THE PHONOLOGY OF LOANWORDS IN EJAGHAM

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF A POST GRADUATE DIPLOMA « MAÎTRISE » IN LINGUISTICS

By

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DEDICATION

In everything, give thanks to God.
This work is dedicated to
the Lord almighty who gave me the strength,
courage and determination to go through it.
And to my Dad and Mum
Abel Ojong and Emilia Ojong
for bringing me forth into the world.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

An academic work of this nature could not have seen the light of day without many people contributing in one way or the other.

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I am much indebted to my lecturers in the Department of Linguistics who have imparted the knowledge of Linguistics in me. At this moment I think of lecturers like Dr. Ogwana John, Dr Tamanji Pius, Dr. Nseme Cledor, Dr. Gratiana Ndamsa, Dr Sadembouo Etienne, and Dr Mba Gabriel. To you all I say thanks because this knowledge was applied throughout this study.

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Florence, Loh Christopher, Vernyuy Francis, Beatrice Ekanjume, and Akumbu Pius.

I am equally grateful to my brothers Besong, Akot, Mbeng, Oben, Ebot, Eteck, Ayuk, and my sister Manyo for the care they gave me each time I went to spend some time with them. To them, I wish God’s richest blessings.

My deep appreciation also goes to my uncle Mr. Moses Besong and his wife Diana Besong, who did their best to see that I don’t work with-a hungry stomach. Their moral support to the work cannot be underestimated.

In this work, the importance of friends such as Amina Abdul, Guy-Merlin Ngankou, Kenant Marie-Theárese, Gilbert Banboye and Unji John cannot go unnoticed. To you I say you have been wonderful.

I also extend a word of thanks to Madame Jackie for typing out this work, as well as my informants whose names I have mentioned in the methodology.

For those whose names I have forgotten, they are not the least left out. To you all I would say I am much indebted. Thank you for your contributions. May God richly bless you.
List of abbreviations and symbols

C : Consonant
V : Vowel
ø : Zero
/ : Context / environment
= : equal to
[ ] : Phonetic transcription
// : Phonemic transcription
H / ' : High tone
L / ' : Low tone
m /- : mid tone
LH : Rising tone
HL : Falling tone
σ : Syllable
-> : Becomes / is realised as
#- : word initial position
# : word boundary
[-rd ] : unround
[+rd]: round
N : Syllabic Nasal
C₁ : Initial consonant
| : association lines
α : Alpha (place of articulation)
VL : Voiceless
Vd : voiced
UR : Underlying Representation
PR : Phonetic Representation
ATR : Advance tongue Root
Fo : The future tense
Pi : The past tense
Po : The present tense
[± cont] : Plus / minus continuant
[± strid] : Plus / minus strident
[± ant] : Plus / minus anterior
[± constr] : Plus / minus constrictive
* : not accepted
TBU : Tone Bearing Unit
UAC : Universal Association Conventions
SIL : Summer Institute of Linguistics
ed(s) : Editors
ALCAM : Atlas Linguistique du Cameroun
BUCREP : Bureau centrale de recensement et population.
CREA : Centre de Recherches et d'Etudes Anthropologiques
NACALCO : National Association of Cameroonian Language Committees
CERDOTOLA : Centre Regional de Documentation sur les Traditions Orales et les Langues Africaines
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CHAPTER I

General Introduction

No native speakers of any language can be proud of the absence of loanwords in their language. Yet, very often, native speakers and even researchers pay little or no attention to these loanwords. We think that loanwords constitute an important part in every language and as such they deserve a keen attention.

Ejagham speakers use loanwords which are borrowed from many other languages (English, Duala, Efik, Pidgin, etc). Despite the complex structure of words from these languages, loanwords that are adopted suit the syllable and word structure of Ejagham language.

To explain how this is realized, this piece of work has been divided into five chapters:

Chapter one introduces the reader to the location of Ejagham in Cameroon, the language, the theoretical framework, the methodology, the aim of the study, its scope and literature review.

Chapter two deals with some major phonological phenomena in the Ejagham language.

Chapter three talks about the phonology of loanwords in nouns both in their segmental and autosegmental representation.

Chapter four is concerned with the phonology of loanwords in verbs.

Chapter five gives a general conclusion on the phonology of loanwords in Ejagham.
I.1 Location of Research area

The Ejagham people are found in the Cross River basin in a continuous triangular territory with the towns of Calabar, Ikom and Mamfe at the three angles. The international boundary between Cameroon and Nigeria divides the territory into two parts.

In Cameroon, the Ejagham people are found in the Eyumojock Sub-division of Manyu division in the South West province. They are bounded in the North by the Anyangs, and Boki people, in the East by the Bayangs, in the west by the Ikom division of the Cross River State and in the South by the Baludu and Mbo people of Ndian Division, and Nguti Sub-division respectively.

The Ejagham ethnic-group is composed of three sub-groups. The Keaka sub-group is situated in Central Ejagham, the Ekwe Sub-group is located to the North-East sharing boundary with the Cross River State of Nigeria and the Obang Sub-group is found in the South sharing boundary with the Mbo and Balundu people.

The total population of this area stands at 27,115 according to the 1987 census. Source: BUCREP Yaounde.
I.2 The Ejagharn Language

The Ejagharn tribe got its name from lake Ejagharn. Many terms have been used to refer to the dialects or sub-dialects of Ejagharn: Ekwe, Eyafin, Keaka, Obang, Etung, Kwa. However, the most widespread term of self-reference is “Ejagharn” (with its variant “Ejagha”).

The root -jáyá occurs in more than one noun class. For instance, njáya refers to a person who speaks “Ejagha” and ajáya to many people who speak it. Because this term is the most widespread term of self-reference in the area of the language, in this study it will be referred to as Ejagharn.

The language has its own alphabet which consists of the sounds of the Ejagharn language. The following tables show sounds of the language according to their place and manner of articulation.

Vowels: The three main varieties of the Ejagharn language have three different systems. The EE variety has altogether eight vowels. Watters (1981) recognizes seven vowels with the exclusion of [e].

(1) *The Phonetic Vowel chart of Ejagharn*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Front</th>
<th>central</th>
<th>back</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>i</td>
<td>i</td>
<td>u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid High</td>
<td>e</td>
<td></td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid Low</td>
<td>e</td>
<td></td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(This chart is adapted from Watters 1981)
However, it is important to note that some vowels are conditioned by the surrounding consonant. For instance ɔ is realised as [ɔ] when it is the prefix of a root whose first root vowel is [+ high]; e.g. ə-fú > ə-fú “day”

The above vowel sounds can be attested in the following words in Ejagharn

\[
\begin{array}{ll}
(2) & i \ nî \ man \\
& i \ mbik \ goat \\
& e \ ŋgbè \ tiger \\
& u \ ékpá \ cane \\
& e \ ëlêm \ a \ kind \ of \ yam \\
& u \ òkùm \ juju \ (society) \\
& o \ njô \ dog \\
& ɔ \ ðzôk \ noise \\
\end{array}
\]

Some of these vowels are used as nominal prefix for various noun classes as illustrated in (3):

\[
\begin{array}{lll}
(3) & e-ûk \ root \ cl.5 \\
& ø-ûk \ roots \ cl.6 \\
& ø-kpiyf \ canoe \ cl.14 \\
& ø-kpiyf \ canoes \ cl.6 \\
\end{array}
\]

**Consonants:** Eastern Ejagharn has twenty three distinctive consonants; however this number increases if we add prenasalised consonants, such as mb, nd, ŋg, etc., which exist in the language.
The Phonetic consonant chart of Ejagham

Place of articulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Manner of articulation</th>
<th>Bilab</th>
<th>Lab</th>
<th>Den.</th>
<th>Alveo</th>
<th>Pal</th>
<th>Velar</th>
<th>Lab</th>
<th>Vel</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Plosive Vls</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>k</td>
<td>kp</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vd</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>g</td>
<td>gb</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fricative Vls</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>s</td>
<td>y</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vd</td>
<td>ß</td>
<td>z</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Africate Vl</td>
<td>Ć</td>
<td>j</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vd</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nasal Vd</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>ᵇ</td>
<td>ŋ</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre Nas Vd</td>
<td>mb</td>
<td>nd</td>
<td></td>
<td>ṷg</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stop</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liquids Vd</td>
<td></td>
<td>L</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trill Vd</td>
<td></td>
<td>r</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glides Vd</td>
<td>w</td>
<td></td>
<td>y</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


In this language no noun begins by a consonant. Most nouns begin by a vowel while a few by the syllabic nasal which, in such a case, is a prefix.

Complex consonants are also found to occur in the language but with restriction to the environment. We will be looking at them in relation to loanwords.
Tones: Ejagham makes use of a variety of tones. Both level and contour tones can be identified in the language.

The level tone

\[
\begin{align*}
/ & \quad H \quad \text{The High tone as in óká "mat"} \\
\backslash & \quad L \quad \text{The Low tone as in ònù "beauty"} \\
- & \quad m \quad \text{The mid tone in most cases is derived}
\end{align*}
\]

The contour tone

\[
\begin{align*}
\lambda & \quad HL \quad \text{The falling contour as in kò "take" (imperative)} \\
\nu & \quad LH \quad \text{The rising contour as in kà "give" (imperative)}
\end{align*}
\]

1.3 Dialects

Ejagham can be divided into three major dialects as follows:

- Western Ejagham (W.E) and its sub-dialect “Ekwe”
- Eastern Ejagham (E.E) and its sub-dialect “Keaka”
- Southern Ejagham (S.E) has been referred to as “Kwa”

These three dialects may be distinguished on the basis of phonological, morphological, and lexical differences. The most important are the phonological and morphological aspects. Certain consonant correspondences distinguish also the three dialects from each other as in Watters (1981).

This work will be based on the Eastern Ejagham sub-dialect, spoken in the Eyumojock sub-division of Cameroon. The speech forms are as used in eastern Ejagham or at least of the “Obang” area. Loanwords were collected as used by the speakers of this variety.
I.4 Language Family

Several classifications have been made for the Ejagham Language. Two of these classifications are those by Williamson (1971) and by Bennett and Sterk (1977). In this work we will adapt Greenberg’s Classification taken from ALCAM (1983). It shows that the Ejagham Language belongs to Zone 800 following the classification of languages.

This classification can be seen in the following genealogical trees
(5) The genealogical tree of Ejagham language following Greenberg’s classification of African languages

African Languages

Cameroonian Languages

The Niger Kordofan
  The Nilo Saharan
  The Afro-Asiatic phylum

The Niger Congo
  Sub-phylum

West Atlantic
  The Benue Congo
  The Adamawa-Oubangui family

Jukunoid
  Cross River
  Bendi
  Bantoid sub family

Sub family

The Bambiloid
  The Bantu branch

Jarawan
  Tivoid
  Ekoid
  Nyang
  Beboid
  Grassfield
  Mbam
  T. Equ.B sub

sub

branch

branch

Ekoid Dialects

Wester Ejagham
  Eastern Ejagham
  Keaka

Source: Adapted from ALCAM (Pages 69, 360)
1.5 Theoretical Framework

The theory used for this piece of work is largely the Standard Generative Phonology. This approach to linguistics was initially developed by Noam Chomsky in his *Syntactic Structures* (1957) and is known as Generative Grammar. The approach was used in syntax where he emphasized on the generation of surface structure of sentences from deep structures using transformational rules. Standard Generative Phonology was then developed in the highly influential work of *Sound Pattern of English* by Chomsky and Halle (1967).

