

**THE MORPHO-SYNTACTIC AND LEXICAL STRUCTURES OF THE
KALENJIN LANGUAGE: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF POKOT WITH
KIPSIGIS AND TUGEN.**

By:

KAMUREN J. FRANCISCAR

EGERTON UNIVERSITY LIBRARY

**A thesis submitted to Graduate School in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the award of the degree of Master of Arts in English
Language and Linguistics of Egerton University.**

EGERTON UNIVERSITY

JUNE, 2007

2008/73176 X
EULIB X



063647

DECLARATION AND APPROVAL

DECLARATION

This is my original work and has not been presented for any degree in any other university.

NAME: KAMUREN J. FRANCISCAR

SIGN: 

DATE: 09/07/2007

APPROVAL

This M.A. thesis has been submitted with my approval as a university supervisor.

NAME: DR. F.O. ASWANI

SIGN: 

DATE: 10/07/2007

2008/73176 X

COPYRIGHT

All rights reserved. No part of this thesis may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system, or transmitted in any form or by any means: electronic, mechanical, photocopying, recording or otherwise without the prior permission of the author or Egerton University authority on behalf of the author.

June, 2007

Kamuren F.J.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.

The far this work has come, I give thanks to the almighty God. I extend my acknowledgements to all those people whose spiritual and material support, criticisms, suggestions, pieces of advice and encouragements led to the success of this work. My supervisor, teachers, family, friends and colleagues share the joy of the completion.

My deepest and most sincere gratitude go to my supervisor, Dr. F.O.Aswani whose guidance and constructive criticisms shaped this work. I say thank you for going out of your way to encourage me to complete this work when I was on the verge of giving up.

The foundation of this study was laid by Dr. Mutiti. I say thank you so much for giving this work the focus and direction it has today. Unlimited gratitude goes to Dr. Kitetu the head of Languages and Linguistics Department for the many pieces of advice she gave me and the constant encouragement.

I would like to thank my lectures: Dr. Kimani, Mr. Chacha, Ms. Ann Juma, Mr. Simiyu, Mr. Mugambi, Ms. Njeru (only to mention but a few) who provided the academic and intellectual background that enabled me to write this work and yearn for academic build-up to satisfy my intellectual curiosity.

My course mates: Patricia Kimeu, Emily Ondondo, Gerry Ayieko and David Lwangale deserve to be mentioned. I thank them all for teaching me the importance of teamwork, indeed we worked as a team. They encouraged me when the going got tough.

All the members of the support staff of the Languages and Linguistics Department are remembered for their support. I wish to single out Jane for going beyond her duty to offer any support this work needed. I say thank you so much.

This work would not have been complete without the support of my family members. I thank my late mother for being the strength behind everything I do, including this work. My brothers and sisters persistently reminded me that I had to complete this work. I wish to thank my niece, Wendy Cheronu for being persistent and sometimes nagging me to do the work; she gave a hand where she could. My thanks and affection goes to Abraham whose love, encouragement, advice and prayers spurred me on.

I thank all my friends who include Patricia, Jacky, Doris, Phylis, Walter Chesang, Ogenga, Jebichii (to mention only but a few) for being all season in my life, for encouraging and challenging me to complete this work. Special mention goes to Langat who did the final computer work thus giving this work the look it has. While acknowledging the help of the people above, I take responsibility for all errors in this thesis.

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my little angel Joy who is the apple of my eye. She gives me the strength and reason to soldier on with the journey of life. My late mother Clara Kamuren who was and still is a source of inspiration in my life. Through her, I learnt to be a strong person in life. I know she would have been very proud of this work.

ABSTRACT

Pokot being one of the Kalenjin dialects has been said to be different from other dialects. However no study has attempted to establish the differences. This study aimed at establishing the extent to which Pokot lexical and morpho-syntactic structure is different from those of other Kalenjin dialects by comparing it with Kipsigis and Tugen. Another aim was to investigate the lexical and morpho-syntactic nature of Kipsigis, Tugen and Pokot. The theoretical framework employed was the typological approach. This approach was relevant to this study because it aimed at bringing out features shared by dialects being investigated at the time of the study. Samples for the study were drawn from Tugen, Kipsigis and Pokot speakers. This was done by stratified random sampling. The study randomly selected 90 subjects, 30 from each dialect group. From the 30 subjects, 15 were males and 15 were females. Data collection was by use of language tests and tape recording. The taped material was replayed and transcribed to constitute data for analysis. The results were analyzed, interpreted and described by using cognate percentages, spread cognate percentages and the inspection method. It was found out that Pokot's lexical and morpho-syntactic structure is different from those of Tugen and Kipsigis while similarities are insignificant. The findings of this study make an important addition to the information on Nilotic languages and more specifically Kalenjin. It also adds strength to theory in the typological approach in the study of linguistics.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
APPROVAL AND DECLARATION	ii
COPYRIGHT	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
DEDICATION	v
ABSTRACT	vi
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vii
DEFINITION OF TERMS	x
ABBREVIATIONS	xii
LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES	xiii
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	
1.1 Background to the Study	1
1.2 Statement of the Problem.....	2
1.3 Objectives	2
1.4 Hypotheses	2
1.5 Justification	3
1.6 Scope and limitation of the study	3
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW	
2.1 Theoretical Literature	4
2.2 Studies on other African Languages	5
2.3 Studies on Nilotic Languages	7
2.4 Studies on Kalenjin dialects	9
2.5 Linguistic Description of Languages.....	15
2.5.1 Introduction	15
2.5.2 Kipsigis	16
2.5.3 Tugen	18
2.5.4 Pokot	20
2.6 Theoretical framework	26
CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY	
3.1 Introduction	27
3.2 Population	27
3.3 Sample Size	27

3.4 Sampling Procedure	27
3.5 Data Collection Tools and Techniques.....	28
3.6 Data Analysis and Interpretation.....	28
CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS	
4.1 Introduction	30
4.2 Lexical Analysis.....	30
4.2.1 Statistical Analysis.....	30
4.2.2 Lexicostatistics.....	31
4.2.2.1 Cognate Percentages.....	31
4.2.2.2 Spread Cognate Percentages.....	32
4.2.3 Interpretation	35
4.3 Morpho-syntactic Analysis	35
4.3.1 Adjectival Concord	35
4.3.2 Verb Conjunction	37
4.3.3 Pronouns	41
4.3.4 Possessives	43
4.3.5 The Demonstrative	45
4.4 Cognacy in the Morphemes	46
4.4.1 Adjectives	46
4.4.2 Verb Conjugation	47
4.4.3 Pronouns	48
4.4.4 Possessives	48
4.4.5 The Demonstrative.....	49
4.5 Concordial Morphemes Cognates Percentages.....	50
4.6 Interpretation.....	51
CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	
5.1 Introduction.....	52
5.2 The Difference and Similarity of Pokot Lexical and Morpho-syntactic Structure from/to those of Kipsigis and Tugen.....	52
5.3 Recommendations.....	53
REFERENCES	55

APPENDICIES	59
Appendix I Oral Test 1	59
Appendix II Oral Test 2	66
Appendix III Lexicostatistics 1	68
Appendix IV Lexicostatistics 2	74
Appendix V Map.....	81

DEFINITION OF TERMS

The operational definition of terms is as follows:

- Cognate percentage:** Method of analysis that is used when comparing languages (dialects) to establish relationships between them.
- Cognacy:** Similarity in form and meaning of word roots in different languages.
- Cognates:** Words with similar form and meaning of their roots.
- Dialect:** One of the forms of a language.
- Inspection method:** Method of analysis used in comparison of languages to detect cognates.
- Intelligibility:** Mutual understanding among speakers of different dialects of a language.
- Kalenjin Language:** Cover term used to refer to a group of related dialects within the southern Nilotic group.
- Lexeme:** The grammatical unit that is identical with a word, which is a unit of formal meaning in language.
- Lexicon:** Term used largely in relation to entries of lexemes or words in the formal description of a language.
- Lexical analysis:** The investigation of selected lexemes in the three dialects
- Morpheme:** The smallest meaningful unit of a language.
- Morph-syntax:** The joining together of morphemes to make words and the rules governing the joining of those words to form phrases and sentences
- Morpho-syntactic analysis:** The investigation of selected morphemes and their Structure in the three dialects.
- Phoneme:** The smallest unit of speech that can make a word different from another that is similar to it in every other way.

Typological approach: A theory that postulates the comparison of languages in order to establish relationships between them on the basis of similar or different linguistic structure without regard to their historical origin

ABBREVIATIONS

Adj.	-	Adjective
Art.	-	Article
K	-	Kipsigis
M	-	Marakwet
N	-	Noun
Nom.	-	Nominalizer
P	-	Particle
Pl	-	Plural
Sing.	-	Singular
V	-	Verb

LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES

	Page
Table 1: Language used by Kipsigis speakers while speaking to other Kalenjin dialects.....	2
Table 2: Kalenjin vowel system	15
Table 3: Kipsigis consonant inventory	18
Table 4: Tugen consonant inventory	19
Table 5: Pokot consonant inventory	21
Table 6: Sample population.....	27
Figure 1: Kipsigis vowel inventory	17
Figure 2: Tugen vowel inventory	18
Figure 3: Pokot vowel inventory	20
 MAP	
Map 1: Kalenjin dialects and area	81

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the study

This research was geared towards establishing the extent to which Pokot is different from other Kalenjin dialects on the basis of their morpho-syntactic and lexical structures. According to Toweett (1979), there are six Kalenjin dialects viz: Kipsigis, Nandi + Terik, Keiyo + Marakwet, Tugen, Sebeei and Pokot. Ogot (1976) gives eight dialects viz: Kipsigis, Nandi, Terik, Elgeiyo, Tugen, Marakwet, Kong and Sebeei. This research studied the morpho-syntactic and lexical structures of Kipsigis, Pokot and Tugen.

There was need to compare these dialects in order to establish the extent to which Pokot is different morpho-syntactically and lexically from the other Kalenjin dialects. Ogot (ibid.), Toweett (ibid.) and Mohline and Heine, (1980) share the view that Pokot is different from the other dialects, although they do not provide any Linguistic evidence. This study went a head to provide linguistic evidence of the extent of these differences by comparing the morpho-syntactic and lexical structures of pokot versus those of Tugen and Kipsigis.

Comparative studies form an important part of linguistics and improve our understanding of languages (dialects) in the world. There are two types of linguistic comparison, the historically oriented comparison and the typological comparison Robin, (1980). The historically oriented comparison is also termed as comparative historical linguistics. The typological comparison involves the comparison of features of different languages and dialects with a view to establishing any linguistic ties, or point out and explain differences that are there. This study is a typological comparison between the Pokot dialect and two other Kalenjin language dialects, Kipsigis and Tugen. The study was aimed at examining the morpho-syntactic and lexical structures in order to establish the extent of similarities and differences between the Pokot dialect and the two selected dialects.

It has been observed by Ogot (1976), Toweett (1979), Mohline and Heine (1980) that Pokot is different from other Kalenjin dialects. Asked what language they would use to address speakers of other Kalenjin dialects, the Kipsigis interviewed responded as follows:

Table 1: Language used by Kipsigis speakers while speaking to speakers of other Kalenjin dialects

Kipsigis speakers Talking to	Language used		
	Kalenjin	Swahili	Both
Nandi	100%	—	—
Elgeiyo	91%	9%	—
Tugen	85%	11%	4%
Marakwet	39%	61%	—
Pokot	15%	76%	9%

Mohline and Heine's (ibid) data was used to illustrate the extent of mutual intelligibility between the Kalenjin dialects. This is easy to see at a glance, although other intervening variables may have led to the varied interaction indicated. Only 15% of Kalenjin was spoken between Kipsigis and Pokot speakers while 76% Kiswahili was used. The concern of this study was to investigate the differences between the morpho-syntactic and lexical structure of Pokot and the two other dialects of Kalenjin. i.e Kipsigis and Tugen.

1.2 Statement of the problem

It has been pointed out that Pokot is different from other Kalenjin language dialects. No research has been done to explain the differences that have been said to exist. The present study attempts to examine the difference between Pokot morpho-syntactic and lexical structure from that of Tugen and Kipsigis.

1.3 Objectives

This study sought:

1. To establish the difference in the lexical structure of Pokot from Tugen and Kipsigis.
2. To examine the difference in the morpho-syntactic structure of Pokot from Tugen and Kipsigis.
3. To investigate the morpho-syntactic and lexical nature of Pokot, Kipsigis and Tugen.

1.4 Hypotheses

This study was guided by the following hypotheses:

1. There are differences between Pokot lexical structure from those of Tugen and Kipsigis.
2. There are differences between the morpho-syntactic structures of Pokot from those of Tugen and Kipsigis.
3. Pokot, Kipsigis and Tugen have a definite morpho-syntactic and lexical structure

1.5 Justification of the study

This study forms an important part of general linguistics as a subject and increases our understanding of the linguistic relationships among languages (dialects) in the world. No comparative study of the Pokot versus/and any other Kalenjin dialects has been undertaken to establish the difference in its morpho-syntactic and lexical structure. There was therefore need to apply the typological approach on a detailed account of these dialects in order to account for the difference that Pokot exhibits, in relation to the other Kalenjin dialects.

This study makes an important addition to the information on the Nilotic languages and more specifically Kalenjin and its dialects, thus contributing to the development of knowledge on the linguistic landscape of Nilotic languages especially Kalenjin and its dialects. In addition, the research adds strength to theory in the typological approach to the study of linguistics.

1.6 Scope and limitation of the study

Scope

This study analysed the lexical and the morpho-syntactic structures of the selected dialects and established the differences that are there in the form and meaning of vocabulary and the morpho-syntactic aspects realized in morphemes. The study confined itself to three districts in Rift Valley: West Pokot, Koibatek and Bomett district. The study drew a sample size of 90 subjects for collecting the data; 30 subjects from each dialect group. The number of lexical items used was 200 words. This list consisted of basic terms in each dialect. For morpho-syntactic analysis we used 55 phrases and statements which are grouped in various classes to exhibit certain relations e.g nouns, verb conjugation etc (c.f. chapter 5).

Limitation

An important limitation is that Pokot being very different, the researcher who is a Tugen had to depend largely on a research assistant who is a Pokot to collect and analyse data from Pokot. Thus the information not being first-hand.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Theoretical literature

Anderson (1973) proposes that to establish relationships between languages it is necessary to draw up a list of lexical items. The lexical items are also called cognates. Once the cognates are drawn up a systematic relationship between them is established. This study uses Anderson's propositions by drawing up a list of 200 lexical items from the three dialects under study and thereafter establishing the differences and similarities between Pokot and two other dialects; Kipsigis and Tugen. This is called lexical analysis in this study and it's based on cognacy (cf lexical analysis) as Anderson suggests. Anderson's propositions have not been used in any comparative study of the three Kalenjin dialects under study thus this study does so.

On form and meaning which this research dealt with, Greenberg (1963) suggests that if a number of languages show striking similarities in both form and meaning particularly in items presumed unlikely to be involved in cross-language adoption (borrowing), it is concluded that the languages are related. Higher degrees of such similarity reflect more close relationships. Completely unrelated languages show only a very little random similarity attributable to coincidence, possibility or adoption of occasional lexical items from one language to another. Although Greenberg does not give the degree at which languages (read dialects) can be said to be similar or different in terms of percentage this study uses this observations to draw conclusions on the relationship between Pokot and other Kalenjin dialects in terms of language's morpho-syntax and the lexicon.

Heine (1972) supports the study of phonological correspondences on morphemes and meaning of morphemes to draw conclusions about relationships between languages. As far as Heine's work is concerned this study compares morphemes to establish the differences and similarity between Pokot and the two other Kalenjin dialects: Kipsigis and Tugen. Thus his work was a guide to this study.

According to Gudchinsky (1956) cognacy should be judged on the basis of phonetic similarity, that is to say that the apparent cognates will share phonetic characteristics. Gudchinsky's observations were very applicable to the current study as far as methodology was concerned. It was used to detect cognates while doing lexical analysis and morpho-syntactic analysis.

Simmons, (1977) pointed out some considerations that have to be borne in mind while using lexicostatistics. About comparing languages or dialects for synchronic purposes, he says the word lists elicited do not have to consist solely of basic terms most resistant to change. It can contain any words, even loans. This study differs with Simmons suggestion and goes by Swadesh (1950). Swadesh proposes a 200 word list comprising of basic terms that are less likely to change. The 200 word list used in this study was guided by the Swadesh list but the list was compiled for Kalenjin with alterations made according to its needs in terms of culture, location etc.

