpà

bag(s)

bè-kpà

è-sásá

mat(s)

bè-sásá



Clothing and adornment

è-tám̄bi	shoe(s)
bè-tám̄bi	
è-sìkòn	pipe(s)
bè-sìkòn	

Body Part and related items

è-tóngò	shoulder(s)
bè-tóngò	
è-bèrì	intestine(s)
bè-bèrì	
è-bérá	scar(s)
bè-bérá	
è-wèsè	rat(s)
bè-wèsè	

Miscellaneous

è-kà	market(s)
bè-kà	
è-tonè	debt(s)
bè-tòmè	

Gender 9/10 N-/N-

This gender appears to be the largest of all genders containing a wide variety of nouns. The most dominant are animals. It is notable that the gender 9/10 is represented in the same way i.e no particular prefix differentiates them. Below are examples:

-kàbè	antelope(s)
-kàbè	
n-jèkù	elephant(s)
n-jèkù	

ŋ-gìrà	lion(s)
ŋ-gìrà	
ny-àkà	cow(s)
ny-àkà	
-fòè	rat(s)
-fóè	
m-bàmbà	snake(s)
m-bàmbà	
-kèmà	monkey(s)
-kèmà	

Foodstuff

m-bǎ	yam(s)
m-bǎ	
m-biá	groundnut(s)
m-biá	
n-dóngò	pepper(s)
n-dóngò	
n-dókó	potatoe(s)
n-dókó	

Natural Objects

m-bóà	village(s)
m-bóà	
m-bàkí	cloud(s)
m-bàkí	

Insects

n-jàwá	bee(s)
n-jàwá	
-fèjékù	cockroach(es)
-fèjékù	

Birds

-kùmbié	kite(s)
-kùmbié	

Parts of the body

-fikò	kidney(s)
-fikò	
-ny-órò	body (bodies)
-ny-órò	

Household items

ŋ-góró	spoon(s)
ŋ-góró	
-tòkò	calabash (es)
-tòkò	
ŋ-gén	bell(s)
ŋ-gén	
kòndá	chair(s)
kòndá	

One notices that most borrowed words are found in this class. Examples are:

sótì	shirt(s)
sótì	
táwèrì	towel(s)
táwèrì	
wíndà	window(s)
wíndà	

Gender 9/6 N-/mà-

This gender has the following nouns

Animals

ŋ-gòmbá	porcupine(s)
mè-ngòmbá	
m-bòrí	goat(s)
mè-mbòrí	

Man-made objects

ŋ-gèś	road(s)
mà-ŋgèś	
n-dáwò	house(s)
mà-ndáwò	
m-bèndá	law(s)
mà-mbèndá	

Gender 14/6      bò-/mà-

The nouns in this gender are relatively few since nouns in class 14 itself are rare in the kolé language. Below are examples:

bò-jǎ	gathering(s)
mà-jǎ	
bò-sùmúnà	door step(s)
mà-sùmúnà	
bó-rò	canoe(s)
mó-rò	
bò-kà	loft(s)
mà-kà	

Gender 14/4      bò-/mà-

bw-èlè	tree(s) )(type)
my-èlè	
bw-ěndi	circumcision(s)
my-ěndi	

Gender 19/13      i-/dò

This gender has very few nouns. The following are examples:

### Animals and birds

ì-Bwángà	crayfish
dò-Bwángà	
ì-sèréré	cricket(s)
do-sèréré	
è-yúngù	eagle(s)
do-yúngù	
ì-nóni	bird(s)
do-nóni	
è-kùrè	tortoise(s)
dò-dùrè	

### Household utensils

è-yóngó	cooking pot(s)
dò-yóngó	
è-Bòngò	box(es)
dò-Bòngò	

### Miscellaneous

ì-kèngéiwèndè	ankle(s)
dò-kèngéiwèndè	
è-disé	sacrifice(s)
dò-disé	

### Single class gender

In the kole language there are very few nouns that fall under the single class gender. Consequently very few classes are regarded as single class genders. The following are the analysis of these classes and their semantic content. The single class genders are:

Gender	3	Gender	8
Gender	4	Gender	9
Gender	5	Gender	14
Gender	6a		
Gender	7		

Gender 3 mù-

mù-nyàròvè sky  
mò-risè poverty

Gender 4 mè-

my-árim urine

Gender 5 dí- ✓

Natural phenomena

dí-bú ashes  
dí-titì darkness  
ì-sùwé fa mine  
ì-tánà ripe  
d-óbà God

Related to human beings

d-ókí deaf  
d-òwé cry  
ì-yò laughter

Gender 6(ə) mè-

mè-ríwá water  
mè-|búrá oil  
mè-nyàngè ngéló kerosine  
mè-nyàngè palm-nut oil  
mè-yá blood

Gender 7 è-

Illnesses

è-kórókòtó measles  
è-kósèri cough

Natural objects

è-wèi	sun
è-nyingà	earthquake

Gender 8 bè-

Examples of nouns from this gender are:

bè-bòtérí	beginning
bè-wòkè	prison

Gender 9 N-

It is this gender that has most of the abstract nouns.

