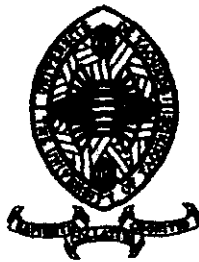


UNIVERSITY OF YAOUNDE I
UNIVERSITE DE YAOUNDE I

**FACULTY OF ARTS, LETTERS
AND SOCIAL SCIENCES**



**FACULTE DES ARTS, LETTRES
ET SCIENCES HUMAINES**

DEPARTMENT OF AFRICAN LANGUAGES AND LINGUISTICS
DEPARTEMENT DES LANGUES AFRICAINES ET LINGUISTIQUES

REDUPLICATION IN KOM
A MORPHO-SYNTACTIC STUDY

A Dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for
the award of a Master's Degree in General Linguistics

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DEDICATION

This Work is dedicated to my beloved ones:

- My husband, Agha-ah Blasius Chiatoh
- My kids: Divine Justice Banye, Clovis Godlove Bongnyaang, Larissa Fulai Agha-ah, and Brandon Akem Nyuydine Agha-ah
- My parents Mr/Mrs Henry Nyuydine Moye

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First of all, I will thank the Almighty God, the Creator and giver of life, for creating me and giving me the courage and patience to come out with this work. My special thanks also go to my Supervisors, Dr Pius N. Tamanji and Dr. Ndamsah Graciana for their supervision of this work. I also owe gratitude to my beloved husband, Mr Agha-ah Blasius Chiatoh, who has worked relentlessly for the success of this work. He acted as my reference informant, a teacher and a proof reader to this work. Thanks for your love and encouragement. My thanks also go to my kids for their love and understanding. My sincere thanks also go to my parents, Mr Nyuydine Henry Moye, Mrs Nyuydine Mary-Anne Konglim, Mrs Banka Elizabeth and Mama Martina Fulai for their continual love, care and advice. I will also seize this opportunity to thank Mr Alfred Vensu for correcting this work and Mr Chongwain Irenus for proof-reading it. I am also grateful to my brothers, sisters and friends, especially Dr Moye Godwin Bongyu, Mr Moye Jude Berinyuy, Miss Moye Marie-Claire Kinyuy, Mr/Mrs Maimo Julius, Mr/Mrs Ndzelen Eric, Miss Fai Pascaline, Mrs Njobara Grace, Mr/Mrs Wiysahnyuy Abel, Fr. Athanasius S., Brother Manjo Livinus, Mr/Mrs Njua Christopher, Mr/Mrs Mbinkar Fidelis, Mrs Mkong Emerencia, members of the Saint Jude Apostolate of the Yaounde chapter and to all other Moyes for their love and company. My final thanks go to Mr/Mrs Seke Chrisantus and their daughter Vernyuy Theodora who have been helping me with my duties as a mother for more than seven years now. This has gone a long way to help me in my studies. To all my God children (Betty Claris, Mfər Nyuydine, Rose Ndzelen, Julliette Lafen, etc.) and to my friends and relatives who have assisted me in one way or the other and their names have not featured here, I say thank you.

Children in Christ ??!

ABBREVIATIONS

Ad	-	Adverb
Adj.	-	Adjective
Agr.M	-	Agreement Marker
Asp.M	-	Aspect Marker
Ass.M	-	Associative Marker
Ben	-	Beneficiary
Cl.Prf	-	Class Prefix
C.M.	-	Concord Marker
C.R.	-	Correspondence Response
Demo.Adj.	-	Demonstrative Adjective
Der.P.	-	Derivational Prefix
Des.Adj.	-	Descriptive Adjective
Des.M.	-	Descriptive Marker
Dur.A.	-	Durative Aspect
Dur.A.M.	-	Durative Aspect Marker
F1	-	Near Future
F2	-	Remote Future
F.Con.M	-	Future Continuous Tense Marker
F.M.	-	Future Tense Marker
Incom.A.	-	Incompletive Aspect
Ind.Md	-	Indicative Mood
Inf.M.	-	Infinitive Marker
Inter.Md.	-	Interrogative Mood
Inter.M.	-	Interrogative Marker
Mod.	-	Mood
N	-	Noun
N'	-	Noun Bar
N.Cl. (Prf)	-	Noun Class (Prefix)
NP	-	Noun Phrase

N.Prf	-	Noun Prefix
N.R	-	Noun Root
N.S	-	Noun Suffix
Op.Md.	-	Optative mood
P.A.	-	Progressive Aspect
Per.A.	-	Perfective Aspect
P1	-	Recent Past Tense
P2	-	Today Past Tense
P3	-	Yesterday Past Tense
P4	-	Remote Past Tense
P.Con.M	-	Past Continuous Tense Marker
P.T.M	-	Past Tense Marker
Pl.M	-	Plural Marker
PP	-	Prepositional Phrase
Pr.P	-	Pronoun Phrase
Prep.	-	Preposition
P ₁ Pr.T.M	-	Present Tense Marker
R.C.	-	Relative Clause
S.M	-	Singular Marker
SVA (P)	-	Subject Verb Adverb of Place
SVA (T)	-	Subject Verb Adverb of Time
SVO	-	Subject Verb Object
SVOA	-	Subject Verb Object Adverb
T.A.M.	-	Temporal Aspect Marker
T.M	-	Tense Marker
Unreal.Asp.M.	-	Unrealised Aspect Marker
V'	-	Verb Bar
V.R	-	Verb Root
V.S	-	Verb Suffix
VP	-	Verb Phrase
You (Pl)	-	You in plural

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ABSTRACT

The work sets out to examine the process of reduplication in Kom. It seeks to determine the application of the concept and the role it plays in Kom lexical formation. To achieve this goal, 150 reduplication words and 100 phrases and sentences containing reduplicated words were collected and analysed against the structuralist framework proposed by Bloomfield (1988), De Saussure (1959) and Comrie (1981). The data was also analysed against the generative approach (Chomsky, 1957). The analysis revealed that the reduplication concept applies in Kom and that it is an important source of lexical formation. The analysis also indicated that all word categories in Kom undergo complete reduplication both at the morphological and syntactic levels. The work has contributed to the identification of reduplication as a rich source of word formation. It has also provided data for further morphological and syntactic study of the language.

CHAPTER ONE

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Within the framework of morphology, one of the most important word formation processes that has drawn the interest of many linguists is reduplication. Reduplication has been defined in many and varied ways. One of these definitions is that of Marantz (1982). He defines reduplication as:

... a morphological process, relating a base form of morpheme or stem to a derived form that may be analysed as being constructed from the base form via the affixation (or infixation) of phonemic material which is necessarily identical in whole or in part to the phonemic content of the base form.

From the above definition, reduplication can be said to be a form of affixation and or repetition of a word or part of a word. The present study adopts the above definition in the study of reduplication in the Kom language.

1.1 OBJECTIVE AND SIGNIFICANCE

This work is out to examine the concept of reduplication in the Kom language (Itajikom). In this light, it sets out to find out whether this concept applies in this language and if so whether it is an important source of lexical formation. The work thus examines the various types of reduplication in Kom. This examination consists in identifying the different morphological processes of reduplication in Kom, that is, it seeks to find out whether or not there are morphological reduplication phenomena such as whole word and partial word reduplications.

The various word categories (nouns, verbs, pronouns and adjectives) are examined in order to find out whether or not they can undergo the process of reduplication and how such a process takes place. If they can be reduplicated, what are the reduplicated words out to portray?

We also focus our attention on the syntactic reduplication such as reduplication in phrases and sentences. Still under syntactic reduplication, the word, syllable, and sentence structures of the Kom language are reviewed. The various word categories in their reduplicated forms are used in phrases and sentences. The goal is to observe the impact of reduplicated words on the various syntactic structures.

In addition to the above, we also find out whether reduplicated verbs have any influence on verb valency when used in sentence structures, that is, do number and kind of verb complements in a sentence change when a verb is reduplicated?

1.2 SCOPE OF THE WORK

From the different studies consulted, we observed that reduplication is one of the richest aspects of language analysis; thus it is very vast. Studies on reduplication can be phonological, morphological and, or syntactical. The present work is carried out within a morpho-syntactic approval. As such we have focused just a little on phonological reduplication. In this light, we have revised the various word categories and some sentential structures of the Kom language. We have also used the various reduplicated words in phrases and sentences to observe their behaviour and to reveal their semantic implications.

1.3 METHODOLOGY

For this study to attain its set goals, we have collected data consisting of words and phrases mainly from existing works done on reduplication. We later on used these words and phrases to design our questionnaires which were administered on the field.

A total of 150 reduplicated words and 100 phrases and sentences with reduplicated words were collected. These were got from the questionnaires elaborated and also from assorted reduplicated words gathered from written literature on Kom.

The main informants were Mr Chiatoh Blasius and Mr Sunday Alfred both of whom are native speakers. These two reference informants gave and corrected the data that is used. Some four ordinary informants resident in Kom helped in cross checking what was got from the main informants. The Kom Language Development Committee office in Fundong was also visited. Data cross checking was also done here. We subsequently grouped and analysed the collected data according to various word categories and later analysed them at the syntactic level. At the level of analysis the high and the mid tones have been eliminated. These tones are marked only when we are out to illustrate a finding. The sound "y" has been taken for a glide or a consonant.



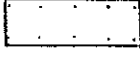
1.4 GEOGRAPHICAL SETTING

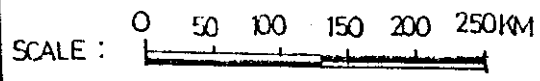
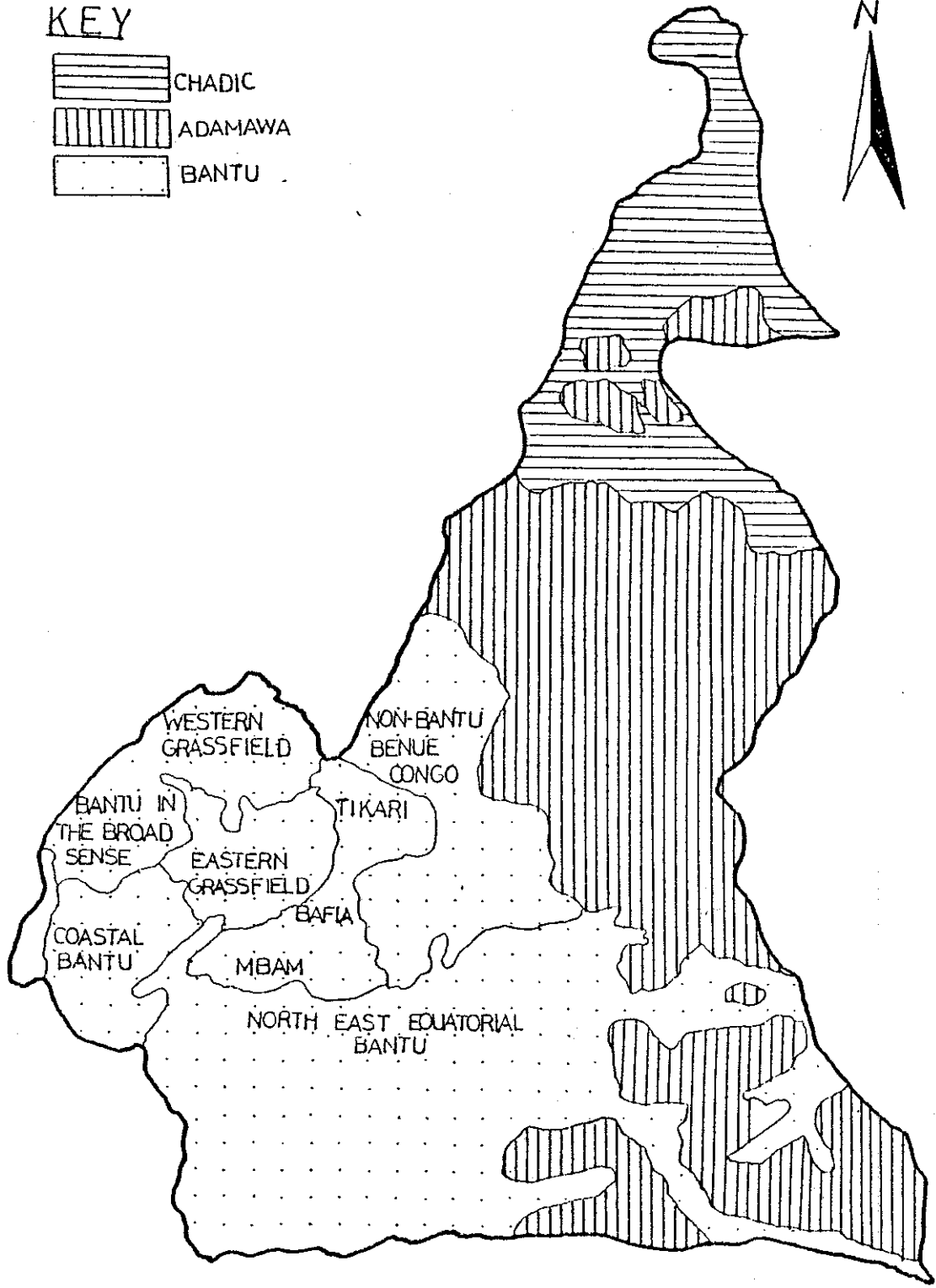
Kom is one of the two languages spoken in Boyo Division. It is spoken in the area covered by the Belo, Njinikom and Fundong Sub-divisions. The only other language Bum is spoken in Bum Sub-division. Kom is situated to the west of the North West Provinces. It is found in the Boyo Division of the North West Province. According to Randall (1997), the Kom language is spoken in the southern portion of this Division. The maps below clearly situate Kom and its boundaries. It is bounded on the North by Bum, to the North West by Mmem and Aghem, to the east by Oku and to the South West by Babanki. According to Nchonji (1969:7), Kom is covered by a wide range of mountains rising from Mbingo (southeast frontiers) up to the majestic Laikom (capital) ranges. These mountains used to provide a natural defence against external forces during the warring years of the 18th and 19th centuries. These mountains have an average height of one thousand five hundred metres above sea level. The highest of these mountains is the Boyo mountain from which the division has taken its name. We have a number of rivers that take their sources from this mountain. These rivers include the Juayang, Muli, Mughef, and Mughom rivers. The Mughom river winds its way into the Bafut tribe. Boyo mountain has a height of about one thousand and thirty metres.

Sources?

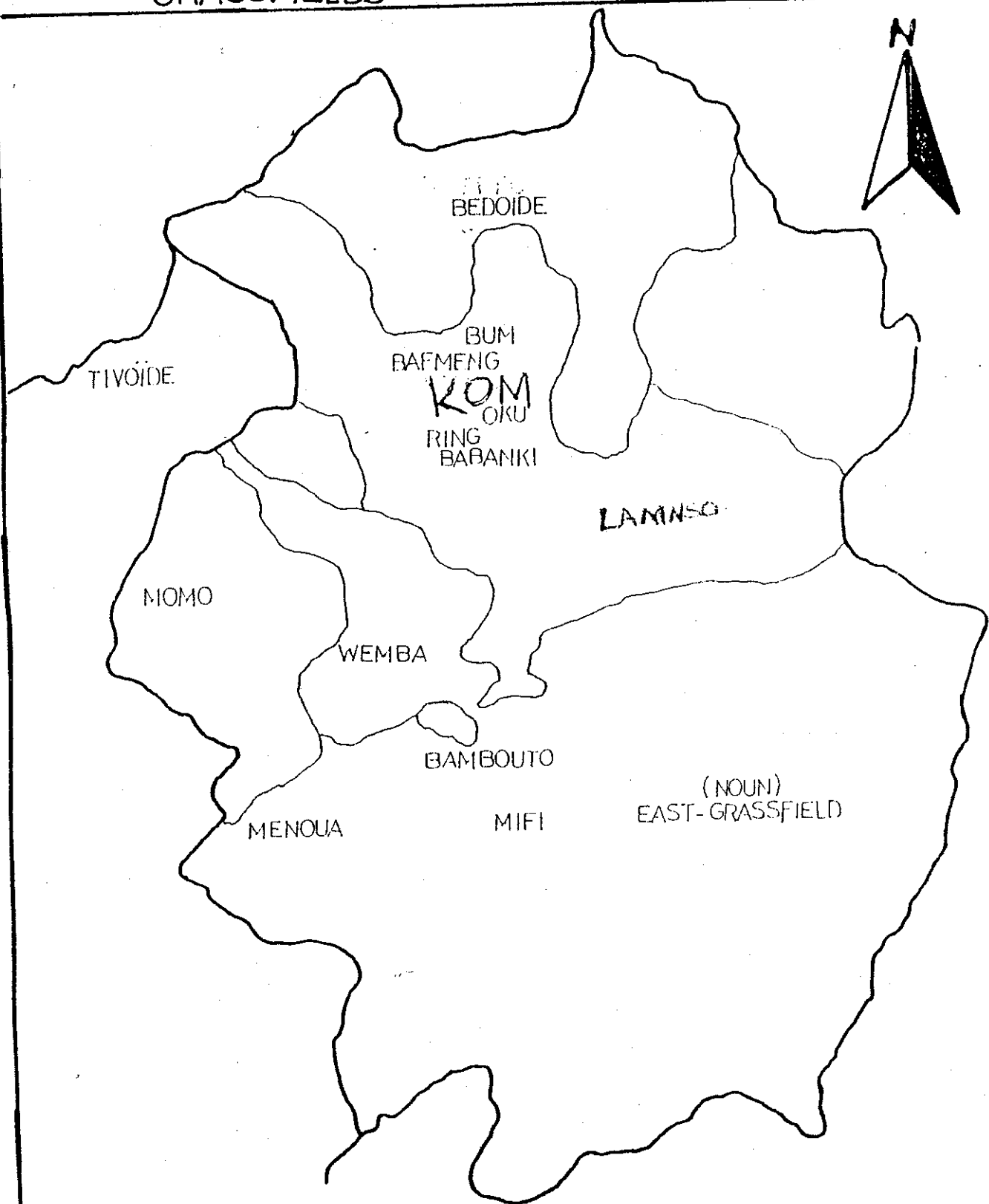
MAJOR LANGUAGE ZONES OF CAMEROON


KEY

-  CHADIC
-  ADAMAWA
-  BANTU

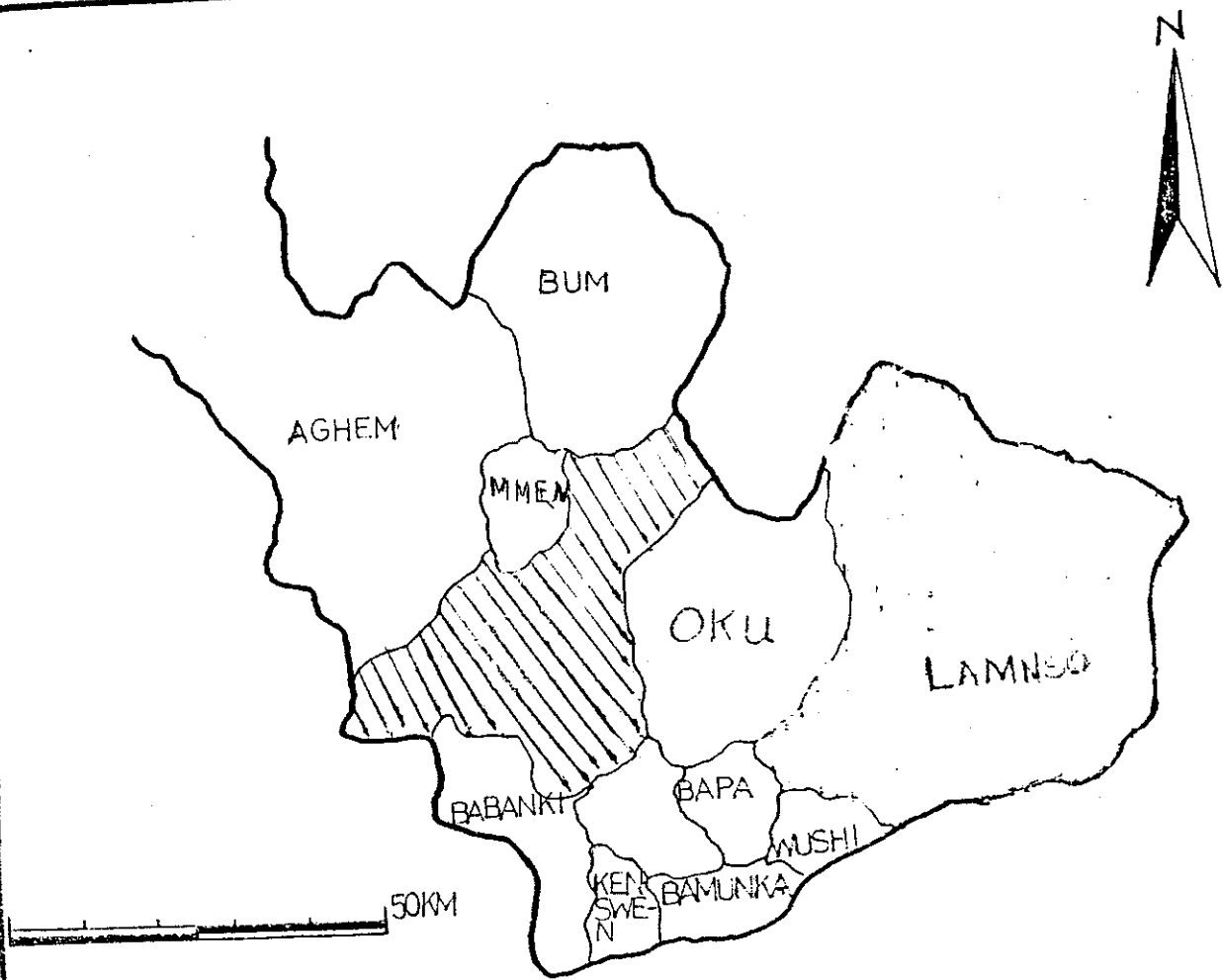


GRASSFIELDS BANTU LANGUAGES.

