

A Grammar of Agolle Kusaal

Revised Version

David Eddyshaw



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Preface

I worked as an eye surgeon in the Bawku Presbyterian Hospital in Ghana for some years in the 1990s. I had previously not so much as heard the name of the major language of the district, Kusaal. Although I had the benefit of some coaching in the language by SB (see Sources), there were no written instructional materials of any kind available to me at the time I first arrived. (I would have been saved a good deal of trouble, though denied some pleasure of discovery, if I had then seen David Spratt's very handy introductory sketch and vocabulary.) Accordingly I embarked on the wholly new adventure of trying to work out the structure of an entirely unfamiliar language essentially by myself from scratch, armed with a longstanding interest in language but very little in the way of prior helpful skills and experience.

Through enthusiasm, perseverance and the help of some very tolerant and patient informants, along with a good deal of exposure to the language in the course of my work, I did eventually acquire enough competence to be able to function in the highly stylised context of medical interaction with patients. I also became fascinated by the language and delighted by the order and beauty which underlies a surface which initially seemed chaotic. I hope that this work will convey a little of that beauty.

No linguist will fail to recognise that the account below is the work of an amateur. Whatever it has produced which is of value is a testimony to the intelligence of my informants, who also had perfectly good day jobs in which they proved themselves some of the best colleagues I have ever worked with.

This grammar began as an attempt on my part to understand Kusaal morphophonemics, an origin which the reader will find reflected in the relative fullness of the treatment. It grew into areas where I was even less sure-footed, and I am very conscious of its deficiencies. A more accurate name for the work would probably be "Some Aspects of Kusaal Morphophonemics with Brief Notes on Syntax." In the course of working up my old notes after many years many questions have occurred to me which I lacked the experience to ask when I had daily contact with Kusaal speakers. If my description provokes others to ask some of those questions I will be very happy, especially if they share the answers with me. Experts will soon notice that I have worked a small corpus very hard; many of my generalisations are greatly in need of testing against further data, especially in the treatment of syntax.

The customary disclaimer that the work is not written in accordance with the principles of any particular theoretical framework will rapidly be seen to be entirely superfluous. *J'ai pris mon bien là où je l'ai trouvé.*

Until recently, there were almost no linguistic works available on Kusaal. Happily, the situation is changing; in the References and Bibliography below I list, notably, numerous works by Urs Niggli on the Toende Kusaal of Burkina Faso, and more encouragingly still, an account of aspects of the language by Hasiyatu

Abubakari, a native speaker. Most of this recent work is on the Toende dialect, and describes a language different in a good many respects from the Agolle dialect treated here; this has made it less useful for my immediate purposes than I might have hoped, but opens up fascinating avenues for future investigation.

Among the various helpful accounts of Western Oti-Volta languages that I have been able to consult I have found Knut Olawsky's careful study of Dagbani particularly useful, both because of its intrinsic merits and because the language is one of those most closely related to Kusaal.

My very brief account of the Kusaasi people themselves in my Introduction is merely a short list of points I found especially interesting, and is in no way even the beginning of an adequate account of a deep and intricate culture. I am even less of an anthropologist than a professional linguist; it is much to be hoped that Kusaasi culture finds worthy students and investigators, ideally Kusaasi themselves, who can portray it as it deserves. Until then I would recommend Ernst Haaf's work "Die Kusase" (see Bibliography.) Haaf was a doctor in Bawku Presbyterian Hospital from 1959 to 1962; he was still remembered with affection thirty years later. The work concentrates especially on Kusaasi traditional medicine, but contains a great deal of other interesting material.

I am grateful to Dr Tony Naden, who sportingly put up with being visited out of the blue in his home in northern Ghana and showed me hospitality worthy of Africa, while giving me a number of helpful pointers; I was also helped by several individuals working for the Ghana Institute of Linguistics in Tamale, who among other kindnesses provided me with photocopies of David Spratt's unpublished introductory materials on Kusaal. It goes without saying that none of these people is responsible for the errors in my work.

I am particularly grateful to Brian McLemore, Executive Director of Global Translation Services at Bible League International, for consulting the original translators of the Kusaal New Testament versions and granting permission for me to cite verses from those versions, which are copyright to Bible League International along with the Ghana Institute of Linguistics, Literacy and Bible Translation. My debt to these works and their creators is discussed further in the following pages.

More generally, I am grateful to the Presbyterian Church of Ghana, an organisation working in often difficult circumstances with tenacity and wisdom; and to the excellent Christoffelblindenmission, by whom I was seconded to Ghana; they did not mean to sponsor the writing of a grammar, but I am sure they will not mind that they did so as a happy side-effect.

David Eddyshaw
Swansea, December 2016
david.eddyshaw@btinternet.com

Preface to the Revised Version

Citius emergit veritas ex errore quam ex confusione.

Truth will sooner come out from error than from confusion.

Francis Bacon, *Novum Organum*, Book II, Aphorism XX

Since December 2016 I have made a number of substantial revisions to this grammar.

The orthography now conforms more closely to that of the 1996 Kusaal New Testament; the price of a slight increase in complexity of spelling rules is worth paying for the benefit of Ghanaian readers who have previously encountered Kusaal written materials. Through the assistance of Tony Naden, I have learnt more of the recent orthographic reforms, and I have adopted several of the features of the new system in a way that I hope will lead to overall improvements in clarity.

Interlinear glosses now appear throughout.

I have tried to clarify the presentation of numerous points, and corrected a good many errors, some minor, others involving more systematic problems. I have abandoned the strategy of rigorous separation of description from comparative material and internal reconstruction, which too often led to explanatory material being unhelpfully separated from the description it was intended to illuminate.

The unsatisfactory term "Tight Clitic" has been dropped; instead, the familiar name "Liaison" has been pressed into service in an appropriate technical sense.

I have somewhat simplified the account of the Kusaal tonal system, at the cost of accepting that in some cases tonal features are the only phonological mark of word division [6.2.1]. Previously, the tonal nomenclature and notation reflected the close structural parallels with the tone systems of other Western Oti-Volta languages, but from a strictly language-internal standpoint it is much more natural to posit high, mid and low tonemes. Altering the tone marking to reflect this, I have also made the notation much less abstract: the domain of tone marking is now the word rather than the punctuation group, and low tonemes are marked explicitly.

David Eddyshaw

Swansea, January 2018

Introduction to the Grammar

Fully understanding any single part of a grammatical system may depend on also understanding the whole; descriptions which rigorously proceed from smaller to larger units, or the reverse, can accordingly be difficult to follow. I have tried to mitigate this problem by starting with a fairly extensive précis of the language in the Introduction before presenting a standard bottom-up account.

I have included a vocabulary intended to list all words used in the grammar, along with as many others as possible for which I could adequately determine vowel contrasts and tones. This may be of some independent value in view of the unavailability of David Spratt's more extensive short dictionary of Agolle Kusaal; for the Toende dialect of Burkina Faso there is, however, the much more copious "Dictionnaire kusaal-français-anglais" of Urs Niggli, which is readily available online. Tony Naden is also working on a full-scale dictionary of Agolle Kusaal.

I have gleaned many helpful ideas from the Cambridge Grammar of the English Language (Huddleston and Pullum 2002.) Though Kusaal grammar naturally cannot be constrained to fit the system of a very dissimilar language, I have found this monumental work a valuable guide to the kinds of question it is helpful to ask about the syntax of any language.

Kusaal lends itself readily to internal reconstruction. Apparent irregularities are often explicable by morphophonemic processes which lie just beneath the surface. Illuminating comparative work is also feasible, given that there are quite extensive materials in and about several closely related languages. I have incorporated material of this kind where it seemed likely to be helpful or interesting.

A particular challenge to description is posed by **Apocope**, the deletion of underlying word-final vowels in most but not *all* contexts [3.2]. Apocope creates phonological complications by removing the conditioning factors for alternations which would otherwise have been non-contrastive. It affects morphology, rendering ambiguous the word forms which would result from the usual morphophonemic rules. The operation of these rules is often disrupted to avoid this [7.2.1.3], sometimes so systematically that regular subpatterns have been created [11.1]. Apocope greatly complicates questions of phrase-level segmental and tone sandhi [9.1] [9.3]. It even causes a number of short clitics to have no segmental representation at all in most contexts, so that their presence can be recognised only by segmental and/or tonal effects on neighbouring words [3.3.3]. Readers who are not Africanists may find Kusaal interesting particularly because of these wide-ranging effects of Apocope. There is a formidable amount of prior work on related theoretical questions, which I have barely addressed; suggestions from experts will be welcomed.

My working orthography keeps close to the traditional system of the 1976 and 1996 New Testament versions, even though this necessitates some non-trivial

spelling rules [2] [3.3]. As an aid to clarity I have adopted three additional vowel symbols from the revised orthography of the 2016 Bible version, adding also the missing *ɪ* for [ɪ]; this is unlikely to confuse readers familiar with the older system.

This grammar is the outcome of circumstances very different from the systematic fieldwork of a trained linguist. The morphology and such parts of the phonology as are original (essentially all the treatment of tone) derive from elicitation work with informants, for whose extraordinary patience in supplying and endlessly repeating forms I am very grateful. In syntax, my treatment of phrase-level phenomena is largely based on work with these informants in elicitation and in exploring puzzling forms and constructions I had encountered while attempting to communicate at work. All, especially WK, were alert to nuances and quick to see where I was going with enquiries; they readily came up with analogous or contrasting forms to help me. All four of my regular informants were first-language speakers of Agolle Kusaal, and had also essentially first-language level competence in English. All were male, and around forty years old. I noted examples of conversation from many speakers, but recorded few examples of the usage of younger speakers specifically, though I noticed a few comments about the incorrect grammar of the young from my informants (surely a cultural universal.) I did not find any evidence of significant differences between the speech of men and women but made no systematic enquiries on this point. My informants showed a number of minor speech differences from one another, which were probably dialectal, but I have not explored the question of subdialects within Agolle Kusaal.

My materials drawn from conversation were limited as to genre. More informal settings would have rounded out the picture in many respects. For example, features like ideophones [21.8.1.3] are sparsely represented my data, and this has probably led to underestimation of their importance in the language as a whole.

Neither I nor my informants had the time to investigate syntactic issues at clausal or higher level adequately together, and I had in any case little understanding of the issues involved at that point. I compensated as far as I could by private study of written materials, storing up problems to discuss later with my teachers. It will be seen below that in these matters I have relied very heavily on the NT versions. I have also drawn on the collection of stories and proverbs *Kusaal Solima ne Siilima*, and to a lesser extent on other literacy materials. I owe a great debt to the many dedicated individuals involved in Bible translation and literacy work, under the auspices of the Ghana Institute of Linguistics, Literacy and Bible Translation (GILLBT), without whom these written materials would not exist.

The New Testament version is regarded by Kusaal speakers as being in good and idiomatic (if sometimes difficult) Kusaal. As a translation, it nevertheless cannot be fully representative of the language. The NT versions and other written sources are cited in their original orthography, with an accompanying transliteration into the

orthography used in this grammar. The tone marking of written examples was generally supplied by me and not checked in detail with informants, and so cannot be used as primary evidence for the language.

The data on which this account is based are now twenty years old. The New Testament version available then was that of 1976; the 1996 revision adapts most foreign names to accord more closely with ordinary Kusaal spelling, but otherwise makes no systematic orthographic changes. A decision was evidently made to replace all instances of the previously common indirect speech construction [31.4.2] with direct speech, and many other changes have been made to improve the accuracy and clarity of the translation. No significant changes have been made to several written features of the language of the 1976 version which are also found in older literacy materials but have no counterpart in my informants' speech. There is evidence for actual language change in one case [9.3.2], but the other differences are probably simply orthographic [9.1.3].

The 1996 Kusaal New Testament is available as audio and as searchable text via <http://www.bible.is>, provided by the organisation "Faith Comes By Hearing." The format is naturally intended for evangelism and Bible study rather than linguistic research; the audio includes distracting background music, and the readers vary noticeably in the naturalness and fluency of their delivery. Nevertheless, this allows interested readers outside Ghana some access to spoken materials which can be used to criticise and improve on my work. The spoken forms consistently agree with my informants' usage against the orthography when differences arise.

A new Kusaal version of the entire Bible was dedicated in 2016, but I have not been able to obtain a copy to date.

There is no standard or prestige form of Agolle Kusaal [1.2.2], and as a natural consequence the language is not entirely uniform in either New Testament version.

Other Studies of Kusaal

The pioneers of Kusaal grammatical study were **David** and **Nancy Spratt**. In the phonology part of my analysis I owe a great deal to their work in identifying the segmental phonemes of the language and creating a practical orthography. This standard orthography is not adequate for the needs of foreign learners or for scientific description, but its deficiencies are largely remedied with diacritics in David Spratt's "Introduction to Learning Kusaal." I found this work much the most useful previous account of Kusaal, despite its brevity (forty-two pages.) It was especially helpful in getting me started with the tonal system; although the description does not claim to be more than a preliminary sketch, it was invaluable in pointing me in the right direction, particularly as I had no previous experience with tone languages; at the time I first obtained a copy of Spratt's work I had got little farther than determining that tone was lexically contrastive in Kusaal. David Spratt's

work has also been helpful in matters of lexicon. His Kusaal vocabulary uses the 1976 New Testament orthography, with its underdifferentiation of vowels, and does not mark tones, but it provided useful data for morphological study, especially of gerund formation.

Aside from this, virtually all of the analysis behind this grammar is original, almost exclusively so in the case of the morphology and syntax, and in all but the most basic aspects of the tonal system. As far as I know, there have been no other attempts to describe the morphology of Agolle Kusaal to the extent attempted here. Previous studies of Kusaal syntax are either very brief or concerned with limited subsystems treated from a theory-intensive standpoint. Almost all of these studies describe the Toende dialect, and there are significant differences from Agolle Kusaal. Here too, my analyses are thus essentially all original. They are far from profound or definitive, and to a great extent are simply derived from study of the New Testament versions, but I hope will at least be useful as a basis for the work of more expert investigators in future.

More recently, numerous wide-ranging grammatical and lexical studies of the Toende Kusaal of Burkina Faso have been produced by **Urs Niggli**, who has also done considerable work with Kassem and Farefare. I have found his Kusaal materials of great comparative interest, but the language itself differs significantly from the Agolle dialect described here, and I have not borrowed from his grammatical analyses. Niggli's account also suggests that the tonal system of Toende Kusaal is surprisingly dissimilar to that of Agolle, especially in matters of tone sandhi. Niggli's "Dictionnaire" has been an excellent resource for Toende comparative material; it marks all vowel contrasts, and the most recent update also marks tone in many headwords. However, the tones are sometimes at variance with those given in Niggli's other works; comparison with Agolle Kusaal and with other Western Oti-Volta languages suggests that this may be because the effects of external tone sandhi have not always been allowed for.

Tony Naden is currently working on a dictionary of Agolle Kusaal, which will be much the most extensive lexicographic work on the language so far when it is complete. The work is based on written sources and accordingly will not mark distinctions (such as tone) which are not reflected in the standard orthography.

There have been several publications on aspects of Kusaal grammar by **Hasiyatu Abubakari**, a mother-tongue Toende Kusaal speaker currently conducting postgraduate studies in linguistics at the University of Vienna. She has plans to publish more, including further studies of the phonological structure of the language, including the tonal system, and the difficult area of focus particles. Her work seems likely to advance the understanding of the structure of the language significantly: Kusaal may well come to take a place as one of the best described of all Gur languages.

Abbreviations

(See also Interlinear Glossing Conventions below.)

AdvP	Adverbial Phrase
ATR	Advanced Tongue Root
BNY	<i>Bunkonbid ne Niis ne ba yela</i> (see Sources)
C	Consonant
cb	combining form (of nominal)
DK	Informant (see Sources)
ger	gerund
H	High toneme
hu	human gender
ILK	"An Introduction to Learning Kusaal" (David Spratt)
ipfv	imperfective
irr	irregular
KED	"A Short Kusaal-English Dictionary" (David Spratt)
KKY	<i>Kusaas Kuob ne Yir yela Gbauŋ</i> (see Sources)
KSS	<i>Kusaal Solima ne Siilima</i> (see Sources)
KT	Informant (see Sources)
L	Low toneme
LF	Long Form (of word capable of standing clause-finally)
M	Mid toneme
nh	non-human gender
NP	Noun Phrase
NT	Kusaal New Testament (see Sources)
pfv	perfective
pl	plural
rem	Modal Remoteness marker particle
SB	Informant (see Sources)
SF	Short Form (of word capable of standing clause-finally)
sg	singular
V	Vowel
VP	Verb Phrase (not "Verbal Predicator" 24)
WK	Informant (see Sources)
2pl	Second Person Plural
2sg	Second Person Singular

I have abbreviated the names of New Testament books in citing verses; the abbreviations are fairly standard and should occasion no difficulty. Citations are from the 1996 version unless specifically stated otherwise.

Interlinear Glossing

Abbreviations used in Interlinear Glosses:

ABSTR	Abstract	11.1.1
ADV	Adverbial	22.4
CNTR	Contrastive (of Personal Pronouns)	34.5
COMP	Complementiser (underlyingly <i>ḥ</i>)	9.3.2.1.1 33
COP	Copula <i>àḡñ^{ya}</i>	26.2
CQ	Content Question Prosodic Clitic	3.2.1 9.2
DEM	(Short) Demonstrative Pronoun	17.2
DEML	Long Demonstrative Pronoun	17.2
EXIST	Existence/Location Verb <i>bè⁺</i>	26.1
FOC	Focus Particle <i>nē^{+/}</i>	34.1.1 24.2
GER	Gerund	14.1.1
IMP	Imperative Verb Form	13.1
INDEP	Independency/Perfective Marker <i>yā⁺</i>	24.6.2.1
INDF	Indefinite Pronoun	17.3
IPFV	Imperfective Verb Form	13.1
LOC	Locative Postposition (<i>ni⁺ ~ n^e</i>)	22.3
NEG	(alone) Negative Prosodic Clitic	3.2.1 9.2
NEG.BE	Negative Verb to and COP and EXIST	35.1.1
NEG.HAVE	(Another use of the same verb)	35.1.1
NEG.KNOW	Negative Verb <i>zī[?]⁺</i>	35.1.1
NEG.IMP	Negative Imperative Marker	24.4
NEG.IND	Negative Indicative Marker	24.4
NEG.UNR	Negative Unrealised Marker	24.4
NUM	Number Prefix <i>à- bā- ḥ- bḡ-</i>	18.2.1
REM	Modal Remoteness Marker	24.4.2
SER	Serialiser (underlyingly <i>n</i>)	9.3.2.1.2 28.1
SG	Singular	21.2.1
PERS	Personifier Clitic <i>à-</i>	21.10
PFV	Perfective Verb Form	13.1
PL	Plural	21.2.1
PQ	Polar Question Prosodic Clitic	3.2.1 9.2
TNS	Tense Marker	24.3.1
UNR	(alone) Positive Unrealised Mood Marker	24.4
VOC	Vocative Prosodic Clitic	3.2.1 9.2

1SG 1PL	1st sg/pl Pronouns	17.1
2SG 2PL	2nd sg/pl Pronouns	17.1
2PLS	Liaison Word postposed 2nd pl Subject	30.2.3
3HU 3NH	3rd sg Human/Non-Human Gender	17.1 21.2.2
3PL	3rd Person Plural Pronoun	17.1
1SGO 1PLO	1SG 1PL as Liaison Word objects	9.3.1
2SGO 2PLO	2SG 2PL as Liaison Word objects	
3HUO 3NHO	3HU 3NH as Liaison Word objects	
3PLO	3PL as Liaison Word object	

The linker particles *kà* and *yē* are conventionally glossed "and" and "that" respectively throughout, though this very often does not reflect the true meaning in context 29.1.2.; similarly *yàʔ* is 32.1 is glossed "if" in all cases. The empty particle *nē* which follows objects of comparison which lack the article 23.1 is glossed "like."

Mass nouns 21.2.1 are not specified as **SG** or **PL** in the glossing; similarly, Invariable Verbs 13.2 are not labelled as **PFV** or **IPFV**.

The symbol \emptyset in the glossing represents words with no surface segmental representation at all, which are detectable only from tonal and segmental effects on preceding words 3.3.3. Prosodic Clitics 9.2 are represented by $^+\emptyset$, and Liaison 3.3.2 is marked by $_$.

For the purposes of interlinear glossing, I have adopted the concept of wordhood reflected in the traditional orthography. Nominal combining forms and the Personifier Prefix, which are in fact clitics rather than word fragments, are accordingly hyphenated to their hosts in both the orthography and the glossing, rather than joined with = signs as the Leipzig Glossing Rules would demand. The clitics *n^e LOC n^e REM ya 2PLS* along with the LF of $^{\circ}$ **3HUO** are written in the orthography solid with their hosts, and in glossing they are treated like flexional and derivational morphemes, which are throughout joined with colons rather than hyphens (Rule 4C of the Leipzig Glossing Rules.) All other clitics are written in both orthography and glossing as separate words. For word division see further 3.3.

Transcription Conventions

For the orthography used for Agolle Kusaal in this grammar see [2].

Phonetic transcriptions are written in square brackets; they are quite broad, and ignore a good deal of allophony, as explained in [4] [5.1]. The orthography itself represents the phonemic level, except for some details in the writing of fronting diphthongs [5.2.3], and the use of *ja ɥa iə uə* to write sequences which, though realised phonetically as written, are structurally monophthongs [5.1.1].

Starred forms representing the input of various morphophonemic rules do not represent a single underlying form of the language but are given ad hoc to illustrate the particular rule in question.

Urs Niggli's works on Toende Kusaal and Farefare use an orthography conforming to the *Alphabet National* of the *Commission Nationale des Langues Burkinabé*, which uses the symbols *ɪ ʊ* for IPA *ɪ ʊ* (as does this grammar of Agolle Kusaal.) Zongo 2010 (Mooré) and Lébikaza 1999 (Kabiyè) use similar systems. Toende Kusaal and Farefare words will be cited as in Niggli's work. Niggli's dictionaries note tones in headwords; I have transcribed these using acute for H, grave for L, and macron for mid tone. Absent marks represent lack of tonal information.

Mooré words will be cited in Zongo's orthography. Words taken from the Mooré Bible accordingly substitute *ɪ ʊ ε ɔ* for *ì ù è ò* and mark nasalisation with a tilde instead of a circumflex. I have not marked tones; there is considerable disagreement regarding tones between Balima et al and Canu 1976, not only in the tone patterns of individual words but with regard to the entire system¹. These sources all reflect Ouagadougou Mooré, which differs somewhat from the dialect with which Kusaal has been in contact.

Dagbani words will be cited in the orthography used in Olawsky 1999 and the the Dagbani New Testament translation. I have marked tones in the few words where I have the information to do so, using Olawsky's acute for H, grave for L, and ↓ for his ! marking emic downstep. Absent marks again signify an absence of tone information.

Buli words from Kröger's excellent 1992 dictionary are cited in his orthography but with the tones written as e.g. *á ā à* for high, mid, and low respectively.

1) Canu seems to have interpreted a two-tone system with emic downsteps as a three-tone system, while frequently taking utterance-initial high or low tones for mid. His account would give Mooré many more distinct tone patterns than other Western Oti-Volta languages; this is unlikely in view of the close agreement among those other languages, with clear parallels also in Buli. The Mooré forms cited in Akanlig-Pare and Kenstowicz are much more consistent with the rest of Western Oti-Volta.

Hausa words will be cited in the orthography of Caron 1991 and Wolff 1992, which differs from the system used in Anglophone works like Jaggar 2001 and from everyday Nigerian practice in writing long vowels with double letters. This is more compatible with the orthography used here for other African languages, and results in a less cluttered typography than using macrons. High tones are unmarked, low tones are marked with grave accents and falling tones are marked with a circumflex. Rising tone within a long vowel or diphthong is impossible in Hausa, so the grave mark is written on only the first letter in cases like *tèeku* "sea", tones: LLH. Initial glottal stops are written explicitly as *ʔ*, again contrary to the usual practice in Anglophone works and in Nigeria. Standard (Kano) forms are given, although the actual source of the loanwords in Kusaal is the *Gaanancii* lingua franca. Dialect variation in Hausa is surprisingly small, however, considering the wide area over which the language is spoken and its extensive use as a second language.

Arabic transcriptions use IPA symbols, except that *y* is used for *j*; classical forms are given, with brackets around the segments omitted in pause.

Words from other languages are cited in the orthography of the source from which I have drawn them; see References/Bibliography.

This colour is used for words cited in foreign languages, including Agolle Kusaal in the original orthography of written sources; *this* colour is reserved for complete Agolle Kusaal words written in the orthography adopted in this Grammar.

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Informants

With great reluctance I have omitted the names of my four principal informants, as I am not currently able to confirm that they would be happy to be identified. I am very grateful to all of them. If any of the four would like to see his name included in its rightful place of honour, I would be delighted to comply.

These abbreviations are not the initials of the informants' names.

WK	(from Koka)	KT	(from Tempene)
DK	(from Kukpariga)	SB	(from Bawku)

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<i>Bunkonbid ne Niis ne ba yela</i> (<i>Bōn-kóñbìd nē Níís né bà yēlá</i>)	"Animals and birds and their affairs" Matthew M. Abokiba
<i>Kusaal Solima ne Siilima</i> (<i>Kūsáàl Sólímà nē Síílímà</i>)	"Kusaal Stories and Proverbs" Samuel Akon, Joe Anabah
<i>Kusaas Kuob ne Yir yela Gbauŋ</i> (<i>Kūsáàs Kùèb nē Yīr yélà Gbàŋ</i>)	"A book on Kusaasi farming and housing" William A. Sandow, Joseph A.H. Anaba

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<i>Wênnaam Sebre</i>	(Mooré Old and New Testaments) Société Biblique au Burkina Faso, 1983
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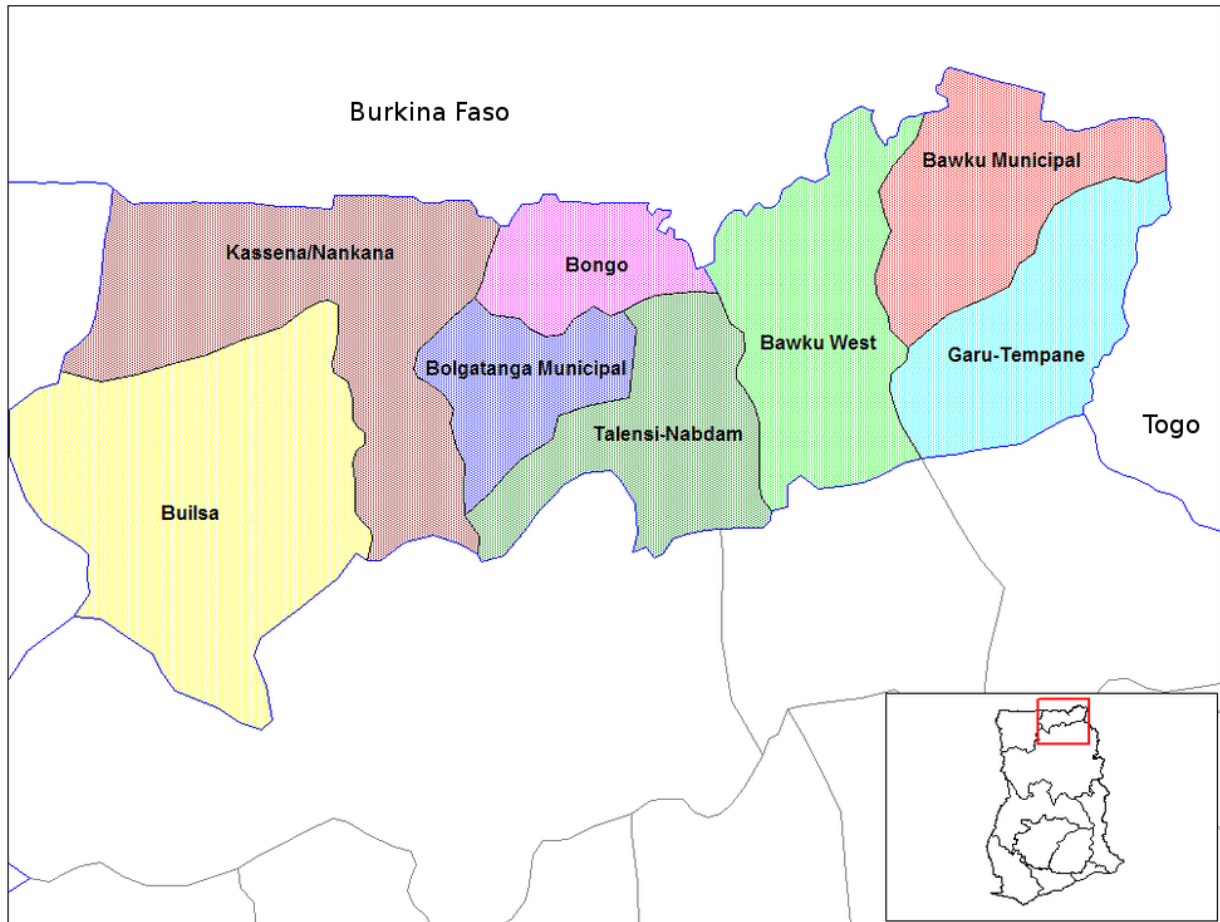
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1 Introduction to Kusaal and the Kusaasi

Upper East Region of Ghana (Public Domain, created by "Rarelibra"

https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Upper_East_Ghana_districts.png)



Kusaal is the language of the Kusaasi, the majority ethnic group of the Bawku Municipal, Bawku West and Garu-Tempane Districts of the Upper East Region in the far northeast of Ghana, extending from the Red Volta river and the Gambaga Escarpment to the national borders with Burkina Faso and Togo. The smaller area west of the White Volta river, coinciding largely with Bawku West District, is called **Toende** in Ghanaian English (less often spelt "Tonde", and in French contexts "Tondé"), Toende Kusaal *Tóŋn* "in front, West", Agolle Kusaal² *Tùen*^{ne}. The larger eastern part is **Agolle** (less accurately spelt "Agole"), Kusaal *Àgò*^{le} "Upper." The Ghanaian districts comprise most of *Kūsáùg*^o "Kusaasiland", but there are also a good number of Kusaasi settlements in the neighbouring part of Burkina Faso, west of the White Volta and south of Zabré, and a few over the border in Togo.

2) Superscript letters represent the parts of Kusaal words deleted in most contexts by Apocope [3.2]. They play no part in the pronunciation of citation forms, and may be ignored in this section, along with the / tone mark which follows some superscripts.

1.1 The Kusaasi People

The name *Kūsáàl*^e "Kusaal" and the name of the people *Kūsáàs*^e "Kusaasi" are not transparent within the language itself. Some Kusaasi speculate about a derivation from Hausa *kusa* "near" but there seems to be no evidence for this beyond a chance similarity of sound. It is in fact the norm for local ethnic groups to have endonyms which have no known etymology; often, as in this case, these names have complex stems unlike most of the common vocabulary in structure.

The land is mostly open savanna with scattered trees. The population density is fairly high for northern Ghana, and much former woodland has been turned over to cultivation; tracts survive especially along the White Volta where settlements are few because of the river blindness (onchocerciasis) endemic there until recent times.

Most Kusaasi are cultivators, living in widely scattered compounds, each one the domain of a single family head with his wives, sons, daughters-in-law and grandchildren. Cattle-raising is common but is mostly the preserve of Fulbe and Mossi. There is one rainy season, lasting unpredictably from May to October. The main crop is millet of various kinds, along with rice to a lesser extent. Millet is used to make the Kusaasi staple millet porridge *sāʔab*^o, called "TZ" in local English (from Hausa *tuwon zaafii*, literally "hot porridge"), and the traditional millet beer, *dāam*^{m/}, called "pito" (Hausa *fitoo*) in English.

The Kusaasi are divided into numerous patrilineal exogamous clans (*dòɔg*^o, "house") which tend to be associated with particular areas. (The clans being both exogamous and area-based, I was once told: "The first thing a young man looking for a wife needs to do is to get a bicycle.") A Kusaasi person knows his or her clan, and often its *pōɔr*^{e/} "slogan", part of its traditional lineage, but unlike the Mossi, the Kusaasi do not use clan names as surnames. Clans have taboos associated with them (for example, against eating particular animals) and have their own cults, but no administrative function; the Kusaasi originally had no chiefs. In religious matters the leading man of the area is the *tɛŋ-dāan*^a or earth-priest, who is supposed to be the descendant and heir of the original oikist or first settler. In precolonial times the dominant political structures in this region were the so-called Mossi-Dagomba states, the remarkably durable continuations and offshoots of polities founded, probably around the fourteenth century, by incoming conquerors traditionally held to be from the region of Lake Chad. The invaders created hereditary chiefdoms among previously acephalous Gur- and Mande-speaking peoples, who nevertheless continued to provide the *tɛŋ-dāan-nām*^a. The founder of these kingdoms was Na Gbewa, whose seat was at Pusiga (Kusaal *Pūsɪg*^{a/}) in what is now Kusaasi territory; he is said to have been swallowed by the earth at that place. In his sons' time the capital was relocated south to the Mamprussi lands. The Dagomba and Mossi kingdoms are cadet branches of this centuries-old military-aristocratic Mamprussi state (Iliasu 1971.) Unlike their Mamprussi neighbours, the Kusaasi were not

absorbed into the system, and intermittent conflict has continued to this day, particularly over the chieftaincy of Bawku. Both in colonial times and since independence, wider political issues have complicated the situation (Lund 2003.)

Ethnic group membership is patrilineal, and many Mamprussi in the Bawku area are in fact Kusaal-speaking. (It was one of my Mamprussi colleagues who first gave me a Kusaal New Testament; he himself could not speak Mampruli.)

The Kusaasi have much in common culturally with their neighbours, especially the Mossi and Mamprussi. Traditional Kusaasi dress resembles that of the Mamprussi, Dagomba and Mossi, including the characteristic long-sleeved baggy smock *bānāa*[≡], called a "fugu shirt" in English (cf Kusaal *fūug*^{0/} "clothing"), popularised in southern Ghana by President Rawlings.

Most Kusaasi retain their traditional animist outlook; as of 1995 perhaps 5% of local people professed Christianity, a figure which includes many non-Kusaasi from southern Ghana; similarly, of the roughly 5% Muslims, most belonged to other ethnic groups.

Traditional belief includes a creator God, *Wīn*^{ne/}, invoked in proverbs and greetings but remote from everyday life and not to be approached in prayer or worship. A characteristic proverb enjoins gratitude to the Creator, saying:

Dìm nē Wīn, dā tú'às nē Wīnné ^{+∅}.

Eat:IMP with God:SG, NEG.IMP talk:PFV with God:SG NEG.

"Eat with God, don't talk with God."

Another warns against evildoing, but in these terms:

Wīn ñyé kà sīn.

God:SG see:PFV and be.silent.

"God sees and is silent."

Everyday religious practice is concerned rather with local non-anthropomorphic spirits, also called *wīn*^{ne/}. A *wīn*^{ne/} resides in an object such as a stone or horn, which is a *būgur*^e, often called a "fetish" in old ethnographic accounts; the implications of this term are however very misleading, as it is the *wīn*^{ne/} that is significant, not its place of attachment.

An important rôle is played by the diviner, *bā'a*[≡], who can seek guidance for a client (*būgud*^a) on all matters by casting lots. This rôle is distinct from that of the traditional healer; such healers themselves show considerable variation in approach from essentially herbalist to frankly occult.

A human being is understood as having four components: *nin-gbīj*^{0/} "body"; *ñyò-vōr*^{e/} "life" as opposed to death, possessed by all living animals; *wīn*^{ne/} (in this sense) "genius, spirit, a person's own spiritual self or double"; and *kikīrs*^{e/}, protective

spirits (called "fairies" in local English.) Men have three *kìkīrs^{el}*, women a fourth, because of the dangers of childbirth. (Throughout the cultural zone, three is the man's number, and four is the woman's.) There are thought to be wild *kìkīrs^{el}* in the bush which are hostile and try to lead travellers astray. The term *sīlɔ^a* "life force", used to render "spirit" in Christian materials, is in traditional belief intimately associated with the individual's tutelary *kìkīrs^{el}*.

The key term *wīn^{ne/}* has yet further senses, overlapping with the European concepts of fate or destiny: *wīn-tóòg^o*, literally "bitterness of *wīn^{ne/}*" is "misfortune." This kind of *wīn^{ne/}* as "pattern of one's life" may be hereditary, as part of a complex of ideas reminiscent partly of reincarnation, partly of what modern European culture might attribute to family resemblance or genetics. (The word *būgur^e* may also mean "a *wīn^{ne/}* inherited from one's mother.")

Sṣṵñb^a "witches" exist in the traditional world view; though they cause harm, their condition can be involuntary. As in European tradition, those accused of witchcraft are often marginalised or older women. The Mamprussi king, whose rôle imbues him with great spiritual power, is safe from witches and takes them in formal marriage so that they may avoid persecution. My Ghanaian colleagues once organised a visit to an entire village of such witches in order to operate on their cataracts.

1.2 The Kusaal Language

1.2.1 Language Status

As of 1995 there were probably some 250,000 speakers of Kusaal, a number which has since increased very substantially.

Although there is an established orthography for the language, written materials are few and not widely available, apart from the Bible translation, which is far and away the most extensive written work in Kusaal. Few Kusaal speakers were proficient in reading or writing the language in the 1990's. On several occasions when I was learning to communicate with patients in Kusaal, my colleagues would interrupt me with the information that the patient was "literate", meaning that he or she knew English.

Despite the fact that Kusaal is thus currently excluded from domains involving Western-style education and technical activity, it shows no sign of ceding ground as the language not only of the home but of all everyday interaction. The language is the normal medium of communication among Kusaasi of all ages, most of whom are monolingual, and is also used by other local ethnic groups, notably the Bisa, as an areal lingua franca. It is not currently endangered.

1.2.2 Dialects

There is no standard dialect of Kusaal; every district has local peculiarities and my informants themselves show numerous small differences in speech. Bawku itself does not serve as a centre for the Kusaal language; as is typical for the zone, it is a multiethnic trading centre around a Muslim quarter or "zongo" (Hausa *zangò* "camping ground, lodging place") where the main common language is Hausa. The independent spirit of traditional Kusaasi society also militates against the acceptance of any one standard form.

The major dialect division in Kusaal is between Agolle and Toende. The differences are striking, considering the size of the Kusaasi area. The occurrence of Agolle Vowel Breaking [5.1.1] correlates with numerous other isoglosses, resulting in a sharp discontinuity between Agolle and Toende Kusaal, probably attributable to the depopulation of the border zone along the White Volta caused by the river blindness (onchocerciasis) prevalent in the region until quite recent times.

My informants, all first-language speakers of Agolle Kusaal, reported no difficulty communicating with Toende speakers, though they are all sophisticated multilinguals who may not be altogether typical. Berthelette 2001 studied the degree to which Burkina Faso Toende speakers understand Agolle Kusaal, with somewhat equivocal results. Of thirteen respondents, ten self-reported that they understood the Ghanaian Toende of Zebilla "very well", one "somewhat well" and two "a little", whereas with Agolle, eight said that they understood it "a little", two "somewhat well" and only three "well." Casad-style Recorded Text Tests administered to Burkina Faso Toende speakers showed scores of 93% for comprehension of Ghanaian Toende compared with 80.5% for Agolle, but Ghanaian Toende speakers achieved 94.5% with Agolle, presumably reflecting their greater exposure to the dialect. There is some suggestion in the paper that the situation is asymmetrical, with Agolle speakers finding Toende easier than vice versa, but this was not looked into in detail, as the focus of the paper is on the question of whether Agolle Bible translations and literacy materials would suffice for Toende speakers. The conclusion was that Toende materials would be valuable, though perhaps not on strictly linguistic grounds but because of speaker attitudes; though fewer in number, Toende speakers apparently feel their own dialect is "purer." This may affect attitudes to comprehensibility.

The same paper reports a rate of apparent lexical cognates between Toende and Agolle of 84%. Judging by the extensive vocabulary of Toende Kusaal given in Niggli 2014, which shows great resemblance to Agolle Kusaal aside from the regular phonological differences, this figure seems surprisingly low; the explanation is perhaps that the divergence is most marked among the commonest words.

Agolle and Toende Kusaasi themselves agree that they constitute a single ethnic group, and that they speak dialects of a single language; this is perhaps

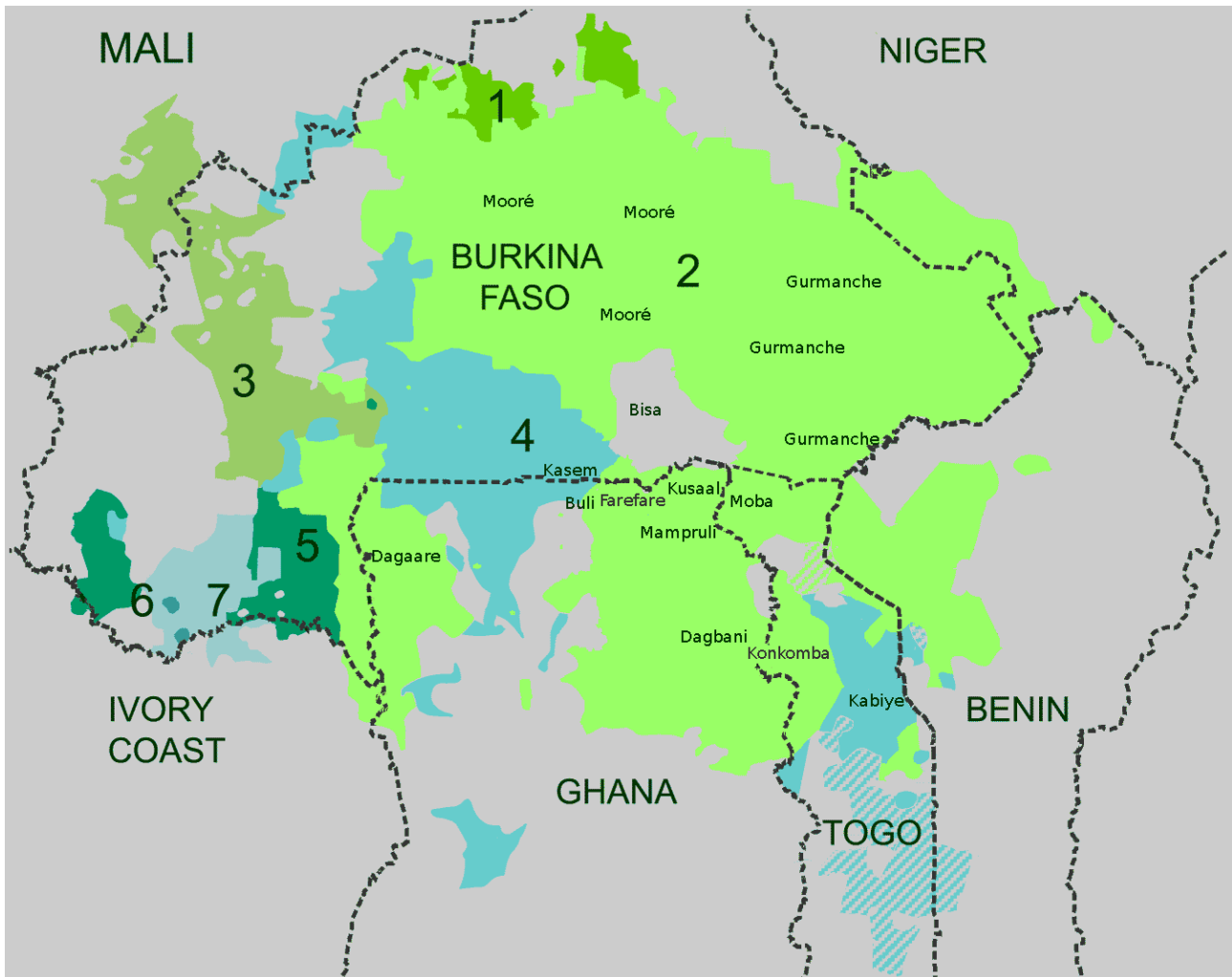
reinforced by a strong local folk-linguistic tendency to equate language and ethnicity (note the language names formed from ethnonyms in [37.4](#).) Nevertheless, the differences are great enough to justify separate grammatical treatment for the two major dialects.

This account is of Agolle Kusaal, the language of the majority of Kusaasi, including those of the vicinity of Bawku. It is the basis of most written materials, including the Bible versions. By "Kusaal" I will mean "Agolle Kusaal" by default below; this is a matter of convenience and does not imply any claim that Agolle speech is "standard."

1.2.3 Related Languages

The Gur Languages (Public Domain, created by "Davius"

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gur_languages#/media/File:Gur_languages.png)



1 Koromfé

2 Oti-Volta languages

3 Bwamu

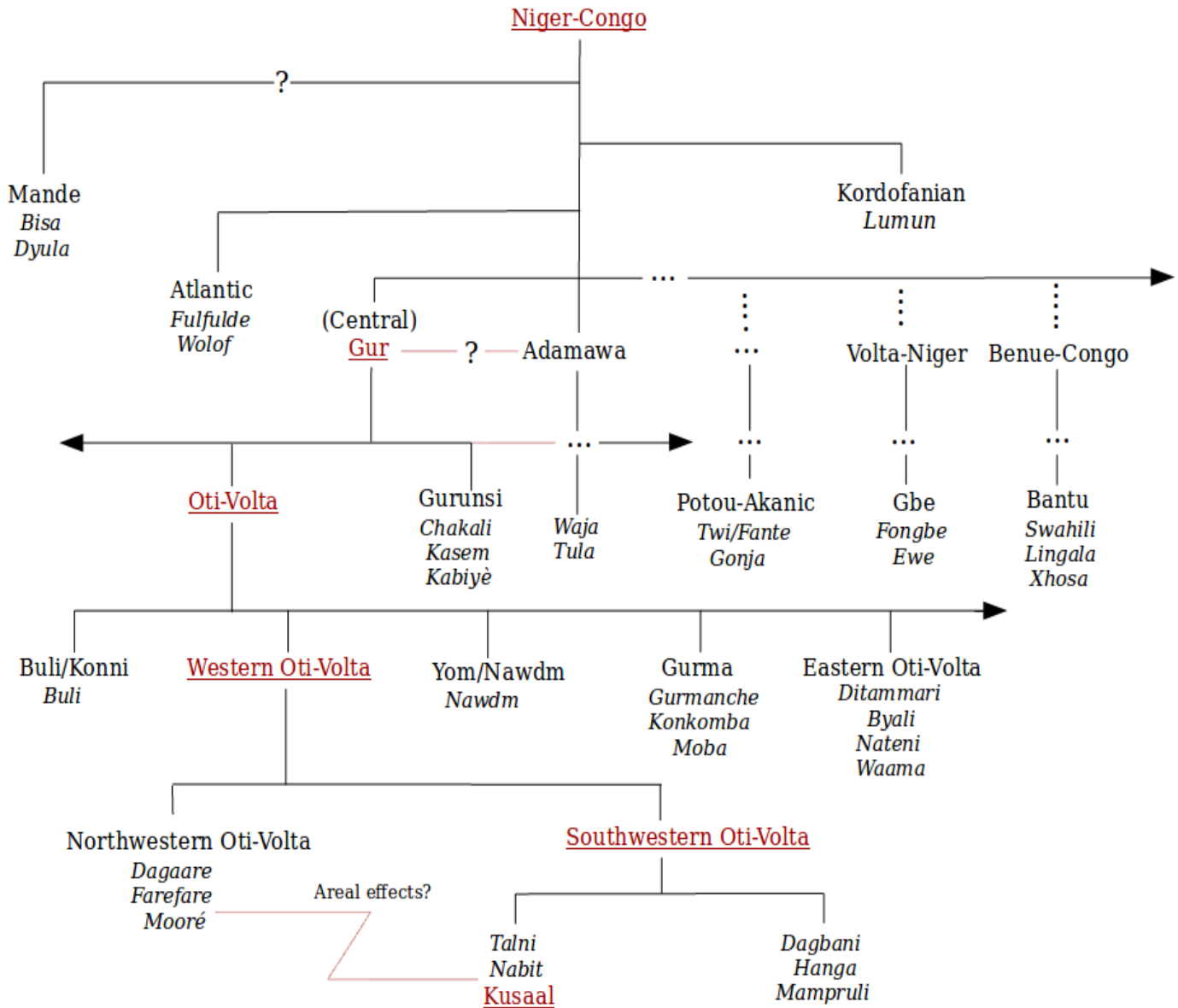
4 Gurunsi

5 Kirma-Lobi

6 Dogoso-Khe

7 Doghose-Gan

Kusaal belongs to the **Gur** or **Voltaic** language family within the huge and varied **Niger-Congo** phylum which comprises most of the languages of Africa south of the Sahara.



This chart shows approximate relationships between some of the Niger-Congo languages mentioned in this account, omitting all but a few branches and individual languages. Precise subclassifications are often uncertain. For example, the Mande languages are the most divergent group, and may well not belong to the Niger-Congo phylum at all; neither "Atlantic" nor "Kordofanian" seem likely to prove to be a real unity; Twi has been said to belong to a "Kwa" branch of Niger-Congo, but the evidence that this is a valid node is weak; the relationship between Gur and Adamawa is unclear; Eastern Oti-Volta shows much more internal diversity than Western Oti-Volta, and its validity is harder to establish. Much existing work on the phylum is vulnerable to the methodological criticisms expressed in e.g. Campbell

2013. The inclusion in Niger-Congo of groups like Mande and the Kordofanian languages is (so far, at least) a long-range hypothesis, rather than a well-established linguistic grouping like Indo-European or Uto-Aztecan. Some individual Niger-Congo branches show comparable internal diversity to Indo-European; moreover, West Africa has probably always been characterised by widespread multilingualism and borrowing between languages, not only of lexicon but also of morphology and syntax.

Nevertheless, there is firm evidence that the core of Niger-Congo is a true genetic grouping. Basic lexical items recur frequently, such as the roots seen in Kusaal *bīg*^a "child", *dī*⁺ "eat", *nū*⁺ "drink", *kpi*⁺ "die", *tūg*^a "tree", *àtáñ*[?] "three", *tùbur*^e "ear", corresponding respectively to (for example) Fongbe *ví, dū, nù, kú, átín, àtòn, tó* (Lefebvre 2002.) Guthrie's Proto-Bantu reconstructions parallel all of these except "child": *-dé-* "eat", *-nú-* "drink", *kú-* "die", *-té* "tree", *-tátò* "three", *-tó* "ear"; his Proto-Bantu *-tóm-* "send" corresponds to Kusaal *tòm*^m (the *e o* in these forms represent *ɪ ʊ*.) The Potou-Akanic language group, which includes Twi/Fante and Gonja, here shows a regular sound correspondence *t ~ s*: Twi *esã* "three", *asõ* "ear", *soma* "send", Gonja *à-sá* "three", *kò-sówé* "ear."

In morphology, the most salient feature of Niger-Congo is the widespread presence of noun class systems, with frequent congruences in both form and meaning between the various core branches. The Kusaal human-plural noun suffix *-b^a*, for example, seen in *nīdib^{a/}* "people", plural of *nīd^{a/}*, matches the Gonja human-plural prefix in *bá-sà* "people", plural of *é-sà* (Painter 1970), and the *-ba-* of Lingala *bato* "people", plural of *moto*, and of Xhosa *abantu* "people", plural of *umntu*.

Particular singular/plural pairings of noun class affixes, like the suffixes *r^{e/}a⁺* seen in Kusaal *tùbur^e* "ear", *tùba⁺* "ears", recur not only throughout Gur but much more widely; cognates of this particular pair appear as prefixes in Bantu, labelled 5/6 in the Bleek-Meinhof system (Nurse and Phillipson 2003.) Lingala has the cognate of Kusaal *tùbur^e* in this very class: *litói* "ear", plural *matói*. In Swahili, the verbal subject prefixes for the corresponding class are singular *li* and plural *ya*; as in Kusaal, names of fruits (for example) usually belong to this class.

This particular correspondence of form and meaning is (so to speak) "cherry-picked"; although certain semantic categories are characteristically found in particular noun classes across Niger-Congo, the classes do not always correspond formally. Tree names in Kusaal nearly all belong to the particular class exemplified in the word for "tree" itself: sg *tūg^a* pl *tūs^e*, but this does not correspond to the Bantu **mu/*mi* class 3/4 which typically contains tree names: Swahili *mti* "tree", plural *miti*. However, Kusaal, like its close relatives in the Western Oti-Volta subgroup (see below), has lost a class characteristically containing tree names, which is still preserved in other Oti-Volta branches, with the singular suffix **bv*: Buli *tiib*, Gurmanche *tībū* "tree"; this class probably is related to Bantu 3/4. The Eastern Oti-Volta language Ditammari has *mu-* for the affixes of this class (*mūtiē* "tree"), and

although its close relative Nateni has *-bu* (*tēēbu* "tree"), the corresponding pronoun is *mu* (Sambiéni p219.)

Among unpaired Kusaal flexional suffixes, the *-m^m* characteristically seen with mass and abstract nouns like *kù'əm^m* "water" is probably cognate with the Bantu Class 6 prefix **ma-* when used for mass terms and liquids, e.g. Swahili *maji* "water", (Gurmanche *ńíma*) and the *-l^e* of language names like *Kūsáàl^e* matches Bantu Class 11 **lo-* in the same meaning; cf *Luganda*, the language of the *Baganda* people.

Similarities may also be seen in verbal derivation by suffixes, in this context usually called "verbal extensions", after the term used in the study of Bantu languages, in which such processes are typically highly productive. However, at the level of Niger-Congo, there can be problems with correlating the form and function of these suffixes, and some processes may even be areal phenomena, found even in Afro-Asiatic and Nilo-Saharan (see Hyman 2007.³)

Mande shows no trace of noun class affixes or Niger-Congo-type verbal extensions, nor much in the way of vocabulary unequivocally cognate to core Niger-Congo. Some Kordofanian languages (e.g. Lumun, well described in Smits 2017) bear a striking typological similarity to core Niger-Congo, with robust noun class systems marked by often-paired prefixes and extensive agreement, and with a similar system of verbal extensions, but there is little correspondence in form, and once again, little lexical correspondence. Even with the Atlantic languages, typological resemblances tend to be the most apparent. On the other hand, the Potou-Akanic family to which Twi/Fante and Gonja belong is a well-established part of core Niger-Congo, preserving not only cognate vocabulary, as noted above, but clear traces of the core noun class system.

Many proposals for Niger-Congo subclassification rely heavily on lexicostatistics, a technique which is the more problematic as so many of the relevant languages are poorly documented; only detailed comparative work can provide a basis for accurate subclassification. In the case of some lower-level groupings much has been achieved already, very notably with Bantu; among languages closer to Kusaal, there is the work of Sambiéni 2005 on Eastern Oti-Volta. At a higher level, comparative work is generally at an early stage; see, however, numerous publications by Gabriel Manessy on Gur, and especially the publications of John Stewart on Potou-Akanic and its relationships with Bantu and Atlantic.

3) For Gur, Hyman cites only Canu 1976 (pp180ff). Some of Canu's extensions involve segmentation of CVC roots as CV+C, where the CV- component is not attested as a root; others involve CV:~CVC alternations of the type described in [7.1.1.3], where CV: allomorphs probably arose by lenition of the final consonant. However, Canu's *second*-position suffixes are true verb-deriving suffixes, with numerous cognates in other Western Oti-Volta languages; Kusaal is representative of the group [15.2].

At the lowest level Kusaal belongs to a clear-cut language family called **Western Oti-Volta** by Manessy, for which Adams Bodombo has suggested "Mabia" (cf Kusaal *mà-bīig*^a "sibling") as an alternative name. (This term, though attractive, is not a "shibboleth" word delineating the Western Oti-Volta group: cf Buli *mà-bīik* id.) Many lexical items *are* specifically Western Oti-Volta, such as that exemplified by Kusaal *kùʔəm*^m "water"; other Oti-Volta languages show forms cognate to e.g. Gurmanche *ñíma* Buli *nyíam* (cf the Kusaal verb *nì*⁺ "rain.") Morphologically, the Western Oti-Volta languages all share a strikingly simple and regular system of verbal inflection, with almost all inflecting verbs using the bare stem for the perfective aspect and adding a suffix **-da* for the imperfective.

A **Northwestern** subgroup of Western Oti-Volta includes Mooré (much the largest of all Gur languages with millions of speakers), Safaliba, the dialect continuum Dagaare/Waale/Birifor, and Farefare/Gurenne/Ninkare. I will gloss over some complex issues regarding the naming of the latter two languages and their speakers, referring to them simply as Dagaare and Farefare below.

Kusaal belongs to a **Southwestern** group which includes Nabit and Talni along with Mampruli, Dagbani, Hanga, Kamara and some similar smaller languages.

One feature distinguishing these languages from the Northwestern group is the presence of a specific verbal inflection **-ma* for positive imperatives. Various isoglosses cut across the Northwestern/Southwestern division, but most involve shared retentions, such as the preservation of noun-class based grammatical gender in Talni, Mampruli and Farefare but not Kusaal, Dagbani and Mooré [12], the retention of contrastive vowel glottalisation in Kusaal, Nabit, Talni and Farefare only [5.2.2], and the preservation of the contrast between non-initial /r/ and /d/ in Mooré, Agolle Kusaal (but not Toende), Talni and Nabit. The form of the singular pronoun "you" also cuts across the division, Kusaal going with the Northwestern languages:

Dagbani	<i>a</i>	Mampruli	<i>i</i>
Nabit	<i>i</i>	Talni	<i>i</i>
Kusaal	<i>fù</i>	Mooré	<i>fo</i>
Farefare	<i>fv</i>	Dagaare	<i>fv</i>

Judging by Buli *fī* the Kusaal and Northwestern forms seem conservative; Nawdm too has sg *bé* pl *né*. However, Gurmanche has 2nd singular *à*, plural *ì*, Konkomba has singular *i*, plural *ni*, and Moba has singular *ā*, plural *ī* for the non-contrastive pronouns but *fī*, *yīm* for contrastive. (In these plural forms, the *y-/ø* and the *n-* both derive from **ŋ-* [9.3.1.2].) The Moba pronouns suggest that other languages may have independently levelled and remodelled an original system with distinct contrastive and non-contrastive forms.

Many other points of likeness between Kusaal, Nabit and Talni and the Northwestern group are probably due to extensive contact; there is evidence for this particularly with Farefare and Nabit and with Mooré and Kusaal.

A subdivision of Southwestern Oti-Volta itself seems justifiable. Mampruli, Dagbani and Hanga share a considerable simplification of the inherited vowel system, with loss of glottalisation, contrastive nasalisation and the high vowel distinctions *i/ɪ* *u/ʊ*, along with a lowering of original short *e* in closed syllables to *a*, resulting in the development of a series of contrastively palatalised velars. On the other hand, Nabit and Talni are probably the closest relatives of Kusaal. Material on Nabit and Talni is collected in the dictionaries on Tony Naden's website (see sources); the Nabit data show a particularly close resemblance to Toende Kusaal. Giffen 2015 is an account of the creation of a Nabit orthography; her interesting discussion of the social and cultural setting suggests that Nabit has been swept up into the cultural and political orbit of the more distantly related Farefare. She mentions Talni in passing, and implies that Talni speakers understand Nabit to some extent. Nabit and Talni resemble Kusaal in having lost inherited final short vowels in citation forms. This is of course very common cross-linguistically (and seen also in Moba, the neighbouring Gurma language), but there are example sentences in the dictionaries on Tony Naden's website which suggest that Nabit and Talni may retain the final vowel at the end of negated clauses and of questions, just as with Kusaal Apocope 3.2:

Nabit	<i>La bi'imɛ.</i>	"It is ripe"
Toende	<i>La bi'ɪ me.</i>	
Agolle	<i>Lì bɪ'ig nɛ̃.</i>	
	3NH ripen:PFV FOC	
Nabit	<i>La na bu biigɛ.</i>	"It is not yet ripe."
Toende	<i>La nan bu bi'ige.</i>	
Agolle	<i>Lì nàm pū bɪ'igē +∅.</i>	
	3NH still NEG.IND ripen:PFV NEG.	
Talni	<i>Bunpɔk dɔɣam pu bɔkəra, buraa dɔɣam m bɔkət.</i>	
	"A woman's kindred is not divided, a man's kindred is divided."	
Toende	<i>Bupɔk dɔgɪm bu bɔkɪra, buraa dɔgɪm bɔkɪt.</i>	
Agolle	<i>[Pɥ'ā] dú'àm pū byákìdā +∅, [dāy] dú'amì_∅ byákìd.</i>	
	Woman:SG kindred NEG.IND split:IPFV NEG, man:SG kindred SER split:IPFV.	

(The Toende forms are from Niggli's dictionary, with the inflected forms *bɔkɪra* and *bi'ige* constructed on the basis of his grammatical works.)

There are few examples, and the Talni data in particular seem equivocal, but if this unusual behaviour is indeed common to all three languages it would be

compelling evidence for a Kusaal-Nabit-Talni subgroup. There may be lexical isoglosses: for example, the common Kusaal verb *nɔ̃k^{e/}* "pick up" (Toende *nòk*) has a cognate in Nabit *nok* but not, as far as I have been able to discover, in any other Western Oti-Volta language. However, as with the loss of vowel distinctions in Mampruli-Dagbani-Hanga, the family tree model may misrepresent a historical reality where similarities may often be due to intensive contact between distinct languages in a milieu in which many people are multilingual.

All the Western Oti-Volta languages are in any case closely related (as is evident to the speakers themselves), to roughly the same degree as the various Romance languages. Claims of mutual comprehension between the languages are frequently overstated or outright wrong, however; misunderstanding probably arises from underappreciation of the prevalence of multilingualism. A Kusaal speaker cannot, for example, follow a conversation in Mampruli unless he or she has learnt the language, close relation to Kusaal though it is. (I had abundant opportunity to observe degrees of mutual intelligibility in our highly polyglot outpatient clinics.)

Less close, but still evidently related, are other groups within the broader Oti-Volta family, such as the Gurma languages (including Gurmanche, Konkonba and Moba) and Buli. Several classifications show Buli as comparatively remote from Western Oti-Volta, but the detailed materials in Kröger 1992 suggest it is much closer to Western Oti-Volta than Gurma is; there are numerous cognates in vocabulary and many parallels in morphology.

Both Buli and Gurmanche have three-tone systems, and the three underlyingly distinct Western Oti-Volta Tone Patterns [8.1](#) can be systematically matched with these, particularly with Buli [8.2.4](#). However, although Western Oti-Volta Tone Pattern H corresponds to *high* tone in Buli, it corresponds to *low* in the Gurma languages:

<u>Kusaal</u>		<u>Gurmanche</u>	<u>Buli</u>
<i>sāan^{a/}</i>	"stranger"	<i>càanō</i>	<i>(ní)cháanoā</i>
<i>wáaf^o</i>	"snake"	<i>wà</i>	<i>wáab</i>
<i>nīf^{o/}</i>	"eye"	<i>nùnbū</i>	<i>núm</i>

Western Oti-Volta Pattern O matches Gurmanche high and Buli mid, while Pattern L corresponds to Gurmanche mid and Buli low:

<i>mōɔg^o</i>	"grass"	<i>múagū</i>	<i>mūub</i> ("blade of grass")
<i>pyʔā^a</i>	"woman"	<i>púa</i>	<i>(ní)pōk</i>
<i>tìɪg^a</i>	"tree"	<i>tībū</i>	<i>tìib</i>
<i>dòɔg^o</i>	"room"	<i>dīelī</i>	<i>dòk</i>
<i>(dèegò)</i>	Farefare <i>id</i>)		

Exceptions occur; tonal mismatches are bolded in

<i>sāʔab</i> ^o	"TZ"	<i>sāābū</i>	<i>sāāb</i>
<i>bīīg</i> ^a	"child"	<i>bīgā</i>	<i>bíik</i>
<i>tùbbur</i> ^e	"ear"	<i>tūbīlī</i>	<i>tūri</i>
<i>ñwāaŋ</i> ^a	"monkey"	<i>ŋmāāmō</i>	<i>wàaung</i>

Evidence from outside Oti-Volta suggests that it is languages with H tone corresponding to Pattern H (like Buli, Nawdm, and Western Oti-Volta) which have innovated: cf Chakali (Gurunsi) *tʃùò mó* "hare" = Kusaal *súʔeŋ*^a (Pattern H), *váà* "dog" = Kusaal *bāa*^o (Pattern O); Proto-Bantu *-nùà* "mouth" = Kusaal *nōɔr*^{e/} (Pattern H), *-tó* "ear" = Kusaal *tùbbur*^e (Pattern L). If other innovations could be shown to correlate with this tonal inversion, it might form the basis of subgrouping within Oti-Volta, but a single phonological change, even as striking as this, seems insufficient. Moreover, it is not clear how the threefold tone pattern distinctions characteristic of Oti-Volta arose from a presumed Niger-Congo binary H/L opposition (for speculations see [8.7](#).)

Like Gurma, the Eastern Oti-Volta languages are distinctly different from Western Oti-Volta in both morphology and lexicon. Sambieni 2005 provides considerable detail on the language group, which shows much greater internal diversity than Western Oti-Volta. His work assumes that Manessy's Eastern Oti-Volta is a valid subgroup and attempts to reconstruct a protolanguage on that basis; it is not meant to establish the validity of the subgrouping itself, which is apparently based on the shared initial-consonant developments **g* → *k*, **gb* → *kp* and **j* → *y* along with **v* → *f*, also seen in Gurma. Eastern Oti-Volta languages in fact lack *v gb j* altogether, while *g* occurs only word-internally as an allophone of /k/; accordingly, this could be an areal phenomenon. Manessy has **gb* → *kw* for the neighbouring language Bulba/Nōōtre, which he classifies with *Western* Oti-Volta.

Of the four Eastern Oti-Volta languages Byali, Ditammari, Nateni and Waama, Ditammari resembles Gurmanche and Konkomba in that nouns usually appear with noun class prefixes and suffixes together. Ditammari and Nateni show L tone corresponding to Kusaal Pattern H, like Gurma, whereas Waama shows H tone; Byali seems to show mid tones for the most part. Apart from the double affixing of Ditammari, all four Eastern languages have noun class systems which seem conservative rather than marked by common innovations. In verb flexion, Ditammari and Nateni resemble each other closely, in some verbs opposing a perfective ending *-a* to an imperfective ending which is *-i* after alveolar consonants but *-u* otherwise, in others changing the stem tones, or dropping a derivational suffix from the perfective to make the imperfective; many individual verbs behave alike in both languages. Byali has a much simpler system, opposing a perfective ending *-sə* to imperfective *-u* (including after alveolars.) In Waama, apart from smaller group of verbs which oppose final *-i* for perfective to *-u* for imperfective (once again), imperfectives add a

suffix of the form *-ri -di* or *-ti* to the perfective form. This is reminiscent of Western Oti-Volta; however, even the Gurma languages, among a great variety of ways of inflecting verbs for aspect, have imperfective suffixes of a similar form, e.g. Konkomba *-dɛ*. There are some lexical isoglosses uniting Waama with Western Oti-Volta and Buli over against the other Eastern languages and Gurma, e.g. Waama *wōmmā* "entendre" (= Kusaal *wòm^m*, Buli *wom*) as against Byali *cèsì* or *yō*, Ditammari *kèè* or *yō*, Nateni *yēkà*, Gurmanche *céngì* "écouter", and Waama *cáárō* "forgeron" (= Kusaal *sāḡñ⁺*, Buli *chòà-bíik* [*chùòk* "forge"]), versus Byali *má-máárāū*, Ditammari *ōmáátà*, Nateni *málō*, Gurmanche *mááno*.

There is much less similarity between Oti-Volta as a whole and the other main group of Central Gur languages, the Gurunsi languages like Chakali, Kasem and Kabiye. The division between Gur in a broader sense and the Adamawa languages has been called into question, with suggestions that Oti-Volta and Gurunsi may even be essentially coordinate members of a continuum of families including at least some "Adamawa" subgroups: see e.g. Kleinwillinghöfer 1996, which references studies suggesting that the Adamawa languages Waja and Tula are closer to the Gurunsi languages than to other parts of "Central Gur." This supposed Gur-Adamawa group is sometimes called "Savannas"; most accounts still retain Central Gur as a node, comprising at least Oti-Volta and Gurunsi. Further progress on this issue will probably only come about after more descriptive work on Adamawa languages.

A few languages are usually classified as belonging to Central Gur, but not included in either Oti-Volta or Gurunsi. For the most part they are poorly documented; an exception is the Koromfe language of Burkina Faso (Rennison 1997), which is usually said to be closer to Oti-Volta as a whole than to Gurunsi, though Manessy's work often shows lexical correspondences between Koromfe and Gurunsi rather than Koromfe and Oti-Volta; he himself makes it a coordinate branch of Central Gur alongside Oti-Volta and Gurunsi.

Various other languages have been previously taken as Gur on the basis of relatively nonspecific typological criteria, especially the use of noun class suffixes rather than prefixes. This is notably the case with the Senoufo languages, which are now often held to constitute a relatively early and divergent branch of Niger-Congo.

1.2.4 External Influences

In general, the languages of neighbouring regions have not obviously influenced Kusaal. Moba, for example, the neighbouring eastern language, has had no evident effect on Kusaal. The northern neighbours of the Kusaasi are the Bisa; indeed the Kusaal word for "north" is literally "Bisa Country" [37.3]. Bisa territory is largely in Burkina Faso but extends just over the Ghanaian border, and many Bisa people have also settled in the villages among the Kusaasi, and in Bawku. However, Bisa people in Ghana use Kusaal as the areal lingua franca, and few others can communicate in their Mande language, which is at most remotely related to its Gur neighbours; once again, there seems to be no evidence of influence on Kusaal. In the west, Nabit and Talni resemble Kusaal closely enough that it is difficult to distinguish borrowing from common inheritance, but there is reason to suspect **Farefare** influence on Nabit and perhaps on Toende Kusaal too [1.2.3]. With the neighbouring southern language, **Mampruli**, the issue is further complicated by the political history of the area [1.1], and by the fact that many local Mamprussi speak Kusaal rather than Mampruli, but some likely loanwords are identifiable. However, most loanwords in Kusaal [20.1] come from the two other languages most widely spoken within the Kusaasi area itself: Mooré and Hausa.

Mooré is the language of the Mossi, the largest single ethnic group of Burkina Faso. Many Mossi are found in the Kusaasi area, and many Kusaasi themselves speak Mooré well; they often attribute local or individual peculiarities of Kusaal speech to Mooré influence. Early Christian missionary work among the Kusaasi used Mooré materials, leading to some borrowing and calquing. Examples include *Wínà'am*^m "God" and *fāaŋíd*^a "saviour", where the forms may be borrowed via Toende Kusaal rather than from Mooré directly. A number of West African *Wanderwörter* have probably also reached Kusaal via Mooré.

Most identifiable loanwords in Kusaal come from **Hausa**. The major centres of Hausa are in northern Nigeria and in Niger; it is the largest African language after Arabic by number of first-language speakers and is used by millions more as a lingua franca in the savanna zone of West Africa. In northern Ghana it has strong associations with Islam and with trade; it is usually a good guess to use Hausa to greet a stranger wearing Muslim dress. Hausa is an Afro-Asiatic language of the Chadic family, and is thus remotely related to Arabic and Hebrew but completely unrelated genetically to Kusaal; nevertheless, in matters of idiom, semantic range and even the kinds of distinctions encoded in its syntax and morphology, it shows numerous resemblances to its Niger-Congo neighbours. There are many ethnic *Hàusàawaa* in the Kusaasi area, especially in Bawku, but the language which has influenced Kusaal is the vehicular *Gaanancii* of northern Ghana. Though mutually intelligible with Standard (Kano) Hausa, *Gaanancii* among other differences lacks

grammatical gender, uses [z] for [d͡ʒ], monophthongises diphthongs, and drops the distinction between the glottalic consonants and their plain counterparts.

Thus Standard Hausa *Kin jì kôo?* "Do you understand?" (addressing a woman) becomes *Kaa zì kôo?* Such features are largely the result of simplification by second-language speakers, rather than characteristic of Western Hausa dialects.⁴ Kusaal has far fewer Hausa loans than Dagbani or Mampruli, probably due to a much slighter exposure to Islam. (The Dagomba royal clan has been Muslim for centuries, though most Dagomba people are still, like the Kusaasi, adherents of traditional African beliefs and customs.) The use of Mooré alongside Hausa as an interethnic language in the far north of Ghana is probably also a factor.

The other major lingua francas of Ghana, Twi/Fante ("Akan") and English, have contributed comparatively little to Kusaal to date. In the mid 1990's few people outside Bawku were very proficient in either language unless they had been to school or lived in the south of the country, and very few native speakers of those languages can speak Kusaal. Perhaps 5-10% of patients attending our clinics in Bawku at that time could communicate in English well enough for the purposes of medical consultation; the majority were most comfortable with Kusaal, with Hausa and Mooré about equal in second place, in both cases often as vehicular languages rather than mother tongues.⁵

As throughout the West African savanna, there are nomadic Fulbe in the Kusaasi area, chiefly engaged in cattle-raising. Traditional cataract surgery ("couching") is a Fulbe speciality in this region; the payment asked for is often a cow. There seems to be no evidence of borrowing from Fulfulde; *nagge*, plural *na'i* "cow" strikingly resembles Kusaal *náaʔ* (← **náagfò*) plural *nīigí*⁺, but this cannot be a loan into Kusaal itself, because the word and its distinctive flexion can be reconstructed to a stage prior to the Western Oti-Volta protolanguage (cf Buli *nááb* pl *níigā*.)

4) The far-western dialect of Ader in Niger (Caron 1991) has grammatical gender, though this is lacking in the eastern Hausa of Zaria and Bauchi, which nevertheless still use feminine pronouns for female persons (Caron 2013). Even in Nigeria, Hausa as an interethnic language lacks grammatical gender: I was once actually corrected by a Hausa mother-tongue speaker for using grammatical gender, on the grounds that it sounded unnatural in the speech of a foreigner.

5) I once communicated (after a fashion) with a patient via three intermediaries, the last of whom, a colleague, translated between Mooré and English for me. None of my colleagues could even identify the patient's language. The "middle" language was Dyula, a Mande language which is itself an important West African lingua franca; it is part of a dialect continuum which also includes Bambara, Maninka and Mandinka.

1.3 Outline of Kusaal Grammar

Orthographic symbols represent IPA values except as follows:

Long vowels are written with double symbols. ^ʔ and ñ represent glottalisation and nasalisation of adjacent vowel symbols.

ι υ represent [ɪ] [ʊ]. As non-initial elements of diphthongs they appear only in *av* [aʊ] and its glottalised and nasalised counterparts.

e o also represent [ɪ] [ʊ] everywhere except immediately after consonant symbols, where they represent [e] [o], found exclusively as a result of the lowering effect of Prosodic Clitics on underlying word-final ι υ [9.2]. After the raised dot symbol · the realisation is always [ʊ] [5.1] [9.3.1.1].

ɥ represents [w] and j ɛ both represent [j] as components of diphthongs.

kɸ and gb represent the labiovelar stops [kɸ] [gb]; y represents [j].

k t p ŋ always represent clusters /kk/ /tt/ /pp/ /ŋŋ/ when word-internal between vowels, but they are realised single except in very slow speech.

Acute, macron and grave signs mark tone [6.1].

Superscripts (e.g. *bīig*^a "child") represent part of a word which only surfaces before a Prosodic Clitic, and in modified form before Liaison [3.2.1].

When interlinear glosses are used, the symbols ∅ and ⁺∅ represent elements with no segmental realisation of their own, and _— marks Liaison.

Kusaal is in most respects a typical Western Oti-Volta language. It is chiefly distinctive within Western Oti-Volta in having lost word-final short vowels even in citation forms (**Apocope** [3.2]), a feature shared with Nabit and Talni. (Clause-*medial* loss or reduction of word-final vowels is in contrast extremely common throughout the group.) Thus where Mooré has the citation form *biiga* "child", the cognate Kusaal word *bīig*^a normally appears in the **Short Form** (SF) *bīig*. However, this change is not a simple historical matter, like the loss of the earlier word-final vowel in French *bien* ← Latin *bene*; the Kusaal final vowel is still present in certain contexts. For example, it reappears clause-finally when the clause contains a negation or ends a question, with the final word appearing as a **Long Form** (LF):

Ò à nē bīig. "He/she's a child."
3HU COP FOC child:SG.

Ò kâ^ʔ bīiga ⁺∅. "He/she is not a child."
3HU NEG.BE child:SG NEG.

Ò à nē bíigàa ⁺∅? "Is he/she a child?"
3HU COP FOC child:SG PQ?

So too at the end of vocative phrases:

M̂ bīga +∅! "My child!"
1SG child:SG VOC!

Word-final consonant clusters resulting from Apocope are reduced to the first consonant:

Lì kāʔ gbīgimne +∅. "It's not a lion."
3NH NEG.BE lion:SG NEG.

Lì à nē gbīgim. "It's a lion."
3HU COP FOC lion:SG.

This appearance of surface untruncated forms rather than truncated is regarded as being triggered by following **Prosodic Clitics** [9.2], which have no segmental form of their own but show their presence by this effect on the preceding word form. There are three different Prosodic Clitics, Negative **NEG**, Vocative **VOC** and Interrogative (**PQ/CQ**), with different effects on preceding vowel length and tone. In citing word forms, superscripts [3.2.1] will be used to write the parts of words which are dropped everywhere except before Prosodic Clitics and Liaison: *bīg^a* "child", *gbīgim^{ne}* "lion", *kōk^a* "chair", *dōk^{o/}* "pot."

The phonology of Kusaal is significantly complicated by Apocope. For example, Apocope deletes segments responsible for rounding and fronting effects on preceding vowels, and renders those effects contrastive. This creates two series of diphthongs, along with emic contrasts among epenthetic vowels. Thus

vīidé "owls"

usually appears with Apocope as the Short Form *vīid* with the same long vowel as *bīis* "children", shortened from *bīise*, while the singular Long Form

vīugó "owl"

has *iu* for *ii* because of the rounding effect of final vowel, to which the velar *-g-* is transparent; after Apocope this becomes the Short Form

vīug "owl"

After the deletion of the final *-o*, the diphthong itself now contrasts with the vowel of *bīig* "child", shortened from *bīiga* as seen above. Similarly

āañdiga "black plum tree"

has the default epenthetic vowel *ɪ* before the flexion, and appears as *āañdig* after Apocope, whereas

gàadugo "passing" (gerund)

has rounding of the vowel to *ʊ* before the flexion *-go*, and after the loss of the final vowel this rounding itself becomes contrastive in the usual Short Form *gàadug*.

Certain **Liaison** Words 9.3.1 cause a preceding word to appear, not as the usual clause-medial Short Form, but as a Long Form modified by the loss of all original vowel quality contrasts in the final mora. All non-contrastive personal pronouns fall into this category, for example:

Ṁ p̄ b̄ɔɔd̄ā +∅. "I don't want to."
1SG NEG.IND want NEG. Long Form *b̄ɔɔd̄ā* preceding Negative Clitic.

Ṁ b̄ɔɔd̄ī *b̄á*. "I love them."
1SG want 3PLO. Modified Long Form *b̄ɔɔd̄ī* before Liaison.

Ṁ p̄ z̄ábē +∅. "I haven't fought."
1SG NEG.IND fight:PFV NEG. Long Form *z̄ábē* preceding Negative Clitic.

Ṁ z̄ábī *b̄á*. "I've fought them."
1SG fight:PFV 3PLO. Modified Long Form *z̄ábī* before Liaison.

Apocope reduces several Liaison Words of the underlying form *CV* to a single consonant. Thus with *b̄ɔɔd̄*^a "wants, loves" and *f̄*^o "you (sg)":

Ṁ p̄ b̄ɔɔd̄ī *f̄* +∅. "I don't love you."
1SG NEG.IND want 2SGO NEG. Long Form *f̄* of the pronoun "you (sg)"

Ṁ b̄ɔɔd̄ī *f̄*. "I love you."
1SG want 2SGO. Short Form *f̄* of the pronoun "you (sg)"

The locative postposition *n^e* is another such word. It is conventionally written solid with the preceding host word:

Lì kāʔ kūka +∅. "It's not a chair."
3NH NEG.BE chair:SG NEG.

Lì kāʔ kūkíné +∅. "It's not in a chair."
3NH NEG.BE chair:SG:LOC NEG.

kūkín "in a chair"
 chair:SG:LOC

Lì kāʔ dōkó +∅. "It's not a pot."
3NH NEG.BE pot:SG NEG.

Lì kāʔ dōkínē +∅. "It's not in a pot."
3NH NEG.BE pot:SG:LOC NEG.

dōkín "in a pot"
 pot:SG:LOC

The third person singular human gender object pronoun ^o "him/her" has the Long Form *o* [ʊ] which is deleted entirely by Apocope, producing a Short Form which is segmentally *zero*. Its presence is still shown by the rounding of the preceding host-word-final vowel mora from [ɪ] to [ʊ], which is always written (with a preceding raised point) as *·o*.

Compare the forms with *f^o* "you (sg)"

Ṃ p̣ū b́ɔ́dī_fó +∅. "I don't love you."
1SG NEG.IND want 2SGO NEG.

Ṃ b́ɔ́dī_f. "I love you"
1SG want 2SGO.

with the forms with ^o "him/her":

Ṃ p̣ū b́ɔ́d·óo +∅. "I don't love him/her." [ɱpʰʊbɔ:dʊ:]
1SG NEG.IND want:3HUO NEG. Long Form *o* of the pronoun "him/her"

Ṃ b́ɔ́d·ō_∅. "I love him/her." [ɱbɔ:dʊ]
1SG want 3HUO. Short Form *∅* of the pronoun "him/her"

A Liaison Word form ^{ya} of the 2pl *subject* pronoun follows imperative verb forms. It similarly loses its entire segmental form in the Short form, because *y* left word-final by Apocope is deleted [3.2]:

Gòsim! "Look!"
Look:IMP!

Gòsimī_ø! "Look ye!" by Apocope from *gòsimiyá*
Look:IMP 2PLS!

Liaison words are not all enclitic. Personal pronouns used as subjects or as proclitic determiners of a following noun or postposition also cause this inhibition of Apocope in the *preceding* word, as does one proclitic particle of the form *à* and all words beginning with certain derivational prefixes [9.3.2].

Two Liaison Word particles which have the underlying form *n* also frequently lose their own segmental form entirely. As with *o* "him/her", their presence is then apparent only from the modified Long Form of the preceding word and from tone.

ṁ zūgú_ ø zàbɪd lā zúg
1SG head:SG COMP fight:IPFV ART upon
"because my head hurts" (Complementiser *ṁ*)

Ṁ zūgυ_ ø zábɪd. "My head hurts." (Serialiser *n*)
1SG head:SG SER fight:IPFV.

These various "disappearing" Liaison Words have unsurprisingly resulted in considerable confusion in word division in the traditional orthography, and are largely responsible for the many cases where clause-medial words acquire a mysterious short-vowel "ending." Sometimes such words are mistaken for clause-final type Long Forms and written accordingly.

Apocope has not only complicated Kusaal phonology, but has also affected morphology, as various strategies are adopted to avoid ambiguities that would otherwise result from final vowel loss and consonant cluster reduction. Expected flexions may be replaced by others of the same meaning but originally from different paradigms, or regular consonant assimilation processes may be blocked. In other cases, new untruncated forms have been created as the shortened form of one flexion has been reinterpreted as the homophonous shortened form of a different flexion.

Kusaal differs from most local languages in showing contrastive **glottalisation** of vowels; however, this feature is shared among Western-Oti Volta languages with neighbouring Nabit, Talni and Farefare [5.2.2].

Agolle Kusaal shows a systematic mismatch between phonetics and phonemics in the vowel system, because of **Agolle Vowel Breaking** [5.1.1] of earlier short and long $\epsilon \text{ } \text{ɔ}$ vowels, still preserved as phonetic monophthongs in the Toende Dialect. This has produced four monophthongal phonemes $\text{ja } \text{ɣa } \text{iə } \text{uə}$ which are realised phonetically as diphthongs; as in the traditional orthography they are written in accordance with the realisation, but the orthography is to be regarded for phonemic purposes as using *digraphs* to write monophthongs. On top of these complications, Kusaal has developed an elaborate and asymmetrical system of phonemic diphthongs from fusion of vowels following deletion of intervocalic **g* and from the final fronting and rounding effects already mentioned; these processes all remain active in the morphophonemics.

Kusaal is **tonal**, like its relatives and neighbours, and indeed the vast majority of African languages south of the Sahara. The tone system is structurally very like that of Dagbani (a typical terracing system with H and L tones and emic downsteps) but is rather different in realisation because original H before L or downstep has become a new toneme, higher than original H. Thus, original H has become M (Mid), and the new toneme takes the place of H.

There is a frequent **tone overlay** [24.6.1.1] affecting Verbal Predicators in main clauses, and pervasive **tone sandhi** [10] phenomena, one only affecting nominals and adverbs in certain Noun Phrase or postpositional constructions, and one which occurs regardless of syntax after most unbound words.

Acute, macron and grave mark H, M and L respectively. The macron and grave apply not only to the mora on which they are placed, but to all following morae within the same word up to another tone mark. An unmarked mora after an acute mark is, however, toneless, and the preceding H toneme is realised over both morae [6.2.1].

Full word stems are built around a root consisting of a stressed short or long vowel, usually preceded by (at most) one consonant, and followed by consonants separated by unstressed epenthetic high vowels, or forming very limited sets of two-member clusters.

<i>dī̄əsídìb</i>	"receivers"
<i>bā̄ŋɪdɪb</i>	"wise men"
<i>gbī̄gɪmne</i>	"lion" (longer form, as above)
<i>áñsìb</i>	"mother's brother"

The only consonant clusters possible within stems following the root are *kk tt pp ŋŋ nn mm ll mn*, of which *kk tt pp ŋŋ* are written and usually realised as single. Consonant clusters cannot occur word-initially or finally, except for final geminate *-mm* in Long Forms [9.2] (including "Apocope-Blocked" [7.4] forms like the quantifier *pāmm* "a lot") where there has been loss of syllabicity in an originally syllabic final *m*. (On *kp gb ñ ʔ* see the note on orthography above.)

Many nominal words have a **nominal prefix** beginning a stem which in other respects has just the same structure as an unprefixed stem. Nominal prefixes take the forms *CV-* or *CVn-*, less often *CVln-* or *CVsln-*. Nominals with prefixes can thus contain *-nC-* clusters at the junction between the prefix and the rest of the stem:

<i>pīpīrɪg</i>	"desert"
<i>dìndēog</i>	"chameleon"

Other word-internal clusters are confined to loanwords, though two-member consonant clusters occur freely within compounds, reflecting the fact that these are formed of component words with Apocope after each one.

Flexional **suffixes** have only a three-way vowel contrast *a/ɪ/ʊ*; this is also true of prefixes. Flexional suffix vowels are lost by Apocope in the surface Short Forms; when they are retained before Prosodic Clitics, *ɪ ʊ* appear as *e o* [e] [o]. Many different two-member consonant clusters may occur across word division because of the deletion of word-final short vowels by Apocope:

<i>Gbīgɪm lā dāa kūvd búj lā.</i>
Lion:SG ART TNS kill:IPFV donkey:SG ART.
"The lion (<i>gbīgɪm</i> ^{ne}) was killing (<i>kūvd</i> ^{a/}) the donkey (<i>búj</i> ^a)."

Most common **particles** are short clitics, like the postposed article *lā* and the preverbal tense marker *dāa* in this example.

Flexion is entirely by suffixing. Productive stem derivation is also effectively all suffixal. Nominal stem prefixes do not usually have identifiable meanings and are not involved in regular derivational processes, but derivational prefixes derived from older flexions do occur in some quantifiers and adverbs [18.2.1](#) [19](#).

Kusaal flexional morphology is underlyingly fairly straightforward, but there are numerous surface complications due to word-internal consonant deletions, cluster simplifications, and to the pervasive effects of final vowel deletion. These words, given in the usual Short Forms, all belong to the same *g^a|s^e* Noun Class:

<i>bīg</i>	"child"	<i>bīs</i>	"children"
<i>būvg</i>	"goat"	<i>būs</i>	"goats"
<i>sàbùa</i>	"lover"	<i>sàbùəs</i>	"lovers"
<i>nūa</i>	"hen"	<i>nōs</i>	"hens"
<i>kūk</i>	"chair"	<i>kūgus</i>	"chairs"
<i>zàk</i>	"compound"	<i>zà'as</i>	"compounds"
<i>dà'a</i>	"market"	<i>dà'as</i>	"markets"
<i>bùŋ</i>	"donkey"	<i>bùmɪs</i>	"donkeys"
<i>tēŋ</i>	"land"	<i>tēŋs</i>	"lands"

Nominal flexion is typically Gur, with noun stems inflected for singular and plural by suffixes which come in matched pairs, allowing a division of all nouns into seven Noun Classes with relatively few exceptions, other than those transparently explicable for phonological reasons. As with many such systems, the classes show a partial but very far from complete correlation with meaning. The bare stem is itself an important part of the paradigm, because (as is typical for Oti-Volta languages) it is extensively used as the first element in **compound** formation, which is a highly productive process. Among other things it is the normal way for a head noun to combine with an **adjective** or **post-determining pronoun**:

<i>būvg</i> ^a "goat"	+ <i>piəliɡ</i> ^a "white"	→ <i>bù-piəliɡ</i> ^a	"white goat"
<i>būvg</i> ^a "goat"	+ <i>sī̄a</i> ⁺ "another"	→ <i>bù-sī̄a</i> ⁺	"another goat"
<i>kūk</i> ^a "chair"	+ <i>piəliɡ</i> ^a "white"	→ <i>kùg-piəliɡ</i> ^a	"white chair"
<i>kūk</i> ^a "chair"	+ <i>kàŋā</i> ^{+/} "this"	→ <i>kùg-kàŋā</i> ^{+/}	"this chair"

In this grammar compounds are hyphenated, as above.

In most Gur languages the noun classes form a grammatical gender system, with pronoun and adjective agreement. Kusaal, like most other Western Oti-Volta languages, has abandoned grammatical gender in favour of a simple natural gender opposition of persons (people, supernatural beings) to non-persons. Noun classes remain central to nominal morphology, with a few fossilised traces of agreement.

Like virtually all the local languages (including *Gaanancii* Hausa, and, disconcertingly for a British native speaker, even some local English) Kusaal makes no grammatical distinction between male and female. In the English translations I have used "he" or "she" randomly where the antecedent is unspecified.

A characteristic feature of Western Oti-Volta is a striking simplification of **verb flexion**, with just one "conjugation" of prototypical "Variable Verbs", using the bare stem for the **perfective** aspects and marking the **imperfective** aspects with a single suffix *-d*^a. There are few real irregularities, though unobvious consonant changes and vowel deletions again complicate the surface picture:

<i>kū</i> ⁺	perfective	"kill" (+ means that the vowel is long in the LF)
<i>kūvd</i> ^{a/}	imperfective	
<i>ñyē</i> ⁺	perfective	"see"
<i>ñyēt</i> ^{a/}	imperfective	
<i>vū</i> ^e	perfective	"swallow"
<i>vūn</i> ^{na/}	imperfective	

Variable Verbs also have an imperative flexion *-m*^a, appearing only in positive polarity when the verb carries the tone overlay of Independency Marking (see below.)

"Invariable Verbs" typically express body positions, relationships, or predicative adjectival senses. They have only a single finite form, which generally behaves like the imperfective of a Variable Verb:

Ò *dìgi* *nē*. "She's lying down."
3HU be.lying.down **FOC**.

Ò *mòr* *búŋ*. "She has a donkey."
3HU have donkey:**SG**.

Ò *gim*. "She's short."
3HU be.short.

There are two **verbs "to be"**: *bè* "exist, be in a place" and *àɛñ* "be something/somehow." The latter verb is usually followed by the focus particle *nē* (in this case focussing the complement) whenever this is syntactically permitted, and then loses both the final *ɛ* and the nasalisation:

Ò *à* *nē* *bīig*. "He's a child."
3HU COP FOC child:**SG**.

The two "be" verbs share a common negative-verb counterpart *kāʔe* "not be", which usually appears as *kāʔ* clause-medially:

Ò *kāʔ* *bīiga* +∅. "He's not a child."
3HU NEG.BE child:**SG NEG**.

Kusaal is well-provided with word-level **derivational** processes. For example, regular deverbal gerunds, agent nouns and instrument nouns can be made freely from most verb types:

kōvb^{o/} "killing"
kōvd^{a/} "killer"
kōvdíŋ^a "killing implement"

Compound formation, besides being the regular way of adding adjectives to nouns, is common in Noun Phrase formation generally; there are many set expressions, but compounds of all kinds can be created freely:

gbìgim-kōvd^{a/} "lion-killer"

Syntactically, Kusaal is quite representative of Gur in general. It is strictly **SVO**, with indirect objects preceding direct objects:

M̄ tís d̄y'átà búŋ lā.
1SG give:PFV doctor:SG donkey:SG ART.
 "I've given Doctor the donkey."

As seen above, an adjective follows its noun and forms a compound with it. There are two native **prepositions**, *nē* "with" and *wūv* "like" (*nē* also links NPs and some AdvPs in the sense "and", but *kà* is "and" when linking VPs and clauses.) However, in other respects Kusaal prefers head-final structures, with **possessors**, for example, always preceding their heads:

n̄ bīg "my child"
dāy lā bīg "the man's child"

Adverbs often appear preceded by NP determiners as **postpositions**:

téebùl lā zūg "onto the table" (*zūg* "head")

The Liaison Word *n^e* mentioned above is a very general locative postposition. It is written solid with the preceding word, and in its Short Form is reduced to *n*:

mù'arīn "in a lake" (*mù'are* "lake", Long Form)
 lake:**SG:LOC**

The verb is preceded by proclitic particles expressing tense, mood and polarity. There is no agreement with any Noun Phrase, whether for person or number [see 30.2.3 for a marginal exception for some speakers]:

Gbīgim lā dāa k̄ búŋ lā.
 Lion:**SG ART TNS** kill:**PFV** donkey:**SG ART.**
 "The lion killed the donkey."

Gbīgim lā dāa p̄ k̄ búŋ lāa +∅.
 Lion:**SG ART TNS** **NEG.IND** kill:**PFV** donkey:**SG ART NEG.**
 "The lion didn't kill the donkey."

Gbīgima lā dāa k̄ búŋ lā.
 Lion:**PL ART TNS** kill:**PFV** donkey:**SG ART.**
 "The lions killed the donkey."

Gb̄gim lā sá kù búŋ lā.

Lion:SG ART TNS kill:PFV donkey:SG ART.

"The lion killed the donkey yesterday."

Ṁ dāa ñyē gb̄gim lā. "I saw the lion."

1SG TNS see:PFV lion:SG ART.

Bà dāa ñyē gb̄gim lā. "They saw the lion."

3PL TNS see:PFV lion:SG ART.

The **focus** particle *nē* appears frequently after a verb to focus *aspect*; this, for example, distinguishes Bounded from Unbounded Imperfective:

Nīdɪb kp̄îd. "People die."

Person:PL die:IPFV.

Nīdɪb kp̄îd nē. "People are dying."

Person:PL die:IPFV FOC.

The particle generally has this meaning when the verb allows it and no unbound words intervene between verb and particle, but with verbs which by default express an abiding state, like *àḗñ* "be something/somehow" above, the aspect-focus sense is usually not possible, and the particle must be interpreted as focussing a verb phrase constituent.

As with many West African languages, many clauses join more than one verb phrase to form **serial constructions**. Kusaal uses the linker particle *n SER* to introduce an additional verb phrase; in this example *tis* "give" is used, as very often, simply as means of adding an indirect object:

Ṁ dāa kùès búŋ ̄ ∅ tís dɪʔátà.

1SG TNS sell:PFV donkey:SG SER give:PFV doctor:SG.

"I sold a donkey to Doctor."

Kusaal is interesting in that the Verbal Predicate is specifically marked not for subordination but for its absence. Main clauses and Content Clauses have **Independency Marking** [24.6](#) of the first Verbal Predicator, marked by a **tone overlay** affecting the first word of the Predicator, by the tonal behaviour of subject pronouns, a special imperative flexion and a particle *yā* which follows clause-final perfectives. The tone overlay marker is absent in negative polarity or Unrealised Mood and with various preverbal particles. Independency Marking itself is

completely absent after the clause linker particle *kà* even in *coordinating* function in narrative:

Ò zàb dɥʔátà. "He's fought the doctor."
3HU fight:**PFV** doctor:**SG**.

Ò gòs dɥʔátà. "He's looked at the doctor."
3HU look.at:**PFV** doctor:**SG**.

with the verbs *zàb gòs* showing identical tones because of the overlay; contrast the different tones on the verbs in

Kà ò záb dɥʔátà. "And he's fought the doctor."
 And **3HU** fight:**PFV** doctor:**SG**.

Kà ò gōs dɥʔátà. "And he's looked at the doctor."
 And **3HU** look.at:**PFV** doctor:**SG**.

If tone overlay is present, it may be accompanied by segmental effects; for example, imperatives of inflecting verbs then take a special flexional ending *-m^a*:

Dā gōs dɥʔátāa +ø!
NEG.IMP look.at:**PFV** doctor:**SG** **NEG**!
 "Don't look at the doctor!" (Overlay absent with the negative)

but Gòsim dɥʔátà! "Look at the doctor!"
 Look.at:**IMP** doctor:**SG**!

Main clauses frequently have adjuncts preceding the subject which express time or circumstance; conditional subordinate clauses, which contain *yàʔ* "if" after their own subject, appear before the main clause subject:

Fù yáʔ bòɔd, m̄ ná tīsɿ f búŋ.
2SG if want, **1SG UNR** give:**PFV** **2SGO** donkey:**SG**.
 "If you want, I'll give you a donkey."

Manner or place adjuncts can only be placed before the subject by preposing them with *kà* via an elliptical clefting construction (see below.)

Clauses are often downranked by insertion of the complementiser particle *h̄* (realised often as segmental *ø*) after the subject. So with relative clauses:

Gbīgim lá_∅ dāa kō búŋ-sī̄a lā_∅ ñwá.

Lion:**SG ART COMP TNS** kill:**PFV** donkey-**INDF.NH ART SER** this.

"This is the donkey that the lion killed."

Relative clauses show a number of interesting features. They may be internally-headed:

[Paul ñ sōb gbàŋ-sī̄a n tís Efesus dí̄m lā]_∅ ñwá.

Paul **COMP** write:**PFV** letter-**INDF.NH SER** give:**PFV** Ephesus one.**PL ART SER** this.

"This is [the letter Paul wrote to the Ephesians]." (NT heading)

where *gbàŋ-sī̄a* is *gbàŋ* "book" compounded with the post-determining pronoun *sī̄a* which functions as a relative, and the entire sequence *Paul ... lā* is the relative clause. The "complementiser" is not the pronoun itself but the particle *ñ* (tonally distinct from Serialiser *n*) which follows the subject, so that the functions of a relative pronoun are here formally divided into two separate parts. Kusaal has, however, also developed constructions where the complementiser directly follows a pronoun which is a possessor or an object within the relative clause:

dàŋ-kànı_∅ pŋ̄ā kpí lā

man-**DEM.SG COMP** wife:**SG die:PFV ART**

"the man whose wife has died"

Subordinate clauses may also be introduced by linker particles. The clause linker *kà*, which often means "and", is also frequently formally subordinating. The sense is often that of a non-restrictive relative clause:

Lì à nē gbīgim lá kà m̄ ñyēt.

3NH COP FOC lion:**SG ART** and **1SG see:IPFV**.

"It's the lion I see."

Even when *kà* is coordinating, it has effects on clause structure which resemble those seen in subordination, with Independency Marking absent.

Kusaal **narrative** links clause after clause with *kà* in a way somewhat reminiscent of Biblical Hebrew, regularly omitting tense marking so long as the action is preceding in sequence, but including it when there are descriptive passages or "flashbacks." In this passage the past-tense marker *dà* occurs only in the first clause. The second *kà* is preposing the time expression *dāar yīnní*, part of an elliptical clefting construction (see below), while the first and third are carrying on the narrative:

Apuzotyel da ane o saam biig ma'aa. Ka daar yinni ka biig la ne o saam zin'i sonsid. Ka biig la ti yel o saam ye ...

À-Pū-zót-yēl dá à né ò sàam bìg mà'aa.

PERS-NEG.IND-fear:IPFV-thing:SG TNS COP FOC 3HU father:SG child:SG only.

Kà dāar yīnní kà bìig lā né ò sàam zín'i_∅ sōñsid.

And day:SG one and child:SG ART with 3HU father:SG sit SER converse:IPFV.

Kà bìig lā tí yèl ò sàam yē ...

And child:SG ART afterwards say:PFV 3HU father:SG that...

"Fears-nothing was his father's only son. [And] one day the son and father were sitting talking. [And] then the son said to his father ..." KSS p35

Kusaal **Content Clauses** are formally identical to main clauses, including Independency Marking, but they contain personal pronouns altered as in indirect speech. Content Clauses are used not only for reporting speech but very generally with verbs expressing communication or thought. Most often they are introduced by *yē* "that." There are special **logophoric** uses of the contrastive free personal pronouns within Content Clauses.

Ò yèl yē ɔn ñyé gbīgim.

3HU say:PFV that 3HU.CNTR see:PFV lion:SG.

"He said that he (himself) saw a lion."

Ò yèl yé ò ñyè gbīgim.

3HU say:PFV that 3HU see:PFV lion:SG.

"He said that he (someone else) saw a lion."

Dau da be mori o po'a yimmir, ka po'a la ye on pu lem bood ye o sid la di po'a ya'ase.

Dāu dá bè_∅ mōrí_ò pɔ'á-yīmmír, kà pɔ'ā lā yé

Man:SG TNS EXIST SER have 3HU wife-single:SG and wife:SG ART say:PFV

ɔn pū lé m bòɔd yé ò sīd lā dí pɔ'ā yá'asē +∅.

3HU.CNTR NEG.IND again want that 3HU husband:SG ART take:PFV wife:SG again NEG.

"There was a man who had only one wife. [And] the wife said that **she** did not want her husband to take another wife." KSS p26

Clefting constructions are common; they have given rise to ellipted structures using *n* for focussing subjects and *kà* for foregrounding other elements:

Gbīgim_∅ kōvd búŋ lā.

Lion:SG SER kill:IPFV donkey:SG ART.

"A lion is killing the donkey."

M̄ zūgv_∅ zábìd. "My head is hurting."
1SG head **SER** fight:**IPFV**. (Reply to "Where is the pain?")

Gbīgím kà m̄ dāa ñyē. "It was a lion that I saw."
 Lion:**SG** and **1SG** **TNS** see:**PFV**.

These patterns derive by ellipsis of *Lì à nē* "It is ..." before a serial-verb construction or before a Supplement Clause respectively.

Although there is no syntactic movement rule for **interrogative** words, they are frequently preposed in this way, and focussing with *n* is compulsory for *ànɔ'ɔn* "who?" as subject even though it remains in situ before the verb.

Fù bɔ̀̀d bɔ̀̀ +∅? "What do you want?"
2SG want what **CQ?**

Bɔ̀̀ kà fù ñyētá +∅? "What can you see?"
 What and **2SG** see:**IPFV** **CQ?**

Gbīgíma_álá kà fù ñyētá +∅?
 Lion:**PL** **NUM**:how.many and **2SG** see:**IPVF** **CQ?**
 "How many lions can you see?"

Ànɔ'ɔnì_∅ kō búŋ lā +∅?
 Who **SER** kill:**PFV** donkey:**SG** **ART** **CQ?**
 "Who has killed the donkey?"

Place and manner adjuncts can only precede the subject by preposing with *kà*:

Mām bé nē mɔ̀̀gvun. "I'm in the bush." BNY p8
1SG.CNTR **EXIST** **FOC** grass:**SG**:**LOC**.

or *Mɔ̀̀gvún kà mām bé.* "I'm in the bush." BNY p10
 Grass:**SG**:**LOC** and **1SG.CNTR** **EXIST**.

not **Mɔ̀̀gvún mām bé.* "I'm in the bush."

The particle *nē* seen in several of the above examples interacts with verb Aspect, but may also focus either VP constituents or the entire VP [34.1.1]. The rules determining its rôle in each case admit some ambiguity, but the aspectual meaning is normally preferred whenever it is syntactically and semantically possible [24.2].

Morphophonemics

2 Orthography

The orthography used in this grammar is largely based on the orthography of the 1976 and 1996 New Testament versions, along with other written materials of a similar age, which for the most part follow the same conventions. I have, however, adopted the symbols ε υ ν from the revised orthography of the 2016 complete Bible translation, also adding ι for [i].

Written materials are cited in their original orthography, which in all cases predates the recent revision. The orthography of these materials is discussed in [2.1](#).

Tone is not marked in traditional orthography; for the conventions used here see [6.1](#). For word division conventions see [3.3](#).

Long vowels are written by doubling the vowel symbol.

bāa "dog" [ba:]

Glottalisation of vowels and diphthongs is marked by the symbol $ʔ$ following the first (or only) vowel symbol other than the non-moraic j (but *including* non-moraic $ɥ$):

dàʔ "buy" [d̪aʔ]
dàʔa "market" [d̪a:ʔ]
kùʔəm "water" [kʰuʔəm]
pɥʔā "woman" [pʰɥ̥aʔ]
djāʔ "get dirty" [d̪j̥aʔ]

Nasalisation of vowels and diphthongs is marked by $ñ$ following the entire vowel or diphthong unless it is also glottalised, in which case the $ñ$ precedes the $ʔ$ mark.

tēñs "lands" [tʰɛ̃:s]
áñsìb "mother's brother" [ãsɪb]
gēñ "get tired" [gɛ̃]
gēñʔ "get angry" [gɛ̃ʔ]
gēñʔɛd id (ipfv) [gɛ̃:d]

After initial y or w nasalisation is instead marked with $ñ$ before the y or w :

ñwām "calabash" [w̃ãm]

The vowel symbols *a* *ε* *ɔ* *i* *u* have IPA values, while *ι* *υ* represent [ɪ] [ʊ] respectively. The allophony [ɪ]~[i] and [ʊ]~[u] seen in non-root syllables 5.3 is ignored, only *ι* *υ* being used.

Unlike Toende Kusaal, Agolle Kusaal has no contrast of [ε] [ɔ] with [e] [o] in any given context, and in principle no other vowel symbols are necessary. However, the symbols *e* *o* are used in the orthography of this grammar in order to conform to the tradition as far as possible without ambiguity. They are used in three cases only:

- (a) to write [ɪ] [ʊ] as non-initial components of diphthongs
- (b) for [ʊ] as a realisation of the clitic 3rd sg human-gender pronoun, or of the rounded vowel mora which precedes it in Liaison.
- (c) for the *close* [e] [o] found exclusively as a result of lowering of LF-final short *ι* *υ* respectively before Prosodic Clitics 9.2

In the second and third morae of diphthongs *e* is written for [ɪ], and similarly *o* for [ʊ] *except* after *a*:

<i>dīe</i>	"receive"	[diɪ]
<i>pāe</i>	"reach"	[p ^h aɪ]
<i>bēog</i>	"tomorrow"	[bεʊg]
<i>kpīoŋ</i>	"strong"	[k ^h pɪʊŋ]
<i>dāvg</i>	"male"	[daʊg]

The Liaison Word 3rd person singular human-gender pronoun, which is realised [ʊ], is always written *o*:

<i>ò bīg</i>	"her child"	[ʊbi:g]
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The rounded word-final vowel mora which precedes the object form of this pronoun (itself segmentally deleted by Apocope) is also always realised [ʊ]. This mora is always written *·o* with a preceding raised dot, with the convention applying even after the vowel *a*:

<i>zū·ó</i>	"steal him"	[zuʊ]
<i>dāvg</i>	"male"	[daʊg]
but <i>dà^ʔ·ò</i>	"bought for him"	[d ^ʔ aʊ]

The nasalisation marker *ñ* is written before the raised dot:

<i>àñ·ò.</i>	"be him/her"	[ãʊ]
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Before Prosodic Clitics [9.2](#), underlying final ι υ of Long Forms are lowered to [e] [o] respectively, and written e o:

Lì k̄āʔ nóbirē +∅. "It's not a leg." [nɔ̄bire]
 3NH NEG.BE leg:SG NEG.

Lì k̄āʔ dūkó +∅. "It's not a pot." [dɔ̄ko]
 3NH NEG.BE pot:SG NEG.

In principle, this use of e o would also be redundant if all three Prosodic Clitics were represented in some way in the usual orthography.

The sequences [iə] [uə], along with their nasalised and glottalised counterparts, arise from **Agolle Vowel Breaking**. The spellings *iə uə* are digraphs for phonemic *monophthongs*, realised phonetically as diphthongs [5.1.1](#).

p̄iəliɣ "white" [pʰiəliɣ]
būʔes "ask" [bʊəʔs]

Non-moraic [j] and [w], not forming syllable boundaries, are written with vowel symbols. The symbols $\underset{\cdot}{e}$ $\underset{\cdot}{i}$ both represent [ɨ]; the difference is a graphic concession to the traditional system, with $\underset{\cdot}{e}$ used after any vowel other than *u*, and $\underset{\cdot}{i}$ everywhere else. Only the symbol $\underset{\cdot}{u}$ is used for [ʊ].

1-mora diphthongs:

gbàṽṽ "book" [g̃b̃aṽṽ]
s̄ṽṽñ "witch" [s̄ṽṽ̃]
mùṽṽ "rice" [m̃ṽṽ]

The sequences $\underset{\cdot}{j}a$ $\underset{\cdot}{u}a$ represent *monophthongs*; they are the short vowels corresponding to long *iə uə*.

	<i>t̄jàk</i> (short monophthong)	"change"	[tʰɨ̄ak]
	<i>p̄uāk</i> (short monophthong)	"female"	[pʰɨ̄ak]
	<i>k̄p̄jàʔ</i> (short monophthong)	"shape wood"	[k̄p̄ɨ̄a]
but	<i>k̄p̄iʔa</i> (diphthong)	"neighbour"	[k̄p̄iə]
	<i>k̄jà</i> (short monophthong)	"cut"	[kʰɨ̄a]
but	<i>s̄iā</i> (diphthong)	"waist"	[sia]

Note the contrast

	<i>jā</i>	"seek"	[ɪa]
cf	<i>yā</i>	"houses"	[ja]

Word-internally before a consonant [ɥ̥] usually appears instead of [ɥ̥:]; this is then written *ɥ'a* in place of *ɥ'aa*:

<i>pū'ab</i>	"women"	[p ^h ɥ̥ab]
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Before *-y-* the short fronting diphthongs *aɛ ɔɛ ʊɛ uɪ* do not contrast with the respective short vowels *a ɔ ʊ u* and are realised as short vowels [5.2.3]. They are written as short vowels in *r^e|a⁺* Class plural forms but as diphthongs in Long Forms where the corresponding Short Form loses the *y* by Apocope. This happens in Invariable Verbs, and in two irregular *a|b^a* Class noun singulars:

	<i>zōya</i>	"tails"	[zɔja]
	<i>nōyá</i>	"mouths"	[nɔ̃ja]
but	<i>vūɛyá</i> LF	"be alive"	[vɔja]
	<i>tōɛyá</i> LF	"be difficult"	[tɔja]
	<i>sāɛñya</i> LF	"blacksmith"	[sãja]
	<i>sōɛñya</i> LF	"witch"	[sɔ̃ja]

The symbol *y* represents [j]; *kp gb* represent the labiovelar double-closure stops [k̠p̠] [g̠b̠].

Between vowels within a word *k t p ŋ* are realised as geminate [k:] [t:] [p:] [ŋ:] in very deliberate speech:

<i>sĵākɪd</i>	"believer"	[sɪak:ɪd]
<i>bāŋɪd</i>	"wise man"	[baŋ:ɪd]

Historically, intervocalic *k t p ŋ* always represent intervocalic *kk tt pp ŋŋ*. From a purely segmental point of view, the gemination might be regarded as allophonic, but despite their usual realisation as single consonants, intervocalic *k t p ŋ* consistently pattern as consonant clusters for tonal purposes [6.2.1], and will therefore be regarded as as such throughout, though written single in line with the traditional orthography.

2.1 Orthography of Written Materials

The revised 2016 orthography is apparently intended to provide a common orthography for Toende and Agolle Kusaal. From the standpoint of Agolle Kusaal the changes are relatively minor. Pre-2016 forms are given by default below. Other older written materials use essentially the same orthography as the 1976 and 1996 New Testament versions, but KSS has *ng* throughout for *ŋ*, and some sources use *ε ɔ* for [ɛ] [ɔ] as in the 2016 Bible, though less consistently.

2.1.1 Vowels and Consonants

Written materials use the same conventions for vowel length and glottalisation as the orthography of this grammar, with ' for ^ʔ: *ku'om* for *kùʔəm* "water."

To mark nasalisation, plain *n* is used for the *ñ* of this grammar:

<i>teens</i>	<i>tēēñs</i>	"lands"	[tʰē:s]
<i>gen'</i>	<i>gēñʔ</i>	"get angry"	[gǣ]
<i>gen'ed</i>	<i>gēñʔəd</i>	id (ipfv)	[gǣ:d]
<i>nwam</i>	<i>ñwām</i>	"calabash"	[wām]

Constraints on word-internal consonant clusters usually prevent this leading to ambiguity, except when the *n* would be word-final without even a following glottalisation mark. In that event *n* marking nasalisation is written double:

<i>genn</i>	<i>gēññ</i>	"get tired"	[gǣ]
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The orthography does mislead with prefixes 16 ending in nasal consonants:

<i>duuduug</i>	<i>dùndùug</i>	"cobra"	[duudu:g]
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The 2016 reform has abandoned the doubling of word-final *-n*, introducing new ambiguities: cf *kɛn*: perfective *kēñ* [kʰǣ] "come", gerund *kēn* [kʰɛn].

Older orthography writes *e o* for *ε ɔ*, *i* for both [i] and [ɪ], *u* for both [u] and [ʊ]. The 2016 orthography introduces *ε ɔ ʊ* with the same usage as in this grammar: *buvug* = *būvug*^a "goat", *gel* = *gél*^{le} "egg", *bɔk* = *bòk*^o "hole", for older *buug*, *gel*, *bok*. It still fails to distinguish [i]~[ɪ]: *tiig* = *tìig*^a "tree." The diphthong [aɪ] is usually written *aaɛ*, and *e* is sometimes used for short [ɪ] in root syllables.

As in this grammar, *e o* are used non-initially in diphthongs for [ɪ] [ʊ]:

<i>di'e</i>	<i>dīʔe</i>	"receive"	[dɪ̣]
<i>paae</i>	<i>pāe</i>	"reach"	[pʰaɪ]

<i>beog/beog</i>	<i>bēog</i>	"tomorrow"	[bɛʊg]
<i>daug/daug</i>	<i>dāug</i>	"male"	[daʊg]
1976: <i>kpi'oŋ</i>	<i>kpī'oŋ</i>	"strong"	[kpīoŋ]
1996: <i>kpi'euŋ</i>			
2016: <i>kpi'ʊŋ</i>			

The phonemic monophthongs *iə uə* are written respectively as *ie uo*:

<i>pielig</i>	<i>pīəlɪg</i>	"white"	[pʰīəlɪg]
<i>bu'os</i>	<i>bū'əs</i>	"ask"	[būəs]

ie uo are also used to write the phonemic *diphthongs ie uo*, but ambiguity is only marginal, because [iɪ] [ʊʊ] only appear word-finally and in [iɪ], while *iə uə* only appear word-internally before consonants (and in external sandhi [9.1.3](#)):

<i>di'e</i>	<i>dī'e</i>	"receive"	[dɪ̄i]
<i>zu o</i>	<i>zū·ó</i>	"steal him"	[zuʊ]

The 2016 orthography writes word-final *-ue* [ʊɪ] as *-uoe* (and similarly for the nasalised and glottalised equivalents): *duoe* = *dūe*^{+/} "raise, rise."

Traditional orthography does not mark length in diphthongs consistently, but this is largely predictable [5.2.3](#), and the writing of *aae* for unglottalised [aɪ] versus *ae* for [aɪ̣] resolves most ambiguity:

<i>paae</i>	<i>pāe</i>	"reach"	[pʰaɪ]
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Word-medially, there is ambiguity only with *aʊŋ* ~ *auŋ*:

<i>gbaʊŋ</i>	<i>gbāʊŋ</i>	"skin"	[g̃baʊŋ]
<i>mangaʊŋ</i>	<i>màngāʊŋ</i>	"crab"	[maŋgaʊŋ]

ja ʊa, the short monophthongs corresponding to long *iə uə*, are written *ia ua* traditionally, identically to the long diphthongs *ia ua*. Long *ia ua* cannot occur medially, but ambiguity is possible word-finally:

<i>kia</i>	<i>kjà</i>	"cut"	[kʰīa]
<i>sia</i>	<i>sīa</i>	"waist"	[sia]
<i>kua</i>	<i>kūā</i>	"hoe"	[kʰūā]
<i>sabua</i>	<i>sàbùā</i>	"lover"	[sabua]

These are, however, the only examples in my data of unglottalised final *ja* *ya*: [j̥a] and [j̥a] are distinguished as *i'a ia'*, and short [ɤ̥a] is usually written *o'a*:

<i>kpi'a</i>	<i>kpi'ṛa⁺</i>	"neighbour"	[k̥pi̯a]
<i>kpia'</i>	<i>kpi̯à'ṛ⁺</i>	"shape wood"	[k̥pi̯a]
<i>po'a</i>	<i>pu'ṛā^a</i>	"woman"	[p ^h ɤ̯a]

Traditional orthography for *aɛ ɔɛ ʊɛ uɪ* versus the short vowels *a ɔ ʊ u* before *-y-* is as in the orthography of this grammar [7.3.2]; the NT writes *būn-vúyà* "living things" as *bunvoeya*, however.

After the low root vowels *a* and *o*, epenthetic *ɪ* is quite often written *e*:

<i>sarega</i>	<i>sāriḡá</i>	"prison"	[sarɪga]
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Consonantal orthography is generally as in this grammar. However, *ll mm nn* are very often written single; this is almost invariable before epenthetic vowels [7.2.1.3.1] and frequent before downranked vowels preceding Liaison [9.3.1]. The 1996 NT marks gemination more reliably, especially before LF-final vowels. So for Mk 6:34 "sheep which do not have a shepherd":

1976: <i>pe'is bane ka'a kobkema</i>	<i>pē'ɛs bání k̄ā kóñb-kĩmma</i>
1996: <i>pe'es bane ka'a pe'ekemma</i>	<i>pē'ɛs bání k̄ā' pē'ɛ-kímmā</i>

2.1.2 Other Issues

Some NT spellings must reflect actual **variant forms**:

<u>New Testament</u>	<u>WK's forms</u>	<u>Toende Kusaal</u>	
<i>Wina'am</i>	<i>Wínnà'ṛam</i>	<i>Wínā'am</i>	"God"
<i>faangid</i>	<i>fāañd</i>	<i>fāagɪt</i>	"saviour"
<i>faangir</i>	<i>fāañr</i>	<i>fāagɪt</i>	"salvation"
<i>malek</i>	<i>màljāk</i>	<i>màlék</i>	"angel"
<i>aaruŋ</i>	<i>añrvŋ</i>	<i>āarùŋ</i>	"boat"
<i>nyain</i>	<i>ñyāe</i>	<i>yāí</i>	"brightly"

Apart from *nyain*, and perhaps *aaruŋ*, the NT forms are loans [20.1].

Wínà'ṛam fāañḡíd fāañḡír mālĒk añrvŋ ñyāe are used when transliterating NT passages. The audio version of the NT seems always to have *añrvŋ ñyāe*, and usually *màljāk*; but *fāañḡíd fāañḡír* have become independent words in NT usage, avoiding the homophony with *fāañd* "robber" and *fāañr* "robbery."

Traditional **word division** differs somewhat from that adopted in this grammar. Beside the issues discussed in [3.3](#), Focus-*nē*^{+/} is always written solid after *à* from *àḗñ*^{ya} "be", and aspectual *nē*^{+/} is usually written solid with a preceding verb:

O ane biig. "He/she's a child."

Ò à nē biig.

3HU COP FOC child:SG.

Bipuŋ la pu kp̄ii, o gb̄isidne.

Bī-púŋ lā pū kp̄íi +∅, ò gb̄isid nē.

Child-girl:SG ART NEG.IND die:PFV NEG, 3HU sleep:IPFV FOC.

"The girl is not dead, she is sleeping." (Mt 9:24)

Nē "with" is written solid after *wēn*^{na/} "resemble":

Ka o nindaā wenne nintāŋ ne.

Kà ò nīn-dāā wēn nē nīntāŋ nē.

And 3HU eye-face:SG resemble with sun:SG like.

"His face is like the sun." (Rev 10:1)

Texts sometimes mistake the stressed [3.4](#) final syllable of a Long Form for a segmentally homophonous particle:

O ku nyāŋe liebi m nya'andol la.

Ò kù ñyāŋe ∅ líbì m ñyà'an-dòllā +∅.

3HU NEG.UNR prevail:PFV SER become:PFV 1SG after-follower:SG NEG.

"He cannot become my disciple." (Lk 14:26)

Arazana ne dunia gaadug pu toe yaa

Àrazánà nē dūnıya gáadùg pū tōeyá +∅.

Heaven with world passing NEG.IND be.difficult NEG.

"The passing of heaven and earth is not difficult" (Lk 16:17)

Foreign proper names in the New Testament are adapted to ordinary Kusaal spelling conventions to a variable degree, with familiar names being most prone to alteration; such adaptation is much commoner in the 1996 than in the 1976 version. There is no systematic relationship between the English pronunciation and the Kusaal renderings, and the audio NT varies in how far the spellings are read with English rather than Kusaal conventions. In transliterating verses I have simply reproduced the orthography of the originals.

3 Words, Morae and Syllables

3.1 Word Classes

The major word classes are **Nominals**, **Quantifiers**, **Adverbs** and **Verbs**. Of these, Nominals and Verbs are open classes. Nominals comprise **Nouns** and **Adjectives**. There are closed classes of **Pronouns**, **Proquantifiers** and **Proadverbs**. Demonstrative, Indefinite and Interrogative pronouns can be used as post-determiners in NPs, and then share with adjectives the characteristic property of following a head noun which appears as a Combining Form, forming a compound in which the last element inflects to show the number of the head [21.6].

All other words are **Particles**. Most particles are bound words; exceptions include *ēñ* "yes" and *áyì* "no." Particles include the article *lā*^{+/} and the deictic *ñwà*⁺ "this", the locative marker *ni*⁺~*n^e*, the various markers of tense, aspect and mood in Verbal Predicators [24], the focus particle *nē*^{+/}, the clause linkers *kà* and *yē*, the serial-VP linker *n*, Complementiser *ñ*, the VP-final particles *nā*^{+/} ""hither" and *sà*⁺ "hence", and a number of clause-level words.

3.2 Apocope

Every Kusaal word which can potentially stand clause finally has two surface forms, which differ in nearly all cases, the **Long Form** (LF) and the **Short Form** (SF.)

For example, "child" appears as the Short Form *bīg* in isolation and in most contexts, including clause finally for the most part, and clause medially everywhere except when followed by a particular set of "Liaison Words" [9.3]:

<i>Ò à nē bīg.</i>	"She's a child."
3HU COP FOC child:SG.	
<i>Ò dāa ñyē bīg.</i>	"She saw a child."
3HU TNS see:PFV child:SG.	
<i>bīg lā nú'ùg</i>	"the child's hand"
child:SG ART hand:SG	

The Long Form (here, *bīga*) is found in the final word of

Clauses with a **negation** (negative particle or negative verb)
Questions, both content and polar
 Phrases used as **vocatives**

Ò *kāʔ bīga* +∅. "He/she is not a child."
3HU NEG.BE child:SG NEG.

Ò *dāa pō ñyē bīga* +∅.
3HU TNS NEG.IND see:PFV child:SG NEG.
 "He/she did not see a child."

Ànóʔɔ̀nì_∅ *dāa ñyē bīgà* +∅?
 Who **SER TNS see:PFV child:SG CQ?**
 "Who saw a child?"

Ì *bīga* +∅! "My child!"
1SG child:SG VOC!

The Long Form also appears as a **derivational** feature in the *citation* form of some words [7.4]. In proverbs and other archaic materials, a LF may be found ending a *yàʔ*-clause [32]. Direct commands sometimes end in a LF [30.2.3].

The LF is not predictable in general from the shape of the SF alone (but see [3.2.2]); however, the SF is always deducible from the LF by **Apocope**. The term will be used throughout this grammar to refer exclusively to this specific process.

A final long vowel is shortened and a final short vowel is deleted.
 Final diphthongs shorten by one mora.

Further changes then occur to the resulting Short Form:
 Word-final consonant clusters drop the second consonant.
 (*kk tt pp ηη* become *k t p η* but are *written* single in any case [2].)
 Word-final *y* is dropped.

Shortening of final diphthongs under Apocope. Changes apply identically to nasalised and/or glottalised diphthongs.

<i>ia</i> → <i>ja</i>	<i>ua</i> → <i>ɥa</i>	<i>jaʔa</i> → <i>aʔ</i>	<i>ɥʔaa</i> → <i>ɥʔa</i>
<i>ae</i> → <i>aɛ</i>	<i>av</i> → <i>aɥ</i>	<i>ui</i> → <i>uj</i>	
<i>Vaa</i> → <i>Va</i>	<i>Vee</i> → <i>Ve</i>	<i>Vuv</i> → <i>Vv</i>	

Apocope is treated in this grammar as a single process, but historically the matter was certainly more complex. Comparison with other Western Oti-Volta languages and internal evidence both suggest that loss of final vowel quality contrasts preceded complete vowel deletion clause-internally. Clause-internal total deletion (seen also in Mooré) was probably itself a stress-related process distinct from the clause-final Apocope characteristic of Kusaal, Nabit and Talni.

Examples:

<i>Lì à nē kūk.</i>	"It's a chair."
3NH COP FOC chair:SG.	
<i>Kūk lā bódìg yā.</i>	"The chair has got lost."
Chair:SG ART get.lost:PFV INDEP.	
<i>Lì kāʔ kūka. +∅.</i>	"It's not a chair."
3NH NEG.BE chair:SG NEG.	
<i>Lì à nē kúkà +∅?</i>	"Is it a chair?"
3NH COP FOC chair:SG PQ?	
<i>Ànɔʔɔnì_∅ ñyē kúkà +∅?</i>	
Who SER see:PFV chair:SG CQ?	
"Who saw a chair?"	

Similarly, with the same frames (with *ò* **3HU** "he/she" for *lì* **3NH** "it" as appropriate):

<i>Lì à nē dūk.</i>	"It's a cooking pot."
<i>Dūk lā bódìg yā.</i>	"The pot's got lost."
<i>Lì kāʔ dūkó.</i>	"It's not a pot." /kk/
<i>Lì à nē dūkóo?</i>	"Is it a pot?"
<i>Ànɔʔɔnì ñyē dūkó?</i>	"Who saw a pot?"
<i>Lì à nē gbīgum.</i>	"It's a lion."
<i>Lì kāʔ gbīgumne.</i>	"It's not a lion."
<i>Lì à nē gbìgìmnee?</i>	"Is it a lion?"
<i>Ànɔʔɔnì ñyē gbìgìmne?</i>	"Who saw a lion?"

<i>Lì à nē yáarìm.</i>	"It's salt."
<i>Lì k̄āʔ yáarĩmm.</i>	"It's not salt."
<i>Lì à nē yáarĩmmʔ</i>	"Is it salt?"
<i>Ànóʔɔ̀nì ñyē yáarĩmmʔ</i>	"Who saw salt?"
<i>Bà à nē gbīgɪma.</i>	"They're lions."
<i>Bà k̄āʔ gbīgɪmaa.</i>	"They're not lions."
<i>Bà à nē gbígɪmàaʔ</i>	"Are they lions?"
<i>Ànóʔɔ̀nì ñyē gbígɪmàʔ</i>	"Who saw lions?"
<i>Ò à nē dāu.</i>	"He's a man."
<i>Ò k̄āʔ dāu.</i>	"He's not a man."
<i>Ò à nē dáùʔ</i>	"Is he a man?"
<i>Ànóʔɔ̀nì ñyē dāuʔ</i>	"Who saw a man?"
<i>Ò à nē sāeñ.</i>	"He's a blacksmith."
<i>Ò k̄āʔ sāeñ.</i>	"He's not a blacksmith."
<i>Ò à nē sáèeñʔ</i>	"Is he a blacksmith?"
<i>Ànóʔɔ̀nì ñyē sáeñʔ</i>	"Who saw a blacksmith?"
<i>Lì à nē múj.</i>	"It's rice."
<i>Lì k̄āʔ múj.</i>	"It's not rice."
<i>Lì à nē mújìʔ</i>	"Is it rice?"
<i>Ànóʔɔ̀nì ñyē mújìʔ</i>	"Who saw rice?"
With verbal forms:	
<i>Kà ò sjàk.</i>	"And he agreed."
And 3HU agree:PFV.	
<i>Ò p̄w̄ sjàkē +∅.</i>	"He didn't agree."
3HU NEG.IND agree:PFV NEG.	
<i>Kà ò dīgi.</i>	"And she's lying down."
And 3HU be.lying.	
<i>Ò p̄w̄ dīgiyá +∅.</i>	"She isn't lying down."
3HU NEG.IND be.lying NEG.	

<i>Kà ò vū̄.</i>	"And she's alive."
<i>Ò p̄ vū̄yá.</i>	"She's not alive."
<i>Kà ò k̄yā.</i>	"And he farmed."
<i>Ò p̄ k̄yā.</i>	"He hasn't farmed."
<i>Kà ò k̄já.</i>	"And she cut (it)."
<i>Ò p̄ k̄já.</i>	"She hasn't cut (it)."
<i>Kà ò p̄āe.</i>	"And he reached (it)."
<i>Ò p̄ p̄āee.</i>	"He hasn't reached (it)."

The derivational type of Long Form appears in many adverbs and quantifiers:
Adjective *bédvug* "big":

<i>Lì à nē b̄n-bédvug.</i>	"It's a big thing."
3NH COP FOC thing-big:SG.	
<i>Lì k̄ā? b̄n-bédvugō +∅.</i>	"It's not a big thing."
3NH NEG.BE thing-big:SG NEG.	

Adverb *bédvugō* "a lot":

<i>M̄ p̄ú?òs yā bédvugō.</i>	"Thank you very much."
1SG greet:PFV INDEP much.	

3.2.1 Superscript Notation

As the examples above show, the exact shape of a surface Long Form differs in different contexts. Final vowel length distinctions are neutralised in questions; final tones differ at the end of questions from those at the end of negative clauses; the clause-final LF types show lowering of final short *ɪ* *ʊ* to [e] [o], written *e* *o*, whereas the LFs found as derived forms preserve the *ɪ* *ʊ* as such.

These differences will be regarded as changes produced in the form of the Long Form by following particles. The clause-final LF types will be regarded as induced by one of three following **Prosodic Clitics** [9.2]. Prosodic Clitics have no segmental form of their own but cause the preceding word to appear as a LF rather than the default SF. They produce segmental and tonal changes in the preceding LF. The derivational forms are regarded as showing **Apocope Blocking** [7.4].

The Long Form is thus a convenient abstraction, representing the underlying word-form which produces the surface SF through Apocope, and the various surface LFs through application of the rules for each type of clitic.

Words in isolation will be cited in **Superscript Notation**, writing the portion of the LF which does not appear in the SF as a following superscript:

<i>bīg</i> ^a	"child"	<i>kōk</i> ^a	"chair"
<i>dōk</i> ^{o/}	"pot"	<i>sjàk</i> ^e	"agree"
<i>gbīgim</i> ^{ne}	"lion"	<i>yàarim</i> ^m	"salt"
<i>dīgi</i> ^{ya/}	"be lying down"	<i>zì'e</i> ^{ya}	"be standing"

When the LF ends in a long vowel or diphthong, Superscript Notation writes the SF followed by the mark ⁺⁶:

<i>gbīgima</i> ⁺	"lions"	SF <i>gbīgima</i>	LF <i>gbīgimaa</i>
<i>kūgá</i> ⁺	"stones"	SF <i>kūgá</i>	LF <i>kūgáa</i>
<i>mòli</i> ⁺	"gazelles"	SF <i>mòli</i>	LF <i>mòliu</i>
<i>gòñ</i> ⁺	"hunt"	SF <i>gòñ</i>	LF <i>gòcòñ</i>
<i>tìeñ</i> ⁺	"inform"	SF <i>tìeñ</i>	LF <i>tìeeñ</i>
<i>kjà</i> ⁺	"cut"	SF <i>kjà</i>	LF <i>kìa</i>
<i>kūā</i> ⁺	"hoe"	SF <i>kūā</i>	LF <i>kūa</i>
<i>dāu</i> ⁺	"man"	SF <i>dāu</i>	LF <i>dāv</i>
<i>sāeñ</i> ⁺	"blacksmith"	SF <i>sāeñ</i>	LF <i>sāeñ</i>

However, words ending in LF *ja[?]a u[?]aa* are written with superscript ^a rather than ⁺ to distinguish them from words ending in LF *i[?]a u[?]a*:

	<i>kpjà</i> [?] ⁺	"shape wood"	SF <i>kpjà</i> [?]	LF <i>kpì[?]a</i>
but	<i>djà</i> ^a	"get dirty"	SF <i>djà</i> [?]	LF <i>djà[?]a</i>
	<i>kūā</i> ⁺	"hoe"	SF <i>kūā</i>	LF <i>kūa</i>
but	<i>pu[?]ā^a</i>	"woman"	SF <i>pu[?]ā</i>	LF <i>pu[?]āa</i>

This is the only case in which ^a does not follow a consonant symbol.

Words with SFs ending in *ɛ* which are written with a following superscript ^{ya} follow the normal rule, but see [5.2.3](#) for the realisation of the LF:

6) This use of ⁺ exploits the extent to which LFs can be predicted synchronically from SFs [3.2.2](#). More radical simplifications could be made: ⁺ ^e ^m = are in complementary distribution, as are ^a ^{ya}. Separate symbols are used for clarity.

vōē^{ya/} "be alive" LF *vōēyá* [vɔja]

Words with segmentally identical SF and LF and are written with =:

dàʔa⁼ "market"

In the few cases where Superscript Notation is impractical, the forms will be written out separately, e.g. *pāmm* SF *pāmné* LF "a lot."

Superscript Notation writes forms as they appear before Prosodic Clitics 9.2, but without the specific tonal or length-neutralising changes induced by any particular clitic. The forms thus show the change of underlying LF-final short *ɪ* *ʊ* to *e* *o* [e] [o] (not seen in words with Apocope Blocking), and also show the change of final **mv* and **mi* to *-mm* (not seen in the modified LFs which precede Liaison 9.3.1.)

Acute tone marks / following a word in Superscript Notation are to be placed on the last vocalic mora of the LF permitted to carry a toneme (i.e. not non-vocalic *m* nor the final mora of a vowel sequence 9.2):

<i>fūug</i> ^{o/}	"shirt, clothes"	SF <i>fūug</i>	LF <i>fūugó</i>
<i>pāe</i> ^{+/}	"reach"	SF <i>pāe</i>	LF <i>pāée</i>
<i>nūa</i> ^{+/}	"hen"	SF <i>nūa</i>	LF <i>nūáa</i>
<i>yā</i> ^{+/}	"houses"	SF <i>yā</i>	LF <i>yáa</i>
<i>lā</i> ^{+/}	article 21.3	SF <i>lā</i>	LF <i>láa</i>
<i>bèdvugō</i> ^{+/}	"a lot"	SF <i>bèdvugō</i>	LF <i>bèdvugúv</i>
<i>gāañ</i> ^{=/}	"Nigerian ebony"	SF <i>gāañ</i>	LF <i>gáañ</i>
<i>dāam</i> ^{m/}	"millet beer"	SF <i>dāam</i>	LF <i>dáamm</i>
<i>tāyũ</i> ^{+/}	"opposite-sex sib"	SF <i>tāyũ</i>	LF <i>táyũ</i>

Words like *náaf*^o and *núʔug*^o coincide tonally in the surface LF because of H Spreading 6.2.1; they are written in Superscript Notation with the SF tonemes.

Lì à nē núʔug. "It's a hand."
3NH COP FOC hand:SG.

Lì à nē náaf. "It's a cow."
3NH COP FOC COW:SG.

Lì kãʔ núʔugō +∅. "It's not a hand."
3NH NEG.BE hand:SG NEG.

Lì kãʔ náafō +∅. "It's not a cow."
3NH NEG.BE COW:SG NEG.

3.2.2 Predictability of Long Forms

The Long Form can usually be predicted from the Short Form given the natural gender (for a nominal) or the aspect (for a verb), and historically expected forms may be replaced by such predicted forms, either as variants or in all cases. This raises questions about the psychological reality of LFs as underlying word forms. For simplicity, the LF is treated as synchronically primary (as it certainly is historically), but the matter merits discussion.

Synchronic primacy of the LF seems assured by the fact that Apocope entails the loss of the contrast between Tone Patterns H and O in sg/pl forms of nominals with stems of one or two morae. Cases where LFs lack contrasts present in SFs can be explained straightforwardly as due to a late tone realisation rule [6.2.1]. However, Tone Patterns are best described synchronically as suprasegmental stem features [8.1], so this does not clinch the matter.

Apocope frequently does *not* lead to loss of segmental contrasts despite deleting segments which condition preceding sound changes; instead, the changes remain in place and themselves become contrastive. Words completely deleted by Apocope remain recognisable from their effects on preceding words [3.3.3]. Word-internal rounding and fronting induced by segments lost to Apocope create two series of diphthongs [7.3.2] and a rounded/unrounded contrast in epenthetic vowels [5.3], and working in reverse, such features can predict LFs from SFs.

Nevertheless, the mere form of a SF ending in a consonant does not in general suffice to predict the LF. The LF may show any of three distinct affix vowels; if the SF final consonant is *m n* or *l* it may or may not be geminated; SF-final *-m* may become the cluster *-mn-* instead of *-mm-*. However, if a SF is identified as a nominal and its natural gender is given, it can usually be correctly ascribed to a noun class with the appropriate LF [11.1], and there are also clear instances where the LF historically expected for one flexion has been replaced by the LF of a different flexion with the same SF: see on the nominal Subclasses *r^e|b^a* [11.3.1.1] and *g^o|s^e* [11.3.2.1]. With verbs, if the aspect is specified, the matter is simple: perfectives end in *-mm* if the SF ends in *-m* and in *-e* in all other cases; imperfectives invariably end in *-a* with gemination of preceding *n l* and with final *m* becoming *-mma* or *-mna*. My informants have *-mma* in all finite verb forms, with *-mn-* confined to sg nominal forms with LF-final *-mne*; some have *-mm* in this case too: *-mme*. The NT has one or two instances of *-mna* in Variable Verb imperfectives:

...kà p̄ t̄umnā.

"...and does not work." (2 Thess 3:11, 1996, written *ka pu tum na* [2.1.2]; 1976 *ka pu tuma.*)

The default LF ending corresponding to SFs ending in a consonant is -e. Thus with loans like *tīlās*^e "necessity", cf Hausa *tiilàs* id, and in e.g.

Li pu nar ye fu di fu ba'abiig po'a Herodiase.

Lì p̄ nār yé fù dí fù bāʔ-bîg p̄ʔá Herodiase +∅.

3NH NEG.IND must that **2SG** take **2SG** father-child:**SG** wife:**SG** Herodias **NEG.**

"It's not right for you to marry your brother's wife Herodias." (Mt 14:4)

LFs corresponding to SFs ending in a vowel are highly predictable.

Almost all such words **except Invariable Verbs** have LFs which can be obtained segmentally by lengthening the final vowel or diphthong:

<i>sīa</i> ⁺	"waist"	<i>sàbùa</i> ⁺	"girlfriend"
<i>bāa</i> ⁼	"dog" 9.2	<i>pāe</i> ^{+/}	"reach"
<i>nìe</i> ⁺	"appear"	<i>dūe</i> ^{+/}	"raise/rise"
<i>kūgá</i> ⁺	"stones"	<i>wìdì</i> ⁺	"horses"
<i>kū</i> ⁺	"kill"	<i>mà</i> ⁺	"mother"

This applies also in cases where a LF long vowel is historically unexpected:

<i>djā</i> ^{ʔa}	"get dirty"	← * <i>djagi</i> 7.1.1.1	Farefare	<i>dēgē</i>
<i>pjāñ</i> ^{ʔa}	"speak, praise"	← * <i>pjāgi</i>	Farefare	<i>pěgě</i>
<i>dɔ</i> ^{ʔà}	"bear, beget"	← * <i>dɔgi</i>	Farefare	<i>dògè</i>
<i>zò</i> ⁺	"run"	7.1.1.1	Farefare	<i>zòè</i>

contrasting with the Invariable Verb *kā*^{ʔe} ← **kagi* "not be." However, it is not possible to determine which long vowel should be chosen for the LF in the case of words ending in *ja*^ʔ like *djā*^{ʔa} "get dirty" versus *kpjā*^{ʔ+} "shape wood." (The gerund *kpī*^{ʔəb}⁰ confirms the 2-mora stem; Toende *dàkpé'ét* "carpenter" = *dà-kpī*^{ʔəd}^a confirms the glottalisation.) Either the neutralisation of final *i*^{ʔa} and *ja*^{ʔa} by Apocope or the deletion of **g* after short vowels may be late rules 3.5.

Two ^a|^b Class nouns show alternate forms for different speakers:

<i>sāeñ</i>	"blacksmith"	LF <i>sāeñ</i>	WK
		LF <i>sāeñya</i>	DK
<i>sōeñ</i>	"witch"	LF <i>sōeñ</i>	WK
		LF <i>sōeñya</i>	DK

The LF forms *sāeñ sōeñ* are likely to be new formations created by prolonging the diphthongs of the singulars under the general rule, while in

<i>dāy</i> ⁺	"man"	LF <i>dāv</i>
<i>tāyñ</i> ⁺	"opposite-sex sib"	LF <i>tāvñ</i>

an earlier **dawa* **tañwa* have been altogether supplanted; compare Mooré *raoa* "man", pl *raopa*. See further [7.1.1.1] on roots of the shape **CVY* **CVW*.

The form taken before Prosodic Clitics by words with Apocope Blocking is similarly formed by prolonging the final SF vowel [7.4].

There is one regular class of exceptions to the general rule for vowel-final SFs: **Invariable Verbs** [13.2], apart from four bare-root verbs, invariably have LFs ending in *-a* before Prosodic Clitics:

<i>dīg</i> ^{ya/}	"be lying down"
<i>wà[?]e</i> ^{ya}	"be en route for"
<i>vūe</i> ^{ya/}	"be alive"
<i>sū[?]e</i> ^{ya/}	"own"

Before Liaison, the forms follow the analogy of Variable Verbs, first prolonging any final short diphthong and then applying phrase-medial loss of fronting [9.1.3]:

<i>sū[?]e</i> ^{ya/}	"own"	+ <i>l</i> ⁺	"it"	→	<i>sū[?]ú l̄</i> ^{+/}
<i>vūe</i> ^{ya/}	"live"	+ <i>n</i> ^e	rem	→	<i>vūun</i> ^{e/}

If the suffix *-ya* of Invariable Verbs reflects historical **na* or **la* [13.2.1], the forms before Liaison might have been expected to end in *-ni* or *-li*, and the actual forms would necessarily have to be attributed to analogy; but even if the suffix is simply taken as *-ya*, an explanation from analogy is more straightforward than setting up a phonological rule $V(:)y_l \rightarrow V:$ for this sole case.

The NT here shows *so'e li* (Acts 4:32) and *voen* (Gal 3:21), but this is probably due to graphic convention [9.1.3].

The exceptions thus form a highly distinctive group semantically and syntactically. Evidence that this the determining factor is provided by the word

<i>làbi</i> ^{ya}	"be crouching, hiding behind something"
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compared with Hausa *labèè* "crouch behind something to eavesdrop", where the coincidence of form with such a highly specific meaning seems to guarantee that the Kusaal word is a loan (though not necessarily from Hausa itself: see [20.1].) In that case, it must have acquired its LF in *-ya* by analogy with other Invariable Verbs.

With Long Forms before Liaison [9.3.1] [9.3.2] the quality of the affix vowels is neutralised, and the question of predictability arises all the more acutely. However,

the same problems arise with respect to the vowel in verbs like *djā*^a "get dirty" versus *kpjà*^a "shape wood with an axe", and with gemination of // *mm nn*:

Dòllíní _̣ *m!*

Follow:**2PLS 1SGO!**

"Follow ye me!"

ba wusa kalli a si'em

bà wūsa kállí _̣ *∅ à sīʔəm*

3PL all number:**SG COMP COP INDF.ADV**

"how much all their number is" (Lk 12:7)

Li ya'a aane m meŋ gaŋir ka m tummin tuum kaŋa

Lì yáʔ àānī _̣ *ṁ mēŋ gáŋìr kà ṁ túmmīn túùm-kàŋā*

3NH if **COP:REM 1SG** self choice and **1SG** work:**IPFV:REM** work-**DEML.SG**,

"If it were my own choice that I was doing this work, I would be getting pay."

(1 Cor 9:17, 1976)

As with *-mna* before Prosodic Clitics, *-mn-* is not found in finite verb forms with my informants, but there are examples in the NT:

ka ban ka kikirbe'ednam daamne ba daa nye laafiya

kà bàn kà kìkìr-béʔèd-nàm dáàmñī _̣ *bá dāa ñyē láafiya*

and **DEM.PL** and fairy-bad-**PL** trouble:**IPFV 3PLO TNS** see:**PFV** health

"And people who were afflicted by evil spirits became well." (Lk 6:18, 1976)

The *daamne ba* of the text must represent *daamni ba*, because *dàam* "trouble" takes a direct object, not a phrase with *nē* "with", and the focus particle *nē*^{+/} is not permissible within an *ṁ*-Clause [34.1.1.2].

For my informants all cases can be accounted for by the generalisation that SF-final *m n l* are geminated in the LF in all imperfective verb forms, before Liaison just as before Prosodic Clitics.

Further evidence that forms preceding Liaison represent LFs, not adapted SFs, is provided by the particles *kà* and *yē*. These are intrinsically CV, and not reduced from CV: by Apocope; they do not prolong their vowels before Liaison Words [9.3.2], showing that long vowels before liaison cannot be attributed to an automatic rule of prolongation.

3.3 Word Division

Free words fulfil the concept of "word" expressed in Bloomfield 1926: "A minimum free form is a word. A word is thus a form which may be uttered alone (with meaning) but cannot be analyzed into parts that may (all of them) be uttered alone (with meaning.)" This definition excludes words like the English *the* and the Kusaal article *lā*^{+/}. In this grammar the term **clitic word** includes every minimal bound form other than a flexion that is *meaningful at a level higher than the derivational*. This grants clitic status to the article, to the bound pronouns and particles seen in the VP, NP, AdvP and clause, and also to the *open* class of nominal combining forms, but denies it to prefixes. The distinction between clitics and flexions is made along the lines suggested in Zwicky and Pullum 1983.

The orthography follows traditional word-division conventions in a number of areas where this does not correspond to the grammatical analysis. Problematic areas relate to compound Noun Phrases and to Liaison Enclitics.

3.3.1 Compound Noun Phrases

Kusaal is typical of the Oti-Volta languages in constantly using compounds within NP structure, often where most languages would employ independent nominals [21.6]. The first element is a nominal "Combining Form" (cb [11.1]), part of the regular paradigm of the open class of nominals, and typically a bare stem which has undergone word-final Apocope. Such Combining Forms occur freely and productively as pre-modifiers of following nouns, producing compounds of a type familiar in Indoeuropean languages, such as

<i>zīm-gbáñ'əd</i>	"fisherman"	(<i>zīij</i> "fish")
<i>wāb-kúùd</i>	"elephant-killer"	(<i>wābug</i> "elephant")
<i>bì-fūug</i>	"children's shirt"	(<i>bīig</i> "child")
	(i.e. suitable for children, child-sized)	

Specialised meanings are common:

<i>py'ə-sā'am</i>	"adulterer", literally "wife-spoiler"
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Besides this, Kusaal forms with complete freedom compounds where the preceding combining form is the head, and the following nominal is a dependent. This is the normal construction for both adjectives and post-determining pronouns:

<i>būug</i>	"goat"
<i>bù-piəliɔ</i>	"white goat"

<i>bù-kàṅā</i>	"this goat"
<i>bù-piəl-kàṅā</i>	"this white goat"
<i>wāb-píəlìg</i>	"white elephant"
<i>wāb-títā'ar</i>	"big elephant"

There is no phonological difference between head-initial and modifier-initial compounds (the tonal sandhi rules, for example, are identical [10.3.1](#) [10.1](#)).

Compounds are hyphenated in this grammar; traditionally, they are written solid, whether the first element is dependent or head, unless the cb is segmentally identical with the singular, when it is written as a separate word:

<i>zimḡban'ad</i>	<i>zīm-gbáñ'əd</i>	"fisherman"
<i>bukaṅa</i>	<i>bù-kàṅā</i>	"this goat"
<i>yamug bipuḡ</i>	<i>yàmmug-bī-púḡ</i>	"slave girl"
		(Acts 16:16, 1976) 11.2.2

Combining forms are, however, not word fragments but clitic words, and compounds are not single words but a particular type of noun *phrase*. This accords with the structure of the language, in which compounding occurs continually where other languages would use un-compounded phrases. Compounds may even incorporate un-compounded elements [21.6.1](#):

<i>[ānzúru fà lá' -]māan</i>	"silversmith" ("[silver goods]-maker")
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Nominals with prefixes, loanwords, and unanalysable stems are written solid:

<i>kpùkpàriḡ</i>	"palm tree"
<i>títā'ar</i>	"big"
<i>wāb-títā'ar</i>	"big elephant"
<i>Ñwāmpūri</i>	"Mampruli"
<i>bòrkìn</i>	"honest person"

Distinguishing between a combining form and a prefix is not always straightforward, and the decision whether to spell with a hyphen can turn on no more than etymological ingenuity in some cases [16.4](#).

apart from tone. In such cases the particles are represented by \emptyset in the second line of the interlinear glosses.

tīnámì_∅ zàb nà'ab lā
1PL COMP fight:PFV chief:SG ART
 "our having fought the chief" (*ḥ*-Clause)

Tīnámì_∅ záb nà'ab lā.
1PL SER fight:PFV chief:SG ART
 "We fought the chief." (*n*-focus)

m̄ zūgú_∅ zàbɪd lā zúg
1SG head:SG COMP fight:IPFV ART upon
 "because my head hurts"

M̄ zūgυ_∅ zábìd.
1SG head:SG SER fight:IPFV.
 "My head hurts."

Two clitic object pronouns are reduced by Apocope to forms without any vowel. The LF of the 2sg pronoun is written as a separate word:

M pu boodi fo. "I don't love you."
M̄ pū bɔ́ɔdī_ fɔ́ +∅.
1SG NEG.IND want 2SGO NEG.

I maintain this separation with the SF, but the orthography of 2016 writes the pronoun solid with the preceding verb, and the traditional orthography previously separated the final mora of the verb and joined it to the pronoun, creating spurious pronouns *if uf*.

2016 *M boodif.* "I love you." [m̄bɔ:dɪf]

1996 *M bood if.*
M̄ bɔ́ɔdī_ f.
1SG want 2SGO.

M nye uf. "I've seen you." [m̄jěõf]
M̄ ñyéō_ f.
1SG see:PFV 2SGO.

M gban'e uf.

"I've grabbed you."

[mḡbãǽǿf]

M gbáñ'ō f.

(See 9.1.3 for the -e)

1SG seize:PFV 2SGO.

The 3rd person singular human gender pronoun ^o [ɔ] "him/her" loses its entire segmental form when subject to Apocope 3.2, after causing the host final vowel mora to become [ɔ]; this rounded final mora remains to signal the silent presence of the pronoun. This LF-final vowel has traditionally been mistaken for the pronoun itself and written as a separate word. As a concession to tradition, the final vowel mora will be separated from the rest of the host by a raised point ·o. This always represents [ɔ] in the Short Form; in the Long Form the rounded LF-final mora unites with the [ɔ] of the pronoun to form long [ɔ:]. The LF will be written as ending in ·oo.

<i>bòɔda</i>	"wants"	+ ^o	"him" →	<i>bòɔd·óo</i>	(SF <i>bòɔd·ō</i>)
<i>kia</i>	"cut"	+ ^o	"him" →	<i>kì·òo</i>	(SF <i>kì·ò</i>)
<i>ñyēē</i>	"see"	+ ^o	"him" →	<i>ñyē·óo</i>	(SF <i>ñyē·ó</i>)

Fu bood o.

"You love her."

[fɔbɔ:dɔ]

Fò bɔɔd·ō ∅.

2SG want 3HUO.

Fu pu bood oo.

"You don't love her."

[fɔp^hɔbɔ:dɔ:]

Fò pū bɔɔd·óo +∅.

2SG NEG.IND want:3HUO NEG.

Fu nye o.

"You've seen her."

[fɔjǽō]

Fò ñyē·ō ∅.

2SG see:PFV 3HUO.

Fu pu nye oo.

"You've not seen her."

[fɔp^hɔjǽō:]

Fò pū ñyē·óo +∅.

2SG NEG.IND see:PFV:3HUO NEG.

The Locative enclitic *n^e*, the Modal Remoteness marker *n^e*, and the enclitic 2pl subject pronoun *y^a* after imperatives 9.3.1 are also reduced to vowellessness by Apocope. They are traditionally written solid with the preceding word, as if they were flexions, and this convention is also followed in this grammar. However, the segmental and tonal changes involved with these particles are of the same nature as those seen with object pronouns, and they follow (allomorphs of) complete words. The enclitic 2pl subject *y^a* is in complementary distribution with the proclitic subject pronoun *yà* for my informants (though not for all speakers 30.2.3) and the Locative

Liaison Enclitic n^e is in complementary distribution with the ordinary enclitic particle ni [22.3]. Although the status of all Liaison Enclitics, including object pronouns, as separate *phonological* words is equivocal, as the evidence is entirely tonal [6.2.1], morphosyntactically all these enclitics are clearly words, not flexions.

SF	<i>p̄ovgʊn</i>	"inside"
LF	<i>p̄ovgʊné</i>	
	inside:SG:LOC	
	<i>b̄ovd̄n</i>	"might wish"
	want:REM	

The pronoun ya loses its entire segmental form in the SF [3.2], and its presence is revealed only by the word-final $-l$ on the preceding LF:

	<i>ḡovsim^a</i>	"look!"	
SF	<i>ḡovsim̄</i> ∅	"look ye!"	Traditional: <i>gosimi</i>
LF	<i>ḡovsim̄</i> <i>yá</i>	[30.2.3]	Traditional: <i>gosimiya</i>
	Look.at:IMP 2PLS		

3.3.3 Words with Zero Segmental Representation

Three groups of very common words lack all segmental realisation, with their presence only detectable through segmental or tonal effects on preceding words.

Prosodic Clitics [9.2] [3.2.1] cause the preceding word to appear as a LF instead of the usual SF, with different effects on preceding vowel length and tone.

Particles of the form $(C)V$ reduced to zero by Apocope [3.2] are the 3rd Person Singular Human-gender object pronoun o [17.1] and the post-imperative 2nd Person Plural *subject* pronoun ya . They induce tonal changes at the end of a preceding modified LF [10.5], and cause rounding and fronting of the final vowel mora respectively [9.3.1.1]. These effects resemble the word-internal changes dealt with in [7.3.2], but whereas those precede Apocope, the rules producing the allomorphs seen before Liaison use the LF as their input synchronically. The rule sets also differ slightly in their outcomes.

Complementiser \grave{n} and Serialiser n may be realised as [ŋ], but more often appear as segmental zero preceded by a modified LF [9.3.2.1].

All these words appear as ∅ in the first line when interlinear glosses are given. Prosodic Clitics are written as $^+∅$, while the others are written with an undertie symbol $_$ at the end of the preceding word.

3.4 Morae and Syllables

All segments constitute **morae**, except for consonants immediately followed by vowels within the same word; other consonants represent **non-vocalic** morae:

<i>ò</i>	<i>bà</i>			1 mora
<i>ṣn</i>	<i>bùŋ</i>	<i>bāa</i>	<i>kūgá</i>	2 morae
<i>bīig</i>	<i>súʔəŋ</i>	<i>kòlŋ</i>	<i>gbīgum</i>	3 morae
<i>kūgáa</i>	<i>bīiga</i>			3 morae
<i>gbīgumne</i>				4 morae
<i>súʔəŋa</i>	<i>kòlŋa</i>			4 morae (<i>ŋ</i> is /ŋŋ/ 4.2)
<i>dīʔəsídìb</i>	<i>bāŋidìb</i>			5 morae

A vocalic mora followed by a non-vocalic mora in the same word is **closed**; all others are vocalic **open morae**. Vocalic morae are the domain of **tone**, but not all vocalic morae bear a toneme [6.1](#).

Various morphophonemic processes delete underlying stem morae, while leaving the tone contour unaffected [8.2.1.1](#). Stems will in general be referred to as having two, three, or four morae according to the structure *prior* to these deletions.

Stress operates with **syllables**; all vocalic morae form syllables, except for the second morae of 2-mora vowels and diphthongs. Extra-long "diphthongs" are actually disyllabic, with syllable division following the first mora: LF *nū-aá* "hen."

Word stress falls on the root, except in LFs before a Prosodic Clitic, where it falls on the final affix vowel (unless this has been deleted in the surface LF [9.2](#).) Prefixes and combining forms are not stressed.

Monosyllabic words with a short vowel do not have intrinsic stress. This applies not only to clitics, but even to monosyllabic verbal and nominal forms with a short vowel, like *mè* "build" (perfective) *bùŋ* "donkey" *ṣn* "he/she." Monosyllables with a long vowel, like *mèéd* "build" (imperfective) do have intrinsic stress.

Before pause, all intrinsically unstressed words acquire stress, including clitics like the article *lā^{+/}*. Even Liaison Enclitics [9.3.1](#) acquire stress, independent of their host, which retains its own stress.

Stress is important in allotony; downstepping before H tonemes is dependent on syllable structure and stress. See [6.2.2](#) for examples.

In a few cases stress may have shifted from a root to an originally epenthetic vowel, with the root being reinterpreted as a prefix:

<i>dítúŋ^o</i>	[ˈdɪt:ʊŋ]	"right hand", probably a derivative of <i>dì⁺</i> "eat"
<i>dàtìŋ^o</i>	[daˈtʰɪʊŋ]	"right hand"

	<i>bōtɪŋ</i> ^a	['bɔt:ɪŋ]	"cup" (from <i>būd</i> ^e "plant seeds" via the semantic development "planting implement" → "seed cup" → "cup in general")
pl	<i>bōtɪs</i> ^e	[bɔ'tʰɪ:s]	with a wholly exceptional apparent lengthening of an epenthetic vowel [7.2.1]; probably from reanalysis of the sg as nominal prefix <i>bú</i> + stem <i>tɪŋ</i> ^a

3.5 Ordering of Morphophonemic Rules

Agolle Vowel Breaking [5.1.1] and Primary Diphthongs [5.2.3] are part of the underlying word form prior to the application of any rules.

The order within each of the following sets of rules is unimportant, but each set as a whole precedes the next.

- Set 1 Consonant Assimilation/Epenthetic Vowel Insertion [7.2.1]
 Vowel Fusion [7.3.1]
 2-Mora Vowel/Diphthong Reduction [7.3.3] (precedes loss of SF-final y)
 Fronting/Rounding of vowel morae [7.3.2]
- Set 2 **Apocope**
 Simplification of Impermissible Consonant Clusters [7.2.1.1]
- Set 3 External Sandhi [9] [10], including before Prosodic Clitics and Liaison.

Tone Patterns [8.1] are most straightforwardly described as allocating tonemes after Consonant Assimilation/Epenthetic Vowel Insertion and before Simplification of Impermissible Consonant Clusters [7.2.1.1]; the latter rule is therefore placed in Set 2 with Apocope itself. (The reduction of SF-final consonant clusters resulting from Apocope [3.2] could itself be regarded as a simplification of impermissible clusters.)

Toneme allocation also precedes the deletion of *g when there is no following affix vowel [7.3.1], but this deletion does not need ordering with respect to any other segmental rules as it has purely tonal consequences [8.2.1.1].

The tonal overlay of Independency Marking [24.6.1.1] creates a new set of intrinsic tones; this needs only to precede the application of external tone sandhi.

The tonal effects produced by Prosodic Clitics [9.2] and Liaison Enclitics [10.5] occur *prior* to L/M Raising and the effects of Fixed-L words, as is shown by the fact that the all-L tonemes resulting from the effect of the Interrogative Clitic on an all-M word are then subject to L Raising [10.4.2].

Tone *realisation* rules follow all the above toneme-*altering* rules. H Spreading [6.2.1] must precede the insertion of downsteps before H tonemes [6.2.2].

4 Consonants

4.1 Inventory and Symbols

The following consonant symbols are used:

<i>k</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>kp</i>		
<i>g</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>gb</i>		
<i>ŋ</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>m</i>			
	<i>s</i>			<i>f</i>	<i>h</i>
	<i>z</i>			<i>v</i>	
	<i>l</i>				
	<i>r</i>				
		<i>w</i>		<i>y</i>	

These symbols correspond to the consonant phonemes of the language, except that *kp gb* are digraphs for the labiovelar double-closure stops [k̠p̠] [g̠b̠]. The symbols stand for values like the corresponding IPA symbols, except as discussed below.

t d n s z l r represent alveolars in general, but *s z* are often dental, and even interdental for some speakers. Before *u*, *s* and *z* are sometimes heard as [ʃ] [ʒ]. The consonant *l* is never velarised. For other variants of *s r* see below.

k t p represent [kʰ] [tʰ] [pʰ] word-initially and after prefixes and [k] [t] [p] elsewhere. Between vowels word-internally the symbols represent geminate /kk/ /tt/ /pp/. They are only *realised* double in very slow speech. The aspiration is comparable to that of English initial voiceless stops. Word-final *g d b* are often partly devoiced, but in Agolle Kusaal (unlike Toende) still contrast with the unaspirated word-final *k t p*.

k g ŋ The symbol *ŋ* is realised [ŋ] word-finally and [ŋ:] elsewhere. Original *ŋ*, preserved in related languages, has disappeared in all positions, and existing Kusaal *ŋ* is always the result of the cluster assimilations **mg* **ng* → *ŋŋ* with simplification to *ŋ* word-finally. As with *k t p*, *ŋŋ* is realised single except in very slow speech, and is written with single *ŋ*.

The velars show considerable **allophony**, which will be ignored even in narrow transcription elsewhere.

Before front vowels, they are palatalised, for some speakers even becoming palatal stops or affricates.

d as a word-initial is frequently realised as a flapped [ɾ] when the preceding word in a phrase ends in a vowel (including glottalised vowels); within compounds this is invariable:

	<i>nō-dáùg</i> ^o	"cock"	[nɔɾaʊg]
	<i>nāʔ-dáàd</i> ^e	"oxen"	[nɔɾa:d]
but	<i>wìd-dāvg</i> ^o	"stallion"	[wɪd:aʊg]

In rapid speech non-initial *d* may also resemble [ɾ], but there are minimal and near-minimal pairs following root and epenthetic vowels:

<i>èñdɪg</i> ^e	"unplug"
<i>èñrɪg</i> ^e	"shift along"
<i>mōd</i> ^e	"swell"
<i>mōr</i> ^{a/}	"have"
<i>yàad</i> ^e	"graves"
<i>yāar</i> ^{e/}	"scatter"

r itself is the alveolar flap [ɾ], except after an epenthetic vowel (e.g. in the *r^e|a⁺* Noun Class singular suffix) where it is realised as a retroflex lateral [ɭ]. It does not contrast with *d* as a root-initial consonant or in prefixes, and only [d] occurs after a consonant or pause. I write *d* always except in a few words following a prefix vowel where *r* is traditional:

<i>tīrààn</i> ^a	"neighbour"
<i>àrazàk</i> ^a	"riches"
<i>àrazánà</i> ⁺	"heaven, sky"

The allophony of both *d* and *r* will be ignored even in narrow transcription elsewhere, where they will be written [d] [ɾ].

m is syllabic when standing alone as the proclitic 1st sg pronoun "I, my." It shows no tendency to assimilate its position of articulation to following consonants when it is syllabic. Following unstressed *ɪ*-vowels can be absorbed because of the potentially syllabic character of *m*:

<i>Gòsimī m!</i>	"Look at me!"
<i>Gòsīm.</i>	"Look at me!" contrasting with
<i>Gòsim!</i>	"Look!"
<i>Gòsimí fù núʔùg!</i>	"Look at your hand!"
<i>Gòsím fù núʔùg!</i>	id

m is unique in that it can form the word-final cluster *mm* [m:], which appears chiefly in LFs but also in some forms with derivational Apocope Blocking [7.4]. like the SF *pāmm* "a lot." The cluster patterns in many ways as if the second *m* were syllabic, but it is currently consonantal, and in particular cannot bear a toneme [9.2].

n is syllabic when representing various proclitic particles, and as the number prefix. It *does* assimilate, even when syllabic, to the position of a following consonant. The VP Serialiser particle *n* and the clause Complementiser *ñ* are syllabic [ŋ] for some speakers but my informants have consonantal, denasalised or zero reflexes instead.

kp gb are digraphs for the labiovelar double closures [k̠p̠] [g̠b̠]. Unlike word- and root-initial *k t p*, the voiceless *kp* is not aspirated. *kp gb* occur only word-initially and after prefixes, and then only before unrounded vowels, except for some speakers who preserve them in reduplication-prefixes like *kp̀̀kp̀̀arig*^a "palm tree" where other speakers have *k̀̀kp̀̀arig*^a etc. Otherwise *kp gb* are replaced by velars before rounded vowels; they are thus in complementary distribution with labialised velars, which could be ascribed to these phonemes rather than to the velars.

<i>k̠m</i> ^m	"death"	cf <i>kp̠</i> ⁺	"die"	
<i>k̠ba</i> ⁺	"bones"	cf Gurmanche	<i>kp̠ábá</i>	id
<i>kp̠àk̠r̠</i> ^{el}	"tortoise"	cf Dagbani	<i>kp̠àkp̠lí</i>	id

In loanwords *kp gb* are used for the Hausa labialised velars *kw gw*:

<i>bákp̠è</i> ⁺	"week" ← Hausa <i>bakw̠i</i> "seven" (also "week" in <i>Gaanancii</i> Hausa)
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y w are respectively voiced palatal and labiovelar approximants. They are strongly nasalised before nasalised vowels, and are then written *ñy ñw* with no further nasalisation marking on the vowel:

<i>ñyē</i> ⁺	"see"	[j̠ē]
<i>ñwāɗig</i> ^{a/}	"moon"	[w̠āɗig]
<i>ñwè</i> ^{ʔ+}	"beat"	[w̠è]

Word-initial *y w* followed by contrastive nasalisation reflect earlier initial *ɲ ɲ̃m* respectively, and similarly word-initial contrastively nasalised vowels are historically derived from initial *ɲ*:

<u>Dagbani</u>	<u>Kusaal</u>	
<i>ɲariɲ</i>	<i>àñruɲ⁰</i>	"boat"
<i>nyá</i> [ɲa]	<i>ñyē⁺</i>	"see"
<i>ɲme</i> [ɲ̃me]	<i>ñwè⁷⁺</i>	"beat"

Mooré shows the same developments as Kusaal. Niggli 2012 reports that some Toende speakers still have consonantal [ɲ] [ɲ̃m] phonetically in these cases, although he regards these as allophones of *y w* before nasalised vowels. Before *ɪ/i* original *ɲ* has often become *n*; see on the allomorphy of ^{ya} [9.3.1.2].

Y and *w* occur only syllable-initially. They are in complementary distribution with the glides *i/ɛ* and *ɥ* respectively, which do not form syllable boundaries but appear only after vowel symbols to mark short diphthongs [5.2.3] and before vowel symbols as part of the digraphs *ja ya* (*je ye* before *y*) which are realised as written but represent single vowels phonemically [5.1.1].

Consonantal *w* occurs only root-initially, i.e. word-initially and after prefixes: *wìə⁰* "horse", *dàwān^{ne/}* "pigeon", but consonantal *y* occurs not only root-initially (*yáan^a* "grandchild", *dàyūug^{o/}* "rat") but also word-medially, before the vowel *a*: *nōyá⁺* "mouths."

Synchronically, it is possible to regard all non-root-initial *-y-* as epenthetic. Historically, *-y-* probably reflects an original root-final palatal in *r^e|a⁺* Class plurals and *a^l|b^a* Class singulars [7.2.2], **ɲ* or **ʎ* in the suffix *-ya* of Agentive Invariable Verbs [13.2.1], and original **ɲ* in the initial of the postposed 2pl subject pronoun ^{ya} [9.3.1.2].

Traditional orthography omits word-internal *y* after *i*, except with Long Forms ending in *-ya*; thus *dūnyá⁺* "world" and *láafiyá⁺* "health" are written *dunia* and *laafia* although they end in [ɪja], not in the diphthong *ia*.

4.2 Consonant Clusters

Consonant clusters consist of at most two consonants (except in the very marginal case of *-mm* followed by a consonant across word division.) No word may begin or end with a consonant cluster, except for Long Forms and forms with Apocope Blocking which show final *-mm*:

<i>pāmm</i>	"a lot"
<i>dáamm</i>	"millet beer", Long Form

Across word division, including within compounds, any combination of consonants may occur where the first is a possible word-final consonant.

<i>ñwād-bí^a</i>	"star"
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Within phrases, there may be partial assimilation of the word-final consonant to the following word-initial consonant [9.1.1].

Within words, the range of permitted clusters is very limited.

At the junction between a nominal prefix and the following stem, combinations of nasal and any possible word-initial consonant may occur, with assimilation of the position of articulation of the nasal to a following consonant other than *s* or *z*, before which the nasal is realised as [ŋ].

<i>kùndòŋ^a</i>	"jackal"	
<i>gūmpōzēr^{e/}</i>	"duck"	
<i>dànkòŋ^o</i>	"measles"	[daŋkʰɔŋ]
<i>zùnzòŋ^a</i>	"blind"	[zʊŋzɔŋ]

Loanwords may include clusters not found elsewhere.

<i>bòrkìn^a</i>	"honourable/free/honest person"
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Apart from this, the only word-internal clusters permitted are *kk tt pp ŋŋ nn mm ll mn*. Of these *kk tt pp ŋŋ* are only realised as geminates in very slow speech, and are written as single *k t p ŋ*; nevertheless intervocalic *k t p ŋ* always pattern as clusters not only structurally but in toneme allocation and realisation [6.2.1] [8.2.1] [8.3.1].

Writing of *mm nn ll* as double is very inconsistent in written materials; the 1996 NT is more reliable in this than the 1976 version, although it tends to misdivide the forms by taking the final syllable as a separate particle [3.3].

Gemination of *mm nn ll* before LF affix vowels is clearly audible, including cases where the LF-final vowel has been downranked before Liaison 9.3.1; the audio version of the 1996 NT for example provides numerous examples of *d5ll-ó* "follow him" (written *dol o*) clearly read as [dɔl:ɔ]. On the other hand, it is hard to hear length contrasts with *mm nn ll* preceding an epenthetic vowel. Written materials rarely mark gemination in such cases, though examples do occur e.g. *yimmir* for *yīmmír* in "*Kusaal Solima ne Siilima*" p26. The tones of Pattern H stems can reveal underlying clusters, but as with *k t p ŋ* this could reflect mora loss after toneme allocation. It may be that loss of gemination before epenthetic vowels is an ongoing sound change in Agolle Kusaal. Urs Niggli's Toende materials never show geminate consonants except before LF flexions preceding Prosodic Clitics.

The only remaining cluster which is not simply a geminate, *mn*, is unstable. Some speakers replace it entirely with *mm*. All my informants show *mm* in place of the anticipated *mn* in verb imperfectives:

kàrum^m "read" → *kàrum^{ma}* cf Dagbani *karimda*

There are a few examples of *mn* in the NT:

ka ba li' ba toba ka pu wum na [sic 2.1.2]

kà bà lí bà tùba kà pū wúmnā +∅.

And **3PL block:PFV 3PL ear:PL** and **NEG.IND hear:IMPF NEG**.

"they have blocked their ears and do not hear" (Mt 13:15)

ka ban ka kikirbe'ednam daamne [sic 2.1.2] *ba daa nye laafiya*

kà bàn kà kìkìr-bé'éd-nàm dáàmñī *bá dāa ñyē láafiya*

and **DEM.PL** and **fairy-bad-PL** **trouble:IPFV 3PLO TNS** **see:PFV** **health**

"And people who were afflicted by evil spirits became well." (Lk 6:18, 1976)

Informants differ with regard to the singular forms of *r^e|a⁺* Class *m*-stems:

<i>gbīgim^{ne}</i>	SB	<i>gbīgim^{me}</i>	WK	"lion"
<i>dūm^{ne}</i>	SB	<i>dūm^{me}</i>	WK	"knee"

Exceptionally with *-nn-* for *-mn-* and a plural remodelled on the singular:

<i>ñwān^{ne}</i>	SB	pl <i>ñwāna⁺</i> (Lk 11:39, 1976)	"calabash"
<i>ñwām^{me}</i>	WK	pl <i>ñwāma⁺</i>	SB WK

Cf 1976 NT *kobkennib* = *kòñb-kīmmib^a* ← **k5b-kimɔba* "herdsmen."

There is variation also with the agent nouns of *m*-stem verbs:

pe'es bane ka' konbkemma

pēʔes bání_∅ kāʔ kóñb-kīmma +∅

sheep:PL DEM.PL COMP NEG.BE animal-tender:SG NEG

"sheep without a shepherd" (Mt 9:36)

m naan ku aan Kiristo tumtum na [sic 2.1.2].

m̄ nāan kú āan Kiristo túm-tūmna +∅.

1SG then NEG.UNR COP:REM Christ work-worker:SG NEG.

"I would not have been Christ's servant." (Gal 1:10)

The 1976 version has *tumtuma*

The plurals usually show *-mn-*:

O Tumtum nib piinayiṅa la yuda nwa.

Ò tùm-tūmnib pīi nā yíṅā lā yúdà_∅ ñwà.

3HU work-worker:PL ten with two.exactly ART name:PL SER this.

"These are the names of his twelve servants." (Mt 10:2)

All examples of Imperfective Deverbal Adjectives from *m*-stem verbs in my data show *-mm-* before epenthetic vowels:

būn-túmmìr^e "useful thing"; plural *tūmna⁺* occurs with some speakers.

bò-sāʔammur^e "goat for destruction, scapegoat" WK

It is notable that in the great majority of cases *-mn-* within words is followed by one of the high front vowels *ɪ* or *e*; compare the focus particle *nē^{+/}*, corresponding to *me* in Toende Kusaal, Mooré etc 34.1.1.

The consonants *r f s* between vowels are sometimes shown by Tone Pattern allocation rules or by morphophonemics to reflect underlying clusters 8.2.1.1 7.2.1.1, but unlike *k t p ŋ* they are never actually realised as geminates.

tīntōñríg^a "mole" (animal)

*píúñʔ^o ← *píúnfù* "genet"

*níis^e ← *níínsì* "birds"

5 Vowels

5.1 Inventory and Symbols

The basic vowel symbols are *a* *ε* *ɔ* *ι* *υ* *i* *u*, representing [a] [ε] [ɔ] [ɪ] [ʊ] [i] [u] respectively by default.

