RELIC NOUN-CLASS STRUCTURE IN LEGGBO

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1. Introduction*

In many West African Niger-Congo languages, historical noun class prefixes undergo significant levelling and/or fusion with the noun stem. Starting from a full set of singular-plural markers both on nouns and on agreeing elements, the logical endpoint of such changes can be the total loss of noun classes, as has happened some of the best-known Benue-Congo and Kwa languages, e.g., Akan, Ewe, Yoruba, Igbo. Resistance to this tendency can be found in certain subgroups in Nigeria, e.g., Upper Cross, where languages such as Mbembe (Barnwell 1969a,b), and Lokaa (Iwara 1982) have been reported to have full-fledged noun class marking and concord systems. It is thus striking that closely related Leggbo has lost all noun class agreement. Still, it is possible to identify a prefix-stem structure on the basis of a number of arguments.

The purpose of this paper is to document relic noun-class structures in Leggbo, an Upper Cross minority language. Leggbo is spoken by an estimated 60,000 Agbo people in two local government areas, recently named Abi and Yakurr, in Cross River State. In §2 and §3 we demonstrate that although Leggbo has lost the inherited noun class system, nouns must still be analyzed as consisting of a prefix-stem structure. Sections §4 and §5 provide further evidence from reduplication and compounding, respectively, and §6 illustrates relics of

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earlier noun class agreement found on possessive pronouns. The conclusion is that Leggbo represents an intermediate stage on the way to becoming like Yoruba and Igbo.

2. Basic Noun Structure

Most nouns in Leggbo consist of a prefix and a stem, the latter consisting of one or two (rarely more) syllables. Some 6% (35 out of 569) of the nouns collected are prefixless including the following, the last three of which are borrowings:

sìn	'hair'	nònóŋ	'finger'
ddèn	'eye'	င၁င၁	'small frog (sp.)'
dzè	'crocodile'	ttettee	'grandfather'
dzὸ	'snake'	kkàkki	'pants'
kkwàl	'boat'	fùfú	'fufu'
vvóm	'thing'	bìleèdi	'bread'

Many of the bisyllabic and longer prefixless nouns are reduplications; cf. also kkpakkpa 'groundnuts', kkwàkkwá 'locust tree', gbòngbòn 'can, tin', koolikoòli 'flower'. Others may be historical compounds whose parts can no longer be identified, or they may be borrowings, e.g., jăkpu 'cassava', tálatòlo 'mumps'.

A noun prefix may have the shape CV- or V-, or it may consist of a homorganic (syllabic) nasal N-. Leggbo distinguishes the following prefixes.

The vowels in the prefixes are limited to i/i, i/ϵ and i/ϵ , round vowels being prohibited. Prefixal /ɛ/ harmonizes to [e] when followed by /i/, /e/, /u/ or /o/ in the root, e.g., *lèsàl* 'tooth', *lèbèl* 'beard'. While the /l/ of *li*- and *le*- is stable, prefixal /g/ may optionally be lenited to a continuant $[\gamma]$ or be dropped entirely, e.g., gìvála ~ ivála 'guilt', gèbo ~ èbo 'arm, hand'. Finally, note that of the 566 prefixed nouns entered into the lexicon, 371 carry L tone, while 187 carry M tone. This leaves only the following 8 nouns with H tone prefixes:

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líddaddil 'rejoicing' ákkpan 'plate' lídzil 'food' líkpaal 'community' íkílíbí 'cowry' ánàlà 'garden egg' ékko 'vegetable (sp.)' éwàwàé 'child-like'
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The first two are nominalizations (cf. ddaddi 'rejoice', dzi 'eat'), while others may be borrowings. Each of the Leggbo prefix shapes is illustrated below.

```
litól 'ear', lìvol 'belly', lidèèl 'name', linyumìl 'thorn'
li-
          lèbàl 'axe', lèzànàl 'river', lèttol 'head', lèbèl 'beard'
lε-
gi-
          gìtáá 'witchcraft', gìvála 'guilt', gittù 'life', gìbáà 'marriage'
          gèbo 'arm, hand', gèvè 'foot', gètti 'tree', gèkù 'hoe'
gε-
          ìwà 'spirit', ìzù 'gourd', ìtóbo 'monkey', izòòm 'knife'
i-
          ènòn 'person', èteem 'meat, animal', èbbi 'goat', ènùn 'salt'
-3
          àzì 'blood', àsi 'water', ànààn 'oil', aggbà 'chin', àjí 'feast'
a-
N-
          mbom 'cheek', nzún 'nose', nnyón 'maggot', nko 'nut'
```

As seen in the following examples, indigenous Leggbo personal names also begin with these prefixes:

```
li-
          líddaddìl (m./f.) ('happiness')
lε-
          lètòònòl (m./f.) ('praise')
          gittù (m./f.) ('life')
gi-
gε-
i-
          icéji (f.), ikkò (m.), iccá (m.)
          elémi (m.), èkàma (f.) (< èkà amán 'our mother'), ɛkpaa (m.), èbìa
ε-
          (f.), ènnì (m./f.)
          ám\deltan (m.), àdiàaha (f.), àggb\deltami (m.)
a-
          ntòmo (f.), nkáánu (m./f.)
N-
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Any other initial vowel indicates that a name has been borrowed from another language, e.g., from Efik: $ok\hat{o}n$ (m.), $\dot{u}do$ (m.), $\acute{o}d\dot{u}d\dot{u}$ (m.).

The above prefixes are frozen relics of a former noun class system which conditioned full agreement—and which can be observed in nearby Upper Cross languages such as Lokaa (Iwara 1982) and Mbembe (Barnwell 1969a,b). In some cases these prefixes suggest a former grouping of nouns by semantic features:

First, we have found approximately 20 nouns denoting human beings with prefix ε - in the singular and a- in the plural (almost all of them with L tone):

```
enedádá
              'native doctor'
                                  pl.
                                      àbóbóno
              'guest, stranger'
ècècèna
                                  pl.
                                      àcècèna (cf. cce 'expect')
èdum
              'husband'
                                  pl.
                                      àdum
egbó
              'Leggbo person'
                                  pl. agbó
cmégégá
              'fool'
                                  pl.
                                      àgàgàma
                                      àkaala
èkaala
              'European'
                                  pl.
èkkà
              'mother'
                                  pl. àkkà
èkkàkkàya
              'carpenter'
                                  pl.
                                      àkkàkkàya (cf. kka 'carve')
èllà
              'servant, maid'
                                  pl. àllà
                                  pl. ànnè
ènnè
              'in-law'
                                  pl. atatàano
etatàana
              'sorcerer, wizard'
Etatama
              's.o. of Adadama'
                                  pl. atatama
ètètèèa
              'blacksmith'
                                  pl. àtètèèa (cf. tèee 'burn')
ètètèla
              'madman'
                                  pl. àtètèla
èttε
              'father'
                                  pl. àtte
ètùlùkpa
              'senior'
                                  pl. àtùlùkpa
èvaal
              'chief'
                                  pl. àvaal
èvèvè
              'thief'
                                  pl. àvèvè
                                  pl. àvóli
èvóli
              'servant, Igbo'
                                  pl. àvvúà
              'poor person'
èvvúà
èyòò
              'friend'
                                  pl. àyòò
```

As seen, some of these nouns are agentives derived from verbs. However, most agentives in Leggbo are phrasal in natural:

```
ènòn (ákε) neè ttui àteèmì 'farmer' = person (who) cultivates farm pl. ànòn (ákε) banà ttui àteèmì
ènòn (ákε) neè waal gèdi 'tapper' = person (who) taps palm tree pl. ànòn (ákε) banà waal gèdi
ènòn (ákε) è nneni vvóm 'owner' = person (who) has/owns something pl. ànòn (ákε) bà nneni vvóm
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Others are formed by compounding or use of the associative construction, e.g., $\grave{\epsilon}n\grave{\partial}n\ likw\acute{\epsilon}-kol$ 'hunter' (person of hunting), or by nominalizing the verb with $\grave{\epsilon}$ -followed by an object. They do not take a plural in a-.

```
èttù i àtɛèmì 'farmer' (cultivator + farm)
ètú gèzù 'dancer' (dancer + dance)
èkkpó ètto 'house-builder' (builder + house)
```