The following are examples:

Natural phenomena

wéá	fire
wésè	world
m-bùá	rain
ŋ-gòsáko	drought
tòndé	flood
n-gǒ	wind
kpèrí	death

Foodstuff

m-bǎ	yams
n-gòndó	groundnuts
m-biá	palm-nut
kàràrà	corn
lòndí	rice
yàngà	salt

Miscellaneous

ny-ìsè	thirst
nj-émé	sperm
yětá	request
fíndí	gunpowder
tǎ:kò	tobacco
mímbá	wine

Gender 14      bò-

bò-rì	money
bò-ngò	age



#### 4.1 Genral Conclusion

This piece of work has been an attempt to describe the noun class system of kɔlə.

In this study we noticed many interesting facts. On phonology, the language is known to have twenty-eight consonants - simple and complex - and seven vowels that can all be lengthened. There is one central vowel, three back ones and three front ones. The vowels had the tendency of forming their semi vowel consonants when they were found in a contiguous sequence.

The tone for the noun prefixes are always low. Tone change in stems is also noticed. The most frequent ones are as follows.

- When two vowels with low tones occur, it results in one tone being dropped and the other adopted.

examples	bòèlé	-->	bwèlé	"tree"
	bòàngé	-->	bwàngé	"chest"

- When two vowels with two different tones occur, one high, one low, the high tone is retained and the low one dropped.

examples	dìísò	-->	dísò	"eye"
	dìínà	-->	dìnà	"name"

- When two vowels meet and form one, the two tones of the vowels combine

examples	dìí	-->	dǐ	"hair"
	jàá	-->	jǎá	"hand"

The tonal system for the concordial prefixes are more complicated. Generally, the concordial prefixes have low tones in cl 1 and cl 9 while all the other classes have high tones. It is not a common practice to find tone change because of collocation. This is because there is always an intervening prefix which helps to distinguish the two words.

example Noun - Adjective collocation

mò-tò "person"

ndénè "big"

mo-to nú ndénè "big person"

Noun - numeral collocation

mù-kéréré "European"

m-òkó "one"

mù-kéréré mòkó "one European"

As concerns the noun class system, the nouns have been grouped in their classes according to their nominal prefixes. Kòlé has fifteen classes (1, 1a, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 6a, 7, 8, 9, 10, 13, 14, 19) which can further be grouped into six plural classes (2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 13) and a single mass or liquid class (6a). Each class bears a suffix. Attempts have been made to give each class its basic form except for class 19.

In bringing this work to a conclusion, we do not claim to have exhausted everything under the title. Much would have been done on the unresolved problems but there was time constraints. They are suggested here for further reading.

#### 4.2 Suggestions for Further Research

In this study, well formed rules could not be written down for the tones due to their fluctuating tendencies. A study should be undertaken based on the kols tone system.

The language has been a difficult one to work on because of the various influences from other languages, starting from its sister language duels. Thus, it has not been really easy to determine the kols language especially when trying to establish its own sphere without interference. Consequently, much still has to be done on the language, including a revision of its phonology and a detailed morphological description not only of nouns but of verbs. The syntax is not left out. As can be foreseen, it will be a long journey for kols to finally reach a functional level; however, it is hoped that the journey will come to its logical end.

ILLUSTRATIVE TEXT

Mbá Harry Ekwete Mokongo nji ná wètè  
I Harry Ekwete Mokongo what I talk

wénù isùngbá myèngó nǎ èkòmè yésú wénéé  
here tell story of village our bring

énè èkàréé jèngù ná bàsóngó. Bòlé yá wèbòtérí  
the juju jengu and basongo Since from beginning

bésú bé bakolè di sí wé nè èkàré. Mùmánà mòkó  
our of bakolè we not have any juju. Man one

só à mèvé ánú ó mbóà bá mà véré Ikaṅ  
ther he was here in village that they called Ikaṅ

dínè rínè bá mà véré Igbàtòṅ. A màḂé ndé  
other name that they called Igbàtòṅ He was only

mòtò à mòsòmbò. Amà Ḃòrèé nè bòrò ná tée  
man of fish. He make this work until

búnyè wókò wé ná ndé mwánjè èmgbé dóbíróí  
day one he go only sea throw net

A mà wékà nyàmè ó yòbi ángòtí ná mà nèbóó  
He felt fish in net draw and he catch

èkàréngònjé, à mà wò. A mà ásimí í oéè è  
basket he surprise. He draw again it

vé ndé èkàréngònjé ná mó á bòtèé èvèké  
was only basket and he start hear

ngòmó ó màriwá A mà àbisè bòrò ná nwá  
drum in water, he turn back canoe and he

pàmbirànè Wèé nà pàmbirànè à ènè ndé à  
confused When he confused he saw only

wísù mbóà éfé mbóà yámé Imgbàtòṅ à  
came out village different village say Imgbatòṅ he

èndè é mwánjá isá timbá bà sàkà Imgbàtòṅ  
went to sea not come back they search Imgbatòṅ

bé sá mòròá. Bé mē Imgbàtòṅ émè wà. Sú bàn  
they didnot find. They said Imgbatòṅ he dead. Day two

Imàkòkà tètè nò bùrú, mbóà éjà e né nò  
reached inside night, village stay

bé békì ndé ròkò díwàré ó rìwó ré àgbà.  
they heard only game coming from water and climb.

