## DEDICATION

## Dedicated to

My beloved parents.
Hon. Umenjoh Lucas Isengyeng
Mrs Umenjoh Christina. Ichunjei
For their love and care
and
to my daughter.
Anagho Sandra Abo Ichunjei,
for missing the motherly touch during this study.

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| - | $\begin{aligned} & =\text { high tone } \\ & =\text { mid tone } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\because$ | $=$ Low tone |
| + | = positive value (of a featur |
| - | = negative value lof a featur |
| $\rightarrow>$ | $=$ becomes |
| $--7$ | = word final position |
| C | = consonant, Complement |
| V | = vowel or verb. When found i |
|  | for the following features |
| S | $=$ subject |
| 0 | $=$ object |
| A | = adjunct |
| Vd | $=$ voiced sound |
| UR | = underlying representation |
| PR | $=$ phonetic representation |
| son | $=$ sonorant |
| cons | = consonantal |
| cont | $=$ continuant |
| 1 at | = lateral |
| $\operatorname{cor}$ | $=$ coronal |
| nas | $=$ nasal |
| ant | $=$ anterior |
| hi | $=$ high |

```
bk = back
rd = round
[.] = phonetic transcription
// = phonological transcription
Vls = voiceless
    = falling tone
    = rising tone
Infinit = infinitive
Imper = imperative
```

DEDICATION ..... I
ACKNOWLEDGMENT ..... II
SIGNS AND ABBREVIATIONS ..... IV
TABLE OF CONTENT ..... VI
Chapter 1: GENERAL INTRODUCTION ..... 1
1.I Geographical Background ..... 1
1.2 Historical Background ..... 2
1.3 The Language ..... 4
1.4 Dialects ..... 12
1.5 Classification of Ngie ..... 13
1.6 Aim of the work ..... 18
1.7 Literature Review ..... 18
1.8 Methodology ..... 19
Chapter 2: THE OPEN CLASS OF LEXICAL ITEMS IN NGIE AND REDUPLICATION ..... 20
2.1 Nouns ..... 20
2.1.2 Class of nouns ..... 22
2.1.2.1 The morphological class ..... 26
2.1.2.2 The semantic noun class ..... 27
2.2 Verbs ..... 29
2.2.1 Tenses of the verb ..... 34
2.2.1.1 The present tense ..... 35
2.2.1.2 The future tense ..... 35
2.2.1.3 The past tense ..... 36
2.3 Adjectives ..... 37
2.4 Adverbs ..... 40
2.5 Reduplication ..... 45
Chapter 3: REDUPLICATION AS AN ASPECT OF NGIE ..... 48
3.1 Partial reduplication in Ngie ..... 49
3.2 Complete reduplication in Ngie ..... 50
3.2.1 Complete reduplication as a morphological process in Ngie. ..... 50
3.2.2 Complete reduplication as a phonological process in Ngie ..... 51
3.2.3 Complete reduplication as a semantic process in Ngie. ..... 53
3.3 Reduplication in nouns ..... 54
3.3.1 Data of complete reduplication in nouns ..... 55
3.3.1.1 Data of monosyllabic nouns ..... 55
3.3.1.2 Data of words with two or more syllables ..... 57
3.3.1.3 Data of noun phrases ..... 57
3.3.2 Data analysis ..... 58
Chapter 4: REDUPLICATION IN VERBS, ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS ..... 71
4.1.1 Reduplication in monosyllabic verbs ..... 71
4.1.2 Reduplication in disyllabic verbs ..... 73
4.1.3 Data analysis ..... 73
4.2 Reduplication in adjectives ..... 80
4.2.1 (a) Data of reduplication in monosyllabic words ..... 8.1
4.2 .1 (b) Data of reduplication in disyllabic
words ..... 82
4.2.2 Data analysis ..... 82
4.2.2.1 Data of adjectives having prefixes ..... 85
4.3 Reduplication in adverbs ..... 87
4.3.1 Data of reduplication in adverbs ..... 87
4.3.2 Data analysis ..... 87
Chapter 5: GENERAL CONCLUSION ..... 89
BIBLIOGRAPHY ..... 95

## CHAPTER I

## 1. General Introduction

Language is an important aspect of any society.
For ans reason, it will be necessary to know the
background of the society that uses a particular language before studying the language. That is why this work starts with the presentation of the geographical and historical background of the Ngie clan before tackling reduplication in xgit.
1.1 Geographical Background

```
    #
Ngie is a subdivision found in
```

Momo Division in the North West province of Cameroon. (see map il. The Ngie clan is the centre of the five clans that constitute Momo Division. To the North East of Ngie is Menemo. to the South is Moghamo, to the South West is Menka and. finally, to the West and North west is Ngwaw (see map 2).

The soie clan area falls approximately between Iatitude $5^{\circ} 43^{\prime}$ and $6^{\circ} 10^{\prime}$ North and longitude $9^{\circ} 43^{\prime}$ and $9^{\circ} 55^{\prime}$ East. The North South extent is about 25 km (bird flight and East West extent 22 km with a land surface area
of about $250 \mathrm{~km}^{2}$ (Tweed A.E 1923).
The land of $\mathrm{Ng} i e \mathrm{is}$ very mountainous and slopes from North to South which renders settlement, movement, agriculture and development difficult. Irrespective of all these, the area renains a good touristic site.

The $N g i e$ area has a tropical climate with two annual: the dry season which runs from mid-November to mid-March and the rainy season from mid-march to mid-october.

The southern part of $N g i e$ is warmer than the northern part. This climate has made it possible for the Ngie people to diversify agriculture. While the people in the North are engaged in cattle rearing and other minor agricultural activities, those in the south are seriously engaged in palm oil production.

The population of Ngie has been constantly increasing over the years. The earliest recorded estimates show rhat the population stood at 10,000 people in 1890 . The 193. census figures put it at 24.798 inhabitants. In 1996. the figure was estimated to have risen above 26,000 (Ndoh Samuel: 1996).
1.2. Historical Background.

Ngic is one of the five clans that form the widikum ethnic group. The rest of the clans include: Moghamo. Ngemba, Ngwaw and Menemo.

Like the other clan of this ethnicgroup. Ngie is of semi-Bantu origin.

This ethnic group is said to have emigrated some 250 vears ago from the fringes of Congo (J.A Ngwa 1978: 144) and finally settled in widikum which gave it its present name.

Each clan has its own local tradition which narrates how the group dispersed, moved, and finally occupied its prosent site (Paul Nehoji N: 1987)

The Ngie people, despite their widikum heritage. still claim that they originated from Dudum through their ancestor, Ungiekum who came out of the plunge pool of the Dudum waterfall of River Fek. In the course of time. the need for expansion on economic grounds became apparent to Ungiekum and he sent his sons to the field for pastures. Thismigration eventaally led to the formation of the nineteen villages that make up the $N g i e$ cian.

Dudum has therefore remained a historic site regaried by the Ngie people as the home of the Ngie ancestor.

The major groups that are said to have emerged from Ine brgiekum legendary site include Mengom, Teze. Andek. Etwii . Mungaluge, and Azem.

As time went on, subgroups began to emerge from the main groups forming the nineteen villages of Ngie. These
villages include: Andek, Teze, Etwii, Abebung, Ebang, Angong, Ajei, linechung, Azem, Bassic, Nkon, Essaw, Echia, Abichia, Angai, Etoh, Bonatu. Bonambufei, and Akuwu. (see map 3).
1.3. The language.
vie. the language of the Ngie people, is spoken in the nineteen villages that make up the Noie cian.

This language uses a lot of phonetic voweis and consonants in the formation of its words. It uses front. back and central vowels which can either be high. mid or low see chart ly. Here are some of the words in which these vowels are found.

| vowels | Words |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Ngie | Ngie | English |
| a | a-rid | $\operatorname{ant}$ |
|  | - |  |
| e | $\bar{a}-\mathrm{be}$ | country |
| ə | ùnàn | bird |
| $\varepsilon$ | $\bar{u}-w \underline{v}$ | firewood |
| 0 | $\vec{a}-\mathrm{c}^{\text {? }}$ | throat |
| 0 | 1-kjn | bean |
| 0 | u-čow | mouth |
| 1 | i-njim | back |
| u | $\vec{u}-b \bar{u} n$ | brain |
| 4 | u-ifn | crabs |

the language uses both voiced and voiceless
consonants (see chart 2 ). Consonant clusters are also used and they can either appear at word initial position or at word medial position.

Here are some words containing these consonants:



```
3) Phonetic consonant chart of Ngie
Hlace of Articulation
```



1) Examples.

Prefixes

Ng ie
Ngie

$$
\dot{a}-s \dot{e} v
$$

$$
\dot{a}-b \dot{a}
$$

words
English
soap
monkey

|  | à-zat | tree |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| i- | i-kin | nest |
|  | i-fin | heart |
|  | $i-s \bar{u} ?$ | calabash |
| u- | ur-çey | numming bird |
|  | u-fu? | leaf |
|  | $\overline{\mathrm{u}}-\mathrm{n} \hat{\mathrm{a}}$ ? | wine |
| $\theta$ | bew | dog |
|  | bi | palm nut |
|  | su | f ish |

Ngie is a ianguage which uses a lot of tones. it uses both level and contour tones. With the level tone, it uses the high. the mid and the low tone while with the contour tones. it uses the falling and the rising tone.

Level tones:
$=\mathrm{high}$
$-=\operatorname{mid}$
$=10 \mathrm{w}$

Contour tones

* $=$ falling tone
- = rising tone
Tones Worcis
Agie Ngie English

Level.

| su | fish |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| dwî | clothes |
| bét | wat |


| $\bar{a}-y \dot{e}$ | woman |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\overline{1}-b \bar{e} y$ | kola |
| $\bar{i}-t \overline{\jmath n}$ | navel |
| $i-k w i$ | maize |
| $i-s j p$ | slave |
| $\dot{a}-n$ | ant |

Contour
$\stackrel{ }{ }$

| wa | person |
| :---: | :---: |
| ba | persons |
| $n \hat{i}$ | animals |


| $a-t \bar{n}$ | ear |
| :--- | :--- |
| $i-n i$ | anus |

Ngie is a tone language in which pitch distinction is phonemic.
3) a) i-bet 'war'
i-bहt excrement'
b) $\hat{i}-n \hat{i}$ 'animal'
i- ni : anus:

Morphologically, Ngie is analytic, agglutinating and synthetic in the formation of its words. This means that there are some words in Noie formed with just one morpheme. there are others formed with two or more morphemes and there are stili some morphemes in Ngie which stand for many categories in the language.
$4)$

Morphemes

Ngie
words

English


```
Synthetic
                    one
                            mə̀
                    w\ni
                                    singuilar. neuter)
                                    he/she (subject,
                                    second person
                                    singular. neuter
    Sentences are written from left to right and the
normal sentence structure is subject (s), verb (v), object (o).
```



```
        SV O
        l eat beans.
        *1 ate beans;
    b) w\hat{a}-nùm nämàs i
        SVO
        he take orange.
        "He took an orange'
            this language is similar to Oshie and Ngamambo. This
is evident in the naming of some lexical items.
    Following are some words that illustrate this
similarity:
```


## words

| Oshie | Noie | Ngamambo | English |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$-bán | i-bán | bàn | breast |
| $\bar{u}-n \bar{n}$ | $\dot{u}-\mathrm{n} \dot{\mathrm{g}} \mathrm{n}$ | fìu-ṅ̀n | bird |
| kwi | $i-k w i$ | kwi | maize |
| nkàbè | $\vec{u}-\mathrm{k} \dot{a} p$ | káp | money |
| $\operatorname{tab} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathrm{c}$ | téber | tébàrà | table |
| tá | ta | tà | sew |
| n à ${ }_{\text {a }}$ | nà ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | nə̀つ | give |
| $\bar{a}-\mathrm{k} \mathrm{a}_{n}$ | $\vec{a}-\mathrm{k} \dot{\mathrm{a}} \mathrm{n}$ | kán | pan |
| ngwà | u-ngwàn | f | salt |
| kうn | u-kjn | kún | bed |
|  |  | 2 |  |

1.4 Dialects
vgie iike most languages has its varieties known as dialects. In carrying out this work. the researcher was quick to notice that Ngie has about mineteen dialects resulting from slight variations in the wav the people from the various villages speak. In any case. it is important to note that the dialects of Mengom and Azem area are slightly different from those of the rest of the villages of Noie. (see shaded areas on map 3). this is because these two main
areas are geographically cut off from the rest of the villages of Ngie. for this reason, Mengom and Azem areas are closer to their neighbours, Menka and widikum respectively. Hence, they borrow some of their words from the languages of these neighbours which make mutual intelligibility between them and the rest of the Ngie people to be difficult.