Simmons (op.cit) further points out that where a group of dialects or languages show high cognate percentages against one another but relatively low and equal percentages against other members of the cluster or language group then they can be seen to form a sub-group. As mentioned earlier this study used cognates to do lexical and morpho-syntactic analysis and thereafter drew conclusions about the relationship of Pokot with Kipsigis and Tugen. By calculating cognate percentages (cf Lexical analysis and morpho-syntactic analysis) of Pokot lexical items versus those of Kipsigis and Tugen the researcher was able to draw conclusions about the extent of similarity and difference of Pokot structures and those of Kipsigis and Tugen and thus comment on the relationship, thus Simmon's work is directly related to the present work and it largely used it especially in drawing conclusions of the study.

2.2 Studies on other African languages

While studying structural similarities in relation to language interrelatedness, Welmers (1973) explains that we may expect to find significant structural similarities among African languages primarily within a group or family of related languages, languages within a common origin. He explored the vowel systems, the consonant systems, tonal systems, the word classes and isolated phonemes. His aim was to present samples of phonological and grammatical systems of these languages in order to pave way for other studies. He concluded that there are unique phonological and grammatical characteristics to African languages. Welmers' study is a generalized study that looks at all African languages in general, the Kalenjin language is placed under the Nilo-Hamitic group, this study paid specific attention to the Kalenjin dialects and more specifically on morpho-syntactic and lexical structures of these dialects.

Guthries' (1967-71) comparative Bantu uses a 9 lexical correspondence approach, which is useful in this study. In his work Guthrie studies at least 200 Bantu languages from which he elicits at least 2,300 lexical correspondences based on shared semantic content and

phonological forms.

Brown (1968) did a comparative study of Bukusu and Gishu. He established that the two dialects are mutually intelligible. He used the method of lexicostatistics, which was also used in this study.

A comparative dialect study of the Jur Beli Dialect cluster was undertaken by Persson (1979) in order to establish the most appropriate dialect to be used in literacy programmes. He recommended the Jur modo dialect, as being the best since it shared the highest proportion of words and grammar with most of the other dialects and was widely understood. He employs the method of lexicostatistics to establish cognacy. He also uses the 'inspection method'. The two methods were used in the current study and thus the two studies are related.

Saeed (1984) undertook a study to provide a description of a particular area of the Somali syntax that is the structures of focus and topic. These structures are the means by which pragmatic functions are grammaticalised. He highlighted the importance of these structures in discourse. Somali is a language under the Cushitic group of languages and it's spoken in Kenya and other African countries.

A study of the Orma, Boraana and Waata dialects of the Oromo language was carried out by Stroomer (1984). He undertook a comparative study of the phonology, morphology and the lexicon of the three dialects. He noted that there are significant similarities between the three dialects. This work is related with the present study in that they are both comparative studies that compare the linguistic structures of the dialects of a language in order to present similarities and differences present. However the present study is somewhat different in the sense that it looks at morpho-syntax and the lexicon while Stoomer's looks at morphology phonology and the lexicon.

Ingonga (1991) did a comparative study of Ekegusii, Logooli and Lwidako with the aim of establishing linguistic ties that there might be between the three languages. She concluded that the three languages are related. She used lexicostatistics and 'inspection methods' which were also used in this study.

A group of scholars did a study on the alphabets of 20 African languages, Hartell (1993). Fourteen of these languages are in West Africa, three in Central and three in Eastern Africa, the study aimed at making it accessible to the wider public a sample of 200 alphabets of the languages of Africa especially those that have been developing in the last 20 years. They gave the phonemes and their orthographic symbols. This study played a big role in bringing out to the public the phonemes of the African languages. However the study is limited in that it covers a few languages. This study is also different from the current study in

the sense that the current study sought to establish how different Pokot is from other Kalenjin dialects.

Roger and Otterloo (1983) carried out a research among the coastal Bantu languages to determine whether it is desirable to produce vernacular literature in the coastal region. The study was carried out among the Pokomo, Mijikenda and Sagalla. They set out to determine if there is need for vernacular languages literature and if there is, to establish which speech forms should be chosen for the written medium and thus they investigated the state of the languages at that time. They used word lists, (comparisons) scripture comparisons and dialect intelligibility testing. They gave recommendations for each dialect according to the results achieved. The current study compares lists of 200 words to establish similarities or differences among the dialects under study thus being closely similar to the above study. However this study did not elicit any information using intelligibility tests because it was not interested in intelligibility therefore being different from the above study.

In another study Stroemer (1995), carried out a synchronic description of the Boraana dialect of Oromo spoken in Kenya. He undertook a data oriented study and it provides phonological, morphological, and lexical material. He gave special attention to the status of the word final vowels and their role in phonology, morphology, and morpho-syntax. Like Stroemer's study, the present work is a synchronic study that looks into the morpho-syntactic and lexical structures of the three dialects under study but unlike Stroemer who looks at the role of final vowels in the mentioned aspects of language, this study looks at concordial morphemes in the morpho-syntax and differences and similarities in the lexical items elicited.

Webb and Kembo-Sure (2000) looked at the phonetic and phonological characteristics of African languages; they give details on frequently occurring sounds, the vowel and consonant inventories of African languages. This study does a phonemic transcription of the phonemes of the three dialects in order to establish cognacy.

2.3 Studies on Nilotic Languages

Ehret (in Ogot ed.(1986) classifies Nilotes into three groups. Highland Nilotes, River Lake Nilotes and Plains Nilotes. He points out that most highland communities were absorbed by other communities, for instance, Highland Nilotes who settled on Lake Victoria plains were absorbed by Bantus who settled in that area; but one group of those Nilotes went on to attain even greater importance in the events of East African History. The current study was interested in the Highland Nilotes whose members include the three dialects under study.

Mohline and Heine (op.cit) divide the Nilotes into three branches, they name Ehret's River Lake Nilotes and Highland Nilotes then Western Nilotes, Southern Nilotes and Eastern Nilotes. In the Western group is the Luo, while among the East Nilotic are the Teso-Turkana and Maa. In this study we are interested in the Southern Nilotic which contains the Kalenjin group where the three dialects are members. Mohlig and Heine give the geographical distribution of the Nilotic languages and their dialects and the numbers of speakers. This study is more historical than linguistic and thus does not provide any linguistic explanations, the present study makes an in-depth analysis of the lexical and morpho-syntactic structures of Pokot, Kipsigis and Tugen with an attempt to establish if Pokot exudes any notable differences in the above structures.

A study on the Acooli language of the Western Nilotic group of Uganda was done by Crazzolaro (1955). He studied the grammar, morphology and vocabulary of the language. This is a study of the dialects of the Southern Nilotic group and thus being different from the above study.

Malou (1988) investigated the aspect of breathiness in the Dinka vowel system and the role it plays. He discusses the physiology and definition of the vowel breathiness and the role of breathiness in the language, he also discusses the importance of tone and vowel length and vowel centralization in Dinka. He points out that breathiness is distinctive and that there are 78 distinct vowel sounds in Dinka. Dinka is a language which belongs to the Nilotic group, a group shared by the Kalenjin language whose dialects (Kipsigis, Tugen and Pokot) are being investigated in the present study.

Work on the Dinka language was also done by Liol (2000), who did a study on the participle ne with reference to morphological and syntactic as well as the semantic roles that the participle assumes in the Dinka language of Sudan. He argues that the participle could possibly have originally been a locative particle which developed over time. He cites seven functions of the participle in Dinka. The present study looks at how morphemes in the morpho-syntactic structures of Kalenjin dialects are marked by using three dialects; Kipsigis Pokot and Tugen.

An investigation of the Nouns, Adjectives, pronouns, the verb system and tone of the Maa language was done by Tucker and Mpaayei (1955). Maa is a language spoken by speakers of Maasai belonging to the Eastern Niloite group. The dialects under study belong to the Southern Nilotic group.

Vossen (1988) undertook a study of a word-geographical study of the maa language with an aim of discussing termtonal history of the massai people. He used a 610-world list

which contained vocabulary relating to pastoralist activities. The word lists were collected from a section of the maa speakers of Kenya and Tanzania and afterwards compared. He observed that the diverging lexemes among the maa speaking groups were distributed over nearly all semantic groups. He cites heteronomy and the necessity for semantic differentiation and specification of double representation as some of the possible causes. He notes that there are lexical differentiations between North Maa and South Maa dialects. Vossen's study is related to the current study and especially as far as the methodology is concerned. Both studies use word lists in their data elicitation, Vossen uses a 610 –word list while the present study uses 200 words. Both studies attempt to bring out the lexical differences that may be there between the dialects of the languages under study, that is the three mentioned Kalenjin dialects and the North and south Maa dialects of the Maasai. However Vossen's study goes further to explain the possible causes of differentiation between the Maa dialects which this study does not.

An attempt to reconstruct the consonants, vowels and tones of the proto-Nilotic as well as the history of derivational morphology, number-marking, case, tense-aspect marking and pronouns in the Nilotic family was done by Ehret C. (2001). He provides a Nilotic etymological Dictionary comprising of 1600 roots. The focus of his reconstruction was to establish a regular sound correspondence pattern across the family and the reconstruction of the Nilotic vocabulary. He identified many major sets of word borrowing from one Nilotic language into another. These are words identifiable as loans because they possess the characteristic sound shifts of one Nilotic sub-group of language but one found today in another language altogether. Ehret's work was of great help to this study and especially as far as creating the 200-word list is concerned. It provided a guide as to which words should be included and which one should be left out for possibly being loan words. His history of Nilotic derivational morphology was useful in analyzing the short phrases and statements.

2.4 Studies on Kalenjin Dialects

Ochieng (1975) describes the emergence and the spread of the Kalenjin tribes. He gives a detailed description of the spread and the activities of each of the Kalenjin groups. He argues that the origin of the Kalenjins is within Kenya and not outside as argued by other scholars, he does not cite the scholars. The current study was interested in this work because the three dialects belong to the Kalenjin group. The above study is important because it provides related background information.

Ogot (1976) gives the Kalenjin dialects, which he calls tribes as, Kipsigis, Nandi, Terik, Elgeiyo, Tugen, Marakwet, Kony and Sebei. He points out that the Kalenjin spectrum of dialects though just about mutually intelligible district by district are not uniform. Ogot groups these dialects into three main "dialect clusters". He names them as Pokot, Elgon and Southern Kalenjin dialects, which include Marakwet, Tugen, Nyangori (Terik) Elgeiyo and Kipsigis. He points out that Pokot tends to be different. He does not give any linguistic explanation neither does he point out the level at which it's different. The present study examined the morpho-syntactic and lexical structures of Pokot and those of Tugen and Kipsigis in order to establish if there are any significant differences in pokot structures that make it outstandingly different as pointed out by other scholars. (Cf. Towett (1979), Otterloo (1979), Mohline and Heine (1980), Baroja-et al. (1989). Thus giving an explanation by pointing out which linguistic aspects the Pokot dialect may be differing from other Kalenjin dialects therefore filling the knowledge gap left by the above mentioned scholars.

Kipkorir (1978) gives eight different Kalenjin language groups. He names them as Kipsigis, Marakwet, Keiyo Nandi, Pokot, Sabaot, Terik and Tugen. Kipkorir's work is interested in the culture of the people rather than the linguistic aspects and thus the present study provides linguistic explanations.

Mohline and Heine (Ibid.) divide Kalenjin into Southern and Northern. The Northern group consists of the Pokot while the Southern group is divided into Elgon and Kipsigis-Marakwet. The Elgon group is divided into Kony Pok, Ngoma and Terik while the Kipsigis-Marakwet group is divided into Kipsigis, Tugen, Nandi, Elgeiyo and Marakwet. The current study studied Kipsigis, Tugen and Pokot so as to establish if there are any morpho-syntactic and lexical differences between Pokot and two (Kipsigis and Tugen) other Kalenjin dialects.

As important points of contact between the various Kalenjin dialects, Otterloo (1979) mentions:

Endo Marakwet-East Pokot

Keiyo-North Tugen

Cherangany with Keiyo, Endo M. and Talai M. living in Cherangany

Terik-Nandi (Terik living among Nandi)

Endo marakwet –Talai Marakwet (market). In his study of the Kalenjin dialects, Otterloo looked at linguistic similarities and differences between all the Kalenjin dialects with an aim of establishing an appropriate dialect for orthography. He also touches on the language policy in Kenya at that time (1979). He used the Kalenjin union Bible for comparison. He noted that Pokot is different from other Kalenjin dialects and that they do not

understand the scripture well. He went further to say that Nandi, Kipsigis, Keiyo, Tugen and Terik enjoy a high degree of understanding, they also understand the scripture well because the Kalenjin scripture is translated to a dialect (Nandi + Kipsigis) from which greatly resembles these dialects. He points out that Pokot's relative position is very far from that of mainland Kalenjin and that it is very distinct and it needed its own literature. This work is largely generalized and lacks details on individual dialects; a lot of detail was left out because the study was urgently needed for use in some parts of the Rift valley. This study diverges from Otterloo's in the sense that it gives a detailed analysis of the morpho-syntactic and lexical structures of Pokot, Kipsigis and Tugen by applying the inspection method, the cognate percentage and spread cognate percentage methods which Otterloo does not use in his study. Nevertheless, both studies are comparative.

Grimes (1996:150) (the Ethnologue) gives the following information about Kalenjin: KALENJIN 2,458,123 (1989 census), including 471,459 Kipsigis, 261,969 Nandi, 110,908 Keiyo,130,249 Tugen (1980 Heine and Mohlig).Mainly Nandi,Kericho, and Uasin Gishu, Rift Valley province.Nilo-Saharan Eastern Sudanic, Nilotic,Southern, Kalenjin, Nandi-Markweta,Nandi. Dialects: NANDI (NAANDI, CEMUAL), TERIK(NYANG'ORI), KIPSIGIS (KIPSIKIS, KIPSIKIS, KIPSIKIIS),SOUTH TUGEN (TUKEN),KEIYO (KEYO,ELGEYO), CHERANGANY.60% lexical similarity with Omotik.50% with Datooga. There are orthography problems.15% to 25% literate. Typology: VSO. Agriculturalists: millet,maize, potatoes, beans, pumpkins, tobacco, bananas; animal husbandry: cattle sheep,fowl.Keiyo:Christian,traditional religion; Kipsigis: Christian, traditional religion; Nandi: Christian traditional religion. Bible 1939-1969. NT 1933-1968. Bible portions 1912-1966.Work in progress. He gives, 2,458,123 as the total number of Kalenjin speakers according to 1989 census.

Toweett (op.cit) covers the main areas of the Kalenjin language. He describes the phonological, lexical, morphological and the syntactic aspects of the language. His work is thus basically descriptive. Toweett gives a list of the Kalenjin dialects in order of their numerical strength as:

1. Kipsigis
2. Nandi + Terik
3. Keiyo + Marakwet
4. Tugen
5. Sebeei
6. Pokot

He describes the Pokot as the least Kalenjin basing his argument on the observations made during his study. The current study compared the morpho-syntactic and lexical structures of Pokot versus those of Tugen and Kipsigis with an aim of establishing if there are any significant differences.

A similar study to that of Otterloo (ibid) was carried out by Rottland (1982); the study had an aim similar to that of Otterloo. In most cases results similar to those of Otterloo were found. However in some instances, the results indicated minimal or major diversities. He concluded that development of a separate literature for the Pokot was the only option. He further suggested that Akiek is far removed from Kalenjin dialects and if the dialect was still vital, a separate literature was the only option. Rottland's classification of the Kalenjin is as follows:

Nilotic	E.Nilotic			
	W.Nilotic			
	S.Nilotic	Omotik-Datooga Omotik branch		
		Datooga branch		
	Kalenjin	Nandi-Markweta branch	1	Nandi
			2	Kipsigis
			3	Keiyo
			4	Tuken
			5	Markweta
		Elgon branch	6	Sapiny
			7	Kony
			8	Bong'om
			9	Pok
		Okiek branch	10	Terik
		11	Kinare	
		12	Sogoo	
		13	Akie	
	Pokot branch	14	Pokot	

Like Otterloo (op.cit) and Heine (op.cit), Rottland divides Tugen into North and South. In addition he distinguishes North Markweta from South Markweta. He confirms Otterloo's findings that Markwet should really be divided into three dialects: Endo in the North- East, Talai in the South-East and Cherangany in the West. This study did not treat the dialects as divided into groups. However they were treated as single units. The Tugen dialect

which is under study in the present work is considered as one although the study was conducted within the Southern part.

