A Grammar of Agolle Kusaal Revised Version

David Eddyshaw



Contents

	Preface	
	Preface to the Revised Version	X1
	Abbreviations	xii
	Interlinear glossing	. xiii
	Transcription conventions	XV
	Sources	xvi
	Other studies of Kusaal	
	References/Bibliography	
1	Introduction to Kusaal and the Kusaasi	
	1.1 The Kusaasi people	
	1.2 The Kusaal language	
	1.2.1 Language status	
	1.2.2 Dialects	
	1.2.3 Related languages	
	1.2.4 External influences	
	1.3 Orthography	
	1.3.1 Word division	
	1.3.2 Written materials	
	5	
	orphophonemics	
2	Words, morae and syllables	36
	2.1 Word classes	36
	2.2 Morae, syllables and stress	
	2.3 Apocope	
	2.3.1 Superscript notation	
	2.3.2 Predictability of Long Forms	
	2.4 Ordering of morphophonemic rules	
3	Consonants	47
	3.1 Inventory and symbols	
	3.2 Consonant clusters	52
4	Vowels	55
	4.1 Inventory and symbols	55
	4.1.1 Agolle Vowel Breaking	56
	4.2 Root vowels	
	4.2.1 Nasalisation	
	4.2.2 Glottalisation	
	4.2.3 Diphthongs	
	4.3 Epenthetic vowels	
	T.T ALLIA VUWGI3	ひこ

5	Tones	65
	 5.1 Tonemes 5.2 Tautosyllabic delinking 5.3 Downstepping before H 5.4 Heterosyllabic H spreading 	66 67
c	Word segmental structure	
O		
	6.1 Roots, prefixes and suffixes	
	6.1.1 Root alternations	76
	6.1.1.1 <i>CV~CVV~CVC</i>	
	6.1.1.2 CVVC~CVC	
	6.2 Consonant changes	
	6.2.1 Consonant clusters and epenthetic vowels	
	6.2.1.1 Consonant changes in derivation	
	6.3 Vowel changes	
	6.3.1 Deletion of * <i>g</i> with vowel fusion	
	6.3.2 Before *-ya *-gv *-kkv *-ŋŋv	
	6.3.3 Length constraints	
7	Word tonal structure	97
	7.1 Tone Patterns	97
	7.2 Nominals.	
	7.2.1 Pattern H.	
	7.2.1.1 Tonal effects of deleted morae	.101
	7.2.1.2 Subpattern HL	102
	7.2.2 Pattern L	102
	7.2.3 Pattern O	104
	7.2.4 Noun prefixes	105
	7.3 Verbs	106
	7.3.1 Pattern H	
	7.3.2 Pattern LO	
	7.3.3 Stative verbs	109
	7.4 Particles	
	7.5 Tone in derivation	111

8	External sandhi	113
	8.1 Prosodic clitics	114
	8.1.1 Presubject Long Forms	117
	8.2 Liaison	118
	8.2.1 Liaison enclitics	
	8.2.1.1 3sg animate pronoun o	122
	8.2.1.2 Postposed 2pl subject pronoun ^{ya}	123
	8.2.2 Non-enclitic liaison words	
	8.2.2.1 Nominaliser- \dot{n}	
	8.2.2.2 Catenator-n	
	8.2.3 Tonemes before liaison	
	8.3 M spreading	133
	8.3.1 Fixed L tonemes	
	8.4 L spreading	
	8.5 Segmental contact phenomena	
	8.5.2 Loss of nasalisation	
	8.5.3 Loss of fronting	
	· ·	
M	orphology	143
9	Noun flexion.	143
	9.1 Noun classes	1/2
	9.1.1 Noun class and meaning	
	9.2 Stem levelling	
	9.2.1 Singulars and plurals	146
	9.2.2 Combining forms	
	9.3 Noun paradigms	
	9.3.1 $a \mid b^a$ class.	
	9.3.1.1 $r^{\varepsilon} b^{a}$ subclass	
	9.3.1.2 b^{a} as singular	
	9.3.2 $g^{a} s^{\epsilon}$ class	
	9.3.2.1 $g^{\circ} s^{\varepsilon}$ subclass	
	0 1	
	9.3.3 $g^{\circ} d^{\varepsilon}$ class	
	9.3.3.1 $g^{\circ} a^{+}$ subclass	
	9.3.4 $r^{\varepsilon} a^{+}$ class	
	9.3.4.1 l^{ε} subclass	
	9.3.5 $f^{\circ} \iota^{+}$ class	163
	9.3.6 <i>b</i> ° class	164
	9.3.7 <i>m</i> ^m class	165
	9.4 Nàma plurals	166
	9.5 Plurals used as singulars	167
	9.6 Nouns with apocope-blocking	
	9.7 Loanwords	169
10	Adjective flexion	170
	10.1 Primary adjectives	170
	10.2 Deverbal adjectives	173
	J	