Here are some words borrowed from these neighbours that are not common to the rest of the speakers of Noie:

71
words

Mengom Ngie Azem English

| $\bar{a}-r \bar{u}$ | $\vec{a}-\gamma \overline{0}$ | $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$-wùk | foot |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| gró | u-né | ū-nép | water |
| ko? | i-ngi | i-gùp | fow 1 |
| bré | $i-b i$ | bi | palm nut |
| i-bit | i-bet | i-bit | excremen |

1.5. Classification of Ngie

Although williams (1971: 278) lists Ngie among the unclassified languages of Mamfe Bantu group of Bantoid. stallcup (1977) classifies Ngie as one of the Momo languages of western Grassfields.
in order to show the phylum, the family and the branch to which this language belongs, Greenberg's genealogical classification of African languages has been adopted and used with that of Stallcup to classify Ngie.

## The Genealogical Classification of Ngie







Source: Adapted from the file of the Mono Divisionat Soficgation of tio Plem and Reqianol. : Aevelopinant, nif,enque

SKETCH SHOWING THE 19 VILLAGES OF THE NGIE CLAN


AZEMAREA
MENGOM
NGWAW


Toptad frow. V.A AZOB1,"the Nife area:Human Adizptation to a Harsh physical Environment" 1979 .
1.6. Aim of the work.

This work has been written to include the villages that Jean-Marie Hombert (1976) failed to include in his work entitled "Noun classes and Tones in Ngie." These villages include Angai, Etoh, Bonatu, Bonambufei, Akuwu and Azem. Ugom (Mengom) that he mentions as one of the villages of Ngie is a large area consisting of five villages. These villages include Bassic, Nken, Essaw, Echia and Abichia. (See map 3).

This work: is aimed at throwing more light on the rules that govern Ngie as well as its structure.

In addition, it is to make it easier for linguists to compare reduplication in Ngie with reduplication in other languages of the world.

The work is also aimed at creating an awareness in the native speakers that their language has been written somewhere: hopefully, they will be thus encouraged to learn how to read and write it whenever possible.

### 1.7. Literature Review.

previous work on the Ngie Language includes "Noun Classes and Tones in Ngie" (1976) by Jean-Marie Hombert. "The Momo Languages" (1977) by Stallcup K. L, "The classification of Ngie". (1977) by stallcup.
1.8 Methodology.

Both the descriptive method and the generative approach have been used to present this work.

The descriptive method has been used to present both the geographical and the historical background of the Noge people and also Ngie as a language.

Generative approach has been used to explain reduplication; how it affects the Ngie language and the various classes of words that are affected by reduplication. In doing this, a set of data has been collected and analysed according to the various word classes.


## Chapter 2

2. The Open Class of Lexical ltems in Ngie and Keduplication

Keduplicution is a concept that affects four main classes of words in Ngie. lt affects nouns. verbs. adverbs and adiectives. 11 of which form the open class of iexical items in Ngie.
in order to understand reduplication it is crucial to present an ini roductory overview of these classes of words and also the term reduplication. Oniy information which is relevant to the topic wili be discussed.
2.1 Nouns.

## $\$$

A noun can be defined as a word that is the name of a subject of discussion or the object. Typical nouns include: person, animal, plant. place. thing, substance. quality, action or state of being. Here are some nouns in Ngie. The prefixes are separated from the roots.

1. a) Names of persons.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \vec{a}-k \bar{o} \\
& i-t \dot{a}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \overline{\mathrm{a}}-\mathrm{ke} \\
& \overline{\mathrm{a}}-\mathrm{k} \mathrm{a} m
\end{aligned}
$$

b) Names of places.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { a-c̆um } \\
& \text { à-ndek } \\
& \dot{a}-j \grave{n} n
\end{aligned}
$$

c) Names of animals.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { i-búgi 'goat' } \\
& \text { à-bஹ̀ 'monkey' } \\
& \text { i-njak ' 'sheep' } \\
& \mathrm{i}-\mathrm{b} \vec{\varepsilon} \mathrm{w} \text { ' dog' }
\end{aligned}
$$

d) Names of plants.
i-kwi 'malze'
$\bar{a}-k o ̄ n \quad$ 'beans'
$\bar{a}-z \dot{f}>\quad$ ' yam'
ū-ráp 'palm tree'
e) Names of things.
ànâm ' $1 \mathrm{amp}^{*}$
i-k $\bar{\varnothing}$ 'nail'
$i-j u ̀ n \quad$ 'axe
f) Substance

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\bar{i}-n d i s & \text { ismoke' } \\
\bar{a}-n a & \text { iron' }
\end{array}
$$

a) Ouality, action or state of being.
i-jàn 'poverty'
iràa 'happiness'
$\overline{\mathrm{u}}$-négé 'love'
i-kà 'to be powerfull

In Naie. there are both simple and compound nouns. A simple noun will refer to a single word having one or more meanings (see 1). A compound noun is one consisting of two or more words.
2. a) inàūtine /i-na u-tine.
house church
'church'
b. àbòmôngi/ a-bomo ngł./
egg fowl
'egg'

There are some nouns which are compound words in Noie but are simple words in tnglish.
3. a) Mbùkàkan /mbuk a-kan /
deep pan
'dish'
b) ùnàyè/u-na a-ye /
relative woman
'sister'

There are also some nouns which are simple words in Noie but are compound words in tnglish.
4.a) i-mbàn :walking stick:
b) $\bar{u}-r a p$ 'palmtree'

Irrespective of these differences: most compound words in Ngie are compound words in English and $N g i e$ uses the same rules like EAglish in their formation as it combines adjectives and nouns to form compound words (see 3a) or it combines two or more nouns to form these compound words. (see 2).

Most nouns in $N$ iqe begin with vowels and the first vowel is always a prefix. lnis prefix can either be an a-. i-or $u$ and all of them carry either a mid or a low tone. (Hombert 1976: 7)
5.a) Words with a- prefix

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\dot{a}-s e y & \text { 'soap' } \\
\bar{a}-k o n & \text { 'beans' } \\
\bar{a}-s \grave{n} & \text { 'teeth' } \\
\bar{a}-t \overline{\partial w} & \text { 'head' }
\end{array}
$$

b) words with i-prefix
$i-k \bar{\varnothing} \quad$ 'nail'
i-kwì 'maize
i-njim : back'
i-nó $\quad$ bociy'
c) words with u-prefix
$\overline{\mathrm{u}}$-s $: \quad$ 'pepper;
u-bè ' knife"
ùnə̈n 'bird"
u-nát 'oil'
$*$

Nouns that begin with, consonants are considered to be having zero $\varnothing$ - prefix. (Hombert 1976).
6. a) b $\bar{\varepsilon} w$ dog
bi 'palm nuts'
sù 'fish'
ni 'animalsi
1 n most cases, a change in number does not lead to a change in tone in nouns. Hence the tone remains the same for both plural and singular.

```
7. a) }\overline{\textrm{i}}-\textrm{k}-5n\mp@code{n}\mathrm{ 'bean'
    a-kon 'beans'
    b) ū-rap ' palm tree'
    \overline{i}-rap 'palm trees:
```

    In any case there are some few cases of tonal
    deletion due to the deletion of a prefix because of a change
in number.
8.a) i-bi 'palm nut
bi ' palm nuts'
b) $i-n \hat{i}$ 'animal'
n̂ 'animals'

### 2.1.2 Classes of nouns.

There are two main classes of nouns in Ngie: The Morphological class and the semantic class.

### 2.1.2.1. The Morphological class.

in Noie. nouns that provoke an identical pattern between themselves and other noun related tems in a larger syntactic construction belong to the same morphological class. Nouns in this language are therefore divided into the following morphological classes
(1,2.3,4.5,6,7,8,9,10.13,19,6a). These classes have been differentiated using the pronoun 'my' (Hombert 1976:5). This has been presented in a table form below.

| class | prefix | Examples |  | ${ }^{6} \mathrm{my}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{i}- \\ & { }^{-} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} \bar{i}-t \dot{a} \\ w \hat{a} \end{gathered}$ | 'friend person' | ongu |
| 2 | I- | $\begin{array}{r} \overrightarrow{\mathrm{I}}-\mathrm{bà} \\ \mathrm{ba} \end{array}$ | friends persons | òmbūn |
| 3 | u- | u-kうn | ' bed' | ongu |
| 4 | i- | $\overline{1}-\mathrm{k} j \mathrm{n}$ | ' beds; | ini |
| 5 | I- | $\overline{\mathrm{I}}$-kón | ' bean' | ins |
| 6 | $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ - | $\bar{a}-k o n$ | $\therefore$ beans' | inə |
| 7 | à- | à-wúà | 'bone' | in̄ |
| ¢ | $\bar{u}-$ | $\bar{u}$-wúà | 'bones' | òmbū |
| 9 | $\begin{aligned} & \hat{i}- \\ & \varnothing- \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{r} i-b \varepsilon \bar{\varepsilon} w \\ b \varepsilon w \end{array}$ | $: \frac{\text { dog }^{1}}{\text { dog }}$ | inà |
| 10 | $\begin{aligned} & i- \\ & \varnothing- \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{i}-\mathrm{b} \bar{\varepsilon} \mathrm{w} \\ \mathrm{~b} \overline{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{w} \end{gathered}$ | dogsi <br> dogs. | $\cdots$ itin |
| 13 | I- | $\overline{\mathrm{i}}-\mathrm{ki}$ | 'floors' | itin |
| 19 | $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$ - | u-be ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | ' knife' | of $\mathrm{u}^{\text {n }}$ |
| 63 | - | ù-né | ' water | òmbūn |

Nouns can be divided into two main semantic classes: proper and common nouns.
proper nouns refer to names of people ana piaces (see $1 a, b)$

Common nouns refer to things. These things can either be countable or uncountable. concrete groups like mass nouns, collective nouns, weather nouns, kinship nouns
and value nouns (Tamanji pius Nowa 1991).
9. a) abstract nouns:

| bànà | 'nate |
| :--- | :--- |
| u-nége | 'love' |
| i-rá>á | joy' |

b) Mass nouns.

$$
\begin{array}{lc}
\overline{\mathrm{u}} \text {-né } & \text { water' } \\
\text { i-sékwa } & \text { 'sand' } \\
\text { u-ngwàn } & \text { salt' }
\end{array}
$$

c) Collective nouns.
u-nébé : family'
d) Weather nouns.
$\overline{\mathrm{u}}$ - $\mathrm{f}^{\prime} \quad=\cos \mathrm{c}^{\prime}$
ä-nうm 'dry season'
e) Kinship nouns (African context)
ü-mbak " fathers'
u-nâye 'sistersi
f) value nouns.

| u-fànà i-tinn | five francs' |
| :--- | :--- |
| u-fànà i-wùm | 'ten francs' |
| úfànà i-wùm i-tà 'thirty francs' |  |

It is important to note here that abstract nouns deal with concepts: mass nouns refer to nouns that exist in a whole such that they cannot be separated into various component parts: collective nouns refer to groups of persons or
things: weather nouns refer to condition of weather: kinship nouns refer to family relation in African contexts: and value nouns refer to sums of money.
2.2. Verbs

A verb is a word that tells what a person or thing does or experiences. Webster (1961: 2542) defines a verb as:
"a word belonging to that part of speech that characteristically is the grammatical center of predicate and express an act. occurence. ot mode of being that in various languages is inflected for agreement with person and number of the subiect for tense. for voice. for mood or for aspect and that typicaliy has rather full descriptive meaning anct characterising qualities but in some cases devoid of such meaning and quality especialiy used as an auxiliary."