In their study of the Nandi grammar, Creider and Tapsubei (1989) analyzed the phonology, morphology and syntax of the dialect. In morphology, they looked at nouns, suffixation, prefixation, number case, pronouns, adjectives and numerals. They also looked at verbs and adverbs. Nandi is one of the dialects within the Kalenjin group. While doing the current study the researcher constantly referred to the above works and especially in the analysis of the phrases of Tugen and Kipsigis. However these two studies differ in their objectives, while Creider and Tapsubei did their study in order to guide those who are learning Kalenjin Grammar, this study analyses the morpho-syntax of the three dialects in order to establish if Pokot exhibits any major differences morpho-syntactically and lexically and thus filling the knowledge gaps that are there cf. statement of the problem.

About the term *Kalenjin*, Tucker and Bryan (1964) say that the term is a cover term which means “I tell you” and was adopted by speakers as self-designating expression during the late forties and fifties and the term is now in general use in Kenya. Rottland (1978) and Tapsubei and Creider (2001) share this view, Tucker and Bryan (ibid.) point out that the name has since been taken over in the field of African Linguistics as a useful label to cover an entire language group. The dialects under study fall under the Kalenjin group.

According to Tucker and Bryan (1962:137) there are two Pokot dialect areas, which are the Hill Pokot (West Pokot) and the Pastoral Pokot (East Pokot). The sample population used in this study was drawn from West Pokot.

Kipkulei (1972) did a study on the origin, migration and settlement of the Tugen people with special reference to Arror, from the earliest times to the turn of the 20th century. Tugen is one of the dialects that were studied in this work. Kipkulei’s work does not touch on the linguistic aspect of the Tugen but it’s purely historical, the study provides an analysis of two linguistic aspects of the Tugen dialect: morpho-syntax and the lexicon thus adding valuable knowledge.

A detailed account of the tonal phonetics of Nandi was given by Creider (1982). He argues that Nandi has the most complex tonal system among all Kalenjin dialects. He studied the segmental phonology of Nandi and Kipsigis as well as the tonal allomorphy found in the Nandi dialect. He presents an analysis of the tonal systems of the Kalenjin. He concluded that all segmental and tonal allomorphy found between singular and plural forms is the result of the operation of a small number of phonological processes. This study goes further to

provide an account of the morpho-syntax and the lexical items of Pokot, Tugen and Kipsigis.

Greenlie (1987) examined the Endo dialect which is one of the groups within the Marakwet group, in relation to some of the surface structures that help create sense of cohesion in a narrative. To do this she analyzed four Endo stories authored by mother tongue speakers of the dialect. Her study looks at the discourse analysis of one of the Kalenjin dialects (Marakwet), while this study looks at the morpho-syntax and the lexicon of three Kalenjin dialects: Pokot, Kipsigis and Tugen.

Rottland and Omondi (1991) studied the noun classification of the Sabaot dialect, which is one of the Kalenjin dialects. They point out that Sabaot nouns are classified into both “primary” and “secondary” nouns an observation shared by Tucker and Bryan (1964) and Dalby (1999). Tucker and Bryan argue that the secondary form has a suffix which gives the noun a determinative criterion for noun classification. Besides the Sabaot, they also studied the Kipsigis and Nandi nouns. They did an analysis of 500 Nandi-Kipsigis nouns and 100 Sabaot nouns while Rottland and Omondi used 1000 nouns from Sabaot.

Omondi in Hartell (1983) did a study of the alphabets of seven languages in Kenya. Among them was Sabaot, which is a dialect of the Kalenjin language. She gave the Sabaot phonemes and their orthographic symbols. About tone she says the dialect marks for it and it plays a significant semantic role.

Elselver (1994) looks at the phonology and morphology of the Kalenjin language with specific reference to the Tugen. He looks at morphology while this study looks at morpho-syntax thus the two studies are different. The current study also studies the above mentioned structures in order to explain the relationship between Pokot and other Kalenjin dialects while Elselver just gives an account of Kalenjin morphology and phonology.

The case of the Kalenjin dialects is that of a dialect continuum where neighboring groups understand each other perfectly well while mutual intelligibility decreases gradually to unintelligibility depending on geographical distance Heine (1979). However the Pokot (especially East Baringo Pokot) do not understand each other with the Tugen speakers despite the close proximity between the speakers of the two dialects.

Baroja- et al, (1989) is possibly the most comprehensive work on Pokot grammar. The work is complete with Phonology, morphology and syntax of the dialect. They point out that the verb of the dialect presents many variations and thus appear complicated. In their study they did an analysis of the Pokot grammar, the work explains the structures of the dialect, its characteristics and its forms. He observes that the Pokot is grouped under Kalenjin

and linguistically there are three main groups: Nandi, the Sebei and Pokot, he points out that the Pokot dialect is the most complicated of them all, they argue that it is easier for a Pokot to understand Nandi than a Nandi to understand Pokot, not to mention speaking it. They point out regional variations: East Pokot (Kaa Tiyatiy) psikor area(Kaa Cheptulei) the area around Cheparerya (Kaa Cheripko) the area around Kunyao(Kaa Sawrya).They however say that the dialect has great homogeneity regardless of the region in which the speaker comes from. This work acted as a point of reference especially as far as Pokot was concerned.

2.5 Linguistic Description of the Languages

2.5.1 Introduction

The three dialects under investigation belong to the Kalenjin group which is a Southern Nilotic. This study endeavored to establish the difference the Pokot dialect exhibits in its lexical and Morpho-syntactic structure. The phonemic inventories and phonemic combinations presented here are derived from the data collected.

Towett (op.cit) came up with the Kalenjin vowel chart, 20 vowels as indicated below

Table 2: Kalenjin vowel system

/i/	and	/i:/
/i/	and	/i:/
/u/	and	/u:/
/u/	and	/u:/
/e/	and	/e:/
/e/	and	/e:/
/o/	and	/o/
/o/	and	/o:/
/a/	and	/a:/
/a/	and	/a:/

This study disputes Towett's work by giving ten vowels; five pure short vowels which are contrasted with long vowels. What Towett considers to be vowels are just allophones of the ten vowels. The Kalenjin vowels varied very much according to context such as the type of sounds that precede or follow them. Sounds tend to be modified by their environments and

lengthening is one of these modifications as Pike (1947) point out. In the example below voicing seems to lengthen somehow the short vowel / u /.

/ put / break

/ mun / name

These differences however are relatively very slight. Therefore according to the present study there are only ten vowels while the additional vowels given by Towett are just varied realization of the ten vowels. Thus [i] is an allophone of /i:/ and / i /, [u] is an allophone of /u:/ and /u/ while [e] is an allophone of /e:/ and / e / then [o] is an allophone of / o / and /o:/, [a] is an allophone of [a:] and /a/. This argument is further reinforced by Gimson (1992), he argues that allophones of the same phoneme occurring in different words or different situations in a word will frequently show considerable differences, but these differences are not so great to be considered as different phonemes because the similarities will always be greater. What Towett considers as different phonemes (vowels) is just the same phoneme used in different situations.

As far as consonants are concerned, Towett uses the Kipsigis consonant inventory to draw conclusions about all the Kalenjin dialects without putting into consideration the dialectal differences. From the data collected it was observed that Pokot has more phonemes than Tugen and Kipsigis. While Tugen and Kipsigis have 13 consonants, Pokot has 15. The two additional consonants are / d / as in / odeŋ/ meaning two and / g / as in / e:g / meaning hand.

2.5.2 Kipsigis

Kipsigis has a total of 23 phonemes; 10 vowels and 13 consonants as indicated below.

Vowels

/ a / central, low, unrounded vowel as in ‘mama’ in Kiswahili and ‘al’ (buy) in Kipsigis.

/ a: / as in maana (meaning) in Swahili and maat (fire) in Kipsigis.

/ e / front, mid-high, unrounded vowel as in ‘bet’ in English and ‘lel’ in Kipsigis.

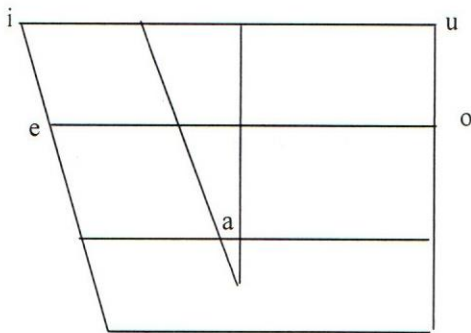
/ e: / as in moet (wound) in Kipsigis.

/ o / back, mid-low, rounded vowel as in ‘mtoto’ (child) in Swahili and ‘kor’ / kor / (go blind) in Kipsigis

/ o: / as in koet (liver) in Kipsigis
and choo (lavatory) in Kiswahili.

- /u/ back, high, rounded, close to the English vowel in ‘put’ and ‘kur’ / ku: r / (call) in Kipsigis.
- /u:/ as in eut (hand) in Kipsigis and foot in English
- /i/ front, high, unrounded vowel as in kitu (thing) in Swahili and ‘ipun’ / ipun / in Kipsigis.
- /i:/ as in itit (ear) in Kipsigis and feet in English

Figure 1: Kipsigis vowel inventory



The following are Kipsigis consonants:

- /p/ as in ‘pomori’ /pa:mo:ri / (grand father)
- /t/ as in ‘metit’ / met:it / (head)
- /k/ as in ‘katit’ / ka:tit / (neck)
- /s/ as in ‘sumek’ / su:mek / (hair)
- /tʃ/ as in ‘chito’ / tʃi:to / (person)
- /l/ as in ‘poltet’ / polte:t / (cloud)
- /r/ as in ‘pirir’ / piri:r / (red)
- /j/ as in ‘ya’ / ja / (bad)
- /w/ as in ‘kowet’ / ko:we:t / (bone)
- /m/ as in ‘mat’ / ma:t / (fire)
- /n/ as in ‘tenten’ / tenten / (thin)
- /ʌ/ as in ‘nyo’ / ʌo: / (come)
- /ŋ/ as in ‘kongasis’ / koŋasis / (east)

Table 3: Kipsigis consonant inventory

	Bilabial	Labio-alveolar	Alveolar	Post-alveolar	Palatal	Velar
Plosives	p		t			K
Fricatives			s			
Affricates				tʃ		
Lateral			l			
Trill			r			
Semi vowels	w				j	
Nasals	m		n		ɲ	ŋ

2.5.3 Tugen

Tugen has 13 consonants and 10 vowels.

Vowels

/a/ central, low, unrounded vowel as in the Swahili final /a/ in ‘mama’ (mother) and ‘am’ / am / (eat) in Tugen.

/a:/ as in maana (meaning in English and mat (fire) in Tugen)

/e/ front, mid-high, unrounded vowel as in ‘bet in English and ‘lel’ / le:l / (white) Tugen.

/e:/ as in meno (teeth) in Swahili as in met (death) in Tugen

/i/ front, high, unrounded vowel as in ‘kitu’ in Swahili (thing) and ‘ipun’ / ipun / (bring) in Tugen.

/i:/ as in iit in Tugen as in read in English

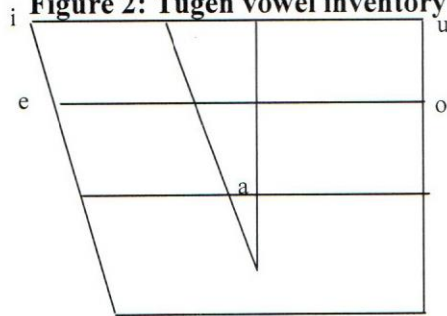
/o/ back, mid-low rounded vowel as in ‘mtoto’ (child) in Swahili and ‘koko’ / koko / (grandmother) in Tugen.

/o:/ as in kot (house) in Tugen and choo (lavatory) in Swahili

/u/ back, high, rounded vowel, close to the English in ‘put’ and ‘kur’ / kur / (call) in Tugen.

/u:/ as in foot in English and eu in Tugen

Figure 2: Tugen vowel inventory



Consonants

- / m / as in ‘metit’ / met:tit / (head)
- / n / as in ‘erene’ / erene / (snake)
- / t / as in ‘itit’ / i:tit / (ear)
- / k / as in ‘kelto’ / ke:lto / (leg)
- / p / as in ‘petu’ / pe:tu / (day)
- / s / as in ‘sese’ / sese / (dog)
- / tʃ / as in ‘cheko’ / tʃe:ko / (Milk)
- / l / as in ‘lukui’ / lukui / (swallow)
- / r / as in ‘ropta’ / ro:pta / (rain)
- / j / as in ‘iyoo’ / ijo: / (mother)
- / w / as in ‘arawe’ / arawe: / (moon)
- / ɲ / as in ‘nyo’ / ɲo: / (come)
- / ŋ / as in ‘ngweny’ / ŋwenɨ / (earth)

Table 4: Tugen consonant inventory

	Bilabia l	Labio- alveolar	Alveolar	Post- alveolar	Palatal	Velar
Plosives	p		t			k
Fricatives			s			
Affricates				tʃ		
Lateral			l			
Trill			r			
Semi vowels	w				j	
Nasals	ɱ		n		ɲ	ŋ

In both Tugen and Kipsigis, there are both long and short vowels. Vowel length is phonemic. This is illustrated by the example below:

Gloss

-) Ker /ker/ (close)
- (2) Keer /ke:r/ (see)

In (1) the phoneme 'ker' / ker / means 'close', an addition of another /e/ to the phoneme brings forth change in meaning, thus 'keer' / ke:r / means 'see'.

2.5.4 Pokot

Pokot has 15 consonants and 10 vowels

Vowels

Pokot vowels are as follows:

/ i / front, high, unrounded vowel as in 'kiti' (chair)

in Swahili and 'kitin' / ki:tin / (breast) in Pokot.

/ i:/ as in feel in English and yiito (count) in Pokot

/ e / front, mid-high, unrounded vowel as in 'bet' in English and 'kelat' / ke:lat / (tooth) in Pokot.

/e:/ as in bed in English and eg (hand) in Pokot

/ a / front, low, unrounded as in 'cat' in English and 'aran' / aran / (goat) in Pokot.

/a:/ as in maana (meaning) Swahili and laat (hot) in Pokot

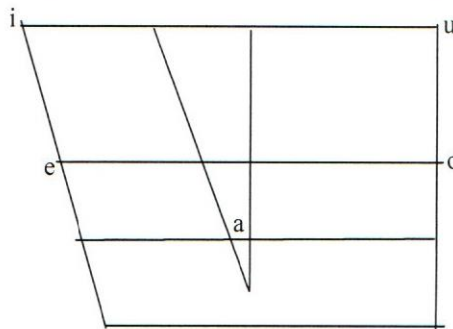
/ o / back, mid-high, rounded vowel as in 'shop' in English and 'tor' / tor / (pot).

/o:/ as in choo in Swahili and or (road) in Pokot

/ u / back, high, rounded vowel as in 'put' in English and 'tulo' / tulo / (thunder) in Pokot.

/u:/ as in foot in English and mut (slow) in Pokot)

Figure 3: Pokot vowel inventory



Consonants

- /p/ as in 'par' / par / (farm)
 /m/ as in 'muron' / mur:ɔn / (man)
 /t/ as in 'kat' / ka:t / (neck)
 /d/ as in 'odeny' / odeɲ / (two)
 /s/ as in 'kisun' / kisun / (blood)
 /n/ as in 'nanam' / na:nam / (lake)
 /r/ as in 'sor' / sor / (nose)
 /tʃ/ as in 'tich' / titʃ / (cattle)
 /ŋ/ as in 'ngori:n' / ŋorin / (farmer)
 /ɲ/ as in 'nyono' / ɲono / (come)
 /j/ as in 'loyo' / lojo / (shoulder)
 /k/ as in 'kiruk' / kiruk / (bull)
 /g/ as in 'egh' / e:g / (hand)
 /w/ as in 'rurwo' / ru:rwo / (shadow)
 /l/ as in 'lalwa' / lalwa / (river)

EBERTON UNIVERSITY LIBRARY

Table 5: Pokot consonant inventory

	Bilabial	Labio - alveol ar	Alveolar	Post- alveolar	Palatal	Velar	abio- velar
Plosives	P		t, d			k, g	
Fricatives			s				
Affricates				t ʃ			
Lateral			l				
Trill			r				
Semi vowel	w				j		
Nasals	m		n		ɲ	ŋ	

There are both long and short vowels. Vowel length is phonemic. For example;

			Gloss
(a)	ko	/ko/	house
(b)	koo	/ko:/	bones

- (c) ket / ket / strangle
 (d) keet / ke:t / tree

The Kipsigis vowels are the same as those of Tugen and Pokot. The words end with either a vowel or consonant. There are long and short vowels in all the three dialects. The length is orthographically represented as 'double letters' and vowel length in the tree dialects is phonemic and is used in complementary distribution because vowel lengthening causes change in word meaning and where one vowel occurs, say long, the short vowel counterpart cannot occur. (cf. examples).