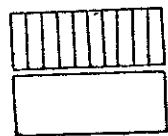


SCALE :  50KM

RING LANGUAGES



KEY



KOM
OTHER LANGUAGES

Kom is made up of nine sub-chiefdoms which are spread all over the mountain ranges. In the North-East are found the sub-chiefdoms of Mbesinaku, Ake, Ajung. In the North-West is found Achain and to the South are Baichan, Mejang and Atin. In the South-West are found Mbenkas, Mbueni and Baiso; Kom proper is made up of eighteen villages one of which is Fundong (Laikom) the traditional and the administrative headquarters of Kom.

Kom has a tropical savannah type of climate that is characterised by two seasons, the rainy and the dry seasons. Kom lies 5° North of the Equator and records the highest amount of rainfall in May and June. December and January form the hottest part of the year. The main occupation of the Kom people is agriculture. They produce coffee as their largest export crop. Food crops such as beans, maize, bananas, guinea corn, groundnut, rice and livestock are produced for local consumption.

1.5 SOCIO-CULTURAL BACKGROUND

Nkwi (1969:3-56) discusses much on the sociocultural aspect of the Kom people. He lays much emphasis on succession in Kom. This is usually the first thing that holds the attention of many people when mention is made of the Kom socio-cultural situation. According to Nkwi the Kom people practice matriarchy; Matripotestal and Matrilined life patterns.

Etymologically matriarchy has two origins, Latin and Greek. In Latin "mater" means mother and "orche" in Greek means rule defined. Thus matriarchy implies to mother-rule. Its real definition is a form of social organisation by which personal rights, duties, and restrictions are determined by the maternal relations. Matripotestal is when the factors of land, property, child control and choice of male are made by the mother and her relatives. Matrilineal inheritance is reckoned on the mother's side.

Nowadays, the Kom people practice mostly the matrilineal and matriarchy (ways of life). These two aspects have been modernised to an extent. Now, instead of a mother's relative inheriting, sisters' sons and or brothers do.

Matriarchy amongst the Koms had its birth from the reign of Jina Bo the first, after the dispersion of the Tikari people and their subsequent entry into west Cameroon. They originally had a patriarchal system like their Eastern brethren (of the Tikari origin).

Kom is a diversified society with many religious denominations - Baptists, Catholics, Presbyterians, Muslims and animists. The main religious bodies are the Catholics and the Baptists. The Kom people practice both polygamous and Monogamous systems of marriage. Most polygamous families found in Kom are got through inheritance of property, wives, and children.

As far as migration is concerned, there is both emigration and immigration out and into Kom. Many people have come from Babungo and have settled around the Belo area. We also have the immigration of the Mbororos and Akus who have made Kom their permanent residence. There are also immigrants from other parts of the country who have come for some civil duties. As far as emigration is concerned, a large number of Kom youths and some adults have emigrated to the various towns of the country to search for jobs. The people of Kom are ruled by a paramount "Fon" of Kom, who owns a palace and many wives and children.

1.6 HISTORICAL SETTING

Kom, one of the largest tribes in the North West Province has a Tikar origin. It traces its remote past from the Ndobbo plain of the Bamum chiefdom. Kom as other tribes of Tikari origin affirms an origin from south Egypt. As seen in Nchonji (1969:6), the Kom chiefdoms started existing in Ngaoundere in 1320 and when invaded by the Foulbe Fulanis, they pushed further southwards.

The Kom people finally came to Babesi where they had a good relationship with the inhabitants. But later, according to Kaberry, the inhabitants became hostile and killed most of them. The remnants under a new leadership crossed to Nso and to Djottin (Din). They latter passed to Ajung where they stayed for a while. Later, Jina Bo I, the founder of the Kom dynasty, led his

followers to Laikom where they subsequently displaced the Ndonde clan. These people left for Anclain where they now have their chiefdom.

Jina Bo I was the son of Nafoin Boh and from his reign up to now, fourteen Fons have ruled the Kom dynasty.

1.7 LINGUISTIC CLASSIFICATION

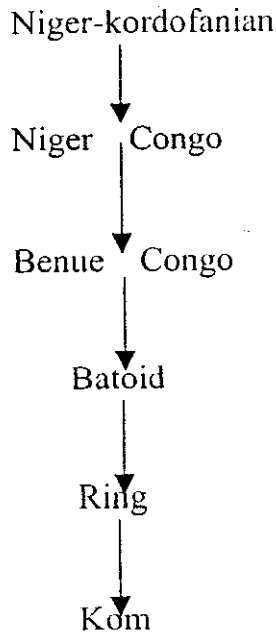
According to Nchonji (1969:22), some linguists such as Richardson and Bruens refer to "Ngkom" as the language of the Kom people. According to Shultz (1997) the language is referred to by outsiders as "Kom" and by native speakers as "Itanjikom" (the language of the Kom people). Today linguists prefer to refer to the Kom language as "Kom" or "Itanjikom"

Greenberg (1966) provides a large framework for classifying African languages. Kom is not actually listed but it is a member of the Benue Congo group. Benue Congo is a sub-family of the Niger-Congo family.

Williamson (1971) divides the Bantoid branch into Non Bantu Bantoid and Bantu Bantoid. Under Bantu, she lists Kom as a member of the Grassfield Bantu and Eastern Grassfield Bantu sub-group. Williamson's Grassfield Bantu has been further divided into four sub-groups. Ring languages are fourteen in number and are situated along the ring road which encircles the central high lands of the North West Province. The language with largest population of the ring sub group are Kom and Lamnso'.

The ring sub-group is further divided into the West branch, the centre branch, the East and the south branches. Kom is found under the center branch. Other languages found under the centre branch are Mmem, Babanki and Ku'. The diagrams below clearly situate the genetic classification of the Kom language.

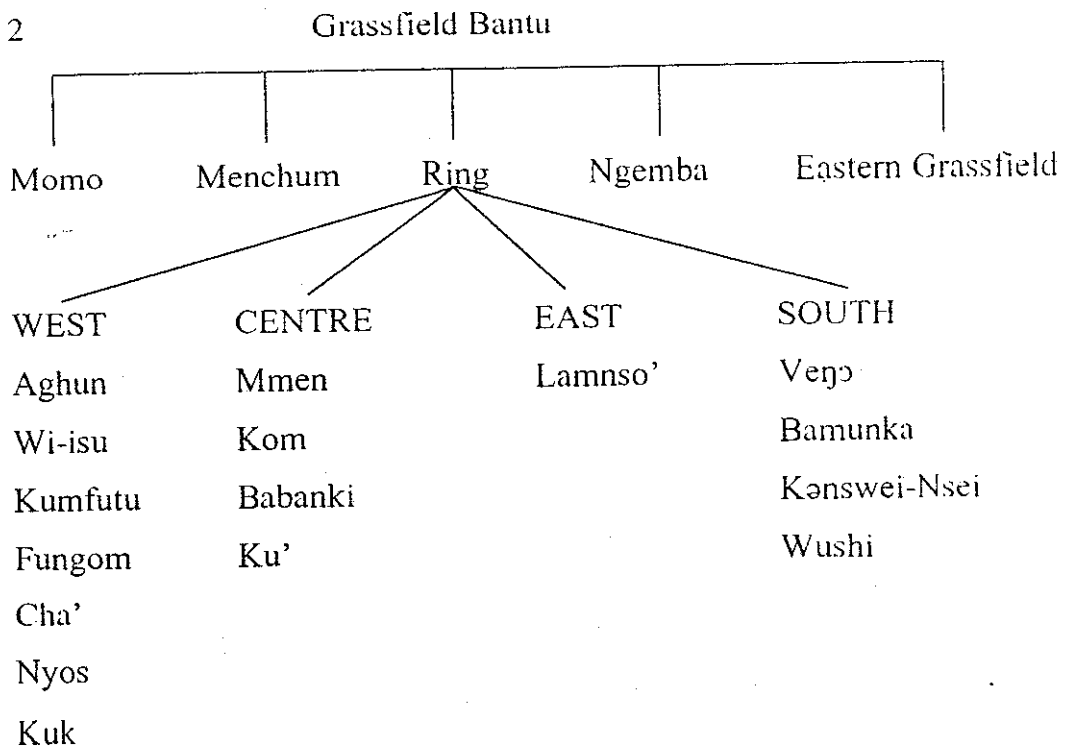
Fig. 1



Adapted from Grimes (1984)

The classification of *Atlas Linguistique du Cameroon* is preferable because it gives more detailed information about the ring group as the diagram below illustrates:

Fig. 2



SOURCE: ALCAM (1983)

1.8 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In this work, the structuralist approach and the generative grammar theory are employed. The structuralist approach proposed by Bloomfield (1938), De Saussure (1959) and Comrie (1981) in which they lay emphasis on the breaking down of larger components into smaller ones such as sentences into words and words into morphemes. These smaller components got, composed the integrate part of this work, that is, reduplication is at the level of word categories first and the various word categories are used in various larger structures such as phrases and sentences. The words used are mostly sorted out from larger structures.

The structuralist approach is used to identify the different morphological processes of reduplication, that is, stem level and whole word level reduplication. In designating morphology and syntax the Bloomfield and De Saussure structuralist approach is used. They refer to morphology as the composition of words and parts of words while syntax includes the construction of phrases. The diachronic method proposed by De Saussure (1959-140) is also of great importance. In this method he emphasised on studying language from the smaller unit up to the large ones. Still under the structuralist approach, Comrie's method of analysing is used.

We also used the generative grammar theory proposed by Noam Chomsky (1957). In this approach he says that in syntax the surface structure of a phrase or sentence should be designated from the deep structure following transformational rules. We used this theory at the level of syntactic analysis.

1.9 REVIEW OF LITERATURE

We divided the review of related literature into three different sections. That is, a review of works that are done on the Kom language as a whole and those that have some relation with the present work. There is also a review of literature on works done on reduplication and finally a review of related theoretical framework.

1.9.1 Works on Kom

The first work in this group is the "Kom Language Grammar Sketch." In this work Shultz, G. (1997) carries out a detailed study of the grammar of the Kom language. He examines the various word categories and their morphological structures. The present study has made great use of this work. We have used the morpheme and word structures that he has proposed, but with some modifications. The various verb and noun roots and affixes also served as a springboard to our analysis.

The second work in this list is J. Randall (1997) "Tone in the Kom Noun Phrase (Part II)." In this work, Randal describes the various structures of noun phrases in the Kom language. He analyses the movement of tones found on different types of syllable structures that constitute words that make up each noun phrase type. Though the present study is not centred on tone analysis, some of the tonal marking processes were adopted for alimentary studies.

Other books under this section are pedagogic materials such as "A first book of Arithmetic in Kom" and "Lets Learn Kom I and II," "Kom proverbs I and II and "The book of Luke." Most of the data collected was from these books.

1.9.2 Literature on Reduplication

This section of literature review is based on the examination of works done on other languages on Reduplication. These works are crucially related to our present studies.

As far as works on reduplication are concerned, the first work consulted was Awoyale's "Reduplication and the Status of Ideophones in Yoruba." In this work Awoyale analyses the various types of reduplication in Yoruba. He looks at the various types of reduplication of non-ideophones and ideophones. We made good use of his work as it provided samples for data collection. We went further to examine the behaviour of reduplicated words in some syntactic structures.

Frasen Margo's "A Grammar of Limbum (1990:306-308) has also contributed greatly to the completion of this work. In his book, Margo examines Limbum grammar in general. He also treats aspects of repetition and reduplication in Limbum. However, his discussion of reduplication is superficial. We used this work to get some samples of collected data. We went further to analyse the process of reduplication in Kom reduplication. We also went further than his work to do a morpho-syntactic analysis of reduplication in Kom.

Marantz, A. in an article entitled "Reduplication" dwells mostly on phonological analysis of reduplication in Arabic. In this work, Marantz examines reduplication using some phonological and morphological rules. He treats syllable and whole word reduplications as well. He equally examines the structure of some reduplicated words and phrases. This inspired us greatly especially with respect to the manner of structuring some phrases. The work also helped us in data collection.

Another work is that of Ngesimo Mutaka and Larry Hyman's "Syllables and morphemes integrity in Kinande Reduplication". These researchers focus their attention on examining reduplicative processes that characterise the different word classes in Kinande. They also come up with an analysis that have some bearings on differences occurring in various situations of reduplication. They treat Noun and Verb reduplication. We further include reduplication at other levels of word categories such as pronouns and adjectives. We also did a syntactic study to find out how reduplicated words behave in phrase and sentences structures. Mutaka and Hyman's work is mostly a phonological study but the present work is a morpho-syntactical study.

In Vernyuy's work entitled "Reduplication in Lamnso", he examines reduplication at the various levels of word categories such as Nouns, Pronouns, verbs and adjectives. He also does a bit of syntactic reduplication but his work is mostly a phonological study. Our analysis is different from Vernyuy's in that,

this is a morpho-syntactic study. We have done a bit on phonological reduplication and most of this is derived from his work.

The last work in this series is Umenjo's dissertation entitled "Reduplication in Ngie". In this work, Umenjo examines reduplication as a process which affects the open class of lexical items in Ngie. She looks at partial and complete reduplication from the angles of phonology, morphology and semantics. She focuses on phonological analysis as a greater part of her work deals with tone and sound analysis. She also treats the structure of some noun phrases with reduplicated words. This work helped to throw more light on what the researcher of this work has done.

1.9.3 Literature Related to Framework

The last part of the review of related works focuses on studies related to the theoretical frameworks used in this study. As mentioned in section 1.8, we have used the structural method of language analysis. We have also used Noam Chomsky's generative grammar theory.

Leonard Bloomfield in his work entitled "Language" he uses the structural method in explaining data in a morpho-syntactic study of English. In this work, he holds that every lexical form is connected in two ways; the grammatical form and the lexical form which both explain a meaningful grammatical structure. We used this same method in analysing our data at the level of morpho-syntax.

The next work under this series of review is that of Comrie. One of the advocates for structuralism, Comrie in his work "Language Universals and Linguistic Typology, Syntax and Morphology," uses the structural framework of analysis to classify some complex forms that exist in English. He uses a typical morpho-syntactic approach to analyse clause structures and he concentrates on the morphological and syntactic changes that occur in the English language. He also breaks down words into morphemes and phrases and sentences into verbs, nouns, pronouns to name but a few. In this work, we adopted his method of

analysis in analysing word reduplication in isolated forms and when they occur in larger syntactic structures.

In *Course in General Linguistics* De Saussure examines language as the trace of observable data. For him, language study is empirical and abounds in performance. This is clearly seen in what he calls the diachronic method of language analysis. He holds that language can be studied through the breaking down of grammatical bonds that exist in that language. He also talks of the synchronic method of language analysis which centres on the delimitation obtained by division along the chain of concepts. In our present study, we used the diachronic method of analysing language.

Another approach reviewed in this work is Noam Chomsky's "Generative Grammar Theory." Noam Chomsky (1967) designates the surface structure of phrases and sentences in syntax. He also uses transformational rules to designate deep structure. We used this theory in the whole of chapter four that is dealing with syntactic analysis. Some of the transformational rules used in chapter two, were also derived from his work.

1.10 DEFINITION OF TERMS AND CONCEPTS

There are some words that we have used through out this work that need to be explained. These terms and concepts include reduplication, morpho-syntax word categories, grammatical structures, and correspondence response.

1.10.1 Reduplication

To increase and expand its lexis, Kom makes use of the process of reduplication. Many linguists have worked on reduplication at various and different levels. For that reason a series of definitions are given to this concept. Below are some of these definitions that are relevant to the present study.

Awoyale (1989) defines reduplication as:

A morphological process whereby a copy of a morpheme (free or bound) in either slightly altered or identical form, is added to the stem in a syntagmatic relationship to produce a new word.

Another definition is that of Margo (1995). He defines reduplication as a type of repetition which is more often done on the word when it is placed in a focus. Marantz defines reduplication as a morphological process relating a base form of a morpheme or a stem to a new form that can be explained as being got through the process of affixation or infixation, which is an identifiable part of the phonemic content of the base form.

From the above definitions, we can conclude that reduplication takes place when a word is created by repeating existing words or part(s) of existing words. There are basically two types of Reduplication; complete and partial reduplications. Complete reduplication occurs when a whole word or segment is reduplicated, whereas partial reduplication occurs when only a part of the word or part of a segment is repeated.

1.10.2 Morpho-Syntax

To have a good understanding of the term morpho-syntax, the definition of the terms morphology and syntax is necessary. By morphology we refer to the branch of linguistics that deals with the structure or form of words. Morphology deals with word formation. That is, it aims at describing and explaining the Universal tendencies of word formation. Syntax is the study of rules governing the manner in which words are combined to form phrases and sentences that are meaningful.

Morphology and Syntax are distinct concepts but looking critically at them, this distinction is artificial. This is because it is extremely difficult to study one without touching the other. Morphology deals with form which Syntax places, and a word takes a particular form depending on where it is placed in a sentence. (Syntax) More over, Syntax and Morphology all deal with structures; Morphology deals with the word structure while Syntax deals

with sentence structure. These similarities in the grammatical functions of both terms allow for the apt coinage Morpho-Syntax.

Morpho-Syntax is therefore the interaction between Morphology and Syntax. It is the study of the formation of words and the relationship between these words in sentences.

Kuslim et al (1991:26) define Morpho-Syntax as

...~~is~~ a branch of linguistics which combines the study of Morphology and Syntax. In Morpho-Syntax it should be possible to agree on definitions such as NP and VP sentence. In Morpho-Syntax the sequential chain model should not be completely disregarded.

A few scholars have gone as far as putting Morphology and Syntax into the single domain of Morpho-Syntax which forms the hard undeniable kernel of Linguistics.

1.10.3 Grammatical Structures

Grammatical structures are words that are grouped into either phrases or sentences. These structures can be morpheme structures, separating words into meaningful units. For instance, the word "teachers" can be broken up into teach/er/s. When one talks of grammar, he is talking of meaningfulness. Thus grammatical structures pertain to words or syllables or morphemes tactically put together in such a way that they can convey meaning. Words can be put together to form meaningful phrases or sentences. This work makes use of a number of grammatical structures such as morpheme structures, word structures, phrases and sentential structures.

1.10.4 Word Categories

Word categories or categories of speech are different classes into which words are grouped. When we talk of a word category, we mean a group of words that share similar characteristics. Words are grouped into categories of

nouns, verbs, pronouns, adjectives and adverbs. In this work, word categories will, therefore, refer to the above listed groups.

1.10.5 Correspondence Response

Generally, response pertains to an answer to a given question. When a question that needs an answer is set, the answer is a response that is automatically expected. Correspondence response refers to a situation where one is giving an answer to a known or imaginary question, or a situation where one is giving a contrary view to an existing one.

1.11 CONCLUSION

In this chapter we have introduced the readers to the idea of Reduplication in Kom. The chapter has essentially focused on the objectives of this study, the field work and analytical methodology as well as the geo-historical and the sociological situation of Kom. The scope of this work and the theoretical framework have also been discussed. The genetic classification of the Kom language has also been presented. Definitions been given to some terms and concepts.

CHAPTER TWO

REDUPLICATION OF KOM VERBS, ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

2.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes reduplication in verbs, adjectives and adverbs. The chapter is divided into sections and subsections. Section one presents a review of what Kom verbs are, section two treats reduplication in verbs, section three presents Kom adjectives and adverbs and section four treats reduplication in adjectives and adverbs.

2.1 KOM VERBS

2.1.1 Kom Verb Structure

Some Kom verbs, like those of many other Bantu languages, have a very dense structure. What is considered a verb at the surface, is made up of a root and sometimes a suffix. Thus the Kom verb has the following structure.

verb + suffix

This structure is exemplified in (1) below

- 1) "fi" - come out
 "-si" - verb suffix
 "fi + -si" - "fisi" - bring out

In the example above, fi - "come" is a free morpheme and a lexical item whose meaning is "bring". When the suffix "-si" is attached to it, the meaning of the verb changes to "bring out."

Kom verbs have four verb suffixes that are all bound morphemes. They are sometimes added to free verb stems to produce new verbs that have related meanings. The table below contains the four verb suffixes alongside illustrations of verbs bearing these suffixes.

derived

Verb suffix	Aspect	Verb stem	Meaning	Derived verb stem	Meaning
-si	causative	tàŋ	to dry	tàŋsi	to make dry a bit
-ti	diminutive	byém	to hunt	byemti	to hunt a bit
-li	iterative	nyij	to run	nyijli	to run up and down
-ni	diminutive	tas	to file	tayni	to file a bit

The affixes n and i change word class. Specifically when attached to a verb the result is a noun and at times a gerund. Below are some cases in which the n and i derivational prefixes are attached to a verb root resulting in a change in the word class (from a verb to a noun).

- 2) a) si gàmtì “to help” verb
gàmtì + i → igàmtì “help” (noun)
- b) si bom “to build” (verb)
i + bóm → ibôm “a building” (noun)
- c) si gàmti “to help” (verb)
n + gàmtì → ngàmtì “helper” (nouns)
- d) si tím “to shoot” (verb)
n + tím → ním “shooter” (nouns)

There is a nasal assimilation of the N- prefix as seen in examples (c) and (d) above.

When the suffix “-ni” is attached to a verb stem, the result is a gerund. For example;

- 3) a) si yi “to eat”
yi + ni → yini “eating”
- b) nyij “to run”
nyij + ni → nyijni “running”

The prefix “i-” is also added to some verbs to indicate the outcome of an action. For example:

- 4) a) si timsi “to cut short” (verb)
i + timsi → itimsi “shortness” (noun)

- b) si kfà'tì “to think” (verb)
i + kfà'tì → ikfà'tì “thought” (noun)

This prefix can also cause a verb to become a gerund. For instance;

- 5) a) si taŋ “to count” (verb)
i + taŋ → itaŋ “things for counting things”
- b) si yvìtì “to rest” (verb)
i + yvìtì → iyvìtì “resting” (gerund)
i yvìtì i nin jofà
der.P rest Con.M. T.M. good “Resting is good.”

2.1.2 Verb Classification

Kom verbs can be classified from three different perspectives:

- According to their valency;
- According to their structures and;
- According to their underlying tone patterns.

2.1.2.1 Verb Classification According to Valency

In this category, we find three sub-classes. These are:

- i) Intransitive verbs. For example,

- 6) ndù - “go”
gvì - “come”
tìmi - “stand”

- ii) Ditransitive verbs such as;

- 7) fu - “give”
bif - “ask”
bè - “say”

- iii) Transitive verbs like;

- 8) ki - “look”
zue - “kill”
lì - “take”
cho' - “choose”

Intransitive verbs in Kom, as in any other language, express actions but have no stated patients towards which these actions are directed. For example:

- b) i) wù si kfi – a “He is already going home.”
 ii) mà si ndu-à “I am going.”