The symbol *ñ* represents emic nasalisation [5.2.1], while *ʔ* represents glottalisation [5.2.2].

Phonetically, *ɛ̣* *ɪ̣* *ʊ̣* represent non-moraic glides; *ɛ̣* and *ɪ̣* are equivalent symbols for [ɪ̣], and *ʊ̣* represents [ʊ̣].

A striking feature of the Agolle Kusaal vowel system is that there is a **systematic mismatch between phonetics and phonemics** in the vowel system.

The symbols *iə* *uə* are, phonemically, long *monophthongs* which are realised phonetically as [iə] [uə]; the letters *ə* *ə* are used only in these digraphs. Similarly, *ja* *ua* represent short *monophthongs*, realised [ɪ̣a] [ʊ̣a], which appear as *je* *ue* [ị] [ʊ̣] before *y* word-internally. The orthography of this grammar follows the traditional system in representing these segments according to their phonetic realisation, but the symbols *iə* *uə* *ja* *ua* *je* *ue* are to be regarded throughout as **digraphs** representing monophthongs [5.1.1].

Following a vowel symbol, *ɛ̣* *ɪ̣* *ʊ̣* represent the non-moraic glide components of short diphthongs [5.2.3].

The symbols *ι* *υ*, which represent [ɪ] [ʊ] by default, may represent [i] [u] when they are epenthetic or affix vowels because of ATR harmony, which is ignored in the orthography as it is not contrastive.

The vowels [e] [o] do not contrast with [ε] [ɔ] in any single context.

The symbols *e* *o* represent [ɪ] [ʊ] whenever they are preceded by a vowel symbol. As the second or third component of a diphthong [5.2.3], [ɪ] is written *e* rather than *ι*, and [ʊ] is written *o* rather than *υ* after all vowel symbols except *a*.

The 3rd sg human-gender pronoun, written *o*, is always realised [ʊ] [17.1].

The sequence *·o* represents [ʊ]; this is always a vowel mora rounded before the enclitic pronoun ^o [9.3.1.1], which itself is normally deleted by Apocope.

Following a consonant symbol, *e* *o* represent *close* [e] [o], which occur exclusively as the result of lowering of LF-final short *ι* *υ* before Prosodic Clitics [3.2.1]. If all three Prosodic Clitics were represented explicitly in some way in the usual orthography, this use of *e* *o* would in principle also be redundant [9.2].

There are marked differences in the range of possible vowel contrasts which are possible in different positions within a full word. There is a correlation with stress [3.4] but it is not invariable, and the system is thus one of **positional prominence**.

The main distinction is between **Root Vowels**, which are found in the roots of non-clitic words, and all others. Root vowels show the full range of vowel contrasts, with contrastive length, nasalisation, glottalisation and a wide range of diphthongs.

In all other positions, the range of contrasts is much more limited.

Epenthetic Vowels show a contrast only of unrounded *ɪ* and rounded *ʊ*, and considering LFs alone even this would be predictable.

Affix Vowels have a three-way contrast in quality *a* *ɪ* *ʊ* and also distinguish short and long vowels. The effects of Prosodic Clitics produce a further contrast with short *e* *o* in certain contexts [3.2.1].

5.1.1 Agolle Vowel Breaking

The sequences *iə* *uə*, realised with the corresponding IPA values, pattern throughout as long *monophthongs*, with *ɪa* *ʊa* as the corresponding short vowels. They may be nasalised or glottalised, and are subject to the fronting and rounding processes described below [7.3.2] just like other monophthongs. They will be described as monophthongs throughout this grammar.

Toende Kusaal preserves these vowels as *phonetic* monophthongs, more open than the Toende *close* vowels corresponding to Agolle vowels which have expanded into the phonetic space vacated by Breaking to become *open* *ɛ* *ɔ* *ɛɛ* *ɔɔ*:

	<u>Toende</u>	<u>Agolle</u>	
	<i>déém</i>	<i>dɪəm</i> ^{ma}	"man's parent-in-law"
	<i>sēēs</i>	<i>sɪəs</i> ^e	"waists"
but	<i>té'ét</i>	<i>tɛ'ɛd</i> ^e	"baobab fruits"
	<i>pē'ēs</i>	<i>pɛ'ɛs</i> ^{e/}	"sheep" plural
	<i>b'ɔs</i>	<i>bʊ'əs</i> ^{e/}	"ask"
	<i>tɔɔn</i>	<i>tʊən</i> ^{ne}	"before, in front"
	<i>k'ɔm</i>	<i>kʊ'əm</i> ^m	"water"
	<i>sábɔɔ</i>	<i>sàbʊa</i> ⁺	"lover, girlfriend"
but	<i>póók</i>	<i>pɔɔg</i> ^{o/}	"farm, field"
	<i>tōom</i>	<i>tɔɔm</i> ^{m/}	"depart, disappear"
	<i>zò</i>	<i>zʊ</i> ⁺	"run" (Mooré <i>zoe</i>)

The original Common Kusaal system probably preserved older diphthongs, like Mooré. While the *ɔɔ/ua* sets usually correspond to Mooré *oo*, there is a different Toende/Agolle pairing when the Mooré cognates have *ao*:

<i>bòòt</i>	<i>bòɔd</i> ^a	"want, wish" (Mooré <i>baoda</i>)
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There are gaps in the distribution of Agolle long oral $\varepsilon \text{ } \text{ɔ}$ probably connected with their diphthongal origins. Some occurrences of $\varepsilon \text{ } \text{ɔ}$ seem, however, to be due to levelling within paradigms which feature a suffix ending in ν . The short vowels $\varepsilon \text{ } \text{ɔ}$ do not contrast underlyingly with $\text{ɶ} \text{ } \text{ɷ}$, as explained below.

$\text{ɶ} \text{ } \text{ɷ}$ only occur word-finally as the result of monophthongisation of word-final ia ua ie ue within a phrase before another closely connected word [9.1.3]; this is not marked in writing in the case of ia ua :

$\text{p}\bar{\text{i}}\bar{\text{e}} \text{ t}\bar{\text{i}}^{+}$	"wash us"	($\text{p}\bar{\text{i}}\bar{\text{e}}^{+}$ "wash")
$\text{d}\bar{\text{u}}\bar{\text{e}} \text{ t}\bar{\text{i}}^{+}$	"raise us"	($\text{d}\bar{\text{u}}\bar{\text{e}}^{+}$ "raise")
$\text{s}\bar{\text{i}}\bar{\text{a}} \text{ l}\bar{\text{a}}$	"the waist"	[siəla]
$\text{s}\bar{\text{a}}\text{b}\bar{\text{u}}\bar{\text{a}} \text{ l}\bar{\text{a}}$	"the girlfriend"	[sabueəla]

All other sequences beginning with written $i u$ are *diphthongs* both phonetically and phonemically.

When left word-final in LFs, $\text{ɶ} \text{ } \text{ɷ}$ diphthongise to ia ua :

LF	$\text{k}\bar{\text{i}}\bar{\text{a}}$	"cut" pfv	[k ^h ia]	cf $\text{k}\bar{\text{i}}\bar{\text{e}}\text{d}^{\text{a}}$	ipfv
LF	$\text{k}\bar{\text{u}}\bar{\text{a}}$	"hoe" pfv	[k ^h ua]	cf $\text{k}\bar{\text{u}}\bar{\text{e}}\text{d}^{\text{a}}$	ipfv

Nasalsed $\bar{\text{i}}\bar{\text{e}} \bar{\text{u}}\bar{\text{e}}$ occur only in the inflexion and gerund formation of Fusion Verbs [7.3.1]; in all other contexts $\bar{\text{i}}\bar{\text{e}} \bar{\text{u}}\bar{\text{e}}$ and $\bar{\text{e}}\bar{\text{e}} \bar{\text{ɔ}}\bar{\text{ɔ}}$ have fallen together. The vowels were distinct historically: compare $\text{n}\bar{\text{ɔ}}\bar{\text{ɔ}}\text{r}$ "times" (Mooré *naore*) with $\text{n}\bar{\text{ɔ}}\bar{\text{ɔ}}\text{r}$ "mouth" (Mooré *noore*) [18.2.5].

The 1-mora vowels corresponding to 2-mora $\text{ɶ} \text{ } \text{ɷ}$ are $\text{ɶ} \text{ } \text{ɷ}$ [ɶ] [ɷ].

These, too, pattern as simple vowels throughout: $\text{s}\bar{\text{j}}\bar{\text{a}}\text{k}^{\text{e}}$ "agree" and $\text{b}\bar{\text{y}}\bar{\text{a}}\text{k}^{\text{e}}$ "split" do not violate the constraint that full words begin with at most one consonant.

Apocope shortens final $\text{ɶ} \text{ } \text{ɷ}$ to $\text{ɶ} \text{ } \text{ɷ}$:

$\text{k}\bar{\text{ɶ}}\bar{\text{a}}$	"cut"	SF of $\text{k}\bar{\text{i}}\bar{\text{a}}$
$\text{k}\bar{\text{y}}\bar{\text{a}}$	"hoe"	SF of $\text{k}\bar{\text{u}}\bar{\text{a}}$

Short $\varepsilon \text{ } \text{ɔ}$ appear instead of $\text{ɶ} \text{ } \text{ɷ}$ everywhere except before k (and historical underlying $*g$, which has been deleted with lengthening and glottalisation of the preceding vowel [7.1.1.1].)

Almost all short $\varepsilon \text{ } \text{ɔ}$ are either of this origin, or derive from Apocope of $\varepsilon \text{ } \text{ɔ}$.

$\text{b}\bar{\text{ɔ}}\text{k}^{\text{o}}$ "pit" contrasting with $\text{b}\bar{\text{y}}\bar{\text{a}}\text{k}^{\text{e}}$ "split" is due to the rounding change $*\text{y}\bar{\text{a}}\text{k}\text{v} \rightarrow \text{ɔk}\text{v}$, see [7.3.2], while $\text{t}\bar{\text{e}}\text{k}^{\text{e}}$ "pull", contrasting with $\text{t}\bar{\text{j}}\bar{\text{a}}\text{k}^{\text{e}}$ "change" is due to shortening of a long vowel before an original plosive cluster ($*\text{t}\bar{\text{e}}\text{e}\text{k}\text{k}\text{i}$), see [7.3.3].

Presumably *nōk*^{e/} "pick up" is similarly derived by shortening of **nɔɔkkɪ*; Toende Kusaal has *nòk*, with a variant form *nɔ'ɔ*.

je ye [jɪ] [yɪ] appear in place of *ja ya* before *-y-*, which can occur only in the context of *r^e|a⁺* Class plurals of nominals with stems in *iə* and *uə* [7.2.2]:

<i>bīər</i> ^{e/}	"elder same-sex sib"	pl <i>bjēyá</i> ⁺
<i>sūər</i> ^{e/}	"road"	pl <i>suēyá</i> ⁺

5.2 Root Vowels

In root syllables the symbols *a* *ɛ* *ɔ* *ɪ* *ʊ* *i* *u* have their default values of [a] [ɛ] [ɔ] [ɪ] [ʊ] [i] [u] respectively.

ɪ is more central after velars and labials, and *ʊ* is slightly more front after alveolars and *y*; *u* in turn is noticeably fronted after alveolar consonants, which themselves may be realised as palato-alveolars before *u*. This is particularly common with *z*: [zyg] for *zūg* "head" [4.1].

Long Vowels contrast with short in length alone, with no difference in vowel quality. They are written with double symbols.

<i>bāa</i> ⁼	"dog"	[ba:]
<i>tūm</i> ^m	"medicine"	[t ^h ɪ:m]

5.2.1 Nasalisation

Nasalisation is automatic (and unwritten) with vowels preceded by a nasal consonant, except for short vowels which are also immediately followed by a nasal consonant:

<i>nīd</i> ^{a/}	"person"	[nīd]
<i>mēɛd</i> ^a	"builds"	[mēɛ:d]
<i>nij</i> ^e	"do"	[nij]
<i>mēŋ</i> ^{a/}	"self"	[mɛŋ]

Contrastive nasalisation is confined to root vowels. It is written with the symbol *ñ* following the entire vowel or diphthong, short or long, unless the vowel of diphthong is also glottalised, in which case the *ñ* always immediately precedes the ^ʔ symbol.

<i>tēɛñs</i> ^e	"lands"	[t ^h ɛ̃:s]
<i>vāvñg</i> ^{o/}	"leaf"	[vãõg]
<i>áñsib</i> ^a	"mother's brother"	[ãsɪb]
<i>gēñ</i> ⁺	"get tired"	[gɛ̃]

<i>gēñʔ</i> ⁺	"get angry"	[gǣ̃]
<i>gēñʔɛd</i> ^{a/}	(ipfv)	[gǣ̃:d]

The *ñ* is also written before the raised point in the sequence *·o* which is used for [ʊ] when it represents a vowel mora rounded before the enclitic pronoun ^o [5.1]:

<i>Māni áñ·ō.</i>	"I am he."	[manɪ ǎõ]	(<i>Mane a o.</i> Jn 18:5, 1976)
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Contrastive nasalisation after word-initial *w y* is written by writing the *ñ* before the *w* or *y*, which are themselves strongly nasalised in this position:

<i>ñwām</i> ^{me}	"calabash"	[w̃ǎm]
<i>ñyē</i> ⁺	"see"	[j̃ǣ̃]

In line with the traditional system, however, I write the *ñ* after the vowel in cases where nasalisation is found only in part of a flexional paradigm, e.g.

<i>yáañs</i> ^e	"grandchildren"	[j̃ǎ:s]
cf sg <i>yáañ</i> ^a	"grandchild"	[ja:ŋ]

The rationale for this is presumably that the nasalisation was taken as a feature of the initial consonant itself in other cases but not here. Historically it is indeed the case that older initial **ŋ* → *ñy* and **ñm̄* → *ñw* [4.1], but synchronically this is simply a spelling rule; the initial consonant of *yáañs*^e does not differ phonetically from that of *ñyáʔas*^e "(animal) females."

Nasalisation is often lost on short vowels followed by nasal consonants. Historically this accounts for the oral vowels in

<i>wīn</i> ^{ne/}	"god, spirit"	Dagaare <i>ŋmen</i>
<i>wēn</i> ^{na/}	"resemble"	Dagbani <i>ŋmani</i>
<i>ñn</i> ^e	"he/she" contrastive	Dagbani <i>ŋuna</i>

For examples in phrase level sandhi, see [9.1.2]. There are exceptions: *ñyīn*^{ne/} "tooth" *ñwām*^{ne} "calabash."

Many cases of nasalisation which are not automatic are explicable either as representing originally automatic nasalisation following earlier *ŋ ñm̄*, or as the result of simplification of the clusters **ns *nf* [7.2.1.1].

There are **no tense-lax contrasts among short nasalised vowels**. (including vowels nasalised after nasal consonants.) The realisation is as *tense* in all root vowels, with the exception only of short *i/t* after *y*, which is realised [ɪ]:

<i>ňyĩn</i> ^{ne/}	"tooth"	[jĩn]
<i>ňyĩríf</i> ^o	"egusi"	[jĩríf]

Epenthetic and affix vowels do not show ATR contrasts in any case, and the high vowels are always written *ɪ* *ʊ* whether nasal or oral. Note that the locative particle *ni* is realised [nĩ].

Long vowels *do* show the contrasts *ĩ/ĩĩ ũ/ũũ*, but solely as a consequence of the change of **nf *ns* to *fs* with nasalisation of the preceding vowel [7.2.1.1]:

	<i>níĩḡ</i> ^a	"bird"		
but	<i>píĩḡf</i> ^o	"genet"	cf plural	<i>pīĩní</i> ⁺

	<i>zùũḡd</i> ^e	"vultures"		
but	<i>zúũḡf</i> ^o	"dawadawa seed"	cf plural	<i>zōũní</i> ⁺
	<i>tèḡ-zùũḡs</i> ^e	"foreign lands"	cf singular	<i>tèḡ-zùḡ</i> ^o

The vast majority of short nasalised vowels are *añ eñ jañ cñ ɥañ* (see below [5.1.1] on the alternations *ɛ/ja* and *ɔ/ɥa*.) Short *ĩñ uñ* arise only from automatic nasalisation after nasal consonants including original **ɲ* → *ňy* and **ŋm* → *ňw*, and from shortening of long *iiñ uuñ*, usually as a result of Apocope, e.g. in combining forms:

<i>sīĩḡf</i> ^{o/}	"bee"	cb	<i>sīĩḡ-</i>
<i>zùũḡḡ</i> ^o	"vulture"	cb	<i>zùũḡ-</i>

High nasalised vowels left word-initial by the loss of historical initial *ŋ* have been lowered to *eñ oñ*: cf *ɔñb*^e "chew" and Dagbani *ŋubi* id.

The only other case of a short nasalised high vowel in my materials is the word

<i>sūũḡf</i> ^{o/}	<i>sūũḡyá</i> ⁺	<i>sūũḡ-</i>	"heart"
<i>sūũḡr</i> ^{e/}			

where the shortening in the plural is regular before *y*, and that in the singular may be an effect of a high vowel preceding *f*, possibly also seen in *nīĩf*^{o/} "eye" [7.3.3].

Related to the absence of the lax/tense distinction among high vowels is the complementarity of nasalised *iəñ uəñ* and *ɛɛñ ɔɔñ* [5.1.1] [7.3.1].

5.2.2 Glottalisation

Glottalisation is confined to root vowels and one or two proclitic particles of the form $Ca^? \leftarrow *Cag$. It does not affect vowel quality. It is represented with $^?$ after the first (or only) vowel symbol other than i , but always follows the nasalisation mark \tilde{n} .

$s\grave{u}^?ug^a$	"knife"	$b\bar{a}^?a^=$	"traditional diviner"
$b\bar{a}^?+$	"father"	$z\grave{i}\tilde{n}^?a^+$	"red"
$pu^?a^a$	"woman"	$dj\bar{a}^?a$	"get dirty"

Note the different treatment of i and u with regard to the placement of $^?$; this conforms to the standard orthography, e.g. $pu^?a$ "woman" but $dia^?$ "get dirty."

This $^?$ may be realised as a creaky-voiced glottal approximant [ʔ] after the first vocalic mora, or the creakiness may be more widely spread within the vowel; but in *either* case, the $^?$ behaves as a vowel feature and not a consonant (cf $e/\grave{i} u$ vs $y w$ below 5.2.3.)

The flapping of initial d mentioned above 4.1 occurs after $V^?$ as well as after V ; and in general glottalised vowels pattern exactly like unglottalised vowels. The glottalisation which arises from deletion of $*g$ after $a \grave{i}a \grave{u}a$ 7.3.1 does not differ phonetically from other types.

There is nothing corresponding to Kusaal vowel glottalisation in Mooré, Dagaare, Mampruli, Hanga or Dagbani, but Farefare, Talni and Nabit share it:

	Farefare	$y\acute{u}'\acute{u}r\acute{e}$	"name"	Kusaal	$y\bar{u}^?ur^e/$
	Farefare	$k\acute{o}'\acute{o}m$			
and	Talni	$kwo^?m$	"water"	Kusaal	$k\grave{u}^?em^m$
	Nabit	$kpa^?u\eta$	"guinea fowl"	Kusaal	$kp\bar{a}^?u\eta^o$
	Nabit	$n\grave{o}nya^?a\eta$	"hen"	Kusaal	$n\bar{o}-\tilde{n}y\acute{a}^?a\eta$

Nawdm, too, has $^?$ in a number of words with Kusaal cognates showing glottalised vowels, e.g. $m\grave{i}-t\hat{a}^?$ "three" (in counting) = Kusaal $nt\hat{a}\tilde{n}^?$; $n\acute{u}^?$ "arm, hand" = $n\acute{u}^?u\grave{g}^o$. Vowel glottalisation is not predictable in these languages. In Kusaal it has interesting segmental effects in root-stems before a flexion beginning with a vowel (see on Consonant Epenthesis 7.2.2.) Manessy reconstructs implosive or glottalised consonants for the Oti-Volta protolanguage; vowel glottalisation might be a reflex of former glottalised consonants lenited after a root vowel.

Tonal considerations confirm that ʔ is not a consonant in Kusaal. Thus

	<i>Lì k̄āʔ mólifō.</i>	"It's not a gazelle."
but	<i>Lì k̄āʔ ↓núʔugō.</i>	"It's not a hand."
like	<i>Lì k̄āʔ ↓tígā.</i>	"It's not a tree."

differ in whether the H toneme is realised with a preceding downstep, because the sequence *-li-* in *mólifō* is a separate unstressed syllable preceding the final stress on *-fō*, whereas the ʔ in *núʔugō* is not a consonant and therefore does not begin a separate syllable. (See Downstepping before H [6.2.2].)

An unwritten [ʔ] follows short vowels and diphthongs ending statements and commands, but not questions. Phrase-final *dāy* "man", for example, is realised [daʔ]. Before this [ʔ], vowel glottalisation is lost:

<i>Kà bà gēñ.</i>	"and they got tired"	is homophonous with
<i>Kà bà gēñʔ.</i>	"and they got angry"	

whereas

<i>Bà gēñ nē.</i>	"they're tired"	differs in realisation from
<i>Bà gēñʔ nē.</i>	"they're angry"	

Glottalised short vowels are almost all the result of Apocope on glottalised long vowels. Besides *k̄āʔe*⁺ "not be" (← **kagi*) the only other occurrences are before *m* or *ŋ* in some words for some informants. Although tonal and structural considerations confirm that the vowels are short, they are normally written long in the NT; traditional orthography in general fails to mark length contrasts in glottalised vowels.

<i>kpèʔŋ^e</i>	"strengthen"(NT <i>kpe'ej</i>)	<i>lāʔŋ^{e/}</i>	"set alight"
<i>nāʔmɪs^{e/}</i>	"suffer"	<i>zēʔmɪs^{e/}</i>	"make equal"
<i>zàʔmɪs^e</i>	"learn, teach"	<i>nīʔm^{ne/}</i>	"meat"
<i>kōʔm^{m/}</i>	"hunger"	<i>yāʔm^{m/}</i>	"gall bladder; sense"
<i>sùʔŋā⁺</i>	"well"	<i>sùʔm^m</i>	"goodness"

The adjective *sùŋ*^o (pl *sùma*⁺) "good" itself never has ʔ in my materials.

5.2.3 Diphthongs

Kusaal has diphthongs of one or two morae, and also three-mora vowel sequences which, though realised as disyllabic with syllable division after the first mora [3.4], are structurally extra-long diphthongs; they always have identical second and third mora vowel qualities.

<u>1-Mora</u>	<u>2-Mora</u>	<u>3-Mora</u>
	<i>ia</i> [ia]	<i>iaa</i> [ia:]
	<i>jaʔa</i> [j̥aʔ:]	
	<i>ua</i> [ua]	<i>uaa</i> [ua:]
	<i>ɥʔaa</i> [ɥ̥aʔ:] word-finally	
	≡ <i>ʋʔa</i> [ɥ̥aʔ] before consonants	
<i>aɛ</i> [aɪ]	<i>ae</i> [aɪ]	<i>aee</i> [aɪ:]
<i>ɔɛ</i> [ɔɪ]		
<i>ʋɛ</i> [ʋɪ]	<i>ue</i> [ʋɪ]	
<i>uj</i> [uj]	<i>ui</i> [ui]	<i>uii</i> [ui:]
	<i>ie</i> [iɪ]	<i>iee</i> [iɪ:]
	<i>ue</i> [uɪ]	<i>uee</i> [uɪ:]
<i>aɥ</i> [aʊ]	<i>av</i> [aʊ]	<i>avv</i> [aʊ:]
	<i>iu</i> [iu]	
<i>ɪɥ</i> [ɪʊ]	<i>ɪo</i> [ɪʊ]	
<i>ɛɥ</i> [ɛʊ]	<i>ɛo</i> [ɛʊ]	
<i>jaɥ</i> [j̥aʊ]		
	<i>io</i> [iʊ]	

[ɪ] is written *e* (not *ɪ*) after *a ɔ ʋ*, and [ʊ] is written *o* (not *ʊ*) after *i ɪ ɛ*.

All the diphthongs listed above may also occur with nasalisation. The two- and three-mora diphthongs may also occur with glottalisation. *jaʔa ɥaʔa ʋʔa* are always glottalised; Apocope shortens them to *jaʔ ɥaʔ*.

The symbols *j* and *ɛ* are both realised [j̥] except in *uj* and in the monophthong *je*, where the realisation is [j]; [ɥ̥] is always written *ɥ*.

The diphthongs *ʋʔa ʊʔã* appear as *ɥʔaa ɥʔãã* respectively when LF-final.

The digraphs *ja ɥa* represent single segments phonemically, but are *realised* as rising. Written *iə* [iə] and *uə* [uə], and their nasalised/glottalised forms, are the corresponding phonemic monophthongal long vowels [5.1.1], realised as falling diphthongs. All other sequences of dissimilar vowels are diphthongs both

phonemically and in realisation; three-mora sequences are rising, and the others all falling.

Apart from the Primary Diphthongs (*av* *ãv* along with the always-glottalised sequences *jaʔa* *jäʔã* *ʊʔa* *ũʔã* which have arisen historically from lenition of root-final **g* [7.1.1.1]), the complex array of Agolle Kusaal diphthongs is the result of active morphophonemic processes: Fusion [7.3.1], and Fronting and Rounding both word-internally [7.3.2] and before Liaison Enclitics [9.3.1.1]. Rounding diphthongs occur only word-finally and before velars; fronting diphthongs only word-finally and before *y*.

Additional diphthongs arise as the result of the attachment of Liaison Enclitics after a word ending in a LF-final long vowel [9.3.1]. The enclitic ^o [ʊ] "him/her" always causes a preceding vowel mora to assimilate totally to [ʊ], with no ATR harmony; that rounded mora is always written *·o* [5.1 [9.3.1.1]:

<i>zū·óo</i>	[zuʊ:]	"steal him"	LF
<i>zū-ó</i>	[zuʊ]	"steal him"	SF

There is raising of the second mora when the 2pl subject enclitic ^a is added to verb forms ending in *-e* like *bɛ⁺* "be somewhere, exist", creating a diphthong *eɪ* [ɛɪ] found only in this context:

<i>bɛ̄ɪyá</i>	[bɛɪja]	"be ye!"	LF
<i>bɛ̄ɪ</i>	[bɛɪ]	"be ye!"	SF

ɨ *ɥ* contrast with the consonants *y* *w* in that they do not form syllable boundaries or behave as part of consonant clusters. After a vowel symbol they represent the glide components of short diphthongs:

<i>dāɥ⁺</i>	[daɥ]	"man"	CV
<i>gbàɥŋ^o</i>	[ɡb̄aɥŋ]	"book"	CVC
<i>sɔ̄ɛñ</i>	[sɔ̄ɛɲ]	"blacksmith"	SF CV
<i>tɔ̄ɛ</i>	[tʰɔ̄ɛ]	"be bitter"	SF CV
<i>mùɨ⁺</i>	[mũɨ]	"rice"	CVCV

Before a vowel symbol they are part of the digraphs *ja* *ya* representing single short vowel phonemes, but are again realised as glides:

<i>bjāɥñk^o</i>	[bj̄ãɥk]	"shoulder"	CVC
<i>bɥàk^e</i>	[bɥak]	"split"	CVC

Word-final $-Ṿj$ $-Ṿɥ$ behave exactly like word-final short root vowels in being followed by [ʔ] before pause in statements 5.2.2, confirming that j $ɥ$ do not pattern as consonants but as vowel features:

$\text{Ò à nē dā}̣ɥ$. [ʋanɛdaʔ] "He is a man"

Word-initial y_a [ja] contrasts with j_a [ɣa] in the tenseness of the semivowel, and probably in timing features:

j_a^+	[ɣa]	"seek"
$y_a^{+/}$	[ja]	"houses"

The contrast is not [ʔja] vs [ja]: stressed syllables with no initial consonant are sometimes realised with an initial [ʔ], but this is a prosodic feature, not a consonant.

Chitoran 2002, discussing the Romanian contrast ia/ea , finds that a contrast ua/oa has no phonetic basis in Romanian, and hypothesises that this is not merely a language-specific matter but due to the cross-linguistic difficulty of maintaining a contrast between two back rounded glides [w] and [ɔ]. Kusaal, too, has no contrast of initial wa/ya ; historical initial $uə$ has become waa in $wāad^{e/}$ "cold" = Toende Kusaal $ḡḡt$, Farefare $ḡḡrḡ$ and $wā^{?+}$ "dance" = Toende Kusaal $wḡ'$, for which Agolle $*wɥ^?ā^+$ would be expected.

Before word-medial y [j] the short fronting diphthongs $aɛ$ $ɔɛ$ $ʊɛ$ $uɣ$ do not contrast with the corresponding short vowels a $ɔ$ $ʊ$ u and are realised [a] [ɔ] [ʊ] [u]. Simple vowel symbols are used, except in LFs where the corresponding SF deletes the y through Apocope: here the same sounds are written with a redundant $ɛ$:

	$zōya$	[zɔja]	"tails"	
but	$vōɛyá$ LF	[vɔja]	"be alive"	cf SF $vōɛ$ [vʊɣ]
	$nōyá$	[nɔja]	"mouths"	
but	$tōɛyá$ LF	[tʰɔja]	"be difficult"	cf SF $tōɛ$ [tʰɔɣ]

Length in diphthongs is predictable, except with word-final $ae/aɛ$ and with $av/aɥ$ before η . All SF-final *unglottalised closing* diphthongs are 1-mora except ae ($àɛñ$ "be something", $pāe$ "reach"); all glottalised and/or opening SF-final diphthongs are 2-mora; LFs have one more mora than the SF, but no more than two before Liaison. Word-internally, all glottalised diphthongs are 2-mora; non-glottalised diphthongs are 1-mora before y or k , and 2-mora elsewhere, except that 1-mora rounding diphthongs may occur before η :

$gbāɥ\eta$ "skin" $māngāú\eta$ "crab"

5.3 Epenthetic Vowels

As with the second morae of long vowels, the quality of epenthetic vowels would be predictable if it were not for Apocope deleting final rounded vowels. The language has thereby acquired a contrast between ι and υ in epenthetic vowels.

The default epenthetic vowel is ι .

Before LF $-g^0$ $-\eta^0$ the epenthetic vowel is υ , remaining as such in the LF.

	$\bar{a}\bar{a}\bar{n}\bar{d}\bar{i}g^a$	← $*\bar{a}\bar{a}\bar{d}\bar{i}g^a$	"black plum tree"
but	$g\bar{a}a\bar{d}\bar{u}g^0$	← $*g\bar{a}a\bar{d}\bar{i}g\upsilon$	"(sur)passing" (gerund)
pl	$m\bar{a}l\bar{u}m^+$	← $*m\bar{a}l\bar{u}m^a$	"sacrifices"
but	$m\bar{a}l\bar{u}\eta^0$	← $*m\bar{a}l\bar{u}\eta\eta\upsilon$	"sacrifice"

Epenthetic vowels are also rounded to υ when *preceded* by a rounded root vowel with intervening $-g-$ (but not $-\eta-$ $-k-$):

$g\bar{b}\bar{i}g\bar{i}m^{ne}$	[g̃b̃iɣim]	"lion"
$y\bar{u}g\bar{u}m^{ne}$	[j̃ɣ̃ɣ̃um]	"camel"
$k\bar{u}g\bar{u}r^{e/}$	[k̃h̃uɣur]	"stone" (ATR harmony, see below)
$w\bar{a}b\bar{i}d^{e/}$	[w̃ab̃id]	"elephants"
$d\bar{u}g\bar{u}d^{e/}$	[d̃ɣ̃ɣ̃ud]	"cooking pots"
$d\bar{u}g\bar{u}d\bar{i}b^a$	[d̃ɣ̃ɣ̃udib]	"people who cook"
$p\bar{u}g\bar{u}n^{e/}$	[p̃h̃ɣ̃:ɣ̃un]	"belly" ($p\bar{u}g\bar{u}n^a$) + $n^{e/}$ locative

Some speakers do not limit rounding of epenthetic vowels after rounded root vowels to cases where the intervening consonant is g . Some have e.g. $n\bar{u}b\bar{u}r^{e/}$ "leg" for the $n\bar{u}b\bar{i}r^{e/}$ of my informants. On the other hand, NT, ILK and KED have $p\bar{u}g\bar{u}n$ for $p\bar{u}g\bar{u}n^{e/}$ "inside." The variation is not contrastive, and is significant only before word-final velars, where it can lead to reanalysis of the g^a sg suffix as g^0 [11.3.2.1](#).

WK has rounding before velars after short root rounded vowels with intervening b m l , and after mm even when the preceding vowel is not rounded:

	$k\bar{u}l\bar{u}g^a$	"river"	WK
	$y\bar{a}m\bar{m}u\bar{g}^a$	"slave"	WK
or	$y\bar{a}m\bar{m}u\bar{g}^0$		

Nasalisation is absent on epenthetic vowels where parallel morphological processes would have caused contrastive nasalisation of a root vowel:

	$t\bar{e}\eta^a$	"land"	pl $t\bar{e}\eta\bar{n}s^e$	← $*t\bar{e}n\bar{s}\iota$
but	$k\bar{u}l\eta^a$	"door"	pl $k\bar{u}l\bar{s}^e$	← $*k\bar{u}l\bar{n}s\iota$

ATR harmony appears between a short root vowel and a following epenthetic vowel; it is not contrastive and is ignored in the orthography:

	<i>tìsɪd^a</i>	[tʰɪsɪd]	"gives"
but	<i>sīgɪd^{a/}</i>	[sɪgɪd]	"lowers"
	<i>bōgʊr^e</i>	[bɔgɔr]	"spirit's dwelling"
but	<i>kūgʊr^{e/}</i>	[kʰugur]	"stone"
	<i>yūgʊdɪr^e</i>	[jugudɪr]	"hedgehog"
	<i>yōgʊm^{ne}</i>	[jɔgʊm]	"camel"

5.4 Affix Vowels

Except for nominal combining forms, Particle-Verbs [24.7.2], Post-Subject Particles [29.1.3], and Focussing Modifiers [34.6], clitics have vowels showing the same set of vowel contrasts as the *flexions* of full words, as do prefixes [15.2.2]; collectively, these are Affix Vowels.

There are three affix vowels *a ɪ ʊ*, which may also occur long: *aa ɪɪ ʊʊ*.

All the Prosodic Clitics cause short LF-final *ɪ ʊ* to be lowered to [e] [o], written *e o* [3.2.1]; the only context in which underlying LF-final short *ɪ ʊ* appear as such is by Apocope Blocking [7.4].

When the long affix vowels *ɪɪ ʊʊ* are shortened by Apocope the resulting *ɪ ʊ* are realised exactly like epenthetic vowels. Both short and long affix *ɪ ʊ ɪɪ ʊʊ* are subject to ATR harmony under the same conditions as epenthetic vowels:

	<i>mòlɪ</i>	[mɔ̃lɪ:] LF	"gazelles"
	<i>mòlɪ</i>	[mɔ̃lɪ] SF	
	<i>wìdɪ</i>	[wɪdɪ:] LF	"horses"
	<i>wìdɪ</i>	[wɪdɪ] SF	
but	<i>nīgí</i>	[nĩ:gɪ:] LF	"cows"
	<i>nīgí</i>	[nĩ:gɪ] SF	(<i>long</i> root vowel)

Harmony also occurs with *ɪ ʊ* in prefixes, which are realised [i] [u] when the first mora of the root is *i* or *u*:

	<i>tītāʔar^e</i>		"big"
	<i>kòkōr^{e/}</i>		"voice"
	<i>kìkīrɪg^{a/}</i>	[kʰikʰirɪg]	"protective spirit"
	<i>sìsìʔəm^m</i>	[sɪsɪəm]	"wind"

<i>dòndùug</i> ^o	[du:du:g]	"cobra"
<i>sīlɪnsíũṅ</i> ^o	[silɪŋsĩũṅ]	"spider"
<i>vòlɪnvùũñ</i> ^e	[vulɪŋvũ:l]	"mason wasp"

In *nìn-tāa*⁼ "co-wife" [nɪnt^ha:] the tense vowel probably reflects ATR harmony not crossing word division with the "bleached" prefix/cb *nin* [16.4].

ATR harmony is not contrastive (except in *iu/io* [7.3.2]) and is ignored in the orthography, with *ɪ* *ʊ* used throughout.

The vowel *e* appears for expected *ɪ* in various particles realised *nē*, with *nɪ*⁺ found only as the non-Liaison Word allomorph of the locative marker. This may be due to phonetic nasalisation following *n*; nasalisation of affix vowels is never phonemic.

Glottalisation occurs in proclitic particles only in *pàʔ* ← **pag* "earlier today."

Long affix *aa* *u* *ʊ* may arise from secondary prolongation in the LF of forms with Apocope Blocking [7.4]. Otherwise, long LF-final *ʊ* is nearly always the result of Liaison before the enclitic pronoun ^o [9.3.1]; all other cases are probably loanwords, like *sūgʊrú*⁺ "forbearance."

LF-final long *aa* *u* appear in the *r^e|a⁺* and *ʔ^o|ɪ⁺* Class plural flexions. The final vowels *-a* *-ɪ* in these plural forms behave like Apocope-Blocked forms before Liaison, with no prolongation of the vowel, except in the case of the form *yáan^e*, plural of *yín^{ne}* "(at) home", the irregular locative of *yīr^{e/}* "house" [22.3].

SF-final *a* *ɪ* *ʊ* correspond to LF-final *aa* *u* *ʊ* everywhere except with the LF *-ya* of Invariable Verbs and (for some speakers) two irregular ^a|*b^a* Class nouns [3.2.2].

The affix vowels *ɪ* and *ʊ* contrast consistently only after velars and word-initially: *ɪ* is the default after alveolars, and *ʊ* after labials, labiodentals and labiovelars. Prefixes, however, show *ʊ* rather than *ɪ* before root *u/ʊ* (*dòndùug*^o "cobra") and *ɪ* instead of *ʊ* before root *i/ɪ* (*kpīkpīn^{na/}* "merchant.") In flexions *-mm* appears in place of **-mʊ*; *ɪ* appears after labial consonants only in perfectives like *zàb^e* "fight" where it is probably analogical. Velars followed by affix-vowel *ʊ* could be internally reconstructed throughout as labiovelars (with 3sg *ò* ← **ɣmò* [17.1] fn), but comparative evidence is against a historical origin of the Class suffix *-g^o* as **-gb^o*. In any case, contrasts of rounded and unrounded affix vowels are found after alveolars outside Southwestern Oti-Volta. In Mooré and Farefare the plural suffix corresponding to singular *-go* is *-do*; *-u* appears as an imperfective verbal flexion after alveolars in Byali and Waama and so on. The proclitic 1pl pronoun *tì* "we" has the contrastive form *tun* in Toende Kusaal; with this, compare e.g. Swahili *tu-*.

6 Tones

The tone system of Kusaal is structurally very similar to the two-tone terracing systems with emic downsteps seen very frequently among the neighbouring and related languages. The realisation is complicated by the fact that historical H tone followed by either L or downstep has become a new H toneme, higher than the original H, which has become the M (mid) toneme in a three-toneme system.

Tonemes are borne only by vocalic morae and by *m n* when syllabic. There are great constraints on the total range of tone patterns for single words, with nominals showing only four distinct basic patterns, and verbs only two.

Word-final tones are affected by following Liaison and Prosodic Clitics; the Interrogative Clitic produces a wholesale replacement of final M tones by L.

Word intrinsic tone patterns are frequently changed by tone overlay [24.6.1.1](#) and tone sandhi [10](#) phenomena.

L is the unmarked toneme in the system, equivalent to the absence of any other toneme. On the question of toneless stems and Tone Pattern O see [8.7](#).

M is the basic marked toneme. It corresponds in comparative terms to the H tone of other Western Oti-Volta languages; I will refer below to "floating M tones", as a shorthand for what would be floating H tones in a more abstract analysis.

H tonemes are of secondary origin. Structurally they represent ML on a single mora, and are equivalent to falling tones or to H! in more typical terracing tone systems, as in Dagbani. Kusaal H tonemes are frequently generated by external tone sandhi. Word-initial H tonemes arise by the change of initial L to H by L Raising [10.1](#) and by the change of initial M to H by M Raising [10.3](#); historically, this is the result of **rightward M spreading**. A word-final M toneme preceding a word beginning with a Fixed L Tone [10.2](#) with no intervening pause becomes H. Diachronically, this represents **leftward L spreading**, H being once again the outcome of ML on a single mora.

Comparative evidence shows that word-internal H tones have arisen in the same way as in external sandhi. **The sequence ML cannot occur word-internally, but must become either HL or MH.** However, for purposes of synchronic description it is simplest to specify the H tonemes directly, as is done in the account of word Tone Patterns below [8.2](#) [8.3](#); a similar decision has been taken with external tone sandhi, directly specifying the conditions under which initial L or final M are changed to H, rather than invoking tone spreading and floating tones [10.1](#).

6.1 Tonemes

There are three tonemes:

H	High, marked with an acute:	<i>gél^e</i> "egg"
M	Mid, marked with a macron:	<i>bāŋ^a</i> "ring"
L	Low, marked with a grave:	<i>bòk^o</i> "pit"

The final mora of a three-mora vowel sequence is always toneless; the final mora of a two-mora vowel sequence *must* carry a toneme if it precedes Liaison 9.3, and *may* (but need not) only if it falls in a closed syllable. Every other vocalic mora carries a toneme unless this has been delinked by H Spreading 6.2.1.

When syllabic, *m n* bear the L toneme, except for the Serialiser particle *n*, which is toneless.

Toneless morae are realised by extension of the toneme of the preceding mora to cover both morae.

Within a word, macrons (for M) and and graves (for L) apply not only to the mora they are written on, but to all following unmarked morae until the next tone mark or until the end of the word.

Kà ì gōs búŋ lā bēogun. "And I looked at the donkey in the morning"
 for *Kà ì gōs búŋ lā bēogūn.*
 And **1SG** look.at:**PFV** donkey:**SG ART** morning:**LOC**.

Lì à nē púkòòŋr lā. "It's the widow."
 for *Lì à nē púkòòŋr lā.*
3NH COP FOC widow:**SG ART**.

After an acute mark, however, an unmarked mora is *toneless*, and the H tone extends over both morae 6.2.1:

Lì kār mólifō +∅. "It's not a gazelle."
3NH NEG.BE gazelle:**SG NEG**.

Nominals with prefixes 16 are written with a tone mark on the root even if it is identical to that on the prefix: *zīnzāyŋ* "bat", *kùkpàrig* "palm tree."

The H toneme is in certain circumstances realised with a preceding *phonetic* downstep, lowering it to M level [6.2.2], but this is entirely a question of surface realisation, and does not affect the relationship of the H to following tonemes.

The mid toneme M is always realised level; L and H are level except before pause, where they are realised as falling tones, beginning at their usual pitch.

H toneme when attached to both morae of a long vowel before pause shows the fall in pitch on the second mora, differing from the sequence HL on a long vowel, where the fall in pitch occurs from the first mora to the second:

	<i>m̄ sáam</i>	"my guests."
but	<i>m̄ gbéèñm</i>	"my sleep"

There is no "automatic" downstepping after L tonemes. However, downstep after L, of both H and M tonemes, does occur after an immediately preceding sequence ML (*not* HL.) This is in practice fairly uncommon, because ML never occurs word-internally, and across word division the underlying sequence ML has normally become either HL (where the L is Fixed-L [10.2]) or MH (by L Raising [10.1].) The only scenario in which a ML sequence remains unaltered with no intervening pause is when a stressed syllable precedes a Fixed-L word; as Fixed-L words are almost all at least potentially Liaison words [9.3], this exception may have arisen relatively recently, with the widespread loss of Liaison before words which are not enclitic [9.3.2].

In cases where the Complementiser *n̄* is realised as segmental zero and is preceded by a M toneme, the downstep remains before a following M or H toneme. As, unlike regular downstepping before H [6.2.2], this is not predictable, it is written explicitly with ↓:

wuu saa naani iank ya nya'an̄ n ti paae ya tuona la.
wūu s̄āa_ ↓ n̄āani j̄áñk yà ñyá'an̄
 like rain:SG COMP then jump:PFV 2PL behind
n tí p̄āé_ yà t̄ùəna l̄ā
 SER afterwards reach:PFV 2PL before.ADV ART
 "like when lightning leaps from East to West" (Mt 24:27)

The final mora of a word-final vowel sequence only carries a toneme if it precedes Liaison. There is an audible difference in tone contour between e.g.

<i>M̄ p̄ū b̄óɔdī_ báa.</i>	"I don't love them." (<i>báa</i> : high falling to mid)
1SG NEG.IND want:IPFV 3PLO.	

and <i>M̄ b̄óɔdī_ báa +ø?.</i>	"Do I love them?" (<i>báa</i> : high falling to low)
1SG want:IPFV 3PLO PQ?	

but this is attributable to the Interrogative falling intonation [10.4.2].

However, there is a contrast in the final tonemes between

Tì ñwéʔ·ō_∅. "We beat him."
1PL beat:PFV 3HUO.

Kà tì ñwéʔ·ò_∅. "And we beat him."
 And **1PL beat:PFV 3HUO.**

In closed syllables, the second mora of a long vowel or diphthong may have a toneme even if it does not precede Liaison. Because a rise in pitch within a syllable is not possible [6.2.3] [8.2.1.1], and ML cannot occur word-internally, the only case which is not due to the effects of Prosodic Clitics where the second mora toneme differs from the first is with the sequence HL:

Lì à nē náaf. "It's a cow."
3NH COP FOC COW:SG.

but *Lì à nē núʔùg.* "It's a hand."
3NH COP FOC hand:SG.

Before the Negative Prosodic Clitic, the L of the sequence HL in a closed syllable is susceptible to replacement by M before the Negative Prosodic Clitic when it is the last L toneme in a LF [10.4.1], so that in that one context HM also occurs.

When the 3sg human-gender pronoun ⁰ appears in its segmentally zero SF form [9.3.1] and the preceding verb form appears with final *-C·ō*, the corresponding LF is in *-C·óo* rather than *-C·óó*:

Ṁ bɔ́ɔd·ō. "I love him/her."
Ṁ p̄ bɔ́ɔd·óo. "I don't love him/her."

6.2 Realisation Rules

These realisation rules apply after all toneme allocation by Tone Patterns [8.1], the imposition of tone overlay by Insubordination Marking [24.6.1.1], and all external tone sandhi [10].

Among themselves, the only necessary ordering is that H Spreading must precede the insertion of downsteps before H tonemes.

6.2.1 H Spreading

If two successive open morae 3.4 carry the tonemes HL, and the L mora is either the second mora of a root vowel or an epenthetic vowel, the L is delinked, and the H is realised across both morae, *unless* the L mora precedes Liaison.

Lì k̄āʔ mólifō +∅. "It's not a gazelle."
3NH NEG.BE gazelle:SG NEG.

Bà k̄āʔ dīʔəsídībā +∅. "They are not receivers."
3PL NEG.BE receiver:PL NEG.

The rule does not apply if either mora is closed:

Lì à nē mólif. "It's a gazelle."
3NH COP FOC gazelle:SG.

Bà à nē dīʔəsídīb. "They are receivers."
3PL COP FOC receiver:PL.

Lì k̄āʔ bōn-sábìllē +∅. "It's not a black thing."
3NH NEG.BE thing-black:SG NEG.

Written intervocalic *k p t* represent the clusters *kk tt pp*; thus

Ka ya pu siakida. "But you did not agree." (Lk 13:34)
Kà yà pū sjákìdā +∅.
 And **2PL NEG.IND agree:IPFV NEG.**

Intervocalic *ŋ* is sometimes treated as single:

dine ka ba pu nar ye ba niŋida. "things they should not be doing" (Rom 1:28)
lìnɿ_ ∅ kà bà pū nār yé bà níŋìdā +∅
 or *lìnɿ_ ∅ kà bà pū nār yé bà níŋìdā* +∅
DEM.NH COMP and 3PL NEG.IND must that 3PL do:IPFV NEG

[Compare the anomalous Tone Patterns of *gīŋulím^m* "shortness" 8.2.1 and *nòŋulím^m* "love" 8.2.3.]

H Spreading does not occur if the L mora falls on a root vowel or an affix vowel; thus with the word *dàgòbìg*^a "left hand", where the *dà-* is a derivational prefix before the root *gòb-* 16:

Lì k̄āʔ d̄áɡòbìgā +∅. "It's not a left hand."
3NH NEG.BE left.hand:SG NEG.

With *dìgá*⁺ "dwarfs", where the *-a* is an affix vowel:

Bà à n̄ē dígà. "They are dwarfs."
3PL COP FOC dwarf:PL.

H Spreading does not apply to a L mora preceding Liaison; thus

Kà ɔ̄n z̄ábì f. "And he fought you."
 And **3HU.CNTR fight:PFV 2SGO.**

shows the same final tones as

Lì à n̄ē m̄ólìf. "It's a gazelle."
3NH COP FOC gazelle:SG.

but *Ò p̄ū z̄ábì f̄ō* +∅. "He didn't fight you."
3HU NEG.IND fight:PFV 2SGO NEG.

cf *Lì k̄āʔ m̄ólìf̄ō* +∅. "It's not a gazelle."
3NH NEG.BE gazelle:SG NEG.

As a consequence of H Spreading, the LF tones of words like *núʔùg*⁰ "hand" coincide completely with those of words with H toneme over a long vowel because of 3-Mora Reduction 8.2.1.1 like *náaf*⁰ "cow."

Lì k̄āʔ núʔugō +∅. "It's not a hand."
3NH NEG.BE hand:SG NEG.

Lì k̄āʔ náaf̄ō +∅. "It's not a cow."
3NH NEG.BE COW:SG NEG.

Superscript Notation 3.2.1 writes such words with the SF tones: *náaf*⁰ *núʔùg*⁰. The syllable-based nature of the rule for downstepping before H 6.2.2 means there is no downstep when the H and L do not fall in the same syllable:

Lì k̄āʔ nóbìrē +∅. "It's not a leg."
3NH NEG.BE leg:SG NEG.

The interaction of these rules produces a three-way contrast, with "leg" and "hand" matching tonally in the SF but "cow" and "hand" in the LF:

Lì à nē nóbìr. "It's a leg."
Lì à nē núʔùg. "It's a hand."
Lì à nē náaf. "It's a cow."

Lì k̄āʔ nóbìrē. "It's not a leg."
Lì k̄āʔ ↓núʔugō. "It's not a hand."
Lì k̄āʔ ↓náafō. "It's not a cow."

The rule for H Spreading given above raises two theoretical problems.

To begin with, the consonant clusters *kk tt pp ηη* are in fact realised as single consonants except in very slow speech. Nevertheless, they have the effect of closing the preceding syllable for the purposes of the rule. This could be encompassed by setting up a rule of degemination applying even later than H Spreading (itself a late realisation rule), or by adding the further condition to the rule that the HL morae should not be separated by an unvoiced consonant. The fluctuation in behaviour of *η* may reflect that the rule is in fact changing in this way. In toneme allocation by Tone Pattern *kk tt pp ηη* also behave as clusters [8.2.1] [8.3.1] but this can be explained in the same way as the tonal anomalies due to the simplification of impermissible consonant clusters [8.2.1.1].

A more serious difficulty is that H Spreading is sensitive to word division even in cases where this involves Liaison:

Ò p̄ū zábì_ fō +∅. "He didn't fight you."
3HU NEG.IND fight:PFV 2SGO NEG.

but *Lì k̄āʔ mólifō* +∅. "It's not a gazelle."
3NH NEG.BE gazelle:SG NEG.

This is problematic because there is no phonological marker of word division in such cases *apart* from tones; other phonological evidence, for example, being the fact that a M toneme never follows L or H word-internally unless it falls on a final vowel preceding a Prosodic Clitic or Liaison Enclitic, where it always reflects a tone change induced by the following clitic [6.1]. (The preservation in texts of word-final fronting diphthongs before Liaison is probably simply orthographic [9.1.3].)

This could instead be analysed as a contrast between marked L tonemes, not subject to H Spreading, as against intrinsically toneless morae, but in the vast majority of cases this would require arbitrary choices on a purely theoretical basis as to whether surface L represented a marked toneme or not, involving absolute neutralisation on a large scale. It is preferable simply to accept that the tone system is sensitive to word divisions for which there is no segmental correlate. The division is in any case justifiable morphologically and syntactically [3.3.2].

Just as H Spreading involves delinking a L toneme after H, so too the same phonological rule might delink M after M and L after L, so that in e.g.

Lì k̄āʔ wābugó ⁺∅. "It's not an elephant."
3NH NEG.BE elephant:SG NEG.

the word *wābugó* had just two tonemes, M and H. However, this would be a purely theoretical matter, as actual surface tone contours would never be affected.

6.2.2 Downstepping before H

Downstep insertion applies after H Spreading.

Downstep is inserted before H after:

H: always

M: if the next following tone falls in a stressed syllable
unless the H is the last H in a question

The exception with questions is due to the interrogative intonation pattern [10.4.2].

Downstep lowers H to the level of an immediately preceding M. Thus, while the sequence MHM is realised with the last M tone is back at the pitch of the first, in M↓HM the final M tone is downstepped below the first.

As these downsteps before H tonemes are predictable, they are not marked in the normal orthography of this grammar, but in this section they are written ↓. ([3.4] recap of stress: monosyllabic words with a short vowel - even full words - are only stressed before pause. Word stress falls on the first root mora, except with LFs before pause, which have stress on the affix instead.)

Examples: Downstep after M before H immediately preceding stress (bold type marks relevant stressed morae):

Downstep before *búnj* "donkey" preceding stressed prepausal *lā* in

Kà m̀ gōs ↓búŋ lā.

And **1SG** look.at:**PFV** donkey:**SG ART**.

"And I looked at the donkey."

but not when there is no stress on the *lā*, as it does not precede pause:

Kà m̀ gōs búŋ lā bēogun.

And **1SG** look.at:**PFV** donkey:**SG ART** morning:**LOC**.

"And I looked at the donkey in the morning."

When the next mora after the H is not stressed there is no downstep.

Lì à nē dšòg lā. "It's the hut."

3NH COP FOC hut:**SG ART**.

With this contrast

Lì à nē ↓náaf lā. "It's the cow."

3NH COP FOC COW:**SG ART**.

where the H toneme is realised over *both* morae of *náaf*, so the actual next following mora is the stressed *lā*.

Again, contrast H on unstressed *sá* preceding a stressed mora in

Bīg lā ↓sá mēɛd yīr lā.

Child:**SG ART** **TNS** build:**IPFV** house:**SG ART**.

"The child was building the house yesterday."

with the case where it is followed by unstressed *mè*:

Bīg lā sá mè yīr lā.

Child:**SG ART** **TNS** build:**PFV** house:**SG ART**.

"The child built the house yesterday."

Similarly, there is downstep before the cb *bú-* "goat" in

Mān ↓bú-pìəl kā'e +∅.

1SG.CNTR goat-white:**SG NEG.BE NEG**.

"My white goat isn't there."

but not when *bú-* precedes the unstressed *sùŋ*:

Mān bú-sùŋ kǎʔe +∅.
1SG.CNTR goat-good:**SG NEG.BE NEG.**
 "My good goat isn't there."

Before stressed *kǎʔe* the second mora of *yūgúm* is preceded by downstep in

Yū↓gúm kǎʔe +∅. "There's no camel."
 Camel:**SG NEG.BE NEG.**

but not before unstressed *lā*:

Yūgúm lā kǎʔe +∅. "The camel's not there."
 Camel:**SG ART NEG.BE NEG.**

The *toneme* on the mora following the H toneme is not relevant:

Mān kúkòm kǎʔe +∅. "My leper isn't there."
1SG.CNTR leper:**SG NEG.BE NEG.**

Mān súsòm kǎʔe +∅.
1SG.CNTR grasshopper:**SG NEG.BE NEG.**
 "My grasshopper isn't there."

Mān kúkōr kǎʔe +∅. "My voice isn't there." (WK tone)
1SG.CNTR voice:**SG NEG.BE NEG.**

LFs before pause transfer stress from the root to the affix:

Lì kǎʔ ñyī↓rífō +∅. "It's not an egusi seed."
3NH NEG.BE egusi:**SG NEG.**

Note the consequent contrast between the H tones on the prefix *pú* in

Lì à nē ↓púkòǎŋr lā. "It's the widow."
3NH COP FOC widow:**SG ART.**

and *Lì kǎʔ púkòǎŋrē* +∅. "It's not a widow."
3NH NEG.BE widow:**SG NEG.**

Ànɔ́ʔɔ̀nì_ø ñyē púkòǎre +ø?
 Who SER see:PFV widow:SG CQ?
 "Who saw a widow?"

However, the **interrogative intonation pattern** 10.4.2 prevents downstep preceding a H syllable even though the next syllable is stressed:

Ò pū yādi ↓gídā +ø. "He isn't scattering."
 3HU NEG.IND scatter:IPFV NEG.

but Ànɔ́ʔɔ̀nì_ø yādi gídà +ø? "Who is scattering?"
 Who SER scatter:IPFV CQ?

Lì kāʔ bī-↓púŋā +ø. "It's not a girl."
 3NH NEG.BE child-girl:SG NEG.

but Lì kāʔ bī-púŋàa +ø? "Isn't it a girl?"
 3NH NEG.BE child-girl:SG PQ?

Ò pū ñyē ↓súʔugā +ø.
 3HU NEG.IND see:PFV knife:SG NEG.
 "She didn't find a knife."

but Ànɔ́ʔɔ̀nì_ø ñyē súʔugà +ø?
 Who SER see:PFV knife:SG CQ.
 "Who found a knife?"

and Ò pū dúgèe +ø +ø? "Didn't she cook?"
 3HU NEG.IND cook:PFV NEG PQ.

Examples: Downstep inserted between any two adjacent H tonemes:

Kà m̄ gōs búŋ lā bēogun.
 And 1SG look.at:PFV donkey:SG ART morning:LOC.
 "And I looked at the donkey in the morning."

but M̄ gōs ↓búŋ lā bēogun.
 1SG look.at:PFV donkey:SG ART morning:LOC.
 "I looked at the donkey in the morning."

Kà m̄ gōs gél lā bēogun.

And **1SG** look.at:**PFV** egg:**SG** **ART** morning:**LOC**.

"And I looked at the egg in the morning."

but *M̄ gōs ↓gél lā bēogun.*

1SG look.at:**PFV** egg:**SG** **ART** morning:**LOC**.

"I looked at the egg in the morning."

Kà m̄ gōs náaf lā bēogun.

And **1SG** look.at:**PFV** donkey:**SG** **ART** morning:**LOC**.

"And I looked at the cow in the morning."

but *M̄ gōs ↓náaf lā bēogun.*

1SG look.at:**PFV** cow:**SG** **ART** morning:**LOC**.

"I looked at the cow in the morning."

6.2.3 LM Levelling

The sequence LM within a single syllable becomes MM.

Underlying LM on a single syllable can arise in two ways: by change of the toneme of the final mora of a long vowel before Liaison [10.5], or as a result of the assignment of M toneme to the last L mora of a LF at the end of a statement or command [10.4.1].

mēen *mè⁺* "build" + *n^e* rem (← *mèēn*)

Lì ká? ò tīmm +∅. "It's not her medicine." (← *tīmm*)
3NH NEG.BE 3HU medicine **NEG.**

Ò pū dá? wìdī +∅. "She didn't buy horses." (← *wìdī*)
3HU NEG.IND buy:**PFV** horse:**PL** **NEG.**

Lì ká? bà dā?a +∅. "It's not their market." (← *dā?a*)
3NH NEG.BE 3PL market:**SG** **NEG.**

As a tone realisation rule, LM Levelling naturally applies later than external tone sandhi such as L Raising [10.1]:

Dāy lā mēēn
 Man:SG ART build:PFV:REM

"The man built (earlier today.)"

Lì kāʔ tīmm +∅.
 3NH NEG.BE medicine NEG.

"It's not medicine."

Similarly, it applies later than the external sandhi change of M toneme to H before Fixed-L words [10.2](#):

Bà gòsī̄_ bā.
 3PL look.at:PFV 3PLO.

"They looked at them."

Bà gòsí_ bà bīs.
 3PL look.at:PFV 3PL child:PL.

"They looked at their children."

Tì gòsī̄_ bā.
 1PL look.at:PFV 3PLO.

"We looked at them."

Tì gòsí_ bà bīs.
 1PL look.at:PFV 3PL child:PL.

"We looked at their children."

A rise in tone is permitted between the first and second morae of a three-mora vowel sequence because such sequences are disyllabic, dividing V+V: [3.4](#); thus three-mora vowel sequences ending in LM are realised as ending in M over both morae:

Ò káʔ m̀ sàbùāa +∅. "She's not my girlfriend."
 3HU NEG.BE 1SG girlfriend:SG NEG.

7 Word Segmental Structure

7.1 Roots, Prefixes and Suffixes

Word structure is based on **roots**. Roots have the forms (C)V(C) or (C)V:(C). Stressed syllables with no initial consonant may be realised with an initial glottal stop [ʔ] but this is synchronically not a consonant but simply a prosodic feature:

<i>sāan</i> ^{a/}	"stranger"	[sa:n]
<i>úun</i> ^{ne}	"dry season"	[ʔu:n], [u:n]

Root vowels may show the full range of possible Kusaal vowels, including contrastive length, nasalisation and glottalisation. The basic *underlying* root vowels are

<i>a</i>	<i>ja/ε</i>	<i>ɥa/ɔ</i>		<i>i</i>	<i>u</i>	<i>ɪ</i>	<i>ʊ</i>
<i>aa</i>	<i>iə</i>	<i>uə</i>	<i>εε</i>	<i>ɔɔ</i>	<i>ii</i>	<i>uu</i>	<i>ɪɪ</i>

The digraphs represent *monophthongs*, short or long, affected by Agolle Vowel Breaking [5.1.1]. At this underlying level, short *ja* *ɥa* are in complementary distribution with *ε* *ɔ* respectively [5.1.1], all long vowels have glottalised counterparts, and all vowels have contrastively nasalised counterparts except for *iə* *uə* *ɪ* *ʊ* *ɪɪ* *ʊʊ*. Short *i* *u* only occur nasalised after *m* *n* and *ñy* *ñw* ← *n* *ŋm*, however [5.2.1].

A few words contain the **Primary Diphthongs** *av* and *ãũ* [5.2.3]. Additional primary diphthongs *jaʔa* *vʔa* *jäʔã* *ũʔã* have arisen by a historical lenition of root-final *g [7.1.1.1].

The long vowels frequently undergo fronting or rounding of their second morae before fronted or rounded segments [7.3.2] [9.3.1.1]; deletion of final vowels by Apocope may then remove conditioning factors, with the result that contrastive diphthongs arise:

<i>vīid</i> ^{e/}	"owls"	but	sg <i>vīug</i> ^{o/}	"owl"
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Only *b* *d* *g* *l* *m* *n* *s* *r* occur as second consonants of roots.

Stems are derived from roots by adding from zero to two **derivational suffixes** [15] of the form C and in the case of nominals by adding optional **prefixes** [15.2.2].

Derivational suffixes comprise the consonants *g* *s* *n* *l* *d* *m*, with *r* in a few words which are probably loanwords. No word has more than two derivational suffixes; *g* *s* *n* cannot follow another suffix at all, and *l* only does so in a few nominals derived from other nominals. The suffix *d* occurs almost exclusively in nominal

derivatives from verb stems and frequently supplants a preceding derivational suffix or is itself omitted. (C)V:C roots do not occur with two suffixes, and must assume the allomorph (C)VC before a suffix of a type which cannot follow another 7.1.1.2.

Prefixes are of the forms *V CV CVn CVsn CVln*. They only occur in nominal stems. Their vowels are limited to the short **affix vowels** *a ɪ ʊ* and show no contrastive glottalisation or nasalisation. A few stems have two successive prefixes.

<i>tītāʔar^e</i>	"big"	<i>bùmbàrɪg^a</i>	"ant"
<i>sīlɪnsíùŋg^o</i>	"spider"	<i>tàsɪntàl^{le}</i>	"palm of hand"

A stem may constitute a word by itself, or may add a single **flexional suffix**. The flexional suffixes are *a ba ga sɪ fʊ ʌ rɪ lɪ aa gʊ dɪ mm bʊ da ma na la*. These draw their vowels from the set of **affix vowels** *a ɪ ʊ* which here may be short or long:

<i>a</i>	<i>ɪ</i>	<i>ʊ</i>
<i>aa</i>	<i>ɪɪ</i>	<i>ʊʊ</i>

Affix vowels show no contrastive nasalisation or glottalisation.

Final *-mm* represents *-mʊ*; it is realised as geminate consonantal [m:] but still patterns in most respects as if the final *m* were syllabic.

LF-final short *ɪ ʊ* normally appear as *e o* [e] [o].

Stem	<i>bíi-</i>	"child"	sg <i>bīig^a</i>	pl <i>bīis^e</i>
	<i>dòɔ-</i>	"hut"	sg <i>dòɔg^o</i>	pl <i>dòɔd^e</i>
	<i>kùʔə-</i>	"water"	sg <i>kùʔəm^m</i>	

The vowel-initial flexions introduce an epenthetic consonant after a root ending in a vowel. In productive forms this is always *y* or *d* 7.2.2:

Stem	<i>nɔɔ-</i>	"mouth"	sg <i>nɔɔr^{el}</i>	pl <i>nɔɔyá⁺</i>
	<i>yúʔu-</i>	"name"	sg <i>yúʔur^{el}</i>	pl <i>yúdá⁺</i>

No consonant clusters may occur word-initially, and only *-mm* (derived from *-mʊ*, as noted above) word-finally.

Clusters of homorganic nasal + C may occur where nominal prefixes attach to the root or to another nominal prefix.

<i>kòndùŋ^a</i>	"jackal"
<i>gōmpōzēr^{el}</i>	"duck"

Consonant clusters following the root vowel may only be *kk tt pp ηη nn mm ll* or *mn*. Other two-member consonant clusters only occur between words (including between the members of compounds) and word-internally in loanwords:

ñwād-bíl^a

"star" (for the hyphen see above 3.3)

bùrkìn^a

"honourable/free/honest person" (← Songhay)

All other pairs of consonants within words are separated by **epenthetic vowels**. Adjacent pairs of consonants either assimilate to a permitted cluster or a single consonant, or insert an epenthetic vowel, which is *ɪ* by default but may be rounded to *ʊ* by adjacent consonants or after a short rounded root vowel 5.3.

Stem	<i>ñwād-</i> "month"	+ sg <i>-ga</i>	→	<i>ñwādɪgá</i>	LF <i>ñwādɪg</i>	SF
		+ pl <i>-sɪ</i>	→	<i>ñwādɪsé</i>	LF <i>ñwādɪs</i>	SF
Stem	<i>kōg-</i> "chair"	+ sg <i>-ga</i>	→	<i>kōka</i>	LF <i>kōk</i>	SF
		+ pl <i>-sɪ</i>	→	<i>kōgʊse</i>	LF <i>kōgʊs</i>	SF
Stem	<i>nób-</i> "leg"	+ sg <i>-rɪ</i>	→	<i>nóbɪrè</i>	LF <i>nóbɪr</i>	SF
Stem	<i>dūm-</i> "knee"	+ pl <i>-aa</i>	→	<i>dūmaa</i>	LF <i>dūma</i>	SF
Stem	<i>dūm-</i> "knee"	+ sg <i>-rɪ</i>	→	<i>dūmne</i>	LF <i>dūm</i>	SF

Deletion of word-final *-o* after velars by Apocope may lead to a contrast between round and unrounded epenthetic vowels 7.3.2:

	<i>āañdɪg^a</i>	← <i>*āāndɪga</i>	"black plum tree"
but	<i>gàadʊg^o</i>	← <i>*gaadɪgʊ</i>	"(sur)passing" (gerund)

7.1.1 Root Alternations

7.1.1.1 CV:~CV

The majority of roots ending in a root vowel show a long vowel before all consonant-initial flexional and derivational suffixes: *kō*⁺ "kill" imperfective *kōud*^{a/}.

Some root-stems with short CV- throughout are probably single-mora roots:

<i>yīr</i> ^{e/}	"house"	<i>yā</i> ^{+/}	plural
<i>zā</i> ^{+/}	"millet"		
<i>kī</i> ^{+/}	"cereal, millet"		
<i>mūj</i> ⁺	"rice"		
<i>bīl</i> ^a	"little"	<i>bībīs</i> ^e	plural
<i>zūg</i> ^{o/}	"head"	<i>zūt</i> ^{e/}	plural

The cbs of such words may behave tonally like nominal prefixes [8.2.5](#), probably because, unlike all other cbs, they have not undergone Apocope.

Various words showing short CV- stems throughout have most likely levelled the short vowel which has arisen by phonological rule in one form [11.2.1](#).

Some roots ending in a root vowel show short vowels before some suffixes and long vowels before others. Such roots fall into two categories.

When the long-vowel variant is **glottalised**, the vowel is always one of the set *a[?]a* *ja[?]a* *u[?]a* or nasalised *ã[?]ã* *jã[?]ã* *ũ[?]ã*; *u[?]a* *ũ[?]ã* appear as *u[?]aa* *u[?]ãã* word-finally [5.2.3](#).

Before flexional and derivational suffixes beginning with *g, the vowel is shortened and loses its glottalisation, while the *g becomes *kk*:

<i>zàk</i> ^a	"compound"	<i>zà[?]as</i> ^e	plural	(<i>g^a s^e</i> Class)
<i>lāuk</i> ^o	"item of goods"	<i>lā[?]ad</i> ^e	plural	(<i>g^o d^e</i> Class)
<i>yàk</i> ^e	"unhang"	<i>yà[?]al</i> ^e	"hang up"	
<i>pjàuñk</i> ^o	"word"	<i>pjà[?]ñ[?]ad</i> ^e	plural	(<i>g^o d^e</i> Class)
<i>pūāk</i> ^a	"female" (adj)	<i>pū[?]as</i> ^e	plural	(<i>g^a s^e</i> Class)
<i>pū[?]ā</i> ^a	"woman"	<i>pū[?]ab</i> ^a	plural	(<i>a^a b^a</i> Class)
<i>bàk</i> ^o	"pit"	<i>bū[?]ad</i> ^e	plural	(<i>g^o d^e</i> Class)

With roots in *ja[?]a* *u[?]a* *jã[?]ã* *ũ[?]ã* this behaviour is invariable. These vowels contrast with long *i[?]a* *u[?]a*, though not with the corresponding short vowels created from *i[?]a* *u[?]a* by Apocope [3.2.2](#). However, root-stems in *a[?]a* or *ã[?]ã* may either pattern like this or show the same behaviour as regular *aa* *ãã* roots, as a lexical matter in each case:

<i>dà[?]a</i> ⁼	"market"	<i>dà[?]as</i> ^e	plural	(<i>g^a s^e</i> Class)
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Comparative evidence shows that the glottalisation in these stems is secondary to the deletion of an underlying historical root-final **g*, and the *kk* forms are the outcome of the regular consonant assimilation **gg* → *kk* [7.2.1]; compare the deletion of **g* after *aa iə uə ãã ěě ỹỹ* (and their glottalised counterparts) treated in [7.3.1], where the process of deletion is regarded as a synchronic rule. The deletion of **g* after short vowels is probably quite recent historically [3.5].

The LFs of perfectives of verbs of this type end in a long vowel as usual:

piãñ^a "speak" pfv *piãñ^aad^{a/}* imperfective

The sole verbal form which is not a Variable Verb shows a fronting diphthong:

kā[?]e⁺ "not be"

Non-glottalised roots of this kind show the long vowel before suffixes beginning with **g* and the short vowel elsewhere. The explanation is probably again to be sought in deletion of root-final consonants, but in this case the process has occurred much earlier in the history of the Western Oti-Volta family, and the forms have been subject to considerable analogical levelling within paradigms (see below).

Suffixes beginning with **d* change this to *tt*, and **b* changes to *pp*, but before suffixes beginning with **g* the long vowel remains:

<i>fūug^{o/}</i>	"clothing"		pl <i>fūt^{e/}</i>	
<i>pōōg^{o/}</i>	"field"		pl <i>pōōt^{e/}</i>	
<i>dòōg^o</i>	"hut"		pl <i>dòōt^e</i>	
<i>dāvg^o</i>	"male"	cf	<i>dāp^a</i>	"men"
<i>tōōg^o</i>	"bitter"	cf	<i>tōē^{ya/}</i>	"be bitter"
<i>gāañ^{=/}</i>	"ebony tree"	cf	<i>gāñ^{e/}</i>	"ebony fruit"
	(← <i>*gããga</i>)			

Idiosyncratic singular forms are seen in the two ^a|^b Class nouns [3.2.2]

<i>dāu⁺</i>	"man"	pl <i>dāp^a</i>
<i>tāuñ^{+/}</i>	"opposite-sex sib"	pl <i>tāñp^{a/}</i>

The long vowel before a nominal singular suffix *-g^a* or *-g^o* is usually generalised throughout the flexional paradigm. Thus the alternative plural forms occur

<i>fūug^{o/}</i>	"clothing"	pl <i>fūud^{e/}</i>
<i>pōōg^{o/}</i>	"field"	pl <i>pōōd^{e/}</i>
<i>dòōg^o</i>	"hut"	pl <i>dòōd^e</i>

and the plurals *always* show long vowels in

<i>dāv</i> ^o	"male"	pl <i>dāad</i> ^e
<i>tōg</i> ^o	"bitter"	pl <i>tōd</i> ^e
<i>gāaṅ</i> ^{=/}	"ebony tree"	pl <i>gāaṅs</i> ^{e/}

Variable Verbs which show a short vowel before imperfective *-t^a* invariably introduce it into the *-m^a* imperative, with gemination of the *m*; from a historical point of view this too is due to analogical levelling:

<i>ṅyē</i> ⁺	"see"	ipfv <i>ṅyēt</i> ^{a/}	imp <i>ṅyèm</i> ^a
<i>dō</i> ⁺	"rise"	ipfv <i>dōt</i> ^{a/}	imp <i>dòm</i> ^a
<i>lù</i> ⁺ or <i>lì</i> ⁺	"fall"	ipfv <i>lùt</i> ^a or <i>lìt</i> ^a	imp <i>lùm</i> ^a or <i>lìm</i> ^a
<i>zò</i> ⁺	"run"	ipfv <i>zòt</i> ^a	imp <i>zòm</i> ^a
<i>dì</i> ⁺	"eat"	ipfv <i>dìt</i> ^a	imp <i>dìm</i> ^a
<i>yī</i> ⁺	"emerge"	ipfv <i>yīt</i> ^{a/}	imp <i>yìm</i> ^a

The irregular verb

<i>kē</i> ⁺	"allow"	ipfv <i>kēt</i> ^{a/}	imp <i>kèl</i> ^a
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does not show gemination of the initial of the unique suffix *-l^a*.

Before *derivational* suffixes the vowel is usually long:

<i>dìs</i> ^e	"feed"	cf	<i>dì</i> ⁺	"eat"
<i>vō[?]ug</i> ^{e/}	"come alive"	cf	<i>vōr</i> ^{e/}	"alive"
			<i>vōḡ</i> ^{ya/}	"be alive"
			<i>vōm</i> ^{m/}	"life"
<i>dàalum</i> ^m	"masculinity"	cf	<i>dāp</i> ^a	"men"

There are exceptions with *-s-*:

<i>gōs</i> ^e	"look"	ipfv <i>gōt</i> ^{a/} or <i>gōsɪd</i> ^{a/}	imp <i>gòm</i> ^{ma} or <i>gòsɪm</i> ^a
<i>tìs</i> ^e	"give"	ipfv <i>tìt</i> ^a or <i>tìsɪd</i> ^a	
<i>yīs</i> ^e	"make go/come out"	<i>yī</i> ⁺	"emerge"

The causative *yīs*^e has a by-form *yīs^{e/}*; this is clearly shown to be analogical by its gerund *yīsíb*^o, the unique 3-mora stem in the *b^o* Class.

Regularly formed *gerunds* show long vowels: *dīlb*^o "food", *ñyēɛb*^{o/} "seeing."

n̄-íṣ̀r^e "fasting" ("mouth-tying")
fū-yéṣ̀r^e "shirt-wearing" (WK, nonce-form)

There are two instances of a short vowel before *-r*^e :

nāʔ-l̄r^e "place in the compound for tying up cows" WK
wìd-l̄r^{e/} "place in the compound for tying up horses" WK

As with *glottalised* alternating *CV:~CV* types, the explanation of these phenomena probably lies in the deletion or assimilation of historical root-final consonants. However, any such root-final consonants have been lost in the related languages too, in most cases without trace. Nevertheless, comparison with Mooré suggests that such roots originally had the form **CVY* or **CVW*, where **Y* **W* represent original palatals and labials (or labiovelars) of some kind:

<u>Mooré</u>	<u>Kusaal</u>	
<i>zoe</i>	<i>zò</i> ⁺	"run"
<i>koεεga</i>	<i>kòk̄r</i> ^{e/}	"voice"
<i>lui</i>	<i>lù</i> ⁺ or <i>lì</i> ⁺	"fall"
<i>raopa</i>	<i>dāp</i> ^a	"men"
<i>tãõ</i>	<i>tñ</i> ⁺	"shoot"
<i>tãpo</i> ["bow"]	<i>tãñp</i> ^o	"war"

The allomorphs with short vowels and a following geminate consonant may thus have originated from consonant assimilation of root-final **Y* with following alveolars and root-final **W* with following labials. The (C)V: allomorphs seen before velars would result from insertion of an epenthetic vowel with subsequent lenition of the **W*/**Y* and development of a long vowel by Fusion; this provides a phonologically natural explanation of the rule that non-glottalised *CV:~CV* root-stems show a long vowel before velar-initial suffixes. The monophthongal forms in verb perfectives can be accounted for by levelling: SFs ending in a vowel correspond to LFs with the vowel lengthened in all cases except Invariable Verbs [3.2.2]. As explained above, plural forms corresponding to singulars with suffixes beginning with velars have generally acquired long vowels by levelling from the singular, and Variable Verbs with a short vowel preceding *-t^a* in the imperfective also show a short vowel in the *-m^a* imperative (with gemination of the *m*) in accordance with the usual strongly marked tendency to levelling within verb paradigms.

Roots originally ending in **W/*Y* may explain the singulars of the ^a|*b*^a nouns

<i>dāy</i> ⁺	"man" 3.2.2	pl <i>dāp</i> ^a
<i>tāyñ</i> ^{+/}	"sib of opposite sex"	pl <i>tāñp</i> ^{a/}
<i>sāḡñ</i> ⁺	"blacksmith"	pl <i>sāañb</i> ^a
or <i>sāḡñ</i> ^{ya}		
<i>sōḡñ</i> ⁺	"witch"	pl <i>sōḡñb</i> ^a
or <i>sōḡñ</i> ^{ya}		

The [w] of *dāy*⁺ and *tāyñ*^{+/} might be originally part of the class suffix (cf the "stranded cb" *dà-* 16.4), but *sāḡñ*⁺ and *sōḡñ*⁺ must have stems in **y* (perhaps ← **ŋ*.)
A similar development to the plurals *dāp*^a *tāñp*^{a/} is seen in

<i>tòñ</i> ⁺	"shoot"	<i>tāñp</i> ^o	"war"
cf <i>tāō</i>	"shoot" (Moore)	<i>tap</i>	"bow" (Nabit)

The -y- of the Adjectival Verbs *vūḡ*^{ya/} "be alive" and *tōḡ*^{ya/} "be bitter" would likewise reflect an original root-final consonant before a vowel-initial suffix 13.2.2. The adjective *vūr*^{e/} "alive" would owe its short vowel to consonant assimilation, and the short vowel of *vūm*^{m/} "life" would be based on the analogy of the adjective.

See further on epenthetic consonants 7.2.2.

7.1.1.2 CV:C~CVC

Roots of the form (C)V:C are confirmed by cases where they alternate with (C)VC. This happens in flexion with a few very common nouns:

<i>zíḡ</i> ^a (← <i>*zímgà</i>)	<i>zīm</i> ⁱ ⁺	<i>zīm-</i>	"fish"
<i>nāaf</i> ^o (← <i>*nāagfù</i>)	<i>nīḡ</i> ⁱ ⁺	<i>nā?</i> ⁻ (← <i>*nāg-</i>)	"cow"
<i>wāaf</i> ^o (← <i>*wāagfù</i>)	<i>wīḡ</i> ⁱ ⁺	<i>wā?</i> ⁻ (← <i>*wāg-</i>)	"snake"
<i>pīim</i> ^{m/}	<i>pīmá</i> ⁺		"arrow"
<i>yūum</i> ^{me}	<i>yūma</i> ⁺		"year"

In derivation the alternation appears too:

<i>tūuma</i> ⁺	"work" noun	<i>tùm</i> ^m	"work" verb
<i>yēóḡ</i>	"one"	<i>yīyḡ</i> ^{o/}	"single"
<i>kāal</i> ^{e/}	"count"	<i>kāl</i> ^{le/}	"number"
<i>màal</i> ^e	"sacrifice" verb	<i>mālyḡ</i> ^o	"sacrifice" noun
<i>tūulúḡ</i> ^o	"hot"	<i>tū</i> ^{la/}	"be hot"

The alternation in *yīis^{e/}/yīs^e* "make go/come out" is of a different origin [7.1.1.1].

There is no obvious rule governing this alternation in flexion or in zero-derivation. Before verb-deriving suffixes, however, the short allomorph always appears:

	<i>pìəlɪg^a</i>	"white"	<i>pèlɪg^e</i>	"whiten"
	<i>kpĩ^ooŋ^o</i>	"strong"	<i>kpè^eʔŋ^e</i>	"strengthen"
	<i>lìəb^e</i>	"become"	<i>lèbɪg^e</i>	"turn over"
	<i>tūvúg^o</i>	"hot"	<i>tūlɪg^{e/}</i>	"heat"
	<i>yāār^{e/}</i>	"scatter"	<i>yādɪg^{e/}</i>	"scatter"
	<i>dēɛŋ^a</i>	"first"	<i>dèŋ^e</i>	"go first"
	<i>pìəb^e</i>	"blow" (flute)	<i>pèbɪs^e</i>	"blow" (wind)
	<i>yùul^e</i>	"swing" intrans	<i>yùlɪg^e</i>	"swing" transitive
cf	<i>ēɛñb^e</i>	"lay a foundation"		cf Mooré <i>yēbge</i> id

In nominal derivation the only suffix found after a (C)V:C allomorph is *-l-*, which is distinctive segmentally [15.1.2] and tonally [8.6], and in this function is added to entire nominal stems rather than roots:

sáannìm^m "strangerhood" (**saanlɪmm*)

(C)V:C roots shorten the vowel if *k t* or *p* results from the combination of the final consonant and a following suffix, but this is a phonological constraint rather than a morphological rule [7.3.3].

7.1.1.3 CV:~CVC

In sporadic cases a (C)V: root alternates with (C)VC. Most cases seem to represent historical alternations between *d* and *b* respectively and the lenited root-final palatal *Y and labiovelar *W mentioned in [7.1.1.1].

<i>wìid^a</i>	"draw water" ipfv	<i>wìk^e</i>	id, pfv (← * <i>wiggɪ</i>)
<i>vĩ⁺</i>	"uproot"	<i>vĩk^{e/}</i>	"uproot" (← * <i>viggɪ</i>)

*Y/d type:

	<i>lĩ⁺</i>	"tie"	<i>lĩdɪg^{e/}</i>	"untie"
cf	<i>lɔ</i>	"tie" (Dagbani)	<i>lɔrgɪ</i>	"untie" (Dagbani)
	<i>loe</i>	"tie" (Mooré)	<i>loke</i> or <i>lodge</i>	"untie" (Mooré)

	<i>pō</i> ⁺	"divide"		<i>pōdɪg</i> ^{e/}	"divide"
cf	<i>poi</i>	"divide"	(Mooré)		
	<i>pē[?]-sá[?]a</i> ⁼	"ewe lamb"		<i>pū[?]à-sādir</i> ^{e/}	"young woman"
cf	<i>pɔ'ɔ-sa'a</i>	"young woman"		(Toende)	
pl	<i>pɔ'ɔ-sa'as</i>				
	<i>pug-sarga</i>	"young woman"		(Farefare)	
pl	<i>pug-sarsɪ</i>				
	<i>pugsada</i>	"young woman"		(Mooré)	
pl	<i>pugsadba</i>				

Toende Kusaal has, corresponding to Agolle *b̀̀dɪg*^e "lose, get lost":

<i>b̀̀</i>	"perdre, disparaître"	<i>b̀̀rɪg</i>	"fondre, disparaître"
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*W/b type:

	<i>dāy</i> ⁺	"man"		<i>b̀̀-̀̀dɪbɪŋ</i> ^a	"boy"
cf	<i>biribla</i>	"boy"	(Mooré) with	<i>dāy</i> ⁺	"man"
	<i>bipugla</i>	"girl"	(Mooré) with	<i>pū[?]ā</i>	"woman" (*pūag-)
	<i>nō</i> ⁺	"tread"		<i>nóbir</i> ^e	"foot" 7.2.2
cf	<i>nao</i>	"tread"	(Mooré)	<i>naore</i>	"foot" (Mooré)

7.1.1.4 Glottalisation before Derivational Suffixes

Roots in oral ɔɔ become glottalised before derivational *g and *s:

<i>kɔ</i> ⁺	"break" intrans	<i>kɔ[?]ɔg</i> ^e	"break" transitive/intransitive
<i>kɔɔlúŋ</i> ^o	"broken"	<i>kɔ[?]ɔs</i> ^e	"break several times"
<i>pɔɔd</i> ^a	"be few"	<i>pɔ[?]ɔg</i> ^e	"diminish"

Glottalisation also occurs before derivational *g in

<i>vō[?]e</i> ^{ya/}	"be alive"	<i>vō[?]ug</i> ^{e/}	"make, come alive"
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7.2 Consonant Changes

For deletion of underlying **g* after *aa iə uə ãã ěě ỹỹ* see [7.3.1]; for a historical process of deletion of **g* after *a ja ɥa ã jã ɥã* see [7.1.1.1].

7.2.1 Assimilation versus Insertion of Epenthetic Vowels

Adjacent consonants within a word must either assimilate to a one of the clusters *kk pp tt ŋŋ mm nn ll mn* or insert an **epenthetic vowel** (*ɪ* by default.) This process regarded as taking place in two steps, because of tonal considerations. At the stage where word stem Tone Patterns are assigned [8.2.1.1], three clusters **nf *ns *rr* are present which are not permitted in surface forms and are subsequently simplified [7.2.1.1]. The clusters *kk pp tt ŋŋ* are written with single symbols: *k p t ŋ*.

Roots can end only in vowels or in *g d b m n r s l*; stems may also end in consonant clusters or *k t p ŋ*; flexional suffixes begin with vowels or *g d b m r s l f*.

Nasals usually take up the position of articulation of a following consonant, and then homorganic consonants mostly form clusters, with some exceptions among alveolars, where changes attested in derivation have apparently been levelled in flexion [7.2.1.2].

The treatment of the possible pairs is as follows, with + representing the insertion of an epenthetic vowel. Suffixes beginning with *l f* do not occur in productive paradigms, so there are gaps in the table.

	<i>g</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>m</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>s</i>	<i>l</i>	<i>f</i>	←2nd consonant
<i>g</i>)	<i>kk</i>	+	+	+	+	+			
<i>d</i>)	+	<i>tt</i>	+	+	+	+			
<i>b</i>)	+	+	<i>pp</i>	[<i>mm</i>]	+	+			
<i>m</i>)	<i>ŋŋ</i>	<i>mn</i>	<i>mm</i>	<i>mm</i>	<i>mn</i>	[<i>ns</i>]	<i>nn</i>		
<i>n</i>)	<i>ŋŋ</i>	<i>nn</i>	<i>mm</i>	+	<i>nn</i>	<i>ns</i>	<i>nn</i>	<i>nf</i>	
<i>r</i>)	+	+	+	+	<i>rr</i>	+	<i>tt</i>	+	
<i>s</i>)	+	+	+	+	+	+			
<i>l</i>)	+	<i>nn</i>	+	+	<i>ll</i>	+	<i>ll</i>	+	
↑1st consonant									

Epenthesis often occurs instead of assimilation after *m n* [7.2.1.3.1].

Potential pairs with **y* as the second consonant are an issue only with Invariable Verbs [13.2] and effectively belong to derivation rather than flexion.

The unusual change *ld* → *nn* is carried out completely regularly; Dagbani and Mooré have similar assimilation rules.

The forms in square brackets occur only under certain phonological conditions:

bm → *mm* only occurs after a short root vowel
ms → *ns* never occurs after a short root vowel; elsewhere it is optional.
 Assimilation and epenthesis occur side by side in many words.

Derivation precedes flexion in cluster development. Stem-final consonant clusters never assimilate further to a following suffix. Apparent cases are probably all attributable to levelling: for possible **llr* → *ll* see on the deverbal adjective forms of the Invariable Verb *dēl*^{a/} "lean" [13.2.1].

Examples:

<i>*gg</i> → <i>kk</i>	<i>gìgɪs</i> ^e	"dumb people"	sg	<i>gìk</i> ^a
cf	<i>kōlɪs</i> ^e	"river"	sg	<i>kōlɪg</i> ^a
<i>*dd</i> → <i>tt</i>	<i>bùd</i> ^e	"plant"	ipfv	<i>bùt</i> ^a
cf	<i>dūg</i> ^e	"cook"	ipfv	<i>dūgud</i> ^{a/}
<i>*bb</i> → <i>pp</i>	<i>sōb</i> ^e	"write"	ger	<i>sōp</i> ^{o/}
cf	<i>kpàr</i> ^e	"lock"	ger	<i>kpārɪb</i> ^o
<i>*ld</i> → <i>nn</i>	<i>kòlvug</i> ^o	"bag"	pl	<i>kòn</i> ^{ne}
cf	<i>zūəbúg</i> ^o	"hair"	pl	<i>zūəbíd</i> ^e
<i>*mg</i> → <i>ŋŋ</i>	<i>bòmɪs</i> ^e	"donkeys"	sg	<i>bùŋ</i> ^a
cf	<i>ñwādɪs</i> ^{e/}	"months"	sg	<i>ñwādɪg</i> ^{a/}
<i>*ng</i> → <i>ŋŋ</i>	<i>gbàna</i> ⁺	"books"	sg	<i>gbàŋ</i> ^o
cf	<i>wābɪd</i> ^{e/}	"elephants"	sg	<i>wābvug</i> ^{o/}
<i>*nr</i> → <i>nn</i>	<i>tāna</i> ⁺	"earths"	sg	<i>tān</i> ^{ne}
cf	<i>dìga</i> ⁺	"dwarfs"	sg	<i>dìgɪr</i> ^e
<i>*mr</i> → <i>mn</i>	<i>dūma</i> ⁺	"knees"	sg	<i>dūm</i> ^{ne}
cf	<i>nōbá</i> ⁺	"legs"	sg	<i>nóbɪr</i> ^e
<i>*lr</i> → <i>ll</i>	<i>gēlá</i> ⁺	"eggs"	sg	<i>gél</i> ^{le}
cf	<i>kūgá</i> ⁺	"stones"	sg	<i>kūgɪr</i> ^{e/}
<i>*nb</i> → <i>mm</i>	<i>sāan</i> ^{a/}	"stranger"	pl	<i>sáam</i> ^{ma}
cf	<i>nīd</i> ^{a/}	"person"	pl	<i>nīdɪb</i> ^{a/}

<i>*mb</i> → <i>mm</i>	<i>kìm^m</i>	"tend flock"	ger	<i>kīm^{mo}</i>
cf	<i>kàd^e</i>	"drive away"	ger	<i>kādib^o</i>

Language names in /^e:

<i>*ll</i> → <i>ll</i>	<i>Bùl^{le}</i>	"Buli"	spoken by	<i>Bùlɪs^e</i>	Bulsa
	<i>Àgò^{le}</i>	Kusaal	of the	<i>Àgò^{le}</i>	Agolle area
<i>*rl</i> → <i>tt</i>	<i>Bāt^{e/}</i>	"Bisa"	spoken by	<i>Bāɪs^{e/}</i>	Bisa
	<i>Yāt^{e/}</i>	"Yarsi"	spoken by	<i>Yāɪs^{e/}</i>	Yarsi

but there is also *Ñwāmpūɾl^{e/}* "Mampruli", spoken by the *Ñwāmpūɾɪs^{e/}* "Mamprussi."

**nl* → *nn* and **ml* → *nn*

<i>Dàgbān^{ne/}</i>	"Dagbani"	spoken by	<i>Dàgbām^{ma/}</i>	Dagomba
<i>Yàan^{ne}</i>	"Yansi"	spoken by	<i>Yàamɪs^e</i>	Yansi
<i>Gōrín^{ne}</i>	"Farefare"	spoken by	<i>Gōrɪs^e</i>	Farefare

but there is also *Kàmbùnr^e* "Twi", the language of the *Kàmbùmɪs^e* "Ashanti."

Many other examples of consonant assimilation can be seen in the Flexion sections [11](#) [12](#) [13.1](#).

7.2.1.1 Cluster Simplification

The clusters **ns* **nf* **rr* are present at the stage of stem toneme assignment by Tone Patterns but are impermissible in surface forms (except for **ns* **nf* between a nominal prefix and a root) and are simplified. Unlike *k t p ŋ*, the consonants *s f r* are never actually heard as geminates, however.

**ns* becomes *s* with nasalisation of a preceding root vowel, and lengthening of a preceding short root vowel:

<i>tēŋ^a</i>	"land"	pl	<i>tēɛñs^e</i>	← <i>*tɛnsɪ</i>
<i>kòlŋ^a</i>	"door"	pl	<i>kòlɪs^e</i>	← <i>*kɔlɪnsɪ</i>

Exceptionally, an *epenthetic* vowel becomes long before **ns* in

bōtɪŋ^a "cup" pl *bōtɪs^e*

This probably reflects a reanalysis of the form as nominal prefix *bū* + *tɪŋ^a* [3.4].

**ss* not originating from **ns* has probably been simplified to *-s-* in a number of words historically, but the evidence is quite indirect.

The sg agent nouns *sòs^a* "beggar" and *tìs^a* "giver" drop the formant *-d-* and have Tone Pattern L like 3-mora stems [11.3.1]; in the case of *tìs^e* "give" there are independent reasons to suppose that the *-s-* has resulted from a root-final **y* assimilated to a following derivational *-s-* [7.1.1.1].

The verb *gōs^e* "look", which shares the same irregularity in the formation of the finite forms as *tìs^e*, is also remarkable as being one of only three verbs in my materials which makes a Tone Pattern HL gerund, the others being *kīr^e* "hurry", which may have *-r-* for **rr*, and *sōñs^e* "converse" [14.1.1.1.1]. However, there are no words of the pattern CVsVC showing the tonemes MH (contrast CVrVC below.)

**nf* becomes *f* with nasalisation of a preceding root vowel, but there is no lengthening of a short preceding root vowel in the only case which occurs:

nīf^o "eye" pl *nīnī⁺*
píiñf^o "genet" pl *pīinī⁺*

The short vowel in *nīf* may reflect a secondary development; cf *sūñf* [7.3.3].

**rr* becomes single *r*

kùkpàr^e "palm fruit" pl *kùkpàra⁺*

This is an active process in phrase-level sandhi also [9.1.1]. Toneme patterns often reveal that surface *-r-* has been simplified from a cluster, e.g. *mōrím^m*, gerund of *mōr^a* "have"; see also [8.2.1.1]. The only Pattern H 2-mora-stem verb in *-r-* in my materials, *kīr^e* "hurry, tremble" makes a Pattern HL gerund *kìkírùg^o* [14.1.1.1.1]. However, there are many cases where there is no evidence for an older cluster, and *-r-* also appears in the *r^e|a⁺* Class sg suffix.

Non-initial *-r-* contrasts with *-d-* in Agolle Kusaal, as in Mooré; this is not the case for most other Western Oti-Volta languages, including even Toende Kusaal.

7.2.1.2 Consonant Assimilation in Derivation

For the most part, the rules for consonant assimilation are the same in derivation as in flexion, but there are divergences involving alveolars, which are probably attributable to complete levelling of the changes in flexion.

In derivation *r* changes to ʔ before alveolars *s / d n* with a long glottalised vowel resulting.

Thus *gūr^{a/}* "guard" has the derivatives

<i>gūr^ʔul^{e/}</i>	"put on guard"
<i>gūr^ʔus^{e/}</i>	"take care, watch out"
<i>gūr^ʔud^{a/}</i>	agent noun

In derivation *r* changes to *d* before *g* before insertion of the epenthetic vowel:

<i>gār^{a/}</i>	DK	"have neck extended"
<i>gārdig^{e/}</i>	DK	"look up, extend neck"
<i>yāar^{e/}</i>		"scatter"
<i>yārdig^{e/}</i>		"scatter" (for the shortening see 7.1.1.2)

The change is blocked by nasalisation of the preceding vowel: *ēñrig^e* "shift along."

The sequence *rd* does occur within deverbal stems involving the suffix *-d-* but there is vacillation in some cases, suggesting that the *rd* forms are analogical; these formations are the most regular and flexion-like among derivational processes involving derivational suffixes [15.1.1](#), and hence the most exposed to analogy:

<i>kpārd^a</i>	"lock-er"
<i>gūrd^{a/}</i>	"guard"
<i>gūr^ʔud^{a/}</i>	"guard"

In derivation **dl* seems to result in *ungeminated l* in

<i>pìd^e</i>	"put (hat etc) on"
<i>pìdig^e</i>	"take (hat etc) off"
<i>pìl^e</i>	"put (hat etc) on someone"
<i>pìlig^e</i>	"take (hat etc) off someone"

evidently parallel to

$y\grave{e}^+$	"dress oneself"
$y\grave{e}\varepsilon g^e$	"undress oneself"
$y\grave{e}\varepsilon l^e$	"dress another"

No cases occur of *d* stem-internally before *s* or *n* and it seems probable that it has changed to ʔ in such environments:

$g\grave{\text{ʔ}}\text{ʔ}n^e$	WK	"begin to look up"
$g\bar{\text{ʔ}}d\text{ʔ}g^e$	DK	id

7.2.1.3 Unexpected Epenthetic Vowel Insertion

Ambiguity resulting from Apocope may be avoided by inserting an epenthetic vowel between consonants which might have been expected to assimilate. This is especially characteristic of Variable Verb imperfective formation, because there is only a single regular imperfective flexion for such verbs, so that the strategy of suffix suppletion used by nominals [11.1] cannot be adopted. Unexpected insertion of epenthetic vowels in *nominal* flexion is more usually attributable to stems ending in consonant clusters, which are not always readily recognisable.

Most cases involve stems ending in sonorants, particularly nasals.

7.2.1.3.1 After Nasals

In many cases in flexion the assimilation of nasals to a following consonant does not take place, and an epenthetic vowel is inserted instead.

Most cases of this phenomenon in nominals probably reflect the fact that the stem ends in a consonant cluster such as *-mm-* or *-nn-* derived from earlier *-*md-* *-*nd-*. Such clusters are difficult to distinguish from single consonants before epenthetic vowels [4.2]. In verbs, lack of assimilation is more likely to reflect levelling within the flexional paradigm.

Clearcut examples involving *-mm-* and *-nn-* clusters include Agent Noun [15.1.1.1] and Imperfective Deverbal Adjective forms [15.1.1.2.1]:

$k\grave{i}m^m$	"tend flock"	→	$k\grave{\text{ʔ}}\check{n}b-k\grave{i}m^{na}$	"shepherd"
			$k\grave{\text{ʔ}}\check{n}b-k\grave{i}mm\text{ʔ}b^a$	
			or $k\grave{\text{ʔ}}\check{n}b-k\grave{i}mn\text{ʔ}b^a$	
$s\grave{u}n^e$	"bow head"	→	$s\grave{u}n^{na}$	"close observer"
			pl $s\grave{u}nn\text{ʔ}b^a$	

<i>lèm^m</i>	"taste"	→	<i>lèm-lēm^{na}</i> or <i>lèm-lēm^{ne}</i> pl <i>lèm-lēmni^ba</i> or <i>lèm-lēm^{ma}+</i>	"taster"
<i>bùn^e</i>	"reap"	→	<i>būn-búnnì^e</i>	"thing for reaping"
<i>tùm^m</i>	"work"	→	<i>būn-túmmì^e</i> <i>tūmmì^e</i> DK WK pl <i>tūmna⁺</i> DK <i>tūmma⁺</i> WK	"useful thing" "useful"

Forms like

<i>gīlɪg^{e/}</i>	"go around"	→	<i>ɸʉ[?]à-gīnníg^a</i>	"prostitute"
<i>kēŋ^{e/}</i>	"go"	→	<i>bùŋ-kēnnì^e</i>	"moving donkey"
<i>vūl^e</i>	"swallow"	→	<i>tì-vōnním^m</i>	"oral medication"
<i>tùm^m</i>	"work"	→	<i>tūmmím-tāa⁼</i>	"co-worker"

are shown to have *-mm-* or *-nn-* by the position of the Pattern's H toneme.

r^e|a⁺ plural forms showing *-mma⁺* *-nna⁺* clearly reveal stems ending in clusters, even if they are not synchronically analysable. Examples include

<i>sōnnur^e</i>	<i>sōnna⁺</i>	<i>sòŋ-</i>	"inner compound wall"
<i>sāngúnnì^e</i>	<i>sāngúnnà⁺</i>	<i>sāngún-</i>	"millipede"
<i>sūmmur^e</i>	<i>sūmma⁺</i>	<i>sùm-</i>	"groundnut"

The tones again confirm the geminate *-mm-* in the singular of

<i>yīmmír^e</i>	<i>yīmmá⁺</i>	<i>yīm-</i>	adj "solitary"
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Verbs with stems ending in *m n* frequently show forms with epenthesis rather than consonant assimilation in both the imperfective and in gerund formation. Four-mora *m*-stems always assimilate, but shorter stems show considerable variation, often with variants attested for a single verb.

3-mora stems in *n* always show epenthesis:

<i>dìgɪn^e</i>	<i>dìgɪnɪd^a</i>	<i>dìgɪnɪm^a</i>	"lie down"
<i>dìgɪnʉg^o</i>			gerund

2-mora *m*-stems seem to divide into a group that assimilate in the imperfective and a group that do not [13.1.1]; the groups differ in the height of the stem vowel, but it is difficult to see how this would explain the division:

<i>tùm^m</i>	<i>tùm^{ma}</i>	<i>tùm^{ma}</i>	"work"
<i>wùm^m</i>	<i>wùm^{ma}</i>	<i>wùm^{ma}</i>	"hear"
<i>kìm^m</i>	<i>kìm^{ma}</i>	<i>kìm^{ma}</i>	"tend flock/herd"
<i>dùm^m</i>	<i>dùm^{ma}</i>	<i>dùm^{ma}</i>	"bite"
<i>tàm^m</i>	<i>tàmɪd^a</i>	<i>tàm^{ma}</i>	"forget"
<i>zàm^m</i>	<i>zàmɪd^a</i>	<i>zàm^{ma}</i>	"cheat, betray"
<i>dàm^m</i>	<i>dàmɪd^a</i>	<i>dàm^{ma}</i>	"shake"
<i>lèm^m</i>	<i>lèmɪd^a</i>	<i>lèm^{ma}</i>	"sip, taste"

Even here, the NT has an unassimilated imperfective to avoid ambiguity in:

Lin wusa ka ya tumid, tumi li ...

Lìn wūsa ká yà tùmɪd, tùm̄m̄_∅...

DEM.NH all and **2PL** do:IPFV, do:IMP **2PLS** ...

"Everything you do, do it..." (Col 3:23)

Ka nimbe'ed me tumid tuumbe'ed...

Kà nīn-bé'èd mé túmɪd túm̄-bē'èd...

And person-bad:PL also do:IPFV deed-bad:PL...

"And evildoers do bad things..." (Lk 6:45)

The non-assimilating verbs have the gerunds *tàmvug^o* *zàmvug^o* *dàmvug^o* *lèmvug^o* which might suggest 3-mora stems; however *wùm^m* has the gerund *wùmvg^o* alongside *wōm^{mo}*, and the usual 2-mora stem gerund formation with the *b^o* Class is avoided in other cases when it would result in unclear SFs, as here [14.1.1.1.1]. The agent noun derivatives of the *tàm^m* types are simply those that would be expected from *CVm-* stems [15.1.1.1], which supports the supposition that the imperfective forms are the result of levelling.

7.2.1.3.2 Between Alveolars

The rules for consonant assimilation after alveolars in derivation differ from those seen in flexion [7.2.1.2]. It is likely that this is historically due to levelling in flexional paradigms.

Unexpected epenthesis as a result of levelling is also seen in the language names [11.3.4.1]

<i>Ñwāmpūri^{e/}</i>	"Mampruli"	cf	<i>Ñwāmpūri^{a/}</i>	"Mamprussi person"
<i>Kàmbònr^e</i>	"Twi"	cf	<i>Kàmbòŋ^a</i>	"Ashanti person"
		pl	<i>Kàmbòmɪs^e</i>	

Contrast

<i>Yāt^{e/}</i>	"Yarsi"	cf	<i>Yāris^{e/}</i>	"Yarsi"
<i>Bāt^{e/}</i>	"Bisa"	cf	<i>Bāris^{e/}</i>	"Bisa"

Another likely case is

<i>pūsɪ^{a/}</i>	<i>pūsɪs^{e/}</i>	<i>pūs-</i>	"tamarind"
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All other examples of $g^a|s^e$ plurals ending in $-sɪs^e$ in my materials are for $*-sɪnsɪ$, from stems in $*m$. The expected pl $*pūs^{e/}$ would have appeared to show no ending in SF; nouns usually avoid such ambiguity by selecting a different flexion [11.1], but there is a very strong association of tree names with the $g^a|s^e$ Class and of their fruits with the $r^e|a^+$ and $g^o|d^e$ Classes [37.5]; $pūsá^+$ in fact means "tamarind fruits."

7.2.2 Epenthetic Consonants

Vowel-initial flexions cannot be added straightforwardly to stems ending in a root vowel. No cases occur with the C pl ending $-ɪ^+$; various strategies are adopted in the case of the A sg suffix $-a^a$, and as the total number of nouns involved is small, it is simplest to list the forms that occur [11.3.1]. In the case of the $r^e|a^+$ Class plural suffix, however, there are clear rules for the attachment of the suffix to vowel stems.

Stems ending in an unglottalised root vowel introduce an epenthetic $-y-$ before the plural ending $-a^+$, with shortening of long vowels by the general rule [7.3.3]:

<i>kùkōr^{e/}</i>	"voice"	pl <i>kùkōyá⁺</i>
<i>gāñr^{e/}</i>	"fruit of Nigerian ebony"	pl <i>gāñyá⁺</i>
<i>bàlàar^e</i>	"stick, club"	pl <i>bàlàya⁺</i>
<i>nōɔr^{e/}</i>	"mouth"	pl <i>nōyá⁺</i>

<i>zūvr^e</i>	"tail"	pl <i>zūya⁺</i>
<i>bīār^{e/}</i>	"elder same-sex sibling"	pl <i>bjēyá⁺</i>
<i>sūər^{e/}</i>	"road"	pl <i>sūēyá⁺</i>
<i>zūər^e</i>	"hill"	pl <i>zūēya⁺</i>

Stems ending in a glottalised vowel shorten the vowel, drop the glottalisation, and introduce an epenthetic *-d-*:

<i>yū[?]ur^{e/}</i>	"name"	pl <i>yūdá⁺</i>
<i>pòñ[?]ɔr^e</i>	"cripple"	pl <i>pòñda⁺</i>
<i>tītā[?]ar^e</i>	"big"	pl <i>tītāda⁺</i>
<i>yū[?]ər^e</i>	"penis"	pl <i>yūāda⁺</i>

Stems in historical underlying **-ag-* **-jag-* **-uag-*, which have deleted **g* with glottalisation [7.3.1], may inflect as (C)VC- stems as expected, or show analogical forms with *-d-*:

<i>sjà[?]ar^e</i>	"forest"	pl <i>sjà[?]a⁺</i>
<i>bà[?]ar^e</i>	"idol"	pl <i>bà[?]a⁺</i> or <i>bàda⁺</i> <i>*bagrɪ</i> ; Farefare <i>bàgrè</i>
<i>bjāñ[?]ar^{e/}</i>	"mud, riverbed"	pl <i>bjāñ[?]á⁺</i>
<i>mù[?]ar^e</i>	"reservoir, dam"	pl <i>mù[?]àa⁺</i> or <i>mù[?]ada⁺</i>
<i>zànkù[?]ar^e</i>	"jackal"	pl <i>zànkù[?]àa⁺</i> or <i>zànkù[?]ada⁺</i>

Epenthetic *-y-* appearing before plural *-a⁺* can be explained historically as the preservation of an original root-final consonant [7.1.1.1] before the vowel-initial affix, with generalisation of a *-y-* originally proper only to root-stems ending in **Y* to all cases where the stem ends in a non-glottalised root vowel: *zūvr^e* "tail", plural *zūya⁺*, perhaps for an older **zūwa⁺*.

In the case of epenthetic *-d-*, the question evidently cannot simply be answered in the same way. Epenthetic *-d-* appears regularly in the plural of *r^e|a⁺* Class stems ending in a glottalised vowel; so regularly, that it has been extended to cases where the glottalisation is secondary, due to deletion of **g* after a short vowel, alongside variants derived from earlier forms treating the **g* as a regular consonant [7.2.2]. In *derivation*, *-d-* is regularly deleted before alveolar suffixes, with glottalisation of the preceding root vowel [7.2.1.2]. An obvious hypothesis for "epenthetic *d*" is accordingly that it simply represents root-final *d*, with the change of **Vdr* to *V[?]Vr* in *flexion*, and remodelling of the cb on the basis of the sg.

<i>*yudrɪ</i>		
→ <i>yū[?]ur^{e/}</i>	"name"	pl <i>yūdá⁺</i>

An immediate difficulty is that there are regular $r^e|a^+$ Class stems in *CVd*-:

<i>wādir^{el}</i>	"law"	pl <i>wādá⁺</i>
<i>kpēñdir^{el}</i>	"cheek"	pl <i>kpēñdá⁺</i>
<i>puʔà-sādir^{el}</i>	"young woman"	pl <i>puʔà-sādá⁺</i>
<i>kpàñdir^e</i>	"baboon"	pl <i>kpàñda⁺</i>

along with some adjective forms; these would need to be explained as analogical reformations. This is entirely plausible with adjectives because they typically appear with flexions of more than one Noun Class [12]. Of the nouns above, *wādir^{el}* is certainly a back-formation from the plural *wādá⁺*, which is a loanword, ultimately from English *order*, and reformation of the singular of "cheek" on the basis of the plural is plausible. Remodelling of the sg on the basis of the pl seems less likely with "baboon" and very implausible with "young woman"; moreover *pēʔ-sáʔa* = "ewe lamb" and the Toende cognate *puʔ-w-sa'a* "young woman" pl *puʔ-w-sa'as* show glottalisation with this stem before $g^a|s^e$ Class flexions too.

The comparative evidence also tells against this hypothesis. In languages without glottalised vowels the cognates of words like *yūʔur^{el}* are just like other vowel stems: Mooré sg *yuvre* pl *yuyya* versus Farefare sg *yú'úrÉ* pl *yuv'ura*; Mooré pl *pōeyã* = Kusaal *pòñda⁺* "cripples."

It seems therefore impossible to identify epenthetic *d* with "ordinary" *d*.

An alternative explanation is suggested by the pattern of $r^e|a^+$ Class plurals in Mooré. Mooré lacks vowel glottalisation and does not show epenthetic *-d-* or *-r-* in such cases. The usual pattern resembles that seen in Kusaal with unglottalised stems:

<u>Mooré</u>		<u>Kusaal</u>	
<i>pōeyã</i>	"cripples"	<i>pòñda⁺</i>	sg <i>pòñʔɔr^e</i>
<i>noeyã</i>	"mouths"	<i>nōyá⁺</i>	sg <i>nōɔr^{el}</i>

However, the plural of *naore* "leg" is *nawa*; Farefare shows a similar though not identical irregularity: *nã'árÉ* "leg", pl *nãma*. The Mooré plural form can be explained straightforwardly as retention of a root-final labial or labiovelar before a vowel-initial suffix; in other words the explanation is parallel to that suggested above for unglottalised Kusaal $r^e|a^+$ Class plurals like *zūur^e* "tail" pl *zūya⁺*, with the presumption that in Mooré the *-y-* of original roots ending in *Y has not yet spread to *naore*.

The Kusaal word for "leg" shows forms which differ in Agolle and Toende:

<i>nóbir^e</i>	"leg"	pl <i>nōbá⁺</i>	(Agolle)
<i>nō'õt</i>		pl <i>nōba</i>	(Toende)

The Agolle sg form is evidently remodelled from the plural. Comparing

* <i>nɔʔɔr^e</i>	"leg"	pl <i>nɔ́bá⁺</i>
<i>pòñʔɔr^e</i>	"cripple"	pl <i>pòñda⁺</i>

the differing "epenthetic" consonants may thus again reflect different root-final consonants, with the palatal-type final again generalised to all cases, including those which historically lacked such a root final (with the exception of Toende Kusaal *nɔ́ʔɔt*.)

The glottalisation of the vowels seems likely to reflect some feature of the consonants in question themselves, distinguishing them from the "plain" *Y *W already hypothesised.

Attribution of -y- to the root rather than the suffix accounts for the different effects on preceding vowels of the -y- of nominal *r^e|a⁺* Class plurals and the -y- of Agentive Invariable Verbs, where the -y- is historically derived from the initial consonant *ɲ or *ʎ of a suffix [13.2.1]. Before that -y-, glottalised vowels remain and the -y- does not become *d*: *sūʔe^{ya/}* "own", cf *sūʔolím^m* "possession" [15.1.1.4]. However, the Adjectival Verbs *vūe^{ya/}* "be alive" and *tūe^{ya/}* "be bitter", and possibly also the Agentive Invariable Verb *àeñ^{ya}* "be something" show a -y- which is probably root-final rather than the initial of a suffix [13.2.2].

In Farefare, the only other Western Oti-Volta language with glottalised vowels for which I have relevant data, with unglottalised stems the shortened stem vowel simply precedes the plural -a with no "epenthetic" consonant at all: *yóóré* sg *yóa* pl, Kusaal *ñyɔʔr^e* sg *ñyɔya⁺* pl "nose." With glottalised stems there is a regular formation which looks related to the Kusaal, but does not correspond exactly:

<i>yó'úré</i>	"name"	pl <i>yó'ura</i>	Kusaal <i>yūʔur^{e/}</i> <i>yūdá⁺</i>
<i>yò'òrè</i>	"penis"	pl <i>yó'ɔra</i>	Kusaal <i>yūʔer^e</i> <i>yūāda⁺</i>

This resembles the analogical pattern seen in Kusaal where the glottalisation has arisen from deletion of *g [7.2.2]:

<i>mùʔar^e</i>	"reservoir, dam"	pl <i>mūʔàa⁺</i> or <i>mùʔada⁺</i>
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A different kind of epenthetic *d* is seen in one of the strategies used to attach the ^a|^b Class sg suffix after a stem ending in a root vowel [11.3.1]. It is interesting to speculate on whether this *d* has arisen by a similar mechanism to the *d* of *r^e|a⁺* Class plurals, but it is difficult to take this further in the absence of an account of the origin of glottalised vowels in the Oti-Volta languages.

7.3 Vowel Changes

The vowel changes described in this section apply before Apocope. They are often conditioned by elements which are deleted by Apocope, resulting in contrasts which would not otherwise exist in the language.

7.3.1 Fusion

Kusaal makes no distinction between word-internal sequences of adjacent vowels and diphthongs, though three-mora diphthongs are realised as disyllabic [3.4](#).

Some diphthongs probably arose historically by fusion of adjacent vowels following the loss of intervocalic *w *y, but such cases do not play any systematic rôle in the language. For deletion of historical *g after a *ja uə ã jã uã* see [7.1.1.1](#).

With deletion of *g after *long* vowels, there are numerous parallels with forms which preserve g, and in these cases it is therefore reasonable to regard deletion as a synchronic process.

Underlying *g is deleted after **aa iə uə ãã ěě ǔǔ**, along with their glottalised counterparts, whenever an *affix* vowel a or ɪ (not an epenthetic vowel or ʊ) follows the *g. Vowel Fusion then creates three-mora vowel sequences:

<i>aaga</i> → aa 9.2	<i>aagɪ</i> → aee
<i>iəga</i> → iaa	<i>iəgɪ</i> → iee
<i>uəga</i> → uaa	<i>uəgɪ</i> → uee

and likewise with the corresponding glottalised vowels. (See below for the nasalised equivalents.)

The diphthongs *iaa uaa* arise from deletion of the *g in *g^a|s^e* Class singulars:

	<i>bōvg^a</i>		"goat"	pl <i>bōvs^e</i>
but	<i>bāa⁼</i>	← * <i>baaga</i>	"dog" 9.2	pl <i>bāas^e</i>
	<i>sīa⁺</i>	← * <i>siəga</i>	"waist"	pl <i>sīəs^e</i>
	<i>sàbùa⁺</i>	← * <i>sabuəga</i>	"lover"	pl <i>sàbùəs^e</i>

The diphthongs *aee iee uee* appear in Variable Verbs with stems in **Caag* **Ciəg* **Cuəg* and their glottalised counterparts (see below on the nasalised equivalents); compare the forms with the suffix *-g- "become, make" seen in

<i>kpi[?]e⁺</i>	← * <i>kpi[?]əgɪ</i>	"approach"
<i>kpi[?]əs^e</i>	← * <i>kpi[?]əsɪ</i>	"neighbours"

cf	<i>tēbɪg^{e/}</i>	"get/make heavy"
	<i>tēbɪsír^e</i>	"heavy"

There are many such "Fusion Verbs", showing perfective forms ending in the diphthongs *-ae -ie -ue* [13.1.1.1](#), e.g.

<i>pāe^{+/}</i>	← * <i>paagi</i>	"reach"
<i>dūe^{+/}</i>	← * <i>duøgi</i>	"raise, rise"

The extra-long *ae ie ue* reduce to the two-mora diphthongs *ae ie ue* after Apocope. All such fronting diphthongs are unstable, monophthongising by losing the fronting of the second element except in pause or before *y* [9.1.3](#) [9.3.1](#).

Underlyingly, there are no nasalised vowels *ĩĩ ũũ*; instead *ẽẽ ỹỹ* appear [7.1](#). However **g* is deleted after nasal *ẽẽ ỹỹ* (unlike their oral equivalents *εε ɔɔ*) in the same contexts as after *iə uə* (i.e. before an affix vowel *a* or *ɪ*), and the resulting diphthongs coincide in vowel quality with those produced with *iə uə*:

<i>ããga</i> → <i>ãã</i> 9.2	<i>ããgi</i> → <i>ãẽẽ</i>
<i>ẽẽga</i> → <i>ĩãã</i>	<i>ẽẽgi</i> → <i>ĩẽẽ</i>
<i>ỹỹga</i> → <i>ũãã</i>	<i>ỹỹgi</i> → <i>ũẽẽ</i>

and again, likewise with the corresponding glottalised vowels.

The rule gives rise to alternations in nominals from the *g^a|s^e* Class between SF-final *ĩã ũã* and word-internal *ẽẽ ỹỹ* before a consonant:

<i>ziñ[?]a⁺</i>	← * <i>zẽ[?]ẽga</i>	"red" <i>g^a s^e</i> Class sg
<i>zèñ[?]ɛs^e</i>	← * <i>zẽ[?]ẽsi</i>	"red" <i>g^a s^e</i> Class pl
<i>zèñ[?]ɛd^e</i>	← * <i>zẽ[?]ẽdi</i>	"red" <i>g^o d^e</i> Class pl
<i>dùañ⁺</i>	← * <i>dỹỹga</i>	"dawadawa" sg
<i>dòwñs^e</i>	← * <i>dỹỹsi</i>	"dawadawa" pl
<i>nūa^{+/}</i>	← * <i>nỹỹga</i>	"hen"
<i>nṵws^{e/}</i>	← * <i>nỹỹsi</i>	"hens"
<i>Mùa⁺</i>	← * <i>Mỹỹga</i>	"Mossi person"
<i>Mṵws^e</i>	← * <i>Mỹỹsi</i>	"Mossi people"
<i>Mṵwg^o</i>	← * <i>Mỹỹgu</i>	"Mossi country"
<i>Mṵwl^e</i>	← * <i>Mỹỹli</i>	"Mooré language"

In derivation the rule causes alternation between Fusion Verb forms from historical **-gɪ*, ending in SF *ĩẽ ùẽ*, and cognate forms with *ẽẽ ǔǔ*:

<i>nìe</i> ⁺	← <i>*nẽẽgɪ</i>	"appear"
<i>nèeɪ</i> ^e	← <i>*nẽẽɪɪ</i>	"reveal"
<i>pũñ[?]e</i> ^{+/}	← <i>*pǔ[?]ǔgɪ</i>	"rot"
<i>pǔñ[?]ɔɪ</i> ^{e/}	← <i>*pǔ[?]ǔɪɪ</i>	"cause to rot"
<i>ñyũ[?]e</i> ^{+/}	← <i>*yǔ[?]ǔgɪ</i>	"set alight"
<i>ñyǔ[?]ɔs</i> ^{e/}	← <i>*yǔ[?]ǔsɪ</i>	"smoke" (noun)
<i>sũñ[?]e</i> ^{+/}	← <i>*sǔ[?]ǔgɪ</i>	"anoint"
<i>sǔñ[?]e</i> ⁺	← <i>*sǔ[?]ǔ</i>	"rub"
<i>zĩñ[?]a</i> ⁺	← <i>*zẽ[?]ẽga</i>	"red" <i>g^a s^e</i> Class sg
<i>zèñ[?]og</i> ^o	← <i>*zẽ[?]ẽgɔ</i> 7.3.2	"red" <i>g^o d^e</i> Class sg

The fronting effect of **-gɪ* is reminiscent of the fronting caused by **-y-* 7.3.2, but differs in outcome:

<i>sũñ[?]e</i> ^{+/}	← <i>*sǔ[?]ǔgɪ</i>	"become better than" WK
<i>sǔñ[?]e</i> ^{ya/}	← <i>*sǔ[?]ǔya</i>	"be better than"

When *aa iə uə ãã* precede a **g* which is *not* followed by an affix vowel, they remain unchanged. The only remaining sign of the former presence of **g* is the resulting disturbance of toneme allocation in Tone Pattern H words 8.2.1.1.

<i>náaf</i> ^o	← <i>*náagfù</i>	"cow"	pl <i>nīgí</i> ⁺	cb <i>nā[?]-</i>
<i>dí[?]ər</i> ^e	← <i>*dí[?]əgrì</i>	"receiving"	cf <i>dī[?]e</i> ^{+/}	"get" ← <i>*dī[?]əgí</i>
<i>vúər</i> ^e	← <i>*vúəgrì</i>	fruit of the <i>vúəŋ^a</i> tree	pl <i>vūáá</i> ⁼	

Surface *ĩẽ ùẽ* appear in just one morphological context: Fusion Verbs with nasal vowels introduce *ĩẽ ùẽ* into the imperfective and imperative forms, and also the gerund:

	<i>nèeɪ</i> ^e	"empty" (← "clear")
but	<i>nìəɪ</i> ^e	gerund of <i>nìe</i> ⁺ "appear"

	<i>pɔ̃ñʔɔl^{e/}</i>	← * <i>pɔ̃ʔɔl</i>	"cause to rot"
but	<i>púñʔər^e</i>		gerund of <i>pūñʔe^{+/}</i> "rot"
	<i>pūñʔəd^{a/}</i>		ipfv

This exception looks attributable to the analogy of verbs with oral vowels:

	<i>pūñʔe^{+/}</i>	pfv	<i>pūñʔəd^{a/}</i>	ipfv	<i>púñʔər^e</i>	gerund	"rot"
cf	<i>dūe^{+/}</i>	pfv	<i>dūəd^{a/}</i>	ipfv	<i>dúer^e</i>	gerund	"raise"

There is abundant evidence for levelling in Variable Verb flexion and gerund formation, and the process of levelling can actually be documented historically with imperfective forms: the 1976 NT version shows the imperfective of this verb as *pon'od pɔ̃ñʔɔd* whereas the 1996 version, like my informants, shows always *pun'od pūñʔəd*. However, the history of the *gerunds* was probably not analogical. The gerund of *pūñʔe^{+/}* appears in the 1976 NT once, as *pun'ur*, probably miswritten for *pun'or púñʔər^e*, but *nìər^e* "appearing" always appears as *nier*, never **neer*. It would be contrary to the pattern seen elsewhere in the language for gerunds to be subject to analogical levelling before imperfective forms (cf [8.7] on irregular gerunds and verbal Tone Patterns), and the tonal evidence suggests a different analysis.

Fusion verbs lack any tonal evidence of a lost mora in the imperfective [8.3.1]:

<i>pāe^{+/}</i>	<i>pāad^{a/}</i>	not * <i>páad^a</i>	"reach"
<i>pūñʔe^{+/}</i>	<i>pūñʔəd^{a/}</i>	not * <i>púñʔəd^a</i>	"rot"

Again, this might be the result of the levelling characteristic of verb flexion. However, the evidence of irregular Variable Verbs [13.1.2] and the hypothesis that the Western Oti-Volta imperfective flexion represents adoption of the stem seen in agent nouns into the finite verb paradigm [13.1] suggest that the dropping of a derivational suffix before the imperfective flexion was once regular. Fusion Verbs can be regarded as preserving this older pattern, so that the **g* mora is *absent* in the imperfective by morphological rule, not deleted by phonological rule. This hypothesis is confirmed by the fact that verbs like *pūñʔe^{+/}* did indeed formerly have the expected imperfective type *pɔ̃ñʔɔd^{a/}*. With the gerund forms, the unexpected vowels correlate with the fact that the tones show that the **g* mora was present and has been deleted by *phonological* rule: *púñʔər^e* "rotting". Historically, **g* deletion probably followed insertion of an epenthetic ə (say) between the **g* and any following consonant; absorption of this vowel by the preceding long vowel *ĩẽ ùẽ* through Fusion may have resulted in sequences which, unlike other *ĩẽ ùẽ*, did not merge subsequently with *ẽẽ ɔ̃ɔ̃* either because they were extra-long, or because they were already diphthongised even at a period when Agolle *iə uə* were elsewhere still *phonetically* as well as *phonologically* monophthongs.

This hypothesis also provides a plausible historical motivation for the tonal anomalies produced by *g-deletion; *nāagǎfù "cow", for example, gives rise to náaf⁰ "cow" via *nāaǎfù, *nāǎfù by essentially the same process that causes the progressive leftward movement of the H toneme in LFs with final morae unable to bear tone, as with SF *dāam* LF *dáamm* "millet beer" [8.2.1].

Toende Kusaal has identical rules for Consonant Assimilation [7.2.1] to Agolle Kusaal, but differs considerably with regard to Fusion, showing that historically the deletion of *g and Vowel Fusion occurred later than Consonant Assimilation.

Synchronically, there is no need to order these rules. Flexional suffixes beginning with *g are systematically avoided after *CV:g- roots [14.1.1.1] [11.1]. When *CV:g- roots precede other suffixes, former *g is reflected only in the disturbance of toneme allocation in Tone Pattern H [8.2.1.1]. Consonant Assimilation must historically have preceded deletion of *g after *short* vowels, to account for cases like zàk^a ← *zaggá "compound", zà^a ← *zagsi "compounds." This is treated here as CV:~CV allomorphy [7.1.1.1], but internal evidence shows the recent character of this lenition. Stems in a^ʔa ja^ʔa u^ʔa ǎ^ʔǎ ja^ʔǎ u^ʔǎ in the r^e|a⁺ Class may still behave as consonant-final stems [11.3.4]: bà^aar^e "idol" (Farefare *bàgrè*), plural bà^a or bàda⁺; glottalisation, normally not found in affix vowels, occurs in the particle pà^ʔ ← *pag "earlier today" [5.4]; and the only case in which a LF-final long vowel cannot be predicted from the SF is due to the falling together of the Apocope shortening of i^ʔa u^ʔa with that of the ja^ʔa u^ʔa resulting from historical *g loss [3.2.2].

Historical evidence supports this: Haaf 1967 has *baga* for *bā^aa* "diviner" and *winbagr* for *wīn-bá^aàr* "altar", alongside *bab* for the plural *bā^aab^a* "diviners."

7.3.2 Fronting and Rounding

In the LF, vowels are subject to fronting before *y* and to rounding before a following rounded vowel if a velar intervenes.

The second (and third, if any) morae of fronting and rounding diphthongs are always high [i] [ɪ] [u] or [ʊ] regardless of the height of the first mora.

There is agreement in ATR between the components of a long diphthong, except that the diphthongs resulting from fronting and rounding of *iə* *uə* have second (and third) morae which remain [-ATR].

Fronting: before *y* word-internally, all non-glottalised vowels are short [7.3.3].

Short back vowels do not contrast with diphthongs before a word-medial *y*, and the sounds are actually realised as simple vowels. Structurally, however, the segments are diphthongs. This becomes apparent when the *y* is left word-final by Apocope and is deleted; the preceding segment then appears as a short fronting diphthong [3.2]. This occurs with several Invariable Verbs, which are written with fronting diphthongs in both SF and LF:

	<i>t̄e^{ya}/</i>		"be bitter"
SF	<i>t̄e</i>		[t̄ɔ̄ɪ]
LF	<i>t̄e^{yá}</i>		[t̄ɔ̄ja]

The same thing occurs with two irregular ^a|b^a Class nouns in the singular:

	<i>sāeñ^{ya}</i>		"blacksmith"
SF	<i>sāeñ</i>		[sãɪ]
LF	<i>sāeñ^{ya}</i>		[sãja]
	<i>s̄eñ^{ya}</i>		"witch"
SF	<i>s̄eñ</i>		[s̄ɔ̄ɪ]
LF	<i>s̄eñ^{ya}</i>		[s̄ɔ̄ja]

Short back vowels also occur before *y* in nominal *r^e|a⁺* Class plural forms. In this case the preceding segments are written both in the traditional orthography and in this grammar as simple vowels, but the difference is purely orthographic:

n̄yá [n̄ja]

Before *y* long vowels undergo fronting of a back second mora to *e* [ɪ]:

SF	<i>s̄ū^e</i>	← * <i>sū^ɪy</i>	← * <i>sū^ɪuy</i>	"own" <i>s̄ū^e^{ya}/</i>
LF	<i>s̄ū^e^{yá}</i>	← * <i>sū^ɪya</i>	← * <i>sū^ɪuya</i>	
cf	<i>s̄ū^ɪlím^m</i>			"property"
SF	<i>s̄ñ^e</i>	← * <i>s̄ñ^ɪy</i>	← * <i>s̄ñ^ɪɔy</i>	"be better than" <i>s̄ñ^e^{ya}/</i>
LF	<i>s̄ñ^e^{yá}</i>	← * <i>s̄ñ^ɪya</i>	← * <i>s̄ñ^ɪɔya</i>	"be better than"

Like the diphthongs arising from Apocope applying to *aee iee uee* these diphthongs are unstable and monophthongise except before pause or before *y* 9.1.3.

Rounding: Short unrounded root vowels become diphthongs in *y* before LF

**kkv* **ηηv*:

<i>gbà^uy^o</i>	← * <i>gbanyv</i>	"book"	pl <i>gbà^a⁺</i>
<i>lā^uk^o</i>	← * <i>lakkv</i>	"goods item"	pl <i>lā^a^{ad}^e</i>
<i>yī^uy^o/</i>	← * <i>yinyv</i>	"single"	pl <i>yī^a⁺</i>
<i>sà^bù^a⁺</i>	← * <i>sabuəga</i>	"lover"	pl <i>sà^bù^ə^e</i>

Tense *i* does not become a diphthong in the only case in my materials:

nìn-gbīŋ^{o/} "body" pl *nìn-gbīná*⁺

This may reflect the vowel of the alternative singular *nìn-gbīn*^{e/}, rather than being a phonological matter. The plural form often appears with singular meaning. Short *ja* becomes the short diphthong *jaɥ*:

bjāɥŋk^o ← **bjākkv* "shoulder" pl *bjāñʔad*^e

Short *ya* becomes *o*: **ɥakkv* → *ɔkkv*

bɔk^o ← **bɥakkv* "pit" pl *bùʔad*^e

Long vowels undergo rounding of a back second mora before LF **gv* **ŋŋv*. The second mora is always high.

dàad^e "logs"
 but *dàɔg*^o ← **daagv* "log"
fēñʔɛd^{e/} "ulcers"
 but *fēñʔog*^{o/} ← **fēʔɛgv* "ulcer"

The second mora of the long vowel *ii* becomes tense *u*, giving *iu*; this contrasts with the second mora of the long vowel *iə*, which becomes [ɨ], giving *io* [iɨ]:

vīug^{o/} ← **viigv* "owl" pl *vīid*^{e/}
 but *dàbīog*^o ← **dabiəgv* "coward" pl *dàbīəd*^e
kpīʔoŋ^o ← **kpiʔəŋŋv* "strong" pl *kpīʔəma*⁺

A parallel case with *uu/uv* does not occur, because of the rule **uəgv* → *ɔɔgv*:

Sàʔdàbɔɔg^o ← **Saʔdabuəgv* "place of the Sarabose clan"
 cf *Sàʔdàbùəs*^e "Sarabose clan members"
lām-fɔɔg^o ← **lam-fuəgv* "toothless"
 (*lām*^{me/} "gum" *fùe*⁺ "draw out")

The **epenthetic vowel** *ɨ* is rounded to *ʊ* before LF **gv* **ŋv*:

āāñɔg^a ← **āāɔg* "black plum tree"
 but *gàadɔg*^o ← **gaadɔg* "(sur)passing" (gerund)
 pl *māluma*⁺ ← **malumaa* "sacrifices"
 but *mālɔg*^o ← **malɔŋŋv* "sacrifice"

This proliferation of diphthongs and ascription of quality distinctions to epenthetic vowels might be avoided by ascribing phonemic labialisation to following word-final velars and positing abstract word-final /w/ or /j/ segments. However, there is no phonetic basis for such a velar contrast, and as a *phonemic* opposition it would have no other function but to mark the rounding of preceding vowel morae. There is no phonetic basis for interpreting word-final [j] or [w] as consonantal either: words like *dāy* "man" are followed by [ʔ] before pause in statements, just like words ending in short vowels [5.2.2]. It is therefore preferable simply to make word-internal fronting and rounding rules precede Apocope [3.5]. (A similar issue arises with so-called "Canadian Raising" in those American dialects which also show neutralisation by flapping of *t* and *d* after the vowel, where *writer* contrasts with *rider* in the vowels but with no phonetic contrast in the consonants themselves: Vance 1987.)

7.3.3 Length Constraints

Two rules apply word-internally **prior to Apocope** to shorten 2-mora long vowels and diphthongs.

Before *k t p*:

<i>gàad^e</i>	"pass"	<i>gàt^a</i>	id, imperfective
<i>tĕĕg^{e/}</i>	"drag" ILK	<i>tĕk^{e/}</i>	"pull" (* <i>tĕĕkki</i>)

Two Hausa loanwords show that this is a surface phonological constraint rather than a morphological rule.

<i>àtìyuk^o</i>	"sea"	←	<i>tèeku</i>	"sea"
<i>kótù⁺</i>	"court"	←	<i>kootù</i>	"court" (← English)

Before *y*, affecting non-glottalised vowels and diphthongs only:

<i>wà[?]e^{ya}</i>	"be en route for"	<i>sū[?]e^{ya/}</i>	"own"
<i>sōñ[?]e^{ya/}</i>	"be better than"	<i>zì[?]e^{ya}</i>	"be standing still"
<i>zìñ[?]i^{ya}</i>	"be sitting down"	<i>tī[?]i^{ya/}</i>	"be leaning" (object)
but <i>vū[?]e^{ya/}</i>	"be alive"	cf <i>vū[?]ug^{e/}</i>	"make/come alive"
<i>tō[?]e^{ya/}</i>	"be bitter"	cf <i>tō[?]g^o</i>	"bitter"
<i>à[?]ñ[?]i^{ya}</i>	"be something"	cf <i>à[?]ñí[?]m^m</i>	gerund

So also in *r^e|a⁺* Class plurals of (C)V: stems, which introduce an epenthetic consonant *y* before the ending [7.2.2]:

<i>bàlàar^e</i>	"stick, club"	pl	<i>bàlàya⁺</i>
<i>nᵛᵛr^{e/}</i>	"mouth"	pl	<i>nᵛyá⁺</i>
<i>zᵛᵛr^e</i>	"tail"	pl	<i>zᵛya⁺</i>

[See 5.2.3 for the differing spellings of the -Vy- sequences in Invariable Verbs and in nominal *r^e|a⁺* Class plurals.]

Shortening of *iə uə* before this *y* is responsible for all cases in which *ja ya* can appear before *y* within a word. In this position they are realised [jɪ] [yɪ] and written *je ye* in line with the traditional orthography:

<i>bīər^{e/}</i>	"elder s/sex sib"	pl	<i>bjēyá⁺</i>
<i>sūər^{e/}</i>	"road"	pl	<i>sujēyá⁺</i>
<i>zūər^e</i>	"hill"	pl	<i>zujēya⁺</i>

The short vowel in *sūñ^{o/}* "heart" is the sole case of contrastive short nasalised *uñ* other than those due to Apocope of *uuñ* and the shortening of vowels in *r^e|a⁺* Class plurals before *y* 7.2.2. There may be a rule shortening the tense high vowels *ii uu* before the C sg suffix *-^o*; this would also account for the short vowel in *nī^{o/}* "eye", where the analogy of lengthening of short vowels before **ns*, as in *tēēñs* "lands" ← **tɛnsi* 7.2.1.1 would have suggested **nīif*. The long vowel of *sīñ^{o/}* "bee" could plausibly be analogical, from the plural *sīñs^{e/}* or the alternative singular *sīñg^{a/}*, and Toende Kusaal actually has the form *sīf* (Niggli, "Dictionnaire.")

Three-mora vowel sequences 5.2.3 3.4 arise either from Vowel Fusion 7.3.1 or by Liaison before the enclitic pronoun ^o 9.3.1. They are reduced by Apocope to 2-mora diphthongs in the SF in the usual way. Diphthongal three-mora sequences mostly occur word-finally in LFs, but they are possible in SFs:

vūáa⁼ ← **vuəgaa* "fruits of the *vúəŋ^a* tree"

The only three-mora monophthong in my data is seen with Apocope Blocking in

mà^ʔaa "only" 7.4

In the LF the sequence is reduced to two morae: *mà^ʔane*.

Before Prosodic Clitics, 3-mora monophthongs reduce to two morae 9.2.

Before Liaison, word-final 3-mora diphthongs are reduced to two morae and then monophthongised before all consonants except *y* 9.3.1; for the tones see 10.5.

7.4 Apocope Blocking

Certain full words have citation forms without Apocope. The form is like a LF, without the lowering of postconsonantal final ι υ to e o seen before Prosodic Clitics.

This is a derivational feature seen in many adverbs and quantifiers (including number words), and as a downtoning measure with adjectives [21.8.1.2]:

<i>bèdʋgō</i>	"a lot"	$g^o d^e$ Class sg
<i>sùṅā</i>	"well"	$g^a s^e$ Class sg
<i>yīnní</i>	"one"	$r^e a^+$ Class sg
<i>ànāasí</i>	"four"	$g^a s^e$ Class pl
<i>pāmm</i>	"a lot"	m^m Class

A number of nouns ending in $-t^+$ or $-v^+$ [11.6] also display Apocope Blocking.

Words of one underlying mora also do not show Apocope, e.g. *yā*^{+/} "houses", (SF *yā* LF *yáa*) and numerous enclitic particles [7.5].

Words with Apocope Blocking may display final extra-long simple vowels: *màʔaa* "only." They change final $-mv$ to $-mm$: *pāmm* "a lot."

Apocope-blocked words make secondary LFs before Prosodic Clitics by prolonging a short final vowel. Compare:

<i>Lì à nē dǎḡḡ.</i>	"It's a hut."	
<i>Lì kǎʔ dǎḡḡ.</i>	"It's not a hut."	[dɔ:go] from <i>dǎḡḡ</i> ^o
with <i>Lì à nē bédʋgō.</i>	"It's a lot."	
<i>Lì kǎʔ bédʋgō.</i>	"It's not a lot."	

Before Prosodic Clitics which neutralise preceding length distinctions, the finals of such LFs contrast in quality alone with final e o [e] [o] [9.2]:

<i>Lì à nē dǎḡḡò?</i>	"Is it a hut?"	
<i>Lì à nē bédʋgō?</i>	"Is it a lot?"	
<i>Ànǎʔḡnì ṅyē dǎḡḡò?</i>	"Who saw a hut?"	[dɔ:go]
<i>Ànǎʔḡnì ṅyē bédʋgō?</i>	"Who saw a lot?"	[bɛdʋgɔ]

Apocope-blocked words which do not end in a short vowel in the SF add $-ne$ instead before a Prosodic Clitic:

<i>pāmm</i> SF <i>pāmné</i> LF	"a lot"	
<i>màʔaa</i> SF <i>màʔane</i> LF	"only"	[34.6]
<i>gùllim</i> ^{ne}	"only"	[34.6]
<i>kàtàa</i> ^{ne}	"at all"	[34.6]

The NT audio version reads the LF of *ňyāe*^{ne/} "brightly, clearly" [22.4] as *ňyāené* [ʃãĩnẽ], with the fronting diphthong preserved, suggesting that the final *-ne* might be a particle rather than a suffix.

Cf also *mè* DK KT SB NT *mèn* WK; clause finally (all sources) *mèn*^e "also, too."

Words with Apocope Blocking ending in SF M toneme have LF-final H [8.4].

7.5 Clitic Pronouns and Particles

The term "clitic" is used in this grammar to describe words which are necessarily bound *syntactically*.

Clitics show a number of different phonological shapes. Nominal combining forms [11], along with Focussing Modifiers [34.6], Conjunctions [29.3] and some particle-verbs [24.7.2] and Post-Subject Particles [29.1.3] have the same range of phonological shapes as free words.

All other function words have a simpler structure, including clause linker particles, Verbal Predicator particles, the article, prepositions, the locative marker, and the bound pronouns; they are short, resembling the affixes of full words and having the same much-reduced set of "affix vowel" contrasts. The bolded words in these examples are clitics of this type:

Bīg lā sá b̀̀d̀̀ig yā.

"The child got lost yesterday."

Ò pū wúmmā.

"She doesn't understand."

F̀̀ù nīf lā sá'̀̀àm nē.

"Your eye is spoilt."

A clitic may constitute an entire NP by itself, in the case of the bound personal pronouns. This mismatch between syntactic independence and inability to stand alone as an utterance is found only with the personal pronouns, and can be accommodated by regarding the free pronouns as allomorphs of the bound pronouns in all cases where the bound pronouns are not permissible [34.5].

Enclitic pronouns and particles capable of standing phrase-finally are subject to Apocope. In some cases this results in a SF consisting of a single consonant [3.3.2], or even a SF with no segmental form at all [3.3.3]. When such words have SFs of the form CV, they behave segmentally and tonally as showing Apocope Blocking [7.4].

Proclitic pronouns and most proclitic particles seem not to have been subject to Apocope. However, some proclitic particles end in long vowels which cannot feature as word-final in SFs of nominals or verbs, like *lèè* "but" [24.7.1] or *ňyēè* "habitually" [24.7.2], and others resemble nominal combining forms, like *pà'* "earlier today" for **pag-*; except before nasal clusters, glottalised short vowels occur elsewhere only from Apocope [5.2.2].

8 Word Tonal Structure

The distribution of tonemes word-internally is historically the result of tone spreading and relinking processes, several of which are still reflected in active external tone sandhi. Word-internal non-initial H tonemes are probably always the result of spreading from a preceding M toneme to a L [8.7], a change which underlies the external process of L Raising, which was historically conditioned by the original final tonemes of preceding words [10.1]. Disturbances in the distribution of tonemes after word-internal segment deletions [8.2.1.1] are of the same nature as the changes produced in LFs which end in a mora incapable of bearing tone before Prosodic Clitics [8.2.1]. External M Raising [10.3] is probably a manifestation of the Obligatory Contour Principle related to the dissimilation of M flexions to H which is seen after stems ending in M. The fourfold division of nominal Tone Patterns may have arisen from earlier patterns which have been obscured by rightward L tone spreading.

However, from the point of view of synchronic description, little is gained by tracing the diachronic origins of word-internal toneme patterns, and except in [8.7] the patterns will simply be described directly as they currently appear.

8.1 Tone Patterns

There are great constraints on the free occurrence of tonemes within words, to the extent that nominals show only four possible distinct basic overall patterns of tone (labelled H, HL, L and O), and verbs only two (H and O.) Compounds have more overall tonal possibilities, being *phrases* composed of words with partly independent tones [10.3.1].

The distribution of tonemes on a word, prior to any effects of external tone sandhi or tone overlay, is specified by a **Tone Pattern**.

For the purposes of synchronic description it is best to regard Tone Patterns as suprasegmental features of word *stems*, which impose a template of tonemes mora-by-mora on the segmental structure of each complete word belonging to a flexional paradigm, with the precise instantiation changing as the segmental form changes.

This application of the Tone Pattern to a word form takes place *prior* to the operation of two segmental rules which can delete morae (the simplification of impermissible consonant clusters [7.2.1.1] and the deletion of *g [7.3.1]), resulting in disruption of the expected distribution of tonemes [8.2.1.1]. So for example, these two Pattern H nouns show different tonemes in the singular:

<i>sīñʰ^o</i> sg	<i>sīñs^e</i> pl	<i>sīñ-</i> cb	"bee"
<i>píiñʰ^o</i>	<i>pīiñí⁺</i>	<i>pīiñ-</i>	"genet"

The difference is due to the fact that "bee" has a 2-mora CV: stem *sīñ-*, whereas "genet" has a 3-mora CV:C stem *pīn-*, and in the singular has lost a mora from simplification of the consonant cluster **nf* to *f*.

A single paradigm can only show more than one Tone Pattern if there is a change of the underlying segmental stem. Agent Nouns derived from 3-mora stem verbs in *-s-* contain the derivational suffix *-d-* only in the plural; as deverbal derivatives of Pattern O verbs are Pattern O if they contain *-d-* and L otherwise, this produces a tonal alternation in the paradigm:

pùʔus^a *pūʔusidib^a* *pùʔus-* "worshipper"

Regularities in derivation establish that roots themselves have identifiable tone patterns, which may be altered by derivational suffixes 8.6 8.6.1.

Diachronically, Tone Patterns can be explained in terms of the tonemes of individual stem segments, but this requires the invocation of word-internal tone sandhi rules which are otherwise unnecessary 8.7. If surface tonemes are simply described as they stand, certain tonal correspondences between different forms within one paradigm must simply be ascribed to the Pattern; so in particular with the falling together of Patterns H with HL and O with L in the combining form:

H	<i>fūug^{o/}</i>	"shirt"	<i>fū-káŋā^{+/}</i>	"this shirt"
HL	<i>núʔùg^o</i>	"hand"	<i>nūʔ-káŋā^{+/}</i>	"this hand"
O	<i>būug^a</i>	"goat"	<i>bù-kàŋā^{+/}</i>	"this goat"
L	<i>dòcg^o</i>	"hut, room"	<i>dò-kàŋā^{+/}</i>	"this hut"

Only in the case of 2-mora Pattern H and O stems are the SF tonemes alone insufficient to predict LF-final tonemes:

O	<i>Lì à nē kōk.</i>	"It's a chair."	
O	<i>Lì kāʔ kōka.</i>	"It's not a chair."	
H	<i>Lì à nē dōk.</i>	"It's a cooking pot."	
H	<i>Lì kāʔ dōkó.</i>	"It's not a cooking pot."	
O	<i>kōk^a</i>	"chair"	+ <i>n^e</i> "in" → <i>kōkín^{e/}</i>
H	<i>dōk^{o/}</i>	"pot"	+ <i>n^e</i> "in" → <i>dōkín^e</i>
O	<i>nà zāb^e</i>	"will fight"	+ <i>m^a</i> "me" → <i>nà zābi m^{a/}</i>
H	<i>nà dōg^e</i>	"will cook"	+ <i>m^a</i> "me" → <i>nà dōgí m^a</i>

With SFs like *kōk* "chair" and *dōk* "pot" there are just too few segments for a difference between Patterns H and O to be expressed in the surface form, but the Patterns remain distinguishable in the LF. There are words which show tonal distinctions in the SF which are lost in the LF, like like *náaf^o* "cow" versus *núʔùg^o* "hand", but this can be accounted for by a late tone realisation rule [6.2.1]. The surface distributions of LF tones might therefore serve as a less abstract substitute for suprasegmental Tone Patterns, as far as sg/pl forms were concerned, but cb tones would still need to be simply ascribed to particular distributions of sg/pl tonemes. Furthermore, arbitrary choices would need to be made for the final LF tonemes in every case where the last stem toneme is not M: in all other cases the final toneme of a LF is assigned by by the following Prosodic Clitic [9.2] or Liaison Word [10.5] itself. There is no exact match of tonemes before any one Liaison Word and any one Prosodic Clitic; the nearest approach is with the clitic object pronouns and the Negative Prosodic Clitic, but even here there are systematic mismatches. Two-mora Pattern H verb perfectives have final M before the Negative Clitic but H before the object pronouns [8.3.1]:

Ò p̄ dōge +∅. "He didn't cook."
3HU NEG.IND cook:PFV NEG.

Kà ò dōgí_ lī. "And he cooked it."
 And **3HU cook:PFV 3NHO.**

Pattern O perfectives with L stem tonemes show M before the Negative Clitic but L before the object pronouns:

Ò p̄ bódigē +∅. "She didn't get lost."
3HU NEG.IND lose:PFV NEG.

Kà ò bódigì_ lī. "And she lost it."
 And **3HU lose:PFV 3NHO.**

For descriptive convenience LF-final intrinsic tonemes are given as

M in nouns and verbs of Tone Pattern O whenever the stem is all-M
 H after M in all other cases
 L after H and L

8.2 Nominals

Prefixed nominals differ in tones only in that the cbs of nominals with M nominal prefixes always have H toneme; sg and pl are unchanged. L nominal prefixes do not affect the stem tone pattern at all [8.2.5].

The tones of compounds are determined by external tone sandhi [10.3.2] [10.1].

Toneme allocation precedes Apocope.

Nouns and Adjectives show four possible basic tone patterns:

Pattern H	initial M followed by H, or initial H on a long vowel
Pattern HL	initial H on a short vowel or HL on a long vowel
Pattern L	initial L
Pattern O	M throughout in sg/pl but L throughout in the cb

Nominals have three flexional forms [11.1]. The combining form, which is the bare stem, is always affected by Apocope because it cannot be clause final.

Nominal examples will be given as sg, pl, cb.

Stem morae are counted without nominal prefixes unless specified otherwise.

8.2.1 Pattern H

Pattern H is the most complex descriptively, because of interaction between the underlying segmental structure and the surface toneme pattern. Tonemes are assigned by mora to LF forms prior to the loss of tonemes in the 3-mora vowel sequences created by deletion of *g [7.3.1] and simplification of impermissible consonant clusters [7.2.1.1]. Forms which lose a mora by these processes show aberrant tonal patterns [8.2.1.1].

Pattern H allocates H to the first, second or third mora of the LF (disregarding any prefix.) All tonemes before the H are M, and all following the H are L. The H falls on a third mora if it exists and is vocalic. If not, it falls on the second, unless this is the second mora of a long vowel [6.1], in which case the H appears written on the *first* mora, and the toneme covers both morae of the long vowel. (This is an instance of a general principle that a rise in pitch within a single syllable is not permitted; compare LM levelling [6.2.3].)

Cbs have M tonemes up until any third toneme, which is H.

<i>vōr^{e/}</i>	<i>vōyá⁺</i>	<i>vōr-</i>	"alive"
<i>yīr^{e/}</i>	<i>yā^{+/}</i>	<i>yī-</i>	"house"
<i>fūug^{o/}</i>	<i>fūud^{e/}</i>	<i>fū-</i>	"shirt, clothes"
<i>dōk^{o/}</i>	<i>dōgvd^{e/}</i>	<i>dōg-</i>	"cooking pot"
<i>nīd^{a/}</i>	<i>nīdīb^{a/}</i>	<i>nīn-</i>	"person"
<i>nīf^{o/}</i>	<i>nīnī⁺</i>	<i>nīn-</i> or <i>nīf-</i>	"eye"

<i>kūgv^e</i>	<i>kūgá⁺</i>	<i>kūg-</i>	"stone"
<i>gōt^a</i>	<i>gōtíb^a /tt/</i>	<i>gōt-</i>	"seer, prophet"
<i>sābílíg^a</i>	<i>sābílís^e</i>	<i>sābíl-</i>	"black"
<i>yōgúm^{me}</i>	<i>yōgumá⁺</i>	<i>yōgum-</i>	"camel"
<i>sābíl^{le}</i>	<i>sābílá⁺</i>	<i>sābíl-</i>	"black"
<i>sú[?]əŋ^a /ŋŋ/</i>	<i>sū[?]əmís^e</i>	<i>sū[?]əŋ-</i>	"rabbit"
<i>sāan^a</i>	<i>sáam^{ma}</i>	<i>sāan-</i>	"stranger, guest"
<i>dī[?]əs^a</i>	<i>dī[?]əsídìb^a</i>	<i>dī[?]əs-</i>	"receiver"
<i>sūgv^ríd^a</i>	<i>sūgv^rídìb^a</i>	<i>sūgv^ríd-</i>	"forgiver, forbearer"
<i>kū[?]alíg^a</i>	<i>kū[?]alís^e</i>	<i>kū[?]alíg-</i>	traditional smock
<i>sáannìm^m</i>			"strangerhood"
<i>gīñlím^m</i>			"shortness"

LFs ending in long vowels or diphthongs, or in *-mm* (where the second *m* was historically syllabic but is now consonantal) cannot carry a toneme on the final mora. The SF forms are regular, but if the LF final mora would have carried H toneme by the usual rules, the H is transferred to the next preceding mora which is *not* the last of a long vowel/diphthong, replacing the previous toneme, which is always M. (This is not a tonal change at all, historically: HH! became H! as the second mora became non-tone-bearing; Kusaal H toneme arose from H!, while H elsewhere became M [6].) Superscript Notation still writes the acute tone mark at the end [3.2.1]; in all cases such marks are interpreted as falling on the nearest preceding mora which is neither non-vocalic, nor the last in a long vowel/diphthong.

SF <i>nūa</i>	LF <i>nūáa</i>	"hen"	<i>nūa⁺</i>
SF <i>dāam</i>	LF <i>dáamm</i>	"millet beer"	<i>dāam^m</i>
SF <i>vōm</i>	LF <i>vúmm</i>	"life"	<i>vōm^m</i>
SF <i>tāuñ</i>	LF <i>táuñ</i>	"sibling of opposite sex"	<i>tāuñ⁺</i>

8.2.1.1 Forms with Deleted Morae

When an original cluster is reduced to a single consonant by simplification of impermissible consonant clusters [7.2.1.1], the original tonemes are unaffected, and the H toneme appears in the position that would be expected if the cluster were still present:

<i>níŋ^a /ŋŋ/</i>	<i>nís^e /ns/</i>	<i>nīŋ-</i>	"bird"
<i>pí[?]ñf^o /nf/</i>	<i>pī[?]ñí⁺</i>	<i>pī[?]ñ-</i>	"genet"
<i>ñyī^rí^f /rr/</i>	<i>ñyī^rí⁺</i>		kind of edible seed

With a nominal prefix [8.2.5] *tín-*:

tīntōñríg^a /rr/ *tīntōñrís^e* *tīntōñr-* "mole" (animal)

The consonant *ŋ* is treated as /ŋ/ not /ŋŋ/ in the variant form

gīŋulím^m "shortness"

Compare the similar anomalous treatment of *ŋ* in [6.2.1](#).

Forms which have undergone deletion of **g* when no affix vowel follows the **g*

[7.3.1](#) behave for toneme allocation as if the **g* mora were present but not vocalic:

<i>náaf^o</i>	← * <i>náagfù</i>	(cf pl <i>nīigí⁺</i>)	"cow"
<i>wáaf^o</i>	← * <i>wáagfù</i>	(cf pl <i>wīigí⁺</i>)	"snake"
<i>yáab^a</i>	← * <i>yáagbà</i>		"grandparent"
<i>vúer^e</i>	← * <i>vúəgrì</i>		fruit of the <i>vúəŋ^a</i> tree

Here belong all regular gerunds in *-r^e* formed from Pattern H Fusion Verbs

[13.1.1.1](#) which have phonologically-deleted **g* in the perfective:

	<i>náar^e</i>	← * <i>náagrì</i>	"end"
from	<i>nāe^{+/}</i>	← * <i>nāagí</i>	"finish"
	<i>dīʔər^e</i>	← * <i>dīʔəgrì</i>	"receiving"
from	<i>dīʔe^{+/}</i>	← * <i>dīʔəgí</i>	"get"
	<i>pūñʔer^e</i>	← * <i>pʔʔəgrì</i>	"rotting"
from	<i>pūñʔe^{+/}</i>	← * <i>pʔʔəgí</i>	"rot"

Fusion Verbs show evidence of **g* only in perfective forms and in gerunds; in imperfectives and in derived agent nouns **g* is absent:

<i>nāad^{a/}</i>	"finish" ipfv
<i>nāad^{a/}</i>	"finisher"

8.2.2 Pattern HL

Pattern HL comprises 2-mora stems intrinsically beginning with either HL on a long vowel or H on a short vowel. Few words belong here, but several are very common. Any stem toneme after the H is L. The realisation is straightforward: the H toneme changes to M in the cb and in *r^e|a⁺* Class plurals, which have H on the suffix. (No *ʔ|t⁺* Class plurals occur.) HL root-stems are found only in nominals, and derivatives from HL roots are simply regular Pattern H.

<i>núʔùg</i> ^o	<i>núʔùs</i> ^e	<i>nūʔ-</i>	"hand, arm"
<i>à-gáàǹg</i> ^o	<i>à-gáàǹd</i> ^e	<i>à-gāǹ-</i>	"pied crow"
<i>nóbìr</i> ^e	<i>nōbá</i> ⁺	<i>nōb-</i>	"foot, leg"
<i>gél</i> ^{le}	<i>gēlá</i> ⁺	<i>gēl-</i>	"egg"
<i>gbéèǹm</i> ^m	no pl	<i>gbēñ-</i>	"sleep"
<i>kísùg</i> ^o	<i>kīsá</i> ⁺	<i>kīs-</i>	"hateful, taboo" (adj)

Here belong the irregularly formed gerunds 14.1.1.1.1:

<i>sóǹsìg</i> ^a	"conversing"
<i>gósìg</i> ^a	"looking"
<i>kìkírùg</i> ^o	"hurrying" (L prefix)

Pattern HL may historically be a H variant with anomalous tones from stem mora loss (see, for example, 7.2.1.1 on *ss.) However, alternative analyses are possible 8.7. Olawsky has Dagbani *gálli* "egg" corresponding to *gél*^{le}, but while he divides nouns into four tone classes in a rather similar way to the analysis used here, he unifies the equivalents of Pattern HL and regular Pattern H while separating out the cognates of 2-mora Pattern H stems into a tone class of their own.

8.2.3 Pattern L

Pattern L comprises all nominals beginning with L intrinsically in sg/pl. All stem tonemes are L, except for the third mora of four-mora stems, which is H. All such Pattern L four-mora stems end in **m*.

<i>sùʔug</i> ^a	<i>sùʔus</i> ^e	<i>sùʔ-</i>	"knife"
<i>zàk</i> ^a	<i>zàʔas</i> ^e	<i>zàʔ-</i>	"dwelling-compound"
<i>dìgir</i> ^e	<i>dìga</i> ⁺	<i>dìg-</i>	"dwarf"
<i>mòli</i> ^o	<i>mòli</i> ⁺	<i>mòl-</i>	"gazelle"
<i>kùʔəm</i> ^m	no pl	<i>kùʔà-</i>	"water"
<i>mà</i> ⁺	<i>mà nám</i> ^a	<i>mà-</i>	"mother"
<i>mèεη</i> ^a	<i>mèεmɪs</i> ^e	<i>mèεη-</i>	"turtle"
<i>sàal</i> ^a	<i>sàalɪb</i> ^a	<i>sàal-</i>	"human"
<i>bòɔdɪm</i> ^m	no pl		"will"
<i>dàalɪm</i> ^m	no pl		"maleness"
<i>pùʔalɪm</i> ^m	no pl		"femininity"
<i>pùgvdɪb</i> ^a	<i>pùgvd-nàm</i> ^a	<i>pùgvd-</i>	"father's sister"
<i>sàam</i> ^{ma}	<i>sàam-nàm</i> ^a	<i>sàam-</i>	"father"
<i>dìəm</i> ^{ma}	<i>dìəm-nàm</i> ^a	<i>dìəm-</i>	"man's parent-in-law"
<i>àǹruḡ</i> ^o	<i>àǹrɪm</i> ⁺	<i>àǹruḡ-</i>	"boat"

or	<i>kàrvŋ</i> ^o			gerund of
	<i>kàrvŋ</i> ^o			<i>kàrvm</i> ^m "read"
	<i>zùlvŋ</i> ^o	<i>zùlvma</i> ⁺	<i>zùlvŋ-</i>	"deep"
	<i>yàlvŋ</i> ^o	<i>yàlvma</i> ⁺	<i>yàlvŋ-</i>	"wide"
	<i>nàrvŋ</i> ^o	<i>nàrvma</i> ⁺	<i>nàrvŋ-</i>	"necessary"
	<i>zìlv</i> ^{me}	<i>zìlvma</i> ⁺	<i>zìlv-</i>	"tongue"
	<i>sìilŋ</i> ^a	<i>sìilmìs</i> ^e		
		<i>sìilís</i> ^e		
		<i>sìilímà</i> ⁺	<i>sìilŋ-</i>	"proverb"
	<i>zàańsúŋ</i> ^o	<i>zàańsímà</i> ⁺	<i>zàańsúŋ-</i>	"dream"

Note the *m*-stems

<i>dàalím</i> ^m	<i>dàalímìs</i> ^e	<i>dàalím-</i>	"male sex organs"
<i>pùʔalím</i> ^m	<i>pùʔalímìs</i> ^e	<i>pùʔalím-</i>	"female sex organs"
<i>bìʔisím</i> ^m			"milk"

Contrast three-mora stems like *daal* + *m*^m "maleness" above.

Tonally exceptional Pattern L words are:

<i>bùgúm</i> ^m	no pl	<i>bùgúm-</i> or <i>bùgūm-</i>	"fire"
no sg	<i>tàdímìs</i> ^e		"weakness"
no sg	<i>bùdímìs</i> ^e		"confusion"

The consonant *ŋ* is anomalously treated as /ŋ/ not /ŋŋ/ in

<i>nòŋvlím</i> ^m		"love"
<i>nòŋvlím-tāa</i> ⁼	15.1.1.5	"fellow lover" WK
<i>sòŋvlím-tāa</i> ⁼		"fellow-helper"

Cf *gīŋvlím*^m "shortness" 8.2.1 and the anomalous treatment of *ŋ* in 6.2.1.

8.2.4 Pattern O

Pattern O consists of words with all tonemes M in sg/pl and all L in cb.

The final toneme of the LF is M, so in LF this pattern is distinctive, though in SF 2-mora stems have exactly the same MM pattern as 2-mora Pattern H stems. The LF final toneme may appear as H instead of the expected M in some circumstances, though only before Prosodic Clitics and never before Liaison 8.2.4.1.

These all-M LFs become all-L at the end of questions 10.4.2:

Lì kāʔ gbígìmmeeʔ

"Isn't it a lion?"

Examples:

<i>būvg^a</i>	<i>būvs^e</i>	<i>bù-</i>	"goat"
<i>tān^{ne}</i>	<i>tāna⁺</i>	<i>tàn-</i>	"earth"
<i>sīd^a</i>	<i>sīdɪb^a</i>	<i>sìd-</i>	"husband"
<i>pɸʔā^a</i>	<i>pɸʔab^a</i>	<i>pɸʔà-</i>	"woman, wife"
<i>sāʔab^o</i>	no pl	<i>sàʔ-</i>	"millet porridge"
<i>gbīgim^{ne}</i>	<i>gbīgima⁺</i>	<i>gbìgim-</i>	"lion"
<i>ñwāaŋ^a</i>	<i>ñwāamɪs^e</i>	<i>ñwàaŋ-</i>	"monkey"
<i>mēɛd^a</i>	<i>mēɛdɪb^a</i>	<i>mèɛd-</i>	"builder"
<i>sjàkɪd^a</i>	<i>sjàkɪdɪb^a</i>	<i>sjàkɪd-</i>	"believer"
<i>būtɪŋ^a</i>	<i>būtɪs^e</i>	<i>bùtɪŋ-</i>	"cup"
<i>mēɛdɪŋ^a</i>	<i>mēɛdɪs^e</i>	<i>mèɛdɪŋ-</i>	"building tool"

Agent nouns of the types which have *-d-* only in the plural when derived from from L-initial verbs are tonally heteroclite, consistently showing Pattern L sg and Pattern O pl (the cb would have had L tonemes in either case) 8.6.1:

<i>pùʔus^a</i>	<i>pɸʔusɪdɪb^a</i>	<i>pùʔus-</i>	"worshipper"
<i>kùəs^a</i>	<i>kùəsɪdɪb^a</i>	<i>kùəs-</i>	"seller"

Pattern O nominals are all either root-stems or stems in *m n* or *d* (including stems where the *d* has been assimilated into a consonant cluster or *t*); however, all three suffixes are also seen in Pattern L words.

8.2.4.1 Anomalies before Prosodic Clitics

In certain Pattern O words, H appears instead of the expected LF-final M toneme before Prosodic Clitics, but not before Liaison Words.

This occurs in WK's speech whenever the LF has more than three morae and ends either in *-VCV* or *-mCV* (*C* representing a *single* consonant):

<i>gbīgim^{me/}</i>	<i>gbīgima⁺</i>	<i>gbìgim-</i>	"lion"
<i>zɔ̀ɔ̀m^{me/}</i>	<i>zɔ̀ɔ̀ma⁺</i>	<i>zò̀ɔ̀m-</i>	"fugitive"
<i>yūgvɔ̀dɪr^{e/}</i>	<i>yūgvɔ̀da⁺</i>	<i>yùgvɔ̀d-</i>	"hedgehog"
<i>ñwāaŋ^a</i>	<i>ñwāamɪs^{e/}</i>	<i>ñwàaŋ-</i>	"monkey"
<i>bāŋɪd^a</i>	<i>bāŋɪdɪb^{a/}</i>	<i>bàŋɪd-</i>	"wise man"
<i>kpārɪdɪŋ^a</i>	<i>kpārɪdɪs^{e/}</i>	<i>kpàrɪdɪŋ-</i>	"thing for locking"

It also occurs with LFs of more than two morae ending in *-mm*, which is derived historically from **-mmu*:

tādım^{m/} *tādımıs^{e/}* *tādım-* "weak person"

Words of this type may also show the final H in questions, instead of undergoing the change to all-L as usual, though some other speakers keep the general rule:

Lì à nē gbīgımmée? "Is it a lion?" WK only; rejected by DK
Lì à nē gbıgımmee? "Is it a lion?" both WK and DK

8.2.5 Forms with Nominal Prefixes

On nominal prefixes generally see [16]. Tonally they are either M or L. L nominal prefixes do not affect the rest of the tone pattern of the prefixed nominal:

H	<i>dàyūug^{o/}</i>	<i>dàyūud^{e/}</i>	<i>dàyū-</i>	"rat"
HL	<i>Bùsán^a</i>	<i>Bùsáàn^s</i>	<i>Bùsāñ-</i>	"Bisa person"
L	<i>kùkpàrig^a</i>	<i>kùkpàris^e</i>	<i>kùkpàr-</i>	"palm tree"
O	<i>dàkīig^a</i>	<i>dàkīs^e</i>	<i>dàkì-</i>	"sib-in-law via wife"

M toneme nominal prefixes do not affect the tone of the remaining stem in the sg or pl, but the cb always has a H toneme after the prefix:

H	<i>zīnzāuḡ^{o/}</i>	<i>zīnzāná⁺</i>	<i>zīnzáuḡ-</i>	"bat"
H	<i>Ñwāmpūrıg^{a/}</i>	<i>Ñwāmpūrıs^{e/}</i>	<i>Ñwāmpúr-</i>	"Mamprussi person"
H	<i>gūmpūzēr^{e/}</i>	<i>gūmpūzēyá⁺</i>	<i>gūmpūzér-</i>	"duck"
H	<i>tīntōñríg^a</i>	<i>tīntōñrıs^e</i>	<i>tīntōñr-</i>	"mole" [7.2.1.1]
H	<i>pīpīrig^{a/}</i>	<i>pīpīrıs^{e/}</i>	<i>pīpír-</i>	"desert"
H	<i>bālērıg^{o/}</i>	<i>bālērıd^{e/}</i>	<i>bālér-</i>	"ugly person"
H	<i>pūkpāad^{a/}</i>	<i>pūkpāadíb^a</i>	<i>pūkpá-</i>	"farmer" [16.4]
O	<i>fūfūm^{me}</i>	<i>fūfūma⁺</i>	<i>fūfúm-</i>	"envy; styne in the eye"
L	<i>sāmán^{ne}</i>	<i>sāmánà⁺</i>	<i>sāmán-</i>	"courtyard"

The examples labelled "H" might be O: the cb tonemes are as expected for Pattern O, and the LF-final H tonemes in the sg/pl forms might reflect a similar process to that discussed in [8.2.4.1]. There is perhaps a limit on how many successive M morae can be tolerated within one word. With *zīnzāná⁺* *gūmpūzēyá⁺* compare also WK's forms sg *wālıg^a*, pl *wālıs^e* beside *wālı⁺* "a kind of gazelle."

M Raising only follows forms which have undergone Apocope. One or two compounds behave tonally as if the first element were a prefix, with no neutralisation of stem tones in the sg/pl, but only in the cb. All cases involve cbs as pre-modifiers rather than heads, and the cb stems are all probably originally of one mora:

<i>zūg-kōgur^{el}</i>	<i>zūg-kōga⁺</i>	<i>zūg-kúg-</i>	"pillow" 11.2.2
<i>kā-wēnnir^{el}</i>	<i>kā-wēnna⁺</i>	<i>kā-wén-</i>	"corn"

8.3 Verbs

As is cross-linguistically common, Kusaal verbs show much less lexical tonal variety than nominals. Probably as the result of mergers of a previously distinct Pattern HL with regular H and Pattern L with O 8.7, there are just two tone patterns:

Pattern H	initial M or H
Pattern O	L throughout in the Indicative and Imperative Moods M throughout in the Unrealised Mood

The Tone Patterns of all regularly formed deverbal nominals are predictable 8.6.1; only the tones of finite verbal forms are discussed below.

Variable Verbs have three forms 13.1. The *-m^a* imperative is found only (and always) with tone overlay 24.6.1.1 so it is unnecessary to treat it further here; perfective and imperfective forms will be cited in that order. **Invariable Verbs** have a single form 13.2, which is always imperfective.

All *imperfective* verb forms in both Patterns H and O, even the bare root *bè⁺*, are followed by L Raising, whether subject to tone overlay or not.

8.3.1 Pattern H

Pattern H in verbs resembles Pattern H in nominals. Again, it allocates H to one of the first three morae, with all preceding tonemes M and all following tonemes L. The H is placed on a third mora if it exists and is vocalic, and otherwise on the second, unless this is the second within a long vowel, when the H falls on the first mora.

Unlike the case with nominals, there are no anomalous patterns due to mora deletion (see on Fusion Verbs below).

However, the final vowel of the perfective of 2-mora-stem verbs only shows the expected H toneme before Liaison Words; before Prosodic Clitics it carries M:

<i>dōgí lī</i>	"cooked it"
<i>Ò pō dōge.</i>	"He didn't cook."

The form before the Interrogative Clitic confirms that the pattern there is intrinsically MM, because it becomes LL like all other all-M sequences in this context:

<i>Ò p̄ ḡse.</i>	"She didn't look"
<i>Ò p̄ ḡsèè?</i>	"Didn't she look?"
<i>Ò p̄ d̄ge.</i>	"She didn't cook."
<i>Ò p̄ d̄gèè?</i>	"Didn't she cook?"
<i>Ò p̄ z̄bē.</i>	"She didn't fight."
<i>Ò p̄ z̄bèè?</i>	"Didn't she fight?"

In Superscript Notation these LFs will be written as MM rather than MH. Examples for Pattern H:

<i>ñyē⁺</i>	<i>ñyēt^{a/}</i>	"see"
<i>kō⁺</i>	<i>kōvd^{a/}</i>	"kill"
<i>dōg^e</i>	<i>dōgvd^{a/}</i>	"cook"
<i>p̄jāñ^a</i>	<i>p̄jāñ^aad^{a/}</i>	"speak" "praise"
<i>kū^e</i>	<i>kūn^{na/}</i>	"go home"
<i>yādıg^{e/}</i>	<i>yādıgıd^a</i>	"scatter"
<i>m̄ɔɔ^{e/}</i>	<i>m̄ɔɔn^{na}</i>	"proclaim"
<i>d̄ıgı^{e/}</i>	<i>d̄ıgın^{na}</i>	"lay down"
<i>n̄k^{e/} /kk/</i>	<i>n̄kıd^a /kk/</i>	"take"
<i>lāñım^m /ŋŋ/</i>	<i>lāñım^{ma} /ŋŋ/</i>	"wander searching"

As with nominals [8.2.1], complications arise with LFs ending in morae which cannot be tone-bearing, either with LFs ending in long vowels or diphthongs, and with LFs ending in *-mm*. Again, the SF forms are regular, but H allocated to a LF final mora is transferred to the next preceding mora which is not the last in a long vowel or diphthong, replacing its previous M toneme.

<i>t̄ɔɔm^{m/}</i>	<i>t̄ɔɔm^{ma} or t̄ɔɔmıd^a</i>	"disappear"
* <i>t̄ɔɔmı</i> pfv		
→ SF <i>t̄ɔɔm</i>		
→ LF <i>t̄ɔɔmm</i>		
<i>p̄āe^{+/}</i>		"reach"
→ SF <i>p̄āe</i>		
→ LF <i>p̄āée</i>		

As always, Superscript Notation writes the acute mark at the end [3.2.1].

Fusion Verbs show no sign of *g in the imperfective tonally:

<i>pāe</i> ^{+/}	<i>pāad</i> ^{a/}	not * <i>páad</i> ^a	"reach"
<i>dī[?]e</i> ^{+/}	<i>dī[?]əd</i> ^{a/}	not * <i>dí[?]əd</i> ^a	"get"
<i>pūñ[?]e</i> ^{+/}	<i>pūñ[?]əd</i> ^{a/}	not * <i>púñ[?]əd</i> ^a	"rot" WK

Contrast the corresponding gerunds in -r^e: *páar*^e *dí[?]ər*^e *púñ[?]ər*^e.