This model is used in this work to show how underlying forms of loanwords are derived from the surface structures in a more convincing manner.

Although the generative approach dominates in this study, the descriptive approach is also used where necessary.

1.6 Methodology

As a native speaker of the language, the researcher was the source of some loanwords. A bulk of the data used for this study came from elders. For instance we had assistance from native speakers in the village such as Mr Daniel Arrey and his wife, Mr Zacharia Agbor, Mr Ojong Tobias, Mr Ojong Abel as well as Mr Tanyi Mbuagbaw of CABTAL Yaounde. These people were able to provide us with loanwords from African languages such as Efik, Duala, Igbo, Balondo and a few from German. Loanwords from these languages combined with those from English and Pidgin constitute the source of loanwords for our work.
I.7 Aim of the Work

When words are borrowed from one Language to the other, most, if not all undergo some phonological or morphological changes. The aim of this work is first of all to show the phonological and tonological changes that occur in loanwords in order to suit the Ejagham syllable and word structure.

This work also aims at proving that loanwords contribute a lot in the expansion of the Ejagham lexicon.

Lastly, it aims at creating an awareness in the minds of Ejagham native speakers who use loanwords without knowing they come from other languages.

I.8 Scope of the Work

The treatment of loans as a whole is vast and varied given the different types of loans that exist. We cannot pretend to handle all the aspects of loans in a work like this. We have therefore focused on the phonology of loanwords, especially those that have undergone phonological changes. We discovered that in terms of lexical categories, it is mostly the nouns as well as a few verbs that are borrowed. Adjectives and adverbs rarely become integrated. That is they often do not go beyond the morphemic mixing stage1.

---

1 Morphemic mixing refers to the use of morphemes from two languages within the same lexical item. Khati Thekiso (1985 P. 183)
1.9 Literature review

Linguistically, not very much has been done on the grammar and vocabulary of the Ejagham language. Few authors such as Tom and Elien Edmondson have written an article titled: *Some dialect shifts in Ejagham* published in CAMLANG (1971). In this article, they have collected and published a word list of various Ejagham dialects. Many of these words do not include tones. Others have worked on the classification of languages in this area, placing Ejagham as one of the Ekoid languages (see for example Guthrie (1962, 1971), Greenberg (1963), Williamson (1971), and Bennet and Sterk (1977)).

The most prominent writer on Ejagham, John WATTERS, has written articles and a dissertation on *The Phonology and Morphology of Ejagham*: with notes on dialect variation (1983). In his work, he brings out a reference grammar of Ejagham, its phonological units, morphophonology, morphology as well as some historical topics in Ejagham morphology. It would be important to note that in this work, he cites a few examples of loanwords in Ejagham from Efik and English, but he was neither concerned with the phonology nor morphology of the loanwords. The latter has also collected and translated some folk tales in the Ejagham language. He has translated the New Testament in the Ejagham language as well.

Many works have been done on the phonology of indigenous languages, but our work differs from them in that we are dealing with the phonology of loanwords in an indigenous language. So far, a similar topic has been treated by KENMONYE and CHUMBOW in an article: *Structures syllabiques et phonologie*
This article describes the mechanism or processes of the insertion of loanwords (nouns exclusively) in the Ghomala language. In part of our work, we adapted the latter's approach in order to show how strange segments get incorporated into the Ejagham language. We shall not only be dealing with loan nouns like the latter, but also loan verbs as well as loanwords from other African Languages.

In another article by Jan Knappert titled the Study of Loanwords in African Languages published by SIL, the author explains how loanwords which he styles as "travel-words" are carried across the continent of Africa.

Still in relation to loanwords, LEADING J. Velma has also written an article: Loanwords: ours and theirs which is published in READ Vol. 21 (1986). In it, the writer brings out the attitudes of the Aboriginal towards loanwords from English. He admits that all languages have borrowed words. Again, the phonology of the loanwords cited in the last two articles we have mentioned was not the area of interest of the writers.

However, the phonological aspects of loanwords which the above writers seem not to be concerned with, is what we are interested in.
CHAPTER II

SOME MAJOR PHONOLOGICAL PROCESSES IN EJAGHAM

2.0 Introduction

This chapter focuses on some phonological phenomena commonly attested in Ejagham. It is worth mentioning that these processes are those that are common with the Eastern Ejagham variety, given that the language has three major dialects that are distinguished by phonological, morphological, and lexical differences. We will start by bringing out the word structure and the various syllable types. This will be followed by the phonological processes. In each process we will bring out the necessary aspects such as the underlying tones and rules. This section of the work will help us to know about certain phonological processes that take place in loanwords which will be discussed in the subsequent chapters.

2.1 The Word Structure

We will look at the word structure of Ejagham as they are in nouns and verbs because they are the only lexical items involved in borrowing in this language.

For monosyllabic, disyllabic, and trisyllabic forms, nouns present a simple structure. That is: Prefix + Root
Verbs have only monosyllabic and disyllabic forms with the following shape
Prefix (Pr) + Root (Rt) + final vowel (Fv) (infinitive)

This simple word structure is also seen to occur in loan nouns and verbs as in (3).

However, most loans from English (nouns especially) whether monosyllabic, disyllabic, or trisyllabic have a zero prefix.

Example c) ø - zîŋ zinc
ø - mîfà meter
ø - mîsînjà messenger
2.2 The Syllable Structure

Words in Ejagham present different types of syllables, but the canonical shape of a syllable is CV. We shall look at the different types of syllables that could be found in a root in this language.

(4)  V:   à     he/she  
      CV: kò     take    
      CVC: làq    touch  
      CSV: e-gwí   comb    
      CSVC: n-kwik  corn   
      CCV: m-blí   leaf    

Looking at Ejagham loanwords, we could also see that the canonical shape is CV, and they present syllable types such as:

      CV: ìti     tea   
      CVC: kám    camp  
      CCV: ò-flè  French  

The syllable structure of loanwords from other African languages is much similar to that of Ejagham, whereas those from English are derived from complex syllable structures.
From the above examples, we can see that complex syllables in English become simplified to one of the above syllable structures in Ejagham.

In chapter three and four we would be examining what happens to English consonants, diphthongs and long vowels when the words in which they are found are borrowed into Ejagham.

### 2.3 Phonological Processes

Many phonological processes exist in this language, but we are going to discuss those that are common. Among them we have the following:

### 2.4. Reduplication

This is a process in which all or part of the phonological material of the base is repeated, (Rocca & Johnson 1999). In Eastern Ejagham, reduplication is much more frequent. Most nouns reduplicate entirely to give the notion of abundance, while in another instance, only the root is reduplicated to insist on the manner of doing something. The various types of reduplication are illustrated in (6):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(5)</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>Ejagham</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CVV: biə</td>
<td>byå</td>
<td>beer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VVV: auə</td>
<td>áwå</td>
<td>hour</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCVV: trai</td>
<td>trå</td>
<td>try</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVCC: ziŋk</td>
<td>ziŋ</td>
<td>zinc</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCVCC: plæŋk</td>
<td>plæŋ</td>
<td>plank</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(6) a. ɔ-tɔb ɔ-tɔb  very muddy  (ɔ-tɔb)  mud
    à-yìb à-yìb  very wet / watery (à-yìb)  water
    è-zòk è-zòk noisy (è-zòk)  noise
    m-bá m-mbá clearly, plain road (mbá)  road

b. ụ-kpá ụkpá  a type of beans
    ụ-gù ụ-gù  antelope

c. ɗ-kùm kùm  cassava fufu
    è-bòmbóm  a crow
    è-kōnkôm  ram
    m-fèk fèk  liver

d. làŋèlàŋ  just touch (làŋ)  touch
    kôékô  just take (kô)  take
    wùyèwùk  just drink (wuk)  drink
    kpàŋékpàŋ  just plant (kpaŋ)  plant

In the preceding examples, (a) represent whole word reduplication. The base retains its basic tone LL or LH which becomes HHL on the reduplicant. We suggest that this change of tone stems from the fact that all derived forms of words in this language have a high tone prefix. Consequently the L tone on the reduplicant which derives the adjective, delinks and a floating H docks to the prefix. The H tone later spreads to the first root vowel which has a floating L tone, thus giving a HHL tone sequence.

In (b) we equally have whole word reduplication and the tone of the base is copied to the reduplicant. In (c) only the root is
reduplicated alongside the tone. Lastly, in (d), there is whole reduplication and tonal dissimilation in H tone verb roots.

Reduplication equally takes place in loanwords. Loan nouns and verbs do not exist in reduplicated form but they can be reduplicated to give different notions.

2.5 Lateralisation

It is very common in this language to find a lateral after bilabial stops and nasals. This phenomenon which occurs in both monosyllabic and disyllabic words can be considered a modification of the old form. Consider the following examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Old Form (W.E)</th>
<th>Modified form (EE)</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(7) a. ó-jô</td>
<td>ó-blô</td>
<td>tomorrow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>é-jân</td>
<td>é-blâ</td>
<td>medicine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>à-nyôt</td>
<td>à-mîôt</td>
<td>fur / body hair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>à-jî</td>
<td>a-blî</td>
<td>she gave birth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n-ôjô</td>
<td>m- blô</td>
<td>dog</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n-jî</td>
<td>m-blî</td>
<td>leaf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. è-nyâné</td>
<td>e-mláá</td>
<td>to scatter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>à-kâŋê</td>
<td>a-kâŋlê</td>
<td>she fried</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>à-kîmî</td>
<td>a-kîmlê</td>
<td>she by passed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>à-fêɓê</td>
<td>a-fêɓlê</td>
<td>she flew</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the examples that precede, we notice the following alternations

a)  \( j \sim bl \quad j \rightarrow b/-l \)
    \( ny \sim ml \quad ny \rightarrow m/-l \)
For both (7a) and (7b) we will propose a general lateralisation rule as follows:

\[
[\emptyset] \rightarrow [+\text{lat}] / [-\text{cor}] \rightarrow \text{V}
\]

This rule states that a lateral is inserted between a labial or velar and a vowel.

It is important to note that modified consonants of these types are considered complex single units rather than consonant clusters. Meanwhile, not all velars in WE are lateralised in EE, and where they are, the motivation is not clear (WATTERS 1981).