In both Tugen and Kipsigis the Adjective post-modifies the noun. For example:

- (1) Lakwet ne mingin (small child)
 N Art Adj
 Child small
- (2) Lolei ketit ne koi (the tall tree is burning)
 V N Adj
 Burning tree long

In the sentence the verb precedes the noun while the noun is succeeded by the adjective.

Thus the sentence structure is:

V-N-ADJ

Example

- (3) Nyone laitoriat ne yos (the old king is coming)
 V N particle Adj
 Coming king old

There is agreement between the verb, noun and adjective in number. A singular verb is followed by a singular noun and a singular noun followed by a singular adjective. For example:

- (4) Nyone laitoriat ne yos (the old king is coming)
 V(sing) N(sing) P(sing) Adj(sing)
 Coming king old
- (5) Pwone laitorinik che yosen (the old kings are coming)
 V(pl) N(pl) P(pl) Adj(pl)
 Coming kings old

The morphemes marking plural and singular are affixed on the verb, noun and adjective respectively. For example:

- (6) Lolei kot ne yos (the old house is burning)
 V(sing) N(sing) Adj(sing)
 burning house old
- (7) Loltos korik che yosen (the old houses are burning)
 V (pl) N (pl) Adj(pl)
 Burning houses old

There is no singular marker affixed on the singular adjective and thus the singular adjective is always a free morpheme.

The simple sentence structure takes the form of a verb phrase plus noun phrase. The noun group is represented by a single noun while the verb group is represented by a main verb.

Example:

- (8) Yeyat teret ne lel (the new pot is broken)
 main v N Adj
 broken pot new

There is concord in terms of number between the adjectival morpheme and the noun. A singular adjectival morpheme post-modifies a singular noun. A singular relative marker goes along with a singular noun. On the other hand, a plural adjectival morpheme post-modifies a plural noun while a plural relative marker comes before plural adjectival morpheme. The example below illustrates this.

- (9) Ketit ne mining
 N (sing) rel.m Adj.
 (Sing)
 Tree small
- (10) Ketik che mengech
 N(pl) rel.m Adj(pl)
 (pl)

The possessive affixes are suffixed on the noun of the simple sentence. There is agreement between the morphemes that mark possession and the noun that's suffixed to it.

Example:

- | | | | |
|------|---------|-------------------|--------------------|
| (11) | Kime | <u>ngoktanyu</u> | (singular) |
| | Dead | dog my | (my dog is dead) |
| (12) | Kimeiyo | <u>ngokikchuk</u> | (plural) |
| | Dead | dogs my | (my dogs are dead) |

In Kipsigis and Tugen noun and verb stems take up both suffixes and prefixes. In Pokot just like in Kipsigis and Tugen, the verb precedes the noun and the noun precedes the adjective, thus the sentence structure is:

V-N-ADJ while the noun phrase structure is N-ADJ. The following examples illustrate the explanation above.

- | | | | |
|------|------|---------------|-----------------------------|
| (13) | Kima | teronai | rel (The new pot is broken) |
| | V | N | ADJ |
| (14) | Kot | nyo | munung (A small house) |
| | N | nom.
rel.m | Adj |

In Pokot there is concord in terms of number between the Adjectival morpheme and the noun. The nominalizer (relative marker) also agrees in number with the noun and the adjective. A singular adjectival morpheme post-modifies a singular noun while a plural adjective morpheme post-modifies a plural noun. This can be exemplified in the examples below.

- | | | | | |
|------|----------|--------|------------|---------------|
| (15) | Tor | nyo | munung | |
| | N(sing.) | Nom. | Adj.(sing) | (a small pot) |
| | | (sing) | | |
| | Pot | | small | |

The plural counterpart is as follows:

- | | | | | |
|------|--------------|------|----------------|--------------|
| (16) | <u>Toren</u> | cho | <u>mungech</u> | |
| | N(pl) | Nom | Adj.(pl) | (small pots) |
| | | (pl) | | |

Pots small

Like Tugen and Kipsigis possessive pronouns are made with the addition of suffixes to the basic stem of the nouns.

Examples:

- (17) Kima kukidonyan (my dog is dead)
Dead dog mine

Nyan is a suffix marking for possessive mine

- (18) Mikuruwei chepusinyan (your cat is sleeping)
Sleeping cat your

‘Nyan’ is a morpheme marking for possessive ‘your’ ‘Chepusi’ is the noun ‘cat’.

Kalenjin is a fusional language thus it is hard to separate the affixes from the stem. It is not easy to tell where one morpheme ends and where another begins. The affixes show great irregularity in varying their shape according to the stem to which they are added to. A single affix tends to express a number of different grammatical aspects.

2.6 Theoretical framework

This study was guided by the typological approach. This approach aims at bringing out structures shared by languages under investigation. This approach is primarily associated with Greenberg (1963) Gvon (1979) and Hoper (1987) as given by Comrie (1981). The typological approach is used to establish relationships between languages on the basis of similar or different linguistic structure without any regard to their historical origin or their present and past geographical distribution or structural criteria or even a single criterion in grouping languages together. It aims at bringing out features shared by languages under investigation. According to this approach similarities or differences between two or more languages are based on the presence or absence of observable phenomenon or data of the languages.

According to Winston (1966) the typological approach is arbitrary because it depends on the structures selected for investigation. In this study the structures we selected are morpho-syntactic and lexical. This approach was appropriate for this study because the researcher was not interested in the historical development of the dialects in question. However the study only dealt with their structural similarities and differences.

The typological approach is thus based on the properties of a language, which may not reflect historical connection. We did a typological comparison of the morpho-syntactic and lexical structures of Pokot and those of Tugen and Kipsigis dialects based on a list of phrases and sentences and a lexicostatistic list of 200 words.

The typological approach uses lexicostatistics to determine the differences and similarities between the dialects. This involves eliciting a standard list of words in each dialect. The equivalent of the words in each dialect can be compared and results of comparison given numerical values that can be added to show how related the dialects are. The study drew 200 words from the three dialects and thereafter established cognates, and then the cognates of Pokot and those of Tugen and Kipsigis were compared to determine the relationship in terms of differences and similarities between Pokot versus Tugen and Kipsigis.

The morpho-syntactic comparison was done by using the phrases and statements elicited. Certain morphemes were compared and thereafter the degree of correspondence in the morpho-syntactic structure of pokot with those of Kipsigis and Tugen was established by comparing the cognate percentages of the concordial morphemes. The higher the cognate percentage the closer the similarity while the lower the cognate percentage the lower the similarity and subsequently, the greater the differences.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the methodology that was used in the study, the population of the study, sampling procedures, data collection tools and techniques and data analysis procedures.

3.2 Population

This research drew a sample from three dialect groups viz: Kipsigis, Tugen and Pokot. It included both the male and female. The subjects were of age thirty and above. The choice of this population with these variables was to arrive at a representative sample but the variables were not the objects of the study. The study used a lexicostatistical word-list of 200 words and 55 phrases and statements.

3.3 Sample size

The study used 90 subjects, 30 from each dialect group.

3.4 Sampling procedure

The researcher employed both random and stratified sampling procedures to select the sample from the stated population. The subjects were selected from three regional settlements of the speakers of the dialects under analysis, namely, Bomett, Koibatek, and West Pokot districts. The sample was stratified along dimensions of age and sex. That is thirty (30) subjects were selected from each of the three dialects, of these thirty, fifteen were male and fifteen were female. Of these fifteen males and females, five were of different ages, that is 30-40, 41-50 and 51 and above. The sample size thus was ninety subjects. The sample population is presented in the table below.

Table 6: Sample population

AGE	30-40 YEARS		41-50 YEARS		51 and above		TOTAL
SEX	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	
KIPSIGIS	5	5	5	5	5	5	30
TUGEN	5	5	5	5	5	5	30
POKOT	5	5	5	5	5	5	30
TOTAL	15	15	15	15	15	15	90

3.5 Data collection tools and techniques

The research design was the survey technique in which the researcher went out in the field and collected data from the subjects. Data collection was by the use of language performance tests specially designed, pilot- tested and adjusted to suit the contextual realities in the field. Performances were tape recorded in order to capture detail for later retrieval and analysis. The administration of the language tests and the tape recording was conducted by the researcher with the assistance of informants. The literate respondents were furnished with the language performance tests and for the illiterate respondents, the tests were orally administered (cf. Appendix I and II). The researcher with the help of the informants tape recorded the responses. The data from the audio cassettes was replayed and transcribed in phonemic form. The informants from the three dialect groups are language teachers and native speakers of the respective dialects.

3.6 Data analysis and interpretation

In order to do lexical analysis, a list of 200 words was compiled with the assistance of the Swadesh word list. According to Swadesh (1950) the list should comprise basic terms which are least likely to change or be loan words. The list used in this study consists of basic terms for items of cultural import such as names of things and phenomena, parts of the body, verbs, nouns and some adjectives. The list was prepared by consulting Swadesh (op.cit), Cole (1967), Persson (1979) and Ingonga (1991). The Inspection method was used, and cognate percentages and spread cognate percentages were established from the data. Lexical analysis was based on cognacy. This researcher concurs with Gudchinsky (1956) that cognacy should be judged on the basis of phonetic similarity, i.e. the apparent cognates should share phonetic characteristics. In this regard, the inspection method was used to detect the words with similar forms and meanings across the three dialects.

Lexical analysis was further carried out using cognate percentages. This went further than merely pointing out cognates to establish which of the dialects under comparison are closer and how close they are. The number of words, which qualify as cognates, is established and this is calculated as a percentage of the total number of words considered. Apart from cognate percentages, spread cognate percentages were used to establish how similar the cognates are. A scale of values was assigned according to the number of phonemes that are similar or not. The total value of the spread cognate values was calculated as a percentage of the maximum value (cf. lexical analysis).

Morpho-syntactic analysis of the short statements and phrases, was done after which both the inspection method and cognate percentages were used to establish which morphemes are cognates and the degree of correspondence in their morpho-syntactic structure respectively. A total of 55 statements and phrases were used to collect data. (cf. morpho-syntactic analysis).

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter is a lexical analysis the 200 word-list and a morpho-syntactic analysis of the short phrases and statements administered in the field. From the analysed data cognate percentages and spread cognate percentages were worked out to establish the degree of correspondene between Pokot lexical and morpho-syntactic structures and those of Kipsigis and Tugen. The percentages arrived at here will enable us draw conclusions about the difference and similarity between Pokot and the two dialects under study.

4.2 Lexical Analysis

Lexical analysis was based on cognacy. In this study cognacy refers to the similarity in form and meaning of word roots in the three dialects under study. According to Gudchinsky (1956), cognacy should be judged on the basis of phonetic similarity, that is, the apparent cognates should share phonetic characteristics. (c.f. appendix 4)

4.2.1 Statistical Analysis

To detect cognates, Gudchinsky's inspection method was employed, where words of different lengths are judged on the basis of the shorter of the two. Below are examples to illustrate how cognacy was established.

Gloss	Kipsigis	Pokot	Tugen
Tongue	ŋeliepta	ŋaliep	ŋeliepta

Kipsigis/Pokot

ŋ	ŋ
e	a
l	l
a	i
p	p
t	-
a	-

The phonemes /ŋ/, /e/, /l/, /i/ are similar while /e/ and /a/ are different, the word tongue in Pokot is shorter and thus cognacy is judged on the basis of it, thus the last two

phonemes i.e / t / and / a / in Kipsigis are not put into consideration. In the word **leg**, all the phonemes correspond (cf. lexical analysis) because cognacy is based on the shorter of the two. This conclusion is done by merely inspecting the words involved.

[Gloss]	Kipsigis/Pokot		Tugen/Pokot	
Leg	Ke:lto	ke:l	ke:lto	ke:l
	k	k	k	k
	e	e	e	e
	l	l	l	l
	t	—	t	—
	o	—	o	—

Cognacy is based on / **ke:l** / because it's the shorter of the two. (c.f. appendix IV)

4.2.2 Lexicostatics

Lexicostatics basically consists of seeing whether in two or more languages, the words for one thing show a relationship to another "cognate" or completely different, "non-cognate". Over a large number of cognate pairs can be counted up to give a measure of closeness of languages or dialects thus lexicostatics involves mathematical analysis of vocabulary. It was originally developed, together with glottochronology, as part of genetic approach to linguistics.

Lexicostatics, being a historical linguistics approach, can also be used to determine linguistic relationships without historical inferences, thus it's not restricted to historical linguistics. Spread cognate percentages and cognate percentages methods, both used in this study are lexicostatistical methods.

4.2.2.1 Cognate Percentages

The number of words which qualify for cognates is established and this is calculated as a percentage of the total number of words considered. This method has been used by Williams (1973), Persson (1979), Ingonga (1991).

Pokot was compared to Kipsigis and Tugen using the following formula:

$$\text{Cognate percentage} = \frac{\text{Number of cognates}}{\text{Total number of words}} \times 100$$

(a) Pokot and Kipsigis

Total number of words = 200

Number of cognates = 81

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Cognate percentage} &= \frac{81}{200} \times 100 \\ &= 40.5\% \\ &= 41\%\end{aligned}$$

(b) **Pokot and Tugen**

Total number of words = 200

Number of cognates = 90

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Cognate percentage} &= \frac{90}{200} \times 100 \\ &= 45\%\end{aligned}$$

(c) **Tugen and Kipsigis**

Total number of words = 200

Number of cognates = 175

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Cognate percentage} &= \frac{175}{200} \times 100 \\ &= 87.5\%\end{aligned}$$

4.2.2.2 Spread Cognate Percentages

This method is used to determine the degree of similarity in the cognates. A scale of values is assigned according to the number of phonemes that are similar. These values are totaled to give the “spread cognate percentage”. The scale of values used in this study was adopted from Persson, (ibid). The total value is calculated as a percentage of the maximum value.

Scale of values.

4 points - words are identical

3 points – one phoneme is different

2 points – two phonemes are different

1 point – three or more phonemes are different

0 points – words are non-cognates

(a) Pokot and Kipsigis

Value		Number of words		Total value
4	x	34	=	136
3	x	32	=	96
2	x	9	=	18
1	x	6	=	6
0	x	119	=	0
Total value			=	256

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Spread cognate percentage} &= \frac{\text{Total value}}{\text{Maximum value}} \times 100 \\
 &= \frac{256}{200 \times 4} \times 100 \\
 &= \frac{256}{800} \times 100 \\
 &= 32 \%
 \end{aligned}$$

(b) Pokot and Tugen

Value		Number of words		Total value
4	x	40	=	160
3	x	36	=	108
2	x	11	=	22
1	x	3	=	3
0	x	110	=	0
Total value			=	293

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Spread cognate percentage} &= \frac{\text{Total value}}{\text{Maximum value}} \times 100 \\
 &= \frac{293}{200 \times 4} \times 100 \\
 &= \frac{293}{800} \times 100 \\
 &= 36.6 \%
 \end{aligned}$$

(c)Tugen and Kipsigis

Value	Number of words		Total value
4	x	162	= 648
3	x	9	= 27
2	x	3	= 06
1	x	1	= 01
0	x	25	= 0
total value			= 682

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Spread cognate percentage} &= \frac{\text{total value}}{\text{maximum value}} \times 100 \\
 &= \frac{682}{200 \times 4} \times 100 \\
 &= \frac{682}{800} \times 100 \\
 &= 85.25\%
 \end{aligned}$$

4.2.3 Interpretation

From the cognate percentages and the spread cognate percentages above, it can be observed that Pokot has lower percentages against both Tugen and Kipsigis. Against Kipsigis, the cognate percentage is 41% while the spread cognate percentage is 32%. Against Tugen, it is 45% and 36.6%. Although slightly closer to Tugen, the figures in both cases are below 50%. Therefore lexically Pokot can be said to be significantly different from both Tugen and Kipsigis, therefore reinforcing the proposed hypothesis one (1).