11 Verb flexion	175
11.1 Variable verbs	176
11.1.1 Irregularities	179
11.2 Invariable verbs	180
11.2.1 Dynamic	180
11.2.2 Stative	
11.2.2.1 Relational	
11.2.2.2 Adjectival	
12 Stem conversion	184
12.1 Nouns from verbs	184
12.1.1 Perfective gerunds	184
12.1.1.1 From variable verbs	
12.1.1.1.1 Irregularities	185
12.1.1.2 From dynamic-invariable verbs	
12.1.2 Concrete nouns	
12.2 Nouns from nouns and adjectives	
12.3 Adverbs from adjectives	
13 Derivational suffixes	192
13.1 Nouns and adjectives	192
13.1.1 From verbs.	
13.1.1.1 Agent nouns	
13.1.1.2 Deverbal adjectives	
13.1.1.2.1 Dynamic	
13.1.1.2.2 Resultative	
13.1.1.3 Instrument nouns	
13.1.1.4 Imperfective gerunds	
13.1.1.5 Other deverbal formations	
13.1.2 From nouns and adjectives	
13.2 Verbs	
13.2.1 From verbs.	
13.2.1.1 From stance verbs	
13.2.1.2 Causatives	
13.2.1.3 Reverse action	
13.2.1.4 Other deverbal formations	
13.2.2 From nouns and adjectives	
14 Derivational prefixes	
14.1 Nouns and adjectives	
14.1.1 Reduplication-prefixes	
14.1.2 Da(n) ba(n) sa(n) 14.1.3 Pō kὸ(n)	
14.1.4 Stranded combining forms	
14.2 Adverbs	
15 Unanalysable complex stems	
15.1 Loanwords	219

Syntax	224
16 Noun phrases	224
16.1 Overview	224
16.2 Noun phrase categories	224
16.2.1 Number	
16.2.2 Gender	
16.2.3 Person.	
16.3 Pronouns.	
16.3.1 Personal	
16.3.2 Demonstrative	
16.3.3 Indefinite	231
16.3.4 Interrogative	233
16.3.5 Reciprocal	233
16.4 Quantifiers	234
16.4.1 Overview	234
16.4.2 Number words	235
16.4.2.1 Quantifiers	
16.4.2.2 Counting forms	
16.4.2.3 Adjectives and ordinal constructions	
16.4.2.4 Adverbs	
16.4.3 Proquantifiers	
16.5 The article $l\bar{a}^{+/}$	
16.6 Personifier clitics	
16.7 Coordination	
16.8 Apposition	
16.9 Compounding	
16.10 Dependents preceding the head	
16.10.1 Generic arguments to deverbal nouns	
16.10.2 Premodifiers	
16.10.2.1 Generic count nouns	
16.10.2.2 Generic non-count NPs	
16.10.2.3 Adverbial phrases	
16.10.3 Predeterminers	
16.10.3.1 Before $m\bar{\epsilon}\eta^{a/}$ $d\bar{a}an^a$ $s\bar{b}b^a$ $b\bar{\nu}n^{n\epsilon/}$	
16.11 Dependents following the head	
16.11.1 Postmodifiers: adjectives	
16.11.1.1 Class agreement	
16.11.1.2 Downtoning	
16.11.1.4 Bahuvrihis	
16.11.1.5 Nouns as adjectives	
16.11.2 Postdeterminers	
16.11.2.1 Postdeterminer pronouns	
16.11.2.2 Quantifiers	
16.11.2.3 Adverbial phrases	
	_ , O