From the above definition therefore. the verb is the center of the predicate. Ihis is because a predicate cannot exist without a verb. If a predicate has just one element, it must be the verb.
10. The child
subject
slept

Predicate.

This is also true of $N g i e$ where a predicate can be made up of the verb only.
11. mô
jók
1 eat
: 1 ate'
subject Predicate
from the above example, it can be seen that the predicate has only the verb. In Ngie like in English. if other elements are to be added to the predicate they should be obiects, complements and adverbiais. this will be illustrated in the examples that follow using 's' for subiect.' $p^{\prime}$ for predicate. ' $O$ ' for object. ' $C$ ' for complement and ' $A$ ' for adverbial.
12. a) mà jòk nämās

| 1 |
| :---: |
| $(s)$ eat orange |
| i ate orange |

b) $\bar{u}$-nė mbî boัnう water are good. (s) (v) (c)

```
    'water is good'
    c) mâ čōmつ àkin
    1 sit here
    !1 sat here
```

A single verb in Ngie．like in English．can make a complete sentence．Whis is evident in situations of command．

13．a）くらmら！
Sit：
b）têm：

Stand！

In Noie，the infinitive verb always starts with an i－prefix and this verb can either be monosyliabic or disvilabic word．
14. a) Monosyllabic verbs.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \overline{1}-n \bar{u} m \quad \text { to take' } \\
& \text { i-zうn 'to fight' } \\
& \text { i-jab 'to eat' } \\
& \text { i-nù 'to go' } \\
& \text { I-pø 'to tear. } \\
& \text { } \bar{i}-\bar{c} a ̀ \text { 'to sená' } \\
& \text { i-kàt 'to hang' } \\
& \text { M-bak 'to appear: } \\
& \overline{\mathrm{i}}-\mathrm{k} \overline{\mathrm{u}} \quad \text { to diei }
\end{aligned}
$$

b) Disvllabic Verbs.

innārà
$\overline{\mathrm{i}}-\mathrm{b} \vec{\varepsilon} \mathrm{r} \vec{\varepsilon}$
$\overline{1}-m \bar{a} t \vec{a}$

These verbs can be grouped into open and close svilables. An open syilable verb is one that ends with a vower. A close syilable verb is one that ends with a consonant. In Ngie, some monosyllabic verbs are open syllable and all disyllabic verbs are open svilabie isee 14 a.b:

When a morphological process takes place in the verb with the deletion of the infinitive marker. the verb changes from the infinitive to the imperative form. This deletion
sads to the insertion of some sounds at the end of some verbs and then．to a change in tone in monosyllabic verbs． Hミnce，a change in tone only takes place after the insertion o：sounds has taken place．The sounds inserted are iol，fal， ast fal．lhey are inserted at word final position after［nf． I：［pl and Tkl．These consonants become voiced with the －＇sertion of the above mentioned vowels．There are certain ponnologicai rules governing this change in sound（see cronter 3）．Below is a tabie to show the change in tone and tha change in sounds．
$15 \quad$ Table
In：initive imperative verbs in English．

| I－rim | nům | take！ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\overrightarrow{1}-6 \overline{3} \times \vec{a}$ | nära | speak！ |
| $\overline{\mathrm{I}}-2 \mathrm{n}$ | $23 n$ | buy： |
| T－E | cá | send： |
| i－0． | pó | tear！ |
| －－z－ | z5n－5 | fight！ |
| $\overline{\mathrm{i}}$－keo | $k \bar{a} b \bar{a}$ | search！ |
| －－bak | b̄⿹丁口－亏 | appear！ |
| $\vec{i}-\mathrm{k}$ | kú | die！ |
| $\overline{1}$－mà ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | $m \vec{a} t \bar{a}(m \bar{a} \cdot \vec{a})$ | finish！ |

### 2.2.1 Tenses of the verb

Verbs in Noie can be conjugated into the present, the past and the future tense. Tenses in this Ianguage are marked by:

1) Pre-verbal morphemes
2) Verb inflections
3) Tones
4) Adverbials of time.

Adverbials of time play a very important role in specifving time especially with the future tense which has oniv one marker in Ngie.

In illustrating the various tenses in Naie. the agglutinating method of word formation wili be used. (see 1: 4). In the examples that follow. some words will be consisting of two or more morphemes. this method will be used alongside with the analytic and synthetic methods of forming words. (see 1: 4)

In order to make a clear distinction between tenses therefore, the same verbs will be used in various sentences to show the tenses. The two verbs to be used in these sentences are : ibin' (to dance) and 'inù (to go).
2.2.1.1. The present tense.
16. Timeless present
i) They always go home $\bar{u}-m b \hat{i} \quad$ kà $n \bar{u} \quad \bar{u} n \bar{u} ?$ They-are always go home
17. Present progessive
i) They are going home.

They-are-go home.
2.2.1.2. The future Tense.
18. He will dance this afternoon.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\overline{\mathrm{u}} \text {-wi-bin } & \text { à-ka } \\
\text { He-wilídance this } & \text { evening. }
\end{array}
$$

### 2.2.1.3. The past Tense.

19. a) Kecent past.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { l danced this morning. } \\
& \text { mâ-bin } \bar{a}-k a ̀ \text { fáàb } \\
& \text { l-dance this morning. }
\end{aligned}
$$

b) Kemote past
d danced last week.
mà-bin ā-kà z $\bar{f} \quad$ čigi
1-dance week that past

```
Apart from the examples illustrated above. these verbs can
also be used in imperative and interrogative sentences.
```

20. a) Imperative sentences.
i) Stand and lext us go:
tém mbà núà
stand we go
(i) Dance and sit here:

dance come sit here
b) Interrogative sentences.
i) Is Ako still dancing?
a-ko mà bùgà bin n-à
Ako be still dance
ii) Ls he just arriving?
ù-mə̀ pīn à-k̇ kirinè
he be arrive this now.

### 3.2 Adjectives

Adjectives are words that tell something about a
noun. In most cases adjectives modify nouns. This is evident in Ngie as illustrated below.
21. a) $\bar{a}-k \check{e}$, wà sà

Ake is tall
b) mô i $\overrightarrow{\mathrm{I}}$ dwi bānā b̄n

1 steal dress red the
' I have stolen the red dress'
;

Adiectives in $N g i e$ start with consonants and in most cases. they are either monosyliabic or disvilabic words. Even though these adiectives start with consonants, they sometimes carry prefixes depending on their context. In most cases. they bear the prefix of the nouns they modifv. Hence. these adiectives can either have an i-, a-. or u- prefix depending on the prefix of the noun. This can be illustrated with ' red' which is 'bà".
22. bàn
mê bàn?
1 red
"Am 1. light in complexion:"
23. $\bar{a}-k a ̄ n \bar{a}-b \bar{a} n-\bar{a}$
pan red
; Red pan'
$\bar{i}-k \check{n}_{n} \bar{i}-b \bar{a} n-\bar{a}$
bean red
' ked bean'
24. $\bar{u}-k \check{n} \bar{u}-b \bar{a} n-\bar{a}$
bed red
, Ked bed'

Again, when these adjectives are modifying nouns.
most of them either axry an i- or a- suffix depending on the adiectives. The suffixes are inserted afteriti and fni. This is evident in 'ban' (red) which becomes 'ban-áand fit (black) which becomes 'fir-i.

The insertion of these suffixes also bring about
some phonological changes in some words. Hhis is evident in the fact that some voiceless consonants become voiced with the insertion of these vowels. There is 'fit' which becomes 'fir-i.' lhis comes about as a result of the fact that Ngie. like anv other languages, has phonological rules it follows in the formation of its words. some of these rules
will be discussed in chapter 3.
since adiectives use the prefixes of the nouns they modifv. the same prefix can be a singular and a plural morpheme depending on the nouns the adjectives are modifying. Hence, in Ngie, adjectives agree in number with the nouns they modify.
25. a. i) $\overline{1}-k o n \overline{1}-b \bar{a} n-\bar{a}$
bean red
'red bean'
i i) $\bar{i}-k \dot{n}$ i-bān- $\bar{a}$
beds: red (pl)
' red beds'
b. i. $\bar{a}-n a ̂ m ~ \bar{a}-b \bar{a} n-\vec{a}$
lamp red
"red lamp';
ii. $\bar{a}-k j n \bar{a}-b a ̄ n-\bar{a}$
beans red (pi)
'red beans'
c. i. $\bar{u}-k o ́ n ~ \bar{u}-b \bar{a} n-\bar{a}$
bed red
'red bed'
ii. $\bar{u}-b \bar{n} \bar{u}-b \bar{a} n-\bar{a}$
farms red (pl)
'red farms'

Although in most cases adiectives follow the nouns they modify, there are still a few cases where adjectives also precede nouns.
26.a. ū-nūn ù-bàmà ola (pl) bags
'old bags'
b. $\grave{a}-k a ̀ m ~ \ddot{u}-c ̌ a ̂ w$
large mouth
' large mouth'
c. $\bar{a}-n \grave{\partial}$ ə $\bar{a}-s \bar{\jmath} n$
smelling teeth

Unlike in English where there are many adjectives describing colour. in Noie. there are only three: red. white and biack. Hence. black inthis language will include green. purple and blue. ked will include pink and orange colours finallve anvthing yeliow is considered white.
2.4. Adverbs

Adverbs are words that give more meaning to verbs. adjectives and other adverbs.
27. a. The sky is beautifully clear
b. He moves smartiy.
c. He talks very slowly.

These adverbs ilike most words in Ngie start with prefixes. These prefixes can either be i-. a-. or $u$-. Here are some adverbs in Ngie and the way they
function in sentences:
28. a. $\bar{a}-$ nán ${ }^{\prime}$ high $h^{\prime}$
$\bar{u}-m \bar{b} \hat{i} \quad \bar{a}-n a ́ n ~ a ̀-g i n ~ \bar{u}-f \bar{b}$
they are high in air
'they are high in the air'
b. $\overline{\mathrm{u}}-\mathrm{tu} \mathrm{k}$ ' year'
mâ bin à-kø̀ $\bar{u}-t u ̄ k$
1 dance this wear
'L dance this year'
c. $\overline{1}-\mathrm{va} \mathrm{t}$ ' side '
$z a ̈ \supset \bar{a}$ i-yàt
'come sideways'

Adverbs are limited in Ngie compared to nouns. verbs and adiectives. Irrespective of this. there are also adverbials of time in this language. Some of them include:

```
\overline{a}-k\overline{a}c\overline{u}n 'today'
à-súgé .. 'tomorrow'
i-kà 'week'
u}\mathrm{ -mák 'month'
```



```
29.a.\vec{u}-wi-jek \vec{a}-k\vec{c}c\vec{u}n
    he-will-eat today
    'he will eat today?
    b. \overline{u}-wî-j\overline{`}\mp@code{a}-\mathrm{ súgé}
    he-will-eat tomorrow
    'he will eat tomorrow'
    c. \overline{u}-wi-i\overline{a}k \overline{a}-kà zin mè-zä>a
    he-will-eat week that be-come
    'he will eat next week'
    d.\overline{u}-wi-z\overline{a}>\overline{a}}\quad\overline{i}-myiri, \overline{u}-mó
    he-will-come end month
    'he will come at the end of the month'
    e. mê-zá?á u
    1-come year last
    'I came last year'
```

All adverbs in Noie form part of the open class of lexical items in the language. This is because new items can be added to them. One of the methods by which this can be done is through reduplication.