Bé Béri ndé Imèrè ndé Imgbàtún. sí Imgbàtún  
They were only show only Imgbatún. Then Imgbatún

ṣBéré mbóà. Amé bonyámò!; nàyéni èyàré éni  
called village my people' I brought thing this

kèné ò mbóà é mètimbà yókà mònyàngì. Bé  
then so village remain play joy

Bé mē Imgbàtún à mē wá, mbé ná sí wà,  
they said Imgbatún has died I didnot die

nàmè Bé ndé ó mēriwá óténù ndé nàmè  
I was but in water inside there I

yáná Bèní bèyàré Búu bémì méré bàmè négé  
brought these things. Devils they show they I should

nàyé nú méré ényètè. mbóà èsàròri jà  
come and show you too. Village not find stay

isi Bèní māròkò mē mbóà. Sí é wéré mbóà  
without having games of village Then he call village

é bé súmbés nábàm né bé ngáméné iwòrè.  
he them talk all how they have to make

Bà bôtés yí méré ǫámbs. ǫámbs à jéngú éwèrí  
They started to show shrine Shrine of jéngú can

jé mbú mēbáh éwèrí jé mbú mērásó ndé ǫámbs  
stay years two can stay years three but shrine

yá mósóngó èyá ndé ngóndé mótówá, èbánjá  
of mósóngó stay only months six because  
bó básókpa mbósi. wèéni bá béméré éyára yá  
them donot learn dialect When they leave thing of  
ékàrés yésé nábám! Bá bà mòkèsè ndóngó yá  
juju all together they them cut pepper of  
mósóngó wèéni bó kásè ndóngó yá mósóngó  
mosongo when they cut pepper of mosongo  
òdèrì ná còòcò omèi wá símèi cúéét cúéét  
eat it còòcò shallow you sneeze cuést cuést  
cúéét ngíréró ó bótés bétè mbósi á Mosongo  
cúéét times three you start talk dialect of mosongo  
mbósi à jéngú sò èyàrà bá já ótèni mbú  
dialect of jengu then something of stay there years  
mèbáh, èBèrì ndá éngáméni bókpé mbósi yá  
two, it because they must learn dialect of  
wó ná wééfè bèyàrà véndé bèyàrà yá békàré  
them and other things that are things of jujus  
yó njé ékèngè bíndà ótèni ná tètèè  
that is why they stay there for long  
Bámè wòrè qénè ná tèè émè dòngáméné bá  
They make so until it reached they  
wú sísé qèmbà. Yó èyàrà yó njé éróyànéérí,  
send out shrine that thing that is brought us  
jéngú ná mósóngó ó bàmòsò bákòlé  
jéngú and mosongo in Bamusso bakoie  
Bò nyàmbsà, àngó mòtò Imgbátún àmá wé ndé  
my country men that men Imgbátún he was only  
mòtò wà bónyàmboá yó njé kèngè bónyàmboá  
men of the village that is why people of village

bá vénè of bá Bénè mórófò ó jéngú Béné  
have also they have head in jengu children

téi itúmbú téi ná réwú itótí ó jéngú  
each people each with their beliefs in jengu

òvi ó mósóngò of  
like in mosóngò also

Nòngèlè mbé mánghèni wán njé né sùkànéé  
I think I have here that I end

wé né myèngó  
this my story

#### Origin of Juju in Bakole

From the beginning, the kola people had no secret societies. One day a man called Ikañ or Imgbatun went as he usually did, in his canoe. One this fateful day he threw in his net but came out with a woven cage. He threw this back in water, and threw his net again. But the same cage reappeared. He got very surprised and decided to go home.

To his astonishment he started hearing the sound of drums inside the water. He felt very confused and was in some sort of a daze. When he came back to himself, he was in a strange place. He was reassured that he was in water, and had no cause for fear. They told him that they wanted him to take back to his people the idea of societies. They indicated they wanted to teach him all there was to it. He was told that there were to be two shrines built for two jujus, the mosongo and the jengu. The mosongo was for men and the jengu was for women.

The men, chosen to belong to this society have to be there for six months while the women where to stay in theirs for two or three years. They kept Imgbatug for two days and sent him back in the middle of the night.

Meanwhile, the people in the villege had searched and searched for him, and had given him up as dead. They had even prepared for his death celebration. The night they were all asleep, Imgbatug came with sounds of drums accompying him. When the people saw him they could not belief their eyes. He then told them where he was and his message to the people.

The people then followed his instructions and when the people intended have been enshrined they were given pepper. After eating and sneezing they started speaking the juju dialect. From that day, the kols people had secret societies, the mosongo and the jengu societies.



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