17 Adverbial phrases	277
17.1 Overview	277
17.2 Time and circumstance	277
17.3 Place	278
17.4 Manner	282
17.5 AdvPs as verb arguments	
17.6 Postpositions	
17.7 Proadverbs	
18 Prepositions	289
18.1 Simple	289
18.2 Complex	
19 Verbal predicators	294
19.1 Structure	294
19.2 Aspect	295
19.2.1 Perfective	
19.2.2 Imperfective	300
19.2.2.1 Dynamic	300
19.2.2.2 Stative	301
19.3 Tense	302
19.3.1 Preverbal tense particles	
19.3.2 Discontinuous past	
19.3.3 Periphrastic future constructions	304
19.3.4 Implicit tense marking	
19.4 Mood	
19.5 Polarity	
19.6 Independency marking	
19.6.1 Tonal Features	
19.6.1.1 Tone overlay	
19.6.1.2 Absent M spreading after subject pronouns	
19.6.2 Segmental features	315
19.6.2.1 Perfective yā ⁺	315
19.6.2.2 Imperative -m ^a	317
19.7 Clitics bound to the predicator	318
19.7.1 <i>Lὲε</i> "but"	
19.7.2 Preverbs	319
19.7.3 Liaison enclitics	322
20 Verb phrases	323
20.1 Transitivity and objects	323
20.1.1 Passives	
20.1.2 Middle uses of intransitives	
20.2 Predicative complements	
20.2.1 Manner-adverbs	
20.3 Locative complements	
20.4 Prepositional phrases as complements	
20.5 Clausal complements	
20.6 Adjuncts	
20.7 Verb-phrase-final particles	335

21 The verbs "to be"	338
21.1 $B\dot{\varepsilon}^+$ "be somewhere, exist"	338
21.2 Àeňa "be something/somehow"	
22 Non-verbal predicators	343
23 Verb phrase chaining	
23.1 Overview	
23.3 Auxiliary verbs in VP chains	
23.3.1 Preceding the main VP	
23.3.2 Following the main VP	
23.4 <i>Hāl</i> í ⁺ preceding catenator-n	
24 Clauses	
24.1 Structure	
24.1.1 Subjects	
24.1.2 Clause-linker particles	
24.1.3 Conjunctions	
24.1.4 Post-subject particles	361
24.1.5 Ellipsis	362
24.1.5.1 Coordination and ellipsis	
24.1.5.2 Null anaphora of subjects	363
24.2 Clause types	365
25 Main clauses	368
25.1 Structure	368
25.1.1 Clause-level adjuncts preceding the subj	
25.2 Main clause types	
25.2.1 Content questions	
25.2.2 Polar questions	
25.2.3 Commands	
25.2.4 Clauses without predicators	
25.3 Insubordinate <i>kà</i> -clauses	
25.3.1 Coordination of main clauses	
-	
26 Subordinate clauses after $k\dot{a}$ and $y\bar{\varepsilon}$	
26.1 Purpose, result, necessity and permission	
26.2 Adnominal <i>kà</i> -clauses	
26.3 Content clauses	
26.3.1 Direct and indirect speech	
26.3.2 Logophoric pronouns	
27 Conditional clauses	
27.1 Overview	
27.1.1 Discontinuous-past n^{ε}	
$27.1.2 \ N\bar{a}an(\iota)$ "in that case"	
27.2 Open	
27.3 Hypothetical27.4 Contrary-to-fact	
4 / . ∓ Outhury w-taob	

28 <i>N</i> -clauses	406
28.1 Absolute clauses	409
28.1.1 Time/circumstance adjuncts	
28.1.2 With prepositions and postpositions	411
28.2 Relative clauses	413
28.2.1 Structure	
28.2.2 Using indefinite pronouns	417
28.2.3 Using relative pronouns	
28.2.4 Uncompounded antecedents	
28.2.5 The article with relative clauses	
29 Negation	431
29.1 Negation of clauses	431
29.1.1 Negative verbs	431
29.2 Negative raising	
29.3 Position of the negative prosodic clitic	
29.4 Constituent negation	
30 Information packaging	
30.1 Focus	
30.1.1 Subject focus with catenator- <i>n</i>	
S Comment of the comm	
30.1.2 VP constituent and VP focus with $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+}$	
30.1.2.1 Restrictions	
30.1.2.1.1 Where $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ cannot appear at all	
30.1.2.1.2 Where $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ cannot be temporal	
30.1.2.1.3 Words which cannot be focussed with	
30.1.2.2 VP constituent focus	
30.1.2.3 VP focus	
30.2 Clefting and preposing with $k\dot{a}$	
30.3 Extraposition and dislocation	
30.4 Presentational constructions	
30.5 Free and bound personal pronouns	
30.6 Emphatics	463
Lexicon	465
31 Greetings and other formulae	465
32 Structured semantic fields	468
32.1 Kinship terms	468
32.2 Personal names	
32.3 Place names	472
32.4 Kusaal personal and place names in English	475
32.5 Ethnic group and clan names	
32.6 Trees and fruits	
32.7 Body parts	
32.8 Colour terms	
32.9 Time expressions	
33 General vocabulary	481

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 to understand Kusaal morphophonemics. It grew into areas where I was even less sure-footed, and I am very conscious of its deficiencies. 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.