Transitive verbs express actions that pass from agents to patients as seen in the examples below.

- 9) a) Wù le' Nawâyn “He is running away from the mother.”
 he run mother
 b) Tim jâŋ ŋwàli
 Tim read book “Tim is reading a book.”

Ditransitive verbs on the other hand are verbs that take two objects. That is, an agent passes an action onto a patient and a beneficiary or recipient. For instance:

- 10) a) mi fu ifel si và
 I give work to you
 Agent verb (Patient) (Ben)
 “I am going to give you work.”
 b) Wa mbif ikwo si gweyn
 you ask money from him
 (agent) verb (patient) prep (Ben)
 “you ask money from him”
 “You are asking money from him.”

2.1.2.2 Classification According to Structures

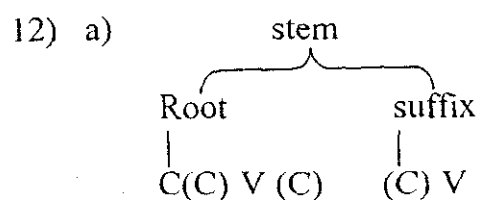
Kom verbs can also be classified from the point of view of the verb structure. We have the root or stem structure (free morpheme) and the derived stem structure, which is or root + suffix structure. By root or stem structure we mean verbs that have the follow structure;

V + suffix

In this category, we find verbs with the following syllable structures;
 CVC, CVVC, CV or CCVC.

11)	bù'	"ask"	- CVC
	bèyn	"turn"	- CVCC
	bo	"weave"	- CV
	foyn	"mix"	- CVVC
	gvimi	"burry"	- CCVC
	chviŋ	"tie"	- CCVC

Derived stem structure verbs are verbs that result from the affixation of suffixes to other verbs. They have the structure in example (11) above



Examples of verbs that fall under this class are the following verbs;

b)	beyn	"turn"	→	beyn + si	=	beynsi	- "to cause to turn"
	bif	"ask"	→	bif + ti	=	bifti	- "to ask from many"
	foyn	"mix"	→	foyn + ti	=	foynti	- "to mix up"
	gvim	"burry"	→	gvim + ti	=	gviti	- "to bury in ash"
	chviŋ	"tie"	→	chviŋ + ti	=	chviŋti	- "to tie a bit"

2.1.2.3 Classification According to Underlying Tone Pattern

In Kom, verbs can also be classified according to their tone patterns. We have verbs with an inherent high tone pattern and some with an inherent low tone pattern.

High tone verbs are those verbs that have mid (level) tones when they are in the infinitive form and high tones when they are in the imperative form.

Below are some examples;

13)	Verb	Meaning	Infinitive form	Imperative form
	bif	"ask"	si bīf	bíf
	fu	"give"	si fū	fú
	taŋ	"count"	si tāŋ	táŋ
	cham	"eat"	si chām	chám
	boynsi	"punish"	si bōynsi	bóynsi
	yva	"thatch"	si yvā	yvá

Low tone verbs are those that have a low tone in the infinitive form and mid in the imperative form. This verb structure is illustrated in (12).

14) a)	Verb	Meaning	Infinitive form	Imperative form	
	tày	“make dry”	tày	tāy	
	bòe	“save”	si bòe	bōe	
	bùl	“save”	si bùl	būl	
	fāf	“reduce”	si fāf	fāf	
b)	wà	mbif	ikwó	sí	ṅwey
	you	ask	money	from	lum
	(gert)	verb	(patient)	prep	(Ben)

2.1.3 Tense, Aspect, Mood, Valency

In the Kom language, the ideas of tense aspect, mood and valency are expressed by the use of free morphemes less for the incompletive aspects markers. This section therefore discusses tense, aspect, mood and valency in Kom. Attention is focused on the morphemes that mark these elements and on their relationship with the verb, that is, whether they are bound or free morphemes.

2.1.3.1 Tense in Kom

The Kom tense system is divided into three time spans, the present, the past and the future. This division takes the moment of speaking as a reference point. The past tense is divided into four different past tenses while the future is divided into two tenses. The different time spans are discussed in greater detail in the sections that follow.

2.1.3.1.1 Present Tense

The present tense in Kom, as in other languages, marks an action that is taking place at the moment of speaking. This tense is marked by a high tone as seen in the following examples:

15) a)	Ma	yí	“eat”
	I	eat	

- b) Wu ndu "he goes"
He go

2.1.3.1.2 Past Tense

The past tense is divided into four different tenses: the recent past (P1) which is marked by the tense marker ni the today past (P2) that is marked by lae, the yesterday past (P3) which is marked by ti and finally the remote past (P4) that is marked by lae.

A) The Recent Past (P1)

The recent past tense is marked by ni. It generally occurs immediately before the verb. This is illustrated below.

- 16) a) ma ni meyn yí
I Pr.T. Asp.M. eat "I have eaten."
b) Wu ni meyn ndù a jvâ
He/she Pr.T. Asp.M. go to stream
"He went to the stream."
c) Nà ni meyn gvì
mother Pr.T. Asp.M. come "Mother came."

It is worth mentioning that the recent past tense marker ni always precedes an aspect marker meyn. Meyn indicates that the action initiated, has come to an end.

B) Today Past Tense (P2)

The today Past tense is marked by lae. This tense, unlike the today past does not need an aspect marker. This is seen in the following illustrations:

- 17) a) Ma lae yi bisì bisì
I P2 eat morning "I ate in the morning."
b) Mbàŋ lae se' a gvêyn
Mbàŋ P2 go to farm
"Mbàŋ went to the farm (in the morning or today)."

- c) Wù laè zue iwum
 He P2 break egg
 "He broke an egg (in the morning or today)."

As seen in the above examples, the laè marker expresses what happens the same day as the speaker is speaking. The action can be in the morning when the reporter is speaking, in the afternoon or evening or what happens in the afternoon when he is speaking in the evening. It is important to mention that in the today past, the tense morpheme is followed more often by the verb it is qualifying. This is clearly seen in (14) a) b) and c) where yì "eat", se' "go" and zue "break" are preceded by "laè" morpheme.

C) Yesterday Past Tense (P3):

The yesterday Past Tense is marked by the tì morpheme. In this language, tì always signals something that happened yesterday. For instance;

- 18) a) Wù tì gvì ìyoni
 He P3 come yesterday "He came yesterday."
 b) Anchì tí ndù (ìyoni)
 Anchì P3 go yesterday "Anchi went yesterday."

From the above two examples, one sees that the word ìyoni which stands for "yesterday" is optionally used. The presence of the tì morpheme indicates the notion of yesterday.

D) The Remote Past Tense (P4)

The remote past tense (P4) indicates an action that took place sometime ago. It could refer to a month ago, a year ago, or many years ago. It is remote because it is not easily located. In Kom, this tense is marked by the nin. Below are some examples:

- 19) a) Ànjèna nin gvì - à
 they P4 come ind (mood) "They came."

- b) Na va nin yi - a
 mother you P4 eat ind (mood) "Your mother ate."

2.1.3.1.3 Future Tense

The future tense is divided into two time spans. We have the near future and the remote future. Each of these future tenses is expressed by two different tense markers. The F1 is the near future tense and F2 is the remote future tense.

The F1 is indicated by the tense marker ní and the F2 is indicated by the tense marker lae. It is worth noting that the tense marker for the today tense and that of the remote future tense is the same. The difference depends on the context of usage. The remote future always occurs with either the temporal or the progressive aspect marker. Below are some example of the use of future tense.

A) Near Future Tense (F1)

The marker for the near future tense is ní and is seen in the following examples in 20.

- 20) a) Mi nì gvì - a
 I F1 come Asp.M. "I will come."
 b) Mí nì ndù - a
 I F1 go Asp.M. "I will go."

B) Remote Future Tense (F2)

Under the remote future tense, there are two morpheme markers. One that indicates the tense and another that indicates the aspect. This is seen in the presence of laè and ní to mark tense and a to mark aspect. Consider the examples in 21 below.

- 21) a) Nge' ní laè dyaŋ - à
 nge F2 cross Asp.M. "Nge shall cross."

b) Nge' ní laè kú nyam a
 nge F2 catch animal Asp.M.
 "Nge will catch an animal."

c) Mbom ni laè kasi - à
 Mbom Asp.M come back Asp.M.
 "Mbom will come back."

The tense morpheme *laè* is always used either with the progressive *ní* morpheme or with the progressive *ní* morpheme and the *a* which is the temporal aspect morpheme. Whenever the marker *laè* is used without an aspect marker, this indicates the today past tense.

2.1.3.2 Aspect in Kom

There are five different aspect types, in the Kom language. There are the progressive, the temporal, the durative, the completive and incompletive aspects. Each of these can either fall under the accomplished or the progressive aspects. Each of the five aspect types is discussed below.

2.1.3.2.1 The Progressive Aspect

By progressive, we mean making a continuous forward action or movement or doing something that is not yet completed. In Kom, this is marked by *nin*. Below are some examples of the use of the progressive aspect.

22) a) Nkwayn nín tím ílwaŋ
 Nkwayn P.A. dig cocoyams
 "Nkwain is digging cocoyams."

b) Bô nín n - kôŋ wayn ŋveyŋ
 Lord P.A. love children he (possessive)
 "The Lord loves his children."

c) Agena nín ndû - a - jvâ
 they P.A.M go prep stream
 "They are going to the stream."

2.1.3.2.2 The Temporal Aspect

The temporal aspect is marked by nín and sí. Like the progressive aspect nín is used to establish or resume a temporal point of reference in the language. Its most common function is to indicate the sense of "at that time" or "now". In other words, it helps in establishing a time framework. The nín marker, either marking a temporal or a progressive aspect, never occurs with the recent Past Tense or the Yesterday Past tense Particles. It is always present with the remote past tense marker. Below are two examples:

- 23) a) Àḡena nín gvi - à
 They T.A.M come ind "They came."
 b) Nà vâ yi - a
 mother you eat "Your mother ate."

The sí component of the Temporal Aspect is used to express the idea that an action of the verb was expected to happen but was not realised. This marker is only used in the present tense. Here are some examples:

- 24) a) Wa sí gvì - à
 You T.A. come ind. "You are already coming."
 b) Ma sí yi - a
 I T.A. eat ind "I am already eating."

2.1.3.2.3 The Durative Aspect

The durative aspect is used to indicate an action in the progressive or continuous tense. It denotes an action that is not completed. This aspect is shown by the use of the marker nà. The context sometimes can indicate the tense when this aspect is used, in which case, the aspect marker is not overtly shown. See (25) below.

- 25) a) Àḡena nà n- kiḡ si tim nyam ngwo
 they Dur.A.M went inf shoot animal antilope
 "They wanted to shoot an Antilope."

- b) Yi na dyal - a
you(p) Dur.A.M proud ind "You should be proud."
- c) Mâ na dyaŋ - à
I Dur.A.M cross ind "I will be crossing."
- d) Wù nà kôŋ iyúí
he/she Dur.A.M love yam "He/She likes yams."

It is worth noting that the durative aspect shows the beginning of an action and says nothing completely about its ending.

2.1.3.2.4 The Incompletive Aspect

In Kom, the incompletive aspect indicates an action that is already existing and might never change or be completed. This aspect is signalled by "a". The following sentences show its usage.

- 26) a) Wà n-ja'a
you mad incom.A. "You are mad."
- b) Wù ngûti - à
he/she stupid incom.A. "He or She is stupid."
- c) Ngàm bem - a
Ngam temple incom.A. "Ngàm is terrible."

As seen in the above examples in 26, the incompletive aspect marker a is always preceded by an adjective.

2.1.3.2.5 The Completive Aspect

The completive aspect shows an action that is accomplished already. This aspect is marked by the word meyn. Here are some examples:

- 27) a) Wà ja' meyn
you mad com.Asp.M "You have become mad."
- b) Wù gvi meyn
he/she come com.Asp.M "He/she has come."

- c) Ma yi meyn
I eat com.Asp.M "I have counted."

The completive aspect marker is always used after a verb.

2.1.3.2.6 The Perfective Aspect

The perfective aspect which is closely linked to the completive, is also marked by meyn. Like the completive, it is out to mark an action that is already accomplished. But there is a difference at the level of tense. The perfective is mostly used to express an action that took place some time ago. Thus it occurs with the P2 and P4 past tenses. Here is an example:

- 28) a) Aṅena ti meyn gvi iyon
They P3 Per.A come yesterday
"They came yesterday."
- b) Na wom ti meyn fu i ma
Mother min P3 Per.A give to me
"My mother gave to me."

2.1.3.2.7 The Unrealised Aspect

The unrealised aspect in Kom is marked by the morpheme si. This morpheme when used in a sentence signals unrealised action expressed by the verb. Below are a few examples:

- 29) a) Mâ si lu - à
I unreal.Asp go
"I am already going." or "I am about to go."
- b) Nsom si jaṅ - à
Nsom unreal.Asp.M count
"Nsom is already reading."
- c) Wù si taṅ - a
he/she unreal.Asp read "He/she is already reading."

From the above examples, one can see that the unrealised aspect marker si has the English meaning "already".

The aspect system of Kom is presented in the table below.

Table I:

Type of Aspect	Aspect marker	Meaning
Temporal	nin	Resume a temporal point of reference
Progressive	nin	Making continuous action
Imperfective (Durative)	na	Denotes an action that is not complete
Incompletive	a	Action that might never be completed
Completive	meyn	Accomplished action (very recent)
perfective	meyn	Accomplished action (not recent)
Unrealised	si	Action not yet realised

2.1.3.3 Mood in Kom Verbs

Mood shows whether a message expressed by a speaker is certain, doubtful, possible, a question, comment or a task to be performed. The imperative, the hortative, the optative, and the interrogative moods are some of the moods commonly found in Kom. Each of the moods will be discussed in the different subsections below.

2.1.3.3.1 The Imperative Mood

The imperative mood is marked by a high tone (´). It is always used to give a command or an order for a task that must be done. The use of this can be seen in the following sentences.

- 30) a) Si gvì "to come"
gví "come!" (a command)
- b) Si biyn "to dance"
bíyn "dance!" (a command)
- c) Si nyōŋ "to suck"
nyóŋ "suck!" (imperative)

It is important to note that the examples above contain verbs that have mid or low tones. Those verbs with inherently high tones do not change. For example;

- 31) Si taŋ "to count"
 táŋ "count!" (imperative)

2.1.3.3.2 The Hortative Mood.

The hortative mood just like the imperative mood is expressed by the use of the high tone (´) or a rise in tone in the case of inherently high tone verbs. The difference between the imperative and the hortative is that while the imperative mood is stated in the second person, the hortative mood is stated in the second and third persons. The hortative mood has no modal markers indicating its usage. Below are some examples of sentences with the hortative mood.

- 32) a) Ghì tum ɲweyn
 you (pl) send him "You people should send him."
 b) Tīm taŋ ibi
 Tim count colanut "Tim should count the colanuts"
 c) Ghesì va tsyín
 we (dual) push "Let you and I push!"

2.1.3.3.3 The Optative Mood

The optative mood is usually described as a mood of possibility. This mood is verbal in its usage. It is expressed in two ways, by using the verb *ika'* which means "be able" or by using a clause which always starts with the phrase *i/vi - li* [ilvi]. This phrase means "sometimes". For example;

- 33) a) Mbòŋ kà' a wù gvì
 Mboŋ op.md Am.M may come
 "Mbòŋ can (may) come."
 b) Àŋkuŋa kà' a wù chwó
 Àŋkuŋa op.md Am she pass
 "Àŋkuŋa can (may) pass."

When ikà' is used in a sentence, it becomes kà. Meanwhile ilvi ta can also be used as a conditional word. Thus ilvi ta can replace kà to mark an optative mood: a mood of possibility. For instance;

Examples with ilvi + li

- 34) a) Mi gvì à ilvi ta mà kelí afo
I come Am op. Mood Tense Am.
"I will come if I have something."
- b) Ntam nko' - a ilvi ta wú ñkôŋ
Ntam come up am op.mood tense he like
"Ntam will come up if he likes."

In the above examples one can see that ilvi ta when used in a sentence is contracted to ilvi.

2.1.3.3.4 The Interrogative Mood.

The interrogative mood and the imperatives are very important in the analysis on verb reduplication. The interrogative mood that is expressed in Kom by the use of the marker a is very common. This mood is used to express a question. It is mostly placed at the end of the sentence. The mood particle a is sometimes accompanied by an interrogation. The mood particles a is some of the times accomplished by interrogative particles (pronouns). The example below illustrate:

- 35) a) Wù nì yì gha a
he P2 eat what inter.md "What did he eat?"
- b) Ghì nì yi swe' a
it P2 eat many inter.md "How many did he eat."
- c) Mà lu- a
I go inter.md "Should I go?"

The table below summarises what has been discussed above on mood in Kom.

Table II:

Mood Type	Marker	Meaning
Imperative	/ (high tone)	give an order that must be done for a task.
Hortative	/ (rising tone)	Signals an obligation
Optative	ikà' (be able) lifilí	Signals an idea of optional
Interrogative	A (question morpheme)	Indicates a question

2.2 REDUPLICATION OF VERBS

The process of reduplication is very common in Kom verbs. The Kom verb undergoes reduplication in order to: i) denote tense, mood and aspect; ii) form different word categories such as nouns and adjectives.

To ease the understanding of this section, it is divided into four different parts. Part one discusses verbs that are reduplicated to express tense, the second part discusses verbs that are reduplicated to portray mood. The third part examines verbs that are reduplicated to denote aspect and the last part presents reduplication which results in a change of word class.

2.2.1 Reduplication of Verbs to Denote Tenses

Some verbs are reduplicated to denote tense. Unlike the other tenses that are marked by the use of a morpheme, the present, past and future progressive tenses are expressed through the reduplication of the verb.

2.2.1.1 Verbs Reduplicated to Express the Present Continuous Tense

The present continuous tense is a tense that marks an action that is taking place at the time of speaking and that will continue. Some verbs in Kom are reduplicated to express this tense. Here are some examples:

- 36) a) fù "to give"
 Wù fufu
 He give "He is giving." (C.R.)

- b) lèm "to keep"
 mi lem lem
 I keep keep "I am keeping." (C.R.)
- c) lema "to grow"
 Fulai lemâ lèma
 Fulai grow grow - "Fulai is growing." (C.R.)
- d) díim + si = dímsí "to cause to play"
 play ext cause to play
 Tim dímsí dímsí
 Tim cause to play cause to play
 "Tim is causing to play."

From the above examples the following remarks can be made: Reduplication of verbs to denote the present continuous tense affects all verb types; verbs with the structure verb root as seen in 36 (a), (b), and (c) and verb with the structure verb root + suffix as seen in example 36 (d).

The behaviour of tones on reduplicated forms is also worth mentioning. This is however reserved for a section devoted to the tonal behaviour of all reduplicated verb forms.

2.2.1.2 Verb Reduplicated to Denote the Past Continuous Tense

The past continuous is a tense that indicates an action that started sometime ago and went on for some time. Here the reduplicated verb serves as an answer to the questions "what was happening?" As seen in the examples in 37 below, some Kom verbs are reduplicated to express this tense. It is also observed that the two types of verb structures undergo this process. For instance;

- 37) a) bóm "to build"
 Nsom ti nà bom bom
 Nsom P.con. build build "Nsom was building."
- b) timi "to wait"
 Wù tì nà timî timi
 He/she P.con wait wait
 "He was waiting."

- c) bini “to sleep”
 Mà tì nà binî bini
 I past con.T M sleep sleep
 “I was sleeping.”

From the examples above, one observes that verbs are reduplicated to portray the past continuous tense but to do so, they have to take the past continuous tense marker which is tì nà.

2.2.1.3 Verb Reduplicated to denote the Future Continuous Tense

The future continuous tense is a tense that indicates an action that will take place in time to come and that will continue for a length of time. This tense, is added to laè which is the future tense marker, to mark future continuous.

To express the future continuous tense in a contrastive response context, the verb in question must be reduplicated. Consider the examples below;

- 38) a) bíŋ “to roll”
 Chia laè nà bíŋ bíŋ a libis
 Chia F1.con. roll roll prep tomorrow
 “Chia will be rolling tomorrow.”
- b) fàbti “to reduce”
 Ma laè nà fàbti fàbti
 I F1.con. reduce reduce
 “I will be reducing.”
- c) tás “to file”
 tás + lí = tay lí “to file lightly”
 verb suffix derived verb
 Ná wom laè nà taylí tayli
 Mother mine F.con. file lightly file lightly
 “

2.2.1.4 Tonal changes in verbs with verb root structure

When monosyllabic verbs with high tones are reduplicated, the reduplicated forms bear mid tones. On the other hand, when low tone verbs are reduplicated the first word form experiences a change from a low to a falling

tone. The second word form on its own part experiences a change from a low to a mid tone. This is seen in examples 32, 33 and 34 above. For instance;

High Tone Verbs

- 36) a) fu - "to give"
 wù fū fū
 he/she give give "He is giving."
- 37) a) bom "to build"
 Nsom tí na bōm bōm
 Nsom P.con. build build "Nsom was building."

Low Tone Verbs

- 36) a) lèm "to give"
 Mi lēm lēm
 I keep keep "I am keeping."
- 38) b) kùm "to touch"
 yì làe nà kūm kūm
 you (pl) F1.con. touch touch "You will be touching."

When two syllable verbs with high tones on the two syllables are reduplicated, the first word form has a mid and falling tone on the two syllables respectively. The second word form on the other hand has a low and high tone on the two syllables respectively. Below are examples:

- 36) c) lema "to grow"
 fulai lemâ lêmá
 fulai grow grow "Fulai is growig."
- 37) b) tímí "to wait"
 wù tí nà timî tímí
 he/she P.con. wait wait "He is waiting."

In the case of two syllable verbs with low and high tones, the low and high become low low on the first word form and mid mid on the second form. For instance;

- 36) d) kɪŋtɪ “to shift”
 Wà kɪŋtɪ kɪŋtɪ
 You shift shift “You are shifting.”
- 37) c) nyɪŋɪ “to sleep”
 Ma tɪ nà nyɪŋɪ nyɪŋɪ
 I past.con.T.M sleep sleep “I was sleeping.”