### 2.5. Keduplication

Keduplication is a morphophonological process whereby words are formed by doubling part or an entire word. It is a situation where some strings of words, a consonant, a vowel, one or more syllables, a stem or a whole word may be repeated to provide some particular meaning to the word in process.
30.a. One syllable reduplication (Andrew Spencer 1991) Agta (Marantz 1982:439)
bari 'body' barbari-k-in 'my whole body'
takki 'leg' taktakki 'tegs'
ulu 'head' : ululu : 'heads'

Here. it is either the first CV or CVC which is reduplicated, and the reduplicating affix appears at the right of the base. ' $C$ ' will refer to the consonant while $V$ refers to the vowel.
b. Root reduplication

Ngie:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { annio 'ant' } \\
& \text { àninaj } \quad \text {, ant } t^{\prime}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \overline{\mathrm{u}} \text {-nł 'ants' } \quad \dot{\mathrm{u}}-\mathrm{nq} \mathrm{n} \dot{\mathrm{q}} \text {. ants' } \\
& \text { i-kwèn 'millipede } \quad \text { i-kwènkwèn 'millipede' }
\end{aligned}
$$

Here, the base is made up of two morphemes. a prefix and a root. 1 t is the root that is reduplicated. Hence, it is a situation of partial reduplication. The reduplicant appears at the right of the base.
c. A whole word reduplication:

Ngie
;

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { i-ráp "palm trees' } \overline{1} \text {-rábī-ráp 'full of palm trees' } \\
& \bar{u}-n e e^{\prime} \text { water' } \bar{u}-n e ́-\bar{u}-n e e^{\prime} \text { full of water } \\
& \bar{a} \text {-tow 'head': } \quad \bar{a}-t \partial W \text {-taw 'has a big head' } \\
& \overline{\mathrm{I}} \text {-bák 'holes; } \overline{\mathrm{I}} \text {-bág } \overline{\mathrm{I}} \text {-bak 'full of holes: }
\end{aligned}
$$

With this one, it is the whole word that is reduplicated and the movement is to the right of the base.

The reduplicated words may have an idiosyncratic meaning as found in (30c) above. This means that the melodic material may have meaning that is different from the meaning of the base. This applies to example (30c) because the nouns reduplicated become adiectives having meanings that are different from those of nouns.

Hence. reduplication is both partial (see $30 a, b$ ) and complete (see 30c). It can take place to the right of the base as a suffix, to the left as a prefix and inside the base as an infix (Andrew spencer 1991:156). These characteristics vary from language to language. Below are some examples to illustrate the above mentioned characteristics of reduplication taken from spencer's work.
31. a. Kedupiication $x$ inside the word (Spencer 1991)

Classical Greek (Zukova 1980:42-3)

| alofa | a-lo-lofa | :love |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| maliu | ma-li-liu | die: |
| nofo | no-nofo | strike |
| moe | mo-moe | sleep |

From the examples above, it is "lo", "1i". "no" and "mo" that have been reduplicated. These reduplicated segments are found inside the word. That is why the morphemes formed by this process are called infixes.
b. Reduplication to the right. palan Koryak ( Zukova 1980:42-3) wiru wiru-wir 'seai fine jine-jin 'mist' mota mata-mat 'fat

For redupiication to the right, the reduplicated string moves to the right of the base as shown above.

The tones of the reduplicate may be similar or different from those of the base.

Ngie
a) Cases with similar tones

| i-ráp | 'palm trees' | $\bar{i}-\gamma a ́ b \bar{i}-r a ́ p$ | 'full of palm trees' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| sú | 'fish' | súsư | 'full of fish' |
| $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$-nè | 'water' | u-nė w-né | 'full of water' |
| dwi | 'clothes' | dwi dwi | 'full of clothes.' |

b) Cases with different tones.

| $\overline{\mathrm{I}}$-sì | 'to keep ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | $\overline{\mathrm{i}}$-sin $\mathrm{w}-\mathrm{si}-\mathrm{y}$ | 'to keep fast |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1-kวัn | 'toplant' |  | to plant fast |
| $\overline{-2} 2 \mathrm{n}$ | to buy |  | 'to buy fast |

In most cases, reduplication leads to resyllabification of words. Kesyllabification will be a situation where two or more words are pronounced as one and the end of one serves as the beginning of the other. Below are some examples from Noie.
 $\bar{a}-s \bar{n} n-\bar{a}-s \bar{\jmath} n \quad-\cdots \bar{a}-\operatorname{a} \bar{n}: n \bar{a}-: s \bar{o} n \quad$ full of teeth' $\bar{a}-z \dot{\varepsilon} r \vec{a}-z \dot{\varepsilon} t \quad-\quad \bar{a}-z \hat{\varepsilon}: r \bar{a}: z \dot{\varepsilon} t \quad$ too much'
from the examples above. the coion $1: 1$ shows the various syliables that each word contains. Hence. the end of one word serves as the beginning of the other.

## CHAPTEK 3

## 3. Keduplication As An Aspect of Ngie

As earlier mentioned, reduplication is a morphophonological process where words are formed by doubling part or an entire word. This type of affixation sometimes leads to a change in meaning of the words. Keduplication is therefore a morphological. a phonological and a semantic process.

This reduplication activity varies from language to language. In some languages, it occurs in verbs, in some it occurs in adjectives and/or adverbs, while in some, it occurs in nouns.

In Ng ie, reduplication takes place in nouns, verbs, adiectives and adverbs. Keduplication in this language is both partial and complete and the movement is to the right of the base, forming suffixes.


### 3.1 Partial Reduplication in Ngie

Partial Keduplication deals with the repetition of part of the word either to the right or the left of the base.

Although partial reduplication exists in Ngie, it is used in a limited number of words. It is an aspect that occurs only in nouns and it is used in the naming of certain animals. Both the singular and the plural nouns are reduplicated. Some of the words reduplicated by this means include:

> A
> $\begin{aligned} & \dot{a}-n \dot{\prime} \quad \text { ant } \\ & \dot{u}-n \dot{f} \quad \sin ^{i}\end{aligned}$
> à-ij :
> 1-kwën 'millepede (s)'
> 1 -dö: toad(s) -dö" do'! $\operatorname{toad}(\mathrm{s})$.

1t is the root that is reduplicated and the reduplicant appears at the right of the base. the meanings of words remain unchanged after reduplication. This is because the words that were first created in the language were the reduplicated words. Then, as time went on with the evolution of the language. speakers of Noie began to reduce the reduplicated segment as shown in ' $A$ ' above. In any case, the meaning of the words remain unchanged. Hence. instead of

```
saying 'à-nünù', some of the speakers will say' à-nù'.
Since the un-reduplicated forms were unpopular amongst these speakers. they were used ondy when the things referred to were mresent during their conversation. In any case as time went on, ali speakers became used to these two forms and they can now be used at any time.
```

3.2. Complete Kedupiication in Ngie.

Complete reduplication is very common in Ngie. This complete reduplication occurs when a whole word is repeated to give some particular meaning to the word in process. In Noie it occurs in the open class of lexical items. It is both a morphophonological process as well as a semantic process.

## ;

3.2.1. Complete Keduplication As A Morphological process in Ngie.

Morphology deals with the formation of words. $1 t$ deals with how morphemes combine to form words.

In Noie, reduplication is an affixation process wherebv a word is formed through a repetition of the whole word. The base is repeated and the movement is to the right, forming suffixes. Hence, new words are formed through the use of two or more morphemes. The suffixes formed through
this means bring about a change in meaning and word class in nouns

3）$\overline{1}-x a ́ p$＇palm trees＇$\overline{1}-$ ráb $\overline{1}-r a ́ p$ full of palmtrees＇

$\bar{u}-t$ aw＇headsi $\quad \bar{u}$－taw táw full of heads＇
$\bar{a}-t \dot{w}{ }^{\prime} h e a d s{ }^{\prime} \quad \bar{a}$－táw təw $\quad$ has a big headi

```
from these examples．nouns change into adiectives． performing the function of adjectives in sentences isee 3．3．2）
1n verbs，adjectives and adverbs．reduplication leads to a change in mood．
```

```
4) kon 'plant' kon\\-kon-i 'plant fast'.
```



```
    nうm :hot: nうmī-nうm-i :very hot:
```



```
    \overline{a}-jim 'back' \overline{a}-jim \overline{a}-jim "backwards'
```

3．2．2．Complete Keduplication as a phonological process．

Phonologically，reduplication is handled by a set of rules which have the effect of copying the base to the right，forming suffixes．There is therefore no arbitrary grouping of words in Ngie，since these words are
reduplicated, respecting the phonological rules of the language. That is why during the reduplication process, many phonological activities take place and these include:
a) kespect of the syllabic structure of the language. This is seen in the fact that word structures which do not exist in the language are not imposed during the reduplication process.

For instance, there are no vowel ciusters either in the beginning or the end of the word and this is respected during reduplication. This is evident in verbs where fil is prelinked at the word final position of the reduplicant. but when this $\lceil i\rceil$ comes after a vowel, it changes in to a $i y$. this is to avoid a distortion in the language since there are no vowel clusters at the end of the word.
$*$
5) sil-si-i --> siy-si-y 'keep quickly'


čā-čài $\quad \rightarrow$ ç čáy-c̆â-y $\quad$ send quickiy ${ }^{\prime}$

It is important to note here that fil does not
change at word medial position. This makes the resyllabification of words to be possible: this is a very common ohenomenon during reduplication.
ii) Again, the sound system of the language is respected.
for instance, some voiceless sounds become voiced after reduplication. these sounds include $[t],\lceil p\rceil$ and $[k]$.
6) -jək ---> jəgī-jag-i 'eat fast'

T-bək ---> $\overline{\mathrm{i}}$-bag $\overline{\mathrm{i}}$-bäk $\quad$ full of holes'
$\bar{a}-z \bar{\varepsilon} t \quad-->\bar{a}-z \bar{\varepsilon} r a-z \varepsilon \bar{t} \quad$ ' too much'
iii) keduplication does not only end with the melodic material. It extends to the activities of the tones and this can only be analysed phonologically. for instance. in nouns and adverbs, tones are copied alongside the melodic material, but in verbs and adjectives while some tones are copied. some are not. This is illustrated in the data that follows.
*
3.2.3. Complete Keduplication as a Semantic Process in Ngie

Semantics deals with meaning. Its importance, as far as reduplication in $N$ ie is concerned varies, according to the various word classes. In nouns, the suffixes formed bring about a change in meaning (see 3). In verbs, adverbs and adiectives, these suffixes add more meaning to the word in process. (see 4).

Generally, complete reduplication in $N$ ie is used for emphasis, comparison and exaggeration. The importance

```
of each of these aspects varies according to the various
word classes.
    Hence, reduplication is a phonological, morphological
and a semantic process with the importance of each of these
processes varving according to the various word classes.
    For the treatment of this reduplication in Ngie,
data have been collected. These data have been divided and
treated according to the various word classes. This
division is based on the number of words in each class
and the syllabic nature of each of the classes.
```


### 3.3. Keduplication in Nouns

Keduplication is a very common phenomenon at this
level. $1 t$ occurs in both nouns and noun phrases.
in most cases, it is the plural noun that is reduplicated, although there are a few cases where both the singular and the plural forms of the noun are reduplicated, depending on the context.

Keduplication in nouns moves to the right of the base forming suffixes. The formation of these suffixes bring about a change both in meaning and in word class.

At this level, tones are copied with the melodic material. Keduplication in nouns sometimes leads to the resyllabification of words.

Keduplication in nouns is therefore a semantic, a
phonological and a morphological process and it will be analysed from these perspectives.
3.3.1. Data of Complete Keduplication in Nouns.