4.3 Morphosyntactic Analysis

Below are the phrases and statements used in morpho-syntactic analysis. The order of the phrases and statements according to the dialects is as follows:

- (a) Kipsigis abbreviated as K
- (b) Tugen „ „ T
- (c) Pokot „ „ P

The morphemes that were compared are underlined.

4.3.1 Adjectival Concord

In this section, we looked for those morphemes that mark number i.e those morphemes that indicate singular and plural and at the same time echo the class of the noun. This can be illustrated using phrases (A) 1 and (B) 1 below:

K: / la:kwet ne miŋin /

T: / la:kwe ne miniŋ /

P: / moniŋ ŋo munuŋ /

The root words in the above examples are / **la:k** /, / **la:k** / and / **mon** / consecutively, the

prefixes - **wet** -**we** and -**iŋ** show that the the child is one. While in (B)1, the addition of the prefixes -**o:k**, -**o:k** in both Kipsigis and Tugen indicate that the noun is plural. As mentioned earlier in this study, relative markers play an important role in the marking for singular and plural in Kalenjin; in (B)1 of the Pokot, the prefix does not change in the plural but the relative marker changes from /ŋo/ to /tʃo/ thus indicating that the noun is plural rather than singular. However in the present study the researcher compared morphemes thus in the judgement of cognacy in the next section (c.f. cognacy in morphemes), Pokot will be considered as non-cognate as far as this phrase is concerned.

The adjective also changes when the noun changes in number, therefore / **miŋin** / in Kipsigis and / **miniŋ** / in Tugen change to / **meŋketʃ** / and / **munuŋ** / to / **muŋketʃ** / in Pokot.

(A) **Singular**

1. Small child

- (a) / la:kwet ne miŋin /
- (b) / la:kwe ne miniŋ /
- (c) / moniŋ ɲo munuŋ /

2. Small house

- (a) / kot ne miŋin /
- (b) / kot ne miniŋ /
- (c) / ko ɲo munun /

3. Small tree

- (a) / ke:tit ne miŋin /
- (b) / ke:tit ne miniŋ /
- (c) / ket: ɲo munuŋ /

4. Small animal

- (a) / tioŋ ne miŋin /
- (b) / tioŋ ne miniŋ /
- (c) ɲ tioŋ o munuŋ /

5. Small pot

- (a) / tere:t ne miŋin /
- (b) / tere: ne miniŋ /
- (c) / tor: ɲo munuŋ /

:

(B) Plural

1. Small children

(a) / la:ko:k tʃe meŋketʃ /

(b) / la:ko:k tʃe meŋketʃ /

(c) / monuŋ tʃo muŋketʃ /

2. Small houses

(a) / korik tʃe meŋketʃ /

(b) / korik tʃe meŋketʃ /

(c) / korin tʃo muŋketʃ /

3. Small trees

(a) / ke:tik tʃe meŋketʃ /

(b) / ke:tik tʃe meŋketʃ /

(c) / ket tʃo muŋketʃ /

4. Small animals

(a) / tionj:k tʃe meŋketʃ /

(b) / tionj:k tʃe meŋketʃ /

(c) / tʃonin tʃo muŋketʃ /

5. Small pots

(a) / tere:nik tʃe meŋketʃ /

(b) / tere:nik tʃe meŋketʃ /

(c) / toren tʃo muŋketʃ /

4.3.2 Verb Conjugation

As far as verb conjugation is concerned, the researcher looked at those affixes that show number and tense, i.e. those affixes that conjugate the verb in terms of tense and number. In this case, where the noun is singular, the affix on the verb that marks tense and

number should be singular and vice versa. Therefore the morphemes underlined in this section are those morphemes affixed to the verb that mark tense and number in the verb and those morphemes that mark number on the noun. In a statement, for example (C)1, the morpheme {-e} which is prefixed to the verbal root / lul / (fall), indicates number which in this case is singular and tense. The addition of the prefix changes the verb from fall to falling which is / lule / in Kipsigis and Tugen, Pokot is slightly different because other than the morpheme -e, / mi / is also a marker for tense (continuous). -e is equivalent to the ' - ing ' morpheme in English. Statement (C)6 is the plural version of (C)1 where {-tos} is a tense marker similar to {-ing} in English and at the same time it marks for plural so it indicates that the noun is in plural so / lultos / in Kipsigis and Tugen is equivalent to 'are falling in English'. In Pokot the morpheme is ku- and it plays the same role as -tos.

C). 1. The old house is falling

- (a) / lule kot ne jos /
- (b) / lule kot ne jos /
- (c) / mi kurule kajai pojos /

2. The old king is coming

- (a) / ɲone laitoria:t ne jos /
- (b) / ɲoni laitoria:nte ne jos /
- (c) / ɲonei amerikwoɲon ki josit /

3. The clever girl is playing

- (a) / ure:reni tjepto ne ɲo:m /
- (b) / ure:reni tjepto ne ɲo:men /
- (c) / mi kpirono tjepto ɲo tʃrer /

4. The beautiful dress is burning

- (a) / kerera:t iɲkorie ne kara:ran /
- (b) / kerera:t iɲkorie ne kara:ran /
- (c) / kipatʃapatʃa anaɲanai karam /

5. The new pot is broken

- (a) / jejat tere:t ne le:l /
- (b) / kije tere: ne le:l /
- (c) / kima teronai re:l /

6. The old houses are burning

- (a) / lultos korik tʃe jose:n /
- (b) / lultos korik tʃe jose:n /
- (c) / kutʃondoɪ kori tʃa pujoʃa /

7. The old kings are coming

- (a) / pwane laitorinik tʃe jose:n /
- (b) / pwoni laitorinik tʃe jose:n /
- (c) / amerikwo tinnetʃa poj pkomo /

8. The clever girls are playing

- (a) / ure:rentos tipik tʃe ɲo:men /
- (b) / ure:rentos tipik tʃe ɲo:men /
- (c) / mi kpironoi tipin tʃo tʃrerotʃ /

9. The beautiful dresses are torn

- (a) / kereroti:n inʃkoroɪ:k tʃe kororo:n /
- (b) / kereroti:n inʃkoroɪ:k tʃe kororo:n /
- (c) / kipokiʃe anaŋkoi tʃo karamatʃ /

10. The new pots are broken

- (a) / jejoti:n tere:ni:k tʃe le:la:tʃ /
- (b) / jejoti:n tere:ni:k tʃe le:la:tʃ /
- (c) / kimego toronitʃai karamatʃ /

While statements 1 to 10 are in the present tense, statements 11 to 20 are in the past tense. Kalenjin marks the past tense in three different ways, this can best be explained by using the following sentences:

English	Kalenjin
(1) the tree burned (today)	/ <u>kalal</u> ketit /
(2) the tree burned (yesterday)	/ <u>kolal</u> ketit /
(3) the tree burned (long ago)	/ <u>kilal</u> ketit /

From the sentences above it can be observed that different morphemes are used to mark the different times the action took place in the past. In this

statements the subjects were asked to use the ‘long ago’ tense, which in all the dialects is {‘**ki-**’}.

11. The old house fell

- (a) / kilul kat ne jos /
- (b) / kilul kat ne jos /
- (c) / kitʃondoɪ kori tʃo pujoʃa /

12. The tall tree burned

- (a) / kilal ke:tit ne koi /
- (b) / kilal ke:tit ne koi /
- (c) / kinag ke:tʃo kog /

13. The old king came

- (a) / kiʃo laitoriat ne jos /
- (b) / kiʃo laitoriante ne yos /
- (c) / kiʃo amerikwo ʃo pujoʃa /

14. The beautiful dresses got burned

- (a) / kikerer iŋkoriet ne kara:ran /
- (b) / kikerer iŋkorie ne kara:ran /
- (c) / kipakile anaŋka ʃo karam /

15. The new pot broke

- (a) / kije tere:t ne le:l /
- (b) / kije tere: ne le:l /
- (c) / kima tor ʃo kire:l /

16. The old house burned

- (a) / kilal kot ne jos /
- (b) / kilal kot ne jos /
- (c) / kinog ko ʃo pujoʃa /

17. The old houses fell

- (a) / kiluljo kori:k tʃe jose:n /
- (b) / kiluljo kori:k tʃe jose:n /
- (c) / kiruljo korin tʃo pujoʃa /

18. The clever girls played

- (a) / kiurere:nso tipik tʃe ɲo:men /
- (b) / kiurere:nio tipik tʃe ɲo:men /
- (c) / kipirono tipin tʃo kitʃrerotʃ /

20. The beautiful dresses got burned

- (a) / kikereris iŋkoro:i:k tʃe koro:ron /
- (b) / kikereris iŋkoro:i:k tʃe koro:ron /
- (c) / kipokile anaŋkai tʃo karamatʃ /

4.3.3 Pronouns

Pronouns serve the purpose of being noun substitutes in Kalenjin just as they do in English. The persons whom they substitute, like in English, are six: I, you, (sing) he/she, we, you (pl.) and they. These pronouns also have their objective cases like in English. The subjective pronouns are prefixed to the verbal stem in both Kipsigis and Tugen. However in Pokot they are suffixed to the verb but 'he' and 'they' are prefixed to it (the verb).

In the three dialects, the third person 'he' and 'they' subjective case is realized in the affix marking tense unlike other pronouns which are separate from the tense marking morpheme. In statement 5 and 6 below, the prefix {'ki'} marks both tense and the pronoun 'he and 'they' consecutively.

The three dialects do not differentiate between 'she' and 'he', so to make that difference names for either male or female are used. The pronouns are also used if the person had been mentioned earlier and thus the speakers have someone specific in mind. The objective pronouns are prefixed to the verbal stem as illustrated by the underlined morphemes.

1. I went to the river

- (a) / kiowe oinet /
- (b) / kiowe oine /
- (c) / kowan lalwa /

2. We went to the river
 (a) / kikipe oinet /
 (b) / kikipe oine /
 (c) / kikipetfa lalwa /
3. You (sing) went to the river
 (a) / kiwe oinet /
 (b) / kiwe oine /
 (c) / kiwe ni lalwa /
4. You (Pl) went to the river
 (a) / kiope oinet /
 (b) / kiope oinet /
 (c) / kiapakwe lalwe /
5. He went to the river
 (a) / kiwo oinet /
 (b) / kiwo oinet /
 (c) / kiwo lalwa /
6. They went to the river
 (a) / kipa oinet /
 (b) / kipa oinet /
 (c) / kipa lalwa /
7. He saw me
 (a) / kikeron /
 (b) / kikeron /
 (c) / kisuwetfan /
8. Cheptoo saw us
 (a) / kikeretf Cheptoo /
 (b) / kikeretf Cheptoo /
 (c) / kisuwetfatfa /
9. He told you (sing) to go
 (a) / kilentjin iwe /
 (b) / kilentjin iwe /
 (c) / kimwouni lo ujo /
10. He told you (pl) to go.

- (a) / Kileŋtʃok ope /
- (b) / Kileŋtʃok ope /
- (c) / Kileŋtʃakwa apa /

4.3.4 Possessives

The underlined morphemes below are possessive morphemes. In the three dialects possessives are made with the addition of suffixes to the stem of the noun. Therefore in statement (E)1 below the following morphemes are equivalent to the possessive pronoun ‘my’ in English.

K: -ŋu

T: -ŋu

P: -ŋan

These possessive pronouns change to plural when the nouns they are suffixed to, change from singular to plural. The possessive morphemes above changed to the suffixes in (E)6. Thus

K: -tʃu:k

T: -tʃu:k

P: -tʃan

E).1. My dress is drying

- (a) / soe iŋkorie:ŋu /
- (b) / jomei iŋkorie:ŋu /
- (c) / mi jomei sireŋan /

2. His dog is dead

- (a) / kime ŋoktaŋi /
- (b) / kime seseŋi /
- (c) / kima kukidoŋe /

3. Your cat is sleepin
 (a) / rue pakeŋu:ŋ /
 (b) / rui pusinu:ŋ /
 (c) / kuruwe tʃepusinan /
4. Our house is burning
 (a) / lole koŋon /
 (b) / lole koŋo /
 (c) / negoi kontʃa /
5. Their cow is grazing
 (a) / oketi tetanwa:ŋ /
 (b) / oketi tetanwa:ŋ /
 (c) / oketi tetanwa /
- 6.. My dresses are drying
 (a) / saitos inkoroi:ktʃu:k /
 (b) / jamtos inkoroi:iktʃu:k /
 (c) / mi suruketʃan kujomo /
7. His dogs are dead
 (a) / kime:jo ŋokiktʃi:k /
 (b) / kime:jo seseniktʃi:k /
 (c) / kimego kukinedetʃi /
8. Your (sing) cats are sleeping
 (a) / ruitos pakono:ku:k /
 (b) / ruitos pusiniku:k /
 (c) / rujoʃepunitʃiku /
9. Our houses are burning
 (a) / loltos kori:ktʃok /
 (b) / loltos kori:ktʃok /
 (c) / nogjo koritʃa /

10. Their cows are sick
 (a) / miontos tukwa:k /
 (b) / miontos tukwa:k /
 (c) / tojunote tukawa /

4.3.5 The Demonstrative

Like possessives, the demonstratives are formed by the addition of suffixes to the stem of the noun. The underlined in the statements below are demonstrative pronouns suffixed to the noun.

- F).1. That pot is new
 (a) / Le:l tero:nono /
 (b) / Le:l tero:no /
 (c) / rel toro:no /
2. This pot is new
 (a) / le:l tere:ni /
 (b) / le:l tero:ni /
 (c) / le:l tero:ni /
3. Those pots are new
 (a) / le:latʃ tere:nitʃu:n /
 (b) / le:latʃ tere:nitʃu:n /
 (c) / relatʃ tore:nitʃi:no /
4. These pots are new
 (a) / le:latʃ tere:nitʃu /
 (b) / le:latʃ tere:nitʃu /
 (c) / le:latʃ toreni:tʃu /
5. That (yonder) are new
 (a) / le:l tero:ni:n /
 (b) / le:l tero:ni:n /
 (c) / re:l toro:nana /

4.4 Cognacy in the Morphemes

The list below indicates which morphemes are considered to be cognates and which ones are not. All the statements elicited were considered. From the concordial morphemes below we calculated the cognate percentages from which we drew conclusions about the relationship of Pokot with the other dialects morpho-syntactically as well as drawing general conclusions.