2.6 ASSIBILATION

This is a process whereby plosives become sibilants. This phenomenon is exemplified in Ejagham where [p, b] and [k, g] become [β] and [γ] respectively at intervocalic position. Below are some illustrative examples:

(8) a. tōp follow ḏ-tōβ-á you should be following
kīk keep ḏ-kīγ-á you should be keeping
tōp throw ḏ-tūβ-á you should be throwing
bēp ask ḏ-βēβ-á you should be asking
b. fúbê warm \( \delta\text{-fúb}(\delta)-\acute{\alpha} \) you should be warming
bigê cover \( \delta\text{-bìy}(\delta)-\acute{\alpha} \) you should be covering
nyàbê straighten \( \delta\text{-nyàb}(\delta)-\acute{\alpha} \) you should be straightening
nyàgê dirty \( \delta\text{-nyày}(\delta)-\acute{\alpha} \) you should be dirtying

In the above data, we notice several phonological processes. For instance, the distribution of voiced and voiceless plosives is systematic. Voiceless plosives in (a) become voiced in (b) at intervocalic position.

(9) Rule: voicing

\[
P \rightarrow b / \text{V-V} \\
k \rightarrow g / \text{V-V}
\]

The above rules can be summarized in features as

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{-cont} & \rightarrow [ + \text{Voiced}] / \text{V-V} \\
\text{-son} & \\
\text{-cor} & \\
\text{-voiced} & 
\end{align*}
\]

In (b) we see instances of vowel deletion. This is because non-identical vowels\(^2\) are not allowed to occur in the same environment in this language. When this happens, one of them deletes. This leaves us with the following rule:

(10) Vowel deletion.

\[
\epsilon \rightarrow \emptyset / \text{-a}
\]

or

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{-hi} & \\
\text{-low} & \rightarrow \emptyset / \text{-[+Low]} \\
\text{-ATR} & \\
\text{-bk} & 
\end{align*}
\]

\(^2\) Unidentical vowels that are not allowed to occur in the same environment are limited to \( e-a \). Others such as \( o-e \) can occur at word boundary without deletion.
This rule states that a front mid vowel is deleted before a vowel that is low.

In all, the most significant phonological process in the data is one in which stops have become fricatives at intervocallic position:

(11) Rule: Assibilation:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{b} & \rightarrow \beta / V-V \\
\text{p} & \rightarrow \beta / V-V \\
\text{k} & \rightarrow \gamma / V-V
\end{align*}
\]

This rule can be rewritten as:

\[
\begin{align*}
\left[ \begin{array}{c}
-\text{son} \\
-\text{cont} \\
-\text{cor} \\
-\text{voice}
\end{array} \right] & \rightarrow \left[ +\text{cont} \right] / V-V \\
& \left[ +\text{voice} \right]
\end{align*}
\]

The rule in (11) states that a plosive becomes a continuant at intervocalic position.

2.7 VOWEL HARMONY

A vowel system in a language is said to have vowel harmony if the vowel in a word shares certain features such as [+back] [+round] [+ATR] (Mutaka 1995). In this language the Final vowel that occurs in most words is \(-\varepsilon\). This vowel harmonises with the root vowel which has the feature [+high]. Below are some examples.

\[3\text{Watters (1994) specifies that the voiced labial plosive } /b/ \text{ only optionally becomes a fricative in utterance initial position e.g. } \text{baylè} \rightarrow [βa ylè] \text{ “peel off”}.\]
(12) **a.**

- e - sēŋ-ē to write
- e - làŋ-ē to touch
- e - fēm-ē to burn
- e - zēm-ē to sow
- e - tēŋ-ē to soak gari

**b.**

- e - jùŋ-ú to lift up
- e - wūy-ú to drink
- e - kīy-ī to keep
- e - jò-ó to roast
- e - fō-ō to wipe
- e - kō-ō to choke

In (a) above, the verbal suffix remains unchanged because the root vowels are [-high]. Whereas in (b) the verbal suffix e becomes u, i, o after u, i, o respectively in the radical. In other words the [+high] feature of the root spreads from left to right. This leaves us with the following rule for vowel harmony:

(13) **Height Harmony:**

\[-hi\] → \ [+high] \ / \ [+high]--

This rule says that a low vowel becomes high before a high vowel.

Also, there is a similarity between the vowel of the radical and the final vowel in nouns.

**Example:**

- e-sōŋō spoon
- a-fōŋō urine
2.8 NASAL ASSIMILATION

Some words in Ejagham have the sequence Nasal + Consonant. These consonants are said to be homorganic. e.g. mb, nt, mp, nd, ŋg etc. In this language we can say that NC forms two phonemes because Nasals before consonants are usually syllabic as shown by their contrastive tone in the following examples:

(14) ṭpā flute
     ṭgbè tiger
     ṭ❜èŋè heart
     ŋsî father
     ŋgwàk cockroach

Another evidence to support the fact that these pre-nasalised sounds are separate phonemes that undergo nasal assimilation process is that, most often, they serve as noun class prefix for words as shown in the following examples:

(15) ṭm-βīk ñ-βīk goat(s) cl.3/14
     ṭm-pīk à-pīk nail(s) cl.9/6
     ṭn-dèk à-rèk rope(s) cl.9/6
     ŋ-gàr ñ-yàr knife(ves) cl.9/14
The prefix assimilates to the first root consonant sound. The only situation where nasals are [-syllabic] is when a nasal consonant is followed by a glide -w as illustrated by the following examples:

(16) ɲwàŋ - ɲwàŋ  
      ɲwénè  
      lightning  
      to smell

Nasal assimilation equally takes place in verbs where the first person singular assimilates to the first consonant of the verb root. Consider the examples in (17) where “m” stands for the first person singular.

(17) bák ṭbák  
     sùm ṭsùm  
     làŋ ṭlàŋ  
     ñén ṭbèn  
     ñèé ṭbèé  
     kô ṭkô  
     fìk ṭfìk  
     I came  
     I hit  
     I touched  
     I danced  
     I planted  
     I took  
     I gave back

In the above data, we notice the assimilation of the pronoun “I” to the first root consonant. In addition, we observe that [β] becomes a voiced plosive when contiguous to nasals, taking on the complete oral occlusion characteristics of the nasal consonant.

The above data on nasal assimilation permits us to formulate the nasal assimilation rule as follows:

(18)

Rule N- - - - > [α cor] /- [α cor]  
     [α ant]  
     [α ant]
This rule means that a nasal adopts the qualities or place of articulation of the consonant that follows.

Another type of assimilation occurs in vowels resulting in nasalization. The nasal vowel stems from the fact that most lexical items in EE have lost the nasal sounds [m] and [n] in the second consonant position of CVC(V) roots. The result is that either the root vowel becomes a long vowel where the second vowel assimilates to the first or the vowel becomes nasalized. This is illustrated below:

(19) W.E EE

a) nyăm nyā meat
dē-kūm e-kō song
cō-yăm cō-yā cooking
da-fōn a-fō fat

b) dē-nyánē dē-mlāā to scatter
dē-būnī dē-βūū mud bed
dī-mūnī m-fū wild vine vegetable
dē-kāmē e-kāā to answer

The forms in (19a) above illustrates nasal deletion followed by the assimilation of the nasal quality to the root vowel. Those in (19b) illustrate nasal deletion at intervocalic position followed by nasal assimilation to the long vowel. In both (19a) and (19b) the tones remain the same as it is in W.E.
2.9 LABIALISATION

Burquest (1993) says “in labialisation, the articulation of the consonant anticipates that of the following vowel so that the consonant is rounded in its own articulation.” Labialisation, which is most commonly conditioned by high vowels in Ejagham, occurs in the first consonant position of the root. Below are some examples.

(20) e-čwɪ load
e-gwɪ comb
n-swɪ a type of ant
e-kwɪk forest
n-twɪk chief
ŋ-kwɪk maize
ə-ywɪk she killed

In both monosyllabic and disyllabic words, labialized sounds are followed by the front high vowel -i

2.10 ASPIRATION

In this language, the voiceless labial, alveolar, post alveolar and velar consonants are all aspirated in the initial consonant position of the root.
2.11 HIGH TONE SPREADING

The most significant tonal process in Ejagharn involves words and the spreading of any preceding high tone onto a following noun. When nouns follow a lexical item with a final high tone, the H tone spreads. If the noun has a low tone on the prefix that Low tone completely assimilates to the H and becomes a H. It doesn’t matter if the word is an associative marker, a preposition or a possessive pronoun. Consider the following examples.

(22)a. è-kók fire side
     ñ-jù house
     ñ-kèkú ghost
     m-bèr cocoyams

b. kó take
   kā in
   ì Associative Marker
   e-y-á your
The group of words in (22a) are nouns with low tone prefix while those in (22b) represent post-grammatical units with high tones. When these words are put in phrasal constructions, the following tonal changes are realized:

- kó े-kók take the fire side
- kā ń-jāk in the house
- e-řī-f ě-kēkú the ghost’s food (ěřī = food)
- e-y-ā m-bēt your own cocoyams

We will propose a rule to explain the above tonal change on the noun prefix.

(23) High tone spreading

\[
V \# V \rightarrow V \# V
\]

This rule states that a high tone spreads to following TBU across word boundary.
2.12 Summary

In summary to this chapter, we have discussed phonological processes some of which have been described by Watters (1981) and some which we found to be existing but not yet described. For instance we have shown that reduplication occurs in both the stem and roots of words. That stops become fricatives in a process known as Assibilation, while a vowel harmonizes in height with the final vowel in the language. We have also shown that lateralisation takes place in the language and it is considered an aspect of modification. Meanwhile nasal assimilation takes place in both consonants and vowels. Other consonantal processes such as labialization, aspiration occur at second consonant position, which according to Watters (1981) is an innovation to the various sub dialects.

Lastly we have discussed the most common tonological process in the language which is High tone spreading. We will show how some of these processes take place in loanwords in the subsequent chapters.
CHAPTER III

THE PHONOLOGY OF LOANWORDS IN NOUNS

3.0 Introduction

In this chapter, our main discussion will be on loanwords with specific attention to nouns. This is because, in terms of lexical categories, the noun is the most common lexical item that is borrowed. Consequently, a majority of interesting phonological processes that take place are in this class. This chapter will be divided into two main parts. Part one will deal with segmental phonology. For instance, we will show how certain restrictions in Ejagham result to change in segments in loanwords. Part two will talk about the suprasegments, e.g. how loanwords get their tones, both surface as well as underlying tones.