In order to ease an understanding of this work, a set of data has been collected. This data will be divided first into nouns and noun phrases and then, into syllables. Hence. the first three data are data of simple words, while the last is that of noun phrases. prefixes and suffixes are not considered during the syllabic division.
3.3.1.1. Data of Monosyllabic Nouns.
Words Keduplication Meaning
Ngie English Ngie Engiish

| bâ | people | bâbâ | full of people. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| su | fish | súsú | full of fish. |
| bi | palm nuts | bibi | full palm nuts. |
| $\mathrm{b} \overline{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \mathrm{w}$ | dogs |  | full of dogs. |
| nวิก | hair | nôn nôn | full of hair. |
| dwi | clothes | dwi dwi | full of clothes. |
| kwi | maize | kwi kwi | full of maize. |
| bùgi | goats | bưgi bùgi | full of goats. |
| bét | war | b ¢ t bet | warlike. warfare |


| nî | animals | กิิ n ¢ | full of animals． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| jew | bees | jớw jốw | full of bees． |
| $\overline{1}$－ráp | palm trees | i－ráp i－ráp | full of palm trees． |
| $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$－ k 万n | beans | ā－kőn $\bar{a}-k o ̋ n$ | full of beans． |
| $\overline{1}$－w ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | firewood |  | full of fire wood． |
| $\stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\mathrm{a}}$－b $\overline{\boldsymbol{x}}$ | kola nut | $\bar{a}-b \bar{x} \quad \bar{a}-b \bar{x}$ | full of kola nut． |
| i－nàn | birds | ィ－nə̀n i－ṅ̀n | full of bircis． |
| $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$－né | water | $\bar{u}-n e e^{\text {u }}$－né | full of water． |
| ū－nâm | Iamps | ū－nâm ${ }_{\text {un }}$－nâm | full of iamps． |
| I－bak | holes | 了－bág $\overline{\mathrm{i}}$－ba゙k | full of holes． |
| $\overline{\mathrm{u}}-\mathrm{s} \bar{\varnothing}$ | pepper | प̄sǿ $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$－sǿ | full of pepper． |
| $\bar{u}-$ nát | Oil | ū－nàt $\bar{u}$－nát | full of oil． |
| $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$－kun | crabs |  | full of crabs． |
| u－káp | money | u－káb u－káp | full of money． |
|  | vams |  | full of yams |
| ā－nゞm | men | $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$－ $\mathrm{n} \overline{\mathrm{c}} \mathrm{m} \overline{\mathrm{a}}$－n亏̄m | full of men |
| $\overline{\text {－bûm }}$ | stomach | I－bûmi－bûm | has a big stomach |
| ù－c̆áw | mouth | u－c̆əw－čaw | has a large mouth |
| 1－ton | navel |  | has a big navel |
| $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$－k亏̄n | tail | $\bar{u}-k \bar{\square} n \bar{u}-k \bar{\square} n$ | has a long or big tail |
| $\stackrel{a}{a}-b a ́ n$ | breast | ā－bánā－bán | has big breasts |
| à－nőm | blood | ā－námā－nám | full of blood，bloody |
| $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$－sōn | teeth | ä－sōnā－sōn | has many teeth |
| à－táw | head | ā－tówā－tıw | has a big head |
| $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$－taw | heads |  | full of heads |
| 1－k5n | tails | $\overline{\mathrm{i}}-\mathrm{k} \overline{\mathrm{J}} \mathrm{n} \overline{\mathrm{i}}$－k亏 n | full of tails |

### 3.3.1.2 Data of words with two or more syllables

| words |  | Keduplication | Meaning |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Ngie | English | Ngie | English |
| ù-kwèbà | lizards | ù-kwèbà ù-kwèbà | full of lizards |
| 1-Sø゙ ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | alligator- |  | full of |
|  | pepper |  | alligator pepper |
| ù-nwèrè | potatoes | $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$-nwèrè w-nwèrè | full of potatoes |
| ù-nwànà | books | un-nwànã w-nwànà | full of books |
| u-futi | sacks | $u$ ufuri $\quad w-f u ̀ r i$ | full of sacks |
| $\bar{u}-t$ án ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | irons | $\dot{\bar{u}}-\operatorname{ton} \dot{i}$ w-tan $\hat{i}$ | full of iron |
| ù-bàmi | bags | u-bàmi w-bàmi | full of bags |
| à-bànà | hatred | à-bànà w-bànà | full of hatred |
| İrá"'à | Ioy * |  | full of joy |
| ùkàsirà | cassava | ù-kàsirà w-kàsira | full of cassava |
| ù-nảmàsi | oranges | u-námàṣi w-námàsi | full of oranges |

### 3.3.1.3 bata of noun phrases

$s u ̈ i-z u ̀ \quad$ fresh fish sü $y-z u ̀ s \dot{u} y-z u ̀ \quad f u l l$ of
dwi $\overline{1}-b \bar{a} n \bar{a}$ red clothes dwi y-bānādwi y-bānā full of
red clothes

| $\bar{u}-z \bar{q}{ }^{\prime \prime} \bar{u}-\mathrm{f} \dot{\mathrm{u}}$ | white yams |  | full of |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | white yams |
| i-nàn $\mathbf{i}$-fir-i | black birds | i-nàn $\overline{1}$-fír-i $\mathfrak{i}$-nàn $\overline{1}$ | ifull of |
|  |  |  | black birds |
|  | big trees |  | full of |
|  |  |  | big trees |
| $\bar{a}-k o ̋ n ~ \grave{a}-z \bar{u}$ | fresh beans |  | full of |
|  |  |  | fresh beans |

### 3.3.2 Data Analysis.

After glancing at the data, the most obvious question will be whether the movement of reduplication is to the left or to the right of the base. Many factors will account for this.

First, the fact that this reduplication is a complete reduplication and there is no difference between the structures of the two words makes it difficult for the direction of movement of the reduplicant to be determined.

Again, the melodic material has been copied alongside the tones so that there is iust no way one can determine the direction of movement from the tones.

Moreover, there are no preassociated morphemes at any section of the reduplicant, neither are there any sounds motivated by the syllabic template of the reduplicant to determine the direction of movement.

In any case, this is a difficult question to answer. To say that the movement is to the right of the base because the rest of the reduplicated words in Ngie move to the right of the base will not be convincing to many linguists because the reduplication activity varies with word class and in some cases, it even varies with the words.

Again, some people will argue that, since in the rest of the work, suffixes do not bring about a change in meaning. it is most likely that the movement is the left of the base forming prefixes which bring a change in meaning in these nouns.

Well, the answer to this question is clear. In Ngie, there are no words consisting of more than one prefix. Again. nouns that start with consonants are assumed to have a ø-prefix. Since all nouns in this language have prefixes, and there are no cases of words having two or more prefixes, it is obvious that the movement of the reduplication is to the right of the base forming suffixes. This then can be supported by the fact that the rest of the reduplicated words in this language shift to the right of the base.

In most cases, it is the plural form of the noun that is reduplicated, though there are a few cases where both the singular and the plural can be reduplicated depending on context. Ihis concerns mostly the names of the various parts of animals (see 3.3.1.2). 1his reduplication of singular nouns takes place in simple words. In noun
phrases, it is the plural forms of the words that are reduplicated. (see 3.3.1.4).
semantically, complete reduplication in nouns leads to a change in word class. When a noun is reduplicated, it loses its qualities as a noun and assumes those of an adjective. This is true in that these nouns can neither be the subject nor the object of a sentence.

```
7.a. i) \overline{-nōm }\overline{a}-\gamma\overline{\jmath}}\textrm{mb}\hat{a
    men the are here
            "The men are here'
    ii) *\overline{a}-n\grave{m}\mp@code{a}-n\overline{\jmath}m \overline{a}-\gamma\overline{\partial} mb\hat{`}
                men men the are here
            *' rull of men are here'
    b. i) u
    oil are red
        'oil is red'
    ii) *\overline{u}-nát \̄-nát mbà à-bàn-à
    oil oil are red
    *'rull of oil is red'
```

    c. i) mô-jàk \(\bar{u}-\mathrm{s}\).́
    1 eat pepper
    '1 ate pepper'
    ii) \(*\) mâ-jàk \(\overline{\mathrm{u}}-\mathrm{s}_{\mathrm{i}}\)
        \(\overline{\mathrm{u}}-\mathrm{si}\)
    1 eat pepper pepper
    *' 1 ate full of pepper \({ }^{\prime}\)
    Hence, instead of functioning as nouns, these nouns function as adiectives.

```
४.a. \overline{a-sin a}
    place the only people people
    'the place is full of people'
    b. \overline{a}-b\dot{a} \overline{a}-táw táw \overline{ab}u\mathrm{ wa u}\\mathrm{ ù u}
    only head head with person this
    'this person has a big head'
```

Therefore, the 'bâ $b \hat{a}^{\prime}$ and $\bar{a}-t \hat{a} w$ tôw are used to describe the 'place' and the 'person' respectively.

Again, just as there are no words that are meaningful outside context in most languages, so too are the reduplicated words in Ngie, For example, $\vec{a}-b \vec{e}$ àb $\vec{e}$ may mean 'to be full of kola nuts' (in a place where only kola nuts have been planted or kepti. It may also mean ' to be dominated by kola nuts' (in a situation where these kola nuts have been planted or kept with other things). This aspect exists in
 will mean 'to be dominated by fresh beans' or 'to be full of fresh beans' depending on the context.

Keduplication in nouns is used for comparison, emphasis and exaggeration. This is evident in the use of $\bar{a}-b \bar{a}$ (only) in all the contexts in which the reduplicated words appear. This "only" means solely or alone.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 9.a. } \bar{a}-b \bar{a} \text { u}-n e \bar{a}-n \bar{a}{ }^{\prime} \\
& \text { only water in house } \\
& \text { Ithere is only water in the house }
\end{aligned}
$$

In Ngie, when "only" comes immediately before reduplication in a sentence, it does not necessarily stand for "solely" or "alone."

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\text { 10. b. } \bar{a}-\bar{b} \text { à } \bar{a}-t a ́ w ~ \bar{a}-t a ́ w ~ \bar{a} b \bar{u} \text { wâ ùn } \\
\text { only head head with person this } \\
\text { 'this person has only } a \text { head' }
\end{array}
$$

The above sentence in Ngie means that the head is what makes the person, but, we know that there is no person who is made up of on $1 \begin{aligned} & \text { y }\end{aligned}$ a head. Hherefore, only is used to emphasize the size of the head in comparison with the other parts of the body. To a native speaker of Ngie, the rest of the body is insignificant when compared with the head of that person. Keduplication, therefore, does not only exaggerate, but it is also used as an abuse especially when comparing parts of the body.

In any case. it is not in all cases where
reduplication is used that there is the aspect of exaggeration and abuse.
11. $\bar{a}-b \bar{a} \quad \overline{1}-r a ́ b \overline{1}-r a ́ p ~ \bar{a}-s \overline{1} n \bar{a}-\gamma \bar{a}$ only palm palm place the trees trees
'the place is full of palm trees'

This sentence may mean that the whole place is full of palm trees in a place where only palm trees have been kept or planted.