In addition to 'husband', 'mother', 'father', and 'in-law', a small set of other human terms involve a change of initial consonant in singular vs. plural forms:

gwànɔ	'woman'	pl.	bàno
wàdum	'man'	pl.	bàdum
wàέ	'child'	pl.	bὲέ
wákkà	'sibling'	pl.	bákkà

To these we can add àggwèéyé 'wife' (pl. àbbèéye) which both has a prefix and has undergone initial consonant change to form its plural. Several other kinship terms are derived by means of the above four nouns, e.g., wàé a ggwàno 'daughter', wàé a wàdum 'son', wákkà a ggwàno 'sister', wákkà a wàdum 'brother', wààwáá 'grandchild' (pl. bèé a wàà). Very few human nouns occur with other prefixes, e.g., ikku 'family, relatives', mkpàláwa 'boy, young man' (< Efik), gituùtù(wé) 'baby', iyaà 'grandmother, old woman'. The prefixless nickname ttette 'grandfather' is derived from ètte 'father' via reduplication.

Except for \grave{e} -bbi 'goat' (pl. \grave{a} -bbi), non-human nouns taking either ε - or aprefixes do not show a difference in sg/pl forms, e.g., \grave{e} - $k\acute{o}mi$ 'cotton tree(s)', \grave{e} - $y\acute{i}m$ 'onion(s)', \grave{e} -tto 'house(s)'. This includes the rather sizeable number of (mostly L tone) nouns denoting animals:

ècíŋ	'porcupine'	èvààm	'cow'
ekìlíkìlí	'weaver bird'	èvòm	'tsetse fly'
έkkwà	'snail'	èvù	'monkey (sp.)'
ènyì	'elephant'	ὲννa	'dog'
εрра̀	'hawk'	εwòwòŋ	'hippopotamus'
ὲsὲ	'tiger'	εyá	'shrimp'
èttàmà	'guineafowl'	èyù	'antelope (sp.)'
èteen	'animal, meat'	èzéém	'python'
ètùwán	'bushcow'	èzì	'bushpig'

Several animal names consist of compounds, genitive constructions, or full sentences: èvàà likɔɔ́l 'rabbit' (cf. èvààm 'cow', likɔɔl 'bush'), èvva-kkɔ 'hyena' (cf. èvva 'dog', kkɔ 'lack'), èvàà esú ɛmmà 'puff adder' ('he who is able to peck

with mouth'). Nouns designating animals, however, occur with all prefixes, or can be prefixless:

Ø-: dzè 'crocodile', dzò 'snake'

li-: lìzol 'bird'

le-: lekkpànál 'frog', lešil 'electric fish', letòhol 'leech', lèvíìl 'owl', lèwòbùl 'toad'

gi-: gittù 'life', gitù 'lizard', gizù 'game', gibilèzèzèl 'bat'

ge-: gèbòò 'squirrel (sp.)', gèdèdèyí 'sheep', gèvé 'squirrel (sp.)', gèkká 'crab', gèzèzéni 'worm'

i- : iban 'fish (sp.)', ìdèlè 'vulture', ìmène 'firewood', ìtì 'antelope', ìtóbo 'monkey', ìvvaghan 'chameleon', ìwàtà 'chimpanzee, gorilla', iyàyàŋ 'crayfish', ifin 'cricket', ipìnápi 'mouse'

a- : àdáa-àdáa 'baboon', adzánì(lì) 'ant (sp.)', àkkoòmba 'pig', ànwáàn 'cat'

N-: mbèkum 'tortoise', mbóŋ 'mosquito', nddén 'louse', ndòdòwé 'insect', ndummi 'sand-fly' (from dum 'bite'), nnyànyàŋ 'horse', ntɔtòŋ 'rat', nkààm 'caterpillar (edible sp.)', nkìkìŋ 'shrimp (small sp.)', nkòkóni 'bee', nnyóŋ 'maggot, jigger', nzùzùŋ 'housefly'

Although human ε -/a- nouns show sg/pl distinctions on their prefixes, other animate (and inanimate) nouns have non-alternating prefixes. Plurality can therefore only be marked on modifying elements which allow a sg/pl distinction, e.g., $\dot{\varepsilon}vva$ amma 'this dog', $\dot{\varepsilon}vva$ àb ε mma 'these dogs'. This includes subject-verb agreement, e.g., $\dot{\varepsilon}vva$ ε -tt δ 'a dog fell', $\dot{\varepsilon}vva$ ba-tt δ 'dogs fell', as well as pluractional marking on the verb, e.g., ε baai $\dot{\varepsilon}vva$ 'he tied a dog', ε baazi $\dot{\varepsilon}vva$ 'he tied dogs'.

In addition to the semantic correlation of $\dot{\varepsilon}$ - with animates, several liquids begin with a-, e.g., $\dot{a}n\dot{a}\dot{a}n$ 'oil', $\dot{a}si$ 'water', $\dot{a}z\dot{\imath}$ 'blood', as well as other soft substances, e.g., $\dot{a}kkp\delta$ 'rubber', $\dot{a}kkw\dot{a}n$ 'native bed', $\dot{a}s\vartheta$ 'soap', $\dot{a}vigh\dot{a}$ 'brain', $\dot{a}z\vartheta$ 'mushroom'.

A number of body parts and associated concepts take either a li- or $l\varepsilon$ - prefix:

likukuúl	'eyebrow'	lèbáàl	'breast'
lìmáál	'faeces'	lèbèl	'beard'
limìttál	'saliva'	lèggwàl	'breath'
liŋwàl	'nail'	lèkòòl	'neck'
lisáŋìlì	'urine'	lèkul	'navel'
lisúàl	'feather'	lèmmòl	'flesh, muscle'

lìtìtal	ʻrib'	lènàl	'penis'
lìtól	'ear'	lèsàl	'tooth'
liveìl	'wing'	lèsol	'face'
livil	'left side'	lèttol	'head'
lèvol	'belly, stomach'	lèvùl	'horn'

Body parts are, however, to be found with other prefixes, including the word $\grave{\epsilon}kkpa$ 'body' itself. A striking number of primary body parts occur with $g\varepsilon$:

Ø: sìn 'hair', nònón 'finger'

gi- : gittù 'life'

ge- : gèdo 'throat', gedò 'goiter', gèkpòólo 'fat', gèmmà 'mouth', gepilipa

'shoulder', gèsé 'tail', gètàppa 'scar', gèko ~ gètèko 'bone', gèvà

'sore, wound', gèvè 'foot, leg', gewiya 'hips', gèzài 'rib'

i- imaani 'heartburn', ìmìmín 'marrow'

ε- èfi 'boil', ènò 'vagina', ètεεm 'chest, heart', ebuì 'waist (area)'

a- àvíghà 'brain', àzì 'blood'

N- ndodon 'smallpox', ntètèbé 'grasshoppers (pl.)', mbom 'cheek', nzam

'back', nzún 'nose'

A particularly striking fact about nouns marked by a li- or $l\varepsilon$ - prefix is that they also take an -l suffix:

lèbàl	'axe'	lekkpànál	'frog'
lìbáál	'poison'	lilàmàl	'garbage'
lidèèl	'name'	linyumìl	'thorn'
lèsol	'face'	levvánil	'earthworm'
letál	'kite'	lèzàŋàl	'river'

We see this particularly clearly in the following cases where there is a related noun taking another prefix:

lèbəl	'handle'	cf.	gèbo	'hand'
lèdil	'palm seed'		èdi	'palm (tree)'
lèdzìl	'day'		èdzì	'sunshine'
lèkáalal	'English'		èkaala	'European'
lèmmàl	'door'		gèmmà	'mouth'
liveìl	'wing'		gèvè	'foot, leg'