3.1 Loanwords

According to Pius TAMANJI (1995), loanwords occur in a situation where "the receiving language borrows the form as well as the meaning associated with this form." The word "loanwords" and "borrowing" used in this work are technical terms to describe the process whereby a linguistic unit, usually a lexical item, has come to be used in a language other than the one it originated from (Crystal 1985: 36 183). Taking this into consideration, we will consider the following as loanwords:
(1) Borrowed word | Ejagham | Gloss | Source Language
---|---|---|---
1) pound | pāŋ | currency | English
2) soldier | sōjà | | English
3) radio | rédyò | | English
4) ofraŋkpó | ọfâŋkpó | scissors | Efik
5) màkalà | màkrà | puf-puf | Duala
6) obásè | ìpàsi | God | Balondo
7) àŋwà | àŋwà | cat | Efik
8) sànjà | e-sànjà | loincloth | Duala
9) akaràŋ | ñkàràŋ | a type of scissors | German
10) tafel | tâflè | arm board | Dutch
11) jìjìdá | ājìgìjìá | waist chain | Hausa
12) ñjàngà | ñjàngà | crayfish | Pidgin

The above list of words is for illustration. We will be giving many other examples of loanwords in the course of our analysis.

### 3.2 Segmental Phonology

The structure of words and syllables in particular is often modified as a result of the introduction of foreign words borrowed from other languages as we can see from the examples above.

Loanwords, especially from English have certain sounds or segments which do not exist in Ejagham. For instance consonants such as

δ, v, h, θ, st, lk,
while others will occur but with restriction to the environment such as
\( ts, s, z, d_3, L \), etc.

In like manner the following vowels in English will never occur in Ejagham

a) Monophthongs.

\( A, a, o, u \)

b) Diphthongs

\( i_e, a_i, a_u, ci, ei \)

c) Triphthongs

\( i_eu, a_i_e, a_u_e \)

We have seen from the beginning that this language has eight vowels and twenty-three consonants excluding pre-nasalised sounds. Of all these sounds, none of the above is included. Consequently, when speakers of this language are confronted with sounds such as the ones above, there is bound to be a modification or what Chumbow (1982b) and Tamanji (1995) refer to as phonetic approximation. Consider the following realizations

---

1 Phonetic Approximation could be defined as: where some sound segments attested in the donor language are absent in the receptor language, these "strange" sounds will be approximated to the indigenous sound segments with which they have the highest degree of phonetic similarity.
To account for the change of segments in loanwords, we will adopt the approach used by Kenmonye and Chumbow (2000). In this approach the basis of analysis is a syllable.

In a syllable $N_2$ stands for onset, $N_1$ stands for coda and $N$ represents the nucleus.

Thus represented as:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
N_2 \\
\downarrow \\
N_1 \\
\downarrow \\
N \\
\end{array}
\]

In this representation $N_2 = \text{initial consonant (C_1) or onset}$

$N_1 = \text{Final consonant (C_2) or coda}$

$N = \text{Vowel (V)}$
3.2.1 Initial consonants ($C_1$)

Basing our argument on the data we have, all the consonants that occur at word initial position in loanwords, are equally attested in Ejagham but for the glottalic fricative [h] which is not attested at all in the language. This sound is automatically rejected in any loanword that begins by it.

(4) Examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ejagham</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>áwà</td>
<td>hour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>áŋkàčif</td>
<td>handkerchief</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aβúsá</td>
<td>Hausa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*he *ha *hi</td>
<td>ámà</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*ñndrer</td>
<td>hundred</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above examples leave us with the following rule:

h-deletion rule:

$$h \rightarrow \emptyset / \#-$$

The glottalic fricative becomes deleted at word initial position.
3.2.2 Complex consonants

Following the principle of sonority as laid down by KATAMBA (1989) the sounds of every language that permits consonant clusters has the following distribution of segments in syllables.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Consonants</th>
<th>Syllable</th>
<th>Greatest sonority</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vowels</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glides</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liquids</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nasals</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voiced</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VL Obstruents</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This chart shows that vowels have the highest sonority strength while obstruents have the least. In other words, a language that permits consonant clusters will have the sequence ONLG at word initial position, and GLNO at word final position (KENMONYE 2000). Ejagham obeys this principle but with modification. In this language nasals are [+syllabic] as we have shown in chapter II. Consequently, with their high sonority strength, they can only precede obstruents as in the examples below.

(5)

\[
\begin{array}{lrrr}
O & N & V \\
N & *kgo & rather & ḳó snail \\
N_1 & *bmi & rather & Ṽbi rat \\
N_2 & *tni & rather & Ṽtifk money \\
\end{array}
\]
This ordering is respected in loanwords which have nasal sounds inserted where they did not previously exist in the source language. Below are some examples

(6) Borrowed form  |  Ejagham  |  Gloss
--- | --- | ---
gari | ñgáří | gari
soup | ņsóp | soap
kÅp | ſkʰɔ | cup  k- > kʰ /#-
kɔk | ſkʰɔk | cock
mΛg | mméq | mug
gwaːva | ñgwaːbà | guava
kæn | ſkên | can
taim | ſtåm | time

The above data reveals two phonological processes which can be derived through the following rules:

(7) Rule(a) α - > N / # - C       Nasal insertion
                       [obstr / son]

This rule states that a nasal becomes inserted before an obstruent or a sonorant at word initial position.

Rule (b)  \[ N - > \eta / \{-\_g\} \]
               \( \{k\} \)

\[ N - > m / - m \]
\[ N - > n / - s \]
These rules can be summarized as

\[
N \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & \text{cor} \\ \alpha & \text{ant} \end{bmatrix} / \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & \text{cor} \\ \alpha & \text{ant} \end{bmatrix}
\]

This implies that a nasal takes the place of articulation of the consonant it precedes.

The above explanation is made clear in the derivation\(^2\) that follows

(8) Derivation of ńśōp, ḫ̣kʰ̣p, mmēg

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>UR /</th>
<th>-sōp</th>
<th>-k ᾱp</th>
<th>-m̩g /</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nas. Insert</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nas. Assim</td>
<td>nśōp</td>
<td>ḫ̣k ᾱp</td>
<td>mm̩g</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phonetic Approx</td>
<td>.constraint</td>
<td>constraint</td>
<td>.constraint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aspiration</td>
<td></td>
<td>ḫ̣kʰ̣p</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PR</td>
<td>[nśōp]</td>
<td>ḫ̣kʰ̣p</td>
<td>mmēg]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this derivation, all tones are ignored because we will show in the later part of the work how tones are derived in loanwords.

\(^2\) In this derivation all change in vowel is considered simply as phonetic approximation because the change is not consistent. Consequently, it is difficult to come up with a rule that will apply to all.
Complex consonants or consonant clusters may occur within a word in this language, but never at word final position. A sequence such as the one below is rejected:

\[ (9) \begin{array}{c}
V \\
N \\
N_1 \\
N_2 \\
\end{array} \begin{array}{c}
O \\
L \\
\end{array} \begin{array}{c}
*\text{amp} \\
\end{array} \]

Loanwords with consonants of this nature are adapted as follows:

\[ (10) \begin{array}{c}
k\text{amp} \\
N \\
N_1 \\
N_2 \\
\end{array} \begin{array}{c}
b\text{ænk} \\
N \\
N_1 \\
N_2 \\
\end{array} \begin{array}{c}
k\text{âm} \\
\text{“camp”} \\
\end{array} \begin{array}{c}
b\text{áŋ} \\
\text{“bank”} \\
\end{array} \]

Other examples include:

\[ (11) \begin{array}{c}
\text{Borrowed form} \\
k\text{aind} \\
k\text{ætikist} \\
pl\text{ænk} \\
zi\text{nk} \\
\theta\text{awnd} \\
P\text{ound} \\
\end{array} \begin{array}{c}
\text{Gloss} \\
k\text{án} \\
k\text{átákís} \\
p\text{lán} \\
z\text{íŋ} \\
t\text{ósín} \\
p\text{áŋ} \\
\end{array} \begin{array}{c}
\text{kind} \\
c\text{atechist} \\
\text{plank} \\
z\text{inc} \\
t\text{housand} \\
p\text{ound (currency)} \\
\end{array} \]
The above data permits us to formulate a consonant deletion rule as follows

(12) Rule: \[ C \rightarrow \emptyset / C -- \#

This rule means that a consonant is deleted after a consonant at word final position.

3.2.3 Final Consonants (C₂)

At word final position, only plosives such as p, b, t, d, d, g and nasals m, n, η, do occur in this language. A sound such as the lateral [l] does not. Consequently we expect this sound to be rejected at this position in loanwords just like the glottalic fricative [h] at word initial position. Unfortunately this is not the case. Consider the following loanwords

(14) Borrowed form | Ejagham | Gloss
---|---|---
teibl | ë-tébl | table
ketl | ë-këtl | kettle
tawl | tawel | towel
kændl | kándl | candle
The question one raises here is to know why there is the acceptance of this sound at this position. We had shown earlier in this work that lateralisation is a common phenomenon in this language. It occurs at word initial and medial position. Hence we have a sequence such as the one in (15)

(15)  
\[ O \quad L \quad V \]
\[ N \]
\[ N_1 \quad m-\text{bl} \quad \text{leave} \]
\[ N_2 \quad a-\text{ml} \quad \text{fur} \]

We have observed that all instances where obstruents precede liquids are permissible in this language. As a result speakers tend to adopt the lateral sound in this position more easily than they would reject it. In so far as they respect the sequence obstruent-liquid, the adoption of this sound is also evidenced in the following loans

(16) Borrowed form       Ejagham
flour       fláwà
French       òflè
Tafel       táflè (Dutch)
ŋkanŋka       ŋklãŋkã (Efik) (bell)
clock       klôk

In the examples above the lateral is preceded by obstruent. The reverse of it is no longer permissible in the language. Probably it is for this reason that / milk / is realized as /milik/ in this language. A vowel is copied from left to right so as to break the unwanted sequence –lk–
3.3 Restriction in vowels

The vowels of Ejagham are very much restricted if we compare them with those of Indo-European languages. We will show in the examples that follow how speakers of this language "nativize" loanwords with such strange vowels. One of the ways is through glide formation.

3.3.1 Glide formation

Glide formation refers to a process whereby a vowel devocalizes into a semi-vowel or semi consonant. When a lexical item having diphthong is borrowed, the diphthong is simplified through this process. In other words, a glide is inserted to break up diphthongs. E.g. CV₁V₂(V₃) -> CVGV where G stands for a glide.