Phonologically, there are some alternations between voiced and voiceless sounds. for example, fbl alternates with $\{p\rceil$ and $[k]$ alternates with $[g]$. The liquid [r] also alternates with [t]. The nouns with these alternations are verv few.
12. i-bák 'holes'

$$
\overline{\mathrm{I}} \text {-bág } \overline{\mathrm{I}} \text {-bák 'full of holes' }
$$

$$
\text { i-rap tpalm trees } \bar{i} \text {-rab } \bar{i}-r a ́ p \text { full of palm trees' }
$$

$$
\bar{u}-k a ́ p \text { 'money } \quad \bar{u}-k a ́ b \bar{u}-k a ́ p \text { 'full of money' }
$$

$$
\bar{u} \text {-nát oill } \quad \bar{u}-n a ́ r ~ \bar{u}-n a ́ t ~ f u l l ~ o f ~ o i l l ' ~
$$

There are two possible rules to account for the alternation between $\{b \mid$ and $\{p \mid$.

$$
\text { (1) } p \rightarrow b / v-v
$$

This rule states that $/ p /$ becomes fbl intervocalically.
(2) b --> p / --\#

This rule says that $/ b /$ becomes $[p]$ at word final position. In fact. these two rules are not all correct. The following are some words in Ngie which have [p] at intervocalic position:
13. i-pä 'to tear'
i-pà' ' cloud'
$\overline{1}-p a a^{\prime \prime} \quad$ 'bat'

Therefore, the first rule does not apply in all situations in Ngie. The second rule is therefore correct because lbl does not appear at word final position in any word in Ngie. It always appears at ford initial and medial positions.

```
14. ä-bön 'farm'
    i-b\overline{i} 'palm nut'
    a-b\overline{@ ' kola nuts'}
    bâ 'people'
    bsw 'dog'
```

Hence. the first rule got from the data is:

$$
b-->\text { p } /--\#
$$

The rule in distinctive features will be:
-son

- cont
+ant $\quad \rightarrow->\lceil-v d\rceil / \cdots \#$
- Cor +va

Again. there are two possible rules for the alternation between $\lceil g\rceil$ and $\lceil k\rceil$.
(1) $\mathrm{k} \rightarrow->\mathrm{g} / \mathrm{v}-\mathrm{v}$

The rule states that $/ k /$ becomes $\lceil\mathrm{g} \mid$ at intervocalic position
(2) g $->\mathrm{k}$ / --\#

The rule states that $/ g /$ becomes $[k]$ at word final position.

Again. there is a problem with the first rule. This is because there are many words in $N g i e$ having $\{k\rceil$ at word intervocalic position. Some of these words include:

```
15. ü-k\hat{n}n 'message'
    1-kon 'beds'
    i-kwi ' maize'
    i-kùn 'nest'
```

The second rule is therefore correct because there is no word in Ngie having [g] at word final position. Instead, it is $\lceil k i$ that always occurs at word final position.
16. $\mathrm{u}-z \overline{\mathrm{a}} \mathrm{k}$ : 'cloth (to carry a baby)'
i-niak 'sheep'
$\overline{\mathrm{i}}$-ibk 'food'

Therefore, the rule is:
g --> k / --\#

The rule in distinctive features reads:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& -\operatorname{son} \\
& -\operatorname{con} t \\
& +h i \\
& +b k \\
& +v d
\end{aligned} \quad->\mid-v d i /--\#
$$

As is the situation with the other alternations. there are also two possible rules for the alternation between $[t \mid$ and fri:
(1) $t \rightarrow r / v--v$

This rule says that /t/ becomes [r] at word intervocalic position.

```
(2) r --> t / --#
```

This rule says that $/ r /$ becomes $[t]$ at word final position.

The first rule cannot be correct because $\lceil t \mid$ appears in many contexts at intervocalic position.
17. i-tà 'friend'
à-tŏn 'ear'
ä-taw 'head'
à-tùn 'grasshopper'
$\overline{\mathrm{i}}-\mathrm{t} \mathbf{u} \quad$ 'wine'

Therefore, the first rule is wrong. The second rule is correct because, even though we find frl at intervocalic position, there is no situation where one can find this [r] at word final position in Ngie.

Hence, the rule is:

$$
r-->t /--\#
$$

In distinctive features, this rule will be:

```
+son
-nas
-lat -vd
+cor ---> -cont / -- #
+cont -son
```

This $\lceil r\rceil$ that alternates with $\lceil t\rceil$ is underlyingly/a/. The reason is that $f d]$ and $[r]$ are in complementary distribution when we compare the environment in which the two sounds appear. Although they both appear at word medial position, the environment in which they appear are different. This is shown in the data below.
18. a. $\bar{a}-d \hat{1}$ '' 'smoke'


From the data above, two rules can be established:
(1) d $-\rightarrow$ r / CV -

The rule says that /d/ becomes $[$ I $]$ when it follows a consonant and a vowel sequence.
(2) $\mathrm{r} \rightarrow \mathrm{d} / \mathrm{V}-$

The rule says that /r/ becomes [d] when it follows a vowel. In any case, it is the first rule that is correct. This is because $\lceil r \mid$ and $\lceil t\rceil$ do not form a natural class of sounds. Hence. frl underlyingly is /d/ with the rule:

```
d --> r / CV --
```

The rule in distinctive features will read:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text {-son } \\
& \text {-nas } \\
& \text {-lat } \\
& +\operatorname{cor}-->+\operatorname{con} t / \mathrm{C} V--- \\
& - \text { cont }+ \text { son } \\
& +v d
\end{aligned}
$$

Since it is fdl that changes into frl, the following words having $|r|$ will be represented underlyingly as follows:

```
19. \overline{a}-fir-i:
    \overline{a}-z\hat{\varepsilon}r\overline{a}-z\hat{\varepsilon}t: f\overline{a}-z\hat{\varepsilon}d\overline{a}-z\tilde{\varepsilon}t/1too much'
    màrã: \ /mādá/ 'finish'
    kärá: /kādäl !hang'
    ü-nárū-nàt: /\overline{u}-nád u
```

Hence, the alternation between $\lceil r \mid$ and $\lceil t\rceil$ can be considered as the fd and ftlalternation. Hence, the rule that will account for this alternation will be:

$$
\mathrm{d} \rightarrow \mathrm{t} / \mathrm{-} \text { \# }
$$

This rule in distinctive features will be:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& -\operatorname{con} t \\
& - \text { son } \\
& - \text { nas } \\
& -\operatorname{cor} \\
& +v d \\
& -1 a t
\end{aligned} \quad-->[-v d] /--\quad \#
$$

Hence, the alternation between $[t\rceil$ and $[d\rceil,\lceil k]$ and $[g]$, and finally $\lceil p l$ and $[b l$ can be merged into one rule called the Devoicing rule. This rule stated in distinctive features will be:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& -\operatorname{son} \\
& -\operatorname{con} t \quad-->\quad\lceil-v d\rceil /--\# \\
& +v d
\end{aligned}
$$

Keduplication in Ngie also Ieads to gidding. Ihis is evident in that some vowels become consonants as a result of this type of word formation. There is $\left\lceil u_{i}\right\rceil$ which becomes $\mid \mathrm{wl}$ in the following words:
$\dot{u}$-kwèbaù -kwèbà $\rightarrow$ ù-kwèbawkwèbà $\quad$ fuli of lizards" u-nwèrè̀-nwèrè $\rightarrow$ ùnwèrèwnwèrè "full of potatoes" ù-nwàn à ùnwànà $\rightarrow$ ún-nwàn
"full of books".
A rule to account for this phonological change can therefore be:
$u \rightarrow w / v-$
This rule states that $\lceil u\rceil$ becomes $\lceil w\rceil$ when it follows a vowel.
In any case, this gliding does not end with redupilcation. There are still many words in Ngie which still have this aspect of gliding.

Some of these words include:


Therefore, the rule stated above is incomplete. $1 f$ we take the words noted above into consideration, we will discover that gliding does not only occur when $\lceil u l$ follows another vowel. Hence, another rule has been developed, which is as follows:

$$
u \quad \rightarrow \quad \mathrm{w} / \mathrm{Vo} \text { Co }-\cdots \text { vo }
$$

This rule states that $\Gamma$ ul becomes $[$ wi when it is preceded by a vowel or when it appears intervocallically, or when it appears between a vowel and a consonant. This rule in distinctive features will be:

```
+son
-cons -back - [ - SyIl T +cons T / vo.co-- vo.
+high
+rd
+vd
```

From the rule therefore, we discover that gliding takes place when $[$ ul is either preceded or follow by a vowel.
Hence, we can simplify the rule to be as follows:

```
u -> w / v-
    -v
```

This rule states that $\lceil u\rceil$ becomes $\lceil w]$ when it is either preceded a followed by a vowel. The rule in distinctive features will be:

```
+son
-cons -> +syll / v-
+back +cons & -v
+high
+rd
+vd
```

Apart from the gliding stated above, there is also gliding where $[i]$ becomes $[y]$, as is evident in the words below.

sūi-zù $\quad->$ sûyzù
More of these examples will be seen in verbs.
A rule that can be established from these examples will read as follows.
i $\rightarrow$ y / v-
This rule states that $[$ i] becomes [y] when it is preceded by a vowel.in any case, this rule is incomplete because like ful, fil also glides in other environments as shown below. ingìzi $\rightarrow$ ingyと̀y "pig"
àiē $\quad \rightarrow \bar{a} y \bar{e} \quad$ " woman "
Hence. the rule stated above is incomplete. A complete rule will then be as follows.
i $\rightarrow \mathrm{y}$ / vo co -- vo.
This rule states that [i] become $\{y]$ when it appears either intervocally or when it appears after a vowel or when it appears between a vowel and a consonant.
Like the ful gliding rule, this rule can be simpified as follows:
i $\rightarrow$ v/v-
$-\mathrm{v}$
This rule states that $[$ ul becomes 1 wi when it is either preceded or followed by a vowel.

The rule in distinctive features is:

```
tson
-cons -> +cons v-
-back -syII -v
-mid
+high
-rd
+vd
```


## CHAPTER

4. Reduplication in verbs, Adiectives and Adverbs

It is complete reduplication that takes place at the above-mentioned levels. Like in nouns the reduplicating affix appears at the right of the base forming suffixes. These suffixes bring about a change in mood. Hence. like in nouns. reduplication at these levels is a morphological, a phonological and a semantic process.
in order to illustrate this, sets of data have been collected and analysed according to the various word classes beginning with verbs.
4.1.1 Keduplication in Monosyllabic Verbs
*

It is the imperative verb that is the base during reduplication. this is because when the infinitive marker is deleted in verbs, these verbs undergo certain changes to take the imperative form. (See 2.2). Therefore these forms appear as the base during reduplication.

These imperative verbs consist of monosyllabic and disvilabic words and they will be analysed from this perspective. Hence, the data on verbs has been divided into two parts: monosyllabic and disyliabic verbs. prefixes and suffixes are not considered during the syllabic division.


| n $\bar{a}>-\bar{a}$ | give | $n \bar{a} ?-\bar{a} y-n \bar{a}>-\bar{a}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | give quickly

4.1.2 Keduplication in disyllabic verbs

Words Reduplication Meaning
Ngie English Ngie English

from the data above. the reduplicant in monosyllabic and disvllabic verbs always has a pre-associated sounds at the word initial position. These sounds are fil and iy 1 . Again, all monosvilabic verbs without suffixes also have these same sounds associazed at their word final positions.
from the Iata, one finds that iil and $Y y \mid$ appear at different envizonments. While lil appears immediately after consonants, 「xT appears immediately after vowels, both at
word final position. Therefore, these two sounds are in complementary distribution. In order to find the underlying sound, two possible rules can be used

1) $\mathrm{y}--\mathrm{c}$ i/ $\mathrm{C}-\mathrm{-}$.

This rule states that iyT becomes $\lceil i\}$ after a consonant.
2) i. ---> y/v---

This rule states that iil becomes $\overline{\text { Y }}$ i after a vowel at word final position.

In Ngie, vowel clusters are not very are not very common. Therefore, the second rule applies to the language more than the first. Therefore, it is fil that is pre-associated at word final and word initial positions of the reduplicant.
since vowel clusters are not common in $N$ ie, whenever an iil comes after a vowel,it changes into a 「y†. This pre-associated vowel at word final position of the reduplicant occurs oniy in monosyllabic verbs without suffixes.