In addition, many nominalizations from verbs show that -l is a suffix:

libál	'question'	cf.	ba	'ask'
lídzil	'food'		dzi	'eat'
lìvèèl	'song'		vèe	'sing'
lèbbol	'death'		bbo	'die'
lìbbol	'crying, weeping	,	bbo	'die'
lèkaal	'headpad'		kaa	'carry'
lekkaàl	'message'		kkagha	'delivery a message'
lèddèèl	'greeting'		ddè	'greet'
lìtòòl	'harvest'		tòo	'harvest, uproot'
lemmànàl	'birth'		mmàna	'be born'
lèmòòŋòl	'reply'		mòòŋɔ	'return'
lènnènèl	'answer'		nnènè	'answer'
lèdààèl	'love, passion'		dàa	'like, love'

Unpredictable segmental and tonal changes occasionally occur in both noun-noun and noun-verb pairs, e.g., *liveìl* 'wing' (cf. gèvè 'foot, leg'), *likkòil* 'vomit' (cf. vòɔ 'vomit'). The nominalization *lèdààèl* 'love, passion' involves both an -è suffix, as in the gerund gèdààè 'liking', as well as an -l suffix.

Although there are 16 verb stems of the form CV(V)l, we have found only three nouns which end in coda -l and do not have a li- or $l\varepsilon$ - prefix: kkwal 'boat', jkul 'flogging', $\dot{\varepsilon}vaal$ 'chief'. The last of these is presumably derived from $l\dot{\varepsilon}vaal$ 'chieftancy'. By contrast, there are 78 li- or $l\varepsilon$ - nouns whose stem is -CV(V)l and 29 whose stem is CV(V)CVl. Significantly, none of the other coda consonants, /m/, /n/ or /n/, is found on noun stems with these prefixes. This suggests that suffixal -l may in some cases replace the historical final coda consonant, e.g., $l\dot{\varepsilon}dul$ 'bite' (cf. dum 'bite'), $l\dot{\varepsilon}n\dot{\varepsilon}l$ 'penis' (cf. $n\dot{\varepsilon}m$ 'copulate'). The following six nouns with a li- or $l\varepsilon$ - prefix were originally elicited as ending in a vowel, but later they were discovered optionally to take an -l suffix.

```
lèdzèlè(l) 'answer' liteha(l) 'gibberish' lebilà(l) 'bundle' liyòghò(l) 'cluster' (fruit) lídaddi(l) 'happiness' lisáŋìli(l) 'urine'
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In addition, final -*l* optionally fails to appear on language names, presumably by analogy with the corresponding person nouns, which lack -*l*:

leggbó(l)	'Leggbo language'	cf.	eggbó/àggbó	'Leggbo person(s)'
levóli(l)	'Igbo language'	cf.	evóli/àvóli	'Igbo person(s)'
lèvì(l)	'Efik language'	cf.	èvì/àvì	'Efik person(s)'
leneme(1)	'Ugep language'	cf.	eneme/aneme	'Ugep person(s)'

However, note that final -l has a tendency to drop in general when occurring in close juncture with a following word, e.g., l = 100 keV l = 100 keV

We conclude from the preceding that noun prefixes in Leggbo are synchronic reflexes of earlier noun classes. Since round vowels do not occur in prefixes, we suspect that $l\varepsilon$ - comes from earlier *lu and $g\varepsilon$ - from earlier *gu- (or *ku-). The latter would correspond nicely to the observation that certain body parts that have a $g\varepsilon$ - prefix often have *ku- in Bantu languages, e.g., $g\grave{e}b\jmath$ 'hand, arm', $g\grave{e}v\grave{e}$ 'foot, leg'. In addition, one pair of nouns used in the numeral system also shows an older $l\varepsilon$ -/a- singular/plural distinction: $l\grave{e}$ - $z\jmath$ l 'twenty', pl. \grave{a} - $z\jmath$, as in $\grave{a}z\jmath$ $\grave{a}f\jmath$ ŋ 'forty' (twenties + two).

3. Arguments for Prefix-Stem Structure

Although, in most cases, these prefixes are frozen onto the nouns with which they occur, for reference, we list below the arguments that demonstrate that they are still morphological prefixes, not part of the noun stem itself.

3.1. Frequency. This group of arguments has to do with the fact that almost all nouns begin with one of a small set of phonetic forms. Below we talley 590 nouns (ignoring compounds) and observe that 555 begin with one of the following V-, CV- or η -, only 35 lacking a prefix.

CV- prefi	xes:		V-1	prefixes	N- _]	prefixes
li-	44		i-	71	N-	74
lε-	71		ε-	147		
gε-	112		a-	29		
gi-	7]		•	Ø	35

- 3.2. Shapes. The following distributional observations can be made about the above prefixes as a class: (i) They are restricted to one of the indicated syllable shapes: V-, CV-, N- (where N- represents a homorganic nasal). (ii) The only vowels found in this position are /i, ε , a/, where / ε / harmonizes to [e] when followed by an initial CV stem syllable containing any of the vowels /i, u, e, o/. (iii) The only consonants found in prefixes are /l/ and /g/. In addition, the /g/ can optionally be deleted when in a prefix, e.g., (g) ε -mmà 'mouth', (g)i-ttù 'life', but not in stem-initial position, e.g., ε -gidì 'beans' (* ε -idi). (iv) With 8 exceptions (see above), the only tones that are found on prefixes are L and M. Of the 555 nouns with prefixes, 367 have L tone, while 186 have M tone.
- 3.3. Human singular/plural pairs. As seen above, Leggbo marks number on a set of human nouns, e.g., ènòn 'person', ànòn 'people'. All but one of these, emínaakòòl 'young girl', have L tone on their è-/à- prefixes.
- 3.4. Related nouns. As also seen above there are several pairs of nouns that are clearly related, but differ in prefix. With respect to one of the above cited pairs, $l\grave{e}bol$ 'handle', $g\grave{e}bo$ 'hand, arm', we note that the noun $\grave{e}-bbo$ 'branch', with a third prefix, may also be related. Although it has a geminate /bb/, a compound also exists for 'branch', nti-bboo, presumably derived from $\grave{e}-tti$ 'tree' $+ \grave{e}bo$ 'arm'. nti-bboo would have an irregular transfer of gemination to the second consonant, when reduplicated to form a diminutive, the fortition appears in its etymological place: $ntti-bo-bo-w\acute{e}$ 'small branch'.
- 3.5. Nominalizations. In addition, there are nouns in Leggbo which are clearly derived from verbs. As seen in the following examples, these nouns are derived by adding a noun prefix (and suffixal -l, where appropriate):

ggù	'blow'	\rightarrow	li-gùgúl	'whistle'
bbo	'die'	\rightarrow	lè-bbol	'death'
kaa	'carry'	\rightarrow	lè-kaal	'headpad'
vè	'sing'	\rightarrow	lè-vèl	'music, song'
mòòŋɔ	'return'	\rightarrow	lè-mòòŋòl	'a reply'
kwòol	ʻgroan'	\rightarrow	le-kwool	'groaning'
mmàna	'be born'	\rightarrow	lè-mmànàl	'birth'
yὲεl	'call'	\rightarrow	le-yèèlél	'calling'
dza	'be good'	\rightarrow	gì-dza	'beauty'
baa	'marry'	\rightarrow	gi-báà	'marriage'

mana	'catch'	\rightarrow	gè-mana	'an arrest'
bbi	'be black	\rightarrow	gè-bbi-è	'darkness'
tèe	'rain'	\rightarrow	ge-teewa	'rain'
dì	'speak'	\rightarrow	gè-dì	'story, speech'
yàal	'paddle'	\rightarrow	gè-yàlí	'paddle'
kom	'be hot'	\rightarrow	ge-komo	'heat, fever'
nii	'give'	\rightarrow	ì-nini	'gift'
kkpɔŋɔ	'be tall'	\rightarrow	ì-kkpóŋɔ	'height'
dza	'be good'	\rightarrow	gì-dza	'beauty'
kùmma	'worship'	\longrightarrow	ŋ̀-kùmmà	'honor'
ddoŋi	'beg'	\rightarrow	n-ddoŋi	'begging'
kàam	'help'	\rightarrow	ŋ-kààmi	'assistance'
vaan	'wrestle'	\rightarrow	m-vaan	'wrestling'

In addition to the above lexicalized nominalizations, Leggbo uses the prefixes $g\varepsilon$, i-, and ε - in a number of deverbal derivations. Thus, from the verbs n u m 'take' and dum 'bite', Leggbo can derive:

```
'biting'
gè-nùm-è
             'taking'
                           gè-dum-è
                                                    = gerund
             'taking'
                                        'biting'
ì-nù-núm
                           ì-du-dum
                                                    = gerund
             'by taking'
                                        'by biting'
                                                    = focused verb
è-núm
                           è-dum
ge-nù-núm
            'takability'
                                        'bitability'
                                                    = ability noun
                           ge-dú-dum
             'takable'
                                                    = ability adjective
e-nù-núm
                           e-dú-dum
                                        'bitable'
```

In Leggbo, $g\varepsilon$ - is a frequent nominalizing prefix, whereas e- is the general prefix found on adjectives, many of which derive from or are related to corresponding verbs, e.g., dzubbi 'be cold', $\dot{e}dz\dot{u}bbi$ 'cold', bbi 'be black', $\dot{e}bbyo$ 'black'.

3.6. Allomorphy. The sixth argument will be referred to as "allmorphy". In two cases, a particular (longer) allomorph is required in a construction when followed by a prefixless noun, but optional when the noun has a prefix. The first of these is the genitive or "associative" marker awa (often shortened to aa or a). As seen in the following examples, an overt associative marker a or awa is required when the N2 is prefixless:

```
lídzil a(wa) dzè 'food of crocodile' *lídzil dzè lídzil a(wa) wàé 'food of child' *lídzil wàé
```

On the other hand, *awa* is optional if a prefix is present, e.g., lídzil a(wa) l ϵ -vvánil \sim lídzil $|\epsilon$ -vvánil 'food of earthworm'.

By this criterion, $w\grave{a}\acute{\epsilon}$ 'child' is prefixless, even though it has an initial consonant change in its plural, $b\grave{\epsilon}\acute{\epsilon}$. Similarly, $w\grave{a}dum/b\grave{a}dum$ 'man/men' and $gw\grave{a}no/b\grave{a}no$ 'woman/women' require the associative marker. It would seem that the associate marker moves into the prefix slot, if the latter is vacant. A similar phenomenon exists with respect to the locative sequence $f/k\epsilon$ ii' in, on, at': ii is optional if the noun has a prefix, but obligatory if it doesn't:

```
ε ttó ήkε (iì) lèbbòl 'it fell into a hole'
ε ttó ήkε iì kkwàl 'it fell into a boat'
```

3.7. Tone. It has already been noted that almost all noun prefixes carry M or L tone. In addition, in the associative construction, N1 of N2, there is a tone change which is observable only when N2 has a L tone prefix: the L of an N2 noun becomes M and, if the stem is M, this M is also raised to H (Paster 2003):

```
\sin + \text{lè-sàl} \rightarrow \sin \text{le-sàl} 'hair of tooth' L-L \rightarrow \text{M-L}

\sin + \text{lè-ttol} \rightarrow \sin \text{le-ttól} 'hair of head' L-M \rightarrow \text{M-H}

\sin + \text{lì-tól} \rightarrow \sin \text{li-tól} 'hair of ear' L-H \rightarrow \text{M-H}
```

This same changes take place even if the associative marker is present: $sin\ a(wa)$ $l\varepsilon$ - $sin\ a(wa)\ l\varepsilon$ -

```
\sin + a(wa) + wadum \rightarrow \sin a wadum 'hair of man' (*sin a(wa) wadum) 
 <math>\sin + a(wa) + nann \rightarrow \sin a nann \rightarrow \sin a man \rightarrow \cos a man
```

Note that by this criterion, the initial [w] of wàdum (pl. bàdum) does not count as a prefix, rather it is incorporated into the stem.

3.8. Compounding. While not completely productive, there are numerous noun compounds in which a single prefix is followed by two (compounded) noun stems: pref-N1-N2. The original pattern seems to be that the prefix is deleted from the N2, but "re-appears" as a replacement of the prefix of the N1:

```
lè-sol + e-vvém → e-so - vvém 'forehead' (lit. face center)
è-ttɔ + n̂-zàm → n̂-ttɔ - zàm 'back yard' (lit. house back)
```

Other combinations do not show a literal replacement, but rather maintain the prefix of N1, or a replacement of the N1 prefix, sometimes unpredictably.

3.9. Diminutivization. The diminutivized form of a noun is derived by reduplicating the first CV of the stem, including its tone, and by postposing $-w\dot{\varepsilon}$ 'child' in the singular and $-b\dot{\varepsilon}$ 'children' in the plural: $g\dot{e}kum\dot{i}$ 'fever' $\rightarrow g\dot{e}-ku-kum\dot{i}-w\dot{\varepsilon}$ 'small fever', $g\dot{e}-ku-kum\dot{i}-b\dot{\varepsilon}$ 'small fevers'. Crucially, the prefix is skipped over, thus $giz\dot{u}$ 'game' $\rightarrow gi-z\dot{u}-z\dot{u}-w\dot{\varepsilon}$ 'small game', not * $gi-gi-z\dot{u}-w\dot{\varepsilon}$.

4. Reduplicated Noun Stems

Although the consonantal inventory is much larger, only a certain number of consonants may appear intervocalically in native Leggbo stems. These include /bb, dd, kk, l, m, mm, n, nn, η , $\eta\eta$ /, where double consonants are realized fortis and longer. When other consonants appear in apparent stem-intervocalic position in nouns, this may be due to three factors:

- i. Compounding. The noun may be a frozen compound involving two historical stems, e.g., $\eta k \acute{a}tti$ 'fence' (probably from $\eta k \acute{a}$ 'I carry, use' + -tti 'tree, stick, log'), $gedub\mathfrak{d}$ 'right side' (probably from du 'pound' + $-b\mathfrak{d}$ 'hand, arm', i.e., the right arm is used for such tasks).
- ii. Borrowings. The noun may be borrowing, e.g., ilaàsì 'rice', èlòpìleèŋ 'airplane', bilɛèdì 'bread', mmaŋgòlo 'mango', kkàkkí 'pants', fūfū 'fufu', ikɔbàsì 'church' (< Efik).
- iii. Reduplication. The noun may involve reduplication. Nouns consisting of identifical first and second stem syllables are extremely frequent, e.g.,

gèbèbè	'dust'	kkpakkpa	ı 'groundnut'
ècècèna	'guest, stranger'	kkwàkkw	vá 'locust tree'
ndodoŋ	'smallpox'	eloloŋ	'snail (small sp.)'
nddúddu	'advice'	ìmìmíŋ	'marrow'
gedzídzi	'edible'	nònóŋ	'finger'
ègàgàma	'fool'	ntùtúli	'egusi melon'
èggóggo	'potato'	ttette	'grandfather'
ŋ̀gwɔ̀gwɔ́	'promise'	èvèvè	'thief'
ŋkòkóni	'bee'	εωὸωὸŋ	'hippopotamus'
kkaikkai	'locally brewed alcohol'	eyéyèe	'hiccup'
èkpíkpìná	'star'	èzòzòŋ	'smoke'

As seen, some of the above have bisyllabic stems with two identical syllables, while others are longer (having either a non-shared final consonant or an additional syllable). One pattern that has been discerned concerns deverbal nouns ending in a suffix /-(C)a/ which, exceptionally, does not assimilate to a preceding mid vowel:

```
'guest, stranger'
ècècèna
                                       cce 'expect'
èkkàkkàya
            'carpenter'
                                        kka 'carve'
                                       kpi '?'
ekpíkpìná
             'star'
akokona
            'anger'
                                        kko 'hate'
ètètèla
             'madman'
                                        tèe 'rain'?
            'blacksmith'
ètètèèa
                                        tèèe 'burn'
ntítìná
             'broom'
                                        tìn 'toss down' (cf. taan 'sweep')
```

The final -a does assimilate in one reduplicated noun, $\grave{\epsilon}b\acute{\delta}b\acute{\delta}\eta$ 'native doctor' (cf. b25 'heal').

In addition, there are a few nouns involving reduplicated CVC and CVCV stems: ttěmttěm 'pigeon (domestic)', wólòwólò 'riot', ekìlíkìlí 'weaver bird'. There also are a few where the noun prefix is also reduplicated: egúm-ègúm 'hand piano, keyboard', mkpòla-mkpò 'elbow', jkònà-jkò 'tick'. These most likely derive from associative constructions.

It is noteworthy that of 28 prefixless nouns (other than those with alternating (g)w-/b-) in the lexicon, 14 involve reduplicated stems. This may have to do with the fact that adjectives and ideophones are often reduplicated, e.g., kiki 'small', $gb\grave{a}gb\grave{a}gb\grave{a}$ 'spacious', mini-mini 'sweet' (cf. min 'suck'), velevele 'very quickly' (cf. $v\grave{e}l\grave{e}$ 'fast'), $w\acute{u}k\grave{a}l\grave{a}-w\grave{u}k\grave{a}l\grave{a}$ 'rough' (cf. wukki 'be rough').

The one productive process of noun reduplication concerns diminutivization, where the first CV of the noun stem is reduplicated, along with its tone:

lìtól	'ear'	\rightarrow	lì-tó-tó-wé	lì-tó-tól-bέ
lèttol	'head'	\rightarrow	lè-tto-tto-wέ	lè-tto-ttol-bέ
gizù	'game'	\rightarrow	gi-zù-zù-wé	gi-zu-zu-bé
gèkumì	'fever'	\rightarrow	gè-ku-kumì-wé	gè-ku-kumì-bέ
ìtóbo	'monkey'	\rightarrow	ì-tó-tóbo-wé	ì-tó-tóbo-bé
èmùma	'seed'	\rightarrow	è-mù-mùma-wέ	è-mù-mùma-bé
àwìlì	'gown'	\rightarrow	à-wì-wìlì-wé	à-wì-wìlì-bέ
nzúŋ	'nose'	\rightarrow	'n-zú-zúŋ-wέ	'n-zú-zúm-bέ

In addition, -wé 'child' is suffixed to mark singulars (pl. -bé). The prefix is not copied, e.g., lìtól 'ear', lìtótówé 'small ear', lìtótó-bé 'small ears'. In diminutivization, the reduplicant is strictly limited to a CV syllable with a short vowel, even when a CVV, CVVC, or CVVCV stem has a long vowel:

gè-bòò	'cloud'	\rightarrow	gè-bò-bòò-w£	gè-bò-bòò-bé
ὲ-kàà	'argument'	\rightarrow	ὲ-kà-kàà-wέ	ὲ-kà-kàà-bέ
à-móò	'cup, jug'	\rightarrow	à-mó-móò-wé	à-mó-móò-bé
gὲ-zὲε	'journey'	\rightarrow	gè-zè-zèe-wé	gè-zè-zèè-bé
ètεεm	'heart'	\rightarrow	è-te-tee-wé	è-tε-tεε-bέ
ìbèèn	'room'	\rightarrow	ì-bè-bèè-wé	ì-bè-bèè-bé
àŋwáàŋ	'cat'	\rightarrow	à-ŋwá-ŋwáà-wé	à-ŋwá-ŋwáà-bé
ὲkaala	'European'	\rightarrow	ὲ-ka-kaala-wέ	à-ka-kaala-bé
imaaŋi	'heartburn'	\rightarrow	i-ma-maaŋi-wé	i-ma-maaŋi-bé
lembono	l 'reply'	\rightarrow	lɛ-mò-mòòŋò-wé	lε-mò-mòòŋò-bέ

Although there is variation, the final consonant of the root may also be dropped before -wé and -bé. There are several phonological interactions between the stem and the suffixes -wé and -bé. First, -wé optionally simplifies to -é after round vowels: i-zu-zu-wé ~ i-zu-zu-é 'small calabash', \dot{e} -yò-yòò-wé ~ \dot{e} -yò-yòò-é 'small friend', $g\dot{e}$ -bɔ-bɔ-wé ~ $g\dot{e}$ -bɔ-bɔé 'small hand, arm'.

Second, stem-final consonants may become modified or deleted. Coda /l/, which is a suffix, is obligatory deleted when followed by either $-w\acute{\varepsilon}$ or $-b\acute{\varepsilon}$: $l\grave{e}$ -ttol 'head' $\rightarrow l\grave{e}$ -tto-tto- $w\acute{\varepsilon}$ ($\sim \acute{\varepsilon}$), $l\grave{e}$ -tto-tto- $b\acute{\varepsilon}$ 'small head(s)'. In careful speech, nasal codas are optionally pronounced without change. They are, however, more normally realized as a weakened assimilated [η] before $-w\acute{\varepsilon}$, with possible deletion and/or nasalization of the preceding vowel. Except in careful speech, they assimilate to [m] before $-b\acute{\varepsilon}$:

ὴgòm	'foolishness'	\rightarrow	ŋ̀-gɔ̀-gɔ̀ŋ-wέ	ŋ̀-gɔ̀-gɔ̀m-bέ
nćní	'fowl'	\rightarrow	ì-nò-nòŋ-wé	ì-nò-nòm-bé
nćwś	'storm'	\rightarrow	ὲ-wὸ-wὸη-wέ	è-wò-wòm-bé

Since the [w] of $-w\dot{\varepsilon}$ may be absorbed into a preceding round vowel, the diminutive singular of $in\partial n$ 'fowl' may be $i-n\partial-n\partial n-w\dot{\varepsilon}$, $i-n\partial-n\partial y-w\dot{\varepsilon}$, $i-n\partial-n\partial-w\dot{\varepsilon}$, or $i-n\partial-n\partial-\dot{\varepsilon}$, but not $*i-n\partial-n\partial n-\dot{\varepsilon}$.

When the first syllable of the stem contains a sequence of non-identical vowels, only the first of these is reduplicated:

```
lisúàl
          'feather'
                       → li-sú-súà-wέ
                                                li-sú-súàl-bé
          'wing'
                       → li-vε-vεì-wέ
liveil
                                                li-ve-veìl-bé
                       → gè-wa-wai-wé
                                                gè-wa-wai-bé
gèwai
          'comb'
          'humor'
                       → ge-yu-yuaη-wέ
                                                e-yu-yuam-bé
geyuan
```

This allows us to distinguish nouns with CyV vs. CiV:

```
'parrot'
                          \rightarrow è-ppyó-ppyón-wé
èppyóŋ
                                                     è-pppyó-ppyóm-bé
           'blackness'
gèbbyo
                          → gè-bbyo-bbyo-wέ
                                                     gè-bbyo-bé
εkpìàn
           'chair'
                              ε-kpì-kpìàŋ-wέ
                                                     ε-kpì-kpìàm-bέ
                          \rightarrow
gèbbiè
                              gè-bbi-bbiè-wé
                                                     gè-bbi-bbiè-bé
           'darkness'
                          \rightarrow
```

As with vowel sequences, only the first tone of a contour is found on the CV reduplicant. A LH rising tone is realized as L-H on the first two syllables of the stem, while a HL falling tone is realized as H-HL:

```
ifin 'cricket' \rightarrow i-fi-fiŋ-wé i-fi-fim-bé e-ggǔ 'catfish (sp.)' \rightarrow e-ggù-ggú-wé e-ggù-ggú-bé geppyôn 'afternoon' \rightarrow ge-ppyó-ppyôŋ-wé ge-ppyó-ppyôm-bé
```

Nouns without a prefix undergo the same diminutivization process:

dzè	'crocodile'	\rightarrow	dzè-dzè-wέ	dzè-dzè-bέ
dzδ	'snake'	\rightarrow	ðw-ćsb-ćsb	dzò-dzò-bé
kkwàl	'boat'	\rightarrow	kkwà-kkwà-wé	kkwà-kkwàl-bé
ŋwènè	'book'	\rightarrow	ŋwè-ŋwènè-wé	ŋwè-ŋwènè-bé

When the noun $vv\delta m$ 'thing' is reduplicated, it loses its final /m/ and is (optionally) pronounced with L tone: $vv\delta - vv\delta - w\epsilon \sim vv\delta - vv\delta - w\epsilon$ 'small thing', pl. $vv\delta - vv\delta - b\epsilon \sim vv\delta - v\epsilon - vv\delta - b\epsilon$.

The following examples show that w-, gw-, and b- have fused with the stem:

```
wàdum 'man' \rightarrow wà-wà-dum-wé bà-bà-dum-bé gwàno 'woman' \rightarrow gwà-gwà-nɔ-wé bà-bà-nɔ-bé
```

Bisyllabic noun stems which are already reduplicated form their diminutive by simply adding $-w\acute{\epsilon}$ or $-b\acute{\epsilon}$:

င်္ခင်္ခ	'small frog'	\rightarrow	cὸcὸ-wέ	còcò-bέ
kkpakkpa	'groundnut'	\rightarrow	kkpakkpa-wé	kpakpa-bé
ìníní	'gift'	\rightarrow	ìníní-wé	ìníní-bé
nnyànyàŋ	'horse'	\rightarrow	nnyànyàŋ-wé	nnyànyàŋ-bé
ntətəŋ	'rat'	\rightarrow	ntətəŋ-wé	ntətàŋ-bé
nzùzùŋ	'housefly'	\rightarrow	ǹzùzùŋ-wέ	ǹzùzùŋ-bέ
lèdudùl	'bundle'	\rightarrow	èdudùl-wέ	èdudùl-bέ

Similarly, nouns with trisyllabic or longer stems, whether reduplications or not, generally form their diminutive by simply suffixing $-w\acute{\epsilon}$ or $-b\acute{\epsilon}$:

ntítìŋá	'broom'	\rightarrow	ntítìŋá-wé	ntítìŋá-bé
ŋkòkóni	'bee'	\rightarrow	ŋkɔkɔ́ni-wɛ́	ὴkὸkóni-bέ
gèzèzéni	'worm'	\rightarrow	gèzèzéni-wé	gèzèzéni-bé
getokolo	'skull'	\rightarrow	getokolo-wé	getokolo-bé
ipìnápi	'mouse'	\rightarrow	ipìnápi-wé	ipìnápi-bé
ekkpokolo	'table'	\rightarrow	ekkpokolo-wé	ekkpokolo-bé
ekìlikílì	'weaver bird'	\rightarrow	ekìlikílì-wé	ekìlikílì-bé
gibilèzèzèl	'bat'	\rightarrow	gibilèzèzè-wé	gibilèzèzè-bé

Non-compound bisyllabic stems reduplicate their first syllable:

ìtóbo	'monkey'	\rightarrow	ì-tó-tóbo-wé	ì-tó-tóbo-bέ
gekòlo	'hole'	\rightarrow	ge-kò-kòlo-wé	ge-kò-kòlo-bé
gèyàlí	'paddle'	\rightarrow	gè-yà-yàlí-wé	gè-yà-yàlí-bé
lebilà	'bundle'	\rightarrow	le-bi-bilà-wέ	le-bi-bilà-bέ
gètènà	'bridge'	\rightarrow	gè-tè-tènà-wέ	gè-tè-tènà-bé
ekkpoma	'bottle	\rightarrow	e-kkpo-kkpoma-wé	e-kkpo-kkpoma-bé
àwìlì	ʻgown'	\rightarrow	à-wì-wìlì-wέ	à-wì-wìlì-bé
àteèmì	'farm'	\rightarrow	à-te-teèmì-wé	à-te-teèmì-bé
àkkoòmba	'pig'	\rightarrow	à-kko-kkoòmba-wέ	à-kko-kkoòmba-bέ

On the other hand, bisyllabic stems which are recognized to be compounds reduplicate the second part. This includes cases where one of the two members of the compound cannot be identified, or even when neither part can be identified, or only with uncertainty:

```
ge-nyé-dze
              'banana'
                                   ge-nyé-dze-dze-wé
                                                          ge-nyédze-dze-bé
   (nnya 'young' + gèdzé 'yam')
              'street'
i-te-vo
                                   i-te-vo-vo-wé
                                                          i-tevo-vo-bé
   (lètel 'compound' + vo 'flow')
gè-kkpà-mìnà 'bed'
                                   gè-kkpà-mì-mìnà-wé gè-kkpà-mì-mìnà-bé
   (gèkkpa 'cover' + mìna 'lie down'; cf. èkkpa 'body')
n-ttó-kkpan
              'roof'
                                   'n-ttó-kkpa-kkpa-wέ
                                                          n-ttó-kkpa-kkpa-bé
   (ètto 'house' + gèkkpa 'cover')
              'fence'
n-ká-tti
                                   η-ká-tti-tti-wέ
                                                          η-ká-tti-tti-bέ
   (η-ká 'I use' + gètti 'tree')
              'hut'
                                   ge-ku-tto-tto-wé
                                                          ge-ku-tto-tto-bé
ge-ku-tto
   (? + \u00e9tto 'house')
gè-búkpò
                                   gè-bú-kpò-kpò-wé
                                                          gè-bú-kpò-kpò-bé
              'board'
   (? + kkpo 'build'?)
n-disa
              'picture'
                                   n-di-sa-sa-wé
                                                          n-di-sa-sa-bέ
   (? + ?) (< Efik)
```

In the last two cases it is the intervocalic consonant, e.g., /kp/ or /s/, which is prohibited stem-internally and therefore serves as a cue that more than one stem must be present, whether the result of an obscured old compound or a borrowing, e.g., $j\check{a}kpu$ 'cassava' $\rightarrow j\check{a}k-kpu-kpu-w\acute{\epsilon}$, $j\check{a}k-kpu-kpu-b\acute{\epsilon}$.

In some cases we can identify an initial CV- element which has been reduced from a fuller stem shape, e.g., tè- (from ètèèn 'animal') and tε- from èteem 'chest'. These still reduplicate as compounds:

```
gètè-kkpaŋ 'skin' → gè-tè-kkpa-kkpa-wé gè-tè-kkpa-kkpa-bé gètè-kɔ 'bone' → gè-tè-kɔ-wé gè-tè-kɔ-kɔ-bé (cf. gèkkpa 'cover', gèkɔ 'bone')
lète-bbòl 'heart' → lè-tɛ-bbò-bbò-wé lè-tɛ-bbò-bbò-bé (cf. lèbbòl 'pit', hence 'pit of chest')
```

Note that when coda consonants occur as the second member of a reduplicated compound, they are obligatorily deleted before $-w \not\in -b \not\in$.

Finally, three nouns have been found that are inherently diminutive and thus must therefore be listed in the lexicon: $n d \partial d \partial w \dot{\epsilon}$ 'insect', $gitu utu(w \dot{\epsilon})$ 'baby', $n t \dot{\epsilon} t \dot{\epsilon} b \dot{\epsilon}$ 'grasshopper(s)'.

5. Compounding

Although apparently not a live or productive process, Leggbo exhibits a wide range of noun compounds, which can be defined as words containing two stems, the second of which has no prefix. This stands in contrast to the productive associative (N1 of N2) construction, which is sometimes an alternative:

```
Compound: gètti-kkpal 'bark' (i.e. tree-covering)
Associative: lìkkpal gettí 'bark' (i.e. covering of tree)
Compound: gètti-nnòdò 'stump' (i.e. tree-stump)
Associative: gènnòdò gettí 'stump' (i.e. stump of tree)
```

The two equivalents for 'bark' and 'stump' both involve the nouns *gètti* 'tree, stick'. As N2 in the associative constructions, the L-M of *gètti* becomes M-H.

Both *gètti* 'tree, stick' and *likkpal* 'covering, peeling' (and the related noun *gèkkpa* 'cover (body)') are frequently found in compounds:

```
gèko-tti
                  'forest'
                                  (lìkool 'bush')
                  'tablet'
                                  (èmùma 'seed'; also gètti-mùma)
ntti-mùma
                                  (wom 'bear fruit')
ntti-womá
                  'fruit'
lètti-dùl
                  'stick-bundle'
                                  (ledùl = lèdudùl 'bundle')
gètti-buì
                  'tree-trunk'
                                  (ebuì 'middle part of body, waist area)
                                  (gèmmà 'mouth')
gemmà-kkpa(η)'lip'
lemmà-kpa(l)
                  'lip'
                                  (lèmmàl 'door')
nttó-kkpan
                  'roof'
                                  (ètto 'house')
gèzó-kkpan
                  'sky'
                                  (gèzo 'top, up')
                  'thatch roof'
lìkpè-kkpál
                                  (ekpèn 'raphia')
```

As the second element, -kkpa is the only stem that acquires a final $-\eta$. (The final -l, on the other hand, is related to the li- or $l\varepsilon$ - prefix). In addition, the last three compounds are among the minority where a M tone of one or the other stem changes from M to H.

There are three arguments for considering the second stem (N2) to be the head of the compound. The first is semantic: A 'tree-stump' is a kind of stump, a 'raphia-covering' is a kind of covering, and so forth. The second is reduplication: As seen in §4, it is the second stem of a compound that undergoes prefixal CV reduplication, e.g., getto-kummà 'ceiling' (ètto 'house' + gèkúmmà 'shelter, cover'), i.e., 'house-shelter', becomes getto-ku-kummà-wé 'small ceiling'. Third,

as discussed in the next paragraph, the second stem usually determines the prefix of the overall compound.

There are noticeable changes on the prefix of compounds, both in terms of its segmental identity and its tone. Judging from closely related languages (Mbembe, Lokaa), where the pattern is reported with greater regularity, the apparent inherited situation was that the prefix of the second stem replaced the prefix of the first. A number of Leggbo compounds show this pattern. This includes compounds where the first stem cannot be identified with certainty:

```
'backyard'
ntto-zam
                                   (ètto 'house' + nzam 'back')
eso-vyém
              'forehead, in front'
                                   (lèsol 'face' + εννέm 'place, center')
getto-kolo
                                   (lèttol 'head' + gekòlo 'emptiness')
              'skull'
lèbo-dùl
              'fist'
                                   (gèbɔ 'hand' + lèdùl ~ lèdudùl 'bundle')
lìkkwe-kool
              'hunting'
                                   (kwen 'fire, gun' + likool 'bush')
lèsè-mmàl
              'proverb, saying'
                                   (èsè 'tiger' + lèmmàl 'opening')
gèkkwá-mmàl'fireplace'
                                   (kwen 'fire' + gemma 'mouth')
lèkkwá-mmàl 'fireplace'
                                   (kwen 'fire' + lemmal 'door')
le-nó-kkpòl
              'buttocks'
                                   (? + lɛkkpòl 'lump'; cf. ènò 'vagina')
i-kkí-zòòm
              'tapping instrument' (? + izòòm 'knife')
lèkkpè-mmàl 'communal house'
                                  (? + lèmmàl 'door, opening')
                                   (? + \`extra 'house'; cf. \`extra 'body')
èkkpí-tto
              'umbrella'
```

Compare also $l \hat{\epsilon} - nn \hat{\sigma} - m \hat{b} b \hat{o} \hat{l}$ 'well' (? + $l \hat{e} b b \hat{o} \hat{l}$ 'hole, pit'), which, however, appears to have an m- prefix on the second stem.

In a few cases, the prefix found on the N1 of the compound is not segmentally identical to either input prefix, and/or may carry a tone which is not found on either noun in isolation. This is particularly true with the N- prefix:

```
ntti-bbó 'tree branch' (gètti 'tree' + èbbó 'branch')
ntti-mùma 'tablet' (gètti 'tree' + èmùma 'seed')
gɛmmà-kkpaŋ 'lip' (gèmmà 'mouth' + gèkkpa 'cover')
letto kummà 'ceiling' (ètto 'house' + gèkúmmà 'shelter, cover')
```

It may be that certain patterns are associated with nouns that occupy N1 or N2 position in more than one compound, e.g., -tti 'tree', -kkpaŋ/-kkpal 'cover(ing)'. Among the nouns inputting N1 in more than one compound are $g \grave{\epsilon} t \grave{a}$ 'big, old' and $\grave{\epsilon} t \grave{\epsilon} \grave{\epsilon} n$ 'animal' (the latter being shortened to $t \grave{\epsilon}$ -):

```
ge-tà-kpón
               'world'
                                  (gètà 'big' + ekkpón 'land')
                                  (gètà 'old' + ènòn 'person')
è-tà-nòn
               'old person'
               'sea, ocean'
                                  (gètà 'big' + lèzàl 'river')
lè-tà-zànàl
lì-tà-kəəl
               'thick forest'
                                  (gètà 'big' + lìkool 'bush')
                                  (ètèèn 'animal' + gèko 'bone')
gè-tè-kɔ
               'bone'
                                  (ètèèn 'animal' + gèkkpa 'cover')
gè-tè-kkpaŋ
               'skin'
```

Only one compound has been found whose input N2 is prefixless:

```
àggba nònón 'ring' (gèggbà 'charm' + nònón 'finger')
```

As seen, both the prefix and the stem tone of $g \grave{e} g g b \grave{a}$ change, perhaps from an earlier, but no longer existent plural * $\grave{a} g g b \grave{a}$ 'charms' in the associative construction, cf. $g \grave{e} g g b \grave{a}$ $a n \grave{o} n \acute{o} g$ 'charm of finger'.

This last example shows that the N1 retains its own prefix. When N2 has a prefix, only a few compounds show stability of the N1 prefix:

```
jko-kwén 'bullet' (jko 'seed' + kwen 'fire')
ledùdu-ŋili 'knee' (ledùdul 'mound' + nzíŋìlì 'egg')
lettá-kolo(l) 'cave' (lèttál 'stone' + gekòlo 'emptiness')
```

Some nouns used adjectivally lose their prefix in attributive position, with or without conditioning a change in the prefix of the preceding noun:

```
lìzèl koola 'potting clay' (lìzèl 'sand' + gèkoola 'red(ness)')
gètti dò 'short stick' (gètti 'stick' + gedò 'shortness')
```

Unless there is an unexpected segmental, tonal or semantic modification, it is not clear whether this is a sequence of noun + adjective or a compound:

```
'reception room'
                                       (ètto 'house' + gbala 'long')
ètto-gbala
èggóggo mbàla
                  'sweet potato'
                                       (èggóggo 'potato' +?)
                  'cloth (wrapper)'
                                       (\epsilon gg \delta ' cloth' + ?)
eggò bbábbaa
eggò gàlà
                                       (eggò 'cloth' + gàlà 'torn')
                   'rag'
                                       (kkàkki 'pants' + gbala 'long')
kkàkki gbala
                  'trousers'
                                       (kkàkki 'pants' + gɛdɔ̀ 'short(ness)')
                  'short pants'
kkàkki do
```

Preservation of the N1 prefix is also observed when the second element of the compound is a verb:

```
'daybreak'
                             (lèdzìl 'day' + sòo 'dawn, break (of day)')
lèdzìl sòò
lìzèl ppì
                'clay'
                             (lìzèl 'sand', ppì 'plaster (v.)'; cf. gèppì 'wall')
                'hyena'
                             (èvva 'dog' + kkɔ 'hate, lack')
èvva-kko
                'head-ache'
lèttó-ppòì
                             (lèttol 'head' + ppòi 'knock')
gemmà-ggùmà 'yawn'
                             (gèmmà 'mouth' + ggùma 'blow')
ntti womá
                'fruit'
                             (gètti 'tree' + wom 'bear fruit')
gèkkpà-mìnà
                             (gèkkpa 'cover' + mìna 'lie down')
                'bed'
```

In other compounds the first element appears to come from a verb:

```
gèbbò-ttó 'grave (death-house) (bbò 'die' + ètto 'house')
gedu-bo 'right' (du 'beat' + gèbo 'arm')
bba-ddèn 'blind' (bba 'block' ddèn 'eye')
```

The above deverbals are distinct from their gerund forms $g \grave{e} bbo \grave{e}$ 'dying', $g \grave{e} du \grave{e}$ 'beating' and $g \grave{e} bb \varepsilon \grave{e}$ 'blocking'. Use of such gerund forms in object + verb nominalizations, is quite frequent. In this productive process, the $g \grave{e}$ - prefix may optionally delete:

```
\rightarrow lìkkòi (gè)tòòè
                                              'snoring'
tào lìkkàil 'snore'
                                                            (nausea-reaping)
sen livòl
                        \rightarrow lèvàl (gè)senè
                                              'traveling'
                                                            (country-going)
            'travel'
                                                            (strength-reducing)
yei gèkkwé 'rest'
                        → gèkkwé (gè)yeì
                                              'resting'
                        → gita (gè)dziè
                                              'bewitching' (witchcraft-eating)
dzi gita
            'bewitch'
                        → èteem (gè)dzòè
dzò èteem 'hope'
                                              'hope'
                                                            (heart-keeping)
```

There are some noun stems which are treated as complex, as determined by their pattern of diminutive reduplication (§4), but whose parts cannot be identified:

```
'fish-net'
                                ìtò-fò-fòη-wέ
ntò-fòm
                                                     nto-fo-fom-bé
nsikon
              'pipe (smoking)'
                                nsi-kò-kòη-wέ
                                                     nsi-kɔ-kɔm-bέ
n-disa
              'picture'
                                n-disa-sa-wέ
                                                     n-disa-sa-bé
jăkpu
              'cassava'
                                ja-kpù-kpú-wé
                                                    ja-kpù-kpú-bé
              'young girl'
                                e-mínaakò-kòò-wé
                                                     e-mínaakò-kòò-bé
emínaakòòl
```

6. Possessive Pronouns

Leggbo nouns generally have the structure prefix+stem, where prefixes are relics of noun class markers, as is the -l suffix. These markers occur only on the nouns themselves. Other than singular/plural distinctions, it was said that nothing remains of the noun class agreement system. However, indications of earlier noun class concord are found on possessive pronouns. The following are the possessive pronouns as realized with a zero noun head:

```
ngwómin 'mine' aamán 'ours' ngwó 'yours sg.' aabo 'yours pl.' ηgwέ 'his/hers' aabo 'theirs'
```

These possessive pronouns have the following structure:

```
η-gwó-min cf. àmin 'me'

a + aman
 'of us'

η-gwó-
δ
 cf. -(y)
δ
 'you object'

a + ab
 'of you pl.'

η-gwó-
ε cf. -(y)
ε 'him/her object'

a + ab
ε
 'of them'
```

The singulars have an g- prefix, followed by a gw- or gwo- element, followed by a pronominal element: $-\delta$ and $-\varepsilon$ are object enclitics. By contrast, the plural possessors consist of one of the independent pronouns preceded by the associative marker a. The tonal change of aman 'us' to aamán is expected in this construction, whereas the non-change of aabo and $aab\varepsilon$ is not. These forms were presumably introduced and contributed to the levelling of noun class distinctions in Leggbo. Longer associative forms are also possible, using the fuller element awo (cf. below): awo amán/awaamán 'that of us', awo awaabo 'that of you pl.' and $awaab\varepsilon$ 'that of them'. When appearing in attributive position, possessors follow the possessed noun.

ètto ngwómin	'my house'	ètto amán	'our house'
ètto ngwó	'your sg. house'	ètto abo	'your pl. house'
ètto ngwé	'his/her house'	ètto abe	'their house'

In addition to $\eta gw \acute{o}min$, $\eta gw \acute{o}$, and $\eta gw \acute{e}$, with most nouns, the singular persons may appear in a second form:

```
ètto lómin 'my house' lo-min
ètto só 'your (sg.) house' s-ó
ètto ayé 'his/her house' a + àye
```

These forms cannot be used in isolation: *lómin 'mine', *só 'yours sg.', *aayé 'his/hers'. As indicated, lómin consists of a relic prefixal element ló followed by the root syllable of the independent pronoun àmin 'me'. The form só 'yours sg.' most likely is a relic of another noun class, hence s-ó (cf. sé 'the', deriving from 'his/her'). The third singular possessive aayé 'his/her' is built on the same associative construction (within tonal change) as the plural possessors.

The two different sets of singular possessive pronouns were found to be possible with a large group of nouns, including those beginning with all of the different historical noun class prefixes, including *lèttol* 'head', *gizù* 'game', *gètti* 'tree', *gèbɔ* 'arm, hand', *ìtóbo* 'monkey', *ènùŋ* 'salt', *èttɔ* 'house', *àzì* 'blood', *nzúŋ* 'nose'. The two forms were possible whether the noun was singular or plural, including most nouns with distinct singular and plural forms: *èllà ŋgwómin* \sim *èllà lómin* 'my servant', *àllà ŋgwómin* \sim *àllà lómin* 'my servants'. In some cases, one or the other form was preferred, and particularly human nouns showed some irregularities. Thus, *èkkà* 'mother' and *èttɛ* 'father' could not occur with *lómin* or *só*. On the other hand, both these and several other kinship nouns occur with an encliticized third person singular possessor $-\varepsilon$:

ὲkkὲε	'his/her mother'	pl. àkkὲε	cf. èkkà / àkkà 'mother(s)'
èttεε	'his/her father'	pl. àttee	cf. Ette / atte 'father(s)'
ὲnnὲε	'his/her in-law'	pl. ànnὲε	cf. ènnè / ànnè 'in-law(s)'
èduumε	'her husband'	pl. àduumε	cf. èduum / àduum 'husband(s)'
àgwèe	'his wife'	pl. àbbὲε	cf. àggwèéye / àbbèéye 'wife/wives'
èyòòε	'his/her friend'	pl. àyòòε	cf. èyòò / àyòò 'friend(s)'

In addition to $-\varepsilon$, the pronoun $s\acute{\varepsilon}$ 'his/her', which has developed into the definite article $s\acute{\varepsilon}$, is also sometimes used, especially with certain of the above nouns which indicate relations between human beings, e.g., $\grave{\varepsilon}$ 'his/her servant', <code-block> wákkà $s\acute{\varepsilon}$ 'his/her sibling', g wànà $s\acute{\varepsilon}$ 'his wife' (vs. g wàno $s\acute{\varepsilon}$ 'the woman'). It is uncertain how widespread it is in this function.</code>

A dialectal study may show that there is even more variation. What is important for the present study is that variations such as the above point back to an earlier period when Leggbo had noun class agreement. With time it can be expected that these complexities will be levelled out, as has already occurred with

respect to noun class agreements in other contexts. The ultimate result will therefore be no agreement, the former noun-class vowel prefixes simply adhering to their stems, much as is found in modern-day Yoruba and Igbo.

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