The word automatically becomes re-syllabified as follows

\[
\begin{array}{|l|l|}
\hline
\text{English} & \text{Ejagham} \\
\hline
\text{wire} & \text{waya} \\
\hline
/\|\|\|/ & /\ \\ \| \| \| C V V V & C \ V C V \\
\hline
\text{wa i a} & \text{w a y a} \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]
Other examples of glide formation include:

(18) Borrowed form   Ejagham   Gloss

   kwaia   kwáyà   choir
   auə    áwà   hour
   reidiau   rédyô   radio
   aian   áyân   iron
   pea   pyâ   pear
   flauə   fláwà   flour
   Anian    ónyâs   onion
   biə   byâ   beer

(19) i  ->  y/-ə
     u  ->  w/-ə

The preceding data exposed us to a glide formation rule which states

(20) Rule: \[
\begin{bmatrix}
  \text{-cons} \\
  \text{+syll} \\
  \text{+hi}
\end{bmatrix}
\]

   -> \([-\text{syll}] / -- \]

These rules state that the high vowels /i/ and /u/, become semi-
consonants /y/ and /w/ respectively before a vowel.
3.3.2 Vowel Lowering

In this language, final vowels of CVCV roots are limited to -e, but we notice that words which end with a schwa in the donor language are pronounced with [a] in Ejaham. This consistent vowel modification is probably because in terms of place of articulation, [ə] is nearer to [a] than [e]. Below are some examples:

(21) Borrowed form   Ejagham   gloss
peipa          pipà   paper
leibra          lébrà   labourer
əuvasiə      ðòbasəyà   overseer
lojə         lòyà   lawyer
səoldʒə      sòjà   soldier
haema         ámà   hammer
endʒinjə     njînʃyà   engineer
trauzə        trószà   trouser

This phonological process can be captured as follows:

(22) [ -high ]    ->    [ -high ] /-##
    [ -low ]

or simply ə  ->  a /-##                   Vowel lowering

It states: a schwa becomes [a] at word final position.

For more clarification, we will attempt a derivation to show how glide formation and vowel lowering take place.
Derivation of *fláwà*, *ámà*, *kwáyà*, *pípà*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>UR/</th>
<th>flàwà</th>
<th>hàmà</th>
<th>kwàià</th>
<th>peipà</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Glide Formation</td>
<td>w</td>
<td>i</td>
<td>y</td>
<td>i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vowel Lowering</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>i</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phonetic approx</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>i</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h - deletion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PR *[fláwa  ama  kwáya  pipa]*
“Flour” “hammer” “choir” “paper”

### 3.3.3 Prothesis

Some lexical items borrowed from English and other African languages are prefixed in this language. Prefixation does not just ease pronunciation for the native speaker, but also enable words to fit into specific noun classes. This process is what is referred to linguistically as Prothesis.

(24) Borrowed form  Ejagham  Gloss  Source language
(a)  -kaba  è-kàbà  traditional gown  Duala
   -sanja  è-sànjà  loincloth  Duala
   -jigida  à-jigijá  waist chain  Hausa
The examples in (a) above show how loanwords with o- prefix are accorded prefixes in Ejagham. This gives us a rule for prefixation

(25) $\emptyset \rightarrow V/#$

It means that a vowel is inserted at word initial position; on the other hand, the forms in (b) simply show a change in prefix in loanwords that have prefix from source language.  

3.4 Auto Segmental Phonology

Unlike segmental phonology, here we are going to talk about tones in loanwords, how they are derived, their surface and underlying forms as well as their alternations.

---

3 Assibilation which is one of the phonological processes common in this language can be seen in e-kaβa, 5-kóβór and o-βasi. It states $b \rightarrow \delta / V-V$. 

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Ejagham</th>
<th>Pidgin</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>Balondo</th>
<th>Duala</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>belt</td>
<td>è-kàndá</td>
<td></td>
<td>cupboard</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>limestone</td>
<td>à-kàŋwá</td>
<td>Pidgin</td>
<td>rice</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cupboard</td>
<td>5-kóβór</td>
<td>English</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rice</td>
<td>è-rísi</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>sponge</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sponge</td>
<td>è-kučá</td>
<td>Pidgin</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kitchen</td>
<td>è-kįčin</td>
<td>English</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>God</td>
<td>o-βasì</td>
<td>Balondo</td>
<td>basket</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bucket</td>
<td>e-lôngá</td>
<td>Duala</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>birds</td>
<td>ni-nó</td>
<td>Duala</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.4.1 Tones and stress

Borrowing from English to Ejaghahm is a process that is done from a stress-timed language,\(^4\) to a tone language.\(^5\) In such circumstances, loanwords from English into Ejaghahm are made to bear tones and function under the same tone rules as indigenous words of Ejaghahm. This phenomenon is made possible in that, speakers tend to match stressed syllables in English with high tones, and unstressed syllables with low tones in a spontaneous manner as evidenced below.

(26) Borrowed form | Ejaghahm | Gloss
---|---|---
'ma:stə' | másə | master
mi'kænik | màkánik | mechanic
endʒ'niə | ìnjīyiə | Engineer
'ʃugə' | sūkə | sugar
ma'ɲua | mányğ | manure
ai'dentəti | àdànti | identity

In the borrowed forms, the diacritic /' / stands for stress.

3.4.2 The distribution of tones in loan nouns

Loanwords do not have a fixed tone pattern. Their tonal distribution vary from one loanword to the other. In this part of the work, we would group those with similar tone pattern in order to account for their underlying forms.

---

\(^4\) A stress-timed language is one where stress (or loudness) has a cumulative function in signaling prominence. (TAMANII 1995)
The most significant distribution of tones can be noticed on disyllabic roots of loanwords.

(27)

a) LH

siká cigarette
kàkà cocoa
e-lùŋgá bucket (Duala)
e-kùčá sponge (Pidgin)

b) II L

e-rísi rice
súkà sugar
e-lôngì choir (Duala)
bìsin basin

c) IIIH

m-básá cross (Duala)
o-rúkàŋ match (Efik)
ákpú cassava fufu (Efik)
ŋ-kláŋká bell (Efik)

d) IIHL

sèrẹŋ shilling
bókèr bucket
ŋ-káráŋ a type of scissors
kólēs college

2 A tone language is a language having lexically significant, contrastive but relative pitch on each syllable (Pike 1948.3)
As can be seen from the data above disyllabic noun roots of loanwords exhibit three different tonal melodies namely: the H tone, the L tone and the HL tone. Despite these surface tones, Ejaham loanwords have essentially two underlying tones, the H and L tones. The explanations below account for these two tones.

In (27a) and (27b) we will consider the forms to have two tones underlyingly, viz the H and L tones. Each links to its corresponding root vowel through the Universal Association Convention of Pulleyblank (1986a) which states:

**Association Conventions**

Map a sequence of tones onto a sequence of TBU

a) From left to right
b) In a one-to-one relation

Well-formedness condition
Association lines do not cross.

In (c and d) where the tone is underlyingly H, the H tone links to the first root vowel and later spreads to the second which is underlyingly toneless in (27c), but which has a Low tone in (27d). After HTS takes place, the L tone links to the second root vowel giving rise to a HL contour in (27d).

We would consider the last forms (e) to be toneless underlyingly and they get their L tone by default.
(28) Rule: High tone Spreading

\[
\begin{array}{c|c}
V & V \\
\hline
H & \end{array}
\]

This rule states, a High tone spreads to the following TBU.

The derivations below better illustrate these arguments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(29)</th>
<th>mbásá</th>
<th>sérēŋ</th>
<th>è-sànja</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UR</td>
<td>m-ba sa</td>
<td>sērēŋ</td>
<td>e-sanja</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>H L</td>
<td>L</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UAC</td>
<td>m-ba-sa</td>
<td>sērēŋ</td>
<td>e-sanja</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>H L</td>
<td>L</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HTS</td>
<td>m-ba-sa</td>
<td>sērēŋ</td>
<td>e-sanja</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>H L</td>
<td>L</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Default L</td>
<td>m-ba-sa</td>
<td>sērēŋ</td>
<td>e-sanja</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>H L</td>
<td>L</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PR</td>
<td>mbásā</td>
<td>sērēŋ</td>
<td>è-sanja</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;cross&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;shilling&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;loincloth&quot;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.5 Summary

In this chapter, we have shown that change in segments in loans come as a result of restriction of occurrences in sounds that exist in the language. Such is the case with complex and final consonants. Also, that sounds which do not exist in the language are adapted differently or deleted like we have for vowels and initial consonants respectively. In the course of showing how these changes in segments occur, we have come up with restructuring phonological processes such as Nasal insertion, Glide formation, Vowel lowering, Consonant deletion, Vowel insertion at word initial position technically called prothesis.

There are equally instances of Nasal assimilation, Assibilation, Aspiration and Lateralisation which are phonological processes that exist in the language. At the suprasegmental level, we have shown how loan words acquire tones, also how their underlying tones result into surface tones.
CHAPTER IV

THE PHONOLOGY OF LOANWORDS IN VERBS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter is aimed at examining the Ejaghani loan verbs. Although limited in number compared to the nouns, the verbs exhibit interesting phonological phenomena. We are going to look at the structure of the loan verbs, their infinitive forms, then the conjugation system, given that tenses influence tones on verbs. We will end by examining some cases of reduplication in loan verbs.

4.1 The Structure of Loan Verbs

At the level of a syllable, loan verbs present the following shapes as illustrated in (1):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(1)</th>
<th>Original form</th>
<th>Ejagham</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a)</td>
<td>CVV  pei</td>
<td>CV</td>
<td>pí</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b)</td>
<td>CVVC sain</td>
<td>CVC</td>
<td>săn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c)</td>
<td>CVCC pAmp</td>
<td>CVC</td>
<td>pôme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d)</td>
<td>CCVCC trAst</td>
<td>CCVC</td>
<td>tôs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e)</td>
<td>CCVV trai</td>
<td>CCV</td>
<td>trâ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The syllable structure of loan verbs is not very different from that of verbs in Ejaghham. We thus have structures like:
Loan verbs have only monosyllabic and disyllabic forms such as the ones below:

Monosyllabic:  
- wè  weigh
- fit  fit  (from Pidgin meaning) to be able

Disyllabic:  
- sômôs  summon
- pônê  punish
- bënê  bend

In the preceding syllable structures, syllables with the sequence CC in their onset such as in (1d) and (1e), do not pose any problem to speakers of this language. This is because it is the sequence Obstruent–Liquid which, as we have shown earlier, is a plausible one for words in this language.

On the other hand, syllables with the sequence CC on their coda like in (1c) and (1d), have one consonant deleted because the language does not permit consonant clusters at word final position. This is exemplified in the sketch below:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Tr} & \text{As} & \text{t} \\
N & N_1 & N_2 \\
N_1 & N_1 & N_2
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{tr} & \text{o} & \text{st} \\
N & N_1 & N_2 \\
N_1 & N_1 & N_2
\end{array}
\]
Still in the syllable structures the original form has the sequence VV in (1a) and (1b) and (1e) which is realised as V in Ejagham. In verbs just like in nouns, the vowel that changes from diphthong to monophthong is not consistent. This is shown in (5).

(5):          English    Ejagham    Gloss
            i   pei    pê    pay
  ei                c   wei    weê    weigh
 ai — a        trai    trâ    try
 sain            sân    sign

The above situation exposes us to another problem, that of determining the choice of any given vowel. In order to do this, we shall use loanwords with diphthongs. Owing to the fact that loan verbs are limited in number we shall include nouns so as to clearly bring out the pattern.