COGNACY

	Pokot	Kipsigis	Tugen	P/K	P/T	K/T
--	-------	----------	-------	-----	-----	-----

4.4.1 Adjectives

1.	-iŋ	-wet	-we	—	—	x
2.	-	-t	-t	—	—	x
3.	-	-it	-it	—	—	x
4.	tionŋ	tionŋ	tionŋ	x	x	x
5.	-	-et	-e	—	—	x
6.	-iŋ	-ok	-ok	—	—	x
7.	-rin	-rik	-rik	—	—	x
8.	-	-ik	-ik	—	—	x
9.	-in	-ik	-ik	—	—	x
10.	-en	nik	nik	—	—	x

4.4.2 Verb Conjunction

1.	mi-	e	e	_	_	x
2.	-ei	-e	-i	x	x	x
3.	mi-	-i	-i	_	_	x
4.	-ki	-at	-at	_	_	x
5.	-ki	-jat	-ki	_	x	-
6.	-ku	-tos	-tos	_	_	x
7.	-	-ni	-ni	_	_	x
8.	-	-tos	-tos	_	_	x
9.	mi-	-tin	-tin	_	_	x
10.	ki-	-tin	-tin	_	-	x
11.	ki-	ki-	ki-	x	x	x
12.	ki-	ki-	ki-	x	x	x
13.	ki-	ki-	ki-	x	x	x
14.	ki-	ki-	ki-	x	x	x
15.	ki-	ki-	ki-	x	x	x
16.	ki-	ki-	ki-	x	x	x
17.	ki-	ki-	ki-	x	x	x

18.	ki-	ki-	ki-	x	x	x
19.	ki-	ki-	ki-	x	x	x
20.	ki-	ki-	ki-	x	x	x

4.4.3 Pronouns

1.	-o-	-o-	- an	_	_	x
2.	-ki-	-ki-	-tʃa	_	_	x
3.	-i -	-i-	-ɲi	_	_	x
4.	-o-	-o-	- kwe	_	_	x
5.	ki-	ki-	ki-	x	x	x
6.	ki-	ki-	ki-	x	x	x
7.	-on	-on	-tʃan	_	_	x
8.	-etʃ	-etʃ	-atʃa	_	_	x
9.	-in	-in	-ɲi	_	_	x
10.	-ok	-ok	-kwa	_	_	x

4.4.4 Possessives

1.	-ɲu	-ɲu	-ɲan	_	_	x
----	-----	-----	------	---	---	---

2.	-ni	-ni	-ne	x	x	x
3.	-nuŋ	-nuŋ	-nan	-	-	x
4.	-non	-no	-nɬa	-	-	x
5.	-nwan	-nwan	-nwa	x	x	x
6.	-ɬuk	-ɬuk	-ɬan	-	-	x
7.	-ɬik	-ɬik	-ɬi	x	x	x
8.	-kuk	-kuk	-ku	x	x	x
9.	-ɬok	-ɬok	-ɬa	-	-	x
10.	-wak	-wak	-wa	x	x	x

4.4.5 The Demonstrative

1.	-no	-no	-no	x	x	x
2.	-ni	-ni	-ni	x	x	x
3.	-ɬino	-ɬun	-ɬun	-	-	x
4.	-ɬu	-ɬu	-ɬu	x	x	x.
5.	-nin	-nin	-ninana	-	-	x

4.5 Concordial Morphemes Cognate Percentages

To establish the degree of correspondence in the morphosyntactic structures of Pokot versus those of Tugen and kipsigis, we compared the cognate percentages of the concordial morphemes, i.e. those morphemes that are cognates as a percentage of the total number of the phrases and statements are compared. The formula used was successfully applied by Ingonga (1991) and Persson (1979).

Kipsigis and Pokot

Total number of statements - 55

Cognate concordial morphemes - 22

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Cognate percentage} &= \frac{\text{number of cognate morphemes}}{\text{number of statements}} \times 100 \\ &= \frac{22}{55} \times 100 \\ &= 40\%\end{aligned}$$

Tugen and Pokot

Total number of statements - 55

Number of concordial morphemes - 23

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Cognate percentage} &= \frac{\text{cognate concordial morpheme}}{\text{number of statements}} \times 100 \\ &= \frac{23}{55} \times 100 \\ &= 41.8 \\ &= 42\%\end{aligned}$$

Kipsigis and Tugen

Total number of statements - 55

Number of concordial morphemes - 54

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cognate percentages} &= \frac{\text{cognate concordial morphemes}}{\text{Number of statements}} \times 100 \\ &= \frac{54}{55} \times 100 \\ &= 98\% \end{aligned}$$

4.6 Interpretation

From the percentages above, it can be observed that Pokot morpho-syntactic structure is different from those of Kipsigis and Tugen. Between Kipsigis and Pokot, the correspondence of the concordial morphemes is only 40%, this implies that 60% do not correspond thus different. While between Tugen and Pokot, the correspondence of the morphemes is 42% therefore 58% of the morphemes do not correspond. The percentage of correspondence in both cases is below average. It can therefore be concluded that the morpho-syntactic structure of Pokot is significantly different, therefore reinforcing the proposed hypothesis two (2)

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter is a summary of the research findings, observations and implications for the study. This is based on the research objectives and hypotheses that we tested. Conclusions have been drawn and finally, recommendations will be made.

5.2 The difference and similarity between pokot lexical and Morpho-syntactic structure from those of kipsigis and tugen.

Pokot and Kipsigis

The study found out that Pokot lexical and morpho-syntactic structures are different from those of Kipsigis and Tugen. From the Swadesh (1950) 200 word-list that was read to the respondents, only 81 lexical items of Pokot are cognates with those of Kipsigis. This means that 119 words are non-cognates. Therefore more than ½ of the basic terms in these two dialects are different, 81 cognates gives a 41% cognate percentage, a figure which is below average. So we can say that between Pokot and Kipsigis the phonetic similarity of the words is 41% while the phonetic difference is 59%. Between the two dialects, only 34 words are identical (cognates) while 119 are completely different (non-cognates). The cognates are only 32% similar this implies that they are 68% different. These figures show that Pokot lexical structure is different from that of Kipsigis to a large extent. The sentence structure of Pokot and that of Kipsigis is similar: V-N-ADJ. However the concordial morphemes which were the interest of this study demonstrated a big difference. The correspondence between Pokot and Kipsigis morphemes was low, out of 55 statements, only 22 were cognates giving a 40% cognate percentage implying that they are 60% different. These results reinforce hypotheses (1) and (2) which state that Pokot's lexical and morpho-syntactic structure is significantly different from that of Kipsigis.

Pokot and Tugen

Between Tugen and Pokot, 90 out of 200 words are cognates, therefore 110 words are non-cognates. This figure of 110 is more than ½ the total number of basic terms. The cognate percentage of 90 cognate words is 45%. This means the Pokot lexical items are 45% similar to those of Tugen but 55% different. Only 40 words are identical (cognates) between

Tugen and Pokot while 110 are completely different (non-cognates). The spread cognate percentage is 37%. This suggests that the cognates are 37% similar and 63% different. From the figures above it can be observed that Pokot lexical structure is different from that of Tugen. The morpho-syntactic structure of Pokot is 42% similar to that of Tugen and 58% different. Only 23 morphemes correspond out of 55 morphemes examined. This reinforces hypotheses (1) and (2) which state that Pokot's lexical and morpho-syntactic structure is significantly different from that of Tugen

Although there are similarities between Pokot and Tugen lexical and morpho-syntactic structures, these similarities are to a very small extent. The differences override these similarities. Going by the figures arrived at above, it can be said that the Tugen lexical and morpho-syntactic structure is closer to that of Pokot than Kipsigis is to Pokot. This can be attributed to Geographical barriers and changes (appendix V). From the Kalenjin map, the Tugen borders the Pokot while Kipsigis are far removed from it

The percentages arrived at when Kipsigis and Tugen were compared to Pokot, cannot be compared to what was arrived at when Kipsigis and Tugen were compared. Even though a comparison between Kipsigis and Tugen was not the interest of this study, the percentages were worked out to fulfil some intellectual curiosity. The following were arrived at: the words are 88% cognates while the cognates are 85% similar. The correspondence of the morphemes is 98%. This indicates that the lexical and morpho-syntactic structures of Tugen and Kipsigis are similar to a large extent, almost 100%.

5.3 Recommendations

It is important to find out if the differences Pokot exhibits in its lexical and morpho-syntactic structure also occur in other aspects of language. There's therefore need to carry out further research that compares the aspects of language not compared in this study. This study could not compare all aspects of language due to the limitations of time and money. More data would provide more evidence that would enable scholars to draw conclusions that would make viable contributions towards understanding the relationship between Pokot and other Kalenjin dialects.

A study focusing on the sociolinguistics of Kalenjin should be carried out. Such a study should focus on intelligibility between Pokot speakers and speakers of other Kalenjin dialects. It would be important to find out if Pokot speakers do understand Kalenjin speakers or if other Kalenjin speakers do understand Pokot speakers in speech when they communicated in mother tongue. The attitude of the Pokot towards other Kalenjin speakers

and the attitude of other Kalenjin speakers towards Pokots should be studied. By so doing it will be established if sociolinguistic factors contribute towards widening the differences between Pokot and other Kalenjin dialects. This study did not address these issues because it was looking at the structures of language but not the sociolinguistics.

REFERENCES

- Anderson, T. M. (1973) *Structural Aspects of Language Change*. London: Longman Group Limited
- Angogo, R.(1980) *Linguistic and Attitudinal Factors in the Maintainance of the Luhya Group Identity*. PHD. Thesis Unpublished.
- Allen, H.B. &Linn, M.D. (1986) *Dialect and Language Variation*. Academic press Inc. Ltd. London.
- Antilla, R.(1972) *An introduction to Historical and comparative Linguistics*. Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc. New York.
- Baroja, T.H., Sakamoy, P & Partary,D (1989) *Analytical Grammar of The Pokot Language*. Graficha Piratella.Trieste.
- Black, W.H. (1971) *A Comparative Grammar of South African Languages*. Gregg International. London.
- Brown, G. (1968) *Comperative Study of Bukusu and Gishu: A Study of the Phonology Of Lumasaba*. Cambridge University Press, ambridge.
- Bynon, T.(1977) *Historical Linguistics*. Cambridge University Press. Cambridge.
- Cole, D.T. (1967) *Some Features of Ganda Linguistic Structure*. Johannesburg: Wittwatersrand University Press.
- Comrie, C. (1981) *Language Universals and Linguistics Typology*. Blackwell Publishers Limited. U.K.
- Crazzolaro, J. (1978) *A study of the Pokot Language*. Verona fathers Kacheliba. Bologna.
- Creider, C.A. & Tapsubei, J.C. (1989) *A Grammar of Nandi*.Helmut Buske Verlag .Hamburg.
- Creider ,A.C. (1982). *Studies in Kalenjin Nominal Tonogy*.Dietrich Reimer Verlag. Berlin.
- Croft, W. (1990) *Typology and Universals*. Cambridge University Press. Cambridge.
- Crowley, T. (1992) *An Introduction to Historical Linguistics*. Oxford University Press. Cambridge.
- Crystal, D. (1987) *The Cambridge Encyclopaedia of Language*. Cambridge University Press. Cambridge.
- Crazzolaro, J.P. (1955) *A study of the Acooli Language Grammar and Vocabulary*. Oxford University Press.London.
- Dalby, A. (1999) *Dictionary of Languages*. Bloomsbury Publishing PIC. London

- Ehret, C. (2001) *A historical-Comparative Reconstruction of Nilo-Saharan*. Rudiger Koppe Verlag.Koln
- Elseiver, J. (1994) *The Phonology and Morphology of Kalenjin: The Tugen*. Rudiger Koppe Verlag. Koln.
- Fairbanks, g. (1955) *A Note on Glottochronology*. IJAL: New York .
- Flores, J.A.(1996) *An introduction to Pokot Grammar*. Unpublished.
- Fox, A. (1995) *Linguistic Reconstruction*. An introduction to theory and Method. Oxford University Press Inc. New York.
- Gimson, A.C. (1989) *An Introduction to the Pronunciation of English*. Edward Arnold. Britain.
- Greenlie, M.S. (1987) *Some Features of Cohesion In Four Endo Narratives*. M.A Thesis Unpublished.
- Gudchinsky, S. (1956) *"The ABC's of Lexicostatics. The Word Vol. 12*. The Linguistic circle of New York. New York.
- Guthrie, M. (1967-71) *A Comparative Bantu*. Gregg Press. Farnborough.
- Hartell, R.L. (1993) *Alphabets of Africa*. UNESCO Regional office Dakar.
- Heine, B. & Nurse, D (2000) *African Languages: An Introduction*. Cambridge University Press. Cambridge.
- Heine, B. (1972). *Kalenjin Glottogronogy*. Milla.
- Heine, B. (1979) *Typology of African Languages*. Dietrich Reime (Andrew & Steiner) Lexicostatistics in Africa. Berlin.
- Ingonga, L.I. (1991) *A comparative study of Egegusii, Logooli and Lwidakho*. Unpublished M.A. Thesis, Kenyatta University.
- Kipkorir, B.E. (1978) *Kenya's People: People of the Rift Valley*. Evans Brothers Limited. London.
- Kipkulei, B.K. (1972) *The Origin Migration Settlement of the Tugen People with Specia Reference to the Arror from the Earliest Times to the Turn of the 20th Century*. B.A Thesis. Unpublished.
- Kotikash, L. (2000) *The Derivational Morphology of the Maa Language*. Unpublished M.A.Thesis. Nairobi Evangelical Graduate School of Theology.
- Lees, R.B. (1953) *"The Basis of Glottochronology"* Language 29.
- Lehmann, W.P. (1973) *Historical Linguistics an Introduction*. Holt Rinehart a Winston, Inc.
- Liol, R.C. (2000) *The Use of the Participle NE in the Dinka Language*. Unpublished M.A Thesis. Nairobi Evangelical School of Theology.

- Lodge, K. (1994) *Kalenjin Phonology and Morphology: A Further Exemplification of Underspecification and Non-destructive Phonology*. Elsevier Science B.V. Amsterdam.
- Lyons, J. (1981) *Language and Linguistics and introduction*. Cambridge University Press. Cambridge
- Malou, J. (1988) *The Dinka Vowel System*. Summer Institute of Linguistics.
- Mcconnel, R.E. (1979) *Our own voice: Canadian English and How It Is Studied*. Gage International. Toronto.
- Mohline, W. J.G. & Heine B. (1980) *Language and Dialect: Atlas of Kenya* Ed, Dietrich Reimer Verlag .Berlin.
- Ochieng, W.R. (1975) *An Outline of the History of the Rift Valley of Kenya Until 1900*. African Literature Bureau.
- Ogot, B.A. (1986) *An Introductory History*. West Virginia University Press, Virginia
- Ogot, B.A. (1976) *Kenya Before 1900*. East African Publishing house. Nairobi.
- Okombo, O.D. (1997) *A Functional Grammar of Dholuo*. Rudiger Koppe Verlag. Koln.
- Otterloo, V.R. (1979) *A Kalenjin Dialect Study*. University of Nairobi. Nairobi.
- Parsons, F.W. (1970) *African Language Studies XI*. Luzac & Company Ltd. London.
- Persson, A. (1979) *A Dialectal study of the Jur Beli Cluster*. Rhartoum: Unpublished M.A. Thesis University of Khartoum.
- Pike, R. (1979) *Axioms & Procedure for Reconstruction in Comparative Linguistics*. An experimental Syllabus Glendale. New York
- Pike, K.L. (1947) *Phonemics*. University of Michigan Press.
- Robin, R. (1980) *General Linguistics: An Introductory Survey*. London: Longman.
- Roger & Otterloo, K.V (1983) *A Sociolinguistic Study of the Kenyan Coastal Bantu Languages*. University of Nairobi. Nairobi.
- Romaine, S (1994) *Language In Society :Introduction To Sociolinguistics*. Oxford University Press. New York.
- Rottland, F& Omondi, N.L. (1991) *Third Nilo- Saharan Linguistics Colloquium*. Helmut Buske Verlag Hamburg.

- Rottland, F. (1982) *Die Sudnilotschen sprachen. Beschreibung, Vergleichung und Rekonstruktion*. Dietrich Reimer Verlag. Berlin.
- Rottland, F. (1978) *The Reconstruction of Proto-Kalenjin*. Institute of African Studies. Nairobi.
- Saeed, J.L. (1984) *The Syntax of Focus and Topic in Somali*. Helmut Buske Verlag. Hamburg.
- Simmons, G. (1977) *Language Variation and Techniques*. SIL Monograph, n.p.
- Stroomer, H. (1995) *A Grammar of Boraana Oromo (Kenya)*. Rudiger Koppe Verlag. Koln.
- Stroomer, H. (1984) *A Comparative Study of Three Southern Oromo Dialects in Kenya*. Helmut Buske Verlag. Hamburg.
- Swadesh, M. (1955) *Towards Greater Accuracy in Lexicostatistics Dating*. New York: 1 Jal.
- Tapsubei, J.C. & Creider, C.A (2001) *A Dictionary of the Nandi Language*. Rudigar Koppe Verlag . Koln.
- Tucker, A. & Bryan, M.A. (1966) *The Non-Bantu Languages of North Eastern Africa*. Oxford University Press. Cambridge.
- Tucker, A. & Bryan, M.A (1964) *Noun Classification in Kalenjin: Nandi-Kipsigis*. African Studies 5
- Tucker, A. & Bryan, M.A. (1962) *Noun Classification in Kalenjin: Pokot*. African Language Studies 3
- Tucker, A. & Mpaayei, J.T (1955) *A Maasai Grammar*. Longmans, Green and co. London
- Toweett, T. (1979) *A study of the Kalenjin Linguistics*. Kenya Literature Bureau. Nairobi.
- Vossen, R. (1988) *Towards A comparative Study of the Maa Dialects of Kenya and Tanzania*. Helmut Buske Verlag Harmbug.
- Wardhagh, R. (1992) *An Introduction to Sociolinguistics*. Blackwell Publishers. Cambridge.
- Webb, V. & Kembo-Sure (2000) *African Voices*. Oxford Press. South Africa.
- Welmers W. E. (1973) *African Language Structure*. University of California Press London
- Whitely, W.H. (1974) *Language in Kenya*. Oxford University Press. London.
- Winston, J. (1966) 'Greenberg's Classification of African Languages' in *African Studies VII*. London: Lusac & Co.