Agentive Invariable Verbs:

<i>dīg</i> _i ^{ya/}	"be lying down"
<i>tī[?]i</i> ^{ya/}	"be leaning" (objects)
<i>zāñ</i> _l ^{la/}	"be holding"
<i>gō</i> _l ^{la/}	"be looking up with neck extended"
or <i>gō</i> ^{a/}	
or <i>gō[?]e</i> ^{ya/}	
<i>mō</i> ^{a/}	"have"
<i>sō[?]e</i> ^{ya/}	"own"

Adjectival Verbs with stems in -m- all show gemination of the -m- in the LF, but have tonemes allocated as if the -m- were single:

<i>kpī[?]əm</i> ^{ma/}	not * <i>kpí[?]əm</i> ^{ma}	"be strong, hard"
<i>kpēēñm</i> ^{ma/}	not * <i>kpééñm</i> ^{ma}	"be older than"
<i>wā[?]am</i> ^{ma/}	not * <i>wá[?]am</i> ^{ma}	"be long, tall" KT

This is the result of historical reworking of Adjectival Verbs to conform to verbal tone patterns, and represents an earlier nominal-type Pattern O 13.2.2.

8.3.2 Pattern O

Pattern O in verbs is simple descriptively: all stem tonemes are L in the Indicative and Imperative Moods, and all tonemes are M in the Unrealised Mood.

<i>bùd</i> ^e	<i>bùt</i> ^a	"plant"
<i>dì</i> ⁺	<i>dít</i> ^a	"eat"
<i>mè</i> ⁺	<i>mèəd</i> ^a	"build"
<i>zàb</i> ^e	<i>zàbíd</i> ^a	"fight, hurt"
<i>bùə</i> ^e	<i>bùən</i> ^{na}	"call"
<i>bòdíg</i> ^e	<i>bòdígíd</i> ^a	"get lost, lose"

<i>nìŋ^e</i>	<i>nìŋɪd^a</i>	"do"
<i>màal^e</i>	<i>màan^{na}</i>	"sacrifice"
<i>dìgɪn^e</i>	<i>dìgɪnɪd^a</i>	"lie down"
<i>wàŋɪm^m</i>	<i>wàŋɪm^{ma}</i>	"waste away"
<i>siilum^m</i>	<i>siilum^{ma}</i>	"cite proverbs"
<i>zàaŋsɪm^m</i>	<i>zàaŋsɪm^{ma}</i>	"dream"
<i>zìŋʔɪ^{ya}</i>		"be sitting down"
<i>tàbɪ^{ya}</i>		"be stuck to"
<i>tèŋ^a</i>		"remember"
<i>bè⁺</i>		"be in a place, exist"
<i>àeŋ^{ya}</i>		"be something"
<i>vèn^{na}</i>		"be beautiful"
<i>zùlɪm^{ma}</i>		"be deep"

In the Unrealised Mood, as with nominal Pattern O, the last toneme of the LF is also M, as is the final vowel mora before Liaison.

<i>Ò nà bōdɪg.</i>	"He'll get lost."
<i>Ò nà vēn.</i>	"She'll be beautiful."
<i>Ò kù zābe.</i>	"She won't fight."
<i>Ò kù bōdɪge.</i>	"He won't get lost."
<i>Ò kù bōdɪgɪdɔ.</i>	"She won't be getting lost."
<i>Ò kù būənnɔ.</i>	"She won't be calling."
<i>Ò nà bōdɪgɪ m.</i>	"He will lose me."
<i>Ò kù bōdɪgɪ má.</i>	"He will not lose me."
<i>Ò nà bōdɪgɪ bá.</i>	"She will lose them."
<i>Ò kù bōdɪgɪ báa.</i>	"She won't lose them."
<i>Ò kù bōdɪgɪdɪ má.</i>	"He won't be losing me."
<i>Ò kù zābɪdɪ má.</i>	"He won't be fighting me."
<i>Ò kù zābɪdɪné.</i>	"He wouldn't have been fighting."
<i>Ò kù sīlɪmm.</i>	"She won't cite proverbs" WK

but *Ò kù lāŋɪmm.* "She won't wander about searching (*lāŋɪm^m*)."

Such forms always cause L Raising:

<i>Ò nà zāb ná'àb lā.</i>	"He'll fight the chief."
<i>Ò nà gōs ná'àb lā.</i>	"He'll look at the chief."

The LF of the enclitic pronoun ^o can here show either M or H (all WK):

	<i>Ò kù zāb·óo.</i>	"He won't fight him."
or	<i>Ò kù zāb·oo.</i>	"He won't fight him."
	<i>Ò kù kād·óo.</i>	"He won't drive him away."
or	<i>Ò kù kād·oo.</i>	"He won't drive him away."

In questions, clause-final M...M become L...L just as with Pattern O nominals:

M ná b̀̀dige? "Will I get lost?"

8.4 Apocope Blocking

Words with Apocope Blocking [7.4] with SFs ending in M toneme change to final H in the LF:

SF <i>yā</i>	LF <i>yáa</i>	"houses"	<i>yā^{+/}</i>
SF <i>b̀̀dvg̃</i>	LF <i>b̀̀dvg̃ú</i>	"a lot"	<i>b̀̀dvg̃^{+/}</i>

Superscript Notation writes *yā^{+/}* *b̀̀dvg̃^{+/}* by the usual convention [3.2.1]. Exceptional among free words is *k̀̀big̃* = "one hundred."

8.5 Clitic Pronouns and Particles

Nominal combining forms [11], Focussing Modifiers [34.6], Conjunctions [29.3], some particle-verbs [24.7.2] and Post-Subject Particles [29.1.3] have the same range of Tone Patterns as free words.

Proclitic Liaison Words all have a single mora with a Fixed L toneme [10.2]:

all proclitic personal pronouns	<i>m̀̀ f̀̀ ò l̀̀ t̀̀ ỳ̀ b̀̀</i>
personifier clitics	<i>à ò m̀̀</i>
complementiser	<i>h̀̀</i> [9.3.2.1.1]
linker particle "and"	<i>k̀̀</i>

Serialiser *n* has no tone. The LF-final toneme preceding it is M after M and L otherwise. It is followed by L Raising if and only if the preceding word would be:

M̀̀ nók s̀̀v̀̀g̃_ø k̀̀já nīm l̃̀.
1SG pick.up:PFV knife:SG SER cut:PFV meat:SG ART.
 "I cut the meat with a knife."

Liaison Enclitics bear H toneme after a host-final M toneme vowel and M otherwise; this M becomes H in the LF (i.e. the form is Pattern H, not O):

	<i>M zábi bá.</i>	"I've fought them."
	<i>Kà n̄ zábi bā.</i>	"And I've fought them."
	<i>M p̄ b̄ɔd̄i báa.</i>	"I don't love them."
cf	<i>M p̄ b̄ɔd̄i f̄o.</i>	"I don't love you."
	<i>Kà n̄ p̄ zábi báa.</i>	"And I didn't fight them."
cf	<i>Kà n̄ p̄ zábi f̄o.</i>	"And I didn't fight you."
	<i>Ànɔʔɔn̄i k̄úú bá?</i>	"Who has killed them?" SF <i>k̄úú bā</i>

Enclitic particles with the Short Form (C)V which are *not* Liaison Words have three possible Tone Patterns, corresponding to the H, L and O Patterns of free words.

The only Pattern L types are the deictic *n̄wà* "this" [21.3] and the VP-final particle *sà* "hence, ago" [25.7], and the only Pattern O enclitic is the particle *yā*⁺ found as a manifestation of Independency Marking [24.6.2.1].

As with 2-mora stem free words, Patterns H and O fall together in the SF, where both appear with a M toneme.

Pattern H enclitics change the M tone to H in the Long Form (compare the tonal behaviour of words with Apocope Blocking [8.4].) Before the Negative Prosodic Clitic [10.4.1] the Pattern H LFs thus end in H, while the Pattern O clitic ends in M; so with the article *lā*^{+/} versus the Independent/pfv particle *yā*⁺:

<i>Lì à n̄é d̄ɔ̀̀g lā.</i>	"It's the hut."
<i>Lì k̄áʔ d̄ɔ̀̀g lāa.</i>	"It's not the hut."

but *Ka o ba' ne o ma daa pu ban ye o kpelim yaa.*
Kà ò bāʔ né ò mà dāa p̄ báj
 and 3HU father:SG with 3HU mother:SG TNS NEG.IND realise:PFV
yé ò kp̄̀̀l̄m yāa ⁺∅.
 that 3HU remain INDEP NEG.

"His father and mother did not realise that he had remained." (Lk 2:43)

Before the Interrogative Prosodic Clitic, as with free words [10.4.2], the Pattern O form changes to all-L; thus the Pattern H focus particle *n̄é*^{+/} contrasts with Pattern O *yā*⁺:

	<i>Lì b̄̀̀d̄ɪg n̄é.</i>	"It's lost."
	<i>Lì b̄̀̀d̄ɪg n̄éʔ</i>	"Is it lost?"
but	<i>Lì b̄̀̀d̄ɪg yā.</i>	"It's got lost."
	<i>Lì b̄̀̀d̄ɪg yàaʔ</i>	"Has it got lost?"

8.6 Tone in Derivation

Root tone patterns can be deduced from the tone patterns of words with stems lacking any derivational suffix, and from common patterns in stems with different derivational suffixes but the same root.

Roots which form Pattern HL nouns fall together with regular Pattern H in all other derived or cognate nominals or verbs:

<i>áñsìb^a</i>	"maternal uncle"	<i>āñsìŋ^a</i>	"sister's child"
<i>kísùg^o</i>	"hateful"	<i>kīs^{a/}</i>	"hate"
<i>gósìg^a</i>	"looking"	<i>gōs^e</i>	"look"

Derivatives of Pattern L or O roots can be L or O. The assignment is by rule in deverbal nominals [8.6.1](#).

With other nominals, no stem with *g*/ or *s as a final derivational suffix [15.1](#) or as the final consonant of a (C)V:C root-stem [7.1.1.2](#) is Pattern O.

In general, it is unexpected for forms derived from H or HL roots to show L or O Patterns, or vice versa. However, this happens systematically with "assume-posture" verbs [15.2.1.1](#) and with Adjectival Verbs corresponding to Pattern O Adjectives [13.2.2](#). Other instances are

<i>là^aas^e</i>	"gather together"	<i>lāk^{e/}</i>	"open" (eye, book) 15.2.1.3
<i>dù^aun^e</i>	"make water"	<i>dū^auním^m</i>	"urine"

In *gīŋ^a* "short"
or *gīŋulím^m* "shortness"

both the unexpected tones and the aberrant treatment of as a single consonant rather than a cluster [8.2.1](#) in the form *gīŋulím^m* perhaps reflect the addition of the suffix -/ to an entire word form rather than a stem; however, the treatment of ŋ as single rather than double in tone allocation is also seen in other contexts [6.2.1](#) [8.2.3](#).

A change of Tone Pattern may in some cases be a deliberate strategy to differentiate words which are otherwise homophonous:

<i>gbāuŋ^{o/}</i>	"skin", "book" DK	<i>gbàuŋ^o</i>	"book" WK
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8.6.1 Tones of Deverbal Nominals

All segmentally regular gerunds have predictable Tone Patterns:

	from Pattern H verbs		Pattern H
	from Pattern O verbs		
	2-mora stems		Pattern O
	otherwise		Pattern L
<i>dūg^e</i>	"cook"	→	<i>dūgub^{o/}</i>
<i>n̄k^{e/}</i>	"take"	→	<i>n̄kír^e</i>
<i>dīgɪ^{e/}</i>	"lay down"	→	<i>dīgɪlóg^o</i>
<i>mē⁺</i>	"build"	→	<i>mēEb^o</i>
<i>sùŋ^e</i>	"help"	→	<i>sùŋɪ^e</i>
<i>dìgɪn^e</i>	"lie down"	→	<i>dìgɪnug^o</i>
<i>zàaṅsɪm^m</i>	"dream"	→	<i>zàaṅsúŋ^o</i>

Most segmentally irregular gerunds formed from root verbs are tonally regular. Agent nouns and deverbal adjectives also have predictable Tone Patterns:

	from Pattern H verbs	Pattern H
	from Pattern O verbs	
	containing derivational <i>-d-</i>	Pattern O
	otherwise	Pattern L

A peculiarity of these forms is that the *d* is not always present, being omitted regularly in some derivatives after certain shapes of longer verb stems. It is also regularly dropped in the singular and the combining form, but not the plural, of agent nouns derived from 3-mora *s*-stem verbs. When these derivatives are made from Pattern O verbs the forms with retained *d* (even when it is assimilated into a cluster as *-mn-* or *-nn-*) are Pattern O whereas those without it are Pattern L. In the case of the agent nouns mentioned, this results in a regular change of tone Pattern within a single flexional paradigm:

pù[?]us^a *pū[?]usɪdɪb^a* *pù[?]us-* "worshipper"

8.7 Tonal Internal Sandhi

It is descriptively convenient to assign a toneme to almost every vocalic mora [6.1]. However, the possible combinations of tonemes within words are very limited, and the question arises as to how far word-internal tonemes are actually in contrast.

The Agolle Kusaal M toneme is equivalent to H in other Western Oti-Volta languages, while the Agolle H toneme is the equivalent of H! or HL, and is most often the result of spreading of a preceding (original) H tone to L. In the discussion below I will refer to these tonemes as they appear in Kusaal; thus the HL → HH! change will appear as word-internal **rightward M toneme spreading**: ML → MH. Word-internal H after M is in fact always attributable to this process.

The all-M manifestation of Pattern O can be taken as a single M toneme linked to all the morae of the stem. The only other case of more than a single M toneme in a stem occurs at the beginning of Pattern H words, where two M morae may occur in succession; again, this can be taken as a single toneme attached to both morae.

Thus, the central question in accounting for the constraints on the possible tonemes of stems is the status of the L toneme. In this account, it is regarded as essentially unmarked, equivalent to the absence of M or H toneme.

A problem with regarding the L toneme as unmarked arises with Tone Pattern O. All Western Oti-Volta languages for which I have adequate tonal information have analogues of Patterns H, L and O; furthermore, the noun tone patterns in Buli correspond systematically to these, showing respectively H, L and mid tone stems:

<i>nááb</i>	"cow"	cf Kusaal <i>náaf</i> ^o	id
<i>tììb</i>	"tree"	cf Kusaal <i>tìig</i> ^a	id
<i>būūk</i>	"goat"	cf Kusaal <i>bōvg</i> ^a	id

In the other Western Oti-Volta languages, the Pattern O equivalent shows a regular alternation between all-H free forms and all-L Combining Forms; in Buli, between all-mid free forms and all-L combining forms, tonally identical to the combining forms of the Buli Pattern L equivalent.

Akanlig-Pare and Kenstowicz 2002 (for Mooré) regard Pattern O stems as intrinsically tonally unmarked. Adapting their analysis, Pattern O stems would be realised as all-M when a M flexional suffix is attached but otherwise default to all-L. All noun class suffixes carry M toneme in the sg/pl except those following a stem-final M toneme, which are dissimilated to L, which subsequently becomes Kusaal H by tone spreading. In discussing Dagbani, Olawsky 1999 also supposes that the analogue of Pattern O involves stems which are intrinsically toneless, but he follows Anttila and Bodomo (on Dagaare) in supposing that the change to all-H (= Kusaal all-M) is the result of *stress*. For Kusaal, this is not workable with surface stress [3.4], and

to ascribe different *underlying* stress patterns leads to circular arguments, so I will adopt the Akanlig-Pare and Kenstowicz tone-copying proposal.

As it stands, this still requires marked L tonemes on the initial morae of Pattern L stems, to account for their failure to become all-M when a noun class suffix is added. This L-versus-toneless distinction is at a different analytical level from the possibility that toneme realisation rules might depend on whether individual morae were marked L or toneless [6.2.1]: intrinsically toneless stems would always be *realised* with L or M tonemes throughout. Nevertheless, it introduces an abstract *ad hoc* feature into the tonal system purely to account for this one phenomenon.

An alternative is suggested by the difference between Pattern HL and Pattern H. Pattern H roots show underlying MM on the first two morae, and Pattern HL roots can be taken as having underlying ML. By analogy, Pattern O and Pattern L roots could be taken respectively as LL and LM. It then remains possible to regard L tones as unmarked: a stem with all tones L is liable to copy the tone of a M flexional suffix and become all-M, just as in the Akanlig-Pare/Kenstowicz scenario, but this copying does not occur in Pattern L because Pattern L stems contain a non-initial M toneme.

The obvious objection to this analysis is that Pattern L two- and three-mora stems do not in fact show any non-initial M (or H) tonemes. This can be explained as the result of **rightward L toneme spreading**, and the H tonemes which do in fact occur on the third morae of Pattern L four-mora nominal stems [8.2.3] can be taken as intrinsic M morae followed by downstep. Various possible constraints on internal L tone spreading could explain this; the simplest would be that LM does not become LL if the M mora is closed in the LF form and is not the second mora in the stem. This would explain singular Pattern L toneme patterns like *zàańsúŋ*^o "dream", though the plural and combining form tones *zàańsíma*⁺ and *zàańsúŋ-* would have to be explained as analogical, which is plausible for the combining forms at least [11.2.2]. Because Pattern L four-mora stems all end in *-*sím* *-*lím* or *-*dím* there are in fact several *ad hoc* ways to "explain" their exceptional tonal behaviour with no obvious way to choose between them.

Comparative evidence from Toende Kusaal supports the existence of a historical internal L spreading rule in Agolle. Niggli's "La phonologie du Kusaal" pp 134ff has, for example

<i>kò'óm</i>	"eau"	Agolle SF	<i>kù'em</i>
<i>zìlím</i>	"langue"	Agolle SF	<i>zìlím</i>
<i>sùm</i>	"bien"	Agolle SF	<i>sùm</i>
<i>bòŋ</i>	"âne"	Agolle SF	<i>bòŋ</i>

(cf LF *bòŋá*)

Niggli shows L-initial *verbs* as LL not LH: *sìbìg* "punir", which is consistent with the hypothesis about the Tone Patterns of Variable Verbs advanced below.

Despite difficulties with formulating its precise conditions, L tone spreading thus allows for a natural explanation of the distinction between Pattern O and Pattern L which does not require the assumption of marked L tonemes.

The postulation of underlying roots with (up to) two tonemes, each M or L, also neatly accounts for the fourfold set of H, HL, L and O types needed to account for all 2-mora stem nominals; the Patterns arise respectively from MM, ML, LM and LL.

Longer stems do not show more contrasts: all Patterns could be described just by attributing the Pattern to the root, with Pattern H variants explicable from internally reconstructable processes of mora deletion [8.2.1.1]. Pattern HL and H roots fall together in derivation: all regularly derived stems are Pattern H, with the sole exception of assume-posture verbs [15.2.1.1]. Thus, after HL and H roots, derivational suffixes do not create independent tonal distinctions. However, derivational suffixes do differ in their tonal behaviour is after O and L roots [8.6.1]. This could be accounted for by supposing that a derivational suffix can potentially be M or L, but that M is only permitted if the root has no M tonemes; word-internal H following M is always due to internal rightwards H tone spreading affecting an underlying L. There are a good many difficulties in the details, however.

It is likely that much of the difficulty is due to extensive levelling and simplification of the tone patterns of Variable Verbs. Verbal Pattern H is likely to represent a conflation of previously separate Patterns H and HL, and verbal Pattern O of previously separate Patterns O and L.

The perfective is a bare stem, like a nominal cb. The tones of the cbs of Pattern H and Pattern HL always coincide, as do the tones of all forms longer than two morae in the LF, so the collapse of H and HL into one pattern in finite forms is expected. There are a few Pattern HL gerunds which probably reflect an earlier stage before extensive tonal levelling had taken place [14.1.1.1.1]; an example of segmental and tonal levelling proceeding together is seen in the two gerunds of *kīr*^e "hurry, tremble": *kìkíròg*^o versus *kīrb*^o.

The tones of the cbs of nominal Pattern O and Pattern L regularly fall together in all but 4-mora stems, so originally separate O and L verbs would coincide tonally in the perfective except in 4-mora stems. The all-L Pattern of Pattern O 4-mora stem perfectives might represent levelling; but the assumption of a rightward L toneme spreading rule having affected Pattern L stem surface tonemes implies rather that it is the LLH tonemes of the cbs of 4-mora Pattern L nouns which are borrowed (like the segmental form) from the singular. (The plurals are more difficult to account for.)

Difficulty arises with Pattern O imperfective forms, where the stem tonemes are all-L but the mora before Liaison is M, and the forms are followed by the L Raising tone sandhi [10.1]. This suggests a M toneme flexion *-d^a*, and analogy with nominals would suggest that the stem should copy the M toneme and become all-M. However, attribution of the imperfective final M to the *flexion* is problematic, because the only Pattern O imperfective with no flexional ending, *bè*⁺ "be somewhere", is *also*

followed by L Raising and has final M before Liaison, whether subject to tone overlay or not [13.2]. The LF-final M is thus probably an *overlay* marking verb forms as imperfective, while the flexion itself is intrinsically L. This overlay applies *later* than the copying of final M tonemes by O stems; it is analogous to the final M associated with the tone overlay of Independency Marking [24.6.1.1] which also applies to forms with or without a flexional ending, and also fails to trigger the realisation of O stems as all-M. (Unrealised Mood marking would, however, necessarily involve a change of final L to M *prior* to the copying of final tones by O stems.) The imperfectives of originally distinct Pattern O and Pattern L verbs would then also automatically fall together in at least 2- and 3-mora stems; for 4-mora stems see below on the derivational suffix **d*.

The great majority of non-deverbal *nominals* with stems of more than two morae which are not Pattern H are Pattern L, not O, including *all* those with stems ending in **g */l* or **s*. Plausibly, therefore, most (even all) 3-mora stem Variable Verbs which are not Pattern H would have been originally Pattern L, and in fact *all* gerunds from 3-mora stem verbs which are not H are Pattern L. However, 2-mora stem nominals are fairly evenly distributed between Patterns O and L, so the uniform Pattern O of all regular gerunds would have to be due to levelling. There are some exceptional Pattern L gerunds, which may reflect an older, more complex situation, just as with the remaining Pattern HL gerunds mentioned above.

Most derivational suffixes added to a root which is either O or L thus result in a stem which is Pattern L in nominals, or O in verbs; accordingly, the suffix itself can be regarded as carrying M toneme unless there is already a M preceding it. (In either case the M is subsequently changed to L by the L spreading rule, except in 4-mora stem nominals, as noted above.)

The standing exception is the formant **d* of agent nouns, instrument nouns and imperfective deverbal adjectives [8.6.1]. Not only do forms derived with this suffix from Pattern O verbs consistently show Pattern O, but forms where the *-d-* is *absent* after stem-final *-s-* (as opposed to merely *assimilated* after nasals) are consistently L instead of O. This seems to imply that a toneme associated with **d* has *replaced* the M toneme of the preceding derivational **s*, which seems phonologically implausible if the **d* is to be taken as bearing the supposedly unmarked toneme L.

However, comparison of the stems of agent nouns with those of imperfective deverbal adjectives [15.1.1.1] [15.1.1.2.1] suggests that the older pattern of attachment of the **d* suffix was for it either to delete any preceding derivational suffix or to be itself omitted; the tendency for *-d-* to coexist with a preceding derivational suffix increases as the formations become less "derivational" and more "flexional", culminating in the great regularity of the finite imperfective form, probably based on the same formant [13.1]. Forms with a derivational suffix restored before *-d-* can be thus taken as preserving their original tones despite analogical segmental remodelling, as seen elsewhere with remodelled cbs [11.2.2].

A similar process would explain why the imperfective forms of three and four-mora stem Variable Verbs appear as Pattern O, not L; as suggested above, the flexion $-d^a$ is intrinsically L, like the derivational suffix $-d-$, and the tones of forms like $b\grave{o}d\grave{i}g\grave{i}d^a$ "get lost" ipvf would be modelled on patterns where the derivational suffix of the verb was deleted before the flexion, as still with some irregular verbs [13.1.2].

Tone patterns are therefore not always explicable on the basis of toneme contrasts attributable to the individual derivational suffixes present in synchronic segmental forms. So in the "tonally heteroclite" agent noun type such as

$k\grave{u}\grave{e}s^a$ $k\bar{u}\grave{e}s\grave{i}d\grave{i}b^a$ $k\grave{u}\grave{e}s-$ "seller"

the verb stem is perhaps historically a LL root with M suffix $*s$; $-s-$ is present in the plural because the segment has been restored before $-d-$ by analogy, but its tone has not; in the singular the M of the suffix $*s$ has survived long enough to prevent the stem being treated as tonally unmarked, with copying the M of the vowel-initial $^a|b^a$ Noun Class sg suffix to give $*k\bar{u}\grave{e}s^a$, but it is difficult to produce a plausible *synchronic* rule order to achieve this, and it is more natural to suppose that the tones of the sg and the pl are independently directly assigned by the rule for the tones of deverbal nominals given in [8.6.1].

The tone patterns of Adjectival Verbs [13.2.2] further demonstrate that analogical developments have made it impossible to describe synchronic tone patterns purely in terms of low-level tonal processes; in these verbs surface tonemes which straightforwardly match those of the corresponding adjectives have been reinterpreted in terms of the tone patterns of Variable and Agentive Invariable Verbs.

While the above analyses of stem tonemes in terms of internal tone sandhi seem historically plausible, their usefulness in synchronic description is not evident. Other Western Oti-Volta languages also lack surface non-initial H tones in their Pattern L analogues, so they too would need such a L spreading rule. As seen above, even the Buli nominal tone system is very similar. Thus, as a historical explanation either these internal sandhi processes need to be assigned to a very early period, or it is necessary to assume widespread independent parallel developments. As a synchronic explanation the analysis is quite abstract: it is more straightforward to describe tone patterns as they currently appear [8.1], along with the simple tonal rules needed to describe the relationships seen in derivation [8.6]; I have adopted a similar approach with external tone sandhi [10.1].

9 Segmental External Sandhi

Kusaal shows a range of intricate external sandhi phenomena, comprising not only straightforward segmental contact phenomena [9.1], but also tone sandhi of two types, one which applies across phrase boundaries [10.1] and one limited to certain NP and AdvP constructions [10.3], and several processes related to Apocope, with its complete suppression before certain particles ("Prosodic Clitics"), which have zero segmental form themselves [9.2], and partial suppression before several other particles and pronouns ("Liaison Words") [9.3], some of which also have no segmental form of their own in most contexts [3.3.3].

There is some evidence of a closer juncture between proclitic words and following hosts than between word-forms capable of ending a phrase and following dependents, including enclitics *other* than Liaison Words; however, finite verb forms often behave in this regard as if they were proclitic.

Thus, in segmental sandhi, proclitics and finite verb forms ending in a fronting diphthong show monophthongisation phrase internally, whereas this change does not take place with noun singular forms before uncompounded modifiers, or even before the article *lā*^{+/}:

<i>sāḡñ lā</i>	"the blacksmith"	
<i>sàñ-kàḡā</i>	"this blacksmith"	
<i>Ò sò^ʋ lór.</i>	"She owns a lorry."	<i>sū^ʔe^{ya}</i> "own"
<i>Lì nàa nē.</i>	"It is finished."	<i>nāe^{+/}</i> "finish"

Tone sandhi in a number of respects suggests a similar distinction [10.1] [10.3.1], but the tonal phenomena cannot be accounted for in purely phonological terms and probably reflect historical developments connected with Apocope rather than any synchronic differences in juncture.

9.1 Contact Phenomena

9.1.1 Consonant Assimilation

Both the initial consonant and the emic nasalisation of the deictic *ñwà*⁺ "this" are lost when it appears as an enclitic after a word ending in a consonant:

<i>bīs ñwá</i>	"these children"	[bi:sa]
<i>zàam ñwá</i>	"this evening"	[za:ma]
but <i>pyʔā ñwá</i>	"this woman" (e.g. as vocative)	[pʰy̥ʔawǎ]

The initial *l* of the definite article *lā*^{+/} assimilates totally to a preceding word final *-r*, and [r:] simplifies to [r]:

<i>yīr lā</i>	"the house"	[jira]
<i>pòkòǎñr lā</i>	"the widow"	[pʰokʰõ:ra]

Toende Kusaal shows this assimilation after all final consonants (Niggli 2012). The 1976 New Testament translation (especially Mark) occasionally shows forms like *nidiba* for *nīdɪb lā* "the people."

Initial *n* of the focus particle *nē*^{+/} often assimilates completely to a preceding word-final *d t n r l m* in normal rapid speech. Subsequently [r:] becomes [r] and [d:] becomes [d]:

<i>Bà kpìid nē.</i>	"They're dying."	[ba k̄pi:dɛ]
<i>M̄ zót nē.</i>	"I'm afraid."	[m̄ zot:ɛ]
<i>M̄ mór nē bīsá àyí.</i>	"I have two children with me."	[m̄ mɔɾɛ bi:sa:ji]
<i>Lì pèʔel nē.</i>	"It's full."	[lɪ pʰɛ:l:ɛ]
<i>Lì sàʔam nē.</i>	"It's spoilt."	[lɪ sɔ:m:ɛ]

Other accounts of Kusaal have taken this as a "progressive" flexion *-de/te*; in Toende Kusaal the assimilation of the equivalent particle *mɛ* is invariable after consonants (Niggli 2012), making this interpretation natural enough.

Final nasal consonants of proclitics, cbs and nominal prefixes assimilate to the place of articulation of a following stop:

<i>dànkòŋ</i>	"measles"	[daŋkʰɔŋ]
<i>nīn-bámmā</i>	"these people"	[nimbam:a]

Before *s z* such word-final nasals are realised as [ŋ]:

<i>bōn-zíidìr</i>	"thing for carrying on head"	[bʊŋzi:dir]
<i>nàm zīʔ</i>	"still not know"	[naŋzɪ]

In the case of nominal prefixes, where no unassimilated forms are available for control, I follow the traditional orthography in writing these nasals as *n* everywhere except before *p b m*, where I write *m*.

9.1.2 Loss of Nasalisation

Word-final nasalised short vowels denasalise before a clitic with an initial nasal consonant (see on similar changes word-internally, [5.2.1](#)):

	<i>àñwá</i>	"like this"
but	<i>àwá nā</i>	"like this here"
	<i>kēñ⁺</i>	"come"
but	<i>kē nā</i>	"come hither"

Some unstressed *CVñ-* elements lose nasalisation even when the following consonant is not a nasal. Thus with the compounds of *sūñʔ^o* "heart":

<i>sū-málsìm^m</i>	"joy"
<i>sūñ-kpíʔòŋ^o</i>	"boldness"

the NT and other sources write *sukpi'oŋ* or *sukpi'eŋ* for the second word; similarly *supeen* "anger" for *sūñ-péèn^{ne}*. The loss of nasalisation here probably reflects the process of bleaching and phonological simplification which has created nominal prefixes from some original Combining Forms [16.4](#).

In the case of the verb *àeñ^{va}* "be something/somehow" there is loss of nasalisation before the focus particle *nē^{+/}* (for the loss of the *ɛ* in this verb see below [9.1.3](#)):

	<i>M á nē dāy.</i>	"I'm a man."
but	<i>Lì àñ súŋā.</i>	"It's fine."

Written materials almost invariably write *àñ* when it occurs directly before a complement as *a* not *ann*:

Li a suŋa.

This probably reflects the unstressed [3.4] nature of the verb, with a similar process of phonological simplification to that affecting nominal prefixes causing actual loss of nasalisation in normal rapid speech. The few written materials which mark nasalisation with a circumflex or tilde do write *àñ* with a nasalisation mark, and my informants nasalise the vowel when asked to repeat the relevant phrases slowly, but in both cases this is probably an artefact of unusually slow speech. Accordingly, I will write the verb form consistently as *à*.

9.1.3 Loss of Fronting

Fronting diphthongs arise from the fronting effect of *y on the second mora of a short or long vowel [7.3.2], or from vowel fusion before underlying final *gɪ [7.3.1].

Regardless of origin, fronting diphthongs occur only word-finally and before y.

Nominal combining forms, and verb forms which are not phrase final, may not end in fronting diphthongs unless the next word begins with y. Otherwise, the fronting diphthongs are replaced by the corresponding monophthongs [9.1.3]:

<i>aɛ̃</i>	→ <i>a</i>	<i>ae</i>	→ <i>aa</i>
<i>oɛ̃</i>	→ <i>o</i>		
<i>ʊɛ̃</i>	→ <i>ʊ</i>	<i>ue</i>	→ <i>ʊʊ</i>
<i>uɪ̃</i>	→ <i>u</i>	<i>ui</i>	→ <i>uu</i>
<i>ɪẽ</i>	→ <i>ɪa</i>	<i>ie</i>	→ <i>iə</i>
<i>ʊẽ</i>	→ <i>ʊa</i>	<i>ue</i>	→ <i>uə</i>

	<i>sāɛ̃ñ</i>	"blacksmith"
	<i>sāɛ̃ñ lā</i>	"the blacksmith"
but	<i>sàñ-kàŋā</i>	"this blacksmith"

<i>Ò sùʔʊ lór.</i>	"She owns a lorry."	<i>sūʔe^{ya}/</i>	"own"
<i>Lì à súŋā.</i>	"It's good."	<i>àɛ̃ñ^{ya}</i>	"be" [26.2]

The verb *vūɛ̃^{ya}* "be alive" appears as *vū* before focus-*nē⁺* [written *vone*] in

Ti ya'a voe, ti vone ye ti tum Zugsob boodim.

Tì yáʔ vūɛ̃, tì vú nē yé tì túm Zūg-sób bóɔ̀dìm.

1PL if be.alive, **1PL** be.alive **FOC** that **1PL** do:IPFV head-one:SG will.

"If we live, we live to do the Lord's will." (Rom 14:8)

The SF of the negative verb $kāʔe^+$ "not be" loses the final e before the particle $nē$ or an object. Thus $kāʔe$ only occurs phrase-finally before locative adjuncts [26.1] and before $kà$ [24.5]:

So' kae' na tun'e dol na'anam ayii.

S5ʔ kāʔe_ ∅ ná tũñʔe_ ∅ d5l náʔ-námá_ àyíi +∅.

INDF.HU NEG.BE SER UNR be.able SER follow king-PL NUM:two NEG.

"Nobody can serve two kings." (Mt 6:24, 1976)

Dāy kāʔe d3cgūn lāa +∅.

Man:SG NEG.BE room:SG:LOC ART NEG.

"There's no man in the room."

Ò kāʔ bīga +∅.

3HU NEG.BE child:SG NEG.

"She is not a child."

Fusion Verbs [13.1.1.1]:

Ĕñrigim_ ∅ pāa dʔátà.

Shift.along:IMP SER reach:PFV doctor:SG.

"Shift along up to the doctor." ($pāe^{+}$ "reach")

	<i>Lì nàa nē.</i>	"It is finished."	$nāe^{+}$ "finish"
but	<i>Lì nàe yā.</i>	"It has finished."	
	<i>Dúe wēláʔ</i>	"[You] arose how? "	$dūe^{+}$ "arise"
		(A morning greeting)	

Examples before Liaison [9.3.1]:

$pāe^{+}$ "reach"	+ ti^{+} "us"	→	$pāá tī^{+}$
	+ f° "you"	→	$pāá f^{\circ}$
	+ ya "ye"	→	$pāe^{ya/}$
$pīe^{+}$ "wash"	+ ti^{+} "us"	→	$pīé tī^{+}$
	+ f° "you"	→	$pīé f^{\circ}$
	+ ya "ye"	→	$pīe^{ya/}$
$dūe^{+}$ "raise"	+ ti^{+} "us"	→	$dūé tī^{+}$
	+ f° "you"	→	$dūé f^{\circ}$
	+ ya "ye"	→	$dūe^{ya/}$

Word-final *ia ua* are also realised as [iə] [uə] within phrases 5.1.1 though the orthography does not reflect this:

<i>sīa lā</i>	"the waist"	[siəla]
<i>sàbùà lā</i>	"the girlfriend"	[sabuela]

This process of fronting loss is carried through with great regularity in my informants' speech, but NT orthography very frequently writes forms with fronting diphthongs before Liaison, both with Fusion Verbs and Invariable Verbs 3.2.2 9.3.1 9.3.2:

<i>voen</i>	for	<i>vōun</i>	"would live"
<i>Kiristo da faaenn ti</i>	for	<i>Kiristo dá fāñ</i> <i>tí</i>	Christ TNS save: PFV 1PLO "Christ saved us." (Gal 5:1)

Similar forms appear in other older written sources; for example ILK has several instances of *m wa'e ne* "I'm going" for *m wá'a nē*. However, in such cases the audio version of the NT consistently agrees with my informants in showing monophthongisation. My informants consistently rejected the "spelling pronunciation" of such forms altogether rather than ascribing them to dialectal or stylistic variation. Even in NT orthography, the verb *àeñ*^{ya} "be something" always appears as *aa* and not *aae* before Liaison Words; while this might be a real consequence of the typically unstressed nature of the verb (like the loss of nasalisation 9.1.2) it is significant that the verb rarely occurs phrase-finally 26.2, implying much less analogical pressure to introduce the spelling of the phrase-final form into phrase-medial contexts than with other verbs. Moreover, many of the examples of apparent preservation of word-final fronting diphthongs involve the verb *fāeñ*⁺ "save", which might be written *faaenn* specifically to distinguish the forms from those of *fāñ*⁺ "grab, rob"; notably, two instances occur in the 1996 NT of the spurious form *faaennm* for the imperative *faanm*. (Compare also the discussion of the words *faangid* "saviour" and *faangir* "salvation" at 20.1.) Unequivocal orthographic errors in the 1996 version, like *Nonjilim pu naae da* for *Nòjilím pū nāadá* "Love does not come to an end." (1 Cor 13:8), where the 1976 version has *Nonjir pu naada*, (cf ILK *naad*) confirm that the orthographic tradition can encompass the writing of fronting diphthongs for undoubted monophthongs.

Thus, although it is possible that there had been an actual sound change in the period between 1976 and the 1990's, it seems likely that the preservation of word-final fronting diphthongs in texts is simply a consequence of writing words as they would appear before pause.

A fronting diphthong also appears written word-internally in the NT LF form *nyaine* "brightly, clearly", read *ñyāené* in the audio version. The SF, though written *nyain*, is consistently realised [jãĩ] *ñyāe* in the audio version [22.4] and by my informants, so the *-ne* of the LF is the same as that seen in other Apocope-blocked words not ending in a short vowel [7.4], and this is not a case of Liaison.

9.2 Prosodic Clitics

All three Prosodic Clitics⁷ cause lowering of short LF-final *ɪ* *ʊ* to [e] [o], which are written *e* *o* respectively. The sounds [e] [o] only contrast with [ɛ] [ɔ] before a Prosodic Clitic, and only contrast with [ɪ] [ʊ] when the Prosodic clitic also neutralises vowel length distinctions. **If Prosodic clitics were always represented in the orthography, e o would simply be allographs of ɪ ʊ.**

Final *-mɪ* and *-mʊ* become *-mm* whenever the *m* is not geminated. The final *m* was presumably once syllabic, but the current realisation of *-mm* is [m:].

<i>tìum</i> ^m	"medicine"	SF <i>tìum</i>	LF <i>tìumm</i>	← * <i>tìumʊ</i>
<i>dāam</i> ^{m/}	"millet beer"	SF <i>dāam</i>	LF <i>dāamm</i>	← * <i>dāamú</i>
<i>vōm</i> ^{m/}	"life"	SF <i>vōm</i>	LF <i>vómm</i>	← * <i>vōm(m)ú</i>

This change to *-mm* does not occur before Liaison [9.3.1] [9.3.2].

Extra-long simple vowels, unlike diphthongs, are not permitted before Prosodic Clitics; they reduce to two morae. This results in a few words which have segmentally identical SF and LF, as for example:

7) The concept of Prosodic Clitics is also useful in describing the syntax of negation [35.3] and in determining the structure of complex clauses [29.2]. The Negative Clitic corresponds to an actual segmental clitic in Mooré, which uses *ka* as negative particle before the verb along with clause-final *ye*. Similarly, segmental vocative and interrogative clitics are common in West Africa.

The term "Prosodic Clitic" admittedly begs the question as to the origin of this behaviour. However, for clitic-like elements cross-linguistically which lack segmental form of their own see Spencer and Luís 2012: 5.5.1 on Tongan "definitive accent." A much-discussed somewhat analogous system is seen in Rotuman. The unusual Cameroonian Bantu language Nen (Nurse and Phillipson pp283ff) deletes word-final vowels unless the word has the underlying final tones LH, not only before vowel-initial words, but also before pause.

	<i>sīa</i> ⁺	"waist"	SF <i>sīa</i>	LF <i>sīaa</i>	← * <i>sīāga</i>
but	<i>dàʔa</i> ⁼	"market"	SF <i>dàʔa</i>	LF <i>dàʔa</i>	← * <i>dàʔaga</i>
	<i>bāa</i> ⁼	"dog"	SF <i>bāa</i>	LF <i>bāa</i>	← * <i>bāaga</i>
	<i>kū-ó</i> ⁼	"kill him" ←	<i>kū</i> ⁺ "kill" + ^o "him/her"		[k ^h o:]

For the effects on Pattern H 2-mora stems tonemes see 8.2.1.

Prosodic Clitics differ in the tonal perturbations they induce in the preceding LF 10.4. Length distinctions are neutralised before the Vocative and Interrogative clitics.

The **Negative Prosodic Clitic** appears at the end of a clause containing a negated or negative verb 24.5:

Lì à nē nóbìr. "It's a leg."
3NH COP FOC leg:SG.

Lì kāʔ nóbìrē ^{+∅}. "It's not a leg."
3NH NEG.BE leg:SG NEG.

Lì à nē dōk. "It's a cooking pot."
3NH COP FOC pot:SG.

Lì kāʔ dōkó ^{+∅}. "It's not a pot."
3NH NEG.BE pot:SG NEG.

Long final *u u* are not lowered:

Bà à nē mólì. "They are gazelles."
3PL COP FOC gazelle:PL.

Bà kāʔ mólì ^{+∅}. "They are not gazelles."
3PL NEG.BE gazelle:PL NEG.

The **Vocative Prosodic Clitic** ends a NP used as a vocative. It has identical tonal and segmental effects to the Negative Clitic, except that it neutralises preceding LF-final vowel length as short (cf the Interrogative Clitic below.)

Ì bīga ^{+∅!} "My child!"
1SG child:SG VOC!

Ì bīise ^{+∅!} "My children!"
1SG child:PL VOC!

Dauu, mam pu baŋ fun pian'ad si'el la gbin ne. [sic 2.1.2]

Dāu +∅, *mām* *pō* *báŋ* *fún* *pjāñ'ad* *sī'əl* *lā*
 Man:SG VOC 1SG.CNTR NEG.IND understand:PFV 2SG:COMP speak:IPFV INDF.NH ART
gbínnē +∅.

base:SG NEG.

"Man, I don't understand the meaning of what you're saying." (Lk 22:60)

This is not a vocative noun form, but a particle following the entire NP:

dau one a siakida

dāu *ónì* ∅ *à* *sjākida* +∅
 man:SG DEM.SG COMP COP believer:SG VOC

"You man, who are a believer!" (1 Cor 7:16, 1976)

The **Interrogative Prosodic Clitic** ends questions. Final vowel length distinctions are neutralised, as short in content questions, long in polar questions:

Lì à nē nóbìr. "It's a leg (*nóbìr^e*)."
 3NH COP FOC leg:SG.

Ànó'wòní ∅ *ñyē* *nóbìrè* +∅?
 Who SER see:PFV leg:SG CQ?
 "Who saw a leg?"

Lì à nē nóbìrèè +∅? "Is it a leg?"
 3NH COP FOC leg:SG PQ?

Lì à nē dōk. "It's a cooking pot (*dōk^{o/}*)."
Ànó'wòní *ñyē* *dōkó?* "Who saw a pot?"
Lì à nē dōkòò? "Is it a pot?"

Lì à nē kōk. "It's a chair (*kōk^a*)."
Ànó'wòní *ñyē* *kúkà?* "Who saw a chair?"
Lì à nē kúkàa? "Is it a chair?"

Lì à nē gbīgim. "It's a lion (*gbīgim^{ne}*)."
Ànó'wòní *ñyē* *gbígìmmne?* "Who saw a lion?"
Lì à nē gbígìmmnee? "Is it a lion?"

The length neutralisation results in the close [e] [o] resulting from lowered ι υ becoming contrastive with the realisation of LF-final ι υ in quality alone:

Lì à nē yīr. "It's a house ($yīr^e$)."
Ànóʔɔnì ñyē yīré? "Who saw a house?"
Lì à nē yīréè? "Is it a house?"

Bà à nē mólì. "They are gazelles ($mólì^+$)."
Ànóʔɔnì ñyē mólì? "Who saw gazelles?"
Bà à nē mólì? "Are they gazelles?"

9.3 Liaison Words

Certain words cause a preceding word to appear, not in the usual clause-medial Short Form, but in the Long Form, modified by loss of vowel quality contrasts in the final mora. These **Liaison Words** may or may not be enclitic. Non-enclitic Liaison Words furthermore all share the distinctive tonal property of having an initial fixed L toneme not susceptible to change by tone sandhi [10.2], with the exception of the Serialiser *n*, which is toneless.

9.3.1 Enclitic

Certain enclitics cause the preceding host word to appear as a modified LF instead of a SF. They comprise two sets:

Position 1:

Locative enclitic	n^e	[22.3]
Modal Remoteness marker	n^e	[24.4.2]
Postposed 2pl subject pronoun	ya	[30.2.3]

The Locative enclitic attaches directly to nominal words; the Modal Remoteness marker and the enclitic 2pl subject attach directly to verb words. In this grammar, the Position 1 type words are written solid with the preceding host word.

Position 2 :

all bound personal pronoun objects	[17.1]
------------------------------------	--------

	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>
1st	m^a	tl^+
2nd	f^o	ya^+
3rd hu	o [ʊ]	ba^+
3rd nh	l^+	

The pronouns either attach directly to a verb word or after either of the Position 1 clitics, Modal Remoteness n^e or enclitic 2pl subject y^a . They are written as separate words, except with the 3sg human-gender pronoun, which is altogether deleted by Apocope; the preceding host-final rounded vowel mora is written $\cdot o$ [2].

These words prevent Apocope applying to the preceding word, which retains its final affix vowel in **downranked** form with loss of quality contrasts. (See further [3.2.2].)

The downranked vowel is not epenthetic and occurs where epenthesis does not:

	$d\grave{u}m^m$	"bite"			
		+ ba^+ "them"	→	$d\grave{u}m\iota b\bar{a}$	"bite them"
but		+ suffix $-b^o$	→	$d\bar{u}m^{mo}$	gerund "biting"

If the host word LF ends in a short vowel, this is downranked to ι by default, rounded to υ after g preceded by a rounded vowel unless the clitic begins with y , and always rounded to $\cdot o$ [ʊ] before o "him/her" with which it fuses to create a long vowel $\cdot oo$ [ʊ:] in the LF [9.3.1.1]. There is no ATR harmony; the added vowel is always lax.

LFs ending in $-mm$ behave as $-mV$ before Liaison:

	$t\grave{u}m^m$	"send"	+ ti^+ "us"	→	$t\grave{u}m\iota t\bar{i}^+$
			+ o "him/her"	→	$t\grave{u}m\cdot o^+$
	$d\bar{a}am^{m/}$	"beer"	+ n^e "at, in"	→	$d\bar{a}am\acute{i}n^e$

If the host LF ends in a three-mora vowel sequence it is reduced to two, and fronting diphthongs are simplified to monophthongs just as in sandhi between closely connected words within a phrase [9.1.3].

A back second mora of a long vowel is fronted to e [ɪ] before Liaison Words beginning with y , and *any* second mora is rounded to $\cdot o$ [ʊ] before the object pronoun o "him/her." In the LF, the 3sg human-gender pronoun o combines with this preceding o to create long $\cdot oo$ [ʊ:] after a consonant and three-mora diphthongs $V\cdot oo$ [Vʊ:] after vowels [9.3.1.1].

Examples with host LFs ending in short vowels:

	$k\bar{u}k^a$	"chair"	+ n^e "at, in"	→	$k\bar{u}k\iota n^e/$
	$d\bar{u}k^{o/}$	"pot"	+ n^e "at, in"	→	$d\bar{u}k\acute{i}n^e$
	$b\grave{a}d^a$	"want"	+ ti^+ "us"	→	$b\grave{a}d\bar{i} t\bar{i}^+$
			+ f^o "you"	→	$b\grave{a}d\bar{i} f^o/$
			+ o "him/her"	→	$b\grave{a}d\cdot\bar{o}^+/$
	$g\grave{a}sim^a$	"look!"	+ y^a "ye"	→	$g\grave{a}sim\bar{i}y^a/$

<i>pōvg^a</i>	"inside"	+ <i>n^e</i>	"at"	→	<i>pōvgun^{e/}</i>
<i>pōvg^{o/}</i>	"field"	+ <i>n^e</i>	"at"	→	<i>pōvgún^e</i>
<i>yàvg^o</i>	"grave"	+ <i>n^e</i>	"at"	→	<i>yàvgūn^{e/}</i>
<i>kù[?]əm^m</i>	"water"	+ <i>n^e</i>	"in"	→	<i>kù[?]əmīn^{e/}</i>
<i>tùm^m</i>	"send"	+ <i>l⁺</i>	"it"	→	<i>tùmī lī^{+/}</i>
<i>tùm^m</i>	"send"	+ <i>o</i>	"him/her"	→	<i>tùm·o⁺</i>

<i>Bà bòcdī m.</i>	"They love me."	
<i>Bà pō bòcdī má.</i>	"They don't love me."	
<i>Ḿ bòcdī f.</i>	"I love you."	
<i>Ḿ pō bòcdī fó.</i>	"I don't love you."	
<i>Ḿ bòcd·ō.</i>	"I love him/her."	[ṁbɔ:dɔ]
<i>Ḿ pō bòcd·óo.</i>	"I don't love him/her."	[ṁp ^h ɔbɔ:dɔ:]
<i>Bà bòcdī lí.</i>	"They want it."	
<i>Bà pō bòcdī líu.</i>	"They don't want it."	
<i>Bà bòcdī tí.</i>	"They love us."	
<i>Bà pō bòcdī tíu.</i>	"They don't love us."	
<i>Bà bòcdī yá.</i>	"They love you."	
<i>Bà pō bòcdī yáa.</i>	"They don't love you."	
<i>Bà bòcdī bá.</i>	"They love them."	
<i>Bà pō bòcdī báa.</i>	"They don't love them."	

Gòsim! "Look!" (to one person)

Gòsimī_ø! "Look!" (to several people)

Look:IMP 2PLS.

Examples with host LFs ending in long vowels:

After (C)V: perfectives:

<i>kū⁺</i>	"kill"
<i>Kà bà kūó m.</i>	"And they killed me."
<i>Kà bà pō kūó m̄.</i>	"And they didn't kill me."
<i>Kà bà kūó f.</i>	"And they killed you."
<i>Kà bà pō kūó fō.</i>	"And they didn't kill you."
<i>Kà bà kū·ó.</i> [k ^h ɔ:]	"And they killed him."
<i>Kà bà pō kū·ó.</i> 9.2	"And they didn't kill him."
<i>Kà bà kūó b̄.</i>	"And they killed them."
<i>Kà bà pō kūó báa.</i>	"And they didn't kill them."

<i>kjà</i> ⁺		"cut"
<i>Kà bà kíà m.</i>		"And they cut me."
<i>Kà bà pū kíà mā.</i>		"And they didn't cut me."
<i>Kà bà kíà f.</i>		"And they cut you."
<i>Kà bà pū kíà fō.</i>		"And they didn't cut you."
<i>Kà bà kíà lī.</i>		"And they cut it."
<i>Kà bà pū kíà lí.</i>		"And they didn't cut it."
<i>Kà bà kí·o.</i>	[k ^h iʊ]	"And they cut him."
<i>Kà bà pū kí·oō.</i>	[k ^h iʊ:]	"And they didn't cut him."
<i>Kà bà kíà tī.</i>		"And they cut us."
<i>Kà bà pū kíà tí.</i>		"And they didn't cut us."
<i>ñyē</i> ⁺		"see"
<i>Kà bà ñyēé m.</i>		"And they saw me."
<i>Kà bà pū ñyēé mā.</i>		"And they didn't see me."
<i>Kà bà ñyēé f.</i>		"And they saw you."
<i>Kà bà pū ñyēé fō.</i>		"And they didn't see you."
<i>Kà bà ñyē·ó.</i>		"And they saw her."
<i>Kà bà pū ñyē·óo.</i>		"And they didn't see her."
<i>Kà bà ñyēé tī.</i>		"And they saw us."
<i>Kà bà pū ñyēé tí.</i>		"And they didn't see us."
<i>Kà bà ñyēé bā.</i>		"And they saw them."
<i>Kà bà pū ñyēé báa.</i>		"And they didn't see them."

There is no ATR harmony when ^o "him/her" causes complete assimilation of the final mora of the preceding LF:

<i>zū·ó</i>	"steal him"	SF	[zuʊ]
<i>zū·óo</i>	"steal him"	LF	[zuʊ:]

Three-mora vowel sequences reduce to two before Liaison:

dà[?]a⁼ "market" + *n^e* "at, in" → *dā[?]an^{e/}* 6.2.3

Fusion Verbs also monophthongise the LF final to a long vowel (showing the same loss of fronting as in phrase-level sandhi 9.1.3):

<i>pāe</i> ^{+/}	"reach"	+ <i>tl</i> ⁺ "us"	→	<i>pāá</i> <i>tī</i> ^{+/}
		+ <i>f</i> ⁰ "you"	→	<i>pāá</i> <i>f</i> ⁰
		+ <i>o</i> "him/her"	→	<i>pā·ó</i> ⁺
		+ <i>ya</i> "ye"	→	<i>pāe</i> ^{ya/}
<i>pīe</i> ^{+/}	"wash"	+ <i>tl</i> ⁺ "us"	→	<i>pīé</i> <i>tī</i> ^{+/}
		+ <i>f</i> ⁰ "you"	→	<i>pīé</i> <i>f</i> ⁰
		+ <i>o</i> "him/her"	→	<i>pī·ó</i> ⁺
		+ <i>ya</i> "ye"	→	<i>pīe</i> ^{ya/}
<i>dūe</i> ^{+/}	"raise"	+ <i>tl</i> ⁺ "us"	→	<i>dūé</i> <i>tī</i> ^{+/}
		+ <i>f</i> ⁰ "you"	→	<i>dūé</i> <i>f</i> ⁰
		+ <i>o</i> "him/her"	→	<i>dū·ó</i> ⁺
		+ <i>ya</i> "ye"	→	<i>dūe</i> ^{ya/}

Invariable Verbs with LFs ending in *-ya* make forms analogous to those of Fusion Verb perfectives. They drop the *ya*, monophthongise diphthongs and prolong preceding short vowels (see further [3.2.2](#)):

<i>sū[?]e</i> ^{ya/}	"own"	+ <i>l</i> ⁺ "it"	→	<i>sū[?]ú</i> <i>lī</i> ^{+/}
<i>vūe</i> ^{ya/}	"live"	+ <i>n</i> ^e rem	→	<i>vūun</i> ^{e/}

Similarly, the form

<i>àeñ</i> ^{ya}	"be"	+ <i>o</i> "him/her"	→	<i>àñ·ō</i> ⁰
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occurs in

Mane a o. "I am he." (Jn 18:5, 1976)
*Mān*_┘ *∅* *áñ·ō*_┘ *∅*.
 1SG.CNTR SER COP 3HUO.

9.3.1.1 Fronting and Rounding before Liaison Enclitics

LF-final vowels before Liaison Enclitics are subject to fronting and rounding changes analogous to those which arise word-internally in Long Forms and are often left contrastive by Apocope [7.3.2].

Despite the similarities, these changes arise from a different set of rules. The input is the synchronic LF resulting from the application of all the vowel changes which precede Apocope [7.3]. The outcome is also different; for example, ATR harmony never applies within the diphthongs which result from Liaison.

The default is for LFs ending in root vowels before Liaison to show the same segmental form as before the Negative Prosodic Clitic, and for all short affix vowels to become *ɪ*.

Fronting of the second mora of a LF-final long vowel occurs before the 2pl object pronoun *ya*⁺ and before the enclitic 2pl subject pronoun *ya*^a. The object pronoun induces exactly the same fronting changes as are seen word-internally before *y* [7.3.2] with any back second mora becoming *e* [ɪ] but no change with front second morae:

<i>kū</i> ⁺		"kill"
<i>Kà bà kūé yā.</i>	[k ^h ɯɪja]	"And they killed you (pl)."
<i>Kà bà pū kūé yáa.</i>		"And they didn't kill you (pl)."
<i>kjà</i> ⁺		"cut"
<i>Kà bà kía yā.</i>	[k ^h iɪja]	"And they cut you (pl)."
<i>Kà bà pū kía yáa.</i>		"And they didn't cut you (pl)."
<i>ñyē</i> ⁺		"see"
<i>Kà bà ñyēé yā.</i>		"And they saw you (pl)."
<i>Kà bà pū ñyēé yáa.</i>		"And they didn't see you (pl)."
<i>pāe</i> ^{+/}		"reach"
<i>Kà bà pāé yā.</i>		"And they reached you (pl)."
<i>Kà bà pū pāé yáa.</i>		"And they didn't reach you (pl)."

Fronting before the enclitic 2pl subject pronoun ^{ya} is subject to a different rule: the preceding mora is invariably replaced by [ɪ], usually written *e* as normal. In most cases this has the same outcome as other fronting rules:

<i>kū</i> ⁺	"kill"	+ ^{ya}	"ye"	→	<i>kūe</i> ^{ya/}	[kʰɪɪ]
<i>kɪ̀à</i> ⁺	"cut"	+ ^{ya}	"ye"	→	<i>kìe</i> ^{ya/}	[kʰiɪ]
<i>pāe</i> ^{+/}	"reach"	+ ^{ya}	"ye"	→	<i>pāe</i> ^{ya/}	

However, the replacement also affects front vowels:

<i>bè</i> ⁺	"be"	+ ^{ya}	"ye"	→	<i>bèe</i> ^{ya/}	[bɛɪ] written <i>bei</i>
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Rounding of the second mora of the second mora of a LF-final long vowel occurs before the 3rd sg human-gender object pronoun ^o [ʊ] "him/her", before which the default LF-final short *ɪ* also becomes [ʊ], written *o* [3.3].

The rule for second morae differs from the word-internal rounding rule operative in the LF before **kkv* **ηηv* [7.3.2]: the second mora is invariably replaced by [ʊ], even if it was rounded and/or tense: there is no ATR harmony.

<i>zū</i> ⁺	"steal"	+ ^o	"him/her"	→	<i>zū·ó</i> ⁺	SF [zuʊ]	LF [zuʊ:]
<i>ñyē</i> ⁺	"see"	+ ^o	"him/her"	→	<i>ñyē·ó</i> ⁺	SF [j̃ɛʊ]	LF [j̃ɛʊ:]
<i>dì</i> ⁺	"eat"	+ ^o	"him/her"	→	<i>dì·o</i> ⁺	SF [dɪʊ]	LF [dɪʊ:]
<i>kɪ̀à</i> ⁺	"cut"	+ ^o	"him/her"	→	<i>kì·o</i> ⁺	SF [kʰiʊ]	LF [kʰiʊ:]
<i>pāe</i> ^{+/}	"reach"	+ ^o	"him/her"	→	<i>pā·ó</i> ⁺		
<i>pīe</i> ^{+/}	"wash"	+ ^o	"him/her"	→	<i>pī·ó</i> ⁺		
<i>dūe</i> ^{+/}	"raise"	+ ^o	"him/her"	→	<i>dū·ó</i> ⁺		

After a consonant a LF-final short *ɪ* becomes [ʊ], also written *o*, before ^o; when the pronoun itself appears in its LF the two [ʊ] vowels combine as long [ʊ:]

<i>b̀̀̀̀d</i> ^a	"want"		
<i>Ḿ b̀̀̀̀d·ō.</i>	"I love him/her."	[Ḿb̀̀̀d:ʊ]	
<i>Ḿ p̄ b̀̀̀̀d·óo.</i>	"I don't love him/her."	[Ḿp̄ʰʊb̀̀̀d:ʊ]	

Thus the SFs of both ^{ya} and ^o, like Prosodic Clitics, have segmental effects on the form of the preceding word despite having zero as their own Short Forms [3.3.3].

For some speakers, rounding of unrounded long vowel second morae and of the default LF-final short vowel ι takes place also before the 2 sg object pronoun f^0 "you":

Kà bà kíà f. "And they cut you (sg)."
or *Kà bà kíò f.*

Kà bà ñyḗé f. "And they saw you (sg)."
or *Kà bà ñyḗó f.*

Kà bà pā́á f. "And they reached you (sg)."
or *Kà bà pā́ú f.*

M gbáñ'ā f. "I've grabbed you (sg)."
or *M gbáñ'ū f.*

Rounded forms are invariable in the 1996 NT version, though this may simply reflect an orthographic decision to write *uf* rather than *if* consistently for the supposed object pronoun "you."

There is never rounding word-internally before the $f^0|\iota^+$ Class singular suffix.

9.3.1.2 Allomorphy of the Subject Pronoun ya

The enclitic 2nd Person Plural Subject pronoun ya adopts the allomorph *-ní-* before Liaison, both before pronoun objects and before *àlá⁺* "thus" [24.4.1]. The pronoun was historically **na*, which regularly became **yã* [4.1] with subsequent loss of emic nasalisation, as always with affix vowels [5.4]. When the *-a* is deleted by Apocope, *y* is also deleted [3.2]. When followed by a Liaison word, the vowel *a* was not deleted but became ι , before which *n* became *n-*. (A similar development has occurred with the initial consonants of *nìŋ^e* "do" = Toende Kusaal *ěŋ*, the locative enclitic *n^e* ~ *n⁺* = Toende *-ι*, and *nìe⁺* "appear" = Toende *yěe*.)

Dā dōll_ι yá +ø! "Follow ye not!"
NEG.IMP follow 2PLS NEG

Dì'əmī_ ø! "Receive ye!"
receive:IMP 2PLS

Dì'əmīní_ bā! "Receive ye them!"
receive:IMP:2PLS 3PLO

Dì'əmīn·ó _∅ "Receive ye her!"
 receive:IMP:2PLS 3HUO

Sīdiba ^{+∅}, *nòḡimīnī* _∅ *yà pū'ab*.
 Husband:PL VOC, love:IMP:2PLS 2PL wife:PL.
 "Husbands, love your wives!" (Eph 5:25)

Bīise ^{+∅}, *sjàkumīnī* _∅ *yà dū'adib nýà*.
 Child:PL VOC, agree:IMP:2PLS 2PL parent:PL mouth:PL.
 "Children, obey your parents." (Eph 6:1.)

Dìḡīnī _∅ *àlá!* "Keep ye on lying down!"
 Be.lying:2PLS ADV:thus!

Dì'əmīnī _∅ *àlá!* "keep ye on receiving!"
 receive:IMP:2PLS ADV:thus!

See [9.3.2](#) on contracted forms like

Dì'əmīnī lá /*dì'əmīn álá!* "keep ye on receiving!"

9.3.2 Non-Enclitic

Non-enclitic Liaison Words comprise

proclitic personal pronouns	<i>m̀ f̀ ò l̀ t̀ ỳ à b̀</i>	17.1
personifier clitics	<i>à ò m̀</i>	21.10
<i>à n̄'ò n̄^e</i> "who?"		17.4

along with all words beginning with

number prefixes	<i>à b̀ b̀</i>	18.2.1
manner-adverb prefix	<i>à</i>	22.4

All these words have an initial Fixed L Toneme [10.2](#).

Two other particles of the underlying form *n* are also Liaison Words:

Complementiser	<i>ḡ</i>	33
Serialiser	<i>n</i>	28.1

Clause Complementiser *h̃* is Fixed-L, but VP Serialiser *n* has no toneme. The Complementiser is bound to the left as well as right, but Serialiser *n* may follow a pause, though even so it cannot be utterance-initial.

Even when proclitic, these words are like Liaison Enclitics in that the *preceding* word may appear as a modified LF with loss of quality distinctions in the **downranked** final affix vowel. Evidence for this is found in the allomorphy shown by the postposed 2pl pronoun ^{ya} equally before all Liaison Words [9.3.1.2], and in the *lack* of vowel lengthening before non-enclitic Liaison Words of words which have not undergone Apocope, such as *kà*, *yē* and the proclitic pronouns; this demonstrates that the phenomenon is due to inhibition of Apocope.

After a consonant, the quality of the downranked vowel preceding Liaison is determined by the Liaison Word, but is generally *ɪ*, rounding to *ʊ* when the word ends in a velar preceded by a rounded vowel mora. (Many cases where in traditional orthography a word has seemingly gained a mysterious final *-i* or *-u* are due to this.)

Non-clitic words ending in a short *root* vowel prolong the vowel before Liaison.

Except with the clause Complementiser *h̃* and with the VP Serialiser *n* (see below), this phenomenon is very limited in my informants' speech. It is only invariable in the case of a personal pronoun immediately preceded by a verb within the same verb phrase:

Tì gòsì_ bà bīis. "We looked at their children."
1PL look.at:**PFV** **3PL** child:**PL**. (Liaison before *bà* "their")

Older written sources show the phenomenon more widely, though always within a phrase:

bane na yel Zugsobi ba tuuma a si'em la
bànì_ ø nà yēl Zūg-sób bà tūma_ ø à sī'em lā
DEM.PL COMP UNR say:**PFV** head-one:**SG** **3PL** deed:**PL** **COMP COP INDF.ADV ART**
 "Those who will tell the Lord how their deeds are." (Heb 13:17)
 (as read by WK, with a SF before *bà tūma*.)
 The <http://www.bible.is> audio version has ...*Zūg-sóbí bà*...

Words which do not have Apocope Blocking and which end in short root vowels prolong them before Liaison:

... [n] *loo Abaa zuur*
 ... *n lōs_ À-Bāa zùr*
 ...**SER** tie:**PFV** **PERS-dog:SG** tail:**SG**
 "... tying Dog's tail" [21.10] KSS p20

Before Liaison Words beginning with à- the quality of the final vowel mora of the preceding word is not predictable from the phonology alone.

Before ànǎʔǎn^e "who?" 17.4, the Manner-Adverb prefix and the Personifier Proclitic the LF-final vowel is ɪ (ʊ after a velar preceded by a rounded vowel):

Ò nǎǎ́ àlá. "She did thus."
 3HU do:PFV ADV:thus (contrast àlá "how many?" below)

yeli Abaa "said to Dog" KSS p20
 yèlǎ À-Bāa
 say:PFV PERS-dog:SG

Fusion Verbs 13.1.1.1 show forms in final e [ɪ] in these two cases, instead of the monophthongs aa iə uə usual before another word in the VP 9.1.3:

ka ba gban'e Adayuug
 kà bà gbāñ'é À-Dàyūug
 and 3PL seize:PFV PERS-rat:SG
 "and they seized Rat" KSS p20

However, the verb àeñ^{ya} "be something" always appears as àañ, not àeñ.

Fu aa ano'one? "Who are you?" (Jn 1:19)
 Fù áá ànǎʔǎnè +ø?
 2SG COP who CQ?

Before the Number Prefix a- the pre-Liaison vowel is instead -a:

M̄ mór nē bīśá àtáñʔ. "I have three children."
 1SG have FOC child:PL NUM:three.

Pèédá àlá +ø? "How many baskets?"
 basket:PL NUM:how.many CQ? (contrast àlá "thus" above)

These rules are consistent in written materials. However my informants contract -a à- to a- with the number prefix (effectively just treating it as having an ordinary L toneme susceptible to L Raising):

Nūʔ-bíbis álá kà fù ñyētá +ø?
 hand-small:PL NUM:how.many and 2SG see:IPFV CQ?
 "How many fingers do you see?"

With other words beginning with *a-* my informants generally do not show Liaison at all, except with *àlá* after Imperatives, where the *-í à-* is contracted to either *-á-* or *-í-* depending on the speaker.

gòsímí lá or *gòsum álá* "Keep on looking!"

WK and DK both always round the LF-final vowel before *ò* "his/her":

Bà gòsú_ ò bīg. "They've looked at her child."
3PL look:at:**PFV** **3HU** child:**SG**.

All my written sources, the NT, literacy materials and ILK, consistently show *-i* (i.e. *-l* [I]), which is presumably the original older form.

This distinctive sandhi behaviour before the Number Prefix *a-* as opposed to all other vowel-initial Liaison Words (even *ò*) can be explained historically. The number prefix originated as **ŋa*, the old *r^e|a⁺* Class agreement [18.2.1]. Original word-internal **ŋ* has disappeared completely throughout Western Oti-Volta (synchronic non-initial *ŋ* resulting always from **mg* or **ng* → *ŋŋ*), whereas word-medial *y w* survive in many contexts. Initial **ŋ* preceding unstressed vowels might be expected likewise to have disappeared early historically; and indeed in Dagbani, the number prefix is *a-* even though root-initial *ŋ* is preserved in full words (*ŋarīŋ* "boat", Kusaal *àñrŋ*^o.) Sandhi effects may outlive complete phonetic disappearance of a consonant, as with the French "*H aspiré*." The data could be thus accounted for by supposing that **ŋa* lost its initial consonant earlier than the Personifier Clitic or the manner-adverb prefix, representing (as it were) the "*H muet*" corresponding to the "*H aspiré*" left by later deletion of initials such as *y* or *w*. However, putting this in synchronic phonological terms would be methodologically suspect in view of the absolute neutralisation (Kiparsky 1982) that has taken place, and would add nothing descriptively.

9.3.2.1 Particles of the Form *n*

There are two extremely common particles with the underlying form *n* which are always bound to the right: the Complementiser within *ñ*-Clauses [33], and the VP Serialiser particle [28.1]. Both particles are Liaison Words, but appear in the form *n* preceded by a modified long form only in a minority of written materials, and even then, not consistently. My informants drop the *n* itself, so that the form of the preceding word alone signals the presence of these particles, except in the very common special case where they follow proclitic personal pronouns, where special fused forms result. This is also the commonest pattern in texts, but some materials show *n*, with or without a preceding LF-final reduced affix vowel. Segmentally, the

two particles behave in a very similar way in Agolle Kusaal, but they differ tonally, and Toende Kusaal has segmentally different forms, using *ne* for the Complementiser and zero for the Serialiser.

Even texts which use *n* frequently nearly always show *e* or *i* after preceding nasal consonants, presumably by dissimilation. This may indicate that the varying spellings of the particles after consonants originally all represented high nasalised vowels, with syllabic nasals as allophones, but the vowels are not now nasalised in my informants' speech.

Complementiser *ḥ* is bound to the left as well as right, but Serialiser *n* can follow a pause, so that it is not always preceded by a modified Long Form. In such cases it always appears as a syllabic nasal assimilated to the position of articulation of the following consonant, and is written *n*.

I will follow my informants' usage and the texts throughout; the position of the particles is marked \emptyset with in the second line of the interlinear glosses in cases where they lack any surface segmental realisation.

Written materials confirm that these particles are Liaison Words, as preceding forms preserve LF geminate consonants before the affix vowel, e.g.

ba wusa kalli a si'em

bà wūsa kāllic̣ ∅ à sī'əm

3PL all number:**SG COMP COP INDF.ADV**

"how much all their number is" (Lk 12:7)

tuum kan ka m tumme tisid Wina'am la.

tuum-kàn kà ṃ túmmic̣ ∅ tísìd Wínà'am lā

work-**DEM.SG** and **1SG** work:**IPFV SER** give:**IPFV** God **ART**

"The work which I do for God" (Rom 15:17)

9.3.2.1.1 Complementiser *ḥ*

The post-subject complementiser *ḥ* always has a L toneme not subject to L Raising [8.5], causing a preceding M toneme to become H even when the particle has no segmental realisation itself. The marker combines with a preceding pronoun subject to produce a special set of pronouns [17.1].

Note the contrasts in

mán zàb nà'ab lā

1SG:COMP fight:**PFV** chief:**SG ART**

"I having fought the chief." (*ḥ*-Clause)

*Mān*_┘ *∅* *záb* *nà'ab* *lā*.

1SG.CNTR SER fight:PFV chief:SG ART

"I have fought the chief." (*n*-focus)

*tīnámì*_┘ *∅* *zàb* *nà'ab* *lā*

1PL COMP fight:PFV chief:SG ART

"we having fought the chief" (*ḥ*-Clause)

*Tīnámì*_┘ *∅* *záb* *nà'ab* *lā*.

1PL SER fight:PFV chief:SG ART

"We have fought the chief." (*n*-focus)

After words with Apocope Blocking, dropping of the /n/ segment leaves the tonal change of preceding M to H as the only sign of the presence of the particle:

Dāy *lā* *záb* *ná'ab* *lā*.

man:SG ART fight:PFV chief:SG ART

"The man has fought the chief."

Dāy *lā* *gōs* *ná'ab* *lā*.

man:SG ART look.at:PFV chief:SG ART

"The man has looked at the chief."

but *dāy* *lá*_┘ *∅* *zàb* *nà'ab* *lā*

man:SG ART COMP fight:PFV chief:SG ART

"the man having fought the chief"

dāy *lá*_┘ *∅* *gōs* *ná'ab* *lā*

man:SG ART COMP look.at:PFV chief:SG ART

"the man having looked at the chief"

9.3.2.1.2 Serialiser *n*

After pause WK realises this particle as a syllabic nasal assimilated to the position of the following consonant. Elsewhere, he has preceding LFs with the loss of final vowel contrast, while the particle itself has no segmental realisation:

Kà *ò* *zɔ́*_┘ *∅* *kēŋ* *nā*.

And **3HU** run:PFV SER come:PFV hither.

"And he came running"

After a final short vowel which is not a non-clitic word root vowel, WK has a consonantal nasal, assimilated to the position of the following consonant.

This pattern is the commonest in texts also, but forms also appear with the *n* preserved after the modified LF, and with *n* after a SF.

Zero also occurs as a realisation of this particle (as always in Toende Kusaal), particularly after verbs often used as "auxiliaries"; probably some or all "particle-verbs" originated in this way. In other cases, the zero realisation is significantly more frequent in the NT text after words ending in *-m -n -l*, perhaps reflecting complete assimilation to the preceding consonant, and also after words ending in vowels other than non-clitic short root vowels, i.e. after words ending in long vowels or with Apocope Blocking.

The *n* particle of Non-verbal Predicators [27] is identical to the VP Serialiser *n* phonologically, and will be regarded as a specialised use of the same particle:

B5ɔ_ ø lá +ø? "What's that?"
 What **SER** that **CQ**?

This particle *n* has no toneme itself; the LF-final toneme before it is M after a M toneme and L otherwise.

9.3.2.2 Presubject Long Forms

There is often a pause after any element which precedes a clitic subject pronoun. Nevertheless, examples occur of Liaison before subject pronouns:

Fù ná kũl bēog. "You'll go home tomorrow."
2SG UNR go.home:PFV tomorrow.

but *Bēogú_ fù ná kũl.* "You're going home tomorrow." SB
 Tomorrow **2SG UNR go.home:PFV.**

Several conjunctions [29.3] have forms ending in LFs, and it is possible that this is the result of a generalisation of forms originating in Liaison before clitic subject pronouns. Again, all the examples in my materials of a LF ending a *yà*'-clause [32.1] are potentially explicable as Liaison before a subject pronoun:

Buŋ ya'a kpi be'ede, ba siido ne be'ed.
Bòŋ yá' kpi bē'ede [?bē'edɪ], bà sìɪd·ō_ ø nē bē'ed.
 Donkey:SG if die:PFV bad:PL, 3PL flay:IPFV 3HUO FOC bad:PL.
 "When a donkey dies wrongly, they skin it wrongly." KSS p42

10 Tonal External Sandhi

10.1 L Raising

Most words other than bound-to-right words ending in L or H tonemes cause an initial L toneme in a following word to change to H toneme. The change cannot take place if the L toneme is Fixed-L [10.2]; in that case any preceding M toneme necessarily becomes H instead [6.2.2].

L Raising follows all words ending in M toneme.

L Raising never follows a word-final affix vowel with H toneme.

Otherwise, L Raising follows

All free nominal forms (with exceptions due to M Raising [10.3.3])

All adverbs and quantifiers

All *imperfective* verb forms

All words with Independency Marking tone overlay [24.6.1.1]

Bound subject pronouns [24.6.1.2]

ò lì bà unless preceding Independency Marking

òn fù tì yà unless preceding Independency Marking
and also immediately preceded by *yē*

Raising *remains* after all ellipped subject pronouns [29.1.4.2]

The Serialiser *n* is transparent to L Raising [10.5].

The only non-clitic words which are thus *not* followed by L Raising are Perfective verb forms ending in H or L that have not been subject to the Independency Marking tone overlay, along with words which have been subjected to M Raising by a preceding free word and have only one or two tonemes.

The Number and the Manner-adverb prefixes *à-* [18.2.1] [19] are followed by L Raising of the stem, probably reflecting an origin in noun class agreement flexions with M toneme, like the bound subject pronouns.

L Raising crosses phrase boundaries if there is no intervening pause, but it does not occur after conjunctions [29.3] or pre-subject adjuncts [30.1.1].

Bà tìs ná'áb lā búŋ.

3PL give:PFV chief:SG ART donkey:SG.

"They gave the chief a donkey (*bùŋ*^a)."

Bà ñwè? ná'áb lā súḡā.

3PL beat:**PFV** chief:**SG** **ART** good:**ADV**.

"They beat the chief well (*sùḡā*^{+/})."

Raising is absent after words ending in a vowel mora with H toneme:

Ṁ dīga lú yā.

"My dwarfs have fallen down."

1SG dwarf:**PL** fall:**PFV** **INDEP**.

but *Ṁ yōḡumá lù yā.*

"My camels have fallen down."

1SG camel:**PL** fall:**PFV** **INDEP**.

L Raising examples, with *zàb*^e "fight" *ḡōs*^e "look at" *nà'ab*^a "chief":

Kà-clause, so no Independency Marking and no tone overlay; all the subject pronouns are followed by raising; the perfective *ḡōs*^e is followed by raising, but *zàb*^e, with its intrinsic all-L tonemes, is not:

Kà ṁ záb ná'ab lā.

"And I've fought the chief."

Kà ò záb ná'ab lā.

"And he's fought the chief."

Kà ṁ ḡōs ná'ab lā.

"And I've looked at the chief."

Kà ò ḡōs ná'ab lā.

"And he's looked at the chief."

Main Clause without *kà*, showing Independency Marking: verb tones subjected to tone overlay, so *zàb*^e is now followed by raising too. Furthermore, the 3rd person pronouns are not now followed by L Raising.

Ṁ záb ná'ab lā.

"I've fought the chief."

Ò zàb ná'ab lā.

"He's fought the chief."

Ṁ ḡōs ná'ab lā.

"I've looked at the chief."

Ò ḡōs ná'ab lā.

"He's looked at the chief."

A tonal minimal pair with a contrast between the object enclitic *ba* "them", which is followed by L Raising, and the proclitic *bà* "they, their", which is not:

Ò ḡòsī bá bédvḡū.

"She looked at them a lot." (*ba* object)

Ò ḡòsí bà bédvḡū.

"She looked at a lot of them." (*bà* possessive)

L Raising has arisen historically from rightward M tone spreading, the Kusaal H toneme having originated from ML on a single mora [6.1].

Proclitic pronouns always carry L toneme for my informants, but they are written with M in ILK and in Urs Niggli's Toende materials when followed by L

Raising, conforming to the general rule for raising after proclitics. Ellipsis of bound pronouns does not cause loss of Raising on the following word. These pronouns could accordingly be regarded as followed by a **floating M toneme**.

Free words which are followed by L Raising despite ending in H or L could be described analogously as followed by a floating M reflecting an original LF-final M delinked by Apocope. (SF-final plurals in L-toneme *-à* or *-ì* might be better explained as having an original final M toneme which has been subsequently subjected to rightward L toneme spreading; indeed on this ordering assumption almost all cases of L Raising after L-final SFs could be explained, though floating M tones would still be needed for cases where L Raising follows a consonant-final SF with a final H tone.)

LF-final M and L tonemes always fall together before Prosodic clitics and almost always before Liaison, and no one Liaison Word and Prosodic Clitic are preceded by exactly the same tonal sandhi, so there is no clear basis for specifying particular LF-final tones as underlying L or M. There is one significant correlation, however: Pattern O verb perfectives without any tone overlay are not followed by L Raising, and are also the sole word type which ever shows L toneme before Liaison (before object pronouns.) Given that raising after proclitics, and the absence of raising after SFs ending in H-toneme *-á* or *-í* are evidently phonologically determined, this supports the hypothesis that L Raising arose as M tone spreading historically.

However, synchronically, conditions for L Raising after full words are determined by grammatical category, with surface phonology only coming into play as a secondary matter⁸. Flexionless singular forms ending in L, including 1-mora L-toneme words like *mà* "mother" *zùà* "friend" and loanwords like *du'átà* "doctor", distinguish a singular followed by L Raising from a combining form which is not [11.7]. The same tone sandhi contrast is seen when combining forms are remodelled on the basis of an L-final singular, as with *lànnig-* "squirrel" [11.2.2]. Verb perfectives resemble combining forms segmentally, and (when not subject to tone overlay) they show the same behaviour with respect to L Raising. The only Pattern O imperfective with no flexional suffix, *bè* "be somewhere, exist", is followed by raising like all other imperfectives. The preverbal particle *lèè* "but" is followed by raising when affected by Independency-Marking tone overlay [24.6.1.1] although it is not even a verb and there is no reason to suppose that it has undergone Apocope.

Accordingly, it is much more straightforward to specify the conditions for external sandhi directly rather than to invoke otherwise superfluous floating M tonemes as an intermediary.

8) This is analogous to the word-initial "Consonant Mutations" of the Insular Celtic languages, where loss of word-final segments has caused what were once sandhi phenomena to become purely morphosyntactic processes. A similar though phonologically simpler segmental development has occurred in West Africa with the South-Western Mande languages (Babaev 2010, pp39ff.)

10.2 Fixed L Tonemes

Certain words carry an initial (or sole) toneme which is invariably L, and is never subject to L Raising. By the fundamental "tone sandhi" principle expressed in [6], any M toneme immediately preceding such a fixed L toneme without any intervening pause is replaced by a H toneme.

The Fixed-L words comprise all Liaison Words which are not enclitic [9.3.2] except for Serialiser *n* [9.3.2.1.2], which is toneless, and also the linker particle *kà* "and." They thus comprise

proclitic personal pronouns	<i>m̄ fù ò lì tì yà bà</i>
personifier clitics	<i>à- n̄- m̄-</i>
<i>ànóʔàn^e</i> "who?"	
Complementiser	<i>n̄</i> [9.3.2.1.1]
all words with the	
number prefixes	<i>à- bà- bù-</i>
manner-adverb prefix	<i>à-</i>
linker particle	<i>kà</i>

Initial *à-* in loanwords is often, though not invariably, treated as Fixed-L by analogy [20.1].

In Liaison before Fixed-L words, a word-final M toneme always changes to H:

Bà kòvdī́ bá. "They kill them."
3PL kill:IPFV 3PLO.

with *Bà kòvdí́ bà b̄ūs.* "They kill their goats."
3PL kill:IPFV 3PL goat:PL.

Unstressed words with M toneme likewise change this to H; thus *nē* becomes *né* in

Lì à né à-dàalúj. "It's a stork"
3NH COP FOC PERS-stork:SG.

With *stressed* SFs before Fixed-L words, there is no change to a preceding M toneme. The sequence ML that results is followed by downstep of a following M or H toneme [6.1]; this is the only context where "automatic" downstep occurs after L.

Thus in

ba diib n yit na'ateŋ la na zug

bà dīib ñ yīt ná'-tēŋ lā nā zúg

3PL food **COMP** emerge:**IPFV** king-land:**SG** **ART** hither upon

"because their food came from the king's land" (Acts 12:20)

there is downstep after the particle *ñ*.

If the Fixed-L complementiser *ñ* is realised as segmental zero, as is usual for my informants after all subjects other than pronouns, there remains a downstep in its place between a word-final preceding M toneme and a following word-initial M or H toneme (see 6.1):

wuu saa naani iank ya nya'aŋ n ti paae ya tuona la.

wūu sāa_ ↓ nāani jáñk yà ñyá'aŋ

like rain:**SG** **COMP** then jump:**PFV** **2PL** behind

n tí pāé_ yà tūena lā

SER afterwards reach:**PFV** **2PL** before.**ADV** **ART**

"like when lightning leaps from East to West" (Mt 24:27)

As such downsteps are not predictable features of the realisation of H tonemes 6.2.2], they are written explicitly with ↓, as above.

10.3 M Raising

M Raising takes place exclusively within NPs and AdvPs. It occurs wherever L Raising would, with two exceptions: it does not follow contrastive pronouns (like *mān* "my") and it only follows free forms when they are dependents preceding the head.

Words beginning with M toneme are changed to a H-initial pattern, with any subsequent tonemes L throughout⁹. Uncompounded words changed by M Raising are not themselves followed by L Raising or M Raising unless they have more than two tonemes 10.3.3].

Words beginning with L or HL tonemes are not changed at all (except that L undergoes L Raising); words beginning with H on a long vowel fluctuate.

9) Unfortunately I did not think to check how words with M nominal prefixes behave with M Raising. e.g *dāy lā tíntòñríg* (?*tíntòñríg*) "the man's mole (*tíntòñríg*^a)."

Nothing like M Raising seems to be described in other Western Oti-Volta languages. Historically, it perhaps arose from dissimilation in overlong strings of H (Kusaal M) tones, like Meeussen's Rule in Bantu; the initial H of affected words would result from L Raising of original L. As with L Raising 10.1], Apocope has complicated the picture; M Raising *only* occurs after forms which have undergone Apocope 8.2.5].

10.3.1 After Combining Forms

M Raising applies after a combining form ending in M toneme, regardless of whether the cb is pre-modifier or head.

After a cb as head:

<i>bù-pìəlìg^a</i>	"white goat"	<i>bù-pāalíg^a</i>	"new goat"
<i>bī-púŋ-pìəlìg^a</i>	"white girl"	<i>bī-púŋ-pāalíg^a</i>	"new girl"
<i>n̄-píəlìg^a</i>	"white hen"	<i>n̄-pāalìg^a</i>	"new hen"

After a cb pre-modifier (*n̄ɔr^{e/}* "mouth, command" cb *n̄-*, and *díəs^{a/}* "transmitter" plural *díəsídìb^a*):

<i>n̄-díəs^a</i>	"chief's interpreter"
pl <i>n̄-díəsídìb^a</i>	

After a head, M Raising *only* follows combining forms [18.2.2](#):

<i>kūg-yínnì⁺</i>	"one stone" with <i>yínnì</i> after a cb
<i>kūgvr yīnní⁺</i>	"one stone" with <i>yīnní</i> after a sg

10.3.2 After Dependent Free Forms

M Raising applies to a single word (which may be a cb) preceded by any dependent free form, other than a personal pronoun, which would be followed by L Raising.

Examples:

No M Raising after personal pronouns:

<i>̀̀n̄ bīg</i>	"my child" (<i>bīg^a</i>)
<i>̀̀n̄ tíg</i>	"my tree" (<i>tíg^a</i>)
<i>mān bīg</i>	"my child"
<i>mān tíg</i>	"my tree"
<i>̀̀n̄ gbīgim</i>	"my lion" (<i>gbīgim^{ne}</i>)
<i>̀̀n̄ yūgúm</i>	"my camel" (<i>yūgúm^{ne}</i>)

No M Raising after words which are not followed by L Raising:

<i>̀̀n̄ bjēyá bīs</i>	"my elder same-sex siblings' children (<i>bīs^{e/}</i>)"
<i>̀̀n̄ bjēyá fūud</i>	"my elder same-sex siblings' clothes (<i>fūud^{e/}</i>)"

M Raising after all other dependent free Nominal Phrases:

<i>dāy bîg</i>	"a man's child" (vs <i>dà̀y-bīg^a</i> "male child")
<i>dāy tîg</i>	"a man's tree"
<i>nàʔab bîg</i>	"a chief's child"
<i>dāy lā gbígìm</i>	"the man's lion"
<i>dāy lā yúgùm</i>	"the man's camel"

Unlike L Raising, M Raising occurs only *within* NPs and AdvPs; there is thus a tonal minimal pair between

Bà tìs náʔàb lā bîg. "They've given (it) to the chief's child."
3PL give:PFV chief:SG ART child:SG. (M raising applied to *bīg^a* "child")

Bà tìs náʔàb lā bīg. "They've given the chief a child."
3PL give:PFV chief:SG ART child:SG. (No M raising applied to *bīg^a*)

It occurs regardless of the meaning or rôle of the preceding dependent:

mṑɔgʊn wábùg lā "the wild (in-the-bush) elephant (*wābug^{o/}*)"

M Raising does not affect *dependents* following a *free* head, and does not affect the article *lā^{+/}*:

	<i>kūg-yínnì</i>	"one stone" with <i>yínnì</i> as adjective 18.2.2
but	<i>kūgʊr yīnní</i>	"one stone"
	<i>wābug lā</i>	"the elephant"
	<i>wābɪs pīga</i>	"ten elephants"
	<i>wābɪs pīga lā</i>	"the ten elephants"

The final vowel mora before the Locative Enclitic *n^e* obeys the general rule 10.5 and always has M toneme, even when there is no Initial L Raising after the corresponding SF (see below):

	<i>dāy lā pṑɔgūn</i>	"in the man's field (<i>pṑɔg^{o/}</i>)"
	<i>dāy lā pū̀ɔgūn</i>	"inside the man" (<i>pū̀ɔg^a</i> "inside")
like	<i>dāy lā dṑɔgūn</i>	"in the man's hut (<i>dṑɔg^{o/}</i>)"

There is thus no correlation between the final tone of the LF before the Locative Liaison Enclitic and whether the SF is followed by L Raising. (Contrast verb-final tones before object pronouns and L raising after verbs, which do correlate.)

<i>n̄-píəlìg</i>	"white hen"
<i>n̄-páalìg</i>	"new hen"
<i>dāy lā bú-píəlìg</i>	"the man's white goat"
<i>dāy lā bú-pāalìg</i>	"the man's new goat"
<i>dāy lā n̄-píəlìg</i>	"the man's white hen"
<i>dāy lā n̄-páalìg</i>	"the man's new hen"

Contrast

<i>dūg-kánā</i>	"this pot" (<i>dūk^{o/}</i> cb <i>dūg-</i> "pot")
[<i>sālima dūg-</i>] <i>kànā</i>	"this [golden pot]"

The order of successive applications of M Raising may also be revealed by the fact that uncompounded words with less than three tonemes affected by M Raising are not themselves followed by L or M Raising [10.3.3]. Thus

[<i>fūug d̄d̄g</i>]	"tent" (<i>fūug^{o/}</i> "cloth", <i>d̄d̄g^o</i> "house")
<i>p̄[?]usug</i> [<i>fúùg d̄d̄g</i>]	(not *[<i>p̄[?]usug fúùg</i>] <i>d̄d̄g</i>)
	"tabernacle" (<i>p̄[?]usug^o</i> "worship")

In *Lì k̄ā[?]* [[[*dāy lā b̄ìg*] *b̄īar*] *n̄áaf*] *z̄ōvre*.
 "It's not the man's child's elder-same-sex-sibling's cow's tail." WK
 (*b̄ìg^a* "child" *b̄īar^{e/}* "elder sib of same sex" *n̄áaf^o* "cow" *z̄ōvr^e* "tail")

the nesting results in alternating absence of M Raising; the two-toneme words *b̄ìg n̄áaf*, having been themselves affected by M Raising, are not *followed* by it.

10.4 Tones Preceding Prosodic Clitics

10.4.1 Negative and Vocative

The Negative and Vocative Prosodic Clitics causes a final L toneme in the LF to become M:

<i>Ò k̄á[?] ò b̄īga.</i>	"He's not her child (<i>b̄ìg^a</i>)."
<i>Lì k̄á[?] ò fūugó.</i>	"It's not his shirt (<i>fūug^{o/}</i>)."
<i>Lì p̄ b̄ódìgē.</i>	"It's not got lost (<i>b̄òdìg^e</i>)."
<i>Lì k̄á[?] ò s̄[?]vgā.</i>	"It's not her knife (<i>s̄[?]vg^a</i>)."
<i>Lì k̄á[?] ò ḡéllē.</i>	"It's not his egg (<i>ḡéllē</i>)."
<i>Ò p̄ k̄āb̄írídā.</i>	"She's not asking admission (<i>k̄āb̄íríd^a</i>)."
<i>Bì-n̄òḡirē!</i>	"Beloved child (<i>bì-n̄òḡirē</i>)!"

Words which have lost the final vowel mora of the LF due to changes later than Apocope change the last L capable of carrying a toneme in the word to M:

<i>Lì k̄áʔ yáar̄ĩmm.</i>	"It's not salt (<i>yàarim</i> ^m)."	
<i>Lì k̄áʔ t̄ĩmm.</i>	"It's not medicine (<i>t̄im</i> ^m)."	
<i>Lì k̄áʔ ò t̄ĩmm.</i>	"It's not her medicine."	6.2.3
<i>Lì k̄áʔ bà d̄āʔa.</i>	"It's not their market."	6.2.3
but <i>Lì k̄áʔ d̄áʔa.</i>	"It's not a market (<i>d̄áʔa</i> ⁼)."	6.1

Some cases of the Vocative Clitic in the audio NT version suggest tonal behaviour like the *Interrogative* Clitic; compare the change of final H tone to falling in vocative expressions found with some speakers of Hausa (Jaggar p18.)

10.4.2 Interrogative

Kusaal is cross-linguistically unusual¹¹ in signalling questions with a final *falling intonation*. All questions, polar or content, end with a L or H toneme.

Whenever the LF has all M tonemes, they are all changed to L. This is an actual change of tonemes, not just a matter of intonation; the new L tonemes are subject to L Raising [10.1]. In Kusaal (unlike Dagbani) this lowering only affects the final word, not a sequence of several all-M words.

As part of the falling intonation, **the last H tone syllable in the question is not preceded by downstep after a preceding M toneme even if the next syllable is stressed** [6.2.2].

Ànɔ́ʔɔ̀nì_ø ñyé bà bìiga +ø?
 Who SER see:PFV 3PL child:SG CQ?
 "Who saw their child (*bīig*^a)?"

Ànɔ́ʔɔ̀nì ñyē bíigà? "Who saw a child?" tonally identical to
Ànɔ́ʔɔ̀nì ñyē sùʔugà? "Who saw a knife (*sùʔug*^a)?"

F̀ò b̄ó̀d̄d̄ b̄ó? "What (*b̄ó*⁺) do you want?"
Ànɔ́ʔɔ̀nì ñyē z̄uēyà? "Who saw hills (*z̄uēya*⁺)?"

11) This is, however, not uncommon in West Africa. The phenomenon is found in Hausa, for example: Jaggar pp513, 525. Hausa also shows raising of the pitch of the last H tone preceding the fall in polar questions.

Similarly with Pattern O verbs in the Unrealised Mood:

<i>M ná b̄dɪg.</i>	"I will get lost."
<i>M ná b̄dɪgee?</i>	"Will I get lost?"

With 2-mora stem Pattern H verb perfectives:

<i>Ò p̄b̄ ḡse.</i>	"She didn't look"
<i>Ò p̄b̄ ḡsèe?</i>	"Didn't she look?"
<i>Ò p̄b̄ d̄ge.</i>	"She didn't cook."
<i>Ò p̄b̄ d̄gèe?</i>	"Didn't she cook?"

Note the contrasting tonal behaviour of the article *lā*^{+/} and the focus particle *nē*^{+/} on the one hand and the Independent/pfv clitic *yā*⁺ on the other [8.5] [7.4]:

<i>Lì à nē d̄ɔ̀ḡ lā.</i>	"It's the hut."
<i>Lì à nē d̄ɔ̀ḡ lāa?</i>	"Is it the hut?"

<i>Lì b̄dɪḡ nē.</i>	"It's lost."
<i>Lì b̄dɪḡ nēe?</i>	"Is it lost?"

but <i>Lì b̄dɪḡ yā.</i>	"It's got lost."
<i>Lì b̄dɪḡ yāa?</i>	"Has it got lost?"

10.5 Tones Preceding Liaison

The tonal changes induced in the final mora of the preceding LF all apply after any reduction of length of three-mora vowel sequences.

A sequence of MMH tonemes on three morae becomes MH when the sequence is reduced to two morae before Liaison [9.3.1] (in practice this simply means that Pattern H Fusion verbs behave both segmentally and tonally exactly like CV:-stem verbs before Liaison Enclitics, as these also adopt the tonemes MH before Liaison words [8.3.1]):

<i>pāe</i> ^{+/}	"reach"	+ <i>tɪ</i> ⁺ "us"	→ <i>pāá tī</i> ^{+/}
<i>pīe</i> ^{+/}	"wash"	+ <i>f̄</i> ^o "you"	→ <i>pīá f̄</i> ^o

Liaison Enclitics themselves carry a H toneme after a host final M toneme and a M toneme after L or H.

The Locative Enclitic *n^e* is preceded by the same toneme as appears before the Negative Prosodic Clitic [10.4.1], i.e. a final L toneme is changed to M:

<i>pōvg^a</i>	"inside"	+ <i>n^e</i>	"at"	→ <i>pōvgun^{e/}</i>	(Pattern O)
<i>bīig^a</i>	"child"	+ <i>n^e</i>	"at"	→ <i>bīigin^{e/}</i>	WK
<i>mù^ʔar^e</i>	"dam, lake"	+ <i>n^e</i>	"at"	→ <i>mù^ʔarīn^{e/}</i>	
<i>pōvg^{o/}</i>	"field"	+ <i>n^e</i>	"at"	→ <i>pōvgún^e</i>	
<i>yàad^e</i>	"graves"	+ <i>n^e</i>	"at"	→ <i>yàadīn^{e/}</i>	WK
<i>kōvdí^ba</i>	"killers"	+ <i>n^e</i>	"at"	→ <i>kōvdíbīn^{e/}</i>	WK
<i>dà^ʔa⁼</i>	"market"	+ <i>n^e</i>	"at"	→ <i>dā^ʔan^{e/}</i>	6.2.3

dōk lā pōvgōn^e "inside the pot"

pōvg^a becomes HLL by M Raising, and the LF-final L becomes M as usual.

The Modal Remoteness Enclitic *n^e* and the Postposed 2pl *y^a* both always impose M tone on the preceding LF-final mora, regardless of the intrinsic tone pattern of the word:

	<i>mè⁺</i>	"build"	+ <i>n^e</i>	rem	→ <i>mèēn^{e/}</i>
	<i>dōg^e</i>	"cook"	+ <i>n^e</i>	rem	→ <i>dōgun^{e/}</i>
	<i>bòdīg^e</i>	"lose"	+ <i>n^e</i>	rem	→ <i>bòdīgīn^{e/}</i>
	<i>yādīg^{e/}</i>	"scatter"	+ <i>n^e</i>	rem	→ <i>yādīgīn^{e/}</i>
ipfv	<i>kōvd^{a/}</i>	"kill"	+ <i>n^e</i>	rem	→ <i>kōvdīn^{e/}</i>
ipfv	<i>yādīgíd^a</i>	"scatter"	+ <i>n^e</i>	rem	→ <i>yādīgídīn^{e/}</i>

Dā dōlliyá!

"Follow ye not!"

Enclitic object pronouns change LF-final L to M in all imperfective forms and in all forms affected by the tone overlay of Independency Marking [24.6.1.1].

Pattern H LFs of two morae change final M to H. (This may be a generalisation of the tones originally proper to Fusion Verbs, or may reflect the conflation of older Patterns H and HL in the current verbal Pattern H.)

Verb perfectives without tone overlay:

	<i>bòdīg^e</i>	"lose"	+ <i>m^a</i>	"me"	→ <i>bòdīgī m^a</i>
	<i>yādīg^{e/}</i>	"scatter"	+ <i>m^a</i>	"me"	→ <i>yādīgí m^a</i>
	<i>dōg^e</i>	"cook"	+ <i>l⁺</i>	"it"	→ <i>dōgí lī⁺</i>
	<i>dì⁺</i>	"eat"	+ <i>l⁺</i>	"it"	→ <i>dì lī⁺</i>
	<i>gōs^e</i>	"look"	+ <i>o</i>	"him/her"	→ <i>gōs-ó⁺</i>
	<i>kō⁺</i>	"kill"	+ <i>m^a</i>	"me"	→ <i>kōú m^a</i>
	<i>pāe^{+/}</i>	"reach"	+ <i>m^a</i>	"me"	→ <i>pāá m^a</i>
	<i>dī^ʔe^{+/}</i>	"get"	+ <i>ba⁺</i>	"them"	→ <i>dī^ʔé bā^{+/}</i>

Imperfective verb forms of Variable and Invariable verbs:

<i>zàbɪd^a</i>	"fights"	+ <i>m^a</i> "me"	→ <i>zàbɪdī m^{a/}</i>
<i>dìt^a</i>	"eats"	+ <i>l⁺</i> "it"	→ <i>dìtī l⁺</i>
<i>yādɪgíd^a</i>	"scatters"	+ <i>ba⁺</i> "them"	→ <i>yādɪgídī bá⁺</i>
<i>kōvd^{a/}</i>	"kills"	+ <i>m^a</i> "me"	→ <i>kōvdí m^a</i>
<i>sō[?]e^{ya/}</i>	"own"	+ <i>l⁺</i> "it"	→ <i>sō[?]ú l^{+/}</i>

Unrealised Mood forms of Pattern O Verbs:

<i>Ò nà bōdɪgɪ m.</i>	"He will lose me."
<i>Ò kù bōdɪgɪ má.</i>	"He will not lose me."
<i>Ò nà bōdɪgɪ bá.</i>	"She will lose them."
<i>Ò kù bōdɪgɪ báa.</i>	"She won't lose them."
<i>Ò kù bōdɪgɪdɪ má.</i>	"He won't be losing me."
<i>Ò kù zābɪdɪ má.</i>	"He won't be fighting me."
<i>Ò kù zāb·óo.</i>	"He won't fight him."
or <i>Ò kù zāb·oo.</i>	"He won't fight him."
<i>Ò kù kād·óo.</i>	"He won't drive him away."
or <i>Ò kù kād·oo.</i>	"He won't drive him away."

Unrealised Mood Pattern O and Pattern H contrast in 2-mora stems:

<i>zābe + m^a</i>	→	<i>zābɪ m^{a/}</i>	"...will fight me"
<i>dōge + m^a</i>	→	<i>dōgí m^a</i>	"...cook for me"

All non-enclitic Liaison Words begin with a Fixed-L toneme 10.2 except for Serialiser *n*, which has no toneme.

Verbs before the Fixed-L Clitics show the same final tonemes as with Liaison Enclitics, except that M tonemes necessarily change to H 6.2.2.

Perfectives without tone overlay:

<i>Kà tì dí_┘ bà dī_┘b.</i>	"And we ate their food."
And 1PL eat: PFV 3PL food.	
<i>Kà ò bōdɪgì_┘ bà bùmɪs.</i>	"And he lost their donkeys."
And 3HU lose: PFV 3PL donkey: PL .	
<i>Kà ò dōgí_┘ bà dī_┘b.</i>	"And he cooked their food."
And 3HU cook: PFV 3PL food.	

Imperfective without tone overlay:

Kà tì dítí_ bà dīib. "And we were eating their food."
 And **1PL** eat:**IPFV 3PL** food.

Nominal forms before the initial Fixed-L Liaison Words other than the complementiser *h̃* were preceded by a H toneme when I could elicit such forms from my informants at all:

Pèédá_ àlá + \emptyset ? "How many baskets?"
 Basket:**PL NUM**:how.many **CQ**?

Before the Fixed-L complementiser *h̃* a final M tone becomes H:

Dāy lā dāa záb ná'áb lā.
 man:**SG ART TNS** fight:**PFV** chief:**SG ART**
 "The man fought the chief."

dāy lá_ \emptyset dāa záb nà'ab lā
 man:**SG ART COMP TNS** fight:**PFV** chief:**SG ART**
 "the man's having fought the chief"

Before Serialiser *n* the final toneme of a modified LF is M after a M toneme and L otherwise. The particle is tonally "transparent", being followed by L Raising if and only if the *preceding* word is followed by L Raising 10.1.

M nók sú'ugù_ \emptyset kjá nīm lā.
1SG pick.up:**PFV** knife:**SG SER** cut:**PFV** meat:**SG ART**.
 "I cut the meat with a knife."

amaa o kena ye o tum tisi ba
àmáa ò kē nā yé ò tùm_ \emptyset tìsì_ bā
 but **3HU** come:**PFV** hither that **3HU** work:**PFV SER** give:**PFV 3PLO**
 "but he came to serve them" (Mt 20:28)

Morphology

11 Noun Flexion

11.1 Noun Classes

Nouns inflect for singular and plural by adding Noun Class Suffixes to the stem; the bare stem itself is used as a Combining Form (cb) in composition with a following nominal. This is a regular and frequent occurrence, being for example the regular method of construing a noun with a following adjective. The combining form is always subject to Apocope, as it can never appear clause-finally or before Liaison. Consonant-final combining forms probably ended in an epenthetic vowel previously, as in archaisms like the place name *Widl-ňyáʻaŋ*^a "Woriyanga" (cf *wid-ňyáʻaŋ*^a "mare"), and occasional expressions in the NT like *nwadibil* (Mt 2:2) for *ňwād-bíl*^a "star", but my informants never produced such forms.

In the paradigms below, noun forms will be cited as Singular, Plural and Combining Form in order.

Each noun class suffix has a basic singular, plural or non-count meaning. Count nouns pair a singular suffix with a plural suffix. Five regular pairings account for the great majority of count nouns. These will be labelled using Superscript Notation forms of the suffixes, as the ^a|b^a, g^a|s^e, g^o|d^e, r^e|a⁺ and f^o|l⁺ **Noun Classes** respectively. Mass nouns may appear with one of the two non-count suffixes -b^o or -m^m, forming two more Noun Classes. (Mass nouns can also appear with any of the other suffixes apart from ^a b^a f^o or l⁺.)

The flexional form that would be expected from straightforward application of phonological rules may be ambiguous, coinciding with another form from the same paradigm or from another word, or resembling it closely enough that confusion would be likely. This ambiguity is very often the result of the deletion of final vowels by Apocope. Ambiguity in nominal flexion can be avoided by **substitution** of a different flexional suffix for that expected for the Class¹². Suffix substitution is not possible in Variable Verb flexion, where ambiguities may instead be avoided by unexpected insertion of epenthetic vowels [7.2.1.3]. Adjectives, which are not in any case confined to membership of a single noun class [12.1], may simply never occur with a particular suffix which is incompatible with the stem final.

This substitution of suffixes to avoid ambiguity has become *regular* in the case of Class g^o|d^e stems ending in *m n* following a short vowel, which always use the plural suffix a⁺ instead of d^e, thus creating a g^o|a⁺ **Subclass**:

12) Compare Polish locatives, where the allomorph *-u* appears instead of the usual *-e* in exactly those cases where *-e* would cause the contrast of underlying plain and palatal root-final coronal consonants to be lost (Inkelas, 3.1 "Suppletive Allomorphy")

<i>zīnzāuŋ^{o/}</i>	<i>zīnzāná⁺</i>	<i>zīnzáuŋ-</i>	"bat"
<i>àñrvuŋ^o</i>	<i>àñrɪma⁺</i>	<i>àñrvuŋ-</i>	"boat"

Gerunds of three-mora stem verbs with the singular suffix g^o also use the suffix $-a^+$ if they form plurals at all [11.3.3.1].

Two further Subclasses have arisen by **reinterpretation** of SFs of one flexional suffix as the homophonous SF of a different suffix, with subsequent remodelling of the LF to match [3.2.2].

The $r^e|b^a$ Subclass of the $^a|b^a$ Class has reinterpreted SFs ending in $m n r l$ as $m^{me} n^{ne} r^e l^e$ instead of $m^a n^a r^a l^a$ [11.3.1.1]:

<i>Bìn^{ne}</i>	<i>Bìm^{ma}</i>	<i>Bìn-</i>	"Moba person"
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where the singular SF of an expected $*Bìn^a$ has been reanalysed as *Bìn^{ne}*.

Agent nouns may further develop plurals in $-a^+$ by analogy with the $r^e|a^+$ Class:

<i>lèm-lēm^{na}</i>	<i>lèm-lēmɪb^a</i>	<i>lèm-lèm-</i>	"taster"
or <i>lèm-lēm^{ne}</i>	<i>lèm-lēm^{ma}</i>		

The $g^o|s^e$ Subclass of the $g^a|s^e$ Class [11.3.2.1] has reinterpreted SFs ending in g after a rounded vowel mora as g^o instead of g^a :

<i>núʔùg^o</i>	<i>núʔùs^e</i>	<i>nūʔ-</i>	"hand"
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beside e.g. Mampruli *nuuwa* pl *nuusi* "hand." Some words of this type have developed plurals in $-d^e$ by analogy with the $g^o|d^e$ Class:

<i>zùuŋg^o</i>	<i>zùuŋs^e</i>	<i>zùŋ-</i>	"vulture"
	or <i>zùuŋd^e</i>		

Cf Mampruli *zuuwa* pl *zuusi* "vulture."

Two further systematic deviations are **semantically** motivated: a Subclass of the $^a|b^a$ Class referring to older/important people uses b^a as the *singular* suffix [11.3.1.2], and names of languages belong to a Subclass of the $r^e|a^+$ Class with the slightly different singular suffix l^e [11.3.4.1].

In a previous stage of the language the Noun Classes were agreement classes, with separate 3rd person pronouns evidently related to the class suffixes, and agreement of adjectives and numerals. Contemporary Kusaal, like Dagbani and Mooré, has abandoned grammatical gender and has simply a natural system opposing persons and non-persons, with pronouns based respectively on the original $^a|b^a$ and

$r^e|a^+$ Classes [21.2.2]. The system remains central to the morphology, and there are a few isolated remnants of the agreement system which will be pointed out as they occur.

Examples of the regular pairings of suffixes and the non-count suffixes, arranged by Class and Subclass:

$a b^a$	$sīd^a$	$sīdɪb^a$	$sìd-$	"husband"
$r^e b^a$	$Bìn^{ne}$	$Bìm^{ma}$	$Bìn-$	"Moba person"
b^a (sg)	$nàʔab^a$	$nàʔ-nàm^a$	$nàʔ-$	"chief"
$g^a s^e$	$bōvg^a$	$bōvs^e$	$bù-$	"goat"
$g^o s^e$	$núʔùg^o$	$núʔùs^e$	$nūʔ-$	"hand"
$g^o d^e$	$dòcg^o$	$dòcd^e$	$dò-$	"hut"
$g^o a^+$	$gbàṁṁ^o$	$gbàna^+$	$gbàn-$	"book"
$r^e a^+$	$nōɔr^{e/}$	$nōyá^+$	$nō-$	"mouth"
$ɭ^e$	$Kūsáàl^e$			"Kusaal"
$f^o ɭ^+$	$mòlɪf^o$	$mòlɪ^+$	$mòl-$	"gazelle"
b^o	$sāʔab^o$		$sàʔ-$	"porridge"
m^m	$tìɪm^m$		$tì-$	"medicine"

M -stems with *long* root vowels in the $a|b^a$ Class generally avoid ambiguity by forming plurals with other suffixes than b^a [11.3.1]. Some $g^a|s^e$ Class nouns with human reference have alternative plurals with b^a [11.3.2]. The few countable nouns in the m^m Class form plurals with $-a^+$ or $-s^e$, or using $nàm^a$ [11.4] [11.3.7]. The $f^o|ɭ^+$ Class has few members and a number of nouns occur with these suffixes in only one number [11.3.5].

The diminutive sg suffix $-l^a$ is found in Kusaal only in the adjective $bīl^a$ "little", (plural $bībɪs^e$.) It is more widespread in other Western Oti-Volta languages.

There are few other cases of irregular sg/pl pairing with nouns; examples are

$pēʔog^{o/}$	$pēʔεs^{e/}$	$pēʔ-$	"sheep"
$gbèʔog^o$	$gbèʔεd^e$	$gbèʔ-$	"forehead"
	$gbèda^+$		
$bjāṁṁk^o$	$bjāñʔad^e$	WK $bjāñʔ-$	"shoulder"
	$bjāñʔada^+$	SB	

Adjectives differ from nouns in that *most* are extant with suffixes from more than one Noun Class, as a legacy of an older Class agreement system [12.1].

Despite Apocope, the form of the singular suffix remains sufficiently clear in most SFs to identify the Noun Class correctly from this form alone, if also given the (natural) gender, human/non-human [21.2.2]. Where this is not so, there is often vacillation between classes, suggesting that speakers do in fact use these criteria to determine class membership; compare the assignment of Noun Class membership to loanwords [11.7], and the analogical remodelling resulting in $r^e|b^a$ and $g^o|s^e$ Subclasses described above.

Human-gender words with singular SFs ending in long vowels, *g* or *k* belong to the $g^a|s^e$ Class. Significantly, the $a|b^a$ Class exception *nàyyīg^a* "thief", has an analogical $g^a|s^e$ plural *nàyyīs^e*. The only $a|b^a$ Class word ending in a long vowel in the sg SF in my materials is *bāʔa⁼* "traditional diviner."

Other human-gender nouns default to $a|b^a$ or its phonologically motivated $r^e|b^a$ Subclass, except for stems ending in a long vowel, which have been transferred to the $r^e|a^+$ Class in Agolle Kusaal [11.3.1], and a group of words in the $g^o|d^e$ Class which seem to be pejorative. There is vacillation between the $a|b^a$ and $g^a|s^e$ Classes in the case of human-reference words with SFs ending in *ŋ*.

Zōm^{ne} "fugitive" is $r^e|a^+$, probably because of a pejorative sense, though it may also be significant that the usual human-gender $a|b^a$ flexions would have led to identical singular and plural SFs.

The b^a -singular Subclass of $a|b^a$ is responsible for all human-gender nouns ending in *-b* in the sg SF, and also for *sàam^{ma}* "father", *dìam^{ma}* "man's parent-in-law", *dàyáam^{ma}* "woman's parent-in-law."

Mass nouns ending in SF *m* or *b/p* belong to the m^m and b^o Classes respectively; 2-mora stem gerunds in *-m* also belong to b^o . Names of languages all belong to the l^e Subclass of $r^e|a^+$.

Non-human count nouns with sg SF ending in a long vowel, or in an unrounded vowel mora followed by a velar, belong to the $g^a|s^e$ Class; all nouns ending in SF *-f* belong to the $f^o|t^+$ Class; all nouns ending in a rounding diphthong followed by a velar belong to either the $g^o|d^e$ Class or its phonologically motivated $g^o|a^+$ Subclass. Non-human gender nouns ending in *l n r m* belong to the $r^e|a^+$ Class, except for a few exceptional count nouns in the m^m Class, notably *pīim^{m/}* "arrow", which has the expected $r^e|a^+$ type plural *pīmá⁺*. Most countable nouns in the m^m Class probably originated in the use of original abstract or mass nouns in related derived meanings: *yām^{m/}* "gall; common sense" and also "gall bladder"; *pūum^{m/}* "flower(s), flora"; *dàalím^m* "male sex organs"; *pùʔalím^m* "female sex organs."

Non-human gender count nouns ending in a rounded monophthong or epenthetic vowel before a velar usually belong to the $g^o|d^e$ Class or its $g^o|a^+$ Subclass; a few belong to the $g^o|s^e$ Subclass of the $g^a|s^e$ Class [11.3.2.1], frequently with vacillation between speakers.

11.1.1 Noun Class and Meaning

As usual with noun class systems, there are correlations between class membership and meaning; exceptions are frequent, however. The phonologically motivated Subclasses have the same correlations with meaning as their main Classes.

The $^a|b^a$ Class has exclusively human-reference membership, though many nouns referring to people belong to other classes. There is a subclass of nouns for elders and other important people which use the plural b^a as singular [11.3.1.2].

The $g^a|s^e$ Class has general membership but notably includes the great majority of tree names [37.5], many larger animals, and tools. Almost all ethnic group names belong to the Classes $^a|b^a$ or $g^a|s^e$ (*Zàngbèog*^o "Hausa" and *Nàsāara*⁺ "European" are the only exceptions in my materials); the place inhabited by the group has sg $-g^o$ [37.4].

The $g^o|d^e$ and $r^e|a^+$ Classes are the default non-human countable classes. They include all names of fruits [37.5], and most names of body parts [37.6]. Human-reference nouns in the $g^o|d^e$ Class seem to be mostly pejorative (*bālērug*^{o/} "ugly person", *dàbīog*^o "coward", *zōlvog*^{o/} "fool") but this is not so with the $r^e|a^+$ Class (cf *bīar*^{e/} "elder same-sex sibling.") This is at least in part because some nouns which historically belonged to the $^a|b^a$ Class have been reallocated to $r^e|a^+$ for phonological reasons, a process which is less complete in Toende Kusaal [11.3.1].

A Subclass in $-l^e$ includes all names of languages [11.3.4.1].

The $f^o|t^+$ Class is a small class with two groups of meanings: animals, and small round things. It contains all names of seeds. No $f^o|t^+$ Class nouns refer to people.

The b^o Class has only two members in my own materials that are not gerunds: *sāʔab*^o "millet porridge, TZ" and *tāñp*^o "war." There is also a word *kīʔib*^o "soap" in written materials; WK has instead *kīibú*⁺ with cb *kīib-* which is probably a loan from the cognate Mampruli word [20.1]. Niggli's "Dictionnaire" has Toende *kíʔip*.

The m^m Class includes names of liquids and substances and abstract nouns. There are very few count nouns, and none referring to people or animals. Names of liquids are all either m^m or b^o Class or formally plural.

Deverbal nouns have predictable class membership: agent nouns belong to $^a|b^a$, instrument nouns to $g^a|s^e$, and gerunds are allocated to the suffixes g^o r^e b^o or m^m by rule [14.1.1.1].

The association of Noun Class and meaning can be exploited to change the significance of a stem [14.2].

11.2 Stem Levelling

11.2.1 Singulars and Plurals

Sometimes a morphophonemic rule is triggered only by the singular or plural noun suffix in a paradigm. In such cases the resulting stem allomorphy is often levelled in favour of the form shown in the more frequently used number.

Thus the vowel length changes seen in CV- root-stems [7.1.1.1](#) are levelled in favour of the singular in e.g.

fūug^{o/} "clothing" pl *fūt^{e/}* or *fūud^{e/}*

and a short vowel regularly resulting from the effect of a following -y- [7.3.3](#) in the plural of the *r^{e/}|a⁺* Class has probably been carried over into the singular in e.g.

	<i>gbēr^{e/}</i>	"thigh"	<i>gbēyá⁺</i>	"thighs"
	<i>gāñr^{e/}</i>	"ebony fruit"	<i>gāñyá⁺</i>	"ebony fruits"
cf	<i>gāañs^{e/}</i>	"ebony trees"		

Another source of *r^{e/}|a⁺* Class vowel stems in CV- may be original *r*-stems where the singular has been reanalysed as a vowel stem because of the simplification **rr* → *r* [7.2.1.1](#), and a new plural created on that basis:

<i>kpàkūr^{e/}</i>	"tortoise"	pl <i>kpàkūyá⁺</i>	(Agolle Kusaal)
<i>kpākút</i>	"tortoise"	pl <i>kpākutnam</i>	(Toende Kusaal)
<i>kakute</i>	"tortoise"	pl <i>kakura</i>	(Farefare)

Niggli's Farefare grammar supplies the rule **rr* → *t*, explaining the sg form. The only *r^{e/}|a⁺* Class stem in CVr- in my materials is the adjective in

yī-póñrà⁺ "nearby houses"

where reanalysis as a vowel stem would be unlikely because of the transparent relationship to the more commonly used Adjectival Verb *pòñr^a* "be near."

Quality changes between singular and plural stem forms occur in the Class as a result of the merger of *ĩĩ ũũ* with *ěě ỹỹ* [7.3.1](#):

nūa^{+/} "hen" *nōɔs^{e/}* "hens"

Such alternations are never levelled. However, the distribution of *oral iə uə* versus *εε ɔɔ* is strikingly different between the *g^{a/}|s^e* and the *g^{o/}|d^e* Classes. There are

only a few stems with the root vowel *iə* (and none with *uə*) before singular g^0 , such as *dàbīog*⁰ "coward" (pl *dàbīəd*^e) and *kpīʔoŋ*⁰ "strong" (pl *kpīʔəma*⁺), and only a few with root-final oral $\varepsilon\varepsilon$ or $\omega\omega$ before the singular g^a : *Gòɔg*^a sg of *Gòɔs*^e "Goosi clan" along with *tɛʔɛg*^a "baobab". Moreover, there is an actual alternation in stems between $g^a|s^e$ and $g^0|d^e$ Classes with the adjective

<i>bīʔa</i> ⁺	<i>bīʔəs</i> ^e	<i>bjàʔ-</i>	"bad"
<i>bɛʔog</i> ⁰	<i>bɛʔɛd</i> ^e	<i>bɛʔ-</i>	

This suggests that the sequences **εεga* and **ωωga* might be subject to **g*-deletion and vowel Fusion like **iəga* **uəga* **ɛʔga* **ɔʔga* [7.3.1], but if so, the vowels of *Gòɔg*^a and *tɛʔɛg*^a would have to be due to levelling on the basis of the plural. This is very plausible with "member of the Goosi Clan", though less so with "baobab."

Another possible instance might be *sàbùa*⁺ "lover, girlfriend" (pl *sàbùəs*^e) if this is connected with *bòɔd*^a "want, love", and here levelling of the plural on the basis of the singular would be natural enough.

An alternative proposal would be a rule *iəCv* → *εεCv* (cf **uəgv* → *ωωgv* [7.3.2]) which might not only apply before the flexion g^0 but also account for the odd by-form of *pīəlɪg*^a "white" seen in *zū-pɛɛlòg*⁰ "bald", literally "white-headed." In this case, it would be *dàbīog*⁰ "coward" which would have to be explained as exceptional.

Levelling may account for the lack of any clear pattern in the *CV:C~CVC* root alternation in flexion [7.1.1.2]; when length alternations do occur, it is plurals and cbs that have short-vowel allomorphs, and this may have been the original rule.

11.2.2 Combining Forms

Nominal Combining Forms, which not only lack a flexional suffix but always undergo Apocope [11.1], would be often reduced by the usual rules to ambiguous forms. In many cases the expected cb has been replaced by a form which is segmentally (though not tonally) that of the singular. Again, this is regular with certain stem types.

<i>nīʔ</i> ^{0/}	<i>nīn</i> ⁺	<i>nīn-</i> or <i>nīf-</i>	"eye"
<i>zīñʔa</i> ⁺	<i>zɛñʔɛs</i> ^e	<i>zjàñʔ-</i> or <i>zɛñʔ-</i>	"red" (adjective)
<i>wōk</i> ^{0/}	<i>wāʔad</i> ^{e/}	<i>wāʔ-</i> or <i>wōk-</i>	"long, tall" (adjective)
<i>tāñp</i> ⁰		<i>tāñp-</i>	"war" [7.2.2]
<i>zūg</i> ^{0/}	<i>zūt</i> ^{e/}	<i>zū-</i> or <i>zūg-</i>	"head"

Mooré and Toende both show *zu-* consistently in cases where Agolle has *zūg-*:

<u>Moore</u>	<u>Toende</u>	<u>Agolle</u>	
<i>zusoaba</i>	<i>zùsóp</i>	<i>zūg-sób^a</i>	"boss"
<i>zukuKa</i>	<i>zùkúk</i>	<i>zūg-kūgur^e</i>	"pillow"

Zūg-sób^a "Lord" is also very frequently read *Zū-sób^a* in the audio version of the NT. The cb of *zūg* behaves tonally like a nominal prefix and the original form *zū-* is probably a one-mora form that has not undergone Apocope [8.2.5].

The "regular" cb of *nīf^{o/}* "eye" is *nīn-*, but as a head it appears as *nīf-*: (the form *nīn-* is homophonous with the cb of *nīd^{a/}* "person"):

nīf-kájā "this eye"

The form *nīn-* still predominates as a pre-modifier:

<i>nīn-dáa⁼</i>	"face"
<i>nīn-tám^m</i>	"tears"
<i>nīn-gótis^e</i>	"spectacles"

Similarly with *gbàuy^o* "letter, book", while the form *gbàuy-* is common before adjectives and modifier pronouns, the "regular" cb *gbàn-* still occurs as a generic argument to a deverbal noun, e.g. *gbàn-mī'id* "scribe" ("book-knower.")

With most stems in *m* and *n* the remodelled forms have supplanted the expected cb type altogether, making this the *regular* cb formation for *m n* stems:

<i>zīnzāuy^{o/}</i>	<i>zīnzāná⁺</i>	<i>zīnzáyuy-</i>	"bat"
<i>àñruy^o</i>	<i>àñrīma⁺</i>	<i>àñruy-</i>	"boat"
<i>mālu^o</i>	<i>mālīma⁺</i>	<i>màlu^{y-}</i>	"sacrifice"

So too very frequently with nouns whose expected cb form would just be (C)V; and regularly with (C)V-stems in the *r^e|a⁺* and *m^m* Classes; it is often impossible to tell if *m^m* Class stems were originally (C)V- or (C)V*m*-:

<i>gbēr^{e/}</i>	<i>gbēyá⁺</i>	<i>gbēr-</i>	"thigh"
<i>kùkōr^{e/}</i>	<i>kùkōyá⁺</i>	<i>kùkōr-</i>	"voice"
	(but always <i>kùkō-títā[?]ar</i>		"loud voice" NT)
<i>vōm^{m/}</i>		<i>vōm-</i>	"life"
<i>kōm^m</i>		<i>kòm-</i>	"death"
<i>zōm^{m/}</i>		<i>zōm-</i>	"flour"
<i>yām^{m/}</i>		<i>yām-</i>	"gall; gall bladder"

The cb may be remodelled after the *plural* in a word with no sg extant:

no sg	<i>kī</i> ^{+/}	<i>kī-</i> or <i>kā-</i>	"cereal, millet"
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Remodelling after the plural may reflect the fact that although a sg exists, the plural form has a distinct specialised meaning:

<i>lāʔaf</i> ^o	<i>līgɪɫ</i> ⁺	<i>làʔ-</i> or <i>līg-</i>	"cowrie" pl "money"
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Two words even have distinct sg- and pl-reference cbs:

<i>dāy</i> ⁺	<i>dāp</i> ^a	<i>dày-</i> sg <i>dàp-</i> pl	"man, male person"
<i>tāyñ</i> ^{+/}	<i>tāñp</i> ^{a/}	<i>tāyñ-</i> sg <i>tāp-</i> pl	"sib of opposite sex"

Disambiguation is clearly involved with some longer remodelled cbs:

<i>kòɮɔg</i> ^o	<i>kòn</i> ^{ne}	<i>kòɮɔg-</i>	"bag"
<i>lànnɪg</i> ^a	<i>lànnɪs</i> ^e	<i>lànnɪg-</i>	"squirrel"
<i>kòɮɔg-kàŋā</i>	"this bag"	cf cb <i>kòɮ-</i> from	<i>kòɮɪg</i> ^a "river"
<i>lànnɪg-pìəɪɪg</i>	"white squirrel"	cf cb <i>lànn-</i> from	<i>lān</i> ^{ne} "testicle"

This remodelling never affects tones, which are consistently those that would be expected for the cb from the Tone Pattern: there is no suggestion of the obsolescence of the cb as a distinct flexional form.

The tones reveal that cases which appear to involve a pl or sg preceding an adjective or modifier pronoun in fact show cbs:

<i>dày-sùŋ</i>	"good man"	
<i>dàp-sùma</i>	"good men"	cf <i>dāy</i> "man", <i>dāp</i> "men"

The NT writes remodelled cbs as separate words, like singulars; as the orthography does not mark tone, this can lead to ambiguous forms:

	<i>yamug bipuŋ</i>	"slave girl" (Acts 16:16, 1976) 21.8.1.5
	<i>yàmmuɔg-bī-púŋ</i>	"slave girl" (WK; he himself prefers <i>yàm-bī-púŋ</i>)
cf	<i>yàmmuɔg bí-púŋ</i>	"slave's girl"
	<i>bī-púŋ-yàmmuɔg</i>	"girl slave"
	<i>bī-púŋ yámmùg</i>	"girl's slave"

11.3 Noun Paradigms

For tones see [8.2](#). Combining forms are frequently remodelled segmentally after the singular [11.2.2](#), regularly so with stems in *m* and *n*.

The default for sg and pl is for Class Suffixes simply to attach after a stem-final epenthetic vowel or root vowel. Complications arise from rounding of stem-final vowels before the suffix g^0 in singulars in $-g^0 -k^0 -ŋ^0$, from deletion of $*g$ after $aa\ iə\ uə\ ãã\ ěě\ ǔǔ$ with the $g^a|s^e$ Class sg, from consonant assimilation instead of epenthesis in all classes, and from the combination of root-vowel-final stems with the vowel-initial flexions $^a|b^a$ sg, $^f|l^+$ pl and $r^e|a^+$ pl; see Consonant Epenthesis [7.2.2](#) and [11.3.1](#).

11.3.1 $^a|b^a$ Class

Most stems ending in consonants straightforwardly show $-a$ in the sg:

<i>sīd^a</i>	<i>sīdl^a</i>	<i>sīd-</i>	"husband"
<i>sàa^a</i>	<i>sàal^a</i>	<i>sàa-</i>	"human being"
<i>kpīkpīn^{na/}</i>	<i>kpīkpīnl^a</i>	<i>kpīkpīn-</i>	"merchant"
<i>sàam-pīt^{a/}</i>	<i>sàam-pītl^a</i>	<i>sàam-pīt-</i>	"father's younger brother"
<i>bì-pīt^{a/}</i>	<i>bì-pītl^a</i>	<i>bì-pīt-</i>	"younger child"
<i>wād-tís^a</i>	<i>wād-tísl^a</i>	<i>wād-tís-</i>	"lawgiver" NT
<i>zà[?]-nō-gúr^a</i>	<i>zà[?]-nō-gúrl^a</i>	<i>zà[?]-nō-gúr-</i>	"gatekeeper" NT

An irregular *cb* appears in

<i>nīd^{a/}</i>	<i>nīdl^{a/}</i>	<i>nīn-</i>	"person"
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Most deverbal agent nouns are completely regular:

<i>kōvd^{a/}</i>	<i>kōvdl^a</i>	<i>kōvd-</i>	"killer"
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Agent nouns from 3-mora stems in *s* regularly drop the *d* formant in sg and *cb*; they show a regular shift between Tone Pattern L in the sg and Pattern O in the plural for agent nouns from Pattern O verbs [8.2.4](#). Many also have *nàm^a* plurals [11.4](#).

<i>kùəs^a</i>	<i>kūəsl^a</i>	<i>kùəs-</i>	"seller"
<i>pù[?]us^a</i>	<i>pū[?]usl^a</i>	<i>pù[?]us-</i>	"worshipper"
<i>dì[?]əs^a</i>	<i>dī[?]əsl^a</i>	<i>dì[?]əs-</i>	"receiver"
<i>tù[?]as-tù[?]as^a</i>	<i>tū[?]as-tū[?]asl^a</i>	<i>tù[?]as-tù[?]as-</i>	"talker"

<i>sīgɪs^{a/}</i>	<i>sīgɪsɪdɪb^a</i>	<i>sīgɪs-</i>	"lowerer"
<i>dìɪs^a</i>	<i>dìɪs-nàm^a</i>	<i>dìɪs-</i>	"glutton"

The same behaviour is found with agent nouns from a few other verbs too:

<i>sòs^a</i>	<i>sōsɪdɪb^a</i>	<i>sòs-</i>	"beggar"	
<i>tìs^a</i>	<i>tīsɪdɪb^a</i>	<i>tìs-</i>	"giver"	WK
<i>kīs^{a/}</i> or <i>kīsɪd^{a/}</i>	<i>kīsɪdɪb^a</i>	<i>kīsɪd-</i> (only)	"hater"	

which may be original 3-mora stem verbs with *ss → s. There are also

<i>zàb-zàb^a</i>	<i>zàb-zàb-nàm^a</i>	<i>zàb-zàb-</i>	"warrior"
	<i>zàb-zābɪdɪb^a</i>		
<i>gbān-záb^a</i>	<i>gbān-záb-nàm^a</i>	<i>gbān-záb-</i>	"leatherbeater"
<i>ñwī-ték^a</i>	<i>ñwī-tékɪdɪb^a</i>		"rope-puller"

Exceptionally, consonant assimilation of *md does not appear in the plural in

<i>pɥ[?]à-sā[?]am^{ma}</i>	<i>pɥ[?]à-sā[?]amɪdɪb^a</i>	<i>pɥ[?]à-sà[?]am-</i>	"adulterer"
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but contrast the expected pattern seen in

<i>yūum-yúùm^{na}</i>	<i>yūum-yúùmɪb^a</i>	<i>yūum-yúùm-</i>	"singer"
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Stems ending in vowels in this Class are problematic because of the vowel-initial sg suffix. Unlike the case with the -a⁺ pl ending, there is no single systematic rule for the outcome.

Four highly irregular nouns end in diphthongs in the sg 3.2.2:

<i>dāɥ⁺</i>	<i>dāp^a</i>	<i>dàɥ-, dàp-</i>	7.2.2	"man" (<i>vir</i>)
<i>tāɥñ^{+/}</i>	<i>tāñp^{a/}</i>	<i>tāɥñ-, tāñp-</i>	7.2.2	"sib of opposite sex"
<i>sāḡñ⁺</i>	WK <i>sāañb^a</i>	<i>sàñ-</i>		"blacksmith"
<i>sāḡñ^{ya}</i>	DK			
<i>sōḡñ⁺</i>	WK <i>sōwñb^a</i>	<i>sōñ-</i>		"witch"
<i>sōḡñ^{ya}</i>	DK			

There are also the two original *g stems

<i>pɥ[?]ā^a</i> ← *pɥaga	<i>pū[?]ab^a</i>	<i>pɥ[?]à-</i>	"woman, wife"
<i>bā[?]a⁺</i> ← *ba [?] aga	<i>bā[?]ab^a</i>	<i>bà[?]a-</i>	"traditional diviner"

Two nouns with (C)V: stems introduce *-d-* before the sg suffix, with cbs remodelled on the sg:

<i>wìɪd^a</i>	<i>wìɪb^a</i>	<i>wìɪd-</i>	"hunter"
<i>sṵñʔɔd^{a/}</i>	<i>sṵñʔɔb^{a/}</i>	<i>sṵñʔɔd-</i>	agent noun of <i>sṵñʔe^{+/}</i> "be better than"

In

<i>pṵkpāad^{a/}</i>	<i>pṵkpāadíb^a</i>	<i>pṵkpá-</i>	"farmer"
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the plural also has *-d-* but the cb lacks it (*kpāad^{a/}* "farmer" is regular ^{a|b^a} Class.)

Compare *Nàbɪd^a* "Nabdema person" beside *Nàbɪr^e* "Nabit language", *Dàgáàd^a* "Dagaaba person" beside the Dagaare equivalent *Dagao*, and the Mooré plural *neba* beside Kusaal *nīdɪb^{a/}* "people."

The word

<i>pītú⁺</i>	<i>pītíb^a</i>	<i>pīt-</i>	"younger sibling of same sex"
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drops the final *ɪ* of the sg elsewhere in the paradigm. *Sàam-pīt^{a/}* "father's younger brother" and *bì-pīt^{a/}* "younger child" are regular.

Historically, a solution to the problem of adding sg ^a to stems ending in a long vowel was to use the suffix *r^e* in place of ^a; related languages, including Toende Kusaal, still keep the *-b^a* plural forms, but in Agolle Kusaal such words have acquired *-a⁺* plurals and thus passed over entirely into the *r^e|a⁺* Class:

Agolle	<i>pùkṵṵñr^e</i>	<i>pùkṵṵñya⁺</i>	<i>r^e a⁺</i>	"widow"
Toende	<i>pṵkṵót</i>	<i>pṵkṵp</i>	<i>r^e b^a</i>	
Farefare	<i>pṵkṵore</i>	<i>pṵkṵpa</i>	<i>r^e b^a</i>	
Mooré	<i>pugkṵore</i>	<i>pugkṵapa</i>	<i>r^e b^a</i>	
Agolle	<i>dà-kṵṵñr^e</i>	<i>dà-kṵṵñya⁺</i>	<i>r^e a⁺</i>	"bachelor"
Toende	<i>dákṵót</i>	<i>dakṵp</i>	<i>r^e b^a</i>	
Farefare	<i>dàkṵorè</i>	<i>dakṵpa</i>	<i>r^e b^a</i>	

Such transfers may account for several human-reference nouns found unexpectedly in the *r^e|a⁺* Class, e.g. *bīār^{e/}* "elder sibling of the same sex", *pṵñʔɔr^e* "cripple", *ñyēʔer^{e/}* "next-younger sibling" (but Toende sg *yě'et* pl *yěra* id) and maybe even *pṵʔà-sādir^{e/}* "young woman", where the sg *d* might be introduced from the plural *pṵʔà-sādá⁺*, where it would be due to the process described in [7.2.2] (cf *pēʔ-sáʔa⁼* "ewe lamb.") However, cognate forms suggest that levelling has taken place in different directions in the different languages with this word:

Toende	<i>ɔɔ'ɔ-sa'a</i>	<i>ɔɔ'ɔ-sa'as</i>	<i>g^a s^e</i>	"young woman"
Farefare	<i>pug-sarga</i>	<i>pug-sarsɪ</i>	<i>g^a s^e</i>	
Mooré	<i>pugsada</i>	<i>pugsadba</i>	<i>a b^a</i>	

Stems in a short root vowel followed by single *m n l* regularly adopt a sg form resembling that of the the *r^e|a⁺* Class 11.3.1.1.

All other stems in *-m* have sg *-m^m* instead of *-m^a*.

Stems in *n* undergo consonant assimilation in the pl: **nb* → *mm*:

<i>sāan^a</i>	<i>sāam^{ma}</i>	<i>sāan-</i>	"guest, stranger"
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With *m*-stems the assimilation **mb* → *mm* would cause SF sg and pl to coincide segmentally, and also tonally except with Pattern H words. The homophony is avoided by using the plural suffix *s^e* instead of *b^a* or by pluralising with the word *nām^a* 11.4:

<i>kpī'im^m</i>	<i>kpī'imís^e</i>	<i>kpī'im-</i>	"dead person, corpse"
<i>zū'əm^m</i>	<i>zū'amís^e</i>	<i>zū'əm-</i>	"blind person"
<i>tādım^m</i>	<i>tādımıs^e</i>	<i>tādım-</i>	"weak person"
	<i>tādım-nām^a</i>		

With the two words

<i>kpēēñm^m</i>	<i>kpēēñmma</i>	LF-only WK	
	<i>kpēēñm-nām^a</i>	<i>kpēēñm-</i>	"elder"
<i>bī'əm^m</i>	<i>bī'əmma</i>	LF-only WK	
	<i>bī'əm-nām^a</i>	<i>bī'əm-</i>	"enemy"

WK freely accepted the *a|b^a* pl forms in contexts where they appear as LFs but would not accept the SFs, clearly demonstrating avoidance of ambiguity as the driver of the variations.

Alternatively, ambiguity may instead be avoided by replacing the sg suffix *a* with *g^a*; such words may go on to develop *g^a|s^e* Class plurals as well:

<i>dāsāŋ^a</i>	<i>dāsām^{ma}</i>	<i>dàsàŋ-</i>	"young man"
	or <i>dàsāaŋ^{s^e}</i>		
<i>Yàaŋ^a</i>	<i>Yàam^{ma}</i>	<i>Yàaŋ-</i>	"Yanga, Yansi person"
	or <i>Yàamıs^e</i>		
	or <i>Yàaŋ^{s^e}</i>		

11.3.1.1 $r^e|b^a$ Subclass

Stems in $l n m r$ following a *short* root vowel show forms in LF $-e$ with the consonant doubled before it. This is the expected reflex of the $r^e|a^+$ Class sg and is probably remodelled from the SF [3.2.2]. In all such cases the regular SF with sg $-a$ and sg $-r^e$ would be identical, and seem to show the bare stem alone. In all cases where the SF could *not* be the regular phonological result of the attachment of a sg $-r^e$ suffix, ethnonyms with b^a plurals always show sg $-a$, unlike the three below. Similarly, deverbal agent nouns are invariably $a|b^a$ Class, with the exception *only* of those where a sg $-r^e$ ending would lead to the same sg SF.

With n -stems, the assimilation $*nb \rightarrow mm$ takes place in the plural:

<i>Dàgbān</i> ^{ne/}	<i>Dàgbām</i> ^{ma/}	<i>Dàgbān-</i>	"Dagomba person"
<i>Bìn</i> ^{ne}	<i>Bìm</i> ^{ma}	<i>Bìn-</i>	"Moba person"
<i>Kùtān</i> ^{ne/}	<i>Kùtām</i> ^{ma/}	<i>Kùtān-</i>	member of EW's clan

There are no stems in single m in this Subclass, as their singular and plural SFs would coincide.

An r -stem with an irregular stem change in the plural is seen in

<i>Mṣr</i> ^{e/}	<i>Mṣom</i> ^{ma}	<i>Mṣr-</i>	"Muslim"
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Other words in this Subclass are Agent Nouns with stems in mn derived from Variable Verbs with stems in $-m$ and Agent nouns from Invariable Verbs with stems in $ll r(r)$ ¹³. Not only do they show $-r^e$ sg forms but also $-a^+$ plurals with Agent Noun meanings. With other stem types this is not possible: $r^e|a^+$ sg or pl forms of such stems have to be interpreted as adjectives instead. The development is therefore presumably based on the analogy of the sg forms.

	<i>lè̄m-lē̄m</i> ^{na}	<i>lè̄m-lē̄mnib</i> ^a	<i>lè̄m-lè̄m-</i>	"taster"
or	<i>lè̄m-lē̄m</i> ^{ne}	<i>lè̄m-lē̄mma</i> ⁺		
	<i>ñyàʔan-dòl</i> ^{la}	<i>ñyàʔan-dòllib</i> ^a	<i>ñyàʔan-dòl-</i>	NT "disciple" tones: WK
	<i>ñyāʔan-dól</i> ^{le}	<i>ñyāʔan-dóllà</i> ⁺	<i>ñyāʔan-dól-</i>	WK's own forms

13) In agent nouns, the gemination is part of the stem; however, if word-final $-mm$ $-nn$ $-ll$ $-rr$ were historically preserved after Apocope, they would be strongly associated with the $r^e|a^+$ Class, which would drive the transfer of the agent nouns to that Class. After later final degemination, this pattern could be generalised to *all* original $a|b^a$ Class singulars with SFs ending in a short vowel followed by $-m$ $-n$ $-l$ $-r$.

	<i>gbàn-zāñ^{la/}</i>	<i>gbàn-zāñllí^{b^a}</i>	<i>gbàn-zāñl-</i>		"one with a book in hand" KT WK
	<i>bù-zāñ^{la/}</i>	<i>bù-zāñllí^{b^a}</i>	<i>bù-zāñl-</i>		"goat-carrier"
or	<i>bù-zāñ^{le/}</i>	<i>bù-zāñllá⁺</i>			
	<i>gbàn-m̄r^{a/}</i>	<i>gbàn-m̄rí^{b^a}</i>	<i>gbàn-m̄r-</i>	DK	"one who has a book"
	<i>gbàn-tār^{a/}</i>	<i>gbàn-tārí^{b^a}</i>	<i>gbàn-tār-</i>	DK	id
	<i>bù-m̄r^{a/}</i>	<i>bù-m̄rí^{b^a}</i>	<i>bù-m̄r-</i>		"goat-owner"
or	<i>bù-m̄r^{e/}</i>	<i>bù-m̄rá⁺</i>			

The word

<i>z̄w̄m^{ne}</i>	<i>z̄w̄má⁺</i>	<i>z̄w̄m-</i>	"refugee, fugitive"
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may have originated as ^a|^{b^a} Class, acquired a new singular in ^{r^e} by reanalysis of the SF in the way suggested above for *m n* stems in a short root vowel, and subsequently passed over entirely into the ^{r^e}|^{a⁺} Class because of the homophony of the plural SF with the singular that would have resulted from the use of plural ^{-b^a}.

11.3.1.2 ^{b^a} as Singular

A subclass of nouns referring to older/important people has ^{-b^a} in the sg, and makes the plural with *nàm^a* 11.4:

<i>nà[?]ab^a</i>	<i>nà[?]-nàm^a</i>	<i>nà[?]-</i>	"chief"
<i>yáab^a</i>	<i>yāa-nám^a</i>	<i>yāa-</i>	"grandparent, ancestor" (* <i>yáagba</i>)
<i>pùgvɔɖí^{b^a}</i>	<i>pùgvɔɖ-nàm^a</i>	<i>pùgvɔɖ-</i>	"father's sister"
<i>áñsì^{b^a}</i>	<i>āñs-nám^a</i>	<i>āñs-</i>	"mother's brother"

With the consonant assimilation **mb* → *mm*:

<i>sàam^{ma}</i>	<i>sàam-nàm^a</i>	<i>sàam-</i>	"father"
<i>dìam^{ma}</i>	<i>dìam-nàm^a</i>	<i>dìam-</i>	"man's parent-in-law"
<i>dàyáam^{ma}</i>	<i>dàyāam-nám^a</i>	<i>dàyāam-</i>	"woman's parent-in-law" (* <i>yáamba</i>)

11.3.2 $g^a|s^e$ Class

Straightforward examples include:

<i>bōvg^a</i>	<i>bōvs^e</i>	<i>bù-</i>	"goat"
<i>tèʔeg^a</i>	<i>tèʔes^e</i>	<i>tèʔ-</i>	"baobab"
<i>tìlg^a</i>	<i>tìs^e</i>	<i>tì-</i>	"tree"
<i>ñwādīg^{a/}</i>	<i>ñwādis^{e/}</i>	<i>ñwād-</i>	"moon, month"
<i>lōdīg^{a/}</i>	<i>lōdis^{e/}</i>	<i>lōd-</i>	"corner"
<i>āañdīg^a</i>	<i>āañdis^e</i>	<i>āañd-</i>	"black plum, Vitex doniana"
<i>bù-dìbig^a</i>	<i>bù-dìbis^e</i>	<i>bù-dìb-</i>	"male kid"
<i>kpiibīg^a</i>	<i>kpiibis^e</i>	<i>kpiib-</i>	"orphan"
<i>yàmmīg^a</i>	<i>yàmmis^e</i>	<i>yàm-</i>	"slave"
<i>kōlīg^a</i>	<i>kōlis^e</i>	<i>kòl-</i>	"river"
<i>kpòkpàrīg^a</i>	<i>kpòkpàris^e</i>	<i>kpòkpàr-</i>	"palm tree"
<i>pūsīg^{a/}</i>	<i>pūsis^{e/}</i>	<i>pūs-</i>	"tamarind"

and the irregularly derived gerunds 14.1.1.1.1:

<i>zōvg^a</i>	<i>zōvs^e</i>	"run, race"
<i>bōdīg^a</i>		"planting"

Root-stems in *Caa Ciə Cuə* delete the **g* of the sg suffix *-g^a* 7.3.1:

<i>bāa</i> ⁼ 9.2	<i>bāas^e</i>	<i>bà-</i>	"dog"
<i>dàʔa</i> ⁼ 9.2	<i>dàʔas^e</i>	<i>dàʔ-</i>	"market"
<i>sīa</i> ⁺	<i>sīas^e</i>	<i>sjà-</i>	"waist"
<i>sàbùa</i> ⁺	<i>sàbùas^e</i>	<i>sàbùà-</i>	"lover, girlfriend"

with nasal *ĩã ùã* alternating with *ẽẽ ỹỹ* 7.3.1

<i>ziñʔa</i> ⁺	<i>zèñʔes^e</i>	<i>zjàñʔ-</i> or <i>zèñʔ-</i>	"red" (adjective)
<i>nūʔ-íñʔa</i> ⁺	<i>nūʔ-éñʔes^e</i>	<i>nūʔ-éñʔ-</i>	"fingernail"
<i>Mùa</i> ⁺	<i>Mòas^e</i>	<i>Mò-</i>	"Mossi person"
<i>nūa</i> ^{+/}	<i>nōas^{e/}</i>	<i>nō-</i>	"hen"

Historical *(C)*ag-* *(C)*jag-* *(C)*uag-* stems 7.1.1.1 show singulars with *-k^a*:

<i>zàk^a</i>	<i>zàʔas^e</i>	<i>zàʔ-</i>	"compound"
<i>puāk^a</i>	<i>pūʔas^e</i>	<i>puʔà-</i>	"female" (adjective)

Stems in (C)Vg- display consonant assimilation in the sg via *gg → kk

<i>gìk^a</i>	<i>gìgis^e</i>	<i>gìg-</i>	"dumb person"
<i>kōk^a</i>	<i>kōgus^e</i>	<i>kùg-</i>	"chair"

Stems in -m- and -n- show -ŋ- in the sg, via *mg → ŋŋ and *ng → ŋŋ, and the cbs adopt the sg form; in the pl *ns → ṽss [7.2.1.1] whereas -*ms- remains with 2-mora-stems, but is frequently assimilated in longer stems. There are, however, no unequivocal three- or four-mora n-stems in this Class in any case.

<i>bāŋ^a</i>	<i>bāaŋs^e</i>	<i>bàŋ-</i>	"ring, chain, fetter"
<i>tēŋ^a</i>	<i>tēēŋs^e</i>	<i>tèŋ-</i>	"land"
<i>pàŋ^a</i>	<i>pàaŋs^e</i>	<i>pàŋ-</i>	"power"
<i>bùŋ^a</i>	<i>bùm^s_e</i>	<i>bùŋ-</i>	"donkey"
<i>nāŋ^a</i>	<i>nām^s_e</i>	<i>nàŋ-</i>	"scorpion"
<i>súʔəŋ^a</i>	<i>sūʔəm^s_e</i>	<i>sūʔəŋ-</i>	"rabbit"
<i>ñwāaŋ^a</i>	<i>ñwāam^s_e</i>	<i>ñwàaŋ-</i>	"monkey"
<i>nīŋ^a</i>	<i>nīs^e</i>	<i>nīŋ-</i>	"bird"
	<i>nīim^s_e</i>		
<i>kùlŋ^a</i>	<i>kùl^s_e</i>	<i>kùlŋ-</i>	"door"
	<i>kùl^m_s^e</i>		
<i>kōʔalíŋ^a</i>	<i>kōʔalís^e</i>	<i>kōʔalíŋ-</i>	sleeveless traditional
	<i>kōʔalím^s_e</i>		smock

So too with all deverbal instrument nouns:

<i>mēɛdŋ^a</i>	<i>mēɛd^s_e</i>	<i>mèɛdŋ-</i>	"building tool"
	<i>mēɛd^m_s^e</i>		
<i>pīəsíŋ^a</i>	<i>pīəsís^e</i>	<i>pīəsíŋ-</i>	"sponge"
	<i>pīəsím^s_e</i>		← <i>pīe^{+/}</i> "wash (self)"

Various irregular stem alternations are seen in

<i>bīŋ^a</i>	<i>bīs^e</i>	<i>bī-</i>	"child"
		or <i>bì-</i>	
<i>bèrŋ^a</i>	<i>bèrŋ^s_e</i>		a plant used for fibre

<i>tàmpūa</i> ⁺	<i>tàmpōɔs</i> ^e	<i>tàmpò-</i>	"housefly" DK (oral vowel)
<i>bōtɪŋ</i> ^a	<i>bōtɪs</i> ^e	<i>bōtɪŋ-</i>	"cup" 3.4

Very irregular in both flexion and phonology, though apparently $g^a|s^e$ Class, is

<i>sāŋá</i> ⁺	<i>sānsá</i> ⁺	<i>sān-</i>	"time"
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which has perhaps incorporated a following deictic; note the unparalleled stem-internal cluster in the plural [saŋsa].

These human-reference nouns have alternative plurals with the suffix $-b^a$:

<i>dāsāŋ</i> ^a	<i>dāsām</i> ^{ma} <i>dāsāaŋs</i> ^e	<i>dāsāŋ-</i>	"young man"
<i>Yàaŋ</i> ^a	<i>Yàam</i> ^{ma} <i>Yàamɪs</i> ^e <i>Yàaŋs</i> ^e	<i>Yàaŋ-</i>	"Yanga, Yansi person"
<i>Sàʔdàbùa</i> ⁺	<i>Sàʔdàbùəb</i> ^a <i>Sàʔdàbùəs</i> ^e		clan name 37.4

11.3.2.1 $g^0|s^e$ Subclass

Several s^e -plural stems with rounded vowels have sg g^0 . This probably originated in reinterpretation of $g^a|s^e$ Class sg as g^0 in cases where the SF forms regularly coincide 3.2.2 11.1. WK avoids the change to $-g^0$ with human-reference nouns. No regular deverbal instrument noun takes $-g^0$.

Some $g^0|s^e$ words have also acquired $g^0|d^e$ plurals by analogy, and some words originally of this type have probably passed entirely into the $g^0|d^e$ Class.

	<i>kūug</i> ^{a/}	<i>kūs</i> ^{e/}	<i>kū-</i>	"mouse"
or	<i>kūug</i> ^{o/}			
	<i>sòʔug</i> ^a	<i>sòʔus</i> ^e	<i>sòʔ-</i>	"knife"
or	<i>sòʔug</i> ^o			
	<i>núʔùg</i> ^o	<i>núʔùs</i> ^e	<i>nūʔ-</i>	"hand"
	<i>zùnzòŋ</i> ^a	<i>zùnzòŋs</i> ^e	<i>zùnzòŋ-</i>	"blind" (adjective)
or	<i>zùnzòŋ</i> ^o			
	<i>tèŋ-zùŋ</i> ^o	<i>tèŋ-zùvŋs</i> ^e		"foreign land"
but		<i>pìàŋʔ-zùna</i> ⁺		"foreign language"
	<i>yúʔuŋ</i> ^o	<i>yūʔumís</i> ^e	<i>yūʔuŋ-</i>	"night"

<i>zùuŋ</i> ⁰	<i>zùuŋs</i> ^e	<i>zùŋ-</i>	"vulture"
	or <i>zùuŋd</i> ^e		

Compare Mampruli *nuuwa* pl *nuusi* "hand", *suuwa* pl *suusi* "knife", *kuuwa* pl *kuusi* "mouse", *zuuwa* pl *zuusi* "vulture" (but *yunŋu* pl *yunsi* "night.")

Some stems in *m* belong to this type despite not having rounded root vowels:

<i>yàmmug</i> ^a WK	<i>yàmmis</i> ^e	<i>yàm-</i>	"slave"
or <i>yàmmug</i> ⁰			

Here the epenthetic vowel has been rounded by the preceding *m* and the resulting SF reinterpreted as ending in *g*⁰.

In some cases such words probably have an *original* sg suffix *g*⁰, and this may be a variant of the strategy for avoiding the *g*⁰|*d*^e Class plural *-d*^e which elsewhere leads *g*⁰|*d*^e Class stems in *m* and *n* to be transferred to the *g*⁰|*a*⁺ Subclass [11.3.3.1](#).

<i>à-dàalúŋ</i> ⁰	<i>à-dàalís</i> ^e WK	<i>à-dàalúŋ-</i>	"stork"
	<i>à-dàalímìs</i> ^e		
<i>sī'úŋ</i> ⁰	<i>sī'imís</i> ^e	<i>sī'uŋ-</i>	a kind of big dish

The word

<i>dìisúŋ</i> ⁰	<i>dìisís</i> ^e	<i>dìisúŋ-</i>	"spoon"
	<i>dìisímà</i> ⁺		

despite resembling a deverbal Instrument Noun segmentally, has Tone Pattern L instead of O, like *dìtúŋ*⁰ "right hand" (← "feeder".)

Two words of this type also drop *-s-* from the stem in the plural:

<i>wīlísúŋ</i> ⁰	<i>wīlímís</i> ^e	<i>wīlísúŋ-</i>	a kind of snail
<i>yālísúŋ</i> ⁰	<i>yālímís</i> ^e	<i>yālísúŋ-</i>	"quail"

11.3.3 $g^0|d^e$ Class

Before the sg $-g^0$ $-k^0$ $-ŋ^0$ stem-final vowels are rounded, changing epenthetic vowels to u and creating rounding diphthongs from root vowels [7.3.2] [5.3].

All stems in m n following a short vowel belong to the $g^0|a^+$ Subclass instead, along with all stems which include a derivational suffix [11.3.3.1].

<i>dàvug^o</i>	<i>dàad^e</i>	<i>dà-</i>	"piece of wood"
<i>fěñ^oog^{o/}</i>	<i>fěñ^oεd^{e/}</i>	<i>fěñ^o-</i>	"ulcer"
<i>vīug^{o/}</i>	<i>vīid^{e/}</i>	<i>vī-</i>	"owl"
<i>vāvŋg^{o/}</i>	<i>vāañd^{e/}</i>	<i>vāñ-</i>	"leaf"
<i>mōvug^o</i>	<i>mōvd^e</i>	<i>mō-</i>	"grass, bush"
<i>dòndùug^o</i>	<i>dòndùud^e</i>	<i>dòndù-</i>	"cobra"
<i>dàbīog^o</i>	<i>dàbīəd^e</i>	<i>dàbjà-</i>	"coward"
	<i>zùød^e</i>		"friendship"
<i>wābug^{o/}</i>	<i>wābıd^{e/}</i>	<i>wāb-</i>	"elephant"
<i>zūøbúg^o</i>	<i>zūøbıd^e</i>	<i>zūøb-</i>	"(human head) hair"
<i>bālērvg^{o/}</i>	<i>bālērıd^{e/}</i>	<i>bālér-</i>	"ugly person"
	or <i>bālērıs^{e/}</i>		
<i>bēsug^o</i>	<i>bēsıd^e</i>	<i>bès-</i>	kind of pot
<i>Dènvug^o</i>			Denugu (place name)

Some stems ending in a root vowel show the allomorph (C)V in $g^0|d^e$ pl, with $-t$ for $-d$ - [7.1.1.1]:

<i>dōvug^o</i>	<i>dōvd^e</i> or <i>dōt^e</i>	<i>dō-</i>	"hut, room; clan"
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So too *pōvug^{o/}* "farm, field", *fūug^{o/}* "clothing, shirt"; exceptionally, the sg also shows a short vowel in the following word, which probably has a true 1-mora stem:

<i>zūg^{o/}</i>	<i>zūt^{e/}</i>	<i>zū-</i> or <i>zūg-</i>	"head"
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Historical $*(C)ag-$ $*(C)ıag-$ $*(C)ıag-$ stems [7.1.1.1] show singular $-k^0$, and $ıa$ becomes o before $-k^0$:

<i>bòk^o</i>	<i>bò^oad^e</i>	<i>bı^oà-</i>	"hole, pit"
<i>lòk^o</i>	<i>lò^oad^e</i>	<i>lı^oà-</i>	"quiver (for arrows)"
<i>lāuk^o</i>	<i>lā^oad^e</i>	<i>là^o-</i>	"(item of) goods"
<i>bıāııñk^o</i>	<i>bıāñ^oad^e</i>	WK <i>bıāñ^o-</i>	"shoulder"
	<i>bıāñ^oada⁺</i>	SB	

Stems in (C)Vd show -t- in the pl [7.2.1] via *dd → tt:

<i>ùdvg</i> ^o	<i>ùt</i> ^e	<i>ùd-</i>	"(piece of) chaff"
<i>gādvḡ</i> ^{o/}	<i>gāt</i> ^{e/}	<i>gād-</i>	"bed" (Hausa <i>gadoo</i>)

Stems in (C)Vg develop *kk* in the singular via *gg → *kk*:

<i>dūk</i> ^{o/}	<i>dūgvḡ</i> ^{e/}	<i>dūg-</i>	"cooking pot"
	<i>dūgvḡb dút</i> ^e		"cooking pots" SB

Stems in *l* develop the cluster *nn* in the pl *ld → *nn*

<i>yōlvḡ</i> ^{o/}	<i>yōn</i> ^{ne/}	<i>yōl-</i>	"sack; £100; ₣200 [cedis]"
<i>zōlvḡ</i> ^{o/}	<i>zōn</i> ^{ne/}	<i>zōl-</i>	"fool"
<i>sìlvḡ</i> ^o	<i>sìn</i> ^{ne} or <i>sìls</i> ^e	<i>sìl-</i>	"hawk"

The only *m n* stems in this Class making plurals with -*d*^e are

<i>làngāúḡ</i> ^o	<i>làngāamá</i> ⁺ or <i>làngám</i> ^{me}	<i>làngāuḡ-</i>	"crab"
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and the synonymous *màngāúḡ*^o, to which may possibly be added the plural-only forms *sūñ-péèn*^{ne} "anger" and the placename *Tempáan*^{ne} "Tempane" if this is truly to be analysed as "New Villages." Like *zūəbúḡ*^o "human head hair" above, all these stems have CV:C roots [7.1.1.2]: the stem-final consonant is not a derivational suffix.

11.3.3.1 *g^o|a⁺* Subclass

All stems in *n m* following a short vowel use the plural suffix *a*⁺ instead of *d*^e.

They show -*ḡ-* in the sg, via **ng* → *ḡḡ* and **mg* → *ḡḡ*, and usually use the sg segmental (but not tonal) form as cb [11.2.2].

<i>gbàḡ</i> ^o	<i>gbàna</i> ⁺	<i>gbàn-</i> or <i>gbàḡḡ-</i>	"letter, book"
<i>zīnzāḡ</i> ^{o/}	<i>zīnzāná</i> ⁺	<i>zīnzáḡḡ-</i>	"bat"
<i>àñrvḡ</i> ^o	<i>àñrma</i> ⁺	<i>àñrvḡ-</i>	"boat"
<i>mālḡ</i> ^o	<i>mālma</i> ⁺	<i>màlḡḡ-</i>	"sacrifice"

The expected μ -glide is absent in the sg and cb of

nìn-gbīŋ^{0/} *nìn-gbīná*⁺ *nìn-gbīŋ-* "body"

This may represent the influence of the alternate sg form *nìn-gbīn*^{ne/}. The formal plural *nìn-gbīná*⁺ is often used for singular "body."

All regular gerunds of 3-mora and 4-mora stem Variable Verbs belong to the $g^0|a^+$ Subclass except for those with stems in velars and Fusion Verbs [13.1.1.1](#), which have the singular suffix r^e [14.1.1.1](#).

<i>gàadvug</i> ⁰	←	<i>gàad</i> ^e	"(sur)pass"
<i>lìəbvug</i> ⁰	←	<i>lìəb</i> ^e	"become"
<i>dīgı́lúg</i> ⁰	←	<i>dīgı́l</i> ^{e/}	"lay down"
<i>yāarúg</i> ⁰	←	<i>yāar</i> ^{e/}	"scatter"
<i>sīgı́súg</i> ⁰	←	<i>sīgı́s</i> ^{e/}	"lower"

Only stems in *-s-* and *-sım-* have plurals, always with *-a*⁺:

<i>būʔəsúg</i> ⁰		<i>būʔəsá</i> ⁺	<i>būʔəs-</i>	"question"
<i>zàańsúg</i> ⁰		<i>zàańsımà</i> ⁺	<i>zàańsúg-</i>	"dream"

Gerunds of 3-mora *n*-stem verbs, uniquely, never assimilate **ng* → *ŋŋ* (just as they are also remarkable in not assimilating *-nd-* in their imperfectives, see [13.1.1](#)):

<i>dìgı́nvug</i> ⁰	←	<i>dìgı́n</i> ^e	"lie down"
<i>zìńʔinvug</i> ⁰	←	<i>zìńʔin</i> ^e	"sit down"

Gerunds of 3-mora *m*-stems may optionally not assimilate **mg* → *ŋŋ*:

<i>t́ɔŋ</i> ⁰	←	<i>t́ɔm</i> ^{m/}	"depart, disappear"
or <i>t́ɔmúg</i> ⁰			
<i>sàʔvŋ</i> ⁰	←	<i>sàʔam</i> ^m	"destroy"
or <i>sàʔamvug</i> ⁰			
<i>kàrvŋ</i> ⁰	←	<i>kàrım</i> ^m	"read"
or <i>kàrımvug</i> ⁰			

Gerunds of 4-mora *m*-stems always assimilate:

<i>zàańsúg</i> ⁰	←	<i>zàańsım</i> ^m	"dream"
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11.3.4 $r^e|a^+$ Class

Straightforward examples include:

<i>kūgur^{e/}</i>	<i>kūgá⁺</i>	<i>kūg-</i>	"stone"
<i>dìgur^e</i>	<i>dìga⁺</i>	<i>dìg-</i>	"dwarf"
<i>būgur^e</i>	<i>būga⁺</i>	<i>bùg-</i>	"abode of a <i>wīn^{ne}</i> (spirit, god)"
<i>bàlàṅur^e</i>	<i>bàlàṅa⁺</i>	<i>bàlàṅ-</i>	"hat"
<i>yūgvdir^e</i>	<i>yūgvda⁺</i>	<i>yùgvd-</i>	"hedgehog"
<i>ṗṗʔà-sādir^{e/}</i>	<i>ṗṗʔà-sādá⁺</i>	<i>ṗṗʔà-sād-</i>	"young woman"
<i>nóbir^e</i>	<i>nōbá⁺</i>	<i>nōb-</i>	"leg"
<i>lībur^e</i>	<i>lība⁺</i>	<i>līb-</i>	"twin"
<i>sōnnur^e</i>	<i>sōnna⁺</i>	<i>sòn-</i>	"inner compound wall"
<i>sāngúnnir^e</i>	<i>sāngúnnà⁺</i>	<i>sāngún-</i>	"millipede"
<i>bìʔisur^e</i>	<i>bìʔisa⁺</i>	<i>bìʔis-</i>	"woman's breast"
<i>sūmmur^e</i>	<i>sūmma⁺</i>	<i>sùm-</i>	"groundnut"
<i>yīmmír^e</i>	<i>yīmmá⁺</i>	<i>yīm-</i>	"solitary" (adjective)

along with all gerunds of 3-mora stem verbs in $-k^e -ṅ^e$ and undeleted $-g^e$ like:

<i>yùugur^e</i>	"delay"
<i>nōkír^e</i>	"taking"
<i>nìṅur^e</i>	"doing"

For the allomorphy in (C)V: root-stems before the plural $-a^+$ see [7.2.2](#).

Unglottalised vowel stems:

<i>zūur^e</i>	<i>zūya⁺</i>	<i>zù-</i>	"tail"
<i>bīar^{e/}</i>	<i>bjēyá⁺</i>	<i>bjā-</i>	"elder same-sex sib"
<i>zūar^e</i>	<i>zūyá⁺</i>	<i>zūà-</i>	"hill"
<i>nōar^{e/}</i>	<i>nōyá⁺</i>	<i>nō-</i>	"mouth"
<i>yòar^e</i>	<i>yòya⁺</i>	<i>yò-</i>	"soldier ant"

Glottalised vowel stems:

<i>yūʔur^{e/}</i>	<i>yūdá⁺</i>	<i>yūʔ-</i>	"name"
<i>tītāʔar^e</i>	<i>tītāda⁺</i>	<i>tītāʔ-</i>	"big" (adjective)
<i>ṗòṅʔar^e</i>	<i>ṗòṅda⁺</i>	<i>ṗòṅʔ-</i>	"cripple"

<i>ňyēʔer^e/</i>	<i>ňyēdá⁺</i>	<i>ňyēʔ-</i>	"next-younger sibling"
<i>pù-tèñʔer^e</i>	<i>pù-tèñda⁺</i>	<i>pù-tèñʔ-</i>	"mind"
<i>yūʔər^e</i>	<i>yūāda⁺</i>	<i>yùʔər-</i> 11.2.2	"penis"

Stems in historical **g* deleted after a short vowel which then becomes glottalised 7.1.1.1 may have forms made by analogy with these original glottalised-vowel stems:

<i>bàʔar^e</i>	<i>bàʔa⁺</i> or <i>bàda⁺</i>	<i>bàʔ-</i>	"idol" (Farefare <i>bàgrè</i>)
<i>sjàʔar^e</i>	<i>sjàʔa⁺</i>	<i>sjàʔ-</i>	"forest"
<i>bjāñʔar^e/</i>	<i>bjāñʔá⁺</i>	<i>bjāñʔ-</i>	"wet mud, riverbed"
<i>mùʔar^e</i>	<i>mųʔàa⁺</i> or <i>mùʔada⁺</i>	<i>mųʔà-</i>	"reservoir, dam"
<i>zànkùʔar^e</i>	<i>zànkųʔàa⁺</i> or <i>zànkùʔada⁺</i>	<i>zànkųʔà-</i>	"jackal"

similarly *kùndùʔar^e* "barren woman".

<i>ňyāʔar^e</i>	<i>ňyāʔa⁺</i>	<i>ňyāʔ-</i>	"root" (← * <i>yǝg-</i>)
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Likewise

<i>kì-dàʔar^e</i>	<i>kì-dàʔada⁺</i> WK		"bought-in millet"
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which is from *dàʔ⁺* "buy", where the ʔ is not derived from **g* historically.

Stems in deleted **g* after a long vowel include

<i>vúər^e</i>	<i>vūá⁼</i>	<i>vūø-</i>	"fruit of <i>vúerj</i> tree"
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and all the regular gerunds of Fusion Verbs 13.1.1.1 like

<i>gbáñʔar^e</i>	←	<i>gbāñʔe^{+/}</i>	"grab"
<i>díʔər^e</i>	←	<i>dīʔe^{+/}</i>	"get"
<i>dúər^e</i>	←	<i>dūe^{+/}</i>	"rise"

Some root-stems show (C)V with a short vowel before the *r^e|a⁺* sg 7.2.2. These words regularly use the segmental form of the sg for cb.

<i>gbēr^e/</i>	<i>gbēyá⁺</i>	<i>gbēr-</i>	"thigh"
<i>kùkǝr^e/</i>	<i>kùkǝyá⁺</i>	<i>kùkǝr-</i>	"voice"

Similarly *kpàkūr^{e/}* "tortoise" *gāñr^{e/}* "ebony fruit" *gūmpūzēr^{e/}* "duck" *ñyò-vūr^{e/}* "life".
2-mora stem verbs make gerunds in *-r^e* instead of *-b^o* after a noun cb:

nā-lóòr^e "fasting" ("mouth-tying")
fū-yéèr^e "shirt-wearing"

These set expressions show shortening of the vowel:

nā[?]-lór^e "place in the compound for tying up cows"
wìd-lōr^{e/} "place in the compound for tying up horses"

but this is not a productive pattern.

Stems in *m n l r* undergo consonant assimilation in the sg:

**rr* → *r* **lr* → *ll* **nr* → *nn* **mr* → *mn*; on the instability of the cluster *mn* see [4.2](#).

<i>kùkpàr^e</i>	<i>kùkpàra⁺</i>	<i>kùkpàr-</i>	"palm fruit"
<i>ñwā-d-ár^e</i>			"Venus"
<i>tān^{ne}</i>	<i>tāna⁺</i>	<i>tàn-</i>	"earth"
<i>kpān^{ne}</i>	<i>kpāna⁺</i>	<i>kpàn-</i>	"spear"
<i>má[?]an^{ne}</i>	<i>mā[?]aná⁺</i>	<i>mā[?]an-</i>	"okra"
<i>pībɪn^{ne}</i>	<i>pībɪna⁺</i>	<i>pìbɪn-</i>	"covering"
<i>dūm^{ne}</i>	<i>dūma⁺</i>	<i>dùm-</i>	"knee"
<i>zōm^{ne}</i>	<i>zōma⁺</i>	<i>zòm-</i>	"fugitive"
<i>gbīgum^{ne}</i>	<i>gbīguma⁺</i>	<i>gbìgum-</i>	"lion"
<i>yōgum^{ne}</i>	<i>yōgumā⁺</i>	<i>yōgum-</i>	"camel"
<i>gél^{le}</i>	<i>gēlá⁺</i>	<i>gēl-</i>	"egg"
<i>íl^{le}</i>	<i>īlá⁺</i>	<i>īl-</i>	"horn"

With change in root vowel length [7.1.1.2](#)

<i>yùum^{ne}</i>	<i>yùma⁺</i>	<i>yùum-</i>	"year"
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With unusual sandhi in the sg, and presumably analogical levelling

<i>ñwān^{ne}</i> SB	<i>ñwāna⁺</i> NT	<i>ñwàn-</i>	"calabash"
<i>ñwām^{me}</i> WK	<i>ñwāma⁺</i> SB WK NT	<i>ñwàm-</i>	

An exceptional suppletive plural, both segmentally and tonally, is seen in

<i>dāar^e</i>	<i>dābá⁺</i>	<i>dà-</i>	"day"
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These two $r^e|a^+$ Class words probably have 1-mora stems:

[Mampruli <i>zari</i>]	$zā^{+/}$	$zā-$	"millet"
<i>yīr^{e/}</i>	$yā^{+/}$	$yī-$	"house"

Yīr^{e/} also has the irregular locative forms sg *yín^{ne}* pl *yáan^e* [22.3].

11.3.4.1 l^e Subclass

Language names [37.4] all belong to a $r^e|a^+$ Subclass partly formed with the suffix $-l^e$. The suffix is always $-l^e$ after stems ending in a root vowel:

<u>Language</u>		<u>Speakers</u>	
<i>Kūsáàl^e</i>	Kusaal	<i>Kūsáàs^e</i>	Kusaasi
<i>Bùsáàñl^e</i>	Bisa	<i>Bùsáàñs^e</i>	Bisa
<i>Mòɔl^e</i>	Mooré	<i>Mòɔs^e</i>	Mossi
<i>Sìmīil^e</i>	Fulfulde	<i>Sìmīis^e</i>	Fulbe
<i>Zàngbèɛl^e</i>	Hausa	<i>Zàngbèɛd^e</i>	Hausa
<i>Nàsāal^e</i>	English/French	<i>Nàsàa-nàm^a</i>	Europeans

After stems ending in a consonant other than $-r-$ the suffix is either $-r^e$, or assimilates to the final stem consonant in a way which is indistinguishable from $-r^e$:

<i>Nàbɪr^e</i>	Nabit	<i>Nàbɪdɪb^a</i>	Nabdema
<i>Dàgbān^{ne/}</i>	Dagbani	<i>Dàgbām^{ma/}</i>	Dagomba
<i>Bìn^{ne}</i>	Moba	<i>Bìm^{ma}</i>	Moba
<i>Yàan^{ne}</i>	Yansi	<i>Yàañs^e</i>	Yansi
<i>Gūrín^{ne}</i>	Farefare	<i>Gūrís^e</i>	Farefare
<i>Tàlɪn^{ne}</i>	Talni	<i>Tàlɪs^e</i>	Tallensi
<i>Bùl^{le}</i>	Buli	<i>Bùlɪs^e</i>	Bulsa
<i>Àgòl^{le}</i>	Agolle Kusaal	<i>Àgòl^{le}</i>	Agolle area

However, stems in $-r-$ show the distinctive assimilation $*rl \rightarrow tt$ [7.2.1]:

<i>Yāt^{e/}</i>	Yarsi	<i>Yārɪs^{e/}</i>	Yarsi
<i>Bāt^{e/}</i>	Bisa	<i>Bārɪs^{e/}</i>	Bisa

Unexpected epenthesis [7.2.1.3.2] occurs in:

<i>Kàmbònɪ^e</i>	Twɪ	<i>Kàmbòmɪs^e</i>	Ashanti
<i>Tùəɪ^e</i>	Toende Kusaal	<i>Tùəɪ^{ne}</i>	Toende area
<i>Ñwāmpūri^{e/}</i>	Mampruli	<i>Ñwāmpūris^{e/}</i>	Mamprussi

11.3.5 $\text{f}^0|\text{ɪ}^+$ Class

The plural $-\text{ɪ}^+$ causes the stem vowels *aa iə εε* to undergo "umlaut" to *ii*.
Straightforward examples for the $\text{f}^0|\text{ɪ}^+$ Class are

<i>mòɪ^f</i>	<i>mòɪ⁺</i>	<i>mòɪ-</i>	"gazelle"
<i>bīlɪ^f</i>	<i>bīlɪ⁺</i>	<i>bīl-</i>	"seed"
<i>ñyīrɪ^f</i>	<i>ñyīrɪ⁺</i>	<i>ñyīr-</i>	"egusi"
<i>zūrɪ^f</i>	<i>zūrɪ⁺</i>	<i>zūr-</i>	"dawadawa seed"
<i>bōn-búvdɪ^f</i>			"plant"

Two 1-mora stem $\text{f}^0|\text{ɪ}^+$ nouns are

no sg	<i>kī^{+/}</i>	<i>kī-</i> or <i>kā-</i>	"cereal, millet"
cf Mampruli sg	<i>kaafu</i>	pl	<i>kyi</i> id.

no sg	<i>mùj⁺</i>	<i>mùj-</i>	"rice"
cf Mooré sg	<i>mwifu</i>	pl	<i>mwi</i> id.