4.1.1 Determining the choice of a Vowel

In a syllable whose nucleus has the sequence VV such as in English, only one of the vowels is maintained in the course of borrowing. What motivates the choice of the vowel that is maintained is not clear. Consider the following diphthong realisations from English to Ejagham:
The above table reveals three types of vowel simplification:

a) Front rising diphthongs are simplified by a single front vowel
b) Back rising diphthongs are simplified by a single back vowel
c) Front rising diphthongs simplify into a low vowel a.

4.2 The infinitive form of Loan verbs

Just like verbs in Ejagham, loan verbs have a prefix, a root and a suffix as components in the infinitive form. Consider the following examples.

(7) ḍ- βënē to bend
ḍ- pōnē to punish
ḍ- tôm-ê to form
è- sán-è  to sign
dè- sōmòs-è  to summon
dè- pōm-è  to pump
dè- pī-è  to pay

Looking at the above forms we could see that the infinitive form has an underlying H tone which is realised on the suffix. This assumption is due to the fact that Low tone verbs in this language surface with a H tone in the suffix or final vowel.

(8): làŋ  touch  è-làŋ-è  to touch
kūmè  sit  è kūmè  to sit
kēlē  give  è kē lē  to give

This presupposes that if we had loan verbs with a Low tone on the root, only the suffix would have had a high tone in the infinitive.

The suffix -i in the form for pay can be explained by the rule of vowel harmony earlier discussed in section 2.6, according to which a non-high vowel becomes [+high] before a [+high] vowel represented as:

[-hi] -> [+hi] / [+hi]-

The other forms of loan verbs could not have assimilated because they are not [+high]

Secondly, we could say that the nasal sound that follows has an impact on the preceding vowel. Consider the following situation where we have a [+high] followed by a nasal in the root in the language.

(9) tūm  send  è-tūm-è  to send
sūm  hit  è-sūm-è  to hit
The [+hi] does not assimilate to the final vowel. Whereas when the nasal is replaced, assimilation occurs as shown below:

(10) tük pull è-tùy-ú to pull
sük wash è-suṣy-ú to wash

Finally, we want to emphasize here that all verbs in English could be attributed this form in the infinitive.

(11): è-kọlékt-é to collect
è-sùmàrís-é to summarize
è-mònòpòlís-é to monopolize

But we are dealing only with those verbs that are commonly used by native speakers, even the illiterates, or at least those that are difficult to replace by native words. Verbs such as the ones above are commonly used by literates. They can be treated as an aspect of morphemic mixing. We do not consider them as loan verbs in this study. This also goes to account for the few number of loan verbs.

4.3 The imperative

Loan verbs can equally stand in isolation to give a complete meaning. This is exemplified in (12)

(12): trùs trust
pòm pump
sàn sign
bẹnẹ bend
pònẹ punish
The above examples surface with a falling tone for both monosyllabic and disyllabic loan verbs. This phenomenon is equally noticed in H tone verbs in this language. We are suggesting that these verbs are underlyingly H, and the imperative marker is a floating L tone which docks onto the final root vowel. This can be justified by L tone verbs in the language which remain Low in the imperative form.

(13): làŋ touch 
    kèlé give 
    wúlé sell

This is equally justified in disyllabic L tone verbs when they take an object that has a Low tone prefix as exemplified below:

(14) a. ŋkòk fowl -> kèlé ŋkòk give the fowl

b. èfò cloth -> wúlé èfò sell the cloth

The above prove that there is no Low tone in example (14a) because it would have blocked the H tone spread to the object prefix. If (14b) had a Low tone, the H tone object would have had a LH contour.

This goes to justify that the falling contour in the imperative form of loan verbs is not underlying, but is a result of a floating Low tone which docks to the root vowel with a high tone.
4.4 The Tonal Pattern of Loan Verbs

Basing our analysis on the few loan verbs that we have, we observe that loan verbs have just two tone patterns at the surface level for monosyllabic and disyllabic words as follows:

(15) a. HL
    pì     pay
    sán    sign
    wè     weigh
    trà     try
    póm    pump
    fîr    fit

b. H.HL
    sômôs  summon
    bêné   bend
    pônê   punish

Despite the fact that the above verbs surface with a falling tone, underlyingly, they are different. In (15a) we would argue that the root has a long vowel which we would represent as VV\textsuperscript{1}. The first root vowel has a H tone underlyingly which is linked to it, while the second root vowel has a floating Low tone that docks after vowel assimilation has occurred to the first root vowel, thus giving it a HL contour tone. We will propose a rule to account for vowel assimilation and tone docking.

\textsuperscript{1} In languages where there are long and short vowels, a long vowel will be represented with a double vowel. e.g: = aa. Tadadjeu and Sadembouo (1984)
(16) Rule:
   a) \[ V \ V \rightarrow V \] vowel assimilation
       \[ H L \quad H L \]
       This rule states that a voiced assimilates to a preceding vowel leaving behind its TBU floating
   b) \[ V \rightarrow \] tone docking
       \[ H L \quad H L \]
       This rule states a floating Low tone docks onto a preceding TBU

One strong reason for this analysis is that in this language, there are words with long vowels at the surface level, although some of them are derived historically from a lost segment. The examples below illustrate such cases:

(17) mláá scatter (mlää)  
    é-βűú mud bed (eβűū) Derived from e-βűní  
    n-čáá gift  
    kűú place on something (kűū) Derived from kűní  
    pií loosen

It is however important to note that long vowels are found only in monosyllabic roots in this language. (see section 2.7)

One may also say that the contour tone stems from the fact that the borrowed form has a diphthong, for as Pike (1946) puts it "The fact that more than one tone occurs with a single TBU in some languages may be compared with the occurrence of a vocalic diphthong."
For the forms in (b) we assume that the first and second root vowels are both underlyingly High and the floating L tone docks later to the second root vowel giving it a HL contour tone. To justify that they are both underlyingly H, let us look at the infinitive forms of indigenous verbs whereby the suffix has a high tone irrespective of whether the root is Low or High.

(18): a) kèlɛ give è-kèlɛ to give
   b) wùlɛ sell è-wùlɛ to sell
   c) kámɛ stoop è-kámɛ to stoop

The above examples show that in disyllabic verbs, there is no H tone spread from the root to the final vowel.

For both forms (a and b) we consider that the L tone is floating and not underlying because the verbs are in the imperative form. The imperative marker is a floating Low tone.

The derivation below gives a better illustration of all the above explanations.

(19) Derivation for: pì sān and p ɔnɛ

| UR / | pìi | sān | p ɔnɛ / |
| UAC | HL | HL | HL |
| Vowel Ass. pì | san | — |
| IIL | HL |
| Tone docking pì | san | p ɔnɛ |
| H L | H L | H L |

PR [ pì sān bɛnɛ]
4.5 Conjugation system of Loan Verbs

Tones in this language do not only play a lexical role but also a grammatical one. They are used to distinguish morphologically different forms of the same word. Loan verbs portray a vast tonological alternation when used in different tenses.

The Ejagham Language makes use of tenses such as the present, the past, and the future tenses. In addition, it has modals such as the hortative and the conditional. The present tense has no direct present form per se, rather it is action which is expressed in a present continuous manner, while the past has one form for which various time markers are attached to determine whether it is near or distant past.

To show how these tenses are used in loan verbs, we will use the first person singular “I” and the third person plural “they” as sample representations of all the persons. We will equally limit ourselves to three tenses viz:  
- **Po** = The present tense  
- **P₁** = The past tense  
- **F₁** = distant and near future

### 4.5.1 The First Person Singular **̀mì = “I”**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Loan verb (imperative)</th>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Po</th>
<th>P₁</th>
<th>F₁</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1) ̀pì Pay</td>
<td>è-pì-f to pay</td>
<td>mi ṣjé pì I am paying</td>
<td>mi mpì I paid</td>
<td>ġon mi mpì I will pay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) sòmòs summon</td>
<td>è-sòmòs-è to summon</td>
<td>mi ṣjé sòmòs I am summoning</td>
<td>mi nsòmòs I summoned</td>
<td>ġon mi nsòmòs I will summon</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.5.2 The third person plural á = they

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Loan verb (imperative)</th>
<th>infinitive</th>
<th>Po</th>
<th>P₁</th>
<th>Fo</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1) sán sign</td>
<td>è-sán-è</td>
<td>á ké sán</td>
<td>A-sán</td>
<td>èngh á sán</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>to sign</td>
<td>3pl. Prog. Vb</td>
<td>they signed</td>
<td>Fut. 3pl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>they are signing</td>
<td></td>
<td>They will sign</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) pónè punish</td>
<td>è-pónè</td>
<td>á ké pónè</td>
<td>á pónè</td>
<td>còng á pónè</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>to punish</td>
<td>3pl Prog</td>
<td>they</td>
<td>fut 3pl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>they are punishing</td>
<td>punished</td>
<td>They will punish</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Before proceeding with the analysis of the underlying tone for each tense, we must precise that generally, the tones on the subject markers neither influence nor are they influenced by the tones of the root verbs.

4.5.3 The Present tense Po (progressive)

As said earlier, there is no overt present tense marker. The present continuous tense has the morpheme ké and a floating Low tone. The floating L does not dock onto the progressive marker but influences the root verb with a H tone to downstep to a mid tone.

(20): mì ngké `trip I am paying (prog)
       ò ké `trā you are trying
       à ké `pónè they are punishing
The above illustration permits us to formulate the following rule:

(21) \[ \begin{array}{c}
V \quad V \\
| \quad | \\
H \quad L \downarrow H
\end{array} \]

In prose, this rule states that a high tone downsteps to a mid tone when preceded by a floating Low tone.

(22) Derivation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( \text{mi \ ŋké \ pí} )</th>
<th>( \text{á \ ké \ pōnē} )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UR / mi ( \text{ke} ) ( \text{pi} )</td>
<td>( \text{a} ) ( \text{ke} ) ( \text{pōnē} / )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L ( \text{HL} ) ( \text{HL} )</td>
<td>( \text{H} ) ( \text{HL} ) ( \text{HL} )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Nasal Assimilation \( \text{mi} \ ŋké \  \text{Pi} \)

| \( \text{L} \) \( \text{HL} \) \( \text{HL} \) |

Downstep H

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( \text{mi} \ ŋké \  \text{pi} )</th>
<th>( \text{a} ) ( \text{ke} ) ( \text{pōnē} / )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>L ( \text{HL} \downarrow \text{HL} )</td>
<td>( \text{H} ) ( \text{HL} \downarrow \text{HL} )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Stray erasure \( \backslash \sigma \) \( \backslash \sigma \)

PR \[ \text{[ m \ ŋké \ pí]} \quad \text{á \ ké \ pōnē]} \]

4.5.4 The Past tense \( P_i \)

To determine what marks \( P_i \), we will posit a floating H tone, which appears before the verb root. This floating H docks onto the first root vowel. The verb root originally has an underlying H and a floating L tone. Consequently, when the floating H docks to the root vowel, its presence is not noticed. This is illustrated below.
(23)  
ā `sān  they signed  
à `pì  he / she paid  
mì `nsòmòs  I summoned  

The above explanations can be justified by low tone verbs in the language which become H in the past tense.