APPENDICES

Appendix I - Oral Test 1 (one)

Personal Information

Sex Male () Female ()

Age ()

Give your mother tongue translation of the following English words, try to pronounce them as much as possible as they are pronounced in mother tongue.

1. Person
2. Man
3. Woman
4. Boy
5. Girl
6. Child
7. Grandmother
8. Grandfather
9. Mother
10. Father
11. Head
12. Hand
13. Neck
14. Shoulder
15. Leg
16. Finger
17. Eye
18. Ear
19. Nose
20. Knee
21. Elbow
22. Buttocks
23. Belly
24. Face
25. Brain
26. Liver
27. Kidney

28. Rib
29. Hair
30. Breast
31. Mouth
32. Heel
33. Tooth
34. Tongue
35. Chin
36. Bone
37. Animal
38. Tail
39. Blood
40. Cattle
41. Sheep
42. Bull
43. Goat
44. Chicken
45. Cat
46. Dog
47. Tortoise
48. Hare
49. Snake
50. Bird
51. Spider
52. House-fly
53. Fish
54. Feather
55. Tears
56. Milk
57. Pus
58. Horn
59. House
60. Chair
61. Raffer

62. Pot
63. Potshed
64. Bow
65. Spear
66. Knife
67. Locust
68. Axe
69. Broom
70. Inheritance
71. Chief
72. Fisherman
73. Farmer
74. Farm
75. Thief
76. Shadow
77. Forest
78. Tree
79. Leaf
80. Root
81. Grass
82. Seed
83. River
84. Lake
85. Water
86. Cloud
87. Wind
88. Earth
89. Sand
90. Sunlight
91. Rain
92. Moon
93. Sun
94. Star
95. Day

96. Night
97. Mountain
98. Dust
99. Thunder
100. Lightning
101. Mud
102. Darkness
103. Sky
104. Fire
105. Ash
106. Smoke
107. Stone
108. Road
109. Rope
110. Thirst
111. Think
112. Gift
113. Bananas
114. Egg
115. Field
116. East
117. Work (n)
118. Death
119. Walk
120. See
121. Hear
122. Sing
123. Suck
124. Eat
125. Swallow
126. Hold
127. Hit
128. Go
129. Sleep

130. Come
131. Scratch
132. Give birth
133. Wash
134. Reign
135. Run
136. Break
137. Fly
138. Buy
139. Steal
140. Sit
141. Fish (v)
142. Dig
143. Lie
144. Grow
145. Plant
146. Jump
147. Add
148. Stand
149. Play
150. Make
151. Fall
152. Work (v)
153. Try
154. Pray
155. Cook
156. Harvest
157. Talk
158. Curse
159. Close
160. Make
161. Sweep
162. Give
163. Conquer

- 164. Kill
- 165. Begin
- 166. Drink
- 167. Count
- 168. Wait
- 169. Good
- 170. Bad
- 171. Thin
- 172. Fat
- 173. White
- 174. Black
- 175. Red
- 176. Fast
- 177. Slow
- 178. Tall
- 179. Short
- 180. Cold
- 181. Long
- 182. Hot
- 183. Near
- 184. Far
- 185. One
- 186. Two
- 187. Three
- 188. Four
- 189. Five
- 190. Six
- 191. Seven

- 192. Eight
- 193. Nine
- 194. Ten
- 195. Many
- 196. Small
- 197. Big
- 198. Few
- 199. Down
- 200. Up

Appendix II – Oral Test 2 (two)

Personal Information

Sex Male () Female ()

Age ()

Give the equivalent of the following sets of English short statements and phrases in your mother tongue.

1. Small child
2. small house
3. small animal
4. small pot
5. small tree
6. small children
7. small houses
8. small animals
9. small pots
10. small trees
11. The old house is falling
12. The old king king is coming
13. The clever girls are playing
14. The beautiful dress is torn
15. The new pot is broken
16. The old houses are burning
17. The old kings are coming
18. The clever girls are playing
19. The beautiful dresses are torn
20. The new pots are broken
21. The old house fell
22. The tall tree burned
23. The old king came
24. The beautiful dresses got burned
25. The new pot broke
26. The old house burned
27. The old houses fell
28. The clever girls played

29. The beautiful dresses got burned
30. I went to the river
31. We went to the river
32. You (sing.) went to the river
33. You (pl.) went to the river
34. He went to the river
35. They went to the river
36. He saw me
37. Cheptoo saw us
38. He told you (sing.) to go
39. He told you (pl.) to go
40. My dress is drying
41. His dog is dead
42. Your cat is sleeping
43. Our house is burning
44. Their cow is grazing
45. My dresses are drying
46. His dogs are dead
47. Your (sing.) cats are sleeping
48. Our houses are burning
49. Their cows are sick
50. That pot is new
51. This pot is new
52. Those pots are new
53. These pots are new
54. That (yonder) are new
55. This pot is new

Appendix III – Lexicostatistics 1 (one)

English	Pokot	Kipsigis	Tugen
1. Person	/tʃi-ti/	/tʃi:to/	/tʃi:to/
2. Man	/muro:n-/	/murenik/	/muren/
3. Woman	/korka/	/kwo:nto/	/kwonto/
4. Boy	/ka:tʃini:n/	/ɲe:te:t/	/ɲete/
5. Girl	/tjo/	/tʃe:pto/	/tʃe:pto/
6. Child	/monij/	/la:kwet/	/la:kwe/
7. Grandmother	/koko/	/pa:tiem/	/koko/
8. Grandfather	/kuko/	/pa:mo:ri/	/kuko/
9. Mother	/jo:/	/ijo /	/ijo/
10. Father	/papo/	/kwanta /	/kwant/
11. Head	/mot/	/meti:t/	/meti:t/
12. Hand	/e:g /	/eu:t/	/eu/
13. Neck	/ka:t/	/ka:tit /	/ka:tit/
14. Shoulder	/lojo/	/pu:ita/	/pu:ita/
15. Leg	/ke:l/	/ke:lto/	/ke:lto/
16. Finger	/morun/	/si:jiet/	/morne/
17. Eye	/koŋ/	/ko:nta/	/ko:nta/
18. Ear	/ji:t/	/ i:tit /	/i:tit/
19. Nose	/sor/	/seru:t/	/seru/
20. Knee	/ku:tiŋ /	/ kutu:nta/	/ku:tunʒto/
21. Elbow	/tokogogo/	/ku:tuntapeu:t /	/kimaine/
22. Buttocks	/toŋko/	/ kwetwek/	/kwetwek/
23. Belly	/mu/	/moe:t/	/moe:/
24. Face	/ tokotʃ/	/toke:t /	/toke/
25. Brain	/ kɪ it/	/ku:ntit/	/kɪn utie/
26. Liver	/ ko: /	/ko:et /	/ko:e/
27. Kidney	/sorom a/	/so: ro:mɪ iet/	/soro:mɪiet/
28. Rib	/karas/	/kara:sta/	/kara:sta/
29. Hair	/pu:t/	/su:mek/	/su:mek/
30. Breast	/ki:tin/	/ki:net/	/ki:nte/
31. Mouth	/ku:t/	/ku:tit/	/ku:ti/
32. Heel	/ tifi /	/tekwei:ja:t/	/titiŋto/

33.	Tooth	/ke:lat/	/ke:ltet/	/ke:lte/
34.	Tongue	/ŋaliap/	/ŋeliepta /	/ŋeliepta/
35.	Chin	/ŋatʃam/	/ta:mnet/	/ta:mne/
36.	Bone	/kowo/	/ko:we:t /	/ko:we/
37.	Animal	/tiɔ /	/tiɔ /	ʔio /
38.	Tail	/toroŋwo/	/ka:tu:tiet/	/ko:tut:jet/
39.	Blood	/kisun/	/koroti:k/	/koroti:k/
40.	Cattle	/titʃ/	/tu:ka/	/tu:ka/
41.	Sheep	/ketʃir/	/ketʃirek/	/ketʃirek/
42.	Bull	/kiruk/	/kirkit/	/kirkit/
43.	Goat	/aran/	/ŋoro:riet/	/arte/
44.	Chicken	/koko:rotʃ/	/iŋkokie:t/	/iŋkokie:t/
45.	Cat	/tʃepusi/	/paket/	/pusi/
46.	Dog	/kukij/	/ŋo:kta/	/sese/
47.	Tortoise	/pkokotʃ/	/tʃepkokotʃe:t/	/metʃwe/
48.	Hare	/plekwa/	/kiplekwe:t/	/kiplekwe/
49.	Snake	/moro:j/	/inta:ret/	/erene/
50.	Bird	/ta:rit/	/tari:tiet /	/toritje/
51.	Spider	/tamamporo/	/kiproroke:t/	/kiprorokie/
52.	Housefly	/kalalan/	/ka:lianjet/	/ka:lianje/
53.	Fish	/kagag /	ʔ tʃirio:t /	/itʃirio:t/
54.	Feather	/karoja/	/kororiet/	/kororje/
55.	Tears	/lo:k/	/pekəpkon/	/pekəpkon/
56.	Milk	/tʃo /	/tʃe:ko/	/tʃe:ko/
59.	Pus	/puru:tit/	/purtute:k/	/purtute:k/
58.	Horn	/kojog/	/ku:inet/	/kuine/
59.	House	/ko/	/ko:t/	/ko:t/
60.	Chair	/ŋatʃar/	/ŋetʃeret/	/ŋetʃeret/
61.	Rafter	/tara a/	/ sanet/	/porkojante/
62.	Pot	/tor/	/tere:t /	/tere:/
63.	Potshed	/kapteketʃ/	/rokiət/	/kapteren/
64.	Bow	/kwan/	/ku:janta/	/ku:jan/
65.	Spear	/ŋot/	/ŋotit/	/ŋotit/
66.	Knife	/rotwo/	/rotwet /	/rotwe/

67.	Locust	/talanja/	/kiprenə it/	/talamue/
68.	Axe	/ojwo/	/ai:wet/	/ai:we/
69.	Broom	/kaputʃo:n/	/pirirwet/	/pirirwe/
70.	Inheritance	/mla/	/kontije:t/	/kinti/
71.	Chief	/kirwokin/	/kirwokinet/	/kirwokinte/
72.	Fisherman	/nomindo kagag/	/ramintetap intʃireni:k/	/ramintetap intʃireni:k/
73.	Farmer	/ɲorin/	/temintet/	/kapoti:n/
74.	Farm	/ par/	/impare:t/	/impare:/
75.	Thief	/tʃorin/	/tjo:rinet/	/tʃo:rinte/
76.	Shadow	/rurwo/	/urwe:t/	/urwe:/
77.	Forest	/wuw/	/o:sne:t/	/timto/
78.	Tree	/ke:t/	/ke:tit/	/ke:tit/
79.	Leaf	/sokon/	/soko:t/	/soko:t/
80.	Root	/tikit/	/tikitio:t/	/tikitie/
81.	Grass	/sus/	/suswe:k /	/suswe:k/
82.	Seed	/kosug/	/ keswo:t/	/kesuo:nte/
83.	River	/lalwa/	/oinet/	/oine/
84.	Lake	/na:nam/	/ara:raita/	/ara:raita/
85.	Water	/pog/	/pe:k/	/pe:k/
86.	Cloud	/polta/	/po:ltet/	/polte:/
87.	Wind	/jo:mot/	/kori:sta/	/kori:sta/
88.	Earth	/ɲwɛ /	/ɲweɳ /	/ɲwɛ/
89.	Sand	/ɲajam/	/ɲainet/	/ɲasiek/
90.	Sunlight	/lopoin/	/lapo:jet/	/lapkei:je/
91.	Rain	/rop/	/ro:pta /	/ro:pta/
92.	Moon	/arawa/	/ara:we:t/	/ara:we/
93.	Sun	/asi:s/	/asi:sta/	/asi:sta/
94.	Star	/kokelian/	/ke:tʃe:ija:t/	/ko:ke:lie/
95.	Day	/poget/	/ pe:tut/	/pe:tu/
96.	Night	/ogo/	/ke:mout/	/ke:maot/
97.	Mountain	/kamas/	/ tulwe:t/	/tulwe:/
98.	Dust	/tertjon/	/puiwet/	/tempurek/
99.	Thunder	/tulo/	/tule:/	/tule:/

100.	Lightning	/ki:rialon/	/i:le:t/	/i:le:/
101.	Mud	/ɲarkwat/	/ɲatatiat/	/kiminte/
102.	Darkness	/tuwun/	/mesu:nteijta /	/ mesu:nteijta/
103.	Sky	/jim/	/po:lik/	/po:lik/
104.	Fire	/ma/	/ma:t/	/ma:t/
105.	Ash	/arion/	/ore:k/	/or:ek/
106.	Smoke	/igot/	/i:je:t/	/i:je:t/
107.	Stone	/kog/	/koita/	/koita/
108.	Road	/o:r/	/ ore:t /	/ore:/
109.	Rope	/anjua/	/anwet/	/anwe/
110.	Thirst	/maral/	/melelta/	/melelta/
111.	Think	/nana/	/i:puat /	/i:puat/
112.	Gift	/ropowon/	/onunotio:t /	/konunotio:n/
113.	Bananas	/ndisin/	/intisio:t/	/intisunik/
114.	Egg	/adosion/	/majaja:t/	/majajante/
115.	Field	/tomko/	/kiwə tʃet/	/kiwə tʃe/
116.	East	/koŋasis/	/koŋasis/	/koŋasi/
117.	Work(n)	/poisio/	/poi:siet/	/poi:sie:/
118.	Death	/megat/	/me:t/	/me:t/
119.	Walk	/westo/	/ui/	/ui/
120.	See	/ro:sa/	/ ke:r/	/ke:r/
121.	Hear	/te:r/	/ka:s /	/ka:s/
122.	Sing	/tumo/	/ti:en/	/ti:en/
123.	Suck	/tʃutʃuna/	/ tʃutʃun /	/tʃutʃun/
124.	Eat	/ama/	/am/	/am/
125.	Swallow	ɲukudena/	/lukui /	/lukui/
126.	Hold	/nama/	/nam /	/nam/
127.	Hit	/luwo/	/kwer /	/kwer/
128.	Go	/wi/	/ui /	/ui/
129.	Sleep	/ruwo/	/ru /	/ru/
130.	Come	ɲono/	ɲ on/	/ɲo/
131.	Scratch	/ɲwara /	/iɲwar/	/iɲwar/
132.	Give birth	/lusio/	/sitʃ/	/sitʃ/
133.	Wash	/mwata/	/mwet /	/mwet/

134.	Reign	/paitag/	/poun/	/poun/
135.	Run	/rupo/	/lapat/	/lapat/
136.	Break	/mrego/	/iri/	/iri/
137.	Fly	/piliteno/	/tiriren/	/tiriren/
138.	Buy	/ala/	/al /	/al/
139.	Steal	/tʃora/	/tʃor/	/tʃor/
140.	Sit	/topeno/	/topoten/	/tepi/
141.	Fish (v)	/nama kagag/	/ram intʃireni:k/	/ram intʃireni:k/
142.	Dig	/wasa/	/pal/	/pal/
143.	Lie	/putinton/	/ŋo:lun/	/kenun/
144.	Grow	/getuno/	/etun /	/etun/
145.	Plant	/katkata/	/mi:n /	/kol/
146.	Jump	/kikomtog/	/itwal/	/tʃul/
147.	Add	/tasa/	/tes/	/tes/
148.	Stand	/jɔŋ o/	/telel/	/telel/
149.	Play	/pirono/	/ure:ren/	/ure:ren/
152.	Make	/iga/	/jai/	/jai/
151.	Fall	/tʃintena/	/iput /	/iput/
152.	Work(v)	/iga/	/poi:sien /	/poi:sien/
153.	Try	/mugtʃina/	/jo:mten /	/tiem/
154.	Pray	/saga/	/sa:/	/sa:/
155.	Cook	/tʃilo/	/kwaŋ /	/kwaŋ/
156.	Harvest	/ilo/	/kes/	/kes/
157.	Talk	/ŋalana/	/ŋala:l/	/ŋala:l/
158.	Curse	/tʃipo/	/tʃup/	/tʃup/
159.	Close	/kara/	/ker/	/ker/
160.	Bring	/ipuno/	/ipun/	/ipun/
161.	Sweep	/putʃo/	/ipu:tʃ/	/ipu:tʃ/
162.	Give	/tono/	/ikoiten /	/ikoiten/
163.	Conguer	/naiga/	/nenet/	/tur/
164.	Kill	/tuwo/	/par/	/par/
165.	Begin	/toro/	/toun/	/toun/
166.	Drink	/gega/	/je: /	/e:/
167.	Count	/ji:to/	/iji:t/	/i:t/