Two words have stems in **Caag-* with deletion of **g* [7.3.1] and also show root vowel length allomorphy [7.1.1.2]:

<i>náaf⁰</i>	<i>nīigɪ⁺</i>	<i>nā[?]-</i>	"cow"
<i>wáaf⁰</i>	<i>wīigɪ⁺</i>	<i>wā[?]-</i>	"snake"

Stems in *-n-* show consonant assimilation in the sg **nf* → *ñf* [7.2.1]:

<i>nī^{f/}</i>	<i>nīnɪ⁺</i>	<i>nīn-</i> or <i>nīf-</i>	"eye"
<i>píɪñ^f</i>	<i>pīnɪ⁺</i>	<i>pīn-</i>	"genet"
<i>kíiñ^f</i>	<i>kīnɪ⁺</i>		"millet seed"
<i>zúbñ^f</i>	<i>zōnɪ⁺</i>		"dawadawa seed"

In the word

<i>míí^f</i>	<i>mīnɪ⁺</i>	"okra seed"
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the singular is probably remodelled after an unlauded pl: cf *máʔan*^{ne} "okra."

In two words stem *-d-* is lost in the sg:

<i>wìəʔ</i> ^o	<i>wìdɿ</i> ⁺	<i>wìd-</i>	"horse"
<i>lāʔaf</i> ^o	<i>līgɿdɿ</i> ⁺	<i>làʔ-</i> or <i>lìg-</i>	"cowrie" pl "money"

Some words only have *f^o|ɿ*⁺ Class suffixes in one number. This may reflect the obsolescence of the class as a whole (which has few members and many stem irregularities), but some cases may be relics of an older, more complex class system.

<i>zìŋ</i> ^a	<i>zīmɿ</i> ⁺	<i>zīm-</i>	"fish"
<i>wālɿg</i> ^a	<i>wāɿs</i> ^e	<i>wàɿ-</i>	a kind of gazelle
	or <i>wālɿ</i> ⁺ tones <i>sic</i> WK		
<i>sībɿg</i> ^{a/}	<i>sībɿ</i> ⁺	<i>sīb-</i>	a kind of termite
<i>sīñʔ</i> ^{o/}	<i>sīñs</i> ^{e/}	<i>sīñ-</i>	"bee"
or <i>sīñg</i> ^{a/}			
<i>sūñʔ</i> ^{o/}	<i>sūñyá</i> ⁺	<i>sūñ-</i>	"heart"
or <i>sūñr</i> ^{e/}			

One such word also irregularly deletes the final stem consonant of the cb:

<i>kpāʔúŋ</i> ^o	<i>kpīʔinɿ</i> ⁺	<i>kpāʔ-</i>	"guinea fowl"
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11.3.6 *b*^o Class

In my materials there are only two *b*^o Class nouns which are not gerunds:

<i>sāʔab</i> ^o	<i>sàʔ-</i>	"millet porridge, TZ"
<i>tāñp</i> ^o	<i>tàñp-</i>	"war" 7.2.2

Written sources also have *kiʔib*^o, probably *kīʔib*^{o/} "soap", cf Toende *kíʔip* in Niggli's "Dictionnaire." WK has instead *kīibú*⁺, most likely a Mampruli loan 20.1.

However, all regular gerund forms of 2-mora stem Variable Verbs belong here:

<i>kōub</i> ^{o/}	←	<i>kō</i> ⁺	"kill"
<i>dōgub</i> ^{o/}	←	<i>dōg</i> ^e	"cook"
<i>dōʔab</i> ^o	←	<i>duʔà</i> ^a	"bear, beget"
<i>kādib</i> ^o	←	<i>kàd</i> ^e	"drive away"
<i>pīlib</i> ^o	←	<i>pil</i> ^e	"cover"
<i>kpārib</i> ^o	←	<i>kpàr</i> ^e	"lock"
<i>bāsib</i> ^o	←	<i>bàs</i> ^e	"abandon, go away"

Stems in (C)V*b* show -*p*- via **bb* → *pp*

<i>sōp</i> ^{o/}	←	<i>sōb</i> ^e	"write"
<i>lōp</i> ^{o/}	←	<i>lōb</i> ^e	"throw stones at"

Stems in (C)V*m* show the consonant assimilation **mb* → *mm*

<i>kīm</i> ^{mo}	←	<i>kim</i> ^m	"tend a flock/herd"
<i>wūm</i> ^{mo}	←	<i>wùm</i> ^m	"hear"

Stems in *n* do not assimilate, however (cf 3-mora *n*-stem gerunds 11.3.3.1)

<i>būnib</i> ^o	←	<i>bùn</i> ^e	"reap"
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The verb *yīs*^e "make go/come out" has the expected gerund *yīsib*^{o/}; exceptionally the alternate form *yīs*^{e/} also makes its gerund in the *b*^o Class: *yīsib*^o, probably the only noun in the *b*^o Class which does not have a 2-mora stem.

11.3.7 *m^m* Class

Countable nouns in *m^m* Class form plurals with *-a⁺* or *-s^e*, or use *nàm^a* 11.4. Straightforward forms include:

<i>dāam^m/</i>	<i>dā-</i>	"millet beer, pito"
<i>zīum^m/</i>	<i>zī-</i>	"blood"
<i>kù[?]əm^m</i>	<i>kɥ[?]à-</i>	"water"
<i>mèlɨɨm^m</i>		"dew"
<i>kōdum^m</i>		"olden days"
<i>dū[?]uním^m</i>	<i>dū[?]un-</i>	"urine"
<i>zàam^m</i>	<i>zà-</i>	"evening"
<i>dàalum^m</i>		"masculinity"
<i>pò[?]alum^m</i>		"femininity"
<i>biilum^m</i>		"childhood"
<i>yàarum^m</i>	<i>yàar-</i>	"salt"
<i>zāańsím^m</i>	<i>zāańs-</i>	"soup"

There is apparently consonant assimilation in the case of a few words with short stem vowels; all use the segmental form of the sg for the cb.

<i>vōm^m/</i>	<i>vōm-</i>	"life"
<i>kōm^m</i>	<i>kòm-</i>	"death"
<i>zōm^m/</i>	<i>zōm-</i>	"flour"
<i>yām^m/</i>	<i>yām-</i>	"gall; gall bladder"

m^m Class stems in *-m-* can be securely identified when the cb ends in *m* after at least two stem morae, or when there is a plural form with another class suffix, or when there is a Pattern L four-mora stem toneme allocation 8.2.3.

<i>bùgúm^m</i>		<i>bùgúm-</i> or <i>bùgūm-</i>	"fire"
<i>pūum^m/</i>		<i>pūum-</i>	"flowers, flora"
<i>biilím^m</i>			"childhood"
<i>bì[?]isím^m</i>			"milk"
<i>dàalím^m</i>	<i>dàalímìs^e</i>	<i>dàalím-</i>	"male sex organs"
<i>pò[?]alím^m</i>	<i>pò[?]alímìs^e</i>	<i>pò[?]alím-</i>	"female sex organs"
<i>pīim^m/</i>	<i>pīmá⁺</i>	<i>pīim-</i>	"arrow" 7.1.1.2

Pīim^m/ "arrow" probably represents a remnant of an old ^{o/e} Class, preserved in e.g. the Gurma languages and Nawdm: cf Nawdm *fí:mú* "arrow", plural *fí:mí*.

11.4 *nàm*^a Plurals

There is an alternative way of making plural nouns, with the word *nàm*^a, used to pluralise any word which does not make a plural through the class system.

The word is not a suffix. It is construed as the NP head with the preceding noun as a pre-modifier; the modifier appears as cb if it is a count noun and as a formal sg/pl if it is a mass noun [21.2.1] [21.7]. Plurals with *nàm*^a are made for:

(a) a few human-reference nouns which have a sg consisting of a bare stem alone:

<i>mà</i> ⁺	<i>mà nám</i> ^a	<i>mà-</i>	"mother"
	(tone <i>sic</i> , behaving as uncompounded)		
<i>bā</i> [?] ⁺	<i>bā-nám</i> ^a	<i>bā-</i>	"father"
<i>zụ</i> ⁺	<i>zụ-nàm</i> ^a	<i>zụ-</i>	"friend"

(b) Nouns which use the suffix *-b*^a as singular, and those where the usual plural stem differs from the sg or where the regular plural would be ambiguous [11.3.1].

(c) loanwords, unless they have been fitted into the Class system by analogy

<i>tìp</i> ^a	<i>tìp-nàm</i> ^a	<i>tìp-</i>	"healer"
<i>bùrkìn</i> ^a	<i>bùrkìn-nàm</i> ^a	<i>bùrkìn-</i>	"honourable person"

(d) several pronouns

<i>ànó</i> [?] ^ò <i>n</i>	"who" asking for a plural answer "what people?"
<i>nē</i> [?]	non-human gender pronoun "this" in the New Testament ; but my informants use "human" pl <i>bàn</i> rather than <i>nē-nám</i> .

<i>dāan</i> ^a	<i>dāan-nàm</i> ^a	<i>dāan-</i>	"owner of ..." [21.9.3]
<i>tīrààn</i> ^a	<i>tīrààn-nàm</i> ^a	<i>tīrààn-</i>	"neighbour, peer"

(e) quantifiers used as Noun Phrase heads, e.g.

<i>pīiga nám</i> ^a	"tens"
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Àyí námá_ àyí á nē nāasí.
NUM:two PL NUM:two COP FOC four.
 "Two two's are four."

(f) plural forms with singular meaning:

<i>dà-pūvdá nám^a</i>	"crosses"
<i>kūt nám^a</i>	"nails"; sg also "iron"
<i>bē[?]ed nám^a</i>	"evils"

(g) mass nouns used with count meanings:

<i>bùgúm nám^a</i>	"fires, lights"
<i>sā[?]ab nám^a</i>	"portions of millet porridge"
<i>dāam nám^a</i>	"beers"

(h) forms with the Personifier particle *À-* 21.10:

À-zī[?] _ ∅ kípí nám kpîd né kà tēñbìd.

PERS-NEG.KNOW SER die:PFV PL die:IPFV FOC and tremble:IPFV

"Those who don't know death, are dying with a struggle." (Proverb)

(i.e. "It's a storm in a teacup.")

11.5 Plurals used as Singulars

A number of words referring to uncountables or abstracts are plural in form:

<i>bāñ[?]as^e</i>	<i>bāñ[?]-</i>	"disease"
<i>ñyō[?]ɔs^{e/}</i>	<i>ñyō[?]-</i>	"smoke"
<i>tàdımís^e</i>		"weakness"
<i>zōlımís^e</i>		"foolishness"
<i>mēt^{e/}</i>	<i>mēt-</i> 11.2.2	"pus"
<i>kūt^e</i>	<i>kūt-</i> 11.2.2	"iron"
<i>zùød^e</i>		"friendship"
<i>sīiñd^{e/}</i>		"honey"
<i>nīn-púùd^e</i>		"pus"
<i>wāad^{e/}</i>		"cold weather"
<i>sūñ-péèn^{ne}</i>		"anger"
<i>kų[?]à-nūud^{e/}</i>		"thirst"
<i>sālma⁺</i>	<i>sàlɪm-</i>	"gold"
<i>sīda⁺</i>	<i>sìd-</i>	"truth"

Kūt^e is used not only as "iron" but also for "nail"; the original singular *kūdvog^o* appears in the personal name *À-Kūdvog^o* [37.2].

So too with a number of irregularly formed abstract nouns from verbs:

<i>gēñmís^e</i>	"madness"	← <i>gēñm^{m/}</i>	"madden, go mad"
<i>bùdımís^e</i>	"confusion"	← <i>bùdım^m</i>	"confuse"
<i>tìtōmıs^e</i>	"sending"	← <i>tòm^m</i>	"send"

<i>zīd^{el/}</i>	"carrying on head"	← <i>zī⁺</i>	"carry on head"
<i>vūud^{el/}</i>	"noise"	← <i>vū⁺</i>	"make a noise"
<i>kēñ^{ne/}</i>	"arrival"	← <i>kēñ⁺</i>	"come"
<i>p̣ḷàñ^{ad^e}</i>	"word, speech"	← <i>p̣ḷāñ^a</i>	"speak" (irr tones)

[sg *p̣ḷàñk^o* exists, but the pl is generally used for "speech"]

<i>tēñ^{esá⁺}</i>	"thought"	cf <i>tēñ^{esá} yīnní</i>	"one thought" (Acts 4:32)
<i>dì^{əma⁺}</i>	"festival"	← <i>dì^{əm^m}</i>	"play, not be serious"
<i>tōuma⁺</i>	"work"	← <i>tòm^m</i>	"work"
[sg <i>tōum^{me}</i>	"deed"]		

For *nà^{asi⁺}* "honour", *kābirí⁺*, "permission to enter" and *sūgurú⁺* "forbearance" see [11.6].

A single object may be referred to by the name of its parts:

	<i>dà-pōvdá⁺</i>	"cross"
pl	<i>dà-pōvdá nàm^a</i>	
cf	<i>dà-pōvdír^e</i>	"cross-piece"

A Kusaal plural may just happen to correspond to an English mass noun:

	<i>lāyuk^o</i>	"piece of goods"
pl	<i>lā^{ad^e}</i>	"goods"

A piece of West African history underlies

	<i>līgıdı⁺</i>	"money"
sg	<i>lā^{af^o}</i>	"cowrie"

See also on the ^a|^b^a Subclass with *-b^a* as a sg suffix [11.3.1.2].

11.6 Nouns with Apocope Blocking

A number of nouns ending in $-t^+$ or $-v^+$ seem to display Apocope Blocking [7.4](#):

<i>būudi</i> ⁺	<i>būud-</i>	"tribe"
<i>pīini</i> ⁺	<i>pīin-</i>	"gift"

along with the (apparently) deverbal abstract nouns:

<i>nàʔasi</i> ⁺	"honour"	←	<i>nàʔas</i> ^e	"honour"
<i>kābirí</i> ⁺	"entry permission"	←	<i>kābir</i> ^{e/}	"ask to enter"
<i>sūgurú</i> ⁺	"forbearance"	←	<i>sūgur</i> ^{e/}	"show forbearance"

This final $-t^+$ is unlikely to represent the $f^0|t^+$ Class plural: no singular $f^0|t^+$ Class word has an abstract meaning. Cognates of *būudi*⁺ in related languages suggest that the *di* component represents the equivalent of the $g^0|d^e$ Class plural: Farefare (Niggli's dictionary):

<i>búurí</i>	"race, sort, espèce, clan"
<i>bu-zãŋka</i>	"race étrangère"

Mooré (Zongo):

	<i>buudu</i>	"famille"
sg	<i>buugu</i>	"modèle"
pl	<i>buudu</i>	

Balima et al have one word *buudu* with both meanings. *Nàʔasi*⁺ may similarly represent a $g^a|s^e$ Class pl with Apocope Blocking.

Other words in final $-t^+$ or $-v^+$ are probably loanwords from related languages where citation forms do not undergo Apocope, e.g. WK's *kīibú*⁺ "soap" [20.1](#). Both *kābirí*⁺ and *sūgurú*⁺ are also unusual in having an apparent *-r-* derivational suffix, which is probably to be accounted for by their being loans [15.2.1.4](#).

11.7 Loanwords

Some loans have been fitted into the noun class system by analogy (see on predictability of class membership [11.1](#)) e.g.

<i>àrazàk^a</i>	<i>àrazà^aas^e</i>	<i>àrazà^a-</i>	"riches" Hausa <i>ʔarzikii</i>
<i>màljāk^a</i>	<i>màljā^aas^e</i>	<i>màljā^a-</i>	"angel" DK Arabic 20.1

The last word is consistently written *malek* in NT, with a *nàm^a* plural, but my informants have *màljāk^a* with the usual reflex of the *ja/e* vowel before *k* [5.1.1](#)

<i>gādvu^o</i>	<i>gāt^e</i>	<i>gād-</i>	"bed" DK Hausa <i>gadoo</i>
<i>lòmbò^oɔg^o</i>	<i>lòmbò^oɔd^e</i>	<i>lòmbò^o-</i>	"garden" Hausa <i>làmbuu</i>
<i>lór^e</i>	<i>láyà⁺</i> tones sic or <i>lóm^{ma}</i>	<i>lór-</i>	"car, lorry" cf <i>Mōr^e</i> "Muslim" 11.3.1.1
<i>àlòpìr^e</i>	<i>àlòpìya⁺</i>		"aeroplane" SB
<i>wādir^e</i>	<i>wādá⁺</i>	<i>wād-</i>	pl "customs, law"

(from English *order* via Hausa, with analogical sg cb)

Otherwise, they make *nàm^a* plurals [11.4](#):

<i>gādvu⁺</i>	<i>gādvu-nám^a</i>	<i>gādvu-</i>	"bed" WK
<i>kèèkè⁺</i>	<i>kèèkè-nàm^a</i>	<i>kèèkè-</i>	"bicycle" Hausa <i>kèkè</i>
<i>dāká⁺</i>	<i>dāká-nàm^a</i>	<i>dāká-</i>	"box" Hausa <i>ʔàdakà</i>
<i>téèbùl^e</i>	<i>téèbùl-nàm^a</i>	<i>téèbùl-</i>	"table"

Loanwords ending in a L or H toneme distinguish sg from cb by the fact that L Raising only follows the sg, conforming to the usual rule [10.1](#):

<i>du[?]átà ná[?]àb</i>	"a doctor's chief"
<i>du[?]átà-nà[?]ab</i>	"a doctor-chief, doctor who is a chief"

Some all-M loanwords change final M to H in the cb on the analogy of Kusaal nouns with M toneme nominal prefixes [8.2.5](#):

dūniya⁺
dūniyá-kàṅā

"world" (Arabic دنيا *dunya*:)
 "this world"

Note the word

Nàsāara⁺

Nàsàar-nàm^a
 or *Nàsàa-nàm*^a

Nàsàar-
Nàsàa-

"white person,
 European"

which is ultimately from the Arabic نصارى *Nasʿa:ra*: "Christians"; cf Hausa *Nàsaara*.
 There is a corresponding language name, formed by analogy:

Nàsāal^e

"English/
 French language"

12 Adjective Flexion

12.1 Primary

Kusaal adjectives differ from nouns in having a marked tendency to occur with suffixes from more than one noun class. This reflects the prehistory of the language, in which the noun classes triggered agreement and adjectives took the suffix of the head noun, which preceded as a combining form (effectively, the adjective stem was infixed between the noun stem and its suffix.) Kusaal, like most of its close relations, has lost the agreement system, but adjectives commonly remain extant with suffixes from more than one class, now usually in free variation:

From *būvg*^a "goat"

<i>bù-pìəlg</i> ^a	<i>bù-pìəls</i> ^e	<i>bù-pìəl-</i> (<i>g</i> ^a <i>s</i> ^e)	"white goat"
<i>bù-pìəl'</i> ^e	<i>bù-pìəla</i> ⁺	<i>bù-pìəl-</i> (<i>r</i> ^e <i>a</i> ⁺)	id

WK claims a meaning difference in intensity in gradable adjectives with suffixes of different classes, consistently ranking the singular suffixes *g*^a *r*^e *g*^o in decreasing order, so that for example *fū-pìəlg* "white shirt" is whiter than *fū-pìəl* id. However, DK specifically denied any difference of meaning.

A few traces of the agreement system remain [21.8.1.1]. Some speakers still require the *m*^m suffix for agreement with mass or abstract nouns. This is probably driven by the strong association of the *m*^m Class with meaning; there is similarly a notable preference for plural *s*^e over *a*⁺ for human reference:

<i>nīn-sábilis</i> ^e	"Africans"
<i>nīn-sábilà</i> ⁺	accepted by informants but much less common
<i>Zyà-wiis</i> ^e	"Red Zoose Clan"
	though <i>wiug</i> ^o "red" is usually <i>r</i> ^e <i>a</i> ⁺ ~ <i>g</i> ^o <i>d</i> ^e type

The ^a|*b*^a and ^o|*t*⁺ suffixes are found only in set expressions and *b*^o never occurs. Most often, *r*^e|*a*⁺ Class suffixes occur along with either *g*^a|*s*^e or *g*^o|*d*^e but not both. Historically, this may reflect an intermediate stage in the collapse of the old agreement system where *g*^a|*s*^e and *g*^o|*d*^e had fallen together. Some Mampruli dialects show a four-class agreement system, human (= ^a|*b*^a), mass (= *m*^m) and two others.

There are constraints on the occurrence of particular suffixes with particular stem finals, explicable by the tendency to avoid forms which would give rise to unclear or ambiguous SFs; compare Noun Flexion [11.1]. Just as with nouns, plural *d*^e is not used with *m n* stems or with stems over two morae long; in addition, neither *s*-stems nor 2-mora *m n* stems use the plural suffix *s*^e, and deverbal adjective stems in *g k ŋ* do not use the sg suffixes *g*^a *g*^o [12.2].

Examples of adjectives with suffixes from more than one Noun Class:

<i>zìñʔa</i> ⁺	<i>zèñʔεs</i> ^e	<i>zèñʔ-</i>	"red"
<i>zèñʔog</i> ⁰	<i>zèñʔεd</i> ^e		
	<i>zèñda</i> ⁺		

<i>bīʔa</i> ⁺	<i>bīʔəs</i> ^e	<i>bjàʔ-</i>	"bad"
<i>bēʔog</i> ⁰	<i>bēʔεd</i> ^e	<i>bèʔ-</i>	
<i>bēʔεd</i> ^e is often used as sg, with a <i>nàm</i> ^a plural			

Other primary adjectives use either *g^a|s^e* or *g⁰|d^e* suffixes but not both:

<i>wàbɪg</i> ^a	<i>wàbɪs</i> ^e	<i>wàb-</i>	"lame"
<i>wàbɪr</i> ^e	<i>wàba</i> ⁺		
<i>vèñllɪg</i> ^a	<i>vèñllɪs</i> ^e		"beautiful"
	<i>vèñlla</i> ⁺		
<i>vènnɪg</i> ^a	<i>vènnɪs</i> ^e	<i>vèn-</i>	"beautiful"
<i>vènnur</i> ^e rare	<i>vèнна</i> ⁺		

and similarly *wēnnur*^e "resembling."

<i>sābɪlɪg</i> ^a	<i>sābɪlɪs</i> ^e	<i>sābɪl-</i>	"black"
<i>sābɪl</i> ^{le}	<i>sābɪlá</i> ⁺		

and similarly *pāalɪg*^a "new" *záal*^{le} "empty" *bàaňlɪg*^a "slim" *pìəlɪg*^a "white"

<i>tītāʔug</i> ⁰ rare	<i>tītāda</i> ⁺	<i>tītáʔ-</i>	"big"
<i>tītāʔar</i> ^e			
<i>nèog</i> ⁰	<i>nèεd</i> ^e	<i>nè-</i>	"empty"
<i>nèεr</i> ^e	<i>nèya</i> ⁺		
<i>wìug</i> ⁰	<i>wìid</i> ^e	<i>wì-</i>	"red"
<i>wìir</i> ^e	<i>wìya</i> ⁺		
<i>wōk</i> ^{0/}	<i>wāʔad</i> ^{e/}	<i>wāʔ-</i> or <i>wōk-</i>	"long, tall"
<i>wāʔar</i> ^{e/} rare	<i>wāʔá</i> ⁺		

<i>bèdvg</i> ⁰		<i>bèd-</i>	"great"
<i>bèdir</i> ^e rare	<i>bèda</i> ⁺		

<i>kōdvg</i> ⁰	<i>kūt</i> ^e rare	<i>kòd-</i>	"old"
<i>kōdir</i> ^e	<i>kōda</i> ⁺		

S-stems do not use pl *s*^e:

<i>bōgvsíg</i> ^a		<i>bōgvs-</i>	"soft"
<i>bōgvsír</i> ^e	<i>bōgvsá</i> ⁺		

Similarly *māʔasír*^e "cold, wet" *mālsír*^e "sweet" *tēbísír*^e "heavy" *lābísír*^e "wide", and also

<i>ρòdvg</i> ^a		<i>ρòd-</i>	"few, small"
<i>ρòdir</i> ^e	<i>ρòda</i> ⁺		

Stems in *m n* do not use sg *r*^e, except for

<i>sùη</i> ⁰		<i>sùη-</i>	"good"
<i>sùm</i> ^{me}	<i>sùma</i> ⁺		

As usual with adjectives, the singular may show either *g*^a or *g*⁰ but not both.

<i>gīη</i> ^a	<i>gīma</i> ⁺	<i>gīη-</i>	"short"
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<i>dēηη</i> ^a	<i>dēēñs</i> ^e		"first"
	<i>dēēmɪs</i> ^e	<i>dēηη-</i>	
	<i>dēēna</i> ⁺		

As with nouns, stems in *m n*, and all 3-mora stems, use pl *-a*⁺ instead of *-d*^e. A number of adjectives with such stems can be regarded as simply belonging to the single *g*⁰|*a*⁺ Subclass (compare [11.3.3.1](#)):

<i>dà-zēm̄múg</i> ⁰	<i>dà-zēm̄má</i> ⁺	<i>dà-zēm-</i>	"equal piece of wood"
<i>tōvlúg</i> ⁰	<i>tōvlá</i> ⁺	<i>tōvl-</i>	"hot"
<i>lāllúg</i> ⁰	<i>lāllá</i> ⁺	<i>lāl-</i>	"distant"
<i>mìʔisvg</i> ⁰	<i>mìʔisa</i> ⁺	<i>mìʔis-</i>	"sour"
<i>wàvηg</i> ⁰	<i>wàna</i> ⁺	<i>wàvη-</i>	"wasted, thin"
<i>kπīʔoηg</i> ⁰	<i>kπīʔəma</i> ⁺	<i>kπīʔoη-</i>	"hard, strong"
<i>zùlvηg</i> ⁰	<i>zùlvma</i> ⁺	<i>zùlvη-</i>	"deep"

and so also *yàlɔŋ*^o "wide" *ňyālúŋ*^o "wonderful" *yēl-nárùŋ*^o "necessary thing", along with the probably originally 3-mora stems (via **rr* → *r*, **ss* → *s* [7.2.1]):

<i>yī-póŋrùg</i> ^o	<i>yī-póŋrà</i> ⁺		"nearby house"
<i>kísùg</i> ^o	<i>kīsá</i> ⁺	<i>kīs-</i>	"hateful, taboo"

Other single-class adjectives are:

<i>puāk</i> ^a	<i>pū[?]as</i> ^e	<i>pu[?]à-</i>	"female" (human)
<i>ňyá[?]aŋ</i> ^a	<i>ňyá[?]as</i> ^e	<i>ňyā[?]aŋ-</i>	"female" (animal)
	or <i>ňyā[?]amís</i> ^e		
<i>ňyèèsíŋ</i> ^a	<i>ňyèènsís</i> ^e	<i>ňyèèsíŋ-</i>	"self-confident"
<i>vūr</i> ^{e/}	<i>vūyá</i> ⁺	<i>vūr-</i>	"alive"
<i>dāvug</i> ^o	<i>dāad</i> ^e	<i>dà-</i>	"male"
<i>tōɔg</i> ^o	<i>tōɔd</i> ^e	<i>tò-</i>	"bitter"

and other derivatives in *-m-*: *vèŋllíŋ*^a "beautiful" *mālisíŋ*^a "pleasant" *lāllíŋ*^a "distant."

Extremely **irregular** is

<i>bīl</i> ^a	<i>bībīs</i> ^e	<i>bīl-</i> or <i>bì-</i>	"little"
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The sg flexion *-la* is found more widely in other Western Oti-Volta languages, where it seems often to have a diminutive sense: thus Farefare (Niggli) *nílálá* "chick", *pìlilà* "lamb", *bùdíblá* "boy", *púglá* "girl", *kíílá* "young guinea fowl"; Mooré *biribla* "boy", *bipugla* "girl." The plural stem *bib-* is presumably reduplicated.

12.2 Deverbal

Imperfective Deverbal Adjectives are derived with *d*, the same formant as found in agent nouns (though the stems occasionally differ.) However the *d* in these forms may be assimilated or dropped by morphophonemic rule [15.1.1.2.1], so that not all Imperfective Deverbal Adjectives are current *d*-stems.

Imperfective Deverbal Adjectives take *r^e|a⁺* Class sg and pl. In addition, they may take another sg suffix; this is *g^a* for WK, but *g^o* for KT:

<i>kōvdír</i> ^e	<i>kōvdá</i> ⁺	<i>kōvd-</i>	"murderous;
<i>kōvdíg</i> ^a WK			liable to be killed"
<i>kōvdúg</i> ^o KT			

<i>tōmmur^e</i>	<i>tōmma⁺</i> WK <i>tōmna⁺</i> KT	<i>tòm-</i>	"working, helpful"
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Invariable verbs:

<i>sīnnír^e</i> rare	<i>sīnná⁺</i>	<i>sīn-</i>	"silent"
<i>sīnníg^a</i>			
<i>dēl^{le/}</i>	<i>dēllá⁺</i>	<i>dēl-</i>	"leaning"
<i>mōr^{e/}</i>	<i>mōrá⁺</i>	<i>mōr-</i>	"having"

Stems in *g k ŋ* do not use the sg suffixes *g^a g^o*:

<i>bōn-túlgír^e</i>	<i>bōn-túlgá⁺</i>		"heating thing"
<i>ñwī-tékír^e</i>	<i>ñwī-téká⁺</i>	<i>ñwī-ték-</i>	"pulling-rope"
<i>bōn-súgír^e</i>	<i>bōn-súgá⁺</i>		"helpful thing"
<i>bì-nòŋír^e</i>	<i>bì-nòŋá⁺</i>		"beloved child"

Adjectives derived from 4-mora stem verbs in *-m* in KT's speech take *g^a* or *g^o* sg and *-a⁺* pl; they may drop the *-m-* in the plural:

<i>nīn-pú'alìŋ^a</i>	<i>nīn-pú'alìma⁺</i>	"harmful person"
<i>nīn-záaňsùŋ^o</i>	<i>nīn-záaňsà⁺</i>	"dreamy person"

Perfective Deverbal Adjectives are derived with **-lɪm-* and have a Result Perfective meaning. They inflect regularly as *g^o|a⁺* Subclass *m*-stems. KT (not WK) also has forms without *-m-* in both sg and pl:

<i>kpiilúŋ^o</i>	<i>kpiilímá⁺</i>	<i>kpiilúŋ-</i>	"dead"	WK
<i>nīn-kpíilùg^o</i>	<i>nīn-kpíilìma⁺</i>		"dead person"	KT
<i>gēēňlúŋ^o</i>	<i>gēēňlímá⁺</i>	<i>gēēňlúŋ-</i>	"tired"	WK
<i>nīn-gēēňlùg^o</i>	<i>nīn-gēēňlìma⁺</i>		"tired person"	KT
<i>pè[?]elúŋ^o</i>	<i>pè[?]elímá⁺</i>	<i>pè[?]elúŋ-</i>	"full"	WK KT
	<i>dūg-pè[?]elà⁺</i>		"full pots"	KT

13 Verb Flexion

On the Modal Remoteness marker *n^e* see [24.4.2]; for the enclitic subject pronoun *y^a* see [24.7.3]. Both words have been taken as flexions in other accounts, and are written solid with the preceding verb despite being regarded here as clitics.

13.1 Variable Verbs

About 90% of verbs in my materials fall into the category of prototypical verbs having inflection for aspect: Variable Verbs. Almost all describe processes or events, but some Variable Verb imperfectives have become stative Verbs, effectively as separate lexical items [13.2.1].

Like the other Western Oti-Volta languages, Kusaal shows a striking simplification of inflection for aspect in the verb compared with more distantly related Gur languages. The bare stem is used for the perfective aspects, and the imperfective aspects are made with a flexional suffix *-d^a*; there is only a single "conjugation", and finite forms show very few irregularities. Variable Verbs also take a suffix *-m^a* to mark Imperative Mood when and only when the verb word itself has tone overlay due to Independency Marking [24.6.2.2].

The *d-* of the imperfective suffix is probably of the same origin as the derivational *-d* which forms Agent Nouns and Imperfective Deverbal Adjectives [15.1.1.1] [15.1.1.2.1]. Segmentally, the imperfective and the agent noun are identical in most verbs, and the simple aspect flexion of the Western Oti-Volta languages may have arisen by adoption of an originally nominal derivative into the verb system. There is much less irregularity in the formation of verb imperfectives than in derivation, however, perhaps reflecting a good deal of levelling and analogy; there is much evidence of this as an ongoing process within Kusaal.

Examples cite perfective, imperfective and *-m^a* imperative in order. The *-m^a* imperative always shows tone overlay due to Independency Marking. [24.6.1.1].

13.1.1 Regular

Straightforward examples of verb inflexion:

<i>kō⁺</i>	<i>kōvd^a</i>	<i>kòvm^a</i>	"kill"
<i>kpèñ[?]+</i>	<i>kpèñ[?]ed^a</i>	<i>kpèñ[?]em^a</i>	"enter"
<i>kjà⁺</i>	<i>kìəd^a</i>	<i>kìəvm^a</i>	"cut"
<i>kyā⁺</i>	<i>kūəd^a</i>	<i>kūəvm^a</i>	"hoe"
<i>gòñ⁺</i>	<i>gòñd^a</i>	<i>gòñvm^a</i>	"hunt"
<i>dōg^e</i>	<i>dōgvd^a</i>	<i>dògvvm^a</i>	"cook"
<i>yùug^e</i>	<i>yùugd^a</i>	<i>yùugvm^a</i>	"delay, get late"
<i>yādıg^e</i>	<i>yādıgd^a</i>	<i>yàdıgvvm^a</i>	"scatter"

<i>piāñ^a</i>	<i>piāñ^aad^a/</i>	<i>piāñ^aam^a</i>	"speak; praise"
<i>du^aà^a</i>	<i>du^aad^a</i>	<i>du^aam^a</i>	"bear, beget"
<i>nōk^e/</i>	<i>nōkíd^a</i>	<i>nòkım^a</i>	"take"
<i>sjàk^e</i>	<i>sjàkíd^a</i>	<i>sjàkım^a</i>	"believe, agree"
<i>gāŋ^e/</i>	<i>gāŋíd^a</i>	<i>gàŋım^a</i>	"choose"
<i>kpè^aŋ^e</i>	<i>kpè^aŋíd^a</i>	<i>kpè^aŋım^a</i>	"strengthen"
<i>kpà^e</i>	<i>kpàrıd^a</i>	<i>kpàrım^a</i>	"lock"
<i>sūgvr^e/</i>	<i>sūgvríd^a</i>	<i>sùgvrım^a</i>	"forgive"
<i>bàs^e</i>	<i>bàsıd^a</i>	<i>bàsım^a</i>	"go/send away"
<i>sīgı^e/</i>	<i>sīgısíd^a</i>	<i>sìgısım^a</i>	"lower"
<i>nā^amı^e/</i>	<i>nā^amısíd^a</i>	<i>nà^amısım^a</i>	"(make) suffer"

Some root-stems in (C)V:- show a (C)V allomorph in both imperfective and imperative, with *-t-* for *-d-* and *-mm-* for *-m-*. See on root allomorphy [7.1.1.1](#).

<i>dì⁺</i>	<i>dít^a</i>	<i>dım^{ma}</i>	"eat"
<i>ñyē⁺</i>	<i>ñyēt^a/</i>	<i>ñyèm^{ma}</i>	"see"

and so also *lì⁺*, *lù⁺* "fall" *dū⁺* "go up" *yī⁺* "go/come out" *zò⁺* "run, fear."

Stems in *-d-* show *-t-* in the imperfective via **dd → tt*

<i>bùd^e</i>	<i>bùt^a</i>	<i>bùdım^a</i>	"plant"
<i>gàad^e</i>	<i>gàt^a</i> 7.3.3	<i>gàadım^a</i>	"pass, surpass"

Stems in *l* generate a cluster in the imperfective **ld → nn* [7.2.1](#):

<i>vōl^e</i>	<i>vōn^{na}/</i>	<i>vòlım^a</i>	"swallow"
<i>màal^e</i>	<i>màan^{na}</i>	<i>màalım^a</i>	"make; sacrifice"
<i>dīgı^e/</i>	<i>dīgín^{na}</i>	<i>dīgılım^a</i>	"lay down"

Only 2-mora stems assimilate **bm → mm*

<i>lèb^e</i>	<i>lèbıd^a</i>	<i>lèm^{ma}</i>	"return"
<i>sōb^e</i>	<i>sōbıd^a/</i>	<i>sòm^{ma}</i>	"write"
<i>lìəb^e</i>	<i>lìəbıd^a</i>	<i>lìəbım^a</i>	"become"
<i>ēēñb^e/</i>	<i>ēēñbıd^a</i>	<i>ēēñbım^a</i>	"lay a foundation"

Only 2-mora *n*-stems show **nd → nn*; only *kēŋ^e/* (below) shows **nm → mm*.

<i>bùn^e</i>	<i>bùn^{na}</i>	<i>bùnım^a</i>	"reap"
<i>mōn^e</i>	<i>mōn^{na}/</i>	<i>mònım^a</i>	"make porridge"

<i>gòʔɔn^e</i>	<i>gòʔɔnɪd^a</i>	<i>gòʔɔnɪm^a</i>	"extend neck"
<i>dìgɪn^e</i>	<i>dìgɪnɪd^a</i>	<i>dìgɪnɪm^a</i>	"lie down"

Like other assume-posture verbs, *sun^e* does not assimilate at all:

<i>sùn^e</i>	<i>sùnɪd^a</i>	<i>sùnɪm^a</i>	"bow head" 7.2.1.3.1
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4-mora *m*-stems always assimilate **md* → *mn*, *mm*

<i>siilum^m</i>	<i>siilum^{ma}</i>	<i>siilum^{ma}</i>	"quote proverbs"
<i>lāŋím^m</i>	<i>lāŋím^{ma}</i>	<i>lāŋum^{ma}</i>	"wander searching"

3-mora stems assimilate optionally 7.2.1.3.1:

<i>kàrum^m</i>	<i>kàrum^m</i> or <i>kàrumɪd^a</i>	<i>kàrum^{ma}</i>	"read"
<i>tɔɔm^{m/}</i>	<i>tɔɔm^{ma}</i> or <i>tɔɔmɪd^a</i>	<i>tɔɔm^{ma}</i>	"depart"

2-mora stems seem to fall into two groups:

<i>tùm^m</i>	<i>tùm^{ma}</i>	<i>tùm^{ma}</i>	"work"
<i>wùm^m</i>	<i>wùm^{ma}</i>	<i>wùm^{ma}</i>	"hear"
<i>kìm^m</i>	<i>kìm^{ma}</i>	<i>kìm^{ma}</i>	"tend flock/herd"
<i>dùm^m</i>	<i>dùm^{ma}</i>	<i>dùm^{ma}</i>	"bite"
<i>tàm^m</i>	<i>tàmɪd^a</i>	<i>tàm^{ma}</i>	"forget"
<i>zàm^m</i>	<i>zàmɪd^a</i>	<i>zàm^{ma}</i>	"cheat, betray"
<i>dàm^m</i>	<i>dàmɪd^a</i>	<i>dàm^{ma}</i>	"shake"
<i>lèm^m</i>	<i>lèmɪd^a</i>	<i>lèm^{ma}</i>	"sip, taste"

but the NT has an unassimilated imperfective to avoid ambiguity 7.2.1.3.1 in:

Lin wusa ka ya tumid, tumi li ...

Lìn wūsa ká yà tùmɪd, tùm̄mī_ø...

DEM.NH all and **2PL do:IPFV, do:IMP 2PLS ...**

"Everything you do, do it..." (Col 3:23)

13.1.1.1 Fusion Verbs

There are many 3-mora stems with deleted *g after *aa iə uə ãã ěě ǔǔ* 7.3.1; these will be called Fusion Verbs.

It is characteristic of these verbs that they show the stem with *g only in the perfective and gerund, with all other forms dropping the *g by *morphological* rule. The perfective forms before Liaison likewise drop the *g.

<i>fāeñ^{+/}</i>	<i>fāañd^{a/}</i>	<i>fàañm^a</i>	"save"
<i>dī^re^{+/}</i>	<i>dī^rəd^{a/}</i>	<i>dī^rəm^a</i>	"get, receive"
<i>dūe^{+/}</i>	<i>dūəd^{a/}</i>	<i>dūəm^a</i>	"rise, raise"
<i>pūñ^re^{+/}</i>	<i>pūñ^rəd^{a/}</i>	<i>pūñ^rəm^a</i>	"rot" WK

Gerunds: *fāañr^e dī^rər^e dú^rər^e pūñ^rər^e*.

WK's imperfective forms for "rot" show remodelling on the analogy of forms with oral vowels. In the absence of a following deleted *g the long nasalised vowel ǔǔ would be expected to appear unaltered: *pǔñ^rǔd^{a/}* 7.3.1.

Forms before Liaison Words 9.3.1:

<i>pāe^{+/}</i> "reach"	+ <i>ti⁺</i> "us"	→	<i>pāá tī^{+/}</i>
	+ <i>f^o</i> "you"	→	<i>pāá f^o</i>
	+ <i>o</i> "him/her"	→	<i>pā·ó⁺</i>
	+ <i>ya</i> "ye"	→	<i>pāe^{ya/}</i>
<i>pīe^{+/}</i> "wash"	+ <i>ti⁺</i> "us"	→	<i>pīé tī^{+/}</i>
	+ <i>f^o</i> "you"	→	<i>pīé f^o</i>
	+ <i>o</i> "him/her"	→	<i>pī·ó⁺</i>
	+ <i>ya</i> "ye"	→	<i>pīe^{ya/}</i>
<i>dūe^{+/}</i> "raise"	+ <i>ti⁺</i> "us"	→	<i>dūé tī^{+/}</i>
	+ <i>f^o</i> "you"	→	<i>dūé f^o</i>
	+ <i>o</i> "him/her"	→	<i>dū·ó⁺</i>
	+ <i>ya</i> "ye"	→	<i>dūe^{ya/}</i>

13.1.1.2 Assume-Posture Verbs

A regular series of Variable Verbs are derived with the suffix *-n-* from Postural Verb roots [15.2.1.1], with the meaning "assume the posture described by the postural root."

For WK these verbs have forms which drop the formant *-n-* in the imperfective, along with any associated Tone Pattern shift to Pattern O (for the dropping of a tonal effect when a correlated segment is deleted, compare the behaviour of agent nouns from stems in *-s-* [8.6.1].)

dìgin^e *dìginɪd^a* *dìginɪm^a* "lie down"
or *dīgɪd^{a/}*

The resulting imperfectives are used to express negative Unbounded Imperfective aspect:

<i>Ò dìgi nĒ.</i>	"She's lying down."
<i>Ò p̄ dīgɪd́á.</i>	"She doesn't lie down"
<i>Ò zǐŋʔi nĒ.</i>	"She's sitting down."
<i>Ò p̄ zǐŋʔid̄ā.</i>	"She doesn't sit down"
<i>Lì zǐʔə nĒ.</i>	"It's standing up."
<i>Lì p̄ zǐʔid̄ā.</i>	"It (a defective tripod) doesn't stand up."
<i>Lì tǐʔi nĒ.</i>	"It's leaning against something."
<i>Lì tǐʔid.</i>	"It can be leant against something."
<i>Lì p̄ tǐʔiyá.</i>	"It's not leaning against something."
<i>Lì p̄ tǐʔid́á.</i>	"It's not for leaning against something."

Similarly with e.g.

vābi^{ya/} *vābɪd^{a/}* "be lying prone"

KT uses the regular forms with the *-n-* retained:

Ò p̄ zǐŋʔinìd̄ā. "She doesn't sit down."

13.1.2 Irregular

Most irregularities involve the stem showing a derivational suffix in the perfective which is dropped in the imperfective. A preceding derivational suffix is often dropped before derivational *d*, so this may represent an older pattern which has been levelled out elsewhere. In some cases two distinct verbs may be involved, each associated by its precise meaning with particular aspects.

Kusaal has few irregular verbs; I list all that I have encountered below.

<i>gōs^e</i>	<i>gōsɪd^{a/}</i> or <i>gōt^{a/}</i>	<i>gòsɪm^a</i> <i>gòm^{ma}</i>	"look"
<i>tìs^e</i>	<i>tìsɪd^a</i> or <i>tìt^a</i>	<i>tìsɪm^a</i>	"give"

Before Liaison Word objects the perfective may also be *tì-*, e.g. *tì f* "give you."

<i>yèl^e</i>	<i>yèt^a</i>	<i>yèlɪm^a</i>	"say"
<i>wìk^e</i>	<i>wìid^a</i>	<i>wìkɪm^a</i>	"fetch water"
(see 7.1.1.3 on the root allomorphy)			
<i>ǰāñk^{e/}</i>	<i>ǰāñʔad^{a/}</i>	<i>ǰàñkɪm^a</i>	"leap, fly"
<i>gīlɪg^{e/}</i>	<i>gīn^{na/}</i>	<i>gìlɪgɪm^a</i>	"go around"
<i>kēŋ^{e/}</i>	<i>kēn^{na/}</i>	<i>kēm^{ma}</i>	"go"

The verb

<i>dèlɪm^m</i>	[<i>dēl^{a/}</i>]	<i>dèlɪm^{ma}</i>
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is used as inchoative to *dēl^{a/}* "be leaning (of a person);" compare *gùl^e* ipfv *gùn^{na}* "suspend" beside the Postural Verb *gùl^a* "be hanging."

Only two Variable Verbs are irregular in the actual flexional suffixes taken:

<i>kē⁺</i>	<i>kēt^{a/}</i>	<i>kèl^a</i>	"let, allow"
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has *-l^a* not *-m^a*, for the Imperative form with Independency Marking.

<i>kēñ⁺</i>	<i>kēn^{a/}</i>	<i>kēm^a</i>	"come"
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has ipfv *-n^a* for *-d^a*; this verb is also remarkable in always being immediately followed by *nā* "hither" 25.7 which disambiguates the forms which are homophonous with those of *kēŋ^{e/}* "go" above:

Kèm nā!

"Come!"

Kèm sá!

"Go!"

The verb

*nòŋ^e**nòŋɪm^a*

"love"

is morphologically regular, but is remarkable in using its perfective form with a stative meaning [13.2.1](#).

M̃ nójī f.

"I love you."

(Family, spiritual.)

M̃ bójōdī f.

"I love you."

(Romantic, sexual.)

In WK's speech, the verb also aligns with imperfective forms in not being followed by the particle *yā*⁺ when it is phrase-final and has undergone tone overlay due to Independency Marking [24.6.2.1](#).

M̃ nój.

"I like it." WK

(e.g. In reply to a question)

WK specifically stated that **M̃ nój yā* was an impossible form.

The agent noun *nòŋɪd^a* is tonally aberrant, with Pattern L instead of O.

Ò nòŋɪd kā^ʔe.

"Nobody loves him." WK

("His lover does not exist.")

13.2 Invariable Verbs

About 10% of the verbs in my materials have only a single, imperfective, finite form. These Invariable Verbs are not a single coherent group in their semantics, syntax or derivational relationships, but can almost all be construed as basically **Stative**. I have not, however, adopted this as a label for the morphological group, as dynamic uses of Invariable Verbs and stative forms of Variable Verbs both occur. The major division among Invariable verbs is between **Agentive** and **Adjectival** verbs. Nearly all Variable Verbs are also agentive; like them, agentive Invariable Verbs can be used in direct commands (though without the distinctive *-m^a* flexion) and can form deverbal Agent Nouns [15.1.1.1]. Whereas English verbs are classified as "dynamic" or "stative" largely on the basis of whether they are used with the progressive aspect, the Kusaal aspect most nearly equivalent to the progressive, the Bounded Imperfective, is in principle freely permitted with *agentive* Invariable Verbs, although its use is limited by pragmatic considerations with some. "Agentive", in this description, is therefore not an antonym of "stative"; compare English verbs like "love", which are stative by the criterion of not normally appearing in the Progressive, but can nevertheless be used in commands and can form "agent" nouns with *-er*. Agency in itself may produce an implicature that the state described is potentially unstable over time, and it is this which is critical in determining the usage of the imperfective aspects in Kusaal [24.2.2.2].

Four Invariable Verbs consist of bare roots with no suffix:

<i>mī̄⁺</i>	"know"
<i>zī̄⁺</i>	"not know"
<i>bè⁺</i>	"be somewhere/exist"
<i>kā̄⁺e⁺</i> (← * <i>kagɪ</i>)	"not be"

These bare (C)V: forms resemble perfectives of Variable Verbs, but are nevertheless formally *imperfective*; this is apparent in the absence of the particle *yā⁺* when such forms appear clause-finally with tone overlay due to Independency Marking [24.6.2.1] and in the fact that the Tone Pattern O word *bè⁺* "be somewhere, exist" is followed by L Raising even when it is *not* subject to tone overlay [10.1]. Compare also the irregular Variable Verb perfective *nòŋ^e* "love", which behaves in all respects as a stative verb form [13.1.2].

Other Invariable Verbs can all be regarded synchronically as formed with a suffix **-ya*, at least for my informant WK; historically, Adjectival Verbs were probably formed with **-a* added to the stem rather than **-ya*, and there is a distinctive subgroup of **Postural Verbs** among the Agentives which more closely resemble Variable Verbs in their derivational relationships.

If the SF ends in vowel, *-ya* is added to form the LF; stem-final root vowels have become fronting diphthongs before the *-y-* 7.3.2 with shortening of unglottalised vowels 7.3.3:

<i>sū[?]e^{ya/}</i>	"own"	cf <i>sū[?]ulím^m</i>	"possession"
<i>t̄ē^{ya/}</i>	"be bitter"	cf <i>t̄ōg^o</i>	"bitter"

Invariable Verbs thus constitute the only systematic exception to the rule that words which end in vowels in the SF have LFs which can be found by prolonging the final vowel or diphthong 3.2.2.

If the SF ends in *l m n r s*, *-a* is added to form the LF, with gemination of *l m n*; tonal evidence shows that *r* in Invariable Verbs was also geminated, though subsequently reduced to single *r* by the general rule 7.2.1.1.

<i>d̄l^{la/}</i>	"be with someone in a subordinate rôle"
<i>gīm^{ma/}</i>	"be short"
<i>nēn^{na/}</i>	"envy"
<i>m̄r^{a/}</i>	"have" cf gerund <i>m̄rím^m</i> showing * <i>rr</i>
<i>kīs^{a/}</i>	"hate"

After stem-final *g b*, an epenthetic vowel is inserted before *-ya*:

<i>d̄ig^{ya/}</i>	"be lying down"
<i>vābi^{ya/}</i>	"be lying prone"

No case occurs of stem-final *d*; there has probably been a historical change **Vdya* → *V[?]Vya*, cf

<i>ḡ[?]e^{ya/}</i>	WK	"have neck extended"
<i>ḡdīg^{el}</i>		"extend neck"

13.2.1 Agentive

Many Agentive Invariable Verbs are bodily **Postural Verbs**:

<i>īg^{ya/}</i>	"be kneeling down"
<i>d̄īg^{ya/}</i>	"be lying down"
<i>vābi^{ya/}</i>	"be lying prone"
<i>làbi^{ya}</i>	"crouch hidden behind something"
<i>t̄àbi^{ya}</i>	"be stuck to something"
<i>zì[?]e^{ya}</i>	"be standing still"

<i>zìñʔiʎa</i>			"be sitting down"
<i>tīʔiʎa/</i>			"be leaning" (of an object; hence, strictly, not "agentive")
<i>sùr^a</i>			"have head bowed"
<i>dēl^{la}/</i>			"be leaning" (of a person)
<i>gùl^{la}</i>			"be hanging"
<i>gōʔe^{ya}/</i>	WK	← *gɔdya	"have neck extended" (*Vdya → VʔVya)
<i>gōr^a/</i>	DK	← *gɔrya	
<i>gōl^{la}/</i>	KT	← *gɔlyā	

These Postural Verbs form an evident unity. They describe states which are temporary by default. They do not take an object, but often have a locative complement. Besides having derived Agent Nouns [15.1.1.1] like other Agentive Invariable Verbs, they also form Deverbal Adjectives [15.1.1.2.1] and Instrument Nouns [15.1.1.3] like Variable Verbs, and have gerunds which are formed like those of Variable Verbs [14.1.1.2] and can be construed as expressing events, as in the immediate-future construction with *bòɔɔd^a* "want" + gerund [24.3.2]:

<i>dīk^a/</i>	gerund
<i>dīgɪd^a/</i>	agent noun
<i>bòŋ-dīgɪdír^e</i>	"donkey that lies down all the time"
<i>zīñʔidɪŋ^a</i>	"thing for sitting on"

The distinctiveness of the Postural Verbs from a derivational standpoint probably resulted from a distinct historical origin in a stative *flexional* form of certain Variable Verbs. The *-(y)a* of the Postural Verbs perhaps originated from **ɲa*; evidence for this they participate in a regular set of derivations producing Variable Verbs in *-n* meaning "assume the posture" [15.2.1.1], where *-n-* may be derived from a historical **ɲ* (cf the allomorphy of the Liaison Enclitic subject pronoun *ʎ^a*, which has the underlying form **ɲa* [9.3.1.2].) My informant WK shows an interesting pattern where such verbs drop the formant *-n-* in the imperfective, and he uses such imperfectives to express the negative Unbounded Imperfective aspect [13.1.1.2]:

<i>Ò zìñʔi nē.</i>	"She's sitting down." WK, KT
<i>Ò pō zīñʔidā.</i>	"She doesn't sit down" WK

Other speakers use the expected impfv with *-n-*:

<i>Ò pō zīñʔinidā.</i>	"She doesn't sit down." KT
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The commonest irregularity in Variable Verbs is for the ipfv to drop a derivational suffix before the flexion 13.1.2; it is likely that this is a survival of an older regular pattern. It is therefore likely that the ipfv forms with *-n-* are due to levelling, and that the older pattern of inflection for Postural Verbs showed three finite indicative forms

<i>dīg^{ya}/</i>	"lie"	Bounded ipfv
<i>dīg^a/</i>		Unbounded ipfv
<i>dīg^e</i>		pfv

Cross-linguistically, the stative sense of Postural Verbs is very often expressed by a Result Perfective; the finite forms of Postural Verbs may thus be survivals of a distinctive Result Perfective formed by adding *-a* directly to the verb stem.

The bound "companion gerund" forms from Postural Verbs used before *-tāa*⁼ "companion in ..." 15.1.1.5 show *-d-* or *-l-*;

<i>zīñ[?]ilím-tāa</i> ⁼	"fellow-sitter"
<i>zīñ[?]idím-tāa</i> ⁼	

The *-l-* is perhaps introduced by analogy from Agentive Invariable Verbs other than the Postural group; however, for *dīg^{ya}/* "be lying" WK has *-n-*:

<i>dīg^uím-tāa</i> ⁼	"fellow-lier"
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Besides the Postural Verbs, other Agentive Invariable Verbs which describe states which are *temporary* by default include

<i>wà[?]e^{ya}</i>	"be en route for"
<i>sīn^{na}/</i>	"be silent"
<i>dō^{la}/</i>	"be with someone in a subordinate rôle"
<i>zāñ^{la}/</i>	"have in one's hands"
<i>gūr^a/</i>	"be on guard"

Thus, for example:

<i>Ò sìn.</i>	"She's silent."
<i>Ò sìn nē.</i>	"She's keeping silent."
<i>Sìn!</i>	"Be quiet!"
<i>Ò zāñ^l nē kólùg.</i>	"He's holding a bag."
<i>Ò zāñ^l kólùg.</i>	"He holds a bag."

<i>Ò pō zāñllá.</i>	"He isn't holding/doesn't hold it."
<i>Dòllī m.</i>	"Follow me!"

Nearly all Agentive Invariable Verbs which describe *abiding* states by default are transitive; many express relationships of some kind:

<i>mōr^a/</i>	"have"
<i>tār^a/</i>	"have"
<i>sō[?]e^{ya}/</i>	"own"
<i>sōñ[?]e^{ya}/</i>	"be better than"
<i>mī[?]+ </i>	"know"
<i>zī[?]+ </i>	"not know"
<i>tèñ^ra</i>	"remember"
<i>nēn^{na}/</i>	"envy"
<i>kīs^a/</i>	"hate"

The verb *bòc^da* "want, like" is formally the imperfective of the Variable Verb *bò⁺* "seek", but is used as a stative:

<i>M bōc^dī f.</i>	"I love you." (Romantic/sexual)
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Similarly, *zò⁺* "run" is used in the imperfective with a transitive stative meaning "fear", and also as "experience emotion" with a direct object expressing the emotion and an indirect object expressing the cause of the emotion [25.1.3]. In addition, the formally perfective Variable Verb form *nò^ηe* "love" is used as a transitive stative [13.1.2]; like other stative forms it is *not* followed by the particle *yā⁺* when it is phrase-final and has undergone tone overlay due to Independency Marking [24.6.2.1].

<i>bè⁺</i>	"be somewhere/exist"
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is agentive in that it can be used in direct commands, but it does not have an Agent Noun; in the sense "exist" it is also remarkable as the only intransitive Invariable Verb which expresses an abiding state apart from the Adjectival Verbs.

The "be something/somewhat" verbs

<i>àēñ^{ya}</i>	"be something/somewhat" [7.2.2]
<i>kā[?]e⁺</i> (← * <i>kagi</i>)	"not be" (negative to both <i>àēñ^{ya}</i> and <i>bè⁺</i>)

though agentive, resemble Adjectival Verbs in aspectual behaviour [24.2.2.2] [26.2].

Agentive Invariable Verbs other than Postural Verbs do not have regular derived Variable Verbs which can be used to shed light on their structure. However,

they make m^m Class gerunds on a similar pattern to the stative gerunds of some Variable Verbs [15.1.1.4] and those with SFs ending in vowels consistently form such gerunds with $-l-$, parallel to the $-d-$ of Variable Verb formations:

$s\bar{u}^?e^{ya/}$	"own"	→	$s\bar{u}^?ulim^m$
$b\bar{w}d^a$	"like, want"	→	$b\bar{w}dum^m$

The parallel $y:l$ versus $d:d$ suggests that the variation between the finite form and the gerund in Agentive Invariable Verbs of this kind might not be due to the addition of a derivational suffix in the gerund but to allomorphy of the *same* original consonant. On the analogy of $*n$, a possible historical candidate might be palatal $*\lambda$, making the suffix of these Agentive Invariable Verbs $*-\lambda a$.

Proto-Oti-Volta uncontroversially had the palatals $*c *j *n$, which appear in Kusaal as $s z \tilde{n}y$ respectively. Evidence that there was also a palatal $*\lambda$ is provided by the Gurma correspondences of Western Oti-Volta $y-$, which may be either $y-$ or $l-$; thus with the Moba words

<i>yommg</i>	"slave"	Kusaal:	$y\grave{a}mmig^a$
<i>yaalim</i>	"salt"		$y\grave{a}arim^m$
<i>nlwob</i>	"six"		$ny\acute{u}\grave{e}b$
<i>nle</i>	"two"		$ny\acute{i}$
<i>lwot</i>	"open"		$y\grave{w}^?og^e$
<i>lwo</i>	"close"		$y\grave{w}^+$

Compare also the ancient loanword $y\bar{u}g\acute{u}m^{ne}$ "camel", ultimately from Berber $*a-l\grave{a}q\grave{a}m$ (Souag 2016); cf Koromfe *logomde* "camel." (Many local languages have borrowed the Berber etymon via the Hausa *r\grave{a}akumii*: Dagbani *laakumi*, Buli *l\bar{a}\bar{a}k\acute{o}m\acute{i}*. Farefare has *y\acute{u}gn\acute{e}* (pl *yugma*) and Moor\acute{e} has *yugemde*, both matching Kusaal.)

If the primary adjective formant $-l-$ represents this same $*\lambda$, it would explain the absence of any Adjectival Verbs like $*s\bar{a}bi^{la/}$, because $*sabi\lambda a$ would result instead in $*s\bar{a}bi^{ya/}$; Manessy records a Dagbani form *sabla* "be black", but I cannot confirm this is any Dagbani vocabularies I have been able to consult.

It is not straightforward to separate any supposed suffixal $*\lambda$ or $*n$ from the stem in the case of Agentive Invariable Verbs with stems ending in $l m n$, because the geminate $mm nn ll$ nearly always appear in derived forms as well as the finite forms; stems in $-r-$ show similar behaviour, with derivational $-d-$ often absent.

Forms with single consonants do occur with derivatives of Postural Verbs. As gerunds in $-b^0$ must have 2-mora stems, the consonant is definitely single in the gerund $g\bar{u}lb^0$ of $g\bar{u}l^a$ "be hanging." Again $d\bar{e}l^{la/}$ "be leaning (of a person)" has the assume-posture derived Variable Verb $d\bar{e}lum^m$ "start to lean." However, the Deverbal Adjective from $d\bar{e}l^{la/}$, as with other Invariable Verbs with stems in $-l-$, shows variation

in gemination. The forms with single *-l-* are shown to be original by the tones, and also by the flexion: elsewhere, stem-final consonant clusters, like *k t p ŋ*, are invariably followed by epenthesis before a consonant-initial suffix, so the assimilation with the *r^e|a⁺* Class sg suffix shows that the stem final is single.

	<i>kùg-dēl^{le}</i>	"chair for leaning on"
not	* <i>kùg-dél^{le}</i>	← * <i>kùg-déllrì</i>
pl	<i>kùg-dēllá⁺</i> beside <i>kùg-dēlá⁺</i>	

Agent nouns derived from Invariable Verbs with stems in *mm nn ll r* show a consistent irregularity: alongside the expected *a|b^a* Class sg LF in *-a* they have forms in *-e*, taken as *r^e|a⁺* Class singular; plurals in *-a⁺* also appear. This appearance of *e* for *a* might suggest the fronting effect of an assimilated *y* or *ŋ* from the verb suffix, but *-e* also appears in agent nouns of Variable Verbs with stems ending in *mm*, such as *lēm^m* "taste" and in various non-derived nouns with stems ending in a short vowel followed by *m n l r*, where there is no reason to suspect an assimilated *y* or *ŋ* has ever been present. For a preferable explanation see [11.3.1.1](#).

13.2.2 Adjectival

Adjectival Verbs express predicative adjectival meanings. They cannot be used in direct commands, do not form Agent Nouns, and do not have gerunds.

<i>vōē^{ya/}</i>	"be alive"	<i>vūr^{e/}</i>	"alive"
<i>tōē^{ya/}</i>	"be bitter"	<i>tōg^o</i>	"bitter"
<i>mā[?]as^{a/}</i>	"be cool"	<i>mā[?]asír^e</i>	"cool"
<i>bōgus^{a/}</i>	"be soft"	<i>bōgusír^e</i>	"soft"
<i>tēbīs^{a/}</i>	"be heavy"	<i>tēbīsír^e</i>	"heavy"
<i>mālis^{a/}</i>	"be sweet"	<i>mālisír^e</i>	"sweet"
<i>lābīs^{a/}</i>	"be wide"	<i>lābīsír^e</i>	"wide"
<i>mì[?]is^a</i>	"be sour"	<i>mì[?]isug^o</i>	"sour"
<i>vèn^{na}</i>	"be beautiful"	<i>vènnig^a</i>	"beautiful"
<i>vèñ^la</i>	"be beautiful"	<i>vèñllig^a</i>	"beautiful"
<i>lāl^{la/}</i>	"be far"	<i>lāllúg^o</i>	"far"
<i>pòc^da</i>	"be few"	<i>pòcdig^a</i>	"few"
<i>sùm^{ma}</i>	"be good"	<i>sùg^o</i>	"good"
<i>kpī^ram^{ma/}</i>	"be strong"	<i>kpī^rong^o</i>	"strong"
<i>yàl^mma</i>	"be wide"	<i>yàlv^o</i>	"wide"
<i>zùl^mma</i>	"be deep"	<i>zùlv^o</i>	"deep"
<i>tād^mma</i>	"be weak"	<i>tād^mm/</i>	"weak person"
<i>gīm^{ma/}</i>	"be short"	<i>gīg^a</i>	"short"

With stem changes:

<i>tū</i> ^{la/}	"be hot"	<i>tūlúg</i> ^o	"hot"
<i>ñyès</i> ^a	"be self-confident"	<i>ñyèsíŋ</i> ^a	"self-confident"
<i>wā'am</i> ^{ma/}	"be long"	<i>wōk</i> ^{o/}	"long"

There are some transitive Adjectival Verbs:

<i>zēm</i> ^{ma/}	"be equal"	<i>zēmmúg</i> ^o	"equal"
<i>kīs</i> ^{a/}	"hate"	<i>kísùg</i> ^o	"hateful, taboo"
<i>kpēēñm</i> ^{ma/}	"be older than"	<i>kpēēñm</i> ^m	"elder"

Two Adjectival Verbs lack corresponding adjectives:

<i>dùr</i> ^a	"be many"
<i>kàr</i> ^a	"be few"

While

<i>nār</i> ^{a/}	"be necessary"
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has a related adjective *nàrvj*^o "necessary" (tone uncertain), the verb is probably primary; it is at least much commoner than the adjective. The verb

<i>pòñr</i> ^a	"be near (to)"
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has an adjectival form seen in WK's *yī-pòñrà*⁺ "nearby houses" but makes the Variable/Postural Invariable Verb type gerund *pōñrib*^o. I am not sure from my data whether it requires a locative complement; its antonym, the Adjective Verb *lāl*^{la/} "be distant", does not. The verb

<i>tūñ'e</i>	"be able"
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occurs almost exclusively as an auxiliary verb in the Serial VP construction 28.3.1; it has no extant Long Form in my materials. The verb

<i>wēn</i> ^{na/}	"resemble"
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takes a prepositional phrase with either *nē* "with" or *wōv* "like" as a complement

25.4]; there is an adjective *wēnnur^e* "resembling" (Tone Pattern O confirmed by WK) but the gerund is Pattern H: *wēnním^m*, and the verb is probably primary.

Comparison with the corresponding adjectives shows that Adjectival Verbs previously had *nominal* rather than verbal type Tone Patterns.

Nominal Pattern H or HL adjectives correspond to Pattern H verbs:

<i>wāʔam^{ma/}</i>	"be long,tall"	<i>wōk^{o/}</i>	"long, tall"
<i>bōgus^{a/}</i>	"be soft"	<i>bōgusír^e</i>	"soft"
<i>vōɛ^{ya/}</i>	"be alive"	<i>vōr^{e/}</i>	"live"
<i>zēm^{ma/}</i>	"be equal"	<i>zēmmúg^o</i>	"equal"
<i>kīs^{a/}</i>	"hate"	<i>kísùg^o</i>	"hateful, taboo"

However, nominal Pattern L and O adjectives both show the same surface SF tones in the Adjectival Verb as in the sg/pl adjective form:

L	<i>vèn^{na}</i>	"be beautiful"	<i>vènnig^a</i>	"beautiful"
	<i>zùlum^{ma}</i>	"be deep"	<i>zùlvŋ^o</i>	"deep"
	<i>pòɔd^a</i>	"be few, small"	<i>pòɔdig^a</i>	"small"
O	<i>tōɛ^{ya/}</i>	"be bitter"	<i>tōɔg^o</i>	"bitter"
	<i>gīm^{ma/}</i>	"be short"	<i>gīŋ^a</i>	"short"
	<i>kpīʔəm^{ma/}</i>	"be strong"	<i>kpīʔoŋ^o</i>	"strong"
	<i>kpēɛñm^{ma/}</i>	"be older than"	<i>kpēɛñm^m</i>	"elder"

The all-M tones of the verbs corresponding to Pattern O adjectives represent an original Pattern O. SFs with all-M tonemes have been reanalysed as the verbal Pattern H, with a LF-final H toneme. They never become all-L before the Interrogative Prosodic Clitic (specifically checked with both WK and DK.)

SFs with all-L tonemes have been reanalysed as verbal Pattern O, with the all-L pattern becoming all-M in the Unrealised Mood, just as with Variable Verbs:

Ò nà vèn. "She'll be beautiful."

The consonant gemination before the Adjectival Verb ending *-a* is not parallel to that seen in Agentive Invariable Verbs. It belongs to the stem itself in most cases:

<i>lā^{la/}</i>	"be far"	<i>lāllúg^o</i>	"far"
<i>vèn^{na}</i>	"be beautiful"	<i>vènnig^a</i>	"beautiful"

Apart from the verb *tō^{la/}* "be hot", alongside *tōvlúg^o* "hot", where there a change of stem between the adjective and the Adjectival Verb, the only case where

Adjectival Verbs show gemination lacking in the corresponding adjectives is with stems in *-m-*. In WK's speech this gemination is consistent, but it was not heard with other informants, and has not been identified in written materials. Even in WK's speech, Tone Pattern H 3-mora stem verbs have the tonemes which would be expected *without* gemination:

<i>kpī'əm</i> ^{ma/}	not	* <i>kpī'əm</i> ^{ma}	"be strong, hard"
<i>wā'am</i> ^{ma/}	not	* <i>wā'am</i> ^{ma}	"be long, tall" KT

Thus, in cases where gemination is seen only in the Adjectival Verb and not the corresponding adjective, it is probably based on the analogy of Agentive Invariable Verbs. Comparative evidence supports this: the Dagbani cognate of *kpī'əm*^{ma/} "be hard" is *kpema*; this confirms an original single *-m-* because Dagbani preserves original long vowels if and only if the syllable was originally closed, cf

<u>Dagbani</u>		<u>Kusaal</u>	
<i>maani</i>	sg	<i>má'an</i> ^{ne}	"okra"
<i>mana</i>	pl	<i>mā'aná</i> ⁺	
<i>bòli</i>	pfv	<i>bùø</i> ^e	"call"
<i>boona</i>	ipfv	<i>bùøn</i> ^{na}	
<i>sáná</i>	sg	<i>sāan</i> ^{a/}	"guest"
<i>sáambà</i>	pl	<i>sáam</i> ^{ma}	

The only Adjective Verbs with a surface *-ya* in the LF, *vūē*^{ya/} "be alive", and *tōē*^{ya/} "be bitter", are instances of the "epenthetic" *-y-* discussed in 7.2.2 7.1.1.1 and do not contain a suffix **ya*.

The original regular formation of Adjectival Verbs was thus simply to add the ending *-a* to the adjective stem, with no change to its nominal Tone Pattern. The abstract nouns associated with adjectives and the corresponding Adjectival Verbs do not have the Tone Patterns of gerunds, and are derived from the adjectives themselves, not from the Adjectival Verbs.

The imperfective of *Variable* Verbs throughout Western Oti-Volta may have originated in a similar attachment of a predicative-adjective flexion *-a* to the Agent Noun/Imperfective Deverbal Adjective stem; flexion for aspect in this subgroup is much simpler than in other Oti-Volta languages, and this may be the result of the adoption of a deverbal nominal into the verb system.

14 Stem Conversion

Nominals may be formed by added Noun Class suffixes to a verb stem, or by using an existing noun stem in a different class.

14.1 Nominals from Verbs

14.1.1 Gerunds

Almost all Verbs other than Adjectival Verbs can form a **gerund**, a derived abstract noun which expresses the process, event or state described by the verb.

Gerunds play little rôle in the verb system itself, in contrast to languages like Hausa where they are an integral part of the formation of many tenses or aspects. Gerunds do make an immediate future construction with *bòòd*^a "want" [24.3.2](#):

Tùg lā bòòd līg.

Tree:**SG ART** want fall:**GER**.

"The tree is about to fall."

Yu'unj bood gaadug, ka beog bood nier.

Yú'unj bòòd gáadùg kà bēog bòòd níèr.

Night want pass:**GER** and morning want appear:**GER**.

"The night is about to pass and tomorrow is about to appear." (Rom 13:12)

This is only possible with gerunds that can have event/process meanings, i.e. those derived from Variable Verbs and Postural Verbs. Non-Postural Agentive Invariable Verbs have derived abstract nouns which are nevertheless also classified as gerunds in this account because their Tone Patterns are characteristic of gerund formations and because analogous formations can be made from Variable Verbs [15.1.1.4](#); abstract nouns associated with Adjectival Verbs, on the other hand, are not regarded as gerunds although they do show some syntactic resemblances to gerunds [21.7.2.1](#).

Although gerunds can be expanded with arguments [21.9.2](#) the resulting NPs cannot be used adverbially to express attendant circumstances, nor as complements of verbs in place of Content Clauses.

The Tone Patterns of all regularly formed gerunds are predictable [8.6.1](#).

14.1.1.1 From Variable Verbs

Variable Verbs freely form gerunds by adding the following Class Suffixes to the stem. The choice after 3-mora stems reflects avoidance of suffixes which would give rise to obscure SFs, with the usual $-g^0$ replaced by $-r^e$ after stems ending in underlying $*g$. Those irregular 2-mora stem verbs which avoid the regular b^0 Class suffix similarly include a significant proportion of stems in $-b$ and $-m$ [14.1.1.1.1](#).

2-mora stems	$-b^0$	but $-r^e$ as final element of a compound
3-mora stems in $*g$		
[surface $-g^e$ $-k^e$ $-\eta^e$ $-ae^+$ $-ie^+$ $-ue^+$]	$-r^e$	
all others	$-g^0$	

Gerunds differ in flexion from other substantives in frequently resisting the assimilations $*mg \rightarrow \eta\eta$ $*ng \rightarrow \eta\eta$ [7.2.1](#). They rarely shorten a (C)V: stem before $-r^e$. 4-mora stems in $*-sim$ $*-lum$ follow the rule and use $-g^0$:

<i>siilum</i> ^m	"cite proverbs"	→	<i>siilúg</i> ⁰
<i>zàañsim</i> ^m	"dream"	→	<i>zàañsúg</i> ⁰

but stems in $*-gim$ drop the $-m-$ and use $-r^e$:

<i>wàŋim</i> ^m	"waste away"	→	<i>wàŋir</i> ^e
<i>lāŋím</i> ^m	"wander"	→	<i>lāŋír</i> ^e
<i>zàkum</i> ^m	"itch"	→	<i>zàkir</i> ^e

For examples of regular gerunds see [11.3](#) under Noun Flexion.

2-mora stems regularly use $-r^e$ not $-b^0$ in compounds; see [21.7.1](#).

<i>puʔà-dīr</i> ^e	"marriage"
<i>nīn-kúùr</i> ^e	"murder"
<i>dā-núùr</i> ^e	"beer-drinking"
<i>mò-pīl</i> ^{le}	"grass roof"
<i>fū-yéèr</i> ^e	"shirt-wearing" WK

14.1.1.1.1 Irregular Formations

All of these have been verified as occurring in the *bòɔd* "want" + gerund construction above.

Irregular 2-mora stem verbs [13.1.2] may have regular gerunds:

<i>tìs^e</i>	"give"	→	<i>tīslb^o</i>
<i>kē⁺</i>	"let"	→	<i>kēɛb^{o/}</i>
<i>gòl^e</i>	"suspend"	→	<i>gōlb^o</i>

However, with 2-mora stems almost 20% of the regular verbs in KED use suffixes other than *b^o*. A smaller number of these are also tonally irregular. No segmentally regular gerund in *-b^o* shows tonal irregularity. Forms with the suffix *-g^o* are Pattern L from Pattern O verbs unless there are variant forms with *g^a* or *s^e* and the formation is thus shown to belong in fact to the *g^o|s^e* Subclass [11.3.2.1].

A high proportion of these verbs have stems in *m* or *b*; the regular formation with *-b^o* has probably been avoided because it would create ambiguous SFs [11.1]. Examples:

<i>lì⁺</i>	"fall"	→	<i>līg^a</i>	
<i>zī⁺</i>	"carry on head"	→	<i>zīid^{e/}</i>	
<i>bèñ[?]+</i>	"fall ill"	→	<i>bēñ[?]ɛs^e</i>	
<i>kēñ⁺</i>	"come"	→	<i>kēñ^{ne/}</i>	
<i>zò⁺</i>	"run"	→	<i>zūa⁺</i>	also <i>zōɔg^o</i>
<i>vū⁺</i>	"make noise"	→	<i>vūug^{o/}</i>	
<i>pjàñ[?]a</i>	"speak"	→	<i>pjàuñ^ko</i>	(unexpected tone)
<i>bòd^e</i>	"plant"	→	<i>bōdɪg^a</i>	also <i>bōdug^o</i>
<i>yèl^e</i>	"say, tell"	→	<i>yèlvug^o</i>	
<i>kūl^e</i>	"go home"	→	<i>kūlɪg^{a/}</i>	also <i>kūlvug^{o/}</i>
<i>tàñs^e</i>	"shout"	→	<i>tàñsvug^o</i>	
<i>sōñs^e</i>	"converse"	→	<i>sōñsìg^a</i>	
<i>gōs^e</i>	"look"	→	<i>gōsìg^a</i>	
<i>sòs^e</i>	"pray, beg"	→	<i>sōsɪg^a</i>	
<i>kīr^e</i>	"hurry"	→	<i>kìkírùg^o</i>	or <i>kīrb^{o/}</i>
<i>sùn^e</i>	"bow the head"	→	<i>sùnɪr^e</i>	or <i>sùnug^o</i>
<i>lèb^e</i>	"return"	→	<i>lēbɪg^a</i>	
<i>tèb^e</i>	"carry in both hands"	→	<i>tēbɪg^a</i>	
<i>kàñb^e</i>	"scorch"	→	<i>kāñbɪr^e</i>	
<i>òñb^e</i>	"chew"	→	<i>ōñbɪr^e</i>	

<i>lūb^e</i>	"buck"	→	<i>lūbɪr^{e/}</i>	
<i>zàb^e</i>	"fight"	→	<i>zàbɪr^e</i>	
<i>tèñb^e</i>	"tremble"	→	<i>tèñbug^o</i>	
<i>tùm^m</i>	"work"	→	<i>tūuma⁺</i>	
<i>tùm^m</i>	"send"	→	<i>tìtūmɪs^e</i>	
<i>tàm^m</i>	"forget"	→	<i>tàmυg^o</i>	
<i>zàm^m</i>	"cheat, betray"	→	<i>zàmυg^o</i>	
<i>dàm^m</i>	"shake"	→	<i>dàmυg^o</i>	
<i>lèm^m</i>	"sip, taste"	→	<i>lèmυg^o</i>	
<i>wùm^m</i>	"hear"	→	<i>wōm^{mo}</i>	or <i>wùmυg^o</i>

With 3-mora and 4-mora stem verbs there are very few irregularities in gerund formation. A few have plural-as-singular forms [11.5]. The verb *yīs^{e/}* "make go/come out" has *yīsíb^o*, like the alternate form *yīs^e* with regular *yīsɪb^{o/}*.

There are a number of abstract verbal nouns in the *m^m* Class formed from 3-mora verb stems in -s- which resemble gerunds in tone. They may owe their *m^m* Class membership to being imperfective forms: for the dropping of the imperfective -d- formant compare Agent Nouns and Deverbal Adjectives [15.1.1.1] [15.1.1.2.1]:

<i>pù[?]us^e</i>	"greet, thank"	→	<i>pù[?]usɪm^m</i>	"worship"
			or <i>pù[?]usυg^o</i>	
<i>kō⁺</i>	"kill"	→	<i>nīn-kúvsɪm^m</i>	"murderousness"
<i>yōlɪs^{e/}</i>	"untie"	→	<i>yōlɪsɪm^m</i>	"freedom"

14.1.1.2 From Agentive Invariable Verbs

Postural Verbs mostly make gerunds in a similar way to Variable Verbs, by adding class suffixes to the stem. They also follow the same tone pattern allocation rules [8.6.1]. They are idiosyncratic with regard to the class suffix selected, however.

<i>zìñ[?]ɪy^a</i>	"be sitting"	→	<i>zīñ[?]ig^a</i>	also "place", regular <i>g^a s^e</i> Class
<i>zì[?]e^{y^a}</i>	"be standing"	→	<i>zī[?]a⁺</i> KED <i>zī[?]əg^a</i> DK KT	
			(wholly exceptional undeleted <i>g</i> [7.3.1])	
<i>dīgɪy^{a/}</i>	"be lying"	→	<i>dīk^{a/}</i> KT <i>dīgɪr^{e/}</i> WK	
<i>īgɪy^{a/}</i>	"be kneeling"	→	<i>īk^{a/}</i> KT <i>īgɪr^{e/}</i> WK	
<i>vābɪy^{a/}</i>	"be lying prone"	→	<i>vāp^{o/}</i> KT <i>vābɪr^{e/}</i> WK	
<i>tī[?]ɪy^{a/}</i>	"be leaning"	→	<i>tī[?]ib^{o/}</i>	
	(of an object)			
<i>gù^la</i>	"be hanging"	→	<i>gūlɪb^o</i>	

The Adjectival Verb *pəñr^a* also makes such a gerund:

pəñr^a "be near" → *pəñrɪb^o*

Most Agentive Invariable Verbs with stems in // *nn r(r)* have *m^m* Class gerunds, parallel to stative gerunds formed from Variable Verbs [15.1.1.4](#):

<i>sīn^{na/}</i>	"be silent"	→	<i>sīnním^m</i>
<i>dɔ̄^{la/}</i>	"accompany"	→	<i>dɔ̄llím^m</i>
<i>zāñ^{la/}</i>	"hold in the hand"	→	<i>zāñllím^m</i>
<i>dē^{la/}</i>	"be leaning" (of a person)	→	<i>dēllúg^o</i> or <i>dēllím^m</i>
<i>gūr^{a/}</i>	"guard"	→	<i>gūrím^m</i>
<i>tēñr^a</i>	"remember"	→	<i>tēñrɪb^o</i> or <i>tēñrím^m</i> [tone sic]

14.1.2 Concrete Nouns

Verb stems with noun class suffixes which deviate from the usual allocation rules are often not abstract gerunds but have **concrete** senses, such as the product of the action, the instrument used, or the place at which the action occurs.

<i>ēēñbír^e</i>	"(physical) foundation"	<i>ēēñbúg^o</i>	"laying a foundation"
<i>dūk^{o/}</i>	"cooking pot"	<i>dūgub^{o/}</i>	"cooking"
<i>dà^{ʔa=}</i>	"market"	<i>dā^{ʔab^o}</i>	"buying"
<i>kūk^a</i>	"chair"	<i>kūgub^o</i>	"resting on something"
<i>zūg-kōgur^e</i>	"pillow"		
<i>suāk^{a/}</i>	"hiding place"	<i>sū^{ʔab^{o/}}</i>	"hiding"
<i>sōbɪr^{e/}</i>	"piece of writing"	<i>sōp^{o/}</i>	"writing, orthography"
<i>kūt^e</i>	"iron, nail" 11.5	<i>kūdub^o</i>	"working iron"
<i>kùəsim^m</i>	"merchandise"	<i>kùəsvug^o</i>	"selling"
<i>pèbɪsim^m</i>	"wind"	<i>pèbɪsvug^o</i>	"blowing of the wind; wind"

See also on *pù^{ʔalím^m}* *dàalím^m* [15.1.3](#).

The forms *vābɪr^{e/}* *lābɪr^{e/}* *dīgɪr^{e/}* *īgɪr^{e/}* used by WK as gerunds of Postural Verbs [14.1.1.2](#) are used by KT as concrete nouns meaning "place for lying prone" etc, contrasting for him with gerunds *vāp^{o/}* etc.

Three concrete deverbal nouns, from *pìbɪl^e* "cover", *zàñbɪl^e* "tattoo", *màal^e* "sacrifice" show single *-n-* in place of *-l-*:

<i>pībɪn^{ne}</i>	<i>pībɪna⁺</i>	<i>pìbɪn-</i>	"covering"
or <i>pībɪl^{le}</i>			

<i>zāñbɪn</i> ^{ne} or <i>zāñbɪ</i> ^{le}	<i>zāñbɪna</i> ⁺	<i>zàñbɪn-</i>	"tattoo" (NT "sign")
<i>māan</i> ^{ne}	<i>māana</i> ⁺	<i>màan-</i>	"sacrifice"

It is exceptional for regularly formed gerunds to acquire concrete meaning, but a clearcut example is

<i>dīɪb</i> ^o	"food"
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Gerund forms may however be abstract count nouns, with the meaning of particular instances of the activity of the verb. They may then have plurals:

<i>zōɔg</i> ^o	<i>zōɔs</i> ^e		"race"
<i>būʔəsúg</i> ^o	<i>būʔəsá</i> ⁺	<i>būʔəs-</i>	"question"
<i>zàaňśúŋ</i> ^o	<i>zàaňśímà</i> ⁺	<i>zàaňśúŋ-</i>	"dream"

The word may be formally plural but construed as singular 11.5

<i>dìʔəma</i> ⁺	"festival"
<i>pjàňʔad</i> ^e	"word, language"
<i>tēňʔəsá</i> ⁺	"thought"

Thus *tēňʔəsá yīnní* "one thought" (Acts 4:32).

14.2 Nominals from Nominals

The partial association of Noun Class and meaning [11.1.1](#) can be exploited to change the meaning of a stem.

Examples are the regular relationship between names of ethnic groups, which belong to the $^a|b^a$ or $g^a|s^e$ Classes, their languages, which belong to the $-l^e$ Subclass of $r^e|a^+$ [11.3.4.1](#) and the associated place, which has the suffix $-g^0$:

<i>Kūsáá</i> ⁼ sg	<i>Kūsáàs</i> ^e pl	Kusaasi person
<i>Kūsáàl</i> ^e		Kusaal language
<i>Kūsáùg</i> ⁰		Kusaasi territory

See many examples in [37.4](#).

A further example of sg $-g^0$ deriving associated place names is:

<i>wèéd</i> ^a or <i>wìd</i> ^a	"hunter"
<i>wèog</i> ⁰	"deep bush"

The suffix $-d^e$ is found with some names of liquids which are not m^m Class [11.5](#); hence also

<i>sīĩñ</i> ^{o/}	"bee"	<i>sīĩñd</i> ^{e/}	"honey"
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Names of trees are almost all $g^a|s^e$ Class, while their fruits belong to either the $r^e|a^+$ or the $g^0|d^e$ Class [37.5](#).

The strong association of the m^m Class with abstracts may lead to conversion of adjective stems to abstract nouns when used with $-m^m$ or, less commonly, the sg suffix $-g^0$. When there is an associated Adjectival Verb, these abstracts bear a somewhat analogous relationship to the verb as gerunds do to Variable and Postural Invariable Verbs, and can, for example, be preceded by Combining Forms in senses resembling generic arguments before gerunds [21.7.1](#) [21.7.2.1](#). However, such abstract nouns cannot be used in the immediate future construction with *bùùd*^a "want" [14.1.1](#), and unlike the "stative gerunds" derived from Agentive Invariable Verbs [15.1.1.4](#), which show the expected Tone Patterns for gerunds, they show the **same tone pattern as the adjective**.

Examples of Adjectival Verbs with corresponding abstract nouns:

<i>vūē</i> ^{ya/}	"be alive"	<i>vūm</i> ^{m/}	"life"
<i>sùm</i> ^{ma}	"be good"	<i>sùm</i> ^m	"goodness"
<i>ρùùd</i> ^a	"be few"	<i>ρùùdìm</i> ^m	"scarcity"

<i>vèn^{na}</i>	"be beautiful"	<i>vènnim^m</i>	"beauty"
<i>vèñ^{la}</i>	"be beautiful"	<i>vèñllim^m</i>	"beauty"
<i>bōgvs^{a/}</i>	"be soft"	<i>bōgvsím^m</i>	"softness"
<i>tēbıs^{a/}</i>	"be heavy"	<i>tēbısím^m</i>	"weight"
<i>mā[?]as^{a/}</i>	"be cool, wet"	<i>mā[?]asím^m</i>	"coolness, damp"
<i>mālıs^{a/}</i>	"be sweet"	<i>mālısím^m</i>	"sweetness"
<i>lābıs^{a/}</i>	"be wide"	<i>lābısím^m</i>	"width"
<i>ñyèεs^a</i>	"be confident"	<i>ñyèεsım^m</i>	"self-confidence"
<i>lā^{la/}</i>	"be far"	<i>lāllúg^o</i>	"distance"
<i>kpī[?]əm^{ma/}</i>	"be strong, hard"	<i>kpī[?]oŋ^o</i>	"hardness, strength"
<i>yàlım^{ma}</i>	"be wide"	<i>yàlıŋ^o</i>	"width"
<i>mı[?]ıs^a</i>	"be sour"	<i>mı[?]ısv^o</i>	"sourness"
<i>tō[?]ya/</i>	"be bitter"	<i>tō[?]v^o</i>	"bitterness"
<i>zùlım^{ma}</i>	"be deep"	<i>zùlıŋ^o</i>	"depth"
<i>tū^{la/}</i>	"be hot"	<i>tūvıúg^o</i> or <i>tūllım^m</i>	"heat"

Such abstract nouns are also derived from adjectives without corresponding Adjectival Verbs. They are often used adverbially. Examples include

<i>pıəlıg^a</i>	"white"	→	<i>pıəlım^m</i>	"brightness"
<i>tītā[?]ar^e</i>	"big"	→	<i>tītā[?]am^m</i>	"multitude"
<i>pāalíg^a</i>	"new"	→	<i>pāalım^m</i>	"recently"
<i>bāañlıg^a</i>	"quiet"	→	<i>bāañlım^m</i>	"quietly"
<i>zāal^{le}</i>	"empty"	→	<i>zāalım^m</i>	"emptily"
<i>kūdvg^o</i>	"old"	→	<i>kūdım^m</i>	"old times"
<i>nèεr^e</i>	"empty"	→	<i>nèεm^m</i>	"for free"
<i>zēmmúg^o</i>	"equal"	→	<i>zēmmúg^o</i>	"equality"

Nouns referring to people may also have derived abstract nouns. Those which reuse the same stem may use sg or pl *g^o|d^e* Class suffixes for the abstract:

<i>sāan^{a/}</i>	"guest"	→	<i>sāúŋ^o</i>	"hospitality"
<i>kpēεñm^m</i>	"elder"	→	<i>kpēoñŋ^o</i>	"eldership"
<i>sō[?]ñ^{ya}</i>	"witch"	→	<i>sō[?]vñŋ^o</i>	"witchcraft"
<i>zı[?]à⁺</i>	"friend"	→	<i>zù[?]ed^e</i>	"friendship"
<i>gbáñyà[?]a⁼</i>	"lazy person"	→	<i>gbáñyà[?]am^m</i>	"laziness"
<i>dàmà[?]a⁼</i>	"liar"	→	<i>dàmà[?]am^m</i>	"lying"

Human-reference nouns may also form abstract derivatives in the *m^m* Class using the derivational suffix -/ 15.1.3.

15 Derivational Suffixes

The statement of underlying full word structure made in [7] implies that roots are only of the shapes $(C)V(:)(C)$, so that any stem consonant which does not immediately follow the root vowel is not part of the root; neither is any consonant following a *long* root vowel unless the root shows $(C)VC\sim(C)V:C$ allomorphy.

For simplicity, all such consonants will be called "derivational suffixes", though there may not always be parallel stems lacking the suffix or with different suffixes. Nevertheless, many such consonants are clearly identifiable as derivational. Regular highly productive suffixing processes derive Agent Nouns, Deverbal Adjectives and Instrument Nouns from verbs, and there are several less systematic processes deriving nominals from other nominals. Cognate stems make it possible to recognise many suffixes involved in verb derivation from roots; there are clear patterns, but no completely consistent correlations of suffix and meaning.

There are only six derivational suffixes: *-g -s -n -l -d -m*. A suffix *-r* occurs only in a few words, which are probably loans.

-g -s -n never follow another derivational suffix. *-g* and *-s* cause a preceding $(C)V:C$ to become $(C)VC$, and a preceding oral ɔ to become glottalised.

-l is found as a formant of abstract nouns from nominal stems, but elsewhere does not follow another suffix.

-d is very productive in the formation of deverbal nominals; it often deletes a preceding suffix or is itself deleted. It does not derive verb stems.

No stem has more than two derivational suffixes, or more than four morae apart from prefixes. All four-mora verb stems have *-m* as the second suffix.

The rules for consonant assimilation differ slightly from the rules operative in flexion, probably because they are less subject to analogical remodelling [7.2.1.2].

For Tone Patterns in derivation see [8.6].

15.1 Nominals

15.1.1 From Verbs

The deverbal derivational processes described below are very productive; agent noun formation in particular is almost flexional in its regularity and generality, though this is less true of Deverbal Adjective formation. Deverbal nominal derivation generally shows more analogical levelling than derivational processes elsewhere, in keeping with the strong Kusaal tendency to regularity and transparency in verb morphology.

The Tone Patterns of deverbal nominals are predictable [8.6.1].

15.1.1.1 Agent Nouns

Agent nouns can be freely made from almost any verb whose semantics permit it. Informants readily supply isolated forms on demand, but in conversation and texts alike agent nouns usually occur as the second element of compounds. All belong to the $^a|b^a$ Class (though Agent nouns derived from Variable Verbs with stems in $-m$ and from Invariable Verbs with stems in $// r(r)$ may also have $r^e|a^+$ Class forms [11.3.1.1].) Despite the regularity of formation, it is not unusual for agent nouns to have specialised meanings, as will be seen in some of the examples. The name "Agent Noun" is not altogether felicitous, as the form is often made from verbs whose subject is not an "agent", including many transitive stative Verbs; it is more nearly analogous to English deverbal derivatives in $-er$. Whether the form is available for stative Verbs correlates closely with whether the verb can be used in direct commands [13.2], and both cases probably represent a dynamic *use* of the verb in question.

The formant of Agent Nouns is the derivational suffix $-d$, found also in Imperfective Deverbal Adjectives and probably historically identical to the d - of the imperfective flexion $-d^a$. There are, however, many differences in detail, with derivational $-d$ showing much more variety in its mode of attachment, and some differences in this regard among the different types of derived word.

These differences arise from a tendency in derivation to limit stem length, which may result in either the $-d$ itself or the suffix preceding it being deleted. The absence or presence of the suffix affects the Tone Pattern of the stem in forms derived from verbs of Pattern O, with words having $-d$ being Pattern O and those without it being L [8.6.1]. Agent Nouns show more "regularisation" in this regard than Imperfective Deverbal Adjectives do.

Most **Variable Verbs** have an agent noun with a singular form segmentally identical with the verb imperfective. For tones see [8.6.1]. If there are alternate forms, the less "regular" form appears as the agent noun.

$k\bar{o}^+$	"kill"	→	$k\bar{o}vd^{a/}$	"killer"
$m\bar{e}^+$	"build"	→	$m\bar{e}ed^a$	"builder"
$d\bar{i}^+$	"eat"	→	$d\bar{i}t^a$	"eater"
$g\bar{o}s^e$	"look"	→	$g\bar{o}t^{a/}$	"seer, prophet"
$d\bar{u}g^e$	"cook"	→	$d\bar{u}gvd^{a/}$	"cook"
$d\bar{u}^?à^a$	"bear, beget"	→	$d\bar{u}^?ad^a$	"elder relation"
$k\bar{a}d^e$	"drive away"	→	$sar\bar{i}y\bar{a}-k\bar{a}t^a$	"judge" [25.1.3]
$s\bar{o}b^e$	"write"	→	$s\bar{o}bvd^{a/}$	"writer"
$b\bar{u}n^e$	"reap"	→	$b\bar{u}n^{na}$	"reaper"
$t\bar{u}m^m$	"work"	→	$t\bar{u}m-t\bar{u}m^{na}$	"worker"
$k\bar{i}m^m$	"tend flock"	→	$k\bar{o}\bar{n}b-k\bar{i}m^{na}$	"herdsman, shepherd"

<i>kpàr^e</i>	"lock"	→	<i>kpārɪd^a</i>	"lock-er"	
<i>gbīs^e</i>	"sleep"	→	<i>gbīsɪd^{a/}</i>	"sleeper"	
<i>sjàk^e</i>	"believe"	→	<i>sjàkɪd^a</i>	"believer"	
<i>jàñk^{e/}</i>	"jump, fly"	→	<i>jàñ[?]ad^{a/}</i>	"flier"	13.1.2
<i>sùŋ^e</i>	"help"	→	<i>sùŋɪd^a</i>	"helper"	
<i>bàŋ^e</i>	"understand"	→	<i>bāŋɪd^a</i>	"wise man"	
<i>kēŋ^{e/}</i>	"go"	→	<i>kēŋ^{na/}</i>	"traveller"	13.1.2
<i>gàad^e</i>	"pass"	→	<i>tùen-gāt^a</i>	"leader"	
<i>mɔɔl^{e/}</i>	"proclaim"	→	<i>mɔɔl-móòn^{na}</i>	"proclaimer"	
<i>màal^e</i>	"sacrifice"	→	<i>màal-māan^{na}</i>	"sacrificer"	
<i>pà[?]al^e</i>	"teach"	→	<i>pā[?]an^{na}</i>	"teacher"	
<i>sūgur^{e/}</i>	"forbear"	→	<i>sūgurɪd^a</i>	"forgiver"	
<i>yūum^{m/}</i>	"sing"	→	<i>yūum-yúùm^{na}</i> pl <i>yūum-yúùmɪb^a</i>	"singer"	
<i>sà[?]am^m</i>	"spoil"	→	<i>pɸ[?]à-sā[?]am^{na}</i> pl <i>pɸ[?]à-sā[?]amɪdɪb^a</i>	"adulterer"	

Pattern H Fusion Verbs [13.1.1.1](#), which delete the H toneme of the stem in the imperfective, show the same form for the agent noun:

<i>nāe^{+/}</i>	"finish"	→	<i>nāad^{a/}</i>	"someone who doesn't give up easily" WK
<i>dī^re^{+/}</i>	"receive"	→	<i>dī^rəd^{a/}</i>	"receiver"
<i>ñwà^re⁺</i>	"cut wood"	→	<i>ñwā^rad^a</i>	"woodcutter"
<i>gbāñ^re^{+/}</i>	"catch"	→	<i>zīm-gbāñ^ràd^a</i>	"fisherman"
<i>pīe^{+/}</i>	"wash"	→	<i>pīəd^{a/}</i>	"washer"
<i>fāeñ^{+/}</i>	"save"	→	<i>fāañd^{a/}</i>	"saviour" WK

The NT has *faangid* for "saviour"; see [20](#).

3-mora stems in -s consistently drop the -d in the sg and cb:

<i>sīgɪs^{e/}</i>	"lower"	→	<i>sīgɪs^{a/}</i> pl <i>sīgɪsɪdɪb^a</i>	"lowerer"
<i>kùəs^e</i>	"sell"	→	<i>kùəs^a</i> pl <i>kùəsɪdɪb^a</i>	"seller"
<i>pù[?]us^e</i>	"worship"	→	<i>pù[?]us^a</i> pl <i>pù[?]usɪdɪb^a</i>	"worshipper"
<i>tù[?]as^e</i>	"talk"	→	<i>tù[?]as-tù[?]as^a</i> pl <i>tù[?]as-tù[?]asɪdɪb^a</i>	"talker"

dīʔəs^{e/} "transmit" → *nō-dīʔəs^a* "chief's spokesman"
 pl *nō-dīʔəsìdɪb^a*

Nō-dīʔəs^a represents the Ghanaian English "linguist." A chief does not directly address his people on formal occasions; the "linguist" speaks on his behalf. The custom is by no means confined to the region of the old Mossi-Dagomba states, where the chiefs were originally foreign invaders who may once have actually needed interpreters [1.1], but is a well-known feature of Akan culture. In Ghana, "linguist" typically refers to an Akan chief's spokesman or herald, the *okyeame*. The NT uses *Wínàʔam nō-dīʔəs^a* "God's linguist" for "prophet."

Some 2-mora stems also irregularly drop the *-d* in the sg and cb:

zàb^e "fight" → *zàb-zàb^a* "warrior"
gbān-záb^a "leather-beater,
 leather-worker"
tìs^e "give" → *tìs^a* "giver"
s̀̀s̀^e "beg" → *s̀̀s̀^a* "beggar"

All stems in *-m-* and *-n-* form agent nouns in *-mn-* *-nn-* respectively, including the types which have imperfectives in *-mɪd^a* and *-nɪd^a* [7.2.1.3.1] [13.1.1]:

dàm^m "shake" → *dàm-dām^{na}* "shaker"
dàm-dām^{ne} Contrast ipfv *dàmɪd^a*
s̀̀n^e "bow head" → *s̀̀n^{na}* "someone who goes
 pl *s̀̀nnɪb^a* about with head
 cb *s̀̀n-* bowed"
 "deep thinker, close
 observer" WK
 Contrast ipfv *s̀̀nɪd^a*.

Agent nouns in *-mm-* or *-mn-* may use *r^e|a⁺* Class suffixes instead of *a|b^a* [11.3.1.1].

It does not seem possible to form agent nouns from 3-mora verb stems in *-*g-* unless the consonant is either deleted or has united with the root final consonant as *-k-* or *-ŋ-*. All exceptions I have discovered show forms with irregularly deleted *-g-*:

yādɪg^{e/} "scatter" → *yāt^{a/}* technical term for a
 particular participant
 in a housebuilding
 ritual

Various irregular formations in my materials include:

<i>tĕk</i> ^{e/}	"pull"	→	<i>ñwī-ték</i> ^a	"rope-puller"
			pl <i>ñwī-tékìdɪb</i> ^a	
<i>nòŋ</i> ^e	"love"	→	<i>nòŋɪd</i> ^a	"lover" Tones aberrant
<i>tìʔəb</i> ^e	"heal"	→	<i>tìʔəb</i> ^a	"healer"

Tones aberrant; the noun is probably primary, and is a loanword (cf Hausa *dībbù* "magic, sorcery"; ultimately from Arabic طب *tʿibb(un)* "art of medicine")

For 4-mora stems: KT has no agent nouns; WK drops final *-m-* and proceeds as for 3-mora stems:

<i>siilum</i> ^m	"cite proverbs"	→	<i>sīin</i> ^{na}	"speaker of proverbs"
			pl <i>sīinntɪb</i> ^a	
<i>pùʔalum</i> ^m	"harm"	→	<i>pūʔan</i> ^{na}	"harmer"
<i>zàaṅsum</i> ^m	"dream"	→	<i>zàaṅs</i> ^a	"dreamer"
			pl <i>zàaṅsɪdɪb</i> ^a	

Invariable Verbs with stems ending in vowels or in the plosives *g b* add *-d-* to form the agent noun stem:

<i>zìñʔi</i> ^{ya}	"be sitting down"	→	<i>zìñʔid</i> ^a	"sitter"
<i>zìʔe</i> ^{ya}	"be standing still"	→	<i>zìʔəd</i> ^a	"stander"
<i>mī</i> ⁺	"know"	→	<i>mīʔid</i> ^{a/}	"knower"
			<i>gbàn-mīʔid</i> ^{a/}	"scribe" NT ("book-knower")
<i>zì</i> ⁺	"not know"	→	<i>zìʔɪd</i> ^{a/}	"ignorant person"
<i>sūʔe</i> ^{ya/}	"own"	→	<i>sūʔud</i> ^{a/}	"owner"
<i>sōñʔe</i> ^{ya/}	"be better than"	→	<i>sōñʔɔd</i> ^{a/} pl <i>sōñʔɔb</i> ^{a/}	11.3.1
<i>dīgi</i> ^{ya/}	"be lying down"	→	<i>dīgɪd</i> ^{a/}	"lier-down"
<i>īgi</i> ^{ya/}	"be kneeling"	→	<i>īgɪd</i> ^{a/}	"kneeler"
<i>vābi</i> ^{ya/}	"be lying prone"	→	<i>vābɪd</i> ^{a/}	"lier prone"
<i>làbi</i> ^{ya}	"be crouching"	→	<i>lābɪd</i> ^a	"croucher in hiding"

Those with stems in the continuants *n l r* use the same stem as the finite verb, with gemination as in the verb:

<i>sīn</i> ^{na/}	"be silent"	→	<i>nīn-sīn</i> ^{na}	"silent person"
<i>nēn</i> ^{na/}	"envy"	→	<i>nīn-nēn</i> ^{na}	"envious person"
<i>dō</i> ^{la/}	"be with"	→	<i>ñyàʔan-dò</i> ^{la}	"disciple" irr tones
			or <i>ñyàʔan-dò</i> ^{le}	
<i>zāñ</i> ^{la/}	"be holding"	→	<i>nō-zāñ</i> ^{la}	"holder of hens"
			or <i>nō-zāñ</i> ^{le}	
			(<i>zāñ</i> ^{le/} pl <i>zāñllá</i> ⁺ cb <i>zāñ</i> "holder" WK)	
<i>dē</i> ^{la/}	"be leaning"	→	<i>nīn-dē</i> ^{la}	"person prone to lean"
<i>mōr</i> ^{a/}	"have"	→	<i>bù-mōr</i> ^{a/}	"owner of goats"
			or <i>bù-mōr</i> ^{e/}	
<i>tār</i> ^{a/}	"have"	→	<i>bù-tār</i> ^{a/}	"owner of goats"
			or <i>bù-tār</i> ^{e/}	

Agent nouns from stems in /r/ may use *r^e|a⁺* Class suffixes, thus falling together with the forms of the Imperfective Deverbal Adjectives [11.3.1.1](#).

There are variant formations with

<i>kīs</i> ^{a/}	"hate"	→	<i>kīs</i> ^{a/} or <i>kīsɪd</i> ^{a/}	"hater"
<i>tēñr</i> ^a	"remember"	→	<i>tēñrɪd</i> ^a	"rememberer"
<i>gūr</i> ^{a/}	"be on guard"	→	<i>gūrɪd</i> ^{a/}	"guard"
			<i>gūrʔud</i> ^{a/}	"guard"
			<i>zàʔ-nō-gúr</i> ^a	"gatekeeper"

15.1.1.2 Deverbal Adjectives

15.1.1.2.1 Imperfective

In principle these adjectives have the same stem as the Agent Noun but with different class suffixes; however, Imperfective Deverbal Adjectives drop the *-d* formant more readily, probably because they are not made as freely as Agent Nouns and are correspondingly farther along the axis from flexional to derivational.

The sense may be active or passive, essentially "habitually connected with the verbal action", like the range of meaning of an English gerund as a noun pre-modifier.

When used without a preceding noun cb, Imperfective Deverbal Adjective forms have the meaning of Agent Nouns:

kōvdír^e pl *kōvdá*⁺ "killer" = *kōvd*^{a/} pl *kōvdíb*^a

With a preceding cb the meanings differ:

pyʔà-kōvd^{a/} "woman-killer, killer of women"
pyʔà-kōvdír^e "woman killer, murderous woman"

It is thus not possible to elicit Deverbal Adjectives in isolation, but only in combination with a preceding modified noun combining form.

With **Variable Verbs**:

2-mora stems all retain the **d*.

<i>gòñ</i> ⁺	"hunt"	→	<i>ɸɸʔà-gɔ̃ɔñdɪ</i> ^e	"prostitute" ("wandering woman")
<i>là</i> ^{ʔ+}	"laugh"	→	<i>ɸɸʔà-lāʔadɪ</i> ^e	"woman prone to laughter/ woman to be laughed at"
<i>ñyē</i> ⁺	"see"	→	<i>būn-ñyétɪ</i> ^e	"visible object"
<i>kɸā</i> ⁺	"hoe"	→	<i>nāʔ-dá-kūədɪ</i> ^e	"ox for ploughing"
<i>yè</i> ⁺	"don clothes"	→	<i>fū-yéɛdɪ</i> ^e <i>fū-yéɛdùg</i> ^o	"shirt for wearing" WK KT
<i>kō</i> ⁺	"kill"	→	<i>tì-kōvdím</i> ^m	"poison" ("killing medicine")
<i>dɸʔà</i> ^a	"bear/beget"	→	<i>tèŋ-dɸʔadɪg</i> ^a	"native land"
<i>dōg</i> ^e	"cook"	→	<i>sūm-dúgudà</i> ⁺	"cooked groundnuts" WK
<i>sīg</i> ^e	"descend"	→	<i>yī-sígɪdɪ</i> ^e	"lodging-house"
<i>sɸʔā</i> ^a	"hide"	→	<i>yēl-súʔadɪ</i> ^e	"confidential matter"
<i>òñb</i> ^e	"chew"	→	<i>būn-òñbɪdà</i> ⁺	"solid food"
<i>bùn</i> ^e	"reap"	→	<i>būn-búnnɪ</i> ^e	"thing for reaping"
<i>tùm</i> ^m	"work"	→	<i>būn-túmmɪ</i> ^e	"useful thing"
<i>vō</i> ^e	"swallow"	→	<i>tì-vōnním</i> ^m	"oral medication"
<i>gbīs</i> ^e	"sleep"	→	<i>ɸɸʔà-gbīsɪdɪ</i> ^e	"woman who is always sleeping"

3-mora stems in **g* drop *-d* in all cases except where the **g* derivational suffix is deleted in the imperfective, whether by regular rule [7.3.1](#) or otherwise [13.1.2](#). The dropping of *-d* is thus much more consistent than in agent nouns.

<i>gīlɪg</i> ^{el}	"go around"	→	<i>ɸɸʔà-gīnníg</i> ^a	"prostitute"
<i>sūēñ</i> ^{+/}	"anoint"	→	<i>kɸā-sóɔñdím</i> ^m	"anointing oil"
<i>tūlɪg</i> ^{el}	"heat up"	→	<i>būn-túlɪgɪ</i> ^e	"heater, thing for heating"
<i>ɸèlɪg</i> ^e	"whiten"	→	<i>būn-ɸélɪgɪ</i> ^e	"whitening thing, whitener"
<i>yādɪg</i> ^{el}	"scatter"	→	<i>būn-yátɪ</i> ^e	"thing for scattering" cf agent noun <i>yāt</i> ^{a/} (above)
<i>jàñk</i> ^{el}	"fly, jump"	→	<i>būn-jáñʔadɪ</i> ^e	"flying creature"
<i>ɸàk</i> ^e	"surprise"	→	<i>yēl-ɸákɪ</i> ^e	"disaster"
<i>tēk</i> ^{el}	"pull"	→	<i>ñwī-tékɪ</i> ^e	"rope for pulling with"
<i>kēŋ</i> ^{el}	"go"	→	<i>bùŋ-kēnnɪ</i> ^e	"donkey that doesn't sit still"

<i>sùŋ^e</i>	"help"	→	<i>būn-súŋì^e</i>	"helpful thing"
<i>nòŋ^e</i>	"love"	→	<i>bì-nòŋì^e</i>	"beloved child"

3-mora stems in *-m* retain the *-d*, forming the consonant cluster *-mm-*:

<i>sà'am^m</i>	"destroy"	→	<i>bù-sā'am^m</i>	"goat for destruction, scapegoat" WK
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3-mora stems in *-s-* all drop **d*:

<i>pélis^e</i>	"sharpen"	→	<i>būn-pélisì^e</i>	"sharpening thing"
<i>kùəs^e</i>	"sell"	→	<i>būn-kúəsì^e</i>	"item for sale"

4-mora stems (all examples KT) all drop **d* (whereas agent nouns drop stem-final **m*):

<i>siilum^m</i>	"cite proverbs"	→	<i>būn-síilúŋ^o</i>	"thing relating to proverbs"
<i>pù'alum^m</i>	"harm"	→	<i>nīn-pú'alíŋ^a</i>	"harmful person"
			<i>pɥ[?]à-pù'alíŋ^a</i>	"harmful woman"
<i>zàaŋsum^m</i>	"dream"	→	<i>nīn-záaŋsùŋ^o</i>	"dreamy person"
			<i>pɥ[?]à-zàaŋsúŋ^o</i>	"dreamy woman"

The adjectives associated with Adjectival Verbs are not deverbal; Imperfective Deverbal Adjectives from **Agentive Invariable Verbs** show the same stem as the Agent Noun [15.1.1.1](#) (but see the discussion of *kùg-dēllá⁺* in [13.2.1](#)):

<i>dīŋi^{ya/}</i>	"be lying"	→	<i>bùŋ-dīŋidír^e</i>	"donkey that lies down all the time"
<i>vābi^{ya/}</i>	"be prone"	→	<i>bùŋ-vābidír^e</i>	"donkey that always lies prone"
<i>zìŋ[?]i^{ya}</i>	"be sitting"	→	<i>kūg-zíŋ[?]idír^e</i>	"stone for sitting on" (i.e. not a <i>būgɔr^e</i> WK)
<i>zāñ^{la/}</i>	"be holding"	→	<i>nō-záñ^{le}</i>	"hen for holding"
			pl <i>nō-záñlla⁺</i>	
<i>dē^{la/}</i>	"be leaning"	→	<i>nīn-dé^{le}</i>	"person you can lean on" WK
			<i>nīn-délla⁺</i>	
		→	<i>kùg-dē^{le/}</i>	"chair for leaning on"
			pl <i>kùg-dēlla⁺</i>	
<i>gù^{la}</i>	"be hanging"	→	<i>būn-gú^{le}</i>	"thing for suspending"
			pl <i>būn-gúlla⁺</i>	

15.1.1.2.2 Perfective

Perfective Deverbal Adjectives are all derived from Variable Verbs which form a Result Perfective [24.2.1.2]. All the verbs involved are also either intransitive or Patientive Ambitransitive [25.1.2], and the adjectives are thus not passive participles, but express resulting states.

Ò kpì nē. "She's dead." [*Ò kpì yā* = "She's died."]

There are no Perfective Deverbal Adjectives from Postural Verb roots meaning e.g. "seated", "standing" or from Variable Verbs used passively e.g. "eaten."

It is not clear how far the formation is productive. All my examples are from primary verbs, with no pairs like "whitened" beside "white."

The formant is *-lum-*. It either deletes a preceding derivational suffix or is a formation made from *-lum* alone; all examples show *-lum* after a (C)V: root. For the flexion see [12.2].

<i>kpì</i> ⁺	"die"	→	<i>kpìilúŋ</i> ^o	"dead"
<i>gēñ</i> ⁺	"get tired"	→	<i>gēñlúŋ</i> ^o	"tired"
<i>pèʔel</i> ^e	"fill"	→	<i>pèʔelúŋ</i> ^o	"full"
<i>kò</i> ⁺	"break"	→	<i>kòɔlúŋ</i> ^o	"broken"
<i>yè</i> ⁺	"wear"	→	<i>yèelúŋ</i> ^o	"worn" (of a shirt)
<i>yò</i> ⁺	"close"	→	<i>yòɔlúŋ</i> ^o	"closed"
<i>pùʔalum</i> ^m	"harm"	→	<i>pùʔalúŋ</i> ^o	"damaged"
<i>àèñ</i> ⁺	"tear"	→	<i>àèñlúŋ</i> ^o	"torn"

15.1.1.3 Instrument Nouns

Instrument Nouns can be created at will by my informants whenever semantically appropriate from Variable and Postural Verbs, so long as the Imperfective Deverbal Adjective stem ends in *d t* or *s*; a further *-m* is then added. All these *m*-stems then inflect in the *g^a|s^e* Class. In a few cases the meaning overlaps with agent nouns.

<i>kō</i> ⁺	"kill"	→	<i>kōvdíŋ</i> ^a	"thing for killing with"
<i>lō</i> ⁺	"tie"	→	<i>sjà-lōɔdíŋ</i> ^a	"belt" ("waist-tying thing")
<i>dōg</i> ^e	"cook"	→	<i>dōgvdíŋ</i> ^a	"cooking utensil"
<i>sōb</i> ^e	"write"	→	<i>sōbdíŋ</i> ^a	"writing implement"
<i>kpàr</i> ^e	"lock"	→	<i>kpārídíŋ</i> ^a	"thing for locking"
<i>ñwàʔe</i> ⁺	"cut wood"	→	<i>ñwàʔadíŋ</i> ^a	"axe"
<i>pīe</i> ^{+/}	"wash self"	→	<i>pīədíŋ</i> ^a	"thing for washing oneself"

<i>sù</i> ⁺	"bathe"	→	<i>sūvdɪŋ</i> ^a	"sponge"
<i>gōs</i> ^e	"look"	→	<i>nīn-gótɪŋ</i> ^a	"mirror"
			<i>nīn-gótis</i> ^e	"spectacles" [<i>nīn</i> - "eye"]
<i>bùd</i> ^e	"plant"	→	<i>būtɪŋ</i> ^a [3.4]	"cup" (in general; originally just "seed cup")
<i>pīās</i> ^{e/}	"clean"	→	<i>pīāsɪŋ</i> ^a	"cleaning implement"
<i>kùēs</i> ^e	"sell"	→	<i>kūēsɪŋ</i> ^a	"professional salesperson"
<i>dāʔe</i> ^{+/}	"push"	→	<i>dāʔadɪŋ</i> ^a	"pusher (person or thing)"
<i>zīñʔi</i> ^{ya}	"be sitting"	→	<i>zīñʔidɪŋ</i> ^a	"thing for sitting on"

15.1.1.4 Stative Gerunds

Non-Postural Agentive Invariable Verbs [13.2] make derived abstract nominals in the *m*^m Class; **vowel-stems add a derivational -/**, and it seems reasonable to suppose that the formation with stems ending in *m n r* is parallel to this:

<i>sūʔe</i> ^{ya/}	"own"	→	<i>sūʔvlím</i> ^m
<i>mīʔ</i> ⁺	"know"	→	<i>mīʔilím</i> ^m
<i>zīʔ</i> ⁺	"not know"	→	<i>zīʔɪlím</i> ^m
<i>àeñ</i> ^{ya}	"be something"	→	<i>àańlím</i> ^m
<i>bè</i> ⁺	"be somewhere"	→	<i>bèlím</i> ^m (short vowel; initial L tone)
<i>kāʔe</i> ⁺	"not be"	→	<i>kāʔalím</i> ^m
<i>sōñʔe</i> ^{ya/}	"be better than"		has no gerund
<i>mōr</i> ^{a/}	"have"	→	<i>mōrím</i> ^m
<i>tār</i> ^{a/}	"have"	→	<i>tārím</i> ^m
<i>nēn</i> ^{na/}	"envy"	→	<i>nēnním</i> ^m
<i>nār</i> ^{a/}	"be necessary"	→	<i>nārím</i> ^m
<i>wēn</i> ^{na/}	"resemble"	→	<i>wēnním</i> ^m
But <i>kīs</i> ^{a/}	"hate"	→	<i>kísùg</i> ⁰

These nouns probably cannot be used in the immediate future construction with *bòcd*^a "want" [14.1.1], so it is not clear that they are truly gerunds; however Variable Verbs may form similar "gerunds" based on the imperfective if this has acquired a lexically distinct stative [13.2.1] meaning, and although the form is segmentally that of the Imperfective Deverbal Adjective used with the *m*^m Class suffix as an abstract noun, the forms obey the tonal rules for gerunds rather than Imperfective Deverbal Adjectives in having Pattern L, not Pattern O, when they derive from Pattern O verbs.

Thus, although there is a verb *bò*⁺ "seek", with the regular gerund *bōvb*⁰ "seeking", the imperfective *bòcd*^a has become an independent lexeme "like, love." It makes the form

bòɔdɪm^m "will"
 (contrasting tonally with the Deverbal Adjective *bòɔdɪr^e* "desirable")

Similarly

gòɔñdɪm^m "wandering" (*gòñ⁺* "hunt")
zòtɪm^m "fear" [*M zót nē* "I'm afraid."]
 contrast *zòɔg^o* "running"

15.1.1.5 Companion Gerunds

A specialised gerund type occurs exclusively as a pre-modifier of the bound noun

-tāa⁼ *-tāas^e* *-tā-* or *-tā-* "companion in ..."

The forms can be made at will from most verbs which are capable of creating agent nouns or being used in commands, whether Variable or Invariable. The forms for Variable Verbs are based on stems like those of Agent Nouns or Imperfective Deverbal Adjectives, with an additional suffix *-m*; they vary in whether the *-d-* formant is preserved but follow the Deverbal Adjectives in general. Tonally they are gerunds, however: Pattern L, not O, when made from Pattern O verbs.

The forms are construed as combining forms, without following M Raising. This suggests that the *-m-* is a second derivational suffix, rather than the *m^m* Class flexion. This could imply that the forms seen in e.g.

nòŋɪlɪm-tāa⁼ "fellow liker"
nòŋɪdɪm-tāa⁼ "fellow lover"
sòŋɪdɪm-tāa⁼ "fellow-helper"

would have five-mora stems, but all such cases involve *-ŋ-*, which is anomalously treated as single /ŋ/ rather than /ŋŋ/ in several other contexts too [6.2.1](#) [8.2.1](#) [8.2.3](#). Alternatively, this could be remodelling of the cb on the basis of the sg [11.2.2](#).

Examples from Variable Verbs:

<i>mè⁺</i>	"build"	→	<i>mèɛdɪm-tāa⁼</i>	"fellow-builder"
<i>dì⁺</i>	"eat"	→	<i>dìtɪm-tāa⁼</i>	"messmate"
<i>pū⁺</i>	"share"	→	<i>pūvdɪm-tāa⁼</i>	"fellow-sharer"
<i>kpèñ[?]</i>	"enter"	→	<i>kpèñ[?]ɛdɪm-tāa⁼</i>	"fellow-resident"

<i>zàb^e</i>	"fight"	→	<i>zàbídím-tāa⁼</i>	"enemy"
<i>dōg^e</i>	"cook"	→	<i>dōgvdím-tāa⁼</i>	"fellow-cook"
<i>fāñ⁺</i>	"snatch"	→	<i>fāañdím-tāa⁼</i>	"fellow-robber"
<i>tùm^m</i>	"work"	→	<i>tùmmím-tāa⁼</i>	"co-worker"
<i>pù[?]us^e</i>	"worship"	→	<i>pù[?]usím-tāa⁼</i>	"fellow-worshipper"
<i>dìus^e</i>	"feed"	→	<i>dìusím-tāa⁼</i>	"fellow-feeder"
<i>sùŋ^e</i>	"help"	→	<i>sùŋím-tāa⁼</i>	"fellow-helper"
			or <i>sùŋídím-tāa⁼</i>	
<i>sjàk^e</i>	"agree"	→	<i>sjàkím-tāa⁼</i>	"fellow in agreement"

Invariable Verbs generally use *-lím*, but Postural Verbs in WK's speech may use either *-dím* or *-lím*. Again the tones are those for gerunds.

<i>īgi^{ya/}</i>	"be kneeling"	→	<i>īgilím-tāa⁼</i>	"fellow-kneeler"
			or <i>īgidím-tāa⁼</i>	"fellow-kneeler" WK
<i>zìñ[?]i^{ya}</i>	"be sitting"	→	<i>zìñ[?]ilím-tāa⁼</i>	"fellow-sitter"
			or <i>zìñ[?]idím-tāa⁼</i>	"fellow-sitter" WK
<i>vābi^{ya/}</i>	"lie prone"	→	<i>vābilím-tāa⁼</i>	"fellow lier-prone"
			or <i>vābidím-tāa⁼</i>	"fellow lier-prone" WK
<i>làbi^{ya}</i>	"be crouched"	→	<i>làbilím-tāa⁼</i>	"fellow croucher in hiding"
<i>zì[?]e^{ya}</i>	"be stood"	→	<i>zì[?]əlím-tāa⁼</i>	"fellow-stander"
			or <i>zì[?]ədím-tāa⁼</i>	"fellow-stander" WK
<i>dōl^{la/}</i>	"be with"	→	<i>dōllím-tāa⁼</i>	"fellow-companion"
<i>mī⁺</i>	"know"	→	<i>mīilím-tāa⁼</i>	"partner in knowledge"
<i>zī⁺</i>	"not know"	→	<i>zīilím-tāa⁼</i>	"partner in ignorance"
<i>bè⁺</i>	"exist"	→	<i>bèlím-tāa⁼</i>	"partner in existence" WK (cf gerund 15.1.1.4)

The form

<i>dīgi^{ya/}</i>	"be lying"	→	<i>dīgilím-tāa⁼</i>	"fellow-lier"
			or <i>dīgíilím-tāa⁼</i>	"fellow-lier" WK

suggests that like other derivatives from Postural Verb roots the forms might in fact belong to derived Variable Verbs with loss of stem suffixes or of the *-d-* formant itself.

From the irregular verb *nòŋ^e* WK has two forms with different nuances for him

13.1.2

<i>nòŋ^e</i>	"love"	→	<i>nòŋilím-tāa⁼</i>	"fellow liker"
			or <i>nòŋídím-tāa⁼</i>	"fellow lover"

15.1.1.6 Other Deverbal Formations

-s- appears in a few concrete nouns derived from verbs:

<i>dīgı́sá</i> ⁺	"lairs"	←	<i>dīgı́</i> ^{ya/}	"be lying down"
<i>dōvsá</i> ⁺	"steps"	←	<i>dō</i> ⁺	"go up"

-m- derives nouns from verbal roots in

<i>zōm</i> ^{me}	"refugee"	cf	<i>zò</i> ⁺	"run"
<i>kp̄im</i> ^{m/}	"corpse"	cf	<i>kp̄i</i> ⁺	"die"

-d- appears as an instrument noun formant rather than the usual *-dım-* in

<i>tūədı́r</i> ^e	"mortar"	←	<i>tɔ̀</i> ⁺	"grind in a mortar"
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-b- possibly derives nouns from verbal roots in

<i>kp̄iibı́g</i> ^a	"orphan"	cf	<i>kp̄i</i> ⁺	"die"
<i>dàʔabı́r</i> ^e	"slave"	cf	<i>dàʔ</i> ⁺	"buy"

This *-b* may historically be connected with the stem of *bīg*^a "child"; cf Gurmanche *kp̄ēbígā* "orphan" with *kp̄é* "die" and *bígā* "child". Kusaal has no synchronic process to turn a root into a suffix, and both *kp̄iib-* and *dàʔab-* would be possible root shapes themselves. However, there may be relics of such processes in

<i>bī-díbìŋ</i> ^a	"boy"	cf	Mooré <i>biribla</i>	"boy"
			Kusaal <i>dāy</i> ⁺	"man"
<i>bī-púŋ</i> ^a	"girl"		Mooré <i>bipugla</i>	"girl"
			Kusaal <i>pyʔā</i> ^a	"woman" (← * <i>pyaga</i>)
<i>bībı́s</i> ^e	"small" plural		<i>bī</i> ^a	"small" singular
<i>À-Sāan-dú</i> ⁺	personal name	cf	<i>sāan</i> ^{a/}	"stranger"
			<i>dāy</i> ⁺	"man"

15.1.2 From Nominal Roots

-s- forms adjectives and cognate Adjectival Verbs.

<i>māʔasír^e</i>	"cold, wet"	cf	<i>māʔe^{+/}</i>	"cool down"
<i>māʔas^{a/}</i>	"be cold, wet"			
<i>bōgvsír^e</i>	"soft"	cf	<i>bōk^{e/}</i>	"weaken"
<i>bōgvs^{a/}</i>	"be soft"			
<i>tēbısír^e</i>	"heavy"	cf	<i>tēbıg^{e/}</i>	"get heavy"
<i>tēbıs^{a/}</i>	"be heavy"			
<i>mìʔisvğ^o</i>	"sour"	cf	<i>mìʔıg^e</i>	"get sour"
<i>mìʔıs^a</i>	"be sour"			

-d- (apart from its use to form deverbal nominals) features in a number of words where it has no evident derivational meaning:

<i>yūgvdir^e</i>	"hedgehog"
<i>lāʔaf^o</i>	"cowrie"
pl <i>līgıdı⁺</i>	"money" * <i>lagıd-</i>
<i>pùgvdıb^a</i>	"father's sister"

It appears in a number of ^a|^b Class words where it is not found throughout the paradigm; so regularly in agent nouns from 3-mora stems in -s- [15.1.1.1](#), but irregularly also in some words [11.3.1](#). In derivation compare

<i>Nàbıd^a</i>	"Nabdema"	but	<i>Nàbır^e</i>	"Nabit language"
<i>Dàgáàd^a</i>	"Dagaaba person"	cf	Dagaare	<i>Dagao</i> id
<i>nīdıb^{a/}</i>	"people"	cf	Mooré	<i>neba</i> id

-m- similarly appears with no clear meaning in the concrete nouns

<i>bīʔəm^m</i>	"enemy"	cf	Mooré	<i>bεεga</i> id
<i>tādım^{m/}</i>	"weak person"	cf	<i>tàdıg^e</i>	"become weak"
<i>āñsıg^a</i>	"sister's child"	cf	<i>āñsıb^a</i>	"mother's brother"
<i>yáan^a</i>	"grandchild"	cf	<i>yáab^a</i>	"grandparent"
<i>*yáamga</i>				<i>*yáagba</i>

<i>vúəŋ</i> ^a	"red kapok"	cf	<i>vúə</i> ^e	"red kapok fruit"
<i>*vúəmgà</i>			<i>*vúəgrì</i>	
<i>yūgúm</i> ^{ne}	"camel"			[ultimately ← Berber <i>*a-ləqəm</i> (Souag)]
<i>gbīgim</i> ^{ne}	"lion"			
<i>zìlim</i> ^{me}	"tongue"			
<i>àñruŋ</i> ^o	"boat"			

It forms abstract nouns in

cb	<i>nāʔam</i> ^m	"chiefship"	cf	<i>nàʔab</i> ^a	"chief"
	<i>nàʔam-</i>				
	<i>zōlimís</i> ^e	"foolishness"	cf	<i>zōlvog</i> ^{o/}	"fool"

Abstract *-mís*^e forms seem always to have H toneme; cf *bùdimís*^e "confusion", where, however, the *-m-* is part of the verb stem *bùdim*^m "get confused"; compare similarly

<i>tàdimís</i> ^e	"weakness"	cf	<i>tādum</i> ^{m/}	"weak person"
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-m- is seen also in the adjectives

<i>zùlvog</i> ^o	"deep"	<i>ñyālúŋ</i> ^o	"wonderful"
<i>yàlvog</i> ^o	"wide"	<i>nàruŋ</i> ^o	"necessary"

15.1.3 From Nominal Stems

-l- derives abstract nouns from nominals. The suffix is perhaps the same as the *-l-* formant of Perfective Deverbal Adjectives [15.1.1.2.2] and some primary adjectives, and is possibly also seen in some Agentive Invariable Verbs [13.2.1]:

<i>sābúlg</i> ^a	"black"	cf	<i>sōb</i> ^e	"get dark"
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The abstract nouns may thus represent adjective stems used in the *m*^m Class [11.1.1], but the stems do not appear elsewhere as adjectives.

The suffix *-l-* is added to complete noun stems. It shows unusual tonal behaviour [8.6], and also constitutes the only exception to the rule that (C)V:C roots must appear as (C)VC allomorphs before a derivational suffix [7.1.1.2].

<i>dāy</i> ⁺	"man"	→	<i>dàalim</i> ^m	"masculinity"
<i>puʔā</i> ^a	"woman"	→	<i>pùʔalim</i> ^m	"femininity"
<i>bīg</i> ^a	"child"	→	<i>bīilim</i> ^m	"childhood"
<i>tītāʔal</i> ^{le}	"proud person"	→	<i>tītāʔallim</i> ^m	"pride"

<i>gīŋ</i> ^a	"short"	→	<i>gīiŋlím</i> ^m	"shortness"
<i>wōk</i> ^{o/}	"long, tall"	→	<i>wāʔalím</i> ^m	"tallness"
<i>sāan</i> ^{a/}	"guest, stranger"	→	<i>sáannìm</i> ^m	"strangerhood"
<i>tīráàn</i> ^a	"neighbour"	→	<i>tīráànnim</i> ^m	"neighbourliness"
<i>gīŋ</i> ^a	"short"	→	<i>gīŋulím</i> ^m	"shortness"

-m- occurs as a second suffix added to adjectival stems with no change of meaning:

<i>ñyèésíŋ</i> ^a	"self-confident"	<i>ñyèes</i> ^a	"be self-confident"
<i>vèñllíŋ</i> ^a	"beautiful"	<i>vèñllig</i> ^a	"beautiful"
<i>mālisíŋ</i> ^a	"pleasant"	<i>mālisig</i> ^a	"pleasant"
<i>lāllíŋ</i> ^a	"distant"	<i>lāllúg</i> ^o	"distant"

In the following words, where the presence of **-m-** is revealed by tone 8.2.3, it changes an abstract noun stem into a related concrete stem:

<i>dàalím</i> ^m	"male sex organs"	<i>dàalim</i> ^m	"masculinity"
<i>pùʔalím</i> ^m	"female sex organs"	<i>pùʔalim</i> ^m	"femininity"

The presence of the formant **-m-** is similarly revealed by the tones in

<i>bìʔisím</i> ^m	"milk"	<i>bìʔisur</i> ^e	"breast"
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15.2 Verbs

Verbs have no derivational prefixes. All verb derivation is by suffixes, probably always added to roots rather than word stems. Clear meanings can often be recognised in suffixes, but there is no straightforward one-to-one match of form and meaning.

Possible verb shapes are very constrained. Only two, three and four-mora stems occur. All four-mora stems end in *m*, and the shape (C)V:C*m* only occurs as (C)V: root + *sim* or *lum*, never as (C)V:C root + *m*.

Agentive Invariable Verbs are all root-stems. Some Adjectival Verbs have stems including the nominal derivational suffix seen in the corresponding adjective.

15.2.1 From Verbs

15.2.1.1 From Postural Roots

Postural Verbs have derived Variable Verbs in *-n^e* signifying "assume the posture" and in *-l^e* "make assume the posture"; all the *-n^e* verbs are Pattern O regardless, but the *-l^e* verbs have the same pattern as the base Postural Verb.

	<u>Postural Verb</u>		<u>Assume Posture</u>		<u>Make Assume Posture</u>
	<i>dīgi</i> ^{ya/}	be lying	<i>dìgin</i> ^e		<i>dīgi</i> ^{e/}
	<i>vābi</i> ^{ya/}	be lying prone	<i>vàbin</i> ^e		<i>vābi</i> ^{e/}
	<i>īgi</i> ^{ya/}	be kneeling	<i>ìgin</i> ^e		<i>īgi</i> ^{e/}
	<i>làbi</i> ^{ya}	be crouching hidden	<i>làbin</i> ^e		<i>làbi</i> ^e
	<i>zìñʔi</i> ^{ya}	be sitting	<i>zìñʔin</i> ^e		<i>zìñʔil</i> ^e
	<i>zìʔe</i> ^{ya}	be standing	<i>zìʔən</i> ^e		<i>zìʔəl</i> ^e
	<i>tīʔi</i> ^{ya/}	be leaning (of thing)	<i>tìʔin</i> ^e		<i>tīʔil</i> ^{e/}
WK	<i>gōʔe</i> ^{ya/}	be looking up	<i>gòʔən</i> ^e		
	<i>sùr</i> ^a	have bowed head	<i>sùn</i> ^e		<i>sùn</i> ^e [sic]
	-	cover oneself	<i>lìgin</i> ^e		<i>lìgi</i> ^e
	-	perch (of bird)	<i>zùən</i> ^e		<i>zùəl</i> ^e
	-	perch (of bird)	<i>yàʔən</i> ^e		<i>yàʔəl</i> ^e

The Result Perfective [24.2.1.2](#) of *zùe+* is used for "be perching":

Níiŋ lā zúə nē. "The bird is perching." KT
 Bird:SG ART perch:PFV FOC.

Two Postural sets have root-stem assume-posture verbs:

<i>gù</i> ^{la}	be suspended	<i>gù</i> ^e	<i>gù</i> ^e
<i>tàbi</i> ^{ya}	be stuck to	<i>tàb</i> ^e	<i>tàbi</i> ^e

Another Pattern H Postural Verb with a cognate Pattern O Variable Verb for "assume the posture" is

dēl^{la/} "be leaning" (person) *dèlim*^m "lean"

In WK's speech, but not KT's, there are alternate imperfective forms of the *-n*^e derivatives which drop the *-n*-formant and also lack the change of Pattern H forms to Pattern O seen in the perfective [13.1.1.2](#):

dìgin^e *dìginɪd*^a *dìginɪm*^a "lie down"
 or *dīgɪd*^{a/}

from *dīgi*^{ya/} "be lying down."

Segmentally, the *-n* series is also remarkable in that the *n* never participates in consonant assimilation, either in verb flexion or in the corresponding gerund.

Probably this is simply as a result of the language's tendency to resist changes which would result in ambiguous surface forms.

Non-Postural Agentive Invariable Verbs like *sīn^{na/}* "be silent", *d5l^{la/}* "accompany", *tèñr^a* "remember" and *gūr^{a/}* "guard" use the same form for the stative imperfective and the inchoative meaning:

Sin! "Be quiet!"

Kà bà sīn. "And they fell silent."

And **3PL** be.silent.

15.2.1.2 Causatives

Several derivational suffixes are found with a causative sense.

Patientive Ambitransitive verbs [25.1.2](#) frequently describe entry into a state. Such verbs frequently have no causative derivative.

-l- has been seen above as the causative suffix for Postural Verb roots; Verbs derived with *-g-* from nominal roots are usually Patientive Ambitransitives but may have separate causatives in *-l-* (see below [15.2.2](#).) Other roots forming causative in *-l-* are

<i>gūr^{a/}</i>	"guard"	<i>gūr^{ul}e/</i>	"put someone on guard"
<i>bāñ^{ʔ+}</i>	"ride"	<i>bāñ^{ʔal}e/</i>	"put someone on a horse/bicycle etc"
<i>zàb^e</i>	"fight"	<i>zàbl^e</i>	"cause to fight"
<i>du^{ʔà}a</i>	"bear, beget"	<i>dù^{ʔal}e</i>	"make interest (of a loan)"
<i>yè⁺</i>	"dress oneself"	<i>yèε^le</i>	"dress another person"
<i>pid^e</i>	"don hat/shoes/rings"	<i>pil^e</i>	"put hat/shoes/rings on another person"

-g- can be a causative or inchoative suffix with roots forming Invariable Verbs or intransitive Variable Verbs:

<i>d5l^{la/}</i>	"accompany"	<i>d5lɨg^{e/}</i>	"make accompany"
<i>g5r^{a/}</i>	"look up" DK	<i>g5dɨg^{e/}</i>	"make look up" DK
<i>zāñ^{la/}</i>	"be holding"	<i>zàŋ^e</i>	"pick up"
<i>tèñr^a</i>	"remember"	<i>tien⁺</i>	"bring to mind, remind"
<i>yùul^e</i>	"swing" intransitive	<i>yùlɨg^e</i>	"swing" transitive
<i>kò⁺</i>	"break" intransitive	<i>kò^{ʔɔg}e</i>	"break" Pat. Ambitransitive

-s- is the usual causative suffix for Variable Verbs

<i>kpɛ̃ñʔ⁺</i>	"enter"	<i>kpɛ̃ñʔɛs^e</i>	"make enter"
<i>yī⁺</i>	"go/come out"	<i>yīis^{e/}</i> or <i>yīs^e</i>	"make go/come out"
<i>dì⁺</i>	"eat"	<i>dìs^e</i>	"feed"
<i>nū⁺</i>	"drink"	<i>nūls^{e/}</i>	"make drink"; also <i>nūlɪg^{e/}</i>
<i>sīg^e</i>	"go down"	<i>sīgɪs^{e/}</i>	"lower"
<i>lèb^e</i>	"return"	<i>lèbs^e</i>	"make return; answer"
<i>mɥʔà^a</i>	"suck" (of a baby)	<i>mùʔas^e</i>	"give to suck"
<i>dīʔe^{+/}</i>	"receive"	<i>dīʔəs^{e/}</i>	"transmit"
	[Mooré <i>ta</i> "arrive"]	<i>tāʔas^{e/}</i>	"help to travel, walk"

Also	<i>zēm^{ma/}</i>	"be equal"	<i>zēʔmɪs^{e/}</i>	"make equal"
	<i>kpìg^e</i>	"go out (fire)"	<i>kpìis^e</i>	"quench"

gūr^{a/} "guard" has the causative *gūrʔul^{e/}* (cf *gūrʔud^{a/}*, agent noun) but also has the derivative *gūrʔus^{e/}* "take care, watch out"

15.2.1.3 Reverse Action

-g- attached to verbal roots expressing activities implies reversal:

<i>yè⁺</i>	"dress oneself"	<i>yèɛg^e</i>	"undress oneself"
<i>pìd^e</i>	"put (hat etc) on"	<i>pìdɪg^e</i>	"take (hat etc) off"
<i>pìl^e</i>	"put (hat etc) on s'one"	<i>pìlɪg^e</i>	"take (hat etc) off someone"
<i>l̄⁺</i>	"tie up"	<i>l̄dɪg^{e/}</i>	"untie"
<i>yò⁺</i>	"close"	<i>yòʔɔg^e</i>	"open"
<i>èñd^e</i>	"block up"	<i>èñdɪg^e</i>	"unblock"
<i>yàʔal^e</i>	"hang up"	<i>yàk^e</i>	"unhang"
<i>pàʔal^e</i>	"put on top"	<i>pàk^e</i>	"take off top"
<i>pìbɪl^e</i>	"cover up"	<i>pìbɪg^e</i>	"uncover"
<i>(zū-píbig^a</i>	"hat")		
<i>tàbɪ^{ya}</i>	"be stuck to"	<i>tàbɪg^e</i>	"unstick, get unstuck"
<i>làʔas^e</i>	"gather together"	<i>lāk^{e/}</i>	"open" (eye, book) (Kusaal tones misrecorded?)
		Mooré	<i>lake</i> "un-stick together"
		Farefare	<i>làkè</i> "enlever, ouvrir"

Reversible *g-* is apparently a peculiarity of the Western group within Oti-Volta; other Oti-Volta languages show alveolars in suffixes having this meaning: Konkomba *pì:ⁿ* "close" *pì:rì* "open", Moba *lwo* "close" *lwot* "open", Byali *byá* "close" *byērǎ* "open",

Nawdm *rów* "has closed" *rɔd* "open." Proto-Bantu probably had both *-ɔ/-* and *-ɔk-*, perhaps respectively transitive and intransitive. If there were two such suffixes in Oti-Volta, it would be natural for the alveolar variant to be disfavoured in Western Oti-Volta because of the adoption in that subgroup of *-da* as the regular imperfective flexion for almost all verbs capable of aspect flexion.

15.2.1.4 Other Deverbal Formations

-s- may have a plural action sense:

<i>kò⁺</i>	"break"	<i>kòʔɔs^e</i>	"break several times"
<i>tòñ⁺</i>	"shoot"	<i>tòñʔɔs^e</i>	"hunt"
<i>pìəb^e</i>	"blow (flute etc)"	<i>pèbɪs^e</i>	"blow (wind)"
		<i>pèbɪsɪm^m</i>	"wind"
<i>làbɪ^{ya}</i>	"crouch in hiding"	<i>làbɪs^e</i>	"walk stealthily"
<i>vūɛ^{ya/}</i>	"be alive"	<i>vūʔʊs^{e/}</i>	"breathe, rest"
<i>jāñk^{e/}</i>	"fly, jump"	<i>jāñʔas^{e/}</i>	"leap, jump repeatedly"
<i>yāʔe^{+/}</i>	"open mouth"	<i>yāʔas^{e/}</i>	"open repeatedly" WK

-g- probably occurs with an ingressive meaning in the perfective forms of several irregular verbs [13.1.2](#), and also in

<i>sōñʔe^{ya/}</i>	"be better than"	<i>sūñʔe^{+/}</i>	"become better than" WK
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-m- derives some Particle-Verbs [24.7.2](#):

<i>lèm</i>	"again"	cf	<i>lèb^e</i>	"return"
<i>làʔam</i>	"together"	cf	<i>làʔas^e</i>	"gather together"
		also	<i>làʔam^m</i>	"associate with", main verb
<i>dèŋɪm</i>	"first"	cf	<i>dèŋ^e</i>	"go first"

-g- and **-m-** occur with no obvious meanings in

<i>fāñ⁺</i>	"rob, snatch"	<i>fāeñ^{+/}</i>	"save" (? "snatch back")
<i>liəb^e</i>	"become"	<i>lèbɪg^e</i>	"turn over" Mooré <i>lebge</i> "become"
<i>sōñ⁺</i>	"rub"	<i>sūeñ^{+/}</i>	"anoint"
<i>nōb^e</i>	"get fat"	<i>nōbɪg^{e/}</i>	"grow" (child, plant)
<i>nā⁺</i>	"join"	<i>nāe^{+/}</i>	"finish" Hausa <i>gamàa</i> "join, finish"
<i>kòñs^e</i>	"cough"	<i>kòñsɪm^m</i>	"cough"

-r- appears in

<i>kābir^{e/}</i>	"ask for admission"
<i>sūgur^{e/}</i>	"forbear, be patient with"

Kābir^{e/} is probably connected with *kāab^{e/}* "offer, invite", and Toende Kusaal has *kábis* "frapper à la porte, informer, signaler." There seems to be no root **sūg-*. Both words appear frequently in formulaic expressions [36] of a type which are often pan-regional and they may well be loanwords. The Agolle Kusaal verbs may be back-formations from the nouns *kābirí⁺* and *sūgurú⁺*, in which the *ri/rv* possibly originated in the equivalent of *r^{e/}|a⁺* Class singular flexions [11.6].

15.2.2 From Nominal Roots

-g- derives many verbs from nominal roots, with the meaning "make/become ..."

<i>ñyɔ̃ʔɔs^{e/}</i>	"smoke"	<i>ñyūʔe^{+/}</i>	"set alight"
<i>ñwīig^{a/}</i>	"rope"	<i>ñwīig^{e/}</i>	"make a rope"
<i>tādum^{m/}</i>	"weak person"	<i>tàdɪg^e</i>	"become weak"
<i>kpiʔa⁺</i>	"neighbour"	<i>kpiʔe⁺</i>	"approach"
<i>zūø^e</i>	"hill"	<i>zùe⁺</i>	"get higher, more"
<i>À-Tūl^{le}</i>	"Breech-Delivered"	<i>tùlɪg^e</i>	"invert"
<i>māʔasír^e</i>	"cool, wet"	<i>māʔe^{+/}</i>	"get cool, wet"
		<i>(māʔa^le/)</i>	"make cool, wet"
<i>bōgvsír^e</i>	"soft"	<i>būk^{e/}</i>	"soften"
<i>tēbɪsír^e</i>	"heavy"	<i>tēbɪg^{e/}</i>	"get/make heavy"
<i>gīŋ^a</i>	"short"	<i>gīŋ^e</i>	"scrimp"
<i>kpɪʔoŋ^o</i>	"strong"	<i>kpɛʔŋ^e</i>	"strengthen"
<i>vūr^{e/}</i>	"alive"	<i>vūr^ovg^{e/}</i>	"make/come alive"
<i>pòɔdɪg^a</i>	"few"	<i>pòʔɔg^e</i>	"diminish; denigrate"
<i>pìəlɪg^a</i>	"white"	<i>pèlɪg^e</i>	"whiten"
<i>sābɪlɪg^a</i>	"black"	<i>sōbɪg^{e/}</i>	"blacken"
<i>nīn-múa⁺</i>	"concentration"		
	("red eye")	<i>muʔe⁺</i>	"redden"
<i>kōdvog^o</i>	"old"	<i>kùdɪg^e</i>	"shrivel up, dry out, age"
<i>sùŋ^o</i>	"good"	<i>sùŋ^e</i>	"help"
<i>tōvɪlóg^o</i>	"hot"	<i>tōlɪg^{e/}</i>	"heat up"
<i>mìʔisvug^o</i>	"sour"	<i>mìʔig^e</i>	"turn sour"
<i>zùlvŋ^o</i>	"deep"	<i>zùlɪg^e</i>	"deepen"
<i>lālɪlóg^o</i>	"far"	<i>lālɪg^{e/}</i>	"get to be far, make far"

<i>màuk</i> ^o	"crumpled up"	<i>màk</i> ^e	"crumple up"
<i>dēɛŋ</i> ^a	"first"	<i>dēŋ</i> ^e	"precede"
<i>nèɛr</i> ^e	"clear, empty"	<i>nìe</i> ⁺	"appear"

This meaning can perhaps be considered as simply a variant on the "ingressive" sense of the suffix *-g-* noted above in derivation from verbal roots 15.2.1.4. With the addition of *-m* as a second derivational suffix:

<i>wàuj</i> ^o	"wasted"	<i>wàujm</i> ^m	"waste away"
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-l- can make causatives from nominal roots, often corresponding to an intransitive or Patientive Ambitransitive derivative in *-g-*:

<i>māʔe</i> ^{+/}	"get cool"	<i>māʔal</i> ^{e/}	"make cool"
<i>pūñʔe</i> ^{+/}	"rot"	<i>pōñʔal</i> ^{e/}	"cause to rot"
<i>nìe</i> ⁺	"appear"	<i>nèɛl</i> ^e	"reveal"
<i>wūʔug</i> ^{e/}	"get wet"	<i>wūʔul</i> ^{e/}	"make wet"
<i>ñyáʔaŋ</i> ^a	"behind"	<i>ñyāʔal</i> ^{e/}	"leave behind"
<i>gēog</i> ^o	"space between legs"	<i>gēɛl</i> ^{e/}	"put between legs" Tones <i>sic</i>
<i>līk</i> ^a	"darkness"	<i>līgul</i> ^e	"cover up"

-lum- derives verbs from nominal roots, meaning "act as ..." or "make/become ...":

<i>pūʔā</i> ^a	"woman"	<i>pūʔalum</i> ^m	"cook"
<i>pōñʔr</i> ^e	"cripple"	<i>pōñʔalum</i> ^m	"cripple, get crippled"
<i>wàbir</i> ^e	"lame"	<i>wàbilum</i> ^m	"make, go lame"
<i>gūʔus</i> ^e	"semi-ripe things"	<i>gūʔulum</i> ^m	"become semi-ripe"
<i>būgud</i> ^a	"client of diviner"	<i>būgulum</i> ^m	"cast lots"
		cf <i>bùk</i> ^e	"cast lots"

-m- appears deriving a verb from a nominal root in

<i>nēɛr</i> ^{e/}	"millstone"	<i>nēɛm</i> ^{m/}	"grind with a millstone"
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-s- has a factitive sense in

<i>zujà</i> ⁺	"friend"	<i>zùes</i> ^e	"befriend"
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16 Derivational Prefixes

Kusaal freely forms **compounds**. In a compound, the non-final element is itself part of the paradigm of a nominal word, the "combining form." There is Apocope between the combining form and the following stem, so that many different two-member consonant clusters may occur across the junction. In this grammar combining forms are regarded as words rather than word fragments, and accordingly compounds are further treated under Syntax [21.6](#).

There are also many noun and a few adjective stems which have an element preceding the root which does not form part of the paradigm of any nominal. Such elements will be called **nominal prefixes**. No finite verb form shows a prefix. Morphologically, nominal prefixes are simply part of a complex stem, and have no identifiable meaning of their own. Most fall into a relatively few phonological types, with limited possibilities for vowel distinctions and for tones. Thus

<i>tītāʔar^e</i>	"big"
<i>tītāʔam^m</i>	"multitude"
<i>bù-tītāʔar^e</i>	"big goat"

Nominal prefixes have either M or L tonemes throughout. As a group, they differ in tonal behaviour from Combining Forms [8.2.5](#). Segmentally they are mostly of the shape *CV(n)*, where *V* shows only the three-way *a ɪ ʊ* vowel distinction of affix vowels; *ɪ ʊ* become *i u* by ATR harmony before *i u* of an initial root mora. There is also a complex reduplicated type *CVsɪn* or *CVɪn*. Stems with nominal prefixes are generally otherwise simple in structure, without derivational suffixes.

Nominal prefixes are derivational, in the sense that they are part of the stem, but even where parallel stems without prefixes or with different prefixes exist, there are no regular processes relating the various forms, unlike the cases of the manner-adverb deriving prefix *à-* [22.4](#) and the number prefixes [18.2.1](#). Nominal prefixes are, however, notably common with words falling into particular semantic fields, such as words for small animals, reptiles and insects.

The line of demarcation between nominal prefixes and combining forms is not absolute, and a few prefixes evidently did originate as cbs [16.4](#). Others are apparently related to verbal negative particles [16.3](#). The decision as to whether to write a hyphen between the components of a complex word is not always straightforward, but nevertheless cbs and nominal prefixes are distinct in principle, with most cases also clearly distinguishable in practice. Thus, an element is a combining form if it is part of a nominal paradigm, if it ends in a consonant other than a nasal, if it has a vowel other than short *a ɪ ʊ* without glottalisation or contrastive nasalisation, or if it has M toneme and is followed by M Raising affecting

singular and plural forms. On the other hand, an element is a nominal prefix if it is formed by reduplication of the stem-initial consonant, or if it has M toneme and is not followed by M Raising affecting singular and plural forms.

Another piece of evidence for a basic distinction between combining forms and nominal prefixes is provided by cases like *pùkòǎr^e* "widow", where the first element differs from the current combining form *pù'à-* "woman" in loss of glottalisation and replacement of the vowel by an allowable prefix vowel, but cognate Mooré and parallel Kusaal forms confirm that the resemblance of the prefix to the cb is not accidental [16.4]. It is only possible to describe a combining form *becoming* a prefix because the two categories are distinguishable in principle.

Further complicating the picture are a good many stems with elements of no discoverable meaning preceding the final root which do not fit into any common segmental phonological prefix patterns, although tonally they do behave as nominal prefixes. Many such words can be identified as **loanwords**, but not all: in particular, many names of ethnic groups and of Kusaasi clans are of this type [20].

For the Personifier Clitic *à-* as part of some common nouns referring to living creatures see [21.10]; it is not a prefix but a proclitic particle.

As prefix vowels *ɪ* and *ʊ* are subject to ATR harmony [5.4], which is ignored in writing as it is non-contrastive.

16.1 Reduplication-Prefixes

The simplest type of nominal prefix copies the initial C of the root, followed by a vowel which is most often *ɪ*, but rounded to *ʊ* by neighbouring labial consonants. No cases occur with voiced stops or voiced fricatives.

<i>kùkōr^{e/}</i>	"voice"
<i>kùkòm^{me}</i>	"leper"
<i>kìkàŋ^a</i>	"fig tree"
<i>kìkīrŋ^{a/}</i>	"tutelary spirit"
<i>k[p]ùkਪàrŋ^a</i>	"palm tree"
<i>kpīkpīn^{na/}</i>	"merchant"
<i>kpàkūr^{e/}</i>	"tortoise"
<i>tītā'ar^e</i>	"big"
<i>tītōmɪs^e</i>	"sending" (<i>tòm^m</i> "send")
<i>tàtəl^e</i>	"palm of hand"
<i>pīpīrŋ^{a/}</i>	"desert"
<i>fūfūm^{me}</i>	"envy"; "stye" (believed to result from envy)
<i>sìsì'əm^m</i>	"wind"
<i>zà-sìsōbūr^{e/}</i>	"evening"
	(<i>zà-</i> cb of <i>zàm^m</i> "evening", <i>sōb^e</i> "get dark")

<i>lìlāalíŋ^a</i>	"swallow"
<i>mìmīilím^m</i>	"sweetness"
<i>mìmīilúg^o</i>	id

More complex is a similar type with a final nasal consonant; voiced stops and fricatives may occur with this type:

<i>gùngūm^{me}</i>	"kapok material" (<i>gùm^{me}</i> "kapok fruit")
<i>dùndùug^o</i>	"cobra"
<i>dìndēog^{o/}</i>	"chameleon"
<i>bìmbìm^{me}</i>	"altar"
<i>bùmbàrig^a</i>	"ant"
<i>zùnzòŋ^a</i>	"blind" (<i>zū[?]əm^{m/}</i> "go/make blind")
<i>zīnzāuŋ^{o/}</i>	"bat"
<i>kìnkàŋ^a</i>	"fig"
<i>tīntōńríg^a</i>	"mole"
<i>pùmpwōg^o</i>	"housefly" (cf <i>tàmpūa⁺</i> id 11.3.2)
<i>sīnsáañ⁼</i>	a kind of tiny ant
<i>nōb-púmpàuŋ^o</i>	"foot"

An even more complex type follows the reduplicated CV with *-sɪn* or *-lɪn*:

<i>kpìsɪnkpìl^{le}</i>	"fist"
<i>tàsɪntàl^{le}</i>	"palm of hand"
<i>sīlɪnsíùŋg^o</i>	"spider" pl <i>sīlɪnsíñd^e</i>
<i>sīlɪnsíùg^o</i>	"ghost" pl <i>sīlɪnsíŋs^e</i>
<i>zīlɪnzíòg^o</i>	"unknown" cf <i>zī[?]+</i> "not know"
<i>vòlɪnvùuñl^{le}</i>	"mason wasp"
<i>wàsɪnwàl^{le}</i>	a parasitic gall on trees, called "mistletoe" in local English
<i>nēsɪnnēog^{o/}</i>	"envious person" cf <i>nēn^{na/}</i> "envy" WK others "centipede" = WK <i>nà[?]-nēsɪnnēog^{o/}</i>

16.2 *Da(n) ba(n) sa(n)*

<i>dàwàlɪg^a</i>	"hot, humid period just before the rainy season"
<i>dàyūug^{o/}</i>	"rat"
<i>dàyáam^{ma}</i>	"woman's parent-in-law"
<i>dàtāa⁼</i>	"enemy" cf <i>nìn-tāa⁼</i> "co-wife", Ghanaian "rival"
<i>dàmà[?]a⁼</i>	"liar" cf <i>mà[?]+</i> "lie"
<i>dàkīig^a</i>	"sibling-in-law via wife"

<i>dàwān</i> ^{ne/}	"pigeon"
<i>dādúk</i> ^o	a kind of large pot, cf <i>dōk</i> ^{o/} "pot"
<i>dàtìỵŋ</i> ^o	"right hand"
<i>dàgòbɪg</i> ^a	"left hand"
<i>bānāa</i> ⁼	traditional long-sleeved smock
<i>bàlànɪr</i> ^e	"hat"
<i>bàlàar</i> ^e	"stick, staff"
<i>bālērɪg</i> ^{o/}	"ugly" cf <i>lēr</i> ^e "get ugly"
<i>bàyēog</i> ^{o/}	"betrayer of secrets" cf <i>yēs</i> ^{e/} "betray a secret"
<i>sākárùg</i> ^o	"fox"
<i>sàbùà</i> ⁺	"lover, girlfriend" ? <i>bòɔd</i> ^a "want, love"
<i>sāmán</i> ^{ne}	clear space in front of a <i>zàk</i> ^a "compound"

Various forms show prefixes of the form *Can-*; those with initial consonants other than *d b s* are probably best classified with the unanalysable residue of complex stems which includes loanwords [20]:

<i>dànkòŋ</i> ^o	"measles"
<i>sāngúnnìr</i> ^e	"millipede"
<i>zànkùʔar</i> ^e	"jackal"
<i>Zàngbèog</i> ^o	"Hausa person"
<i>màngāúŋ</i> ^o	"crab"
<i>làngāúŋ</i> ^o	"crab"
<i>nànzùʔus</i> ^e	"pepper"

The interesting word

<i>nàyīig</i> ^a	"thief"
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is written *na'ayiig* in NT as if it were a compound with the cb *nāʔ-* "cow", but it has a L toneme initially and the vowel is definitely not glottalised in WK's speech. Moreover, the sense is not confined to "cattle thief." The word is ^{a|b} Class and the *-g-* belongs to the stem: pl *nàyīig-nàm*^a, though there is also an analogical ^{a|s} pl *nàyīs*^e. There is a derived abstract noun *nàyīigim*^m "thievery." Farefare has *nàyigà*, pl *nayigba* or *nayigsi*; Dagbani has *nayixa* pl *nayixsi* and also *tayixa* id.

16.3 *Pō kù(n)*

In some words these prefixes have a negative meaning, and they are then presumably connected with the verb negative particles *pō kù*:

<i>kòndù'ar^e</i>	"barren woman" cf <i>du'à^a</i> "bear, beget"
<i>nīn-pō-nān^{na/}</i>	"disrespectful person" cf <i>nān^e</i> "love, respect"
<i>tùb-pō-wómni^b</i>	"deaf people" (Rom 11:7) cf <i>tùbur^e</i> "ear", <i>wòm^m</i> "hear."

However, most cases are not analysable in this way; they may be loanwords, or petrified forms whose origins are no longer transparent.

<i>kòndùŋ^a</i>	"jackal"
<i>gōmpōzēr^{e/}</i>	"duck"
<i>dāmpōsāar^e</i>	"stick"

The word

<i>bān-kúsél^{le}</i>	<i>bān-kúsēlá⁺</i>	<i>bān-kúsēl-</i>	"lizard" (Pattern HL)
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has a first component which looks as if it is related to *bàŋ^a* "agama lizard" though the tone is unexpected if so.

16.4 Stranded Combining Forms

Some original cbs have become partly bleached of their original meaning and/or simplified phonologically, and have consequently become detached from their regular paradigms after being ousted by new cbs based on analogy with sg forms [11.2.2]. Here I list a few instances where an obvious similarity to a noun cb can be identified; some other non-reduplicating nominal prefixes may have originated in a similar way historically.

nìn "body" is accepted by WK as cb of *nīŋ^a nīs^e* [= Mooré *ninga*] but the word is rare; as a nominal prefix cf

<i>nìn-gbīŋ^{o/}</i>	"human skin; body"
<i>nìn-tāa⁼</i>	"co-wife"

dà "man" is replaced as regular cb by forms segmentally remodelled on sg and pl *dà̀y-*, *dà̀p-*, but the *dà̀-* form is seen in

dà̀-ṗāal^{a/} "son, boy" cf *ṗāalíg* "new"
dà̀-ḱòḱñr^e "son, bachelor" cf *à̀dà̀ḱóñ* "one"
 compare *ṗòḱòḱñr*^e below

ṗò "woman" cf *ṗỵṗā*^a "woman" cb *ṗỵṗà-*. Identifiable in e.g.

ṗòḱòḱñr^e "widow"
 cf Mooré *ṗugḱõore* "widow"
 with Mooré *ṗugsada* "young woman"
 = Kusaal *ṗỵṗà-sādir*^{e/}

ṗū- "farm" cf *ṗōḱg*^{o/} "field, farm", regular cb *ṗō-*. Presumably present in

ṗūḱṗāad^{a/} "farmer" (= *ḱṗāad*^{a/} id)

Tonally, too, this *ṗū-* is a M prefix, not a combining form 8.2.5.

nàṗ "chief"(?) appears before a number of nouns signifying animals and insects, for reasons which perhaps relate to traditional folklore.

cf *nàṗ-nēsinṗēog*^{o/} "centipede" WK
nēsinṗēog^{o/} "envious person" WK; others: "centipede"

nàṗ-zòṗ^{me} "locust"
nàṗ-dàwān^{ne/} "pigeon" = *dàwān*^{ne/}

For the idea of a possible background in folklore cf

à-ḱōra-díàṗ^{ma} "praying mantis"
 ("hyena's parent-in-law")

and in general the various animal and bird names which incorporate the Personifier Proclitic 21.10 like

à-dàalúḡ^o "stork"
à-gáùḡḡ^o "pied crow"
à-mús^e "cat"

17 Pronouns

Pronouns occur as NP heads; in addition, Demonstrative, Indefinite and Interrogative pronouns may occur as post-determiners after a head, which is then reduced to a combining form, while the pronoun inflects to show the number of the head, as with adjectives.

17.1 Personal

		<u>Proclitic</u>	<u>Enclitic</u>	<u>Free</u>	<u>Subject+ḥ</u>
Sg	1st	<i>m̄</i>	<i>m^a</i>	<i>mān</i> SF <i>mánè</i> LF	<i>mán</i>
	2nd	<i>fù</i>	<i>f^o</i>	<i>fōn</i> SF <i>fúnè</i> LF	<i>fún</i>
	3rd hu	<i>ò¹⁴</i> [ʊ]	<i>o</i> [ʊ]	<i>ōn^e</i>	<i>ón</i>
	3rd nh	<i>lì</i> or <i>dì</i>	<i>l⁺</i>	<i>līn^e</i> or <i>dīn^e</i>	<i>lín</i> or <i>dín</i>
Pl	1st	<i>tì</i>	<i>t⁺</i>	<i>tīnám^a</i> ¹⁵	<i>tīnámì</i> ∅
	2nd	<i>yà</i>	<i>ya⁺</i>	<i>yānám^a</i>	<i>yānámì</i> ∅
	3rd	<i>bà</i>	<i>ba⁺</i>	<i>bān^e</i>	<i>bán</i>

"hu" = "human gender", "nh" = "non-human": on gender see 21.2.2.

The clitic pronouns are all Liaison Words 9.3 8.5. The proclitics are used as non-contrastive subjects and as pre-determiners in NPs and AdvPs, and the enclitics as non-contrastive verb objects. For the realisation of the 3rd sg hu ^o see 9.3.1.1.

My informants all use *l-* forms throughout for 3rd sg nh; for bound objects, all speakers have only *l-* forms.

The "+*n*" forms are those used as subjects in ḥ-Clauses 33.

The alternate form *mām* also occurs for 1st sg in any rôle.

The 2nd pl subject has an enclitic form ^{ya} used *after* imperatives addressing more than one person 30.2.3; this has the allomorph *-ní-* before another Liaison Word 9.3.1.2.

Personal pronouns do not take modifiers and have no form parallel to the cb of a noun, but the free forms may be used as antecedents of relative clauses:

14) Toende Kusaal has *ō*. The original form was probably **ḡm̄v*, with later **ḡm̄* → **ḡ* before the rounded vowel. Cf also the Dagbani free pronoun *ḡuna* = Kusaal *ōn^e*.

15) Toende has 1pl *tun* 2pl *nam* for the free pronouns; the *nam* component of the Agolle forms is presumably the element seen in the pluraliser *nām^a* 11.4.

Fun kane buol fu meŋ ...

Fōn kánì_ ∅ bùəl fù mēŋ ...

2SG DEM.SG COMP call:PFV 2SG self ...

"You who call yourself ... (Rom 2:17)

Number is sg/pl; Kusaal has no honorific usages of plural for singular like Mooré. For the interaction of number and gender see [21.2.2](#).

17.2 Demonstrative

Some forms of Demonstrative pronouns are limited to usage either as NP heads or as post-determiners, while other forms may appear in both uses.

Head or Dependent:

	<u>Human sg</u>	<u>Non-human sg</u>		<u>Plural</u>
Long	<i>òŋā^{+/}</i>	<i>lìnā^{+/}</i>	far	<i>bàmmā^{+/}</i>
Short	<i>òn^e</i>	<i>lìn^e</i>	far	<i>bàn^e</i>

Head only:

Long		<i>nē[?]ŋá⁺</i>	near	
Short		<i>nē[?]+/</i>	near	<i>nē[?]-nám^a</i> NT

Post-determining only:

Long	<i>kàŋā^{+/}</i>	<i>kàŋā^{+/}</i>
Short	<i>kàn^e</i>	<i>kàn^e</i>

Note the tone difference in the short series from the free 3rd person pronouns. The post-determining-only series is based on an obsolete *g^a|s^e* Class pronoun *kà*, parallel to *lì*, originally *r^e|a⁺* Class. My informants use these forms for human reference as well as non-human, but NT prefers *òŋā^{+/}* *òn^e*.

Post-determining pronouns follow a noun cb. Some speakers allow sg and pl noun forms, but these probably have the tones of combining forms [21.5](#). After forms lacking cbs, like quantifiers and free pronouns (used before relatives in *ñ*-Clauses) the construction is formally appositional, cf [33.2.4](#) [21.5](#).

Examples after combining forms:

dɔ[?]átà lā lór-kàŋā

"this car of the doctor's"

bò-kàŋā lā

"that goat"

After a quantifier:

bèdv̄gū kánjā "this multitude"

After a free pronoun:

fūn kání bùèl ... "you who call ..."

Post-determining pronouns follow any adjectives:

nō-píàl-kàṅā "this white hen"

The "short" series are used for referents not in view, as relatives in *ṅ*-Clauses [33.2], and as interrogatives in the sense "which?" The demonstratives do not distinguish near and far except with sg non-human heads; in other cases the sense "that" can be specified by following the demonstrative with *lā*^{+/} (in other contexts the definite article) and "this" by following *ñwà*⁺. (Compare French *ça ci*.) This deictic use of *lā*^{+/} is enabled by the fact that the Demonstratives are the only determiners which automatically make the NP definite [21.3].

<i>dàv̄-kàṅā sáàm</i>	"this/that man's father"
<i>dàv̄-kàn sáàm</i>	"that (not visible) man's father"
<i>dàv̄-kàṅā lā sáàm</i>	"that man's father"
<i>dàv̄-kàṅā ñwá sáàm</i>	"this man's father"
<i>tèṅ-kàn lā ná'áb</i>	"the king of that country" (from a story)
<i>sān-kán lā</i>	"at that time"

17.3 Indefinite

	<u>Human sg</u>	<u>Non-human sg</u>	<u>Plural</u>
	<i>sṽ</i> ⁺	<i>sīʔə</i> ^a	<i>sīəba</i> ⁺
Dependent-only	<i>sīʔa</i> ⁺	<i>sīʔa</i> ⁺	

Note that the vowel is not glottalised in the plural.

For NT WK, but not KT, the dependent-only non-human sg is much commoner than *sīʔə*^a used as a dependent. WK feels that *sīʔa*⁺ is pejorative when used for people; NT occasionally has *sṽ*⁺ for non-human: *tèṅ-sṽ*[?] "a certain land."

The sense is "some, someone, something", "a certain", indefinite but specific:

yà bì-sǎʔ

"a certain child of yours"

2PL child-INDF.HU

The meaning is often contrastive, "another, a different":

Amaa man ken sansi'a la na, ka so' pun deŋim sig sa.

Àmáa mán kēn sān-síʔa lā nā,

But **1SG:COMP** come:IPFV time-INDF.NH ART hither,

kà sǎʔ pún dèŋim sīg sá.

and **INDF.HU** already before descend:PFV thither.

"But when I come, someone else goes down there first." (Jn 5:7, 1976)

Meeri one yi Magdala ne Meeri so'

Meeri ónì_ ø yī Magdala nē Meeri sǎʔ

Mary **DEM.HU COMP** emerge:PFV Magdala with Mary **INDF.HU**

"Mary who came from Magdala and another Mary" (Mt 28:1)

Winig mor o meŋ venlim, ka nwadig me mor venlim si'a.

Winnig mór ò mēŋ véŋlìim kà ñwādig mé mōr véŋlìim-síʔa.

Sun:SG have **3HU** self beauty and moon:SG also have beauty-INDF.NH.

"The sun has its own beauty and the moon, too, has another beauty."

(1 Cor 15:41)

M̀ ná tī_ f tí-síʔa.

1SG UNR give:PFV **2SGO** medicine-INDF.NH.

"I'll give you a different medicine." WK

The indefinite pronouns can be used to introduce new information:

Dàṽ-sǎʔ dāa bé ...

"There was a certain man ..."

Man-INDF.HU **TNS EXIST** ...

but this is likely to mean "There was another man ..."; it is commoner just to use an indefinite NP [21.3](#) [34.4](#):

Dāṽ dāa bé ...

"Once there was a man ..."

Man:SG **TNS EXIST** ...

Sǎʔ/síʔəl mé-kàma means "anyone, anything, everyone, everything":

O niḡid si'el mekama su'um.

Ò niḡid sī'əl mé-kàma súm.

3HU do:IPFV INDF.NH also-whatever good:**ABSTR.**

"He does everything well." (Mk 7:37)

(The particle is surprisingly widespread in West Africa: compare Humburi Senni *-kámâ* "each.")

In negative clauses the indefinites mean "(not) ... anything", "(not) ... anybody":

Ka so' kudin ku len nyee li ya'asa.

Kà sṵ' kūdɪm kú lēm ñyēé_ lī yá'asā +∅.

And **INDF.HU** ever **NEG.UNR** again see:**PFV 3NHO** again **NEG.**

"Nobody will ever see it again." (Rev 18:21)

Sṵ' kã'e +∅.

"There's nobody there."

INDF.HU NEG.BE NEG.

M̃ pū yél sī'əla +∅. "I didn't say anything."

1SG NEG.IND say:PFV INDF.NH NEG.

These forms appear as relative pronouns in *ḡ*-Clauses [33.2], along with the *m^m* Class form *sī'əm^m* used adverbially as "in a certain way" [33.2.1.1].

17.4 Interrogative

Human

Non-Human

àń'òń^e "who?"

bṵ⁺ "what?"

Both pronouns may pluralise with *nàm^a* if a specifically plural answer is being sought.

The initial *a-* of *àń'òń^e* is Fixed-L and behaves like the Manner-Adverb prefix with regard to Liaison [9.3.2]:

Nidib ayi nwa, ya bood ye m basi ano'one?

Nīdɪb áyí ñwà, yà bóòd yé m̃ básì àń'òńè +∅?

Person:**PL NUM:two** this, **2PL** want that **1SG** release:**PFV** who **CQ?**

"Which of these two people do you want me to release?" (Mt 27:21)

17.5 Reciprocal

Tāaba⁺ "one another" appears as *tāab* clause-medially for some speakers.

Sòḡimī ∅ *tāaba*. "Help one another."
 Help:IMP 2PLS each.other.

Tì yúùg *nē* *tāaba*. "It's been a long time." KT
 1PL delay:PFV with each.other.

Bà dól *nē* *tāaba*. "They went together." (*d5*^{la} "accompany")
 3PL follow with each.other.

It occurs as an adjective in the meaning "fellow-"

ò tùm-tùm-tāaba "His fellow-workers."

The stem also occurs as an always-bound *g^a|s^e* Class noun in the same sense, seen after "companion gerunds" [15.1.1.5](#), and with nominal prefixes in *nìn-tāa* = "co-wife" and *dātāa* = "enemy."

18 Quantifiers

18.1 Quantifiers: Overview

Formally, quantifiers resemble noun sg or pl forms, very frequently with Apocope Blocking [7.4]; Numbers [18.2.1] are preceded by number prefixes.

Quantifiers can be classified as **count** or **mass**, but the distinction is only of significance when the quantified noun is mass type, in which case a count quantifier is ungrammatical; with count nouns there is no restriction and either type of quantifier is acceptable:

	<i>nīdɪb bédv̄gō</i>	"a lot of people"
	<i>nīdɪb bábɪgā</i>	"many people"
	<i>kùʔəm bédv̄gō</i>	"a lot of water"
not	* <i>kùʔəm bábɪgā</i>	*"many water"

Mass quantifiers are

<i>bèdv̄gō^{+/}</i>	"a lot"
<i>pāmm</i> SF <i>pāmné</i> LF	"a lot" (on the LF see [7.4])
<i>fīiñ⁼</i>	"a little (liquid)"
<i>bīʔəlá⁺</i>	"a little"
<i>wōv⁼</i>	"all"
<i>wūsa⁺</i>	"all"

Count quantifiers include the **numbers**, and also

<i>bàbɪgā^{+/}</i>	"many"
<i>kàlɪgā^{+/}</i>	"few"
<i>fāaň⁼</i>	"every"
<i>zāňʔa⁼</i>	"every"
<i>kàm^a</i>	"every"

Kàm^a "every" occurs by itself as a quantifier and also before others:

sāŋá kám = sāŋá kám zāňʔa "all the time"

Quantifiers lack combining forms; when they appear as heads before post-determining pronouns the usual free form is used.