Still with regard to two syllable verbs when verbs with mid and high tones on the second and second syllables respectively are reduplicated, the first word form bears a high and a falling tone on the two syllables respectively. The second word form on its own part bears a low and a mid tone. This is seen in the example below.

- c) chwōtɪ “to beg”
 Wu laè nà chwotɪ chwòtɪ ma
 He/she Fl.Con. beg beg me
 “He will be begging me.”

2.2.1.5 Tonal changes in verbs with verb root and verb suffix structure

What is obtained in verb root with two syllables is also obtained with verbs with root and suffix structure. When verbs with the high tone on both the verb root and verb suffix are reduplicated, the high-high tone sequence becomes a high-falling sequence (on the first word form) and a mid-mid on the second. The suffix of the first reduplicated form changes from high to falling while the second form changes its tone on the verb root and verb suffix completely. The tone moves from high high to mid mid on verb root and suffix respectively. These changes are illustrated below.

- 39) chvɪŋ “to tie”
 chvɪŋ tɪ chvɪŋtɪ “to tie many”
 verb root verb suffix verb
 chvɪŋlɪ + lɪ = chvɪŋlɪ
 first form second form

2.2.2.1 Reduplication in the Durative Aspect.

The durative or the imperfective aspect is seen to be an aspect of progression. That is, an aspect that indicates continuity. Some Kom verbs are reduplicated to mark this aspect. Aspect can also be indicated by reduplicating a verb. This generally happens in a contrastive-response given to a question or when a contrastive statement is given to an existing one. This is seen in the following examples:

- 41) a) ntəm “to clear”
 Wù ntem ntem
 he clear clear “He is clearing.”
- b) fābtì “to reduce”
 Mì laè nà fābtì fābtì
 I F.Con.T reduce reduce “I was reducing.”
- c) bini “to sleep”
 Ma nì nà binî bini
 I pa. Con.T(M) sleep sleep “I was sleeping.”
- d) fēyn “to close”
 fēyn + tì = fēynttì “to close a bit”
 verb suffix verb
 Mì fēynttì fēynti “I am closing a bit.”

This type of reduplication cannot take place when the verb stands on its own. The verb must be in a sentence in which there is a subject (head noun with progressive aspect portrayed by the process of reduplication). It is also seen in the completive aspect.

2.2.2.2 Reduplication to denote the Completive Aspects.

The completive aspect is shown when an action is already accomplished. This aspect is expressed in two different ways. It is expressed by using an aspect marker meyn and by reduplicating the verb in the sentence. Below are some examples:

- 42) a) mà' "to drop"
 Ntêyn mà' mà'
 Ntêyn drop drop "Ntêyn has dropped."
- b) kfi "to die"
 Mary kfi kfi
 Mary die die "Mary has died."
- c) chà' si "carry up"
 carry up
 Yì chà'sì cha'si
 you (pl) carry up carry up "You should carried up."

Here, we notice that the completive aspect is expressed by the use of the immediate past tense or P1. This aspect takes the immediate past form when used in a contrastive response situation. In this case, the verb in the sentence is reduplicated. In normal situations, this aspect will take the past tense I marker meyn. The verb must not necessarily be reduplicated as seen in the examples below.

- 27) c) Ma yi meyn -
 I eat Asp.M "I have eaten."
- b) Àŋena taŋ meyn
 They court Asp. M "They have courted."

2.2.2.3 Tonal behaviour of Reduplicated verbs to denote aspect.

Just like tones of verbs change when verbs are reduplicated to portray the idea of progressive tenses, tones as well change when some verbs are reduplicated to portray aspect. As far as the tonal analysis of verbs reduplicated to express the above two types of aspect is concerned, it is noticed that the completive aspect realizes a lowering in tone while the progressive realizes a rise.

i) Changes when portraying the completive Aspect

As said above, the reduplicated verbs that express the completive aspect realize a lowering in tone. High tone verbs when reduplicated become low or

mid. When a verb with a low tone is reduplicated (to denote the completive aspect) the two verb forms maintain the low-low tone or at times a low-mid. But for high tone verbs, the first verb form obtains a mid tone while the second form maintains its high tone. Here are some examples:

- 43) a) mà' "to drop"
 Nteyn mà' mà' "Nteyn has dropped."
- b) kfi "to die"
 Mary kfi kfi
 Mary die die "Mary has died."

When a disyllabic verb whose syllables bear high tones is reduplicated, the first verb form will obtain a low mid tone while the second verb form will observe a mid mid tone on its two syllables. For instance.

- 44) a) kom "to clean"
 komlí "clean all over."
 Mà kòmli kómli
 I clean all over clean all over "I have cleaned all over."

With a disyllabic verb having low high tone, we realize a low low on the first verb form and a mid low on the second. This is seen in the example below.

- 44) b) kfèti "cook a bit"
 Wu kfèti kfeti
 He cook a bit cook a bit "He has cooked a bit."

ii) Changes portraying the progressive aspect

When a high tone monosyllabic verb is reduplicated to portray the progressive aspect, a mid mid tone is observed on the two verb forms. When it comes to a disyllabic verb with a high high tone, the first verb form obtains a high and falling tone on its syllables and a high high tone on the syllables of the second verb form. A two syllable verb which is low low when reduplicated maintains the low low tone on the first verb form but the second verb form observes a slight change in its tones. There is a rise from low to mid tone of the

first syllables of the second verb form. The examples below illustrate these changes.

- 45) a) tem "to clear"
 Wù tem tem
 He clear clear "He is clearing."
- b) fùtí "to give to Mary"
 verb extension
 Nsaṅ fùtí fùtí
 Nsaṅ give to mary give to mary
 "Nsaṅ is giving to Mary."
- c) nyìṅi "to lie"
 Mà nì nà nyiṅi nyiṅi
 I pa.con.T.M sleep sleep "I was lying."

2.2.3 Reduplication to denote mood

To mark mood in Kom some verbs are reduplicated. This is done either to express emphasis on an action or to indicate the idea of fastness or quickness. These two ideas express the imperative and the hortative moods respectively. These two types of mood are treated and exemplified below.

2.2.3.1 Reduplication to indicate the imperative mood

The imperative mood, which is usually marked by the high tone is sometimes got by reduplicating the verb in the sentence. In section 2.1.3.5, the imperative mood is used to give a command or an order for a task. Verbs can also be reduplicated to portray these ideas. The following reduplicated verbs indicate this mood.

- 46) a) si gvi "come"
 gvi "come!" (command)
 gvì gvì "come quickly" (command)
- b) sí bíyn "to dance"
 bíyn "dance" (a command)
 bíyn bíyn "dance quickly" (a command)
 or "dance" (command in C.R)

- c) si nyon "to suck"
 nyon "suck!"
 nyon nyon "suck!" (a command in C.R)

It is important to note that the examples above illustrate verbs that have mid low tones. Verbs with inherently high tone do not manifest any tonal changes as seen in the examples below.

- 47) a) si keli "to know"
 si keli ki nô keli
 Know really know "really know" (emphasis).
 b) si tím tím "throw and not do anything else" (command in C.R)

It is also observed that verbs are reduplicated to indicate this mood when the speaker is responding to a question or giving a contrary idea to a statement that has been made (thus the idea of contrastive response) as observed in the following:

- 48) a) Wà jâŋ gwà'li a
 You read book ques maker "Are you reading?"
 Ay mi yi yi
 No I eat eat "No, I am eating."

2.2.3.2 Reduplication to indicate the Hortative Mood

As earlier indicated, some verbs are reduplicated to express the exhortative mood. The hortative mood is extortive. It entails urging somebody to do something or to work harder. This mood is expressed in the use of the idea "fast" or "quickly". It is also used to express the idea "just". The examples below clearly illustrate this:

- 49) a) si chfi "to spit"
 chfi ki chfi
 spit just spit "Just spit."
 b) si gvì "to come"
 gvì ki gvì
 come just come "Just come."

- c) yi "to eat"
 yi ki yi
 eat just eat "Just eat."

"Just" is marked by the word ki. This word "just" same as "really" which is ki nô comes in between the two reduplicated verb forms.

The hortative mood is expressed by the use of the word "fast" or "quickly" as seen below.

- 50) a) si tàyn "fly"
 tàyn tayn "fly fast"
- b) si bíŋ "to roll"
 bíŋ bíŋ "roll fast"
- c) nyiŋli "to run"
 nyiŋli nyiŋli "run very fast"
- d) si fū "to give"
 fu fu "give very fast"

2.2.3.3 Tonal analysis on verbs reduplicated to portray mood.

As can be observed from the above examples, the high tone verbs maintain their tone levels when they are reduplicated to portray mood. The low tone verbs have a slight change. This change is seen on the second form of the reduplicated verb where the low tone is changed to mid. This indicates a slight rise on the tone of the speaker. This is seen in example 50 a) and d) above.

When two syllable verbs with high high tones are reduplicated, there is no tonal change on the two reduplicated forms as seen in example 50 (c). But when the two syllable verb has a low high tone, there is a slight change in tone on the first syllable of the second verb form as we observe a change from low to mid. This is the case with 50 (d).

From the examples in section 2.2 one can say that when verbs are reduplicated to portray either tense, aspect or mood, there can be a change in tone. The manner in which a verb is reduplicated shows whether the speaker is

portraying the idea of aspect, tense or mood as seen in the examples from 36 to 50.

2.3 KOM ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

Adjectives in Kom like in any other language are words that describe nouns. This implies that in most cases they act as noun qualifiers. Adverbs on their part give more meaning to either verbs, adjectives and or other adverbs.

In Kom adjectives are mostly used as subordinates to form part of the nominal predicates. Most adjectives do not stand on their own, they are closely linked to the nouns that they describe. Attribute adjectives, for instance, are commonly used with attribute pronouns and when this happens, they are invariably placed after the pronouns.

In this language, there are few words that are real adjectives. Many adjectival ideas are expressed by the use of verbs. Below are some examples:

51) a) Attributive Adjectives

- 1) jòf "to be nice"
ndòŋ I jòfini
potato a nice Am "a nice potato"
- 2) tàŋ "to draw"
njwo i taŋni
meat a draw Am "drawing meat"
- 3) bef "to be bad"
abe a befini – a
day a bad Am "a bad day"

b) Adjective of State

- 1) dyèf "to be tall"
wul i dyèfini
person a tall Am "tall man"
- 2) tim "to be short"
bò i timsi ni
bag a short Am "short bag"

- 3) fif “to be white”
 tòȳn i fifini
 pot a white Am “white pot”

c) Real adjectives

- itōf “intelligence”
 nyas “quick”
 samo “truth”
 leyn-a “slippery”
 dil “heavy”.

Examples in 51 c) above are true adjectives that never function as verbs or nouns like those of 51 a) and b). In this case, they never occur with tense or aspect markers. They do not also occur with the various nouns class agreement affixes when used to modify head nouns.

As indicated above, there is an agreement relating most adjectives to the nouns which the adjectives describe as seen in the following examples:

- 52) a) isaŋ “corn” singular
 isaŋ ìmò’ “one corn”
asaŋ “corn” plural
 asaŋ àbò “two corn”
- b) ndo “house”
 ndo ìmò’ “one house”
 ndo s̄ìbò “two houses”
- c) alê’ “places”
ilwê’ ìbwò “two places”

The underlined are the noun classes suffixes or prefixes that both the noun and adjectives take in a sentence.

2.3.1 Type of Kom Adjectives

This section of the chapter is devoted to the examination of the various types of adjectives that exist in this language. There exist five types of adjectives in Kom. They are:

2.3.1.1 Possessive Adjectives

There are eight possessive adjectives. Except for noun class one, each noun class has its own eight possessive adjectives got from the eight possessive pronouns. This can be exemplified in noun class two possessive adjectives as follows.

Person	Possessive Pronoun	Possessive adjectives
First person singular	ighem	yem
Second person singular	ighya	yi-a
Third person singular	ighi ηweyn	ηweyn
First person plural (exclusive)	ighesi	sem
First person plural (inclusive)	igheyi	yês
Second person plural	ighi	sisi
Third person plural	ighi ànena	ghi
First person plural (dual)	----	ghes-i-vas

As earlier indicated, possessive adjectives change with classes but remain intact in form throughout the noun class. This is exemplified below:

- 53) a) i) Noun class 10 in the first person singular is semi
 ii) Noun class 13 in the first person singular is seyi
 b) i) Noun class 10 in the first person plural (exclusive) is seyi
 ii) Noun class 13 in the first person plural (exclusive) is teyí

Therefore, the structure of an NP with a possessive adjective is as follows;

[noun + Associative maker + possessive pronoun] = [N + AM + PP].

2.3.1.2 Numeric Adjectives

A noun phrase with a numerical adjective has the structure noun 1 of noun 2 composition with a number occupying the place of noun 2. Thus we have the structure [Noun + Associative marker + Number]. See the examples below.

- 54) a) ti fû' ti bo ti bò "two baskets each"
 N.cl. Noun A.M number AM number
 Pref

- b) i saŋ ì mò “one corn”
 N.cl Noun A.M Number
 Pref

Each noun class has its own numeral adjective which is determined by the noun class prefix or suffix and by the Associative marker used with the number in question as seen in the following examples:

Noun class	Number				
	one	two	three	four	five
1	ìmò'	-----	-----	-----	-----
2	àmò'	ghìbò	ghìtal	ghikòè	ghittayn
4	-----	ìbò	ìtál	ìkòè	ìtâyn
7	amo	-----	-----	-----	-----
13	-----	tibo	tital	tikoe	titayn

It is important to note that the tone of the numeric adjective remains unchanged regardless of the class of the noun modifier, thus various tones for the various numbers;

One	two	three	four
mò'	bò	tál	kaè
L	L	L	XL

The above tones remain the same through out all the noun classes.

2.3.1.3 Interrogative Adjectives

There are three interrogative pronouns which are commonly used as interrogative adjectives in the Kom language. They are nda “who”, gha “what” and ka “which”. The structure of any noun phrase with an interrogative adjective is noun 1 of noun 2 composition where an interrogative pronoun is occupying the position of noun 2. Thus we have the following structure [Noun + Associative marker + Interrogative pronoun] consider the following examples:

- 55) a) milû' "wine"
 -milû' mi ghì ndà "whose wine?" (plural)
 -milû' mì ndà "whose (P) wine?" (singular)
 -milû' nkà "which wine?"
- b) afo "thing"
 -afo àkà "which thing?"
 -ifwo ìkfa "which things?"
- c) ndo "house"
 -ndo ghà "house for what?"
- d) alê' "place"
 -alê' agha "a place for what?"
 -ilwê' igha "place for what?"

The above examples show that the three interrogative adjectives change their structures when describing singular and plural nouns. nda changes from nda to mi nda to ghì nda and so on depending on the noun in question and whether the noun is in singular or in plural. The changes are seen at the level of different noun class morphemes.

Concerning the tone of these interrogative adjectives and their associative markers, this depends on the various noun classes. The tone of each noun class changes with the type of interrogative adjective concerned. Below are some examples:

- 56) i) milû' mì ghì ndà
 N.cl. wine N.cl (P) who
 Prf Prf
 "Whose wine?"
- ii) afo a nda
 N.cl. thing N.d.p who
 "Whose thing?"

We observe that certain associative markers have a mid low contour tone that results from tone alteration which is exclusively associated with nouns that have a low tone on its roots. The example below illustrates this.

- 57) a) i nki î ka
 cl.5 and AM intero.Adj
 pred which
 "Which type?"

Although the issue of tone alteration is crucial as far as interrogative adjectives are concerned, this is not relevant in the present study thus will be left for specialists in the domain.

2.3.1.4 Descriptive Adjectives

Descriptive adjectives occupy the same position in noun phrases. The Kom NP with a descriptive adjective has the structure; Noun 1 of noun 2 construction, where the descriptive adjective is occupying the position of noun two. This gives the formula [Noun + Associative marker + descriptive adjective]. This is seen in the follow sentence constructions.

- 58) a) fidàmu' "cat"
 fidàmu fi bemnifi
 cat Am. Dangerous N.cl.Prf
 Noun Am descript.Adj "A dangerous cat."
- b) filùm "spice"
 filùm fiyumfi
 spice Am dry N.cl. ref
 noun Am Descript. Adj "Dry spice."

As indicated earlier, descriptive adjectives are mostly derived from verbs. Here are some examples:

- 59) a) si gha' "to become big"
 inf.m verb "be big"
- b) si bàŋ "to become red"
 inf.m verb "be red"

The commonest way of forming adjectives from verbs (in this language) is to add the suffix ni, na, n to the verb root. ni + V or na + V or n + V depending on the class of the noun in question. Below are some examples:

- 60) a) gha' "be big"
 i) a fo agha' ni - a
 cl.prf thing Am big suffix - Am
 des.adject "a big thing"

- ii) i ngòm i ghà' ni - i "a big banana"
 cl.Prf banana Am verb suff
 des. Adj
- b) baŋ "be red"
- i) a fo a baŋ ni - a "a red thing"
 cl.Prf thing Am verb suff
 des. Adj
- ii) ì ngòm i baŋni-i "a red banana"
 cl.prf banana Am verb suff
 des. Adj

Another observation made is that, the NP with a descriptive adjective usually has an adjective that contains its noun class concord marker following the -ni suffix. This is seen in examples 60 a) (ii) and b) (ii) above.

From the above two examples, one can see that the concord marker occurs at the end of the sentence and that it takes the form of the noun class prefix. It is a when the noun class prefix is a and i when it is i and so on. However, these concord markers are optional in the NP as seen in the above examples.

In sentences or NPs where adjectives are describing plural nouns, the infix -li- is sometimes put in between the verb root and the -ni suffix as seen in the example below:

- 61) a) i twàm i baŋ -li-ni "red elephants"
 cl.Prf elephant Am (P.)
 verb
- b) ghel i baŋ - ni "red people"
 person Am verb suff
 des. Adj

As far as those descriptive adjectives that are not derived from verbs or nouns are concerned, we can obtain phrases such as the ones below.

- 62) a) jùŋ "good"
 i - we i jùŋ "a good market"
 cl.3 market AM good
 prf des. adj

- b) bi “bab”
 mí vil mbî
 cl.6a oil AM bad
 pref des. adj

As for the tone of descriptive adjectives, it is worthy to note that they carry either high or low tone depending on the tone of the verb or noun from which the adjective has been derived.

2.3.1.5 Demonstrative Adjectives

There are four demonstrative adjectives derived from four demonstrative pronouns. They are kêyn “this”, ki “that”, iwêyn “these” and ivi “those”. An NP with a demonstrative adjective has the construction [Noun + demonstrative adjective]. The NP with a demonstrative adjective does not have an associative marker that marks the adjective as was the case in earliest sections. Below are some examples.

- 63) a) i) ā - saŋ kèyn - à
 cl.7 prf corn Demo. adj cl.7 Prf “This corn.”
 this
- ii) ndo - yèyn - i “this house”
 house demo.adj cl.7 Prf
 this
- b) i) fî - sus fî fî
 cl.19 peper Demo.adj cl.19 Prf “That pepper”
 prf that
- ii) fî - ŋvaŋ fî fî
 cl.19 salt Demo.adj N.cl.19 Prf “That salt”

From the above examples, one sees that “this” or “that” changes its form with the noun classes. That is, “this” can be yèyn, kêyn or some other word depending on the class of noun that the adjective is demonstrating.

The kêyn “this” and ki “that” are used in relationship with the aspect of time and space to both the listener and the speaker. If the object referred to is

near to them, then the referent demonstrative adjective keyn “this” is used and if it is far then kî “that” is used.

The tone of all demonstrative adjectives is the same for each given head noun. The tone of wayn wèyn “this child” is the same as that of wayn vzi “that child”. We have seen that each of the four demonstrative adjectives differs with the noun it is describing as seen below:

- 64) a) “this” can be yeyni as in i leŋ yeyni meaning “this bamboo”
feynfi as in fisus fèyn fi meaning “this pepper”
- b) “that” can be zi as in ileŋ zi “that bamboo”
or vzi as in ilû vzi “that honey”

Adverbs own their part, are commonly used to describe manner, place and direction. In Kom the aspect of time and positioning contributes much to this word class as seen below:

A) The aspect of time: Adverbs such as layn “today”, libis “tomorrow” bêŋ “year”, to name but a few, really portray the idea of time. This is seen in the following examples:

- 65) a) Wù gvî layn
He comes today
“He is coming today.”
- b) Wù làe gvî a libis
He F.T.M come prep tomorrow
“He will be coming tomorrow.”
- c) Tîm nîn malâ a bêŋ ghàyn
Tim T.M marry prep year this
“Tim is marrying this year.”

In the examples above, it is realized that layn, libis and bêŋ add more meaning to the verb qvi.

B) The aspect of positioning or direction: There are only two adverbs of direction in Kom. These are nganti or iyvi “high” and dyef “long”. These adverbs just like some adjectives take the prefix of the nouns with which they

are used in the noun phrase, that is, their concord markers. We can thus have these two words appearing as nganti-à or dyef-à. All this depends on the prefix of the noun used in the NP. The adverbs in English such as up, down, middle and so on are considered in this language as prepositions.

2.4 ADJECTIVE AND ADVERB REDUPLICATION

It is difficult to separate reduplication of adjectives from that in adverbs. This is so because most adjectives are reduplicated to change word class of which adverbs are one. Reduplication of adjectives and adverbs plays the following role:

- 1) Changing of word class
- 2) Marking intensity and stress
- 3) Indicating quantity and quality
- 4) Expressing degree
- 5) Expressing uniqueness
- 6) Indicating direction
- 7) Expressing causation.

These items will be treated in the sections that follow.

2.4.1 Reduplication to Denote a Change of Word Class

By word class here we mean the various categories of speech that exist in a language. These word classes include nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. We shall briefly examine how the changes from adjectives to other word classes take place.

2.4.1.1 From Adjectives to Adverbs and Vice Versa

Adjectives are mostly reduplicated to have adverbs more than adverbs reduplicated to form adjectives. In Kom adverbs that can clearly be pointed out

are those of time and direction as seen in section 2.3 above. The rest of the adverbs are from adjectives as seen below.