168.	Wait	/kə a/	/kə /	/kə/
169.	Good	/karam/	/kara:ran /	/kara:ran/
170.	Bad	/ga/	/ja/	/ja/
171.	Thin	/tantan/	/təntən /	/təntən/
172.	Fat	/akwag/	/nera:t /	/nera:t/
173.	White	/re:l/	/le:l/	/le:l/
174.	Black	/tuw/	/tu:i /	/tu:i/
175.	Red	/puru/	/ piri:r/	/piri:r/
176.	Fast	/lawal/	/tʃeptʃep/	/tʃeptʃep/
177.	Slow	/mu:t/	/mutul /	/mutul/
178.	Tall	/kog/	/koi /	/koi/
179.	Short	/təngog/	/nwatʃ /	/nwatʃ/
180.	Cold	/kagit/	/kai:tit/	/kai:tit/
181.	Long	/kog/	/koi/	/koi/
182.	Hot	/laja:t/	/ləlei/	/ləlei/
183.	Far	/low/	/lo: /	/lo:/
184.	Near	/lekit/	/ne:kit/	/lekit/
185.	One	/akoŋa/	/ake:ŋke/	/ake:ŋke/
186.	Two	/odɔ/	/oe:ŋ /	/oe:ŋ/
187.	Three	/somok/	/somok/	/somok/
188.	Four	/aŋwan/	/aŋwa:n/	/aŋwa:n/
189.	Five	/mu:t/	u:t /	/mu:t/
190.	Six	/mu:t ŋko akoŋa/	/lo: /	/lo:/
191.	Seven	/mu:t ŋko odeŋ/	/ tisap/	/tisap/
192.	Eight	/mu:t ŋko somok/	/sisi:t/	/sisi:t/
193.	Nine	/mu:t ŋko aŋwan/	/soko:l /	/soko:l/
194.	Ten	/taman/	/taman/	/taman/
195.	Many	/tʃaŋ/	/ tʃaŋ/	/tʃaŋ/
196.	Small	/munuŋ/	/miŋin/	/miŋiŋ/
197.	Big	/wow/	/ wo: /	/o:/
198.	Few	/ŋoru/	/tu:ten/	/ŋeriŋ/
199.	Down	/ŋwɔ/	/ŋweɔ /	/ŋweɔ/
200.	Up	/Parak/	/parak/	/parak/

Appendix IV – Lexicostatistics 2 (two)

	GLOSS		COGNACY			SPREAD COGNATE VALUES		
			P	K	T	P/K	P/T	K/T
1.	Person	-	x	x	x	4	4	4
2.	Man	-	x	x	x	3	3	4
3.	Woman	-	-	x	x	0	0	4
4.	Boy	-	-	x	x	0	0	4
5.	Girl	-	-	x	x	0	0	4
6.	Child	-	-	x	x	0	0	4
7.	Grandmother	-	x	-	x	0	4	0
8.	Grandfather	-	x	-	x	0	4	0
9.	Mother	-	x	-	x	0	4	0
10.	Father	-	-	x	x	0	0	4
11.	Head	-	-	x	x	3	3	4
12.	Hand	-	-	x	x	0	0	4
13.	Neck	-	x	x	x	4	4	4
14.	Shoulder	-	-	x	x	0	0	4
15.	Leg	-	x	x	x	4	4	4
16.	Finger	-	x	-	x	0	3	0
17.	Eye	-	-	x	x	3	3	4
18.	Ear	-	-	x	x	0	0	4
19.	Nose	-	-	x	x	0	0	4
20.	Knee	-	x	x	x	2	3	2
21.	Elbow	-	-	-	-	0	0	0
22.	Buttocks	-	-	x	x	0	0	4
23.	Belly	-	-	x	x	0	0	4
24.	Face	-	-	x	x	0	0	4
25.	Brain	-	x	x	x	3	3	2
26.	Liver	-	-	x	x	0	0	4
27.	Kidney	-	x	x	x	3	3	4
28.	Rib	-	x	x	x	4	4	4

29.	Hair	-	- x x	0	0	4
30.	Breast	-	- x x	1	1	4
31.	Mouth	-	x x x	4	4	4
32.	Heel	-	x - x	0	4	0
33.	Tooth	-	- x x	3	3	4
34.	Tongue	-	x x x	2	2	4
35.	Chin	-	- x x	0	0	4
36.	Bone	-	x x x	2	3	3
37.	Animal	-	x x x	4	4	4
38.	Tail	-	- x x	0	0	3
39.	Blood	-	- x x	0	0	4
40.	Cattle	-	- x x	0	0	4
41.	Sheep	-	x x x	4	4	4
42.	Bull	-	x x x	1	1	4
43.	Goat	-	x x	0	2	4
44.	Chicken	-	- x x	0	0	4
45.	Cat	-	x - x	0	4	0
46.	Dog	-	- - -	0	0	0
47.	Tortoise	-	- - -	0	0	0
48.	Hare	-	x x x	3	3	4
49.	Snake	-	- - -	0	0	4
50.	Bird	-	x x x	4	3	4
51.	Spider	-	- x x	0	0	4
52.	House-fly	-	- x x	1	1	3
53.	Fish	-	- x x	0	0	0
54.	Feather	-	x x x	2	2	4
55.	Tears	-	- x x	0	0	4
56.	Milk	-	- x x	0	0	4
57.	Pus	-	x x x	3	3	4
58.	Horn	-	- x x	0	0	4
59.	House	-	x x x	2	4	3
60.	Chair	-	- x x	2	2	4
61.	Raffer	-	- x x	0	0	0

62.	Pot	-	- x x	0	0	4
63.	Potshed	-	- - -	0	0	0
64.	Bow	-	- x x	0	0	4
65.	Spear	-	x x x	4	4	4
66.	Knife	-	x x x	3	3	4
67.	Locust	-	- - -	0	0	0
68.	Axe	-	- x x	1	1	4
69.	Broom	-	- x x	0	0	4
70.	Inheritance	-	- - -	0	0	0
71.	Chief	-	x x x	4	4	4
72.	Fisherman	-	- - x	0	0	4
73.	Farmer	-	- - -	0	0	0
74.	Farm	-	- x x	0	0	4
75.	Thief	-	x x x	4	4	4
76.	Shadow	-	- x x	3	3	4
77.	Forest	-	- - -	0	0	0
78.	Tree	-	x x x	4	4	4
79.	Leaf	-	x x x	1	4	4
80.	Root	-	x x x	4	4	4
81.	Grass	-	- x x	4	4	4
82.	Seed	-	- x x	0	0	3
83.	River	-	- x x	0	0	4
84.	Lake	-	- x x	0	0	4
85.	Water	-	- x x	0	0	4
86.	Cloud	-	x x x	3	3	4
87.	Wind	-	- x x	0	0	4
88.	Earth	-	x x x	3	3	4
89.	Sand	-	- - -	0	0	0
90.	Sunlight	-	x x x	2	2	4
91.	Rain	-	x x x	4	4	4
92.	Moon	-	x x x	3	3	4
93.	Sun	-	x x x	4	4	4
94.	Star	-	x - x	0	3	4
95.	Day	-	- x x	0	0	4

96.	Night	-	- x x	0	0	4
97.	Mountain	-	- x x	0	0	4
98.	Dust	-	- - -	0	0	4
99.	Thunder	-	x x x	3	3	4
100.	Lightning	-	- x x	0	0	4
101.	Mud	-	- - -	0	0	0
102.	Darkness	-	- x x	0	0	4
103.	Sky	-	- x x	0	0	4
104.	Fire	-	x x x	4	4	4
105.	Ash	-	- x x	0	0	4
106.	Smoke	-	- - -	0	0	4
107.	Stone	-	- x x	0	0	4
108.	Road	-	x x x	4	4	4
109.	Rope	-	- x x	0	0	4
110.	Thirst	-	- x x	0	0	4
111.	Think	-	- x x	0	0	4
112.	Gift	-	- x x	0	0	4
113.	Bananas	-	x x x	2	2	3
114.	Egg	-	- x x	0	0	4
115.	Field	-	- x x	0	0	4
116.	East	-	x x x	4	3	4
117.	Work (n)	-	x x x	3	3	4
118.	Death	-	- x x	0	0	4
119.	Walk	-	- x x	0	0	4
120.	See	-	- x x	0	0	4
121.	Hear	-	- x x	0	0	4
122.	Sing	-	- x x	0	0	4
123.	Suck	-	x x x	4	4	4
124.	Eat	-	x x x	4	4	4
125.	Swallow	-	- x x	0	0	4
126.	Hold	-	x x x	4	4	4
127.	Hit	-	- x x	0	0	4
128.	Go	-	x x x	3	3	4
129.	Sleep	-	x x x	4	4	4

130.	Come	-	x x x	4	4	4
131.	Scratch	-	x x x	3	4	4
132.	Give birth	-	- x x	0	0	4
133.	Wash	-	x x x	3	3	4
134.	Reign	-	- x x	0	0	4
135.	Run	-	- x x	0	0	4
136.	Break	-	- x x	0	0	4
137.	Fly	-	- x x	0	0	4
138.	Buy	-	x x x	4	4	4
139.	Steal	-	x x x	4	4	4
140.	Sit	-	- - -	3	3	2
141.	Fish (v)	-	- - -	0	0	0
142.	Dig	-	- x x	0	0	4
143.	Lie	-	- - -	0	0	0
144.	Grow	-	- x x	0	0	0
145.	Plant	-	- - -	0	0	4
146.	Jump	-	- - -	0	0	4
147.	Add	-	x x x	3	3	4
148.	Stand	-	- x x	0	0	4
149.	Play	-	- x x	0	0	4
150.	Make	-	- x x	0	0	4
151.	Fall	-	- x x	0	0	4
152.	Work (v)	-	- x x	0	0	4
153.	Try	-	- - -	0	0	0
154.	Pray	-	x x x	3	3	4
155.	Cook	-	- x x	0	0	4
156.	Harvest	-	- x x	0	0	4
157.	Talk	-	x x x	3	3	4
158.	Curse	-	x x x	3	3	4
159.	Close	-	- x x	0	0	4
160.	Make	-	x x x	4	4	4
161.	Sweep	-	- x x	0	0	4
162.	Give	-	- x x	0	0	4
163.	Conquer	-	- - -	0	0	0

164.	Kill	-	- x x	0	0	4
165.	Begin	-	- x x	0	0	4
166.	Drink	-	- x x	0	0	4
167.	Count	-	x x x	2	2	3
168.	Wait	-	x x x	4	4	4
169.	Good	-	- x x	0	0	4
170.	Bad	-	x x x	3	3	4
171.	Thin	-	x x x	2	2	4
172.	Fat	-	- x x	0	0	4
173.	White	-	x x x	3	3	4
174.	Black	-	x x x	3	3	4
175.	Red	-	- x x	0	0	4
176.	Fast	-	- x x	0	0	4
177.	Slow	-	- - -	0	0	4
178.	Tall	-	x x x	3	3	4
179.	Short	-	- x x	0	0	4
180.	Cold	-	- x x	0	0	4
181.	Long	-	x x x	3	3	4
182.	Hot	-	- x x	0	0	4
183.	Near	-	x x x	3	3	4
184.	Far	-	x x x	3	4	3
185.	One	-	- x x	0	0	4
186.	Two	-	x x x	3	3	4
187.	Three	-	x x x	4	4	4
188.	Four	-	x x x	4	4	4
189.	Five	-	x x x	4	4	4
190.	Six	-	- x x	0	0	4
191.	Seven	-	- x x	0	0	4
192.	Eight	-	- x x	0	0	4
193.	Nine	-	- x x	0	0	4
194.	Ten	-	x x x	4	4	4
195.	Many	-	x x x	4	4	4
196.	Small	-	x x x	1	2	1
197.	Big	-	x x x	3	3	3

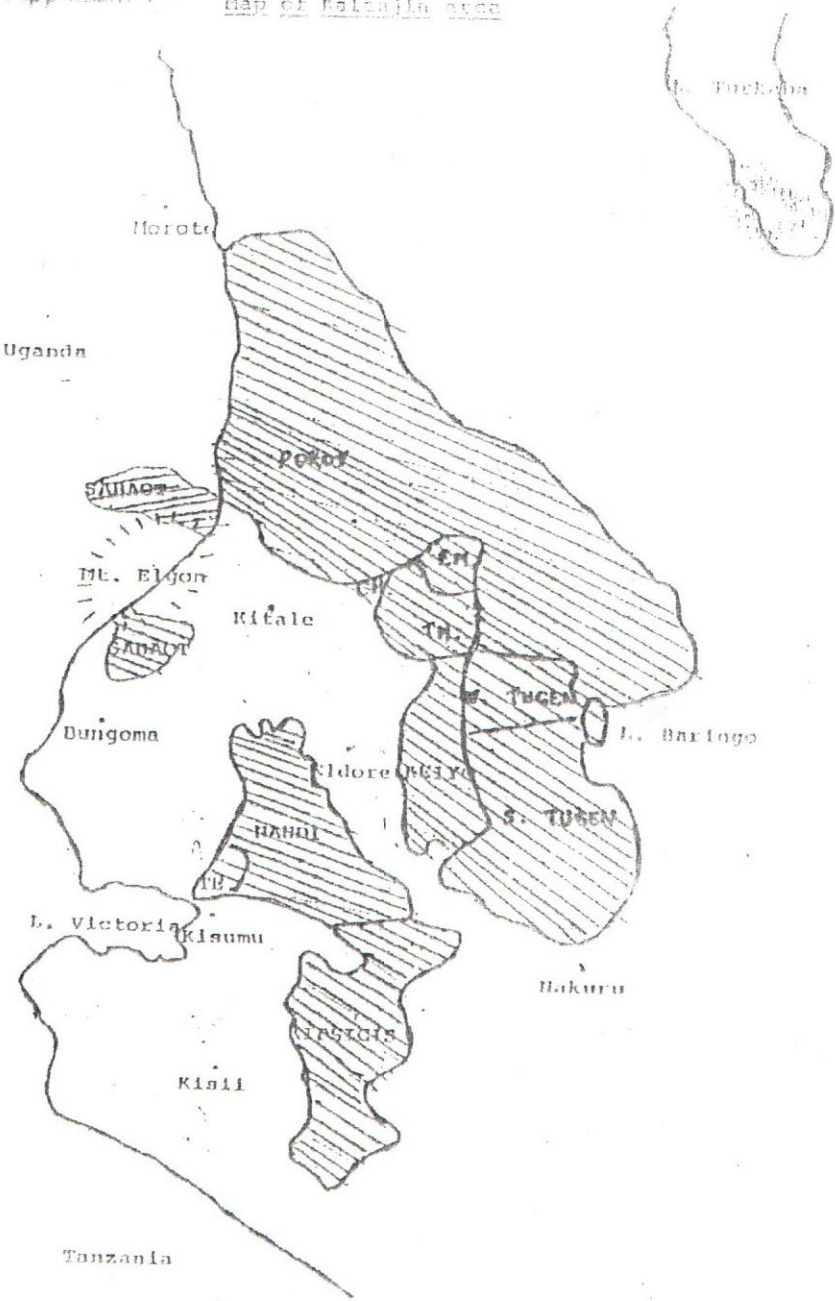
198.	Few	-	---	0	0	0
199.	Down	-	x x x	3	3	4
200.	Up	-	x x x	4	4	4

KEY.

X-Cognates

- -Non-cognates

Appendix v - Map of Kalenjin area



CERTAIN UNIVERSITY LIBRARY

KEY:
 EN }
 CH } MARAKWET
 TH }

Adopted from Otterloo (1979)

KEY:
 KALENJIN DIALECTS