18.2 Number Words

18.2.1 Numbers: Overview

Number words function as quantifiers, and also have forms used as adverbs; for "one", there are also post-determiners meaning "first."

Many number words show Apocope Blocking [7.4].

In all uses, the numbers 2 to 9 begin with an inseparable **number prefix**. Forms with number prefixes are all Liaison Words [9.3.2]. Although unprefixated forms are not available for comparison, the number prefixes are probably followed by L Raising on the root of the number word.

The number prefixes represent **fossilised noun class agreement prefixes**. With the collapse of noun-class based grammatical gender [11.1] in favour of a system of natural human/non-human gender [21.2.2] the old $^a|b^a$ Class agreement pronouns \grave{o} $b\grave{a}$ have been generalised for human-gender while the old $r^e|a^+$ Class singular pronoun li has been adopted for non-human gender. In Dagbani, where there has been a very similar change, the non-human singular pronouns are similarly based on the equivalent of the $r^e|a^+$ Class, with the old plural pronoun ηa still extant in older materials for non-human plural (Olawsky 1999.) Number words originally agreed with the counted noun with a prefix similar in form to the corresponding plural pronoun, and the \grave{a} - of the Kusaal numbers 2-9 used as quantifiers [18.2.2] represents original $*\eta a$ -.

Because of its origin from $*\eta a$ -, the \grave{a} - number prefix, unlike all other a - particles and prefixes, causes a preceding LF-final vowel following a consonant to appear as $-a$ rather than $-i$ [9.3.2]:

bī́sá_ àtáńʔ "three children"
child:PL NUM:three

This same \grave{a} - is also seen in $\grave{a}l\acute{a}^+$ "how many?" contrasting with $\grave{a}l\acute{a}^+$ "thus", which has the manner-adverb \grave{a} -:

Pèédá_ àl\acute{a} $^+\emptyset?$ "How many baskets?"
Basket:PL NUM:how.many CQ?

nìŋi_ àl\acute{a} "did thus"
do:PFV ADV:thus

The expected corresponding human-agreement number prefix $b\grave{a}$ - is not now found after nouns with human gender, but is still preserved after personal pronouns:

<i>tì bàtáñʔ</i>	"we three"
<i>yà bàyópòḡ</i>	"you seven"
<i>bà bàyí</i>	"they two"

The forms of the number words 2-9 used for counting [18.2.3](#) represent the old m^m Class agreement, in the "abstract" sense of the m^m Class [11.1.1](#):

<i>h̄táñʔ</i>	"three"	(in counting)
<i>h̄nāas</i>	"four"	(in counting)
<i>h̄nū</i>	"five"	(in counting)

Compare Nawdm *mì-tâʔ* "three" *mì-ná:* "four" *mì-nûʔ* "five" etc in counting. When referring to a specific noun Nawdm numbers have a prefix agreeing with the noun class *nídbá bà-tâʔ* "three people"; *mi* marks the abstract/mass class cognate to the Kusaal m^m Class (Fiedler 2012.)

The number prefix *bù-* appears in various adverbial number words [18.2.5](#). It probably represents either an old b^o or m^m Class agreement.

<i>àbùyí⁺</i>	"twice"
<i>àbùtáñʔ⁺</i>	"three times"
<i>àbùnāasí⁺</i>	"four times"
<i>bùpīiga⁺</i>	"ten times"
<i>n̄w̄rím bàtáñʔ⁺</i>	"three times"

Numbers without prefixes show that, like all quantifiers, numbers are not subject to M Raising:

<i>b̄vug yīnní</i>	"one goat"
<i>k̄vur yīnní</i>	"one stone"
<i>b̄vvs pīiga</i>	"ten goats"

The noun, as here, is plural (except of course with *yīnní⁺*) with the exception of units of measure which generally remain sg:

<i>ȳlvugá àtáñʔ</i>	"¢600 [cedis]"
	(<i>ȳlvug^{o/}</i> "sack" for £100/¢200; Hausa <i>jàkaa</i> .)

18.2.2 Quantifiers

The numbers in their core rôle as quantifiers take the forms

1	<i>yīnní</i> ⁺	10	<i>pīga</i> ⁺	100	<i>kòbigā</i> ⁼
2	<i>àyí</i> ⁺	20	<i>pīsí</i> ⁺ [p ^h isi]	200	<i>kòbisi</i> ⁺ [k ^h ɔbisi]
3	<i>àtáñ</i> [?]	30	<i>pīs táñ</i> [?]	300	<i>kòbis táñ</i> [?]
4	<i>ànāasí</i> ⁺	40	<i>pīs nāasí</i> ⁺	400	<i>kòbis nāasí</i> ⁺
5	<i>ànū</i> ⁺	50	<i>pīs nū</i> ⁺	500	<i>kòbis nū</i> ⁺
6	<i>àyúèbù</i> ⁺	60	<i>pīs yúèbù</i> ⁺	600	<i>kòbis yúèbù</i> ⁺
7	<i>àyópòè</i> ⁺	70	<i>pīs yópòè</i> ⁺	700	<i>kòbis yópòè</i> ⁺
8	<i>àní</i> ⁼	80	<i>pīs ní</i> ⁼	800	<i>kòbis ní</i> ⁼
9	<i>àwāè</i> ⁺	90	<i>pīs wāè</i> ⁺	900	<i>kòbis wāè</i> ⁺

The forms for 1, 4, 6, 8, 10, and 100 show Apocope Blocking; the forms for 20 and 200 are not Apocope Blocked but are combinations with the stem of *àyí*⁺.

kòbigā⁼ has LF like the SF, not **kòbigāa*, contrary to the usual rule for forms with Apocope Blocking.

"Thousand" is a regular *r^e|a⁺* Class noun, *tūsir^{e/}*: *tūsá àtáñ*[?] "3000."

"Half" is *pū-súk^a* pl *pū-súgùs^e*.

Other numbers are formed with *nē* "with, and":

kòbis táñ[?] *nē pīs yúèbù nē nū* "three hundred and sixty-five"

11 to 19 have the special contracted forms

pī nē yīnní, *pī nē yí*, *pī nē táñ*[?] ... *pī nē wāè* or alternatively
pī nā yīnní, *pī nā yí*, *pī nā táñ*[?] ... *pī nā wāè*

The clitic *à-* is omitted after *nē* "with", as here; sometimes it is omitted after the focus particle *nē^{+/}* too:

Lì à nē nāasí. / *Lì à né ànāasí*. "They're four."

The forms *àyíṅā^{+/}* *àtáṅā^{+/}* mean "two, three exactly." If I have four children

Ṁ mór bīisá àtáñ[?]. "I have three children."
1SG have child:**PL NUM**:three. is true, though misleading

but *Ṁ mór bīisá àtáṅā*. "I have exactly three children." is false.

These forms can also be used after *nē*, as in *pīi nē yíḡā* "twelve exactly."
Yīnní⁺ can also be construed with a preceding noun cb:

	<i>kūg-yínní</i> ⁺	"one stone" (M Raising	10.3.1)
cf	<i>kūgυr yīnní</i> ⁺	"one stone" (no M Raising	21.9.1)

In Dagbani both "one" and "ten" can be used after a combining form, but Kusaal has only a few isolated forms like *dà-pīga* "ten days".

After personal pronouns the number prefix is *bà-* instead of *à-* 18.2.1:

<i>tì bàtáñʔ</i>	"we three"
<i>yà bàyóɔpè</i>	"you seven"
<i>bà bàyí</i>	"they two"

18.2.3 Counting Forms

1 to 9 have different forms used in counting, lacking Apocope Blocking and using the number prefix *ḡ-* instead of *à-* 18.2.1. The *ḡ* is syllabic, and assimilates its position of articulation to the following consonant.

1	<i>yēóḡ</i> or <i>àdàkóñʔ</i>	6	<i>ḡyúèb</i>
2	<i>ḡyí</i>	7	<i>ḡpòɛ</i>
3	<i>ḡtáñʔ</i>	8	<i>ḡní</i>
4	<i>ḡnāas</i>	9	<i>ḡwāɛ</i>
5	<i>ḡnū</i>		continuing <i>pīga</i> , <i>pīi nē yí</i> as with quantifiers

Àdàkóñʔ can also be used as a quantifier:

<i>náaf àdàkóñʔ</i>	"one cow"
<i>būvg àdàkóñʔ</i>	"one goat"

Lì káʔ àdàkóñʔʔ +∅. "It's not one."
3NH NEG.BE NUM:one NEG.

The form of "seven" is remarkable, as is its lack of L Raising after the prefix. Referring to the numbers in the abstract, as in performing arithmetic, the quantifier forms are used, not the counting forms:

Àyí námá_ àyí á nē nāasí.
NUM:two PL NUM:two COP FOC four.
 "Two two's are four."

Another is to use numbers as pre-dependents before *dāan*^a "owner of ..."; such phrases are then themselves used either as NP heads or as post-determiners:

<i>àyí dāan lā</i>	"the second one"
<i>būvgá àtáñʔ dāan lā</i>	"the third goat"

Yīigá dāan may be used for "first."

In a story in "*Kusaal Solima ne Siilima*" ordinal forms used in counting "first, second, third ..." appear without Apocope Blocking:

kɔŋʔ daan, ayi daan, ataŋʔ daan, anaas daan, anu daan, ayueɓ daan, apɔɛ daan, anii daan, awaɛ daan, piig daan

My informants use the ordinary quantifier forms here.

18.2.5 Adverbs

Multiplicatives (answering *àbùláh?* "how many-fold?") are expressed

<i>yīmmú</i> ⁺	"straight away, at once"
<i>àbùyí</i> ⁺	"twice"
<i>àbùtáñʔ</i> ⁺	"three times"
<i>àbùnāasí</i> ⁺	"four times"

and so on, with the same stems after the prefixes as for the quantifiers, up to

<i>bùpīiga</i> ⁺	"ten times"
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The *à-* of these forms is not the number prefix but the manner-adverb formant, and a LF-final vowel mora before it is *-ɪ* not *-a*; its attachment only to 2-9 is presumably therefore analogical.

Answers to *nɔ́rǎ àláh* "how many times?" have forms of the pattern

<i>nɔ́r yīnní</i> ⁺	"once"
<i>nɔ́rǎ àtáñʔ</i> ⁺	"three times"
or <i>nɔ́rím b̀táñʔ</i> ⁺	"three times" NT

This *nɔ́r* is not "mouth" (= Mooré *noore*) but corresponds to Mooré *naore* "times", homophonous with Mooré *naore* "leg"; cf Toende Kusaal *nɔ́'ɔ́t* = Agolle *nɔ́b̀ir* "leg". Original open and closed o: fall together when nasalised [5.1.1]. For the semantics cf Hausa *sàu ʔukù* "three times" *sau* "foot(print)." Niggli's Dictionnaire

gives Toende *nó'ɔt* (tone *sic*) in the sense "fois" and even has *nɔba ayi* beside *nɔ'ɔt ayi* "deux fois." Agolle *nɔɔr* "times" does not have a glottalised vowel, however.

Distributives ("two by two" etc) are reduplicated forms without Apocope Blocking; there is no M Raising of the second part except with 10, 100, 1000:

1	<i>yīn yīn</i>	10	<i>pīi pīg</i>	100	<i>kòbɪg kóbìg</i>
2	<i>àyí yí</i>	20	<i>pīsí pīsí</i>	200	<i>kòbɪsí kóbɪsí</i> or <i>kòbɪs yí yí</i>
3	<i>àtáñʔ táñʔ</i>	30	<i>pīs táñʔ táñʔ</i>	300	<i>kòbɪs táñʔ táñʔ</i>
4	<i>ànāas nāas</i>	40	<i>pīs nāas nāas</i>		<i>etc</i>
5	<i>ànū nū</i>	50	<i>pīs nū nū</i>	1000	<i>tūsɪr túsìr</i>
6	<i>àyúèb yúèb</i>	60	<i>pīs yúèb yúèb</i>		
7	<i>àyóɔ̀ɔ̀ pɔ̀ɔ̀</i>	70	<i>pīs yóɔ̀ɔ̀ pɔ̀ɔ̀</i>		
8	<i>àníí níí</i>	80	<i>pīs níí níí</i>		
9	<i>àwāɛ wāɛ</i>	90	<i>pīs wāɛ wāɛ</i>		

Intermediate numbers are made by replacing the last part of the usual quantifier phrase with a distributive:

pīs nū nē nāas nāas "by fifty-fours"

The distributives can have a preceding NP as a determiner:

dābá àyóɔ̀ɔ̀ pɔ̀ɔ̀ "weekly" ("by sevens of days")

18.3 Proquantifiers

Quantifiers have corresponding proforms; the *à-* is the *number* prefix, and induces preceding LF-final *-a* not *-ɪ* [9.3.2]; contrast the Proadverbs [19.1].

Demonstrative

àlá⁺

"so much
/many"

Indefinite

sɪ̃əm^m

"some amount"

Interrogative

àlá⁺

"how much
/many?"

19 Adverbs

Adverbs can be broadly categorised as adverbs of time, place or manner.

Many adverbs are formally identical to nouns, and the question may arise in such cases as to whether they should be regarded as simply adverbial uses of words which are in fact primarily nouns; the matter is rendered more complicated by the fact that AdvPs can be arguments of verbs in some circumstances [22.5], and that adverbs other than proforms may also appear as modifiers and determiners within NPs [21.7.2.3] [21.8.2.3].

Unequivocal adverbs include the proadverbs listed in [19.1], along with various types which do not conform to ordinary noun structure.

Among time adverbs, these include

<i>zīná</i> ⁺	"today"
<i>sùʔes</i> ^a	"yesterday"
<i>dūnná</i> ⁺	"this year"

Various time words which resemble nouns in form nevertheless are distinguishable morphologically from nouns by the fact that they lack cb or pl forms, and syntactically in that they cannot be referred to by pronouns; these include

<i>bēog</i> ^o	"tomorrow"
--------------------------	------------

The word

<i>dāar</i> ^e	"day after tomorrow/day before yesterday"
--------------------------	---

behaves similarly in this sense, but is homophonous with *dāar*^e "day", which is a noun. Other words usable as time adverbs are also capable of being employed as full-fledged nouns [37.8]:

<i>yúʔuŋ</i> ^o	"night"
<i>nīntāŋ</i> ^{a/}	"heat of the day, early afternoon"
<i>úun</i> ^{ne}	"dry season"

On the whole, such nouns are likely to appear with dependents of their own when used in time AdvPs, and words of this type can be treated as special instances of the general principle that any NP with reference to a time may be used as a time AdvP. Categorisation as true time adverbs can be restricted to those which (like manner adverbs) do not accept any dependents.

Locative adverbs comprise proforms along with Kusaasi place names; other locative AdvPs use the locative particle $ni^+ \sim n^e$ [22.3]. It is not possible to use a noun other than a place name by itself as a place adverb, except for a limited set on nouns which are also used as postpositions [22.6], most notably $zūg^{ol}$ "head" in the sense "on, onto, owing to." Although the origin of such postpositions is transparent, synchronically the postpositions are separate lexical items from the homophonous nouns, and the process of zero-derivation that created them is no longer active.

Manner adverbs again include proforms; besides these there are several distinctive formations. Although various NP types can be used as manner AdvPs, as with time adverbs, true manner-adverbs cannot take any dependents.

Several adjective stems form manner-adverbs with an ending $-ga^+$, i.e. $g^a|s^e$ Class sg along with Apocope Blocking [7.4]:

$sùŋā^{+l}$	"well; very much"
$mā'asígā^{+l}$	"coolly"
$tūv'ígā^{+l}$	"hotly"
$gīŋa^+$	"shortly"
$bōgv'sígā^{+l}$	"softly"
$sàal'ígā^{+l}$	"smoothly"
$ñyè'és'ígā^{+l}$	"self-confidently"

Cf also $yīgá^+$ "firstly" see [18.2.4].

Other manner-adverbs with Apocope Blocking include $pāalú^+$ "openly", and

$ñyāe^{ne/}$	"brightly, clearly"
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The NT always writes the SF of $ñyāe^{ne/}$ as *nyain*. This is probably simply a now-traditional orthographic anomaly; if it represents an actual variant, it might be a form containing the locative particle: $ñyāen^{el}$, but not only my informants but also the audio version of the NT at <http://www.bible.is> always have [ñãĩ]; cf Toende $yãlú$ id (though l actually is the usual Toende equivalent of Agolle Locative n^e .) The LF $ñyāené$ is an instance of the addition of $-ne$ to make secondary LFs, as in words with Apocope Blocking which do not end in short vowels [7.4].

The word shows the characteristic distribution of a manner-adverb rather than a noun, appearing as complement of $àñ^{ya}$ "be something" and as an adjunct:

Wina'am a su'um nyain.
Wínà'am á súm ñyāe.
 God COP good:ABSTR brightly.
 "God is light." (1 Jn 1:5)

... *ka ke ka ti lieb nyain.*

... *ké kà tì líàb ñyāe.*

... cause and **1PL** become:**PFV** brightly.

"... make us light." (1 Jn 1:7)

... *na nye lini nie nyain pamm*

... *nà ñyē línì ∅ niè ñyāe pāmm*

... **UNR** see:**PFV** **DEM.NH COMP** appear:**PFV** brightly much

"...will see a great light" ["what appears very brightly"] (Mt 4:16, 1976)

The **manner-adverb prefix** à- appears before some nominal stems which are also followed by Apocope Blocking [22.4]:

<i>àmēṅá⁺</i>	"truly"
<i>àsīda⁺</i>	"truly"
<i>àníṅà⁺</i>	"promptly"

The same prefix is also seen in a number of proadverbs and in the locative *àgól^{le}* "upwards" [22.3]. Words with this prefix are all Liaison Words. The prefix is followed by L raising, like the number prefix, but differs from it in that it does not cause a preceding LF-final vowel mora to appear as -a [9.3.2].

A number of manner-adverbs are formed by **reduplication of roots**.

<i>nàʔanā^{+/}</i>	"easily"
<i>tòʔɔtɔ^{+/}</i>	"straight away" (Mooré <i>taotao</i> id)
<i>kɔñʔɔkɔ^{+/}</i>	"solely, by oneself"

Conversion of abstract non-count nouns can produce Manner adverbs; so particularly with *m^m* Class abstracts. Some Adverbial Phrases of manner are formed by conversion of abstract nouns:

<i>pāalím^m</i>	"recently" (<i>pāalíg^a</i> "new")
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When noun forms are used as manner-adverbs in this way, they are like basic manner-adverbs in not accepting dependents. It thus seems reasonable to regard this process as word-level zero-derivation.

Even concrete count nouns employed in an abstract generic sense can be used adverbially [22.4] but this is a syntactic rather than morphological process.

19.1 Proadverbs

Adverbs have corresponding proforms.

	<u>Demonstrative</u>		<u>Indefinite</u>		<u>Interrogative</u>
Place	<i>kpē</i> ⁺	"here"	<i>zìŋʔ-sīʔa</i> ⁺	<i>yáa nì</i> ⁺	"where?"
	<i>kpēlá</i> ⁺	"there"	"somewhere"	<i>yáa</i>	"whither /whence?"
	<i>àní</i> ⁺	"there"			
	<i>àínā</i> ^{+/}	"there"			
Time	<i>nānná</i> ⁺	"now"	<i>sān-síʔa</i> ⁺	<i>sān-kán</i> ^e	"when?"
	<i>nānná-nā</i> ^{+/}	"now"	"sometime"	<i>būn-dáàr</i> ^e	"which day?"
	<i>sān-kán</i> ^e	"then"		<i>bò-wìn</i> ^{ne}	"what time of day?"
Manner	<i>àñwá</i> ⁺	"like this"	<i>sīʔəm</i> ^m	<i>wēlá</i> ⁺	"how?"
	<i>àwá nā</i> ^{+/}	"like this"	"somehow"		
	<i>àlá</i> ⁺	"like that"			

The indefinites are used as relative pronouns [33.2](#).

The *à-* of the Manner forms is the manner-adverb prefix and is preceded by the LF-final vowel *-i*, while the *à-* of proquantifiers is the *number* prefix, and induces preceding LF-final *-a* not *-i* [9.3.2](#) [18.3](#).

Proforms expressing reason are formed with the postposition *zūg*^{o/} [22.6](#):
àlá zùg^o "because of that", *bōzúgò?* "why?" (cf *bō zúgū* "because" [29.3](#).)

20 Unanalysable Complex Stems

There are numerous words in Kusaal (not least the very name of the language, *Kūsáà*^e) which are more complex structurally than simple unprefixed stem types but are simply en bloc unanalysable units. Tonally, they most often resemble forms with nominal prefixes, though examples occur with an initial H toneme. They are often aberrant segmentally, for example in containing unusual consonant clusters, or showing contrastive nasalisation in the "prefix." By no means all of these are identifiable loanwords; in particular, many names of ethnic groups and clans fall into this category.

Examples of such complex stems include

<i>Kūsáàs</i> ^e	"Kusaasi"
<i>Ñwāmpūris</i> ^{e/}	"Mamprussi"
<i>Kòtām</i> ^{ma/}	WK's clan
<i>gbáñyà'a</i> ⁼	"lazy person" <i>gonya'am</i> "idleness" 1976 NT cf Dagbani <i>gbinyayli</i> "laziness"

20.1 Loanwords

As usual cross-linguistically, nouns form by far the largest group of identifiable loanwords. They are sometimes fitted into the noun class system by analogy [11.7]. Analogy may also cause the initial *a-* of loanwords like *àrazánà*⁺ *àrazàk*^a below to be treated tonally as Fixed-L [10.2].

Most loanwords were probably borrowed from **Hausa** in the first instance. Many such loans stand out prominently as foreign elements by their deviation from the typical structure of Kusaal words, with its limitation of possible vowel contrasts by position within the word and its restrictions on consonant distributions.

Among nouns borrowed from Hausa are

<i>dāká</i> ⁺	"box"	← <i>ʔàdakàa</i>
<i>gādu</i> ⁺	"bed"	← <i>gadoo</i>
<i>kèèkè</i> ⁺	"bicycle"	← <i>kèèkè</i>
<i>bákpàè</i> ⁺	"week"	← <i>bakwài</i> (Hausa "seven")

Identifiable verb loanwords are much less common, but there are examples:

<i>dàam</i> ^m	"disturb, trouble"	← <i>dàamaa</i>
<i>bùg</i> ^e	"get drunk"	← <i>bùgu</i>
	Hausa idiom: literally "get thoroughly beaten"	

Quite a few function words are certainly loans, and probably from Hausa:

<i>àséé</i>	"except"	← <i>sai</i>
<i>kōv</i>	"or"	← <i>koo</i>

With *bāa* "not a..." 35.4 ← *bāa*

bāa is part of the core Hausa system of negation, so Hausa is almost certainly the origin of the loan (though even here, compare Humburi Senni *bá:y-à*: "nothing.")

The existence of the same words in the Hausa even of Nigeria confirms that these are loanwords in Kusaal, but the actual immediate source of the borrowing is frequently not certain, because Hausa (like English) is not only a great lender of words to other languages but also a great borrower. Sometimes such words also occur in many other languages of the Sahel and Savanna: *hālí*⁺ "until", Hausa *har*, Kikara Songhay *háli* id, possibly from Arabic حتى *hatta*: (etymology suggested in Heath 2005); *l̥mbòʔɔg*^o "garden", Hausa *lambu*, but also e.g. Humburi Senni *l̥mbò* "enclosed vegetable garden", where Heath speculates on a Songhay-internal connexion with *l̥mbà*, "lurk, hide (e.g. behind a wall or tree)", a word which in turn seems to be connected with the Kusaal Invariable Verb *l̥bi*^{ya} "be crouching, hiding behind something", Hausa *labèe* id; cf also Kikara Songhay *lá:bú* "hide behind or under something." In the case of Kusaal *l̥bi*^{ya} and Hausa *labèe*, the coincidence of highly specific meanings with very similar forms is striking. However, if the Kusaal word is a loan, it has been remarkably well integrated into the language, with an Invariable Verb type Long Form in -*ya* 3.2.2 and Variable Verb assume-posture and make-assume-posture derivatives 15.2.1.1.

Hausa loans have travelled far in West Africa, with an entry point into Songhay via the Zarma and Kaado languages of Niger, e.g. Humburi *tílàsò* "duty", Zarma, Kaado *tílàs* ← Hausa *tiilàs*. Accordingly, wide distribution does not in itself rule out Hausa origin or transmission.

Words of **Arabic** origin are frequent throughout the languages of the Sahel and Savanna; thus, among many others

<i>Tàláatà</i> ⁺	"Tuesday"	Hausa	<i>Tàlaatàa</i>	
		Arabic	الثلاثاء	<i>ʔaθ-θala:θa:ʔ(i)</i>
<i>láafiya</i> ⁺	"health"	Hausa	<i>laafiyàa</i>	id
		Mooré	<i>laafi</i>	id
		Kikara Songhay	<i>ʔàlà:fíyà</i>	id
		Arabic	العافية	<i>ʔal-ʕa:fiya(tu)</i>
				"(the) wellness"

<i>àrazàk</i> ^a	"riches"	Hausa	<i>ʔarzikii</i>	id
		Mooré	<i>arɛka</i>	id
		Kikara Songhay	<i>ʔárzúkù</i>	"good luck"
		Arabic	الرزق <i>ʔar-rizq(u)</i>	"(the) livelihood"
		cf plural	ارزاق <i>ʔarza:q(un)</i>	
<i>àrazánà</i> ⁺	"heaven, sky"	Hausa	<i>ʔàljannàa</i>	"heaven, paradise"
		Mooré	<i>arzāna</i>	id
		Kikara Songhay	<i>ʔàljánnà</i>	id
		Arabic	الجنة <i>ʔal-janna(tu)</i>	"(the) garden, paradise"
<i>yàddā</i> ^{+/}	"assent"	Hausa	<i>yàrda</i>	(verb) "consent"
		Gao Songhay	<i>yarda/yadda</i>	id
<i>yàdā</i> WK		Kikara Songhay	<i>yárrè</i>	id
		probably Arabic	يرضى <i>yard^ʕa:</i>	3sg m ipfv of
		رضى <i>rad^ʕiy(a)</i>	"be satisfied"	

Given the importance of *Gaanancii* as the lingua franca of northern Ghana, it is likely that such Arabic words have normally entered Kusaal via Hausa. In most cases this is impossible to prove or disprove, but occasionally there is a suggestive mismatch between the Hausa and the Kusaal forms, which more nearly resemble those of some other language. Mooré is a possible alternative intermediary for Arabic loanwords in Kusaal; Hausa influence in Mooré is, at least, certainly less than in Kusaal, and such words may have reached Mooré from other West African languages widely used by Muslims, such as Dyula or the various Songhay languages.

Thus *màljāk*^a "angel" (always *malek* in the NT) is undoubtedly ultimately from the Arabic ملاك *malʔak(un)* (itself, of course, a loanword.) The vocalism suggests an origin in Mooré *malɛka*, perhaps via Toende *màlék*. The word is usually found in Christian materials, which would be consistent with an immediate source in Mooré and/or Toende Kusaal (see below.) None of these forms seems likely to be borrowed from the Hausa *màlaaʔikàa*, which is itself from the Arabic plural ملائكة *mala:ʔika(tu)*. A similar case in the realm of religion is *Sūtānà*⁺ "Satan", corresponding to Mooré *Sutāana* (cf Bambara *sitanɛ*) rather than Hausa *shàidān*, which is a learned form close to the Arabic شيطان *ʔayt^ʕa:n(u)*. Again, *dūnɪya*⁺ "world" has the short *u* vowel of the Arabic دنيا *dunya:* rather than the long *uu* of Hausa *duuniyàa*; Balima et al have Mooré *dúnyà*. The all-M tonemes of *dūnɪya*⁺ are surprising in either case, but the limited possibilities for different word-internal tone contrasts in Kusaal prevent

straightforward copying of the tones of source languages and presumably result in analogy playing a great rôle in Tone Pattern assignment.

Loanwords from **Songhay** languages, probably borrowed via Mooré, include

<i>bòrkìn</i> ^a	"honest person" Dagbani <i>bilchina</i> "free, not slave" Mooré <i>burkina</i> "free, noble" (as in "Burkina Faso") even Yoruba <i>bòròkinní</i> "gentleman" cf Kikara Songhay <i>bòrkín</i> "noble (caste)"; the first component is probably <i>bòrò</i> "person."
<i>bàɲɲu</i> ⁺	only as in e.g. <i>ò kpèñʔ báɲɲù</i> . (<i>kpèñʔ</i> ⁺ "enter") "He was circumcised." cf Kikara Songhay <i>bàɲɲù</i> "pool, spring" in the idiom <i>à húró bàɲɲù</i> , literally "He entered the pool." (not "forest", as in some sources: Trimingham 1959) Mooré <i>kě bãongo</i> (<i>kě</i> "enter" = <i>kpèñʔ</i> ⁺)

Loans from other **Western Oti-Volta languages** are difficult to distinguish from cognates; the vast majority of similar words are due to common inheritance and not borrowing. It is notable, however, that Kusaal speakers themselves very often ascribe forms which are not part of their own usage to **Mooré** influence.

As an illustration of the difficulties, a word shown to be a loan by its phonology is *Wínnàʔam*^m or *Wínàʔam*^m "God" (realised with *-nn-* by WK, but consistently *Wina'am* in the NT and other written materials.) The word refers particularly to the Christian God; the Creator of traditional religion appears simply as *Wīn*^{ne/} in proverbs etc. *Wínnàʔam* looks analysable as a compound of *wīn*^{ne/} "god" and the stem of *nàʔab*^a "chief" or *nāʔam*^m "chieftaincy", but the tonal structure is unparalleled for an Agolle Kusaal compound (one would expect **Wīn-náʔàm*), and the prevalence of the form *Wínàʔam* with single *-n-* also shows that the form is not a synchronic compound within Agolle Kusaal. The earliest Christian missionary work among the Kusaasi began in Haute Volta (now Burkina Faso), using Mooré materials, so one possible source might be the corresponding Mooré word *Wěnaam* or *Wěnaam*, which appears as *Wěñām* (HL tones) in Balima et al. This would not account for the glottalised *-aʔa-*; and while conceivably that might be due to the analogy of *nàʔab*^a, it probably rather shows that the immediate source of the loan is not Mooré but the **Toende Kusaal** of Burkina/Haute Volta. Niggli's Dictionnaire has *Wínā'am*, which shows a tonal fall like the Agolle *Wínàʔam*. Furthermore, all instances of the word in Niggli's materials show single *-n-*; Niggli's account implies (though it does not explicitly state) that contrastive gemination in Toende Kusaal is preserved only before the affix vowels of Long Forms.

A similar case is the odd form *faangid* used for "saviour" in the New Testament versions. Informants read it as [fã:ŋɪd]; the preservation of *g* in this position [7.3.1] is almost completely isolated within Agolle Kusaal (the sole other example I have found is the strange gerund form *zīʔəg*^a of *zīʔe*^{ya} "be standing" used by DK KT instead of KED *zīʔa*⁺ [14.1.1.2].) The expected agent noun from *fāeñ*^{+/} "save" is *fāañd*^{a/}, which was probably avoided for the meaning "saviour" as it is identical to the agent noun of *fāñ*⁺ "rob, snatch", itself found in the NT as *faand* "robber." WK uses the identical agent noun form *fāañd*^{a/} for both verbs, specifically confirming both meanings.

As with *Wínà'am*, the forms may be loans from Toende Kusaal, where the deletion of **g* seems to be partial, with the details varying between speakers (Niggli, "La phonologie du kusaal.") Loss of *g* is consistent word-finally after *all* long vowels (*bíi* "child" = *bīig*^a, *būū* "goat" = *būvg*^a), and optional or absent otherwise:

<i>páa</i>	"arriver" (Agolle <i>pāe</i> ⁺ "reach")
<i>Õ bu paage.</i>	"Il n'est pas arrivé." (Agolle <i>Õ pū pāée.</i>)

Niggli's "Dictionnaire" has both *fāagit* and *fāat* for "*sauveur*", with *fāat* also glossed as "*voleur, brigand*."

A more everyday example is WK's form *kīibú*⁺ cb *kīib-* "soap." Written sources have *ki'ib*, probably *kīʔib*^{o/} "soap", cf Toende *kí'ip* in Niggli's "Dictionnaire" (Farefare *kí'ibó*.) The final *-v* of *kīibú* suggests borrowing from a related language which does not delete final short vowels in citation forms. The tense stem vowel further suggests that the source was the **Mampruli** *kyiibu*, as loss of the tense/lax distinction in the high vowels is characteristic of the subgroup of languages which includes Mampruli, Hanga and Dagbani, and in particular is not seen in Mooré.

Other words with singulars ending in *-t*⁺ or *-v*⁺ [11.6] like *kābirí*⁺ "permission for entry" and *sūgvrú*⁺ "forbearance" may similarly have originated as loans from other Western Oti-Volta languages.

A few loans from **English** are found. English is in most respects even less like Kusaal in phonological structure than Hausa is, and those loanwords which are sufficiently naturalised that they are used even by speakers unfamiliar with English have often undergone considerable changes:

<i>àlópìr</i> ^e	"aeroplane"; perhaps a back-formation from [alɔpɪɪn] taken as a locative <i>àlópìrɪn</i> ^{e/}
<i>duʔátà</i> ⁺	"doctor" (cf Dagbani <i>dóyté</i> id)
<i>tóklàe</i> ⁺	"torch" ← "torchlight"
<i>lór</i> ^e	"car, lorry" (often borrowed even in Francophone Africa: cf Kabiye <i>lɔcríyɛ</i> , Mooré <i>lore</i>)

The word *pootum* "complain about officially" found in the 1976 NT version is ultimately from the English "report"; cf Mampruli, Buli *pooti* id.

English stress may be represented by a H toneme which remains fixed throughout the paradigm: *lɔ̀yà* "cars", not **lɔ̀yá* [11.7].

Several loanwords of English origin have probably been transmitted via Hausa:

<i>kɔ̀tò</i> ⁺	"court"	Hausa <i>kootù</i>
<i>sɔ̀gjà</i> ^a	"soldier"	Hausa <i>soojà</i>
<i>tɛ̀ɛ̀bù</i> ^e	"table"	Hausa <i>teebùr</i>
<i>wā́dà</i> ⁺	"law"	Hausa <i>ʔoodà</i> (← English <i>order</i>) sg <i>wā́dɪ</i> ^{e/} cb <i>wā́d-</i> by back-formation

The only **French** loan identified in my materials is *làmpɔ̀* (i.e. *l'impôt*) "tax", as in *làmpɔ̀-dí'əs*^a "tax gatherer", which is perhaps a legacy of early Bible translation activity by workers coming from Haute Volta (though it is found also in Dagbani.) There are naturally many more French loans in Burkina Faso Toende (Niggli 2014.)

I have identified few loans from **Twi/Fante** ("Akan"), the major lingua franca of southern Ghana; in part, this probably reflects my own lack of knowledge of that language. However, as of 1995, knowledge of Twi was certainly less common among the Kusaasi than knowledge of Hausa or Mooré.

Loans include

<i>kɔ̀dú</i> ⁺	"banana"	← <i>kwadu</i>
<i>sā́afi</i> ⁺ (?tones)	"lock, key"	← <i>safě</i> "key"
<i>bū́ryá</i> ⁺	"Christmas"	← <i>bronya</i> (itself of unclear origin)

Syntax

21 Noun Phrases

21.1 Noun Phrases: Overview

A Noun Phrase has a noun, pronoun or quantifier as head. If present, the **article** /ā⁺/ occurs last in a NP [21.3]. (For the sole exception, see [25.7].)

Dependent Nominal Phrases may precede the head, possibly recursively, as **Pre-determiners**. The meaning depends on the nature of the head: some heads have specialised rôles [21.9.3]; with Quantifiers or pronoun heads the sense is **partitive** [21.9.1]; pre-determiners of gerunds and similar nouns are subjects [21.9.2]; pre-determiners of all other heads are **possessors** [21.7.3].

A Nominal Phrase may be a Relative Clause [33.2]. No dependents may occur with a Relative Clause apart from the article or a pre-determiner. Nominal Phrases may be formed by **Coordination** [21.4] or by **Apposition** [21.5].

As is characteristic of Oti-Volta, **compounding** [21.6] is pervasive in NP formation, often where most languages use uncompounded constructions. Closeness of syntactic binding need not be reflected in whether the components are compounded or not [21.6.1]. Adjectives and post-determining pronouns regularly compound with the preceding head; accordingly the combining form is a regular part of the noun paradigm. Combining forms also function as **Pre-modifiers**, particularly before deverbal nouns in the rôle of arguments.

Uncombined NPs of various kinds also appear within NPs as pre-modifiers, and uncombined Quantifier and Adverbial Phrases may follow heads as post-determiners.

Personal pronouns accept only post-determining pronouns as dependents.

21.2 Noun Phrase Categories

21.2.1 Number

Number is a category only of nouns and pronouns, along with quantifiers when heading Quantifier Phrases. Agreement is confined to pronouns. Verbal Predicators show no agreement with any argument (on plural-subject imperatives see [30.2.3].) However, in noun + adjective and noun + post-determining pronoun compounds, it is the dependent which inflects to show the number of the head noun cb [21.8.1].

Kusaal resembles English in distinguishing between **count** nouns, with singular and plural, and **mass** nouns which normally make no such distinction, and characteristically refer to liquids or substances or abstractions. Abstract nouns may be count nouns; so, for example with gerund forms which can be interpreted as referring to particular instances of the action of the verb:

<i>zōɔg</i> ⁰	<i>zōɔs</i> ^e		"race"
<i>būʔesúg</i> ⁰	<i>būʔesá</i> ⁺	<i>būʔes-</i>	"question"
<i>zàaṅsúg</i> ⁰	<i>zàaṅsíma</i> ⁺	<i>zàaṅsúg-</i>	"dream"

Some abstract count nouns are formally plural but construed as singular [11.5](#)

<i>dìʔəma</i> ⁺	"festival"
<i>pjàṅʔad</i> ^e	"word, language"
<i>tēṅʔesá</i> ⁺	"thought"

Cf *tēṅʔesá yīnní* "one thought" (Acts 4:32).

Typical underived mass nouns belong to the *b*⁰ and *m*^m Noun Classes, which do not have paired sg/pl suffixes [11.1](#), but some are formally plural [11.5](#), and gerunds of 3-mora stem verbs regularly show sg *r*^e or *g*⁰ suffixes [14.1.1.1](#).

The count/mass distinction is significant in the choice of quantifiers [18.1](#) and when plurals are formed with *nám*^a [11.4](#), and it affects the meaning of constructions with preceding NPs as dependents [21.7](#).

Mass nouns can be used in count senses [11.4](#) (as in English):

dāam nám "beers"

Count nouns can be used in mass senses, where number distinctions are irrelevant [21.7.2.2](#):

<i>fūug dṑg</i>	"tent" (cloth hut)
cf <i>fūug</i>	"item of clothing, shirt"
<i>dàad bún-nám</i>	"wooden things"
cf <i>dàad</i>	"pieces of wood"

Manner-adverbs resemble mass nouns syntactically. Mass nouns may occur as manner adverbs, as may count nouns used where number is irrelevant [22.4](#):

Ṁ kēj nōbá.

1SG go:PFV leg:PL.

"I went on foot." SB; WK corrected this to *Ṁ kēj nē nōbá*, using *nē* "with."

21.2.2 Gender

Gender is marked only in pronouns. It is natural, distinguishing **personal** from **non-personal**. Not only human beings, but also supernatural beings, "fairies" and the like have personal gender. Without a context, my informants all rejected

**Ò à nē náaf.*

3HU COP FOC COW:SG.

attempted "It is a cow."

However, both the NT version and older written materials use the personal-gender pronouns for higher animals:

Bung ya'a bood ye o lubuf, fu po nyeti o tubaa.

Bòŋ yáʔ bòɔd yé ò lūbú_ f,

Donkey:SG if want that 3HU throw.off:PFV 2SGO,

fù pō ñyētí_ ò túbāa +∅.

2SG NEG.IND see:IPFV 3HU ear:PL NEG.

"If a donkey wants to throw you off, you don't see his ears." KSS p44 (i.e. "If there's a will, there's a way.")

Wief ya'a sigin li ni, li zuluŋ na paaen o salabir.

Wiəf yáʔ sīgín lì nī, lì zùluŋ ná pāan_ ò sàltbr.

Horse:SG if descend:PFV:REM 3NH LOC, 3NH depth UNR reach:PFV:REM 3HU bridle:SG.

"If a horse went down in it, its depth would reach its bridle." (Rev 14:20, 1976)

In stories where animals speak, they are naturally assigned personal gender. Trees, which are animate in the traditional Kusaasi world view, may also have personal gender:

Tiig wela bigisid on a si'em.

Tiig wélà bigisid ón à sī'em.

Tree:SG fruit:PL show:IPFV 3HU:COMP COP INDF.ADV.

"The fruit of a tree shows what ["how"] it is." (Mt 12:33, 1976)

In the 1996 version the gender has been changed to non-personal:

Tiig wela bigisid lin a tisi'a.

Tiig wélà bigisid lín à tí-sī'a.

Tree:SG fruit:PL show:IMPV 3NH:COMP COP tree-INDF.NH

"The fruit of the tree shows what tree it is." (Mt 12:33, 1996)

When body parts are metaphorically represented as having opinions in the New Testament they have personal gender in the passage:

Nobir ya'a yelin ye, on pu a nu'ug la zug, o ka' ningbiŋ nii, lin ku nyanjin keen ka o ka' ningbiŋ nii.

Nóbìr yá' yèlīn yē, ɔn pō á nú'ùg lā zúg,

Leg:SG if say:PFV:REM that 3HU:COMP NEG.IND COP hand:SG ART upon,

ò kā' nín-gbīŋ níú +∅, līn kú ñyāŋin_ ∅

3HU NEG.BE body-skin:SG LOC NEG, DEM.NH NEG.UNR accomplish:PFV:REM SER

kēen kà ò kā' nín-gbīŋ níú +∅.

cause:PFV:REM and 3HU NEG.BE body-skin:SG LOC NEG.

"If the leg were to say, because it is not a hand, it is not in the body, that would not cause it not to be in the body." (1 Cor 12:15, 1976)

(In the 1996 version the indirect speech is changed to direct, as throughout.)

Babies may be counted as personal or non-personal gender:

Ò/Lì à nē bí-līa.

3HU/3NH COP FOC child-baby:SG.

"He/she/it is a baby."

Thus, while there might have been a change in the gender system itself over the past years from animate/inanimate to personal/non-personal, it seems more likely that changes in usage regarding animals, trees etc simply reflect how the referents are conceptualised.

There *has* been a change, however, apparent to some extent already in the NT versions but virtually complete in the speech of my informants, in the **alignment of gender and number**. An earlier opposition of a personal gender which distinguished singular from plural over against a non-personal gender which used the same forms for both numbers (resembling that described for modern Dagbani by Olawsky) has been replaced by a system which distinguishes personal/non-personal in the singular but has no gender distinction in the plural.

In older sources, like the 1976 NT, non-human pronoun forms are used indifferently with singular or plural reference, occasionally using *nàm*^a plurals to avoid ambiguity; my informants, however, consistently use "human" pl for non-human reference:

Bà à nē kūgá.

"They are stones."

3PL COP FOC stone:PL.

This continues a trend seen in NT, which uses "human" plural for non-human in the demonstratives already: NT uses the independent non-human gender demonstrative pronoun *nē*^{+/} as sg and pl, with *nē*⁻-*nám*^a also as a plural form, but consistently uses the human-plural forms *bàmmā*^{+/} *bàn*^e of the dependent pronouns for non-human; my informants use human plural forms for non-human throughout.

In my informants' unselfconscious utterances there seem to be signs of gender distinctions breaking down altogether:

Nīf-kájā, ɔn sáʔàm nē.

Eye-DEML.SG, DEM.HU spoil:PFV FOC.

"This eye, it's spoilt." KT

Ṁ pū ñyē·óo +∅.

1SG NEG.IND see:PFV:3HUO NEG.

"I can't find it [a stethoscope]" (Overheard)

sālima láʔəd né ò bōtus

gold item:PL with 3HU cup:PL

"gold stuff and (gold) cups" WK

Speakers correct the gender to non-personal if their attention is drawn to it.

The dummy subject pronoun "it" is always *lì*, never *ò*.

To avoid confusion with the term "personal" as in "personal pronoun" the genders will be called, less accurately, **human** and **non-human** elsewhere.

21.2.3 Person

Person is a category confined to personal pronouns. The Verbal Predicator shows no agreement with any argument [24.1] (with a marginal exception for some speakers with plural commands [30.2.3].) Person is straightforward, with no inclusive/exclusive distinctions and no honorific uses. 2sg is used in proverbs for a generic "one":

Bung ya'a bood ye o lubuf, fu po nyeti o tubaa.

Bùŋ yáʔ bòɔd yé ò lūbú_ f,

Donkey:SG if want that 3HU throw.off:PFV 2SGO,

fù pū ñyētí_ ò túbāa +∅.

2SG NEG.IND see:IPFV 3HU ear:PL NEG.

"If a donkey wants to throw you off, you don't see his ears." KSS p44 (i.e. "If there's a will, there's a way.")

The 3rd Person plural is used as a non-specific "they" for turning passive constructions actively, much as in English:

Bà yòɔdī f sùŋàa +ø?

3PL pay:IPFV 2SGO good:ADV PQ?

"Are you well paid?" "Do they [never mentioned] pay you well?" SB

This construction has become grammaticalised so far that the the object can be construed as the grammatical subject in a Serial VP construction [28.1], e.g.

Diib wusa nare ba di.

Dīb wūsa nári ø bà dí.

Food all must **SER 3PL eat:PFV**.

"All foods may be eaten." (Rom 14:20)

There are formal means of distinguishing different third persons by the use of pronoun ellipsis [29.1.4.2] and logophoric use of the free pronouns [31.4.2].

21.3 The Article *lā*^{+/}

The two words *lā*^{+/} and *ñwà*⁺ presumably originated as corresponding deictics "that" and "this." Although *ñwà* retains this sense, *lā*^{+/} in the great majority of its occurrences is a definite article. It retains a deictic sense, in opposition to *ñwà*⁺, in the Non-verbal Predicators *n lā, n ñwà* [27] and after demonstratives [17.2].

Unlike *lā*^{+/}, *ñwà*⁺ can stand alone as a NP:

Ñwà á nē bīig.

"This is a child." WK; tones *sic*.

This **COP FOC** child:**SG**.

Both *lā*^{+/} and *ñwà*⁺ always stand finally in the NP (though this entire phrase may be a pre-determiner within another NP) except for the marginal case where a VP-final particle occurs in an *ñ*-Clause, when it may follow the article attached to the clause [25.7].

As the definite article, *lā*^{+/} corresponds in many cases to English *the*, marking referents as specific and already established. However, unlike *the*, *lā*^{+/} is not typically used for "familiar background", unless there was an explicit prior mention of the referent:

Winnig lí yā.

"The sun has set."

Sun:**SG** fall:**PFV INDEP**.

It is not used with pronouns, or with proper names of people or places, which are inherently definite:

<i>mān</i>	"me"
<i>À-Wīn</i>	"Awini"
<i>Bòk</i>	"Bawku"

Nor is it used with abstract mass nouns, which do not distinguish definite from indefinite (compare the neutralisation of the referring/non-referring distinction implied in their construction when they appear as pre-modifiers [21.7.2.2](#)):

Noŋir pu naada.

nòŋir pū nāadá +∅.

Love **NEG.IND** finish:**IPFV NEG.**

"Love does not come to an end." (1 Cor 13:8, 1976)

Lā^{+/} is not used in vocatives:

<i>Bīiga +∅!</i>	"Child!"
Child: SG VOC!	

This contrasts with *ñwà⁺*, which is common in vocatives [30.2.4](#):

<i>Bīs ñwá!</i>	"Children!"	[bi:sa]
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There is no indefinite article: a NP with no *lā^{+/}* is indefinite if it could have taken *lā^{+/}* in the sense of the article. When a NP of a type which can take the article appears without it, the sense may be non-referential. This is the case, for example, with negative-bound nouns like *bīig* "child" in

<i>Ḿ bīig kāʔe +∅.</i>	"I've no child" WK
1SG child:SG NEG.BE NEG.	

and with the complement of *àḡñ^{ya}* "be something" when used ascriptively [26.2](#):

<i>Ò à nē bīig.</i>	"She is a child."
3HU COP FOC child:SG.	

An indefinite NP is only likely to have a *specific* sense in the context of an explicit introductory presentational statement, such as the introduction of a new character in a story [34.4](#):

Dau da be mori o biribing

Dāy dá bē_ ∅ mōrí_ ò bī-díbiŋ

Man:SG TNS EXIST SER have 3HU child-boy:SG

"Once there was a man who had a son ..." KSS p35

Anina ka o nye dau ka o yu'ur buon Aeneas.

Àníná kà ò ñyē dāy kà ò yūʔur búèn Aeneas.

ADV:there and 3HU see:PFV man:SG and 3HU name:SG call:IPFV Aeneas.

"There he found a man whose name was Aeneas." (Acts 9:33)

Outside such contexts, a referential indefinite NP is usually *generic*; unlike English *the*, *lā*^{+/} is not used with generic reference:

Tumtum pu gaad o zugsoba.

Tùm-tùm pū gáàd ò zūg-sóbā +∅.

Work-worker:SG NEG.IND pass:PFV 3HU head-one:SG NEG.

"The servant does not surpass his master." (Jn 15:20)

Tiig wela bigisid on a si'em.

Tìg wélà bìgısid ón à sīʔem.

Tree:SG fruit:PL show:IPFV 3HU:COMP COP INDF.ADV.

"The fruit of a tree shows what ["how"] it is." (Mt 12:33, 1976)

Kusaas ye ...

"The Kusaasi say ..." KSS p16
drawing the moral of a story.

Generic reference core arguments are incompatible with a Verbal Predicator with Bounded Imperfective aspect [34.1.1.3].

A possessive pre-determining NP ending in *lā*^{+/} makes the following head definite, and the head does not itself take the article:

dūʔàtà lā bìg

"the doctor's child"

not **dūʔàtà lā bìg lā*

Pronouns and personal names as possessive pre-determiners do *not* have this effect; only pre-determiners *with the article*, and demonstrative pronouns [17.2], automatically make their NPs definite:

Wínàʔam máljāk

"an angel of God"

Wínàʔam máljāk lā

"the angel of God"

n̄ bīig

"my child" (at first mention)

n̄ bīig lā

"my child" (previously mentioned)

In the passage

Ka po'a so' da be more o bipuŋ ka kikirig dol o. Ka o wum Yesu yela, ka ken igini o tuon. Ka sos Yesu ye o kadim kikirig la yiisi o bīig la ni.

Kà pu'á-sā' dá bē_ø mōrí_ò bī-púŋ kà kíkírīg

And woman-INDF.HU TNS EXIST SER have 3HU child-girl:SG and fairy:SG

dōll-ó_ø. Kà ò wúm Yesu yéla, kà kēŋ_ø ígìnì_

follow 3HUO. And 3HU hear:PFV Jesus about, and go:PFV SER kneel.down:PFV

ò tùen. Kà sós Yesu yé ò kàdım kíkírīg lā_ø yīisí_

3HU in.front. And beg:PFV Jesus that 3HU drive.out:IMP fairy:SG ART SER expel:PFV

ò bīig lā ní.

3HU child:SG ART LOC.

"There was a woman whose daughter was oppressed by a devil. She heard about Jesus and came and knelt down before him. She asked Jesus to cast the devil out of her child." (Mk 7:25-26)

the article does not occur in *ò bī-púŋ* "her daughter" on first introduction, but does occur in *ò bīig lā* "her child" after the reference is established, just as with nouns without possessive pre-determiners.

Compare

M̄ bīig kā'e +ø.

"I've no child" WK

1SG child:SG NEG.BE NEG.

M̄ bīig lā kā'e +ø.

"My child's not there" WK

1SG child:SG ART NEG.BE NEG.

Note also the characteristic idiom at first introduction of a new possessed referent seen in two of the examples above:

Ka po'a so' da be more o bipuŋ

Kà pu'á-sā' dá bē_ø mōrí_ò bī-púŋ

And woman-INDF.HU TNS EXIST SER have 3HU child-girl:SG

"There was a woman who had a [literally "her"] daughter..." (Mk 7:25)

Dau da be mori o biribing

Dāy dá bē_ ∅ mōrí_ ò bī-díbiŋ

Man:SG TNS EXIST SER have 3HU child-boy:SG

"Once there was a man who had a son ..." KSS p35

further demonstrating that pronoun possessors do not automatically entail definiteness of the head.

Compare the use of *yēlá*⁺ "about" of as a pre-modifier in NPs even when it has a definite pre-determiner itself [21.7.2.3], and the fact that postpositions (including the null allomorph of the locative marker [22.3]) may function for focus purposes as pragmatically non-recoverable despite following a definite pre-determiner [34.1.1.3].

Certain words consistently lack the article after a pronoun possessor even if they are specific old information, however; this may be a question of uniqueness within the particular context, occurring for example with words like *bā*^{+/} or *sàam*^{ma} "father." (It is possibly a feature characteristic of kinship terms or words that rarely appear without a possessor [37.1].)

An opposition between forms with and without the article, rather than definite versus indefinite, is seen in the distribution of the empty particle *nē* which follows complements of comparisons [23.1] when they lack the article, even if they are proper names or other NPs which do not normally appear with *lā*^{+/}.

For an unambiguously indefinite specific meaning like "some, another" the Indefinite pronouns are used [17.3].

Nā[?]-síəbà ǎñbìd nē mōɔd.

Cow INDF.PL chew:IPFV FOC grass:PL.

"Some cows are eating grass."

An Indefinite pronoun is necessary to make the head indefinite after a pre-determiner with the article:

dū[?]átà lā bī-sō[?]

"a child of the doctor's"

doctor:SG ART child INDF.HU

The number *yīnní*⁺ "one" is sometimes used to introduce a new referent:

Farisee dim nid yinni da be

Farisee dím nid yīnní dà bē ...

Pharisee individual.PL person:SG one TNS EXIST ...

"There was one man of the Pharisees ..." (Jn 3:1)

However, *yīnní* here is not bleached to the simple sense of an indefinite article; rather, the construction is parallel to e.g.

Dapa atan' n da be. "There were once three men." KSS p16
Dāpá_ àtáñ' n dá bè.
 Man:PL NUM:three SER TNS EXIST

21.4 Coordination

Coordination is characteristically seen with NPs, but occurs to some extent with all types of NP (and with AdvPs, except those headed by manner adverbs.)

The coordinating particles for "or" are *bēē* or the Hausa loanword *kūu*. Here the two words are synonymous; the only place where they consistently have different senses is in the formation of polar questions [30.2.2]. Both, like English *or*, are by default taken as exclusive "or" but admit the inclusive interpretation "or both." This can be spelt out explicitly:

Bīig lā kūu dāy lā kūu bà wūsa
 child:SG ART or man:SG ART or 3PL all
 "The man, or the child, or both" WK

The particle for "and" for Nominal Phrases is *nē*. This *nē* is fundamentally the same word as the preposition "with" [23.1]; the conjunctions *bēē* and *kūu* can be used in a parallel way, but the categories of (true) Conjunction and Preposition should probably be conflated [29.3]. *Nē* links only nominal words and phrases, and never clauses unless they are first nominalised; it is not possible to further conflate the preposition/conjunction category with clause Linker Particles.

Consistent with this analysis of *nē* "and", it is not possible to omit coordinating particles in a series of three or more items

À-Wīn né À-Bōgur né À-Nà'ab "Awini, Abugri and Anaba"

Nor can *nē* be used to join two words with the same referent: *dū'átà nē ná'àb* cannot be "someone who is a doctor and a chief."

Coordination of quantifiers occurs within numbers [18.2.2]:

kòbis táñ' nē pīs yúèbò nē nū
 hundred:PL three with ten:PL six with five
 "three hundred and sixty-five"

ñwāɗɗɗɗ pīi nē yí "twelve months"
month:PL ten with two

There are many restrictions on coordination within complex NPs.
Coordination is not possible within NPs involving combining forms:

*[*bēŋíd nē kī*] *kúè̀s* not possible for "seller of *bēŋíd nē kī*"
(beanleaf-and-millet, a standard conceptual
unity like "fish and chips", "lox and bagels")

Articles cannot be coordinated nor shared by a coordinated head; for example,
both articles are necessary in:

pu'ā lā nē dāy lā "the woman and the man"
woman:SG ART with man:SG ART

NP pre-determiners cannot be shared by a coordinated head. Thus both
instances of *m̄* "my" are needed in

m zuanam ne m saamnama
m̄ zuà-nàm né m̄ sàam-nàmā + \emptyset
1SG friend-PL with **1SG** father-PL **VOC**
"my friends and [my] fathers!" (Acts 7:2)

The *quantifier* *yīigá*⁺ "firstly" as a pre-determiner 21.7.3 may be shared:

yīiga saŋgbauŋ ne teŋgbauŋ ne ateuk
yīigá sàŋ-gbàùŋ nē téŋ-gbàùŋ né àtìyuk
firstly heaven-skin:SG with earth-skin:SG with sea:SG
"the first heaven and earth and sea" (Rev 21:1)

Pre-modifiers can be shared:

Kūsáàl sólímà nē sílímà "Kusaasi stories and proverbs"
Kusaal story:PL with proverb:PL

Kūsáàs kúè̀b nē yīr "Kusaasi agriculture and housing"
Kusaasi:PL hoeing with house:SG

sālima bútiis nē dísiímà "gold cups and spoons" ("all of them gold", KT)
gold cup:PL with spoon:PL

However, KT WK both agreed that

sālima láʔàd nē bōtūs

must mean "gold goods and [not gold] cups", WK offering the correction

sālima láʔàd né ò bōtūs "gold goods and (gold) cups" WK
gold item:PL with 3HU cup:PL

where *ò* refers to *sālima*. (See [21.2.2](#) on the unexpected gender of the pronoun.) The difference from *sālima bōtūs nē díísímà* (above) is probably that "cups" are a subtype of "goods", impairing the parallel between the coordinated units and making it less natural to supply the ellipsis than in *sālima bōtūs nē [sālima] díísímà* "gold cups and [gold] spoons" (I am grateful to Tony Naden for this suggestion.)

Though a coordinated head may thus not share a single free dependent if that is a NP as a pre-determiner, a coordinated NP structure may serve as a pre-determiner or a pre-modifier of a single head:

duʔátà nē náʔàb lā lóyà "Doctor's and the chief's cars"
doctor:SG with chief:SG ART car:PL

sālima nē ānzúrfà láʔàd "gold and silver goods"
gold with silver item:PL

The latter two cases are ambiguous, as in English: this is because of an alternative interpretation as ellipsis of the first of two repeated heads within a coordination of two parallel dependent + head NPs (cf [29.1.4.1](#)):

<i>[duʔátà nē náʔàb lā] lóyà</i>	"the cars of [Doctor-and-the-chief]"
<i>[duʔátà lóyà] nē [náʔàb lā lóyà]</i>	"[Doctor's cars] and [the chief's cars]"
<i>[sālima nē ānzúrfà] láʔàd</i>	"[gold-and-silver] goods"
<i>[sālima láʔàd] nē [ānzúrfà láʔàd]</i>	"[gold goods] and [silver goods]"

Not all such cases involve ellipsis, however; apart from the possibility of two distinct meanings in the examples above, one of which excludes ellipsis, this is also clear from cases like

ānzúrfà nē sālima láʔ-māan "silver- and goldsmith"
silver with gold item-maker:SG

This cannot be a case of ellipsis, because it is not possible to coordinate combining forms, and *nē* cannot join two NPs with the same reference.

**ānzúrfà lá'- nē sāluma lá'-māan*

(impossible)

ānzúrfà lá'-māan nē sāluma lá'-māan

(necessarily two different people)

21.5 Apposition

Titles and other NPs may precede personal names in apposition:

Na'ab Agrippa

"King Agrippa." (Acts 25:13)

Li pu nar ye fu di fu ba'abiig po'a Herodiase.

Lì pō nār yé fù dí fù bā'-bîg pu'á Herodiase +∅.

3NH NEG.IND must that **2SG** take **2SG** father-child:**SG** wife:**SG** Herodias **NEG.**

"It's not right for you to marry your brother's wife Herodias." (Mt 14:4)

... lebis ye, eenn, o zua Asibigi n kabirid.

... ∅ lèbis yē, Ēēñ, ò zua À-Sībigi n kābiríd.

...SER reply:**PFV** that, Yes, **3HU** friend:**SG** **PERS**-termite:**SG** **SER** ask.admission:**IPFV**.

"...replying that, Yes, it was his friend Termite asking for admission." KSS p12

All my examples are from written materials, so it is unclear whether the second element is subject to M Raising, as expected if the first element is formally dependent. However, the fact that the Personifier Proclitic *À-* is not omitted in these cases suggests that the relationship is not dependent-head [21.10].

Personal pronouns in apposition use free forms [34.5]:

Man Paul pu'usidi ya.

"I, Paul, greet you." (2 Thess 3:17)

Mān Paul pú'usidī yá.

1SG Paul greet:**IPFV** **2PLO**.

Apposition also occurs in compounds, invariably with stems having human reference; this is regarded as adjectival use of the second noun [21.8.1.5]. Further examples, again with human reference, are appositional relative clauses [33.2.4].

Formally appositional constructions are also necessary, regardless of the nature of the head, before post-determining pronouns when the head has no combining form, as for example with quantifiers [17.2] [33.2.4].

A number of compounds found in the 1976 NT version are systematically replaced by forms written with the initial component as a singular in the 1996 revision:

<i>Nonaar Paal</i> for <i>Nonapaal</i>	<i>Nō-ná-pāal</i>	"New Testament"
<i>Siig Sun</i> for <i>Sisun</i>	<i>Sì-sùŋ</i>	"Holy Spirit"

The tonal evidence from similar cases in my informants' speech strongly suggests that this tendency reflects segmental remodelling of combining forms [11.2.2] rather than an expansion of the rôle of apposition at the expense of compounding:

<i>lànnɨg-kàŋā</i>	"this squirrel"	WK
<i>dàp-bàmmā</i>	"these men"	WK

The many examples of *Siig Sun* in the audio files on <http://www.bible.is> are likewise clearly read as *Sìŋ-sùŋ* (or *Sìŋ-sùŋ* with L Raising) and not **Sìŋ-sùŋ*.

Among my informants, SB showed a much greater tendency to produce segmental sg forms before post-determining pronouns, and even adjectives, than my other informants, who generally rejected such formations.

21.6 Compounding

Like other Oti-Volta languages, Kusaal shows abundant productive formation of compound nominals. Kusaal compounds fall into two basic types, depending on whether the combining form is the head or a pre-modifier. Compounding is the standard construction for head nouns with following dependent adjectives and Determiners [21.8.1] [21.8.2.1]:

<i>bōvg^a</i>	"goat"
<i>bò-pìəlɨg^a</i>	"white goat"
<i>bò-kàŋā^{+/}</i>	"this goat"
<i>bò-pìəl-kàŋā^{+/}</i>	"this white goat"

It is also the normal construction for a generic concrete noun when preceding a head as a modifier [21.7.2.1] or as a generic argument to a deverbal noun [21.7.1]:

<i>nàʔab lā wíəf zōvr</i>	"the chief's horse's tail"
but <i>nàʔab lā wíd-zōvr</i>	"the chief's horse-tail"

Regardless of which element precedes, the last stem shows the noun class suffixes which mark number for the head. Preceding stems appear as combining forms, characteristically in the shape of bare stems which have undergone Apocope, though analogical remodelling based on the form of the singular is common, and indeed regular with some stem types [11.2.2]. Compounding is so productive that the combining form is a regular part of noun and adjective flexion [11.1], treated under nominal morphology.

For the tone sandhi rules which affect the component following the combining form see [10.1] [10.3.1]. They are not sensitive to whether the cb is head or modifier.

21.6.1 Complex Compounds

Compounds may have compounds as components, most commonly as a result of the addition of an adjective or post-determining pronoun to an existing compound, in which case the binding to the new element is weaker than that within the existing compound:

<i>[bù-pìəl-]kàṅā</i>	"this [white goat]"
<i>[nīn-wók-]pìəlɪg</i>	"white [tall person]"
<i>[zàʔ-nṵ-]pìəlɪg</i>	"white gate" ("white [compound-mouth]")

A compound may appear as a generic argument to a following deverbal noun:

<i>[zàʔ-nṵ-]gúr</i>	"gate-keeper"
<i>[[zàʔ-nṵ-]gúr-]kàṅā</i>	"this [gate-keeper]"

Kusaal also possesses bahuvrihi adjectives [21.8.1.4] formed by zero-derivation of a noun-adjective compound to an adjective:

<i>nīf-ñyáuk</i>	"one eye"
<i>bù-[nīf-ñyáuk]</i>	"[one-eyed] goat"
<i>nṵb-wók</i>	"long leg"
<i>kùg-[nṵb-wók]</i>	"[long-legged] stool"

The bahuvrihi meaning is also possible when the compound is used as the complement of *àḗñʸa* "be something":

Kùg-kàṅā á nē nṵb-wók.
 Chair-DEML.SG COP FOC leg-long:SG.
 "This chair is long-legged." WK

Adjectival combining forms can only be used before another adjective or before a post-determining pronoun. If a noun + adjective compound is used as a generic argument it must adopt a sg or pl form:

fū-zéñdà kùes "seller of red (i.e. dyed) cloth"
 not **fū-zéñʔ-kùes*

Compounds may contain un-compounded elements within their structure, because regardless of whether compounded or not **modifiers bind tighter than generic arguments, which bind tighter than determiners**. Generic non-count NPs referring to substances appear as pre-modifiers within other NPs [21.7.2.2](#):

sālma bútiŋ "gold cup"
ānzúrfà nē sālma láʔàd "silver and gold goods"

Even if they consist of phrases rather than single words, they therefore bind more tightly to a following cb used as a generic argument than the cb does to a following deverbal noun:

[ānzúrfà láʔ-]māan "silversmith" ("[silver goods]-maker")
[ānzúrfà nē sālma láʔ-]māan "silver- and goldsmith"

cf *[fū-zéñdà] kùes* "[dyed cloth]-seller"
 with an adjective post-modifier (see above)

If the cb is itself a pre-modifier, the the construction is nested, with the cb binding to the following head and the preceding unbound pre-modifier applying to the whole resulting compound:

sālma [záʔ-nōɔr] "golden gate" ("golden [compound-mouth]")
zūgún [níf-gbáyŋ] "upper eyelid" ("upper [eye-skin]")

Determiners, whether preceding or following the head, and whether compounded or un-compounded, have the loosest binding:

[sālma bútiŋ-]kàŋā "this [gold cup]"
[[sālma láʔ-]māan-]kàŋā "this [[gold-item]-maker]"
ò [[sālma láʔ-]māan] "her [[gold-item]-maker]"

21.7 Dependents Preceding the Head

The head of a NP may be preceded by dependents, which may be nominal combining forms, thus creating compounds, or may be free NPs or AdvPs. Only one preceding dependent is permitted, but the resulting NP may itself recursively serve as the head of a NP with yet another preceding dependent. Combining forms come last in such a sequence, and pre-determiners precede pre-modifiers:

Wínà'am [*pú'usùg* [*fúùg dǒǒg*]]

"tabernacle" (God's [worship [cloth hut]])

The structure reflects the nature of the preceding dependent: all generic count nouns appear as combining forms, and generic mass nouns also do but only as arguments to deverbal nouns; all other pre-dependents appear uncompounded. With most head nouns, a preceding dependent NP with definite and/or count reference is a possessor, while AdvPs or indefinite mass NP are pre-modifiers expressing either qualities or the material of which the head consists. AdvPs of various kinds also occur as pre-modifiers, and one quantifier as a pre-determiner. With certain types of head the pre-determiner + head construction has specialised meanings [21.9].

Preceding uncompounded dependents induce M Raising in the following word if they are followed by L Raising; if M Raising is absent, it demonstrates that the construction is in fact head + dependent not dependent + head. Combining Forms in all rôles are followed by M Raising if they end in M toneme [10.3.2].

21.7.1 Generic Arguments to Deverbal Nouns

If the head is a deverbal noun, it may be preceded by a Combining Form representing a **generic argument**. The argument is a cb irrespective of whether the argument is a count or mass noun.

dā-núùr^e

"beer-drinking"

gēl-kùès^a

"egg-seller"

With agent nouns of transitive verbs the cb almost always represents an object. Agent nouns from intransitives may have an AdvP or indirect object cb argument:

bùl-sīgɪd^{a/}

"well-diver" (*bùlɪg^a* "well")

tùen-gāt^a

"leader" (*Ò gàad túèn* "He's gone ahead")

ňyà'an-dò^{la}

"disciple" (*ňyá'an^a* "behind")

(*dǒ^{la/}* "accompany")

pū'à-lā'ad^a

"laugher at women" WK

(*Ò là'ad pū'ab* "He laughs at women")

These compounds can be freely coined, and their meanings are generally transparent:

<i>nīn-kúùd^a</i>	"murderer"
<i>bù-kūvd^{a/}</i>	"goat-killer"
<i>nō-kúùd^a</i>	"hen-killer"
<i>pu[?]à-kūvd^{a/}</i>	"woman-killer"
<i>nō-záñ^{le}</i>	"holder of hens"
<i>wìd-kùes^a</i>	"horse-seller"
<i>bù-kùes^a</i>	"goat-seller"
<i>sàlɪm-kùes^a</i>	"gold-seller"
<i>dā-núùd^a</i>	"beer-drinker"

However, there are many idiomatic or set expressions. Further examples:

<i>zīm-gbáñ[?]àd^a</i>	"fisherman" ("fish-catcher")
<i>nō-dí[?]ès^a</i>	"chief's spokesman" ("command-receiver") Ghanaian English "linguist"
<i>tàn-mēed^a</i>	"builder" (<i>tān^{ne}</i> "earth")
<i>làmpō-dí[?]ès^a</i>	"tax collector" (French <i>l'impôt</i>)
<i>gbàn-mī[?]id^{a/}</i>	"scribe" NT ("book-knower")
<i>pu[?]à-sā[?]am^{ma}</i>	"adulterer" ("woman-spoiler")
<i>zà[?]-nō-gúr^a</i>	"gate-keeper" (<i>zà[?]-nō[?]ɔr^{e/}</i> "gate")
<i>dà-kīed^a</i>	"wood-cutter"
<i>kòñb-kīm^{na}</i>	"herdsman" (<i>kòñb-</i> as cb of <i>būn-kóñbùg^o</i> "tame animal")

My informants freely create and cite agent nouns in isolation, but it is unusual in practice for agent nouns to appear without a pre-dependent cb; in my materials only *bāŋɪd^a* "wise man", *sĵākɪd^a* "believer", *sūŋɪd^a* "helper" (of the Holy Spirit, NT), *fāañd^{a/}* "robber" "Saviour" occur often. With monosyllabic agent nouns there is often a preceding cognate stem as cb. This is perhaps a cognate object in:

<i>màal-māan^{na}</i>	"sacrificer"
<i>zī-zîd^a</i>	"carrier-on-head"

but generally it seems to be simply a reduplication of the agent noun stem:

<i>tù[?]as-tù[?]as^a</i>	"talker"
<i>zàb-zàb^a</i>	"warrior" (tone <i>sic</i>)

<i>zòt-zõt^a</i>	"racer, athlete"
<i>tùm-tūm^{na}</i>	"worker"
<i>lèm-lēm^{na}</i>	"taster, sipper"
<i>zàm-zām^{na}</i>	"cheat"
<i>dàm-dām^{na}</i>	"shaker"
<i>tàm-tām^{na}</i>	"forgetful person"

Cb pre-dependents occur with deverbal instrument nouns, in object or adverbial senses:

<i>sjà-lɔ̄ɔdɪŋ^a</i>	"belt" (waist-tying thing)
<i>nīn-gótɪŋ^a</i>	"mirror" (eye-looking thing)
<i>nīn-gótis^e</i>	"spectacles"

If the head is a gerund, a cb pre-dependent may represent a subject or complement. For the *-r^e* (not *-b^o*) suffix of these 2-mora stem gerunds see [14.1.1.1](#).

If the underlying verb is transitive, a cb pre-dependent cannot be a subject. It is most often an object:

<i>py[?]à-dīr^e</i>	"marriage" (<i>Ò dì py[?]ā</i> "He's married a wife")
<i>nīn-kúùr^e</i>	"murder"
<i>dā-núùr^e</i>	"beer-drinking"
<i>Sāmán-pīár^e</i>	Traditional New Year ("cleaning the courtyard")
<i>bùgúm-tɔ̄ɔŋ^e</i>	Fire Festival ("Throwing Fire")
<i>nɔ̄-lóòr^e</i>	"fasting" ("mouth-tying")
<i>nɔ̄-póòr^e</i>	"oath" (<i>pɔ̄⁺</i> "swear")
<i>nɔ̄-náàr^e</i>	"covenant" (<i>nā⁺</i> "join")
<i>nīn-báàl-zɔ̄ɔr^e</i>	"pity" (<i>Ò zòt-ò nīn-báalig</i> . "He has pity on him")

It may represent an AdvP:

<i>mò-pīl^{le}</i>	"grass roof" ("covering with grass")
<i>kùm-vū[?]vgír^e</i>	"resurrection" (<i>Ò vò[?]vg kūmɪn</i> . "He came alive from death.")

Although many of these are set forms, free creation of nonce-forms is possible:

<i>fū-yéèr^e</i>	"shirt-wearing" WK
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Cbs as subjects are thus confined to verbs which can be used intransitively:

<i>n̄b-kò̀r^e</i>	"breaking a leg" (<i>kò̀</i> ⁺ is intransitive)
<i>nū[?]-módìr^e</i>	"swelling of the hand"
<i>wìn-līr^e</i>	"sunset" (<i>Winnig lí yā</i> . "The sun has set/fallen.")
<i>sūñ-sá[?]ùṅ^o</i>	"sorrow" (<i>Ṁ sūñf sá[?]àm nē</i> . "My heart is spoilt" = "I'm sad.")
<i>sūñ-péèñ^{ne}</i>	"anger" (<i>Ṁ sūñf pélìg nē</i> . "My heart is white.")

21.7.2 Modifiers

Nominal pre-modifiers cannot be specific. They vary in form depending on the nature of the dependent. AdvP pre-modifiers may contain *constituents* with specific reference, but as AdvPs they do not themselves refer.

21.7.2.1 Generic Count Nouns

A count noun as a pre-modifier must appear as a Combining Form.

Compounds with a count noun pre-modifier are freely created, but resemble the compounds seen in other languages more closely than the type with Combining Form heads preceding adjectives and post-determining pronouns [21.8]. Set forms with individualised lexical meanings often occur when the Combining Form is dependent, but rarely when it is a head before an adjective and, naturally, never with post-determining pronouns.

Note the contrast between a generic pre-modifier and a pre-determiner in e.g.

<i>bīg fúùg</i>	"a child's shirt" (belonging to some child)
<i>bì-fūug</i>	"a children's shirt" (perhaps a small woman's)
<i>nà[?]ab lā wíàf zūur</i>	"the chief's horse's tail" (the chief has a horse)
<i>nà[?]ab lā wíd-zūur</i>	"the chief's horse-tail" (the chief may not own a complete horse at all)

Cb pre-modifiers have a very general quasi-adjectival sense. The resulting compounds are very liable to develop specialised lexical meanings:

<i>wāb-mócgūn</i> WK	"in elephant-bush, where there are elephants"
<i>zà[?]-nōcr</i>	"gate" ("compound-mouth")
<i>mà-bīg</i>	"sibling" ("child by [same] mother")
<i>bā[?]-bīg</i>	"half-sibling" ("child by [same] father")
<i>tèṅ-bīg</i>	"native" ("child of a country")

<i>nàsàa-sìlvǔ</i>	"aeroplane" (European hawk) ILK
<i>kyʔà-ñwīig</i>	"current" ("water-rope")
	[cb from a mass noun, see below]

WK has the exceptional forms

<i>náaf-bìʔisím</i>	"cow's milk"
<i>bōvg-bíʔisím</i>	"goat's milk"

where the modifier has singular form and tone, but the tone sandhi is that of a compound (note the lack of L Raising after *náaf*.)

A cb pre-modifier of a deadjectival abstract noun may have a sense much like a generic argument:

<i>sūñ-kpíʔòŋ^o</i>	"boldness" ("heart-strength")
<i>sūñ-máʔasím^m</i>	"joy" ("heart-coolness")
	(<i>M sūñf máʔe yā</i> . "I'm joyful.")
<i>nìn-tōllím^m</i>	"fever" ("body-heat")
<i>wīn-tóŋg^o</i>	"ill fate" ("fate-bitterness")

Cases like these resemble those where the second element is a gerund [21.7.1], but deadjectival nouns are not gerunds [14.2], and such constructions are not limited to cases where corresponding Adjectival Verbs exist:

<i>pò-pìəlim^m</i>	"holiness" ("inside-whiteness")
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21.7.2.2 Generic Non-count NPs

Pre-modifiers may also consist of Nominal Phrases with generic non-count reference. If they have *abstract* senses, they ascribe a quality to the head:

<i>nāʔam kúk</i>	"throne" ("chieftaincy chair")
<i>nāʔam súʔulim</i>	"kingdom" ("chieftaincy possession")
<i>pòʔusug dǔŋg</i>	"temple" ("worship house")
<i>tūligír bún</i>	"heater" ("heating thing" = <i>bōn-tūligír^e</i>)
<i>dōgub dút</i>	"cooking pots"
<i>līgidi túvmà</i>	"expensive work" (<i>līgidi</i> + "money")

Language names may appear as abstract nouns describing an ethnic group:

<i>Kūsáàl yír nē kūøb</i>	"Kusaasi houses and agriculture"
<i>Nàsāal búgúm</i>	"electricity" ("European fire")

NPs with *concrete* mass sense express the material of which the head consists. Most often the pre-modifier is a single noun:

<i>sālima bútiŋ</i>	"golden cup"
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Count nouns may appear if used in a mass sense 21.2.1:

<i>fūug dǎ̀g</i>	"tent" (cloth hut)
<i>dàad bún-nám</i>	"wooden things" (<i>dàug</i> ^o "piece of wood")

NPs formed by coordination may occur in this use:

<i>sālima nē ānzúrfà lá'ád</i>	"gold and silver goods"
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Such pre-modifiers are referential, and can be the antecedents of pronouns:

<i>sālima lá'ád né ò bŭtus</i>	"gold goods and [gold] cups" WK 21.4
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Contrast the non-referential use of mass nouns as generic arguments to deverbal nouns:

<i>sàlm-kùes</i>	"gold-seller"
<i>dā-núùd</i>	"beer-drinker"

Cb forms of abstract non-count nouns do sometimes occur as pre-modifiers:

	<i>tāñp-sōb^a</i>	"warrior"	(<i>tāñp</i> ^o "war")
	<i>pù-pìəl-nīd^{a/}</i>	"holy person"	(Rom 5:7)
	<i>pù-pìəl-sōb^a</i>	"holy person"	(Rom 3:10)
but	<i>pù-pìəlīm sōb^a</i>	"holy person"	(Mt 10:41) etc
	<i>pù-pìəl-tūuma⁺</i>	"holy actions"	(Rom 6:13)
but	<i>pù-pìəlīm túumà⁺</i>	"holy actions"	(Mt 5:10)

An interesting case involving a concrete mass noun is the compound *ky'á-ñwīg* "current" ("water" + "rope.") This perhaps represents "aquatic rope" in contrast to **kù'əm ñwīg* "a rope made of water"; the construction with concrete mass pre-modifiers may be limited to the specific sense "made of ..."

21.7.2.3 Adverbial Phrases

Like indefinite mass nouns, AdvPs as pre-dependents are pre-modifiers (contrast the determiner sense of AdvPs *following* the head [21.8.2.3].)

AdvPs as pre-modifiers may not be proadverbs. I do not have any examples of time AdvPs used as NP pre-modifiers.

Examples of AdvP pre-modifiers:

<i>bōgusígā dáàn</i>	"softly-softly sort of person"
<i>dūniya ní nìn-gbīṅ</i>	"earthly body"
<i>kùʔəmīn bún</i>	"water creature"
<i>kùʔəmīn dín</i>	"aquatic one"
<i>kālvgun n-ó-dáùg</i>	"crayfish" ("in-the-river cock")

Although the AdvPs in cases like

<i>dàtìṽ níf</i>	"right eye"
<i>dàgòbìg níf</i>	"left eye"
<i>zūgún níf-gbáṽ</i>	"upper eyelid"
<i>tēṽ níf-gbáṽ</i>	"lower eyelid"

seem to answer "which?" rather than "what kind of?", the possibility of indefinite plurals like *dàtìṽ níni* "right eyes" or *tēṽ níf-gbánà* "lower eyelids" shows that the construction is actually modifying, not determining.

Postpositional phrases with *yēlá*⁺ "about" [22.6] appears as pre-modifiers, not pre-determiners. Adverbs, including postpositions, behave as generic non-count NPs syntactically; they are not made specific by a definite pre-determiner:

<i>Kūsáàs kùèb nē yīr yélà gbàṽ</i>	"A book about Kusaasi houses and agriculture"
<i>dàṽ-kàṅā lā yélà gbàṽ</i>	"a book about that man" WK

In the same way, locative AdvPs, including Kusaal place names with no locative particle [22.3], may occur as uncompounded pre-modifiers:

<i>B̀̀k díṽ</i>	"Bawku people"
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The head of locative AdvPs is the locative particle itself, with a zero allomorph in the case of locative AdvPs such as Kusaal place names which are "intrinsically locative" [22.3]; like other postpositions, this is never itself referential and is not itself rendered specific even though it has a specific pre-determiner. See also on locative complements and their focus behaviour [34.1.1.3].

21.7.3 Determiners

The **quantifier** *yīigá*⁺ "firstly" appears as a pre-determiner "first", e.g.

yīigá s̄āa zúg nē tēŋ "the first heaven and earth"

Count and/or definite reference NPs as preceding dependents before noun heads are also **determiners**.

If the head itself is a determiner (i.e. a pronoun or quantifier) the construction is **partitive** [21.9.1].

NP pre-determiners before **gerunds** and other abstract nouns describing events or processes are interpreted as **subjects**:

Dāy lā kúlòg dāa mālsí m.

Man:SG ART return.home:GER TNS be.sweet 1SGO.

"The man's return home pleased me."

Jesus kúm dá-pūvdá zug "Jesus' death on the cross"

Jesus death cross:SG upon

Further expansion of such NPs is possible [21.9.2].

The words *mēŋ*^{a/} "self", *dāan*^a "owner", *sōb*^a "individual" and *būn*^{ne/} "thing" as heads have specialised senses with pre-determiners [21.9.3].

In all other cases, pre-determiners express **possessors**.

n̄ bīig "my child"

dāy lā bīig "the man's child"

dāy lā bíàr bīig náàf zōv "the man's elder brother's child's cow's tail"

Kūsáàs wádà "customs of the Kusaasi"

Such determiners do *not* automatically make a NP definite even when themselves definite [21.3].

The partitive sense with determiner heads is not possible with noun heads:

n̄d̄ib lā gígìs "the dumb ones of
[i.e. belonging to] the people"

Not possible as "among the people" WK.

21.8 Dependents Following the Head

Dependents follow a head noun in the order adjective(s), Quantifier, determining pronoun or AdvP, Article.

It is characteristic of Kusaal and of other Oti-Volta languages that the normal construction with both adjectives [21.8.1] and post-determining pronouns is that they follow the head noun, which is itself reduced to a Combining Form, while the dependent inflects to show the number of the head. **Quantifiers** do not have combining forms, and so are not compounded with a following post-determining pronoun. (See further on apposition parallel to compounding [21.5].) For Quantifiers as post-determiners see [21.9.1].

Compounds where the combining form is the head are formed absolutely freely with completely transparent meaning, and correspond to uncompounded constructions in most other languages. It is largely because of such head-first compounds that the combining form needs to be treated as a standard part of the nominal paradigm, and it is in these cases particularly that cbs remodelled segmentally on the basis of the singular form (or even the plural) [11.2.2] are frequent.

<i>bōvg^a</i>	"goat"
<i>bò-pìəlɪg^a</i>	"white goat"
<i>bò-kàŋā^{+/}</i>	"this goat"
<i>bò-pìəl-kàŋā^{+/}</i>	"this white goat"

Compounds with post-determining pronouns naturally cannot be lexicalised; compounds with adjectives do occasionally develop specialised individual lexical meanings, though much less often than modifier-first compounds.

For my informants WK and DK, a noun preceding a post-determining pronoun must appear as a combining form, but SB accepts preceding sg/pl forms; I did not record the tones of such forms and therefore do not know if the change is merely segmental remodelling or reflects a different construction (compare [11.2.2] and also *náaf-bì'isím* "cow's milk" [21.7.2.1].) Thus for SB:

<i>?náaf-kàŋā</i>	"this cow"	like <i>náaf-bì'isím</i>
<i>?nāaf-kájā</i>		segmental remodelling
<i>?náaf kájā</i>		construed like a quantifier

cf *nā[?]-kájā* "this cow" WK DK SB

21.8.1 Adjectives

Adjectives as modifiers always follow the head.

Adjectives do not appear without a preceding noun head, except to a very limited extent as complements to àeñ^{ya} "be something/somehow" [26.2].

The combination noun + adjective is almost invariably rendered with noun cb before the adjective, which inflects as sg pl or cb on behalf of the head noun. My informants can sometimes be induced to accept sg + adjective but never produce such forms spontaneously.

<i>būvg^a</i>	"goat"	<i>būvs^e</i>	"goats"
<i>bù-pìəliɡ^a</i>	"white goat"	<i>bù-pìəlis^e</i>	"white goats"
<i>bù-sùŋ^o</i>	"good goat"	<i>bù-sùma⁺</i>	"good goats"
<i>nūa^{+/}</i>	"hen"	<i>nōvs^{e/}</i>	"hens"
<i>nō-pìəliɡ^a</i>	"white hen"	<i>nō-pìəlis^e</i>	"white hens"
<i>nō-sùŋ^o</i>	"good hen"	<i>nō-sùmà⁺</i>	"good hens"

A second adjective or a post-determining pronoun can follow a first adjective, which thus itself appears as a cb:

<i>nīn-wók-pìəliɡ^a</i>	"white tall person"
<i>nō-pìəl-kàŋā^{+/}</i>	"this white hen"

However, a noun + adjective compound cannot form a cb to be used as the generic argument of a deverbal noun; a sg/pl form appears instead:

<i>fū-zéñdà kùəs^a</i>	"seller of red (i.e. dyed) cloth"
not * <i>fū-zéñ[?]-kùəs^a</i>	

i.e. adjective cbs may only precede other adjectives or post-determining pronouns.

Compounds with adjectives occasionally develop specialised lexical meanings:

<i>nū[?]-bí^a</i>	"finger" ("small hand")
<i>tì-sābulím^m</i>	a traditional remedy ("black medicine")

Several names of plant and tree species are formed in this way:

<i>gòñ[?]-sābulíɡ^a</i>	Haaf <i>gosabliɡa</i> "Acacia Hockii" ("black thorn")
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21.8.1.1 Class Agreement

There are isolated set forms showing traces of the old agreement system:

	<i>làʔ-bīəlíʔ</i> ^o	NT	"small coin"
cf	<i>lāʔaf</i> ^o		"cowrie"
	<i>bīʔəlá</i> ⁺		"a little"
	<i>dà-sīʔər</i> ^e		"some day; perhaps"
cf	<i>dāar</i> ^e		"day"
	<i>sīʔa</i> ⁺		"some"
	<i>dàbɪs-sīʔər</i> ^e		"some day"
cf	<i>dàbɪsɪr</i> ^e		"day"
	<i>sīʔa</i> ⁺		"some"
	<i>pɥʔà-pāal</i> ^{a/}		"bride"
cf	<i>pɥʔā</i> ^a		"wife"
	<i>pāalíg</i> ^a		"new"
	<i>dà-pāal</i> ^{a/}		"young man, son"
cf	<i>dāɥ</i> ⁺		"man"
	<i>pāalíg</i> ^a		"new"

where the adjectives do not normally occur with these class suffixes.

There remains a rule in WK's speech (not DK's) and in written materials requiring *m*^m Class agreement in adjectives modifying *m*^m Class mass nouns, and also after *būn* "thing" when it has abstract rather than concrete sense:

	<i>dā-pāalim</i> ^m	"new millet beer"
	<i>tì-sābulim</i> ^m	WK does not accept * <i>dā-páàl</i> , * <i>dā-pāalìg</i> . literally "black medicine", a specific traditional remedy
	<i>tì-vōnnim</i> ^m	"oral medication" ("swallowing medicine")
	<i>tì-kōvdim</i> ^m	"poison" ("killing medicine")
	<i>kpāñ-sóǎndim</i> ^m	"anointing oil" (<i>kpāañm</i> ^{m/} "oil, grease")
	<i>būn-bóǎdim</i> ^m	"desirable thing" (1 Cor 14:1, referring to <i>nòɣilim</i> ^m "love")
but	<i>būn-bóǎdir</i> ^e	"desirable thing" BNY p17, referring to a sheep
	<i>būn-ñyétim</i> ^m	"the visible world"
but	<i>būn-ñyétir</i> ^e	"a visible object"

The exceptional character of the m^m Class in this matter is presumably due to its strong semantic association with the meanings "liquid" and "abstract."

21.8.1.2 Downtoning

Adjectives may show Apocope Blocking 7.4 as a downtoner (all examples KT):

<i>Lì à nē fū-píə̀lìgā.</i>	"It's a whitish shirt."
<i>Lì à nē fū-píə̀lìgā lā.</i>	"It's the whitish shirt."
<i>Lì à nē wíúg.</i>	"It's red."
<i>Lì à nē wíúgō.</i>	"It's reddish."
<i>fū-wíúgō lā</i>	"the reddish shirt"
<i>Lì à nē tītā'aru.</i>	"It's biggish."

This seems to be possible only with singular forms.

21.8.1.3 Ideophones

Adjectives cannot themselves take adverbs as modifiers. In e.g.

<i>Lì à nē píə̀lìg pāmm.</i>	"It's very white"
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the adverb *pāmm* must be taken with the copula verb rather than the adjective; it is not possible to say

<i>*fū-píə̀lìg pāmm lā</i>	attempted "the very white shirt"
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However, in any syntactic rôle an adjective may be immediately followed by an ideophone with intensifying force. As is common cross-linguistically, ideophones often display unusual phonological features. An ideophone is specific to a particular adjective, along with any cognate Adjectival Verb.

<i>Lì à nē píə̀lìg fáss fáss.</i>	"It's very white."
<i>Lì à nē sābílìg zím zím.</i>	"It's deep black."
<i>Lì à nē zín'a wím wím.</i>	"It's deep red."

Ideophones are not limited to use with adjectives as complements of *àəñ*^{ya} "be something/somehow" but occur with adjectives in their normal modifier rôle:

<i>Lì à nē fū-zín'a wím wím.</i>	"It's a deep red shirt."	WK
<i>M ñyé fū-zín'a wím wím.</i>	"I've seen a deep red shirt."	WK

<i>Fū-zíñʔa wím wím bé.</i>	"There's a deep red shirt."	WK
<i>M bóòd fū-zíñʔa wím wím lā.</i>	"I want the deep red shirt."	WK

Adjectival Verbs may take ideophones as intensifiers; they share the ideophone of the corresponding adjective:

<i>Ò à nē wōk tólùlù.</i>	"She's very tall."
<i>Ò à nē gīŋ tírugà.</i>	"She's very short."
<i>Ò wàʔam tólùlù.</i>	"She's very tall."
<i>Ò gìm nē tírugà.</i>	"She's very short."

I could not elicit ideophones for all adjectives by any means, not even those with gradable senses; thus WK has only

<i>Lì à sùḡā pāmm.</i>	"It's very good."
<i>Lì à nē bēʔed pāmm.</i>	"It's very bad."
<i>Lì zùlum pāmm.</i>	"It's very deep."
<i>Lì màʔas pāmm.</i>	"It's very damp."

Apart from Adjectival Verbs, I have found no unequivocal ideophones in use with verbs; thus only

<i>Ò tùm pāmm.</i>	"She's worked hard."
<i>Ò tùm hālí.</i>	"She's worked hard." 23.2
<i>Ò zò pāmm.</i>	"She's run a lot."
<i>Ò zò hālí.</i>	"She's run a lot."

However, many verbs can be followed by "onomatopoeic" words which resemble ideophones at least in phonology:

<i>Ò zòt nē tólìb tólìb.</i>	"He [a rabbit] is running lollop-lollop." WK
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Such words occur very frequently in the collection of traditional stories "*Kusaal Solima ne Siilima*." They are evidently stereotyped and often show phonological features not found in the regular vocabulary, but they do not seem to be uniquely associated with particular verbs and are perhaps more of the nature of the "rat-tat-tat" onomatopoeic words familiar in European languages.

For more detail on Kusaal ideophones see Abubakari 2017.

21.8.1.4 Bahuvrihis

The combination noun + adjective may be used as a bahuvrihi adjective itself:

<i>Lì à nē nūʔ-kpíílúŋ.</i>	"It's a dead hand."
<i>Bīig lā á nē nūʔ-kpíílúŋ.</i>	"The child is dead-handed."
<i>Ò à nē bí-[nūʔ-kpíílúŋ].</i>	"He's a dead-handed child."

In constructions like *bì-nūʔ-kpíílúŋ*^o "child with a withered hand" the adjective is modifying the cb immediately preceding it, not *vice versa*. It is not possible to say **bì-nūʔ-kpíim*^m, and in such constructions the adjective may even be plural despite singular reference of the whole noun + adjective compound:

<i>bì-tùb-kpīda</i> ⁺	"deaf child" (<i>tùbur</i> ^e "ear", <i>kpi</i> ⁺ "die")
plural <i>bì-tùb-kpīda nám</i> ^a	
or <i>bì-tùb-kpīdis</i> ^e	
<i>bì-tùb-līd</i> ^e	"child/children with blocked ears" (<i>lī</i> ⁺ "block up")

Accordingly, the construction is zero-derivation of a noun-adjective compound to an adjective, and not modification of an adjective by a cb.

Other examples of bahuvrihis:

<i>kùg-nōb-wók</i> ^o	"long-legged stool"
<i>kùg-nōb-wáʔàd</i> ^e	"long-legged stools"
<i>zūg-máuk</i> ^o	
plural <i>zūg-máʔàd</i> ^e	"crushed-headed"
<i>zù-wōk</i> ^{o/}	"long-tailed"
<i>nōb-gíŋ</i> ^a	"short-legged"
<i>zū-péélùg</i> ^o	
plural <i>zū-péélà</i> ⁺	"bald; grey haired"; etymologically "white headed" with <i>péelug</i> ^o for <i>pìelug</i> ^a
<i>lām-fóòg</i> ^o	
plural <i>lām-fóòd</i> ^e	"toothless" (<i>lām</i> ^{me/} "gum" <i>fùe</i> ⁺ "draw out") (Plural analogical from sg, which shows the regular change <i>*uøgv</i> → <i>ɔɔgv</i>)

The two adjectives "one of a pair" 18.2.4 are often used in bahuvrihis: *ňyàuk*^o pl *ňyàʔad*^e for eyes:

nīf-ňyáuk^o "one eye"
bà-nīf-ňyáuk^o "one-eyed dog"

yīuŋ^{o/} pl *yīná*⁺ of other paired body parts:

tùb-yīuŋ^{o/} "one ear"
bì-tùb-yīná⁺ "one-eared children"
nōb-yíuŋ^o "one-legged"
nūʔ-yíuŋ^o "one-handed"

21.8.1.5 Nouns as Adjectives

Human-reference nouns may be used as adjectives modifying other human-reference nouns. This is particularly common with ^{a|b}^a Class words:

bì-sāan^{a/} or *bì-sáaŋ*^a "stranger-child"
 only *bù-sáaŋ*^a "stranger goat"

bì-kpīim^{m/}
 or *bì-kpìilúŋ*^o "dead child"
 only *bù-kpìilúŋ*^o "dead goat"

bì-dāu⁺
 or *bì-dāuŋ*^o "male child"
 only *bù-dāuŋ*^o "male goat"

bì-puʔā^a or *bì-puāk*^a "female child"

bì-zūʔem^{m/}
 or *bì-zònzòŋ*^a "blind child"

The same behaviour is also seen with some Agent Nouns:

puʔà-zàaňs^a "dreamy woman" KT
nīn-nén^{na} "envious person"
bì-sīn^{na/} or *bì-sīnníg*^a "silent child"
 only *bù-sīnníg*^a or *bù-sīnnúŋ*^o "silent goat"

However, WK usually reports a contrast between Agent Nouns/Deverbal Adjectives with head-second compounds in ^a|b^a Class and head-first compounds in g^a|s^e or r^e|a⁺ Class:

<i>pɥʔà-kōvd(g)^a</i>	"murderous woman, murderess"
<i>pɥʔà-kōvd^{a/}</i>	only "killer of women"

This is true also of forms derived from verbs which are usually intransitive:

<i>pɥʔà-lāʔadɪg^a</i>	"woman given to laughing"
<i>pɥʔà-lāʔad^a</i>	"laugher at women"

Nouns not in the ^a|b^a Class are used adjectivally express bodily defects:

<i>bì-zùnzòŋ^a</i>	"blind child"
<i>bì-gìk^a</i>	"dumb child"
<i>bì-wàbɪ^e</i>	"lame child"
<i>bì-bālērvg^o</i>	"ugly child"
<i>bì-pòŋʔɔ^e</i>	"crippled child"

Other examples include:

<i>nàsàa-bīig^a</i>	"European child"
<i>yàmmug-bī-púŋ^a</i>	"slave girl" "girl slave" (Acts 16:16, 1976)
<i>yàm-bī-púŋ^a</i>	(WK's form)
<i>nàʔ-bīig^a</i>	"prince" (not "boy king")
<i>bì-nàʔab^a</i>	id
<i>dàɥ-bīig^a</i>	"male child"
cf <i>bì-dāɥ⁺</i>	id (above)

Except with deverbal nouns as second elements, there seem to be no grounds for choosing either the first or second element of these compounds as the head, and these structures are essentially appositional. However, rather than set up a third basic type of compound, it seems simplest to regard these cases as reflecting Modifier-Adjectival use of human-reference nouns. Such nouns also resemble adjectives in that they can form the basis of derived abstract nouns, though in most cases they do so by adding derivational suffixes rather than simply being used directly in the *m^m* Class like adjective stems 11.1.1.

21.8.2 Determiners

21.8.2.1 Pronouns

Pronouns may follow a NP head as post-determining pronouns. The head then normally appears as a combining form. Demonstrative, Indefinite and Interrogative pronouns occur in this construction.

Like Quantifiers, pronouns also occur as NP heads. Some pronouns have forms used only as heads or only as post-determiners [17.2](#) [17.3](#).

21.8.2.2 Quantifiers

Quantifiers as NP dependents follow the head, except for *yīgá*⁺ "firstly" [21.7.3](#). The head only appears as a cb, optionally, with in a few cases with *yīnní*⁺ "one" and in a few fixed expressions [18.2.2](#); uncompounded post-dependents are not subject to M Raising [18.2.2](#):

	<i>kūgvr yīnní</i> ⁺	"one stone"
but	<i>kūg-yínnì</i> ⁺	"one stone"

I do not have any examples of co-occurrence with adjectives; when quantifiers precede post-determining pronouns the construction is probably always to be taken as a quantifier head with a pre-determiner, not a post-determining quantifier.

<i>nīdɪb bédvǫ</i>	"a lot of people"
<i>nīdɪb bédvǫ lā</i>	"the lot of people, the crowd"
<i>nīdɪbá àyí</i>	"two people"
<i>nīdɪbá àyí lā</i>	"the two people"

The head + post-dependent quantifier construction contrasts in meaning with the *partitive* sense of a pre-determiner + Quantifier Phrase head [21.9.1](#).

Quantifiers as post-dependents can be coordinated: this is the mechanism for the creation of numbers other than simple digits, tens or hundreds [18.2.2](#).

ò ñyàʔan-dòllɪb pī nē yí
3HU after-follower:**PL** ten with two
 "his twelve disciples" (Mt 26:20)

21.8.2.3 Adverbial Phrases

AdvPs following a NP head are post-determiners. Proadverbs do not occur in this use. There is no compounding or M Raising.

Contrast the pre-modifying use with the post-determining in

	<i>m̄ɔɔɔɔɔɔ wábùg lā</i>	"the wild elephant" ("What kind of elephant?")
but	<i>wābug m̄ɔɔɔɔɔɔ lā</i>	"the elephant in the bush" ("Which elephant?")

I do not have any unequivocal examples of time adverbs in this position; in

<i>ñwāɔɔɔɔ yúùm lā púvgūn</i>	"months in the year" SB
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the postposition phrase is formally locative, though used in a metaphorical temporal sense.

The manner-adverb *amēɔɔɔɔ* "really, truly" occurs meaning "genuine, real":

<i>Ōn</i>	<i>s̄ɔɔ</i>	<i>á</i>	<i>nē</i>	<i>ɔɔ'átà</i>	<i>amēɔɔɔɔ</i>	<i>lā.</i>
DEM.HU	individual.HU	COP	FOC	doctor:SG	ADV:real:ADV	ART
"That one's the real doctor."						

When an abstract noun with verbal sense has a preceding NP functioning as subject, resulting in a type of clause nominalisation [21.7.3], a following AdvP may occur which represents an adjunct in the corresponding clause structure, but such adjuncts may also even be prepositional phrases, which are not found elsewhere as NP dependents, and even VP-final particles may occur. Accordingly, this is best regarded as a distinct clause nominalisation process rather than part of NP structure as such; see further [21.9.2].

<i>ya antu'a morim koto ni ne taaba la</i>
<i>yà àntu'á-m̄ɔɔríɔm kótù ní nē tāaba lā</i>
2PL case-have: GER court: SG LOC with each.other ART
"your going to law with each other in court" (1 Cor 6:7, 1976)

21.9 Specialised NP Heads

21.9.1 Determiners

Pronouns and quantifiers are determiners. They occur as post-dependents [21.8.2], but also frequently as NP heads.

NPs headed by determiners are equivalent syntactically to other NPs in their abilities to form arguments of VPs:

<i>Òṅā lā ké nā.</i>	"That one came."
<i>Bàmmā lā ké nā</i>	"Those ones came."
<i>Pāmm ké nā.</i>	"Many came."
<i>Bèdugū ké nā.</i>	"Many came."
<i>Bèdugū lā ké nā.</i>	"The crowd came"
<i>Àyí ké nā.</i>	"Two came."
<i>Àyí lā ké nā.</i>	"The two came."

They manifest the NP category of number.

Quantifier heads pluralise with *nàm*^a:

màljāk-nám túsà pīga nám "tens of thousands of angels"

Àyí námá_ àyí á nē nāasí.

NUM:two PL NUM:two COP FOC four.

"Two two's are four."

NPs headed by Quantifiers may have post-determining pronouns; as quantifiers have no combining forms, there is no compounding:

Ka ti ye ti nye diib yaani moogin nwa diis nidib bedego bama nwa?

Kà tì yé tì ñyē dītb yáa nì mōcgun ñwá

And **3PL** say:**PFV 3PL** find:**PFV** food where **LOC** grass:**SG:LOC** this

∅ dīts nīdīb bédugū bāmā ñwá +∅?

SER feed:**PFV** person:**PL** many **DEML.PL** this **CQ?**

"Where are we going to find food in this wilderness to feed this crowd of people?" (Mt 15:33)

nīdīb bédugū bání_∅ kē nā lā

person:**PL** much **DEM.PL COMP** come:**PFV** hither **ART**

"the crowd of people who have come"

All cases where quantifiers are followed by post-determining pronouns are probably quantifier-headed, not NPs with quantifiers as dependents.

There is a contrast between a NP with a noun head and a post-determiner (pronoun or quantifier) as a dependent [21.8.2], and a NP with a determiner head which is itself preceded by a NP pre-determiner; the latter construction is **partitive**. The position of the article *lā*^{+/} may distinguish the two constructions.

NP with a post-determiner:

<i>nīdɪb bédvǵō</i>	"a lot of people"	<i>bédvǵō</i>	dependent
<i>nīdɪb bédvǵō lā</i>	"the lot of people, the crowd"	<i>bédvǵō</i>	dependent
<i>nīdɪbá àyí</i>	"two people"	<i>àyí</i>	dependent
<i>nīdɪbá àyí lā</i>	"the two people"	<i>àyí</i>	dependent
<i>nīn-síabà</i>	"certain people"	<i>síabà</i>	dependent

NP with a determiner head and a NP pre-determiner:

<i>nīdɪb lā bédvǵō</i>	"a lot of the people"	<i>bédvǵō</i>	head
<i>nīdɪb lá àyí</i>	"two of the people"	<i>àyí</i>	head
<i>yà sǵʔ</i>	"some one among you"	<i>sǵʔ</i>	head
<i>nīdɪb lā síabà</i>	"certain of the people"	<i>síabà</i>	head
<i>nīdɪb síabà</i>	"certain ones among people"	<i>síabà</i>	head

nīdɪbá_ àtáñʔ lá ànǵʔòn ...
 person:PL NUM:three ART who ...
 "who, among the three people ...?"

The determiner can be an *n̄*-Clause:

Pa'alimi ti nidiba ayi nwa fun gaŋ so'.
Pà'alimī_ tí nīdɪbá_ àyí ñwá fún gāŋ sǵʔ
 Show:IMP 1PLO person:PL NUM:two this 2SG:COMP choose:PFV INDF.HU
 "Show us which of these two people you have chosen." (Acts 1:24)

21.9.2 Gerunds and Deverbal Abstract Nouns

Gerunds can take NP pre-determiners as subjects [21.7.3].

Dāy lā kúlǵg dāa mālsí_ m.
 Man:SG ART return.home:GER TNS be.pleasing 1SGO.
 "The man's return home pleased me."

A generic object argument may also occur as a Combining Form, and adjunct AdvPs may follow the head:

ninsaalib yadda niŋir Wina'am ni
nīn-sáalìb yáddā-níŋìr Wínà'am ní
 Person-smooth:PL assent-do:GER God LOC
 "People's faith in God." (Rom 4:14)

ya antu'a morim koto ni ne taaba la

yà àntuʔà-mōrím kótò ní nē tāaba lā

2PL case-have:**GER** court:**SG LOC** with each.other **ART**

"your going to law with each other in court" (1 Cor 6:7, 1976)

VP-final particles may occur too 25.7:

Ninsaal Biig la ken la na

Nīn-sáàl Bîg lā kēn lā nā

Person-smooth:**SG** Child:**SG ART** come:**GER ART** hither

"the coming of the Son of Man"

Other deverbal abstract nouns may also be used in this way:

Kiristo ku'um dapuudir zug "Christ's death on the cross" (1 Cor 1:18)

Kiristo kúm dá-pūvdír zúg

Christ death wood-cross:**SG** upon

Constructions of this type are rarely used in place of content clauses or as adjuncts, but most often as subjects or with postpositions.

21.9.3 *Mēŋ^a/ dāan^a sōb^a bŋn^{ne}/*

Certain nouns occur exclusively as heads with a dependent. There is characteristically a specialised sense in the dependent/head relationship. (For *Adverbs* as heads of AdvPs with preceding dependents see Postpositions 22.6.)

Mēŋ^a "self" is used indifferently for sg/pl, always with a pre-determiner:

m̄ mēŋ

"myself"

yà mēŋ

"yourselves"

nàʔab lā mēŋ

"the chief himself"

chief:**SG ART** self

Bà ñyèé_ bà mēŋ.

"They've seen for themselves."

3PL see:**PFV 3PL** self.

"Self" forms must be used for verb arguments referring back to the clause subject :

M̐ ṅwéʔé_m mēŋ. "I hit myself."
1SG hit:PFV 1SG self.

not **M̐ ṅwéʔē m* or **M̐ ṅwéʔ mān*.

Kusaal resembles English, as opposed to (say) French, in using a pronoun possessor with body parts acted on by their owner, e.g.

Ba pu piesidi ba nu'us su'uŋa ka nan dita.
Bà pō pīəsídí_bà núʔùs súŋā, kà nāan dítā +∅.
3PL NEG.IND clean:IPFV 3PL hand:PL good:ADV and then eat:IPFV NEG.
 "They don't wash their hands properly before they eat." (Mt 15:1)

When ordinary pronouns are permissible, using *mēŋ* implies contrast:

M̐ píə_m̐ mēŋ núʔùs. "I washed my own hands."
1SG wash:PFV 1SG self hand:PL.

Fù mēŋ kōv bí-līaa +∅? "Yourself or the baby?"
2SG self or child-baby:SG CQ? ("Which of you needs the doctor?")

The derived manner-adverb *amēŋá*⁺ "really, truly" can be used after a sg or pl to mean "genuine, real" and there is an adjectival form *mēŋír*^e seen in e.g.

yēl-mēŋír^e "truth" ("genuine matter")

Dāan^a "owner of ...", *nām*^a pl, always has a preceding dependent NP or AdvP. In a few set forms this is a generic count noun cb:

yī-dāan^a "householder" = *yī-sǎb*^a Hausa *mài gidaa*
tēŋ-dāan^a literally "land-owner": traditional earth-priest

Normally, the possession is expressed by a free NP, definite or indefinite:

lór dāan^a "car owner"
bōvug dāan^a "goat owner"
kùʔəm dāan^a "water owner"
tìəŋ dāan^a "bearded man" Hausa *mài geemùu*
dāam dāan^a "beer owner"
pōvɔŋ lā dāan^a "the owner of the field" (Mt 21:40)

Zu-wok daan po gangid bugum.

Zò-wōk dáàn pō gánìd búgúmm +∅.

Tail-long:SG owner:SG NEG.IND step.over:IPFV fire NEG.

Proverb: "One with a long tail doesn't step over a fire."

(If you have family commitments you shouldn't take risks.) KSS p38

An abstract possession refers to a quality, as with Hausa *màì*, or Arabic ذو

pò-pìàlɪm dáàn^a "holy person"

Manner-adverbs can appear in the same sense as abstracts before *dāan^a*:

bōgvsígā dáàn^a "softly-softly sort of person" WK

See [18.2.4](#) on the use of *dāan^a* with numbers to make ordinal expressions.

S5b^a "the one of ..." is a dummy head for a preceding NP or AdvP dependent; it specifies only number and gender and is otherwise semantically empty.

Human	sg	<i>s5b^a</i>
Human	pl	<i>dìm^a</i>
Non-human	sg/pl	<i>dìn^{ne}</i>

With noun or pronoun pre-determiners [21.7.3](#) the meaning is possessive:

mān dín^{ne} "my one, mine"

À-Wīn díṃ "Awini's family"

Fōn pjàñ'ád nē tīnám dín.

2SG.CNTR speak:IPFV FOC 1PL.CNTR individual.NH.

("We can't speak your language but ...") "You're speaking ours."

Abstract NPs and AdvPs [21.7.2.2](#) [21.7.2.3](#) preceding *s5b^a* are pre-modifiers:

pò-pìàlɪm s5b^a
pl *pò-pìàlɪm díṃ^a* "holy person" (*pò-pìàlɪm^m* "holiness")

dūniya ní dìn^{ne} "earthly one" (1 Cor 15:44)

Bòk díṃ "Bawku people"

The quantifier *yīgá⁺* "first" is a pre-determiner, as always [21.7.3](#):

yīigá sōb^a "first (person)" beside *yīig-sōb^a* id

Specialised senses may be found with cb pre-modifiers:

<i>yī-sōb^a</i>	"householder"	(<i>yīr^{e/}</i> "house")
pl <i>yī-sōb-nàm^a</i>		
<i>yī-dím^a</i>	"members of the household"	
<i>nīf-sōb^a</i>	"miser"	(<i>nīf^{o/}</i> "eye")
<i>tāñp-sōb^a</i>	"warrior"	(<i>tāñp^o</i> "war")
<i>zūg-sōb^a</i>	"boss" NT "Lord"	(<i>zūg^{o/}</i> "head")
pl <i>zūg-sōb-nàm^a</i>		

The expression *ñn sōb^a* means "the person we were just talking about."

Būn^{ne/} "thing" is probably derived from the old gender agreement pronoun for abstracts. It is used in many constructions as a dummy placeholder. It can make a regular *r^{e/}|a⁺* Class plural *būná⁺*, but in placeholder use it is found indifferently as sg and pl, or pluralises with *nàm^a* like non-human pronouns:

Būn-námá_ àlá *kà fù ñyētá* ^{+∅?}
 Thing-PL NUM:how.many and 2SG see:IPFV CQ?
 "How many things do you see?" SB

It is used (beside *nīn-* "person" for human) as a dummy non-human cb before adjectives, avoiding the use of an adjective as complement of *àeñ^{ya}* "be" [26.2].

Dītb á nē būn-súŋ. "Food is good." ("Food is a good thing.")
 Food COP FOC thing-good:SG.

Some adjectives cannot be used as NP heads at all, so *būn-* is necessary in:

būn-vúr^e "living thing"

Even those that can, cannot have any dependents apart from ideophones or articles, so *būn-* is also necessary in:

būn-píàl-kàñā^{+/} "this white one"

Deverbal Adjectives cannot be used as NP heads while retaining adjectival meaning; with no preceding cb they are interpreted as Agent Nouns [15.1.1.2.1]. Thus

	<i>bōn-kúvdír^e</i>	"thing to do with killing"
but	<i>kōvdír^e</i>	"killer"

WK requires an adjective to take the *m^m* Class suffix if the sense is abstract

21.8.1.1.

Note the idioms

<i>bōn-gíŋ^a</i>	"short chap" (informal, humorous)
<i>bōn-kúdùg^o</i>	"old man" (the normal expression) (but <i>pu[?]à-ñyá[?]aŋ^a</i> "old woman")

Bōn also occurs with abstract [21.7.2.2](#) pre-modifiers:

<i>tōlígír bún^{ne}</i>	"heating thing, heater" = <i>bōn-tōlígír^e</i>
---------------------------------	--

With an AdvP pre-modifier:

<i>kù[?]əmīn bún^{ne}</i>	"water creature"
--	------------------

Note that while *bōn* is a "thing", tangible or abstract, *dín* is purely a semantically empty head, with only number and gender specified:

<i>kù[?]əmīn dín^{ne}</i>	"the (non-human) one in the water, aquatic one"
--	---

21.10 Personifier Clitics

Kusaasi personal names are always preceded by the personifier clitics *À-* or *Ñ-/M-*; *À-* is the default, with *Ñ-/M-* appearing before adjective stems. *M-* is found before labial consonants. These are all Liaison Words. The *À-* is like the manner-adverb prefix *à-* in being preceded by word-final *-l*, not *-a* as with the number prefix.

Personal names do not take the article or modifiers, but may take pre- or post-determiners. *À-*, but not *Ñ-/M-*, are deleted after a pre-determiner.

Personal names can pluralise with *nàm^a*; such plurals can certainly mean e.g. "more than one (person called) Awini"; I do not know if they can also bear the *cum suis* meaning "Awini and his companions (etc.)"

<i>À-Wīn</i>	"Awini"
<i>tì Wīn</i>	"our Awini"
<i>M̄ Wīn</i>	"my Awini"

À-Wīn-káŋā "this Awini"
À-Wīn nám "Awinis"

Ñ-Dāug "Ndago"
tì Ñ-Dāug "our Ndago"

In speech, *À-* is used before foreign names also, though the NT (unlike the Mooré Bible) uses the names without the proclitic (and often in English spelling.)

À-Mūusa "Moses"
À-Yīsa "Jesus"
À-Sīimóòn "Simon"

For examples of Kusaasi names see [37.2](#).

NT has some personifications of abstractions: *À-Sà'vŋ* "Destruction, Abaddon."

In stories where animals are characters, animal names take *À-*:

À-Bāa "Mr Dog"

A number of animal and bird names incorporate the clitic as part of the common noun, without any implication of personification; among such nouns are *à-dàalúŋ*^o "stork" *à-gáùŋg*^o "pied crow" *à-kōra-díəm*^{ma} "praying mantis" and the loanword *à-mús*^e "cat."

Examples:

à-dàalúŋ "a stork"

m̄/mān dáalúŋ "my stork"
1SG/1SG.CNTR stork:SG

dāy lā dáalúŋ "the man's stork"
man:SG ART stork:SG

Lì à né à-dàalúŋ. "It's a stork"
3NH COP FOC PERS-stork:SG.

M̄ ñyé à-dàalúŋ. "I've seen a stork."
1SG see:PFV PERS-stork:SG.

The *à-* clitic is not simply elided after a pre-determiner but is completely *replaced*, as is apparent from the L Raising affecting the stem. The clitic *à-* thus

behaves in its formal syntax like a pre-determining personal pronoun, and when nominalising a whole phrase or clause, it is analogous to a non-contrastive subject pronoun [21.10.1]. *À-* is also *phonologically* similar to the clitic pronouns [17.1] [8.5] [9.3.2]. All this may reflect a historical origin as an indefinite third-person pronoun "someone", perhaps related to the Mooré 3rd person singular pronoun *yě~a*.

21.10.1 With VPs and Clauses

Verb Phrases can be nominalised by the Personifier Clitic *À-* [21.10], which takes the place of a subject pronoun, in the sense "someone who ...":

Atum so'

À-tùm s̄ʔ

PERS-send:PFV INDF.HU

"Siloam" ("Someone sent someone else") [25.1.1] (Jn 9:7)

Apukpen'baŋo

À-p̄ kɛ́ŋʔ bàyŋo

PERS-NEG.IND enter:PFV circumcision

"the Uncircumcised" [20.1] (Eph 2:11)

This is common in proverbs and similar set expressions:

À-dāa yél k̄aʔ tíimm +∅.

PERS-TNS say:PFV NEG.HAVE medicine NEG.

"Did-say has no remedy." (No use crying over spilt milk.)

À-ñyē nē nīf s̄ñʔ́ ű À-wòm t̄ba.

PERS-see:PFV with eye:SG be.better.than PERS-hear:PFV ear:PL

"Saw-with-eye beats Heard-with-Ears" (Seeing is believing.)

À-Kīdigi ű ∅ Būʔes

PERS-cross:PFV SER ask:PFV

"Crossed over and asked" (name of the constellation Orion.)

Apozotyel

À-P̄-zót-yēl

PERS-NEG.IND-run:IPFV-thing:SG

"Doesn't-fear-trouble", character in KSS p35.

The expected final LF in this expression, induced by the Negative Clitic paired with *pū*, is seen only when the name is clause-final:

Apozotyel da ane o saam biig ma'aa.

À-Pū-zót-yēl dá à né ò sàam bîg mà'aa.

PERS-NEG.IND-run:IPFV-thing:SG TNS COP FOC 3HU father:SG child:SG only

"Fears-nothing was his father's only child." KSS p35

In some cases, *À-* appears before the subject of an entire clause, as a pre-determiner with the meaning "someone whose ...":

Bà kèn né À-nà kōú_ m̄ nūa yír, kà bà pū kén

3PL go:IPFV FOC PERS-UNR kill:PFV 1SG chicken:SG house:SG and 3PL NEG.IND go:IPFV

À-nōɔs bέ yírē +∅.

PERS-chicken:PL EXIST house:SG NEG.

"They go to Will-kill-my-chicken's house, but not to Got-chickens' house."

("The rich are not always hospitable.")

[Cf *Nōɔs bέ*. "There are chickens, chickens exist."]

À-Tiim bódig yā

PERS-medicine get.lost:PFV INDEP

Personal name 37.2, literally "Someone's medicine has got lost."

Nominalisations with *à-* can pluralise with *nàm^a*:

À-zī?_ ∅ kpí nàm kpîd né kà téñbîd.

PERS -NEG.KNOW SER die:PFV PL die:IPFV FOC and tremble:IPFV

"Those who don't know death, are dying with a struggle." (Proverb)

(i.e "It's a storm in a teacup.")

22 Adverbial Phrases

22.1 Adverbial Phrases: Overview

Adverbial Phrases characteristically appear as Adjuncts within clauses and VPs. To a more limited extent they may appear as arguments of verbs [22.5], or (with the exception of proadverbs) within NPs as determiners or modifiers [21.7.2.3] [21.8.2.3].

Adverbial Phrases may have morphologically distinctive Adverbs as heads, or may represent adverbial uses of NPs; such NPs have the usual structural possibilities for NPs. Otherwise, the range of structures for AdvPs is more limited. Adverbs with a preceding NP determiner are limited to specialised Postpositions [22.6]. *N*-Clauses without relative pronouns occur as Adverbs of Time/Circumstance [33.1], while Relative Clauses with pronouns expressing place or manner occur as corresponding types of AdvP. Coordination of AdvPs is possible only for those expressing time and place.

There is a basic syntactic distinction between AdvPs expressing Time, Circumstance or Reason on the one hand, and AdvPs expressing Place or Manner on the other. AdvPs expressing time, circumstance or reason usually appear as Clause adjuncts [30.1.1] before the clause subject, or as VP Adjuncts [25.6]. while AdvPs expressing place or manner may appear as VP Adjuncts but not as Clause Adjuncts; they may only precede the clause subject by preposing with *kà* [34.2].

Thus **M̄ɔ̀gún mām b́é.* for "I'm in the bush."

Grass:SG:LOC 1SG.CNTR EXIST.

is corrected by WK to

M̄ɔ̀gún kà mām b́é. "I'm in the bush."

Grass:SG:LOC and 1SG.CNTR EXIST.

22.2 Time and Circumstance

Adverbial Phrases expressing **time** may be instantiated by time Adverbs [19], but are very often simply nouns or NPs with temporal meanings, and no special marking; for examples see [37.8].

No formal distinction is made between a point in time and a period over which a state of affairs persists:

F̀ò ná k̄l b̄ēog.

2SG UNR return.home:PFV tomorrow.

"You'll go home tomorrow."

Tì kpélìm ànínā dábìsà b'ǎlà.

1PL remain:**PFV** **ADV**:there day:**PL** few.

"We stayed there a few days."

Time AdvPs can be **coordinated**:

Bēogun nē záàm kà fù ná nīḡ tí-kàḡā.

Morning:**LOC** with evening and **2SG UNR** do:**PFV** medicine-**DEML.SG**.

"Use this medicine morning and evening."

Adverbial Phrases expressing **circumstances** are typically *ḡ*-Adverbial Clauses; such clauses are also frequently used to express time [33.1.1].

22.3 Place

The core adverb of place is Locative Particle, which has two allomorphs. Strictly speaking, the head of locative AdvPs is the locative particle itself, with a third **zero allomorph** accompanying the "intrinsically locative" forms discussed below; like other postpositions, this is never itself referential even though it has a pre-determiner. This analysis is supported by the use of locatives as NP pre-modifiers [21.7.2.3] and by the behaviour of focus marking with locative complements in the verb phrase [34.1.1.3].

The form *ni*⁺ is used after words ending in a vowel in SF, after pronouns and after loanwords; the Liaison Enclitic *n*^e is used elsewhere:

<i>mù'arīn</i>	"in a lake"
<i>yūdá nì</i>	"among names"
<i>m̄ nī</i>	"in me"
<i>mān ni</i>	"in me"

la'asug doogin ne sueya ni

là'asug dǒcgīn nē sūēyá nì

assembly:**SG** house:**SG:LOC** with road:**PL LOC**

"in the synagogue and in the streets" (Mt 6:2)

Yīr^{e/} "house" has the exceptional sg and pl locative forms *yín*^{ne} *yáan*^e which have the particular nuance "home", as in the parting formula [36]:

Pù'usim yín. "Greet (those) at home." i.e. "Goodbye."

Note also the locative adverb *yìŋ*^a "outside."

The article *lā*^{+/} may precede or follow the locative particle:

mù'arīn lā
or *mù'ar lā ní* "in the lake"

Quantifiers may also follow the locative particle:

m gbana ni wusa "in all my letters" (2 Thess 3:17)
m̀ gbàna ní wūsa
1SG letter:**PL LOC** all

The meaning is completely non-specific location: at, in, to, from. The locative particle is attached to nouns which are not place names whenever they are used as complements of verbs expressing motion or location:

Kem Siloam bulugin n pie fu nini.
Kèm Siloam búlogīn n píə̀ fù nīnī.
Go:**IMP** Siloam well:**SG:LOC SER** wash:**PFV 2SG** eye:**PL**.
"Go to the well of Siloam and wash your eyes." (Jn 9:7)

Ka Sutaana kpen' Judas [...] sunfin.
Kà Sūtáanà kpéń' Judas [...] súńfīn.
And Satan enter:**PFV** Judas [...] heart:**SG:LOC**.
"Satan entered Judas' heart." (Lk 22:3)

Ka Pilate lem yi nidibin la na ya'as n yeli ba ye...
Kà Pilate lémm yī nīdībín lā nā yá'às
And Pilate again emerge:**PFV** person:**PL:LOC ART** hither again
n yéll̀ bā yē...
SER say:**PFV 3PLO** that ...
"Pilate went out to the people again and said to them ..." (Jn 19:4)

ILK has, transposed into the orthography of this grammar:

Ò bè dá'ān. "He's at market."
Ò bè s̄já'arīn. "He's at the bush."
Ò bè p̄ɔɔgún. "He's at the farm."
Ò bè yín. "He's at home."
Ò bè s̄ākulín. "He's at school."
Ò bè m̄ɔɔgun. "He's in the grasslands."

Ò bè kōlɪɣɪn "He's at the stream."
Ò bè tūvmɪn. "He's at work."

More precise locative meanings are expressed with postpositions, many of which themselves include the locative particle [22.6].

Ò dɪɣɪl gbáɣɪ lā tɛɛbòl lā zúɣ.
3HU lay.down:**PFV** book:**SG ART** table:**SG ART** upon.
 "She's put the book on the table."

Dāɣ lā bé nē dɔ-kàŋā lā púvɣŋ.
Man:SG ART EXIST FOC hut-**DEML.SG ART** inside:**SG:LOC**.
 "The man is inside that hut."

My informants tend to use postpositions in cases where the NT versions have the locative particle alone.

Kusaasi place names, many postpositions, and a number of other adverbs and proadverbs [19.1] are "intrinsically locative." Syntactic considerations [21.7.2.3] [34.1.1.3] suggest such words should in fact be regarded as accompanied by a zero allomorph of the locative particle:

Ò bè Bók. "He's at Bawku." ILK
Ò bè Tɛmpáan. "He's at Tempane." ILK
Ò kɛŋ Bók. "He's gone to Bawku."
Ò dɪɣɪl gbáɣɪ lā tɛɛbòl lā zúɣ. "She's put the book on the table." (above)

dàtɪɣ^o or *dítúɣ^o* "righthand"
dàgòbɪɣ^a "lefthand"
àgól^{le} or *àgōlá⁺* "upwards"
lāllí⁺ "far off" (? *lāl ní⁺*)

Place names often have a locative proform in apposition, particularly to express rest at a place, as opposed to movement towards or away:

M̄ ná kɛŋ Bók. "I'm going to Bawku."
Fù yúùɣ Bók kpɛlāa? "Have you been long in Bawku (here)?"
Fù yúùɣ Bókàa? SB (rejected by WK as "Mooré")

In the speech of my informants, foreign place names share the syntactic behaviour of Kusaal place names as intrinsically locative, but especially in the sense of rest at a place, the NT often either uses the postposition *ni*⁺ or paraphrases like

Jerusalem téŋɪn "in Jerusalem-land"

For examples of Kusaasi place names see [37.3](#).

Proforms used as locative relatives are intrinsically locative, and consequently so is the relative clause as a whole [33.2](#):

biig la n be si'el la

bīg lá ò bè sɪ'əl lā

child:SG ART COMP EXIST INDF.NH ART

"the place where the child was" (Mt 2:9, 1976)

ka more fu keŋ zin'i kan ka fu pu booda.

kà mɔ́rí_ fù_ ø kēŋ zín'í-kàn kà fù pū bóɔdā +ø.

and have 2SGO SER go:PFV place-DEM.SG and 2SG NEG.IND want NEG.

"and take you where you do not want." (Jn 21:18)

Some words incorporate the locative particle always, whether used as locatives or not:

tèŋ-pūɔvun^{e/} "village"
 pl *tèŋ-pūvudɪn^{e/}*

Note also the *time* expressions:

bēog^o "tomorrow"

bēogvun^{e/} "morning"

sān-sí'ān lā "at one time, once..." [29.3](#)

yīgín^e "at first"

Locative forms with or without the locative particle may appear as modifiers or determiners within a NP [21.7.2.3](#) [21.8.2.3](#).

Locative AdvPs can be coordinated:

Nyalima na be winigin ne nwadigin ne nwadibibisin.

Ñyālímá nà bē wínnìgīn nē ñwāɔgín nē ñwād-bíbisīn.

Wonder:PL UNR EXIST sun:SG:LOC with moon:SG:LOC with moon-small:PL:LOC.

"There will be wonders in the sun, moon and stars." (Lk 21:25)

Reason-why AdvPs are construed like Place AdvPs, with a metaphorical extension of the sense of the postposition *zūg* "upon" [22.6]; similarly for proforms:

<i>àlá zùg⁰</i>	"therefore"	<i>bō zúg⁰</i>	"why?"
<i>dìn zúg⁰</i>	"therefore"		

22.4 Manner

Adverbial Phrases expressing manner may again be instantiated by proforms; there are also morphologically distinctive manner-adverb word types [19].

Manner AdvPs cannot be coordinated.

Reduplication of nouns forms a number of **distributive** Manner AdvPs:

<i>dàbɪsɪr dàbɪsɪr</i>	"day by day"
<i>zĩñ'ig zĩñ'ig</i>	"place by place"

Reduplication of number words is similarly distributive [18.2.5].

Reduplication of manner-adverb *words* themselves is intensifying:

<i>àmēŋá mēŋá</i>	"very truly"
<i>àsīda sīda</i>	"very truly"

<i>Ṁ wúm</i>	<i>Kūsáàl bī'əlá.</i>	"I know Kusaal a little."
1SG hear: IPFV	Kusaal slightly,	

<i>Ṁ wúm</i>	<i>bī'əl bī'əl.</i>	"I understand a very little."
1SG hear: IPFV	little little.	

A very common form of Manner AdvP is a Relative Clause using the proform *sī'əm^m* "somehow" as relative: see [33.2.1.1].

Manner-adverbs resemble generic mass nouns in their syntactic behaviour in some respects, and conversely some *m^m* Class abstract nouns derived from adjective stems are zero-derived to manner adverbs [19]. On a syntactic level, even count nouns used in generic senses are encountered as AdvPs:

<i>Ṁ kēj</i>	<i>nōbá.</i>
1SG go: PFV	leg: PL .

"I went on foot." SB; WK corrected this to *Ṁ kēj nē nōbá*, using *nē* "with."

A prepositional phrase with *nē* occurs parallel to a count plural used adverbially in

À-ñyē nē nīf sōñʔ́ *À-wòm t̀ba.*

PERS-see:PFV with **eye:SG** **be.better.than** **PERS-hear:PFV** **ear:PL**

"Saw-with-eye beats Heard-with-Ears" (Seeing is believing.)

Mass quantifiers, like abstract mass nouns, are frequently used adverbially:

Ò t̀m bédug̃.

"She's worked a lot."

Ò t̀m pāmm.

"She's worked a lot."

Wūsa "all" readily switches from quantifying an object to adverbial use:

Bà g̀sī t̀ wūsa.

3PL look.at:**PFV** **1PLO** all.

"They've looked at us all." WK (for: *Bà g̀sí t̀ wūsa.* **3PL** look.at:**PFV** **1PL** all.)

This is not a universal property of quantifiers:

Bà g̀sī t̀ bédug̃.

"They've looked at us a lot." WK

Bà g̀sí t̀ bédug̃.

"They've looked at a lot of us." WK

Numbers have specific forms for the adverbial meaning "so many times" 18.2.5; the other count quantifiers sometimes appear similarly as adverbs:

Bà g̀sī t̀ bábīgā.

"They've looked at us many times." WK

Bà g̀sí t̀ bábīgā.

"They've looked at many of us." WK

22.5 AdvPs as Verb Arguments

The prototypical use of AdvPs is as adjuncts within the VP, or for Time or Circumstance AdvPs, as Clause Adjuncts:

F̀ dúe wēlá +ø?

2SG rise:**PFV** how **CQ?**

literally "How did you rise?"; morning greeting.

(The form *dúe* of the verb *dūe* "rise" shows that the following word is part of the same phrase 9.1.3.)

Bēogú_ fù ná kūl.

Tomorrow **2SG UNR** return.home:**PFV**.

"You're going home tomorrow." SB

However, AdvPs also occur as verb arguments.

AdvPs of all types can appear as subjects of the verb *àɛ̃ñ*^{ya} "be something /somehow" [26.2]. Adjectival verbs may also have an AdvP subject:

Yiŋ venl, ka poogin ka'a su'um.

Yiŋ véñl kà pūugun kāʔ súmm +∅.

Outside be.beautiful and inside:**SG:LOC NEG.BE** good:**ABSTR NEG**.

"Outside is beautiful but inside is not good." (Acts 23:3)

N-Adverbial Clauses may appear as subjects:

Christ da kpi n tisi ti la ke ka ti baŋ noŋir a si'em.

Christ_∅ dà kpi n tisi_ tī lā ké kà tì bāŋ

Christ **COMP TNS** die:**PFV SER** give:**PFV 1PLO ART** cause:**PFV** and **1PL** realise:**PFV**

nòŋir_∅ à sīʔəm.

love **COMP COP INDF.ADV**

"Christ dying for us makes us understand what love is like." (1 Jn 3:16, 1976)

Apart from this AdvPs do not usually appear as subjects: the sentence

Sòŋā bé.

"OK it is." WK

Good:**ADV EXIST**.

is probably to be analysed as involving a metalinguistic use of *sòŋā*.

The verb *àɛ̃ñ*^{ya} characteristically takes a manner-adverb or derived abstract noun complement in preference to an adjective [26.2].

Kusaal frequently uses manner-adverb proforms instead of pronouns with abstract reference as verb objects:

Ò niŋí_ àlá.

"She did that." ("thus")

3HU do:PFV ADV:thus.

Dā níŋi_ àláa +∅!

"Don't do that!" ("thus")

NEG.IMP do:PFV ADV:thus NEG!

Relative Clauses using the proform *sī'am*^m "somehow" as relative are accordingly used after verbs of cognition, reporting and perception of the type that take Content Clause complements [31.4], to express the sense "say [etc] what ...":

Fu wum ban yet si'em laa?

Fù wúm bán yèt sī'am láa +ø?

2SG hear:IPFV 3PL:COMP say:IPFV INDF.ADV ART PQ?

"Do you hear what ["how"] they are saying?" (Mt 21:16)

Tiig wela bigisid on a si'em.

Tiig wélà bigisid ón à sī'am.

Tree:SG fruit:PL show:IPFV 3HU:COMP COP INDF.ADV.

"The fruit of a tree shows what ["how"] it is." (Mt 12:33, 1976)

Verbs with appropriate meanings frequently take locative AdvPs as complements, rather than as Adjuncts [25.3]. Differing sandhi behaviour of *kā'ε* "not be" with respect to losing the final *ε* [9.1.3] may reflect whether a following locative AdvP is a VP complement or an adjunct:

Dāy lā kā' dɔ́ɔgūn láa +ø.

Man:SG ART NEG.BE room:SG:LOC ART NEG.

"The man is not in the room."

Dāy kā'ε dɔ́ɔgūn láa +ø.

Man:SG NEG.BE room:SG:LOC ART NEG.

"There's no man in the room."

22.6 Postpositions

Postpositions are adverbs with a pre-determiner [21.7.3]. Most such adverbs are either literal locatives or metaphorical extensions of locatives. Postpositional phrases are AdvPs and can be preposed with *kà* [34.2] freely, unlike prepositional phrases with *nē* [23.1]. Regardless of the definiteness of their pre-determiners, postpositions continue to behave syntactically like generic non-count nouns, so that postpositional phrases as NP pre-dependents are modifiers rather than determiners [21.7.2.3].

Postpositions may not be coordinated, but their pre-determiners may be:

tinam ne fun sisoogin

"between us and you" (Mt 8:29)

tīnám nē fūn sí'sùugūn

1PL with 2SG between:LOC

Many postpositions are readily recognisable as special uses of ordinary nouns. Some postpositions are AdvPs including the locative particle.

zūg^{o/} "onto" (*zūg*^{o/} "head")
téɛbùl lā zúg "onto the table"

Zūg^{o/} is frequently used metaphorically to express a **reason** "because of ..."

mān zūg "on account of me"
dāy lā zúg "on account of the man"
b̄-zúgò? "why?" (cf *b̄ zúgū* "because" [29.3])

With an *ñ*-Adverbial Clause as pre-determiner:

Mán ñwè? dāy lā zúg kà police gbāñ'á m.
1SG:COMP strike:**PFV** man:**SG** **ART** upon and police seize:**PFV** **1SGO**.
 "Because I struck the man the police arrested me."

Although Reason AdvPs are, as here, frequently preposed with *kà* [34.2], they may occur as clause-level presubject adjuncts [30.1.1]:

Pian'akan ka m pian' tisi ya la zug, ya ane nyain.
P̄āñ'-kàn kà m̄ p̄āñ' ∅ t̄isì yā lā zúg, yà á nē ñyāe.
 Word-**DEM.SG** and **1SG** speak:**PFV** **SER** give:**PFV** **2PLO** **ART** upon, **2PL** **COP** **LOC** brightly.
 "Because of the the words I have spoken to you, you are clean." (Jn 15:3)

zūgún^e "on"
téɛbùl lā zúgūn "on the table"

tēñír^e "under" (*tēñ*^a "ground")
téɛbùl lā tēñír "under the table"

Also as a locative adverb by itself:

Gòsim tēñír! "Look down!", more commonly *Gòsim tēñin!*

p̄vugun^{e/} "inside" (*p̄vug*^a "belly, inside")
dūk lā p̄vugūn "in the pot"

Metaphorical:

ñwādis yúùm lā púvgōn "months in the year"

bābá⁺ "beside" (*bābir^{e/}* "sphere of activity")
m̄ nōbá bàba "beside my feet"

sìsùvgōn^{e/} "between"
tīnám nē fōn sísgùvgōn "between us and you"

tùə^{ne} "in front of"
dāká lā túèⁿ "in front of the box"

As an adverb with no pre-determiner:

Gòsim túèⁿ! "Look to the front"

gbìn^{ne} "at the bottom of" (*gbìn^{ne}* "buttock")
zūər lā gbín "at the foot of the mountain"

ñyáʔaŋ^a "behind, after" (*ñyáʔaŋ^a* "back")
lì ñyáʔaŋ^a "afterwards" as a presubject adjunct 30.1.1

Often used in the sense of "after" in time:

Nēʔŋá ñyáʔàŋ kà ò kūl.

DEM.NH after and **3HU** return.home:**PFV**.

"After this she went home."

sāʔan^{e/} "into/in the presence of" "in the opinion of"
Wínàʔam sáʔàn "in the sight of God"

Fù ná dīʔe tílm pɥʔá-bàmmā lā sáʔàn.

2SG UNR receive:**PFV** medicine woman-**DEML.PL ART** among.

"You'll get the medicine from those women."

yēlá⁺ "about, concerning" (pl of *yēl^{e/}* "matter, affair")
Bà yèl·ō mān yēlá wūsa. "They told him all about me."

kōñʔəkō cf *àdàkōñʔ* "one" 18.2.3

m̄ kōñʔəkō "by myself"
1SG by.self

23 Prepositions

There are two basic prepositions: *nē* "with" and *wōv* "like"; others are either loanwords or originated from serial-verb constructions. Prepositional phrases function as clause adjuncts. They do not form components of Noun Phrases (except for *báa yīnní* [23.2].)

Neither prepositions, nor their objects, can be coordinated.

For prepositional phrases as verb complements see [25.4].

23.1 Core Prepositions

nē is "with" in both the "accompanying" and instrumental senses. The *nē* "and" which coordinates NPs and AdvPs [21.4] is presumably fundamentally the same word, although in that sense it is parallel in usage to *bēē* and *kōv* "or", which do not behave as prepositions.

WK has forms of *nē* with bound personal pronouns:

<i>ní m^a</i>	<i>ní tī^{+/}</i>
<i>ní f^o</i>	<i>ní yā^{+/}</i>
<i>n·ó⁺</i> [nǒ(:)]	<i>ní bā^{+/}</i>
<i>ní lī^{+/}</i>	

The *ne o* of the 1996 NT version is frequently read [nǒ] in the audio version.

Other speakers only use *nē* with free pronouns; WK has alternative forms also with *né* before those clitic pronouns which have a vowel in SF: *né lì*, *né tì*, *né yà*, *né bà*, with the pronouns having L toneme throughout; SB has the same forms. The H toneme on the preposition in WK's forms with *ní* is difficult to explain; compare perhaps the tonemes of Pattern H 2-mora stem verbs before object pronouns [8.3.1].

Examples for *nē*:

Lìgúním_ fù nīf né fù nú?ùg.

Cover:IMP 2SG eye:SG with 2SG hand:SG.

"Cover your eye with your hand."

Bà kèŋ nē nōbá.

"They've gone on foot." WK

3PL go:PFV with leg:PL.

Dìm nē Wīn, dā tú?às nē Wīnné +∅.

Eat:IMP with God:SG, NEG.IMP talk:PFV with God:SG NEG.

"Eat with God, don't talk with God."

(Proverb. Be grateful for God's generosity and don't complain.)

Kulim ne sumalisim.

Kùlím nē sū-málsìm.

Return.home:IMP with heart-sweetness.

"Go home in peace." (Mk 5:34)

[Bárìkà né fù] kēn kēn.

[Blessing with **2SG**] arrival arrival.

"Welcome!" (a greeting template 36)

M̄ géñ? né fù. "I'm angry with you." SB

1SG get.angry:PRV with **2SG**.

wōv "like" occurs often after *wēn*^{na/} "resemble" introducing its complement; the preposition *nē* also frequently occurs instead of *wōv*.

The object of comparison, whether introduced by *wōv* or by *nē* after *wēn*^{na/}, is followed by an empty particle *nē* after any object which does not already have the article *lā*^{+/}, even if it is a pronoun, or is specific:

wōv mān nē "like me"

wōv búŋ nē "like a donkey"

Ka o nindaa wenne nintāŋ ne.

Kà ò nīn-dáa wēn nē nīntāŋ nē.

And **3HU** eye-face:SG resemble with sun:SG like.

"His face is like the sun." (Rev 10:1)

Ala zugo more ya'am wuu wiigi ne...

Àlá zùgō, m̀r̀r̀ yāʔm wōv wīgí nē...

Therefore, have sense like snake:PL like...

"Therefore, be wise as serpents ..." (Mt 10:16)

Wōv, *wēn wōv*, and *wēn nē* can also be used for "about" with numbers. The object is not followed by the redundant *nē* in this case:

wōv tūsá àyí

like thousand:PL NUM:two

"about 2000"

The object of a comparison is often a *sīʔam* Relative Clause:

Ò zòt wōv búŋ ò zòt sī'am lā.

3HU run:**IPFV** like donkey:**SG** **COMP** run:**IPFV** **INDF.ADV** **ART**.

"He runs like a donkey runs."

With pronoun objects WK has

wōv mān LF *mánè*

wúv tì

wōv fōn LF *fúnè*

wúv yà

wōv ōn^e

wúv bà

wúv lì

H toneme again appears before the Fixed-L pronouns.

WK permits phrases introduced by *wōv* to be preposed with *kà* [34.2], but rejects this construction for *nē* + NP:

Wōv búŋ né kà ò zòt.

Like donkey:**SG** like and **3HU** run:**IPFV**.

"Like a donkey, he runs."

But **Né ò nú'ùg kà ò sī'is.*

With **1SG** hand:**SG** and **1SG** touch:**PFV**.

is not possible for "With my hand, I touched it."

A clausal object of *wōv* is typically a relative clause with *sī'am* [33.2.1.1], but *wōv* can also be construed with a following Content Clause [31.4]:

M pian'adi ya wuu ya ane m biis.

M pǎǎ'adī yá wōv yà á né ò bīis.

1SG speak:**IPFV** **2PLO** like **2PL COP FOC** **1SG** child:**PL**.

"I talk to you as if you were my children." (2 Cor 6:13)

23.2 Loanwords

Báa (Hausa *bâa* "not exist") is used to express constituent negation. It takes an object like a preposition; see further [35.4].

Two Hausa loanwords which are used as conjunctions [29.3] are also used as prepositions. For pronoun objects they use the free forms.

àséé = "except for" (← Hausa *sai*)

àséé Wínà'am

"except for God" (calquing the Twi *gye Nyame*)

hālí⁺ "up to and including"; cf Hausa *har*, but this is a word found extremely widely in the savanna and Sahel; it may ultimately derive from Arabic حتى *ḥatta*: (Heath 2005.)

O daa pun ane ninkuud hale pin'ilugin sa.

Ò dāa pún à nē nīn-kúùd hālí pīñ'ílúgōn sá.

3HU TNS previously **COP FOC** person-killer:**SG** even beginning:**SG:LOC** since.

"He was a murderer from the beginning." (Jn 8:44)

Before a manner-adverb *hālí* means "even" or just "very"

Lì tẹ hālí bédugō. "It's very difficult."

3NH be.bitter until much.

The adverb itself may be ellipted:

Lì tẹ hālí. "It's very difficult."

Hālí in the adverbial sense "even" may be preposed with *kà* 34.2:

Hale ka nidib mor ban'adnam na.

Hālí kà nīdīb mōr bāñ'ād-nām nā.

Even and person:**PL** have sick.person-**PL** hither.

"People even brought the sick" (Acts 5:15)

23.3 Compound Prepositions

Expressions deriving from Serial VP constructions with an auxiliary following the main VP 28.3.2 have given rise to compound prepositions:

Wēn nē *X* and **wēn wōu** *X* have become prepositional phrases, to the extent that the entire sequence *wēn* + preposition + object can be preposed with *kà* 34.2, and a change of polarity can occur before it:

Da lo ya nindaase, wenne foosug dim la niñid si'em la.

Dā ló yà nīn-dáasē +∅, wēn nē fōwsúg dímm lá_∅

NEG.IMP tie:**PFV** **2PL** eye-face:**PL** **NEG**, resemble with puff:**GER** individual.**PL** **ART** **COMP**

nìñid sī'əm lā.

do:**IPFV** **INDF.ADV** **ART**.

"Don't screw up your faces like the hypocrites do." (Mt 6:16, 1976)

The compound preposition **là'am nē** "together with" likewise derives from a serial-verb construction:

...mor ya'am yinni la'am ne ten'esa yinni.

... mōr yā'm yīnní là'am nē tēñ'esá yīnní.

... have sense one together with thought one.

"... had one mind together with one thought." (Acts 4:32)

Hālí also forms compound prepositions:

Hālí nē and **hālí là'am nē** are found before *h̄*-Clauses with the meaning "despite, even though":

Hale ne man daa sobi ya si'em la, man daa pu sobi li ...

Hālí nē mán dāa sōbí_ yā sī'em lā,

Even with **1SG:COMP TNS** write:PFV **2PLO INDF.ADV ART**,

mān dāa pū sōbí_ lī ...

1SG.CNTR TNS NEG.IND write:PFV **3NHO ...**

"Though I wrote to you like that, I did not write it ..." (2 Cor 7:12)

Hale la'am ne on daa a yelsum wusa daan la, o da lieb noŋ daan...

Hālí là'am nē ón dāa á yēl-súm wūsa dáàn lā,

Even together with **3HU:COMP TNS COP** matter-goodness all owner:SG ART,

ò dà liəb nōŋ-dáàn...

3HU TNS become:PFV poverty-owner:SG...

"Although he possessed every blessing, he became poor..." (2 Cor 8:9)

Hālí báa means "even":

Hale baa lampodi'esidib me niŋid ala.

Hālí báa làmpō-dí'əsìdib mé niŋid àlá.

Even tax-receiver:PL also do:IPFV ADV:thus.

"Even tax-collectors do that." (Mt 5:46)

Hali baa bama wusa ya'a na zo ka bas o, on ku bas oo.

Hālí báa bàmmā wūsa yá' nà zó kà bás-ò_ ø,

Even **DEML.PL** all if **UNR** run:PFV and abandon:PFV **3HUO**,

ōn kú bās-o_ ō +ø.

3HU.CNTR NEG.UNR abandon:PFV **3HUO NEG**.

"Even if they all ran away and left him, he would not leave him.

(Mt 26:33, 1976)

24 Verbal Predicators

24.1 Structure

The core of the Kusaal verb phrase is a Verbal Predicator, consisting of a verb word along with clitics which, along with verb flexion, mark tense, aspect, mood and polarity. Other clitics are also phonologically dependent on the Verbal Predicator; as they may intervene between the verb and the predicator category particles, they are also described in this section [24.7], although they are not part of the Verbal Predicator syntactically. They comprise "Particle-Verbs", a heterogeneous group of words expressing notions like repetition and sequence of events, which immediately precede the verb itself, and enclitic pronouns following the verb, comprising the enclitic 2pl subject pronoun and all the non-contrastive personal pronoun objects.

The Verbal Predicator is subject to Independency Marking [24.6]. This is primarily a tone overlay [24.6.1.1], but there are associated segmental features: the particle *yā*⁺ after phrase-final perfective forms [24.6.2.1] and the Variable Verb Imperative flexion *-m*^a appear only when the tone overlay is present.

The system cleanly separates tense, marked by proclitic particles, from aspect, marked by verb flexion interacting with the focus particle *nē*^{+/}, though as is common cross-linguistically, future reference is marked by *mood*. Negative markers vary with mood. Mood itself is marked primarily by such preverbal particles, but the verb flexion *-m*^a of Variable Verbs is a portmanteau marker of Imperative Mood along with positive polarity and Independency [24.6.2.2] [13.1].

The Verbal Predicator shows no agreement. Apparent number agreement in imperatives is due to the incorporation of the postposed 2nd pl subject pronoun *y*^a.

The Verbal Predicator thus consists of a single verb word, along with proclitic and enclitic particles which occur in a fixed order:

	Tense		Mood	P/Vb		LE1	LE2
<i>lèε</i>	<i>dàa</i>	<i>nàm</i>	∅ ↔ <i>pū</i>	<i>pùn</i>	VERB	<i>n</i> ^e	<i>m</i> ^a
	<i>sàa</i>		∅ ↔ <i>dā</i>	<i>lèm</i>		<i>ya</i>	<i>f</i> ^o
	∅		<i>nà</i> ↔ <i>kù</i>	<i>tì</i>			o
	<i>pà</i> ^ʔ			<i>kpèlɪm</i>			<i>lɪ</i> ⁺
	<i>sà</i>			<i>là</i> ^ʔ <i>am</i>			<i>tɪ</i> ⁺
	<i>dāa</i>			<i>dèŋɪm</i>			<i>ya</i> ⁺
	<i>dà</i>			<i>ñyēε(tɪ)</i>			<i>ba</i> ⁺
				...			

All elements other than the verb are optional; however, the \emptyset marks places where the absence of any particle from a particular column can be contrastive.

The particles in the column "Mood" also mark polarity: Positive \leftrightarrow Negative.

P/Vb "Particle-Verbs" 24.7.2; LE1, LE2 are Liaison Enclitic slots 24.7.3.

For *lèè* "but" see 24.7.1; for *nàm* "still" see 24.3.

Aspect-focussing *nē^{+/-}* is formally a Verb Phrase particle which immediately follows the Verbal Predicator 34.1.1.2.

Verbs of the majority Variable type mark aspect by flexion 13.1.

Tone Pattern O verbs have all-M tones in the Unrealised Mood 8.3.

24.2 Aspect

Like a great many West African languages, Kusaal has a verbal system dominated by aspect rather than tense. The basic distinction is perfective versus imperfective. Variable Verbs distinguish perfective aspects from imperfective by flexion 13.1; Invariable Verbs have a single form which generally behaves like the imperfective flexion of Variable Verbs.

Following the verb directly, or with only enclitics intervening, the **VP focus particle** *nē^{+/-}* 34.1.1 applies to the aspect marking of the verb if the verb semantics and the construction permit. The combination with verb flexion marks four aspects:

	Without <i>nē^{+/-}</i>	With <i>nē^{+/-}</i>
Perfective	Event	Result
Imperfective	Unbounded	Bounded

Distinctions between the Event and Result Perfective and between Unbounded and Bounded Imperfective are not made in negative polarity or in the Unrealised or Imperative Moods 24.4.1.

Ò zàbɪd. "He fights."
3HU fight:IPFV.

Ò zàbɪd nē. "He's fighting."
3HU fight:IPFV FOC.

but Ò pū zábɪdā + \emptyset . "He's not fighting"/"He doesn't fight."
3HU NEG.IND fight:IPFV NEG.

Passives are restricted to Event Perfective and Unbounded Imperfective aspects [25.1.4]. Thus *nē*^{+/} only appears in aspectual function in positive Indicative Predicators with verbs which are not used as Passives.

The availability of aspects can also be constrained by the nature of the verb itself [24.2.2.2], or by the presence of a generic subject [34.1.1.1].

The focus particle *nē*^{+/} is not permitted to stand at all in certain syntactic contexts [34.1.1.2]. When it is thus excluded by formal rule, aspectual distinctions still occur in Predicators which would otherwise display them, but are unmarked.

Ò *kùəsìdī_bá*. "She sells them."
3HU sell:IPFV 3PLO.

Ò *kùəsìdī_bá nē*. "She's selling them."
3HU sell:IPFV 3PLO FOC.

but Ò *kùəsìd sūmma lā nē*.
3HU sell:IPFV groundnut:PL ART FOC.
 "She *sells/is selling* the groundnuts." ("They're not free.")

Ì *pú'vsìdī_f nē*. "I'm greeting you."
1SG greet:IPFV 2SGO FOC.

Ì *pú'vsìd nē ná'àb lā*. "I'm greeting the chief."
1SG greet:IPFV FOC chief:SG ART.

but Ì *pú'vsìd ná'àb lā nē*. "I greet/am greeting the chief."
1SG greet:IPFV chief:SG ART FOC.

The various aspectual senses of *nē* with the Imperfective all denote an activity, process or state extending over a limited period, but it is difficult to include the Result Perfective in any unified formulation of the meaning of the particle (cf Ò *kpì nē*. "He is dead."). *Nē* might perhaps better be taken as denoting *marked* aspect: perfective is unmarked as against imperfective, while within the pairs, Event Perfective and Unbounded Imperfective are unmarked, and Result Perfective and Bounded Imperfective are marked.

24.2.1 Perfective Aspects

24.2.1.1 Event

The Event Perfective is the least marked and most neutral of the aspects, being appropriate whenever there is no progressive, habitual or stative sense. It is thus not comparable to the marked perfective aspect of Russian, and in particular it is not incompatible with a present tense interpretation. It may correspond to the English "simple present" (when this is not habitual), which is likewise unmarked over against the progressive form. It is the usual aspect found with the Unrealised Mood to express future events. Nevertheless, in contexts where there is no tense marking the Event Perfective often does have an implication of *completion*, in contrast with the imperfective.

The Event Perfective often does occur without tense marking, either explicit or implicit from context [24.3.3]. With most verbs this straightforwardly expresses a completed event or process where the time is unspecified, resembling the English "present perfect." As with the English tense/aspect, this very absence of time specification creates the implication that the event is still currently relevant:

Ò kɔ̀ yā.
3HU die:PFV INDEP. "She's died."

Sāa dāa ní.
Rain TNS rain:PFV. "It rained." (before yesterday.)

Sāa pá' nì yā.
Rain TNS rain:PFV INDEP. "It rained." (earlier today.)

but Sāa ní yā.
Rain rain:PFV INDEP. "It has rained."

The time is unspecified: "Perhaps the grass is still wet, or I am explaining that the area is not really a desert." (WK)

Other events and processes can be conceptualised as being simultaneous with the moment of utterance, so that the Event Perfective is appropriate. This resembles the English use of the simple present as an **instantaneous present**:

Ò yèl yē ...
3HU say:PFV that ... "He says ..." (translating for the foreign doctor)

Ḥ-Clauses are frequently used as presubject adverbs within a main clause to express past "when" [33.1.1]. Tense markers in the *ḥ*-Clause and main clause cannot differ (though they may be ellipited in the main clause), and the temporal relationship is determined by aspect, with a perfective in the *ḥ*-Clause implying priority and an imperfective simultaneity:

Ka ban dit la, Yesu yeli ba ye ...

Kà b́án dít lā, Yesu yé̀lì bā ...

And **3PL:COMP** eat:IPFV ART, Jesus say:PFV **3PLO**

"As they were eating, Jesus said to them ..." (Mt 26:21)

Ka ban yi la, ka Zugsob malek nie o meḥ ...

Kà b́án yī lā, kà Zūg-sób málēk níe ò mēḥ ...

And **3PL:COMP** emerge:PFV ART and head-one:SG angel:SG appear:PFV **3HU** self

"After they had left, an angel of the Lord showed himself ..." (Mt 2:13)

In the same way, narrative generally features chains of tense-unmarked Sequential Clauses [30.3.2] with Event Perfectives describing events strictly in order, but Imperfectives can occur with no implication of succession:

Ka siakidib wusa bane be Judea ne Galilee ne Samaria daa mor sumalisim. Ka ba kal paasid. Ka ba yadda niḡir nobigid.

Kà s̄jākídīb wūsa b́aní_ø b̀è Judea nē Galilee nē Samaria

And believer:PL all **DEM.PL COMP EXIST** Judea with Galilee with Samaria

dāa mōr sū-málsim. Kà b́a kāl páasid. Kà b́a

TNS have heart-sweetness. And **3PL** number:SG increase:IPVF. And **3PL**

yàddā-niḡir nōbígíd.

assent-doing grow:IPVF.

"All the believers who were in Judea and Galilee and Samaria were joyful. Their numbers were increasing and their faith was growing." (Acts 9:31, 1976)

24.2.1.2 Result

Verbs which have appropriate semantics can form the marked Result Perfective aspect, describing a **state** resulting from the process expressed by the verb.

Ò kpì nē.

3HU die:PFV **FOC**.

"He's dead." (*Ò kpì yā.* "He's died.")

<i>Lì sà'am nē.</i> 3NH spoil:PFV FOC.	"It's spoilt."
<i>Ì gέñ nē.</i> 1SG get.tired:PFV FOC.	"I'm tired."
<i>Ì gέñʔ nē.</i> 1SG get.angry:PFV FOC.	"I'm angry."
<i>Bà kùdug nē.</i> 3PL grow.old:PFV FOC.	"They're old."
<i>Lì bòdɪg nē.</i> 3NH lose:PFV FOC.	"It's lost."
<i>Ò wàbulim nē.</i> 3HU lame:PFV FOC.	"She's lame."
<i>Ò gèèñm nē.</i> 3HU madden:PFV FOC.	"She's mad."
<i>Lì pèʔel nē.</i> 3NH fill:PFV FOC.	"It's full."
<i>Lì yò nē.</i> 3NH close:PFV FOC.	"It's closed."
<i>Ì búg nē.</i> 1SG get.drunk:PFV FOC.	"I'm drunk." [calque/borrowing of Hausa <i>bùgu</i>]

I have not established whether this construction necessarily entails a previous process leading up to the state; possibly some abiding states may be expressed in this way as a lexical matter:

<i>Ò lèr nē.</i> 3HU get.ugly:PFV FOC.	"He's ugly." (So translated by WK)
--	------------------------------------

Colour adjectives all lack corresponding Adjectival Verbs, and it may be that expressions like the following fill the gap, if it is indeed the case that Resultative Perfectives do not necessarily imply a preceding activity:

Lì pèlɪg nē. "It's white."
3NH whiten:PFV FOC.

Lì sòbɪg nē. "It's black."
3NH blacken:PFV FOC.

Lì mùə nē. "It's red."
3NH redden:PFV FOC.

Result Perfectives can be transitive; all the examples in my materials involve verbs expressing putting on clothing, where the transitive action results in a change of state in the subject:

M̂ yé fūug. "I've put a shirt on."
1SG put.on:PFV shirt:SG.

but *M̂ yé nē fūug.* "I'm wearing a shirt."
1SG put.on:PFV FOC shirt:SG.

All other verbs that I have identified as capable of forming Result Perfectives are either intransitive or Patientive Ambitransitive used intransitively.

Most verbs are semantically incapable of this aspectual meaning; *nē* after the perfective of such verbs has to be interpreted as focussing either a VP constituent or the entire VP [34.1.1]:

M̂ dáʔ búŋ.
1SG buy:PFV donkey:SG.
 "I've bought a donkey." ("What have you done?")

M̂ dáʔ nē búŋ.
1SG buy:PFV FOC donkey:SG.
 "I've bought a *donkey*." ("What have you bought?")

M̂ pū dáʔ bùŋā +∅.
1SG NEG.IND buy:PFV donkey:SG NEG.
 "I haven't bought a donkey."

M̂ pū dáʔ nē búŋā +∅.
1SG NEG.IND buy:PFV FOC donkey:SG NEG.
 "I haven't bought a *donkey*." ("I bought something else.")

Ò dīgɪl nē.

3HU lay.down:PFV FOC.

"He's *laid it down*." ("I thought he'd pick it up.")

Ò dīgɪn nē.

3HU lie.down:PFV FOC.

"He's *lain down*." DK: "Someone calls at your house and gets no answer; he thinks you're out but I'm explaining that you've gone to bed."

WK: "You've said: the child looks filthy. I'm replying: He's been lying down."

Ò zìʔən nē.

3HU stand.still:PFV FOC.

"She's pregnant." (Not "She's stood still.")

24.2.2 Imperfective Aspects

24.2.2.1 Unbounded

The unmarked imperfective aspect is the Unbounded Imperfective. With verbs expressing processes, events, or states which are temporary by default, it has a habitual sense when the subject is specific (cf Carlson 2012), and a timeless sense otherwise:

Nīdɪb kpîd.

Person:PL die:IPFV.

"People die."

Nīigí òñbɪd mɔɔd.

Cow:PL chew:IPFV grass:PL.

"Cows eat grass."

Nīigí òñbɪd nē mɔɔd.

Cow:PL chew:IPFV FOC grass:PL.

"Cows eat *grass*." ("What do cows eat?")

(Not aspectual *nē*: Constituent focus [34.1.1.3](#))

Nīigí lā óñbɪd mɔɔd.

Cow:PL ART chew:IPFV grass:PL.

"The cows eat grass."

Nīigí lā óñbɪd mɔɔd lā.

Cow:PL ART chew:IPFV grass:PL ART.

"The cows eat the grass."

Nāʔ-síəbà óñbɪd mɔɔd.

Cow-INDF.PL chew:IPFV grass:PL.

"Some cows eat grass."

Nāʔ-síəbà ʒñbìd mōɔd lā.
 Cow-**INDF.PL** chew:**IPFV** grass:**PL ART**.
 "Some cows eat the grass."

M̄ zínʔi. "I sit."
1SG be.sitting.

Unbounded Imperfective is the default for verbs expressing an abiding state:

Ò gìm. "She's short."
3HU be.short.

Lì zùlɪm. "It's deep."
3NH be.deep.

M̄ mór pɥʔā. "I have a wife."
1SG have wife:**SG**.

M̄ bɔɔdī f. "I love you."
1SG want **2SGO**.

24.2.2.2 Bounded

The Bounded Imperfective aspect is in many ways analogous in meaning to the English "progressive aspect."

With verbs which express events or processes, the difference between Bounded and Unbounded Imperfective is very similar to the difference in English between progressive and habitual:

Ò ʒñbìd. "He chews."
3HU chew:**IPFV**.

Ò ʒñbìd nē. "He's chewing."
3HU chew:**IPFV FOC**.

As with the English progressive, the sense of the Bounded Imperfective with verbs describing events rather than processes is typically "time-limited habitual." The plural subject without *lā* [21.3](#) contributes to making this the natural interpretation in

Nīdɪb kpîd nē. "People are dying."
 Person:**PL** die:**IPFV FOC**.

versus

Nīdɪb kpîd. "People die."
 Person:PL die:IPFV.

In English, so-called "stative" verbs characteristically do not use the progressive aspect: "I have a car", not *"I am having a car." Analogously, many of the corresponding Kusaal verbs do not usually appear with the Bounded Imperfective:

Ṁ mór lór. "I have a car."
 1SG have car:SG.

not **Ṁ mór nē lór.*

However, the avoidance of the Unbounded Imperfective does not reflect a distinction between dynamic and stative in Kusaal, but between processes or states which are presented as **temporary** or as **abiding**. Verbs which express states largely divide by meaning into those which *by default* refer to temporary states, such as bodily postures:

Ṁ zĩŋʔi nē. "I'm sitting."
 1SG be.sitting FOC.

and those which by default refer to abiding states, like the "Adjectival Verbs" which have meanings corresponding to predicative adjectives:

Ṁ gím. "I'm short."
 1SG be.short.

Verbs which typically express temporary states distinguish Bounded and Unbounded Imperfective formally just like verbs expressing processes:

Ṁ zĩŋʔi. "I sit."
 1SG be.sitting.

Ṁ zĩŋʔi nē. "I'm sitting."
 1SG be.sitting FOC.

Ṁ zání dāká lā. "I carry the box in my hands."
 1SG carry.in.hands box:SG ART.

M záníl nē dāká lā.

1SG carry.in.hands **FOC** box:**SG** **ART**.

"I'm carrying the box in my hands."

Verbs which typically express abiding states divide into two groups with regard to the Bounded Imperfective. The first group consists of all *agentive* abiding-state verbs except *àeñ^{ya}* "be something/somehow." These verbs behave formally just like verbs which typically express temporary states: their meanings lead to a much less frequent appearance of the Bounded Imperfective, but the use of *nē^{+/}* is identical:

M mór pu'ā.

1SG have wife:**SG**.

"I have a wife."

but *M mór nē pu'ā.*

1SG have **FOC** woman:**SG**.

"I have a woman."

(not "wife": implies an irregular liaison, WK)

M mór bīisá_ àtánā.

1SG have child:**PL** **NUM**:three.exactly.

"I've got exactly three 18.2.2 children."

but *M mór nē bīisá_ àtánā.*

1SG have **FOC** child:**PL** **NUM**:three.exactly.

"I've got exactly three children just now." DK: "You're on a school trip, talking about how many children everyone has brought."

The second group consists of the *non-agentive* Adjectival Verbs 13.2.2, which have predicative adjectival meanings, along with the agentive verb *àeñ^{ya}* "be something/somehow." These verbs do not usually appear in the Unbounded Imperfective at all:

Ò gīm.

3HU be.short.

"She's short."

Lì zùlīm.

3NH be.deep.

"It's deep."

Lì vèn.

3NH be.beautiful.

"It's beautiful."

If the particle $n\bar{e}^{+}$ follows such a verb, it is by default interpreted not as marking aspect but as *focussing* either a VP constituent or the entire VP 34.1.1:

\dot{O} *gìm* $n\bar{e}$. "He's *short*." ("I was expecting someone taller.")
3HU be.short **FOC**.

\dot{L} *zùlum* $n\bar{e}$. "It's *deep*."
3NH be.deep **FOC**.

The verb $\dot{a}\dot{e}\dot{n}^{ya}$ "be something/somehow" is *characteristically* followed by $n\bar{e}^{+}$ focussing its complement 26.2:

\dot{O} \dot{a} $n\bar{e}$ *bīg*. "He/she's a child."
3HU COP FOC child:SG.

This group of verbs can only be followed by $n\bar{e}^{+}$ in an aspect-marking sense if there is an explicit time-limiting constituent present in the clause¹⁶ (though this may be simply a tense marker.) The meaning is of limitation of the state described by the verb to a particular time period; this is analogous to the use of the English "progressive" form for temporary states of affairs, as in "She's cycling to work this week (because her car is off the road.)" [Huddleston and Pullum p167.] There is an implication of contrast between the time referred to and other times when the state referred to was not in effect:

\dot{L} *vèn* $n\bar{e}$. "It's *beautiful*." (Focus on the verb.)
3NH be.beautiful **FOC**.

but $N\dot{a}n\dot{n}\dot{a}n\dot{a}$, \dot{L} *vèn* $n\bar{e}$.
 Now, **3NH** be.beautiful **FOC**.
 "Just now, it's beautiful."

$S\dot{a}n$ *kán* $\dot{l}\dot{a}$, \dot{L} *dāa zùlum* $n\bar{e}$.
 Time **DEM.SG ART**, **3NH TNS** be.deep **FOC**.
 "At that time, it was deep."

$M\dot{o}^?ar$ $\dot{l}\dot{a}$ *dāa zùlum* $n\bar{e}$. "The lake *was* deep."
 Lake:SG **ART TNS** be.deep **FOC**. (Implying, "Now it's shallow." WK)

16) The requirement for an *explicit* marker of time in the clause to licence Bounded Imperfective with these verbs may be partly an artefact of acceptability judgments based on short isolated clauses.

Lì dāa vén nē. "It was beautiful."
3NH TNS be.beautiful **FOC**. WK: "I gave you a cup, and it was OK then,
 but you've spoiled it."

Lì dāa bōgus nē. "It was soft." ("Now it isn't.")
3NH TNS be.soft **FOC**.

With the verb àḡñ^{ya} even this exceptional appearance of the Bounded Imperfective seems to be possible only if the complement does not permit focussing with *nē*^{+/} [26.2]:

Lì dāa á súḡā. "It was good." WK
3NH TNS COP good:ADV.

Lì dāa á nē súḡā. "At the time, it was good." WK
3NH TNS COP FOC good:ADV.

24.3 Tense

24.3.1 Tense Particles

Tense particles come first in the Verbal Predicator, preceded only by *lèε* "but." They are mutually exclusive. The markers are

<i>dàa</i>	"day after tomorrow"
<i>sàa</i>	"tomorrow"
∅	present, or unmarked [24.3.3]
<i>pàʔ</i>	"earlier today"
<i>sà</i>	"yesterday"
<i>dāa</i>	before yesterday
<i>dà</i>	before the time marked by <i>dāa</i>

The day begins at sunrise. Thus the common morning greeting:

Fù sá gbìs wēlá +∅? "How did you sleep yesterday?" i.e. "last night"
2SG TNS sleep:PFV how **CQ?**

The future tense markers require Unrealised Mood, except for cases where the main clause has been ellipted before a subordinate clause of purpose; in this case the verb may have future tense marking with the Imperative Mood:

Ò *sáa zàb nàʔab lā.* "Let him fight the chief tomorrow."
3HU TNS fight:PFV chief:SG ART.

The tense particle *dāa* means "before yesterday" but can be used freely for even remote past. Some speakers seem not to use *dà* at all; the NT has numerous parallel passages where the same events are narrated in one passage with *dāa* and in another with *dà*. However when both markers occur, *dà* always expresses a time prior to *dāa*; this is one way the language can express a "pluperfect." (Others are the preservation of original tense markers in indirect speech [31.4.2], relative tense marking in *ñ*-Clauses within Sequential Clauses [30.3.2] and the use of the particle-verb *tì* [24.7.2].)

The auxiliary tense particle *nàm* means "still" or with a negative "yet." It can occur after the tense marker \emptyset :

Tìim lā nám bèε +∅? "Is there any medicine left?"
 Medicine ART still EXIST PQ? ("Does the medicine still exist?")

dunia nam pu pin'il la
dūniya ∅ nàm pū pīñʔil lā
 world:SG COMP still NEG.IND begin:PFV ART
 "before the world began" (Mt 25:34) ("The world having not yet begun.")

Ṁ nám zīʔ ∅ ñyē gbīgimne +∅.
1SG still NEG.KNOW SER see:PFV lion:SG NEG.
 "I've never seen a lion." SB (see [28.3] on serial-verb idioms)

24.3.2 Other Constructions for Tense

My informants use the Modal Remoteness enclitic *n^e* [24.4.2] to make an earlier-today past with indicative meaning:

Ṁ śñbīdīn sūmma. "I was eating groundnuts."
1SG chew:IPFV:REM groundnut:PL.

This implies "and now I'm not"; a sort of anti-current-relevance which may be the link with the typical hypothetical use. No examples seem to occur in the NT.

Kusaal does not use tense-unmarked Indicative imperfectives for immediate future (like English "I'm going home.") The common expression at leave-taking

M̃ kúl yā. equivalent in usage to "I'm going home."
1SG return.home:PFV INDEP.

instead uses a perfective verb form as an instantaneous present [24.2.1.1].

There are two periphrastic Indicative constructions for "to be about to ...":

(a) *bòòd*^a "want" + gerund. The subject need not be animate.

Tìig lā bódòd līig. "The tree is about to fall."
 Tree:**SG ART** want fall:**GER.**

Yu'uŋ bood gaadug, ka beog bood nier.

Yú'uŋ bódòd gáadùg kà bēog bódòd níàr.

Night want pass:**GER** and morning want appear:**GER.**

"The night is about to pass and tomorrow is about to appear." (Rom 13:12)

This construction is only possible with gerunds which can be interpreted as expressing an event or process, i.e. gerunds from Variable and Postural Verbs.

(b) using the construction subject + *yē*-Purpose Clause. (Compare subject + *yē*-Content Clause [31.4].) This construction does require an animate subject.

M̃ yé m̃ kṷā sūmma.
1SG say:PFV 1SG hoe:PFV groundnut:PL.
 "I'm going to hoe groundnuts."

M̃ yé m̃ kṷá nīm.
1SG say:PFV 1SG cut:PFV meat:SG.
 "I'm going to cut meat"

24.3.3 Implicit Tense Marking

Tense markers are frequently absent. As a basic principle, explicit marking is not needed when the time reference is recoverable from the linguistic context. However, the occurrence of tense markers is not arbitrary, and in some contexts the past tense markers contrast with \emptyset .

Real-world context does not in itself licence omission of tense markers. If there is no other time-referring element in the clause, the absence of any tense particle is meaningful. By default, it naturally simply means that the tense is present:

Nīdɪb kpîd nē. "People are dying."
 Person:PL die:IPFV FOC.

Nīdɪb kpîd. "People die."
 Person:PL die:IPFV.

Ṁ zínʔi nē. "I'm sitting down."
 1SG be.sitting FOC.

Ò gìm. "She's short."
 3HU be.short.

Ṁ mór pɹ̄ā. "I have a wife."
 1SG have wife:SG.

In isolation, it is not possible to construe expressions like these as e.g. "People were dying." With perfective aspects, similarly, the sense without explicit context of an Event Perfective must be perfective-present or instantaneous present 24.2.1.1:

Ò kpì yā. "She's died."
 3HU die:PFV INDEP.

Ò yèl yē ... "He says" (translating for the foreign doctor)
 3HU say:PFV that ...

Ṁ púʔùs yā. "(I) thank you." cf Hausa *Naa goodèe*.
 1SG greet:PFV INDEP.

Ṁ sják yā. "I agree."
 1SG agree:PFV INDEP.

Ṁ ñyé nūʔ-bíbɪsá_ àtáñʔ.
 1SG see:PFV hand-small:PL NUM:three.
 "I can see three fingers."