- 66) a) itof "intelligence"
itof itof "intelligently" or "ticklish"
- b) nyas - "quick"
nyas nyas - "quickly"
- c) samo - "true"
samo sámó'
- d) bàṅ - "red"
bàṅ ki nô baṅ - "clearly red"

There are also some few adjectives that are got from adverbs when they are reduplicated. These include the following:

- 67) a) ibàm - "behind"
ibàm ibàm - "(very) far behind"
- b) antêynì
antêynì antêynì "(very) far inside"

Some prepositions can occasionally be used as adverbs when need arises (as seen in the examples above).

2.4.1.2 Adjectives to Verbs

Some descriptive adjectives that indicate colour can be reduplicated to form verbs. Verbs can be gotten from reduplicating descriptive adjectives of colour only. Below are some examples:

- 68) a) nyèm - "green"
nyèm nyem - "to be green"
- b) baṅ-à - "red"
baṅ baṅ - "to be red"

Notice should be made of the fact that the first reduplicated form takes a contour tone.

2.4.1.3 Verb to Noun and to Adjective

Some nouns, are got when some adjectives are reduplicated. In Kom, this type of nouns are sometimes referred to as compounded nouns. Here are some examples:

- 69) a) jel "move"
 i) jel + jel "movement"
 ii) ghebli jel jel "moving carelessly"
 careless move move

These examples are clearly seen when used in context.

2.4.2 Reduplication to Express Quantity

Reduplication in Kom also expresses quantity. Quantity has to do with size, weight or number, but our concern here shall be on number and size such as mò' "one", bò "two", tal "three" and "several and group respectively. Adjectives in the examples on (70) below illustrate adjectives that are reduplicated to express quantity.

- 70) a) Descriptive Adjectives
 i) tela "small"
 itwelâ itwelâ "several small things"
 ii) be "big"
 beli bèli "several big things"
 iii) ingal "time"
 ingal ingal "several times"
- b) Numeric Adjectives
 i) mò' "one"
 àmò' amò' "one by one"
 ìmò' imò' "one to each"
 ii) bò "two"
 sì bò sì bò "in twos"
 iii) tal "three"
 sì tal sì tal "in threes"

From the example above one can see that when a numeric adjective is reduplicated, it is reduplicated alongside with the nominal prefix of the noun that it is describing. Bò “two” is thus reduplicated as a bo à bo, si bo si bo and so on.

2.4.3 Reduplication to Express Degree

This type of reduplication is closely linked to that discussed above. By degree, we mean the intensity that is based on comparison and explanation. Adjectives that are reduplicated to mark degree have the English meaning of the word “very”. But adjectives can be reduplicated to mark degree only when they are used as a response to a question or to set a contrary opinion to what has already been said. Here are some examples:

- 71) a) dil “heavy”
dil dil “very heavy”
- b) kùylì “stout”
kùylìkuyli “very stout”
- c) làe “small”
làe lae “very small”
- d) bàṅ “red”
bàṅ bàṅ “very red”
- e) be “big”
be be “very big”

The examples above indicate that only descriptive adjectives such as bàṅ bé lâe for “red”, “big”, and “small” respectively, and ghím or yem “mine”, ndà “whose”, ìmò “one” which are possessive, interrogative and numeric adjectives are reduplicated to express some other ideas than that of degree. This is illustrated in the examples below:

- 72) a) isaṅ “corn”
isaṅ ìmò’ ìmò’ “one corn to each”
- b) isaṅi yemi “my corn”

The above examples express quantitative and exclusive ideas respectively. This means that the descriptive adjectives are reduplicated to express the idea of degree and some other ideas as seen in examples 71 and 69 above.

We also observe that there exist some tonal changes when descriptive adjectives are reduplicated to express degree. When high tone adjectives are reduplicated, their first word forms maintain the high tone while their second forms change their tone from high to mid. This is seen in be 71e) where bé “big” becomes bé ki nô bé “very big”. Those with low tone when reduplicated observe a change in the tone of the two word forms. The first form obtains a falling tone whereas the second form obtains a mid tone. This is seen in 71b) where kùylì “stout” becomes kûylì kuyli “very stout”. We also observe a change with the tones of adjectives with falling tone. When reduplicated, the first word form maintains the falling tone while the second obtains a mid tone.

2.4.4 Reduplication to Express Repetition

Adjectives in Kom can be reduplicated to mark repetition. Repetition here signals a supply for further consignment of doing or saying something, that is, doing or saying over and over or several times. Some descriptive adjectives and some adverbs are sometimes reduplicated to portray this idea and more often than not, explain an act which is continuous. The examples below illustrate this:

- 73) a) ìngal “time”
 ìngal ìngal “several times”
- b) michi “days”
 mîchi a mîchi “from days to days”
 michi njìm njìm “from days to days”
- c) āghayn “times”
- d) aghayn agháyn “several times”

From the above examples, it is seen that only adjectives or adverbs that deal with the aspect of time are reduplicated to express repetition. In the case of

michi njim “all the days” the reduplicated element can either be the adverb of time michi “days” or the adjective njim “all”.

2.4.5 Reduplication to Express Sequence

Sequence presupposes an order in which things occur, therefore, it indicates a progressive occurrence of events in time and place. Sequence thus presupposes the idea of “one after another”, “one by one”, “from one person to another” and so on. Mostly numeric adjectives undergo this process to signal the idea of sequence. Here are some examples:

- 74) a) àmò’ “one”
 àmò’ àmò’ “one by one”
 imò imò’ “one by one”
- b) ìbwò “two”
 ìbwò ìbwò “two by two”

In the above examples sequence is expressed by reduplicating the base word and its prefix. The prefix depends on the noun that the adjective is describing. The numeric adjective, therefore, takes the prefix of the noun it is qualifying. That is why we have imò imò and àmò àmò all signalling the idea of “one by one”. This idea of sequence is also expressed when some words that act as nouns or adjectives (depending on the context of usage) are reduplicated. Below are some examples:

- 74) c) atu “head” or “single”
 atu atu “one by one”
- d) atu awul “somebody’s head”
 atu a wûl atu awûl “from one person to another”

The idea of sequence involves an idea that has something to do with number. In examples 74 c) and d) atu, though not a numeric adjective, brings out the aspect of number when reduplicated.

2.4.6 Reduplication to Mark Intensity or Stress

Earlier research reveals that most words in many Bantu languages are reduplicated for the purpose of emphasis, that is to say, to show the force or stress that is laid on the idea that they express. They are reduplicated to show the importance that they deserve (in the meaning of that sentence as a whole). In Kom, some adjectives, mostly descriptive, having the meaning "very" or "degree" are reduplicated to mark intensity. Consider the examples below:

- 75) a) i) baŋ "red"
 ii) ki mbâŋ mbaŋ "it is red" (C.R)
 iii) mbaŋ ki nô mbaŋ "very red"
- b) i) fif "white"
 ii) ki fif i fifi "it is white" (C.R)
 iii) fif ki nô fif "very white"

Descriptive adjectives are reduplicated to mark intensity mostly when they are used in a contrastive response context. The two examples of 75 a) (ii) and b) (ii) exist in Kom but are not commonly used. This idea of intensity is also got when some adverbs are reduplicated as these below.

- 75) c) nînchue "in the day"
 nînnchue nînchue "in broad day light"
- d) ninntu' "in the night"
 ninntu'i ninntu'i "in the middle of the night"
- e) antêyni "inside"
 antêyni antêyni "deep in the middle" (C.R)

Looking at the above examples one can conclude that in most contexts, adverbs are reduplicated to portray emphasis.

2.4.7 Reduplication to Express Uniqueness or Exclusivity

From the data collected, words that are reduplicated to mark exclusivity or uniqueness are rather few. Exclusiveness presupposes the idea of "not including". It involves excluding all but what is made mentioned of, thus

uniqueness. Exclusivity or uniqueness can be expressed by the English word “only”. In the Kom language, “only” is expressed by the expression *ki ni*.

Below are some examples:

- 76) a) bé “big” (sing)
 belini “big” (plu)
ki belini-belini “only big ones”
 **ki bénibé* “only big ones”
- b) lâe “small” (sing)
 ilaelini “small” (plu)
ki laelini i laelini “only small ones”
 **ki lae ni lae* “only a small one”
- c) bàŋ “red” (sing)
 baŋni “red” (plu)
ki baŋni i baŋni “only red ones”
 **ki baŋ ni baŋ* “only a red one”

We observe that only descriptive adjectives are reduplicated to express uniqueness and that they do so only when they are used in their plural forms. The asterisked examples are ungrammatical in Kom.

2.4.8 Reduplication to Mark Direction

Some adverbs are reduplicated to mark direction. This is only seen with the adverb of place. Consider the following examples:

- 77) a) asi “infront”
nì asi-a ni asi-a “forward”
- b) a mbàe “beside”
a mbàe a mbàe “on the side”

2.4.9 Reduplication to Mark Causative

Some adjectives are reduplicated to mark the causative. By causative, we mean a thing, an event or a person producing an effect. Below are some examples:

- 78) a) iwo "something"
iwo ni iwoi "something caused by an others"
- b) mbi "sin"
mbi ni mbi "a sin for a sin"

We see that the causative marker is ni and this marker comes in between the two reduplicated adverb forms.

In this chapter, we have discussed verb, adjective and adverb reduplication. We have seen that all of these three word categories do not undergo partial reduplication but rather complete Reduplication. It is established that verbs, adjectives and adverb are reduplicated to express a variety of ideas ranging from time, aspect and mood. We found the idea of causative, repetition, uniqueness, sequential, quantitative to name but a few. Some verbs, adjectives and adverbs are seen to exist as bound words (chapter five, "Pseu-reduplication).

Also, some verbs, adjectives and adverbs are reduplicated only when they are used as responses or in constructive responses (C.R) situations.

Adjective reduplication occurs more frequently than any other word categories. One can rightly say that the process of reduplication is very strong and vivid at the level of adjectives in Kom.

CHAPTER THREE

REDUPLICATION IN NOUNS AND PRONOUNS

3.0 INTRODUCTION

Kom nouns and pronouns also undergo reduplication. Nouns and pronouns are generally believed by linguists, to be two sides of the same coin. In this chapter, we will see how these two word categories resemble each other when they are reduplicated. This chapter is divided into two main sections. The first section is devoted to noun reduplication and the second to pronoun reduplication. Each of these sections is further divided into smaller sections for purposes of clarity.

3.1 REDUPLICATION IN NOUNS

This section is dedicated to the discussion of reduplication in nouns. A subsection is devoted to the noun class system and another to noun reduplication. These two sections are further divided into subsections.

3.1.1 Nouns in Kom

Whenever Kom nouns are made mentioned of, what comes to our minds is its class system. A study of the Kom noun class system is very important in this work because noun reduplication is discussed based on the various noun classes. An examination of the semantic properties of these noun classes is also of great help to our discussion.

Chiatoh, A.B. (1992:26), in his study "The Noun Class System of Mmem" observes that all nouns in Bantu languages can be grouped into various classes on the basis of some criteria. According to him, noun prefixes constitute one of the criteria. Welmers (1973:159) also shows that noun prefixes are very important in the grouping of noun classes:

...There are many languages and groups of languages in which affixes with noun stems constitute a major criterion for dividing nouns into a number of noun classes with grammatical constructions.

The number and type of noun classes and noun prefixes respectively, vary from one language to another. Thus the noun class system of any language is made up of groups of lexical items that differentiate themselves by means of common prefixes. These prefixes are sometimes completely different when marked by different prefix tones. The term noun class is, therefore, used to describe noun grouping on the basis of either similar prefixes or the identity of concordal prefixes. Welmer (1973) says that all Bantu languages resemble each other in their noun class system and their grammatical function.

Shultz (1997:12-41) in an analysis of Kom grammar structure, identifies thirteen noun classes. These noun classes serve as a base for this analysis. Nevertheless, some modifications are made on this noun class system.

In Kom, the idea of noun class system is seen in noun structures and the noun class gender. The two subsections below illustrate this.

3.1.1.1 Kom Noun Structure

By word structure here, we refer to the way words are built up. In this respect, we look at the composition of words according to the different syllable types. The elucidations of the various Kom noun structures is important in our analysis of noun reduplication. Kom nouns have four different structures as follows:

79) a) Noun roots with null prefix or suffix as seen in nà and wān

nà "mother"
wayn "child"

These two nouns can be illustrated in the noun structures below:

"nà" → ∅ - CV - ∅
"wayn" → ∅ - CVVC - ∅

Thus the noun structure $\rightarrow \emptyset$ root \emptyset .

- b) Noun Prefix + Root: This is seen in the following nouns.

ísáj “corn”
N.cl.Prf N.rt

fĩ súš “pepper”
N.cl.Prf N.rt

The two examples above give the following structure:

(C)V + CVC + \emptyset \rightarrow Prefix + Root + \emptyset Suffix.

- c) Noun Root + Suffix: This structure can be expressed by using the following examples:

ndòṅsì’ “potatoes”
N.rt suffix

mbaynsi “nails”
N.rt suffix

We can therefore formulate the structure: [Noun = \emptyset + C (V) (G) CC + CV]. Nouns of classes one and ten fall under the last and first noun structures analysed above (respectively). All nouns of the other classes fall under the second noun structure.

In Kom, therefore, most nouns have the structure: Noun class prefix + noun root. The table below presents the various Kom noun classes, their prefixes or suffixes, some examples of nouns that belong to each class and their corresponding meanings in English.

Table III:

Noun class	Noun class prefix	Examples in Kom	Gloss
1	\emptyset	lum wul	husband person
2	ghi	ghi lum ghe li	husbands persons
3	i-	i-lû	honey

		i-koe i-vis	arm fire
4	i-	í-wuyn i-ləŋ	bodies bamboo
5	i-	ì-fi ì-ngòm ì-kôŋ	leaf plantain love
6	a-	a-kâ' a-sâ' a-koe	faces throats arms
6a	a- mi-	mi-vil mi-lu' mi-jaŋ	oil wine castor oil
7	a-	a-bâ' a-vif a-bâs	umbrella bone part
8	i-	i-bwâ' i-vif i-bwas	Umbrellas bones parts
9	ø- N-	ndi mbayn ndoŋsi	insults nails potatoes
10	-si	bisi kâfsi ndoŋsi	Dogs armpits horns
13	ti-	tibi tiwe	kolanuts markets
19	fi	fijam fikâ	axe tree

There are thirteen noun classes in Kom. As the table illustrates, the noun class seven prefix "a" is the same as that of noun class six. The examples given under each of these two noun classes help to elucidate that nouns of class seven are the singular forms of nouns of noun class eight. This is not the case with nouns of noun class six.

The "N-" Prefix is always marginalized by the sound it precedes. That is to say, "N-" prefix becomes "m" when preceding words starting with bilabial

sounds, “n” when preceded by nouns starting with alveolar sounds and “ŋ-” when it precedes velar sounds. Below is an illustration of this.

- “N- → n # jɔŋ as seen in nɔŋ- “moon”
 “N-” → ŋ # gvɪm as seen in ŋ-gvɪm- “phython”
 “N-” → m # as seen in mbaŋ “walking stick”

3.1.1.2 Noun class genders and their semantic implications

Kom noun prefixes are divided into singular and plural pairs. The various pairs each make up what we call a gender. We have the singular class gender, made up of nouns that do not have plurals such as liquids. The other gender is the double class gender. This class gender is made up of nouns that have both the singular and the plural forms. We shall examine whether or not the two types of noun class genders behave in the same way when their various nouns are reduplicated or they differ in their behaviours.

A) Double class gender nouns and their semantic properties

This analysis is taken and modified from what Shultz and Nkwain have said concerning noun class gender.

Noun classes one and two are nouns designating people as seen below:

- Noun class 1: husband – lum
 Noun class 2: husbands – ghilum
 Noun class 1: compound head(s)-bôbo

Noun class three, four and thirteen are nouns that are apparently long in nature. For instance, nouns class 4:-i wuyn – “bodies”

f ləŋ - “bamboos”

- Noun class 3: i-vis- “fire”
 ikoe “arm”.

Nouns of class eight are the plural forms of those of seven and they pertain to nouns which are parts of the body. These include:

Noun class 6: asê' "throats"
akê' "faces"

Noun class 7: avif "bone"
aswâ' "rag"
akôs "slave"

Noun class 8: ivif "bones"
iswâ' "rags"
ikôs "slaves"

Nouns of noun class five are mostly plants. We have; for example:

ingòm "plantain"
ifi "leaf"

In this class, we also have abstract nouns such as:

ikôŋ "love"
i-kfâ'ti "thought"

Nouns of classes nine and ten are mostly animal nouns and some types of foodstuff as seen in the examples below:

Noun class 9: ŋvim "python"

Noun class nine also designate some nouns of time as seen in

bəŋ "year"
njoŋ "month (moon)"

The foodstuffs found in noun class ten are mostly vegetables such as

Ndòŋi "potatoes"

Class nineteen nouns are foodstuffs that are mostly borrowed from other tribes and or languages. Nouns of class nineteen are also insects, spices and tiny objects. For example:

fisus "pepper"
finyuyn "bird"

Some nouns of noun class thirteen fall under this gender. For example:

tibi "colanuts"
tiwe "markets"

B) Single Class Gender Nouns and their Semantic Properties

Single class gender nouns are found in noun classes thirteen, three, five, six "A", seven and nineteen. All nouns of noun class six "A" fall under single gender. Most researchers recognize the fact that there exist the single noun class gender and the double class gender in the Kom noun class system. But they do not focus on the intricacies of these class genders. This is seen in the fact that some or most of all the classes have nouns that fall under these two genders. Some nouns of classes three, five, seven, thirteen, and nineteen are single class gender nouns as shown below:

Class three ilû "honey"
 ivis "fire"

Class five that indicate the intrinsic feeling of, a being. This includes.

iyvîlî "rest"
ifayn "fear"

Class thirteen: tivi "rains"

Class seven: acha'li "mud"

Our assumption here is that only nouns of class six "A" solely fall under the single class gender nouns as seen in the example below:

milug "blood"
mu "water"
milû' "wine"
mijaŋ "castor oil"

All the aforementioned noun class genders undergo reduplication in one way or the other.

3.1.2 Noun Reduplication

This section is meant to be a morphological study on how Kom nouns undergo this process of reduplication. It is vital to indicate that reduplication in Kom nouns is not very vast as in other Bantu languages such as Lamnso'. With Kom noun reduplication, whole stem reduplication is mainly derivational in that new nouns with different meanings are derived from existing ones. Nevertheless, there are still instances of inflection where more is added to the original meaning. This is more often seen at the level of intensity or emphasis.

In this section, we examine the various forms of Kom noun reduplication. For purposes of clarity, our discussion will involve different noun structures and according to Marantz (1982) when he suggests that reduplication of nouns or verbs should be studied according to their morpho-lexical structures.

Our discussion will also be based on Yiwola (1989:16). He posits that reduplication in non-ideophonic vocabulary, that is, lexical items, is limited to basic nouns and nominal forms. He also examines reduplication at the level of lexical reduplication and their various levels of semantic properties. In line with this approach some analysis are done at the level of different class genders that have nouns with various semantic properties. The analysis will be carried out at two levels; from the point of view of noun class gender and from the point of view of the various morpho-lexical structures that exist in the Kom nouns.

3.1.2.1 Reduplication of Nouns According to their Structures

Yiwola (1989) suggests that the treatment of reduplication in any lexical category should consider the lexical structure of the items.

With respect to his proposal, we elucidate the noun reduplication here according to the three noun structures that exist in Kom.

3.1.2.1.1 Reduplication of Nouns with Noun Root Structure

From the table in section 3.1.1.2, we observed that nouns in class one are made up of roots only. The type of reduplication that takes place here is that of whole stem reduplication as the examples below reveal.

- 80) i) wayn "child"
 wâyn wàyn - "grand child"
 child child
- ii) nà "mother"
 nà nà "grand mother"
 mother mother
- iii) bò "father"
 bô bò "lord"
 father father
- iv) bò "father"
 bo bo "grand father (the father of the father)"
 father father

From the foregoing examples, one notices that the tones are very peculiar when nouns are reduplicated. The examples in (iii) and (iv) above reveal that when bò "lord" is reduplicated to signal "grandfather" tones of the first and second syllables maintain their original low tone. But when wayn in (i) is reduplicated to give wâyn wàyn "grandchild", the first syllable obtains a falling tone while the second obtains a low tone.

3.1.2.1.2 Reduplication of Nouns with Noun Prefix plus Noun Root Structure

As far as the morphological reduplication is concerned, we have partial reduplication, whole stem reduplication and whole word reduplication. In section 3.1.2.1.1, Kom nouns undergo whole stem reduplication because the entire noun form (which has one syllable form) is reduplicated. Under this section we have nouns that are made up of not only the root but also the prefixes

and their roots. When these two forms are reduplicated, we have whole words reduplication.

It is worth noting that out of the thirteen noun classes in Kom, all except classes one and ten fall under this noun structure. Since nouns with this structure seem to have a vast frequency, illustrations are got from all the noun classes that have nouns with this structure in order to gain grounds on our later observations. We thus have the following illustrations.