(24):  
làŋ  mi `nlàŋ  I touched  
Jò  á `Jò  they roasted  
kèlè  à `kèlè  he / she gave  
lè ß è  ò `lèβè  you opened  

In disyllabic root verbs the tone becomes simplified after docking on the first root vowel. 

The above explanations give us the following rule for tone docking

(25)  Rule:

V

\[ \overleftarrow{\text{High Tone docking}} \]

H L

This rule means that a floating H tone docks progressively to a vowel associated to a Low tone. We will make a derivation for the following
(26) á sân mi nsōmōs à kēlē

UR / a san mi somos a kēlē /
|   |   |   | V |   |
| H | HL | L | HL | L | L HL |

Nasal Ass —— mi nsōmos —
|   | V |
| L | HL |

H tone dock —— san —— nsōmos —— ke le

L tone delink —— V
| H HL | H HL | H L HL |

Stray erasure

Tone simplific —— san —— nsōmos —— ke le

|   | V | V |
| HL | HL | H L |

Low tone dock

| V | V |
| HL | HL | H L |

PR [ á sân mi nsōmōs à kēlē ]

In the derivation in (26), kēlē is a native verb. We have derived it alongside loan verbs in order to show how a Low tone loan verb could be derived if we had one.
4.5.5 The Future tense Fo

The future tense marker is almost the same like that of the past tense. The only difference is that it has an additional morpheme  commodo which has an underlying Low tone. This morpheme combines with the past tense morpheme to give the future.

(27) commodo mì  mpi  I will pay  commodo  á  pòm  They will pump

When we look at both tenses P1 and Fo we notice that while P1 has only an auto-segmental morpheme to mark the past, Fo is marked both segmentally and auto-segmentally in the future.

(28) UR / commodo  a  pòm /
   |   |   |
L H HL
H Tone docking — — pòm
   / |
   H HL
Tone simplific — — pòm
   | HL
Low Tone dock — — pòm
   \ |
   H L
   PR {} commodo  á  pòm {}/
4.6. Reduplication in Loan Verbs

In chapter two of this work, we mentioned that loanwords such as nouns and verbs, do not exist in reduplicated form but they can be reduplicated to give different meanings. In the case of Ejagham loan verbs, the reduplicated form conveys the meaning of what might roughly be translated as *Just + action*. Below are some examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Basic form</th>
<th>Reduplicated form</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) pőm</td>
<td>pőmepőm</td>
<td>just pump</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trâ</td>
<td>trâetrâ</td>
<td>just try</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sân</td>
<td>sânésân</td>
<td>just sign</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pî</td>
<td>piepi</td>
<td>just pay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trôs</td>
<td>trôsétrôs</td>
<td>just trust</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) pônê</td>
<td>pônê(é) pônê</td>
<td>just punish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>somôs</td>
<td>somôsèsômôs</td>
<td>just summon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bêné</td>
<td>bêné(é)bêné</td>
<td>just bend</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As stated earlier, verbs in the infinitive form in this language have the structure pfx + rt + fv. In the above forms, we notice that the verb root is reduplicated, while an -e- separates the reduplicant from the base. At this point, one may want to know which segment stands for the reduplicant and which is the base, as well as the direction of the

---

2 A base is a unit to which the template is affixed. It can be a word, a stem, or a root. On the other hand, a reduplicate is the material under the template (Marantz 1982, Vermauy 1997).

A template refers to the reduplicative affix. McCarthy and Prince (1986).
reduplicative affix, whether its melody associates from left to right or from right to left. 

To answer these questions, we would assume that the base is made up of a stem i.e. prefix + verb root. The entire stem is reduplicated and affixed to the base from left to right. Meanwhile, we will posit CV as the reduplicative template.

If this assumption holds true, then to account for these forms we will consider reduplication as a normal affixation process and would be analyzed here as the addition of a phonemically bare affix to a base morpheme or word, which then triggers the mapping of the base’s melody to the affix (Marantz 1982)

4.6.1 Reduplication in Monosyllabic roots.

We will show how it takes place in pómépóm and sánésán.

We have the base which is a stem

(30) a) i

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\sigma \sigma \\
| / | \\
\text{e pom} \\
\end{array}
\quad \begin{array}{c}
\sigma \sigma \\
| / | \\
\text{e san} \\
\end{array}
\]

b) We prefix the reduplicative stem syllable to the base

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\sigma \sigma \sigma \sigma \\
| / | \\
\text{e pom} \\
\end{array}
\quad \begin{array}{c}
\sigma \sigma \sigma \sigma \\
| / | \\
\text{e san} \\
\end{array}
\]

c) The segmental melody of the whole stem is copied to the right.

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{e pom} \\
\sigma \sigma \sigma \sigma \\
| / | \\
\text{e san} \\
\end{array}
\quad \begin{array}{c}
\sigma \sigma \sigma \sigma \\
| / | \\
\text{e san} \\
\end{array}
\]
d) We then map the syllable node to the segment from left to right; meanwhile automatic syllabification takes place and the segment which does not meet the condition for syllabification is stray erased.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{(31)} & \\
\text{e pom} & \text{esan} \\
\text{\eta} & \text{\eta} \\
\sigma \sigma \sigma & \sigma \sigma \sigma \\
\text{e pom} & \text{esan} \\
\sigma & \sigma \\
pomepom & \text{sanesan}
\end{align*}
\]

4.6.2 Reduplication in Disyllabic roots

With disyllabic roots of loan verbs, a similar process takes place. The only difference is that disyllabic verbs with the shape CVCV have their prefix vowel of the base assimilated to the final vowel of the reduplicate. However, this phenomenon is only noticed in fast speech for instance:

\[
\begin{align*}
pone & \text{ e pone } \rightarrow \text{ ponepone} \\
bene & \text{ e bene } \rightarrow \text{ benene}
\end{align*}
\]

Considering the above explanation, reduplication in disyllabic roots can be derived as follows:

First there is the base

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{(32) a. i)} & \\
\sigma \sigma \sigma & \\
\text{\land \land} & \text{\land \land} \\
\text{e \beta e ne} & \text{e \sigma m\sigma}
\end{align*}
\]
b. The reduplicative stem syllable is prefixed to the base

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
\sigma & \sigma & \sigma & \sigma & \sigma & \sigma \\
/ & / & / & / & / & / \\
e \beta \varepsilon \eta \varepsilon & e \varepsilon \sigma \mu \varepsilon
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
\sigma & \sigma & \sigma & \sigma & \sigma & \sigma \\
/ & / & / & / & / & / \\
e \varepsilon \eta \varepsilon \varepsilon \varepsilon \varepsilon & e \varepsilon \sigma \mu \varepsilon
\end{array}
\]

c. The phonemically bare affix triggers the copying of the base melody to the right

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
\sigma & \sigma & \sigma & \sigma & \sigma & \sigma \\
/ & / & / & / & / & / \\
\varepsilon \varepsilon \varepsilon \varepsilon \varepsilon \varepsilon & \varepsilon \varepsilon \sigma \mu \varepsilon
\end{array}
\]

d. The copied melody is associated with the syllable nodes, the copied material undergoes automatic syllabification. Meanwhile the prefix of the base assimilates to the FV of the reduplicate in (i)

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
\sigma & \sigma & \sigma & \sigma & \sigma & \sigma \\
/ & / & / & / & / & / \\
\varepsilon \varepsilon \varepsilon \varepsilon \varepsilon \varepsilon & \varepsilon \varepsilon \wedge \varepsilon \varepsilon \varepsilon
\end{array}
\]
c. The unsyllabified material is stray erased after vowel assimilation has occurred.

Vowel assimilation could only take place at the end of the reduplication process because it is the entire stem that has to be copied. Consequently, if assimilation occurred earlier, only the root would have been reduplicated, thus we would have had a wrong result in the derivation.

4.7 Summary of chapter IV

To summarize the various aspects that have surfaced in this chapter, we will make the following remarks:

First, loan verbs have their syllable structures modified to suit those of Ejagham words.

Secondly, loan verbs have an underlying High tone that is accompanied by a floating Low tone for both monosyllabic and disyllabic verb roots.

Thirdly, tenses influence tones on loan verbs.

Fourthly, each tense has an underlying tone.
For instance: a) The Present tense has the morpheme ké and a floating L tone.

b) The past has a floating H tone

c) The Future has a discontinuous morpheme which is čēŋ and a floating H

Moreover, LVs take the same form like indigenous verbs in the imperative and infinitive.

Lastly, loan verbs undergo whole stem reduplication.
CHAPTER V

5.0 GENERAL CONCLUSION

The Ejagham language like many others, borrows words for one reason or the other. Given that the language has its own phonological, morphological, and grammatical rules that govern it, any foreign word that comes into the language must abide to the rules of one of the above domains.

The main objective of this work has been to examine the changes that occur in loanwords in the course of abiding and to give logical phonological explanations to them. In the paragraphs that follow, we will make a synthesis of the work done so far.

5.1 Summary

This work, The Phonology of Loanwords in Ejagham, is made up of five chapters.

In chapter one, the researcher gives a background information of Ejagham as a whole, its linguistic situation, the methodology used in the collection of data, the theoretical framework, literature review, the aim of the work and its limitations.

In chapter two the researcher examines the word structure and some major phonological phenomena in Ejagham such as Nasal assimilation, Lateralisation, Assibilation, Reduplication, Vowel harmony, Aspiration and labialisation. In each process aspects such as tones and rules are brought out. The purpose of this is to see if
some of these processes could be found manifesting in loanwords, so as to render a better account of them.

Chapter three dwells on the phonology of loanwords in nouns. The work in this chapter is divided into two parts. Part one has to do with segmental phonology. Here we examine the initial, final, and complex consonants of loan nouns in relation to the restriction of occurrences of sounds in the language. This gives rise to phonological processes like consonant deletion, prenasalisation, nasal assimilation, glide formation as a result of triphthong and diphthong simplification, vowel lowering, and prothesis. Part two deals with autosegmental phonology. That is we illustrate how loanwords acquire their tones and the way these tones function. All these processes are accompanied by rules and derivations done where necessary.

Chapter four focuses on the phonology of loanwords in verbs. It begins by proving that verbs from Ejagham have complex syllable structures which become simplified in the Ejaghani language. This chapter also examines the infinitive and imperative forms of loan verbs, their tonal pattern as well. It comes out that all loan verbs, whether monosyllabic or disyllabic have an underlying High tone. The conjugation system of loan verbs reveals that tones on loan verbs are affected by tenses. The tenses are examined one after the other. For each of them, the underlying tone is brought out. Native words have equally been used in this chapter to give justifications. This chapter ends up with reduplication in loan verbs. We have shown that the nature of reduplication here is whole stem.