Ṁ téñʔès kà ... "I think that ..."
 1SG think:PFV and ...

With \emptyset tense marking the Result Perfective naturally has a present sense 24.2:

Ò *kpi nē.* "She's dead."
3HU die:PFV FOC.

Tense-markers can, however, be omitted if there is another time reference in the clause itself, such as a time adverb, or with the Unrealised Mood, or with the today-past usage of the Modal Remoteness enclitic:

Ì *sá zàb ná'áb lā sú'èš.*
1SG TNS fight:PFV chief:SG ART yesterday.

and *Ì záb ná'áb lā sú'èš.*
1SG fight:PFV chief:SG ART yesterday.
 both acceptable as "I fought the chief yesterday."

Fù *sáa nà kūl.*
2SG TNS UNR return.home:PFV.

and *Fù sáa nà kūl bēog.*
2SG TNS UNR return.home:PFV tomorrow.

and *Fù nà kūl bēog.*
2SG UNR return.home:PFV tomorrow.
 ... all acceptable for "You'll go home tomorrow."

cf *Fù ná kūl.*
2SG UNR return.home:PFV.
 "You will go home." (later today, tomorrow, next week ...)

Ì *pá' ññbīdīn sūmma.* "I was eating groundnuts earlier today."
1SG TNS chew:IPFV:REM groundnut:PL.

and *Ì ññbīdīn sūmma.* "I was eating groundnuts earlier today."
1SG chew:IPFV:REM groundnut:PL.
 (today-past sense of Modal Remoteness clitic)

Systematic and meaningful omission of past tense markers occurs in the Sequential Clauses characteristic of narrative. In narrative clauses with Event Perfective aspect preceded by *kà*, omission of past tense marking signifies that the event described in the clause follows in temporal sequence from what precedes, and explicit tense marking signals an interruption for asides, flashbacks, descriptions etc

24.4 Mood

There are three moods. The distinction among the three moods is in itself quite straightforward, but the *marking* of mood involves portmanteau morphs which also express polarity, and in the case of the imperative, independency as well.

Indicative is the unmarked mood. It uses the negative particle *pō*. It is used for statements and questions about the present and past, and timeless events and states. It can express immediate future in the periphrastic constructions described under Tense [24.3.2]. It is used instead of Unrealised Mood in clauses with *yàʔ* "if", though with some exceptions in negative polarity [32.1].

Imperative Mood is negated by *dā*. In Variable Verbs with tone overlay due to Independency Marking it shows a special inflection *-m^a* [24.6.2.2] [13.1] but otherwise the verb word coincides in form with the Indicative.

Ò vùl tìim kà ò nóbìr pō zábē +∅.
3HU swallow:PFV medicine and **3HU** leg:SG NEG.IND fight:PFV NEG.
 "She took medicine and her leg didn't hurt." WK

Ò vùl tìim kà ò nóbìr dā zábē +∅.
3HU swallow:PFV medicine and **3HU** leg:SG NEG.IMP fight:PFV NEG.
 "She took medicine so her leg wouldn't hurt." WK

Note that the clause introducer particle *kà* permits either construction [29.1.2].

Whether or not it carries the distinctive flexion, Imperative Mood is followed by the enclitic 2pl subject pronoun *y^a* in direct commands to several people [30.2.3].

The *-m^a* form is perfective by default but acquires imperfective meaning before *àlá* "thus" [24.4.1].

Imperative Mood is used in direct commands and prohibitions and in subordinate clauses expressing purpose. Imperative Mood also follows another Imperative in the serial-verb construction.

Gòsım!
 Look:IMP!

"Look!"

Gòsımī_∅!
 Look:IMP 2PLS!

"Look ye!"

Dā gōse +∅!
 NEG.IMP look:PFV NEG!

"Don't look!"

Kèl kà ò gōs! "Let her look!"
Cause:**IMP** and **3HU** look:**PFV**!

Kèm nā n gōs! "Come and look!"
Come:**IMP** hither **SER** look:**PFV**!

Dò! "Follow!"
Follow!

Dòllī_ ø! "Follow ye!"
Follow **2PLS**!

Dòllī_ m! "Follow me!"
Follow **1SGO**!

Dòllīnī_ m! "Follow ye me!"
Follow:**2PLS 1SGO**!

Mòr nīn-báalìg! "Have pity!"
Have eye-pity!

Unrealised Mood expresses future statements and questions and has the preverbal mood markers *nà* (positive) *kù* (negative.) Tone Pattern O verbs show a tone perturbation to all-M tonemes in this mood. [8.3].

Unrealised Mood with past tense markers is conditional (not future-in-the-past.)

Ò dāa ná zāb ná'àb lā.
3HU TNS UNR fight:**PFV** chief:**SG ART**.
"He would have fought the chief" (but didn't)

For the use of this form in clauses with *yà'* "if" see [32.1].

24.4.1 Mood and Aspect

The Unrealised Mood distinguishes perfective and imperfective aspects by verb flexion like the Indicative, but *nē* cannot occur as an aspect marker, so no formal distinction is made between Event or Result Perfective or between Unbounded and Bounded Imperfective. The perfective aspect is much the most common.

In direct commands the particle *nē* may occur only as the VP-final marker of contrastive focus on the entire VP [34.1.1.4]. It cannot be aspectual.

À bāańlím! "Be quiet!"
COP quiet:**ABSTR!**

Gòsım nē. "Just look!" ("Don't touch.")
 Look:**IMP FOC.**

The *-m^a* imperative of Variable Verbs is Event Perfective by default:

Kòńsım! "Cough!"

Imperatives without tone overlay from Independency Marking make perfective/imperfective distinctions in the usual way by verb flexion:

Dā kóńsē +∅! "Don't cough!"
NEG.IMP cough:**PFV NEG!**

(To a patient during an eye operation under local anaesthetic, who just has coughed.)

Dā kóńsıdā +∅! "Don't cough!"
NEG.IMP cough:**IPFV NEG!**

(Explaining before the operation what to avoid throughout)

The *-m^a* imperative can be made imperfective by a following *àlá* "thus":

Dım! "Eat!"
Dımí àlá! "Carry on eating!"

My informants contract the *-í-à-* in these forms to either *-í-* or *-á-* [dımı́la] [dımála]

Dımíńı́ àlá! "Keep ye on eating!" [dımı́ńı́la] [dımáńı́la]
 Eat:**IMP:2PLS** **ADV:**thus!

Kùəsımíńı́ àlá kī n tısıdı́ bá.
 Sell:**IMP:2PLS** **ADV:**thus millet **SER** give:**IPFV 3PLO.**
 "Keep ye on selling millet to them."

Agentive Invariable Verbs used as imperatives frequently also add *àlá*:

Dígı́ àlá! "Keep on lying down!" [dıgı́la] [dıgála]
Zı́é àlá! text *ziela* "Be still!" (Jesus to the storm, Mk 4:39, 1976)

Dìgīní *àlá!* "Keep (ye) on lying down." [dìgínɪla] [dìgínala]
Be.lying.down:2PLS ADV:thus!

Āāní *àlá* *bāāńím!* "Be (ye) quiet!"
COP:2PLS ADV:thus quiet:ABSTR!

Bèēní *àlá* *àńínā!* "Be ye there!"
EXIST:2PLS ADV:thus ADV:there!

The examples suggest that the sense of *àlá* after imperatives is analogous to the effect of *nē* with the Imperfective Indicative.

24.4.2 Modal Remoteness Marker

The basic function of the Modal Remoteness Liaison Enclitic *n^e* is analogous to the modal remoteness expressed by the use of the English preterite in non-temporal usage (Huddleston and Pullum pp 148ff); as with the English constructions, the precise meaning depends on the matrix in which the form is embedded. *N^e* is most commonly seen in Conditional Clauses.

The particle can attach to any verb form in Indicative or Unrealised Mood; it is not compatible with the Imperative Mood.

N^e in modal function is usually accompanied by the post-subject particle *nāan(ɪ)* [32.2]. It always occurs without *nāan(ɪ)* in *yàʔ*-clause protases. It may also occur without *nāan(ɪ)* in apodoses, mostly with a hypothetical rather than contrary-to-fact sense [32.4]. In main clauses *n^e* is most often found attached to *bòòd^a* "wish":

Man boodin ne yaname naan aan ma'asiga bee yaname naan aan tuuliga.

Mān *bòòdīn* *nē* *yānāmì* *∅* *nāan āān* *māʔasígā* *bēε*

1SG.CNTR want:REM with 2PL COMP then COP:REM cold:ADV or

yānāmì *∅* *nāan āān* *tūlígā.*

2PL COMP then COP:REM hot:ADV.

"I might wish you were cold or you were hot." (Rev 3:15, 1996)

Man boodin ne ye ya aan ma'asiga koo tuuliga.

Mān *bòòdīn* *né* *yà āān* *māʔasígā* *kūv tūlígā.*

1SG.CNTR want:REM that 2PL COP:REM cold:ADV or hot:ADV.

"I might wish you were cold or you were hot." (Rev 3:15, 1976)

N^e without *nāan(ɪ)* occurs with a hypothetical sense within *ñ*-Clauses when they are embedded in a main clause which expresses a hypothetical state:

M zot dabiem ye m ya'a keenn ya sa'an na, m pa'ati nye ka ya pu wenne wuu man boodin ye ya aan si'em laa.

M zót dābíàm yé ò yá' kēēñ_ yà sā'an nā,
1SG feel.emotion:**IPFV** fear that **1SG** if come:**PFV** **2PL** among hither,
ò pá' tì ñyé kà yà pū wēn nē wūu mán bòòdīn
1SG perhaps see:**PFV** and **2PL** **NEG.IND** resemble with like **1SG:COMP** want:**REM**
yé yà áān sī'am láa +∅.
 that **2PL** **COP:REM** **INDEF.ADV** **ART** **NEG**.

"I am afraid that when I come to you, I will perhaps not find you as I might wish." (2 Cor 12:20)

Wina'am ya'a da tisin wad line nyagedin ketin ka nidib voen,

Wínà'am yá' dà tìsīn wād línì_ ∅ ñyāgídīn_ ∅ kētín
 God if **TNS** give:**PFV:REM** law **DEM.NH** **COMP** prevail:**IPFV:REM** **SER** cause:**IPFV:REM**
kà nīdīb vūun,
 and person:**PL** be.alive:**REM**.

"If God had given a law which could make people live." (Gal 3:21)

The enclitic can be used temporally as a today-past, implying specifically that the state of affairs described no longer obtains [24.3.2]:

M šñbīdīn sūmma.
1SG chew:**IPFV:REM** groundnut:**PL**.

"I was eating groundnuts." ("and now I'm not.")

With Serial VPs, if n^e is found in the first predicator it is repeated in all [28.1].

24.5 Polarity

Verbal Predicator negation markers are preverbal particles which combine this function with mood marking. They appear after tense markers but before Particle-Verbs. The negation markers induce the appearance of a clause final Negative Prosodic Clitic which causes the clause-final word to appear in Long Form [9.2]; on the position of the clitic see further [35.3].

No distinction is made in negative polarity between the Event and Result Perfective or between the Unbounded and Bounded Imperfective [24.2].

Indicative Mood is negated by *pū* (for some speakers *bū*, as in Toende Kusaal.) Imperative Mood is negated by *dā*; conversely, forms which are negated by *dā* are Imperative. Unrealised Mood is negated by *kū*, which *replaces* the positive Unrealised Mood marker *nā*. Younger speakers sometimes use *kū* for *pū*, but none of my informants accepts this.

Ò zàb ná'áb lā. "He's fought the chief."
 3HU fight:PFV chief:SG ART.

Ò pū záb nà'ab lāa +∅.
 3HU NEG.IND fight:PFV chief:SG ART NEG.
 "He hasn't fought the chief."

Zàm ná'áb lā! "Fight the chief!"
 Fight:IMP chief:SG ART!

Dā záb nà'ab lāa +∅!
 NEG.IMP fight:PFV chief:SG ART NEG!
 "Don't fight the chief!"

Ò nà zāb ná'áb lā. "He'll fight the chief."
 3HU UNR fight:PFV chief:SG ART.

Ò kù zāb ná'áb lāa +∅.
 3HU NEG.UNR fight:PFV chief:SG ART NEG.
 "He won't fight the chief."

There are four Negative Verbs, which are equivalent to negative particle + positive verb [35.1.1] *mìt* "see that it doesn't happen that...", *zī[?]+* "not know", *kā[?]ē⁺* "not be, not have", and *kà[?]asige* (LF only) "not exist."

24.6 Independency Marking

The Verbal Predicator of a main clause [30.1] or Content Clause [31.4] is marked as Independent. The marking is absent in all subordinate clause types other than Content Clauses, and all VPs in a Serial VP chain after the first. It is also absent in all clauses introduced by *kà* other than Content Clauses, regardless of whether they are subordinate or insubordinate [29.2] [30.3.2].

The marker is primarily a tonal overlay, but has associated segmental manifestations.

24.6.1 Tonal Features

24.6.1.1 Tone Overlay

The tone overlay of Independency Marking is manifested only on Verbal Predicators in Positive Polarity and Indicative or Imperative Mood. It affects only the *first* word in the Predicator capable of carrying it: first the preverbal particle *lèè* "but" [24.7.1], next any Particle-Verb, then the verb itself. Preverbal particles which have

intrinsic M tonemes (past tense marker *dāa*, Particle-Verb *ñyēε*) not only remain M themselves but also prevent the overlay from applying to any subsequent words.

The overlay otherwise changes all tonemes in the affected word to L if they were not L already. Affected words, regardless of their intrinsic tones, are always followed by L Raising, and always show M toneme on the final vowel mora before Liaison (changed as usual to H before Liaison Words beginning with a Fixed-L toneme [10.2].)

Intrinsic tones after *kà* (with *zàb^e* "fight" *gōs^e* "look at" *nà[?]ab^a* "chief"):

<i>Kà m záb nà[?]ab lā.</i>	"And I've fought the chief."
<i>Kà ò záb nà[?]ab lā.</i>	"And he's fought the chief."
<i>Kà m gōs ná[?]àb lā.</i>	"And I've looked at the chief."
<i>Kà ò gōs ná[?]àb lā.</i>	"And he's looked at the chief."

Intrinsic tones with preverbal particles having intrinsic M tonemes:

<i>Ò dāa záb nà[?]ab lā.</i>	"He didn't fight the chief."
<i>Ò dāa gōs ná[?]àb lā.</i>	"He didn't look at the chief."

Intrinsic tones with Negative Polarity:

<i>Ò pū záb nà[?]ab lāa.</i>	"He hasn't fought the chief."
<i>Ò pū gōs ná[?]àb lāa.</i>	"He hasn't looked at the chief."

This is not simply another case of blocking of the overlay by a preverbal particle with M toneme, because it is also seen for example with the M negative verbs *kā[?]ε⁺* "not be, not have" and *zī[?]+* "not know":

Dāy lā kā[?] ná[?]abā +∅. "The man isn't a chief."
 Man:SG ART NEG.BE chief:SG NEG.

Bùŋ-bāñ[?]ad zī[?] yē tēŋ túllā +∅.

Donkey-rider:SG NEG.KNOW that ground:SG be.hot NEG.

"He who rides a donkey does not know the ground is hot." (Proverb)

Intrinsic tones in subordinate clauses, without Independency Marking:

<i>Ò yá[?] zàb nà[?]ab lā.</i>	"If he fights the chief."
<i>Ò yá[?] gōs ná[?]àb lā.</i>	"If he looks at the chief."
<i>Ón zàb nà[?]ab lā.</i>	"He having fought the chief"
<i>Ón gōs ná[?]àb lā.</i>	"He having looked at the chief."

and *Bà gòs·ō* ∅. "They looked at her."
3PL look.at:**PFV** **3HUO**.

with *Bà gòsú* ò *bīg*. "They looked at her child."
3PL look.at:**PFV** **3HU** child:**SG**.

with ML necessarily changed to HL before the Fixed-L proclitic pronouns.

24.6.1.2 Absent L Raising after Subject Pronouns

Bound pronoun subjects are normally followed by L Raising despite their own fixed L tonemes [10.1] [10.2].

However, the *third* persons *ò lì bà* are never followed by L Raising when the following Verbal Predicator has Independency Marking.

Examples with *zàb*^e "fight" *gōs*^e "look at" *ná'ab*^a "chief":

Without Independency Marking (Sequential Clause [30.3.2]):

<i>Kà m záb</i> ná'ab lā.	"And I've fought the chief."
<i>Kà ò záb</i> ná'ab lā.	"And he's fought the chief."
<i>Kà m gōs</i> ná'ab lā.	"And I've looked at the chief."
<i>Kà ò gōs</i> ná'ab lā.	"And he's looked at the chief."

With Independency Marking:

<i>M záb</i> ná'ab lā.	"I've fought the chief."
<i>Ò zàb</i> ná'ab lā.	"He's fought the chief."
<i>M gōs</i> ná'ab lā.	"I've looked at the chief."
<i>Ò gòs</i> ná'ab lā.	"He's looked at the chief."

The first and second person bound subject pronouns *are* followed by L Raising before a Verbal Predicator with Independency Marking, *unless* they are immediately preceded by *yē* "that" (here introducing a Content Clause [31.4]):

Ò tēñ'εs *kà ò zàb* ná'ab lā.
3HU think:**PFV** and **3HU** fight:**PFV** chief:**SG** **ART**.
 "He thinks he's fought the chief." WK

Ò tēñ'εs *kà m záb* ná'ab lā.
3HU think:**PFV** and **1SG** fight:**PFV** chief:**SG** **ART**.
 "He thinks I've fought the chief."

but *Ò yèl yé ò zàb ná'áb lā.*
3HU say:PFV that 3HU fight:PFV chief:SG ART.
 "He says he's fought the chief."

and *Ò yèl yé m zàb ná'áb lā.*
3HU say:PFV that 3HU fight:PFV chief:SG ART.
 "He says I've fought the chief."

Absence of L Raising after bound subject pronouns is independent of tone overlay and is still seen when tone overlay is absent, e.g. when the Verbal Predicator has Unrealised Mood, or there is a preverbal particle carrying a M toneme:

Ò kù zāb ná'áb lāa +∅.
3HU NEG.UNR fight:PFV chief:SG ART NEG.
 "He will not fight the chief."

Ò lèè dāa zāb nà'ab lā.
3HU but TNS fight:PFV chief:SG ART.
 "But he did fight the chief."

Ò yèl yé m nà zāb ná'áb lā.
3HU say:PFV that 3HU UNR fight:PFV chief:SG ART.
 "He says I've fought the chief."

24.6.2 Segmental Features

There are two segmental features of Independency Marking. They occur when and only when the verb word itself has undergone *tonal* overlay, and are therefore absent whenever the verb is preceded by the preverbal particle *lèè* "but", by a particle verb, or by a preverbal particle with M toneme. Similarly, they are absent when the predicator has Unrealised Mood or Negative Polarity.

Verbs which have intrinsic L tonemes show no surface sign of having been subject to tonal overlay, but this is apparent in that such forms are followed by L Raising and that the segmental features of Independency Marking may occur.

24.6.2.1 Perfective *yā*⁺

Any perfective verb form affected by the tone overlay of Independency Marking which would otherwise be phrase-final (without even an enclitic following) is followed by the enclitic particle *yā*⁺. This particle is tonally unique among M toneme enclitic CV(V) words in that it does not change the M toneme to H in the LF; when the LF occurs in questions, the toneme is L (i.e. *yā*⁺ has Tone Pattern O) [8.5].

Lì b̀̀dìg yā. "It's got lost."
3NH get.lost:PFV INDEP.

Lì b̀̀dìg yàa +ø? "Has it got lost?"
3NH get.lost:PFV INDEP PQ?

The phrase-final constraint on the appearance of *yā*⁺ may reveal that a final element is a clause adjunct rather than a VP complement [34.3](#):

Yà yídìg yā bédugō.
2PL go astray:PFV INDEP much.
 "You are very much mistaken." (Mk 12:27)

M̀ pú'̀̀s yā bédugō.
1SG greet:PFV INDEP much.
 "Thank you very much."

NT writes this particle very often as *-eya*, as if it were a Liaison Word, but my informants show no trace of a preceding vowel after consonant-final verbs, nor of final short vowel prolongation.

Further examples:

Sāa ní yā. "It has rained."
Rain:SG rain:PFV INDEP.

Ò zàb yā. "He's fought."
3HU fight:PFV INDEP.

Ò g̀̀s yā. "He's looked."
3HU look:PFV INDEP.

Ò sà zàb yā. "He fought (yesterday)."
3HU TNS fight:PFV INDEP.

M̀ tén'̀̀s kà lì lù yā.
1SG think:PFV and **3NH** fall:PFV INDEP.
 "I think it's fallen down." (content clause)

Non-final:

Ò zàbī́ m. "He's fought me."
 3HU fight:PFV 1SGO.

Ò gàsī́ m. "He's looked at me."
 3HU look.at:PFV 1SGO.

When the tone overlay of Independency Marking is absent, so is the particle:

Sāa dāa ní. "It rained." (M preverbal particle)
 Rain:SG TNS rain:PFV.

Ò nà zāb. "He'll fight." (Unrealised Mood)
 3HU UNR fight:PFV.

Ò dāa zāb. "He fought." (M preverbal particle)
 3HU TNS fight:PFV.

Kà ò zāb. "And he fought." (No Independency Marking)
 And 3HU fight:PFV.

Kà ò gās. "And he looked." (No Independency Marking)
 And 3HU look:PFV.

Ò pū zābē +∅. "He's not fought." (Negative Polarity)
 3HU NEG.IND fight:PFV NEG.

Ò pū gāse +∅. "He's not looked." (Negative Polarity)
 3HU NEG.IND look:PFV NEG.

Not perfective; thus with the Invariable Verbs

Ò gīm. "He's short."

Ò mī?. "He knows."

Ò nòŋ. "He loves her."

perfective *form* but stative meaning 13.1.2

24.6.2.2 Imperative -m^a

Imperatives of Variable Verbs which are affected by the tone overlay of Independency Marking adopt the flexion -m^a 13.1.

<i>Gòsım!</i>	"Look!"
<i>Gòsımī m!</i> Look:IMP 1SGO!	"Look at me!"
<i>Gòsīm.</i>	"Look at me!" vowel absorbed 4
<i>Gòsımí fò nú'ùg!</i> Look:IMP 2SG hand:SG!	"Look at your hand!"
<i>Gòsım fò nú'ùg!</i>	id with <i>ɪ</i> -vowel absorbed 4

Without tone overlay on the verb word:

<i>Dā gōse +ø!</i> NEG.IMP look:PFV NEG!	"Don't look!" (Negative Polarity)
<i>Kèl kà ò gōs!</i> Cause:IMP and 3HU look:PFV!	"Let her look!" (No Independency Marking: subordinate)
<i>Kèm nā n gōs!</i> Come:IMP hither SER look:PFV!	"Come and look!" (No Independency Marking after SER)

With overlay, but not a Variable Verb:

<i>Dòllī m!</i> Follow 1SGO!	"Follow me!"
<i>Dòllīnī m!</i> Follow:2PLS 1SGO!	"Follow ye me!"

where -*ya* ($\leftarrow n\alpha$) assumes the allomorph -*ní*- before a second clitic 9.3.1.2

<i>Dì'əm!</i>	"Receive!"
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Dìʔəmī $\emptyset!$ "Receive ye!"
 Receive:IMP 2PLS!

Dìʔəmīní *bā!* "Receive ye them!"
 Receive:IMP:2PLS 3PLO!

Dìʔəmīn·ó $\emptyset!$ "Receive ye her!"
 Receive:IMP:2PLS 3HUO!

Dìʔəmīní *àlá!* "Keep ye on receiving!" 24.4.1
 Receive:IMP:2PLS ADV:thus!

24.7 Clitics Bound to the Predicator

Clitic Subject Pronouns 17.1 are bound to the predicator, and linked with it to the extent that they are involved in the tonal manifestations of Independency Marking 24.6.1.2.

Post-subject particles 29.1.3 capable of following clitic subject pronouns are phonologically bound to the predicator.

In this section I will treat *lèɛ* "but", along with Particle-Verbs, on the grounds that they intervene between tense/aspect markers and the verb, and Liaison Enclitics, which precede the focus particle *nē^{+/}* when it is an enclitic aspect marker.

24.7.1 *Lèɛ* "but"

lèɛ "but", like a particle-verb, prevents the tone overlay of Independency Marking from falling on the verb, and is then itself followed by L Raising. *Lèɛ* precedes even tense particles.

Kà ò léɛ dāa záb nàʔab lā.
 And 3HU but TNS fight:PFV chief:SG ART.
 "But he fought the chief."

Ka man pian'ad la lee ku gaade.
Kà m̄ pjàñʔad lā léɛ kù gāade +∅.
 And 1SG speech ART but NEG.UNR pass:PFV NEG.
 "But my words will not pass away. (Mt 24:35)

Bà lèɛ záb nàʔab lā.
 3PL but fight:PFV chief:SG ART.
 "But they've fought the chief." WK

Kà bà lée zàb nà'ab lā.

And **3PL** but fight:**PFV** chief:**SG ART**.

"But they've fought the chief." WK

Lèè záb nà'ab lā!

But fight:**PFV** chief:**SG ART!**

"But fight the chief!" WK

NT has the *-m^a*-imperative, suggesting tone overlay on the verb, in

Lee iemini o na'am so'olim la...

Lèè ìəmīnǐ̀ ò nā'am sù'òlīm lā...

But seek:**IMP:2PLS 3HU** kingship possession **ART...**

"But seek ye his kingdom ..." (Lk 12:31, 1976)

but WK specifically rejected

**Lèè gósìm ná'ab lā!*

But look.at:**IMP** chief:**SG ART!**

attempted: "But look at the chief!"

correcting to

Lèè gōs ná'ab lā.

But look.at:**PFV** chief:**SG ART**.

24.7.2 Particle-Verbs

The particle-verbs do not form a paradigm, and they are of varied character, united only by their position immediately before the verb. As a group, they show the phonology of full words rather than clitics. Some at least presumably originated from older serial-verb constructions, and particle-verbs carry any tone overlay from Independency Marking in place of the following main verb (cf *lèè* "but" [24.7.1](#).)

pùn "previously, already"

Ò pùn záb nà'ab lā.

3HU already fight:**PFV** chief:**SG ART**.

"He's already fought the chief."

Kà ò pún zàb nà'ab lā.

And **3HU** already fight:**PFV** chief:**SG ART**.

"And he's already fought the chief."

lèm "again" (cf *lèb^e* "return")

Ò lèm zàb nà'ab lā.

3HU again fight:**PFV** chief:**SG ART**.

"He's fought the chief again"

Kà ò lém zàb nà'ab lā.

And **3HU** again fight:**PFV** chief:**SG ART**.

"And he's fought the chief again."

Ò pū lém zàb nà'ab lāa +∅.

3HU NEG.IND again fight:**PFV** chief:**SG ART NEG**.

"He hasn't fought the chief again."

Ò nà lēm zàb nà'ab lā.

3HU UNR again fight:**PFV** chief:**SG ART**.

"He'll fight the chief again."

M̄ nīf lém zàbìd nē.

1SG eye:**SG** again fight:**IPFV FOC**.

"My eye is hurting again."

Ka so' kudin ku len nyee li ya'asa.

Kà s̄s̄' kūdīm kú lēm ñyēé lī yá'asā +∅.

And **INDF.HU** ever **NEG.UNR** again see:**PFV 3NHO** again **NEG**.

"Nobody will ever see it again." (Rev 18:21)

kpèlum "still" with a following imperfective; "immediately afterwards" before a perfective (compare the Latin *continuo* "immediately.") It occurs also as a main verb "remain, still be."

Ka o kpelim zu'om.

Kà ò kpélìm zū'øm.

And **3HU** immediately go.blind:**PFV**.

"Immediately he went blind." (Acts 13:11)

là'am "together" (cf *là'as*^e "gather"); as a main verb *là'am*^m is "associate with."

ka nidib wusa da la'am kpi ne o.

kà nīdīb wūsa dá là'am kpi né ò.

and person:PL all TNS together die:PFV with 3HU.

"so all people died together with him." (2 Cor 5:14)

dèŋɪm "beforehand" (cf *dèŋ*^e "go, do first": *n̄n dèŋī f* "I've got there before you."

Dèŋ^e is used with the same meaning in serial-verb constructions [28.3].)

Ka Wina'am pun denjim nye bunsuma ye o tisi ti.

Kà Wínà'am pún dèŋɪm ñyē bōn-súmà yé ò tísì tī.

And God already beforehand see:PFV thing-good:PL that 3HU give:PFV 1PLO.

"God previously found good things in advance to give us" (Heb 11:40, 1976)

ñyēε or **ñyēε tí** "habitually" NT *nyii ti* KT *ēēñ, ēēñ tí*. The main verb is imperfective and displays no tone overlay from Independency Marking.

Ò ñyēε zábìd ná'àb lā.

3HU usually fight:IPFV chief:SG ART.

"He's accustomed to fight the chief." WK

Ò ñyēε gōsìd ná'àb lā.

3HU usually look.at:IPFV chief:SG ART.

"He's accustomed to look at the chief." WK

Ò dāa ñyēε zábìd ná'àb lā.

3HU TNS usually fight:IPFV chief:SG ART.

"He was accustomed to fight the chief." WK

Ò ēēñ tí zàbìd nē ná'àb lā.

3HU usually fight:IPFV FOC chief:SG ART.

"He's accustomed to fight the chief." KT

Ò ēēñ tí zìñ'i kpēlá.

"He's accustomed to sit there." KT

3HU usually be.sitting there.

Ò ēēñ tí dīgi kpēlá.

"He's accustomed to lie there." KT

3HU usually be.lying there.

tì "afterwards" conveys accomplishment or completion; the main verb is perfective. It occurs often in serial VPs; for *hālí tì pāa ...* "up until" see [33.1.2](#).

Hale ka Herod ti kpi.

Hālí kà Herod tí kpi.

Until and Herod afterwards die:PFV.

"Until Herod had died." (Mt 2:15)

Kèm_ ø tí ñyē dɔ'átà.

Go:IMP SER afterwards see:PFV doctor:SG.

"Go to see the doctor." SB

It is common after the Unrealised markers, perhaps in a "future perfect" sense:

Noraug ku ti kaas zina nwaa, ka fu na ki'isi m noora atan'.

N5-dáùg kú tí kāas zīnā ñwāa +ø

Hen-male:SG NEG.UNR afterwards cry.out:PFV today this NEG

kà fù ná kī'isí_m nōcrá_ àtáñ'.

and 2SG UNR deny 1SGO occasion:SG NUM:three.

"The cock will not have crowed this day and you will deny me three times."

(Lk 22:61)

24.7.3 Liaison Enclitic Pronouns

Liaison Enclitics precede all other Verb Phrase complements and also precede the focus particle *nē^{+/}* in all its senses. There are two slots, and a Predicator may have two successive Liaison Enclitics.

The first slot may be occupied by one of the two clitics ^{ya} "2pl subject of direct command" or *n^e* the Modal Remoteness marker [24.4.2](#); there are no circumstances in which they might occur together, as the Modal Remoteness marker is only found with Indicative and Unrealised Moods. For my informants, the 2pl subject enclitic is an allomorph of the normal proclitic subject pronoun *yà*, but for some speakers it has become a plural imperative marker. See further [30.2.3](#).

These two clitics are tonally alike; both always change the toneme of the last preceding host vowel mora to M, and themselves have H toneme.

The second slot for Liaison Enclitics is for bound object pronouns. There is no formal distinction between direct and indirect objects. Only one clitic object pronoun may occur; cases where a verb has a non-contrastive direct and indirect object pronoun are expressed by ellipsis of a pronoun [25.1.1](#) or by periphrasis with a serial-verb construction using *tìs^e* "give" [28.3](#).

25 Verb Phrases

A Verb Phrase consists of a Verbal Predicator followed by complements and adjuncts.

There is no recursive embedding as with the NP, but Verb Phrases are frequently concatenated within a single clause in the Serial VP construction [28].

"Complement" will be used below to describe all verb core arguments other than the subject. Complements may be NPs, AdvPs, prepositional phrases or clauses.

Verbs vary in the kind of complement they take and in whether the complements are obligatory; the matter is complicated in Kusaal by the fact that "obligatory" complements in fact need not be explicitly present: if they are absent, the gap then represents an anaphoric pronoun [25.1.1].

NP and AdvP complements can be classified as direct and indirect objects, as predicative complements, or as locative complements.

25.1 Transitivity and Objects

Indirect objects precede direct, and objects precede other complements, except in cases of extraposition or dislocation due to weight [34.3]. A clitic pronoun before a noun object therefore cannot be the direct object:

**M̄ dāa tísì lī náʔàb lā.*

1SG TNS give:PFV 3NHO chief:SG ART.

Not possible with the intended meaning "I gave it to the chief."

There is otherwise no formal difference between direct and indirect objects.

25.1.1 Obligatory Transitives and Agentive Ambitransitives

Transitive verbs vary in whether they require a direct object:

da ku nidaa, da zuuda

dā kō nīdá +∅, dā zūudá +∅...

NEG.IMP kill:PFV person:SG NEG, NEG.IMP steal:IPFV NEG...

"Do not kill [a person] ... do not steal ..." (Lk 18:20)

Obligatorily Transitive verbs may appear without any expressed object, but in such cases the meaning is necessarily **anaphoric**:

Ò pō zám̄m +∅. "She didn't cheat him/her."

3HU NEG.IND cheat:PFV NEG.

Transitive Invariable Verbs always require a complement, and again there is necessarily an anaphoric sense if none is explicitly present. Thus with àěñ^{ya} "be something/somehow":

Māni _∅ *á du'átà àmáa fūn pū áěñyā* ^{+∅}.
1SG.CNTR SER COP doctor:SG but 2SG.CNTR NEG.IND COP NEG.
 "I'm a doctor but you aren't."

Māni _∅ *á du'átà kà fūn mén áěñ*.
1SG.CNTR SER COP doctor:SG and 2SG.CNTR also COP.
 "I'm a doctor and you are too."

Particular cases of null anaphora appear with direct objects preposed with *kà*

34.2 33.2.2.1 and with Supplement Clauses 31.3.

In replies to questions and responses to commands, null anaphora of complements may refer to an antecedent in the previous speaker's words:

Q. *Fù mór gbāuŋ láa* ^{+∅?} "Do you have the letter?"
2SG have letter:SG ART PQ?

A. *Ēěñ, m mór*. "Yes, I have it."
 Yes, **1SG** have.

Q. *Fù bód·ō ó* ^{+∅?} "Do you love her?"
2SG want 3HUO PQ?

A. *Áyì, m pū bódā* ^{+∅}. "No, I don't love her."
 No, **1SG NEG.IND** want **NEG**.

Agentive Ambitransitive verbs appear both with and without an object, with no change in the rôle of the subject, and no anaphoric implication if the object is absent; thus

bane zuud nidibi gban'ad
bāni _∅ *zūud nīdibi* _∅ *gbāñ'ad*
DEM.PL COMP steal:IPFV person:PL SER seize:IPFV
 "those who steal people by force" (1 Tim 1:10)

one daa zuud "he who used to steal" (Eph 4:28)
ñni _∅ *dāa zūud*
DEM.HU COMP TNS steal:IPFV

Some verbs only take objects of a very limited type, often expressed with a "cognate accusative" noun formed from the same stem. They may be obligatorily transitive or agentive ambitransitive:

Fò tùm bɔ-tùuma +ø? "What (work) are you doing?"
2SG work:IPFV what-work CQ?

Bà nà zāāñsım zāāñsímà. "They will dream dreams." (cf Acts 2:17, 1976)
3PL UNR dream:PFV dream:PL.

25.1.2 Patientive Ambitransitives

Patientive Ambitransitive verbs can appear transitively with an expressed object, but if there is no object they are normally interpreted as intransitive, with the object of the transitive appearing as the subject. Examples include

<i>yò⁺</i>	"close"
<i>nāe^{+/}</i>	"finish"
<i>nā[?]mıs^{e/}</i>	"suffer/make suffer"
<i>zà[?]mıs^e</i>	"learn/teach"
<i>bòdıg^e</i>	"lose, get lost"
<i>bàs^e</i>	"go/send away"
<i>dūe^{+/}</i>	"raise/rise"
<i>mā[?]e^{+/}</i>	"get cool"

Many, though not all, Patientive Ambitransitive verbs express entry into a state and can use *nē* with the perfective to express the state [24.2.1.2](#):

Kùlɨ lā yó nē. "The door is closed."
Door:SG ART close:PFV FOC.

Ì náa tūuma lā. "I've finished the work."
1SG finish:PFV work ART.

Tūuma lā náa nē. "The work is finished."
Work ART finish:PFV FOC.

Conversely, the majority of verbs capable of forming a Result Perfective are Patientive Ambitransitive, though there are also some intransitive-only verbs like *kpi⁺* "die."

25.1.3 Ditransitives

Almost any verb can potentially take an indirect object expressing benefit, interest etc (this could lead to ambiguity in principle):

Ò d̀òg̀ō̄ m. "She cooked (for) me."
3HU cook:PFV 1SGO.

Lì mà̀l̀s̄ī m. "I like it." ("It's sweet for me.")
3NH be.sweet 1SGO.

Àl̀áaf̀ù b̄éḗ bá. "They are well." ("Health exists for them.")
 Health **EXIST 3PLO.**

Ditransitive verbs, however, *require* an indirect object, which cannot be ellipted unless any direct object is also ellipted, and in which case there is necessarily an anaphoric sense; *tìs*^e "give" is the prototypical example, along with causatives from transitive verbs like *d̀ìs*^e "feed" *ǹū̀l̀s̄*^{e/} "give to drink" [25.1.1](#).

Ì t̀ís ná'̀à̀b l̄ā d̄āká. "I've given the chief a box."
1SG give:PFV chief:SG ART box:SG.

Ì t̀ís ná'̀à̀b l̄ā. "I've given it to the chief."
1SG give:PFV chief:SG ART.

*Ì t̀ís d̄āká. impossible as "I've given him a box", which is

Ì t̀ís·ō̄ ∅ d̄āká.
1SG give:PFV 3HUO box:SG.

D̄ā t̀ís·ò̄ ∅ s̄ī'̀ə̀l̄ā +∅.
NEG.IMP give:PFV 3HUO INDF.NH NEG.
 "Don't give her anything!"

D̄ā t̀ísē +∅! "Don't give it to her!"
NEG.IMP give:PFV NEG.

Ì t̀ís yā. "I've given it to him."
1SG give:PFV INDEP.

Certain verbs take a fixed direct object as a set idiom after an indirect object which expresses the functional object, e.g. *kàd* X *sàríyà* "judge X", *m̄r* X *n̄n-báalìg* or *z̄* X *n̄n-báalìg* "have pity on X", *n̄ìj* X *yàddā* "believe X, believe in X", *z̄* X *dābìàm* "fear X" [13.2.1], *s̄jàk* X *n̄ōr* "obey X", *ñwèʔ* X *núʔùg* "make an agreement with X."

Wina'am na kad nidib poten'esua'ada saria.

Wínàʔam ná kād n̄idib p̄ú-tèñʔ-s̄w̄adá sàríyà.

God UNR drive:PFV person:PL inside-mind-secret:PL judgment.

"God will judge people's secret thoughts." (Rom 2:16)

Biise, siakimini ya du'adib noya.

Bīise +∅, s̄jàkım̄n̄í yà d̄w̄adib n̄óyà.

Child:PL VOC, agree:IMP:2PLS 2PL parent:PL mouth:PL.

"Children, obey your parents." (Eph 6:1.)

Ò z̄òt·ō̄ ∅ n̄n-báalìg.

3HU feel.emotion:IPFV 3HUO eye-pity.

"She has pity on him."

Bà z̄òt·ō̄ ∅ dābìàm.

3PL feel.emotion:IPFV 3HUO fear.

"They are afraid of him."

Bà n̄ìj·ō̄ ∅ yàddā. "They believed her."

3PL do:PFV 3HUO assent.

Ò ñwèʔ náʔàb lā núʔùg.

3HU strike:PFV king:SG ART hand:SG.

"He made an agreement with the king."

25.1.4 Passives

Transitive verbs can be used passively with no formal change. This is possible both with verbs that require an object and those that do not, like *nū*⁺ "drink":

Ì nū dāam lā. "I've drunk the beer."

1SG drink:PFV beer ART.

Dāam lā nū yā. "The beer has got drunk."

Beer ART drink:PFV INDEP.

As in many languages, it is not possible to include an agent in such cases. Indirect objects cannot become passive subjects:

Dāká lā tís yā. "The box was given."
Box:SG ART give:PFV INDEP.

but **Nàʔab lā tís yā.* not possible in sense "The chief was given (it.)"
Chief:SG ART give:PFV INDEP.

There is an **aspectual restriction on passives**: the only allowable aspects are Event Perfective and Unbounded Imperfective in habitual (never stative) sense. Accordingly, the particle *nē*^{+/} can never be interpreted aspectually with passives. (All interpretations WK):

Dāká lā zāñl nē. "The box is portable by hand."
Box:SG ART carry.in.hands FOC. not "The box is being carried."

Dāká lā zîd nē. "The box is for *carrying on the head*."
Box:SG ART carry.on.head FOC. ("Not in the hands.")

Dāam lā núùd. "The beer gets drunk."
Beer ART drink:IPFV.

Dāam núùd zīná. "Beer gets drunk today."
Beer drink:IPFV today.

but *Dāam lā núùd nē.* Only "The beer is for drinking."
Beer ART drink:IPFV FOC. ("Not for throwing away.")
not "The beer is being drunk."

**Dāam núùd nē.* rejected by WK altogether

As a consequence, the Passive construction is not possible with verbs expressing a state which is abiding by default, like *m̄r*^{a/} "have", because habitual imperfectives are infelicitous with such verbs.

The aspect restriction also confirms that the passive use of transitive verbs is distinct from Patientive Ambitransitivity [25.1.2], to which it does not apply:

M̄ yóòd nē kùlìŋ lā. "I'm closing the door."
1SG close:IPFV FOC door:SG ART.

Kòlɪŋ lā yóòd nē. "The door is closing."
Door:SG ART close:IPFV FOC.

Ò t̀̀lɪɣɪd nē. "He's heating it up."
3HU heat.up:IPFV FOC.

Lì t̀̀lɪɣɪd nē. "It's heating up."
3NH heat.up:IPFV FOC.

Contrast the intransitive verb *māʔe*^{+/} "get cool" with the transitive causative *māʔal*^{e/} "cool" used passively; only the former can take *nē* in its aspectual sense:

Lì màʔad nē. "It is getting cool"
3NH get.cool:IPFV FOC.

but *Lì màʔan nē.* "It gets *cooled*." (contrastive focus on the VP)
3NH cool:IPFV FOC. Not "It is getting cool"

The verb *s̄b*^e "write", in line with its probable origin from the homophonous verb "make/go dark", may be construed as Patientive Ambitransitive despite the English translation. It can make an intransitive Result Perfective:

Gbàɣŋ lā sób yā. "The letter has been written."
Letter:SG ART write:PFV INDEP.

Gbàɣŋ lā sób nē. "The letter is written."
Letter:SG ART write:PFV FOC.

In the Imperfective *s̄b*^e in seems to accept intransitive use only when some adverbial modification is present:

Gbàna sóbìd zīnā. "Letters get written today." WK
Letter:PL write:IPFV today.

Gbàɣŋ lā sóbìd súŋā. "The letter is writing well (i.e. easily)." WK
Letter:SG ART write:IPFV good:ADV.

Further proof that the Passive use of transitive verbs is distinct from Patientive Ambitransitivity is the fact that Verbs which *require* an object or complement (like *zāñ*^{la/} above) may be used passively.

A passive meaning is often expressed by using an empty *bà* "they" as subject, a construction which has been grammaticalised to the extent that the formal object may behave as the subject in Serial VP constructions [17.1].

25.1.5 Transitive use of Assume-Posture Verbs

The assume-posture verbs [15.2.1.1], rather than the make-assume-posture series, are often used transitively for parts of one's own body:

Lìgíním_ fù nīf né fù nú'ùg.

Cover:IMP 2SG eye:SG with 2SG hand:SG.

"Cover your eye with your hand."

Thus *Dìgíním_ fù nú'ùg.*

"Put your hand down."

Lie.down:IMP 2SG hand:SG.

is commoner than

Dìgílím_ fù nú'ùg.

"Put your hand down."

Lay.down:IMP 2SG hand:SG.

It might be preferable to take the assume-posture verbs in such cases as preserving their usual intransitive sense, with the following body part expression occurring not as a direct object but in an adverbial sense: compare

M̃ kēj nōbá.

"I went on foot." (SB; not accepted by WK.)

1SG go:PFV leg:PL.

25.2 Predicative Complements

Predicative complements may occur after intransitive or transitive verbs; like objects, they may or not be required, in the sense of surface omission necessarily implying anaphora.

As with similar English constructions, predicative complements can have depictive or resultative meaning; the distinction in Kusaal falls out naturally from the stative or dynamic nature of the verb:

Kel ka m lieb fu tumtum yinni.

Kèl kà m líàb fù tòm-tōm yīnní.

Cause:IMP and 1SG become:PFV 2SG work-worker:SG one.

"Make me [become] one of your servants" (Lk 15:19); dynamic *liàb*^e

M̄ á né fù tùm-tūm. "I am your servant."; stative *àḡñ^{ya}*
1SG COP FOC 2SG work-worker:SG.

Àḡñ^{ya} "be something/somehow" 26.2 takes a predicative complement:

Ò à nē bīg. "She is a child."
3HU COP FOC child:SG.

M̄ kāʔ dṽʔátāa +∅. "I'm not a doctor."
1SG NEG.BE doctor:SG NEG.

As with other transitive Invariable Verbs, the complement is obligatory 25.1.

Transitive verbs may have a predicative complement after the direct object.

With verbs are used in the relevant senses, this complement is compulsory.

The verb *pùd^e* "name, dub" has as first object a NP with the head *yūʔur^{e/}* "name", and the name itself as second object; this may be introduced by *yē* "that."

Ka fu na pud o yu'ur ye Yesu.

Kà fù ná púd ò yūʔur yē Yesu.

And **2SG UNR dub:PFV 3HU name:SG** that Jesus.

"And you will call him Jesus." (Mt 1:21)

Ka o pud biig la yu'ur Yesu.

Kà ò púd bīg lā yúʔur Yesu.

And **3HU dub:PFV child:SG ART name:SG** Jesus.

"And he called the child Jesus. " (Mt 1:25)

The verb *bùø^e* "call, call out, summon" can be used in the Unbounded Imperfective aspect with an object expressing the person named and the name as a complement, again possibly introduced by *yē*:

on ka ba buon ye Piita la

òn kà bà búøn yē Piita lā

DEM.HU and **3PL call:IPFV** that Peter **ART**

"who was called Peter" (Mt 10:2)

The verb is often used passively 25.1.4 with *yūʔur^{e/}* "name" as subject and the name itself as complement:

dau so' ka o yu'ur buon Joon.
dāy-só' kà ò yū'ur búèn Joon.
 man-**INDF.HU** and **3HU** name:**SG** call:**IPFV** John.
 "a man called John." (Jn 1:6)

The verb *màal*^e "make" is used with an object and a resultative predicative complement in the 1976 NT in Acts 8:9

Ka o maal o meṅ nintita'ar.
Kà ò máal ò mēṅ nīn-títā'ar.
 And **3HU** make:**PFV** **3HU** self person-great:**SG**.
 "He made himself out to be a great man."

The 1996 NT version has instead

Ka o du'osi o meṅ ye o ane nintita'ar.
Kà ò dū'əsí_ ò mēṅ yé ò à nē nīn títā'ar.
 And **3HU** elevate:**PFV** **3HU** self that **3HU COP FOC** person great:**SG**.
 "He made himself up that he was a great man."

A resultative predicative *kà*-clause:

...ka la'am maan gigis ka ba wum ka pia'ad.
...kà lá'àm màn gígìs kà bà wúm kà piāñ'ad.
 ...and together make:**IPFV** dumb:**PL** and **3PL** hear:**IPFV** and speak:**IPFV**.
 "...and even makes the dumb hear and speak." (Mk 7:37, 1976)

The verb *ñyē*⁺ "see, find" can take a Supplement *kà*-clause as a predicative complement [31.3]:

M̄ dāa ñyē dāy lá kà ò á ná'àb.
1SG TNS see:**PFV** man:**SG** **ART** and **3HU COP** chief:**SG**.
 "I saw the man as a chief."

M̄ dāa pū ñyē dāy lá kà ò á ná'abā +∅.
1SG TNS **NEG.IND** see:**PFV** man:**SG** **ART** and **3HU COP** chief:**SG** **NEG**.
 "I didn't see the man as a chief."

25.2.1 Manner-adverbs

Manner-adverbs behave syntactically in many respects like abstract mass nouns, and indeed may arise from such noun usages [22.4]. One such instance is in their common usage as predicative complements.

Kusaal characteristically uses proadverbs of manner [19.1] as predicative complements in place of pronouns with abstract reference. i.e. the language says "be/do *how*" rather than "be/do *what*."

Dā níjì àlāa +∅!

NEG.IMP do:PFV ADV:thus NEG.

"Don't do that!" ("thus")

Fu wum ban yet si'em laa?

Fù wúm bán yèt sī'əm lāa +∅?

2SG hear:IPFV 3PL:COMP say:IPFV INDF.ADV ART PQ?

"Do you hear what they are saying?" (Mt 21:16)

Tiig wela bigisid on a si'em.

Tìg wélà bìgìsìd ón à sī'əm.

Tree:SG fruit:PL show:IPFV 3HU:COMP COP INDF.ADV.

"The fruit of a tree shows what ["how"] it is." (Mt 12:33, 1976)

The Indefinite proadverb *sī'əm*^m is particularly commonly used in this way as a relative pronoun [33.2.1.1].

Transitive verbs like *nìj*^e "do, make" *màal*^e "make" may be followed by *àlā*⁺ "thus" or *wēlā*⁺ "how?" with following subordinate clause of purpose:

M na niḡ wala ka nye faangire?

M̄ ná nīḡ wēlā kà ñyē fāaṅgírè +∅?

1SG UNR do:PFV how and find:PFV salvation CQ?

"What must I do to get saved?" (Acts 16:30)

The verb *àḡñ*^{ya} "be something/somehow" typically has a derived manner-adverb or abstract noun as complement rather than an adjective as NP head [26.2]:

Lì à nē zāalím.

"It's empty."

Lì à nē bḡgvsígā.

"It's soft."

Lì à sḡḡā.

"It's good."

25.3 Locative Complements

Locative AdvPs [22.3] occur as complements after verbs of position and movement. Some verbs *require* a locative complement, and its absence is anaphoric.

M̄ yí B̀̀k. "I left Bawku."
1SG emerge:PFV Bawku.

M̄ yí yā. "I've left [there]."
1SG emerge:PFV INDEP.

Others do not; so with *kēŋ^{e/}* "go, walk":

...ka pu tun'e kenna.
...kà p̄ tũñ'e_ ∅ kēnná +∅.
3HU NEG.IND be.able SER go:IPFV NEG.
 "who couldn't walk." (Acts 14:8)

but *Ò k̀̀ŋ B̀̀k.* "He's gone to Bawku."
3HU go:PFV Bawku.

So too with *dìgɪn^e* "lie down":

Dìgɪnim kp̄! "Lie down here!"
Lie.down:IMP here!

Ò dìgɪn yā. "He's lain down."
3HU lie.down:PFV INDEP.

and the transitive verb *dīgɪ^{e/}* "lay down":

Ò dīgɪ gbáɲ lā. "She's put the book down."
3HU lay.down:PFV book:SG ART.

Ò dīgɪ gbáɲ lā t́́éb̀̀l lā zúg.
3HU lay.down:PFV book:SG ART table:SG ART upon.
 "She's put the book on the table."

The verb *b̀̀⁺* [26.1]: without a complement is "exist":

Wínà'am bé. "God exists."
 God **EXIST.**

Áláafù bé-ò_∅. "He's well." ("Health exists for him.")
 Health **EXIST 3HUO.**
 (Indirect object but no complement.)

With a locative complement, *bè*⁺ means "be in a place":

Dāy lā bé nē dɔ́-kàṅā lā púvḡn.
 Man:SG **ART EXIST FOC** hut-**DEML.SG ART** inside:SG:LOC.
 "The man is inside that hut."

25.4 Prepositional Phrases as Complements

Wēn^{na/} "resemble" usually takes a phrase introduced by *nē* or *wōw* 23.1.

Ka o nindaa wenne nintaṅ ne.
Kà ò nīn-dáa wēn nē nīntāṅ nē.
 And **3HU** eye-face:SG resemble with sun:SG like.
 "His face is like the sun." (Rev 10:1)

With other verbs it can be difficult to distinguish phrases with *nē* as complements from NP objects or complements preceded by Focus-*nē*^{+/} 34.1.1, unless the *nē* occurs in contexts where focus is prohibited like *ḥ*-Clauses. Thus *yī nē X* occurs in the sense "come from X" and the metaphorical sense "arise from X":

M̄ yí nē Bók. "I come from Bawku." SB
1SG emerge **FOC** Bawku.

Yadda niṅir yitne labaar la wumug ni.
Yàddā-níṅìr yít nē lābāar lā wúmòḡ ní.
 Assent-doing emerge:IPFV **FOC** news **ART** hearing **LOC.**
 "Faith comes from hearing the news." (Rom 10:17)

However, constructions with the same meaning but within a *ḥ*-Clause lack *nē*:

Meeri one yi Magdala
Meeri ónì_∅ yī Magdala
 Mary **DEM.HU COMP** emerge:PFV Magdala
 "Mary who came from Magdala" (Mk 16:9)

A probable case of a verb taking a prepositional phrase as complement in a metaphorical sense is *d̄ɔ̄^{la/}* "accompany a person in subordinate rôle", which with *nē* means rather "be in accordance with":

Li dolne lin sob Wina'am gbaunjin si'em la ye ...

Lì d̄òl nē lín s̄ɔ̄b Wínà'am gbáun̄j̄n s̄í'əm lā yē ...

3NH follow with **3NH:COMP** write:**PFV** God book:**SG:LOC** **INDF.ADV** **ART** that ...

"This is in accordance with what is written in God's book ..." (1 Cor 2:16)

25.5 Clausal Complements

Certain verbs require a following clause with a Verbal Predicator in Imperative Mood introduced by a linker particle *kà* or *yē* [31.2]. They include like *kē⁺* "let", *m̄it* "let not", *nār^{a/}* "be obliged to." Of these, *kē⁺* does not appear at all without a following *kà*-clause, while if *nār^{a/}* appears without there is a necessarily anaphoric sense; *m̄it* appears with a NP object in the sense "beware of..." [35.1.1].

The verb *b̄ɔ̄ɔd^a* "want, love" takes a *yē*-purpose clause in the sense "want to ..."; without any object it has an anaphoric meaning in either sense.

The verb *gūr^{a/}* "be on guard, watch, wait for" takes a NP headed by a gerund or a *yē*-purpose clause complement to express "waiting for an event"; both in this case and elsewhere the "purpose" sense is reduced to mere expectation.

Verbs of cognition, reporting, and perception have as complement a Content Clause, a Relative Clause with *s̄í'əm*, or a postpositional AdvP with *yēlá* "about." Most such verbs have an anaphoric sense without such an object.

The verb *àɛñ^{ya}* "be something/somehow", which is uniquely flexible in the variety of different types of argument it may appear with, may take a clause introduced by *yē* as a complement too [26.2].

Supplement Clauses [31.3] may appear as predicative clausal complements.

25.6 Adjuncts

Adjuncts of all types occur as the last element in the VP. Several VP adjuncts may occur together. Main Clauses and Content Clauses with a Verbal Predicator may contain clause-level adjuncts preceding the subject [30.1.1].

VP Adjuncts may be AdvPs, prepositional phrases, or subordinate clauses.

Bà d̄it nē s̄ā'ab d̄ɔ̄-kànjā lā p̄úvḡn̄.

3PL eat:**IPFV** **FOC** porridge hut-**DEML.SG** **ART** inside:**SG:LOC**.

"They're eating porridge in that hut."

A subordinate clause after a verb is most often a complement:

Fu na baŋ li nya'aŋ sa.

Fù ná báŋ lì ñyá'aŋ sá.

2SG UNR realise:**PFV 3NH** behind since.

"You will come to understand afterwards." (Jn 13:7, 1976)

Lazarus pun be yaugin ne daba anaasi sa.

Lazarus pún bè yáugōn nē dābá_ ànāasí sà.

Lazarus previously **EXIST** grave:**SG:LOC** with day:**PL NUM**:four since.

"Lazarus had already been in the grave four days." (Jn 11:17)

The particles are VP-final, not clause-final:

Kèm nā n gōs. "Come and look!" SB

Come:**IMP** hither **SER** look:**PFV**.

Man ya'a pu keen na tu'asini ba...

Mān yá' pū kēen nā_ ø tú'asīní_ bā...

1SG.CNTR if **NEG.IND** come:**PFV:REM** hither **SER** talk:**PFV:REM 3PLO...**

"If I had not come to talk to them ..." (Jn 15:22)

Nā^{+/} and *sà⁺* often follow any article *lā^{+/}* ending an *ñ*-Clause containing them:

ba diib n yit na'ateŋ la na zug

bà dīib ñ yīt ná'-tēŋ lā nā zúg

3PL food **COMP** emerge:**IPFV** king-land:**SG ART** hither upon

"because their food came from the king's land" (Acts 12:20)

one tum m la na

òni_ ø tòm_ m lā nā

DEM.HU COMP send:**PFV 1SGO ART** hither

"the one who sent me here" (Jn 12:44, 1976)

tiname kpen' Rome teŋin la na

tīnámì_ ø kpèñ' Rome téŋīn lā nā

1PL COMP enter:**PFV** Rome land:**SG:LOC ART** hither

"after we had entered Rome" (Acts 28:16, 1976; the 1996 version has ...*nā lā*)

kokor kaŋa lini yi arazana ni la na

kòkōr-káŋā líní_ ø yí àrazánà ní lā nā

voice-**DEML.SG DEM.NH COMP** emerge:**PFV** sky:**SG LOC ART** hither

"this voice which came from heaven" (2 Pet 1:18, 1976)

I have not been able to discover any principle determining whether *nā*^{+/} precedes the article or not. The article is not usually placed alone between the verb *kēñ*⁺ and its associated *nā*^{+/}, but even this is not invariable, and there are closely parallel constructions in the NT showing both *nā lā* and *lā nā* .

ñwāɗɗ kání_ ∅ kēn nā lā
 month **DEM.SG COMP** come:IPFV hither **ART**
 "next month" SB

dunia kane ken la na
dūnyá-kání_ ∅ kēn lā nā
 world-**DEM.SG COMP** come:IPFV **ART** hither
 "the word which is coming" (Lk 20:35)

saŋkan ka m na leb na la
sān-kán kà m ná lēb nā lā
 time-**DEM.SG** and **1SG UNR** return hither **ART**
 "when I come back" (Rom 9:9)

M mi' ye ya iedne Yesu one yi Nazaret na la...
M̄ míʔ yé yà iəd nē Yesu ɔní_ ∅ yī
1SG know that **2PL** seek:IPFV **FOC** Jesus **DEM.HU COMP** emerge:PFV
Nazaret nā lā...
 Nazareth hither **ART**
 "I know that you are looking for Jesus who came from Nazareth..." (Mk 16:6)

Ti iedne Yesu one yi Nazaret teŋin la na.
Tì iəd nē Yesu ɔní_ ∅ yī
1PL seek:IPFV **FOC** Jesus **DEM.HU COMP** emerge:PFV
Nazaret téŋin lā nā.
 Nazareth land:**SG:LOC ART** hither
 "We are looking for Jesus who came from Nazareth." (Jn 18:7)

M diib ane ye m tum one tumi m la na boodim n naae.
M̄ dīib á nē yé m̄ túm ɔní_ ∅ tùmɪ m lā nā
1SG food **COP FOC** that **1SG** work:PFV **DEM.HU COMP** send:PFV **1SGO ART** hither
bóɔdīm n nāe.
 will **SER** finish:PFV.
 My food is that I do the will of him who sent me completely. (Jn 4:34)

ti tum one tum man na la tuuma.

tì túm ònɪ_ ø tòm mǎn nā lā tūuma

1PL work:PFV DEM.HU COMP send:PFV 1SG.CNTR hither ART work

"Let us do the work of him who sent me." (Jn 9:4)

VP-final particles can also follow the *gerund* of a verb which is associated with such a particle, and again may follow the associated article:

Nidib la daa gur Zekaria yiib na.

Nīdɪb lā dāa gūr Zekaria yīb nā.

Person:PL ART TNS watch Zechariah emerge:GER hither.

The people were watching for Zechariah's coming out. (Lk 1:21)

Ka Ninsaal Biig la ken la na, na wenne wuu saa naani iank ya nya'aŋ n ti paae ya tuona la.

Kà Nīn-sáàl Bīg lā kēn lā nā ná

And Person-smooth:SG Child:SG ART come:GER ART hither UNR

wēn nē wōv sāa_ ↓ nāanɪ jǎŋk yà ñyá'aŋ

resemble with like rain:SG COMP then jump:PFV 2PL behind

n tí pāé_ yà tùona lā

SER afterwards reach:PFV 2PL before.ADV ART

"The coming of the Son of Man will be like when lightning leaps from East to West" (Mt 24:27)

26 The Verbs "to be"

26.1 *Bè*⁺ "be somewhere, exist"

Unlike Pattern O perfectives, *bè*⁺ is followed by L Raising even when not subjected to tone overlay by Independency Marking; it is formally as well as semantically imperfective, despite being a bare root with no suffix.

With no associated locative *bè*⁺ means simply "exist":

Wínà'am bé. "God exists."

God **EXIST.**

(Calque of the West African Pidgin *God dey*, used in senses like "Don't worry, it'll all work out in the end" or "He's got it coming to him.")

Àláafù bé-ō_ø. "She's well." ("Health exists for her.")

Health **EXIST 3HUO.**

Wāad bé. "It's cold."

Cold.weather **EXIST.**

With a locative complement *bè*⁺ means "be located in a place" if the focus is on the locative [34.1.1.3], or "exist in a place" if the focus is on the subject; Kusaal does not have separate verbs for these two meanings.

Mam bene moogin.

Mām bé nē mōḡun.

1SG.CNTR EXIST FOC grass:SG:LOC.

"I'm in the bush." BNY p8 (focus on the locative)

Moogin ka mam be.

Mōḡún kà mām bé.

Grass:SG:LOC and **1SG.CNTR EXIST.**

"I'm in the bush." BNY p10 (*kà*-preposed locative)

Dāy lā bé nē dó-kàḡā lā púḡun.

Man:SG **ART EXIST FOC** hut-**DEML.SG ART** inside:SG:LOC.

"The man is inside that hut." (Reply to "Where is that man?"; focus on locative)

Dày-sō' bé dó-kàḡā lā púḡun.

Man-**INDF.HU EXIST** hut-**DEML.SG ART** inside:SG:LOC.

"There's a certain man in that hut." (focus on subject)

Bè⁺ is common in Presentational Constructions 34.4.

For the corresponding negative *kāʔe*⁺ see 35.1.1. **pū bé* is not used.

Bè⁺ plays a rôle analogous to a "passive" to *mōr*^{a/} "have" in constructions like:

M̄ bīg b́é. "I have a child."; equivalent to
1SG child:SG EXIST.

M̄ mór bīg.
1SG have child:SG.

M̄ bīg kāʔe +∅. "I have no child."; equivalent to
1SG child:SG NEG.BE NEG.

M̄ kāʔ bīga +∅.
1SG NEG.HAVE child:SG NEG.

Bè⁺ can be used in direct commands:

Bèé_ ànínā. "Be (i.e. stay) there!" SB
EXIST ADV:there.

Bèēní_ àlá ànínā. "Be ye there!" [bɛ:nala anina]
EXIST:2PLS ADV:thus ADV:there.

26.2 *Àeñ*^{ya} "be something/somewhat"

The *ɛ* of the SF of *àeñ*^{ya} is always lost except on the rare occurrence of the word phrase finally 9.1.3.

Ò à nē bīg. "She is a child."
3HU COP FOC child:SG.

Ò dāa á nē bīg. "She was a child."
3HU TNS COP FOC child:SG.

Lì à súnā. "It's good."
3NH COP good:ADV.

but *Mānı̣ ∅ á duʔátà kà fūn mén áęñ.*
1SG.CNTR SER COP doctor:SG and 2SG.CNTR also COP.
 "I'm a doctor and you are too."

The usual negative form is with the negative verb *kāʔe*⁺ "not be":

M̄ kāʔ duʔátāa +∅. "I'm not a doctor."
1SG NEG.BE doctor:SG NEG.

However, *pū áęñ* can occur, for example in contrasts:

Mānı̣ ∅ á duʔátà àmáa fūn pū áęñyā +∅.
1SG.CNTR SER COP doctor:SG but 2SG.CNTR NEG.IND COP NEG.
 "I'm a doctor but you aren't."

Áęñ^{ya} can be used in direct commands:

À bāańlím! "Be quiet!"
COP quiet:ABSTR!

Āāńı̣ àlá bāańlím! "Be (ye) quiet!"
COP:2PLS ADV:thus quiet:ABSTR!

As with English copular clauses, the sense may be ascriptive or specifying (cf Huddleston and Pullum p266.) If it is **ascriptive**, the complement is non-referring, and almost always focussed with *nē*^{+/} [34.1.1.3](#) if syntactically permitted [34.1.1.2](#):

Ò à nē bīig. "She is a child."
3HU COP FOC child:SG.

Ò à nē bíigàa +∅? "Is she a child?"
3HU COP FOC child:SG PQ?

In the **specifying** construction, however, focus frequently falls on the subject, which usually then has *n*-focus [34.1.2](#):

Mane a konbkem suŋ la.
Mānı̣ ∅ á kńb-kìm-sùŋ lā.
1SG.CNTR SER COP animal-tender-good:SG ART.
 "I am the good shepherd." (Jn 10:11)

Mane a o. "I am he." (Jn 18:5, 1976) 9.3.1.
Māni ∅ *á* *áñ·ō* ∅.
1SG.CNTR SER COP 3HUO.

Nɔ́bibisi a mam disuŋ.
N5-bíbisì ∅ *á* *mām* *dí-sùŋ*.
 Hen-small:PL SER COP 1SG.CNTR food-good:SG.
 "Chicks are my favourite food." BNY p13

Ne'ę̀a a Yesu [...] yaanam yela.
NĒʔę̀á à Yesu [...] yáa-nám yé̀là.
DEM.NH COP Jesus [...] ancestor-PL about.
 "This is the account of Jesus' ancestors." (Mt 1:1)

When the complement of *àę̀ñ^{ya}* is definite, the construction is usually specifying, with the subject in focus:

M̄ á nē duʔátà. "I'm a doctor." ("What do you do?")
1SG COP FOC doctor:SG. Ascriptive.

but *Māni* ∅ *á* *duʔátà* *lā.* "I'm the doctor." ("Which one is the doctor?")
1SG.CNTR SER COP doctor:SG ART. Specifying.

However, definite complements may nevertheless be in focus as "pragmatically non-recoverable" because of their internal structure or other factors: see examples in 34.1.1.3.

Àę̀ñ^{ya} allows a wide range of different types of NP as arguments. It shares with Adjectival Verbs the ability to take an AdvP of any type as subject 22.5:

Zíná a nē dáʔa. "Today [time] is market."
 Today **COP FOC market:SG.**

Yiŋ venl, ka poogin ka'a su'um.
Yiŋ véñl kà p̄vugun k̄áʔ súmm +∅.
 Outside be.beautiful and inside:SG:LOC NEG.BE good:ABSTR NEG.
 "Outside is beautiful but inside [place] is not good." (Acts 23:3)

Man nonji ya si'em la ane bedego.
Mán nòŋi yā sī'əm lā á nē bédugū.
1SG:COMP love 2PLO INDF.ADV ART COP FOC much.
 "How much I love you [manner], is a lot." (2 Cor 7:3, 1976)

Àɛñ^{ya} is remarkable in being able to take a complement consisting of an adjective without any noun head. The article *lā*^{+/} is permitted, but no other dependents apart from ideophones [21.8.1.3].

<i>Lì à nē píəlìg.</i>	"It's white, a white one."
<i>Lì à nē píəlìg fáss.</i>	"It's very white."
<i>Bà à nē píəlà.</i>	"They're white."

Many adjectives do not permit this at all, e.g. *vōr*^{el} "alive." Deverbal Adjectives used without a preceding cb are interpreted instead as agent nouns [15.1.1.2.1]. I did not systematically study which adjectives can be used as NP heads, but the examples in my materials are all either adjectives lacking corresponding Adjectival Verbs, or are used with human reference; the latter is perhaps connected with the complementary phenomenon of the use of human-reference nouns adjectivally [21.8.1.5].

More often, compounds with *nīn*- "person" or *bōn*- "thing" + adjective [21.9.3] are used:

<i>Ò à nē nīn-súj.</i>	"She's a good person."
3HU COP FOC person-good:SG.	
<i>Dīlb á nē bōn-súj.</i>	"Food is a good thing."
Food COP FOC thing-good:SG.	

Even those adjectives which may appear without a noun head cannot do so before a post-determining pronoun; thus only

<i>Lì à nē bōn-píəl-kàṅā.</i>	"It is this white one."
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Predicative adjective meanings are also expressed by Adjectival Verbs [13.2.2] and by Result Perfectives [24.2.1.2]:

<i>Ò gìm.</i>	"She's short."
<i>Lì zùlum.</i>	"It's deep."
<i>Bà kòdvug nē.</i>	"They're old."
<i>Ò wàbulum nē.</i>	"She's lame."
<i>Ò gèɛñm nē.</i>	"She's mad."

Also characteristic is the use of *àɛñ*^{ya} with a manner-adverb as complement

25.2.1]. Such manner-adverbs are often deadjectival. Manner-adverbs resemble abstract mass nouns syntactically, and deadjectival abstract nouns are also used in the same way. Such constructions are naturally ascriptive and generally use *nē*^{+/} as would be expected:

Lì à nē náʔanā. "It's easy."
3NH COP FOC easily.

Lì à nē zāalím. "It's empty."
3NH COP FOC empty:**ABSTR.**

Lì à nē bōgvsígā. "It's soft."
3NH COP FOC soft:**ADV.**

However, *àeñ* consistently omits focus-*nē*^{+/} before certain complements:

Lì à súnā. "It's good."
3NH COP good:**ADV.**

Lì à súm. "It's good."
3NH COP good:**ABSTR.**

Lì à bēʔed. "It's bad."
3NH COP bad:**ABSTR.**

Lì à sīda. "It's true."
3NH COP truth.

[*ye ka*] *o sariakadib a sum ne sida.*

ò sàríyà-kādib á súm nē sīda.

3HU law-drive **COP** good:**ABSTR** with truth.

"His judgments are good and true. (Rev 19:2, 1976)

The examples suggest that this behaviour may be characteristic of evaluative adjectives and equivalents. At any rate, it does not seem to be connected with the abiding or transitory nature of the quality. With other Agentive Invariable Verbs, even without an explicit reference to time, the Bounded Imperfective aspect may occur in the sense of limitation of the state described to a particular time period 24.2.2.2; for *àeñ*^{ya} this probably only occurs when the focus sense is not possible:

Lì dāa á súḡā. "It was good." WK
3NH TNS COP good:ADV.

Lì dāa á nē súḡā. "At the time, it was good." WK
3NH TNS COP FOC good:ADV.

= *Sān kán lā, lì dāa á nē súḡā.*
 Time **DEM.SG ART, 3NH TNS COP FOC good:ADV.**

Lì à nē súḡā. "It's good." ("Now; it wasn't before." WK)
3NH COP FOC good:ADV.

Àḡñ^{ya} may take other types of AdvP as complement too; thus with a Circumstance AdvP:

Dine ke ka m a saalbiis zua la anε
mam pu sa'amidi ba la'ad ka me pu diti ba ki la.
Dìni_∅ ké kà m á sáàl-bīis zúá lā á nē
DEM.SG COMP cause:PFV and 1SG COP smooth-child:PL friend:SG ART COP FOC
mán pō sá'amídí_∅ bà lā'ad kà mé pō dí tí_∅ bà kī
1SG:COMP NEG.IND spoil:IPFV 3PL goods:PL and also NEG.IND eat:IPFV 3PL millet
lāa +∅.
ART NEG.

"What makes me the friend of human beings is
 my not spoiling their property or eat their millet." BNY p20

Àḡñ^{ya} may also take a clause introduced by *yē* as a complement:

M diib ane ye m tum one tumi m la na boodim n naae.
M̄ dīb á nē yé m̄ túm òni_∅ tùmí m lā nā
1SG food COP FOC that 1SG work:PFV DEM.HU COMP send:PFV 1SGO ART hither
bóɔ̀dìm n nāe.
 will **SER finish:PFV.**

My food is that I do the will of him who sent me completely. (Jn 4:34)

27 Non-Verbal Predicators

Non-verbal Predicators may only occur in Main Clauses and Content Clauses. There are four types (X standing for a NP):

X <i>n lā</i> .	"That is X."
X <i>n ñwá</i> .	"This is X."
X <i>n wá nā</i> .	"This here is X."
X <i>lía?</i>	"Where is X?"

The particle *n* in these forms is the same phonologically as VP Serialiser *n* [9.3.2.1.2](#) and is here regarded as a special use of the same particle.

The three forms which are not in themselves questions can be used to make content questions with an interrogative pronoun as "X."

Clauses with a Non-verbal Predicator cannot include any pre-subject elements other than linker particles, nor any post-subject particles, nor be focussed.

Examples:

Kòlɔ̀_ ∅ lā. "That's a door."
Door:**SG SER** that.

BĒogv_ ∅ lā. "See you tomorrow" ("That's tomorrow.")
Tomorrow **SER** that.

F̀̀ mà lā lía +∅?
2SG mother:**SG ART** be.where **CQ?**
"Where is your mother?" WK

Ka awai la dia [sic]? Kà àwāę lā lía +∅? "But where are the nine?" (Lk 17:17, 1976)
And **NUM:nine ART** be.where **CQ?**

B5ɔ_ ∅ lía +∅? "What's that?"
What **SER** that **CQ?**

Non-verbal Predicators may have a serial-verb construction appended to them, or there may be a Supplement *kà*-clause [31.3](#) modifying X; *kà* is used to introduce a subject different from X, the serial-verb construction otherwise. The resulting constructions are variants of *n*-clefting and *kà*-clefting [34.1.2](#) [34.2](#).

Ano'on nwa n yiisid nidib tuumbe'ed n basida?

Ànó'òṅ_ø ñwá n yīísíd nīdɪb túòm-bē'éd

Who **SER** this **SER** expel:IPFV person:PL deed-bad:PL

n básiḁà +ø?

SER throw.out:IPFV CQ?

"Who is this who drives people's sins out?" (Lk 7:49)

Ṽnɪ_ø lá kà fù dāa ñyēt.

DEM.HU SER that and **2SG TNS** see:IPFV.

"This is he whom you saw." WK

Ànó'òṅɪ_ø ñwá kà tì ñyētá +ø?

Who **SER** this and **1PL** see:IPFV CQ?

"Who is this that we can see?"

Bṵ_ø lá kà m̀ ñyētá +ø?

What **SER** that and **1SG** see:IPFV CQ?

"What is that that I can see?"

28 Serial Verb Phrases

28.1 Serial Verb Phrases: Overview

Kusaal, like many West African languages, makes extensive use of serial verb constructions. A clause may contain a single verb phrase or Non-verbal Predicator, or may add potentially any number of further verb phrases each preceded by the Serialiser particle *n*. (For the realisation of this particle, see [9.3.2.1.2].) Complements and VP adjuncts (even clauses) are incorporated within such chains of VPs.

*Amaa ka Zugsob malek daa keŋ n yo'og sarega doog za'anoor la **yu'uŋ kan**, n more ba n yiis yiŋ.*

Àmáa kà Zūg-sób málēk dāa kēŋ n yó'òg sārígá dóòg

But and head-one:SG angel:SG TNS go:PFV SER open:PFV prison:SG house:SG

zá'-nōɔr lā yū'uŋ-kán, n mōrí bā n yiis yíŋ.

compound-mouth:SG ART night-DEM.SG, SER have 3PLO SER extract:PFV outside.

"But an angel of the Lord came and opened the gate of the prison **that night** and took them outside ..." (Acts 5:19)

*Ka dau so' due n zi'e la'asug la nidib sisoogin, n a Parisee nid **ka o yu'ur buon Gamaliel**, n a one pa'an Wina'am wada la yela, ka lem a yu'ur daan nidib sa'an.*

Kà dàɔ-sɔ' dūe n zí'e lá'asùg lā nīdɪb sí-sùugōn,

And man-INDF.HU rise:PFV SER stand assembly:SG ART person:PL among:LOC,

n á Parisee níd kà ò yū'ur búèn Gamaliel, n á ɔ̀nì

SER COP Pharisee person:SG and 3HU name:SG call:IPFV Gamaliel, SER COP DEM.HU

ø pà'an Wínà'am wádà lā yéla, kà léɔ̀m à yū'ur dáan

COMP teach:IPFV God law ART about, and again COP name:SG owner:SG

nīdɪb sá'àn.

person:PL among.

"A man stood up in the assembly, being a Pharisee **called Gamaliel**, and being a teacher of God's law and also being reputable among the people."

(Acts 5:34, 1976)

Verb phrases within such a chain may be coordinations of component verb phrases linked by *kà* "and" or *bĒĒ/kŪU* "or" [28.2].

Normally only the first Verbal Predicator carries tense and polarity particles, which apply to the entire chain; verbs each retain the Modal Remoteness marker *n^e* however, and while an initial Unrealised Mood marking applies to the whole chain, a predicator following an Indicative may be in the Unrealised Mood, in which case it will be marked itself.

The particle-verb *tì* is often found with non-initial VPs.

Change in polarity within a chain is rare; if there is a change of polarity the construction is normally replaced by coordination of Serial VPs [28.2] or a Supplement Clause (the only case where a Supplement Clause can have the same subject as the main clause before it [31.3]):

Ka dau daa zin'i Lystra ni ka pu tun'e kenna.

Kà dāy dāa zínʔi Lystra ní kà pō tūñʔe_ ∅ kēnná +∅.

And man:SG TNS sit Lystra LOC and NEG.IND be.able SER go:IPFV NEG.

"There was a man in Lystra who could not walk." (Acts 14:8)

Ka Joon kena lood noor ka pu nuud daam

Kà Joon kē nā_ ∅ lōɔd nōɔr kà pō nūud

And John come:PFV hither SER tie:IPFV mouth:SG and NEG.IND drink:IPFV

dáamm +∅.

beer NEG.

"John came, fasting and not drinking beer." (Mt 11:18)

A change from positive to negative polarity is possible, however:

Ya sieba be kpela n ku kpil asee ba ti nye Wina'am na'am la.

Yà sīəba bé kpēlá n kú kpīl +∅, àséé bà tì

2PL INDF.PL EXIST here SER NEG.UNR die NEG, except 3PL afterwards

ñyè Wínàʔam náʔàm lā.

see:PFV God kingdom ART.

There are some of you here who will not die before they see the kingdom of God." (Lk 9:27)

This is possibly licensed by the presentational character of the main VP [34.4].

In the case of

Da lo ya nindaase, wenne foosug dim la niñid si'em la.

Dā ló yà nīn-dáasē +∅, wēn nē fōɔsúg dímm lā_ ∅

NEG.IMP tie:PFV 2PL eye-face:PL NEG, resemble with puff:GER individual.PL ART COMP

níñid sīʔəm lā.

do:IPFV INDF.ADV ART.

"Don't screw up your faces like the hypocrites do." (Mt 6:16, 1976)

the construction reflects the reanalysis of *wēn*^{na/} "resemble" as a preposition [23.3].

Verbal Predicators in a chain each have their own aspect marking, which need not necessarily be the same throughout.

In all serial-verb chains the order of events, if they are not simultaneous, is iconic; it must be reflected in the order of the VPs [24.2.1.1].

Which VP in a chain is semantically the "principal" verb phrase is, as this example suggests, not determinable from the order; many verbs have characteristic "auxiliary" or subordinate rôles in chains and whether they precede or follow the "main" verb depends on their own semantics.

A Serial VP can be attached after a Non-verbal Predicator [27]:

Ano'on nwa n yiisid nidib tuumbe'ed n basida?

Ànɔ̀'òñ_ø ñwá n yīisíd nīdīb túùm-bē'éd

Who **SER** this **SER** expel:IPFV person:PL deed-bad:PL

n básidà +ø?

SER throw.out:IPFV CQ?

"Who is this who drives people's sins out?" (Lk 7:49)

Common patterns with verbs without specialised Serial-VP uses include

(a) main VP + imperfective VP expressing accompanying events:

Ka Ninsaal Biig la kena dit ka nuud...

Kà Nīn-sáàl Bīig kēn nā_ø dí't kà nūud ...

And Person-smooth:SG child:SG come:IPFV hither **SER** eat:IPFV and drink:IPFV...

"And the Son of Man comes eating and drinking ..." (Mt 11:19)

(b) perfective VP expressing prior event + main VP

Ka dapa ayi ye fupiela n zi'e ba sa'an.

Kà dāpá_àyí yé fū-píələ n zì'e bà sā'an.

And man:PL **NUM**:two dress:PFV shirt-white:PL **SER** stand **3PL** among.

"Two men dressed in white were standing with them." (Acts 1:10)

(c) main VP + perfective VP in Unrealised or Imperative Mood, expressing purpose.

...ka pu mor antu'a o yela na sob n tis on na'atita'are.

...kà pū mōr ántù'a ò yēlá_ø na sōb n tīs

...and **NEG.IND** have case:SG **3HU** about **SER UNR** write:PFV **SER** give:PFV

ōn ná'-tītā'are +ø.

3HU.CNTR king-great:SG **NEG.**

"...and he had no case about him to write to his Emperor." (Acts 25:26, 1976)

Man ya'a pu keen na tu'asini ba...

Mān yá' pū kēen nā_ ∅ tú'asīní_ bā...

1SG.CNTR if **NEG.IND** come:PFV:REM hither **SER** talk:PFV:REM **3PLO...**

"If I had not come to talk to them ..." (Jn 15:22)

(note that both verbs have the Modal Remoteness clitic)

Kēm_ ∅ tí ñyē du'átà.

Go:IMP **SER** afterwards see:PFV doctor:SG.

"Go and see the doctor."

There seems always to be semantic subordination involved in the Serial VP construction; the equivalent in translation in European languages would often be a participle modifying the main verb subject. The construction is not used to narrate a series of events, which is the rôle of Sequential Clauses [30.3.2].

28.2 Coordination

VPs in serial-verb constructions can be coordinated with *kà* "and", *bēε* "or", *kūu* "or"; *bēε* and *kūu* are here synonymous.

Bà bēε_ ànínā n wā'ad bēε yūum yūumá.

3PL EXIST **ADV**:there **SER** dance:IPFV or sing:IPFV song:PL.

"They're in the process of dancing or singing."

ka kej ... n ian'asid ka pian'ad n du'osid Wina'am yu'ur su'uŋa.

kà kēŋ ... n jāñ'asíd kà pīāñ'ad n dū'əsíd

and go:PFV ... **SER** leap:IPFV and praise:IPFV **SER** elevate:IPFV

Wínà'am yú'ùr súŋā.

God name:SG good:ADV.

"and went ... leaping and praising the name of God greatly." (Acts 3:8)

Sogia so' kae' n tum ka yood o meŋa.

Sógjà-sǝ' kǎ'e n túm kà yōōd ò mēŋá +∅.

Soldier-INDF.HU **NEG.BE** **SER** work:IPFV and pay:IPFV **3HU** self **NEG.**

"No soldier works and pays for himself." (1 Cor 9:7, 1976)

28.3 Auxiliary Verbs in Serial VPs

Certain verbs have characteristic specialised meanings in Serial VP constructions. Variable Verbs of this type agree in aspect with the main VP verb.

28.3.1 Preceding the Main VP

bè⁺ "exist, be somewhere" + **àníṅā** "there" + ipfv "be in the process of ..."

Ò *bè àníṅā n ñwé?èd bīg lā.*

3HU EXIST ADV: there **SER** beat:**IPFV** child:**SG ART**.

"He's currently beating the child."

àḗṅ^{ya} "be something/somehow" : the construction seen in

Ka li ane o sidi so'e.

Kà lī á né ò sīdī_ ∅ sū?e.

And **3NH COP FOC 3HU** husband:**SG SER** own.

"It's her husband who owns it." (1 Cor 7:4, 1976)

is parallel to the Supplement *kà*-clause type [31.3] but with the subject of the main clause as antecedent. By ellipsis, this construction gives rise to *n*-focus [34.1.2], which uses this same particle *n*.

zī?⁺ "not know": *nàm zī? n* + perfective "never have X-ed"

M̄ nám zī?_ ∅ ñyē gbīgimne +∅.

1SG still **NEG.KNOW SER** see:**PFV** lion:**SG NEG**.

"I've never seen a lion." SB

zàṅ^e and **nōk^{e/}** "pick up, take" with object "using" (of a literal object as instrument)

M̄ nók sū?ugò_ ∅ kǎ́ nīm lā.

1SG pick.up:**PFV** knife:**SG SER** cut:**PFV** meat:**SG ART**.

"I cut the meat with a knife."

M̄ zǎǎ́_ m̄ nú?ugò_ ∅ sī?ts dāká lā.

1SG pick.up:**PFV 1SG** hand:**SG SER** touch:**PFV** box:**SG ART**.

"I touched the box with my hand."

Contrast the semantically ill-formed

??*M zání_ m nú'ùg kà sī'is dāká lā.*

1SG pick.up:**PFV** **1SG** hand:**SG** and touch:**PFV** box:**SG** **ART.**
 ("I picked up my hand and touched the box.")

m̄r^{a/} "have" + object "bringing" with motion verbs:

Dābá_ àyópòḗ kà fù m̄r-ó_∅_ ∅ kē nā.

Day:**PL** **NUM**:seven and **2SG** have **3HUO** **SER** come:**PFV** hither.
 "Bring her here in a week." WK

d̄l^{la/} "accompany in subordinate rôle"

Bà d̄ll-ō_∅_ ∅ kēḡ Bók.

3PL follow **3HUO** **SER** go:**PFV** Bawku.
 "They went to Bawku with him."

Beginning verbs naturally precede:

Amaa Piita daa pin'il n pa'ali ba

Ámáa Piita dāa pīñ'il n pá'alì_ bā.

But Peter **TNS** begin:**PFV** **SER** teach:**PFV** **3PLO.**
 "But Peter began to tell them." (Acts 11:4)

Tì déḡì_ ∅ tís-ò_ ∅ lór.

1PL precede:**PFV** **SER** give:**PFV** **3HUO** car.
 "We previously gave him a car." (*dēḡ^e* "do/go first")

Ka dau so' due n zī'e ...

Kà dāy-s̄s̄? dūe n zī'e ...

And man-**INDF.HU** rise:**PFV** **SER** stand ...
 "And a man (having risen) stood ..." (Acts 5:34)
 [*zī'e^{ya}* is "stand (still)" not "stand (up)"]

"**Come**" and "**go**" can be used similarly as initiators:

M kēḡì_ ∅ pīḗ nú'ùs.

1SG go:**PFV** **SER** wash hand:**PL.**
 "I went and washed my hands."

su'ā^a "conceal" is used in this construction for "secretly":

Ka Herod su'a buol banjidib la ...

Kà Herod su'ā_ ∅ búèl bāṅɪdɪb lā ...

And Herod conceal:PFV SER ask:PFV understander:PL ART...

"Herod secretly called for the wise men ..." (Mt 2:7)

ñyāṅ^{el} means "overcome" as a main verb:

Ka m nyanṅ dunia.

Kà m ñyāṅ dūnyā.

And 1SG overcome:PFV world:SG.

"I have overcome the world." (Jn 16:33)

As a Serial-VP auxiliary it means "carry out successfully, prevail in":

M̄ p̄ ñyāṅ_ ∅ záb nà'ab lāa +∅.

1SG NEG.IND prevail:PFV SER fight:PFV chief:SG ART NEG.

"I wasn't able to fight the chief."

Unlike English *can*, **ñyāṅ^{el}** expresses events and not states. Thus, to express present ability or inability, the auxiliary is in the Unrealised Mood:

M̄ kú ñyāṅ_ ∅ záb nà'ab lāa +∅.

1SG NEG.UNR prevail:PFV SER fight:PFV chief:SG ART NEG.

"I can't fight the chief." ("I won't succeed in fighting the chief.")

If the main verb is Imperfective the auxiliary is imperfective too; it must be Unbounded:

Wad line nyāṅedin ketin ka nidib voen.

Wād-línì_ ∅ ñyāṅídīn_ ∅ kētín kà nīdɪb vōvn.

Law-DEM.NH COMP prevail:IPFV:REM SER cause:IPFV:REM and person:PL be.alive:REM.

"A law which could make people live." (Gal 3:21)

tūñʔe means "be able"; it occurs almost always as an auxiliary. A rare example of independent use appears in:

ba daa tis ka li zemis ba paŋ tun'e si'em

bà dāa tís kà lì zēmís bà pàŋ ø tūñʔe sīʔəm

3PL TNS give:PFV and **3NH** become.equal:PFV **3PL** strength:SG **COMP** be.able **INDF.ADV**

"They gave as much as their strength permitted" (2 Cor 8:3)

I have no examples of the LF, but there are no Imperfective forms in *-d^a*; instead **tūñʔe** occurs before both Perfective and Imperfective main verbs. The verb is thus Invariable. Unlike *ñyāŋ^{el}*, **tūñʔe** can be construed as expressing a state, and both Indicative and Unrealised Moods can express present ability or inability.

ka li ku tun'e n su'aa.

kà lì kú tūñʔe n sūʔāa +ø.

and **3NH NEG.UNR** be.able **SER** hide:PFV **NEG.**

"which cannot be hidden" (Mt 5:14)

So' kae' na tun'e dol na'anam ayii.

Sōʔ kāʔe ø ná tūñʔe ø dōl ná-námá àyí +ø.

INDF.HU NEG.BE SER UNR be.able **SER** follow king-PL **NUM:two NEG.**

"Nobody can serve two kings."

(Mt 6:24, 1976)

Fu tun'e nyet si'ela?

Fù tūñʔe ø ñyēt síʔalàa +øʔ

2SG be.able **SER** see:PFV **INDF.NH PQʔ**

"Can you see anything?" (Mk 8:23)

O pu tun'e pian'ada.

Ò pū tūñʔe ø pǎñʔadá +ø.

3HU NEG.IND be.able **SER** speak:IPFV **NEG.**

"He could not speak." (Lk 1:22)

Yanam pu tun'e banjida?

Yānám pū tūñʔe ø bǎñìdaa +ø +øʔ

2PL.CNTR NEG.IND be.able **SER** understand:IPFV **NEG PQʔ**

"Can't you understand?" (Mt 15:16)

Tūñʔe occurs as auxiliary to *ñyāŋ^{el}* used as a main verb in

bozugo ba ku tun'e nyaŋe ba meŋa.

bō zúgō bà kò tũñ'e_ ∅ ñyāŋí_ bà mēŋá +∅.

because 3PL NEG.UNR be.able SER control:PFV 3PL self NEG.

"because they cannot control themselves." (1 Cor 7:5)

28.3.2 Following the Main VP

tis^e "give" is used for "to, for"; the meaning may have nothing to do with "giving", and is simply a way of adding an indirect object. This can be used to put an indirect object after a direct, or to have both direct and indirect bound pronoun objects.

[ye] O pu ma' n tis ninsaala, amaa [ye] o ma' n tisne Wina'am.

Ò pū má' n tís nīn-sáalā +∅, àmáa ò mà'

3HU NEG.IND lie:PFV SER give:PFV person-smooth:SG NEG but 3HU lie:PFV

n tís nē Wínà'am.

SER give:PFV FOC God.

"He has not lied to a human being; rather, he has lied to God." (Acts 5:4, 1976)

Ì dāa kùès bùŋv_ ∅ tís dɔ'átà.

1SG TNS sell:PFV donkey:SG SER give:PFV doctor:SG.

"I sold a donkey to the doctor."

Contrast the semantically ill-formed

**Ì dāa kùès bùŋ kà tís dɔ'átà.*

1SG TNS sell:PFV donkey:SG and give:PFV doctor:SG.

("I sold a donkey and gave it to the doctor.")

gàad^e "pass, surpass" can be used in comparisons:

Isaac kárìm_ ∅ gát John.

Isaac read:IPFV SER pass:IPFV John.

"Isaac reads better than John." SB

À-Wīn gím_ ∅ gát À-Būgɔr.

PERS-Awini be.short SER pass:IPFV PERS-Abugri.

"Awini is shorter than Abugri." SB

Fu nonji mi n gat bamaa?

Fù nójì mī n gát bámmáa +ø?

2SG love 1SGO SER pass:IPFV DEML.PL PQ?

"Do you love me more than these?" (Jn 21:15, 1976)

gàlìs^e "get to be too much" (as in *Sāa gálìs yā* "There's too much rain") is used intransitively for "too much":

Ò dì n gálìs.

3HU eat:PFV SER exceed:PFV.

"She's eaten too much."

Dā kàrìm gbánà ø gálìsìdā +ø.

NEG.IMP read:IPFV book:PL SER exceed:IPFV NEG.

"Don't read books too much."

bàs^e "send/go away" is used for "away, off, out":

Bà yìis dāy lā ø bás.

3PL expel:PFV man:SG ART SER throw.out:PFV.

"They threw the man out."

Ano'on nwa n yiisid nidib tuumbe'ed n basida?

Ànó'òñ ø ñwá n yīisíd nīdīb túòm-bē'éd n básìdà +ø?

Who SER this SER expel:IPFV person:PL deed-bad:PL SER throw.out:IPFV CQ?

"Who is this who drives people's sins out?" (Lk 7:49)

Ending verbs naturally follow the main VP:

Ò dì ø nāe.

3HU eat:PFV SER finish:PFV.

"He's finished eating."

Ò dì ø tíg.

3HU eat:PFV SER become.satiated:PFV.

"He's eaten to satiety."

Motion verbs occur here with meanings like local prepositions e.g.

Ò kàt kíkīr-béʔéd-nàm n yīisíd nīdɪb.
3HU drive:IPFV fairy-bad-PL **SER** expel:IPFV person:PL.
 "He drives evil spirits out of people."

Jesus ban'ad buŋ n kpen'ed Jerusalem

Jesus_∅ bāñʔad búŋ n kpéñʔéd Jerusalem
 Jesus **COMP** ride:IPFV donkey:SG **SER** enter:IPFV Jerusalem
 "Jesus riding a donkey into Jerusalem" (picture caption, NT 1976)

Èñrigim_ ∅ pāa dɪʔátà.
 Shift.along:IMP **SER** reach:PFV doctor:SG.
 "Shift along up to the doctor." (pāe^{+/} "reach")

Èñrigim_ ∅ pāá_ m.
 Shift.along:IMP **SER** reach:PFV **1SGO**.
 "Shift along up to me."

wēn^{na/} "be like": as a main verb it occurs as in e.g.

Ka o nindaa wenne nintaŋ ne.
 Kà ò nīn-dáa wēn nē nīntāŋ nē.
 And **3HU** eye-face:SG resemble with sun:SG like.
 "His face is like the sun." (Rev 10:1)

Wēn is very common in Serial VP constructions, with the linker *n* nearly always lost. The verb is itself intransitive, but followed by a prepositional phrase as complement, using either *wōv* "like" or *nē* "with" [23.1]. Regardless of which preposition is used, if its object does not have the article *lā*^{+/} it is followed by a (meaningless) *nē*, even if it is a pronoun or proper name. **Wēn** is used before numbers and measurements for "about, approximately." Numbers standing as NP heads are not followed by the meaningless *nē*:

Li ane wuu maila ayi ne.
 Lì wèn nē maila àyí nē.
3NH resemble with mile **NUM**:two like.
 "It's about two miles." (Jn 11:18, 1976)

but *ka ba kal a wuu kobuga ne piisi.*
 kà bà kāl á wōv kóbɪgā nē pīsí.
 and **3PL** number:SG **COP** like hundred with twenty
 "and their number was about 120." (Acts 1:15)

Wĕn + complement sequences have been reanalysed as prepositional phrases to a considerable degree [23.3].

là'am^m "together" is also found as a particle-verb [24.7.2]. In *là'am nĕ* "together with" the expression has become a compound preposition [23.3]. It appears as a main verb meaning "associate with":

Bà pō lá'amìd tāabaa +∅.
3PL NEG.IND associate:IPFV each.other NEG.
 "They don't associate together."

yà'as^e or *yà'as*^a "again" usually lacks *n* and has become effectively an adverb, preposable with *kà* [34.2]. ILK glosses the word as "repeat", but I have no example of its use as a main verb.

Ya'as ka m gos ...
Yà'as kà òn gōs ...
 Again and **1SG look:PFV ...**
 "Again I looked ..." (Rev 5:11, 1976)

tì pāe "up until", with the particle-verb *tì* [24.7.2] followed by *pāe*^{+/} "reach", is followed by an *ò*-Clause expressing time [33.1.2]:

Ba da ditne, ka nuud, ka dit po'ab, ka ke ka po'ab kun sidib, n ti paae dabiskan ka Noa kpen' aaruḡin la.
Bà dà dīt nĕ, kà nūud, kà dīt pō'ab, kà ké kà
3PL TNS eat:IPFV FOC, and drink:IPFV, and take:IPFV wife:PL, and cause:PFV and
pō'ab kūn sīdīb n tí pāe dábìs-kàn
wife:PL return.home:IPFV husband:PL SER afterwards reach:PFV day-DEM.SG
kà Noa kpéñ' àḡruḡōn lā.
 and Noah enter:PFV boat:SG:LOC ART.
 "They were eating and drinking and marrying and being given in marriage up until Noah entered the boat." (Lk 17:27)

28.4 Serial VPs Introduced by *hālí*⁺

Hālí⁺ 23.2 can introduce Serial VPs in the sense "until":

...ka keŋ ia arakon' kane bodig la hale n ti nye o?

...kà kēŋ_ ∅ já àdàkóŋ?-kàni_ ∅ b̀̀dɪg lā

...and go:PFV SER seek:PFV NUM:one-DEM.SG COMP get.lost:PFV ART

hālí n tí ñyē-óo +∅?

until SER afterwards see:PFV:3HUO CQ?

"... and go and look for the one which is lost until he finds it?" (Lk 15:4)

*Ka bene moogin hale n paae saŋkan ka o nie o meŋ Israel dim
sisoogin la.*

Kà bé nē mōɔgɔn hālí n pāe sān-kán kà ò níe

and EXIST FOC grass:SG:LOC until SER reach:PFV time-DEM.SG and 3HU reveal:PFV

ò mēŋ Israel dím sí̀̀sòugōn lā.

3HU self Israel individual.PL among:LOC ART.

"... and remained in the bush until the day when he showed himself to the Israelites." (Lk 1:80, 1976)

29 Clauses

29.1 Basic Clause Structure

Kusaal is strictly SVO; deviations not achieved by *kà*-preposing [34.2] always represent extraposition or dislocation [34.3]. Indirect objects precede direct, and objects precede other complements.

Verb phrases can be concatenated by Serial VP constructions [28].

Except in certain special circumstances [29.1.1] all clauses require a subject NP.

Clause-level particles may occur at various points within the clause structure. These comprise clause-linker [29.1.2] and post-subject [29.1.3] particles along with Focussing Modifiers [34.6].

VP adjuncts may follow each VP. Clause-level adjuncts may follow the last VP; it is generally not possible to distinguish these formally from adjuncts of the last VP itself, unless the VP ends in a particle confined to VP-final position [34.3] [29.2]. Clause-level adjuncts may also precede the subject, but only in Main or Content Clauses [30.1.1], and only if they express time or circumstance.

Main Clauses and Content Clauses have similar structures. Both display Independency Marking on the first Verbal Predicator [24.6], and have structural possibilities not possible for clauses of any other type: they may contain Non-verbal Predicators [27] or lack a predicator altogether [30.2.4], and they can show clefting or preposing with *kà*, or focus with *nē^{+/}*. *Nē^{+/}* may follow a Verbal Predicator, precede a verb complement or adjunct, or appear clause-finally [34.1.1].

29.1.1 Subjects

A VP subject must normally be present; Kusaal is not a pro-drop language, and requires, for example, dummy subject pronouns for impersonal constructions such as

Lì tòl. "It (weather) is hot."
3NH be.hot.

Lì à súḡā. "It's good."
3NH COP good:ADV. (Contrast Mooré *yaa sōama*, with no pronoun)

Lì nàr kà fù kūl. "It's necessary for you to go home."
3NH must and **2SG** return.home:PFV.

The dummy pronoun is 3sg non-human; human-gender *ò* is not found. The dummy subject may be omitted in *yà[?]*-clauses:

Ya'a ka'ane alaa, m naan ku yeline ya ye ...

Yàʔ kãʔaní àlá, m nãan kú yēlíní yā yē ...

If **NEG.BE:REM ADV:thus, 1SG** then **NEG.UNR say:PFV:REM 2PLO** that...

"If it were not so, I would not have told you that ..." (Jn 14:2)

Omission of the 2sg subject pronoun is required in direct commands, unless a presubject adjunct is present. In the contexts where the 2sg pronoun is deleted, the 2pl subject pronoun is transferred to follow the verb as an enclitic.

After clause linker *kà* "and" a pronoun repeating the subject of the previous clause is deleted [29.1.4.2] (though its tone-raising effect remains [10.1].)

Absence of subject pronouns in other cases is due to ellipsis [29.1.4]; such structures are informal and are "corrected" by reinsertion of pronouns when informants' attention is drawn to them. This will therefore not be taken to invalidate the general principle that clauses require explicit subjects. Any L Raising induced by the ellipsed pronoun [10.1] remains.

Náe yàa +ø? "[Have you] finished?"
Finish:PFV INDEP PQ?

This is particularly common in greeting formulae like

Gbís wēlá? "How did you sleep last night?"
for *Fù sá gbìs wēlá +ø?*
2SG TNS sleep:PFV how CQ?

Dúe wēlá?
for *Fù dúe wēlá +ø?* literally "(You) arose how?"
2SG arise:PFV how CQ?

29.1.2 Clause-linker Particles

The **Clause-linker particles** *kà* "and" and *yē* "that" are placed before the subject (which may itself be ellipsed after *kà* [29.1.4.2].) Conjunctions almost always precede any clause-linker particles [29.3]. When other clausal elements precede *kà* before the subject, the construction is probably to be understood as *kà*-preposing instead [34.2]. "Resumptive" *yē* in longer passages of indirect speech frequently precedes clause-linking *kà* [31.4.3], but otherwise the clause-linker particles are mutually exclusive; apparent exceptions always arise from ellipsis [29.1.4.1].

While *yē* is invariably subordinating, *kà* may be coordinating or subordinating.

The glosses "and" and "that" are inadequate; both particles are used in a variety of constructions with meanings that vary considerably.

kà	introduces subordinate clauses of purpose or result	31.2
	subordinate clauses expressing a relative sense	31.3
	from which derives <i>kà</i> -preposing	34.2
	subordinate content clauses	31.4
	sequential clauses	30.3.2
yē	introduces subordinate clauses of purpose or result	31.2
	subordinate content clauses	31.4

The meaning is largely determined by the nature of the clauses; for example, purpose clauses contain Imperative Mood, and Content Clauses show main-clause type structural features. *Yē* has different tonal effects with a following bound subject pronoun depending on the construction 10.1.

29.1.3 Post-Subject Particles

The post-subject position is used for several particles which mark a subordinate clause type, including *yàʔ* "if" ... *nāan* "then" 32.1 32.2 and the complementiser *ñ* 33; other particles found in this slot are

sìd "truly"

Ò *sìd à nē zōlvɔg.* "He really is a fool."
 3HU truly COP FOC fool:SG.

Ò *sìd dāa á nē náʔàb.* "Truly, he was a chief." WK
 3HU truly TNS COP FOC chief:SG.

kōlɪm or **kōdɪm** "always" (← Hausa) seems only to be found with negatives:

Ka so' kudin ku len nyee li ya'asa.
 Kà *sōʔ kōdɪm kú lēm ñyēé_ lī yáʔasā +∅.*
 And IND.F.HU ever NEG.UNR again see:PFV 3NHO again NEG.
 "Nobody will ever see it again." (Rev 18:21)

ñyāan or **nāan** 32.2 "next, afterwards"

Ka Yesu tans ne kukotita'ar ka nyaan kpi.
 Kà *Yesu táñs nē kúkō-títāʔar kà ñyāan kpí.*
 And Jesus shout:PFV with voice-great:SG and next die:PFV.
 "Jesus cried out with a loud voice and then died." (Mt 27:50)

pà' tì "perhaps", like *yà'*, is followed by Indicative Mood with future meaning:

Ya yinni pa'a ti bu'osi m ye ...

Yà yīnní pá' tì bŭ'əsí m yē...

2PL one perhaps ask:**PFV 1SGO** that...

"One of you will perhaps ask me ..." (Rom 9:19, 1976)

sādígím "since, because" follows the complementiser *ñ*: see [33.1.1](#)

29.1.4 Ellipsis

Ellipsis is a spectrum. Informal ellipsis may be constantly used by speakers but is liable to be declared incorrect if their attention is drawn to it; it does not affect the meaning of the clause in which it occurs. More systematic ellipsis often implies anaphora or a similar repetition of preceding material. In yet more formalised cases the ellipped type has become an autonomous construction with its own meaning.

Bound words, by definition, can never be left standing alone after ellipsis of the word to which they are bound but must be ellipped along with it; however, many types of bound particle or pronoun are themselves subject to ellipsis.

Cases where I invoke ellipsis as a descriptive and explanatory device are with yes/no questions ending in *kúv* or *bée* [30.2.2](#); indirect commands [31.2](#) [31.4.1](#); ellipsis of complements of verbs [25.1.1](#); *kà*-preposing and *n*-focus [34.1.2](#) [34.2](#); *hālí* as intensifier [23.2](#); ambiguity with coordinated modifiers and determiners in the NP and cases where a pre-modifier applies to a coordinated head [21.4](#); and omission of aspect-marking *nē* in replies to questions [24.2.2.2](#). Implicit tense marking [24.3.3](#) could also reasonably be classified as a form of ellipsis.

29.1.4.1 Coordination and Ellipsis

Ellipsis is involved in most cases of coordination within NPs [21.4](#).

Ellipsis of repeated elements in clause coordination is common, e.g.

Dāu lā ñyé bī-díbiŋ kŭv bī-púŋàa +ø?

Man:**SG ART** see:**PFV** child-boy:**SG** or child-girl:**SG PQ?**

"Did the man see a boy or a girl?"

The surface form *kà yē* "but in order that ..." is always the result of ellipsis; the two particles cannot co-occur in a clause, unless the *yē* is "resumptive" [31.4.3](#), in which case it precedes the *kà*. Thus in the sequence *kà yē*, a clause must have been ellipped between the two particles:

M̀ p̄ō tísì f gbáụ́ lā yé f̀ kúesì líú +∅,
1SG NEG.IND give:PFV 2SGO book:SG ART that 2SG sell:PFV 3NHO NEG,
kà yé f̀ kárim.
 and that **2SG read:PFV.**

"I didn't give you the book so you'd sell it, but [I gave it] so you'd read it."

29.1.4.2 Null Anaphora of Subjects

For null anaphora of VP complements see [25.1.1].

Kusaal is not a pro-drop language. For example, clause subjects are required to be explicitly present in most constructions, though with cross-linguistically common exceptions like the subjects of direct commands [29.1.1]. Dummy subject pronouns (always 3rd sg non-human) are required in impersonal constructions like

<i>Lì tòl.</i>	"It (weather) is hot."
<i>Lì à súnā.</i>	"It's good."
<i>Lì nàr kà f̀ kũl.</i>	"It's necessary for you to go home."

However, subject pronouns are regularly deleted after the clause linker particle *kà* when they would have the same reference as the subject of the preceding clause. The L Raising that would follow the pronoun remains [10.1].

Pronouns after the *kà* introducing a Content Clause are not subject to this [31.4], and Supplement Clauses [31.3] usually have different subjects from the preceding clause, so this is particularly characteristic of **Sequential Clauses** [30.3.2], though it can occur with a *kà*-purpose clause too [31.2]:

M na niŋ wala ka nye faangire?
M̀ ná nīŋ wēlá kà ñyē fāāñgírè +∅?
1SG UNR do:PFV how and find:PFV salvation CQ?
 "What must I do to get saved?" (Acts 16:30)

Although the rule is not absolute, a *non-deleted* subject pronoun after *kà* thus consistently signals a change of subject. A reported conversation may be expressed simply by *Kà ò yél ... kà ò yél ...* with each *ò* marking a switch of speaker.

Kusaal is strict in requiring a pronoun to refer to the last grammatically possible antecedent; with the collapse of gender agreement [17.1] this can mean any antecedent of the same number, and can trump semantic appropriateness, e.g.

Pu?ā lā dá? dāká kà kēŋ Bók.
 Woman:SG ART buy:PFV box:SG and go:PFV Bawku.
 "The woman bought a box and went to Bawku."

**Pɥʔā lā dáʔ dāká kà ò kēŋ Bók.*

Woman:SG ART buy:PFV box:SG and 3HU go:PFV Bawku.
("The woman bought a box and it went to Bawku")

Pɥʔāb lā dáʔ dāká kà kēŋ Bók.

Woman:PL ART buy:PFV box:SG and go:PFV Bawku.
"The women bought a box and went to Bawku."

Pɥʔāb lā dáʔ dāká kà bà kēŋ Bók.

Woman:PL ART buy:PFV box:SG and 3PL go:PFV Bawku.
"The women bought a box and they went to Bawku."
(acceptable but unusual with *bà* = *pūʔab*)

Occasionally the pronoun after *kà* is ellipted as referring, not to the subject of the preceding clause, but to the subject of a preceding *kà*-preposed *ḥ*-Clause:

Ban da dol wa'e la, ka nye dau ...

Bán dà dɔ̄l_ ∅ wáʔe lā, kà ñyē dāy ...

3PL:COMP TNS follow SER go ART, and see:PFV man:SG...

"As they were going together, (they) saw a man ..." (Mt 27:32, 1976)

Ban wum ne'ega la ka sin.

Bán wùm nēʔgá lá kà sīn.

3PL:COMP hear:PFV DEM.NH ART and be.silent.

"After they heard this they fell silent." (Acts 11:18)

29.2 Downranking and Insubordination

Clauses are either main or subordinate.

Subordinate Clauses can be divided formally into those marked by a post-subject particle and those preceded by a clause-linker particle.

The post-subject particle types, *yàʔ*-clauses [32] and *ḥ*-Clauses [33] are AdvPs or NPs and there is no ambiguity regarding their embedded character. All such clauses lack Independency Marking on the Verbal Predicator.

Subordinate clauses may also be introduced by one of the two linker particles *yē* "that" or *kà* "and, that." *Yē*-clauses are always subordinate, but *kà*-clauses may be subordinate or coordinate. Among such subordinate clauses, whether introduced by *yē* or *kà*, there is a basic distinction between clauses which lack Independency Marking [24.6.1.1] and have a restricted set of internal structures (viz. excluding focus, clefting, *kà*-preposing and independent tense marking), and clauses which

show both Independency Marking and the full range of possible structures seen in main clauses. The latter are **Content Clauses** [31.4]: Main Clauses in terms of formal internal structure, they function as subordinate Content Clauses by **Downranking**.

The clearest criterion for subordination is whether a clause precedes or follows a Negative Prosodic Clitic induced by a negative Verbal Predicator in the preceding clause. Although placement before the Negative Clitic necessarily implies that a clause is subordinate, the converse is not always true: in the case of constructions which by default involve negative raising, if the subordinate clause is, exceptionally, outside the scope of the negation semantically, the Negative Clitic placement is also exceptional and precedes the subordinate clause [35.3]. However, such cases are marginal, and the normal position of the Negative Clitic will accordingly be taken as diagnostic with regard to the distinction of subordination and coordination.

On the question of subordination with Conjunctions see [29.3].

All clauses introduced by *yē* are subordinate, whether Purpose Clauses or Content Clauses. (On Negative Raising, see [35.2].)

Purpose Clauses:

M̄ pō bṑ̀d yé fù kēŋ Bókō +∅.

1SG NEG.IND want that 2SG go:PFV Bawku NEG.

"I don't want you to go to Bawku."

Li pu nar ye fu di fu ba'abiig po'a Herodiase.

Lì pō nār yé fù dí fù bā̄-bîg pu'á Herodiase +∅.

3NH NEG.IND must that 2SG take 2SG father-child:SG wife:SG Herodias NEG.

"It's not right for you to marry your brother's wife Herodias." (Mt 14:4)

Content Clauses:

M pu yel ye noor ayopoi ma'anee.

M̄ pō yél yē nō̄r àyópò̄e má'anē +∅.

1SG NEG.IND say:PFV that occasion:SG NUM:seven only NEG.

"I don't say, only seven times." (Mt 18:22)

Bùŋ-bāñ'ad zī' yē tēŋ túllā +∅.

Donkey-rider:SG NEG.KNOW that ground:SG be.hot NEG.

"The donkey-rider doesn't know the ground is hot."

ka o lee pu ban ye li ane one.

kà ò léε pō bāŋ yé lì à nē ōne +∅.

And 3HU but NEG.IND realise:PFV that 3NH COP FOC 3HU.CNTR NEG.

"but she didn't realise it was him." (Jn 20:14)

Tiname sagidim aa o biis la, ti da ten'es ye Wina'am beilim wenne wuu ba'a ban ka ninsaal nok salima bee anzurifa bee kuga, n ten'esi maal ne o nu'use.

Tīnámì_∅ sādígím áá_∅ bīis lā, tì dā tēñ'ēs yē

1PL COMP since COP 3HU child:PL ART 1PL NEG.IMP think:PFV that

Wínà'am bélím wēn nē wūb bá'a bán kà nīn-sáàl

God existence resemble with like idol:PL DEM.PL and person-smooth:SG

nōk sālma bēē ānzúrìfà bēē kūgá n tēñ'ēsì_∅ máàl

take:PFV gold or silver or stone:PL SER think:PFV SER make:PFV

né ò nú'usē +∅.

with **3HU hand:PL NEG.**

"Since we are his children, we should not think that God's existence resembles idols which a human being thinks to make by hand using gold or silver or stone." (Acts 17:29)

Ka o ba' ne o ma daa pu ban ye o kpelim yaa.

Kà ò bā' né ò mà dāa pū bán

and **3HU father:SG with 3HU mother:SG TNS NEG.IND realise:PFV**

yé ò kpèlím yāa +∅.

that **3HU remain INDEP NEG.**

"His father and mother did not realise that he had remained." (Lk 2:43)

The linker *kà*, despite the label "and" which I have adopted for it consistently in the glossing, and its uses in coordination, very often introduces clauses which are clearly subordinate and appear before a Negative Clitic belonging to the preceding clause. There are types equivalent to both kinds of *yē*-clause, both Purpose and Content:

ka pu nar ka ba buoli m ye Tumtum na [for *Tumtumna*]

kà pū nár kà bà búòlì_∅ m yē Túm-tūmna +∅.

and **NEG.IND must and 3PL call:PFV 1SGO that work-worker:SG NEG.**

"and ought not to be called an apostle" (1 Cor 15:9)

M tēñ'ēs kà nīgí lā ń̀b̀ìd nē.

1SG think:PFV and cow:PL ART chew:IPFV FOC.

"I think the cows are eating." WK

In addition, *kà*-clauses may be Supplement Clauses [31.3], attached to a preceding NP anchor in the main clause with a quasi-relative sense. They precede any main clause Negative Clitic (again, see [35.2] on Negative Raising):

M̄ dāa p̄ ŋyē dāy lá kà ò á ná'abā +∅.
1SG TNS NEG.IND see:PFV man:SG ART and 3HU COP chief:SG NEG.
 "I didn't see the man as a chief." KT

Lì k̄ mān bīg kà fù ñwé'ē +∅.
3NH NEG.BE 1SG.CNTR child:SG and 2SG beat:PFV NEG.
 "It's not my child that you've beaten."

Li lem ka' fun yel si'el la zug, ka ti niŋ o yaddaa.
Lì lèm k̄ fún yèl sī'əl lā zúg kà
3NH again NEG.BE 2SG:COMP say:PFV INDF.NH ART upon and
tì níŋ-ò_∅ yàddáa +∅.
1PL do:PFV 3HUO assent NEG.
 "It is no longer because of what you said that we believe in him." (Jn 4:42)

Kà also introduces clauses with main-clause structural features which are not subordinate by the criterion of Negative Prosodic Clitic placement. This use of *kà* to coordinate semantically and structurally main clauses is notably characteristic of narrative [30.3.2], where clause after clause is introduced by *kà* so long as the sequence of events is proceeding in order. Surprisingly, **all clauses introduced by *kà* other than Content Clauses lack Independency Marking on the Verbal Predicator**, including all these cases where the clause is not subordinate.

So, for example

Apuzotyel da ane o saam biig ma'aa. Ka daar yinni ka biig la ne o saam zin'i sonsid. Ka biig la ti yel o saam ye ...

À-P̄-zót-yēl dá à né ò sàam bīg mà'aa.

PERS-NEG.IND-fear:IPFV-thing:SG TNS COP FOC 3HU father:SG child:SG only.

Kà dāar yīnní kà bīg lā né ò sàam zín'i_∅ sōñsid.

And day:SG one and child:SG ART with 3HU father:SG sit **SER converse:IPFV.**

Kà bīg lā tí yèl ò sàam yē ...

And child:SG ART afterwards say:PFV 3HU father:SG that...

"Fears-nothing was his father's only son. [And] one day the son and father were sitting talking. [And] then the son said to his father ..." KSS p35

where the second *kà* is preposing the time expression *dāar yīnní* "one day", where *kà*-preposing is a structural feature not found in subordinate clauses [34.2].

Historically, *kà* was perhaps always subordinating (compare *nē* "and" connecting NPs, which is essentially the same word as the preposition *nē* "with" [21.4].) The promotion of subordinate clauses to main-clause function is **Insubordination**, a concept introduced by Nicholas Evans in his grammar of the

typologically very unusual Australian language Kayardild. Evans 2009 defines insubordination as "the conventionalised main-clause use of what, on prima facie grounds, appear to be formally subordinate clauses."

The criterion of Negative Prosodic Clitic placement breaks down in cases where a subordinate clause has to be excluded from the scope of a negation in the main clause, which can give a spurious appearance of insubordination [35.3]:

Ka li pu yuuge ka o po'a me kena.

Kà lì p̄ yúugē +∅, kà ò p̄'ā mé kē nā.

And 3NH NEG.IND delay:PFV NEG, and 3HU wife:SG also come:PFV hither.

"Not much later, his wife came too." (Acts 5:7)

but *Man be ne ya ka li yuug.*

Mān bé né yà kà lì yúùg.

1SG.CNTR EXIST with 2PL and 3NH delay:PFV.

"I have been with you a long time." (Jn 14:9)

With a contrast such as

Ò vùl tìim kà ò nóbùr dā zábē +∅.

3HU swallow:PFV medicine and 3HU leg:SG NEG.IMP fight:PFV NEG.

"She drank medicine so her leg wouldn't hurt." (*dā* negative Imperative)

Ò vùl tìim kà ò nóbùr p̄ zábē +∅.

3HU swallow:PFV medicine and 3HU leg:SG NEG.IND fight:PFV NEG.

"She drank medicine and her leg didn't hurt." (*p̄* negative Indicative)

it is tempting to interpret the second construction as parallel to the first, with both containing a subordinate clause, expressing respectively purpose and consequence. However, I could not elicit any sentences like

?*Ò p̄ nū dāam kà ò zūg p̄ zábē +∅.*

3HU NEG.IND drink:PFV beer and 3HU head:SG NEG.IND fight:PFV NEG.

"He didn't drink beer and so his head didn't hurt."

but only sentences with the Negative Clitic occurring after each clause, as in

Ò p̄ nū dāamm +∅ kà ò zūg p̄ zábē +∅.

3HU NEG.IND drink:PFV beer NEG and 3HU head:SG NEG.IND fight:PFV NEG.

"He didn't drink beer and his head didn't hurt."

Accordingly, the construction is simply a mini-narrative and the second clause is Sequential [30.3.2](#).

In

Amaa Wina'am keya ka ya a noor yinni ne Yesu Kiristo.

Àmáa Wínà'am ké yá kà yà á nōɔr yīnní nē Yesu Kiristo.

But God cause:PFV INDEP and 2PL COP mouth:SG one with Jesus Christ.

"But God has caused you to be in agreement with Jesus Christ." (1 Cor 1:30)

the phrase-final perfective marker *yā* [24.6.2.1](#) appears before the clearly subordinate *kà*-clause after *kē*⁺ "cause" [31.2](#), but this represents extraposition [34.3](#) of the subordinate clause from the VP to clause-adjunct position, rather than coordination.

29.3 Conjunctions

No one group of words in Kusaal corresponds to English conjunctions.

The particles *kà* "and" and *yē* "that" need to be treated separately [29.1.2](#).

Some words translatable as English conjunctions are actually presubject clause-level adjuncts [30.1.1](#). The criterion for the label "conjunction" will be placement with respect to clause-linker particles: conjunctions either do not occur together with clause-linkers at all or precede them, whereas clause-level adjuncts follow. When there are no clause-linkers, conjunctions precede adjuncts. Thus

kōo "or" (← Hausa)

bēε "or"

never appear before or after *kà*, while

àmáa "but" (cf Arabic *أما* *ʔamma*: "as for")

hālí "until" (cf Arabic *حتى* *hatta*:); preposition [23.2](#)

àséeε "unless" (cf Hausa *sai*); preposition [23.2](#)

occur overwhelmingly more often before *kà* than after it. The 1996 NT version has 92 examples of the order *àmáa kà*, 99 of *hālí kà* and 49 of *àséeε kà*; for example

Ka sieba la' o. Amaa ka sieba yel ye ...

Kà sīɓba lá'·ò ∅. Àmáa kà sīɓba yél yē ...

And INDF.PL laugh:PFV 3HUO. But and INDF.PL say:PFV that...

"Some laughed at him, but others said..." (Acts 17:32.)

	<u>X alone</u>	<u>kà X</u>	<u>X kà</u>
<i>nānná-nā^{+/}</i>	33	28	4
<i>lín à sī'əm lā</i>	4	6	0

Similarly *sān-sī'ən lā* "at one time, once ..." is a presubject AdvP:

saŋsi'en la ya da ka' yinni ne Kiristo

sān-sī'ən lā, yà dà kà' yīnní nē Kiristo

time-INDF.NH:LOC ART 2PL TNS NEG.BE one with Christ

"at one time you were not one with Christ." (Eph 2:12)

Ka saŋsi'en la tinam meŋ da ane zon

Kà sān-sī'ən lā tīnám mēŋ dá à nē zōn.

And time-INDF.NH:LOC ART 1PL.CNTR self TNS COP FOC fool:PL

"and once we ourselves were fools" (Titus 3:3)

Constructions based on *zùgū* (with Apocope Blocking), like *dìn zùgū* "therefore" *bō zùgū* "because" are conjunctions like *kūv/bēε* "or" which do not usually occur with clause linkers at all. *Bō zùgū*, though stigmatised as an Anglicism in ILK, is in fact freely used in the NT version for "because."

Police gbáñ'ā m bō zùgú m ñwé' dāy lā.

Police seize:PFV 1SGO because 1SG hit:PFV man:SG ART.

"The police arrested me because I hit the man." (ILK)

However, the corresponding types with Apocope, like *àlá zùg* "therefore" *dìn zùg* "therefore", can be used *either* as *kūv/bēε*-type conjunctions or as AdvPs; in the latter case, if they precede the subject they must be *kà*-preposed because they do not express time or circumstance [22.1]. This results in a characteristic pattern: all combinations with *kà* occur *except* *kà X* (1996 NT again):

	<u>X alone</u>	<u>kà X</u>	<u>X kà</u>	<u>kà X kà</u>
<i>dìn zùgū</i>	208	2	0	0
<i>dìn zùg</i>	39	2	69	17

Unlike the NT, WK also treats *nānná-nā^{+/}* "now" in this way, accepting

Nānná-ná m á nē ná'áb.

"Now I am a chief."

Now-hither 1SG COP FOC chief:SG.

Nānná-ná kà m̀ á ná'àb. "Now I am a chief."
Now-hither and **1SG COP** chief:**SG**.

Kà nānná-ná kà m̀ á ná'àb. "And now I am a chief."
And now-hither and **1SG COP** chief:**SG**.

but rejecting

**Kà nānná-ná m̀ á ná'àb* "And now I am a chief."
**Kà nānná-ná m̀ á nē ná'àb.*

Conjunctions have no effect on clause structure or on the occurrence of tense marking in narrative [30.3.2]. A *subordinating* conjunction would therefore have to be regarded as preceding a Content Clause [31.4]. Usually the meaning is not consistent with subordination and the issue does not arise; sometimes, although the English translation suggests subordination, the Kusaal construction is shown to be otherwise by the position of the Negative Prosodic Clitic. Thus with *àsée* "unless":

O ku kp̄ii, asee o ti nye Zugsob Kiristo la.
Ò kù kp̄ii +∅, àsée ò ti ñyè Zūg-sób Kiristo lā.
3HU NEG.UNR die:**PFV NEG**, unless **3HU** afterwards see:**PFV** head-one:**SG** Christ **ART**.
"He will not die, without seeing the Lord's Christ." (Lk 2:26)

However, the preposition *wōv* "like" [23.1] may introduce formally subordinate clauses with Content/Main Clause features like focus-*nē*^{+/}:

ka tuumbe'ed ku len so'e ti wuu ti aa li yamugo.
kà tùm-bē'ed kú lēm sū'ú_tī wōv ti áá_lì yammugō +∅.
and work-bad:**PL NEG.UNR** again own **1PLO** like **1PL COP 3NH** slave:**SG NEG**.
"and that sin will not again own us as if we were its slave." (Rom 6:6)

M pian'adi ya wuu ya ane m biis.
M̀ p̄iáñ'adī_yá wōv yà á né m̄ biīs.
1SG speak:**IPFV 2PLO** like **2PL COP FOC 1SG** child:**PL**.
"I talk to you as if you were my children." (2 Cor 6:13)

Hālí "until" and *àsée* "unless, except for" [23.2] occur both as conjunctions and as prepositions, suggesting that these categories could be merged. *Nē* appears both as *nē* "with" and as "and" coordinating NPs [21.4], but cannot link clauses which have not first been nominalised; however, conjunctions are in any case a separate category from clause linker particles like *kà* "and."

30 Main Clauses

30.1 Main Clause Structure

Main clauses show numerous structural possibilities which are not found in subordinate clauses other than Content Clauses, which are structurally identical, and regarded as downranked main clauses [31.4]. Both clause types display characteristic Independency Marking on the first Verbal Predicator [24.6]. They may contain Non-verbal Predicators [27] or even lack a predicator altogether [30.2.4]. They can be focussed or clefted or prepose elements with *kà*; Focus-*nē*^{+/} occurs at most once in a main or content clause, following a Verbal Predicator, before a verb complement or adjunct, or clause-finally [34]. Main and Content Clauses may contain time, circumstance or reason-why adjuncts before the subject.

30.1.1 Clause-Level Adjuncts Preceding the Subject

Main Clauses and Content Clauses with a verbal predicate may contain adjuncts which precede the subject and follow any clause linker particle. Such adjuncts may only express time, circumstance or reason, not place or manner. AdvPs expressing place or manner can only be placed before the subject by preposing with *kà* [34.2]. Thus the AdvP may precede the subject in e.g.

Bēogú fù ná kūl.

Tomorrow 2SG UNR return.home:PFV.

"You're going home tomorrow." SB

but not in

**Mōgún mām bé.* for "I'm in the bush."

Grass:SG:LOC 1SG.CNTR EXIST.

which is corrected by WK to

Mōgún kà mām bé. "I'm in the bush."

Grass:SG:LOC and 1SG.CNTR EXIST.

Permissible pre-subject adjunct types may be any AdvPs or clauses expressing time, circumstances, or reason, such as *ñ*-Clauses, *sādigim*-clauses [33.1.1], AdvPs like *àlá zùg*, *dìn zúg* "therefore"; *lì ñyáʔan*^a "afterwards", *yàʔ*-clauses "if/when ...", *hālí* + *ñ*-Clause "although ...", "even though ...", *yāʔa* + NP "as for ...", *lín à sīʔəm lā* "as things stand", *àsīda* "truly."

Some AdvPs of this kind, like *ñ*-Clauses, *lì ñyáʔan*^a or *dìn zúg* may also occur preposed with *kà*; others, like *yàʔ*-clauses or *sādigím*-clauses, may not.

Pre-subject adjuncts are not followed by L Raising [10.1].

30.2 Clause Types

Main Clauses, along with the structurally similar Content Clauses, can be classified into declarative, interrogative and imperative types. Declarative main clauses are the unmarked default. Interrogatives comprise Content and Polar question types, and the Imperative type are commands. There are also minor clause types with Non-verbal Predicators or no predicator at all.

30.2.1 Content Questions

Content questions (except for *lì* [27]) contain an interrogative pronoun or determiner; the final word of the question appears as a LF with a tone perturbation due to the final Interrogative Prosodic Clitic [10.4.2].

There is no special interrogative word order; however if the interrogative word is the subject (or part of the subject NP) it is always *n*-focussed [34.1.2] when syntactically possible, and other interrogatives are very often also fronted with *kà* [34.2], obligatorily so in the case of *b̄* in the sense "why?" (compare the parallel construction with a demonstrative pronoun expressing a reason in *Dìn kà Kūsáàs yē ...* "That is why the Kusaasi say ..." KSS p16.)

Ánʔʔnì_ø ñyē bígà +ø?

Who SER see:PFV child:SG CQ?

"Who has seen a child?"

Fù b̄ʔd b̄ +ø?

2SG want what CQ?

"What do you want?"

B̄ kà fù kúmmà +ø?

What and 2SG weep:IPFV CQ?

"Why are you crying?"

For "which?" the short demonstratives are used:

Lìne?

"Which one?"

Nìf-kánè?

"Which eye?"

Nìn-kánè?

"Which person?"

Fù b̄ʔd línè +ø?

2SG want DEM.NH CQ?

"Which do you want?"

Note the *short* final LF vowels [9.2]; these are content, not polar, questions. Used after a cb, as a dependent pronoun, *bō*⁺ is a determiner: "what?":

<i>nāʔ-bó</i>	"what cow?" WK DK (not <i>náaf bó</i> , only possible in the sense "What, of a cow's?")
<i>bò-bō</i>	"what goat?"
<i>dā-bó</i>	"what beer?"

Bò- can be used as a pre-modifier, querying a description: "what sort of ...?"

Fù túm bó-tùuma +∅?
2SG work:IPFV what-work CQ?
"What kind of work do you do?"

Bo yir ka ya na me' n tis mane?
Bò-yír kà yà ná mē n tís mánè +∅?
What-house:SG and 2PL UNR build:PFV SER give:PFV 1SG.CNTR CQ?
"What kind of house will you build for me?" (Acts 7:49)

The compound *bò-būudi*⁺ "what kind of?" can be used as a post-determiner:

<i>nāʔ-bó-būudi</i>	"what kind of cow?"
<i>dā-bó-būudi</i>	"what kind of beer?"

Note the idiom:

Fù á nē bó- būudi +∅? "What tribe do you belong to?"
2SG COP FOC what sort CQ?

The focus particle *nē*^{+/} may not be used in content questions; this applies also to aspect-focus *nē*^{+/}.

Dāy lā ñyé bīg. "The man has seen a child."
Man:SG ART see:PFV child:SG.

Ánóʔonì_∅ ñyē bígà +∅?
Who SER see:PFV child:SG CQ?
"Who has seen a child?"

Dāy lā ñyé àn'òné +∅?

Man:SG ART see:PFV who CQ?

"Whom did the man see?"

or *Àn'òné kà dāy lā ñyé +∅?*

Who and man:SG ART see:PFV CQ?

"Whom did the man see?"

Bà kùud nē būs.

"They're killing goats."

3PL kill:IPFV FOC goat:PL.

Àn'òné_∅ kùud búusè +∅?

Who SER kill:IPFV goat:PL CQ?

"Who is killing goats?"

Bounded Imperfective sense without *nē*.

Àn'òné bīgi_∅ ñwá +∅?

"Whose child is this?"

Who child:SG SER this CQ?

Bó kà fù kúesida +∅?

"What are you selling?"

What and 2SG sell:IPFV CQ?

Bounded Imperfective possible without *nē*.

Fù bódòd b́ +∅?

"What do you want?"

2SG want what CQ?

Fù bódòd nē b́ +∅?

"What do you want it with?"

2SG want with what CQ?

WK confirms that *nē* must be "with" here.

M á nē dāy.

"I am a man."

1SG COP FOC man:SG.

M á b́ +∅?

"What am I?"

1SG COP what CQ?

Fù wá'e yáa +∅?

"Where are you going?"

2SG go where CQ?

Bùgúm lā yít yáa nì ná +∅?

Fire ART emerge:IPFV where LOC hither CQ?

"Where is the light coming from?"

30.2.2 Polar Questions

Polar questions are of two types. One is exactly like a statement but with final LF and tone changes due to the Interrogative Prosodic Clitic; in this case the neutralisation of LF-final vowel length is to long [9.2]. There are no restrictions on focus *nē*. The answer expected is *ēñ* [30.2.4].

Dāy lā ñyé bígà +∅? "Has the man seen a child?"
 Man:SG ART see:PFV child:SG PQ?

Bà kùvd nē búvsèe +∅? "Are they killing goats?"
 3PL kill:IPFV FOC goat:PL PQ?

Ṁ á nē dáùv +∅? "Am I a man?"
 1SG COP FOC man:SG PQ?

Fò p̄ wúmmàa +∅ +∅? "Don't you understand?"
 2SG NEG.IND hear:IPFV NEG PQ? (expects *ēñ*, here "no")

Note that the Negative Prosodic Clitic **NEG** is effectively lost before the Interrogative Prosodic Clitic **CQ** or **PQ**.

The second type of polar question follows the ordinary statement form with either *béé* (expecting disagreement, with *áyì*) or *kúv* (expecting agreement, with *ēñ*.) NT rarely uses *kūv* in this way. These are evidently the words for "or", with ellipsis of the rest of a tag question "or isn't it?" etc; such constructions are common in local languages, and indeed "or?" is used like this in local English.

Dāy lā ñyé bíg kúv +∅?
 Man:SG ART see:PFV child:SG or PQ?
 "Has the man seen a child?" (I expect so.)

Dāy lā ñyé bíg béé +∅?
 Man:SG ART see:PFV child:SG or PQ?
 "Has the man seen a child?" (I expect not.)

30.2.3 Commands

For indirect commands, see [31.2](#), [31.4.1](#).

In a direct command the subject is 2nd person; in accordance with a cross-linguistically common pattern, a singular pronoun is deleted, and a plural subject pronoun is placed immediately after the verb, in Kusaal assuming the Liaison enclitic form ^{ya}; for the realisation of ^{ya} see [9.3.1](#) and [9.3.1.2](#). Thus

Fù gós bīg lā. "You (sg) have looked at the child."
2SG look.at:PFV child:SG ART.

Yà gós bīg lā. "You (pl) have looked at the child."
2PL look.at:PFV child:SG ART.

but *Gòsim bīg lā!* "Look (sg) at the child!"
Look.at:IMP child:SG ART!

Gòsimī_ ∅ bīg lā! "Look (pl) at the child!"
Look.at:IMP 2PLS child:SG ART!

Gòsim tēŋɪn! "Look (sg) down!"
Look:IMP ground:SG:LOC!

Gòsimī_ ∅ tēŋɪn! "Look (pl) down!"
Look:IMP 2PLS ground:SG:LOC!

Dā gōs tēŋɪné +∅!
NEG.IMP look:PFV ground:SG:LOC NEG!
 "Don't (sg) look down!"

Dā gōsi_ ∅ tēŋɪné +∅!
NEG.IMP look:PFV 2PLS ground:SG:LOC NEG!
 "Don't (pl) look down!"

Dā gōse +∅! "Don't (sg) look."
NEG.IMP look:PFV NEG!

Dā gōsi_ yá +∅! "Don't (pl) look."
NEG.IMP look:PFV 2PLS NEG!

No pronoun changes occur after presubject elements, e.g *yà'*-clauses 32.1:

Fu ya'a mor po'a, fun da mood ye fu bas oo.

Fù yá' m̄r p̄'ā, fūn dā m̄ɔd yé fù bás-òò +∅.

2SG if have wife:**SG**, **2SG NEG.IMP** struggle:**IPFV** that **2SG** abandon:**PFV:3HUO NEG**.

"If you have a wife, don't try to leave her." (1 Cor 7:27)

Nor do they occur in quoted direct commands within indirect speech 31.4.1, even when the addressee is the same as in the original utterance:

Ò yèl yé bà gòsım tēɣın.

3HU say:**PFV** that **3PL** look:**IMP** ground:**SG:LOC**.

"He said to them: Look down!" WK

Ò yèl yé fù gòsım tēɣın.

3HU say:**PFV** that **2SG** look:**IMP** ground:**SG:LOC**.

"He said to you **SG**: Look down!"

Ò yèl yé yà gòsım tēɣın.

3HU say:**PFV** that **2PL** look:**IMP** ground:**SG:LOC**.

"He said to you **PL**: Look down!"

However, some speakers do still keep the enclitic *y^a* after the verb even when there is a pronoun subject before it:

Ò yèl yé bà gòsımī_ ∅ tēɣın.

3HU say:**PFV** that **3PL** look:**IMP** **2PLS** ground:**SG:LOC**.

"He said to them: Look down!" WK

Similarly in a serial-verb construction, where WK treats *y^a* as a pronoun and, consistently with this, does not repeat it:

Kèmī_ ∅ nā n gōs!

Come:**IMP 2PLS** hither **SER** look:**PFV!**

"Come (ye) and look!"

such speakers have

Kèmī_ ∅ nā n gōsı_ ∅!

Come:**IMP 2PLS** hither **SER** look:**PFV 2PLS!**

"Come (ye) and look!"

For these speakers ^{ya} is no longer a pronoun but an imperative plural marker.

Direct commands which consist only of a verb, or a verb with a following enclitic subject pronoun, occasionally end in a Long Form like that preceding a Negative Prosodic Clitic:

<i>Gòsimā!</i>	"Look!"
<i>Gòsimīyá!</i>	"Look! (plural)"

30.2.4 Clauses without Predicators

Some particles and phrases occur characteristically as complete utterances:

<i>Tò.</i>	"OK."
<i>Báp.</i>	"Wallop!"
<i>N fá!</i>	"Well done!"

Some of these are onomatopoeic; others are widely shared among local languages.

"Yes" is *Ēēñ*; "No" is *áyì*. As in many languages, the reply agrees or disagrees with the question, so that if the question is negative, the usage differs from English:

<i>Lì nàa néé +∅?</i> 3NH finish:PFV FOC PQ?	"Is it finished?"
<i>Ēēñ.</i>	"Yes."
<i>Áyì.</i>	"No"
<i>Lì pū nāée +∅ +∅?</i> 3NH NEG.IND finish:PFV NEG PQ?	"Isn't it finished?"
<i>Ēēñ.</i>	"No."
<i>Áyì.</i>	"Yes."

Vocative phrases usually either precede a main clause, or stand alone.

Vocatives may take the form of NPs followed by the Vocative Prosodic Clitic 9.2:

<i>M̃ bīga +∅!</i> 1SG child:SG VOC!	"My child!"
<i>M̃ bīise +∅!</i> 1SG child:PL VOC!	"My children!"

M̄ pɥʔā né m̄ bīse +∅!
1SG wife:**SG** with **1SG** child:**PL** **VOC!**
 "My wife and my children!"

M̄ dīammā +∅, bó kà fù kúesida +∅?
1SG parent.in.law:**SG** **VOC**, what and **2SG** sell:**IPFV** **CQ?**
 "Madam [37.1], what are you selling?"

Vocative phrases often end in *ñwà* "this":

<i>Bīs ñwá!</i>	[bi:sa]	"Children!"	[9.1.1].
<i>Pɥʔā ñwá!</i>	[pʰɥʔawǎ]	"Woman!"	
<i>Zōn ñwá</i>	[zɔn:a]	"Fools!"	

This structure is sometimes simply exclamatory:

ñwāamis ñwá! [wǎ:misa] "Monkeys!" (From a passenger in my car,
 on suddenly catching sight of some.)

30.3 Insubordinate *kà*-Clauses

30.3.1 Coordination of Main Clauses

Coordinated main clauses agree in type as declarative, interrogative or imperative. They are coordinated with *kà* "and", *kōv* "or", *bēε* "or". It is possible to regard *kōv bēε* as conjunctions, but the position with *kà* is more complex because it can occur *alongside* conjunctions. Even in coordinating function, *kà* introduces an *Insubordinate* clause *without* Independency Marking on the Verbal Predicator [29.2].

Coordination of statements with *kà* outside of narrative has a similar sense to English *and* (though *kà ... lēε* is "but" [24.7.1].)

Coordination of commands with *kà* is quite common:

Pòʔusim À-Wīn, kà púʔòs À-Bōgvr.
 Greet:**IMP** **PERS**-Awini, and greet:**PFV** **PERS**-Abugri.
 "Greet Awini, and greet Abugri."

Coordination of questions is not common. It is seen in alternative questions like

Fù búg néε +∅? Bēε fù géèñm yā kúv +∅?
2SG get.drunk:**PFV** **FOC** **PQ?** Or **2SG** go.mad:**PFV** **INDEP** or **PQ?**
 "Are you drunk? Or have you gone mad?"

30.3.2 Narrative and Sequential Clauses

Kusaal narrative joins clause after clause with *kà*, corresponding to *zero* in English. Such clauses are again Insubordinate, but *without* Independency Marking on the Verbal Predicator [29.2]. Tense marking in narrative is the norm for all main clauses without *kà* unless they contain an explicit time expression; clauses introduced by *kà*, on the other hand, usually only have tense marking to signal that they disrupt the narrative flow, as with flashbacks or descriptive passages¹⁷. Kusaal narrative favours long sequences of such **Sequential *kà*-clauses** with Event Perfective aspect without tense marking, which carry on the sequence of events narrated in order.

Ka Jesus n daa a yuma pii ne ayi la, ba ken maluŋ la wuu ban yiti niŋid si'em la. Ka maluŋ la dabasa naae la, ka ba lebid n kun. Ka Jesus kpelim Jerusalem teŋin. Ka o ba' ne o ma daa pu baŋ ye o kpelim yaa. Ba daa ten'es ye o bene ne ba teŋ dim la, ka keŋ ...

Kà Jesus ò dā́ á yúmà pī́ né àyí lā́, bà kḗn málòŋ lā́
 And Jesus **COMP TNS COP** year:PL ten with **NUM:two ART, 3PL go:IPFV sacrifice:SG ART**
wū́w bā́n ñyḗé tí niŋid sī́ʔəm lā́. Kà málòŋ lā́ dábɪ̀sà_ø
 like **3PL:COMP usually do:IPFV INDF.ADV ART**. And sacrifice:SG ART day:PL **COMP**
nā́e lā́, kà bà lébìd n kū́n. Kà Jesus kpé̀lìm
 finish:PFV **ART**, and **3PL return:IPFV SER return.home:IPFV**. And Jesus remain:PFV
Jerusalem téŋī́n. Kà ò bā́ʔ né ò mà dā́a pū́
 Jerusalem land:SG:LOC. And **3HU father:SG with 3HU mother:SG TNS NEG.IND**
bā́ŋ yé ò kpé̀lìm yā́a +ø; bà dā́a tḗŋʔes yé ò bè nḗ
 realise:PFV that **3HU remain:PFV INDEP NEG; 3PL TNS think:PFV that 3HU EXIST FOC**
né bà tḗŋ-dìm lā́, kà kḗŋ ...
 with **3PL land-individual.PL ART**, and go:PFV...

"When Jesus **was** twelve years old, they went to Jerusalem to sacrifice as they were accustomed to. When the days of sacrifice were over, they were going home, but Jesus remained behind in Jerusalem. But his father and mother **didn't realise** that he had stayed; they **thought** that he was with their fellow-countrymen. And they went ..." (Lk 2:42-44, 1976)

17) It is quite common in Africa for non-initial clauses in narrative to resemble subordinate clauses: Hausa narrative, for example, uses the Focus Perfective, otherwise found in relative clauses and in clefting (Jaggar 2001 pp161ff pp526ff), and the Kordofanian Talodi language Lumun uses *á* "and, while" followed by the Dependent Perfective, used elsewhere in purpose clauses and in coordinated commands following the Imperative (Smits pp363, 652.) Consistent narrative tense-marking behaviour of this kind is not seen in Mooré or Dagbani, which seemingly also lack subordinate-type tonal marking following a coordinating clause linker [29.2].

Most clauses without tense marking in narrative thus show initial *kà*, but some begin with a *h̄*-Clause, itself usually without tense-marking, *followed* by *kà*. Note these patterns of tense marking with *h̄*-Adverbial Clauses preceding main clauses (from Mark, Luke, and Acts 1-14, 1976 version):

Tense Markers		A, B	A <i>kà</i> B	<i>kà</i> A, B	<i>kà</i> A <i>kà</i> B
A	B				
-	-	7	23	40	85
-	+	2	0	4	2
+	-	0	7	3	17
+	+	11	2	11	0

Absent tense marking in *h̄*-Clauses within narrative is expected, because they mark tense relative to the narrative timeline rather than absolutely (see below.) Absent tense marking in A-*kà*-B type main clauses probably signifies that even tense-unmarked *h̄*-Clauses suffice to licence implicit tense marking in main clauses [24.3.3].

Conjunctions precede the linking *kà* of Sequential Clauses [29.3], and have no effect on the tense marking behaviour:

Ka sieba la' o. Amaa ka sieba yel ye ...

Kà sīāba lá'ò_ ∅. Àmáa kà sīāba yél yē ...

And **INDF.PL** laugh:**PFV 3HUO**. But and **INDF.PL** say:**PFV** that...

"Some laughed at him, but others said..." (Acts 17:32.)

Ka o ma daa a siakid. Amaa ka o saam daa a Greek nid.

Kà ò mà dāa á sjākíd. Àmáa kà ò sàam dāa á

And **3HU** mother:**SG TNS COP** believer:**SG**. But and **3HU** father:**SG TNS COP**

Greek *níd*.

Greek person:**SG**.

"His mother was a believer, but his father was a Greek." (Acts 16:1, 1976.)

"Resumptive" *yē* in indirect speech also has no effect on the licencing of the dropping of explicit tense marking in *kà*-clauses in narrative [31.4.3].

A subject pronoun can be ellipled, not only after *kà* coordinating clauses when the preceding clause has a subject with the same reference, but also after *kà* when it is preposing an *h̄*-Adverbial Clause with a subject with the same reference

[29.1.4.2]:

Ban da dol wa'e la, ka nye dau ...

Bán dà dāl_ ∅ wá'e lā, kà ñyē dāy ...

3PL:COMP TNS follow **SER** go **ART**, and see:**PFV** man:**SG**...

"As they were going together, (they) saw a man ..." (Mt 27:32, 1976)

The possible occurrence of pre-subject adjuncts demonstrates that Sequential Clauses are not only semantically but structurally main clauses, not subordinate. Sequential Clauses also differ from subordinate clauses in permitting the particle *nē* in its constituent-focussing sense.

Very long descriptions in NT sometimes change to Sequential Clauses, but in general the pattern is consistent. In the genealogy of Jesus in Luke 3:23ff, which moves backwards in time, there are dozens of consecutive examples of

kà X sààm dá à nē Y "and X's father **was** Y"
and X father:**SG TNS COP FOC** Y

whereas the genealogy in Matthew 1.1ff has dozens of clauses of the pattern

kà X dɔ́'á Y "and X beget Y."
and X beget:**PFV** Y

Note the "aside" *Ò mà dá à nē ...* in

Ka Jese du'a na'ab David. Ka David du'a Solomon. O ma dá ane Uria po'a. Ka Solomon du'a Rehoboam.

Kà Jese dɔ́'á ná'áb David. Kà David dɔ́'á Solomon. Ò mà

And Jesse beget:**PFV** king:**SG** David. And David beget:**PFV** Solomon. **3HU** mother:**SG** *dá à nē Uria pɔ́'á. Kà Solomon dɔ́'á Rehoboam...*

TNS COP FOC Uriah wife:**SG**. And Solomon beget:**PFV** Rehoboam...

"And Jesse beget King David. And David beget Solomon. His mother **was** Uriah's wife. And Solomon beget Rehoboam..." (Mt 1:6-7)

Ñ-Clauses normally mark tense independently and absolutely:

Ōn dāa ñyēt súṅā ́n dāa á bí-līa láa +∅?

3HU.CNTR TNS see:**IPFV** good:**ADV** **3HU:COMP TNS** **COP** child-baby:**SG** **ART** **PQ?**

"Did he see well when he was a baby?"

but within a series of Sequential Clauses in narrative they mark tense relative to the narrative timeline:

Kà bà ñyē dáy-kàni_ ∅ sà kū ná'áb lā.

And **3PL** see:**PFV** man-**DEM.SG COMP TNS** kill:**PFV** chief:**SG ART**.

"And they saw the man who killed the chief the day before."

Kà bà níj ón pà' yèli_ bā sī'əm lā.

And **3PL** do:**PFV 3HU:COMP TNS** say:**PFV 3PLO INDF.ADV ART**.

"And they did what he'd told them earlier that day."

These principles regarding tense marking in narrative are less reliably seen in KSS than in the NT, but are still evident.

30.3.2.1 Aspect

The typical aspect seen in narration is naturally the Event Perfective. Asked to comment on the acceptability of *kà*-clauses without tense marking presented in isolation, informants interpreted them as narrative Sequential Clauses, and rejected interpretations with other aspects. The particle *nē* was taken as necessarily marking constituent focus rather than aspect:

Lì bòdìg nē. "It's lost."

3NH get.lost:**PFV FOC**.

Kà lì bódìg nē.

And **3NH** get.lost:**PFV FOC**.

Rejected by WK as ill-formed; accepted after some thought by DK, explaining the expression as contradicting "someone hid it", i.e. as contrastive VP focus.

Bà kùdìg nē. "They're old."

3PL get.old:**PFV FOC**.

Kà bà kúdìg nē. "And they're old."

And **3PL** get.old:**PFV FOC**.

Rejected by WK; accepted by DK with the gloss "You're saying they're old when he promised to give you new ones" i.e. contrastive focus on the VP.

With any tense marker, the aspectual meaning becomes freely acceptable to WK and DK, because the clause is no longer taken as Sequential:

Kà lì dāa bódìg nē. "And it was lost."

And **3NH TNS** get.lost:**PFV FOC**.

Kà bà sá kùdɪg nē.

Kà bà dāa kúdìg nē.

Kà bà dá kùdɪg nē.

all acceptable as "and they were old."

In an appropriate context in actual texts, other aspects are perfectly possible:

Ka ba due keŋ. Ka ban ken la, Jesus gbisid ne.

Kà bà dūe_ ∅ kēŋ. Kà bán kēn lā, Jesus gbīsɪd nē.

And 3PL arise:PFV SER go:PFV. And 3PL:COMP go:IMPF ART, Jesus sleep:IPFV FOC.

"So they started out. As they were travelling, Jesus was sleeping."

(Lk 8:22-23, 1976; no *nē* in the 1996 version.)

Ka on kpen' la, o yeli ba ye [...]. Ka ba la'ad o.

Kà ɔn kpèñ' lā, ò yélì_ bā yē [...]. Kà bà lá'ad-ō_ ∅.

And 3HU:COMP enter:PFV ART, 3HU say:PFV 3PLO that ... and 3PL laugh:IPFV 3HUO.

"After he came in, he said to them [...]. But they laughed (ipfv) at him."

(Mk 5:39-40)

Even in narrative, *kà* can mark coordination rather than sequence. The tense marker of the preceding clause is still not repeated, but again any aspect is possible:

Ba da pu mor biiga, bozugo Elizabet da ane kundu'ar, ka babayi la wusa me kudigne.

Bà dà pū mōr bīiga +∅, bōzúgū Elizabet dá à nē

3PL TNS NEG.IND have child:SG NEG, because Elizabeth TNS COP FOC

kúndù'ar kà bà bàyí lā wūsa mé kùdɪg nē.

barren.woman:SG and 3PL NUM:two ART all also get.old:PFV FOC.

"They had no child, because Elizabeth was barren and they were both old."

(Lk 1:7)

Ka siakidib wusa bane be Judea ne Galilee ne Samaria daa mor sumalisim. Ka ba kal paasid. Ka ba yadda nijir nobugid.

Kà sjākɪdɪb wūsa bānì_ ∅ bé Judea nē Galilee nē Samaria

And believer:PL all DEM.PL COMP EXIST Judea with Galilee with Samaria

dāa mōr sū-málsim. Kà bà kāl páasid. Kà bà

TNS have heart-sweetness. And 3PL number:SG increase:IPVF. And 3PL

yàddā-níjìr nōbɪgíd.

assent-doing grow:IPVF.

"All the believers who were in Judea and Galilee and Samaria were joyful. Their numbers were increasing and their faith was growing." (Acts 9:31, 1976)

31 Subordinate Clauses after *kà* and *yē*

31.1 Subordinate Clauses and Independency Marking

Both linker particles *kà* and *yē* can introduce subordinate clauses of several kinds. These subordinate clauses appear last within their main clauses, normally just before any Negative Prosodic Clitic [35.3], and can be verb phrase complements or clause adjuncts. Particular verbs may prefer or require a complement clause with one or the other particle, and the Supplement Clause type always uses *kà*, but in other cases the two particles are often equivalent.

The major structural distinction among subordinate clauses introduced by linker particles is between Content Clauses and all the rest. Content Clauses are downranked main clauses [29.2], showing Independency Marking and independent tense marking on the Verbal Predicator, and permitting the full range of focus and foregrounding constructions. Other clause types lack Independency Marking, do not allow focus or foregrounding, and show tense marking only if the main clause itself is ellipted:

Ò sáa zàb nàʔab lā.

3HU TNS fight:PFV chief:SG ART.

"He should fight the chief tomorrow."

In addition, *kà* may be coordinating instead of subordinating [29.2] [30.3]. In some cases the construction is formally coordinating even though the sense is subordinating. In the same way even conjunctions which are not formally subordinating can have meanings like English subordinating conjunctions [29.3].

Clauses of the type introduced by linker particles are themselves coordinated with *kà* "and" *kūv/bēε* "or", not *nē* like *ñ*-Clauses:

Ì bóòd yē dāy lā kēŋ dáʔān, kà pūʔā lā dūg dīib.

1SG want that man:SG ART go:PFV market:SG:LOC, and woman:SG ART cook:PFV food.

"I want the man to go to market and the woman to cook food." WK

Li nar ka on du ka man sie.

Lì nàr kà ōn dū, kà mān sīe.

3NH must and **3HU.CNTR** rise:PFV, and **1SG.CNTR** lower:PFV.

"He must increase and I must decrease." (Jn 3:30)

31.2 Purpose Clauses

Purpose Clauses can be introduced by either *yē* or *kà*. They have Imperative Mood. There is no Independency Marking and hence no special *-m^a* flexion of Variable Verbs, but the mood is apparent in the use of *dā*, not *pū* or *kù*, as the negation particle.

Purpose Clauses may appear as main clause adjuncts, and are then most often introduced by *yē*:

Bà tìs·ō̄ ∅ kúʔəm yé ò nū.

3PL give:PFV **3HUO** water that **3HU** drink:PFV.

"They gave him water to drink. ("So that he might drink it.")

M̄ ná tī̄ f tīm yé fù zàbır bás.

1SG UNR give:PFV **2SGO** medicine that **2SG** pain go.away:PFV.

"I'll give you medicine so your pain will go away."

M̄ ná tī̄ f tīm yé fù nīf dā zábē +∅.

1SG UNR give:PFV **2SGO** medicine that **2SG** eye:SG **NEG.IMP** fight:PFV **NEG.**

"I'll give you medicine so your eye won't hurt."

Kà + Purpose Clause is also possible as an adjunct:

M na niŋ wala ka nye faangire?

M̄ ná nīŋ wēlá kà ñyē fāaŋgrè +∅?

1SG UNR do:PFV how and find:PFV salvation **CQ?**

"What must I do to get saved?" (Acts 16:30)

Purpose Clauses frequently appear as complements of particular verbs. Some such verbs prefer either *yē* or *kà* specifically; thus *bòòd^a* "want" takes *yē* + Purpose Clause. Answers to *Fù bòòd b́?* "What do you want?" might be

M̄ bòòd yé ò kūl.

1SG want that **3HU** return.home:PFV.

"I want him to go home."

M̄ bòòd yé m̄ kūl.

1SG want that **1SG** return.home:PFV.

"I want [me] to go home."

M̄ bɔ̀d̄d̄ yé fù dā kūle +∅.
1SG want that 2SG NEG.IMP return.home:PFV NEG.
 "I want you not to go home."

cf *M̄ pō bɔ̀d̄d̄ yé fù kūle* +∅.
1SG NEG.IND want that 2SG return.home:PFV NEG.
 "I don't want you to go home."

Verbs expressing necessity or permission, e.g. *nār^a* "be obliged to" (negated "be obliged not to"); *mār sūer* "be allowed to" (literally "have a way [to]") usually take *yē* when used personally:

Fù pō nār yé fù níŋ àlāa +∅.
2SG NEG.IND must that 2SG do:PFV ADV:thus NEG.
 "You're not allowed to do that."

Yà mór sūer yé yà kūl.
2PL have way:SG that 2PL return.home:PFV.
 "You may go home."

With *impersonal* expressions of this type *kà* may however be used instead of *yē*:

Lì nār yé/kà fù kūl.
3NH must that/and 2SG return.home:PFV.
 "You must go home."

Lì pō nār yé fù kūle +∅.
3NH NEG.IND must that 2SG return.home:PFV NEG.
 or *Lì pō nār kà fù kūle* +∅.
3NH NEG.IND must and 2SG return.home:PFV NEG.
 "You must not go home."

Sūer bé yé/kà tì kūl.
Way:SG EXIST that/and 1PL return.home:PFV.
 "We may go home." ("There's a way that ...")

Never **Lì pō nār kà fù kūl* [29.2]. So too with *lì à [nē] tīlās* "it is necessary", either particle may be used:

Li a tilas ye m keŋ Jerusalem.

Lì à tīlās yé m̄ kēŋ Jerusalem.

3NH COP necessity that **1SG** go:PFV Jerusalem.

"I must go to Jerusalem." (Mt 16:21)

Li ane tilas ka m niŋid ala.

Lì à nē tīlās kà m̄ níŋid àlá.

3NH COP FOC necessity and **1SG** do:IPFV **ADV**:thus.

"I must do that." (1 Cor 9:16)

Certain verbs require a Purpose Clause introduced by *kà* as complement. Thus *mīt* "see that it doesn't happen that ...", a defective negative verb used only in the imperative [35.1.1]:

Mit ka ya maal ya tuumsuma nidib tuon ye ba gosi yaa.

Mìt kà yà máal yà tùm-sùma nīdīb tūn

NEG.cause.IMP and **2PL** make:PFV **2PL** deed-good:PL person:PL front

yé bà gōsì_ yáa +∅.

that **3PL** look.at:PFV **2PLO** **NEG**.

"See that you don't do your good deeds in front of people so they'll look at you." (Mt 6:1, 1976)

So too *kē*⁺ "let, leave off" in the sense "let, cause that" which makes periphrastic causatives.

Tì ké kà bà lébìsì_ tī.

1PL cause:PFV and **3PL** reply:PFV **1PLO**.

"We made them reply to us."

Ò kè kà bà pū kūle +∅.

3HU cause:PFV and **3PL** **NEG.IND** return.home:PFV **NEG**.

"He caused them not to go home." (Indicative)

The irregular imperative *kèl*^a, followed by a *kà*-clause with Imperative Mood, creates a way of expressing indirect commands, including first and third persons:

Kèl kà ò gōs tēŋɪn.

Cause:IMP and **3HU** look:PFV ground:SG:LOC.

"Let him look down."

Dā ké kà dābíàm béē +∅!

NEG.IMP cause:**PFV** and fear **EXIST NEG.**

"Don't be afraid." ("Let fear not exist.")

Kèl [or Kèlí_ ∅] kà tì pú'ùs Wínà'am.

Cause:**IMP** cause:**IMP 2PLS** and **1PL** greet:**PFV** God.

"Let us praise God."

In informal speech *kèl kà ...* is often ellipted [29.1.4](#), leaving the lack of Independency Marking as the only sign that the clause is an indirect command:

Ò gōs tēŋɪn.

3HU look:**PFV** ground:**SG LOC.**

"Let her look down."

(No Independency Marking, so no tone overlay on *gōs*.)

Tì pú'ùs Wínà'am.

1PL greet:**PFV** God.

"Let us praise God."

(homophonous with "We thank God.")

Ì gōs nīf lā.

1SG look.at:**PFV** eye:**SG ART.**

"Let me look at the eye."

(No tone overlay on *gōs*.)

cf *Ì gós nīf lā.*

1SG look.at:**PFV** eye:**SG ART.**

"I've looked at the eye."

(Independency marked: tone overlay on *gós*.)

Ì díŋɪnè +∅?

1SG lie.down:**PFV** **PQ?**

"Am I to lie down?"

(No Independency Marking: no impv *-m^a*)

Tì záb ná'áb lā.

1PL fight:**PFV** chief:**SG ART.**

"We've fought the chief."

(Independency: Tone overlay on *záb* seen in the following L raising [24.6.1.1](#))

Tì záb nà'ab lā.

1PL fight:**PFV** chief:**SG ART.**

"We should fight the chief."

(No Independency: No tone overlay on *záb*.)

Another tonal minimal pair with and without Independency Marking:

Ò zàb ná'áb lā.

3HU fight:**PFV** chief:**SG ART.**

"He's fought the chief."

but *Ò záb nà'ab lā.*

3HU fight:**PFV** chief:**SG ART.**

"He should fight the chief."

(No Independency: No tone overlay on *záb*.)

Absence of Independency Marking here forces interpretation as a subordinate clause, with an ellipited main clause *Ṁ bɔ̀̀d yē ...* "I want that ..." or *Kèl kà... .*

The "purpose" sense of a Purpose Clause is sometimes very attenuated:

Ka ba gban'e ba n kpen'es sarega ni ye beog nie.

Kà bà gbāñ'á_ bā n kpéñ'ès sārígá nì yē bēog níe.

And **3PL** seize:**PFV** **3PLO** **SER** put.in:**PFV** prison:**SG** **LOC** that morning appear:**PFV**.

"They seized them and put them in prison until tomorrow should come."

(Acts 4:3)

The verb *gūr^{a/}* "be on guard, watch, wait for" in the sense of "waiting for an event" may take as complement either a NP headed by *gerund*, or a Purpose Clause, again with this attenuated sense:

Nidib la daa gur Zekaria yiib na.

Nīdīb lā dāa gūr Zekaria yīb nā.

Person:**PL** **ART** **TNS** watch Zechariah emerge:**GER** hither.

The people were watching for Zechariah's coming out. (Lk 1:21)

dap bane gur ye ba zugsob naan po'adiir di'ema zin'igin kul na

dàp-bàni_ ∅ gūr yé bà zūg-sób nāan pɔ̀'á-dīr dí'əmə

man-**DEM.PL** **COMP** wait that **3PL** head-one:**SG** be.there wife-taking:**SG** feast:**PL**

zín'igīn_ ∅ kūl nā

place:**SG:LOC** **SER** return.home:**PFV** hither.

"men who are waiting for their lord [being] at a wedding feast to return ..."

(Lk 12:36)

...n gur ye po'a la du'a ka o ob o biig la.

...n gūr yē pɔ̀'ā lā dɔ̀'á kà ò ɔ̀ñb ò bīg lā.

SER watch that woman:**SG** **ART** bear:**PFV** and **3HU** eat:**PFV** **3HU** child:**SG** **ART**.

"...waiting for the woman to give birth so that he could devour her child."

(Rev 12:4)

Purpose can also be expressed by Serial VPs [28], or the particle-verb *tì*

[24.7.2].

31.3 Supplement Clauses

A subordinate *kà*-clause with Indicative or Unrealised Mood and without Independency Marking is a **supplement** (Huddlestone and Pullum 2002 pp1350 ff.) attached to a NP **anchor**, usually though not invariably the NP directly preceding the *kà*, but not the main clause subject (with one exception discussed below.) The *kà*-clause contains a pronoun referring to this NP, which is ellipited if it is a verb direct object [25.1.1]. The sense is usually that of a non-restrictive relative clause:

Asee line a be'ed ma'aa ka m na tun'e niŋ.

Àséé líni_ ∅ à bē'ed má'aa kà m ná tūñ'e_ ∅ níŋ.

Only **DEM.NH COMP COP** bad only and **1SG UNR** be.able **SER** do:**PFV**.

"It's only that which is bad that I can do." (Rom 7:21)

Li ane ya taaba bane pu'usid Wina'am ka li nar ka ya kad saria.

Lì à né yà tāaba bání_ ∅ pù'usid Wínà'am kà lì nár

3NH COP FOC 2PL fellow **DEM.PL COMP** greet:**IPFV** God and **3NH** must

kà yà kád sàryà.

and **2PL** drive:**PFV** judgment.

"It is your fellow-worshippers of God whom you must judge." (1 Cor 5:12)

Dau so' daa be Sizerea, ka o yu'ur buon Konelus.

Dàù-sō' dāa bé Sizerea kà ò yū'ur búèn Konelus.

Man-**INDF.HU TNS** **EXIST** Caesarea and **3HU** name:**SG** call:**IPFV** Cornelius.

"There was a man in Caesarea whose name was Cornelius." (Acts 10:1)

Anina ka o nye dau ka o yu'ur buon Aeneas.

Áníná kà ò ñyē dáy kà ò yū'ur búèn Aeneas.

ADV: there and **3HU** see:**PFV** man:**SG** and **3HU** name:**SG** call:**IPFV** Aeneas.

"There he found a man whose name was Aeneas." (Acts 9:33)

The main clause may have a Non-verbal Predicator [27]:

Ńni_ ∅ lá kà fù dāa ñyēt.

DEM.HU SER that and **2SG TNS** see:**IPFV**.

"This is he whom you saw." WK

Ánó'wòni_ ∅ ñwá kà tì ñyētá +∅?

Who **SER** this and **1PL** see:**IPFV CQ**?

"Who is this that we can see?"

B55_ ∅ lá kà ò ñyētá +∅?

What **SER** that and **1SG** see:**IPFV CQ**?

"What is that that I can see?"

The construction is not permitted if the subject of the main clause is the same as the subject of the *kà*-clause; a serial-verb construction then is used instead, in a parallel way.

Supplement clauses are the basis of *kà*-clefting and *kà*-preposing [34.2].

Supplement *kà*-clauses with definite NPs as anchors may occur in the sense of predicative complements [25.2] in place of Content Clauses [31.4].

Examples (KT's translations) with an indefinite NP as anchor:

M̄ dāa ñyē dāy kà ò á ná'áb.

1SG TNS see:**PFV** man:**SG** and **3HU COP** chief:**SG**.

"I saw a man who was a chief."

M̄ dāa pū ñyē dāy kà ò á ná'abā +∅.

1SG TNS **NEG.IND** see:**PFV** man:**SG** and **3HU COP** chief:**SG** **NEG**.

"I didn't see a man who was a chief."

M̄ dāa pū ñyē ná'áb kà ò á bālērugó +∅.

1SG TNS **NEG.IND** see:**PFV** chief:**SG** and **3HU COP** ugly:**SG** **NEG**.

"I didn't see a chief who was ugly."

With a definite NP as anchor:

M̄ dāa ñyē dāy lá kà ò á ná'áb.

1SG TNS see:**PFV** man:**SG** **ART** and **3HU COP** chief:**SG**.

"I saw the man as a chief."

M̄ dāa pū ñyē dāy lá kà ò á ná'abā +∅.

1SG TNS **NEG.IND** see:**PFV** man:**SG** **ART** and **3HU COP** chief:**SG** **NEG**.

"I didn't see the man as a chief."

KT did not accept the readings "I saw the man, who was a chief" or "I didn't see the man, who was a chief."

KT rejected some similar sentences as ill-formed.

NEG before *ka*, making the subordinate reading impossible:

**M̐ dāa pū ñyē dāv +∅ kà ò á ná'áb.*
1SG TNS NEG.IND see:PFV man:SG NEG and 3HU COP chief:SG.

**M̐ dāa pū ñyē ná'abá +∅ kà ò á bālērug.*
1SG TNS NEG.IND see:PFV chief:SG NEG and 3HU COP ugly:SG.

Tense marking in the subordinate clause:

**M̐ dāa pū ñyē dāy lá kà ò dāa á ná'abā +∅.*
1SG TNS NEG.IND see:PFV man:SG ART and 3HU TNS COP chief:SG NEG.

Focus marking in the subordinate clause:

**M̐ dāa pū ñyē dāy lá kà ò á nē ná'abā +∅.*
1SG TNS NEG.IND see:PFV man:SG ART and 3HU COP FOC chief:SG NEG.

**M̐ dāa pū ñyē dāy lá kà ò dāa á nē ná'abā +∅.*
1SG TNS NEG.IND see:PFV man:SG ART and 3HU TNS COP FOC chief:SG NEG.

Supplement Clauses are essentially in complementary distribution with Serial VPs [28.1], replacing these when the subject and/or polarity do not agree with those of the main clause. A Supplement Clause has the same subject as the main clause only when it replaces a Serial VP because of polarity change, e.g.

Ka dau daa zin'i Lystra ni ka pu tun'e kenna.

Kà dāy dāa zín'i Lystra ní kà pū tūñ'e_ ∅ kēnná +∅.

And man:SG TNS sit Lystra LOC and NEG.IND be.able SER go:IPFV NEG.

"There was a man in Lystra who could not walk." (Acts 14:8)

Compare also *n*-focus versus *kà*-preposing constructions [34.1.2] [34.2].

31.4 Content Clauses

Yē, and less often *kà*, may introduce clauses displaying Independency Marking on the Verbal Predicator [24.6]. They show all the structural features possible for main clauses, such as focus and foregrounding. They occur very frequently representing passages of indirect speech, but are also found much more generally after verbs of cognition, reporting, and perception as **Content Clauses**. Kusaal content clauses are thus **downranked** main clauses functioning as subordinate clauses.

Verbs taking content clauses as objects include

<i>yèl^e</i>	"say"	<i>wòm^m</i>	"hear"
<i>ñyē⁺</i>	"see"	<i>tēñʔes^{e/}</i>	"think"
<i>mī⁺</i>	"know"	<i>bàŋ^e</i>	"come to know"
<i>pàʔal^e</i>	"teach, show"	<i>kàrɪm^m</i>	"read"
<i>zī⁺</i>	"not know"		

Although the tone is different, *yē* is presumably connected with *yèl^e* "say, tell." It occurs by itself in the sense *yèl yē*: *Wí(nàʔam yē ...* "God says: " Compare the immediate future construction with subject + *yē*-Purpose Clause [24.3.2].

Except in indirect speech [31.4.1], content clauses are normally declarative. The equivalent of an interrogative main clause is a Relative Clause using an indefinite pronoun as the relative [33.2.1.1], and the equivalent of an imperative main clause is a subordinate Purpose Clause [31.2].

Fu wum ban yet si'em laa?

Fù wúm bán yèt sīʔəm láa ʔø?

2SG hear:IPFV **3PL:COMP** say:IPFV **INDF.ADV** **ART** **PQ?**

"Do you hear what ["how"] they are saying?" (Mt 21:16)

Bà nà yēl·o_ ø ɔn nà nīŋ sīʔəm.

3PL UNR say:PFV **3HUO 3HU:COMP UNR** do:PFV **INDF.ADV**.

"They will tell him what he is to do."

Lì nàr yé/kà fù kūl.

3NH must that/and **2SG** return.home:PFV.

"You must go home."

An *ñ*-Adverbial Clause [33.1] cannot be used as the object of a verb of cognition, reporting, or perception; for "know (etc) the fact that ..." Content Clauses must be used.

Another possibility for the object of such verbs is NP + *yēlá* "about" 22.6.

In WK's speech *yē* + content clause is usual, but he prefers *kà* + content clause after *tēñʔes^{e/}* "think"; the structure is otherwise the same, and this therefore constitutes an exception to the rules that *kà* is never followed by Independency Marking, and that *kà* deletes a following subject pronoun with the same reference as the preceding subject:

Ò tēñʔes kà ò zàb náʔàb lā.

3HU think:PFV and 3HU fight:PFV chief:SG ART.

"He thinks he's fought the chief." WK

Ì tēñʔès kà ò à nē dɥʔátà.

1SG think:PFV and 3HU COP FOC doctor:SG.

"I think she's a doctor." WK

Ì tēñʔès kà ò lù yā.

1SG think:PFV and 3HU fall:PFV INDEP.

"I think she's fallen." WK

Ì tēñʔès kà m̀ lú yā.

1SG think:PFV and 1SG fall:PFV INDEP.

"I think I've fallen" WK

Ì tēñʔès kà nīgí lā ʒñbìd.

1SG think:PFV and cow:PL ART chew:IPFV.

"I think the cows eat." WK

Ì tēñʔès kà nīgí lā ʒñbìd nē.

1SG think:PFV and cow:PL ART chew:IPFV FOC.

"I think the cows are eating." WK

NT sometimes has *kà* + content clause after other verbs, and *yē* + content clause after *tēñʔes^{e/}*.

Ya pun wum ka ba da yel ye...

Yà pún wùm kà bà dá yèl yē ...

2PL previously hear:PFV and 3PL TNS say:PFV that...

"You previously heard that they had said ..." (Mt 5:43)

...yanam banjim ka li nwa'ab li'eleya.

...yānám bànjım kà lì ñwā'ab lí'əl yā.

...**2PL.CNTR** realise:**IMP** and **3NH** breaking.up approach:**PFV INDEP.**

"Know that its breaking up has come near." (Lk 21:20, 1976)

Ka ya ten'es ye m mood ye m ma'e nidib sunf bee?

Kà yà tēñ'ès yé m̄ mōɔd yé m̄ mā'e nīdīb súnf bée +ø?

And **2PL** think:**PFV** that **1SG** strive:**IPFV** that **1SG** cool:**PFV** person:**PL** heart:**SG** or **PQ?**

"And do you think that I am trying to please people?" (Gal 1:10, 1976)

Pronouns are changed throughout in the Content Clause to reflect its setting, on the same basis as in English "indirect speech."

The free personal pronouns have **logophoric** 31.4.2 meaning in Content Clauses.

Tense and mood marking is always the same as in the equivalent main clause. Pluperfect and future-in-the-past meanings may result:

Ò dāa yél yé bà dāa kūl.

3HU TNS say:**PFV** that **3PL TNS** return.home:**PFV.**

"She said that they had gone home."

Tì dāa tēñ'es yé ò nà zāb ná'áb lā.

1PL TNS think:**PFV** that **3HU UNR** fight:**PFV** chief:**SG ART.**

"We thought he was going to fight the chief."