Apart from the alternation between $[i 1$ and $[y]$, some consonants also alternate. There is an alternation between〔b| and $\lceil p\rceil,\lceil k\rceil$ and $\lceil g\rceil$, and finally, $\lceil r\rceil$ and $\lceil t\rceil$. This alternation comes about as a result of the fact that this language respects certain phonological rules. One of such
rules is the devoicing rule which states that voiced consonants become voiceless at word final position (see 3.3.2). This applies to these alternations because they are all voiced sounds becoming voiceless at word final position. some words affected by this alternation include:

```
1.Sán -.> sábi-sab-i 'sharpen quicklyi
    iak --> jóg\-jóg-i ; eat quickly"
    tát --> tarif-tár-i !lie quickiy'
```

In Ngie, iust as an imperative verb can form a complete sentence (see 2.2 ), reduplicated verbs can do the same. but this occurs only when these verbs are still in the imperative form.


```
    run run
        'run'
    b. tém ìtém-i
    stand stand
        'stand'
```

Unlike in imperative verbs where such sentences are used in a situation of command. the above sentences serve as exhortation to the subiect.

These verbs can also be preceded by nouns.

3．a．à－kò，n亏r戸y－n亏r戸
Ako run run
＇Ako，hasten＇
b．$\dot{a}-k \grave{e} k \vec{a} r-\bar{a} \quad y-k \vec{a} r-\vec{a}$
Ake hang hang
＇Ake，hang it！＇

The above examples are used in a situation of
command．
it is possible to use these verbs in interrogative sentences．When they are used in such sentences，there is alwavs some elements of surprise．

he be still eat eat
＇is he still eating？${ }^{i}$
b．ù－mè bùgè pín $\overline{\mathrm{l}}$－pin
he be still arrive arrive
＇is he just arriving？${ }^{\text {i }}$

Apart from the examples mentioned above．these verbs can be used in the future and in the past．

When they are used in the future，there is always an aspect of comparison．Here，you forgo one thing for another．
S.a. à-wi ji $\overline{1}-j \hat{i}$ àācù

I will steal steal today
'L will prefer to steal today'

1 will sit sit tomorrow
l will prefer to sit tomorrow

From the above examples. when jipil (to steal) is used, it is in comparison with some other thing. it may be, in the past, the speaker has either been begging or borrowing. Hence, he is saying that, instead of doing that, he will steal.

These verbs too can be used in the past.
6. a. $\dot{u}-m \bar{\partial}$ núi-n $\hat{u}-y$
he be go go
'he has just gone'
b. ù-mè pinñ-pin-ín
he be arrive arrive
'he has just arrived'

Hence, apart from the fact that these verbs cannot occur in the present, they occur in both past and future situations. They are also used in imperative and interrogative sentences as shown in 3,4 .

Although it is the imperative verb that is reduplicated, an infinitive reduplicated verb can then be
derived through the insertion of the infinitive marker at word initial position of reduplicated words．The tones of the words also change：

Here are some reduplicated imperative verbs changed into infinitive reduplicated verbs：

7．Table

| Keduplicat | a verbs | Meaning |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 mperative | Infinitive | English |
| $b e \dot{1}-b \bar{e}-y$ | $\vec{i}-b \bar{e}-y-b \bar{e}-y$ | to put to birth fast |
| bini－bin－i | $\overrightarrow{1}-b \overline{1} n \vec{i}-b i n-i$ | to dance fast |
| sうī－sj－y | I－s戸－y－sら－y | to suck fast |
| nûmī－núm－í | $\bar{i}-n \bar{u} m \bar{i}-n \bar{u} m-i$ | to take auickly |
| ça $\overline{\mathrm{l}}-\mathrm{c}$ á -y | $\overrightarrow{1}-\bar{c} \bar{a} y^{2}-\check{c} \bar{a}-y$ | to send auickly |
|  |  | to eat fast |
| sábī－sáb－i | $\overline{1}-s \bar{a} b \bar{i}-s a b y-i$ | to sharpen quickly |
|  | 1－z5n－5y－z5n－5 | to fight auickly |
| $k \vec{a} r-\vec{a} y-k \vec{a} r-\bar{a}$ | $\vec{i}-k \bar{a} r-\vec{a} y-k \bar{a} r-\bar{a}$ | to hang auickly |
|  |  | to run fast |
|  | $\overline{1}-b \overline{\overline{3}} \mathrm{~g}-\overline{\bar{\partial}} \mathrm{y}-\mathrm{b} \overline{\overline{3}} \mathrm{~g}-\overrightarrow{1}$ | to appear quickly |
| $\bar{c} \bar{a} b-\bar{a} y-\bar{c} \bar{a} b-\bar{a}$ | $\overline{1}-\bar{c} \bar{a} b-\bar{a} v-\bar{c} \bar{a} b-\bar{a}$ | to protect fast |
| $k \bar{a} b-\bar{a} v-k \bar{a} b-\bar{a}$ | $\overline{1}-k \bar{a} b-\bar{a} y-k \bar{a} b-\bar{a}$ | to search auickly |

1t is important to mention here that apart from the insertion of the infinitive marker, the melodic material remains unchanged. Hence, those verbs that have vowels inserted at their word final positions when changed from the infinitive form to the imperative form remain the same. Here are some examples from the data to illustrate this:
8. Tabie
verbs
Infinit.lmper. Imperative lnfinitive English
 $\bar{i}-k \bar{a} t \quad k \bar{a} r-\bar{a} \quad k \bar{a} r-\bar{a} y-k \bar{a} r-\bar{a} \quad \bar{i}-k \bar{a} r-\bar{a} y-k \bar{a} r-\bar{a}$ to hang fast
 $\bar{i}-k a ̀ p k \vec{a} b-\bar{a} k \bar{a} b-\bar{a} y^{*}-k \bar{a} b-\bar{a} \quad \bar{i}-k \bar{a} b-\bar{a} y-k \bar{a} b-\bar{a}$ to search quickly
 $\overline{1}-\bar{c} a p \quad \bar{a} \bar{a} b-\bar{a} \quad \check{c} \bar{a} b-\bar{a} y-\check{c} \bar{a} b-\bar{a} \quad \bar{i}-c ̌ a b-\bar{a} y-c \bar{a} b-\bar{a}$ to protect fast $\bar{i}-n a ̀ ? \quad n \bar{a}>-\vec{a} \quad n \vec{a}>-\vec{a} y-n \vec{a}>-\bar{a} \quad \bar{i}-n \vec{a}>-\vec{a} y-n \bar{a}>-\vec{a}$ to give quickly

Like the imperative reduplicated verbs, the infinitive reduplicated verbs can also be used in sentences as shown below.


```
    to eat eat is it thing any
    'just to eat. is it any thing?'
```



```
    to run run is it work anv
    `iust to run is it any job?'
```

Like in nouns, the melodic materials in verbs have no meanings outside their contexts this is illustrated in the examoles above. Again, there is no instance of gliding, vowel deletion or vowel coalescence:

The : i' that appears in the reduplicate is a morpheme and it is used for emphasis. There is also another type of redupiication in verb where the same word is repeated several times without the ' $i$ ' morpheme.

Examples
words
Keduplication
Meaning

Noie
English
Ngie
English


4.2. Reduplication in Adiectives

48

As earlier mentioned, it is complete reduplication that takes place in adjectives. The reduplfcated affix appears at the right of the base, forming suffixes, this reduplication occurs in both monosyllabic and disyllabic words as seen in the data below.

### 4.2.1 a) lata of redupiication in monosylfabic words

Words
Ngie English
strong
soft
bù
nうั
fù white
hot
zèn clean
nün old
bàn red
sà tall
fit
zùm dry, pale
bz bad
nàm
w

Keduplication
Ngie
$k \dot{a} \ddot{1}-k \dot{a}-y$
$b u ̀ \bar{i}-b \bar{u}-y$
nうmī-nóm-1
fù $\overline{1}-f u ̈-y$
$z \dot{\varepsilon} \eta \overrightarrow{\mathrm{I}}-2 \dot{\varepsilon} \eta-i$
nưn $\overline{1}-$ nün-i
bàn $\overline{1}$-bán-i
$s \dot{a} \overline{1}-s \dot{a}-y$
firi-fir-i
$z u ̀ m \bar{i}-z u ̄ m-i$
$b \ni \overline{1}-b a-y$

$W \tilde{\varepsilon} \hat{1}-w \hat{\varepsilon}-y$

Meaning
thatish
very strong
very soft
very hot
really white
veryclean
very old
very rea
very tall
very black
verydry, pale
verybad
verysweet
veryintelligent
4.2 .1 b）Data of reduplication in disyllabic fords
Words
Neie knglish
kàmà
kjkj fat
nimi nasty
nùgè $\quad$ bitter
fùgè rotten
dうtう dirty

Reduplication
Ngie
kàmà $\overline{\text { an }}$－kámá
kうkうごーkらkう
nimi $\bar{i}-n i m i$
nùgè i－núgé
fùgè－fugé
dうtう $\overline{1}-\mathrm{dóto}$

Meanines
Enclish
yery smart
yeryfat
yery nasty
very bitter
seriously fotten
very difty

4．2．2．1ata Analysis

Monosyllabic adjectives like monosyllabic yerbs have pre－associated morphemes at word initial and word final positions of the reduplicantwi］and $[y]$ are pre－associated at word initial position and also at word final position of these reduplicants．
fyl and fil alternate at these two positions．While fil occurs at this position after consonants，fyfoccurs at this same position after vowels．Hence，the two sounds are in complementary distribution．Hence，two possible rules can be used to find the basic sound：

1) $\mathrm{y}--\mathrm{P}$ i/r---\#

The rule states that fyl becomes fil after a consonant at word final position.
2) i $--\gg$ y/v---\#.

This rule states that $\lceil i\rceil$ becomes $\lceil y\rceil$ after a vowel at word final position.

As seen in 4.1 .2 , there are no vowel clusters at word final position in Ngie. Pherefore, it is obyious that it is lil that becomes fyTafter vowels at word final position. Ihis is evident in the fact that it is the same「il that is pre-associated at word initial position of the redunlicant.

Apart from the $\lceil i 1$ and $\mid y\rceil$ alternation, $[r]$ and $\lceil t\rceil$ also alternate in:
fit black' and firi-fir-i very black'

This is as a result of one of the phonological rules in Ngie whereby some voiced sounds become voiceless at word final position. 'lherefore, voiced $\lceil r]$ becomes voiceless [t] at word final position. (See 3.3.2)

Keduplication in adjectives adds more meaning to the
words in process. The function of these words in a sentence does not change as shown below.
10.a. i) $\overline{\mathrm{a}}-\mathrm{ke}$ wà sà

Ake is tall
'Ake is tall' $\quad$ ?