81) i) Some nouns of class two and their reduplicated forms.

a) ghilum "husbands"

N.Prf N.rt

ki ghi lum ghi lum "only husbands"
only N.Prf N.rt N.Prf N.rt

b) ghì kì "women"

N.Prf N.rt

ki ghì kì ghì kì "only women"
Only N.Prf N.rt N.Prf N.rt

ii) Some nouns of class three and their reduplicated forms.

a) i zìyn "name"

N.Prf N.rt

i zìyn i zìyn "from name to name"
N.Prf N.rt N.Prf N.rt

b) i zìyn "name"

N.P. N.rt

kì í zìyn í zìyn "full of names"
Only N.Prf N.rt N.Prf N.Prf

iii) Some nouns of class four and their reduplicated forms

a) i ləŋ "bamboos"

N.Prf N.rt

kì i ləŋ i ləŋ "full of bamboos"
only N.Prf N.rt N.Prf N.rt

b) i wuyn "bodies"

ki i wuyn i wuyn "only bodies"
only N.Prf N.rt N.Prf N.rt

iv) Examples of nouns in class five and their reduplicated forms showing the way they are reduplicated.

a) i wu "rocks"
 N.Prf N.rt
 kî i wu i wu "full of rocks"
 just N.rt N.rt N.Prf N.rt

b) i vîl "feathers"
 N.Prf N.rt
 kî i vîl i vîl "full of feathers"
 full N.Prf Nr NPrf N.rt

v) Just like other noun classes, nouns of class seven undergo reduplication as shown in the examples below:

a) a sũ "soap"
 N.Prf N.rt
 a su asũ "soapish / like soap"
 N.Prf N.rt N.Prf N.rt

b) a vif bone
 N.Prf N.rt
 a vif avif "full of bones"
 N.Prf N.rt N.Prf Nrt

vi) Reduplication is also seen in nouns of class six as exemplified below;

a) a si "eyes"
 N.Prf N.rt
 kî asi asi "only eyes"
 only N.Prf N.rt N.Prf N.rt

b) a wu "hand"
 N.Prf N.rt
 a wu awu "from hand to hand"
 N.Prf N.rt N.Prf N.rt

vii) Nouns of class six A undergo reduplication as seen in the examples below.

a) mí vil "oil"
 N.Prf N.rt
 mi vil mi vil "full of oil"
 N.Prf N.rt N.Prf N.rt

- b) mi jaŋ castor oil
 N.Prf N.rt
 mi jaŋ mi jaŋ “full of castor oil”
 N.Prf N.rt N.Prf N.rt

viii) Some nouns of noun class nine undergo reduplication as seen shown below

- a) n jɔŋ “month”
 N.Prf N.rt
 njɔŋ ni njɔŋ “month in month out”
 N.Prf N.rt N.Prf N.rt

ix) Reduplication is also seen with some nouns of class nineteen

- a) fi sus “pepper”
 N.Prf N.rt
 fi sus fi sus “full of pepper”
 N.Prf N.rt N.Prf N.rt
- b) fi kâ' “tree”
 N.Prf N.rt
 fi kâ' fi kâ' “full of trees / sticks”
 N.Prf N.rt N.Prf N.rt

Nouns of classes eight and thirteen are the plural forms of nouns of classes seven and five respectively. The manner and way in which they undergo the process of reduplication is the same. In most cases, as seen in example v) (b) and iv) (c), the singular nouns when reduplicated portray ideas in their plural forms. This is better explained in later discussions.

3.1.2.1.3 Reduplication of Nouns with Noun Root plus Noun Suffix Structure

Looking at table four of subsection 3.1.1.1, we notice that only nouns of class thirteen have the structure verb root plus suffix. In Kom, nouns with this structure can also be reduplicated as seen below.

- 82) a) ndi si “insults”
 N.rt N.sfx
 ndi si ndi si “full of insults”
 N.rt N.sfx N.rt N.sfx

- b) ndòŋ si "potatoes"
 N.rt N.sfx
 ndòŋ sɪ ndòŋ sɪ "full of potatoes"
 N.rt N.sfx N.rt N.sfx
 ki ndoŋ sɪ ndòŋ sɪ "only potatoes"
 only N.rt N.sfx N.rt N.sfx
- c) Mbayn si "nails"
 N.rt N.sfx
 Mbayn si mbàyn si "full of nails"
 ki mbayn si mbayn si "only nails"
 only N.rt N.sfx N.rt N.sfx

From the presentation in section 3.1.2.1 above, it is realised that all the noun classes that exist in Kom undergo the process of Reduplication. One can, therefore, say that there exists complete reduplication at the level of morphology. Partial reduplication might exist with these nouns but at the level of syntax which is discussed in chapter four.

All of the Kom nouns with the three noun structures undergo complete reduplication either as:-

- Noun root plus noun root,

Noun prefix noun root plus Noun prefix noun root

Noun root noun suffix plus Noun root noun suffix

This observation ties with the view expressed by Vernyuy (1997) when he remarks that reduplication is just like affixation whereby a morpheme called an affix, and usually a bound morpheme is added to another morpheme which is more often a free morpheme and can be a root, a stem or even a word as seen in our examples in section 3.1.2.1 of this chapter.

3.1.2.2 Reduplication of Nouns from the point of view of Noun Class Gender

Discussions in section 3.1.1.2 indicate that there are two noun class genders in Kom. In this section we examine the behaviour of each of these reduplicated classes. We examine morpho-lexical reduplication in general and the grammatical behaviour of nouns with different genders in particular.

3.1.2.2.1 Reduplication of Nouns with a Double Class Gender

If we adopt the conclusion (in section 3.1.1.1 above) that only nouns of class six are exclusively single gender nouns, then, we can say that most nouns in Kom fall under this noun class gender. Let us now illustrate how nouns of this gender behave when reduplicated.

- 83) a) iswâ' "rag"
 N.Prf N.rt
 Cl.8
 i swâ' i swâ' "just rags (all rags)"
 N.Prf N.rt N.Prf N.rt
 Cl.8 Cl.8
- b) akôs "slave"
 N.Prf N.rt
 Cl.7
 ikôs ikôs "full of slaves"
 N.Prf N.rt N.Prf N.rt
 Cl.8 Cl.8
- c) i fi "leaf"
 N.Prf N.rt
 N.cl.5
 ti fi ti fi "full of leaves"
 N.Prf N.rt N.rt N.rt
 N.cl.13 N.cl.13
 ki ti fi ti fi "only leaves"
 only N.Prf N.rt N.Prf N.rt
 cl.13 cl.13
- d) lum "husband"
 ø N.Pr N.rt
 cl.(1)
 (i) ghi lum ghi lum "only husbands"
 (only) N.Prf N.rt N.Prf N.rt
 cl.2 cl.2
- ii) wul "person"
 ø N.clr
 gheli gheli "full of people"
 N.Prf N.rt N.Prf N.rt
 cl.2 cl.2

- e) i) bô "father"
 ø Npr N.cl.1
 bobo "grandfather"
 ø N.Prf N.rt N.rt
- ii) wayn "child"
 ø N.Prf N.rt
 wâyn wâyn "grand child"
 ø N.Prf N.rt ø N.Prf N.rt
- f) woyn "children"
 ø N.Prf N.cl.2
 woyn woyn "grand children"
 ø N.Prf N.rt ø N.Prf N.rt
 N.cl.2

From examples a, b and c above, it is clear that most Kom nouns with double noun class genders when reduplicated mark plurality. This is seen in a) where akôs "slave" is reduplicated as ikôs ikôs, "full of slaves" where ikôs is "slaves" This does not cancel the fact that akôs "slave" can still be reduplicated as akôs akôs which still stands for "full of slaves". But preferably ikôs ikôs "full of slaves", for it sounds better to the ear. The point here is that, most of the time, singular nouns are reduplicated in their plural forms as seen in the first four examples above. Therefore, the reduplication of nouns of classes two, eight and thirteen are the same as those of classes one, seven and five respectively. The later as seen below are the singular forms of the former.

- 84) a) i) akôs "slave"
 N.cl.7 Prf N.rt
 ikôs ikôs "full of slaves"
 N.cl.8 Prf N.rt, N.cl.8 Prf N.rt
- ii) ikôs "slaves"
 N.cl.8 Prf N.rt
 ikôs ikôs - "full of slaves"
 N.cl.8 Prf N.rt, N.cl.8 Prf N.rt
- b) i) i fi "leaf"
 N.cl.5 Prf N.rt
 ti fi ti fi "full of leaves"
 N.cl.13 Prf N.rt N.cl.13 Prf N.rt

- ii) ti fi "leaves"
 N.cl.13 Prf N.rt
 ti fi ti fi "full of leaves"
 N.cl.13 Prf N.rt N.cl 8 Prf N.rt

Thus i fi or ti fi can all be reduplicated as tifi tifi as seen above. It is the very case with akôŝ and ikôŝ above.

At the level of morphology, there are some of the nouns that can never be reduplicated in their singular forms. This is the case with some nouns of class one as seen in lum "husband" and wul "person" of examples 83d) (i) and d) (ii) above. These words are reduplicated only in their plural forms and these plural forms are nouns of class two that have the "ghi" prefix. Other nouns of classes one and two that do not have the "ghi" prefix are reduplicated to mark seniority or inferiority as seen in 83e) and f) of example above.

All nouns in Kom which are double noun class gender nouns, undergo reduplication to mark plurality but some of class one and two do so to mark seniority or inferiority in a filial relationship context.

3.1.2.2.2 Reduplication of Nouns with Singular Noun Class Gender

Most Kom nouns that fall under this class gender are reduplicated to mark the idea of "full of". These nouns are either liquid nouns such as milû "wine", mijaŋ "castor oil" and mivil "oil", or abstract nouns such as ikôŋ "love", ndisi "insults".

As previously mentioned, nouns of class six "A" are liquid nouns and are all single class gender nouns and when reduplicated, do not undergo any change as they have no plural forms. These are some examples:

- 85) a) mijaŋ "castor oil"
 N.cl.6 Prf N.rt
 mijaŋ mijaŋ "full of castor oil"
 N.cl.6 Prf N.rt N.cl.6 Prf N.rt

- b) milû' "wine"
 N.cl.6 Prf N.rt
 milû' milû' "full of"
 N.cl.6 Prf N.rt N.cl.6 Prf N.rt

Abstract nouns on their part are got from other classes that are double class gender nouns. These nouns unlike the other nouns of their classes do not have plural forms. When they are reduplicated, there is never a change in class. This is seen in ikôŋ "love" reduplicated as ikôŋ ikôŋ "full of love" unlike the reduplication of ifi "leaf" and ingòm "plantains" (of the some class 5) that change to tifi tifi "full of leaves" and tingòm tingòm "full of plantains" respectively. Below are more examples of reduplicated abstract nouns.

- 86) a) ndi-si "insults"
 N.rt N.cl.10 sfx
 ndisi ndisi "full of insults"
 N.rt N.cl.10 sfx N.rt Ncl.10 sfx
- b) i) iyvîti "rest"
 N.cl.5 Prf N.rt
 iyvîti iyvîti "full of rest"
 N.cl.5 Prf N.rt N.cl.5 Prf N.rt
- ii) ifâyn "fear"
 N.cl.5 Prf N.rt
 ifâyn ifâyn "full of fear"
 N.cl.5 Prf N.rt N.cl.5 Prf N.rt

To summarise, we can say that most double class gender nouns are reduplicated to mark plurality. We have a few exceptions like those of classes one and two that have no prefixes. It is worth noting that singular noun class gender nouns undergo reduplication to denote this idea of "full of --" This applies to both liquid and abstract singular gender nouns.

3.1.2.3 Analysis

3.1.2.3.1 Observation at the Level of Noun Classes and Noun Genders

All noun classes in the Kom language undergo reduplication in one way or the other. If examples of reduplicated nouns are not presented with nouns of classes eight and thirteen, this is because they are plural nouns and their singular forms (which are nouns of classes five and seven respectively) when reduplicated give but these plural forms.

At the level of tonal analysis, it is difficult to come up with specific rules because the tones are varied. However, we shall attempt some grammatical assignments to some derived tones. An examination of data leads to the following remarks. Firstly, some tones of reduplicated nouns remain the same as those of the original nouns. For instance:

- 1) bò “father”
 bòbò “grandfather”
- 2) Nà “mother”
 nà nà “grand mother”
- 3) mì jǎŋ
 mijaŋ mijaŋ “full of castor oil”

Secondly, nouns with falling tones become high low, high low when reduplicated as is the case with the following:

- a) asu
- b) asu asù

Looking at the tonal behaviour of reduplicated nouns, one can conclude that in noun reduplication, tones cannot be easily defined.

It is worth noting that the kì or nì or any other inflection or morpheme that is added to the reduplicated noun for grammatical purposes, takes a low tone as seen in the examples of section 3.1.2.1.2.

The third observation is that of inflections. Whole stem or word reduplication is mainly derivational in that new nouns with different or slightly different meanings are derived from existing ones. However, there are still cases of inflection where more semantics is added to the original meaning as seen in the examples below:

- a) asì "eyes" (a grain)
kì isi isi "only one eye" or "one grain after another"
- b) njoṅ "month"
njoṅ nì noṅ "month in month out"

If the nì and kì morphemes are removed from the examples above, the reduplicated forms are meaningless as seen in:

- a) asì "eyes"
 isi isí "eye eyes"
- b) njoṅ "month"
 njoṅ njoṅ "month month"

Hence, these morphemes play a grammatical function, that of making reduplicated words to be semantically correct.

The fourth and last observation is that of the semantics of reduplicated forms. Reduplicated nouns express ideas ranging from "just", "full of", "from one thing to another", "seniority and inferiority" and so on. As this observation is very crucial, further discussion on it is preserved for the next subsection.

3.1.2.3.2 Semantic Contents of Reduplicated Nouns

Though Yiwole (19:30) observes that it is reasonable to accept more semantic functions in ideophonic reduplication than non-ideophonic types of reduplication, this work, which centers on non-ideophonic elements, proves the contrary. Yiwole's statement may be true with Yoruba but Kom which has a very limited number of ideophones proves the contrary. By non-ideophone here

we mean, the various word categories of verbs, nouns, adjectives, adverbs and pronouns.

Yiwole defines reduplication as a morphological process in which a morpheme either free or bound, is added to a stem in a syntactic relationship to produce a new word. This new word usually has a slightly different or complete different semantic function. Kom reduplicated nouns also function as such. They portray the following ideas: Quantitative, Qualitative, Uniqueness or Exclusivity and Sequential.

3.1.2.3.3 Reduplication of Nouns to Express the Quantitative Aspect

By quantitative, we mean that the reduplicated form presupposes an action that affects several objects. The quantitative meaning is, therefore, signalled by the expression "full of" as seen below.

- a) i vîl "feathers"
i vîl ívîl "full of feathers"
- b) ndòṅsi "potatoes"
ndòṅsi ndòṅsi "full of potatoes"
- c) i vîṅ "witches"
i vîṅ ívîṅ "full of witches"

This idea of quantitative is expressed in some nouns of classes five and eight and all nouns of class ten. Nouns are reduplicated to express the quantitative idea only when they are used as contrastive responses.

3.1.2.3.4 Reduplication of Nouns to Express the Qualitative Aspect

The qualitative idea here expresses the state of things. It is expressed by the concept of "like...". Nouns of class six "a" can be reduplicated to express this idea as seen in the examples below:

- a) milû' "wine"
milû' milû' "like wine"

- b) mijân "castor oil"
 mijân mijân "like castor oil"
- c) minchya "spittle"
 minchya minchya "like spittle"

This qualitative idea is also expressed in noun class eight in the noun "ibyàs" as seen in:

- d) i byâs "parts"
 i byâs i byâs "in parts".

In "parts" here signifies the nature in which one will see something.

3.1.2.3.5 Reduplication of Nouns to Express the Idea of Uniqueness or Exclusiveness

The notion of Uniqueness or Exclusiveness is expressed by the use of "only" and "just" as seen below:

- a) ghilum "men"
 kî ghilum ghilum "only men"
- b) asi "eye"
 kî isi isi "only eyes"
- c) i wu "rock"
 kî iwu iwu "just/only rocks"
- d) a sî "soap"
 kî asû asû "just / only soap"

From these examples one realises that any reduplicated word that presupposes the idea of "just" or "only" in the Kom always takes the morpheme kî in its initial position.

3.1.2.3.6 Reduplication of Nouns to Express the Sequential Aspect

When a noun is reduplicated to signal a sequential meaning, it does so to indicate that there is a succession or a connected line of events affecting

different entities. The reduplicated nouns represent entities affected in sequence of events. This is illustrated with some nouns of class four and ten:

- a) iziyn "name"
iziyn i ziyn "from name to name"
- b) njoŋ "month"
njoŋ ni njoŋ "month in month out"
- c) bæŋ "year"
bæŋ nì bæŋ "year in year out"

The sequential idea is expressed with the use of double prepositions such as "from, to" or "in-out".

3.1.2.3.7 Reduplication of Nouns to Express Kinship

In this section we have some nouns of classes one and two that express kinship relationships. Some of them are reduplicated to mark human relationship from the point of view of seniority. This idea is expressed by nouns of classes one and two that have the null (\emptyset) noun class prefix;

- a) wayn "child" class one
wâyŋ wâyŋ "grand child"
- b) woyn "children" class two
wôyn woyn "grand children"
- c) nà "mother" class one
nà nà "grandmother"

It is worth noting that most nouns are reduplicated in sentences when one is giving a response to a question, or giving a contradictory idea to what has already been said.

3.2 REDUPLICATION IN PRONOUNS

Kom has a complex pronoun system. This is seen in the fact that each pronoun bears different agreement markers.

In this section, we study reduplication in the pronoun system. A subsection is devoted to the study of Kom pronouns in general and another to reduplication of these pronouns. The later section, which is the main section, is further divided into subsections as need arises.

3.2.1 Kom Pronouns

Kom has a very interesting pronoun system. The system describes the various ways of usage of nouns of the different classes with pronouns at the levels of these persons, that is, the first, second and third persons. The pronoun system also displays the usage of these three persons at the level of their subjects and objects. The chart below illustrates the functioning of this system.

Noun class	Words	1 st person subject	1 st person object	2 nd person subject	2 nd person object	3 rd person subject	3 rd person object
1	lum "husband"	mi	mà	wà	và	wù	ŋweyn
2	ghilum "husband"	ghesìnà	ghesìnà	yi	zì	àŋena	àŋena
3	ilû "honey"	wù	ŋweyn			wù	ŋweyn
4	mijaŋ "castor oil"					mi	mèyn
6a	abàs "part"					mi	ankena
7	ndisi "insults"					ki	nseyysi
10	tifi "leaves"					si	nteynti
13	fisus "pepper"					ti	mfeynfi
19	ileŋ "bamboo"					fi	inyeyni
14						yi	

The above table shows that the first person has two different ways of expressing agreement; subject pronoun agreement and object pronoun agreement. This is also vividly seen with the third person object and subject pronoun agreements. Thus the noun class system has a great impact on the usage of pronouns in the language.

There are six different types of pronouns in the Kom language; these are; the personal pronouns, the possessive pronouns, the demonstrative pronouns, the indefinite pronouns, the interrogative pronouns and the reciprocal pronouns.

3.2.1.1 The Personal Pronoun

The Kom language possesses four personal pronouns. These are:

ma – I
 wà – you (s)
 Ghes – we
 Aḡéna – they
 Wu – he/she
 Zi – you (p)

3.2.1.2 The Possessive Pronouns

The possessive pronouns shows possession or ownership. There are basically three possessive pronouns in Kom. These three pronouns have both the singular and the plural possessive forms, and each of these is used according to each noun class. The table below illustrates better.

Table 6

Noun class	Example	Gloss	First Person		Second Person		Third Person	
			Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
1	lum	husband	iwom	iwês	ivâ	iwû ḡweyn	iwû ḡweyn	iwu ḡḡena
2	ghilum	husbands	iqhem	iqhesi	iqhi	iqli ḡwey	iqhi ḡweyn	iqli ḡḡena
3	ilû	honey	iwom	iwesi	iva	ivzi	iwu ḡweyn	iwu ḡḡena
4	ileḡ	bamboo	iyemi	iyesi	izae	izi	iyi ḡweyn	iyi ḡḡena
5	ifi	leaf	iyemi	iyesi	izae	akya	iyi ḡweyn	iyi ḡḡena
6	asaḡ	corn	akema	akesa	akya	akya	aki ḡweyn	aki ḡḡena
7	a-bas	part	akema	akesa	akya	imzî	aki ḡweyn	iwu ḡḡena
6a	mijaḡ	castor oil	imem	imês	iqnyâ	ivzi	imi ḡweyn	izi ḡḡena
8	ivif	bones	iwom	iwesi	ivâ	izî	izi ḡweyn	isi ḡḡena
9	mbaḡ	staff	iyem	iyês	izyâ	isisi	isi ḡweyn	iti ḡḡenati
10	ndi-si	curses	isemsi	iseysi	isyasi	itsiti	iti ḡweyti	ifi ḡḡenafi
13	fisus	leaves	itemti	iteyli	ityati	ifsifi	ifi ḡweynfi	
19		pepper	ifeyfi	ifeyfi	ifyafi			

From the table above, one sees that each possessive pronoun (either singular or plural) has thirteen different forms of usage, each depending on the noun class in which the possessive noun item is found. From this table, the following phrases or sentences can be deduced.

- i) fu lum iwom si mà
 give husband mine to pro.(me)
 "Give my husband to me."

- ii) mbamsi izi gweyn
Snakes you (pl)
"Your (plural) snakes."
- iii) abayn àkya ghi a ndo
fufu your verb in house
"Your fufu is in the house."
- iv) fu ìngòm iyemi si mà
give banana my to me
"Give my banana to me!"

One can see that examples (ii) and (iii) are all expressing the usage of "your", and (i) and (iv) "my".

3.2.1.3 Demonstrative Pronouns

Kom has many types of demonstrative pronouns. These pronouns are divided into three groups. Group one consists of pronouns that show both proximity and visibility.

- i) wul wèyn "This person"
- ii) asaŋ ki "Those types of corn"
- iii) ikuyŋ yèni "This grain of beans"

Group two is made up of those pronouns that express objects that are a bit far from the speaker but visible. For instance.