Examples of main-clause type structural features within content clauses:

ban mi' ye biig la kpine la zug

bán mī' yē bīg lā kpí nē lā zúg

3PL:COMP know that child:**SG ART** die:**PFV FOC ART** upon

"Because they knew that the child was dead" (Lk 8:53)

where focus-*nē*⁺ occurs in a content clause within an *ñ*-Clause. The second article *lā* marks the end of the *ñ*-Clause.

Bòñ-bāñ'ad zī' yē tēñ túllā +ø.

Donkey-rider:**SG NEG.KNOW** that ground:**SG** be.hot **NEG.**

"The donkey-rider doesn't know the ground is hot."

(*Tēñ túl.* "Ground is hot."; *tūl*^{la/}"be hot")

There is tone overlay due to Independency Marking on *tū*^{la}/. The final LF is induced by the Negative Prosodic Clitic belonging with the negative verb in the superordinate clause.

Content Clauses also appear after *wōv* "like" [23.1]; the construction involves a subordinate rather than main clause, as is demonstrated by e.g.

ka tuumbe'ed ku len so'e ti wuu ti aa li yamugo.

kà tùm-bē'ed kú lēm sō'ú_tī wōv tì áá_lì yàmmugō +∅.

and work-bad:PL NEG.UNR again own 1PLO like 1PL COP 3NH slave:SG NEG.

"and that sin will not again own us as if we were its slave." (Rom 6:6)

See further [29.3] on conjunctions and prepositions.

31.4.1 Direct and Indirect Speech

After a speech-verb *yē* may introduce the words of the direct speech itself, unaltered except for the presence of "resumptive" *yē* at intervals [31.4.3]. This is an uncommon strategy in written materials prior to the 1996 NT Version; in the 1976 version it seems to be chosen mostly for direct utterances of Jesus.

More commonly, the original direct speech is downranked to a content clause or series of coordinated content clauses, with personal pronouns altered throughout as in English indirect speech. The free personal pronouns are used logophorically [31.4.2] as in all Content Clauses. All other features of the original main clauses, including tense marking and Independency Marking, are unchanged as usual.

Such passages of indirect speech may be kept up for very long stretches; the 1976 NT version has examples extending over several pages. The 1996 revision consistently replaces all indirect speech with direct, however.

Pronouns are changed even within a vocative in indirect speech:

O zuanam ne o saamnama, ye ba kelisim.

Ò zùà-nàm né ò sàam-nàmā +∅, yé bà kèlɪsɪm!

3HU friend-PL with 3HU father-PL VOC that 3PL listen:IMP!

for direct

M̄ zùà-nàm né m̄ sàam-nàmā +∅, kèlɪsɪmī_∅!

1SG friend-PL with 1SG father-PL VOC, listen:IMP 2PLS!

"My friends and my fathers, listen!" (Acts 7:2, 1976)

*Ka m wum Wina'am kokor ka li yi arazana ni na ye,
o nidiba, ye ba yimi teng la ni na.*

*Kà ìn wúm Wínà'am kúkór kà lì yī áràzàná ní nā yē,
And 1SG hear:PFV God voice:SG and 3NH emerge:PFV heaven LOC hither that
ò nīdibá +∅, yé bà yīmī ∅ tēŋ lā ní nā.*

3HU person:PL VOC, that **3PL** emerge:IMP **2PLS** land:SG ART LOC hither.

"And I heard God's voice coming from heaven, saying

'My people, come out of the land!'"

(Rev 18:4, 1976)

These examples also illustrates the fact that **the indirect speech construction differs from other types of content clause in that it may feature imperative clauses as content clauses**, which elsewhere would be replaced by subordinate clauses of purpose.

In such quoted direct commands the usual deletion of a 2nd sg subject and change of 2pl subject to enclitic ^{ya} does not occur; this is true even when the addressee is the same as in the original utterance so that the pronouns remain 2nd person. Some speakers still keep the enclitic ^{ya} after the verb even when there is a pronoun subject before it; see the second example above, and [30.2.3](#).

Indirect-speech quoting of imperatives provides an alternative way of expressing indirect commands to the use of purpose clauses [31.2](#); as with that construction, the main clause and linker may be altogether ellipted [29.1.4](#) informally:

Ì yél yé ò gòsim tēŋin.

1SG say:PFV that **3HU** look:IMP ground:SG:LOC.

"I said she should look down."

Ò gòsim tēŋin.

"She should look down."

3HU look:IMP ground:SG:LOC.

Ì tēñ'ès kà tì pú'usim Wínà'am.

1SG think:PFV and **1PL** greet:IMP God.

"I think we should praise God."

Tì pú'ùsim Wínà'am.

"We should praise God."

1PL greet:IMP God.

A main clause of interrogative type can be downranked in indirect speech too:

Ka Peter bu'os o ye, Ananias, ye bo ka o ke ka Sutaana kpen' o suunrin...

Kà Peter bŭ'əs-ó_∅ yē Ananias, yē bó kà ò ké kà Sūtáanà

And Peter ask:PFV 3HUO that Ananias, that what and 3HU cause:PFV and Satan

kpèñ' ò sūuñrín ... +∅?

enter:PFV 3HU heart:SG:LOC ... CQ?

"Peter asked him: Ananias, why did you let Satan enter your heart ...?"

(Acts 5:3, 1976)

Similarly with a main clause without a predicate structure [30.2.4](#):

Ò yèl yē báp.

"She said 'Bap!'"

3HU say:PFV that Bap.

31.4.2 Logophoric Pronouns

Within Content Clauses personal pronouns are altered throughout as in English indirect speech, except in directly embedded passages of direct speech [31.4.1](#).

The free 3rd person pronouns have **logophoric** sense. In contexts where bound pronouns could have occurred instead (i.e. where they are contrastive [34.5](#)) they refer to the speaker(s), replacing 1st persons of the original utterance. Bound 3rd persons may also have this sense, but the free pronouns are much commoner, especially as subjects, even when no ambiguity would otherwise result.

Thus "He said: I will kill them." is usually

Ò yèl yē ɔn ná kŭú_ bā.

3HU say:PFV that 3HU.CNTR UNR kill:PFV 3PLO.

It is possible to say *Ò yèl yé ò nà kŭú bā* with this meaning, but this is more likely to be the equivalent of "He(1) said: 'He(2) will kill them.'" So e.g (all 1976 NT version):

Festus tans Paul ye o geem ne ... ka Paul lebis ye on pu geem.

Festus táńs Paul yé ò gèéńm nē ... kà Paul lébìs

Festus shout:PFV Paul that 3HU go.mad:PFV FOC ... and Paul reply:PFV

yē ɔn pŭ géeńmm +∅.

that 3HU.CNTR NEG.IND go.mad:PFV NEG.

"Festus shouted to Paul that he [Paul] was mad ...

Paul replied that he [Paul] was not mad." (Acts 26:24-25)

*Wina'am ye ... arazana ane on na'am kuk
... bo yir ka ba na me n tis one?*

Wínà'am yé ... àrazánà á nē ōn nā'am kúk
God say:PFV that...heaven:SG COP FOC 3HU.CNTR realm chair:SG
... b̀̀-yr kà bà ná mē n tís òne +ø?
... what-house:SG and 3PL UNR build:PFV SER give:PFV 3HU.CNTR CQ?
"God says: heaven is his throne ... what house will they build for him?"
(Acts 7:49)

The corresponding direct speech would be:

Àrazánà á né m̀ nā'am kúk
Heaven COP FOC 1SG realm chair:SG
... b̀̀-yr kà yà ná mē n tísì_ mà +ø?
... what-house:SG and 2PL UNR build:PFV SER give:PFV 1SGO CQ?

31.4.3 Resumptive *yē*

Regardless of whether a passage is direct or indirect speech, if it is longer than two or three clauses "resumptive" *yē* is inserted at intervals of roughly every third clause, after any conjunctions but before clause-linker *kà*; this is the only way that *yē* and *kà* occur together apart from ellipsis [29.1.2](#) [29.1.4.1](#).

Ye ka Paul yel ye o bood ye o kpelim sarega ni.

Yé kà Paul yél yé ò b̀̀d yé ò kpélìm sārìgá nì.
That and Paul say:PFV that 3HU want that 3HU remain:PFV prison:SG LOC.
" ... but that Paul said he wanted to remain in prison...(Acts 25:21, 1976)

... amaa ye ba yaanam da pu bood ye ba siak o noore

... àmáa yé bà yāa-nám dá pū b̀̀d yé bà sják-ò_ ø
... but that 3PL ancestor-PL TNS NEG.IND want that 3PL agree:PFV 3HUO
ǹ̀rè +ø.
mouth:SG NEG.

(within a speech) " ... but their ancestors did not want to obey him"
(Acts 7:39, 1976)

Amaa ye ka on yeli ba ye ...

Àmáa yé kà ōn yélì_ bā yē...
But that and 3HU.CNTR say:PFV 3PLO that...
"But he [the speaker] had said to them ..." (Acts 25:16, 1976)

Alazug ye Wina'am sadigim tisi ba piini kan ka o daa tisi ti la...

Àlá zùg yē Wínà'am ø sādígím tísì bā pīini kán kà ò dāa
Thus that God COMP since give:PFV 3PLO gift DEM.SG and 3HU TNS
tísì tī lā...

give:PFV 1PLO ART.

"Thus, since God had given them the gifts that he had given us ..."

(Acts 11:17, 1976)

Alazug ye ka on ke ka ba mor o ba sa'an na ...

Àlá zùg yé kà òn ké kà bà mōr-ó ø bà sā'an nā ...

Thus that and 3HU.CNTR let:PFV and 3PL have 3HUO 3PL before hither...

"So he [the speaker] had made them bring him [Paul] into their presence..."

(Acts 25:26, 1976)

Dinzugo ye ba kel tikpeedug...

Dìn zúgō yé bà kèl ...

Therefore that 3PL let:IMP ...

"Therefore they should leave off disturbance ..." (Acts 19:36, 1976)

Resumptive *yē* may be placed between a clause-level presubject adjunct and the subject, or between a vocative NP and the following clause:

Nanana ye o zuanam, ye o baŋ ye...

Nānná-nā yé ò zùà-nàm, yé ò bàŋ yē ...

Now-hither that 3HU friend-PL, that 3HU understand:PFV that ...

"Now, his friends should understand that..."

(Acts 3:17, 1976)

Ka nanana ye o niŋi ba Wina'am ne o popielim pia'ad la nu'usin...

Kà nānná-nā yé ò niŋī bá Wínà'am né ò pù-pìəlɪm

And now-hither that 3HU do:PFV 3PLO God with 3HU inside-whiteness

pjǎñ'ád lā nú'usīn...

speech ART hand:PL:LOC...

"And now he committed them to God and the words of his holiness.."

(Acts 20:32, 1976)

O zuanam ne o saamnama, ye ba kelisim.

Ò zùà-nàm né ò sàam-nàmā +ø, yé bà kèlɪsɪm!

3HU friend-PL with 3HU father-PL VOC that 3PL listen:IMP!

"His friends and my fathers should listen." (Acts 7:2, 1976)

Yà[?]-clauses express tense independently of the main clause. Indicative Mood, not Unrealised, is used for future meaning, but WK accepts negation with *kù* instead of *pū* when the sense is future; so too NT

So' ya'a ku tum, on da dii.

S̄[?] *yá*[?] *kù* *t̄**m*, *̄**n* *dā* *d̄**u* +∅.

INDF.HU if NEG.UNR work:PFV, 3HU.CNTR NEG.IMP eat:PFV NEG.

"If anybody will not work, let him not eat." (2 Thess 3:10, 1976)

Occasionally, the protasis appears clause-finally as a consequence of dislocation due to weight (cf [34.3](#)), notably in constructions meaning "it would be better if ...":

Li naani so'on ba ya'a nokin neertita'are loon kollin o ningoonr ka zaŋ o lobi bas kolugin, n gati

Lì nāani s̄n̄ʔɔn, *bà yáʔ nōkin* *nēer-títāʔarɿ* ∅ *lōɔn*

3NH then be.better:REM 3PL if take:PFV:REM millstone-big:SG SER tie:PFV:REM

kōllin *̄**n* *nín-gòɔr* *kà záŋ-ò* ∅ ∅ *lōbl*

around:LOC 3HU.CNTR body-neck:SG and take:PFV 3HUO SER throw:PFV

∅ *bás* *kōlvun,* *n gát ...*

SER abandon:PFV river:SG:LOC SER pass:IPFV...

"It would have been better if they had fastened a big millstone round his neck and thrown him into the river, than ..." (Lk 17:2)

Dinzug li naan a su'um ba ya'a pu du'an dau kaŋaa.

Dìn-zúg lì nāan á s̄úm *bà yáʔ pū* *dúʔān*

That-upon 3NH then COP good:ABSTR 3PL if NEG.IND bear:PFV:REM

dáɿ-kàŋáa +∅.

man-DEM.SG NEG.

"So it would have been better for that man not to have been born."
(Mk 14:21)

In archaic materials like proverbs, *yà*[?]-clauses sometimes end in a LF (but see [9.3.2.2](#) for an alternative analysis):

Buŋ ya'a kpi be'ede, ba siido ne be'ed.

Bòŋ yáʔ kpì *bēʔede,* *bà sìid-ò* ∅ *nē bēʔed.*

Donkey:SG if die:PFV bad:PL, 3PL flay:IPFV 3HUO FOC bad:PL.

"When a donkey dies wrongly, they skin it wrongly." KSS p42
("Make the best of a bad job.")

32.2 *Nāan(ɪ)* "in that/which case"

The post-subject particle *nāan(ɪ)* is distinct from *ñyāan* "next, afterwards, then", but *nāan* (never *nāanɪ*) occurs commonly in the same sense as *ñyāan*. Thus in the parallel NT passages:

Fu na ki'is noor atan' ye, fu zi' ma, ka noraug nyaan kaas.

Fù ná kī'ɪs nōɔr àtáñʔ yé fù zī'í_ mā +∅,

2SG UNR deny:PFV occasion:SG NUM:three that 2SG NEG.KNOW 1SGO NEG,

kà nō-dáùg ñyāan kāas.

and hen-male:SG next cry:PFV.

"You will deny three times that you know me before the cock crows."

(Mt 26:75)

Fu na ki'is man noor atan' ka noraug naan kaas noor ayi.

Fù ná kī'ɪs mān nōɔr àtáñʔ kà nō-dáùg

2SG UNR deny:PFV 1SG.CNTR occasion:SG NUM:three and hen-male:SG

nāan kāas nōɔr àyí.

next cry:PFV occasion:SG NUM:two.

"You will deny me three times before the cock crows twice." (Mk 14:30)

The particle *ñyāan* is probably a form of *ñyáʔaŋ*^a "behind, after" with loss of glottalisation and assimilation of the final nasal because of its proclitic status [5.2.2 9.1.1]. The particle *nāan(ɪ)* itself seems to have a core locative and logical sense "be(ing) there/thus, in that case" which has presumably broadened for speakers who use it in the sense of *ñyāan* to temporal "then", unless the falling-together of the forms is simply phonological or dialectal.

There are examples in the NT of *nāan(ɪ)* used as an auxiliary verb with its own locative complement in both the Serial VP construction and in Supplement Clauses:

M nye ka Sutaana naane arazana ni n lu wenne saa yiti iank si'em la.

M̄ ñyé kà Sūtáanà nāaní_ ∅ àrazánà nì n lù_ ∅ wēn nē

1SG see:PFV and Satan be.there SER sky LOC SER fall:PFV SER resemble FOC

sāa_ ↓ yīti_ ∅ jāñk sīʔəm lā.

rain:SG COMP emerge:IPFV SER leap:PFV INDF.ADV ART.

"I saw Satan [being] in heaven fall like lightning." (Lk 10:18)

Ka nwadibibis na naan agol lu tenjin na.

Kà ñwād-bíbìs ná nāan àgól_ ∅ lú tējin nā.

And moon-small:PL UNR be.there ADV:above SER fall:PFV ground:SG:LOC hither.
 "And the stars [being] above will fall to earth." (Mk 13:25)

dap bane gur ye ba zugsob naan po'adiir di'ema zin'igin kul na

dàp-bàni_ ∅ gūr yé bà zūg-sób nāan pɔʔá-dīr díʔəmə
zínʔigīn_ ∅ kūl nā

man-DEM.PL COMP wait that 3PL head-one:SG be.there wife-taking:SG feast:PL

place:SG:LOC SER return.home:PFV hither.
 "men who are waiting for their lord [being] at a wedding feast to return ..."
 (Lk 12:36)

yinni piiga wusa puugin ka li naan o yaab Abraham nu'usin

yīnní pīiga wūsa púvgún kà lì nāan ò yáab Abraham
núʔusīn

hand:PL:LOC

"the tithe which was in his ancestor Abraham's hands" (Heb 7:9)

The form *nāani* thus evidently originated in *nāan* followed by Serialiser *n*, but I will omit **SER** in the interlinear glosses henceforward for simplicity.

In its usual modal sense *nāan(i)* usually appears with the Modal Remoteness enclitic *n^e* [24.4.2]; in main clause statements *nāan(i)* without *n^e* is usually rather to be taken as a by-form of *ñyāan* as described above. In questions and *ñ*-Clauses, on the other hand, *nāan(i)* without *n^e* may simply be equivalent to the form which includes the Remoteness marker. By far the most cases of modal *nāan(i)* appear in the apodoses of Conditional Clauses [32.4]. In non-conditional main clause contexts it appears most often in the NT with *bòɔd^a* "want, wish" to convey a hypothetical "might have wished"; the sense need not be contrary-to-fact:

M naan boodin ka ya sid aan na'anam.

M̄ nāan bóɔdín kà yà síd àān náʔ-nām.

1SG then want:REM and 2PL truly COP:REM king-PL.

"I might wish you really were kings." (1 Cor 4:8)

Nāan(i) appears in subordinate clauses of all types. Again the meaning need not be contrary-to-fact.

Subordinate clauses introduced by *kà* or *yē*:

Li su'm ka fu daa naan zaŋin m ligidi n su'an banki ni.

Lì sù'm kà fù dāa nāan zāŋín_ m̀ līgidi
3NH be.good and **2SG TNS** then take:**PFV:REM 1SG** money
n sū'an bānkì ní.

SER hide:**PFV:REM** bank:**SG LOC**.

"You should have put my money in the bank." (Mt 25:27, 1976)

Ka m bood ye li naani pun niŋin sa.

Kà m̀ bódòd yé lì nāani pún niŋīn sá.

And **1SG** want that **3NH** then already do:**PFV:REM** hence.

"I wish it had happened already." (Lk 12:49, 1976)

N-Clauses:

Hale baa m meŋi naani moren suekane na keen ka m nwe' nyo'og ne saalib yela laa.

Hālì bāa m̀ mēŋí_ø nāani mōrīn suā-kání_ø nà kēen

Even not **1SG** self **COMP** then have:**REM** way-**DEM.SG COMP UNR** cause:**PFV:REM**

kà m̀ ñwé? ñyō'og nē sáalīb yélà láa +ø.

and **1SG** beat:**PFV** chest:**SG** with human:**PL** about **ART NEG**.

"Although I myself might have reason to boast in human terms." (Phil 3:4)

M daa pu bood ye nimbane naan tisini m sumalisim la keen ka m moren susa'aŋ.

M̀ dāa pū bódòd yē nīn-bání_ø nāan tísīnì_ m̀

1SG TNS NEG.IND want that person-**DEM.PL COMP** then give:**PFV:REM 1SG**

sū-málišim lā kēen kà m̀ mōrīn sū-sá'àngā +ø.

heart-sweetness **ART** cause:**PFV:REM** and **1SG** have:**REM** heart-spoiling **NEG**.

"I did not want those who should have given me joy to give me sorrow."

(2 Cor 2:3)

M ten'esug ane dau wusa naan a wuu mane a si'em la.

M̀ tēñ'ésúg á nē dāy wūsa_↓ nāan á

1SG thought:**SG COP FOC** man:**SG all COMP** then **COP**

wūw mání_ø à sī'əm lā.

like **1SG.CNTR COMP COP INDF.ADV ART**.

"My wish is that every man might be as I am." (1 Cor 7:7)

Bo a na'ana ne man naan yelin ka li niñine?

B5 á ná'anā nē mán nāan yélin kà li níñiné +∅?

What **COP** easily with **1SG:COMP** then say:**PFV:REM** and **3NH do:PFV:REM CQ?**
 "What is easier for me to say to happen?" (Lk 5:23, cf Mt 9:5)

In *ñ*-Adverbial Clauses, *nāan(i)* means "the case being that":

Fun naani tum be'ed ka ba sigis uf ne kpisiñkpil ka fu sin ka mor suguru, li su'um a bo?

Fún nāani túm bē'ed kà bà sigisú f nē kpísìñkpìl

2SG:COMP then do:**PFV** bad and **3PL** put.down:**PFV 2SGO** with fist:**SG**

kà fù sín kà mōr sūgurú, li sùm á bó +∅?

and **2SG** be.silent and have forbearance, **3NH** good:**ABSTR COP** what **CQ?**

"If you do evil and they down you with fists and you are silent and forbear, what is the good of it?" (1 Pet 2:20)

Ka li su'um ye ya namis yaname naan niñid line dol suer... n gat yanam na tum line pu dol suere ka namis.

Kà li sùm yé yà nā'mis yānámì ∅ nāan níñid líni ∅

And **3NH** be.good that **2PL** suffer:**PFV 2PL COMP** then do:**IPFV DEM.NH COMP**

dōl sūer ... n gát yānám ∅ nà tōm líni ∅ pō dōl

follow way:**SG...SER** pass:**IPFV 2PL COMP UNR** do:**PFV DEM.NH COMP NEG.IND** follow

sūeré +∅ kà nā'mis.

way:**SG NEG** and suffer:**PFV**.

"It is better that you suffer if you are doing what is right ... than that you do what is wrong and suffer." (1 Pet 3:17)

Ningbiñ naan be ka siig kae' ka li a zaalim la, ala men ...

Nìn-gbiñ ↓ nāan bé kà sīg kā'e kà li á zāalím lā,

Body-skin:**SG COMP** then **EXIST** and spirit:**SG NEG.BE** and **3NH COP** empty:**ABSTR ART**,

àlá mèn ...

ADV:thus also...

"As a body being with no spirit is empty, so too ..." (Jas 2:26)

Amaa da ke ka ya so' namisid tuum bamanaminee, on naani a ninkuud ...

Àmáa dā ké kà yà sō' nā'misíd túm-bàmmā námīné +∅,

But **NEG.IMP** cause:**PFV** and **2PL INDF.HU** suffer:**IPFV deed-DEML.PL PL:LOC NEG**,

ón nāani á nīn-kúùd ...

3HU:COMP then **COP** person-killer:**SG**.

"But do not let any of you suffer for acts like these, whether as a murderer ..." (1 Pet 4:15)

Nonjir lem kae' gaad nidi naan kpi o zuanam zugo.

Nònjir lé́m ká'e_ ∅ gáàd nídí_ ∅ nāan ḱpí

Love again **NEG.BE SER** pass:PFV person:SG **COMP** then die:PFV

ò zùà-nàm zúgō +∅.

3HU friend-PL upon **NEG**.

"There is no love greater than if a person dies for his friends." (Jn 15:13)

Occasional examples occur even in Main Clauses and Content Clauses:

Ka so' naam mori [sic] pe'is kobuga ka yinni bodige?

Kà sō' nāan mōrɪn pē'ɛs kóbɪgá kà yīnní bōdige +∅?

And **INDF.HU** then have:REM sheep:PL hundred and one get.lost:PFV **PQ?**

"If someone has a hundred sheep and one gets lost?" (Mt 18:12 1976)

Li a su'um ye dau yinni naani kpi nidib la yela n gaad ...

Lì à sùm yē dāy yīnní nāani ḱpí nīdɪb lā yélà n gáad ...

3NH COP good that man:SG one then die:PFV person:PL **ART** about **SER** pass:PFV

"It is better if one man should die for the people than ..." (Jn 11:50)

In *n*-Clauses used as objects of *wōv* "like" and *wēn*^{na/} "resemble", *nāan(i)* conveys a hypothetical rather than contrary-to-fact sense:

wenne wuu saa naani iank ya nya'an n ti paae ya tuona la

wēn nē wōv sāa_ ↓ nāani jáńk yà ñyá'an

resemble with like rain:SG **COMP** then jump:PFV **2PL** behind

n tí pāé_ yà tùəna lā

SER afterwards reach:PFV **2PL** before.**ADV ART**

"like when lightning leaps from East to West" (Mt 24:27)

Ba wenne zunzoŋ naani ve'ed zunzoŋ ne.

Bà wēn nē zúnzòŋ_ ∅ nāani vē'ed zúnzòŋ nē.

3PL resemble with blind.person:SG **COMP** then lead:IPFV blind.person:SG like.

"They are like when a blind person leads a blind person." (Mt 15:14)

Ka namisug ne'era wenne po'a naani sa'a ye o du'a ne.

Kà nā'misúg nē'ɛ́á wēn nē pɔ'á_ ∅ nāani sá'

And suffering **DEM:NH** resemble with woman:SG **COMP** then strain:PFV

yé ò dɔ'á nē.

that **3HU** bear:PFV like.

"This suffering is like when a woman is in distress to give birth." (Mt 24:8)

Di'em o wuu fun naani di'eni m si'em la.

Dì'əm·ō_ ∅ wū́ fún nāani dī'əní_ m̄ sī'əm lā.

Receive:IMP 3HUO like 2SG:COMP then receive:PFV:REM 1SGO INDF.ADV ART.

"Welcome him as if you were welcoming me." (Philemon 1:17)

wuu kunduna naan lusi ba meḡ ne pe'es gbana n kpen' pe'esin.

wū́ kúndùna_ ∅ nāan lōsí_ bà mēḡ nē pē'əs gbánà

like jackal:PL COMP then wrap:PFV 3PL self with sheep:PL skin:PL

n kpèñ'əs pē'əsín.

SER enter:PFV sheep:PL:LOC.

"Like jackals wrapping themselves in sheepskins to go among sheep." (Mt 7:15)

32.3 Without Modal Remoteness

Conditional clauses without the Modal Remoteness particle *n^e* or *nāan(i)* express "if", and also "when" with a main clause with present or future reference. With main clauses with past reference, *yà'* is only used for conditionals; for the meaning "when", an *ḡ*-Adverbial Clause with time reference is used as a pre-subject adjunct [33.1], [30.1.1]. In the protasis, Indicative Mood is consistently used instead of Unrealised in positive polarity, and usually though not invariably in the negative.

Nid ya'a tum, o di'ed yood.

Nīd yá' tùm, ò dī'əd yōwd.

Person:SG if work:IPFV, 3HU receive:IPFV pay.

"If a person works, he gets pay." (Rom 4:4, 1976)

Christ ya'a da pu vu'ug kumine, ala ti moolug la ane zaalim.

Christ yá' dà pū vū'ug kōmíne +∅, àlá tí

Christ if TNS NEG.IND come.alive:PFV death:LOC NEG, ADV:thus 1PL

mōwólúg lā á nē zāalím.

proclamation ART COP FOC empty:ABSTR.

"If Christ did not rise from death, our preaching is empty." (1 Cor 15:14, 1976)

Fu ya'a kenna, fun on more m waad fukan ...

Fù yá' kēn nā, fūn ōn mōrí_ m̄ wāad fú-kán ...

2SG if come:IPFV hither, 2SG.CNTR also have 1SG cold clothing-DEM.SG...

"When you come, bring my warm clothes that ..." (2 Tim 4:13)

Beog ya'a nie fu na wum o pian'ad.

Bēog yá' nìe, fù ná wúm ò pjàñ'ad.

Tomorrow if appear:PFV, 2SG UNR hear:PFV 3HU speech.

"When tomorrow comes, you will hear his words." (Acts 25:22)

Būn-píə̀lìg bé fù nīf lā púvūn. Fù yá' bòod, tì ná

Thing-white:SG EXIST 2SG eye:SG ART inside:SG:LOC. 2SG if want, 1PL UNR

yīs, kà fù ná ñyē sūḡā yá'às.

extract:PFV, and 2SG UNR see:PFV good:ADV again.

"There is a white thing [i.e. cataract] inside your eye. If you want, we'll take it out and you'll see well again."

Fù yá' sjàk, tì ná dīgílí f.

2SG if agree:PFV, 1PL UNR lay.down:PFV 2SGO.

"If you agree, we'll put you to bed. [i.e. admit you to hospital]"

Negative polarity with non-past reference in the protasis:

M ya' pu toom, suḡid la ku kenn ya ni naa.

M̄ yá' pū tóomm +∅, sūḡid lā kú kéñ

1SG if NEG.IND disappear:PFV NEG, helper:SG ART NEG.UNR come:PFV

yà nī náa +∅.

2PL LOC hither NEG.

"If I do not depart, the helper will not come to you." (Jn 16:7, 1976)

So' ya'a ku tum, on da dii.

Sō' yá' kù tūm, ɔn dā díu +∅.

INDF.HU if NEG.UNR work:PFV, 3HU.CNTR NEG.IMP eat:PFV NEG.

"If anybody will not work, let him not eat." (2 Thess 3:10, 1976)

32.4 With Modal Remoteness

If the Modal Remoteness particle n^e [24.4.2] occurs in the protasis, it also occurs in the apodosis. Here Modal Remoteness n^e has an effect similar to the non-temporal use of the preterite in English conditional constructions.

The particle *nāan(i)* does not occur in a protasis. If it is also absent in the apodosis, there is no contrary-to-fact implication; the apodosis usually has Unrealised Mood.

Wief ya'a sigin li ni, li zuluŋ na paaen o salabir.

Wiəf yáʔ sīgín lî nî, lî zùluŋ ná pāan_ ò sàlɪbr.

Horse:SG if descend:PFV:REM 3NH LOC, 3NH depth UNR reach:PFV:REM 3HU bridle:SG.

"If a horse went down in it, its depth would reach its bridle." (Rev 14:20, 1976)

Nobir ya'a yelin ye, on pu a nu'ug la zug, o ka' ningbiŋ nii, lin ku nyanjin keen ka o ka' ningbiŋ nii.

Nóbìr yáʔ yèlīn yē, ón pō á núʔùg lā zúg,

Leg:SG if say:PFV:REM that 3HU:COMP NEG.IND COP hand:SG ART upon,

ò kāʔ nín-gbīŋ ní +∅, līn kú ñyāŋɪn_ ∅

3HU NEG.BE body-skin:SG LOC NEG, DEM.NH NEG.UNR accomplish:PFV:REM SER

kēēn kà ò kāʔ nín-gbīŋ ní +∅.

cause:PFV:REM and 3HU NEG.BE body-skin:SG LOC NEG.

"If the leg were to say, because it is not a hand, it is not in the body, that would not cause it not to be in the body." (1 Cor 12:15, 1976)

Ya ya'a aan zunzoos, ya pu morin taale.

Yà yáʔ àān zúnzòòŋs, yà pō mōrɪn táàllē +∅.

2PL if COP:REM blind.person:PL, 2PL NEG.IND have:REM fault:SG NEG.

"If you were blind, you wouldn't be guilty ." (Jn 9:41, 1976)

The 1996 version has *Ya ya'a aan zunzoos ya ku moren taale.*

More often, the apodosis has the particle *nāan(i)*. There is then a contrary-to-fact implication if the protasis or apodosis has negative polarity, or there is past tense marking:

Man ya'a pu keen na tu'asini ba, ba naan ku moren taale.

Mān yáʔ pū kēen nā_ ∅ túʔasíní_ bā, bà nāan kú

1SG.CNTR if **NEG.IND** come:**PFV:REM** hither **SER** talk:**PFV:REM 3PLO, 3PL** then **NEG.UNR**
mōrin táallē +∅.

have:**REM** fault:**SG NEG**.

"If I had not come to speak to them, they would not have been guilty."

(Jn 15:22)

Ya'a ka'ane alaa, m naan ku yeline ya ye ...

Yàʔ kāʔaní_ àlá, m̄ nāan kú yēlní_ yā yē ...

If **NEG.BE:REM ADV:thus, 1SG** then **NEG.UNR** say:**PFV:REM 2PLO** that...

"If it were not so, I would not have told you that ..." (Jn 14:2)

Ba ya'a daa mi'ine li, ba naan ku kpa'an Zugsob one a na'amtita'ar daan la dapuudir zugo.

Bà yáʔ dāa mīʔiní_ lī, bà nāan kú kpāʔan Zūg-sób ónì_

3PL if **TNS** know:**REM 3NHO, 3PL** then **NEG.UNR** fasten:**PFV:REM** hea-one:**SG DEM:HU**
∅ à náʔàm-tītāʔar dàan lā dá-pūvdá zùgō +∅.

COMP COP kingdom-great:**SG** owner:**SG ART** wood-cross:**SG** upon **NEG**.

"If they had known it, they would not have fastened the Lord, possessor of a great kingdom, to a cross." (1 Cor 2:8)

In other cases, contrary-to-fact is the default interpretation but not invariable:

Ya ya'a mi'ine [sic] zina nwa, dine na tisi ya laafe, li naan aan su'um!

Yà yáʔ mīʔin zīná n̄wá, dīnī_ ∅ nà tīsī_ yá láafī,

2PL if know:**REM** today this, **DEM.NH COMP UNR** give:**PFV 2PLO** health,

lì nāan áān sūm!

3NH then **COP:REM** good:**ABSTR**.

"If you had known this day what would have brought you health, that would have been good." (Lk 19:42)

Ya ya'a siakin Moses ya naani siakin man men.

Yà yáʔ sjákīn Moses, yà nāanī sjákīn mān mén.

2PL if believe:**PFV:REM** Moses, **2PL** then believe:**PFV:REM 1SG.CNTR** also.

"If you believed Moses you'd believe me too." (Jn 5:46)

Li ya'a aane m meḡ gaḡir ka m tummin tuum kaḡa, m naani di'edin nyood.

Lì yá' àānì_ m̄ mēḡ gaḡìr kà m̄ túmmīn túùm-kàḡā,

3NH if **COP:REM 1SG** self choice and **1SG** work:**IPFV:REM** work-**DEML.SG**,

m̄ nāani dī'ədīn ḡyōd.

1SG then receive:**IPFV:REM** pay.

"If it were my own choice that I was doing this work, I would be getting pay."

(1 Cor 9:17, 1976)

Ya yadda niḡir ya'a zu'en n zemin wuu biilif kane pood gat si'el wusa, ya

naani tun'e yelin tiig tita'akaḡa nwa ye ...

Yà yaddā niḡìr yá' zù'ēn n zēmmin wōv bīlíf kànì_ ∅

2PL assent doing if get.more:**PFV:REM SER** be.equal:**REM** like seed **DEM.SG COMP**

pòd_ ∅ gát sī'əl wūsa, yà nāani tūñ'e_ ∅ yēlīn

be.small **SER** pass:**IPFV INDF.NH** all, **2PL** then be.able **SER** say:**PFV:REM**

tīḡ-tītá'-kàḡā ḡwá yē ...

tree-great-**DEML.SG** this that...

"If your faith were equal to a seed which is smaller than anything, you would

be able to say to this great tree ..." (Lk 17:6, 1976)

32.5 Unrealised Mood with Past Tense Markers

Contrary-to-fact conditions in the past are also sometimes marked by combining the Unrealised Mood with past tense marking:

Ka Josua ya'a da tisini ba vu'usum zin'ig, Wina'am da ku pia'a li nya'anḡ dabis yinni yela ya'ase.

Kà Josua yá' dà tìsīnì_ bā vū'usím zín'ìḡ, Wínà'am dá kù

And Joshua if **TNS** give:**PFV:REM 3PLO** resting place:**SG**, God **TNS NEG.UNR**

piā'á_ lì ḡyá'anḡ dábìs-yīnní yēla yà'asē +∅.

speak:**PFV 3NH** after day-one about again **NEG**.

"If Joshua had given them a resting place, God would not subsequently

have spoken of "one day."" (Heb 4:8, 1976)

Similarly without a *yà'*-clause protasis:

Ò dāa ná zāb ná'āb lā.

3HU TNS UNR fight:**PFV** chief:**SG ART**.

"He would have fought the chief" (but didn't)

WK confirmed this meaning, as against "He was going to fight the chief."

33 Ñ-Clauses

Kusaal transforms complete clauses into AdvPs or NPs by inserting the post-subject particle *ñ*. (For the realisation of the particle, see 9.3.2.1.1.) The *ñ* by itself is a complementiser, but the result is characteristically used as an *Adverbial Phrase* 33.1 signifying "it being the fact that X." However, if an *ñ*-Clause contains a short demonstrative or an indefinite pronoun, this functions as a relative; the meaning of the *ñ*-Clause is then that of the pronoun or the cb before the determiner modified by the rest of the *ñ*-Clause.

Ñ-Clauses have independent tense marking (relative to the narrative timeline within a series of *kà*-clauses without tense marking in narrative, however 30.3.2.)

They cannot use the Imperative Mood; Unrealised Mood appears instead:

Yaname na mor sam si'a ane ye ya noŋ taaba.

Yānámì_∅ nà mōr sām-sí'a á nē yé yà nóŋ tāaba.

2PL COMP UNR have debt-**INDF.NH COP FOC** that **2PL** love each.other

"Any debt which you are to have is to love each other." (Rom 13:8.)

Ñ-Clauses cannot have any pre-subject elements or be *n*-focussed, but often prepose a relative pronoun using *kà* 33.2.

If the *ñ*-Clause has a negative Verbal Predicator, it only shows a final LF if the *ñ*-Clause is itself clause-final in the superordinate clause:

Nīn-báni_∅ pō dít ná kpī.

Person-**DEM.PL COMP NEG.IND** eat:**IPFV UNR** die:**PFV**.

"People who don't eat will die." WK

M ñyé nīn-báni_∅ pō dítā +∅.

1SG see:**PFV** person-**DEM.PL COMP NEG.IND** eat:**IPFV NEG**.

"I've seen some people who don't eat."

Ñ-Clauses can contain other *ñ*-Clauses, serial-verb constructions and subordinate clauses:

ban mi' ye biig la kpine la zug

bán mī' yē bīg lā kpí nē lā zúg

3PL:COMP know that child:**SG ART** die:**PFV FOC ART** upon

"because they knew that the child was dead" (Lk 8:53)

Paul n sob gbauḡ si'a n tis Efesus dim la nwa.

Paul ḡ sōb gbáḡḡ-sī'a n tís Efesus díḡ lā
 Paul **COMP** write:**PFV** book-**INDF.NH** **SER** give:**PFV** Ephesus individual.**PL** **ART**
 ∅ ḡwá.

SER this.

"This is the letter Paul wrote to the Ephesians." (NT heading)

Ka m tuuma lin ka m tum n tis Zugsob la ke ka yanam a yadda niḡidib.

Kà ḡ tūuma lín kà ḡ túm n tís Zūg-sób lā
 And **1SG** work **DEM.NH** and **1SG** work:**PFV** **SER** give:**PFV** head-one:**SG** **ART**
ké kà yānám á yáddā-niḡidib.

cause:**PFV** and **2PL.CNTR** **COP** assent-doer:**PL**.

"My actions which I did for the Lord led to you being believers." (1 Cor 9:1)

dàḡ-kàḡ ∅ bōḡd yé ò záb nà'ab lā

man-**DEM.SG** **COMP** want that **3HU** fight:**PFV** chief:**SG** **ART**

"the man who wants to fight the chief"

Ba mi' on daa tum si'em, on daa be ba sa'an sansa wusa,

daadin [sic] ka o daa paae Asia so'olim la na sa.

Bà mī' ón dāa túm sī'em ón dāa bé bà sā'an

3PL know **3HU:COMP** **TNS** work:**IPFV** **INDF.ADV** **3HU:COMP** **TNS** **EXIST** **3PL** presence
sānsá wūsa, dāa-lìn kà ò dāa pāe Asia sú'ulim lā nā sá.
 time:**PL** all, day-**DEM.NH** and **3HU** **TNS** reach:**PFV** Asia realm **ART** hither ago.

"They knew what he'd been doing all the time he'd been with them since the day he had arrived in the province of Asia" (Acts 20:18, 1976)

They can contain coordinated clauses and verb phrases:

dāḡ lá ḡ dāa kēḡ dā'ān, kà pḡ'ā lā dāa kēḡ

Man:**SG** **ART** **COMP** **TNS** go:**PFV** market:**SG:LOC** and woman:**SG** **ART** **TNS** go:**PFV**

pōḡg lā zúḡ

field:**SG** **ART** upon

"because the man went to market and the woman went to the farm" WK

mam pu sa'amidi ba la'ad, ka me pu diti ba ki la.

mán pū sá'amídí-bà lā'ad, kà mé pū dítí

1SG:COMP **NEG.IND** spoil:**IPFV** **3PL** goods:**PL** and also **NEG.IND** eat:**IPFV**

bà kī lāa +∅.

3PL millet **ART** **NEG**.

"that I don't spoil their property or eat their millet" BNY p20

Ñ-Clauses are NPs or AdvPs and may take the article *lā*^{+/}, but they cannot take modifiers or post-determining pronouns. They can participate in forming larger NPs or AdvPs as pre-determiners, and may also themselves have pre-determiners:

ba diib n yit na'aterj la na zug

bà dīib ñ yīt ná[?]-tēŋ lā nā zúg

3PL food **COMP** emerge:IPFV king-land:SG **ART** hither upon

"because their food came from the king's land" (Acts 12:20)

nidiba ayi nwa on n gaŋ so'

nīdibá_ àyí ñwá ́n gāŋ sɔ[?]

person:PL **NUM**:two this **3HU:COMP** choose:PFV **INDF.HU**

"which, of these two people, he had chosen" (Acts 1:24, 1976)

The article *lā*^{+/} is not repeated a second time after an ñ-Clause which ends in a NP with *lā*^{+/}.

If the clause contains the VP-final particles *nā*^{+/} "hither" *sà*⁺ "hence" these may follow an article *lā*^{+/} belonging to the ñ-Clause [25.7](#).

Ñ-Clauses, like other NPs and AdvPs, are coordinated with *nē* "and" *kūu/bēē* "or."

...n pa'ali ba on daa nye Zugsob la suerin, ka o tu'as o si'em,

ne on daa mool Jesus yela la ne sukpi'uŋ Damaskus ni si'em.

...n pá[?]alì_ bā ́n dāa ñyē Zūg-sób lā sūérín kà ò

...**SER** teach:PFV **3PLO** **3HU:COMP** **TNS** see:PFV head-one:SG **ART** road:SG:LOC and **3HU**

tú[?]as-ò_ ø sī[?]əm, nē ́n dāa mōɔl Jesus yélà lā

speak:PFV **3HUO** **INDF.ADV** with **3HU:COMP** **TNS** proclaim:PFV Jesus about **ART**

nē sū-kpí[?]òŋ Damaskus ní sī[?]əm.

with heart-strength:SG Damascus **LOC** **INDF.ADV**

"...informing them how he had seen the Lord on the road and He had spoken to him, and how he had proclaimed boldly about Jesus in Damascus."

(Acts 9:27, 1976)

The first ñ-Clause itself contains two subclauses linked by *kà*.

33.1 N̄-Adverbial Clauses

N̄-Clauses without determiners acting as relatives mean "it being the fact that X", where "X" is the clause prior to the insertion of Complementiser-*ñ*:

Dāy lā dāa záb nà'ab lā.

Man:SG ART TNS fight:PFV chief:SG ART

"The man fought the chief."

dāy lā_∅ dāa záb nà'ab lā

Man:SG ART COMP TNS fight:PFV chief:SG ART

"the man having fought the chief"

N̄-Clauses without relative pronouns seem always to take the article *lā*^{+/}; in practice they usually have a specific past or present reference.

The characteristic use of *ñ*-Clauses without relatives is as **adverbs** of circumstance or time. Like other adverbs, they have limited use as verb arguments, most often as the complement of *àḡñ*^a "be", though occasionally as subjects:

Dine ke ka m a saalbiis zua la ane

mam pu sa'amidi ba la'ad ka me pu diti ba ki la.

Dìni_∅ ké kà m á sáal-bīis zúá lā á nē mán

DEM.SG COMP cause:PFV and 1SG COP smooth-child:PL friend:SG ART COP FOC 1SG:COMP

pū sá'amídí_∅ bā lā'ad kà mé pū díttí_∅ bā kī lāa +∅.

NEG.IND spoil:IPFV 3PL goods:PL and also NEG.IND eat:IPFV 3PL millet ART NEG.

"What makes me a friend of human beings is

that I don't spoil their property or eat their millet." BNY p20

Christ da kpi n tisi ti la ke ka ti baḡ noḡir a si'em.

Christ_∅ dà kpì n tísì_∅ tī lā ké kà tì báj

Christ COMP TNS die:PFV SER give:PFV 1PLO ART cause:PFV and 1PL realise:PFV

nòḡir_∅ à sī'əm.

love COMP COP INDF.ADV

"Christ's dying for us makes us understand what love is like." (1 Jn 3:16, 1976)

N̄-Adverbial Clauses are accordingly not used as objects of verbs of perception or communication; either Relative Clauses with *sī'əm* [33.2.1.1](#) or Content Clauses [31.4](#) appear in this function.

33.1.1 Time/Circumstance Adjuncts

N̄-Adverbial Clauses are the usual way of expressing past "when." They may occur as adjuncts in the pre-subject position of main clauses [30.1.1], or preposed with *kà* [34.2], or less commonly as adjuncts clause-finally. Kusaal is stricter than English in requiring constituent order to reflect event order (cf Serial VPs [28.1]), so the clause-final position is usually confined to cases where the N̄-Adverbial Clause expresses a state of affairs rather than a single event:

Ńn dāa ñyēt súṅā, ́n dāa á bí-līa láa +∅?
3HU.CNTR TNS see:IPFV good:ADV, 3HU:COMP TNS COP child-baby:SG ART PQ?
 "Did she see well when she was a baby?"

Tense markers in the N̄-Adverbial Clause are the same as in the main clause; the main clause markers may be omitted if the Complement Clause precedes. It is thus not possible to manipulate the time relationship with tense particles; instead, this is determined by aspect, with a perfective in the Complement Clause implying a prior event and imperfective a simultaneous one, setting the temporal scene for the main clause.

Ka ban dit la, Yesu yeli ba ...
Kà bán dít lā, Yesu yéll̄ bā ...
 And **3PL:COMP eat:IPFV ART, Jesus say:PFV 3PLO**
 "As they were eating, Jesus said to them ..." (Mt 26:21)

Ka ban yi la, ka Zugsob malek nie o meṅ ...
Kà bán yī lā, kà Zūg-sób málēk níe ò mēṅ ...
 And **3PL:COMP emerge:PFV ART and head-one:SG angel:SG appear:PFV 3HU self**
 "After they had left, an angel of the Lord showed himself ..." (Mt 2:13)

N̄-Adverbial Clauses with *sāḍgím* "since, because" immediately following the complementiser-N̄ occur in the pre-subject adjunct position of a main clause [30.1.1] and express "reason why":

Tiname sagidim aa o biis la, ti da ten'es ...
Tīnámì ∅ sāḍgím áá ò bīis lā, tì dā tēñ'es ...
1PL COMP since COP 3HU child:PL ART, 1PL NEG.IMP think:PFV
 "Since we are his children, we should not think ..." (Acts 17:29)

Wina'am Siig Suŋ sadigim tisi ti vum paal la, keli ka ti beilim dolne o boodim la.

Wínà'am Sí-sùŋ_ ∅ sādígím tísì_ tī vōm-páàl lā,

God spirit-good:SG COMP since give:PFV 1PLO life-new:SG ART

kèlí_ ∅ kà tì bèlíím d̄ɔl né ò bòɔdım lā.

cause 2PLS and 1PL existence follow with 3HU will ART

"Since God's Holy Spirit has given us new life,
let our lives be in accord with his will." (Gal 5:25)

On sadigim niŋ ala la, o sid na tisi ti si'el mekama wusa la'am ne o.

Ón sādígím nīŋ álá lā, ò s̄id nà t̄isì_ tí s̄í'əl

3HU:COMP since do:PFV ADV:thus ART, 3HU truly UNR give:PFV 1PLO INDF.NH

mékàma wūsa lá'àm né ò.

altogether all together with 3HU

"Since he has done this, he will certainly give us everything together with him."
(Rom 8:32, 1976)

For ñ-Adverbial Clauses with post-subject *nāan(i)* see [32.2](#).

33.1.2 With Prepositions and Postpositions

Ñ-Adverbial Clauses occur after *hālí nē* or *hālí là'am nē* "although"

Hale la'am ne on daa a yelsum wusa daan la

Hālí là'am nē ón dāa á yēl-súm wūsa dáàn lā

Even together with 3HU:COMP TNS COP matter-goodness:SG all possessor ART

"though he was the possessor of every blessing" (2 Cor 8:9)

Similarly after *hālí n tì pāa ...* "up until the time when ..." [28.3](#)

hālí n tì pāa tīnámì_ ∅ kūl lā

Up.to SER afterwards reach:PFV 1PL COMP return.home:PFV ART

"Until we'd returned home."

Before the postposition *zūg^{o/}* "on account of", ñ-Adverbial Clauses form reason-why AdvPs used as adjuncts:

Ka ba la'as taaba n denji nye Blestus one a na'ab Herod samanna'ab la n maal suer ye o nwe' na'ab nu'ug, ba diib n yit na'atej la na zug.

Kà bà lá'às tāaba n déjì_ ∅ ñyē Blestus

And **3PL** gather:**PFV** each.other **SER** do.first:**PFV** **SER** see:**PFV** Blastus

ónì_ ∅ à ná'áb Herod sāmán-nà'ab lā n máàl sūer

DEM.HU COMP COP king:**SG** Herod courtyard-chief:**SG** **ART** **SER** make:**PFV** way:**SG**

yé ò ñwé? nà'ab nú'ùg, bà dīib ò yīt ná'-tēj

that **3HU** strike:**PFV** king:**SG** hand:**SG**, **3PL** food **COMP** emerge:**IPFV** king-country:**SG**

lā nā zúg.

ART hither upon

"They gathered together after first seeing Blastus, king Herod's chamberlain, to get him to make an agreement with the king, because their food came from the king's land." (Acts 12:20)

When they contain perfective forms, such *ñ*-Adverbial Clauses may need to be preposed with *kà* [34.2] to match the word order to event order [24.2.1.1]:

Mán ñwè? dāy lā zúg kà police gbāñ'á_ m.

1SG:COMP strike:**PFV** man:**SG** **ART** upon and police seize:**PFV** **1SGO**.

"Because I struck the man the police arrested me."

It is commoner for causation to be simply implied by a pre-subject *ñ*-Adverbial Clause or by a Sequential Clause construction:

Mán ñwè? dāy lā, kà police gbāñ'á_ m.

1SG:COMP strike:**PFV** man:**SG** **ART** and police seize:**PFV** **1SGO**.

"I having struck the man, the police arrested me."

M̄ ñwé? dāy lā, kà police gbāñ'á_ m.

1SG strike:**PFV** man:**SG** **ART** and police seize:**PFV** **1SGO**.

"I struck the man and the police arrested me."

yēlá⁺ "concerning" appears after an *ñ*-Adverbial Clause in section headings in the NT:

Jesus n kpen' Jerusalem la yela

Jesus ñ kpèñ? Jerusalem lā yélà

Jesus **COMP** enter:**PFV** Jerusalem **ART** about

"[about] Jesus entering into Jerusalem."

The NT favours *ñ*-Adverbial Clauses alone as picture captions:

Ban meed yir

Bán mḕed yīr

3PL:COMP build:**IPFV** house:**SG**

"A house being built"

Paul n sobid gboŋ nwa

Paul ñ sōbɪd gbáŋŋ ñwá

Paul **COMP** write:**IPFV** letter:**SG** this

"Paul writing this letter"

33.2 Relative Clauses

In an *ñ*-Clause with no relative pronoun the *ñ* acts as a complementiser producing an AdvP meaning "it being the fact that X":

Dāy lā dāa záb nà'ab lā.

Man:**SG ART TNS** fight:**PFV** chief:**SG ART**

"The man fought the chief"

dāy lá_∅ dāa záb nà'ab lā

Man:**SG ART COMP TNS** fight:**PFV** chief:**SG ART**

"the man having fought the chief"

However, a short demonstrative or an indefinite pronoun in an *ñ*-Clause functions as a relative; the meaning is then that of the pronoun or the cb before the determiner, as modified by the rest of the clause, usually with a restrictive sense. A restrictive meaning is probably necessary unless the construction is appositional [33.2.4], and is usual even then. Compare [31.3] on Supplement *kà*-clauses, used typically with a non-restrictive relative meaning.

dāy-kànɪ_∅ dāa záb nà'ab lā

Man-**DEM.SG COMP TNS** fight:**PFV** chief:**SG ART**

"the man who fought the chief"

dāy lá_∅ dāa záb nà'-sɔ' lā

Man:**SG ART COMP TNS** fight:**PFV** chief-**INDF.HU ART**

"the chief whom the man fought"

Paul n sob gbauŋ si'a n tis Efesus dim la

Paul ñ sōb gbáuy-sī'a n tís Efesus dí'm lā

Paul **COMP** write:**PFV** letter-**INDF.NH SER** give:**PFV** Ephesus individual.**PL ART**
 "the letter which Paul wrote to the Ephesians" (NT heading)

As here, an Indefinite relative remains in situ and need not be either initial or final within the relative clause, so this type of relative clause is internally headed. The type with demonstratives as relatives evidently originated in internally headed constructions too, but many speakers reintroduce *ñ* after initial demonstratives even when their rôle within the relative clause is not as subject [33.2.2]. Moreover, the appositional use of demonstrative-type relative clauses is frequent and the preceding NP in such cases behaves as an external head [33.2.4].

The form of the relative pronoun is determined by its position within the *ñ*-Clause: it must be a short demonstrative pronoun [17.2] if it either comes first in the *ñ*-Clause or is a dependent attached to the first word; otherwise it must be an indefinite pronoun [17.3], with a few cases of other determiners occurring [33.2.3]. There appears to be no difference in the meaning of the two types of pronoun in those cases when either could be used as relatives. In particular, the Indefinite pronouns are found in cases where the reference is definite and old information, e.g.

Ka bugum n dit teŋtita'ar si'a la nyo'os dut ne agol saŋa dine ka' benne.

Kà bùgúm ñ dít téŋ-títá'ar-sī'a lā ñyó'òs dùt né

And fire **COMP** eat:**IPFV** land-big-**INDF.NH ART** smoke ascend:**IPFV FOC**

àgól sāŋá dìn_ ∅ kā' bēnne +∅.

ADV:upwards time:**SG DEM.NH COMP NEG.HAVE** end:**SG NEG.**

"The smoke of **that great city** which fire is consuming is going up for time without end." (Rev 19:3), referencing the ongoing topic of the previous chapter *Babilon teŋtita'ar* "the great city of Babylon" (Rev 18:21)

33.2.1 Indefinites as Relatives

Thus, one type of relative clause leaves the antecedent in situ within an *n̄*-Clause, marking it as the antecedent and head of the whole by the fact that it either is an indefinite pronoun or has a dependent indefinite post-determining pronoun.

This construction cannot relativise subjects or indirect objects, or extract constituents from phrases or subordinate clauses. It is less common than the antecedent-first patterns described below 33.2.2 in cases where both constructions are possible; it is not clear what factors determine the choice in such cases.

33.2.1.1 Antecedent Rôles

Direct objects, predicative and locative complements, and adjuncts may be relativised by an Indefinite relative left in situ:

Ón yèl sīʔəl lā kāʔ sīdaa +∅.
3HU:COMP say:PFV INDF.NH ART NEG.BE truth NEG.
 "What he says is not true" SB

dāy lá_∅ zàb nàʔ-sīʔ lā
man:SG ART COMP fight:PFV chief-INDF.HU ART
 "the chief whom the man fought"

nàʔab lá_∅ zàb sīəba lā
chief:SG ART COMP fight:PFV INDF.PL ART
 "those whom the chief fought"

dāy lá_∅ sīb gbán-sīʔa lā
man:SG ART COMP write:PFV letter-INDF.NH ART
 "the letter which the man has written"

Ka ban tum so' la ku gaad one tum o la.

Kà bán tùm sīʔ lā kú gāad ʒnì_∅ tùm·o_∅
And 3PL:COMP send:PFV INDF.HU ART NEG.UNR surpass:PFV 3HU:COMP send:PFV 3HUO
lāa +∅.
ART NEG.

"The one who was sent does not surpass the one who sent him." (Jn 13:16)

M mi' fun a so'.

M̄ m̄' fún à s̄'.

1SG know 2SG:COMP COP INDF.HU

"I know who you are." (Lk 4:34)

Tiig wela bigisid lin a tisi'a.

Tiig wélà bigisid lín à tí-s̄'a.

Tree:SG fruit:PL show:IMPF 3NH:COMP COP tree-INDF.NH

"The fruit of the tree shows what tree it is." (Mt 12:33)

S̄'am^m, the form of the indefinite pronoun system with the mass *m*^m Class suffix, is frequent in adverbial use as "somehow" and also as indefinite quantifier "some amount." Kusaal frequently uses manner-adverbs as predicative complements [25.2.1]. Accordingly, relative clauses with *s̄'am* as relative pronoun are common as objects of verbs of cognition, reporting, and perception:

Christ da kpi n tisi ti la ke ka ti ban nojir a si'em.

Christ_∅ dà kpì n tísì_ tī lā ké kà tì báj

Christ COMP TNS die:PFV SER give:PFV 1PLO ART cause:PFV and 1PL realise:PFV

nòjir_∅ à s̄'am.

love COMP COP INDF.ADV

"Christ's dying for us makes us understand what love is like." (1 Jn 3:16, 1976)

The article *lā*^{+/} has its usual function with *s̄'am* Relative Clauses:

M̄ m̄' mán nà nīŋ s̄'am.

1SG know 1SG:COMP UNR do:PFV INDF.ADV.

"I know what to do."

M̄ m̄' mán nà nīŋ s̄'am lā.

1SG know 1SG:COMP UNR do:PFV INDF.ADV ART.

"I know what I'm to do"

(WK: "You explained the plan earlier; this is my reply when you ask if I remember it")

In the 1976 NT almost all Relative Clauses with *s̄'am* and past tense marking have *lā*^{+/}; 75% lacking *lā*^{+/} have Unrealised Mood. Cf the two standing expressions

With verbs of doing a *sī'am* Relative Clause can be a manner-adverb:

Bà nìŋ ɔn yèlɿ_ bā sī'am lā.
3PL do:PFV 3HU:COMP tell:PFV 3PLO INDF.ADV ART.
 "They did as he'd told them."

which could answer *Bà nìŋ bɔ́?* or *Bà nìŋ àlá?* "What/how did they do?"

Like other AdvPs *sī'am* Relative Clauses can be verb subjects:

Man nonji ya si'em la ane bedego.
Mán nòŋɿ_ yā sī'am lā á nē bédugū.
1SG:COMP love 2PLO INDF.ADV ART COP FOC much.
 "How much I love you, is a lot." (2 Cor 7:3, 1976)

Sī'am Relative Clauses occur often as objects of *wōv* "like" and *wēn*^{na/} "resemble"

Ò zòt wōv búŋù_ ø zòt sī'am lā.
3HU run:IPFV like donkey:SG COMP run:IPFV INDF.ADV ART
 "He runs like a donkey (runs.)"

...ka ba ke ka nidib dol o wuu zingba'adib n gban'ad zimi si'em la.
...kà bà ké kà nīdɿb dɔ́ll-ó_ ø wōv zīm-gbāñ'adɿb ñ
 ...and **3PL cause:PFV** and person:**PL** follow **3HUO** like fish-catcher:**PL COMP**
gbāñ'ad zīmí sī'am lā.
catch:IPFV fish:PL INDF.ADV ART
 "... they would make people follow him like fishermen catch fish."
 (Mt 4:19, 1976)

Hālí (là'am) nē "although", alongside its use with *ñ*-Adverbial Clauses 33.1.2 can take a *sī'am* Relative Clause in the sense "despite how...":

hale ne man daa sobi ya si'em la
hālí nē mán sōbɿ_ yā sī'am lā
 even with **1SG:COMP** write:**PFV 2PLO INDF.ADV ART**
 "despite how I wrote to you" (2 Cor 7:12.)

33.2.2 Demonstratives as Relatives

It is much commoner for a relative clause to begin with a short demonstrative pronoun. If this is a head pronoun, the entire relative clause is an independent NP, but such structures are often used in apposition to a preceding NP which is then functionally the antecedent [33.2.4]. If the pronoun is a post-determiner, the head on which it depends is the antecedent to the relative clause.

If the antecedent is the subject within the relative clause, it is followed by the complementiser *̀̀*:

M̀ ńyé dáy-kànı_ ̀̀ zàb nà'ab lā.
1SG see:PFV man-DEM.SG COMP fight:PFV chief:SG ART
 "I saw the man who fought the chief."

bànı_ ̀̀ zàb nà'ab lā
DEM.PL COMP fight:PFV chief:SG ART
 "those who fought the chief"

If it is a direct or indirect object, or an adverb, or part of a subordinate clause within the relative clause, the initial relative pronoun is followed by *kà*:

nà'-kàn kà dāy lā záb lā
 chief-DEM.SG and man:SG ART fight:PFV ART
 "the chief whom the man fought"

bàn kà nà'ab lā záb lā
DEM.PL and chief:SG ART fight:PFV ART
 "those whom the chief fought."

one ka ba tis o ka li zu'e
̀̀nı_ ̀̀ kà bà tıs-ò_ ̀̀ kà lì zú'e
DEM.HU COMP and 3PL give:PFV 3HUO and 3NH become.much:PFV
 "he to whom they have given much" (Lk 12:48)

yikan ka mam Paul be la
yī-kán kà mām Paul bé lā
 house-DEM.SG and 1SG.CNTR Paul EXIST ART
 "the house where I, Paul, am" (Rom 16:23, 1976)

So too when the antecedent is a pre-determiner of a NP which is not the subject within the relative clause:

on buudi ka Jew dim kis

òn būudí kà Jew díim kīs

DEM.HU tribe:**SG** and Jew individual:**PL** hate

"whose tribe the Jews hate" (Lk 10:33)

My informant WK has always *òn lìn bàn kàn* before this *kà*, but written materials very frequently show *one line bane kane*:

gbankane ka dau la sob la

for *gbàn-kàn kà dāy lā sōb lā*

letter-**DEM.SG** and man:**SG ART** write:**PFV ART**

"the letter which the man has written"

The -e shows that complementiser-*ñ* follows; this is unexpected if constructions like these arose by ellipsis from e.g. **lín à gbàn-kàn kà dāy lā sōb lā* "the one which is the book the man wrote." However, many speakers evidently reintroduce the complementiser after the initial pronoun regardless of its rôle within the relative clause, not only before *kà* but even between possessor and possessum:

Dau kane yadda niñir pu zu'e la

dāy-kàn_ ∅ yàddā-niñir pū zú'e lā

man-**DEM.SG COMP** assent-doing:**SG NEG.IND** become.great:**PFV ART**

"O man whose faith is not great..." (Mt 14:31)

Toende Kusaal shows the same development. Complementiser-*ñ* is *ne* in Toende, and Serial-*n* is segmentally, at least, \emptyset . Thus Abubakari 2011 (using her orthography):

N sa nye buraa kanne da da'a gbana la.

"I saw the man who bought the book."

With *ne* before *ka* in relative clauses:

Buraa kanne ka fo bor la kij tuma.

"The man you are looking for is gone to work"

N sa nye buraa kanne ka Ayi da nye la.

"I saw the man that Ayi saw."

33.2.2.1 Antecedent Rôles

If the antecedent is the subject within a Relative Clause, the relative pronoun is always a short demonstrative (head or dependent) followed by *n*:

bàni_ø zàb nà'ab lā
DEM.PL COMP fight:PFV chief:SG ART
 "those who fought the chief"

M ñyé dáy-kàni_ø zàb nà'ab lā.
1SG see:PFV man-DEM.SG COMP fight:PFV chief:SG ART
 "I saw the man who fought the chief."

The antecedent may be a *pre-determiner* (possessor, typically) of the subject in the relative clause. The short demonstrative pronouns must be used for relatives, and if the *ñ* particle is present it *intervenes* between the demonstrative relative and the head NP of the subject: the sequence "demonstrative + *ñ*" effectively functions as a relative pronoun:

nimbane yuda sob Pe'ebil la nyovurpaal dim la gbaun la ni
nīn-bāni_ø yūdā sōb Pē'-bíl lā ñyó-vūr-páàl
 person-**DEM.PL COMP** name:**PL** write:**PFV** Lamb:**SG ART** breath-alive-new:**SG**
dím lā gbáun lā ní
 individual.**PL ART** book:**SG ART LOC**
 "those whose names are written in the Lamb's book of those with new life"
 (Rev 21:27)

With all other rôles of the antecedent within the relative clause, the relevant constituent within the relative clause must be preposed with *kà* so that it can precede the demonstrative relative. This is the only case where preposing with *kà* may occur within a subordinate clause. There is no focus or foregrounding sense, and it is not clear whether there is any but a stylistic difference between this construction and the type with Indefinite relatives in situ in those cases where that is a possible alternative.

Only the *kà*-preposing type with demonstrative relatives is possible with indirect objects, or with antecedents extracted from a prepositional phrase or from a subordinate clause. In all these cases an explicit resumptive pronoun occurs in the corresponding gap within the relative clause:

One ka ba tis o ka li zu'e, ba me mor poten'er ye o na lebis line zu'e.

Ǫnɪ̃_ ∅ kà bà tís-ò_ ∅ kà lì zúʔe, bà mè mòr

DEM.HU COMP and **3PL** give:**PFV** **3HUO** and **3NH** become.much:**PFV**, **3PL** also have

pú-těñʔer yé ò nà lēbɪs línɪ̃_ ∅ zùʔe.

inside-mind:**SG** that **3HU UNR** return:**PFV** **DEM.NH COMP** become.much:**PFV**

"He who they have given much to, they too expect that he will return much."

(Lk 12:48)

Búraa sō dāa bē ànīa, òn kà mān néōn dāa túm lā.

Būrā-sōʔ dāa bé ànínā, òn kà mān nē ɔn dāa túm lā.

Man-**INDF.HU TNS** **EXIST** **ADV**:there, **DEM.HU** and **1SG** with **3HU TNS** work:**IPFV** **ART**

"There was a man there whom I used to work with." ILK

nijkan ka ba ke ka ba gban'e o la

nīn-kán kà bà ké kà bà gbāñʔ-ó_ ∅ lā

person-**DEM.SG** and **3PL** cause:**PFV** and **3PL** seize:**PFV** **3HUO** **ART**

"a person whom they have caused to be seized" (Acts 25:16)

nij kane ka na'ab Aretus ke ka o so'e Damaskus la

nīn-káni_ ∅ kà nàʔab Aretus ké kà ò sōʔe Damaskus lā

person-**DEM.SG COMP** and king:**SG** Aretus cause:**PFV** and **3HU** own Damaskus **ART**

"the person King Aretus had caused to possess Damascus" (2 Cor 11:32)

lin ka Kiristo bood ye ti pian' la

lìn kà Kiristo bóòd yé tì pḷāñʔ lā

DEM.NH and Christ want that **1PL** speak:**PFV** **ART**

"what Christ wishes us to say" (2 Cor 12:19)

nimbane ka ya ten'es ye ba a nintitada la

nīn-báni_ ∅ kà yà tēñʔes yé bà à nīn-títāda lā

person-**DEM.PL COMP** and **2PL** think:**PFV** that **3PL COP** person-great:**PL** **ART**

"those whom you consider to be great" (Gal 2:6)

Only the *kà*-preposing type is possible when the antecedent corresponds to a pre-determiner/possessor of a NP which is not the subject within the relative clause. The demonstrative relative then precedes the head as its determiner:

Samaritan nid (on buudi ka Jew dim kis)

Samaritan níd, òn būudí kà Jew díḿ kīs

Samaritan person:**SG** **DEM.HU** tribe:**SG** and Jew individual.**PL** hate

"a Samaritan, whose tribe the Jews hate" (Lk 10:33)

biig kan poog ka o mor la

biig-kàn púùg kà ò m̄r lā

child-**DEM.SG** belly:**SG** and **3HU** have **ART**

"the child she is pregnant with" (Mt 1:20) ("child whose pregnancy she has")

Direct objects, complements and adjuncts may be relativised by *kà*-preposing, in this case alongside constructions with indefinite relatives [33.2.1.1]. There is no explicit resumptive pronoun in these cases; compare null anaphora in Verb Phrases [25.1.1].

Gbauŋ kane ka Jerusalem kpeenmnam daa sob la nwa.

Gbàùŋ-kàn ∅ kà Jerusalem kpéèñm-nàm dāa sōb lā ∅ ñwá.

Letter-**DEM.SG** **COMP** and Jerusalem elder-**PL** **TNS** write:**PFV** **ART** **SER** this.

"This is the letter that the elders of Jerusalem wrote." (heading, Acts 15:23)

nàʔ-kàn kà dāy lā záb lā

chief-**DEM.SG** and man:**SG** **ART** fight:**PFV** **ART**

"the chief whom the man fought"

bàn kà nàʔab lā záb lā

DEM.PL and chief:**SG** **ART** fight:**PFV** **ART**

"those whom the chief fought."

nàʔ-kàn kà dāy lā dāa záb lā

chief-**DEM.SG** and man:**SG** **ART** **TNS** fight:**PFV** **ART**

"the chief whom the man fought"

gbàn-kàn kà dāy lā sōb lā

letter-**DEM.SG** and man:**SG** **ART** write:**PFV** **ART**

"the letter which the man has written"

m antu'a lin ka ba mor la

m̄ àntùʔa lìn kà bà m̄r lā

1SG case **DEM.NH** and **3PL** have **ART**

"the charge they have against me" (Acts 25:11)

yeltood ayopoi bane ka maleknama ayopoi mor la

yēl-tóòd àyópòę bání ∅ kà màlĕk-námá ∅ àyópòę m̄r lā

matter-bitter:**PL** **NUM**:seven **DEM.PL** **COMP** and angel-**PL** **NUM**:seven have **ART**

"the seven plagues which the seven angels have" (Rev 15:8)

sān-kán kà nà'ab lā kpí lā
 time-**DEM.SG** and chief:**SG ART** die:**PFV ART**
 "at the time the chief died"

Relative clauses with locative reference do not take the locative *ni*⁺ 22.3:

yikan ka mam Paul be la yidaan
yī-kán kà mām Paul bé lā yí-dáàn
 house-**DEM.SG** and **1SG.CNTR** Paul **EXIST ART** house-owner:**SG**
 "the owner of the house where I, Paul, am" (Rom 16:23, 1976)

33.2.3 Other Determiners as Relatives

The vast majority of relative clauses use the demonstrative or indefinite pronouns as relatives.

However, occasional forms, always of the in-situ type, occur with other determiners: for example, ordinal expressions can function as relatives:

Paul n sob gbauṅ yiiga daan n tis Korint dim la nwa.
Paul ñ sōb gbáṅ yīgá dāan n tís
 Paul **COMP** write:**PFV** letter:**SG** firstly owner:**SG SER** give:**PFV**
Korint díṃ lā_∅ ñwá.
 Corinth individual.**PL ART SER** this.
 "This is the first letter which Paul wrote to the Corinthians." (NT heading)

Cf *Paul n sob gbauṅ-si'a n tis Galatia dim la nwa.*
Paul ñ sōb gbáṅ-sī'a n tís
 Paul **COMP** write:**PFV** letter-**INDF.NH SER** give:**PFV**
Galatia díṃ lā_∅ ñwá.
 Galatia individual.**PL ART SER** this.
 "This is the letter which Paul wrote to the Galatians." (NT heading)

Perhaps parallel, but with the deictic *ñwà*⁺ "this" instead of a determiner, is

Zugsob yel ye, Man voe nwa...
Zūg-sób yél yē, Mán vōḗ ñwá ...
 head-one:**SG** say:**PFV** that **1SG.COMP** be.alive this ...
 "The Lord says: As I live .." (Rom 14:11)

33.2.4 Appositional Relative Clauses

Written materials frequently show constructions with a human-reference NP followed by a Relative Clause introduced by *one* or *bane*. Before *one*, the preceding word never appears as a combining form. Examples may even show antecedents with a coordinate structure, which must represent appositional constructions:

Mam Paul ne Timoti bane a Yesu Kiristo tumtumrib n sob gbauŋ kaŋa nwa.

Mām Paul nē Timoti bání_ ∅ à Yesu Kiristo túm-tūmníb

1SG.CNTR Paul with Timothy **DEM.PL COMP COP** Jesus Christ work-worker:**PL**

n sōb gbáuy-kàŋā ñwá.

SER write:**PFV** letter-**DEML.SG** this.

"I, Paul, and Timothy, servants of Jesus Christ, wrote this letter." (Phil 1:1)

On apposition elsewhere with human reference see [21.5](#) [21.8.1.5](#).

Appositional constructions are necessary, regardless of gender, when the antecedent cannot appear as a combining form, e.g. with coordinate structures or quantifiers (compare [21.5](#) [17.2](#)):

*salima laas ayopoi line ka Wina'am one be saŋa line ka' ben la supeen
pe'eli ba ni la*

sālma láàs àyópòɛ líní_ ∅ kà Wínà'am óní_ ∅ bē

gold vessel:**PL** NUM:seven **DEM.NH COMP** and God **DEM.HU COMP EXIST**

sāŋá lìní_ ∅ kā' bēn lā súñ-péèn pɛ'ɛlí_ bā ní lā

time:**SG** **DEM.NH COMP NEG.HAVE** end:**SG** **ART** heart-whiteness fill:**PFV** **3PLO LOC ART**

"the seven gold bowls filled with the anger of God who exists for time without end" (Rev 15:7)

Within the above example, *sāŋá* is unequivocally not a combining form in *saŋa line ka' ben la*.

An appositional relative clause may follow a noun with a post-determining pronoun of its own:

kokor kaŋa lini yi arazana ni la na

kòkɔr-káŋā líní_ ∅ yí àrazánà ní lā nā

voice-**DEML.SG** **DEM.NH COMP** emerge:**PFV** sky:**SG** **LOC ART** hither

"this voice which came from heaven" (2 Pet 1:18, 1976)

Appositional clauses with Demonstratives as relatives are typically, though not invariably, restrictive. In written sources the absence of tone marking, variability of word division, and the remodelling of combining forms on the model of the singular

make it impossible to be certain in many cases whether or not the construction is appositional, so it is difficult to find unequivocal test cases.

Appositional clauses also occur with Indefinites as relatives:

Ka Yesu daa keŋ Nazaret ban da ugus o teŋ si'a la.

Kà Yesu dāa kēŋ Nazaret bán dà ūgus·ó_∅ tēŋ-sī'a lā.

And Jesus **TNS** go:PFV Nazareth **3PL:COMP TNS** raise:PFV **3HUO** land-**INDF.NH ART**.

"And Jesus went to Nazareth, where he was raised." (Lk 4:16)

33.2.5 Article with Relative Clauses

With Relative Clauses with relative pronouns other than *sī'am* the function of the **article** after the clause is straightforward:

Ōn sōb á nē dáŋ-kànı_∅

3HU.CNTR individual.**SG COP FOC** man-**DEM.SG COMP**

sà kē nā sú'òs lā.

TNS come:PFV hither yesterday **ART**

"That one's the man who came yesterday."

Dàp-bànı_∅ bòɔd yé bà ñyḗé_ f ké nā.

Man-**DEM.PL COMP** want that **3PL** see:PFV **2SGO** come:PFV hither

"Some men who want to see you have come."

one du'a ne Siig

òni_∅ dŷ'à nē Sīg

DEM.HU COMP bear:PFV with spirit:**SG**

"someone born of the Spirit" (Jn 3:8)

one tumi m la na

òni_∅ tòmı_ m lā nā

DEM.HU COMP send:PFV **1SGO ART** hither

"he who sent me hither" (Mk 9:37)

(*òni* = short demonstrative + *ñ*; contrast *ón* 3sg subject pronoun with *ñ*)

Simple absence of the article here does duty for what with nouns is expressed with indefinite post-determining pronouns, of necessity as Relative Clauses cannot take any dependents other than the article or pre-determiners.

34 Information Packaging

34.1 Focus: Overview

The term "Focus" is used significantly differently in different grammars, and cross-linguistically it is not clear that there is even a fundamental common core to the concept. Apart from the theoretical challenges, the matter is difficult to investigate in practical terms. I had little acquaintance with these issues when I had access to Kusaal speakers, and it is not easy to remedy this retrospectively from my limited data. Much of this section is therefore very tentative.

As a starting point, I adopt the formulation from Lambrecht 1994: "[Focus] is the UNPREDICTABLE or pragmatically NON-RECOVERABLE element in an utterance. The focus is what makes the utterance into an assertion."

I will also adopt a distinction between **ordinary** and **contrastive focus**.

Separate from the notion of Focus is the concept of **foregrounding**, the usual function of it-clefting in English; as pointed out in Huddleston and Pullum, p1424, foregrounded elements in English need not be focussed.

Two syntactic devices in Kusaal evidently relate to Focus: the use of the particle $n\bar{e}^{+}/$ [34.1.1], and clefting with Serialiser n , along with corresponding ellipped versions [34.1.2]. Clefting constructions with the clause linker $k\grave{a}$ and corresponding ellipped types either relate to foregrounding rather than Focus [34.2], or are motivated simply by ordering constraints, with no foregrounding implications.

Main clauses without any special syntactic marking of Focus have ordinary focus on the predicate by default.

34.1.1 The Focus Particle $n\bar{e}^{+}/$

As a constituent-focus particle $n\bar{e}^{+}/$ has two distinct rôles, readily distinguishable by position: preceding a VP-constituent, $n\bar{e}^{+}/$ focusses that constituent, while VP-final $n\bar{e}^{+}/$ focusses the entire VP contrastively.

The focus particle is homophonous with the preposition $n\bar{e}$ "with, and" and with the empty particle $n\bar{e}$ which follows objects of comparisons when they do not have the article [23.1]; on distinguishing constituent-focus $n\bar{e}^{+}/$ from the preposition see [25.4].

Greater difficulty arises over the distinction from the $n\bar{e}^{+}/$ which is part of the aspect system [24.2]¹⁸, and which actually represents a specialised use of the same particle to focus the verb aspect. The aspect marker is subject to the same formal

18) In Dagbani, two different particles, mi and la , correspond to Kusaal $n\bar{e}^{+}/$, but they are in complementary distribution with no meaning difference to shed light on $n\bar{e}^{+}/$; together, they show much the same range of senses. Mampruli ni shares the initial n - of $n\bar{e}^{+}/$, but in the related languages the corresponding particles mostly have m -: Dagbani mi , Mooré me , Nabit and Farefare $m\bar{e}$; even Toende Kusaal has me .

constraints on appearance as the focus marker, and $n\bar{e}^{+}$ cannot appear twice in a clause to mark both focus and aspect [34.1.1.2]. The *aspectual* sense normally prevails wherever semantically and formally possible; otherwise, the particle is interpreted as constituent focus. When aspectual $n\bar{e}^{+}$ is excluded only by formal constraints, different verbal aspects still appear but are unmarked.

34.1.1.1 Ambiguity between Focus and Aspectual $n\bar{e}^{+}$

$N\bar{e}^{+}$ as focus marker of VP complements and adjuncts precedes the focussed constituent. If this constituent follows the verb, there is thus a potential ambiguity between the focus particle and the aspect marker. The default interpretation is as aspectual, but this requires the particle to be separated from the verb by at most a Liaison Enclitic, the Predicator to have Positive Polarity and Indicative Mood [24.4.1], and the verb not to be Passive [25.1.4]. If the verb has Perfective Aspect it must be capable of a Result Perfective interpretation [24.2.1.2]. With Adjectival Verbs and the verb $\grave{a}\grave{e}\grave{n}^{ya}$ "be something/somehow", $n\bar{e}^{+}$ may only occur, in a time-limiting sense, if there is an explicit time expression in the immediate context [24.2.2.2].

Furthermore, a generic subject is not semantically compatible with the Bounded Imperfective aspect. Thus $n\bar{e}^{+}$ after a VP with Imperfective Aspect must be focus-marking if the subject is generic:

Nīgí ðñbɪd nē mōɔd. "Cows eat grass." ("What do cows eat?")
 Cow:PL chew:IPFV FOC grass:PL.

A form like *nīgí* is in itself ambiguous between generic and specific indefinite interpretations (like English *cows* versus the explicitly specific-indefinite *some cows*) but the specific sense is only likely in the context of explicit introduction of a new discourse element [21.3]. By context, pronoun subjects also can be generic or specific:

Bà ðñbɪd nē mōɔd. "They (cows in general) eat grass."
 3PL chew:IPFV FOC grass:PL. or "They (particular cows) are eating grass."

A generic subject is compatible with the Event Perfective; this is seen, for example, in proverbs, though as proverbs shade into mini-anecdotes or analogies they may contain NPs that are not so much generic as illustrative or exemplary:

Kukoma da zab taaba ason'e bi'ela yela.
Kùkòma dá zàb tāabá à-sǎñ'e bī'elá yèla.
 Leper:PL TNS fight:PFV each.other PERS-better.than slightly about.
 "Lepers once fought each other about who was a bit better." KSS p40

34.1.1.2 Formal Constraints on the Appearance of $n\bar{e}^{+}/$

$N\bar{e}^{+}/$ cannot appear in either focus or aspectual sense

- (a) if the subject has n -focus
- (b) in subordinate clauses other than Content Clauses
- (c) in content questions

In commands, only VP-focus $n\bar{e}^{+}/$ is permitted. Neither constituent focus nor aspect marking may appear.

$N\bar{e}^{+}/$ may only occur **once in a clause** (not necessarily in the *first* VP of a Serial VP chain.) When $n\bar{e}^{+}/$ is present as marking focus, the possible Verbal Predicator aspect distinctions remain unchanged but are unmarked formally. This constraint reveals that the aspect marker is fundamentally a particular instance of the focus particle where the focus falls on the aspect of the verb.

Examples:

N -focussing of the subject excluding aspect marking:

\bar{M} $z\bar{u}gv_{_}\emptyset$ $z\bar{a}b\bar{i}d.$ "My head is hurting/hurts."
1SG head **SER** fight:IPFV. (Reply to "Where is the pain?")

$\bar{A}n\acute{o}^{\prime}n\bar{i}_{_}\emptyset$ $d\bar{i}t$ $s\acute{a}^{\prime}ab\bar{o}$ $+ \emptyset?$
 Who **SER** eat:IPFV porridge **CQ?**
 "Who eats/is eating millet porridge?"

Exclusion of $n\bar{e}^{+}/$ in subordinate clauses:

\bar{N} -Clauses:

\bar{O} $d\bar{a}a$ \acute{a} $n\bar{e}$ $b\bar{i}g.$ "She was a child."
3HU TNS COP FOC child:SG.

but $\acute{o}n$ \grave{a} $b\bar{i}g$ $\bar{l}\bar{a}$ $z\bar{u}g$ "because she's a child"
3HU:COMP COP child:SG **ART** upon

\bar{M} $y\bar{i}$ $n\bar{e}$ $B\acute{o}k.$ "I come from Bawku." SB
1SG emerge **FOC** Bawku.

Yadda niḡir yitne labaar la wumug ni.
 $\bar{Y}\grave{a}dd\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{i}\grave{g}\bar{i}r$ $y\bar{i}t$ $n\bar{e}$ $\bar{l}\bar{a}b\bar{a}ar$ $\bar{l}\bar{a}$ $w\acute{u}m\grave{u}g$ $n\bar{i}.$
 Assent-doing emerge:IPFV **FOC** news **ART** hearing **LOC.**
 "Faith comes from hearing the news." (Rom 10:17)

but *Meeri one yi Magdala*

Meeri ónì_ ø yī Magdala

Mary **DEM.HU COMP** emerge:**PFV** Magdala

"Mary who came from Magdala" (Mk 16:9)

Supplement Clauses:

Ì dāa pū ñyē dāy lá kà ò á ná'abā +ø.

1SG TNS NEG.IND see:**PFV** man:**SG ART** and **3HU COP** chief:**SG NEG.**

"I didn't see the man as a chief."

not **Ì dāa pū ñyē dāy lá kà ò á nē ná'abā.*

Contrast an *Insubordinate* Sequential clause 30.3.2 introduced by *kà*, showing aspectual *nē^{+/-}*:

Ka ba due keŋ. Ka ban ken la, Jesus gbisid ne.

Kà bà dūe_ ø kēŋ. Kà bán kēn lā, Jesus gbīsìd nē.

And **3PL** arise:**PFV SER** go:**PFV**. And **3PL:COMP** go:**IMPF ART**, Jesus sleep:**IPFV FOC**.

"So they started out. As they were travelling, Jesus was sleeping."

(Lk 8:22-23, 1976)

With a clause type that permits Aspect/Focus *nē^{+/-}*, the particle may occur in a non-initial VPs of a Serial VP chain:

O pu ma' n tis ninsaala, amaa [ye] o ma' n tisne Wina'am.

Ò pū má' n tìs nīn-sáalā +ø, àmáa ò mà'?

3HU NEG.IND lie:**PFV SER** give:**PFV** person-smooth:**SG NEG** but **3HU** lie:**PFV**

n tís nē Wínà'am.

SER give:**PFV FOC** God.

"He has not lied to a human being; rather, he has lied to *God*." (Acts 5:4, 1976)

(*nē* in a second Serial VP.)

Exclusion of *nē^{+/-}* in content questions: aspect-marking *nē^{+/-}*:

Bó kà fù kúesìda +ø?

"What are you selling/do you sell?"

What and **2SG** sell:**IPFV CQ?**

Fù kúesìd bó +ø?

"What are you selling/do you sell?"

2SG sell:**IPFV** what **CQ?**

Bó kà fù kúmmà + \emptyset ? "Why are you crying/do you cry?"
What and **2SG cry:IPFV CQ?**

Fù níńìd bọ́ + \emptyset ? "What are you doing/do you do?"
2SG do:IPFV what CQ?

Fù wá?e yáa + \emptyset ? "Where are you going (just now)?"
2SG go where CQ?

Constituent-focus *nĒ*^{+/-}:

Mām á bọ́ + \emptyset ? "What am I?"
1SG.CNTR COP what CQ?

Fù áá_ àńs'wne + \emptyset ? "Who are you?"
2SG COP who CQ?

Fù bọ́d nĒ bọ́ + \emptyset ? "What do you want it with?"
2SG want with what CQ? *NĒ* must be interpreted as preposition (WK)

Commands permitting *nĒ*^{+/-} only in VP-focussing rôle:

Ò gòsìd nĒ. "She's looking."
3HU look:IPFV FOC.

Gòsìm kpĒ. "Look here!"
Look:**IMP** here.

but *Gòsìm nĒ.* "Look!" ("Don't touch." WK)
Look:**IMP FOC.**

Ò à nĒ bāańlím. "She is quiet."
3HU COP FOC quiet:ABSTR.

but *À bāańlím!* "Be quiet!"
COP quiet:ABSTR.

NĒ^{+/-} focussing a constituent, thereby leaving aspect distinctions unmarked:

M pú?usìdī_ f nĒ. "I'm greeting you."
1SG greet:IPFV 2SGO FOC.

Ò kùəsídī bá nē. "She's selling them."
 3HU sell:IPFV 3PLO FOC.

but Ò kùəsíd sūmma lā nē.
 3HU sell:IPFV groundnut:PL ART FOC.
 "She *sells/is selling* the groundnuts." ("They're not free.")

Tì dítt sāʔab nē záàm.
 1PL eat:IPFV porridge FOC evening.
 "We eat/are eating millet porridge *in the evening*."

34.1.1.2.1 Omission of $nē^{+/-}$ in Replies

The Bounded Imperfective omits the particle $nē^{+/-}$ in replying to polar questions or responding to questions by repeating the verb:

A: Gòsım! "Look!"
 B: M̀ gósìd! "I'm looking!"
 A: F̀ò gósìd nēē? "Are you looking?"
 B: M̀ gósìd! "I'm looking!"

This probably simply represents the cross-linguistically common phenomenon of ellipsis in declarative replies to questions [29.1.4].

34.1.1.3 VP Constituent Focus

Focus on an **indefinite object** represents it as "unpredictable or pragmatically non-recoverable" information, as for example in supplying an answer to a content question; this is **ordinary** focus [34.1]:

M̀ dáʔ nē búŋ. "I've bought a donkey."
 1SG buy:PFV FOC donkey:SG. ("What have you bought?")

Nīgí òñbɪd nē m̄ɔɔd. "Cows eat *grass*."
 Cow:PL chew:IPFV FOC grass:PL. ("What do [generic] cows eat?")

However, under the scope of a negative, focus is likely to be **contrastive**:

M̀ p̄ú dáʔ nē búŋā +∅.
 1SG NEG.IND buy:PFV FOC donkey NEG.
 "I haven't bought a *donkey*." ("I bought something else.")

With **definite objects/predicative complements**, because definiteness implies old-information status, the ordinary-focus sense of "unpredictable or pragmatically non-recoverable" is likely to be difficult. *NĒ* before a definite object is in fact usually aspectual:

Nīgí lā ǎ̀b̀d nē mṑd lā.

Cow:PL ART chew:IPFV FOC grass:PL ART.

"The cows are eating the grass."

Nā́-síə̀bà ǎ̀b̀d nē mṑd lā.

Cow-INDF.PL chew:IPFV FOC grass:PL ART.

"Some cows are eating the grass."

but if focus does occur with old-information arguments, it is **contrastive**.

O pu ma' n tis ninsaala, amaa [ye] o ma' n tisne Wina'am.

Ò pū máʔ n tìs nīn-sáalā +∅, àmáa ò màʔ

3HU NEG.IND lie:PFV SER give:PFV person-smooth:SG NEG but 3HU lie:PFV

n tís nē Wínàʔam.

SER give:PFV FOC God.

"He has not lied to a human being; rather, he has lied to *God*." (Acts 5:4, 1976)

Lin ka ba'amaanib maani tit ba'ar, ba maani tisidne kikirbe'ednam ka pu maani tisidne Wina'am.

Lìn kà bàʔ-māannib máànni_ ∅ tít báʔàr,

DEM.NH and idol-sacrificer:PL sacrifice:IPFV SER give:IPFV idol:SG

bà màannu_ ∅ tísìd nē kíkīr-béʔèd-nàm kà pū máànni_

3PL sacrifice:IPFV SER give:IPFV FOC fairy-bad-PL and NEG.IND sacrifice:IPFV

∅ tísìd nē Wínāʔamm +∅.

SER give:IPFV FOC God NEG.

"That which idol-worshippers sacrifice to an idol, they sacrifice to *evil spirits* and they don't sacrifice to *God*." (1 Cor 10:20, 1976)

The predicative complement of *àəñ*^{ya} "be something/somehow" in its ascriptive sense [26.2] is non-referring and almost prototypically "unpredictable or pragmatically non-recoverable", and therefore is naturally preceded by *nē* for **ordinary** focus:

Ò à nē bīg.

"She is a child."

3HU COP FOC child:SG.

- Ò *dāa á nē bīg.* "She was a child."
3HU TNS COP FOC child:SG.
- Ò *à nē nīn-súŋ.* "She's a good person."
3HU COP FOC human-good:SG.
- Dīb á nē bōn-súŋ.* "Food is a good thing."
 Food **COP FOC thing-good:SG.**
- Ò *à nē bāańlīm.* "She is quiet."
3HU COP FOC quiet:ABSTR.
- Lì *à nē zāalīm.* "It's empty."
3NH COP FOC empty:ABSTR.
- Lì *à nē bōgusígā.* "It's soft."
3NH COP FOC soft:ADV.

While such complements are characteristically indefinite, this is not invariably so: the pragmatic non-recoverability may lie in the internal relationship of the components of the complement, as for example in

Biis la diemid nε dua gbinin. Ba zamisid nε bula wa'ab. Ba anε Apam biis.

Bīis lā dī'əmīd nē dúañ gbínnīn. Bà zà'misid nē
 Child:PL ART play:IPFV FOC dawadawa:SG base:SG:LOC. 3PL learn:IPFV FOC
būla wá'áb. Bà à nē À-Pām bīis.

bula dance:SG. 3PL COP FOC PERS-Apam child:PL.

"The children are playing under a dawadawa tree. They are learning the *bula* dance. They are Apam's children." KKY p6

(The father Apam has already been mentioned, as have the children, but the fact that the children belong to Apam is new.)

Ka bunbuuda bane lu gon'os soogin la ane bane wum pian'ad la, ka...

Kà bōn-búvdà bànì_∅ lù gòń'ɔs súvgūn lā á nē
 And thing-planting:PL DEM.PL COMP fall:PFV thorn:PL among:LOC ART COP FOC
bánì_∅ wòm pjàń'ad lā, kà

DEM.PL COMP hear:PFV speech **ART**, and...

"And the seeds which fell among thorns are those who heard the word, but..."
 (Lk 8:14)

In this context proper names are non-referential (cf Huddleston and Pullum p402):

O yu'ur na ane Joon. "His name will be John." (Lk 1:60)
Ò yū'ur ná ā nē Joon.
3HU name:SG UNR COP FOC John.

Ò à né À-Wīn. "He is Awini."
3HU COP FOC PERS-Awini.

As with objects, when the complement falls under the scope of the negative (here with the negative verb *kā'ε*⁺ "not be") focus is difficult to interpret in the "ordinary" sense, so that if *nē* is present at all the result is normally **contrastive**:

M á nē dɥ'átà. "I'm a doctor."
1SG COP FOC doctor:SG.

M kā' dɥ'átāa +∅. "I'm not a doctor."
1SG NEG.BE doctor:SG NEG.

M kā' nē dɥ'átāa +∅. "I'm not a *doctor*." ("I'm a lab assistant.")
1SG NEG.BE FOC doctor:SG NEG.

Focus on a **Locative complement** [25.3] typically involves a definite pre-determiner of a locative postposition or an old-information place name, but locatives may be pragmatically non-recoverable because of their semantically oblique relationship to the verb: the fact that a referent is at a known place may easily be new information and result in **ordinary** focus on the locative. The head of a locative AdvP is the locative particle, with a zero allomorph in the case of words like Kusaal place names [22.3]; like other postpositions, it is not itself referential even though it has a pre-determiner. (Cf locatives as pre-modifiers [21.7.2.3].)

Dāy lā bé nē dɔ-kàŋā lā púvgūn.
Man:SG ART EXIST FOC hut-DEML.SG ART inside:LOC.
 "The man is inside that hut." (Reply to "Where is that man?")

Mām bé nē mɔɔgvn. "I'm in the bush." BNY p8
1SG.CNTR EXIST FOC grass:SG:LOC.

M yí nē Bók. "I come from Bawku." SB
1SG emerge:PFV **FOC** Bawku.

Yadda niḡir yitne labaar la wumug ni.

Yàddā-niḡir yít nē lābāar lā wúmùḡ ní.

Assent-doing emerge:IPFV **FOC** news **ART** hearing **LOC**.

"Faith comes from hearing the news." (Rom 10:17)

Contrast the existential use of *bè*⁺, where focus is not on the locative:

Dà̀y-s̄ʔ b́é d́ó-kàḡā lā púḡḡn.

Man-**INDF.HU** **EXIST** hut-**DEML.SG** **ART** inside:**SG** **LOC**.

"There is a certain man in that hut."

There are few examples of *nē*-focus on an **adjunct** in my data; one is

Tì dít s̄āʔab nē záàm. "We eat millet porridge *in the evening*."

1PL eat:IPFV porridge **FOC** evening. ("When do you eat porridge?")

34.1.1.4 VP Focus

When *nē* is placed finally in the VP and cannot be interpreted as aspectual, there is focus on the entire VP; this is usually **contrastive**, reflecting the fact that non-contrastive "ordinary" focus on the VP is the *default* state implied by the unmarked construction of a clause with a VP.

Examples:

Gòsim nē.

"Look!" ("Don't touch." WK)

Look:**IMP** **FOC**.

Ò kùəsɪd sūmma lā nē.

3HU sell:IPFV groundnut:PL **ART** **FOC**.

"She *sells/is selling* the groundnuts." ("They're not free.")

Ò ḡim nē.

"He's *short*." ("I was expecting someone taller.")

3HU be.short **FOC**.

Lì zùlm nē.

"It's *deep*."

3NH be.deep **FOC**.

M̄ b́óɔdī f nē.

"I really *love* you."

1SG want **2SGO** **FOC**.

Ò *dìgɪl* *nĕ̄.* "He's *laid it down.*" ("I thought he'd pick it up.")
 3HU lay.down:PFV FOC.

Ò *dìgɪn* *nĕ̄.* "He's *lain down.*"
 3HU lie.down:PFV FOC.

DK "Someone calls at your house and gets no answer; he thinks you're out, but I'm explaining that in fact you've gone to bed."

Kà *lì bódìg* *nĕ̄.* "It's *lost.*" Contradicting "someone hid it."
 And 3NH get.lost:PFV FOC.

For the effect of *kà* in making the aspectual sense *nĕ̄* of infelicitous see 30.3.2.1. Thus too

Kà *bà kúdìg* *nĕ̄.* "And they're *old.*"
 And 3PL grow.old:PFV FOC. DK: "You're saying they're old when he promised to give you new ones."

An idiomatic use, perhaps developed from pragmatic non-recoverability for social reasons (i.e. marking a euphemism), is seen in

Ò *zìʔən* *nĕ̄.* "She's *pregnant.*" (Not "She has stood still.")
 3HU stand.still:PFV FOC.

Verbs when used passively 25.1.4 may only have Event Perfective or Unbounded Imperfective aspects; thus a contrastive focus on the VP is forced in

Dāká *lā zánl* *nĕ̄.* "The box gets carried *in the hands.*"
 Box:SG ART carry.in.hands FOC. ("Not on your head.")

Dāká *lā zîd* *nĕ̄.*
 Box:SG ART carry.on.head:IPFV FOC.
 "The box is for carrying *on the head.*" ("Not carrying in the hands.")

Dāam *lā núùd* *nĕ̄.* "The beer is for *drinking.*"
 Beer ART drink:IPFV FOC. ("Not washing with!")

Lì *màʔan* *nĕ̄.* "It gets *cooled.*"
 3NH get.cool:IPFV FOC. ("Not heated!")

34.1.2 Constructions with Serialiser *n*

N-clefting uses a serial-verb construction in the sense of a relative clause with the subject as antecedent, after a main clause with *Lì à nē* "It is ..." The sense resembles that of the formally analogous "it-clefting" of English, *foregrounding* the clefted element and *backgrounding* the rest:

Ka dau me pu so'e o meŋ niŋgbinaa. Ka li ane o po'a so'e.

Kà dāy mé pū sū'ú ò mēŋ nín-gbīnáa +∅.

And man:SG also NEG.IND own 3HU self body-skin:PL NEG.

Kà lì á né ò pɥ'ā_∅ sū'e.

And 3NH COP FOC 3HU wife SER own.

"And a husband, too, does not own his own body. It is his wife who owns it."

(1 Cor 7:4, 1976)

Like it-clefting in English (Huddleston and Pullum p1416) the construction has an implicature of exhaustiveness and exclusiveness: it is the wife (only), not the husband, who is the owner.

Similarly, a main clause with a Non-Verbal Predicator may attach a serial-verb construction [27]:

Ano'on nwa n yiisid nidib tuumbe'ed n basida?

Àn'ò'n_∅ ñwá n yīisíd nīdīb túòm-bē'éd

Who SER this SER expel:IPFV person:PL deed-bad:PL

n básidà +∅?

SER throw.out:IPFV CQ?

"Who is this who drives people's sins out?" (Lk 7:49)

N-focus presumably arose from *n*-clefting by ellipsis of everything but the NP in the main clause. The focussed element stands first, followed by a *n* introducing the remainder of the clause; this *n* is phonologically identical to the Serial VP particle [9.3.2.1.2]. The clause lacks Independency Marking but has independent tense marking, unlike a non-initial VP. (Compare tense marking in ellipted indirect commands [24.3.1].)

The meaning of this construction is *focus* rather than *foregrounding*:

Wáafù_∅ dúm.ō_∅.

"A snake bit him." WK

Snake:SG SER bite:PFV 3HUO.

would be a felicitous reply to "What's happened?" as well as "Did a dog bite him?"

The focus meaning presumably arose to fill the gap caused by the fact that a clause subject cannot be focussed with *nē* [34.1.1].

Focus rather than foregrounding is also demonstrated by the fact that **Interrogative Pronouns as subjects are always *n*-focussed**. As a subject *àń'òń* "who" thus always appears as *àń'òń n* [aŋ:ŋɪ], virtually always written *ano'one* in NT.

Àń'òńì_ø kābírídà +ø?
 Who **SER** ask.for.entry:IPFV **CQ?**
 "Who is asking permission to enter?"

Clauses containing interrogative pronouns may not contain focus-*nē*^{+/}, an incompatibility which seems most readily explained by analysing interrogative pronouns as intrinsically focussed, though this is only syntactically manifested when they are subjects.

Furthermore, the focus particle *nē*^{+/} in all its rôles is excluded from clauses which are *n*-focussed, with verb aspect distinctions present but unmarked, as in other cases of formal exclusion of the marker [34.1.1.2]:

Ì zūgv_ø zábìd. "My head is hurting."
1SG head **SER** fight:IPFV. (Reply to "Where is the pain?")

cf *Ì zūg lā pú'alim nē.* "My head is hurting."
1SG head **ART** damage:IPFV **FOC**. (Reply to "What's the matter with you?")

Accordingly, the ellipted construction with Serialiser *n* after the subject represents focus, parallel to the use of *nē* with other clause constituents.

34.2 Clefting and Preposing with *kà*

Kà-clefting arises from constructions with Supplement *kà*-clauses [31.3] in a way similar to the development of *n*-clefting from Serial VPs:

Asee line a be'ed ma'aa ka m na tun'e niŋ.
Àséé líní_ø à bē'éd má'aa kà m ná tūñ'e_ø níŋ.
 Only **DEM.NH** **COMP** **COP** bad only and **1SG** **UNR** be.able **SER** do:PFV.
 "It's only that which is bad that I can do." (Rom 7:21)

Once again, there is an implicature of exhaustiveness and exclusiveness, in this case made explicit by *mà'aa* "only."

The preposed element may be extracted from a subordinate clause:

Li ane ya taaba bane pu'usid Wina'am ka li nar ka ya kad saria.

Lì à né yà tāaba bání_ ∅ pù'usid Wínà'am kà lì nár
3NH COP FOC 2PL fellow **DEM.PL COMP** greet:IPFV God and **3NH** must
kà yà kád sàríyà.
 and **2PL** drive:PFV judgment.

"It is your fellow-worshippers of God whom you must judge." (1 Cor 5:12)

As with *n*-clefting, there are similar constructions with a main clause with a Non-Verbal Predicate:

Ōni_ ∅ lá kà fù dāa ñyēt.
3HU.CNTR SER that and **2SG TNS** see:IPFV.
 "This is he whom you saw." WK

Ánó'oni_ ∅ ñwá kà tì ñyētá +∅?
 Who **SER** this and **1PL** see:IPFV **CQ?**
 "Who is this that we can see?"

Bō_ ∅ lá kà m ñyētá +∅?
 What **SER** that and **1SG** see:IPFV **CQ?**
 "What is that that I can see?"

Once again, there is a construction with ellipse of all the main clause except the NP. Independent tense marking is possible in the ellipted structure, as with *n*-focus. Preposed direct objects leave a null-anaphora gap [25.1.1].

Bó kà fù kúesida +∅? "What are you selling?"
 What and **2SG** sell:IPFV **CQ?**

Unlike the construction with *n*, the effect of *kà*-preposing remains *foregrounding*, not focus. Preposing with *kà* is compatible both with *n*-focus and with the occurrence of the focus particle *nē*^{+/}:

Bī'əl bī'ál kà kōlɔ pē'èl nē.
 Little little and river:SG get.full:PFV **FOC**.
 "Little by little, and a river is full." (Proverb)

Dinzug ka mam Paul n be sarega ni Yesu Kiristo zug yanam buudbane ka' Jew dim la yela.

Dìn-zúg kà mām Paul n bé sārīgá nì Yesu Kiristo zúg yānám
That-upon and **1SG.CNTR** Paul **SER EXIST** prison:**SG LOC** Jesus Christ upon **2PL.CNTR**
búùd-bàni_ ∅ kār Jew díím lā yélà.

tribe-**DEM.PL COMP NEG.BE** Jew individual.**PL ART** about.

"Therefore, I, Paul, am in prison for Jesus Christ because of you whose tribe is not Jewish." (Eph 3:1)

Kà-foregrounding of VP objects containing interrogative pronouns is very common. There is no syntactic movement rule as such for interrogative pronouns/proforms:

Bùgúm lā yít yáa nì ná +∅?

Fire **ART** emerge:**IPFV** where **LOC** hither **CQ?**

"Where is the light coming from?"

but *b̄* "what?" is very often preposed with *kà*, as in the example above; preposing is *required* if the sense is "why?" rather than "what?":

Bó kà fù kúmmà?

"Why are you crying?"

cf **Fù kúm b̄?*

*"What are you crying?"

This construction with *bó kà*... is by far the most frequent way of rendering "Why?", and most cases of *bó kà*... have this meaning, but foregrounding *b̄* in the normal sense "What?" occurs too:

Bo ka ti na niḡe?

"What are we going to do?" (Acts 21:22)

Bó kà tì ná niḡe +∅?

What and **1PL UNR** do:**PFV CQ?**

Other queried NP objects in content questions are often preposed with *kà*:

Nū[?]-bíbisá_ àlá kà fù ñyētá +∅?

Hand-small:**PL NUM:how.many** and **2SG** see:**IPFV CQ?**

"How many fingers can you see?"

Kà-preposing can also be used to extract an interrogative pronoun from a prepositional phrase; the original position must be filled by an anaphoric pronoun:

Ka ano'onam ka Wina'am sunf da pelig ne ba yuma piisnaasi la?

Kà ànó'òn-nàm kà Wínà'am súńf dá pèlìg né bà
 And who-**PL** and God heart:**SG TNS** go.white with **3PL**
yùma pīs nāasí lá +∅?
 year:**PL** tens four **ART CQ?**

"And who was God angry with for forty years?" (Heb 3:17)

As interrogative pronouns are intrinsically focussed, these constructions, like other cases of preposing with *kà*, are best regarded as foregrounding, not focus.

Preposing the object of an Invariable Verb is uncommon, and interrogative pronouns in such cases usually remain in situ:

Fù bóòd b́ +∅? "What do you want?"
2SG want what **CQ?**

Examples do occur, however:

Ningbiŋ bo buudi ka ba na ti mora?

nìn-gbīŋ b́-būudí kà bà ná tī mōrá +∅?
 Body-skin:**SG** what-sort and **3PL UNR** afterwards have **CQ?**
 "What kind of body will they have?" (1 Cor 15:35)

Predicative complements do not seem to permit preposing. Thus, the interrogative pronouns are left in situ in:

Mām á b́ +∅? "What am I?"
1SG.CNTR COP what **CQ?**

Kà fù áá_ ànó'ònè +∅? "Then who are you?"
 And **2SG COP** who **CQ?**

Adjuncts are often preposed with *kà*; there is probably a contrast between foregrounding with *kà* and focussing with *nē*:

Ñwādisá_ àtáń? kà fù ná lēb nā.
 Month:**PL** **NUM**:three and **2SG UNR** return:**PFV** hither.

"You're to come back in three months."

Instructions: not a reply to a question; excludes any other time.

Tì díṭ s̄āʔab nē záàm.

1PL eat:**IPFV** porridge **FOC** evening.

"We eat millet porridge in the evening."

Reply to "When do you eat porridge?"

Kà-preposed elements cannot be clause subjects, as is to be expected if the construction has arisen from ellipsis, because a Supplement Clause normally has a different subject from its main clause.

The only structure other than a NP (including *ḥ*-Clauses) or AdvP that I have found preposed with *kà* is *wōv* "like" + object:

Wōv búḡ nē kà ò zót.

Like donkey:**SG** like and **3HU** run:**IPFV**.

"It's like a donkey that he runs."

**Nē m̄ nūʔùḡ kà m̄ s̄īʔis.*

*With **1SG** hand:**SG** and **1SG** touch:**PFV**.

attempted for "With my hand, I touched it."

Kà-preposing is often simply a means of bringing a constituent before the clause subject with **no implication of foregrounding** at all. Purely formal *kà*-preposing is a feature of many relative clauses [33.2]. Manner, place and reason adjuncts can *only* precede the subject by *kà*-preposing, and *ḥ*-Adverbial Clauses as adjuncts must often precede the main clause subject so that constituent order parallels event order [24.2.1.1] [29.2] [28.1] [33.1.1] [30.3.2]:

Mán ṅwèʔ dāy lā zúḡ kà police gbāñʔá m.

1SG:COMP hit:**PFV** man:**SG** **ART** upon and police seize:**PFV** **1SGO**.

"Because I hit the man, the police caught me." ILK

34.3 Extraposition and Dislocation

A NP or AdvP placed after a distinctively phrase-final verb form must be an extraposed clause adjunct rather than part of the VP. The commonest cases involve manner-adverbs, where the effect seems to be to intensify the adverb:

Ya yidigiya bedego.

"You are very much mistaken." (Mk 12:27)

Yà yídìḡ yā bédvḡō.

2PL go.astray:**PFV** **INDEP** much.

M̄ púʔòs yā bédugō. "Thank you very much."
1SG greet:PFV INDEP much.

NP objects (other than pronouns) can be extraposed; the sense seems to be that the extraposed element is contrary to expectation:

Ò ñyè yā náʔàb lā. "He's seen the chief." ("of all people!")
3HU see:PFV INDEP chief:SG ART.

Ò dàʔ yā múj. "She's bought rice." ("of all things!")
3HU buy:PFV INDEP rice.

Contrast the effects of focussing with *nē*, and foregrounding by *kà*-clefting:

Ò dàʔ nē múj. "She's bought rice."
3HU buy:PFV FOC rice. (reply to "What did she buy?")

Lì à nē múj kà ò dáʔ. "It's rice that she's bought." ("not millet.")
3NH COP FOC rice and **3HU buy:PFV.**

Leftward dislocation of objects and complements on the basis of **weight**, without clefting or *kà*-preposing, occurs in e.g.

Wilkan be m ni ka pu wan na, m Ba' nwaadi li n basid.

Wil-kàn bè m̄ ní kà pū wénnā + \emptyset ,
 Branch-**DEM.SG EXIST 1SG LOC** and **NEG.IND** bear.fruit:**IPVF NEG.**

m̄ Bāʔ ñwáʔadī lí n básid.

1SG father:SG cut:IPFV 3NHO SER throw.out:**IPFV.**

"A branch which is in me and does not bear fruit, my father cuts out."

(Jn 15:2)

One ka ba tis o ka li zu'e, ba me mor poten'er ye o na lebis line zu'e.

Ònì \emptyset kà bà tí's-ò \emptyset kà lì zúʔe, bà m̄ m̄r

DEM.HU COMP and **3PL give:PFV 3HUO** and **3NH become.much:PFV, 3PL** also have
pú-tèñʔer yé ò nà lēbis línì \emptyset zùʔe.

inside-mind:**SG** that **3HU UNR return:PFV DEM.NH COMP** become.much:**PFV**

"He who they have given much to, they too expect that he will return much."

(Lk 12:48)

A heavy indirect object is right-dislocated to follow the object in

Mam Paul ... tisid gboŋ kaŋa Wina'am nidib bane a sida dim ka a yinni ne Jesus Christ Efesus teŋin la.

Mām Paul ... tísìd gbáyŋ-kàŋā Wínà'am níðìb bàni_ ∅ à
1SG.CNTR Paul ... give:IPFV book-DEML.SG God person:PL DEM.PL COMP COP
sīda díim kà á yīnní nē Jesus Christ Efesus téŋīn lā.

truth individual:PL and COP one with Jesus Christ Ephesus land:SG:LOC ART

"I, Paul ... give this letter to God's people who are truthful and one in Jesus Christ in Ephesus." (Eph 1:1, 1976)

34.4 Presentational Constructions

A number of constructions are employed to introduce new entities into discourse. The NPs referring to the entities are, naturally, characteristically indefinite; it is in this context that absence of the article *lā*⁺ typically reflects an indefinite but *specific* rather than generic reference [21.3]. The NP may (but need not) have an Indefinite post-determining pronoun or number.

The verb *bē*⁺ "be somewhere/exist" is frequent in presentational clauses, often with a following Serial VP construction [28] or Supplement Clause [31.3].

Dau da be mori o po'a yimmir

Dāy dá bē_ ∅ mōrí_ ò pŷ'à-yīmmír

Man:SG TNS EXIST SER have 3HU wife-single:SG

"There was a man who had one wife." KSS p26

Ka po'a so' da be more o bipuŋ ka kikirig dol o.

Kà pŷ'à-sō' dá bē_ ∅ mōrí_ ò bī-púŋ kà kīkīrīg dōll-ó_ ∅.

And woman-INDF.HU TNS EXIST SER have 3HU child-girl:SG and fairy:SG follow 3HUO.

"There was a woman whose daughter was oppressed by a devil." (Mk 7:25)

Farisee dim nid yinni da be...

Farisee díim nid yīnní dà bē ...

Pharisee individual.PL person:SG one TNS EXIST

"There was one man of the Pharisees ..." (Jn 3:1)

Dapa atan' n da be.

"There were once three men." KSS p16

Dāpá_ àtán' n dá bē.

Man:PL NUM:three SER TNS EXIST

Other verbs expressing location can introduce the subject as a new topic, and verbs of finding, seeing etc can introduce their objects in a similar way.

Ka dau daa zin'i Lystra ni ka pu tun'e kenna.

Kà dāy dāa zín'i Lystra ní kà pō tūñ'e_ ∅ kēnná +∅.

And man:SG TNS sit Lystra LOC and NEG.IND be.able SER go:IPFV NEG.

"There was a man in Lystra who could not walk." (Acts 14:8)

Anina ka o nye dau ka o yu'ur buon Aeneas.

Àníná kà ò ñyē dāy kà ò yū'ur búèn Aeneas.

ADV: there and 3HU see:PFV man:SG and 3HU name:SG call:IPFV Aeneas.

"There he found a man whose name was Aeneas." (Acts 9:33)

Change of polarity within a Serial VP construction, unusual elsewhere, may occur with presentational constructions:

Ya sieba be kpela n ku kpil asee ba ti nye Wina'am na'am la.

Yà sī̄ba bé kpēlá n kú kpī̄ +∅, àsée bà nà tì

2PL IND.F.PL EXIST here SER NEG.UNR die NEG, except 3PL UNR afterwards

ñyè Wínà'am ná'am lā.

see:PFV God kingdom ART.

There are some of you here who will not die before they see the kingdom of God." (Lk 9:27)

34.5 Free and Bound Personal Pronouns

There are environments in which only free pronoun *forms* are possible.

Isolation:	<i>Mánè?</i>	"Me?"
Apposition:	<i>mān Paul</i>	"I, Paul"
Coordination:	<i>tīnám nē fōn</i>	"us and you"
Relative Clause Antecedent:	<i>fōn-kánì ...</i>	"you, who ..."

and for some speakers, the 2nd persons before direct commands after a *yà*²-clause [32]. In these contexts the free pronoun forms are simply allomorphs of the bound pronouns; but in other contexts, the choice of a free pronoun over bound implies *contrast*. For the special case of **logophoric** use see [31.4.2].

A personal pronoun which is focussed [34.1] must be contrastive:

Mane a konbkem suŋ la.

Mān_ ∅ á kóñb-kì̄m-sù̄ŋ lā.

1SG.CNTR SER COP animal-tender-good:SG ART.

"I am the good shepherd." (Jn 10:11)

Bà ñyè nē mān. "They have seen *me*."

3PL see:PFV FOC 1SG.CNTR.

Fune mi', ka man zi'.

Fōni_ ∅ mī', kà mān zī'ɿ +∅.

2SG.CNTR SER know, and 1SG.CNTR NEG.KNOW NEG.

"You know but *I* do not know." (Rev 7:14)

Subordinate clauses cannot show any of the other markers of focus:

Li nar ka on du ka man sie.

Lì nàr kà ɔn dō, kà mān sīe.

3NH must and 3HU.CNTR rise:PFV, and 1SG.CNTR lower:PFV.

"He must increase and *I* must decrease." (Jn 3:30)

Contrastive pronouns as subjects of *ñ*-Clauses are distinguishable from the usual *non-contrastive* fused *ñ*-Clause pronoun subject series [17.1](#):

M ten'esug ane dau wusa naan a wuu mane a si'em la.

M̄ tēñ'esúg á nē dāy wūsa_ ↓ nāan á

1SG thought:SG COP FOC man:SG all COMP then COP

wūw mání_ ∅ à sī'əm lā.

like **1SG.CNTR COMP COP INDF.ADV ART.**

"My wish is that every man might be as *I* am." (1 Cor 7:7)

34.6 Focussing Modifiers

Focussing modifiers occur after top-level NPs or AdvP within clauses. They relate the NP or AdvP to the discourse context. Those which are not loanwords share the unusual morphological feature of forming the LF by adding *-ni* to the SF [7.4](#).

mè DK KT SB NT *mèn* WK; clause finally (all sources) *mèn*^e "also, too"

On kuos la men, o na tun'e n maal o yam bood si'em.

Ón kùes lā mén, ò nà tūñ'e n máal

3HU:COMP sell:PFV ART also, 3HU UNR be.able SER make:PFV

ò yám_ ∅ bòɔd sī'əm.

3HU mind COMP wish INDF.ADV

"After he'd sold it, too, he could have done whatever he wanted with it."

(following an *ñ*-Adverbial Clause) (Acts 5:4, 1976)

O po'a me kena. "His wife also came." (Acts 5:7)

Ò pɔʔā mé kè nā.

3HU wife:SG also come:PFV hither.

The particle may follow *kà* + ellipted subject pronoun 29.1.4.2 (1 Cor 15:38):

Wina'am tísìd ... ka me tísìd ...

Wínàʔam tísìd ... kà mé tísìd ...

God give:IPVF ... and also give:IPVF

"God gives ... and [God] also gives ..."

màʔaa (LF *màʔane*) "only"

Asee line a be'ed ma'aa ka m na tun'e niŋ.

Àséé líni_ ∅ à bēʔed máʔaa kà m ná tūñʔe_ ∅ níŋ.

Only DEM.NH COMP COP bad only and 1SG UNR be.able SER do:PFV.

"It's only that which is bad that I can do." (Rom 7:21)

(*Kà*-foregrounding of the NP, which also implies exclusiveness 34.2.)

gòllum^{ne} "only"

M níŋi_ lí m gòllum. "I did it myself alone."

1SG do:PFV 3NHO 1SG only

kòtāa^{ne} "at all"

Áyì kòtāa. "Not at all."

The added *-ne* of the LF of these words is found also with the quantifier *pāmm* SF *pāmné* LF "a lot" and the adverb *ñyāe*^{ne/} "brightly, clearly" 7.4.

The loanword **hālí**, in addition to its many other rôles, can be used preceding a top-level NP in the sense "even":

Hale tuumbe'ed dim niŋidi ala.

Hālí tùm-bēʔed díŋ níŋìdí_ àlá.

Even deed-bad:PL individual:PL do:IPVF ADV:thus.

"Even sinners do that." (Lk 6:33)

35 Negation

35.1 Negation of Clauses

Negation of clauses is achieved by using a negative marker particle in the Verbal Predicator [24.5] along with a clause-final Negative Prosodic Clitic [9.2].

Ti pu bood ye dau kaṇa a ti na'aba.

Tì pō bódòd yē dáṽ-kàṇā á tì nà'abā +∅.

1PL NEG.IND want that man-**DEML.SG COP 1PL** king:**SG NEG.**

"We don't want this man to be our king." (Lk 19:14)

Pō negates the Indicative, as above; Imperative is negated with *dā*:

Dìm nē Wīn, dā tú'às nē Wīnné +∅.

Eat:IMP with God:**SG, NEG.IMP** talk:**PFV** with God:**SG NEG.**

"Eat with God, don't talk with God."

The negative particle *ku* replaces the positive Unrealised Mood marker *nà*:

Ka man pian'ad la lee ku gaade.

Kà m̀ pjàñ'ad lā léε kù gāade +∅.

And **1SG** speech **ART** but **NEG.UNR** pass **NEG.**

"But my words will not pass away. (Mt 24:35)

35.1.1 Negative Verbs

There are four negative verbs, functionally equivalent to negative particle + verb: they are followed by a clause final Negative Prosodic Clitic, and they do not undergo tone overlay from Independency Marking [24.6.1.1].

mìt (always imperative) "see that it doesn't happen that ..." is construed with a following *kà*-clause of purpose [31.2]. In address to more than one person it may or may not have the usual postposed 2pl subject enclitic ^{ya}: *mìtī*.

Mit ka ya maal ya tuumsuma nidib tuon ye ba gosi yaa.

Mìt kà yà máal yà tùm-sùma nīdīb túèn

NEG.bring.about and **2PL** do:**PFV 2PL** deed-good:**PL** person:**PL** before

yé bà gōsíc yáa +∅.

that **3PL** look.at:**PFV 2PLO NEG.**

"See that you don't do your good deeds in front of people so they'll look at you." (Mt 6:1, 1976)

Mìt also appears with a NP object in the sense "beware of ..."; it is not followed by the Negative Prosodic Clitic in that case:

Miti ziri nodi'esidib bane kene ya sa'an na la.

Mìtì ∅ *zírí* *nò-dí'əsìdìb* *báni* ∅ *kēnní* *yà sà'an nā lā.*

Beware **2PLS** lie mouth-receiver:PL **DEM.PL COMP** come:IPFV **2PL** among hither **ART**.

"Beware of false prophets who come among you." (Mt 7:15)

zī⁺ "not know" seems to be used to the exclusion of **pū mī* in the Indicative:

Bùŋ-bāñ'ad zī' yē tēŋ túllā +∅.

Donkey-rider:SG **NEG.KNOW** that ground:SG be.hot **NEG**.

"He who rides a donkey does not know the ground is hot." (Proverb)

However, in the Unrealised Mood, the 1976 New Testament has

sansa kan ka ya ku mi'i

sānsá-kàn kà yà kú mī'i +∅

time-**DEM.SG** and **2PL NEG.UNR** know **NEG**.

"a time that you will not know"

(Mt 24:44, 1976; 1996 *ya ku banji* for *yà kú bāŋe*)

kā'e⁺ "not be, not have" appears as *kā'* in close connexion with a following word 9.1.3. It is the negative to both "be" verbs, *àeñ*^{ya} "be something/somehow" and *bè*⁺ "be somewhere, exist" and also to *mōr*^{a/} "have." **Pū bÉ* is not found, but *pū mōr* is quite common; *pū áeñ* is rare but can be found in contrastive contexts like

Māni ∅ *á du'átà àmáa fūn pū áeñyā* +∅.

1SG.CNTR SER COP doctor:SG but **2SG.CNTR NEG.IND COP** **NEG**.

"I'm a doctor, but you're not."

Examples:

Dāy lā kā' dōcōŋn lāa +∅.

Man:SG **ART NEG.BE** room:SG:LOC **ART NEG**.

"The man is not in the room."

Dāy lā kā' bīga +∅.

Man:SG **ART NEG.HAVE** child:SG **NEG**.

"The man hasn't got a child."

Dāy lā kāʔ náʔabā +∅. "The man isn't a chief."

Man:SG ART NEG.BE chief:SG NEG.

Dāy lā kāʔe +∅. "The man isn't there."

Man:SG ART NEG.BE NEG.

Dāy kāʔe dɔ́ɔgūn láa +∅.

Man:SG NEG.BE room:SG:LOC ART NEG.

"There's no man in the room."

Puʔā lā mór bīg àmáa dāy lā kāʔe +∅.

Woman:SG ART have child:SG but man:SG ART NEG.HAVE NEG.

"The woman has a child but the man hasn't."

kàʔasige (LF always: only appears clause finally) "not exist"

Ò bīg káʔasìgē +∅. "He has no child."

3HU child NEG.EXIST NEG.

35.2 Negative Raising

Negative Raising occurs in a way generally analogous to negative raising in English. It is normal with verbs taking purpose-clauses as complements:

Ti pu bood ye dau kaŋa a ti na'aba.

Tì pō bɔ̀d̩ yē dáy-kàŋā á tì nàʔabā +∅.

1PL NEG.IND want that man-DEML.SG COP 1PL king:SG NEG.

"We don't want this man to be our king." (Lk 19:14)

Li pu nar ye fu di fu ba'abiig po'a Herodiase.

Lì pō nār yé fù dí fù bāʔ-bîg puʔá Herodiase +∅.

3NH NEG.IND must that 2SG take 2SG father-child:SG wife:SG Herodias NEG.

"It's not right for you to marry your brother's wife Herodias." (Mt 14:4)

It occurs with a Content Clause following *tēñʔes^{e/}* "think":

Tiname sagidim aa o biis la, ti da ten'es ye Wina'am beilim wenne wuu ba'a ban ka ninsaal nok salima bee anzurifa bee kuga, n ten'esi maal ne o nu'use.

Tīnámì_∅ sādígím áá_∅ bīis lā, tì dā tēñ'ēs yē
1PL COMP since COP 3HU child:PL ART 1PL NEG.IMP think:PFV that

Wínà'am bélím wēn nē wūw bá'a bán kà nīn-sáàl
 God existence resemble with like idol:PL DEM.PL and person-smooth:SG

nōk sālma bēε ānzúrífà bēε kūgá n tēñ'ēs_∅ máàl
 take:PFV gold or silver or stone:PL SER think:PFV SER make:PFV
né ò nú'usē +∅.

with **3HU hand:PL NEG.**

"Since we are his children, we should not think that God's existence resembles idols which a human being thinks to make by hand using gold or silver or stone." (Acts 17:29)

Contrast Content Clauses after *mī*⁺ "know" or *bàŋ*^e "realise":

Bùŋ-bāñ'ad zī' yē tēŋ túllā +∅.

Donkey-rider:SG **NEG.KNOW** that ground:SG be.hot **NEG.**

"He who rides a donkey does not know the ground is hot."

Ka o ba' ne o ma daa pu baŋ ye o kpelim yaa.

Kà ò bā' né ò mà dāa pū bāŋ
 and **3HU father:SG with 3HU mother:SG TNS NEG.IND realise:PFV**
yé ò kpèlīm yāa +∅.

that **3HU remain INDEP NEG.**

"His father and mother did not realise that he had remained." (Lk 2:43)

ka o lee pu baŋ ye li ane one.

kà ò léε pū bāŋ yé lì à nē ōne +∅.

And **3HU but NEG.IND realise:PFV that 3NH COP FOC 3HU.CNTR NEG.**

"but she didn't realise it was him." (Jn 20:14)

Negative raising similarly occurs with Supplement Clauses attached to a NP as an anchor [31.3], when the anchor is the object of a verb like *ñyē*⁺ "see, find" used in the sense "see as...":

M dāa pū ñyē dāy lá kà ò á ná'abā +∅.

1SG TNS NEG.IND see:PFV man:SG ART and 3HU COP chief:SG NEG.

"I didn't see the man as a chief." KT

It is not seen after verbs expressing existence; so in particular with constituent negation constructions involving clefting [35.4] and a formally subordinate Supplement Clause:

Li lem ka' fun yel si'el la zug, ka ti niŋ o yaddaa.

Lì lèm kǎʔ fún yèl sɪʔəl lā zúg kà

3NH again **NEG.BE 2SG:COMP** say:**PFV INDF.NH** ART upon and

tì níŋ-ò_∅ yàddáa +∅.

1PL do:**PFV 3HUO** assent **NEG.**

"It is no longer because of what you said that we believe in him." (Jn 4:42)

Lì kǎʔ mǎn bīg kà fù ñwéʔē +∅.

3NH **NEG.BE 1SG.CNTR** child:**SG** and **2SG** beat:**PFV** **NEG.**

"It's not my child that you've beaten."

35.3 Position of the Negative Prosodic Clitic

The Negative Prosodic Clitic [9.2] normally appears at the end of the clause containing the negated verb, passing over all subordinate clauses:

Ti pu bood ye dau kaŋa a ti na'aba.

Tì pū bódòd yē dáu-kàŋā á tì nàʔabā +∅.

1PL **NEG.IND** want that man-**DEML.SG** **COP 1PL** king:**SG** **NEG.**

"We don't want this man to be our king." (Lk 19:14)

Subordinate clauses only fall within the *semantic* scope of the negation when the main clause verb induces **negative raising** [35.2].

However, if a construction which by default would imply negative raising occurs exceptionally with the subordinate clause excluded from the negative scope, the Negative Prosodic Clitic is placed *before* the subordinate clause:

on nye ka Yesu pu pie o nu'use ka nyaan di la.

ón ñyé kà Yesu pū píe ò núʔusé +∅ kà

3HU:COMP see:**PFV** and Jesus **NEG.IND** wash:**PFV 3HU** hand:**PL** **NEG** and

ñyāan dí lā

then eat:**PFV** **ART**

"when he saw that Jesus didn't wash his hands before eating" (Lk 11:38)

*Nidib be ka pu tum si'ela ye ba a popielim dim, ka kudun niŋ Wina'am
one ke ka tuumbe'ed dim lieb popielim dim o tuon la yadda.*

Nīdɪb bɛ̀ kà p̄ t́m sī'ɛla +∅ yé b̄ á
person:PL EXIST and NEG.IND work:IPFV INDF.NH NEG that 3PL COP

p̄-ɸiəlɪm d́m, kà k̄dɪm níŋ Wínà'am

inside-whiteness individual.PL and ever do:PFV God

ʒnì_ ∅ ké kà t̄um-bē'ɛd d́m líàb

DEM.HU COMP cause:PFV and work-bad:PL individual.PL become:PFV

p̄-ɸiəlɪm d́m ò t̄en lā yáddā.

inside-whiteness individual.PL 3HU before ART assent.

"There are people who haven't done anything that they become blessed, but have believed in the God who causes sinners to become blessed before him."

(Rom 4:5, 1976)

The Negative Clitic is dropped at the end of *ñ*-Clauses containing a negative unless they are themselves clause final in the main clause, and also before the article *lā*^{+/}:

m bi'emnam bane pu bood ye m so'e ba la

m̄ b̄'əm-nàm b̄nì_ ∅ p̄ b̄óòd yé m̄ s̄'ú_ b̄ā lā

1SG enemy-PL DEM.PL COMP NEG.IND want that 1SG own 3PLO ART

"my enemies who do not want me to rule over them." (Lk 19:27)

Clauses with *yà'* "if" keep their own Negative Clitics:

Ba ya'a pu niŋ si'ela, o pu'usum doog la na lieb zaalim.

Bà yá' p̄ níŋ sī'ɛla +∅, ò p̄'usɪm d̄óòg lā

3PL if NEG.IND do:PFV INDF.HU NEG 3HU worship house:SG ART

ná líàb zāalím.

UNR become:PFV empty:ABSTR.

"If they don't do anything, her temple will become of no account."

(Acts 19:27)

Apparent exceptions in the NT seem all to involve *yà'* clauses ending in words with final vowels or final *-m*, and probably do end in the Negative Clitic in reality.

With clauses with two VPs coordinated with *bēɛ/kūu* "or", if the first VP is negated with the scope extending over both VPs, the Negative Clitic ends the whole clause and may optionally precede the *bēɛ/kūu* also.

35.4 Constituent Negation

Clefting is the usual way of achieving constituent negation, using the patterns

<i>Lì k̄āʔ X k̄à ... /Lì k̄āʔ X n ...</i>	"It's not X that ..."
<i>X k̄áʔɛ k̄à ... /X k̄āʔɛ n ...</i>	"There's no X that ..."

For example

So' kae' na tun'e dol na'anam ayii.

S̄ʔ k̄āʔe_ ∅ ná tūñʔe_ ∅ d̄ʔl náʔ-námá_ àyí +∅.
INDF.HU NEG.BE SER UNR be.able **SER** follow king-**PL** **NUM:two NEG.**
 "Nobody can serve two kings." (Mt 6:24, 1976)

Sogia so' kae' n tum ka yood o meṅa.

Sógjà-s̄ʔ k̄āʔe n tùm k̄à ȳɔɔd ò mēṅá +∅.
Soldier-INDF.HU NEG.BE SER work:**IPFV** and pay:**IPFV 3HU** self **NEG.**
 "No soldier works and pays for himself." (1 Cor 9:7, 1976)

Lì k̄āʔ m̄ān b̄īg k̄à f̄ù ñwéʔē +∅.

3NH NEG.BE 1SG.CNTR child:**SG** and **2SG** beat:**PFV NEG.**
 "It's not my child that you've beaten."

Another method is to use the particle *báa* [23.2](#) (Hausa *bâa* "not exist") as *báa* + NP extraposed from a negated clause:

Bà p̄ū k̄ē náa +∅, báa yīnní.
3PL NEG.IND come:**PFV** hither **NEG**, not one.
 "They didn't come, not one."

Báa yīnní can be used as a NP, or as a dependent following a NP head. The meaning is "not one", with a negative concord of the clause Verbal Predicator, e.g.

Ka ba pu nye baa yinni.

Kà bà p̄ū ñyē [+∅] báa yīnní.
 and **3PL NEG.IND** see:**PFV** [**NEG**] not one.
 "But they didn't find a single one." (Mt 26:60)

Ka nid baa yinni pu yel ye on mor si'el la, one so'e lii.

Kà nīd bāa yīnní pō yél yē ́n mōr

and person:SG not one **NEG.IND** say that 3HU:COMP have

sīʔəl lā, ́nɪ ̸ sōʔú lí +̸.

INDF.NH ART 3HU.CNTR SER own 3NHO NEG.

"Not one person said that what he had, he owned." (Acts 4:32)

Fu du'adib baa yinni kae' ka o yu'ur buon alaa.

Fù dūʔadɪb bāa yīnní kāʔé kà ò yūʔur búèn

2SG relative:PL not one **NEG.BE** and **3HU** name:SG call:IPFV

àlāa +̸.

ADV:thus NEG.

"Not one of your relatives is named thus." (Lk 1:61)

Relative clauses can also be used for constituent negation:

Da mor noor yinni ne bane ka' yadda niḡidib la ye ya niḡ si'ela.

Dā mōr nōɔr yīnní nē bānì ̸ kāʔ yáddā-níḡidɪb lā

NEG.IMP have mouth:SG one with **DEM.PL COMP NEG.BE** assent-doer:PL **ART**

yé yà níḡ sīʔəla +̸.

that **2PL** do **INDF.NH NEG.**

"Do not agree with those who are not believers to do anything." (2 Cor 6:14)

Lexicon**36 Greetings and Other Formulae**

(a) Enquiries after health.

[Fù sá] gbìs wēlá?
 Dúe wēlá?

"How did you sleep?"
 literally "How did you get up?"
 both usual greetings on meeting
 for the first time in the morning.

Nīntāŋ á wēlá?

"How is the day/afternoon?"

Yú?uŋ á wēlá?

"How is the evening?" literally "night"

Fù yī-dímàa?

"[How are] your household?"

Nìn-gbīnáa?

"[How is your] body?" i.e. "How are you?"

Fù sìdaa?

"[How is your] husband?"

Pu?ā nē bíisèe?

"[How are your] wife and children?"

... and so on, often at great length.

Replies:

Àláafù bé.

literally "There is health."

(Also a general purpose greeting itself.)

Àláafù bé·ō.

... for him/her.

Àláafù béē bá.

... for them.

(b) Blessings

These follow the pattern

Bárkà né fù ...

"Blessing with your ..."

with the introductory words usually ellipted; the reply to all of these is *Náa*.

Kēn kēn.

"Welcome!" *Kēn*, gerund of *kēñ* "come"

cf Hausa: *Barkà dà zuwàa*.

Nē záàm záàm.

"Good evening."

Tūuma!

or *Tūuma tūuma!*

literally "(Blessing on your) work!"

Interpreted to include practically anything
 which could be regarded as work, and hence
 probably the commonest daytime greeting.

<i>Nē sǎṣṣgā.</i>	"(Blessing on your) conversation." to greet a group of people talking; also to greet a person sitting quietly alone, assumed to be conversing with his or her own <i>wīn</i> ^{ne/} (spiritual essence, personal <i>genius</i>)
<i>Né fù būrlyá-sùṅ.</i>	"Merry Christmas." (<i>būrlyá</i> ⁺ ← * <i>burǔya</i> ← Twi/Fante <i>bronya</i> , of unclear ultimate origin)
<i>Né fù yùum-pāalíg.</i>	"Happy New Year."

(c) Prayers. Reply *Àmí!* "Amen!"

<i>Wīn ná lēbisi f nē láaflya.</i>	"Safe journey!" literally "[I pray that] God will bring you back in health."
<i>Wīn ná sōṅi f.</i>	"God will help you." Generally a formula expressing thanks.
<i>Wīn ná tāʔasí f.</i>	"Safe journey!" ("God will help you travel.")

(d) Statements of fact and commands. Reply *Tò* "OK", or as appropriate.

<i>Bēogv lā.</i>	"See you tomorrow!" ("That's tomorrow.")
<i>Àtínì dáarì lā.</i>	"See you on Monday."
<i>Gbìsim sùṅā.</i>	"Sleep well."
<i>Kpèlumī sùm.</i>	"Remain (ye) well." Said by departing person to those remaining.
<i>Pùʔusim yín.</i>	"Greet (those) at home." i.e. "Goodbye." reply <i>Tò</i> "OK", or <i>Bà nà wūm</i> "They will hear."

(e) Miscellaneous formulae

<i>M púʔùs yā.</i>	"Thankyou." reply <i>Tò</i> , or <i>Pùʔusug kǎʔe.</i> "No thanks (sc. needed.)"
<i>M púʔùs yā bédugū.</i>	"Thank you very much."
<i>Gáafàra.</i>	(← Arabic) "Pardon me, sorry." Also (like Ghanaian English <i>sorry</i>) used simply to empathise with misfortune, with no implication of apology as such.

Kābir kābirí!

Formula asking admission to a house or compound. "Knock, knock!" Twi *agoo* is also used. (Actual knocking is for robbers trying to find out if anyone is at home.)

Dìm sūgurú.

"Please forgive me."

M̀ b́élìm nē.

"I beg you." Not equivalent to "please"; Kusaasi etiquette does not demand a spoken equivalent of the English "please."

X lábāar á wēlá?

"What is the news of X?"

A common initial reply is *Dīb má'aa*.

"Only food." i.e. "good"

M̀ m̄r kú'əm náa?

literally "Shall I bring water?"

Traditional first words to guest.

Reply for "No, thank you" is *Kù'əm á súm*.

("Water is good.")

Wīn yél sīda.

"Bless you!" (after a sneeze.) Literally

"God speaks truth"; WK explained: "If you

sneeze, it means someone elsewhere is praising you."

F̀ wúm Kūsáalèe?

"Do you understand [literally "hear"] Kusaal?"

Ēēñ, m̀ wúm.

"Yes, I do."

Áyì, m̀ p̄ wúmmā.

"No, I don't."

37 Structured Semantic Fields

37.1 Kinship Terms

Though my informants readily cite them in isolation, kinship terms seem in actual usage to be always possessed. Thus *m̄ sàam* "my father", *n̄n-só' sàam* "someone's father" etc.

Pervading the whole system is the importance of birth order among same-sex siblings, and its irrelevance between siblings of opposite sex. Some basic terms, such as those for siblings, do not in themselves distinguish sex, in a way that is surprising from a European perspective. Seniority goes by family branch, so I am senior to you if my parent is senior to your parent of the same sex, regardless of our own ages. Seniority among wives is determined by marriage order and is also independent of actual age. Age, as opposed to seniority, is in itself of little significance and many people do not know their own ages exactly.

My

Father	is my	<i>sàam</i> ^{ma} , less formally <i>bā</i> ^{ʔ+} /
Father's elder brother		<i>sàam-kpēēñm</i> ^m
Father's younger brother		<i>sàam-pīt</i> ^{a/}
Father's sister		<i>pògvɔɔb</i> ^a

My

Mother	is my	<i>mà</i> ⁺
Mother's elder sister or senior co-wife		<i>mà-kpēēñm</i> ^m
Mother's younger sister or junior co-wife		<i>mà-bīl</i> ^a or <i>mà-pīt</i> ^{a/}
Mother's co-wives	are my	<i>mà nám</i> ^a
Mother's brother	is my	<i>áñsìb</i> ^a

I am my mother's brother's *āñsìŋ*^a; to all the other relatives above I am *bīig*^a "child" or specifically *dà-kòòñ*^e "son" or *pɔ' à-yù*^a "daughter." Although the Kusaasi are not matrilineal, the mother's brother is felt to be a particularly close relation with a traditionally benevolent rôle towards his sister's child.

There are no special terms for aunts or uncles by marriage. Kusaasi tend to find the English usage of the same term for them as for blood relations bizarre.

My Grandparent	is my	<i>yáab</i> ^a ♂ <i>yāa-dáy</i> ⁺ ♀ <i>yāa-pu'á</i> ^a	Sex can be specified as
Grandchild		<i>yáaŋ</i> ^a	

These words are also used for ancestor/descendant.

My Elder sibling of my own sex is my		<i>bīar</i> ^{e/}
Younger sibling of my own sex is my		<i>pītú</i> ⁺
Sibling of opposite sex is my		<i>tāyñ</i> ^{+/}

These words are also used for cousins, with seniority, as always, going by family branch.

My Wife	is my	<i>yī-pu'á</i> ^a or simply <i>pu'ā</i> ^a	
Wife's parent		<i>dīam</i> ^{ma} ♂ <i>dīam-dāy</i> ⁺ ♀ <i>dīam-puāk</i> ^a	Sex can be specified as
Wife's sibling		<i>dàkīig</i> ^a ♂ <i>dàkì-dāy</i> ⁺ ♀ <i>dàkì-puāk</i> ^a	Sex can be specified as

Dīam^{ma} is also used as polite address by a man to an unrelated woman of similar or greater age to himself but not old enough to be called *m̄ m̄* "my mother." Parents-in-law are greatly respected, but with siblings-in-law there is a traditional reciprocal joking relationship; certain whole ethnic groups are said to bear this relationship to each other, called "playmate" in local English. At *Bùgúm-tōñr*^e, the Fire Festival, one throws eggs at one's brothers-in-law.

I am my wife's parents' *bīig*^a "child" and my wife's siblings' *dàkīig*^a.

My Husband	is my	<i>sīd</i> ^a	
Husband's parent		<i>dàyāam</i> ^{ma} ♂ <i>dàyāam-dáy</i> ⁺ ♀ <i>dàyāam-puák</i> ^a	Sex can be specified as
Husband's elder brother		<i>sìd-kpēñm</i> ^m	
Husband's younger brother		<i>sìd-bīl</i> ^a	
Husband's sister		<i>sìd-puāk</i> ^a	

I am my husband's parents' *bīig*^a "child"; all my husband's siblings (of both sexes) call me *py'ā*^a "wife."

My co-wife is my *nìn-tāa*⁼, "rival" in Ghanaian English. In traditional stories the rôle of the "wicked stepmother" in European folklore is assumed by one of the father's other wives.

Two men married to sisters are each *dàkì-tù*⁺ to the other; two women married to brothers are *nìn-tāas*^e, "co-wives." "Fiancée" is *py'à-ēlín*^a.

37.2 Personal Names

Kusaasi personal names are mostly formed by the personifier clitic *À-* 21.10 followed by common nouns, but a few based on adjective stems are preceded by *Ñ-*, becoming *M-* before labial consonants. There are also some less common names with the clitic *À-* followed by a whole verb phrase, or even by a clause. Names of foreign origin take the *À-* clitic: *À-Sīimóòn* "Simon."

Many names relate to birth circumstances. Kusaasi do not use surnames traditionally; although everyone knows his or her clan, and indeed at least part of its genealogy, clan names are not used as surnames, as they are with the Mossi.

A relatively few personal names account for a large proportion of all individuals; *À-Wīn* and *À-Būgur* are especially common as names for males. Identification of particular individuals often requires further enquiries about kindred or residence.

On the form in which Kusaal personal and place names appear in English-language contexts see 37.3.1.

Examples:

<i>À-Wīn</i> ^{ne/}	Awini	<i>wīn</i> ^{ne/}	"personal god, <i>genius</i> "
<i>À-Būgur</i> ^e	Abugri	<i>būgur</i> ^e	"object where a <i>wīn</i> ^{ne/} resides"; also a <i>wīn</i> ^{ne/} inherited from one's mother's side
<i>À-Nà'ab</i> ^a	Anaba	<i>nà'ab</i> ^a	"chief" but in the sense "afterbirth" (because a chief leaves his house after his retainers)
<i>À-Fūug</i> ^{o/}	Afugu	<i>fūug</i> ^{o/}	Name for sole survivor of twins "clothing"
<i>À-Tūl</i> ^{le}	Atuli	<i>tūl</i> ^g ^e	for child born with a caul
<i>À-Tūg</i> ^a	Atiga	<i>tūg</i> ^a	"invert" for breech-delivered child "tree"

<i>À-Sāan^{a/}</i>	Asana	<i>sāan^{a/}</i>	"guest, stranger"
<i>À-Sāan-dú⁺</i>	Sadow	<i>sāan^{a/}</i>	"guest" + <i>dāy⁺</i> "man"
<i>À-Tàmpōur^e</i>	Tampuri	<i>tàmpōur^e</i>	"ashpit, rubbish tip"
<i>À-Dōk^{o/}</i>	Aruk	<i>dōk^{o/}</i>	"pot"
			These two names are given to children born alive after previous stillbirths; they come from the apotropaic practice of throwing away the dead child or just burying it in a pot to avoid attracting malevolent spiritual attention.
<i>À-Kūdug^o</i>	Akudugu	<i>kūdug^o</i>	"piece of iron (as a <i>bōgur^e</i>)" As a common noun displaced by the plural-as-sg <i>kūt^e</i>
<i>Ñ-Dāvug^o</i>	Ndago	<i>dāvug^o</i>	"male"
<i>Ṁ-Pyāk^a</i>	Mpoaka	<i>pyāk^a</i>	"female"
<i>Ṁ-Bīl^a</i>	Mbillah	<i>bīl^a</i>	"little"

The younger sibling of *À-Wīn^{ne/}* may be called *À-Wīn-bīl^a* "Awimbillah", of *À-Kūdug^o*, *À-Kud-bīl^a* "Akudibillah" etc. Names for girls may follow the pattern *À-Wīn-pyāk^a* "Awimpoaka."

A whole clause 21.10.1 is seen as a birth-circumstance personal name in

À-Tīm bódìg yā "The medicine has got lost."

Many Kusaasi traditionally had non-Kusaasi names as yet another method of breaking a cycle of stillbirths or early deaths, via pretended adoption by a "stranger"; hence Fulfulde names like Jambeedu, and along similar lines

<i>À-Zàngbèog^o</i>	Azangbego	<i>Zàngbèog^o</i>	"Hausa person"
<i>À-Nàsà-pyāk^a</i>	Anasapoaka		"European woman"; also a birth-circumstance name for a child delivered by a European midwife.

Muslims often use day-of-the-week names depending on birth; these are not so common among traditional Kusaasi, as the seven-day week was not generally in use; older persons still do not use it, adhering to the older three-day cycle of markets instead.

<i>À-Tíni</i> ⁺	"Girl born on Monday"
<i>À-Tàláatà</i> ⁺	"Girl born on Tuesday"
<i>Àrzúmà</i> ⁺	"Boy born on Friday"
<i>À-Síbi</i> ⁺	"Boy born on Saturday"

Muslims also have formal Islamic Arabic names, sometimes adapted to Kusaal phonology, like *Dàhamáani*⁺/*Dàsmáani*⁺ عبد الرحمن *ʿAbdu-r-Raḥma:n(i)*

KKY p6 has the interesting girl's personal name *Amɔryam*, which looks like an adaptation of the Arabic name مريم *Maryam(u)* "Mary" as *À-Mōr Yām* "Has Common Sense."

Christians use English (or French) baptismal names in speaking European languages, and in official contexts use their Kusaal personal names as "surnames."

37.3 Place Names

For the form in which Kusaal personal and place names appear in English-language contexts see [37.3.1].

Many, though by no means all, Kusaal place names have transparent meanings.

John Turl maintains a site dedicated to Ghanaian toponymy, with much of interest both for the Kusaasi area and elsewhere. His research has helped me improve this section considerably. He does not always concur with my analyses: consult his site for details.

Place names include:

<i>Bòk</i> ^o	Bawku	"pit, geographical depression"
<i>Kōk</i> ^{a/}	Koka	"mahogany tree"
<i>Kùkpàrig</i> ^a	Kokpariga	"palm tree"
<i>Tèmpáan</i> ^{ne}	Tempane	perhaps "new villages"
<i>Mu'à-nɔɔr</i> ^{el}	Mogonori	"lakeside" ("lake-mouth")
<i>Bàs-yɔn</i> ^{ne/}	Basyonde	"abandon sacks" ?reason for name
<i>Kūgur</i> ^{el}	Kugri	"stone"
<i>Bōgur</i> ^e	Bugri	<i>bōgur</i> ^e , object housing a <i>wīn</i> ^{ne/} "spirit"
<i>Widì-ñyá'anj</i> ^a	Woriyanga	archaic for <i>wid-ñyá'anj</i> ^a "mare"
<i>Bì-nà'ab</i> ^a	Binaba	"prince"
<i>Gàaru</i> ⁺	Garu	said to be Hausa <i>gadoo</i> "bed"; cf Toende <i>gárúk</i> (= Agolle <i>gādvug</i> ^{o/}) "bed; cattle pen" (Niggli)
<i>Wiid-nà'ab</i> ^a	Widinaba	"chief of the clan <i>Wiid</i> ^a "
<i>Pūsɔg</i> ^{a/}	Pusiga	"tamarind"

<i>Tīl</i> ^{le/}	Tilli	"tree trunk" cf Toende Kusaal <i>tīl</i> id (Hasiyatu Abubakari, p.c.)
<i>Mìʔisug</i> ^a	Missiga	Explained locally as from "mission" i.e. the Assemblies of God mission around which the village grew; perhaps influenced by <i>mìʔisug</i> ^o "dunking" (not in my materials, but cf Toende <i>mìʔisuk</i> "baptism", KED <i>mìʔis</i> "duck someone")
<i>Pùlma Kúʔəm</i> ^m	Pulimakom	"water by <i>pùlma</i> ⁺ (grass sp)"
<i>Widāan</i> ^a	Widana	for <i>Wid-dāan</i> ^a "Horse-Owner", title of a chief's <i>nō-díʔəs</i> ^a "linguist" (spokesman/counsellor.) Usual informal name for Pulimakom, as the seat of this particular linguist.
<i>Dènvug</i> ^o	Denugu	No known meaning
<i>Sā-bíl</i> ^a	Zebilla	"small grass"?
<i>Sā-píəlìg</i> ^a	Sapeliga	" <i>Isobertia Doka</i> " ("white grass")
<i>Kòl-tāʔamís</i> ^e	Kultamse	"dog almonds" ("river shea trees")

WK thought that the first component of the names *Sā-bíl*^a and *Sā-píəlìg*^a was a plant used in making brooms. **Sāa*^{=/} does not occur in my data (only *sāa*⁼ "rain") or in Niggli's dictionary, but the cognate *sáagá* is glossed in his Farefare dictionary as "a kind of grass used for making brooms", and the Mampruli/Dagbani cognate *saa* refers to a grass (*Sporobolus subglobosus* A. Chev, Blench) used for binding materials together to make mats and traps, and presumably also brooms. Compounds need not have the literal sense of the components [21.8.1] [21.7.2.1], especially with names for plant and tree species: John Turl has located a careful 1935 report by an assistant agricultural officer which lists among local trees in the Farefare/Nabit area *sapelaga Isobertia doka*; it seems likely that this is the meaning of *sā-píəlìg*^a. The report also lists *ta-anga* "Butyrospermum parkii" (Kusaal *táʔan*^a), and *kulta-anga* "Andira inermis", so *kòl-táʔan*^a is probably this "dog almond."

<i>Kùlvgúŋ</i> ^o	Kulungungu	?? <i>kòl-gùŋ</i> ^a "river-kapok"
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Turl cites a Bisa-speaking informant who suggests a more plausible origin in Bisa "Kuurgongu", "Crooked Sheanut Tree." Prost's grammar of Bisa confirms that Bisa adjectives follow head nouns, and his dictionary cites *kúr* "karité." The second element is probably a simplex form of Prost's *gongeda* "arqué" (*ng* = [ŋ]); Prost notes an adjectival suffix *-da* "s'appliquant aux grandes choses ou marquant intensité."

<i>Àgò</i> ^{le}	Agolle	the Kusaasi area east of the White Volta; cf <i>àgól</i> ^{le} "upwards"; for the H toneme see 10.1 .
<i>Tùen</i> ^{ne}	Toende	Kusaasi area west of the White Volta; cf <i>tùen</i> ^{ne} "in front", "West"

For points of the compass, WK gave as accepted terms

N	<i>Bārvug</i> ^{o/}	"Bisa country"
E	<i>Ñyáʔaŋ</i> ^a	"behind"
S	<i>Zuēya</i> ⁺	"hills" (i.e. the Gambaga Escarpment)
W	<i>Tùen</i> ^{ne}	"in front"

reflecting the traditional Kusaasi orientation, opposite to the Muslim one.

Words referring to ethnic groups and clans consistently have place names formed from the same stem with the suffix *-g*^o. These can be nonce-formations and need not necessarily refer to any established political entity or permanent settlement:

<i>Kùtāuy</i> ^{o/}	any place inhabited by the clan <i>Kùtām</i> ^{ma/}
<i>Kūsáùg</i> ^o	"Kusaasiland"
<i>Mòɔg</i> ^o	"Mossi country" (<i>Mòɔg Náʔàb</i> ^a "Moro Naba, King of the Mossi")

Places outside *Kūsáùg*^o generally do not have Kusaal names (an exception is *Sānkáàñs*^e "Sankanse" in Burkina Faso.) For "Accra" the Twi-derived name *Ankara* is usual. Niggli's Dictionnaire has Toende *Wa'aruk* for "Ouagadougou", but I could not elicit any Agolle equivalent. The form looks like **Wāʔadúg*^o "Place of the Dancers (*wāʔadíb*^a)", but the Mooré name *Wagdugu* apparently does not have a transparent meaning for Mooré speakers, and its true etymology is uncertain.

Curiously, there seems to be no Agolle Kusaal proper name for the White Volta river, which is simply *kōlvug*^a "river"; presumably this is simply because it is the only real river within *Kūsáùg*^o.

37.3.1 Kusaal Personal and Place Names in English

When speaking English or French, Kusaasi cite Kusaal personal and place names in a guise which resembles the Long Form, showing the underlying final vowel without Apocope: thus *À-Wīn*^{ne/} from *Widi-ñyáʔan*^a will introduce himself as "Awini" from "Woriyanga." Similarly "Kusaasi" for *Kūsáàs*^e, "Bawku" for *Bòk*^o, and many other examples in [37.2] and [37.3].

If this behaviour were confined to personal names, it might plausibly be attributed to the incorporation of the Vocative Prosodic Clitic, but, as has been seen, it is equally characteristic of place names. Moreover, the form "Woriyanga" for *Widi-ñyáʔan*^a shows a characteristically Mampruli rather than Kusaal form for the initial combining form of "horse": Mampruli *wuri-* versus Kusaal *wid-*. It seems probable that this reflects a convention which originally arose from the fact that the British came to know the region through Mamprussi guides and interpreters. According to Tony Naden (p.c.) a parallel development had taken place earlier in Mamprussi country when the British arrived with Dagomba guides: thus "Gambaga" for the Mampruli place name "Gambaa."

However, not all these forms can be explained without further ado as Mampruli. The place name "Widana", for example, resembles Kusaal *Widāan*^a rather than Mampruli *Wuddaana* "(title of) a chief's linguist" and female personal names like "Awimpoaka" *À-Wīn-pyák*^a even show the characteristic Agolle Kusaal vowel breaking, in contrast to the Toende form *Awīnpɔka* (Niggli.) Again, the personal name "Akudugu" *À-Kūdug*^o shows the postvocalic *-d-* characteristic of Agolle Kusaal rather than Mampruli. The Toende place name *Tīl*^{le/} "Tilli" corresponds to Toende Kusaal *tíl* and Farefare *tíllé* "tree trunk", but no cognate word appears in Naden's extensive dictionary of Mampruli. Accordingly, even if the convention of preserving underlying final vowels originated from transposition of personal and place names from Kusaal into Mampruli, it has apparently been generalised by analogy and can now produce forms which cannot be regarded as Mampruli.

Cases also occur of straightforward reproduction of the Kusaal, as in "Aruk", alongside "Aruku" for the personal name *À-Dōk*^{o/}.

37.4 Ethnic Group and Clan Names

Names for the group belong to the $a|b^a$ or $g^a|s^e$ Classes (apart from *Zàngbèog*^o "Hausa" and *Nàsāara*⁺ "European") and their language to the l^e Subclass of $r^e|a^+$. The place they inhabit has the suffix $-g^o$.

<u>Ethnic gp sg</u>	<u>Ethnic gp pl</u>	<u>Language</u>	<u>Place</u>	
<i>Kūsáa</i> ⁼	<i>Kūsáàs</i> ^e	<i>Kūsáàl</i> ^e	<i>Kūsáòg</i> ^o	Kusaasi
<i>Ñwāmpūrig</i> ^{a/}	<i>Ñwāmpūris</i> ^{e/}	<i>Ñwāmpūri</i> ^{e/}	<i>Ñwāmpūrug</i> ^{o/}	Mamprussi
<i>Bārig</i> ^{a/}	<i>Bāris</i> ^{e/}	<i>Bāt</i> ^{e/}	<i>Bārug</i> ^{o/}	Bisa
<i>Mùa</i> ⁺	<i>Mòɔs</i> ^e	<i>Mòɔl</i> ^e	<i>Mòɔg</i> ^o	Mossi
<i>Dàgbān</i> ^{ne/}	<i>Dàgbām</i> ^{ma/}	<i>Dàgbān</i> ^{ne/}	<i>Dàgbāɲ</i> ^{o/}	Dagomba
<i>Bìn</i> ^{ne}	<i>Bìm</i> ^{ma}	<i>Bìn</i> ^{ne}	<i>Bìɲ</i> ^o	Moba
<i>Sìmīig</i> ^a	<i>Sìmīs</i> ^e	<i>Sìmīil</i> ^e	<i>Sìmīug</i> ^o	Fulbe
<i>Yàaɲ</i> ^a	<i>Yàaɲs</i> ^e	<i>Yàa</i> ^{ne}		Yansi
<i>Gūríg</i> ^a	<i>Gūrís</i> ^e	<i>Gūrín</i> ^{ne}		Farefare
<i>Yārig</i> ^{a/}	<i>Yāris</i> ^{e/}	<i>Yāt</i> ^{e/}		Yarsi
<i>Zàngbèog</i> ^o	<i>Zàngbèed</i> ^e	<i>Zàngbèel</i> ^e		Hausa
<i>Bùlig</i> ^a	<i>Bùlis</i> ^e	<i>Bùl</i> ^{le}		Bulsa
<i>Tàlɲ</i> ^a	<i>Tàlɔs</i> ^e	<i>Tàlɲ</i> ^{ne}		Tallensi
<i>Nàbɪd</i> ^a	<i>Nàbɪdɪb</i> ^a	<i>Nàbɪr</i> ^e		Nabdema
<i>Bùsáɲ</i> ^a	<i>Bùsáàɲs</i> ^e	<i>Bùsáàɲl</i> ^e		Bisa
<i>Nàsāara</i> ⁺	<i>Nàsàa-nàm</i> ^a	<i>Nàsāal</i> ^e		European
<i>Kàmbòɲ</i> ^a	<i>Kàmbòmɔs</i> ^e	<i>Kàmbòɲr</i> ^e		Ashanti

Bāris^{e/} is "Bisa" generally, not just the Bareka; *Bìm*^{ma} similarly is "Moba" in general, and not only the Bemba (WK.)

Note

Tùen^{ne}

"Toende area"

Tùenr^e

"Toende dialect of Kusaal"

Àgòl^{le}

"Agolle area"

Àgòl^{le}

"Agolle dialect of Kusaal"

Ò *pjàñʔad* Àgòl.

"She speaks Agolle Kusaal."

3HU speak:IPFV Agolle.

Kusaasi clan names include, among many others:

<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>	<u>Place</u>	
<i>Kùtān</i> ^{ne/}	<i>Kùtām</i> ^{ma/}	<i>Kùtāŋ</i> ^{o/}	WK's clan
<i>Zùà</i> ⁺	<i>Zùəs</i> ^e		
	<i>Zùà-sābílís</i> ^e		subclans
	<i>Zùà-wìib</i> ^a		
	or <i>Zùà-wìis</i> ^e		
<i>Wiid</i> ^a	<i>Wiid-nam</i> ^a	<i>Wiidug</i> ^o	
<i>Nàbɪd</i> ^a	<i>Nàbɪdɪb</i> ^a	<i>Nàbɪdug</i> ^o	
<i>Gòɔg</i> ^a	<i>Gòɔs</i> ^e	<i>Gòɔg</i> ^o	
<i>Sàʔdàbùà</i> ⁺	<i>Sàʔdàbùəs</i> ^e - <i>bùəb</i> ^a	<i>Sàʔdàbòɔg</i> ^o	
	<i>Nàʔdàm</i> ^{ma}	<i>Nàʔdaŋ</i> ^o	
	<i>Gùm-dìm</i> ^a	<i>Gùm</i> ^{me}	

Nàbɪd^a as a clan name is different from the ethnic group "Nabdema" (WK.)

37.5 Trees and Fruits

Tree names are almost all *g*^a|*s*^e Class, like *tìlg*^a "tree"; their fruits are Classes *r*^e|*a*⁺ or *g*^o|*d*^e.

<u>Tree sg</u>	<u>Tree pl</u>	<u>Fruit sg</u>	<u>Fruit pl</u>	
<i>āāñdɪg</i> ^a	<i>āāñdɪs</i> ^e	<i>āāñdɪr</i> ^e	<i>āāñda</i> ⁺	Vitex doniana
<i>dùàñ</i> ⁺	<i>dòɔñs</i> ^e	<i>dòɔñg</i> ^o	<i>dòɔñd</i> ^e	dawadawa
<i>gāāñ</i> ^{=/}	<i>gāāñs</i> ^{e/}	<i>gāñr</i> ^{e/}	<i>gāñyá</i> ⁺	Nigerian ebony
<i>gùŋ</i> ^a	<i>gùmɪs</i> ^e	<i>gùm</i> ^{me}	<i>gùma</i> ⁺	kapok
<i>kìkàŋ</i> ^a	<i>kìkàmɪs</i> ^e	<i>kìkàm</i> ^{me}	<i>kìkàma</i> ⁺	fig tree
<i>kpùkpàrɪg</i> ^a	<i>kpùkpàrɪs</i> ^e	<i>kpùkpàr</i> ^e	<i>kpùkpàra</i> ⁺	palm
<i>pūsɪg</i> ^{a/}	<i>pūsɪs</i> ^{e/}	<i>pūsɪr</i> ^{e/}	<i>pūsá</i> ⁺	tamarind
<i>sīsíbɪg</i> ^a	<i>sīsíbɪs</i> ^e	<i>sīsíbɪr</i> ^e	<i>sīsíbà</i> ⁺	neem
<i>táʔaŋ</i> ^a	<i>tāʔamís</i> ^e	<i>táʔam</i> ^{me}	<i>tāʔamá</i> ⁺	shea butter
<i>tèʔɛg</i> ^a	<i>tèʔɛs</i> ^e	<i>tèʔog</i> ^o	<i>tèʔɛd</i> ^e	baobab
<i>vúŋ</i> ^a	<i>vūəmɪs</i> ^e	<i>vúər</i> ^e	<i>vūáá</i> ⁼	red kapok

The stems for "red kapok" and its fruit are slightly different: tree **vuəm*- fruit **vuəg*-

37.6 Body Parts

Most human and animal body parts belong to the Classes $r^e|a^+$ and $g^o|d^e$:

<i>bjāuñk^o</i>	"shoulder"	<i>bīān^{ne}</i>	"shin"
<i>bìʔisur^e</i>	"woman's breast"	<i>dūm^{me}</i>	"knee"
<i>gbāuŋ^{o/}</i>	"animal skin; lip, eyelid"	<i>gbēr^{e/}</i>	"thigh"
<i>gbèʔog^o</i>	"forehead"	<i>gbìn^{ne}</i>	"buttock"
<i>gbìn-vòwǎr^e</i>	"anus"	<i>gūr^e</i>	"ridge of back"
<i>íu^{le}</i>	"horn"	<i>kōbir^e</i>	"bone"
<i>kōñbug^o</i>	"hair"	<i>kpēñdur^{e/}</i>	"cheek"
<i>kpìsukpìl^{le}</i>	"fist"	<i>lām^{me/}</i>	"gum"
<i>lān^{ne}</i>	"testicle"	<i>lògur^e</i>	"organ, member"
<i>nìn-gbīŋ^{o/}</i>	"human skin, body"	<i>nìn-gòwr^e</i>	"neck"
<i>nóbùr^e</i>	"leg"	<i>nōb-púmpàuŋ^o</i>	"foot"
<i>nōwr^{e/}</i>	"mouth"	<i>ñyīn^{ne/}</i>	"tooth"
<i>ñyōwd^e</i>	"intestines"	<i>ñyōʔog^{o/}</i>	"chest"
<i>ñyōwr^e</i>	"nose"	<i>pèn^{ne}</i>	"vagina"
<i>pūr^{e/}</i>	"stomach"	<i>sōwǎr^e</i>	"liver"
<i>tàsintàl^{le}</i>	"palm"	<i>tàtəl^{le}</i>	"palm"
<i>tìəŋ-gūr^e</i>	"chin"	<i>tùb-kpìr^e</i>	"half of jaw"
<i>tùbur^e</i>	"ear"	<i>yìər^e</i>	"jaw"
<i>yūʔər^e</i>	"penis"	<i>zàñl^{le}</i>	"umbilicus"
<i>zìlm^{me}</i>	"tongue"	<i>zūg^{o/}</i>	"head"
<i>zūəbúg^o</i>	"human head hair"	<i>zūr^e</i>	"tail"

There are significant exceptions, however:

$g^a|s^e$ Class:

<i>núʔùg^o</i>	"hand" 11.3.2.1	perhaps as the prototypical tool.
<i>nūʔ-bíl^a</i>	"finger"	but <i>nūʔ-dáùg^o</i> "thumb"
<i>nūʔ-íñʔa⁺</i>	"fingernail"	<i>nōb-bíl^a</i> "toe"
<i>nōb-íñʔa⁺</i>	"toenail"	<i>sīa⁺</i> "waist"
<i>ñyáʔaŋ^a</i>	"back"	<i>tìəŋ^a</i> "beard"

$f^o|t^+$ Class:

<i>nīf^{o/}</i>	"eye"	as a "small round thing"?
<i>sjà-nīf^{o/}</i>	"kidney"	as a compound of "eye"
<i>sūñf^{o/}</i>	"heart"	beside <i>sūuñr^{e/}</i> $r^e a^+$ Class

37.7 Colour Terms

Kusaal, like many local languages, has a basic three-colour system:

<i>zèñʔog</i> ^o	"red"	covering all reddish shades
<i>sābilíg</i> ^a	"black"	covering all darker shades of colour
<i>pìəlíg</i> ^a	"white"	covering all lighter shades of colour

Wiug^o "red" is synonymous with *zèñʔog*^o. Kusaal has many more or less standardised expressions for colour (e.g. *wōv támpōvr nē* "like ash", i.e. "grey"), often with parallels in other West African languages. The system is described as "three-colour" because any colour can be allocated correctly to one of only three terms, and not because only three colour terms exist.

37.8 Time Expressions

Answers to *bò-wìn*^{ne} "what time of day?":

<i>bēogun</i> ^{e/}	"morning"	<i>àsùbá</i> ⁺	"dawn" (← Arabic)
<i>bèkèkèoňg</i> ^o	"very early morning"	<i>zàam</i> ^m	"evening"
<i>wìn-līr</i> ^e	"sunset"	<i>yúʔuŋ</i> ^o	"night"
<i>wìn-kòcňr</i> ^e	"sunset"	<i>nīntāŋ</i> ^{a/}	"heat of the day, early afternoon"

Win^{ne} "time of day" (cf *wìnnig*^a "sun"), always with a pre-determiner.

There are no traditional expressions for clock time; the NT adapts from Hausa:

<i>káruv àtáňʔ</i>	"three o'clock"	Hausa:	<i>karfèe ʔukù</i>
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The deictic particle *ňwà* "this" is commonly attached to time words:

<i>zàam ñwá</i>	"this evening"	[za:ma]	
<i>yúʔuŋ ñwá</i>	"tonight"	[yʊ:ŋ:a]	9.1.1

The day begins at sunrise, not sunset as with Muslims.

Answers to *bōn-dáàr*^e "which day?":

<i>zīná</i> ⁺	"today"	<i>sùʔes</i> ^a	"yesterday"
<i>bēog</i> ^o	"tomorrow"	<i>dāar</i> ^e	"day after tomorrow/ day before yesterday"

Weekday names are from Arabic via Hausa, the seven-day week being a Muslim importation. The traditional "week" is a three day market cycle, differing from village to village and carrying on regardless of any weekdays or festivals. Many older speakers do not use weeks at all, but count in days instead.

<i>Àláasìd dáàr^e</i>	"Sunday"	<i>Àtínì dáàr^e</i>	"Monday"
<i>Àtáláatà dáàr^e</i>	"Tuesday"	<i>Àlárìbà dáàr^e</i>	"Wednesday"
<i>Àlàmiìsì dáàr^e</i>	"Thursday"	<i>À(r)zúmà dáàr^e</i>	"Friday"
<i>Àsíbitì dáàr^e</i>	"Saturday"		

Dāar^e "day" is "twenty-four hour period" (*nīntān* "day as opposed to night") and is used with pre-determiners to specify a particular day; the word *dàbìsìr^e* is also used for "day" in counting periods of time, occurring usually in the plural:

<i>Dābá àyóṙṙè dáàr kà fù ná lēb nā.</i>	"You'll come back in a week."
<i>Dābá àyóṙṙè kà fù ná lēb nā.</i>	"You'll come back for a week."
<i>Àláasìd dáàr kà fù ná lēb nā.</i>	"You'll come back on Sunday."
<i>Tì kpélìm ànínā dábìsà bīʔalá.</i>	"We stayed there a few days."

Longer periods of time:

<i>dābá àyóṙṙè</i>	"week"	also <i>bákpàṙè</i> ← Hausa <i>bakwàì</i> "seven"
<i>ñwādìg^{a/}</i>	"moon, month"	
<i>ñwād-kánì kēn nā lā</i>	"next month"	("the month which is coming")
<i>ñwād-kánì gàad lā</i>	"last month"	("the month which has passed")

There are two seasons:

<i>sēoṅg^o</i>	"rainy season"	<i>úun^{ne}</i>	"dry season"
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The Harmattan part of *úun* is called *sāpál^{le}* and the very hot humid part before the rains is *dàwàlìg^a*.

<i>yùum^{me}</i>	"year"	<i>dūnná⁺</i>	"this year"
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"Time" in general is the irregular noun *sānjá⁺* pl *sānsá⁺* cb *sān-*; "time of day" is *wìn^{ne}*; "time" as in "several times" is *nōɔr* [18.2.5]. Examples with *sānjá⁺*:

<i>sān-kánè?</i>	"when?"	<i>sān-kán lā</i>	"at that time"
<i>sānjá kám</i>	"all the time"	<i>sānjá bèdvgū</i>	"a long time"
<i>sānsá bèdvgū</i>	"many times"	<i>sānjá bīʔalá</i>	"for/in a short time"

38 Minimal Pairs

In this section I will note only a few instances from two areas where the traditional orthography is deficient: the tense/lax distinction in monophthongal high vowels, and tone.

38.1 Tense and Lax Vowels

There are few minimal or near-minimal pairs for the contrast *u/v* in short root vowels and even fewer for *i/t*, excluding forms due to Apocope reducing word-final long root vowels to short; there is no contrast in the corresponding nasal short vowels [5.2.1]. There is a robust contrast between long *uu/vv* and long *ii/ii* but even in this case it is difficult to find minimal pairs; while *li* "fall", for example, certainly contrasts with *li* "it", the words differ in prosody as a full word contrasting with a clitic of a type which lacks the full range of possible vowel contrasts in any case.

Minimal/near-minimal pairs include

<i>liɖɪg</i>	"turn a shirt" WK	<i>liɖɪg</i>	"astonish, be amazed"
<i>sīd</i>	"husband"	<i>sīn</i>	"be silent"
<i>bùl</i>	"astonish"	<i>bùl</i>	"germinate" pfv
<i>òk</i>	"vomit"	<i>ūk</i>	"bloat"
<i>bōn</i>	"thing"	<i>bùn</i>	"germinate" ipfv
<i>kōɖvɔg</i>	"old"	<i>kūɖvɔg</i>	"piece of iron"
<i>kōg-káŋā</i>	"this mahogany tree"		
<i>kūg-káŋā</i>	"this stone"		
<i>tōlɪg</i>	"heat up"	<i>tùlɪg</i>	"invert"
<i>yōgúm</i>	"camel"	<i>yūgvdɪr</i>	"hedgehog"

The introduction to KED mentions a contrast between *sībɪg*^{a/} "termite" and *sɪbɪg* "a species of antelope" (probably *sībɪg*, to judge by the HH tones given for the Farefare cognate *síbgá* in Niggli's dictionary.) The word is not found in my own data.

Although contrasts do thus exist in short *i/t u/v* even when these are not the result of Apocope, written sources show great fluctuation in the writing of *e/ɪ o/v*, and it may well be that in many contexts a three-way contrast is not demonstrable.

Contrasts among the short root vowels seem to be often found only after particular classes of preceding consonant, and may historically reflect consonant contrasts such as palatal/alveolar which have been lost in the Western Oti-Volta languages. The distribution of the contrasts does, however, agree well across these languages, other than the Mampruli-Dagbani-Hanga subgroup where the whole vowel system has been radically simplified [1.2.3].