Chapter five is made up of a summary, problems encountered and possible solutions, an appendix which consists of
loan words and native words used for illustration, and lastly a list of bibliographical references.

5.2 Problems encountered and possible solutions.

The researcher will not be honest to herself to say that there were no difficulties encountered in the course of analysis.

During our analysis, we discovered that English words with diphthongs are not easy to analyze because they do not have a fixed pattern when simplified as shown in (1).

(1). /ei/ in pei is simplified as /i/ in pi pay
/ei/ in wei is simplified as /e/ in we weigh
/au/ in soup is simplified as /ɔ/ in sɔp soap
/au/ in thousand is simplified as /ɔ/ in tɔsin thousand

Examples of the above nature abound. Such a situation made it difficult to come up with a rule that could apply to all vowel simplification and to account for the choice of either vowels.

A proposed solution to the above problem could be to consider any of the two vowel realizations simply as phonetic approximation. We say so because we have observed and seen that the front rising diphthongs are simplified by the front vowels /i/ and /e/ while the back rising diphthongs are simplified by the back vowels /a/ and /a/.

Other complex vowels however stood as exception to the above problem. For instance

a) /ai/ is permanently simplified to /a/
b) Triphthongs are permanently simplified to glides /y/ and /w/
c) The central vowel /ə/ is permanently simplified to the back low vowel /a/.

We treated prenasalised sounds as mb, nk, nd, etc. as separate phonemes since nasals are [+ syllabic] and always act as a noun class prefix on nouns and as subject prefix on verbs.

We are proposing that the nasal be considered a single unit but which phonetically has different realizations when it partially assimilates the following consonant as exemplified in (2).

(2): \( N \rightarrow \text{LjkhSp} \) cup
\( N \rightarrow \text{Nhbk} \) cock
\( N \rightarrow \text{Hke'n} \) can
\( N \rightarrow \text{Ntâm} \) time
\( N \rightarrow \text{Nsômâs} \) I summoned (mî = I)
\( N \rightarrow \text{Mpi} \) I paid
\( N \rightarrow \text{Nmeg} \) mug

Another problem had to do with lateralised consonants: ml, bl, yl. They were considered as consonant clusters rather than single phonemes. Lateralised consonants should be seen merely as an innovation in this language; consequently they should not be in the underlying representation. This innovation is however positive because it has rendered easy the adoption of loanwords with the sequence

(3) Obstruent-Liquid

flour \( \rightarrow \) flâwa
tafel \( \rightarrow \) táflè
French \( \rightarrow \) ðflè
kettle \( \rightarrow \) ékétl
One major innovation which loanwords have brought into the Ejaghani language is that the lateral sound occurs at word final position. No word in this language has the lateral sound in this position.

A general observation made by the researcher is that loan words form an integral part of the Ejaghani lexicon. Once adopted, they are used in the same way as indigenous words. We think that to an extent, the aim of this work has been achieved. We have been able to identify certain retentions as well as changes involving consonants, vowels, and tones when the words that contain them are borrowed into Ejagham.

We also think that this work has something to contribute to the science of language, that of having proved that change in segments in loan words is not just by mistake, but by natural phonological phenomena which, very often, the native speakers are not even aware of.

The work done on the phonology of loanwords in Ejagham is not in any way complete in itself. Neither is it perfect. We accept its weaknesses and readily welcome all criticism that can help improve on the work. Nevertheless, the important aspects have been discussed.

The researcher also wishes that this work should serve as a stepping stone to further research works on this language. For instance much could still be done on the mechanisms of lexical expansion in which loanwords is just an aspect.

The pages that follow are a wordlist of loanwords and native words used for illustration in this work. We must precise here that

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Ejaghani</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>table</td>
<td>établ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kerosene</td>
<td>krasin</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
if at all some of these loanwords must be avoided then the native speakers will resort to phrasal expressions because, most often, there is no word-for-word equivalence for the loanwords as shown in (4).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Ejaaghan</th>
<th>other form of expression</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>trousers</td>
<td>trósâ</td>
<td>ŏkúy â̄tâ  dress for the laps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>dress laps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thousand</td>
<td>tósìn</td>
<td>ŏgwir ŏjûp  big book</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>book big</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kitchen</td>
<td>é-kìčìn</td>
<td>ŏjúk òyâ   house for cooking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>house cooking</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.5 APPENDIX

List of words used for illustration

5.3.1 Borrowed nouns from English with Ø prefix

pāŋ   pound
sójà   soldier
rédyô   radio
kátàkis   catechist
pípà   paper
kólès   college
pláŋ   plank
áwà   hour
an'kačif   handkerchief
aβúsá   house
ámà   hammer
óndrèr   hundred
kâm   camp
bân   bank
kân   kind
ziŋ   zinc
tósln   thousand
táwèl   towel
kándl   candle
fláwà   flour/flower
òflè   French
klôk   clock
byâ   beer
kár  card
 tí  tea
 mità  meter
 pénê  penny
 så  sir
 fívà  fever
 ókrò  okra
 pànápò  parable
 kwàyà  choir
 áyân  iron
 pyâ  pear
 ónyòs  onion
 wàyà  wire
 lèbrà  labour
 oßásfìà  overseer
 lóyà  lawyer
 njiníyà  engineer
 trósa  trousers
 másà  master
 màkànìk  mechanic
 sùkà  sugar
 mànyò  manure
 àdájístì  identity
 kàká  cocoa
 sìkà  cigarette
 bìsin  basin
 mílfì  milk
 sérëñ  shilling
 bòkèr  bucket
 kòlès  college
kràsín  kerosene
fòtò  photograph
kwátà  quarter
fùdà  father (priest)
mísínjà  messenger
tìčà  teacher

5.3.2  Borrowed nouns from English with prefix

ŋkòp  cup
ŋkòsk  cock (fowl)
mìmeg  mug
ŋgwàbà  guava
ŋkén  can
ŋgàlì  garri
ntám  time
nsòp  soap
étèbl  table
ékètl  kettle
èkòbòr  cupboard
èrísì  rice
èkìcìn  kitchen
èrànò  Rhinoceros
### 5.3.3 Borrowed nouns from other languages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ejagham</th>
<th>Borrowed form</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>màkrà</td>
<td>màkàlà</td>
<td>puff-puff</td>
<td>Duala</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>òbàsì</td>
<td>òbàsè</td>
<td>God</td>
<td>Balundu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>èsànjà</td>
<td>sànjà</td>
<td>loin</td>
<td>Duala</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ìkàrààñ</td>
<td>akarañ</td>
<td>a type of scissors</td>
<td>German</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>táflè</td>
<td>tafel</td>
<td>arm board</td>
<td>German</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>òfsàrìkpó</td>
<td>òfràìkpó</td>
<td>scissors</td>
<td>Efik</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>àjigìjà</td>
<td>jìgìda</td>
<td>waist chain</td>
<td>Hausa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ìkààììkà</td>
<td>ìkànììkà</td>
<td>bell</td>
<td>Efik</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>èkàbà</td>
<td>kàbà</td>
<td>traditional gown</td>
<td>Duala</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>èkàndá</td>
<td>kanda</td>
<td>belt</td>
<td>Pidgin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>à-kàŋwà</td>
<td>kaŋwa</td>
<td>limestone</td>
<td>Pidgin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>èkùcà</td>
<td>kuča</td>
<td>sponge</td>
<td>Pidgin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>èlòŋgà</td>
<td>mùlòŋgà</td>
<td>bucket</td>
<td>Duala</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ni-nó</td>
<td>inóñ</td>
<td>bird</td>
<td>Duala</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mbásá</td>
<td>mbásá</td>
<td>cross</td>
<td>Duala</td>
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<tr>
<td>órúkàñ</td>
<td>utènèkàñ</td>
<td>match</td>
<td>Efik</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ònhènè</td>
<td>ònhènè</td>
<td>tobacco</td>
<td>Efik</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>asùmèè</td>
<td>asùmèè</td>
<td>a kind of bird</td>
<td>Efik</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>àŋwà</td>
<td>aŋwa</td>
<td>cat</td>
<td>Efik</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>àkùg</td>
<td>akùg</td>
<td>pig</td>
<td>Efik</td>
</tr>
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</table>
5.4 Borrowed Verbs From English

sân     sign
pî      pay
pôm     pump
trâ     try
wè      weigh
trûs    trust
fîr     fit (from Pidgin, to be able)
pônè    punish
bênè    bend
sômôs   summon

5.5 Native words used for illustration

5.5.1 Nouns       Gloss
nì        man
mbik      goat
ŋgbè     tiger
dîlôm     a kind of yam
dó        kûm  juju (society)
dîzôk     noise
ôkpiyî    canoe
dînûŋ     bed
ŋkûk      dress
ŋkwîk     corn
ŋgwàk     cockroach
eblà      medicine
ezôŋô     bone of fish
ôblô      tomorrow
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<th>à mlôt</th>
<th>medicine</th>
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<tr>
<td>mblô</td>
<td>dog</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>esôŋô</td>
<td>spoon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a sóyô</td>
<td>urine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ñwôrôñô</td>
<td>working class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ñbliyî</td>
<td>kola</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ñlërê</td>
<td>tongue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mpâ</td>
<td>flute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nîsf</td>
<td>father</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ndëk</td>
<td>rope</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ñgår</td>
<td>knife</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ekô</td>
<td>song</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>àfî</td>
<td>fat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nyâ</td>
<td>meat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mfû</td>
<td>wild vine vegetable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cê”î</td>
<td>load</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>èg”î</td>
<td>comb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ns”î</td>
<td>a type of ant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>êkʰûp</td>
<td>bundle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>êthûm</td>
<td>work</td>
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<tr>
<td>ñkʰdp</td>
<td>box</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>akʰô</td>
<td>bees</td>
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<td>ñkó</td>
<td>snail</td>
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<td>ntk</td>
<td>money</td>
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<td>ñsêpê</td>
<td>sand</td>
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<td>mbá</td>
<td>road</td>
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<tr>
<td>àyîp</td>
<td>water</td>
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<td>VERBS</td>
<td>Gloss</td>
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<td>---------------</td>
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<td>sèb</td>
<td>boil</td>
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<td>touch</td>
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<td>melt</td>
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<tr>
<td>báylê</td>
<td>peel off</td>
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<td>mläää</td>
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<td>follow</td>
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<td>nyàbê</td>
<td>straighten</td>
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<td>dirty something</td>
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<td>write</td>
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<td>burn</td>
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<td>wâk</td>
<td>drink</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jùŋ</td>
<td>lift up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>zem</td>
<td>sow / pierce</td>
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<tr>
<td>kâ</td>
<td>answer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kô</td>
<td>take</td>
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<td>sâŋ</td>
<td>select</td>
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<td>rub</td>
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<td>break</td>
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<td>sit</td>
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<td>give</td>
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<td>wash</td>
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<tr>
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<td>sell</td>
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<td>kâmê</td>
<td>stoop</td>
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