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\text { ii) } \vec{a}-k e ̀ \text { wà sài-sá-y } \\
\text { Ake is tall tall } \\
\text { Ake is very tall' }
\end{array}
$$

b. i) wâ à $-\gamma \grave{a}$ wà wè
man the is intelligent
'the man is intelligent'
ii) wâ à $-\gamma \grave{a}$ wà wè $\bar{i}-w \hat{\varepsilon}-v$
man the is intelligent intelligent
'the man is very intelligent'

In Ngie, it is not ondy an adjective in its original form that is reduplicated. Adiectives having the prefixes of the nouns they modify can also be reduplicated as shown below.
words
Naie English

Kedupiication

Naje

Meaning

English

| $\bar{a}-b \bar{a} n-\bar{a}$ | red one(s) | $\bar{a}-\bar{b} \bar{n}-\bar{a}-b \bar{a} n$ | the red one(s) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\bar{u}-b \bar{a} n-\bar{a}$ | red one(s) | $\bar{u}-b \bar{a} n-\bar{u}-b a ́ n$ | the red one(s) |
| $\overline{1}-\mathrm{b} \overline{\mathrm{a}} \mathrm{n}-\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ | red one(s) | $\overline{1}-b \bar{a} n-1-b \bar{a} n$ | the red one(s) |
| $\bar{a}-\mathrm{fir}-\mathrm{i}$ | black one(s) | $\bar{a}-\mathrm{fi} \mathrm{r}-\mathrm{i}-\mathrm{fit}$ | the black one (s) |
| $\bar{u}-\mathrm{fir}-\mathrm{i}$ | black one (s) | $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$-fir-j-fit | the black one(s) |
| i-fir-i | black one(s) | i-fir-i-fit | the black one(s) |
| T-čùn | good one (s) | $\overrightarrow{1}$-čùn $\overrightarrow{1}$-čun | the good one(s) |
| $\bar{a}-c ̌ u n$ | good one(s) | $\bar{a}-\bar{c} u$ un $\bar{a}-\mathrm{c}$ un | the good one(s) |
| $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$-çun | good one(s) | $\overline{\mathrm{u}}-\mathrm{c} \mathbf{u} n \mathrm{u}-\overline{\mathrm{c}} \mathrm{u} \boldsymbol{n}$ | the good one(s) |
| $\bar{u}-k \dot{E}$ | big one (s) | $\overline{\mathrm{u}}-\mathrm{k} \hat{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{n}$ ¢ $\mathrm{u}-\mathrm{k} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathrm{n}$ | the big one(s) |
| $\overline{1}-\mathrm{k} \varepsilon \underline{n}$ | big one(s) |  | the big one(s) |
| $\bar{a}-k \dot{\varepsilon} n$ | big one (s) | $\overline{\mathrm{a}}-\mathrm{k} \dot{\varepsilon} n_{m} \overline{\mathrm{a}}-\mathrm{k} \dot{\varepsilon} n$ | the big one(s) |

From data 4.2.2.1. above one can see that 's' is embracketed at the end of each meaning in tnglish, This is to show that adjectives in Ngie function both as singular and plural and the singular or plural form cannot be determined outside context. The reason for this is that adjectives use the prefixes of the nouns they modify and these adjectives also agree in number with these nouns. (see 25, 26). Although there is a pre-associated iil at word
initial position of the reduplicant of all adiectives, and at word final position of monosyllabic adjectives, (see 4.2.1.a,b) adiectives having the prefixes of the nouns they modifv do not have this morpheme, Instead, these adjectives are redupi icated alongside the prefixes as shown in data 4.2.2.1. The vowels that are inserted at word final position of some of the adiectives are not reduplicated during this process of reduplication.

Althoumh in data 4.2 .1 a,b, reduplication is used for emphasis, in data 4.2 .2 .1 , reduplication is used for comparison.
11. wâ $\grave{a}-x \grave{\partial}$ wà $w \hat{\varepsilon} \overline{1}-w \dot{\varepsilon}-y$
man the is intelligent intelligent
'the man is very intelligent'
12. $\dot{a}-n a ̀ n \quad \bar{a}-f i r-i-f i t$
cocoyam black black
'the black cocoyam' w While wé-wと-y 'very intelligent is used to emphasise the intellect of the man, $\dot{a}-f i r-i$ afit the black one' is used in comparison to either the red or the white cocovam. Hence, reduplication at the level of adjectives is used both for comparison and for emphasis.
initial position of the reduplicant of all adjectives, and at word final position of monosvilabic adiectives. (see 4.2.1.a,b) adiectives having the prefixes of the nouns they modifv do not have this morpheme. Instead, these adjectives are reduplicated alongside the prefixes as shown in data $4.2 .2,1$. The vowels that are inserted at word final position of some of the adiectives are not reduplicated during this process of reduplication.

Although in data 4.2 .1 a,b, reduplication is used for emphasis, in data 4.2 .2 .1 , reduplication is used for comparison.
11. wâ $\grave{a}-\gamma \grave{a}$ wò wè $\overline{1}-w \varepsilon ́-y$
man the is intelligent intelligent
'the man is verv intelligent'
12. $\bar{a}-n a ̀ n \quad \bar{a}-f i r-i-f i t$
cocoyam black black
'the black cocoyam' $\quad$ '
While w $\dot{\varepsilon}-w \dot{\varepsilon}-\mathrm{y}$ 'very intelligent' is used to
emphasise the intellect of the man, a-fir-i afit the black one' is used in commarison to either the red or the white cocoyam. Hence. reduplication at the level of adjectives is used both for comparison and for emphasis.

4．3 Keduplication in Adverbs．

As aforementioned，it is complete reduplication that takes nlade in adverbs．Like in nouns，verbs and adiectives．the redunlicant appears at the right of the base，forming a suffix．
since adverbs are very few in Ngie the following data of seven words have been collected to illustrate reduplication at this level．

4．3：1 Data of reduplication in adverbs

| words |  | Reduplication | Meaning |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Naie | tnglish | Ngie | English |
| $\vec{a}-n^{\prime}+n$ | high | $\bar{a}-n \div n \quad \bar{a}-n \nmid n$ | higher |
| $\bar{a}-\bar{c} u n$ | below |  | below |
| $\overline{\mathrm{a}}-\mathrm{i} 1 \mathrm{~m}$ | back | $\overline{\mathrm{a}}-\mathrm{jim} \overline{\mathrm{a}}-\mathrm{jim}$ | backward |
| i－vàt | side | i－yàr $\overline{1}$－yàt | sideways |
| a－kうつら | up | a－kうつら－kj？ | unward |
| $\dot{a}-s{ }^{\text {e }}$ | down | $\underline{a}-s \grave{e}-s \dot{e}$ | downward |

4．3．2．Data Analysis．

Keduplication in adverbs do not lead to a change in word class．Instead，it adds more meaning to the word in process．

Again like in nouns, verbs and adjectives, there is an alternation between $\{r \mid$ and $|t|$
14. T-vat 'side'
$\overline{1}$-yàri-vat 'sideways'
This is a phonological process whereby voiced $\{r\}$ become voiceless $\mid$ t at word final position. (see 3.3.2.) Keduplication in adverbs neither leads to a change in meaning nor does it lead to a change in word class, lnstead, it adds more meaning to the word in process. that is why the adverb and the melodic material can still appear in the same context.
15.a: ča $\bar{a}$-náa
send high
'send it high'
b. с̈a $\quad \bar{a}-n+n \quad \bar{a}-n^{\prime}+n \quad 2$
send high high
' send it higher'
16. a. núm $\overline{1}$-yat
take side
'take it by the side'
b. nứm $\overline{1}$-yàr $\overline{\mathbf{1}}$-vàt
take side side
'take it sideways'

## CHAPTER 5

## 5. GENERAL CONCLUSION

Keduplication is a process that affects the open class of lexical items in Noie. $1 t$ affects nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. Both partial and complete redunlication take place in this language, and it is a phonological, a morphological, and a semantic process.

Phonologically, reduplication leads to the resyllabification of words. Kesyllabification is a situation where two or more words are pronounced as one and the final consonant in one word serves as the onset of the first syllable in the following word. this is illustrated in chapter 3.

Again, there is an alternation between $\{1\rangle$ and $\mid y]$. This is due to one of the two phonological rules in the language whereby if becomes $|y|$ at word final position after a vowel.
a) i $-{ }^{\text {a }}$ y/v—\#

This rule in distinctive features is:


Apart from the above mentioned alternation, there is also an alternation between some voiced and some voiceless sounds. The consonants $\{t|,|k|$, and $| p \mid$ alternate with $\{x \mid$, [g], and $f b\rceil$ respectively, In any case, it should be noted that $\lceil r\rceil$ underlyingly is $\lceil\mathrm{d}\rceil$. ihis is because $\lceil\boldsymbol{l} \mid$ becomes Trl after a consonant and vowel sequence.
b) $d \rightarrow->$ r/CV--

The rule in distinctive features is:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& -\operatorname{cont} \\
& +\mathrm{vd} \\
& -\operatorname{son} \\
& -1 a t \quad \quad-->\quad+\operatorname{son} \quad \text { / } \\
& +\operatorname{cor} \\
& - \text { nas }
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore, since thev are all voiced sounds that
become voiceless at word final position, a rule known as the devoicing rule was proposed. According to this rule, voiced consonants become voiceless at word final position
c) $\lceil+v d\rceil \rightarrow \quad[-v d\rceil /--\#$

C

His rule in distinctive features will be:

+ cons
- cont
- son $-\rightarrow \quad\lceil-\mathrm{vd}\rceil / \quad--\#$
$+\mathrm{vd}$
With these three rules, it will be possible to find
the phonetic representation and the underlying
representation of any word from the data. Hence, ten words have been chosen from the data to illustrate this. Whese words include:

| 1) | ják | 'eat ${ }^{\prime}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2) | 1-xáp | 'palm trees' |
| 3) | i-bâk | 'holes' |
| 4) | $\bar{u}-z \dot{a} t$ | 'trees' |
| 5) | $\vec{u}-k a ́ p$ | 'money ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |
| 6) | $\bar{a}-z-\bar{\varepsilon} t$ | 'much' |
| 7) | $\mathrm{fir-i} y-f i r-i$ | 'very black' |
| $8)$ | sju-sらy | 'suck fast' |
| 69) | táari-táar-í | ${ }^{\prime}$ lie quickly' |
| 10) | 口f́y-ptoy | 'tear fast' |

These words will be derived following the order of the rules below:

1) Devoicing rule:
$\underset{\mathrm{c}}{\lceil+\mathrm{vd}\rceil}-\lceil-\mathrm{vd} \mid /--\#$
2) [d] and [rlalternation rule:
$\mathrm{d} \rightarrow \mathrm{r} / \mathrm{CV}-\mathrm{C}$
3) Devocalization rule:
a) i $\rightarrow$ y / v-
b) u $\rightarrow$ w / v-

In the following derivations, 1 have ignored the tonal
rules: the tones that are in the underlying representation are not necessarily right as 1 have not looked at this aspect of tone in any great depth.)

Derivations (a):

| words | jabk | i-ráp | 1-bák | ü-zát |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| UK | /jäg/ | /i-ráb/ | /i-bàg/ | /b-zad/ |
| Devoicing: | k | $p$ | k | t |
| d/r alternation | --- | --- | --- | --- |

## Pk

|ják| |ī-ráp| |ī-bák| |ū-zát|
words
UK

Devoicing：
$\mathrm{d} / \mathrm{r}$ alternation Devocalization PK
$\bar{u}-k a ́ p \quad \bar{a}-z \dot{\varepsilon} t \quad$ fix－iv－fir－i ／ $\bar{u}-k a b / / \bar{a}-z \varepsilon d / / f i d-i \bar{i}-f 1 d-i /$

## p $-\cdots$

－－－－－－
$\cdots \cdots$－－－．．


Derivations（c）：
words
UR
Devoicing：
d／r alternation Devocalization PR

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { sjó-só-y táti-tár-i pry-pry } \\
& \text { /sら̄-sら-i/ /tadi-tad-i/ /otiobi-i/ }
\end{aligned}
$$

$\qquad$
r r
$\mathrm{y} \quad \mathrm{y}$


Jones are copied alongside the melodir motritat in nouns and adverbs．In verbs and adjectives．whes are not copied in a number of words and they are copled ：irbers． Whis is illustrated in chapters 3 and 4 ．

Morphologically，the reduplicant apocai：fothe right of the base forming suffixes．this happens th both partial and complete reduplication．These sutitan do ob bring about any change in meaning in partial watication．

In complete reduplication while these suffixes biant about a change in meaning and word class in nouns. in adiextives. adverbs and verbs. there is neither a chanme in mannills mor in word class. Instead, the reduplicant adds more meaning. to the word in process as shown in chapter 4 . Heses. reduplication is also a semantic process.

Therefore, both partial and complete reaupidoation take piace in the language. vartial reduplication axists in a limited number of words, and it affects only ine founs. Complete reduplication is very common in wn lanpudat and it affects the four classes of words that form the opeit ciass of lexical items.
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