- iv) wul i vzi "that person"
person that
- v) ayôyn ki "Those spear grasses"
spear grass those
- vi) ilwaŋ ivzi "Those cocoyams"
cocoyams those

The third group is made up of those pronouns that describe objects that are distance and invisible

- vii) *kuyn ki* "that bear"
bears that
- viii) *wul ivzi* "that person"
person that
- ix) *fisus sisi* "those peppers"
pepper those

The table below illustrates the whole demonstrative pronouns system of the Kom language

Noun class	Example of Noun	Gloss	Proximity and Visibility		Distance and Visibility		Invisibility	
			Adjectival	Nominal	Adjectival	Nominal	Adjectival	Nominal
1	<i>lum</i>	husband	<i>wèyn</i>	<i>iweyn</i>	<i>ivzi</i>	<i>ivzi</i>	<i>ivzi</i>	<i>ivzi</i>
2	<i>qhilum</i>	husbands	<i>ghèyn</i>	<i>ighèyn</i>	<i>ighi</i>	<i>ighi</i>	<i>ghi</i>	<i>ighi</i>
3	<i>ilû</i>	honey	<i>wèyn</i>	<i>iweyn</i>	<i>ivzi</i>	<i>ivzi</i>	<i>vzi</i>	<i>ivzi</i>
4	<i>ilɛŋ</i>	bamboo	<i>yèyni</i>	<i>iyeyni</i>	<i>zi</i>	<i>izi</i>	<i>zi</i>	<i>aki</i>
5	<i>asaŋ</i>	corn	<i>keyn</i>	<i>akeyna</i>	<i>ki</i>	<i>aki</i>	<i>ki</i>	<i>izi</i>
6	<i>asaŋ</i>	leaf	<i>yèyni</i>	<i>iyeyni</i>	<i>zi</i>	<i>izi</i>	<i>zi</i>	<i>imzi</i>
6	<i>ifui</i>	castor oil	<i>meyn</i>	<i>imeyna</i>	<i>mzi</i>	<i>imzi</i>	<i>mzi</i>	<i>aki</i>
6a	<i>mi jaŋ</i>	part	<i>keyna</i>	<i>iweyn</i>	<i>ki</i>	<i>aki</i>	<i>ki</i>	<i>ivzi</i>
7	<i>abas</i>	bones	<i>weyn</i>	<i>iyèyn</i>	<i>vzi</i>	<i>ivzi</i>	<i>vzi</i>	<i>izi</i>
8	<i>ivif</i>	staff	<i>yeyn</i>	<i>isèyni</i>	<i>zi</i>	<i>izi</i>	<i>zi</i>	<i>isisi</i>
9	<i>mbaŋ</i>	curses	<i>sèynsi</i>	<i>itèynti</i>	<i>sisi</i>	<i>izi</i>	<i>sisi</i>	<i>ttiti</i>
10	<i>ndisi</i>	leaves	<i>tèynti</i>	<i>ifeynfi</i>	<i>titi</i>	<i>isi</i>	<i>titi</i>	<i>isi</i>
13	<i>tifi</i>	pepper	<i>fèyn</i>		<i>fsifi</i>	<i>ititi</i>	<i>sisi</i>	
19	<i>fisus</i>					<i>isisi</i>		

The demonstrative pronouns are both adjectival and nominal as seen in the table above. That is;

adjectival: this (noun) that (noun)
these (noun) those (nouns)

Example: *lum wèyn* "this husband"
ghilum ghèyn "these husbands"

Nominal: this one, these ones
that one, those ones

Like the possessive pronouns, each noun class has its own nominal and adjectival demonstrative pronouns, which also vary with the aspects of

proximity and visibility of the object there are demonstrating. Globally speaking, the Kom language has four demonstrative pronouns (this, that, these, those) and these are used in various forms.

3.2.1.4 Indefinite Pronouns

Kom has two types of indefinite pronouns. The ghi and the nda indefinite pronouns. Ghi serves in de-emphasizing the agent of an action. It also accomplishes what a passive verb construction would do. Below are some illustrations:

- a) i) Ghi si lu à
 people P.T.M go Asp "People are going."
 ii) Ghi lu meyn
 people go TiM "People have gone."

Nda on its part serves for the interrogative "who" in sentences and for emphatic clauses. Examples include:

- b) i) À fù nda?
 who give who "Who has given?"
 ii) À lù ndà?
 who go who "Who has gone?"

3.2.1.5 The Interrogative Pronouns

This type of pronouns only occurs at the level of sentence. Under these interrogative pronouns we have "who", "what". "How many" and "which" as seen below.

- i) nda "who" is used to identify every object and its form does not vary with nouns of the various noun classes.
 ii) The pronoun that vary with objects of different noun classes are "akà", "ika" and "tika" and others that signify the interrogative pronoun "How many".

Thus just as possessive and personal pronouns, the interrogative pronouns “which” and “how many” also change with the nouns of the various noun classes. The examples below illustrate the usage of interrogative pronouns.

- 87) a) Nà vâ ghi ndà'
mother your is who “Who is your mother?”
- b) Iziyn ìzae nin ghi ndà'
name your asp is what “What is your name?”
- c) Wà keli woyn ghi sè' a?
You have children N.c.Prfl how many
“How many children do you have?”
- d) Wà nì ku minyuyn n-kà'
You T.M catch N.cl. Prfl bird which
“Which birds did you catch?”

3.2.1.6 The Reflexive and Reciprocal Pronouns

The reciprocal and the reflexive pronouns are indicated by the use of the *kè* and the *ngɛɲ* pronouns respectively. The reflexive pronoun *ngɛɲ* implies the English “each”. The reflexive always presupposes the idea that the agent’s action is upon itself. Reciprocal on its part, signals an act of giving and receiving in return, that is, mutual relationship. These two pronouns do not change with noun classes. It is also important to say that any noun from any of the classes can be used with these two types of pronouns (in so far as the meanings of reflexiveness and reciprocity will be expressed). These two pronouns are used as follows:

- 88) i) Àɲena kôɲ kè' àɲena
they love each they (Reciprocal)
“They love each other.”
- ii) Aɲena kôɲ nɛɲsi àɲena
they love self pl.M they
“They love themselves.”

Here, the subject pronouns are reduplicated.

3.2.2 Pronoun Reduplication

Out of the six types of pronouns identified, only three of them undergo reduplication at the level of morphology. They are; the personal, the possessive and the demonstrative pronouns. The reciprocal and the reflexive pronouns undergo reduplication at the level of syntax. These will be discussed in chapter four.

3.2.2.1 Possessive Pronouns Reduplication

The possessive pronoun can be reduplicated to indicate uniqueness or exclusiveness as seen in the table below:

Table 8

Noun class	Possessive pronoun	Gloss	Reduplicated form	Gloss
1	iwôm	mine	ki iwom iwom	only mine
2	iyi ηweyn	his	ki ηweyn ηweyn	only his
2	ighi àṅena	theirs	ki ighi àṅena àṅena	only their
3	ivâ	yours theirs	ki + vâ + vâ	only yours
4	iyi àṅena	mine	ki àṅena àṅena	only theirs
5	iyemi	mine	ki iyenì iyenì	only mine
7	akema	yours truly, yours	ki akena akena	only mine
7	akya	mine	ki akya akya	only yours
7	akia	yours	ki akia akia	only yours
10	isemsi	mine	ki isemsi isemsi	only mine

From our discussion in section 3.2.1.2 one can see that *iwôm*, *iyemi* and *akema* all mean “mine” and *àṅena* and *ighi* all mean “theirs”. The difference in their usage comes at the level of the noun class of the noun used. For instance, *iwom iwom* is used with nouns of class one and *akena akena* with nouns of classes seven or six.

All possessive pronouns can be reduplicated in so far as they are out to indicate an act of uniqueness. In this case, they are always used with the *ki* morpheme.

3.2.2.2 Demonstrative Pronouns Reduplication

Demonstrative pronouns are seen to be nominal and adjectival. Only the nominal demonstrative pronouns can be reduplicated. This means that whether a demonstrative pronoun is that which indicates objects that are visible and near, visible and distance, invisible and distance, in so far as it is nominal, it can be reduplicated morphologically. The examples below illustrate this.

89) a) Noun class one nominal demonstrative pronouns

Group one (near and visible)

iwêyn "this one"

ki iwêyn iwêyn "only this one"

Group two (distance but visible)

ivzi "that one"

ki ivzi ivzi "only that one"

Group three (distance and invisible)

ivzi "that one"

ki ivzi ivzi "only that one"

b) Noun class two nominal demonstrative pronouns

Group one

igheyn "these ones"

ki igheyn igheyn "only these ones"

Group two

ighi "those ones"

ki ighi ighi "only those ones"

Group three

ighi "those ones"

ki ighi ighi "only those ones"

c) Noun class six nominal demonstrative pronouns.

Group one

akaya "these ones"

ki akayâ "only these ones"

Group two

akî "those ones"

ki akî "only those ones"

Group three

akî “those ones”

ki akî “only those ones”

d) Noun class ten nominal demonstrative pronouns

Group one

isêynsî “these ones”

ki isêynsî isêynsî “only these ones”

Group two

isîsî “those ones”

ki isîsî “only those ones”

Group three

isîsî “those ones”

ki isîsî “only those ones”

Other noun classes can be reduplicated in the same manner as the above.

3.2.2.3 Personal Pronouns Reduplication

Personal pronouns are said to replace nouns that are names of people or things. These pronouns can be reduplicated as seen below:

Table 9

Personal pronoun	Gloss.	Reduplicated form	Gloss.
va	you	va va	you alone
		i va va	you alone
ma	I	ma ma	I alone
		i ma ma	I alone
ghes	we	ghes ghes	we alone
		ighes ghes	among ourselves
zi	you (pl)	zi zi	you alone
		i zi zi	among yourselves
wu	he/she	wu wu	he/she alone
		àņena àņena	only they
àņena	they	iàņena àņena	among themselves

From the above examples, we realise that when some personal pronouns are reduplicated to indicate uniqueness, they tend to be reflexive. This is seen in

zi that becomes izi izi and ghes that becomes ghes ghes that becomes ighe ighe. This will be clearly seen in chapter four.

3.2.3 Observations

From the data collected, all the three types of pronouns that undergo morphological reduplication do so, to express two ideas, that of uniqueness or distinctiveness and that of reflexivity. The idea of uniqueness or distinctiveness, is what we have generally referred to in chapter two and three as exclusiveness or uniqueness. Uniqueness in this sense means something(s) that is or are the only one(s) of the kind. Distinctiveness on the other hand presupposes that something(s) is or are serving to mark a difference or a distinction.

3.2.3.1 Uniqueness/distinctiveness

All the three types of pronouns that undergo this morphological process, are used with the word ki "only" or "alone" to mark uniqueness as seen in the following examples:

90) a) Personal pronouns like in:

Va "you"
 ki va va "you alone" or "only you"
 ma "me"
 ki ma ma "I alone" or "only I"

b) Demonstrative pronouns like in Noun class one with nominal
 Demonstrative pronouns
 iwêyn "this one"
 kî iwêyn iwêyn "only this one"

Noun class two with nominal demonstrative pronoun

ivzi "that one"
 ki ivzi ivzi "only that one"

Noun class eight with nominal demonstrative pronouns

ivzi "those ones"
 ki ivzi "only those ones"

The examples in 90 b) reveal that when nominal demonstrative pronouns with a low or falling tones are reduplicated, the “ki” morpheme obtains a low tone.

- c) Possessive pronouns
 Noun class one
 iwôm “mine”
 kî iwôm iwôm “only mine”
 noun class six
 akema “mine”
 ki akema akema “only mine”

3.2.3.2 Reflexiveness

Of the three types of pronouns that undergo morphological reduplication, only the personal pronoun does so to express reflexiveness as seen in table 9 as 3.2.2.3 behind. Some personal pronouns when reduplicated tend to act as reflexive pronouns as seen below:

- 91) a) ghes “we”
 ighes ighes “among ourselves”

But when we reduplicate as in ghes ghes “we alone” we will not have any aspect of reflexiveness as in:

- b) zi “you” (plural)
 zi zi “you alone” and
 izi izi “you yourself” reflexive

Thus we can conclude that Kom pronouns like nouns, verbs and adjectives undergo morphological reduplication.

Has there been a
 CHAPTER FOUR
 phonological analysis

A SYNTACTIC STUDY OF REDUPLICATION IN THE KOM
 LANGUAGE
 of reduplication in
 Kom?

4.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter examines the behaviour of reduplicated words in larger grammatical structures. By larger grammatical structures we mean phrasal and sentential structures. The chapter is divided into two main sections. The first part reviews the structure of the Kom verb phrase, noun phrase and sentences. The second part, which is the core of this chapter, is devoted to the analysis of reduplicated words in larger syntactic constructions.

4.1 PHRASAL AND SENTENTIAL STRUCTURE IN KOM

4.1.1 Noun Phrase Structure in Kom

In this section, we examine the various aspects of Kom noun and verb phrases as well as some sentential structures. This section is divided into two subsections. Subsection one deals with aspects of Kom noun and verb phrases and section two centres on sentential structure. The first subsection is further divided into two parts. Part one bases on aspects of the noun phrase structure and part two on those of the verb phrase structure.

4.1.1.1 Phrasal Structures

Typically, the Kom noun phrase (NP) consists of a head noun, which is optionally followed by modifier(s). The NP can also have a structure that is made up of a head noun and a modifier which is followed by an agreement marker. We have the following noun phrases in Kom.

- 1) Head noun followed by a modifier: [Head noun + modifier].

Ndo idyèfɪni “a tall house”
House tall (modifier)

From the example above ndo “house” is the head noun followed by a modifier idyèfɪni “tall / high”.

2) Head noun followed by an agreement marker and a modifier: [Head noun + Agr + Mod]. The agreement marker is the prefix which repeats itself throughout the phrase. Many NPs have this structure and each depending on the type of the modifier that it takes. They include, possessive adjectives, numeric adjectives, interrogative adjectives, demonstrative adjectives and descriptive adjectives. Thus we have the following NP structures.

Head noun + Agreement marker + Possessive Pronoun
[Head noun + Agr. + Possessive Pronoun]

For example;

- 92) a) Abaŋ “bench”
 abaŋ - a kem - a “my bench”
 N.cl.Prf bench Agr.M mine N.cl.Prf
- b) ikôŋ “love”
 ikôŋ i yemi “my love”
 N.cl.Prf love Agr.M mine Agr. M

Head noun + Agreement marker + numeral adjective
[Head noun + Agr.M + Number]

For instance;

- 93) afo “a thing”
 afo a mò’ “one thing”
 N.cl.Prf thing Agr.M one
 (numeric adj)

Head noun + Agreement marker + interrogative adjective
[Head noun + Agr. M + Interrogative adjective]

As seen in;

- 94) i -ndo "house"
 i ndo i kà? "Which house?"
 N.cl.Prf house Agr.M which

- Head Noun + Agreement marker + Descriptive adjective;
 thus the structure
 [Head noun + Agre.M + Descriptive adjective] as seen in

- 95) fikâ' "tree"
 fikâ' fi jûŋfi "a good tree"
 N.cl.Prf tree Agr.M good Agr.M
 (des.Adj)

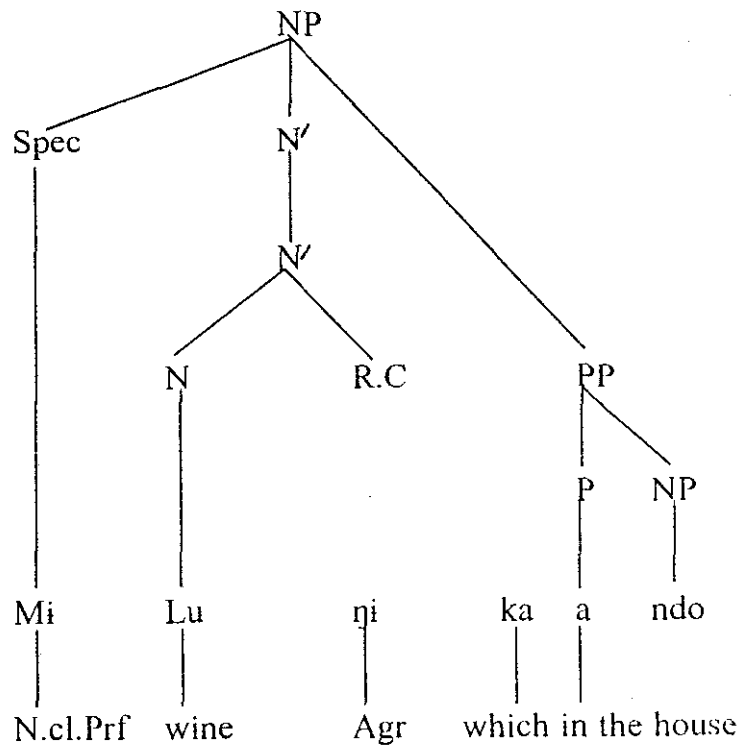
- Head noun + demonstrative adjective. That is [Head noun + Demon.
 Adjective] which is illustrated in the NP below.

- 96) a asû "soap"
 asû kèyn "this soap"
 N.cl. Prf soap this
 (Demo.adj)

The Kom NP has the following structure

NP → spec; N
 N → N (Ad) (PP)

- 97) Milu mikai i ndo "which wine in the house"



4.1.1.2 Verb Phrase Structure in Kom

To study the verb phrase structure in Kom, there is need to group the various verbs following the number of arguments they take. In this section, therefore, we examine the structure of VPs with verbs that are intransitive, transitive, and ditransitive.

4.1.1.2.1 The Structure of VPs with Intransitive Verbs

In this part of the work we examine the verb phrase structure that contains a verb that has no arguments, that is, a verb with a subject and no object.

The following VPs contain intransitive verbs;

- 98) a) Mi binî chwosî - à
I sleep very much "I am sleeping a lot."
- b) Fulai nyin i
Fulai run Agr (T.M) "Fulai is running."

Thus

$$VP \rightarrow \text{Spec}; V'$$

$$V' \rightarrow V$$

4.1.1.2.2 Verb phrase with transitive verb

In a structure that contains a transitive verb, there always exists two NPs. The verb in question takes an object which is usually considered as NP(2). The first NP which precedes the verb is usually the NP that is the subject of the sentence. The following examples illustrate a VP (with a transitive verb) structure.

- 99) a) jàŋ "read" ɲwà' lì "book"
 wà ɲjàŋ ɲwà' lì
 you read book "You are reading a book."
 b) kôŋ "love"
 mì kôŋ va
 I love you "I love you."

Thus the VP structure here is

$$VP \rightarrow \text{Spec}; V$$

$$V' \rightarrow V; NP$$

4.1.1.2.3 Verb Phrase with Ditransitive Verb

Like in English, The Kom VP with a ditransitive verb always requires three noun phrases and like the transitive verb, the ditransitive verb has an NP which is usually the subject of a sentence in which this verb is found. But there is a difference at the level of the number of NPs that follow the verb. Instead of having one NP that follows the verb, the ditransitive verb possesses two NPs that follow it (that is NP₂ and NP₃). NP₂ and NP₃ are objects that are either persons or things. This VP is illustrated in the examples below:

- 100) a) gvì "come"
 Wu ti gvì a ndo ni ma
 He T.M come house to mine "He came to the house."

- b) Wu ti gvi a ndo ni bi
 he T.M come sing.M house Prep dog
 "He came to the house with a dog."

We thus have a VP with the sentence structure: as $S \rightarrow NP_1 \text{ AUX VP}$ and the VP is structured as:

VP \rightarrow Spec; V'

V' \rightarrow V; NP

V' \rightarrow V; PP

It is worth noting that the number of V-bars can be more than two depending on the number of constituents that the verb phrase has. It is seen from the above diagram that in a Kom verb phrase, a verb governs the objects of a sentence though not subjects.

4.1.2 Sentential Structures in Kom

Kom is an SVO language. It has both simple and complex sentence types. Our interest in this section lies mostly on simple sentences because of their relevance to syntactic analysis of reduplication. A simple sentence in Kom like in other Bantu languages, has a subject, a verb, and an object. There also exist simple sentences with only a subject and a verb. These are mostly sentences of commands and emphasis. Some complex sentences are also examined in the later part of this subsection.

4.1.2.1 Simple Sentential Structures

These are sentences that have only one clause. They are either made up of a) subject, verb, object, b) subject verb adjective c) subject verb or d) verb object. In d) the subject is abstract and it is assumed. This subsection, therefore, examines the various types of simple sentence structures depending on the type and number of components a sentence has.

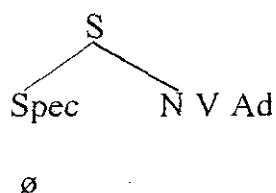
In Kom there exist simple sentences of one or two words which are commonly used as common expressions such as Ayòṣṣi "thanks", jofa' "good"

and commands and imperatives such as *gvì a fēyn* “come here” and *fu sí mà* “give me”. Below are more examples of common expressions commands and emphatic expressions used in this language.

- 101) i) *gvì* “come!”
 ii) *fú* “give!”
 iii) *tím ŋweyn* “shoot him!”

The above sentences can be structured and diagrammatically represented as seen below.

[S → N or V or Ad] presented in the diagram as



It is worthy of note that one word sentences can be nouns, verbs or adjectives and these words when used like sentences have a high tone or a raised intonation. Some two-word sentences are imperatives and exclamations as the ones below;

- 102) a) *gvì afēyn* “Come here!”
 b) *tím ŋweyn* “Shoot him!”
 c) *Bôbó injufa* “Good God!”

In the above sentences there is no rise in tone in any of the words. Such words are sometimes used in correspondence response in which case they give answers to questions or existing situations.

The most, common type of simple sentences in the Kom language are those that have more than two words. In this type of sentences structure, we have the subject, the verb and any other verb argument(s). We thus have the following sentential structures in Kom.

- 103) a) SVO
SVA(P)
SVA(T)
SVOA

The examples below, illustrate this:

103) b)

i) SVO

Mi kôŋ và
I love you "I love you."

ii) SVA (P)

Nà wom ti meyn yi a fu
Mother my P.T.mer eat prep there
"My mother ate there."

iii) SVA (T)

Ngon lae kfi a bēŋ I chwoni
Ngon T.M died N.d.p. year prep last
"Ngong died last year."

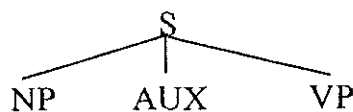
iv) SVOA

Bo wom ti gvi afēyn iyoni
Father my T.M come here yesterday
"My father came here yesterday."

We can thus say that a simple sentence in this language has the structure

$S \rightarrow NP VP AUX VP NP$ represented as

103) c) i) Mi kôŋ và "I love you."



The auxiliary mode is always in sisterhood with the NP and the VP nodes. It is a node particularly for inflections and is either plus or minus tense and or plus or minus agreement. In example 21 c) i) it is plus tense and plus agreement.