38.2 Tones

Tone functions more as a syntactic marker than to distinguish lexemes, and words often undergo alteration of their tone patterns by tone sandhi or overlay. Lexically, tone has a fairly low functional load, and the absence of tone marking in the traditional orthography seems to cause no great difficulty to Kusaasi experienced in reading the language. Lexical tonal minimal pairs do exist, however:

<i>àgól^{le}</i>	"upwards"	<i>Àgòl^{le}</i>	"Eastern Kusaasiland"
<i>bāŋ^a</i>	"ring, chain"	<i>bàŋ^a</i>	"agama lizard"
<i>būʔar^{e/}</i>	"skin bottle"	<i>bùʔar^e</i>	"hole"
<i>būk^{e/}</i>	"weaken"	<i>bùk^e</i>	"cast lots"
<i>dāvog^o</i>	"male"	<i>dàvog^o</i>	"piece of wood"
<i>dīgɪr^{e/}</i>	"lying-place"	<i>dìgɪr^e</i>	"dwarf"
<i>dúər^e</i>	"raising" (gerund)	<i>dūər^{e/}</i>	"stick"
<i>gāŋ^{e/}</i>	"choose"	<i>gàŋ^e</i>	"step over"
<i>gbāuŋ^{o/}</i>	"skin", "book" DK	<i>gbàuŋ^o</i>	"book" WK
<i>kūk^{a/}</i>	"mahogany tree"	<i>kùk^a</i>	"ghost"
<i>kūk^a</i>	"chair"		
<i>māk^{e/}</i>	"measure"	<i>màk^e</i>	"crumple up"
<i>mōɔg^o</i>	"bush, wilderness"	<i>Mòɔg^o</i>	"Mossi realm"
<i>nēm^{m/}</i>	"grind with millstone"	<i>nèm^m</i>	"emptiness; for free"
<i>nēr^{e/}</i>	"millstone"	<i>nèr^e</i>	"empty"
<i>nīs^e</i>	"birds"	<i>nīs^e</i>	"bodies"
<i>pīd^e</i>	"get bloated"	<i>pìd^e</i>	"put on hat, shoes etc"
<i>pīəs^{e/}</i>	"wash"	<i>pìəs^e</i>	"fool somebody"
<i>sām^{ma}</i>	"guests"	<i>sàam^{ma}</i>	"father"
<i>sām^{m/}</i>	"mash up"		
<i>sĭāk^{e/}</i>	"suffice"	<i>sĭàk^e</i>	"agree"
<i>wēog^o</i>	"cheap/common thing"	<i>wèog^o</i>	"deep bush"
<i>yāaŋ^a</i>	"grandchild"	<i>Yàaŋ^a</i>	"Yansi, Yanga person"
<i>yīdɪg^{e/}</i>	"untie"	<i>yìdɪg^e</i>	"go astray"
<i>yō⁺</i>	"pay"	<i>yò⁺</i>	"close"

A SF-only minimal pair:

<i>lābɪs^{a/}</i>	"be wide"	<i>làbɪs^e</i>	"walk stealthily"
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Cb-only minimal pairs are quite common, due to the absence of class suffixes and the effects of Apocope; an example is

<i>nāʔ-káŋā</i>	"this cow"	<i>nàʔ-kàŋā</i>	"this chief"
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Some common particles differ in tone alone:

<i>dāa</i>	"two days ago"	<i>dàa</i>	"day after tomorrow"
<i>dā</i>	negative Imperative	<i>dà</i>	"before two days ago"

39 General Vocabulary

Words are ordered by Short Forms.

Vowel glottalisation, and the distinctions *n/ñ*, *ə/e/ɛ/ε*, *i/ɨ/j*, *θ/o/ɔ* and *u/ʊ/ɯ* are ignored in the ordering. The consonant *ŋ* follows *n*.

Compounds are not listed if they are regularly formed and have transparent meanings. Those that *are* listed follow the entry for the Combining Form of the first element.

Nouns are listed under the singular form. Adjectives are listed under the *g^a|s^e* Class form if extant, if not, then *g^o|d^e* or *r^e|a⁺*. Variable Verbs are listed under the perfective.

Variable Verb imperfectives and imperatives are listed only where irregular. Gerunds, Agent Nouns and Imperfective Deverbal Adjectives are not listed unless they show some irregularity of form or a specialised meaning.

Personal names and Kusaasi place names are not listed below: see [37.2](#) [37.3](#) for examples.

I have attempted to list all function words, with references to the sections in which they are treated above.

All words occurring in the paradigms and examples in the grammar should be included. I have added other words from my collected materials, and words from David Spratt's "A Short Kusaal-English Dictionary" (KED below) in all cases where I was able to determine the tones and also the quality of *i u* versus *ɪ ʊ* where necessary. Unfortunately, time considerations prevented me from systematically going through KED in its entirety with my informants.

Words listed as derived from Arabic are probably all borrowed via other languages, generally Hausa [20.1](#).

Binomial names of plants taken from Haaf (see sources) are likely to be reliable; he checked the identifications with local botanical experts.

Abbreviations:

<i>adj</i>	Adjective	<i>adv</i>	Adverb
<i>agt</i>	Agent Noun	<i>cb</i>	Combining Form
<i>ger</i>	Gerund	<i>ipfv</i>	Imperfective
<i>imp</i>	Imperative	<i>n</i>	Noun
<i>pfv</i>	Perfective	<i>pl</i>	Plural
<i>q</i>	Quantifier	<i>sg</i>	Singular
<i>vv</i>	Variable Verb	<i>iv</i>	Invariable Verb

A

à-

āaṅdɪg^apl āaṅdɪs^e

cb āaṅd-

āaṅdir^epl āaṅda⁺àaṅs^eàbùlá⁺àbùyí⁺ àbùtán[?] àbùnāasí⁺à-dàalúŋ^opl à-dàalís^e à-dàalímìs^e

cb à-dàalúŋ-

àdàkón[?]àeñ^{ya}ger àaṅlím^màeñ⁺pfv adj àaṅlúŋ^oà-gáàṅg^opl à-gáàṅd^e

cb à-gāñ-

àgól^{le} àgólá⁺Àgól^{le}à-kōra-díàm^{ma}pl à-kōra-díàm-nàm^aàlá⁺àlá⁺àláafù⁺Àláasìd dáàr^eÀlàníisì dáàr^eÀlárìbà dáàr^eàlá zùg^oàlópìr^epl àlópìya⁺àmáa⁼àmēŋá⁺

àmí

Personifier proclitic 21.10

n. black plum tree, *Vitex doniana* 37.5

n. black plum fruit 37.5

vv. tear

how many-fold? 18.2.5

adv. twice, three times etc 18.2.5

n. stork 21.10

q. one 18.2.3

iv. be something/somehow 26.2 9.1.3 9.1.2

vv. get torn

adj. torn

n. pied crow 21.10

adv. upwards

n. Agolle district of Kusaasi territory

n. Agolle Kusaal dialect

n. praying mantis 21.10

adv. thus 19.1

q. so many; how many? 19.1

n. health; in greetings 36 cf láaftya⁺(← Arabic العافية *ʔal-ʕa:fiya(tu)*)

n. Sunday 37.8 (← Arabic)

n. Thursday 37.8 (← Arabic)

n. Wednesday 37.8 (← Arabic)

therefore 30.1.1 19.1

n. aeroplane (← English)

but 29.3 (← Hausa ← Arabic)

adv. really, truly 22.4

amen (← Arabic آمين) in replies to greetings 36

<i>à-mús^e</i>		<i>n. cat</i> [21.10]; cf Hausa <i>mussàa</i> id
<i>pl</i>	<i>à-mús-nàm^a</i>	
<i>ànāasí⁺</i>		<i>q. four</i> [18.2.2]
<i>àní⁺</i>		<i>adv. there</i> [19.1]
<i>àní⁼</i>		<i>q. eight</i> [18.2.2]
<i>àní nā^{+/}</i>		<i>adv. there</i> [19.1]
<i>àníǵà⁺</i>		<i>adv. promptly</i> [22.4]
<i>àńʔòń^e</i>		<i>who?</i> [17.4]
<i>àńruŋ^o</i>		<i>n. boat</i> (consistently written <i>aaruŋ</i> in the NT)
<i>pl</i>	<i>àńruŋa⁺</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>àńruŋ-</i>	
<i>āńs^e</i>		<i>vv. pluck</i> (leaves)
<i>áńsìb^a</i>		<i>n. mother's brother</i> [37.1]
<i>pl</i>	<i>āńs-nám^a</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>āńs-</i>	
<i>āńsuŋ^{el}</i>		<i>vv. break</i> at an angle
<i>āńsíǵ^a</i>		<i>n. (man's) sister's child</i> [37.1]
<i>pl</i>	<i>āńsí^s^e</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>āńsuŋ-</i>	
<i>àntù^ʔa⁼</i>		<i>n. lawsuit</i>
<i>pl</i>	<i>àntù^ʔes^e</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>àntu^ʔà-</i>	
<i>ànū⁺</i>		<i>q. five</i> [18.2.2]
<i>àńwá⁺</i>		<i>adv. like this</i> [19.1]
<i>ānzúrfà⁺</i>		<i>n. silver</i> (Hausa <i>ʔazùrfaa</i> ← Berber <i>*a-zrəf</i> , Souag 2016)
<i>àrazàk^a</i>		<i>n. wealth, riches</i> (← Arabic الرزق <i>ʔar-rizq(u)</i>) <i>Generally used in pl</i>
<i>pl</i>	<i>àrazà^ʔas^e</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>àrazà^ʔ-</i>	
<i>àrazánà⁺</i>		<i>n. heaven, sky</i> (← Arabic الجنة <i>ʔal-ǵanna(tu)</i>)
<i>Àrzúmà dáàr^e</i>		<i>n. Friday</i> [37.8] (← Arabic)
<i>àséé</i>		<i>except, unless</i> [23.2] [29.3] (← Hausa <i>sai</i>)
<i>Àsíbitì dáàr^e</i>		<i>n. Saturday</i> [37.8] (← Arabic)
<i>àsīda⁺</i>		<i>adv. truly</i> [22.4]
<i>àsùbá⁺</i>		<i>n. dawn</i> (← Arabic الصباح <i>ʔas^f-s^faba:ħ(u)</i>)
<i>àtáń^ʔ⁺</i>		<i>q. three</i> [18.2.2]
<i>Àtáláatà dáàr^e</i>		<i>n. Tuesday</i> [37.8] (← Arabic)
<i>àtáǵā^{+/}</i>		<i>q. three exactly</i> [18.2.2]
<i>Àtínì dáàr^e</i>		<i>n. Monday</i> [37.8] (← Arabic)
<i>àtìŋk^o</i>		<i>n. sea</i> (← Hausa <i>tèeku</i>)
<i>àwánā^{+/}</i>		<i>adv. like this</i> [19.1]

àwā̄⁺

q. nine 18.2.2

àyí⁺

q. two 18.2.2

áyì

no 30.2.4

àyíṅā^{+/}

q. two exactly 18.2.2

àyóṛṛè⁺

q. seven 18.2.2

àyúèbù⁺

q. six 18.2.2

B

bà

they, their (Proclitic) 17.1

ba⁺

them (Enclitic object) 17.1

bā^{+/}

n. father 11.4

pl

bā⁺-nám^a

cb

bā⁺-bā⁼

n. dog

pl

bā^s

cb

bà-

bā⁺a⁼

n. traditional diviner

pl

bā⁺ab^a

cb

bā⁺a-bā⁺a-kòlɔg^o

n. diviner's bag

pl bā⁺a-kòⁿcb bā⁺a-kòl-bā⁺a⁼

n. peg to hang things on

pl

bā⁺as^e

cb

bā⁺-bā⁺an^{ne}

n. stocks (punishment)

pl

bā⁺ana⁺

cb

bā⁺an-bā⁺añlɔg^a

adj. narrow, slender

pl

bā⁺añlɔs^ebā⁺añlíg^a

adj. quiet

bā⁺añlím^m

adv. quietly

bā⁺ar^e

n. idol

pl

bā⁺da⁺ bā⁺a⁺

cb

bā⁺-bā⁺bá⁺

beside, postposition 22.6

cf bābir^{e/} sphere of activitybā⁺ɔgā^{+/}

q. many 18.1

bākṛàṛ⁺n. week (← Hausa *bakwàì* "seven")

<i>bàlàar^e</i>		<i>n.</i> stick, staff, club
<i>pl</i>	<i>bàlàya⁺</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>bàlà-</i>	
<i>bàlàŋɪ^e</i>		<i>n.</i> hat
<i>pl</i>	<i>bàlàŋa⁺</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>bàlàŋ-</i>	
<i>bālērvg^{o/}</i>		<i>adj.</i> ugly cf <i>lēr^e</i> "get ugly"
<i>pl</i>	<i>bālērɪd^{e/} bālērɪs^{e/}</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>bālér-</i>	
<i>bàmmā^{+/}</i>		these, those (Demonstrative 17.2)
<i>bàn^e</i>		these, those (Demonstrative 17.2)
<i>bán</i>		they (Subject of <i>ŋ</i> -Clause) 17.1
<i>bān^e</i>		they, them (Contrastive) 17.1
<i>bāñ[?]+</i>		<i>vv.</i> ride
<i>bānāa⁼</i>		<i>n.</i> traditional "fugu" smock
<i>pl</i>	<i>bānāas^e</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>bànà-</i>	tone <i>sic</i> in my materials; ?error for <i>bānā-</i>
<i>bàn[?]ad^a</i>		<i>n.</i> ill person
<i>pl</i>	<i>bàn[?]ad-nàm^a</i>	
<i>bāñ[?]al^{e/}</i>		<i>vv.</i> make to ride (horse, bicycle)
<i>bāñ[?]as^e</i>		<i>n. pl as sg</i> disease
<i>cb</i>	<i>bàn[?]-</i>	
<i>bàn-dāvgo^o</i>		<i>n.</i> crocodile
<i>pl</i>	<i>bàn-dāad^e</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>bàn-dà-</i>	
<i>bān-kúsél^{le}</i>		<i>n.</i> lizard
<i>pl</i>	<i>bān-kúsēlá⁺</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>bān-kúsēl-</i>	
<i>bāŋ^a</i>		<i>n.</i> ring, chain, fetter
<i>pl</i>	<i>bāaŋs^e</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>bàŋ-</i>	
<i>bàŋ^a</i>		<i>n.</i> agama lizard
<i>bàŋ^e</i>		<i>vv.</i> come to know
<i>báp</i>		wallop!
<i>Bāriḡa^{a/}</i>		<i>n.</i> Bisa person 37.4 ; not only the Bareka, WK
<i>pl</i>	<i>Bāris^{e/}</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>Bār-</i>	
<i>bárikà⁺</i>		<i>n.</i> blessing; in greetings 36 (← Arabic بركة) <i>baraka(tun)</i>)
<i>Bāriḡo^{o/}</i>		<i>n.</i> Bisa country; North 37.3
<i>bàs^e</i>		<i>vv.</i> go away; abandon

*Bāt^{el}**bàtáñ[?]+**bàuyv⁺**bàyēog^{ol}**bàyí⁺**bàyóρòε⁺**bē⁺**ger bēlím^m sic**bēdɪg^{el}**bēdvog^o bēdɪr^e**pl bēda⁺**cb bēd-**bēdvogū^{+/}**bēε**bēkèkèòŋg^o or bēkèòŋg^o**bēlɪm^m**bēlɪs^e**bēn^{ne}**pl bēna⁺**cb bēn-**bēñ[?]+**ger bēñ[?]εs^e**bēñsɪg^e**bēŋ^e**bēŋíd^e**cb bēŋ-**bēŋíd nē kī^{+/}**bēŋír^e**pl bēŋá⁺**cb bēŋ-**bēog^o**bēogv^{el}**bē[?]og^o bī[?]a⁺**pl bē[?]εd^e bī[?]əs^e**cb bē[?]- bɪà[?]-**bèrɪŋ^a**pl bèrɪŋs^e sic**n. Bisa language* 37.4*q. three (after personal pronoun* 18.2.2)*n. found only as in**Ò kpèñ[?] báuyv.* "He was circumcised."

(← Songhay "pool"; for the idiom 20.1)

*betrayer of secrets cf yēεs^{el}**q. two (after personal pronoun* 18.2.2)*q. seven (after personal pronoun* 18.2.2)*iv. exist; be in a place* 26.1*vv. go rotten**adj. great**q. much, a lot* 18.1

or 29.1.2 30.2.2

*n. very early morning**vv. beg**vv. comfort**n. end**vv. fall ill**vv. serve soup**vv. mark out a boundary**n. pl bean leaves**Vigna unguiculata* (Haaf)*n. beanleaf-and-millet, a traditional snack**n. brown bean**n. tomorrow* 37.8*Kà bēog níe kà ...* "The next day ..."*n. morning* 37.8*adj. bad**n. a plant used for fibre (KED)**Hibiscus cannabinus* (Haaf)

<i>bēriḡa</i> ⁺		<i>pl</i> leaves of <i>bèriḡ</i> used for soup (KED)
<i>cb</i>	<i>bèriḡ-</i>	
<i>bēsug</i> ⁰		<i>n.</i> a kind of wide-mouthed pot
<i>pl</i>	<i>bēsɪd</i> ^e	
<i>cb</i>	<i>bès-</i>	
<i>bḡāñʔar</i> ^{e/}		<i>n.</i> wet mud, black mud; riverbed
<i>pl</i>	<i>bḡāñʔadá</i> ⁺ <i>bḡāñʔá</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>bḡāñʔ-</i>	
<i>bḡāyñk</i> ⁰		<i>n.</i> shoulder
<i>pl</i>	<i>bḡāñʔad</i> ^e	
<i>cb</i>	<i>bḡāñʔ-</i>	
<i>bīál</i> ^{le}		<i>adj.</i> naked
<i>pl</i>	<i>bīálá</i> ⁺	
<i>bìə</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> accompany
<i>bīʔəlá</i> ⁺		<i>q.</i> a little 18.1
	<i>bīʔəl bīʔəl</i>	<i>q. and adv.</i> a very little; little by little
<i>bīʔəm</i> ^m		<i>n.</i> enemy
<i>pl</i>	<i>bīʔəm-nàm</i> ^a <i>bīʔəm</i> ^m LF	
<i>cb</i>	<i>bīʔəm-</i>	
<i>bīən</i> ^{ne}		<i>n.</i> shin
<i>pl</i>	<i>bīəna</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>bīən-</i>	
<i>bīər</i> ^{e/}		<i>n.</i> elder sibling of the same sex
<i>pl</i>	<i>bḡēyá</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>bḡā-</i>	
<i>bīʔəs</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> doubt
<i>bḡɪs</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> show, teach
<i>bīīg</i> ^a		<i>n.</i> child
<i>pl</i>	<i>bīs</i> ^e	
<i>cb</i>	<i>bì- bī-</i>	
	<i>bī-dí</i> <i>bḡ</i> ^a	<i>n.</i> boy
	<i>bī-līa</i> ⁺	<i>n.</i> baby
	<i>bī-nàʔab</i> ^a	<i>n.</i> prince
	<i>bī-pīt</i> ^{a/}	<i>n.</i> father's younger brother 37.1
	<i>pl</i> <i>bī-pīt</i> ^b	
	<i>cb</i> <i>bī-pīt-</i>	
	<i>bī-púḡ</i> ^a	<i>n.</i> girl
<i>bīʔiḡ</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> ripen, become pregnant
<i>bīilí</i> ⁰		<i>n.</i> seed
<i>pl</i>	<i>bīilí</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>bīil-</i>	

<i>būʔ⁺</i>		vv. beat
<i>bū̀àk^e</i>		vv. split
<i>bùʔar^e</i>		n. hole
	<i>pl</i> <i>būʔàa⁺</i>	
	<i>cb</i> <i>būʔà-</i>	
<i>būʔar^{e/}</i>		n. skin bottle
	<i>pl</i> <i>būʔāá⁺</i>	
	<i>cb</i> <i>būʔā-</i>	
<i>bùd^e</i>		vv. plant seeds
	<i>ger</i> <i>būdɪg^a būdug^o</i>	
<i>bùdɪm^m</i>		vv. get confused
<i>bùdɪmís^e</i>		n. confusion
<i>bùʔe⁺</i>		vv. pour out
<i>bùg^e</i>		vv. get drunk; cf Hausa <i>bùgu id</i>
<i>bōgud^a</i>		n. client of a <i>bāʔa[̄]</i> (traditional diviner)
<i>bùgɪlm^m</i>		vv. cast lots
<i>bōgur^e</i>		n. dwelling-place of a <i>wīn^{ne}</i> (localised spirit); also a <i>wīn^{ne}</i> inherited from one's mother
	<i>pl</i> <i>bōga⁺</i>	
	<i>cb</i> <i>bùg-</i>	
<i>bùgúm^m</i>		n. fire
	<i>cb</i> <i>bùgūm- bùgúm-</i> <i>Bùgúm-tɔ̀ɔ̀ŋ^e</i>	
		n. Fire Festival
<i>bōgus^{a/}</i>		iv. be soft
<i>bōgusíg^a bōgusír^e</i>		adj. soft, weak
	<i>pl</i> <i>bōgusá⁺</i>	
	<i>cb</i> <i>bōgus-</i>	
<i>bōgusígā^{+/}</i>		adv. softly 22.4
<i>bōgusím^m</i>		n. softness, weakness
<i>būk^{e/}</i>		vv. weaken
<i>bùk^e</i>		vv. cast lots
<i>bùl^e</i>		vv. germinate, ooze
<i>bùl^e</i>		vv. astonish
<i>Bùl^{le}</i>		n. Buli language 37.4
<i>Bùlɪg^a</i>		n. Balsa person 37.4
	<i>pl</i> <i>Bùlɪs^e</i>	
	<i>cb</i> <i>Bùl-</i>	
<i>bùlɪg^a</i>		n. well, pond
	<i>pl</i> <i>bùlɪs^e</i>	
	<i>cb</i> <i>bùl-</i>	

<i>bùmbàrig^a</i>		<i>n. ant</i>
<i>pl</i>	<i>bùmbàris^e</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>bùmbàr-</i>	
<i>bùn^e</i>		<i>vv. reap, harvest</i>
<i>būn^{ne/}</i>		<i>n. thing (concrete or abstract)</i> [21.9.3]
<i>pl</i>	<i>būná⁺ būn-nám^a</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>būn-</i>	
	<i>būn-búvdì^o</i>	<i>n. plant</i>
	<i>būn-gíŋ^a</i>	<i>n. short chap (informal, joking)</i>
	<i>būn-kóŋbùg^o</i>	<i>n. animal</i>
	<i>pl būn-kóŋbìd^e</i>	
	<i>cb kòŋb-</i>	<i>used as cb</i>
	<i>būn-kúdòg^o</i>	<i>n. old man</i>
<i>būn-dáàr^e</i>		<i>which day?</i> [19.1]
<i>bùŋ^a</i>		<i>n. donkey</i>
<i>pl</i>	<i>bùmɪs^e</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>bùŋ-</i>	
<i>bùŋ^e</i>		<i>vv. take a short cut</i>
<i>bùθ^e</i>		<i>vv. call, summon</i>
		<i>Ò yū[?]ur búèⁿ X. "She is called X."</i> [25.2]
<i>bùθ^e</i>		<i>n. grain store, silo</i>
<i>pl</i>	<i>bùèya⁺</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>bùà-</i>	
<i>bū[?]es^e</i>		<i>vv. ask</i>
<i>ger</i>	<i>bū[?]esúg^o</i>	<i>n. question</i>
<i>bù-pīga</i>		<i>adv. ten times</i> [18.2.5]
<i>būrāá⁼</i>		<i>n. man, male adult; in ILK but characteristically Toende Kusaal; no examples in NT. See dāū⁺</i>
<i>būriyá⁺</i>		<i>n. Christmas (Twi/Fante ← bronya)</i>
<i>bùrkìn^a</i>		<i>n. free person; honourable person</i>
<i>pl</i>	<i>bùrkìn-nàm^a</i>	<i>(← Songhay, probably via Mooré</i> [20.1])
<i>cb</i>	<i>bùrkìn-</i>	
<i>Bùsáàŋ^e</i>		<i>n. Bisa language</i> [37.4]
<i>Bùsán^a</i>		<i>n. Bisa person</i> [37.4]
<i>pl</i>	<i>Bùsáàŋs^e</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>Bùsāŋ-</i>	
<i>būtɪŋ^a</i>		<i>n. cup (in general;</i>
		<i>etymologically "seed planting [cup])"</i>
<i>pl</i>	<i>būtɪs^e</i>	<i>irregular</i> [7.2.1] [3.4]
<i>cb</i>	<i>bùtɪŋ-</i>	

<i>būudi</i> ⁺		<i>n.</i> kind, sort, ethnic group
<i>cb</i>	<i>būud-</i>	
<i>būvg</i> ^a		<i>n.</i> goat
<i>pl</i>	<i>būvs</i> ^e	
<i>cb</i>	<i>bū-</i>	
	<i>bū-dībug</i> ^a	<i>n.</i> male kid

D

<i>dà</i>		before two days ago, Tense Particle 24.3.1
<i>dā</i>		"not" with Imperative Mood 24.5
<i>dàa</i>		day after tomorrow, Tense Particle 24.3.1
<i>dāa</i>		before yesterday, Tense Particle 24.3.1
<i>dà?</i> ⁺		<i>vv.</i> buy
<i>dà?a</i> ⁼		<i>n.</i> market
<i>pl</i>	<i>dà?as</i> ^e	
<i>cb</i>	<i>dà?-</i>	
<i>dà?abu</i> ^e		<i>n.</i> slave
<i>dàalim</i> ^m		<i>n.</i> masculinity
<i>dàalím</i> ^m		<i>n.</i> male organs
<i>pl</i>	<i>dàalímìs</i> ^e	
<i>dāam</i> ^{m/}		<i>n.</i> millet beer, "pito"
<i>cb</i>	<i>dā-</i>	
	<i>dā-núùr</i> ^e	<i>n.</i> beer-drinking
	<i>dā-bín</i> ^{ne}	<i>n.</i> residue of beer; NT "yeast"
	<i>cb dā-bín-</i>	
<i>dàam</i> ^m		<i>vv.</i> disturb, trouble; cf Hausa <i>dàamaa</i> id
<i>dāan</i> ^a		<i>n.</i> owner of ... 21.9.3
<i>pl</i>	<i>dāan-nàm</i> ^a	
<i>cb</i>	<i>dāan-</i>	
<i>dāar</i> ^e		<i>n.</i> day, 24-hour period 37.8
<i>pl</i>	<i>dābá</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>dā-</i>	
	<i>dā-pīga</i> ⁺	<i>n.</i> ten days
<i>dābìè</i> ^m <i>tone sic</i>		<i>n.</i> fear
<i>dàbīog</i> ^o		<i>n.</i> coward
<i>pl</i>	<i>dàbīəd</i> ^e	
<i>cb</i>	<i>dàbjà-</i>	
<i>dàbısr</i> ^e		<i>n.</i> day (as one of several)
<i>pl</i>	<i>dàbısa</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>dàbıs-</i>	

<i>dādúk^o</i>	<i>n.</i> a kind of large pot
<i>dāʔe^{+/}</i>	<i>vv.</i> push; blow (of wind)
<i>Dàgáàd^a</i>	<i>n.</i> Dagaaba person (L toneme prefix <i>sic</i>)
<i>pl</i> <i>Dàgáadìb^a Dàgáàd-nàm^a</i>	
<i>cb</i> <i>Dàgáàd-</i>	
<i>Dàgbān^{ne/}</i>	<i>n.</i> Dagomba person 37.4
<i>pl</i> <i>Dàgbām^{ma/}</i>	
<i>cb</i> <i>Dàgbān-</i>	
<i>Dàgbān^{ne/}</i>	<i>n.</i> Dagbani language 37.4
<i>Dàgbāṽṽ^{o/}</i>	<i>n.</i> Dagomba country, Dagbon 37.4
<i>dàgòbɪg^a</i>	<i>n.</i> left-hand
<i>dāká⁺</i>	<i>n.</i> box (← Hausa <i>ʔàdakàa</i>)
<i>pl</i> <i>dāká-nàm^a</i>	
<i>cb</i> <i>dāká-</i>	
<i>dàkīg^a</i>	<i>n.</i> wife's sibling 37.1
<i>pl</i> <i>dàkīis^e</i>	
<i>cb</i> <i>dàkì-</i>	
<i>dàkì-dāy⁺</i>	<i>n.</i> wife's brother
<i>dàkì-pyāk^a</i>	<i>n.</i> wife's sister
<i>dàkì-tù^a</i>	<i>n.</i> wife's sister's husband
<i>dà-kòǹr^e</i>	<i>n.</i> unmarried son 37.1
<i>pl</i> <i>dà-kòñya⁺</i>	
<i>cb</i> <i>dà-kòñ-</i>	
<i>dàm^m</i>	<i>vv.</i> shake
<i>ipfv</i> <i>dàmɪd^a</i>	
<i>dàmàʔa⁼</i>	<i>n.</i> liar cf <i>màʔ⁺</i>
<i>dàmàʔam^m</i>	<i>n.</i> lie, untruth, lying
<i>dàmàʔar^e</i>	<i>n.</i> lie, untruth
<i>dāmpūsāar^e</i>	<i>n.</i> stick
<i>dànkòṽ^o</i>	<i>n.</i> measles
<i>dà-pāal^{a/}</i>	<i>n.</i> young man, son
<i>dà-sāṽ^a</i>	<i>n.</i> young man
<i>pl</i> <i>dà-sāañs^e dà-sām^{ma}</i>	
<i>cb</i> <i>dà-saṽ-</i>	
<i>dà-tāa⁼</i>	<i>n.</i> enemy
<i>pl</i> <i>dà-tāas^e</i>	
<i>cb</i> <i>dà-tà-</i>	
<i>dàtiṽṽ^o</i>	<i>n.</i> right-hand
<i>dāy⁺</i>	<i>n.</i> man (as opposed to woman)
<i>pl</i> <i>dāp^a</i>	
<i>cb</i> <i>dày- dàp-</i>	

<i>dàvg</i> ^o		<i>n.</i> piece of wood, log
<i>pl</i>	<i>dàad</i> ^e	<i>pl</i> also: wood (material)
<i>cb</i>	<i>dà-</i>	
	<i>dà-kīəd</i> ^a	<i>n.</i> wood-cutter
	<i>dà-kpīəd</i> ^a	<i>n.</i> carpenter
	<i>dà-pūvdír</i> ^e	<i>n.</i> cross-piece
	<i>pl</i> <i>dà-pūvdá</i> ⁺	<i>n.</i> used as sg cross NT
<i>dāvg</i> ^o		<i>adj.</i> male
<i>pl</i>	<i>dāad</i> ^e	
<i>cb</i>	<i>dà-</i>	
<i>dàwàlɨg</i> ^a		<i>n.</i> hot humid season before the rains
<i>dàwān</i> ^{ne/}		<i>n.</i> pigeon
<i>pl</i>	<i>dàwāná</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>dàwān-</i>	
<i>dàyáam</i> ^{ma}		<i>n.</i> husband's parent 37.1
<i>pl</i>	<i>dàyāam-nám</i> ^a	
<i>cb</i>	<i>dàyāam-</i>	
	<i>dàyāam-dáɥ</i> ⁺	<i>n.</i> husband's father
	<i>dàyāam-puák</i> ^a	<i>n.</i> husband's mother
<i>dàyūug</i> ^{o/}		<i>n.</i> rat
<i>pl</i>	<i>dàyūud</i> ^{e/}	
<i>cb</i>	<i>dàyū-</i>	
<i>dèbur</i> ^e		<i>n.</i> mat, pallet, bed
<i>pl</i>	<i>dèba</i> ⁺	
<i>dēɛŋ</i> ^a		<i>q.</i> first 18.2.4
<i>pl</i>	<i>dēɛñs</i> ^e <i>dēɛmɨs</i> ^e <i>dēɛna</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>dèɛŋ-</i>	
<i>dēl</i> ^{la/}		<i>iv.</i> lean on something (of a person)
<i>ger</i>	<i>dēllúg</i> ^o <i>dēllím</i> ^m	
<i>dèlɨm</i> ^m		<i>vv.</i> begin to lean
<i>dēŋ</i> ^a		<i>n.</i> accidental bruise
<i>pl</i>	<i>dēmɨs</i> ^e	
<i>cb</i>	<i>dèŋ-</i>	
<i>dèŋ</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> go, do first
<i>dèŋɨm</i>		beforehand, Particle-Verb 24.7.2
<i>dì</i>		it, its (Proclitic) 17.1 = <i>li</i>

<i>dì</i> ⁺		vv. eat, receive
<i>ipfv</i>	<i>dìt</i> ^a	
<i>imp</i>	<i>dìm</i> ^{ma}	
<i>ger</i>	<i>dīb</i> ^o	<i>n.</i> food
		<i>Ò dì pū'ā.</i> "He's married a wife."
		<i>Ò dì ñyán.</i> "She's ashamed."
<i>djā</i> ^{ʔa}		vv. get dirty
<i>djā'ad</i> ^{e/}		<i>n.</i> dirt
<i>dīe</i> ^{+/}		vv. receive, get
<i>dīəm</i> ^{ma}		<i>n.</i> wife's parent [37.1]; also polite address by a man to an unrelated woman of similar or greater age
<i>pl</i>	<i>dīəm-nām</i> ^a	
<i>cb</i>	<i>dīəm-</i> <i>dīəm-dāy</i> ⁺ <i>dīəm-puāk</i> ^a	<i>n.</i> wife's father <i>n.</i> wife's mother
<i>dī'əm</i> ^m		vv. play, not be serious
<i>dī'əma</i> ⁺		<i>n.</i> festival
<i>dī'əs</i> ^{e/}		vv. make receive
<i>dīg</i> ^{ya/}		iv. be lying down
<i>ger</i>	<i>dīk</i> ^{a/} KT <i>dīg</i> ^{e/} WK	
<i>dīg</i> ^{sá} ⁺		<i>n. pl</i> lairs
<i>dīg</i> ^{e/}		vv. lay down
<i>dīg</i> ⁿ ^e		vv. lie down
<i>dīg</i> ^e		<i>n.</i> dwarf
<i>pl</i>	<i>dīga</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>dīg-</i>	
<i>dīs</i> ^e		vv. feed
<i>agt</i>	<i>dīs</i> ^a	<i>n.</i> glutton
<i>dīs</i> ^{úŋ} ^o		<i>n.</i> spoon
<i>pl</i>	<i>dīsímà</i> ⁺ <i>dīsís</i> ^e	
<i>cb</i>	<i>dīsúŋ-</i>	
<i>dīm</i> ^a		dummy head pronoun, human pl [21.9.3]
<i>dìn</i> ^{ne}		dummy head pronoun, non-human [21.9.3]
<i>dín</i>		it (Subject of <i>ñ</i> -Clause) [17.1]
<i>dīn</i> ^e		it (Contrastive) [17.1] = <i>līn</i> ^e
<i>dīndēog</i> ^{o/}		<i>n.</i> chameleon
<i>pl</i>	<i>dīndēed</i> ^{e/}	
<i>cb</i>	<i>dīndē-</i>	
<i>dīndīs</i> ^a		<i>n.</i> glutton
<i>dìn</i> <i>zúg</i> ^o		therefore [19.1]

<i>dìtúŋ</i> ^o		<i>n.</i> right-hand: see <i>dàtìuŋ</i> ^o
<i>dì-z̄rvug</i> ^{ol}		<i>n.</i> crumb
	<i>pl</i> <i>dì-z̄rá</i> ⁺	
	<i>cb</i> <i>dì-z̄r-</i>	
<i>d̄ɔ̄l</i> ^{la/}		<i>iv.</i> accompany in a subordinate rôle
	<i>ger</i> <i>d̄ɔ̄llím</i> ^m	<i>Ànɔ̄ʔɔ̀nì d̄ɔ̄llí fò?</i> "Who has come with you?" (to an elderly patient.)
		<i>Bà d̄ɔ̄l nē tāaba.</i> "They went together."
<i>d̄ɔ̄lɔ̄g</i> ^{el}		<i>vv.</i> make accompany, send along with
<i>d̄ɔ̄lɔ̄s</i> ^{el}		<i>vv.</i> investigate, trace
<i>d̄ɔ̄ñlɔ̄g</i> ^{el}		<i>vv.</i> stretch oneself
<i>d̄ɔ̄ñʔɔ̄s</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> water plants
<i>d̄ɔ̄ɔ̄g</i> ^o		<i>n.</i> house, hut; clan
	<i>pl</i> <i>d̄ɔ̄ɔ̄d</i> ^e <i>d̄ɔ̄t</i> ^e	
	<i>cb</i> <i>d̄ɔ̄-</i>	
	<i>d̄ɔ̄ɔ̄g b̄líg</i> ^a	<i>n.</i> (house) cat
<i>d̄ɔ̄ɔ̄ŋg</i> ^o		<i>n.</i> dawadawa fruit 37.5
	<i>pl</i> <i>d̄ɔ̄ɔ̄ñd</i> ^e	
	<i>cb</i> <i>d̄ɔ̄ñ-</i>	
<i>d̄ū</i> ⁺		<i>vv.</i> go up
	<i>ipfv</i> <i>d̄ūt</i> ^{a/}	
	<i>imp</i> <i>d̄ùm</i> ^{ma}	
<i>d̄yʔà</i> ^a		<i>vv.</i> bear, beget
	<i>agt</i> <i>d̄yʔad</i> ^a	<i>n.</i> elder relation
<i>d̄yʔal</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> make interest (of a loan)
<i>d̄yʔam</i> ^m		<i>n.</i> birth
<i>d̄uàñ</i> ⁺		<i>n.</i> dawadawa 37.5
	<i>pl</i> <i>d̄ɔ̄ɔ̄ñs</i> ^e	<i>Parkia clappertoniana</i> [= <i>biglobosa</i>] (Haaf)
	<i>cb</i> <i>d̄ɔ̄ñ-</i>	
<i>d̄yʔátà</i> ⁺		<i>n.</i> doctor (← English)
<i>d̄ūe</i> ^{+/}		<i>vv.</i> raise, rise
<i>d̄ūg</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> cook
<i>d̄ūk</i> ^{ol}		<i>n.</i> cooking pot
	<i>pl</i> <i>d̄ūgud</i> ^{el} <i>d̄út</i> ^e	
	<i>cb</i> <i>d̄ūg-</i>	
	<i>d̄ūg-péʔèla</i> ⁺	<i>n.</i> full pots
<i>d̄ùm</i> ^m		<i>vv.</i> bite
<i>d̄ūm</i> ^{me} <i>d̄ūm</i> ^{ne}		<i>n.</i> knee
	<i>pl</i> <i>d̄ūma</i> ⁺	
	<i>cb</i> <i>d̄ùm-</i>	

<i>dòndùug</i> ^o		<i>n.</i> cobra
<i>pl</i>	<i>dòndùud</i> ^e	
<i>cb</i>	<i>dòndù-</i>	
<i>dūnyá</i> ⁺		<i>n.</i> world (← Arabic دنيا <i>dunya</i> ;) 11.7
<i>cb</i>	<i>dūnyá-</i>	
<i>dūnná</i> ⁺		<i>adv.</i> this year 37.8
<i>dūŋ</i> ^a		<i>n.</i> mosquito
<i>pl</i>	<i>dūmɪs</i> ^e	
<i>cb</i>	<i>dùŋ-</i>	
<i>dūer</i> ^{el}		<i>n.</i> stick
<i>pl</i>	<i>dūēyá</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>dūā-</i>	
<i>dūʔəs</i> ^{el}		<i>vv.</i> lift up, honour
<i>dùr</i> ^a		<i>iv.</i> be many
<i>dùʔun</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> pass water
<i>dūʔuním</i> ^m		<i>n.</i> urine
<i>cb</i>	<i>dūʔun-</i>	
<i>dōvsá</i> ⁺		<i>n. pl.</i> steps

E

<i>ēēñ</i>		<i>yes</i> 30.2.4
<i>ēēñ</i> or <i>ēēñ tí</i>		see <i>ñyēē</i> , <i>ñyēē tí</i> Particle-Verb 24.7.2
<i>ēēñb</i> ^{el}		<i>vv.</i> lay a foundation
<i>ēēñbí</i> ^e		<i>n.</i> foundation 14.1.2
<i>ēñbɪs</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> scratch
<i>ēñd</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> block up, plug up
<i>ēñdɪg</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> unblock, unplug
<i>ēñrg</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> shift along (e.g. a bench)

F

<i>fāaň</i> ⁼		<i>q.</i> every 18.1
<i>fāeň</i> ^{+/}		<i>vv.</i> save
<i>agt</i>	<i>fāaňd</i> ^{a/} <i>fāaňgíd</i> ^a	<i>n.</i> saviour 20.1
<i>fāň</i> ⁺		<i>vv.</i> grab, rob
<i>fáss</i>		ideophone for <i>pìəɪg</i> ^a "white" 21.8.1.3
<i>fēεg</i> ^{el}		<i>vv.</i> (of food) get old, cold
<i>fēňʔog</i> ^{o/}		<i>n.</i> ulcer
<i>pl</i>	<i>fēňʔəd</i> ^{el}	
<i>cb</i>	<i>fēňʔ-</i>	

<i>fɪəb^e</i>		vv. beat
<i>fɪʔig^e</i>		vv. cut off
<i>fɪiŋ⁼</i>		<i>q.</i> a little (liquid) 18.1
<i>fɪtlá⁺</i>		<i>n.</i> lamp (← Hausa <i>fɪtilàa</i>)
<i>fɔ̄ɔs^{el}</i>		vv. blow, puff (wind)
	<i>ger</i> <i>fɔ̄ɔsúg^o</i>	<i>n.</i> hypocrisy NT
<i>fù</i>		you, your sg (Proclitic) 17.1
<i>f^o</i>		you sg (Enclitic object) 17.1
<i>fùe⁺</i>		vv. draw out
<i>fūfūm^{me}</i>		<i>n.</i> envy; also: stye (believed to result from envy)
	<i>pl</i> <i>fūfūma⁺</i>	
	<i>cb</i> <i>fūfūm-</i>	
<i>fún</i>		you <i>sg</i> (as subject of <i>ñ</i> -Clause) 17.1
<i>fūn</i> SF <i>fúnè</i> LF		you <i>sg</i> (contrastive) 17.1
<i>fūug^{ol}</i>		<i>n.</i> shirt, clothing
	<i>pl</i> <i>fūud^{el} fūt^{el}</i>	<i>pl</i> also: cloth
	<i>cb</i> <i>fū-</i>	

G

<i>gàad^e</i>		vv. pass, surpass 28.3.2
<i>gáafàra</i>		sorry (in formulae, 36)
<i>gàʔal^e</i>		vv. button up
<i>gàʔam^m</i>		vv. grind teeth
<i>gāaň^{=/}</i>		<i>n.</i> Nigerian ebony 37.5
	<i>pl</i> <i>gāaňs^{el}</i>	<i>Diospyros mespilliformis</i> (Haaf)
	<i>cb</i> <i>gāň-</i>	
<i>gàas^e</i>		vv. pass by
<i>gādv⁺ gādvg^{ol}</i>		<i>n.</i> bed (← Hausa <i>gadoo</i>)
	<i>pl</i> <i>gādv-nám^a gāt^{el}</i>	
	<i>cb</i> <i>gād- gādv-</i>	
<i>gàlum^m</i>		vv. joke
<i>gàls^e</i>		vv. exceed, get to be too much
<i>gāňr^{el}</i>		<i>n.</i> fruit of Nigerian ebony 37.5
	<i>pl</i> <i>gāňyá⁺</i>	
	<i>cb</i> <i>gāňr-</i>	
<i>gàŋ^e</i>		vv. step over
<i>gāŋ^{el}</i>		vv. choose
<i>gbāňʔe^{+/}</i>		vv. catch
<i>gbāňyàʔa⁼</i>		<i>n.</i> lazy person 20
<i>gbāňyàʔam^m</i>		<i>n.</i> laziness; 1976 NT <i>gonya'am</i>

<i>gbàṽṽ</i> ^o		<i>n.</i> book WK
<i>pl</i>	<i>gbàna</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>gbàn- gbàṽṽ-</i>	
<i>gbāṽṽ</i> ^{o/}		<i>n.</i> animal skin WK; animal skin, book DK
<i>pl</i>	<i>gbāná</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>gbān- gbāṽṽ-</i>	
<i>gbéèñm</i> ^m		<i>n.</i> sleep
<i>cb</i>	<i>gbēñ-</i>	
<i>gbèʔog</i> ^o		<i>n.</i> forehead; shore of a lake
<i>pl</i>	<i>gbèʔed^e gbèda</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>gbèʔ-</i>	
<i>gbēr^{e/}</i>		<i>n.</i> thigh
<i>pl</i>	<i>gbēyá</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>gbēr-</i>	
<i>gbīgim</i> ^{ne}		<i>n.</i> lion
<i>pl</i>	<i>gbīgima</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>gbìgim-</i>	
<i>gbìn^{ne}</i>		<i>n.</i> buttock; base (e.g. of a mountain); meaning as postposition 22.6
<i>pl</i>	<i>gbìna</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>gbìn-</i>	
<i>gbìn-vòǎñ^e</i>		<i>n.</i> anus
<i>gbīs^e</i>		<i>vv.</i> sleep
<i>gēē^{e/}</i>		<i>vv.</i> place between one's legs; Pattern H
<i>gēēñm</i> ^{m/}		<i>vv.</i> go mad, madden
<i>pl</i>	<i>gēēñmís^e</i>	<i>n. pl as sg</i> madness
<i>géēñ^a</i>		<i>n.</i> madman
<i>pl</i>	<i>gēēñmís^e</i>	
<i>gél^{le}</i>		<i>n.</i> egg
<i>pl</i>	<i>gēlá</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>gēl-</i>	
<i>gēñ⁺</i>		<i>vv.</i> get tired
<i>pfv adj</i>	<i>gēēñlú^o</i>	<i>adj.</i> tired
<i>gēñʔ⁺</i>		<i>vv.</i> get angry
<i>gēog^o</i>		<i>n.</i> place between one's legs; Pattern O
<i>gīñlím^m</i>		<i>n.</i> shortness
<i>gìk^a</i>		<i>n. or adj.</i> dumb
<i>pl</i>	<i>gìgıs^e</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>gìg-</i>	
<i>gīlg^{e/}</i>		<i>vv.</i> go around 13.1.2
<i>ipfv</i>	<i>gīn^{na/}</i>	

<i>gīm</i> ^{ma/}		<i>iv.</i> be short
<i>gīŋ</i> ^a		<i>adj.</i> short
	<i>pl</i> <i>gīma</i> ⁺	
	<i>cb</i> <i>gìŋ-</i>	
<i>gìŋ</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> scrimp
<i>gīŋa</i> ⁺		<i>adv.</i> shortly 22.4
<i>gīŋulim</i> ^m		<i>n.</i> shortness
<i>gōdɪg</i> ^{el/} <i>gòʔɔn</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> look up
<i>gō</i> ^{la/} <i>gōr</i> ^{a/} <i>gōʔe</i> ^{ya/}		<i>iv.</i> be looking up
<i>gòŋ</i> ⁺		<i>vv.</i> hunt
	<i>ipfv</i> <i>gòwǎd</i> ^a	wander
	<i>ger</i> <i>gòwǎdɪm</i> ^m	15.1.1.4
<i>Gòwɔg</i> ^a		<i>n.</i> clan name 37.4
	<i>pl</i> <i>Gòwɔs</i> ^e	
<i>Gòwɔg</i> ^o		<i>n.</i> place of the Goosi clan
<i>gòʔɔn</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> look up
<i>gōr</i> ^{a/}		<i>iv.</i> be looking up
<i>gōs</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> look
	<i>ipfv</i> <i>gōsɪd</i> ^{a/} <i>gōt</i> ^{a/}	
	<i>imp</i> <i>gòsɪm</i> ^a <i>gòm</i> ^{ma}	
	<i>ger</i> <i>gòsìg</i> ^a	
	<i>agt</i> <i>gōt</i> ^{a/}	<i>n.</i> seer, prophet
<i>gù</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> suspend
	<i>ipfv</i> <i>gùn</i> ^{na}	
<i>gù</i> ^{la}		<i>iv.</i> be suspended
	<i>ger</i> <i>gùlɪb</i> ^o	
<i>gùllɪm</i> ^{ne}		only; Post NP/AdvP Particle 34.6
<i>gùm</i> ^{me}		<i>n.</i> kapok fruit 37.5 ; also "thread" WK
	<i>pl</i> <i>gùma</i> ⁺	
<i>Gùm</i> ^{me}		<i>n.</i> place of the clan <i>Gùm-dìm</i> ^a 37.4
<i>gūmpōzēr</i> ^{el/}		<i>n.</i> duck
	<i>pl</i> <i>gūmpōzēyá</i> ⁺	
	<i>cb</i> <i>gūmpōzér-</i>	
<i>gùŋʔa</i> ⁺		<i>n.</i> thorn
	<i>pl</i> <i>gùŋʔɔs</i> ^e	
	<i>cb</i> <i>gùŋʔ-</i>	
<i>gùŋgūm</i> ^{me}		<i>n.</i> kapok material
<i>gùŋ</i> ^a		<i>n.</i> kapok tree 37.5
	<i>pl</i> <i>gùmɪs</i> ^e	<i>Ceiba pentandra</i> (Haaf)
	<i>cb</i> <i>gùŋ-</i>	

<i>gūr^{a/}</i>		iv. be on guard, watch for 31.2
<i>ger gūrím^m</i>		
<i>Gūrín^{ne}</i>		n. Farefare language 37.4
<i>Gūrín^a</i>		n. Farefare person 37.4
<i>pl Gūrís^e</i>		
<i>gū^ʔul^{e/}</i>		vv. put on guard
<i>gò^ʔulm^m</i>		vv. become half-ripe
<i>gòvr^e</i>		n. upland; bank of river
<i>pl gùya⁺</i>		
<i>cb gù-</i>		
<i>gōvr^e</i>		n. ridge of back
<i>pl gōya⁺</i>		
<i>cb gò-</i>		
<i>gū^ʔus^{e/}</i>		vv. take care, watch out
<i>gō^ʔus^e</i>		n <i>pl.</i> half-ripe fruit

H

<i>hālí⁺</i>	until, up to and as far as 29.3 28.4 23.2 Probably ultimately ← Arabic حتى <i>ḥatta:</i>
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I

<i>īā⁺</i>		vv. seek
<i>īāñ^ʔas^{e/}</i>		vv. leap
<i>īāñk^{e/}</i>		vv. leap, fly 13.1.2
<i>ger īāñ^ʔad^{a/}</i>		
<i>agt īāñ^ʔad^{a/}</i>		
<i>īgɪ^{ya/}</i>		iv. be kneeling
<i>ger īk^{a/} KT īgɪ^{e/} WK</i>		
<i>īgɪ^{e/}</i>		vv. make to kneel
<i>ìgɪ^e</i>		vv. kneel down
<i>íɪ^{le}</i>		n. horn
<i>pl īɪlá⁺</i>		
<i>cb īɪ-</i>		
<i>īsr^e</i>		n. scar
<i>pl īsa⁺</i>		
<i>cb ìs-</i>		
<i>ìstg^e</i>		vv. get up early

K

<i>kà</i>		and, that	29.1.2	30.3.2
<i>kāab^{e/}</i>		vv. offer, invite		
<i>kāal^{e/}</i>		vv. count		
<i>kāas^{e/}</i>		vv. cry out, weep; (cock) crow		
<i>kàʔasige</i>		iv. not exist	35.1.1	
<i>kābig^{e/}</i>		vv. ladle out (liquid)		
<i>kābur^{e/}</i>		vv. call out asking for admission	36	
	<i>ger</i>	<i>kāburí⁺</i>		<i>n.</i> calling out for admission
<i>kàd^e</i>		vv. drive away		
		<i>kàd sàriyà</i>		
	<i>agt</i>	<i>sàriyà-kāt^a</i>		vv. judge 25.1.3
<i>kāʔe⁺</i>		<i>n.</i> judge NT		
	<i>ger</i>	<i>kāʔalím^m</i>		iv. not exist, not be, not have 35.1.1 9.1.3
<i>kāl^{le/}</i>		<i>n.</i> number		
	<i>pl</i>	<i>kālá⁺</i>		
	<i>cb</i>	<i>kāl-</i>		
<i>kàligā^{+/}</i>		<i>q.</i> few	18.1	
<i>kàm^a</i>		<i>q.</i> every	18.1	
<i>Kàmbùnr^e</i>		<i>n.</i> Twi language	37.4	
<i>Kàmbùŋ^a</i>		<i>n.</i> Ashanti person	37.4	
	<i>pl</i>	<i>Kàmbùmɿs^e</i>		
	<i>cb</i>	<i>Kàmbùŋ-</i>		
<i>kàn^e</i>		this, that (Demonstrative)	17.2	
<i>kàñb^e</i>		vv. scorch		
	<i>ger</i>	<i>kāñbur^e</i>		
<i>kàŋā^{+/}</i>		this, that (Demonstrative)	17.2	
<i>kàr^a</i>		iv. be few		
<i>káruƒà</i>		from Hausa <i>karfèe</i> ; used in telling time	37.8	
<i>kàruṃ^m</i>		vv. read		
<i>kàsēt^{a/}</i>		<i>n.</i> witness; testimony; ?ultimately Songhay, cf Humburi Senni <i>kàsé:tè</i> "inform in advance"		
	<i>pl</i>	<i>kàsētíḃ^a</i>		<i>plural</i> witnesses
<i>kē⁺</i>		vv. let, cause to ...	13.1.2	31.2
	<i>ipfv</i>	<i>kēt^{a/}</i>		
	<i>imp</i>	<i>kèl^a</i>		
<i>kèèkè⁺</i>		<i>n.</i> bicycle (← Hausa <i>kèèkè</i>)		
	<i>pl</i>	<i>kèèkè-nàm^a</i>		
	<i>cb</i>	<i>kèèkè-</i>		
<i>kèès^e</i>		vv. say farewell to		

<i>kèlɿs^e</i>		vv. listen
<i>kēñ⁺</i>		vv. come 13.1.2 ; always with <i>nā</i> 25.7
	<i>ipfv</i> <i>kēñ^{al}</i>	
	<i>imp</i> <i>kēm^a</i>	
	<i>ger</i> <i>kēñ^{ne/}</i>	
	<i>kēñ kēñ</i>	welcome! 36
<i>kēŋ^{el}</i>		vv. go; walk 13.1.2
	<i>ipfv</i> <i>kēñ^{na/}</i>	
	<i>imp</i> <i>kēm^{ma}</i>	disambiguated with <i>sà</i> 25.7
	<i>agt</i> <i>kēñ^{na/}</i>	<i>n.</i> traveller
<i>kī^{+/}</i>		<i>n.</i> cereal, millet
	<i>cb</i> <i>kī- kā-</i>	
	<i>kì-dà^{ar}e</i>	<i>n.</i> purchased millet
	<i>pl</i> <i>kì-dà^{ada}+</i>	
	<i>kā-wēñnɿ^e</i>	<i>n.</i> corn
	<i>pl</i> <i>kā-wēñna⁺</i>	
	<i>cb</i> <i>kā-wén-</i>	
<i>kjà⁺</i>		vv. cut
<i>kīdɿg^{el}</i>		vv. cross over
	<i>À-Kīdɿgi Bū^ʔəs</i>	<i>n.</i> the constellation Orion
<i>kīibú⁺</i>		<i>n.</i> soap WK; probable Mampruli loan 20.1 ; written materials <i>kī^{ib}o</i> , probably <i>kī^ʔɿb^{ol}</i>
	<i>cb</i> <i>kīib-</i>	
<i>kīiñ^o</i>		<i>n.</i> millet seed
	<i>pl</i> <i>kīiñ⁺</i>	
<i>kɿs^e</i>		vv. listen
<i>kī^ʔɿs^{el}</i>		vv. deny
<i>kìkàm^{me}</i>		<i>n.</i> fig 37.5
	<i>pl</i> <i>kìkàma⁺</i>	
<i>kìkàŋ^a kìnkàŋ^a</i>		<i>n.</i> fig tree 37.5 <i>Ficus capensis</i> (Haaf)
	<i>pl</i> <i>kìkàmɿs^e</i>	
	<i>cb</i> <i>kìkàŋ-</i>	
<i>kìkīrɿg^{al}</i>		<i>n.</i> "fairy" in local English; protective spiritual beings associated with a person (three for a man, four for a woman because of the dangers of childbirth.) Wild <i>kìkīrɿs^{el}</i> hostile to man live in the bush. "Their feet are attached backwards to confuse trackers." WK
	<i>pl</i> <i>kìkīrɿs^{el}</i>	
	<i>cb</i> <i>kìkīr-</i>	
	<i>kìkīr-bé^ʔèd-nàm^a</i>	<i>n.</i> NT evil spirits, demons
<i>kīlum^{m/}</i>		vv. become, change into

<i>kpàʔam^m</i>	<i>n. riches</i>
<i>kpāaňm^{m/}</i>	<i>n. grease, ointment</i>
<i>cb kpāň-</i>	
<i>kpāň-sóňʔɔ̀dìm^m</i>	<i>n. anointing oil</i>
<i>kpàkūr^{e/}</i>	<i>n. tortoise</i>
<i>pl kpàkūyá⁺</i>	
<i>cb kpàkūr-</i>	
<i>kpān^{ne}</i>	<i>n. spear</i>
<i>pl kpāna⁺</i>	
<i>cb kpàn-</i>	
<i>kpàňdɪr^e</i>	<i>n. baboon</i>
<i>pl kpàňda⁺</i>	
<i>cb kpàňd-</i>	
<i>kpàr^e</i>	<i>vv. lock</i>
<i>kpār-kéòňg^o</i>	<i>n. rag</i>
<i>pl kpār-kéěňd^e</i>	
<i>cb kpār-kéň-</i>	
<i>kpāʔúŋ^o</i>	<i>n. guinea fowl</i>
<i>pl kpīʔiní⁺</i>	
<i>cb kpāʔ-</i>	
<i>kpē⁺</i>	<i>adv. here</i> 19.1
<i>kpēěňm^m</i>	<i>n. elder</i>
<i>pl kpēěňm-nàm^a</i>	
<i>cb kpēěňm-</i>	
<i>kpēěňm^{ma/}</i>	<i>iv. be older than</i>
<i>kpēlá⁺</i>	<i>adv. here</i> 19.1
<i>kpèlɪm</i>	<i>still; immediately after, Particle-Verb</i> 24.7.2
<i>kpèlɪm^m</i>	<i>vv. remain</i>
<i>kpèňʔ⁺</i>	<i>vv. enter</i>
<i>kpēňdɪr^{e/}</i>	<i>n. cheek</i>
<i>pl kpēňdá⁺</i>	
<i>cb kpēňd-</i>	
<i>kpèňʔes^e</i>	<i>vv. make enter</i>
<i>kpèʔŋ^e</i>	<i>vv. strengthen</i>
<i>kpēoňŋ^o</i>	<i>n. seniority</i>
<i>kpi⁺</i>	<i>vv. die</i>
<i>pfv adj kpiilúŋ^o</i>	<i>adj. dead</i>
<i>kpiʔa⁺</i>	<i>n. neighbour</i>
<i>pl kpiʔəs^e</i>	
<i>cb kpiàʔ-</i>	
<i>kpiàʔ⁺</i>	<i>vv. shape wood with axe etc</i>

<i>kpìʔe</i> ⁺		vv. approach
<i>kpīʔəm</i> ^{ma/}		iv. be strong, hard
<i>kpīibɪg</i> ^a		n. orphan
	<i>pl</i> <i>kpīibɪs</i> ^e	
	<i>cb</i> <i>kpīib-</i>	
<i>kpīig</i> ^e		vv. go out (fire)
<i>kpīim</i> ^{m/}		n. dead person, corpse
	<i>pl</i> <i>kpīimís</i> ^e	
	<i>cb</i> <i>kpīim-</i>	
<i>kpīs</i> ^e		vv. quench (fire)
<i>kpīkpīn</i> ^{na/}		n. merchant
	<i>pl</i> <i>kpīkpīnníb</i> ^a	
	<i>cb</i> <i>kpīkpīn-</i>	
<i>kpīʔoŋ</i> ^o		adj. strong, hard
	<i>pl</i> <i>kpīʔəma</i> ⁺	
	<i>cb</i> <i>kpīʔoŋ-</i>	
<i>kpìsɪnkpìl</i> ^{le}		n. fist
	<i>pl</i> <i>kpìsɪnkpìla</i> ⁺	
	<i>cb</i> <i>kpìsɪnkpìl-</i>	
<i>kpìsɪkpìl</i> ^{le}		n. fist
<i>kpùkpàr</i> ^e		n. palm tree fruit 37.5
	<i>pl</i> <i>kpùkpàra</i> ⁺	
<i>kpùkpàrig</i> ^a		n. palm tree 37.5
	<i>pl</i> <i>kpùkpàris</i> ^e	(Probably <i>Borassus akeassii</i> or <i>aethiopum</i>)
	<i>cb</i> <i>kpùkpàr-</i>	
<i>kpùkpàɥŋ</i> ^o		n. arm, wing
	<i>pl</i> <i>kpùkpàma</i> ⁺	
	<i>cb</i> <i>kpùkpàɥŋ-</i>	
<i>kù</i>		not; negates Unrealised Mood 24.5
<i>kū</i> ⁺		vv. kill
<i>kū</i> ⁺		vv. gather, threaten (of rain)
		<i>Sāa kú yā</i> . "It looks like rain."
<i>kūā</i> ⁺		vv. hoe, farm
<i>kūʔalíŋ</i> ^a		n. sleeveless traditional smock
	<i>pl</i> <i>kūʔalímìs</i> ^e <i>kūʔalís</i> ^e	
	<i>cb</i> <i>kūʔalíŋ-</i>	
<i>kùd</i> ^e		vv. work iron
<i>kùdɪg</i> ^e		vv. shrivel up, dry out, age
<i>kūdɪm</i> ^m		n. the olden days

<i>kōdɔg</i> ^o <i>kōdɪr</i> ^e		<i>adj.</i> old
<i>pl</i>	<i>kōda</i> ⁺ <i>kūt</i> ^e	
<i>cb</i>	<i>kùd-</i>	
<i>kūdɔg</i> ^o		<i>n.</i> iron, nail; <i>sg</i> obsolete except in names 37.2
<i>pl</i>	<i>kūt</i> ^e	<i>pl</i> used as <i>sg</i> 11.5
<i>cb</i>	<i>kùt-</i>	
<i>kūgɔr</i> ^{e/}		<i>n.</i> stone
<i>pl</i>	<i>kūgá</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>kūg-</i>	
<i>kōk</i> ^a		<i>n.</i> chair
<i>pl</i>	<i>kōgɔs</i> ^e	
<i>cb</i>	<i>kùg-</i>	
<i>kōk</i> ^{a/}		<i>n.</i> mahogany tree, <i>Khaya senegalensis</i> (Haaf)
<i>kùkòṃ</i> ^{me}		<i>n.</i> leper
<i>pl</i>	<i>kùkòṃa</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>kùkòṃ-</i>	
<i>kùkōr</i> ^{e/}		<i>n.</i> voice
<i>pl</i>	<i>kùkōyá</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>kùkōr-</i>	
<i>kùkpàrig</i> ^a		see <i>kpùkpàrig</i> ^a <i>id</i>
<i>kūl</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> return home; transitive "marry" (woman subject, man object)
<i>ger</i>	<i>kūlig</i> ^{a/}	
<i>kōlɪm</i>		always, Post-Subject Particle 29.1.3
<i>kòlɪŋ</i> ^a		<i>n.</i> door
<i>pl</i>	<i>kòlɪmɪs</i> ^e <i>kòlɪs</i> ^e	
<i>cb</i>	<i>kòlɪŋ-</i>	
<i>kòm</i> ^m		<i>vv.</i> cry, weep
<i>kūm</i> ^m		<i>n.</i> death
<i>cb</i>	<i>kòm-</i> <i>kòm-vūʔugír</i> ^e	<i>n.</i> resurrection NT
<i>kòndùʔar</i> ^e		<i>n.</i> barren woman
<i>pl</i>	<i>kòndùʔada</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>kòndùʔà-</i>	
<i>kòndùŋ</i> ^a		<i>n.</i> jackal, hyena
<i>pl</i>	<i>kòndùmɪs</i> ^e <i>kòndùna</i> ⁺	
<i>kùʔəm</i> ^m		<i>n.</i> water
<i>cb</i>	<i>kùʔà-</i> <i>kùʔà-nūud</i> ^{e/} <i>kùʔà-ñwīig</i> ^{a/}	<i>n.</i> thirst
<i>pl</i>	<i>kùʔà-ñwīis</i> ^{e/}	<i>n.</i> current in a river

<i>kùøse</i> ^e		vv. sell
<i>kòrkūr</i> ^{e/}		n. pig
	<i>pl</i> <i>kòrkūyá</i> ⁺	
	<i>cb</i> <i>kòrkūr-</i>	
<i>Kūsáa</i> ⁼		n. Kusaasi person 37.4
	<i>pl</i> <i>Kūsáàs</i> ^e	
	<i>cb</i> <i>Kūsá-</i>	
<i>Kūsáàl</i> ^e		n. Kusaal language 37.4
<i>Kūsáùg</i> ^o		n. Kusaasi country 37.4
<i>Kùtān</i> ^{ne/}		n. member of WK's clan
	<i>pl</i> <i>Kùtām</i> ^{ma/}	
	<i>cb</i> <i>Kùtān-</i>	
<i>Kùtāŋ</i> ^{o/}		n. country of clan Kutamba
<i>kūv</i>		or 29.1.2 30.2.2 (← Hausa)
<i>kūug</i> ^{a/} <i>kūug</i> ^{o/}		n. mouse
	<i>pl</i> <i>kūus</i> ^{e/}	
	<i>cb</i> <i>kū-</i>	
<i>kùv</i> ^e		vv. get drunk

L

<i>lā</i> ^{+/}		definite article 21.3
<i>là</i> ^{ʔ+}		vv. laugh
<i>lā</i> ^{ʔaf} ^o		n. cowrie
	<i>pl</i> <i>līg</i> <i>d</i> ⁺	n. cowries; money
	<i>cb</i> <i>līg-</i> <i>là</i> ^{ʔ-}	
	<i>là</i> ^{ʔ-} <i>bīəl</i> ^í ^o	n. small coin
<i>lāafiya</i> ⁺		n. health (← Arabic العافية <i>ʔal-ʔa:fiya(tu)</i>) replaced throughout by <i>laafe láafi</i> in 1996 NT
<i>là</i> ^{ʔam}		together, Particle-Verb 24.7.2
<i>là</i> ^{ʔam} ^m		vv. associate with; together with 28.3
<i>là</i> ^{ʔas} ^e		vv. gather together (transitive)
		<i>Bà là</i> ^{ʔas} <i>tāaba</i> "They gathered together."
<i>làbāa</i> ^e		n. news (← Arabic الاخبار <i>ʔal-ʔaxba:r(u)</i>)
	<i>cb</i> <i>làbà-</i>	
<i>làb</i> ⁱ ^{ya}		iv. be crouching, hiding behind something (cf Hausa <i>laḅèè</i> "crouch behind something to eavesdrop" 20.1)
<i>làb</i> ⁱ ^e		vv. make crouch behind something
<i>làb</i> ⁱⁿ ^e		vv. crouch behind something
<i>làb</i> ^{is} ^e		vv. walk stealthily

<i>lābɪs^{a/}</i>		<i>iv.</i> be wide
<i>lābɪsɪg^a lābɪsɪr^e</i>		<i>adj.</i> wide
<i>pl lābɪsá⁺</i>		
<i>cb lābɪs-</i>		
<i>lābɪsɪm^m</i>		<i>n.</i> wideness
<i>lāk^{e/}</i>		<i>vv.</i> open (eye, book)
<i>lāl^{la/}</i>		<i>iv.</i> be distant
<i>lālɪg^{e/}</i>		<i>vv.</i> get to be far, make far
<i>lāllɪ⁺</i>		<i>adv.</i> far off
<i>lāllɪŋ^a</i>		<i>adj.</i> distant
<i>pl lāllɪs^e</i>		
<i>cb lāllɪŋ-</i>		
<i>lāllúg^o</i>		<i>adj.</i> distant
<i>pl lāllá⁺</i>		
<i>cb lāl-</i>		
<i>lām^{me/}</i>		<i>n.</i> gum (of tooth)
<i>pl lāmá⁺</i>		
<i>cb lām-</i>		
	<i>lām-fʃòŋ^o</i>	<i>adj.</i> toothless 21.8.1.4
	<i>pl lām-fʃòd^e</i>	
<i>làmpɔ̄-dɪʔəs^a</i>		<i>n.</i> tax collector 20 (French <i>l'impôt</i>)
<i>lān^{ne}</i>		<i>n.</i> testicle
<i>pl lāna⁺</i>		
<i>cb lān-</i>		
<i>làngāúŋ^o</i>		<i>n.</i> crab (cf <i>màngāúŋ^o</i> id)
<i>pl làngáam^{me} làngāamá⁺</i>		
<i>cb làngāuŋ-</i>		
<i>lànnɪg^a</i>		<i>n.</i> squirrel
<i>pl lànnɪs^e</i>		
<i>cb lànnɪg-</i>		11.2.2
<i>lāʔŋ^{e/}</i>		<i>vv.</i> set alight
<i>lāŋɪm^m</i>		<i>vv.</i> wander around searching
<i>lāyuk^o</i>		<i>n.</i> item of goods
<i>pl lāʔad^e</i>		<i>pl</i> goods
<i>cb lāʔ-</i>		
<i>làʔuŋ^o</i>		<i>n.</i> fishing net
<i>pl làʔama⁺</i>		
<i>lèb^e</i>		<i>vv.</i> return (intrans)
<i>ger lēbɪg^a</i>		
<i>lèbɪg^e</i>		<i>vv.</i> turn over
<i>lèbɪs^e</i>		<i>vv.</i> answer; send back; divorce (wife)

<i>lèε</i>		but, Verbal Predicator particle	24.7.1
<i>lèm</i>		again, Particle-Verb	24.7.2
<i>lèm^m</i>		vv. sip, taste	
<i>lēr^e</i>		vv. get ugly	
<i>lì</i>		it, its (Proclitic)	17.1
<i>lì⁺</i>		it (Enclitic object)	17.1
<i>lì⁺</i>		vv. fall	
	<i>ipfv</i>	<i>lìt^a</i>	
	<i>imp</i>	<i>lìm^{ma}</i>	
	<i>ger</i>	<i>līg^a</i>	
<i>lī⁺</i>		vv. block up	
<i>lìa</i>		where is ...?	27
<i>lìdɪg^e</i>		vv. turn a shirt WK	
<i>lìdɪg^e</i>		vv. astonish, be amazed	
<i>lìəb^e</i>		vv. become	
<i>lìʔə^e</i>		vv. approach, come near	
<i>līəŋ^a</i>		n. axe	
	<i>pl</i>	<i>līəmís^e</i>	
	<i>cb</i>	<i>līəŋ-</i>	
<i>lìg^e</i>		vv. patch	
<i>lìgɪ^e</i>		vv. cover	
<i>lìgɪn^e</i>		vv. cover oneself	
<i>lītɪr^e</i>		n. twin	
	<i>pl</i>	<i>lītɪr⁺</i>	
	<i>cb</i>	<i>lītɪ-</i>	
<i>līk^a</i>		n. darkness	
	<i>pl</i>	<i>līgɪs^e</i>	
<i>lìlāalɪŋ^a</i>		n. swallow	
	<i>pl</i>	<i>lìlāalís^e lìlāalímìs^e</i>	
	<i>cb</i>	<i>lìlāalɪŋ-</i>	
<i>lín</i>		it (subject of <i>ḥ</i> -Clause)	17.1
<i>līn^e</i>		it (Contrastive)	17.1
<i>lìn^e</i>		that (Demonstrative)	17.2
<i>lìná⁺</i>		that (Demonstrative)	17.2
<i>lī⁺</i>		vv. tie	
<i>līb^e</i>		vv. throw stones at	
<i>lībɪdɪg^a</i>		n. water drawing vessel	
	<i>pl</i>	<i>lībɪdís^e</i>	

<i>l̥ɔdɪg^{a/}</i>		<i>n.</i> corner
		<i>l̥ɔdɪgɪn kúg-súŋ^o</i> "cornerstone" NT
	<i>pl</i>	<i>l̥ɔdɪs^{e/}</i>
	<i>cb</i>	<i>l̥ɔd-</i>
<i>l̥ɔdɪg^{e/}</i>		<i>vv.</i> untie
<i>l̥ɔk^o</i>		<i>n.</i> quiver (for arrows)
	<i>pl</i>	<i>l̥ɔ^ʔad^e</i>
	<i>cb</i>	<i>l̥ɔ^ʔà-</i>
<i>l̥ɔmbò^ʔɔg^o</i>		<i>n.</i> garden (← Hausa <i>l̥ambuu</i>)
	<i>pl</i>	<i>l̥ɔmbò^ʔɔd^e</i>
	<i>cb</i>	<i>l̥ɔmbò^ʔ-</i>
<i>l̥ɔŋ^a</i>		<i>n.</i> a kind of frog
	<i>pl</i>	<i>l̥ɔmɪs^e</i>
	<i>cb</i>	<i>l̥ɔŋ-</i>
<i>l̥ɔ^ʔŋ^{e/}</i>		<i>vv.</i> go across river, road etc
<i>l̥ɔr^e</i>		<i>n.</i> car, lorry (← English)
	<i>pl</i>	<i>l̥ɔyà⁺ l̥ɔɔm^{ma}</i>
	<i>cb</i>	<i>l̥ɔr-</i>
<i>l̥ù⁺</i>		<i>vv.</i> fall
	<i>ipfv</i>	<i>l̥ùt^a</i>
	<i>imp</i>	<i>l̥ùm^{ma}</i>
<i>l̥ūb^e</i>		<i>vv.</i> buck, kick, struggle, throw off rider
	<i>ger</i>	<i>l̥ūbɪr^{e/}</i>
<i>l̥ūg^e</i>		<i>vv.</i> swim
<i>l̥ògɔr^e</i>		<i>n.</i> organ, member

M

<i>m̥</i>		I, my (Proclitic) 17.1
<i>m^a</i>		me (Enclitic) 17.1
<i>mà⁺</i>		<i>n.</i> mother
	<i>pl</i>	<i>mà nám^a</i>
	<i>cb</i>	<i>mà-</i>
		<i>mà-bīg^a</i>
		<i>mà-bī^a</i>
		<i>mà-kp̄ēñm^m</i>
		<i>mà-pīt^{a/}</i>
<i>mà^ʔ+</i>		<i>vv.</i> lie, deceive
<i>mà^ʔaa</i> SF <i>mà^ʔane</i> LF		only; Post NP/AdvP Particle 34.6

<i>màal</i> ^e		vv. prepare, sacrifice
<i>agt</i>	<i>màal-māan</i> ^{na}	<i>n.</i> sacrificer; used for "priest" in the NT, but in traditional usage just a worker who conducts the actual slaying for the the <i>tèŋ-dāan</i> ^a earth-priest himself
<i>māʔal</i> ^{e/}		vv. make cool, wet
<i>māan</i> ^{ne}		<i>n.</i> sacrifice
	<i>pl</i> <i>māana</i> ⁺	
	<i>cb</i> <i>màan-</i>	
<i>máʔan</i> ^{ne}		<i>n.</i> okra
	<i>pl</i> <i>māʔaná</i> ⁺	
	<i>cb</i> <i>māʔan-</i>	
<i>māʔas</i> ^{a/}		iv. be cool, wet
<i>māʔasíg</i> ^a <i>māʔasír</i> ^e		<i>adj.</i> cool, wet
	<i>pl</i> <i>māʔasá</i> ⁺	
	<i>cb</i> <i>māʔas-</i>	
<i>māʔasígā</i> ^{+/}		<i>adv.</i> coolly [22.4]
<i>māʔasím</i> ^m		<i>n.</i> coolness, wetness
<i>mādɪg</i> ^{e/}		vv. overflow, abound
<i>māʔe</i> ^{+/}		vv. cool down
<i>màk</i> ^e		vv. crumple up
<i>māk</i> ^{e/}		vv. measure, judge
<i>màljāk</i> ^{a/}		<i>n.</i> angel (← Arabic ملاك <i>malʔak(un)</i> ; [20.1]) always <i>malek</i> (<i>pl</i> <i>maleknam</i>) in the NT
	<i>pl</i> <i>màljāʔas</i> ^{e/} <i>màljāk-nám</i> ^a	
	<i>cb</i> <i>màljāʔ-</i>	
<i>māɫs</i> ^{a/}		iv. be sweet, pleasant
<i>māɫsíg</i> ^a <i>māɫsír</i> ^e		<i>adj.</i> sweet, pleasant
	<i>pl</i> <i>māɫsá</i> ⁺	
	<i>cb</i> <i>māɫs-</i>	
<i>māɫsím</i> ^m		<i>n.</i> sweetness
<i>māɫsíg</i> ^a		<i>adj.</i> sweet, pleasant
	<i>pl</i> <i>māɫsís</i> ^e	
	<i>cb</i> <i>māɫsíg-</i>	
<i>māɫɔŋ</i> ^o		<i>n.</i> sacrifice
	<i>pl</i> <i>māɫɔma</i> ⁺	
	<i>cb</i> <i>māɫɔŋ-</i>	
<i>mām</i>		I, me [17.1]
<i>mán</i>		I (as subject of <i>ŋ</i> -Clause) [17.1]
<i>mān</i> SF <i>mánè</i> LF		I, me (contrastive) [17.1]

<i>màngāúŋ</i> ^o		<i>n.</i> crab (cf <i>làngāúŋ</i> ^o id)
<i>pl</i>	<i>màngáam</i> ^{me} <i>màngāamá</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>màngāvŋ-</i>	
<i>màúk</i> ^o		<i>adj.</i> crumpled up
<i>pl</i>	<i>màʔad</i> ^e	
<i>mè</i> ⁺		<i>vv.</i> build
<i>mè mèn</i> ^e		too, also; Post NP/AdvP Particle 34.6
	<i>mè-kàma</i>	-soever 17.3
<i>mēd</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> mash up
<i>mèɛŋ</i> ^a		<i>n.</i> turtle
<i>pl</i>	<i>mèɛmɪs</i> ^e	
<i>cb</i>	<i>mèɛŋ-</i>	
<i>mèlɪgɪm</i> ^m		<i>n.</i> dew
<i>mēŋ</i> ^{a/}		self 21.9.3
<i>mēŋí</i> ^e		<i>adj.</i> genuine
<i>mēt</i> ^{e/}		<i>n. pl as sg</i> pus
<i>cb</i>	<i>mēt-</i>	
<i>mī</i> ⁺		<i>iv.</i> know
<i>ger</i>	<i>mīʔilím</i> ^m	
<i>agt</i>	<i>gbàn-mīʔid</i> ^{a/}	<i>n.</i> scribe NT
<i>míí</i> ^o		<i>n.</i> okra seed
<i>pl</i>	<i>mīiní</i> ⁺	
<i>mìʔig</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> become sour
<i>mìʔis</i> ^a		<i>iv.</i> be sour
<i>mìʔisv</i> ^o		<i>adj.</i> sour
<i>pl</i>	<i>mìʔisa</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>mìʔis-</i>	
<i>mīlɪg</i> ^{e/}		<i>vv.</i> get dirty
<i>mìmīilím</i> ^m <i>mìmīilúg</i> ^o		<i>n.</i> sweetness
<i>mìt</i>		see that it doesn't happen that... 35.1.1
<i>mō</i> ⁺		<i>vv.</i> strive, struggle
<i>mōd</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> swell
<i>mōdɪg</i> ^{e/}		<i>vv.</i> be patient, endure
<i>mòlɪ</i> ^o		<i>n.</i> gazelle
<i>pl</i>	<i>mòlɪ</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>mòlɪ-</i>	
<i>mōn</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> grind millet to make <i>sāʔab</i> ^o porridge
<i>mōŋ</i> ^{e/}		<i>vv.</i> refuse to lend

<i>m̄ɔɔg</i> ^o		<i>n.</i> grass; "bush"
<i>pl</i>	<i>m̄ɔɔd</i> ^e	
<i>cb</i>	<i>m̄-</i> <i>m̄-pīl</i> ^{le}	<i>n.</i> grass thatch
<i>M̄ɔɔg</i> ^o		<i>n.</i> Mossi realm
	<i>M̄ɔɔg Ná'àb</i> ^a	<i>n.</i> the Moro Naba, King of the Mossi
<i>m̄ɔɔl</i> ^{e/}		<i>vv.</i> proclaim
<i>agt</i>	<i>m̄ɔɔl-m̄ɔɔn</i> ^{na}	<i>n.</i> proclaimer
<i>M̄ɔɔl</i> ^e		<i>n.</i> Mooré language
<i>M̄r</i> ^{e/}		<i>n.</i> Muslim
<i>pl</i>	<i>M̄ɔɔm</i> ^{ma}	
<i>cb</i>	<i>M̄r-</i>	
<i>m̄r</i> ^{a/}		<i>iv.</i> have, possess; <i>m̄r nā</i> "bring" 25.7
<i>ger</i>	<i>m̄rím</i> ^m	
<i>M̄a</i> ⁺		<i>n.</i> Mossi person 37.4
<i>pl</i>	<i>M̄ɔɔs</i> ^e	
<i>cb</i>	<i>M̄-</i>	
<i>m̄ɔ'à</i> ^a		<i>vv.</i> suck (of a baby)
<i>m̄ɔ'àk</i> ^a		<i>n.</i> maggot
<i>pl</i>	<i>m̄ɔ'as</i> ^e	
<i>cb</i>	<i>m̄ɔ'à-</i>	
<i>m̄ɔ'ar</i> ^e		<i>n.</i> dam; reservoir
<i>pl</i>	<i>m̄ɔ'aa</i> ⁺ <i>m̄ɔ'ada</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>m̄ɔ'à-</i>	
<i>m̄ɔ'as</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> give (to baby) to suck
<i>m̄ɔ'e</i> ⁺		<i>vv.</i> redden
<i>m̄ɔj</i> ⁺		<i>n.</i> <i>pl as sg</i> rice
<i>cb</i>	<i>m̄ɔj-</i>	
<i>m̄ɔ</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> itch
<i>m̄ɔm</i> ^m		<i>vv.</i> bury

N

<i>ñ</i>	Clause Complementiser particle 33
<i>n</i>	VP Serialiser particle 28.1
<i>ñ-</i>	Personifier proclitic before an adjective 21.10
<i>n</i> ^e	Modal Remoteness Enclitic 24.4.2
<i>n</i> ^e <i>ni</i> ⁺	Locative Enclitic 22.3
<i>nà</i>	Positive Unrealised Mood marker 24.4
<i>nā</i> ^{+/}	hither: VP-final particle 25.7
<i>nā</i> ⁺	<i>vv.</i> join

<i>náa</i>		reply to greetings invoking blessings	36
<i>nàʔab^a</i>		<i>n.</i> chief, king	
	<i>pl</i>	<i>nàʔ-nàm^a</i>	
	<i>cb</i>	<i>nàʔ-</i>	
		<i>nàʔ-bīig^a</i>	<i>n.</i> prince, princess
<i>náaf^o</i>		<i>n.</i> cow	
	<i>pl</i>	<i>nīigí⁺</i>	
	<i>cb</i>	<i>nāʔ-</i>	
		<i>nāʔ-lór^e</i>	<i>n.</i> place in compound for tying up cows
		<i>nāʔ-dáùg^o</i>	<i>n.</i> ox
	<i>pl</i>	<i>nāʔ-dáàd^e</i>	
	<i>cb</i>	<i>nāʔ-dá-</i>	
		<i>nāʔ-dá-kūødír^e</i>	<i>n.</i> ox for ploughing
<i>nāʔam^m</i>		<i>n.</i> chieftaincy, kingdom	
	<i>cb</i>	<i>nàʔam-</i>	
<i>nāan</i>		next, afterwards = <i>ñyāan</i>	
<i>nāan</i> or <i>nāani</i>		then, in that case, being thus/there	32.2
<i>nàʔanā^{+/}</i>		<i>adv.</i> easily	22.4
<i>nàʔas^e</i>		<i>vv.</i> honour	
	<i>ger</i>	<i>nàʔasi⁺</i>	<i>n.</i> honour
<i>Nàbɪd^a</i>		<i>n.</i> Nabdema person	37.4
	<i>pl</i>	<i>Nàbɪdɪb^a</i>	
	<i>cb</i>	<i>Nàbɪd-</i>	
<i>Nàbɪdɔg^o</i>		<i>n.</i> Nabdema country	
<i>Nàbɪr^e</i>		<i>n.</i> Nabit language	37.4
<i>Nàʔdàm^{ma}</i>		<i>n.</i> clan name	37.4
<i>Nàʔdàṽṽ^o</i>		<i>n.</i> place of clan Nadamba	
<i>nàʔ-dàwān^{ne/}</i>		<i>n.</i> pigeon KED (= <i>dàwān^{ne/}</i>)	
<i>nāe^{+/}</i>		<i>vv.</i> finish	
<i>nàm</i>		still, yet; auxiliary tense particle	24.3.1
<i>nàm^a</i>		pluraliser	11.4
<i>nāʔmɪs^{e/}</i>		<i>vv.</i> persecute, suffer	
<i>nān^e</i>		<i>vv.</i> love, respect, appreciate	
<i>nàʔ-nēsunnēog^{o/}</i>		<i>n.</i> centipede WK	
<i>nānná⁺</i>		<i>adv.</i> now	19.1
<i>nānná-nā^{+/}</i>		<i>adv.</i> now	19.1
<i>nànzùʔus^e</i>		<i>n.</i> pepper ?tones	
<i>nāṅ^a</i>		<i>n.</i> scorpion	
	<i>pl</i>	<i>nāmɪs^e</i>	
	<i>cb</i>	<i>nàṅ-</i>	

<i>nār^{a/}</i>		iv. be obliged to; impersonal: to be necessary with following purpose clause 31.2 negated: "be obliged not to"
	<i>ger nārím^m</i>	
<i>nàrvu^o</i>		adj. necessary
	<i>pl nàrɪma⁺</i>	
	<i>cb nàrvu-</i>	
<i>Nàsāal^e</i>		n. English/French language
<i>Nàsāara⁺</i>		n. European person (← Arabic نصارى <i>Nas^ra:ra:</i>)
	<i>pl Nàsàa-nàm^a Nàsàar-nàm^a</i>	
	<i>cb Nàsàa- Nàsàar- Nàsàa-bīig^a</i>	n. European child
<i>nàyīig^a</i>		n. thief
	<i>pl nàyiig-nàm^a nàyiis^e</i>	
<i>nàyīigim^m</i>		n. thievery
<i>nà[?]-zòm^{me}</i>		n. locust
<i>nē</i>		preposition: with 23.1 linking NPs and AdvPs: and 21.4 after objects of <i>wūv</i> and <i>wēn^{na/}</i> 23.1 focus particle 34.1.1 ; aspectual marker 24.2 this (pronoun) 17.2
<i>nē^{+/}</i>		
<i>nē^{+/}</i>		
<i>nē[?]+/</i>		
<i>nèɛl^e</i>		vv. reveal
<i>nèɛm^m</i>		adv. for free
<i>nēɛm^{m/}</i>		vv. grind with a millstone
<i>nēɛr^{e/}</i>		n. millstone
<i>nēm-néɛr^e</i>		n. someone who grinds
	<i>pl nēm-néyà⁺</i>	
<i>nēn^{na/}</i>		iv. envy
	<i>ger nēnním^m</i>	
<i>nē[?]ɲá⁺</i>		this (pronoun) 17.2
<i>nèog^o nèɛr^e</i>		adj. empty
	<i>pl nèɛd^e nèya⁺</i>	
	<i>cb nè-</i>	
<i>nēsɪnnēog^{o/}</i>		n. envious person WK; others: centipede
	<i>pl nēsɪnnèɛd^{e/}</i>	
	<i>cb nēsɪnné-</i>	
<i>ñ fá!</i>		Well done! 30.2.4
<i>nɪ⁺</i>		locative enclitic 22.3 see <i>n^e</i>
<i>nì⁺</i>		vv. rain

<i>nīd</i> ^{a/}		<i>n. person</i>
<i>pl</i>	<i>nīdɪb</i> ^{a/}	
<i>cb</i>	<i>nīn-</i>	
	<i>nīn-sáàl</i> ^a	<i>n. human being</i>
	<i>pl nīn-sáalìb</i> ^a	
	<i>cb nīn-sáal-</i>	
	<i>nīnpōnān</i> ^{na/}	<i>n. disrespectful person</i>
	<i>pl nīnpōnānníb</i> ^a	
	<i>cb nīnpōnán-</i>	
	<i>nīn-sábulìs</i> ^e	<i>n. Africans</i>
<i>nè</i> ⁺		<i>vv. appear, reveal</i>
<i>nīf</i> ^{o/}		<i>n. eye</i>
<i>pl</i>	<i>nīní</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>nīn- nīf-</i>	
	<i>nīf-gbáuy</i> ^o	<i>n. eyelid</i>
	<i>nīf-sób</i> ^a	<i>n. miser</i>
	<i>nīf-ñyáuk</i> ^o	<i>adj. one-eyed</i> 18.2.4 21.8.1.4
	<i>nīn-dáa</i> ⁼	<i>n. face</i>
	<i>nīn-gótìŋ</i> ^a	<i>n. mirror</i>
	<i>pl nīn-gótìs</i> ^e	<i>n. spectacles, glasses</i>
	<i>nīn-kúgudìg</i> ^a	<i>n. eyebrow</i>
	<i>pl nīn-kúgudìs</i> ^e	
	<i>nīn-tá?àm</i> ^m	<i>n. tear(s)</i>
	<i>nīn-múa</i> ⁺	<i>n. concentration ("eye-redness")</i>
<i>níŋ</i> ^a		<i>n. bird</i>
<i>pl</i>	<i>nīimís</i> ^e <i>níis</i> ^e	
<i>cb</i>	<i>nīŋ-</i>	
<i>nīm</i> ^{ne/} <i>nī?m</i> ^{ne/}		<i>n. meat</i>
<i>pl</i>	<i>nīmá</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>nīm-</i>	
<i>nīn-báalìg</i> ^a		<i>n. pity</i>
	<i>nīn-báal-zōr</i> ^e	<i>n. pity:</i> <i>Ò zòt-ō nīn-báalìg. "He has pity on him."</i>
<i>nīn-dáa</i> ⁼		<i>n. face</i>
<i>pl</i>	<i>nīn-dáàs</i> ^e	
<i>cb</i>	<i>nīn-dá-</i>	

<i>nīŋ</i> ^a		<i>n.</i> body (uncommon)
<i>pl</i>	<i>nīs</i> ^e	
<i>cb</i>	<i>nìŋ- nìn- nìn-tōllím</i> ^m <i>nìn-tāa</i> ⁼	<i>n.</i> fever <i>n.</i> co-wife; husband's sister's wife (Ghanaian English: "rival")
	<i>pl</i> <i>nìn-tāas</i> ^e <i>cb</i> <i>nìn-tà- nìn-gbīŋ</i> ^{o/}	<i>n.</i> body plural often used as singular
	<i>pl</i> <i>nìn-gbīnā</i> ⁺ <i>cb</i> <i>nìn-gbīŋ- nìn-gòɔr</i> ^e	<i>n.</i> neck <i>n.</i> <i>pl</i> as <i>sg</i> pus <i>n.</i> heat of the day, early afternoon
<i>nīn-púúd</i> ^e		
<i>nīntāŋ</i> ^{a/}		
<i>pl</i>	<i>nīntāaŋs</i> ^{e/}	
<i>cb</i>	<i>nīntāŋ-</i>	
<i>nìŋ</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> do
<i>h̄ lā</i>		that is ... 27
<i>h̄nāas</i>		<i>q.</i> four 18.2.3
<i>h̄nīi</i>		<i>q.</i> eight 18.2.3
<i>h̄nū</i>		<i>q.</i> five 18.2.3
<i>n h̄wá</i>		this is ... 27
<i>n h̄wá nā</i>		this here is ... 27
<i>nō</i> ⁺		<i>vv.</i> tread
<i>nōb</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> get fat
<i>nōbīg</i> ^{e/}		<i>vv.</i> grow (e.g. child, plant)
<i>nóbìr</i> ^e		<i>n.</i> leg, foot
<i>pl</i>	<i>nōbá</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>nōb- nōb-bíl</i> ^a <i>nōb-yíuŋ</i> ^o <i>nōb-íh̄ʔa</i> ⁺ <i>nōb-púmpàuŋ</i> ^o	<i>n.</i> toe <i>adj.</i> one-legged 18.2.4 21.8.1.4 <i>n.</i> toenail <i>n.</i> foot
<i>nōk</i> ^{e/}		<i>vv.</i> pick up, take up
<i>nòŋ</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> love (verb; family, spiritual) <i>pfv</i> with <i>ipfv</i> sense 13.1.2
<i>agt</i>	<i>nòŋid</i> ^a	agent noun: irregularly Pattern L
<i>nōŋ</i> ^{o/}		<i>n.</i> poverty
<i>cb</i>	<i>nōŋ- nōŋ-dáàn</i> ^a	<i>n.</i> poor person
<i>nòŋulím</i> ^m		<i>n.</i> love (noun)

<i>nɔ̄ɔr^{e/}</i>		<i>n.</i> mouth; command, message, opinion
<i>pl</i>	<i>nɔ̄yá⁺</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>nɔ̄-</i> <i>nɔ̄-díʔəs^a</i>	<i>n.</i> Chief's "linguist", who speaks on his behalf on all official occasions 15.1.1.1 fn
	<i>Wínàʔam nɔ̄-díʔəs^a</i>	<i>n.</i> prophet NT
	<i>nɔ̄-lóòr^e</i>	<i>n.</i> fasting ("mouth-tying"; idiom throughout W Africa)
	<i>nɔ̄-náàr^e</i>	<i>n.</i> covenant
	<i>nɔ̄-pɔ̄òòr^e</i>	<i>n.</i> oath
	<i>nɔ̄-gbáɲŋ^o</i>	<i>n.</i> lip
	<i>pl nɔ̄-gbánà⁺</i>	
<i>nɔ̄ɔr^{e/}</i>		times 18.2.5
<i>nɔ̄ɔrí^m</i>		times 18.2.5
<i>h̄pòɛ</i>		<i>q.</i> seven 18.2.3
<i>h̄táñʔ</i>		<i>q.</i> three 18.2.3
<i>nū⁺</i>		<i>vv.</i> drink
<i>nūa^{+/}</i>		<i>n.</i> hen
<i>pl</i>	<i>nɔ̄ɔs^{e/}</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>nɔ̄-</i> <i>nɔ̄-dáùg^o</i>	<i>n.</i> cock <i>vv.</i> make drink
<i>nūlɔg^{e/}</i>		<i>vv.</i> make drink
<i>nūlɔs^{e/}</i>		<i>vv.</i> make drink
<i>núʔùg^o</i>		<i>n.</i> hand, arm
<i>pl</i>	<i>núʔùs^e</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>nūʔ-</i> <i>nūʔ-bí^a</i>	<i>n.</i> finger
	<i>pl nūʔ-bíbìs^e</i>	
	<i>nūʔ-dáùg^o</i>	<i>n.</i> thumb
	<i>nūʔ-yíɲŋ^o</i>	<i>adj.</i> one-armed 18.2.4 21.8.1.4
	<i>nūʔ-íñʔa⁺</i>	<i>n.</i> fingernail
	<i>pl nūʔ-éñʔès^e</i>	
	<i>cb nūʔ-éñʔ-</i> <i>nūʔ-wéñʔèd^a</i>	<i>n.</i> mediator this 21.3
<i>ñwà⁺</i>		<i>vv.</i> smash, break up
<i>ñwāʔ⁺</i>		<i>n.</i> monkey
<i>ñwāaŋ^a</i>		
<i>pl</i>	<i>ñwāamis^e</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>ñwāaŋ-</i>	

<i>ñwādɪg</i> ^{a/}		<i>n.</i> moon, month
<i>pl</i>	<i>ñwādɪs</i> ^{e/}	
<i>cb</i>	<i>ñwād-</i>	
	<i>ñwād-bíl</i> ^a	<i>n.</i> star
	<i>pl</i> <i>ñwād-bíbìs</i> ^e	
	<i>ñwād-dár</i> ^e	<i>n.</i> Venus
<i>ñwàʔe</i> ⁺		<i>vv.</i> cut wood
<i>nwāɛ</i>		<i>q.</i> nine 18.2.3
<i>ñwām</i> ^{me} <i>ñwān</i> ^{ne}		<i>n.</i> calabash
<i>pl</i>	<i>ñwāma</i> ⁺ <i>ñwāna</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>ñwàm-</i> <i>ñwàn-</i>	
<i>Ñwāmpūrg</i> ^{a/}		<i>n.</i> Mamprussi person 37.4
<i>pl</i>	<i>Ñwāmpūrs</i> ^{e/}	
<i>cb</i>	<i>Ñwāmpúr-</i>	
<i>Ñwāmpūrl</i> ^{e/}		<i>n.</i> Mampruli language 37.4
<i>Ñwāmpūrg</i> ^{o/}		<i>n.</i> Mamprussi country
<i>ñwèʔ</i> ⁺		<i>vv.</i> beat
	<i>ñwèʔ</i> X <i>núʔùg</i> "make an agreement with X"	
	<i>ñwèʔ</i> <i>ñyɔʔɔg</i> "boast"	
<i>ñwīg</i> ^{a/}		<i>n.</i> rope
<i>pl</i>	<i>ñwīs</i> ^{e/}	
<i>cb</i>	<i>ñwī-</i>	
	<i>ñwī-ték</i> ^a	<i>n.</i> rope-puller
	<i>pl</i> <i>ñwī-tékìdɪb</i> ^a	
	<i>cb</i> <i>ñwī-ték-</i>	
	<i>ñwī-tékìr</i> ^e	<i>n.</i> rope for pulling
	<i>pl</i> <i>ñwī-tékà</i> ⁺	
<i>ñwīg</i> ^{e/}		<i>vv.</i> make a rope
<i>ñyāʔal</i> ^{e/}		<i>vv.</i> leave behind
<i>ñyāan</i>		next, afterwards; Post-Subject Particle 29.1.3
<i>ñyáʔaŋ</i> ^a		<i>adj.</i> female (animal)
<i>pl</i>	<i>ñyáʔas</i> ^e <i>ñyāʔamís</i> ^e	
<i>cb</i>	<i>ñyāʔaŋ-</i>	
<i>ñyáʔaŋ</i> ^a		behind, postposition 22.6
	<i>ñyàʔan-d̀l</i> ^{la} <i>ñyàʔan-d̀l</i> ^{le}	<i>n.</i> disciple NT; tones unexpected, Pattern L
	<i>pl</i> <i>ñyàʔan-d̀lla</i> ⁺ <i>ñyàʔan-d̀llɪb</i> ^a	
	<i>cb</i> <i>ñyàʔan-d̀l-</i>	
<i>ñyāʔar</i> ^e		<i>n.</i> root
<i>pl</i>	<i>ñyāʔa</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>ñyāʔ-</i>	
<i>ñyāe</i> ^{ne/}		<i>adv.</i> in the light, brightly, clearly 22.3

<i>ňyālúŋ</i> ^o		<i>adj.</i> wonderful
<i>pl</i>	<i>ňyālımá</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>ňyāluŋ-</i>	
<i>ňyàn</i> ^{ne}		<i>n.</i> shame <i>Ò di ñyán.</i> "He's ashamed."
<i>ňyāŋ</i> ^{e/}		<i>vv.</i> overcome 28.3
<i>ňyàùk</i> ^o		<i>adj.</i> only (eye) 18.2.4 21.8.1.4
<i>pl</i>	<i>ňyàʔad</i> ^e	
<i>ňyē</i> ⁺		<i>vv.</i> see, find <i>ňyē láafiya</i> "get well"
<i>ipfv</i>	<i>ňyēt</i> ^{a/}	
<i>imp</i>	<i>ňyèm</i> ^{ma}	
<i>ňyēε, ñyēε tí</i>		<i>habitually, Particle-Verb</i> 24.7.2
<i>ňyēʔεr</i> ^{e/}		<i>n.</i> next-younger sibling
<i>pl</i>	<i>ňyēdá</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>ňyēʔ-</i>	
<i>ňyèεs</i> ^a		<i>iv.</i> be self-confident
<i>ňyèεsım</i> ^m		<i>n.</i> self-confidence
<i>ňyèεsíŋ</i> ^a		<i>adj.</i> self-confident
<i>pl</i>	<i>ňyèεsíε</i> ^e	
<i>cb</i>	<i>ňyèεsíŋ-</i>	
<i>ňyèεsíŋā</i> ^{+/}		<i>adv.</i> self-confidently 22.4
<i>ňyí</i>		<i>q.</i> two 18.2.3
<i>ňyīn</i> ^{ne/}		<i>n.</i> tooth
<i>pl</i>	<i>ňyīná</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>ňyīn-</i>	
<i>ňyīrírí</i> ^o		<i>n.</i> a kind of edible seed, egusi <i>Colocynthis citrullus</i> (Haaf)
<i>pl</i>	<i>ňyīrírí</i> ⁺	
<i>ňyōɔd</i> ^e		<i>n.</i> intestines
<i>ňyōʔɔŋ</i> ^{o/}		<i>n.</i> chest
<i>ňyōɔr</i> ^e		<i>n.</i> nose; breath
<i>pl</i>	<i>ňyōya</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>ňyò-</i>	
	<i>ňyò-vūr</i> ^{e/}	<i>n.</i> life
	<i>pl</i> <i>ňyò-vōyá</i> ⁺	
	<i>cb</i> <i>ňyò-vūr-</i>	
	<i>ňyò-vūr-páàl</i> ^{le}	<i>n.</i> new life NT
<i>ňyōʔɔs</i> ^{e/}		<i>n.</i> smoke
<i>ňyúèb</i>		<i>q.</i> six 18.2.3
<i>ňyūur</i> ^{e/}		<i>n.</i> yam
<i>pl</i>	<i>ňyūyá</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>ňyū-</i>	

O

ò	[ʊ]	he, she, his, her (Proclitic)	17.1
o	LF [ʊ]	him, her (Enclitic object)	17.1 9.3.1.1
ón		he, she (subject of <i>h</i> -Clause)	17.1
ōn ^e		he, she (Contrastive)	17.1
òn ^e		this, that (human sg Demonstrative)	17.2
òñb ^e		v.v. chew	
	<i>ger</i> òñbir ^e		
òḡā ^{+/}		this, that (human sg Demonstrative)	17.2
òḡs ^{e/}		v.v. warm oneself	
		Ò òḡsɪd nē búgúm lā.	
		"She's warming herself at the fire."	

P

pàʔ		earlier today, Tense Particle	24.3.1
pàʔal ^e		v.v. teach, inform	
	<i>agt</i> pāʔan ^{na}	<i>n.</i> teacher	
	<i>pl</i> pāʔannɪb ^a		
	<i>cb</i> pàʔan-		
pàʔal ^e		v.v. put on top of something	
pāalíg ^a pāal ^{le}		<i>adj.</i> new	
	<i>pl</i> pāalís ^e pāalá ⁺		
	<i>cb</i> pāal-		
pāalím ^m		<i>adv.</i> recently	22.4
pāalú ⁺		<i>adv.</i> openly	22.4
pàañlúḡ ^o		<i>n.</i> spider's web	
	<i>pl</i> pàañlímìs ^e		
pàam ^m		v.v. receive a gift	
pàas ^e		v.v. add up to, amount to	
pāe ^{+/}		v.v. reach	
pàk ^e		v.v. surprise	
pàk ^e		v.v. take off from the top	
pāmm SF pāmné LF		<i>q.</i> much, a lot	18.1 7.4
pàñʔalɪm ^m		v.v. dedicate	
pàñsɪḡ ^e		v.v. lack	
pàḡ ^a		<i>n.</i> power	
	<i>pl</i> pàaḡs ^e		
	<i>cb</i> pàḡ-		
pàʔ tì		perhaps; Post-Subject Particle	29.1.3

<i>pèbis^e</i>		vv. blow (of wind)
<i>pèbisim^m pèbisug^o</i>		n. wind
<i>pèʔel^e</i>		vv. fill
	<i>pfv adj pèʔelúŋ^o</i>	adj. full
<i>pèʔes^e</i>		vv. add up to, amount to
<i>pèlig^e</i>		vv. whiten, go white
<i>pèlis^e</i>		vv. sharpen
<i>pèn^{ne}</i>		n. vagina
<i>pēʔŋ^{el}</i>		vv. borrow; knock over WK
<i>pèog^o</i>		n. basket
	<i>pl pèed^e</i>	
	<i>cb pè-</i>	
<i>pēʔog^{ol}</i>		n. sheep
	<i>pl pēʔes^{el}</i>	
	<i>cb pēʔ-</i>	
	<i>pēʔ-sáʔa⁼</i>	n. ewe lamb
<i>pēsug^{el}</i>		vv. sacrifice
<i>pĭā⁺</i>		vv. dig up
<i>pĭāñʔ^a</i>		vv. speak, praise
	<i>ger pĭāuñk^o</i>	n. word
	<i>pl pĭāñʔad^e</i>	plural: language
	<i>cb pĭāñʔ-</i>	
	<i>pĭāñʔ-zùna⁺</i>	n. foreign language
<i>pìbug^e</i>		vv. uncover
<i>pìbil^e</i>		vv. cover up
<i>pībin^{ne} pībil^{le}</i>		n. covering 14.1.2
	<i>pl pībina⁺</i>	
	<i>cb pībin-</i>	
<i>pìd^e</i>		vv. put on (hat, shoes, rings)
<i>pīd^e</i>		vv. get bloated
<i>pìdig^e</i>		vv. take off (hat, shoes, rings)
<i>pīe^{+/}</i>		vv. wash (part of one's own body)
<i>pìəb^e</i>		vv. blow (e.g. flute)
<i>pìəlig^a pìəl^{le}</i>		adj. white
	<i>pl pìəla⁺ pìəlis^e</i>	
	<i>cb pìəl-</i>	
	<i>pèelug^o</i>	in <i>zū-pèelug^o</i> "bald; grey haired" 21.8.1.4
<i>pìəlim^m</i>		n. whiteness
<i>pìəs^e</i>		vv. fool someone
<i>pīəs^{el}</i>		vv. wash
<i>pīiga⁺</i>		q. ten 18.2.2

<i>pīim^{m/}</i>		<i>n.</i> arrow
<i>pl</i>	<i>pīimá⁺</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>pīim-</i>	
<i>píiň^o</i>		<i>n.</i> genet
<i>pl</i>	<i>pīiní⁺</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>pīin-</i>	
<i>pīini⁺</i>		<i>pl</i> as sg <i>n.</i> gift
<i>cb</i>	<i>pīin-</i>	
<i>pìl^e</i>		<i>vv.</i> put (hat, shoes, rings) on someone
<i>pìlɔg^e</i>		<i>vv.</i> take (hat, shoes, rings) off someone
<i>pīň^oi^{el}</i>		<i>vv.</i> begin
<i>pīpīrɔg^{a/}</i>		<i>n.</i> desert
<i>pl</i>	<i>pīpīris^{el}</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>pīpír-</i>	
<i>pīsí⁺</i>		<i>q.</i> twenty 18.2.2
<i>pītú⁺</i>		<i>n.</i> younger sibling of the same sex 37.1
<i>pl</i>	<i>pītíb^a</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>pīt-</i>	
<i>pō⁺</i>		<i>vv.</i> swear
<i>pòňd^e</i>		<i>vv.</i> crouch down
<i>pōň^oɔ^{el}</i>		<i>vv.</i> cause to rot
<i>pòň^oɔlɔm^m</i>		<i>vv.</i> cripple, get crippled
<i>pòň^oɔ^e</i>		<i>n.</i> cripple
<i>pl</i>	<i>pòňda⁺</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>pòň^o-</i>	
<i>pòňr^a</i>		<i>iv.</i> be near
<i>ger</i>	<i>pōňrub^o</i>	
<i>pòɔd^a</i>		<i>iv.</i> be few, small
<i>pòɔdɔg^a pòɔdɔ^e</i>		<i>adj.</i> few, small
<i>pl</i>	<i>pòɔda⁺</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>pòɔd-</i>	
<i>pòɔdɔm^m</i>		<i>n.</i> fewness
<i>pōɔg^{o/}</i>		<i>n.</i> field, farm
<i>pl</i>	<i>pōɔd^{el} pōt^{el}</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>pō-</i>	
<i>pò^oɔg^e</i>		<i>vv.</i> diminish, denigrate
<i>pōɔr^{el}</i>		<i>n.</i> "slogan" of a clan, part of its traditional genealogy WK; ← <i>pō⁺</i> "swear", cf Farefare <i>pote</i> , <i>pore</i> "nom de famille, nom par lequel on jure" and also "serment"
<i>pō</i>		not: negates Indicative Mood 24.5

<i>pū</i> ⁺		vv. divide
<i>pɥ</i> [?] <i>ā</i> ^a		n. woman, wife <i>Ò dì pɥ</i> [?] <i>ā</i> . "He's married a wife."
<i>pl</i>	<i>pū</i> [?] <i>ab</i> ^a	
<i>cb</i>	<i>pɥ</i> [?] <i>à-</i>	
	<i>pɥ</i> [?] <i>à-dīur</i> ^e	n. marriage
	<i>pɥ</i> [?] <i>à-ēlíŋ</i> ^a	n. fiancée
	<i>pɥ</i> [?] <i>à-gīnníg</i> ^a	n. prostitute
	<i>pɥ</i> [?] <i>à-gɔɔŋdir</i> ^e	n. prostitute
	<i>pɥ</i> [?] <i>à-ŋyá</i> [?] <i>aŋ</i> ^a	n. old woman
	<i>pl pɥ</i> [?] <i>à-ŋyá</i> [?] <i>as</i> ^e	
	<i>pɥ</i> [?] <i>à-pāa</i> ^{a/}	n. bride
	<i>pɥ</i> [?] <i>à-sādir</i> ^{e/}	n. young woman
	<i>pɥ</i> [?] <i>à-sā</i> [?] <i>am</i> ^{na}	n. adulterer
	<i>pɥ</i> [?] <i>à-yù</i> ^a ⁺	n. daughter
<i>pɥā</i> ^a		adj. female (human only)
<i>pl</i>	<i>pū</i> [?] <i>as</i> ^e	
<i>pù</i> [?] <i>alim</i> ^m		vv. cook
<i>pù</i> [?] <i>alim</i> ^m		vv. harm, damage
<i>pfv adj</i>	<i>pù</i> [?] <i>alúŋ</i> ^o	adj. damaged
<i>pù</i> [?] <i>alim</i> ^m		n. femininity
<i>pù</i> [?] <i>alím</i> ^m		n. female sex organs
<i>pl</i>	<i>pù</i> [?] <i>alím</i> ^s ^e	
<i>cb</i>	<i>pù</i> [?] <i>alím-</i>	
<i>pùd</i> ^e		vv. name
<i>pūd</i> ^{ig} ^{e/}		vv. divide, share out
<i>pùgud</i> ^{ib} ^a		n. father's sister 37.1
<i>pl</i>	<i>pùgud-nàm</i> ^a	
<i>cb</i>	<i>pùgud-</i>	
<i>pùkò</i> ^{ŋr} ^e		n. widow
<i>pl</i>	<i>pùkò</i> ^{ŋya} ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>pùkò</i> ^{ŋ-}	
<i>pūk</i> ^{pāad} ^{a/}		n. farmer
<i>pl</i>	<i>pūk</i> ^{pāad} ^{ib} ^a	
<i>cb</i>	<i>pūk</i> ^{pá-}	irr <i>cb</i> ; contrast <i>kpāad</i> ^{a/}
<i>pùl</i> ^{uma} ⁺		n. a species of grass, <i>Imperata cylindrica</i> (Haaf)
<i>pùmp</i> ^{ɔɔg} ^o		n. housefly
<i>pùn</i>		previously, already Particle-Verb 24.7.2
<i>pū</i> ^ŋ ^e ^{+/}		vv. rot

<i>pūsɪg</i> ^{a/}		<i>n.</i> tamarind 37.5
<i>pl</i>	<i>pūsɪs</i> ^{e/}	
<i>cb</i>	<i>pūs-</i>	
<i>pūsɪ</i> ^{e/}		<i>n.</i> tamarind fruit 37.5
<i>pl</i>	<i>pūsá</i> ⁺	
<i>p̄-súk</i> ^a		<i>n.</i> half 18.2.2
<i>pl</i>	<i>p̄-súgòs</i> ^e	
<i>p̄t</i> ^{e/}		<i>n.</i> <i>pl as sg</i> contents of stomach WK
<i>p̄um</i> ^{m/}		<i>n.</i> flowers
<i>cb</i>	<i>p̄um-</i>	
<i>p̄ug</i> ^a		<i>n.</i> inside, belly
<i>cb</i>	<i>p̄-</i>	<i>P̄ʔā lā mór p̄ug</i> "The woman is pregnant."
		<i>p̄ugv̄n</i> ^{e/} inside, postposition 22.6
	<i>p̄-p̄ɪlɪm</i> ^m	<i>n.</i> holiness
	<i>p̄-t̄ɛ̃ʔɛr</i> ^e	<i>n.</i> mind
	<i>pl p̄-t̄ɛ̃nda</i> ⁺	
	<i>cb p̄-t̄ɛ̃ʔ-</i>	
<i>p̄vr</i> ^{e/}		<i>n.</i> stomach
<i>p̄ʔvs</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> greet, worship, thank
<i>ger</i>	<i>p̄ʔvsɪm</i> ^m	<i>n.</i> worship
<i>ger</i>	<i>p̄ʔvsug</i> ^o	<i>n.</i> thanks
	<i>p̄ʔvsug d̄ɔ̀g</i> ^o	NT "temple"

S

<i>sà</i>		yesterday, Tense Particle 24.3.1
<i>sà</i>		hence, ago, VP-final particle 25.7
<i>sā</i> ^{ʔ+}		<i>vv.</i> be in distress
<i>sàa</i>		tomorrow, Tense Particle 24.3.1
<i>sāa</i> ⁼		<i>n.</i> rain
		as subject of <i>jāñk</i> ^{e/} "leap": "lightning"
<i>pl</i>	<i>sāas</i> ^e	
<i>cb</i>	<i>sà-</i>	
<i>sāa zúg</i> ^o		<i>sāa d̄índ̄ɛ̃og</i> ^{o/} "rainbow" ("rain chameleon")
<i>pl</i>	<i>sāa zút</i> ^e	<i>n.</i> sky
<i>sāʔab</i> ^o		<i>n.</i> millet porridge,
		"TZ", the staple food of the Kusaasi
<i>cb</i>	<i>sàʔ-</i>	
<i>sāafi</i> ⁺ (?tones)		<i>n.</i> lock, key (← Twi <i>safē</i>)

<i>sàal</i> ^a		<i>n.</i> human; perhaps ← "hairless" cf <i>būn-kóñbùg</i> ^o
<i>pl</i>	<i>sàalɪb</i> ^a	
<i>cb</i>	<i>sàal-</i>	
	<i>sàal-bīg</i> ^a	<i>n.</i> human being
	<i>pl</i> <i>sàal-bīis</i> ^e	
<i>sàalíŋā</i> ^{+/}		<i>adv.</i> smoothly [22.4]
<i>sàʔam</i> ^m		<i>vv.</i> spoil, get spoiled, get broken; destroy
<i>sàam</i> ^{ma}		<i>n.</i> father
<i>pl</i>	<i>sàam-nàm</i> ^a	
<i>cb</i>	<i>sàam-</i>	
	<i>sàam-kpēēñm</i> ^m	<i>n.</i> father's elder brother
	<i>sàam-pīt</i> ^{a/}	<i>n.</i> father's younger brother
	<i>pl</i> <i>sàam-pītí</i> ^b ^a	
	<i>cb</i> <i>sàam-pīt-</i>	
<i>sāam</i> ^{m/}		<i>vv.</i> mash, crumble
<i>sāʔan</i> ^{e/}		in the presence of, in the opinion of postposition [22.6]
<i>sāan</i> ^{a/}		<i>n.</i> guest, stranger
<i>pl</i>	<i>sāam</i> ^{ma}	
<i>cb</i>	<i>sāan-</i>	
<i>sāannim</i> ^m		<i>n.</i> strangerhood
<i>sàbēog</i> ^o		<i>n.</i> wind, storm
<i>pl</i>	<i>sàbēed</i> ^e	
<i>cb</i>	<i>sàbè-</i>	
<i>sābɪlíg</i> ^a <i>sābíl</i> ^{le}		<i>adj.</i> black
<i>pl</i>	<i>sābɪlís</i> ^e <i>sābɪlá</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>sābɪl-</i>	
<i>sàbùà</i> ⁺		<i>n.</i> lover, girlfriend
<i>pl</i>	<i>sàbùes</i> ^e	
<i>cb</i>	<i>sàbùà-</i>	
<i>Sàʔdàbòog</i> ^o		<i>n.</i> place of the clan Sarabose [37.4]
<i>Sàʔdàbùà</i> ⁺		<i>n.</i> clan name: [37.4]
<i>pl</i>	<i>Sàʔdàbùes</i> ^e <i>Sàʔdàbùeb</i> ^a	
<i>sādɪgím</i>		since, because [29.1.3] [33.1.1]
<i>sāeñ</i> ⁺ or <i>sāeñ</i> ^{ya}		<i>n.</i> blacksmith
<i>pl</i>	<i>sāañb</i> ^a	
<i>cb</i>	<i>sāñ-</i>	
<i>sākárùg</i> ^o		<i>n.</i> fox
<i>pl</i>	<i>sākárìd</i> ^e	
<i>cb</i>	<i>sākár-</i>	
<i>sàlɪbr</i> ^e		<i>n.</i> bridle

<i>sàlɪma</i> ⁺		<i>n. pl as sg gold</i>
<i>cb</i>	<i>sàlɪm-</i>	
	<i>sàlɪm-kùès</i> ^a	<i>n. gold merchant</i>
<i>sām</i> ^{ne/}		<i>n. debt</i>
<i>pl</i>	<i>sāmá</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>sām-</i>	
	<i>sām-kpáʔàs</i> ^a	<i>n. household servant</i>
<i>sāmán</i> ^{ne}		<i>n. open space in front of a zàk^a compound</i>
<i>pl</i>	<i>sāmánà</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>sāmán-</i>	
	<i>Sāmán-píár</i> ^e	<i>n. traditional New Year ceremony</i>
<i>sāngúnnì</i> ^e		<i>n. millipede</i>
<i>pl</i>	<i>sāngúnnà</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>sāngún-</i>	
<i>sāṅá</i> ⁺		<i>n. time</i> 37.8 11.3.2
<i>pl</i>	<i>sānsá</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>sān-</i>	
	<i>sān-kán</i> ^e	<i>adv. then; when?</i>
	<i>sān-síʔān lā</i>	<i>adv. at one time, once ...</i> 29.3
<i>sāpál</i> ^{le}		<i>n. Harmattan part of the dry season</i> <i>úun</i> ^{ne}
<i>sārígá</i> ⁺		<i>n. prison</i> (← Hausa <i>sarkàa</i> "chain")
<i>sàríyà</i> ⁺ or <i>sèríyà</i> ⁺		<i>n. law</i> (← Arabic شريعة <i>fari:ʔa(tun)</i>)
<i>cb</i>	<i>sàríyà-kāt</i> ^a	<i>n. judge NT</i>
<i>sāvg</i> ^{o/}		<i>n. broom, brush</i>
<i>pl</i>	<i>sāad</i> ^{e/}	
<i>cb</i>	<i>sā-</i>	
<i>sàvk</i> ^o		<i>n. mote of dust</i>
<i>pl</i>	<i>sàʔad</i> ^e	
<i>sāúŋ</i> ^o		<i>n. hospitality</i>
<i>sè</i> ⁺		<i>vv. transplant</i>
<i>ipfv</i>	<i>sèɛd</i> ^a	
<i>sēoŋg</i> ^o		<i>n. rainy season</i>
<i>sì</i> ⁺		<i>vv. skin, flay</i>
<i>sīʔa</i> ⁺		<i>some, any (sg)</i> 17.3
<i>sīa</i> ⁺		<i>n. waist</i>
<i>pl</i>	<i>sīəs</i> ^e	
<i>cb</i>	<i>sjà-</i>	
	<i>sjà-lɔɔdɪŋ</i> ^a	<i>n. belt ("waist-tying-thing")</i>
	<i>sjà-nīʔ</i> ^{o/}	<i>n. kidney</i>
<i>sjàʔal</i> ^{e/}		<i>vv. get to be enough</i>

<i>sjàʔar^e</i>		<i>n.</i> forest (WK), wilderness
<i>pl</i>	<i>sjàʔa⁺</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>sjàʔ-</i>	
<i>sjàk^e</i>		<i>vv.</i> agree
<i>sjàk^{e/}</i>		<i>vv.</i> suffice
<i>sībıg^{a/}</i>		<i>n.</i> a kind of termite
<i>pl</i>	<i>sībı⁺</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>sīb-</i>	
<i>sìd</i>		truly, Post-Subject Particle 29.1.3
<i>sīda⁺</i>		<i>n.</i> <i>pl as sg</i> truth
<i>pl</i>	<i>sìd-</i>	
<i>sīd^a</i>		<i>n.</i> husband 37.1
<i>pl</i>	<i>sīdıb^a</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>sìd-</i>	
	<i>sìd-bīl^a</i>	<i>n.</i> husband's younger brother
	<i>sìd-kpēñm^m</i>	<i>n.</i> husband's elder brother
	<i>sìd-puāk^a</i>	<i>n.</i> husband's sister
<i>sīe^{+/}</i>		<i>vv.</i> descend, be humbled
<i>sīēba⁺</i>		some(ones), any (ones) 17.3
<i>sīʔəl^a</i>		something, anything 17.3
<i>sīʔəm^m</i>		somehow, anyhow 17.3 19.1
<i>sīg^e</i>		<i>vv.</i> descend
<i>sīgıs^{e/}</i>		<i>vv.</i> lower
<i>sīgısır^e</i>		<i>n.</i> stopping-place
<i>pl</i>	<i>sīgısá⁺</i>	
<i>sīg^a</i>		<i>n.</i> shade, personal spirit (KED); used in NT for "spirit"; in traditional belief rather "Lebenskraft" (Haaf) "vital energy", closely associated in concept with an individual's tutelary <i>kikīrs^{e/}</i> (qv)
<i>pl</i>	<i>sīs^e</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>sì-</i>	
	<i>Sì-sùŋ^o</i>	<i>n.</i> Holy Spirit NT
<i>sīlım^m</i>		<i>vv.</i> cite proverbs
<i>sīlır^a</i>	<i>sīlır^o</i>	<i>n.</i> proverb
<i>pl</i>	<i>sīlıs^e</i> <i>sīlımıs^e</i> <i>sīlımà⁺</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>sīlır-</i>	
<i>sīñd^{e/}</i>		<i>n.</i> honey
<i>sīñ^{o/}</i>	<i>sīñg^{a/}</i>	<i>n.</i> bee
<i>pl</i>	<i>sīñs^{e/}</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>sīñ-</i>	

<i>sīʔɿs^{el}</i>		vv. touch
<i>sīlɿnsíùg^o</i>		n. ghost
<i>pl</i>	<i>sīlɿnsíſ^e</i>	
<i>sīlɿnsíùŋg^o</i>		n. spider
<i>pl</i>	<i>sīlɿnsíŋd^e</i>	
<i>sìlvog^o</i>		n. hawk
<i>pl</i>	<i>sìn^{ne} sìlɿs^e</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>sìl-</i>	
<i>sìm^m</i>		vv. sink in a liquid
<i>Sìmīig^a</i>		n. Fulbe person, Fulani 37.4
<i>pl</i>	<i>Sìmīis^e</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>Sìmì-</i>	
<i>Sìmīil^e</i>		n. Fulfulde language
<i>Sìmīug^o</i>		n. place of the Fulbe
<i>sīn^{na/}</i>		iv. be silent
<i>ger</i>	<i>sīnním^m</i>	
<i>sīnsáañ⁼</i>		n. a kind of tiny ant
<i>sīj^a</i>		n. a kind of very big pot
<i>pl</i>	<i>sīlŋs^e</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>sìŋ-</i>	
<i>sīʔŋ^{el}</i>		vv. begin
<i>sīsíbìg^a</i>		n. neem tree 37.5
<i>pl</i>	<i>sīsíbìs^e</i>	<i>Azadirachta indica</i> (Haaf)
<i>cb</i>	<i>sīsíb-</i>	
<i>sīsíbìr^e</i>		n. fruit of neem tree 37.5
<i>pl</i>	<i>sīsíbà⁺</i>	
<i>sìsìʔəm^m</i>		n. wind, storm
<i>sìsùvgōn^{el}</i>		between, postposition 22.6
<i>sīʔúŋ^o</i>		n. a kind of large dish
<i>pl</i>	<i>sīʔimís^e</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>sīʔuŋ-</i>	
<i>sōʔ⁺</i>		some(one), any(one), human sg 17.3
<i>sōb^a</i>		dummy head pronoun, human sg 21.9.3
<i>sōb^e</i>		vv. go/make dark; usually "write"
<i>sōbir^{el}</i>		n. piece of writing 14.1.2
<i>sōbig^{el}</i>		vv. blacken
<i>sōḡñ⁺</i> or <i>sōḡñ^{ya}</i>		n. witch
<i>pl</i>	<i>sōḡñb^a</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>sòñ-</i>	
<i>sóḡjà^a</i>		n. soldier (← English)

<i>sǎlvŋ</i> ^{o/}		<i>n.</i> story
<i>pl</i>	<i>sǎlvma</i> ⁺	
<i>sǎñ</i> ⁺		<i>vv.</i> rub
<i>sǎñ</i> ^{ya/}		<i>iv.</i> be better than
<i>agt</i>	<i>sǎñ</i> ^{ɔd} ^{a/}	
	<i>pl</i> <i>sǎñ</i> ^{ɔb} ^{a/}	
	<i>cb</i> <i>sǎñ</i> ^{ɔd} -	
<i>sǎnnur</i> ^e		<i>n.</i> courtyard dividing wall
<i>pl</i>	<i>sǎnna</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>sǎn</i> -	
<i>sǎñs</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> converse, talk with
<i>ger</i>	<i>sǎñsìg</i> ^a	
<i>sǎvñg</i> ^o		<i>n.</i> witchcraft
<i>sǎvñr</i> ^e		<i>n.</i> liver
<i>pl</i>	<i>sǎñya</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>sǎñ</i> -	
<i>sǎs</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> ask
<i>ger</i>	<i>sǎsìg</i> ^a	
<i>agt</i>	<i>sǎs</i> ^a	<i>n.</i> beggar
<i>sǎ</i> ⁺		<i>vv.</i> take a bath
<i>sǎ</i> ^ā ^a		<i>vv.</i> do secretly, hide
<i>sǎk</i> ^{a/}		<i>n.</i> hiding place
<i>sǎñ</i> ^{+/}		<i>vv.</i> anoint
<i>sǎ</i> ^{ya/}		<i>iv.</i> own
<i>ger</i>	<i>sǎ</i> ^{vlím} ^m	<i>n.</i> property
<i>sǎgur</i> ^{e/}		<i>vv.</i> show forbearance, be patient with
	<i>sǎguró</i> ⁺	<i>n.</i> forbearance
<i>sǎm</i> ^m		<i>n.</i> goodness; well 22.4 26.2
<i>sǎm</i> ^{ma}		<i>iv.</i> be good
<i>sǎmmur</i> ^e		<i>n.</i> groundnuts
<i>pl</i>	<i>sǎmma</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>sǎm</i> -	
	<i>sǎm-dúgvà</i> ⁺	<i>n.</i> groundnuts for cooking WK
<i>sǎn</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> bow one's head
<i>agt</i>	<i>sǎn</i> ^{na}	<i>n.</i> deep thinker, close observer WK
<i>sǎñ</i> ⁺ ^{e/}		<i>vv.</i> become better than

<i>sũñ^{o/} sũuñ^{el}</i>	<i>n. heart</i>
<i>pl sũñyá⁺</i>	
<i>cb sũñ-</i>	
<i>sũñ-kpí'òŋ^o</i>	<i>n. boldness</i> [21.7.1]
<i>sũñ-má'asì^m</i>	<i>n. joy</i> <i>Ì sũñf má'e yā.</i> "My heart has cooled." = "I'm joyful."
<i>sũñ-málsì^m</i>	<i>n. joy</i>
<i>cb sũñ-máls-</i>	
<i>sũñ-péè^{ne}</i>	<i>n. anger</i> <i>Ì sũñf pélìg nē.</i> "My heart is whitened." = "I'm angry"
<i>sũñ-sá'òŋ^o</i>	<i>n. sorrow</i> <i>Ì sũñf sá'àm nē.</i> "My heart is spoilt" = "I'm sad."
<i>sùŋ^e</i>	<i>vv. help</i>
<i>sùŋ^o sù^m^{me}</i>	<i>adj. good</i>
<i>pl sù^m^{a+}</i>	
<i>cb sùŋ-</i>	
<i>sùŋā^{+/}</i>	<i>adv. well</i> [22.4] [26.2]
<i>sú'òŋ^a</i>	<i>n. rabbit</i>
<i>pl sũ'ò^mís^e</i>	
<i>cb sũ'òŋ-</i>	
<i>sũ^{er}^{el}</i>	<i>n. road;</i> "permission" in <i>sũ^{er} bé, mōr sũ^{er}</i> [31.2]
<i>pl sũ^ēyá⁺</i>	
<i>cb sũ^ā-</i>	
<i>sù'òs^a</i>	<i>n. yesterday</i> [37.8]
<i>sù'òs^e</i>	<i>vv. trick</i>
<i>sù^a</i>	<i>iv. have one's head bowed</i>
<i>sùsù^m^{me}</i>	<i>n. grasshopper</i>
<i>Sũtáanà⁺</i>	<i>n. Satan</i>
<i>sũ^{ug}^{el}</i>	<i>vv. wither (leaves) WK</i>
<i>sù'ug^a sù'ug^o</i>	<i>n. knife</i>
<i>pl sù'us^e</i>	
<i>cb sù'-</i>	

T

<i>tāa</i> ⁼ <i>tāas</i> ^e	fellow- as second part of compound	15.1.1.5
<i>tāaba</i> ⁺ <i>tāab</i>	each other	17.5
<i>tāʾadɪr</i> ^e	<i>n.</i> sandal	
<i>pl</i> <i>tāʾada</i> ⁺		
<i>cb</i> <i>tāʾad-</i>		
<i>tàal</i> ^{le}	<i>n.</i> fault, sin	
<i>pl</i> <i>tàala</i> ⁺		
<i>cb</i> <i>tàal-</i>		
<i>táʾam</i> ^{me}	<i>n.</i> shea tree fruit	37.5
<i>pl</i> <i>tāʾamá</i> ⁺		
<i>táʾaŋ</i> ^a	<i>n.</i> shea butter tree	37.5
<i>pl</i> <i>tāʾamís</i> ^e	<i>Butyrospermum Parkii</i> (Haaf)	
<i>cb</i> <i>tāʾaŋ-</i>		
<i>tāʾas</i> ^{e/}	<i>vv.</i> help someone to walk; in greetings	36
<i>tàb</i> ^e	<i>vv.</i> get stuck to	
<i>tàbɪ</i> ^{ya}	<i>iv.</i> be stuck to	
<i>tàbɪg</i> ^e	<i>vv.</i> get unstuck from	
<i>tàbɪl</i> ^e	<i>vv.</i> stick to	
<i>tàdɪg</i> ^e	<i>n.</i> become weak	
<i>tādɪm</i> ^{m/}	<i>n.</i> weak person	
<i>pl</i> <i>tādɪm-nàm</i> ^a		
<i>cb</i> <i>tādɪm-</i>		
<i>tādɪmís</i> ^e	<i>n.</i> weakness	
<i>Tàlɪn</i> ^{ne}	<i>n.</i> Talni language	
<i>Tàlɪŋ</i> ^a	<i>n.</i> Tallensi person	37.4
<i>pl</i> <i>Tàlɪs</i> ^e		
<i>cb</i> <i>Tàlɪŋ-</i>		
<i>tàm</i> ^m	<i>vv.</i> forget	
<i>ipfv</i> <i>tàmɪd</i> ^a		
<i>tàmpūa</i> ⁺	<i>n.</i> housefly	11.3.2
<i>pl</i> <i>tàmpōɔs</i> ^e		
<i>cb</i> <i>tàmpò-</i>		
<i>tàmpūr</i> ^e	<i>n.</i> ashpit, rubbish tip	
<i>cb</i> <i>tàmpù-</i>		
<i>tān</i> ^{ne}	<i>n.</i> earth	
<i>pl</i> <i>tāna</i> ⁺		
<i>cb</i> <i>tàn-</i>		
<i>tàn-mēɛd</i> ^a	<i>n.</i> builder	

<i>tāŋp</i> ^o		<i>n.</i> war
<i>tāŋp-sōb</i> ^a		<i>n.</i> warrior
<i>tāŋs</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> shout <i>Winnig táŋsìd nē.</i> The sun is shining.
<i>ger tāŋsug</i> ^o		
<i>tār</i> ^{a/}		<i>iv.</i> have; more typical of <i>Toende</i> Kusaal; NT always has the Agolle word <i>mōr</i> ^{a/} instead
<i>ger tārím</i> ^m		
<i>tàsintàl</i> ^{le}		<i>n.</i> palm of hand
<i>tàtəl</i> ^{le}		<i>n.</i> palm of hand
<i>tāyŋ</i> ^{+/}		<i>n.</i> sibling of opposite sex 37.1
<i>pl tāŋp</i> ^{a/}		
<i>cb tāyŋ- tāŋp-</i>		
<i>tēb</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> carry in both hands
<i>ger tēbig</i> ^a		
<i>tēbig</i> ^{e/}		<i>vv.</i> get heavy
<i>tēbis</i> ^{a/}		<i>iv.</i> be heavy
<i>tēbisíg</i> ^a <i>tēbisír</i> ^e		<i>adj.</i> heavy
<i>pl tēbisá</i> ⁺		
<i>cb tēbis-</i>		
<i>tēbisím</i> ^m		<i>n.</i> heaviness
<i>téebùl</i> ^e		<i>n.</i> table (← English)
<i>pl téebùl-nàm</i> ^a		
<i>tēeg</i> ^{e/}		<i>vv.</i> drag (ILK)
<i>tèʔeg</i> ^a		<i>n.</i> baobab 37.5 <i>Adansonia digitata</i> (Haaf)
<i>pl tèʔes</i> ^e		
<i>cb tèʔ-</i>		
<i>tēk</i> ^{e/}		<i>vv.</i> pull
<i>tēŋb</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> tremble, struggle
<i>ger tēŋbug</i> ^o		
<i>tēŋes</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> remind
<i>tēŋʔes</i> ^{e/}		<i>vv.</i> think
<i>ger tēŋʔesá</i> ⁺		<i>n.</i> thought
<i>tēŋr</i> ^a		<i>iv.</i> remember
<i>ger tēŋrɔb</i> ^o <i>tēŋrím</i> ^m		<i>tone sic</i>

<i>tēŋ^a</i>		<i>n.</i> land
<i>pl tēēñs^e</i>		
<i>cb tēŋ-</i>		
<i>tēŋ-bīig^a</i>		<i>n.</i> native
<i>tēŋ-dāan^a</i>		<i>n.</i> traditional earth-priest
<i>tēŋ-dū^oadig^a</i>		<i>n.</i> native land
<i>tēŋ-pūugun^{el}</i>		<i>n.</i> village 22.3
<i>pl tēŋ-pūvdin^{el}</i>		
<i>tēŋ-zūŋ^o</i>		<i>n.</i> foreign country
<i>pl tēŋ-zūvñs^e</i>		
<i>tēŋin^{el}</i>		downward; "under" as postposition 22.6
<i>tēŋír^e</i>		downward; "under" as postposition 22.6
<i>tèog^o</i>		<i>n.</i> nest
<i>pl tède^e</i>		
<i>tè^oog^o</i>		<i>n.</i> baobab fruit 37.5
<i>pl tè^oed^e</i>		
<i>tì</i>		we, our (Proclitic) 17.1
<i>tì⁺</i>		us (Enclitic object) 17.1
<i>tì</i>		Particle-Verb conveying completion 24.7.2
<i>tjà^oal^e</i>		<i>vv.</i> come next
<i>tjàk^e</i>		<i>vv.</i> change
<i>tī^oab^a</i>		<i>n.</i> healer
<i>tì^oab^e</i>		<i>vv.</i> heal (ultimately ← Arabic طب <i>t^oibb(un)</i> "medicinal art")
<i>tìeñ⁺</i>		<i>vv.</i> inform WK ("remember " KED)
<i>tìeñ⁺</i>		<i>vv.</i> stretch out
<i>tìəŋ^a</i>		<i>n.</i> beard
<i>pl tìəmɪs^e</i>		
<i>cb tìəŋ-</i>		
<i>tìəŋ-gūvr^e</i>		<i>n.</i> chin
<i>tìg^e</i>		<i>vv.</i> become sated
<i>ger tīgir^e</i>		<i>n.</i> glut
<i>tī^oiyal^a</i>		<i>iv.</i> be leaning (object)
<i>ger tī^oib^o</i>		
<i>tìig^a</i>		<i>n.</i> tree
<i>pl tìis^e</i>		
<i>cb tì-</i>		
<i>tī^oij^{el}</i>		<i>vv.</i> lean something

<i>tìum^m</i>		<i>n.</i> medicine
<i>cb</i>	<i>tì-</i>	
	<i>tì-kōvdím^m</i>	<i>n.</i> poison (killing-medicine)
	<i>tì-sābílím^m</i>	<i>n.</i> "black medicine" (a particular traditional remedy)
	<i>tì-vōnním^m</i>	<i>n.</i> oral medication
<i>tìʔin^e</i>		<i>vv.</i> begin to lean
<i>tīlās^e</i>		<i>n.</i> necessity (← Hausa <i>tiilàs</i>) 31.2
<i>tìlɔg^e</i>		<i>vv.</i> survive, be saved
<i>tīnámì</i>		<i>we</i> (Subject of <i>h</i> -Clause) 17.1
<i>tīnám^a</i>		<i>we, us</i> (Contrastive) 17.1
<i>tīntōñríg^a</i>		<i>n.</i> mole (animal)
<i>pl</i>	<i>tīntōñrís^e</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>tīntóñr-</i>	
<i>tìp^a</i>		<i>n.</i> healer (see <i>tīʔəb^a</i> id)
<i>pl</i>	<i>tìp-nàm^a</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>tìp-</i>	
<i>tīráàn^a</i>		<i>n.</i> neighbour, peer
<i>pl</i>	<i>tīráàn-nàm^a</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>tīráàn-</i>	
<i>tīráànnim^m</i>		<i>n.</i> neighbourliness
<i>tírìgà</i>		ideophone for <i>gīŋ^a</i> short 21.8.1.3
<i>tìs^e</i>		<i>vv.</i> give also <i>tì</i> before enclitic pronouns: <i>tì f</i> "gave you"
<i>ipfv</i>	<i>tìsɪd^a tìt^a</i>	
<i>agt</i>	<i>tìs^a</i>	
<i>tītāʔal^{le}</i>		<i>n.</i> proud person
<i>tītāʔallim^m</i>		<i>n.</i> pride
<i>tītāʔam^m</i>		<i>n.</i> multitude
<i>tītāʔvg^o tītāʔar^e</i>		<i>adj.</i> big, great
<i>pl</i>	<i>tītāda⁺</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>tītāʔ-</i>	
<i>tò</i>		OK 30.2.4
<i>tòd^e</i>		<i>vv.</i> give to the poor, share
<i>tōɛ^{ya/}</i>		<i>iv.</i> be bitter, difficult
<i>tóklàe⁺</i>		<i>n.</i> torch (← English "torchlight")
<i>tólùlù</i>		ideophone for <i>wōk^{o/}</i> tall 21.8.1.3
<i>tólìb</i>		onomatopoeic word 21.8.1.3
<i>tòñ⁺</i>		<i>vv.</i> shoot
<i>tòñʔs^e</i>		<i>vv.</i> hunt

<i>t̄ɔɔ</i> ^o		<i>adj.</i> bitter, difficult
	<i>pl</i> <i>t̄ɔɔ</i> ^e	
	<i>cb</i> <i>t̄-</i>	
<i>t̄ɔɔ</i> ^{m/}		<i>vv.</i> depart, disappear
<i>t̄ɔ̄ɔ̄t̄ɔ̄</i> ^{+/}		<i>adv.</i> straight away 22.4
<i>t̄ɔ̄</i> ⁺		<i>vv.</i> grind in a mortar
<i>t̄ɔ̄-bī</i> ^a		<i>n.</i> pestle
<i>t̄ɔ̄</i> ^{as} ^e		<i>vv.</i> talk
<i>t̄ɔ̄</i> ^{ur} ^e		<i>n.</i> ear
	<i>pl</i> <i>t̄ɔ̄</i> ^a ⁺	
	<i>cb</i> <i>t̄ɔ̄-</i>	
	<i>t̄ɔ̄-kp̄ir</i> ^e	<i>n.</i> half of jaw
	<i>t̄ɔ̄-yī</i> ^{ur} ^{o/}	<i>adj.</i> one-eared 18.2.4 21.8.1.4
<i>t̄ɔ̄</i> ^{la/}		<i>iv.</i> be hot
<i>t̄ɔ̄</i> ^{ig} ^e		<i>vv.</i> invert
<i>t̄ɔ̄</i> ^{ig} ^{e/}		<i>vv.</i> heat up
<i>t̄ɔ̄</i> ^m		<i>vv.</i> work
	<i>ger</i> <i>t̄ɔ̄</i> ^m ^{me}	<i>n.</i> deed
	<i>pl</i> <i>t̄ɔ̄</i> ^{ma} ⁺	<i>n.</i> deeds; work
	<i>cb</i> <i>t̄ɔ̄</i> ^{m-}	
	<i>t̄ɔ̄</i> ^{m-bē} ^ʔ <i>ɛd</i> ^e	<i>n.</i> bad deeds
	<i>t̄ɔ̄</i> ^{m-bē} ^ʔ <i>ɛd-dīm</i> ^a	<i>n.</i> sinners NT
	<i>agt</i> <i>t̄ɔ̄</i> ^{m-t̄ɔ̄} ^{na}	<i>n.</i> worker
<i>t̄ɔ̄</i> ^m		<i>vv.</i> send
		For the polysemy with "work", compare Hausa <i>àikaa</i> "send", <i>aikàtaa</i> "work"
	<i>ger</i> <i>t̄ɔ̄</i> ^m ^{is} ^e	
<i>t̄ɔ̄</i> ^ʔ ^e		<i>iv.</i> be able 28.3
<i>t̄ɔ̄</i> ^{ɛd} ^e		<i>n.</i> mortar
	<i>pl</i> <i>t̄ɔ̄</i> ^{ɛd} ⁺	
	<i>cb</i> <i>t̄ɔ̄</i> ^{ɛd-}	
<i>t̄ɔ̄</i> ^{ne}		in front; as postposition 22.6 ; West
	<i>t̄ɔ̄</i> ^{ne-gāt} ^a	<i>n.</i> leader
<i>T̄ɔ̄</i> ^{ne}		<i>n.</i> Toende part of Kusaasiland
<i>T̄ɔ̄</i> ^{ne} <i>r</i> ^e		<i>n.</i> Toende dialect of Kusaal
<i>t̄ɔ̄</i> ^{is} ^{e/}		<i>n.</i> thousand 18.2.2
<i>t̄ɔ̄</i> ^{il} ^e		<i>n.</i> upside-down thing cf <i>t̄ɔ̄</i> ^{ig} ^e
<i>t̄ɔ̄</i> ^{il} ^{gā} ^{+/}		<i>adv.</i> hotly 22.4
<i>t̄ɔ̄</i> ^{il} ^g ^o		<i>adj.</i> hot
	<i>pl</i> <i>t̄ɔ̄</i> ^{il} ^g ⁺	
	<i>cb</i> <i>t̄ɔ̄</i> ^{il} ^{g-}	

U

<i>ùdvg^o</i>		<i>n.</i> (piece of) chaff
	<i>pl</i> <i>ùt^e</i>	
	<i>cb</i> <i>ùd-</i>	
<i>ūgvs^{e/}</i>		<i>vv.</i> bring up a child
<i>ùk^e</i>		<i>vv.</i> vomit
<i>ūk^e</i>		<i>vv.</i> bloat
<i>ùm^m</i>		<i>vv.</i> close eyes
<i>úun^{ne}</i>		<i>n.</i> dry season 37.8

V

<i>vābly^{a/}</i>		<i>iv.</i> be lying prone
	<i>ger</i> <i>vāp^{o/}</i> KT <i>vābur^{e/}</i> WK	
<i>vābu^{e/}</i>		<i>vv.</i> make lie prone
<i>vàbun^e</i>		<i>vv.</i> lie prone
<i>vāvňg^{o/}</i>		<i>n.</i> leaf
	<i>pl</i> <i>vāaňd^{e/}</i>	
	<i>cb</i> <i>vāň-</i>	
<i>vē[?]+ </i>		<i>vv.</i> lead
<i>vē[?]eg^{e/}</i>		<i>vv.</i> drag
<i>vèn^{na}</i>		<i>iv.</i> be beautiful
<i>věň^{la}</i>		<i>iv.</i> be beautiful
<i>věňllig^a</i>		<i>adj.</i> beautiful
	<i>pl</i> <i>věňllis^e</i> <i>věňlla⁺</i>	
	<i>cb</i> <i>věňl-</i>	
<i>věňllíj^a</i>		<i>adj.</i> beautiful
	<i>pl</i> <i>věňllís^e</i>	
	<i>cb</i> <i>věňllíj-</i>	
<i>věnnig^a</i> <i>věnnur^e</i>		<i>adj.</i> beautiful
	<i>pl</i> <i>věnnis^e</i> <i>věнна⁺</i>	
	<i>cb</i> <i>věn-</i>	
<i>věnnim^m</i>		<i>n.</i> beauty
<i>vī⁺</i>		<i>vv.</i> uproot
<i>vīk^{e/}</i>		<i>vv.</i> uproot
<i>vīug^{o/}</i>		<i>n.</i> owl
	<i>pl</i> <i>vīid^{e/}</i>	
	<i>cb</i> <i>vī-</i>	

<i>vū</i> ⁺		vv. make a noise
<i>ger</i>	<i>vūug</i> ^{o/} <i>vūud</i> ^{e/}	<i>n.</i> noise
<i>vūe</i> ^{ya/}		<i>iv.</i> be alive
<i>vūl</i> ^e		vv. swallow
<i>vùlɪnvùuñ</i> ^{le}		<i>n.</i> mason wasp
<i>vōm</i> ^{m/}		<i>n.</i> life
<i>cb</i>	<i>vōm-</i> <i>vōm-páà</i> ^{le}	<i>n.</i> new life
<i>vúeŋ</i> ^a		<i>n.</i> red kapok 37.5
<i>pl</i>	<i>vūemís</i> ^e	<i>Bombax buonopozense</i> (Haaf)
<i>vúe</i> ^e		<i>n.</i> fruit of red kapok 37.5
<i>pl</i>	<i>vūáá</i> ⁼	
<i>cb</i>	<i>vūe-</i>	
<i>vūr</i> ^{e/}		<i>adj.</i> alive
<i>pl</i>	<i>vūyá</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>vūr-</i>	
<i>vūʔug</i> ^{e/}		vv. come, make alive
<i>vūʔus</i> ^{e/}		vv. breathe, rest
<i>vūʔusím</i> ^m		<i>n.</i> resting

W

<i>wā</i> ^{ʔ+}		vv. dance
<i>wāad</i> ^{e/}		<i>n.</i> cold weather
<i>wáaf</i> ^o		<i>n.</i> snake
<i>pl</i>	<i>wīgí</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>wā</i> ^{ʔ-}	
<i>wāal</i> ^{e/}		vv. sow, scatter seed
<i>wāʔalím</i> ^m		<i>n.</i> length
<i>wāʔam</i> ^{ma/}		<i>iv.</i> be long, tall
<i>wàbɪg</i> ^a <i>wàbɪr</i> ^e		<i>n.</i> or <i>adj.</i> lame
<i>pl</i>	<i>wàbɪs</i> ^e <i>wàba</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>wàb-</i>	
<i>wàbɪlɪm</i> ^m		vv. make, go lame
<i>wābug</i> ^{o/}		<i>n.</i> elephant
<i>pl</i>	<i>wābɪd</i> ^{e/}	
<i>cb</i>	<i>wāb-</i>	

<i>wādir^{el}</i>		<i>n.</i> law (English "order" via Hausa)
<i>pl</i>	<i>wādá⁺</i>	<i>plural as sg:</i> law
<i>cb</i>	<i>wād-</i>	
	<i>wād-tís^a</i>	<i>n.</i> lawgiver NT
<i>wà[?]e^{ya}</i>		<i>iv.</i> be en route for
<i>wālig^a</i>		<i>n.</i> a kind of gazelle
<i>pl</i>	<i>wāls^e wālí⁺ tone sic</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>wàl-</i>	
<i>wàŋim^m</i>		<i>vv.</i> waste away
<i>wàsɪnwàl^{le}</i>		<i>n.</i> a parasitic gall on trees, called "mistletoe" in local English
<i>wàɥŋ^o</i>		<i>adj.</i> wasted, thin
<i>pl</i>	<i>wàna⁺</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>wàɥŋ-</i>	
<i>wèɛd^a</i>		see <i>wìd^a</i>
<i>wēɛl^{el}</i>		<i>vv.</i> be left unsold (KED) but see <i>wēog^{o/}</i>
<i>wēl^e</i>		<i>vv.</i> bear fruit
<i>wēl^{le/}</i>		<i>n.</i> fruit
<i>pl</i>	<i>wēlá⁺</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>wēl-</i>	
<i>wēlá⁺ or wālá⁺</i>		how? 19.1
<i>wēn^{na/}</i>		<i>iv.</i> resemble
<i>ger</i>	<i>wēnním^m</i>	
<i>wēnnir^e</i>		<i>adj.</i> resembling (Tone <i>sic</i> , confirmed by WK)
<i>wèog^o</i>		<i>n.</i> deep bush
<i>wēog^{o/}</i>		<i>n.</i> cheap thing sold in abundance WK
<i>pl</i>	<i>wēɛd^{el}</i>	
<i>wìdig^e</i>		<i>vv.</i> scatter
<i>wìθ^o</i>		<i>n.</i> horse
<i>pl</i>	<i>wìd⁺</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>wìd-</i>	
	<i>wìd-l̄r^{el}</i>	<i>n.</i> place for tying up horses in a compound
	<i>wìd-dāv^o</i>	<i>n.</i> stallion
	<i>wìd-ñyá[?]ar^a</i>	<i>n.</i> mare
	<i>wìd-zōv^e</i>	<i>n.</i> horsetail
<i>wìd^a</i>		<i>n.</i> hunter
<i>pl</i>	<i>wìb^a</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>wìd-</i>	
<i>Wiid^a</i>		<i>n.</i> clan name 37.4
<i>pl</i>	<i>Wiid-nàm^a</i>	
<i>cb</i>	<i>Wiid-</i>	

<i>Wiidug</i> ^o		<i>n.</i> place of the clan Wiid
<i>wīig</i> ^{a/}		<i>n.</i> whistle
<i>wìum</i> ^m		<i>n.</i> sickness, disease ("worse than <i>bāñ'as</i> ^e " WK)
<i>wìk</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> fetch water 13.1.2
	<i>ipfv</i>	<i>wiid</i> ^a
<i>wìl</i> ^{le}		<i>n.</i> branch
	<i>pl</i>	<i>wìla</i> ⁺
	<i>cb</i>	<i>wìl-</i>
<i>wīlśúŋ</i> ^o		<i>n.</i> a kind of snail 11.3.2.1
	<i>pl</i>	<i>wīlśúŋ</i> ^e
	<i>cb</i>	<i>wīlśúŋ-</i>
<i>wím</i>		ideophone for <i>zìñ'a</i> ⁺ red 21.8.1.3
<i>wīn</i> ^{ne/}		<i>n.</i> God; god; spiritual double, <i>genius</i> ; destiny
	<i>pl</i>	<i>wīná</i> ⁺
	<i>cb</i>	<i>wīn-</i> <i>wīn-tóŋg</i> ^o
<i>Wínà'am</i> ^m		<i>n.</i> misfortune
<i>wìnnig</i> ^a		<i>n.</i> (Christian) God 20.1
	<i>cb</i>	<i>wìn-</i> <i>wìn-līr</i> ^e <i>wìn-kòŋr</i> ^e
<i>wìug</i> ^o	<i>wìir</i> ^e	<i>n.</i> sunset
	<i>pl</i>	<i>wìya</i> ⁺ <i>wìid</i> ^e
	<i>cb</i>	<i>wì-</i>
<i>wōk</i> ^{o/}	<i>wā'ar</i> ^{e/}	<i>n.</i> sunset
	<i>pl</i>	<i>wā'á</i> ⁺ <i>wā'ad</i> ^{e/}
	<i>cb</i>	<i>wōk-</i> <i>wā'-</i>
<i>wùm</i> ^m		<i>adj.</i> red
<i>wūsa</i> ⁺		<i>vv.</i> hear; understand (a language)
<i>wūv</i> ⁺		<i>q.</i> all 18.1
<i>wūv</i>		<i>q.</i> all 18.1
<i>wū'vug</i> ^{e/}		like, resembling 23.1
<i>wū'v</i> ^{e/}		<i>vv.</i> get wet
		<i>vv.</i> make wet

Y

<i>yà</i>		you, your <i>pl</i> (Proclitic) 17.1
<i>ya</i> ⁺		you <i>pl</i> (Enclitic object) 17.1
<i>ya</i>		you <i>pl</i> , Enclitic Subject after imperative 17.1 30.2.3
<i>yā</i> ⁺		Independent/perfective particle 24.6.2.1

<i>yàʔ</i>		if, when [32]
<i>yáa</i>		<i>adv.</i> whither? [19.1]
<i>yāʔa</i>		as for ... [30.1.1]
<i>yáab^a</i>		<i>n.</i> grandparent, ancestor [37.1]
	<i>pl</i>	<i>yāa-nám^a</i>
	<i>cb</i>	<i>yāa-</i> <i>yāa-dáɥ⁺</i> <i>yāa-pɥʔá^a</i>
<i>yàʔal^e</i>		<i>n.</i> grandfather
<i>yàʔan^e</i>		<i>n.</i> grandmother
<i>Yàan^{ne}</i>		<i>vv.</i> hang up; make perch (bird)
<i>yáa nì⁺</i>		<i>vv.</i> perch (of a bird)
<i>yáaŋ^a</i>		<i>n.</i> Yansi language (apparently Mooré now)
	<i>pl</i>	<i>yáaŋs^e</i>
	<i>cb</i>	<i>yāaŋ-</i>
<i>Yàaŋ^a</i>		<i>adv.</i> where? [19.1]
	<i>pl</i>	<i>Yàam^{ma} Yàamɩs^e Yàaŋs^e</i>
	<i>cb</i>	<i>Yàaŋ-</i>
<i>yāar^{el}</i>		<i>n.</i> grandchild, descendant [37.1]
<i>yàarɩm^m</i>		<i>n.</i> Yansi person [37.4]
	<i>cb</i>	<i>yàar-</i>
<i>yàʔas^a yàʔas^e</i>		<i>vv.</i> scatter
<i>yāʔas^{el}</i>		<i>n.</i> salt
<i>yàddā yàdā</i>		again [28.3]
		<i>vv.</i> open repeatedly
		<i>n.</i> faith, trust (Hausa <i>yàrda</i> ; probably ← Arabic <i>يرضى yard^{ʕa}</i> : [20.1] [25.1.3])
		<i>n.</i> belief
<i>yàddā-níŋìr^e</i>		<i>vv.</i> scatter
<i>yādɩŋ^{el}</i>		<i>irr agent noun:</i>
	<i>agt</i>	<i>yāt^{a/}</i>
		technical term for a participant in a housebuilding ritual
<i>yāʔe^{+/}</i>		<i>vv.</i> widen, open (mouth)
<i>yàk^e</i>		<i>vv.</i> unhang, unhook
<i>yàɩm^{ma}</i>		<i>iv.</i> be wide
<i>yāɩsúŋ^o</i>		<i>n.</i> quail [11.3.2.1]
	<i>pl</i>	<i>yāɩmís^e</i>
	<i>cb</i>	<i>yāɩsúŋ-</i>
<i>yàɩŋ^o</i>		<i>adj.</i> wide
	<i>pl</i>	<i>yàɩma⁺</i>
	<i>cb</i>	<i>yàɩŋ-</i>

<i>yām</i> ^{me}		<i>n.</i> hay WK
<i>pl</i>	<i>yàma</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>yàm-</i>	
<i>yām</i> ^{m/}		<i>n.</i> gall; gall bladder; common sense WK <i>yāʔm</i> ^{m/} .
<i>cb</i>	<i>yām-</i>	
<i>yàmmɔg</i> ^a	<i>yàmmɔg</i> ^a	<i>n.</i> slave
<i>pl</i>	<i>yàmmɔs</i> ^e	
<i>cb</i>	<i>yàm-</i>	
<i>yānámì</i>		<i>you pl</i> (Subject of <i>ñ</i> -Clause) 17.1
<i>yānám</i> ^a		<i>you pl</i> (Contrastive) 17.1
<i>Yārɔg</i> ^{a/}		<i>n.</i> Yarsi 37.4; also called Kantonsi; said to have been originally of Manding/Dyula origin
<i>pl</i>	<i>Yāris</i> ^{e/}	
<i>cb</i>	<i>Yār-</i>	
<i>Yāt</i> ^{e/}		<i>n.</i> Yarsi language (no longer Dyula/Bambara, but a Western Oti-Volta language)
<i>yàvɔg</i> ^o		<i>n.</i> grave, tomb
<i>pl</i>	<i>yàad</i> ^e	
<i>yē</i>		that 31.2 31.4 31.4.3
<i>yē</i>		be about to ... 24.3.2
<i>yē</i> ⁺		<i>vv.</i> dress oneself
<i>pfv adj</i>	<i>yèɛlúŋ</i> ^o	<i>adj.</i> worn (e.g. of a shirt)
<i>yèɛg</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> undress oneself
<i>yèɛl</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> dress someone
<i>yēɛs</i> ^{e/}		<i>vv.</i> betray a secret
<i>yèl</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> say, tell
<i>ipfv</i>	<i>yèt</i> ^a	
<i>ger</i>	<i>yèlvɔg</i> ^o	
<i>yēl</i> ^{le/}		<i>n.</i> matter, affair
<i>pl</i>	<i>yēlá</i> ⁺	as postposition: about 22.6
<i>cb</i>	<i>yēl-</i>	
	<i>yēl-méŋìr</i> ^e	<i>n.</i> truth
	<i>yēl-nárùŋ</i> ^o	<i>n.</i> necessity
	<i>yēl-pákìr</i> ^e	<i>n.</i> disaster
	<i>yēl-súʔadìr</i> ^e	<i>n.</i> confidential matter
<i>yēŋím</i> ^m		<i>vv.</i> oscillate (like waves)
<i>yèog</i> ^o		<i>n.</i> bird's crop;
		person displaced from family (KED)
<i>pl</i>	<i>yèɛd</i> ^e	
<i>yēóŋ</i>		<i>q.</i> one 18.2.3
<i>yī</i> ⁺		<i>vv.</i> go, come out

	<i>ipfv</i>	<i>yīt^{a/}</i>	
	<i>imp</i>	<i>yìm^{ma}</i>	
<i>yìdɪg^e</i>			<i>vv.</i> go astray
<i>yīdɪg^{e/}</i>			<i>vv.</i> untie
<i>yìə^e</i>			<i>n.</i> jaw
<i>yīgá⁺</i>			<i>q.</i> firstly 18.2.4 22.4
		<i>yīig-sób^a</i>	<i>n.</i> first person 21.9.3
<i>yīis^{e/}</i>			<i>vv.</i> make go/come out, extract
	<i>ger</i>	<i>yīisíb^o</i>	
<i>yīmmír^e</i>			<i>adj.</i> solitary, lone 18.2.4
	<i>pl</i>	<i>yīmmá⁺</i>	
	<i>cb</i>	<i>yīm-</i>	
<i>yīmmú⁺</i>			<i>adv.</i> straight away, at once 18.2.5
<i>yīnní⁺</i>			<i>q.</i> one 18.2.2
<i>yìŋ^a</i>			<i>adv.</i> outside
<i>yīr^{e/}</i>			<i>n.</i> house
	<i>pl</i>	<i>yā^{+/}</i>	
	<i>cb</i>	<i>yī-</i>	
		<i>yī-dáàn^a</i>	<i>n.</i> householder
		<i>yī-sób^a</i>	<i>n.</i> householder
		<i>pl yī-sób-nàm^a</i>	<i>n.</i> members of the household
		<i>yī-dím^a</i>	<i>n.</i> neighbouring house
		<i>yī-póŋròg^o</i>	
		<i>pl yī-póŋrà⁺</i>	
		<i>yī-sígɪdìr^e</i>	<i>n.</i> lodging-house
	<i>yín^{ne}</i>		at home
		<i>pl yáan^e</i>	
<i>yīs^e</i>			<i>vv.</i> make go/come out, extract
<i>yīɲ^{o/}</i>			<i>adj.</i> single- 18.2.4 21.8.1.4
	<i>pl</i>	<i>yīná⁺</i>	
<i>yò⁺</i>			<i>vv.</i> close
	<i>pfv adj</i>	<i>yòwóúŋ^o</i>	<i>adj.</i> closed
<i>yō⁺</i>			<i>vv.</i> pay
	<i>ger</i>	<i>yōwɔd^{e/}</i>	<i>n.</i> pay
<i>yōlɪs^{e/}</i>			<i>vv.</i> untie
<i>yōlɪsím^m</i>			<i>n.</i> freedom
<i>yōlɪg^{o/}</i>			<i>n.</i> sack, moneybag, ₦100, ₘ200 (200 cedis)
	<i>pl</i>	<i>yōn^{ne/}</i>	
	<i>cb</i>	<i>yōl-</i>	
<i>yòʔwɔg^e</i>			<i>vv.</i> open
<i>yòwɔr^e</i>			<i>n.</i> soldier ant

<i>pl</i>	<i>ỳ̀ya</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>ỳ̀-</i>	
<i>ỳ̀à</i> ⁺		vv. bleed; also "fornicate" WK
<i>ỳ̀bɪg</i> ^a		<i>n.</i> small bottle-like pot
<i>pl</i>	<i>ỳ̀bɪs</i> ^e	
<i>cb</i>	<i>ỳ̀b-</i>	
<i>ỳ̀gʊdɪr</i> ^e		<i>n.</i> hedgehog
<i>pl</i>	<i>ỳ̀gʊda</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>ỳ̀gʊd-</i>	
<i>ỳ̀gúṁ</i> ^{me}	<i>ỳ̀gúṁ</i> ^{ne}	<i>n.</i> camel
<i>pl</i>	<i>ỳ̀gʊmá</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>ỳ̀gʊm-</i>	
<i>ỳ̀lɪg</i> ^e		vv. swing (transitive)
<i>ỳ̀ñʔe</i> ^{+/}		vv. set alight
<i>ỳ̀ʔər</i> ^e		<i>n.</i> penis
<i>pl</i>	<i>ỳ̀āda</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>ỳ̀ʔər-</i>	
<i>ỳ̀ug</i> ^e		vv. get to be a long time, delay
		<i>Tì ỳ̀ùg nē tāaba.</i>
		"It's a long time since we met."
<i>ỳ̀uɪ</i> ^e		vv. swing (intransitive)
<i>ỳ̀um</i> ^{m/}		vv. sing
<i>agt</i>	<i>ỳ̀um-ỳ̀ùm</i> ^{na}	<i>n.</i> singer
	<i>pl ỳ̀um-ỳ̀ùmniɓ</i> ^a	
<i>ỳ̀um</i> ^{me}		<i>n.</i> year
<i>pl</i>	<i>ỳ̀ma</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>ỳ̀um-</i>	
	<i>ỳ̀um-pāalíg</i> ^a	<i>n.</i> new year
<i>ỳ̀ʔuŋ</i> ^o		<i>n.</i> night
<i>pl</i>	<i>ỳ̀ʔumís</i> ^e	
<i>cb</i>	<i>ỳ̀ʔuŋ-</i>	
<i>ỳ̀ʔur</i> ^{e/}		<i>n.</i> name
<i>pl</i>	<i>ỳ̀dá</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>ỳ̀ʔ-</i>	
<i>ỳ̀ur</i> ^e		<i>n.</i> water pot
<i>pl</i>	<i>ỳ̀ya</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>ỳ̀-</i>	

Z

<i>zā</i> ^{+/}		<i>n.</i> millet
<i>cb</i>	<i>zā-</i>	
<i>zāalíg</i> ^a <i>záal</i> ^{le}		<i>adj.</i> empty
<i>pl</i>	<i>zāalís</i> ^e <i>zāalá</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>zāal-</i>	
<i>zāalím</i> ^m		<i>adv.</i> emptily
<i>zàam</i> ^m		<i>n.</i> evening
<i>cb</i>	<i>zà-</i>	
	<i>zà-sìsōbir</i> ^{el}	<i>n.</i> evening
<i>zàańsım</i> ^m		<i>vv.</i> dream
<i>zāańsım</i> ^m		<i>n.</i> soup; not "fish soup", unlike (according to Tony Naden) the Mampruli cognate cf Toende <i>zāasım</i> "soupe à viande" (Niggli)
<i>cb</i>	<i>zāańs-</i>	
<i>zàańsúŋ</i> ^o		<i>n.</i> dream
<i>pl</i>	<i>zàańsımà</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>zàańsúŋ-</i>	
<i>zàb</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> fight; hurt (of body part)
<i>ger</i>	<i>zàbir</i> ^e	
<i>agt</i>	<i>zàb-zàb</i> ^a	<i>n.</i> warrior
<i>agt</i>	<i>gbān-záb</i> ^a	<i>n.</i> leather-beater, leather-worker
<i>zàbu</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> cause to fight
<i>zàk</i> ^a		<i>n.</i> compound
<i>pl</i>	<i>zàʔas</i> ^e	
<i>cb</i>	<i>zàʔ-</i>	
	<i>zàʔ-nōɔr</i> ^{el}	<i>n.</i> gate
	<i>zàʔ-nō-gúr</i> ^a	<i>n.</i> gatekeeper
<i>zàkım</i> ^m		<i>vv.</i> itch
<i>zàlɿ</i> ^a		<i>n.</i> electric eel
<i>pl</i>	<i>zàlɿmıs</i> ^e	
<i>cb</i>	<i>zàlɿ-</i>	
<i>zàm</i> ^m		<i>vv.</i> cheat
<i>ipfv</i>	<i>zàmıd</i> ^a	
<i>agt</i>	<i>zàm-zām</i> ^{na}	<i>n.</i> cheat
<i>zàʔmıs</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> learn, teach
<i>zāńʔa</i> ⁼		<i>q.</i> every 18.1
<i>zàńʔas</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> refuse
<i>zàńbu</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> tattoo, mark skin

<i>zāñbɪn</i> ^{ne}	<i>zāñbɪ</i> ^{le}	<i>n.</i> tattoo; NT "sign"
<i>pl</i>	<i>zāñbɪna</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>zāñbɪn-</i>	
<i>Zàngbèɛ</i> ^{le}		<i>n.</i> Hausa language [37.4]
<i>Zàngbèog</i> ^o		<i>n.</i> Hausa person [37.4]
<i>pl</i>	<i>Zàngbèɛd</i> ^e	
<i>zàngùɛm</i> ^{me}		<i>n.</i> wall
<i>pl</i>	<i>zàngùɛma</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>zàngùɛm-</i>	
<i>zànkùʔar</i> ^e		<i>n.</i> jackal
<i>pl</i>	<i>zànkùʔàa</i> ⁺ <i>zànkùʔada</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>zànkùʔà-</i>	
<i>zāñ</i> ^{la/}		<i>iv.</i> be holding, carrying in hands
<i>ger</i>	<i>zāñlílím</i> ^m	
<i>zàñ</i> ^{le}		<i>n.</i> umbilicus
<i>zàŋ</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> pick up, take up
<i>zēm</i> ^{ma/}		<i>iv.</i> be equal
<i>ger</i>	<i>zēm móg</i> ^o	
<i>zēʔmɪs</i> ^{el}		<i>vv.</i> make equal
<i>zēm móg</i> ^o		<i>adj.</i> equal
<i>pl</i>	<i>zēm mǎ</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>zēm-</i>	
<i>zī</i> ⁺		<i>vv.</i> carry on one's head
<i>ger</i>	<i>zīd</i> ^{el}	
<i>agt</i>	<i>zī-zîd</i> ^a	<i>n.</i> carrier on the head
<i>zīʔ</i> ⁺		<i>iv.</i> not know [35.1.1]
<i>agt</i>	<i>zīʔɪd</i> ^{al}	<i>n.</i> ignorant person
<i>ger</i>	<i>zīʔɪlím</i> ^m	
<i>zīʔe</i> ^{ya}		<i>iv.</i> be standing
<i>ger</i>	<i>zīʔa</i> ⁺ KED; DK KT <i>zīʔəg</i> ^a (exceptional phonology [20 [14.1.1.2])	
<i>zīʔəl</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> make to stand
<i>zīʔən</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> stand still
		<i>Ò zīʔən nē.</i> "She's pregnant."
<i>zīlím</i> ^{m/}		<i>n.</i> blood
<i>cb</i>	<i>zī-</i>	
<i>zīij</i> ^a		<i>n.</i> fish
<i>pl</i>	<i>zīm</i> ^l ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>zīm-</i>	
	<i>zīm-gbǎñʔàd</i> ^a	<i>n.</i> fisherman

<i>zìlɪm</i> ^{me}		<i>n.</i> tongue
<i>pl</i>	<i>zìlɪma</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>zìlɪm-</i>	
<i>zīlɪnzíʊg</i> ^o		<i>adj.</i> unknown
<i>zím</i>		ideophone for <i>sābílíg</i> ^a black 21.8.1.3
<i>zīnā</i> ⁺		today 37.8
<i>zìŋʔa</i> ⁺ <i>zèŋʔvɔg</i> ^o		<i>adj.</i> red
<i>pl</i>	<i>zèŋʔɛd</i> ^e <i>zèŋʔɛs</i> ^e <i>zèŋda</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>zèŋʔ-</i>	
<i>zìŋʔɪy</i> ^a		<i>iv.</i> be sitting
<i>ger</i>	<i>zìŋʔig</i> ^a	gerund, also "place"
	<i>pl</i> <i>zìŋʔis</i> ^e	
	<i>cb</i> <i>zìŋ-</i>	
<i>zìŋʔil</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> make sit, seat
<i>zìŋʔin</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> sit down
<i>zīnzāyɔŋ</i> ^{o/}		<i>n.</i> bat
<i>pl</i>	<i>zīnzānā</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>zīnzáyɔŋ-</i>	
<i>zīrɪ</i> ⁺		<i>n.</i> lie, untruth
<i>zò</i> ⁺		<i>vv.</i> run; fear; experience emotion
<i>ipfv</i>	<i>zòt</i> ^a	
<i>imp</i>	<i>zòm</i> ^{ma}	
<i>ger</i>	<i>zūa</i> ⁺ <i>zōɔg</i> ^o	gerunds "run"
<i>ger</i>	<i>zòtɪm</i> ^m	<i>ipfv</i> gerund "fear" 15.1.1.4
		<i>Ò zòt-ō nīn-báalìg.</i> "He has pity on him"
<i>zōl</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> castrate
<i>zōlɪmís</i> ^e		<i>n.</i> foolishness
<i>zōlvɔg</i> ^{o/}		<i>n.</i> fool
<i>pl</i>	<i>zōn</i> ^{ne/}	
<i>cb</i>	<i>zōl-</i>	
<i>zōm</i> ^{m/}		<i>n.</i> flour
<i>cb</i>	<i>zōm-</i>	
<i>zōɔm</i> ^{me} <i>zōɔm</i> ^{ne}		<i>n.</i> refugee, fugitive
<i>pl</i>	<i>zōɔma</i> ⁺	
<i>cb</i>	<i>zōɔm-</i>	
<i>zōrɪg</i> ^{a/}		<i>n.</i> small child WK
<i>zōrvɔg</i> ^{o/}		<i>n.</i> piece
<i>pl</i>	<i>zōrá</i> ⁺	
<i>zū</i> ⁺		<i>vv.</i> steal

<i>zɥà</i> ⁺		<i>n.</i> friend
	<i>pl</i> <i>zɥà-nàm</i> ^a	
	<i>cb</i> <i>zɥà-</i>	
<i>Zùà</i> ⁺		<i>n.</i> clan name 37.4
	<i>pl</i> <i>Zùəs</i> ^e	
	<i>pl</i> <i>Zɥà-wiis</i> ^e <i>Zɥà-wiib</i> ^a	subclans of Zoose
	<i>pl</i> <i>Zɥà-sābulís</i> ^e	
<i>zùʔe</i> ⁺		<i>vv.</i> get higher, more
<i>zùe</i> ⁺		<i>vv.</i> perch, get on top (? variant of <i>zùʔe</i> ⁺)
<i>zūg</i> ^{o/}		<i>n.</i> head; as postposition 22.6 ; <i>zūgún</i> ^e is also used as a postposition
	<i>pl</i> <i>zūt</i> ^{e/}	
	<i>cb</i> <i>zūg- zū-</i>	11.2.2
	<i>zūg-kōgur</i> ^e	<i>n.</i> pillow
	<i>pl</i> <i>zūg-kōga</i> ⁺	
	<i>cb</i> <i>zūg-kúg-</i>	
	<i>zūg-máɣk</i> ^o	<i>adj.</i> crushed-headed 21.8.1.4
	<i>pl</i> <i>zūg-máʔàd</i> ^e	
	<i>zūg-sób</i> ^a	<i>n.</i> boss; NT Lord (Often read as <i>zū-sób</i> in the audio NT)
	<i>zū-péɛlùg</i> ^o	<i>adj.</i> bald, grey-haired 21.8.1.4
	<i>pl</i> <i>zū-péɛlà</i> ⁺	
	<i>zū-píbig</i> ^a	<i>n.</i> hat
<i>zùɩg</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> deepen
<i>zùɩm</i> ^{ma}		<i>iv.</i> be deep
<i>zùɩŋ</i> ^o		<i>adj.</i> deep
	<i>pl</i> <i>zùɩma</i> ⁺	
	<i>cb</i> <i>zùɩŋ-</i>	
<i>zùɩŋ</i> ^o		<i>n.</i> depth
<i>zùnzòŋ</i> ^a <i>zùnzòŋ</i> ^o		<i>adj.</i> blind
	<i>pl</i> <i>zùnzòŋs</i> ^e	
	<i>cb</i> <i>zùnzòŋ-</i>	
<i>zūəbúg</i> ^o		<i>n.</i> hair (of human head); see <i>kɔñbug</i> ^o
	<i>pl</i> <i>zūəbíde</i> ^e	
	<i>cb</i> <i>zūəb-</i>	
<i>zùəde</i> ^e		<i>n.</i> friendship
<i>zùəle</i> ^e		<i>vv.</i> make to perch
<i>zūʔəm</i> ^{m/}		<i>n.</i> blind person
	<i>pl</i> <i>zūʔəmís</i> ^e	
	<i>cb</i> <i>zūʔəm-</i>	
<i>zūʔəm</i> ^{m/}		<i>vv.</i> go blind, make blind

<i>zùø</i> ^e		vv. begin to perch
<i>zūr</i> ^e		<i>n.</i> hill
	<i>pl</i> <i>zṽēya</i> ⁺	
	<i>cb</i> <i>zṽà-</i>	
<i>zùø</i> ^e		vv. befriend
<i>zūrí</i> ^o		<i>n.</i> dawadawa seed
	<i>pl</i> <i>zūrí</i> ⁺	
	<i>cb</i> <i>zūr-</i>	
<i>zúvñ</i> ^o		<i>n.</i> dawadawa seed
	<i>pl</i> <i>zōvñí</i> ⁺	
<i>zùuṅ</i> ^o		<i>n.</i> vulture
	<i>pl</i> <i>zùuṅs</i> ^e <i>zùuṅd</i> ^e	
	<i>cb</i> <i>zùṅ-</i>	
<i>zōv</i> ^e		<i>n.</i> tail
	<i>pl</i> <i>zōya</i> ⁺	
	<i>cb</i> <i>zò-</i>	
	<i>zò-wōk</i> ^{o/}	<i>adj.</i> long-tailed 21.8.1.4