4.1.2.2 Complex Sentential Structures

Since a detailed study of complex sentence structures is not very necessary to the study in hand, we shall present rather superficially, these sentential structures. In Kom complex sentence types are complement sentence, co-ordinate conjunction sentences, adjectival sentence type, and relative clause sentence types. These are illustrated in the examples below:

104) i) Complement sentence as seen in

Bò Ngong ti gvì iyoní nì milù'
 Father Ngong (P.T.M) come yesterday with Palmwine
 "Ngong's father came yesterday with palm wine."

ii) Co-ordinate conjunction sentence

Ndim nin jof - à míti jînti - à
 Ndim (P.T.M) beautiful but foolish
 "Ndim is beautiful but foolish."

iii) Adjectival Sentence

Mà tí kfá bomtá jèn tí na yafi ma
 I (P.T.M) come because hunger (P.T.M) bite me
 "I came home because I was hungry."

iv.) Relative clause sentence

Mi' kfâ'ti na wù n-ghi wul ìchoṅni
 I think that he is person thief
 "I think that he is a thief."

or Mi n-kel-i si - a mi kfâ'ti na wù nghi wul ìchoṅni
 I have in my think that he is person thief
 "I have the opinion that he is a thief."

All of the above are complex sentences which are complement, co-ordinate conjunctions adjectival and relative clause sentence types respectively.

CP is used as the head mode of a sentence when the sentence projection is a complementizer or when a sentence contains a complementizer. Thus this type of sentence structure is signalled by the presence of a complementizer such as

na, nda, gha, and so on which stands for “that”, “who” and “what” respectively. There are some complementizers which stand as the head of a CP but our concern here is on those that have a head to head movement and more often come within the sentence structure. This is seen in the structure of a CP;

$$CP \rightarrow \text{Spec}; c,$$

$$C' \rightarrow C; IP$$

This can be illustrated as follows:

- 105) mi kfa'ti na wù n-ghi wul ìchionni
 I think that he is person thief
 “I think that he is a thief.”

4.2 REDUPLICATION IN SENTENCE STRUCTURE

In this section we discuss reduplication in phrases and sentences. In Kom unlike some other Bantu languages like Lamnso', some reduplicated words that are considered to have only syntactic explanation can have explanations both at the level of morphology and syntax. This means that they can be studied when they stand on their own (as seen in chapter two and three) and when used in either phrases or sentences.

This section is divided into three subsections. Subsection one deals with reduplicated nouns in sentence structures, subsection two examines reduplicated pronouns in sentence structures and subsection three treats reduplicated verb in sentence structures.

4.2.1 Reduplicated Words in Sentence Structures

4.2.1.1 Reduplicated Nouns

In this section, we examine the various types of noun reduplication that exist in some noun phrases and sentences. The different contexts of usage of some reduplicated nouns is our concern here. We shall determine whether all the three types of noun structures undergo reduplication and if they do, in which way.

4.2.1.1.1 Reduplication of Nouns with the Noun Root Structure

The discussion in this section involves nouns that have neither prefixes nor suffixes. Such nouns can be reduplicated when they occur either in subject or object positions.

- 106) a) ncheŋ “bottle”
 Bó yèyn nin ghi ki ncheŋ ncheŋ-SVO
 bag this c.M T.M just bottle bottle
 “This bag is full of bottles.”
- b) musi “water”
 Mbas yeyn nin ghi ki musi musi – SVO
 soup this T.M T.M just water water
 “This soup is watery.” / “This soup is full of water.”
- c) wayn “child”
 wayn wayn wum ti mi gvi iyonì
 child child my T.M come yesterday
 “My grand child came yesterday.”
- d) Na “mother”
 Nana Ntim kpu miy
 mother mother Ntim die T.M
 “Ntim’s grandmother has died.”
- e) Ndim nin chî ŋwegn nà n̄nà ŋweyn
 Ndim T.M stay with mother mother hers (Possessive)
 “Ndim is staying with her grandmother.”

Examples above indicate that nouns of class nine that have no prefix are reduplicated only when they are used as objects. This is seen in examples 106a) and b) above. Examples 106c), d) and e) are nouns of noun class one, and this is not the case with them. These nouns of class one can serve as subjects or objects when reduplicated. In most cases the tones are unaffected as seen in example 106a) and b) above.

*How does
 reduplication
 affect
 sentence
 structure?
 Morphology?
 Semantics?*

4.2.1.1.2 Reduplication of Nouns with the Noun Prefix plus Noun Root Structure

Here we want to present the data of reduplicated nouns with Noun Prefix plus Noun Root structure in some Syntactic structures. We also want to comment on the behaviour of these reduplicated nouns and also give their semantic contents. Below are some examples of these reduplicated nouns.

- 107) a) àngù “a fool”
 và kê’ ki àngu ângu - SVO
 you look like N.cl.Prf.N.rt (fool) N.cl.Prf.N.rt (fool)
 “You look like a fool.”
- b) itof “sense”
 Wu chon ki itof itof - SVO
 he thief like N.cl.Prf.N.rt.(sense) N.cl.Prf.N.rt.(sense)
 “He steals in an intelligent manner.” or “He steals intelligently.”
- c) ibi “kolanut”
 ifû’ ateyni nin gô’ ki ibi ibi - SVO
 basket this T.M full N.cl. N.rt (kolanut) N.cl. N.rt (kolanut)
 Prf. Prf.
 “The basket is full of kolanuts.”
- d) michi “chair”
 ndo ateyn nin gô’ ki michi michi - SVO
 house this T.M full of N.cl.N.rt (chair) N.cl.N.rt (chair)
 Prf. Prf.
 “This house is full with chairs.”

The only striking things about the manner and behaviour of reduplicated nouns in this structure is that the reduplicated nouns come at the end of the sentence and that reduplicated nouns assume a generic interpretation. They are always objects in sentences. The last syllables of the reduplicated noun always take a high tone or mid tone as seen in the examples above. Hence there are no tonal changes except on those of the last syllables that are neither high nor mid as seen in example c) above.

When nouns with a prefix plus root are reduplicated in sentences, they portray the idea of “full of...” or manner in which something is done as seen in

Wù chon̄ ki itof itof “He steals in an intelligent manner.” and Và kê’ ki àngù àngù “You look like a fool.”

There are no serious differences at the level of Morphology and Syntax when complete Reduplication (or full Noun Reduplication) occurs.

4.2.1.1.3 Reduplication of Full Nouns with Noun Root and Suffix

In this subsection some as in the subsection above, we first of all present the data of reduplicated nouns (with the noun root and suffix structure) before giving our analysis. Below are some examples.

108) a) ncheŋsi “bottles”
 Bo sayn si nin ghi ki ncheŋsi ncheŋsi
 bag this P.M T.M full of N.rt N.cl.Sfx. N.rt N.cl.Sfx
 bottles bottles
 “These bags are full of bottles.”

b) ŋwà’lisi “books”
 Tèblè nin gô’ki ŋwà’lisi ŋwà’lisi
 Table T.M full of N.rt N.cl. sfx N.rt N.cl. sfx
 books books
 “The table is full of books.”

c) mbayn-si “nails”
 Bo àteyn nin gô’ki mbaynsi mbaynsi
 bag (pl) this T.M full of N.rt N.cl. sfx N.rt N.cl. sfx
 nails nails
 “These bags are full of nails.”

Just like in nouns with noun prefixes and root structure, nouns with noun roots and suffixes are reduplicated in syntactic structures (sentences) as seen above. The reduplicated nouns always come after the verb thus they always serve as objects. In Kom these nouns are reduplicated to portray the resemblance, the sequential, quantitative, uniqueness, and “full of” ideas. The last syllables always take either a mid or a high tone as seen above.

To end this subsection the following observations are necessary. Most of the reduplicated nouns undergo complete reduplication when used in sentence structures and most of them always occur at the end of the sentence. Only nouns

with null prefixes or suffixes occur as either a subject or object in a sentence as is the case with the examples in 4.3.1.2.1) above. The reduplicated nouns that occur as objects are the last words in the sentences and their last syllables take either high or mid tones.

4.2.2 Reduplicated Pronouns

Unlike in some Ring Road languages such as Lamnso' where syntactic reduplication of pronouns occurs only at the level of phrases, syntactic reduplication in Kom pronouns is seen both in phrases and sentences. In this section we examine reduplicated pronouns that constitute entire phrases and also examine the manner and behaviour of reduplicated pronouns used in sentence constructions. In which case, we find out whether reduplicated pronouns, that are reduplicated morphologically, when used in syntactic constructions do maintain their original meanings. A subsection is dedicated to this.

4.2.2.1 Reduplicated Pronouns that Constitute Whole Phrases

When we talk of reduplicated pronouns that stand for whole phrases we mean pronouns which when repeated constitute whole phrases. That is to say, the two words signify whole expressions. For instance:

- 109) a) ma "I"
 má má "I myself"
 má má "I alone (only I)"
 mâ mà "I too"
- b) vâ "you"
 vá vá "you alone"
 va vâ "you by yourself (you only)"
 vâ vâ "you too"
- c) ŋveyŋ "him"
 ŋveyŋ ŋweyŋ "he/she him/herself"
 ŋveyŋ ŋweyŋ "he/she alone (he/she only)"
 ŋveyŋ ŋweyŋ "he/she also (too)"

- d) àṅēnā “them”
 àṅēnā àṅēnā “they themselves”
 àṅēnā àṅēná “they alone”
 àṅēnā àṅēnà “they also (too)”

From the above data the following comments stand out. Firstly it is observed that all types of personal pronouns can be reduplicated to form a full phrase. Be it a subject personal pronoun like those of example (a) and (b) or an object personal pronoun like those of examples (c) and (d).

Secondly we have seen that the pronouns can all be reduplicated to portray the ideas of inclusiveness and exclusiveness. This is seen in phrases such as “I too”, “they too”, “we also” and “you alone, he alone”, respectively. We have also got the idea of reflexiveness when these pronouns are reduplicated. This is got through expressions such as ṅwēyn ṅwēyn “he/she him/herself”, aṅēna aṅēna “they themselves” and va vâ “you yourself.”

Thirdly, we have noticed that the tones on the reduplicated pronouns change to portray the different semantic implications as seen in the examples in 109 above. These tones are not systematic as they vary from one pronoun to another. For instance, to express the idea of reflexiveness aṅēna “they” and ṅwēyn “he/she” are reduplicated as aṅēna aṅēna and ṅwēyn ṅwēyn all having a lone tone. This is not the case with vâ “you” which is reduplicated as va vâ with a low and falling tone. Thus no tonal rules to be drawn.

4.2.2.2 Reduplicated Pronouns in some Noun Phrases and Sentences

In section 3.2.2 of this work, we have seen that some Kom pronouns such as the possessive, demonstrative and personal pronouns are reduplicated morphologically to express some concepts. For instance:

- 110) i) Possessive Pronouns
 a) iwôm “mine”
 ki iwôm iwôm “only mine”
 b) ivâ “yours”
 ki ivâ ivâ “only yours”

- ii) Demonstrative Pronouns
 a) iwêyn "this one"
 ki iwêyn iwêyn "only this one"
- b) ighen "these ones"
 ki ighen ighen "only these ones"
- iii) Personal Pronouns
 a) va "you"
 va va "you alone"
- b) ghes "we"
 ghes ghes "we dione"
 ighes ighes "among ourselves"

From the examples above we can see that some pronouns are reduplicated morphologically to express the ideas of exclusiveness and reflexiveness. This is not what is obtained when pronouns are reduplicated in syntactic structures. In Kom pronouns are never reduplicated in syntactic structures. The idea of reflexiveness and exclusiveness expressed in pronouns that are used in sentences is done in quite a different way. Consider the following expressions;

- 111) i) ma "I"
 ma ma "I myself"
 mà tî yi ifwo yini ateyn si – a mâ ngeŋ
 I P₃ eat thing eaten with
 "I ate the food myself."
- ii) wù "he"
 wù wù "hew alone"
 Wù ghi a ndo ki ŋveyŋ nì nyiŋ
 he Pr.T. in house only him
- iii) aŋena "they"
 i aŋena i aŋena "among themselves"
 Aŋena tî na taŋî si ngeŋsi i aŋena
 They P₃ Asp talk to them to they
 "They were talking among themselves."
- iv) Aŋena "they"
 àŋena àŋena "only them"
 Àŋena nin taŋi si ngeŋsi i aŋena
 They Pr.T talk to them to they
 "they are talking to each other."

Thus our concern on reduplicated verbs in syntactic structures will centre on observing the position of the object in these syntactic structures and their semantic contents.

4.2.3.1 The Position of the Object in Syntactic Structures with Reduplicated Verbs

Whenever a reduplicated verb is used in a verb phrase or in a sentence, the reduplicated verb always comes before the object in question. From the data collected on verb reduplication and its usage in phrases and sentences, notice is made of the fact that whether there is a subject or not, this verb must have an object preceding it. This supports the idea that reduplicated verbs are always transitive. For instance:

- 113) a) nyiŋsi "to lead"
 si nyiŋsi nyiŋsi a kum
 inf.M lead lead N.cl.Prf juju
- b) si tàynsi "to drive"
 si tàynsi tàynsi finyuyn
 inf.M drive drive N.cl.Prf bird
 "To make a bird fly away." / "To drive a bird."
- c) si nyà' "to write"
 si nyà' nyà' ŋwà' li
 inf.M write write book N.cl.sfx
 "To write a book." / "To write a letter."

The above three examples (a to c) are examples of reduplicated verbs in verb phrases. It is observed that when verbs are reduplicated in phrases they become very ambiguous. Their meanings, therefore, depend largely on the context of usage. That is why each phrase above has more than one meaning.

- 114) a) zue - "kill"
 zue zue ŋweyn - a command and in C.R. context.
 kill kill him "Kill him!"
- b) tu - "carry"
 tu tu mu mi
 carry carry water that "Carry that water (fast)!"

- c) jàŋ - "read"
 jàŋ jàŋ ŋwà'li ateyn
 read read book N.cl. sfx the
 "Read the letter (book) (fast)!"

All the above examples on 114 are commands given in response to a question or to contrast an existing idea. In a normal context commands are not given with reduplicated verbs. The examples of other types of sentences are seen below:

- 115) a) nyeu - "to drink"
 Wu na nyeu ki nyeu, nyeu ki nyeu mu
 he T.M drink Ass.M drink drink Ass.M drink water
 "He was drinking water over and over and over."
- b) nyiŋ - "to run"
 i) mà ni nà nyiŋ nyiŋ I ndò
 I T.M run run Prf home
 "I was running home."
 ii) ma ni nà nyiŋ ki nyiŋ nyiŋ ki nyiŋ ----
 I T.M run Ass.M run run Ass.M run ----
 "I have been running for a very long time."
- c) i) yi - "to eat"
 ma ni meyn nà yi ki yi
 I T.M eat just eat
 "I have just been eating."
 ii) ma ni nà yi ki yi, yi ki yi
 I T.M eat Ass.M eat eat Ass.M eat
 "I have been eating to a point of satiety (where I can't
 breath anymore)."
- d) tum - "send"
 mi tum tum ŋwèyn
 I send send him "I am sending him."
- e) taŋi - "talk"
 Wù taŋî taŋi sî mà
 He talk talk to me "He/she is talking to me."

From examples 115a to e above, one can say that verbs are reduplicated in the Kom language to portray progression and emphasis.

4.2.3.2 Reduplication to Express Negation and Positivation

In Kom, verbs can also be reduplicated in sentences to express negation and positivation. The negation is got when a verb reduplicated takes the lexical item “not” *wi* at the medial position of the reduplicated forms. The idea of positivation is seen in reduplicated verbs that do not take this lexical item. For example;

- 116) a) taŋ - “count”
 i) Wu taŋ taŋ
 He count count “He is counting.”
 ii) Wu taŋ wi taŋ
 He count not count “He is not counting.”
- b) ko’ - “to climb”
 i) Tīm ko’ ko’ a itchi
 Tim climb climb on tree “Tim is climbing a tree.”
 ii) Tim ko’ wi ko’ a itchi
 Tim climb not climb on tree
 “Tim is not climbing on a tree.”
- c) tum - “send”
 i) wu tum tum ŋweyn
 he send send him “He is sending him.”
 ii) wu tum wi tum ŋweyn
 He send not send him “He is not sending him.”

From the above analysis and examples done in this chapter the following observations are made. First of all, it is seen that only transitive verbs can be reduplicated. Secondly it is also observed that any particle that portray the idea of “just”, “really”, “like”, “full of” and “not” comes in between the reduplicated forms. None of these particles can ever be seen before or after the reduplicated forms.

4.3 CONCLUSION

In this chapter we have treated syntactic reduplication of some words categories. We first of all revised the Kom phrasal and sentential structures. This has been done to see how these structures look like when they do not contain reduplicated forms. The various reduplicated word categories forms that are got in chapters two and three are then used in these syntactic structures to see if they can still maintain their reduplicated structures or their structures will be altered. The reduplicated nouns, verbs and adjective have been seen to maintain their reduplicated in both syntactic and morphological structures. As concerned reduplicated pronouns, we have seen that some pronouns are reduplicated morphologically to stand for whole pronoun phrases. But at the level of usage of in sentential structures reduplicated pronouns are distorted completely. Thus to express the idea of reflexiveness and exclusiveness pronouns are never reduplicated in syntactic structures. We can therefore, conclude that all word categories, except for pronouns can be reduplicated syntactically.

In this chapter we have discovered that Kom nouns and pronous can also undergo morphological reduplication. In this chapter we have first of all discussed the Kom noun and pronoun system in the Kom language and later on we have tried to find out how these two word categories undergo the process of reduplication. These two categories have been seen to undergo reduplication to express a series of ideas. Nouns have been reduplicated at the morphological of all its classes to express either the aspects sequential, quantitative, or uniqueness and the ideas of kinship. Some pronouns (possessive, demonstrative and personal) have been discovered to undergo morphological reduplication to express the idea of exclusiveness and reflexiveness. Thus not all pronouns can undergo reduplication but all nouns of all the noun classes undergo reduplication in one way or the other. There exist solely complete reduplication with the Kom nouns of pronouns.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION

5.0 INTRODUCTION

This is the concluding chapter and it centers on a number of observations, first of all it gives a chapter by chapter summary and their findings. Secondly, it provides a general overview of Kom Reduplication and finally it points out some problems that we encountered during our research and analysis.

5.1 CHAPTER BY CHAPTER SUMMARY

This section presents a chapter by chapter summary and their findings. Chapter one, the introductory chapter, presented the topic of this study. It examined the objectives and significance of this work. The scope of the study was also handled in this chapter. We attempted to situate the Kom language geographically, historically and linguistically. The socio-cultural aspects of Kom which are related to this study were discussed. We also specified the theories and methods we have used in data collection and its analysis.

Our objectives were pointed out to center on whether reduplication exists in Kom and if yes, how it operates. We discovered that there exist complete reduplication in all the Kom word categories and it does so for some lexical formations and to express some semantic implications (contents). We chose the structural and the generative frameworks for our analysis.

Chapter two was dedicated to the analysis of reduplication in Kom verbs, adjectives and adverbs. In this chapter we described the nature and structure of Kom verbs, adjectives and adverbs. We then examined how these three word categories undergo reduplication and what they are reduplicated to portray. We thus discovered that the Kom verbs undergo complete reduplication and they do so either to portray the ideas of tense, aspects, and/or mood or change of word

class. We also realised that adjectives and adverbs are interchangeable at the level of reduplication. They are seen to undergo complete reduplication and they portray emphasis, change of word class, commands, repetition, sequential, action, intensity, causative and direction

In chapter three we treated reduplication in nouns and pronouns. This chapter was divided into two main parts. In part one we examined the structure and function of nouns and pronouns and we devoted part two to the analysis of reduplication in pronouns and nouns. We discovered that just as in verbs and adjectives, nouns and pronouns undergo only complete Reduplication. We realised that all the thirteen noun classes undergo reduplication in one way or the other and that they do so to express a series of ideas ranging from that of exclusiveness, inclusiveness, uniqueness, quantitative, seniority, and sequential action. Pronouns were reduplicated to portray seniority and uniqueness.

Chapter four examined the various types of sentence structures. In this light, we examined the noun, verb, and pronoun phrases, and the simple and complex sentence types. We went further to examine the behaviour of reduplicated words in larger grammatical structures. We discovered that some morphologically reduplicated words behave in the same way when they are used in syntactic structures. These included verbs, nouns and adjectives. Pronoun reduplication was seen to manifest mainly at the level of morphology. This accounted for why some morphologically reduplicated pronouns were completely disrupted when used in sentences.

In chapter five we presented a chapter by chapter summary and their findings. We first presented general observations and went on to point out some problems encountered during the study (both from the point of view of human and research problems). Some possible areas for future research were proposed. Future researchers interested in reduplication in the Kom language should find out why some expressions in this language can be explained through reduplication and also through some other alternative ways.

5.2 GENERAL OBSERVATION

Throughout the study, we have observed that only complete reduplication occurs in the Kom language. During our analysis we were tempted to take some noun class prefixes that were repeated through out some sentential structures as an aspect of partial reduplication, but after giving a second thought, we realised that they were acting there as concord or associative makers.

- a) ìngòm i ju₁ "a good banana"
 N.cl.prefix con.M Asso.maker

Thus, we finally came up with the conclusion that only complete reduplication occurs in Kom and it does so both at the level of syntax and morphology.

We also discovered that reduplication is very rich in Kom as it affects all word categories. The verb, noun, pronouns, adjectival and adverbial categories have been seen to undergo reduplication in one way or the other. We have discovered that each word category undergoes reduplication in its own special way and that what is almost general with reduplication in all the word categories is the semantic implications.

5.3 PROBLEMS ENCOUNTERED

As concerns research problems, the lone problem that we encountered (at the level of analysis) to which no solution was given is that of some common expressions that can be expressed both through reduplication and some alternative ways. We had some expressions such as the ones below which are got by reduplicating a word or by using other means of expressions.

- a) si gvi "come"
 gvi "come!" (command)
 gvì gvì "come quickly" (command)


Thus, it will be important for any researcher interested in this to go a mile further to come out with the rules governing or describing why this happens the

way it does. This will help language users and planners when they engage with any phonological studies in this process.

The human problem that we encountered was that of the informants. We faced some problems with both the reference and the ordinary informants. This was due to the nature of their jobs and professions. The main informants are all students who had just a little time to devote to this study. They spent sleepless nights to provide the data. As for the ordinary informants, they were most of the time non-cooperative. This accounts for the length of time that was taken to complete this work.

5.4 CONCLUSION

From our analysis and discussion done on this entire work, one can rightly say that reduplication is one of the main lexical formation processes that enriches the vocabulary of the Kom language. This is clearly seen in the fact that it affects all the word categories of this language.



Old references!!

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