A particular challenge to description is posed by **apocope**, the deletion of underlying word-final vowels in most but not all contexts. Apocope removes phonological conditioning factors, creating new contrasts. Where it could render word forms ambiguous, morphophonemic rules may instead be disrupted, sometimes so systematically that new regular subpatterns have arisen. Apocope greatly complicates external sandhi, even causing some clitics to lose segmental representation altogether, so that their presence is recognisable only from segmental and/or tonal effects on preceding words. Non-Africanists may find Kusaal interesting particularly because of these wide-ranging effects.

When I lived in Ghana, there were very few linguistic works available on Kusaal. Happily, the situation has changed; in the References and Bibliography I list numerous works by Urs Niggli on the Toende Kusaal of Burkina Faso, and more

encouragingly still, accounts of aspects of Toende Kusaal by Hasiyatu Abubakari, herself a speaker; see further "Other studies of Kusaal" below.

Particularly useful accounts of other Western Oti-Volta languages have been Knut Olawsky's careful study of Dagbani, and Adams Bodomo's grammar of his mother tongue, Dagaare. I have also gleaned many helpful ideas from the Cambridge Grammar of the English Language (Huddleston and Pullum 2002), a valuable guide to the kinds of question it is helpful to ask about the syntax even of languages very different from English.

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

I have updated a few details in my original Preface; here I mention some of the many changes in the grammar itself since December 2016.

I am very grateful to the Ghana Institute of Linguistics, Literacy and Bible Translation for permission to cite verses from the 2016 Kusaal Bible.

My orthography is now closer to that of Kusaal written materials, especially the 2016 Bible. I have adopted most of the recent orthographic changes, which are almost all improvements, except for the marking of nasalisation.

A fair amount of new material on syntax has been added, derived from further study of the readily available digitised Bible versions.

Many errors have been corrected. A number of idiosyncratic technical terms have been replaced by more mainstream equivalents. The presentation has been reorganised in many respects, and I have abandoned the unhelpful separation of description from the internal reconstruction and comparative material which was intended to shed light on it.

Interlinear glosses now appear throughout.

The tonal description previously reflected the close structural parallels with other Western Oti-Volta languages, but from a language-internal standpoint it is more natural to describe the system with high, mid and low tonemes. Altering the tone marking to reflect this, I have also made it much less abstract: the domain of marking is now always the individual word, and low tonemes are marked explicitly.

David Eddyshaw Swansea, July 2018

Abbreviations

(See also Interlinear Glossing Conventions below.)

AdvP adverbial phrase

BNY Bunkonbid ne Niis ne ba yɛla (see Sources)

C consonant

cb combining form (of noun or adjective)

CGEL Cambridge Grammar of the English Language (see Bibliography)

DK informant (see Sources)

dp discontinuous past

ger gerund

H High toneme

ILK "An Introduction to Learning Kusaal" (David Spratt)

ipfv imperfective irreg irregular

KB Kusaal Bible of 2016 (see Sources)

KED "A Short Kusaal-English Dictionary" (David Spratt)

KKY Kusaas Kuob nɛ Yir yela Gbauŋ (see Sources)

KSS Kusaal Solima ne Siilima (see Sources)

KT informant (see Sources)

L Low toneme

LF Long Form (of word capable of standing clause-finally)

M Mid toneme NP noun phrase

NT Kusaal New Testament Versions of 1976 and 1996 (see Sources)

pfv perfective pl plural

SB informant (see Sources)

SF Short Form (of word capable of standing clause-finally)

sg singular V vowel

VP verb phrase; to be distinguished from

VPred verbal predicator <u>19</u>
WK informant (see Sources)

1sg 2pl ... first person singular, second person plural etc

Abbreviations of the names of books of the Bible are fairly standard and should occasion no difficulty. Citations are from the 2016 version unless stated otherwise.

Interlinear glossing

Abbreviations:

INDICTION	<u> </u>	
ABSTR	abstract	<u>9.1.1</u>
ADV	adverbial	<u>12.3</u>
AN	animate gender	<u>16.2.2</u>
CAT VP catenator (underlyingly n)		<u>23.1</u>
CNTR	contrastive (personal pronouns)	<u>30.5</u>
СОР	copula <i>àe̯ň</i> ª	<u>21.2</u>
CQ	content question prosodic clitic	<u>8.1</u>
DEM	(short) demonstrative pronoun	<u>16.3.2</u>
DEM.DEI	deictic (long) demonstrative pronoun	<u>16.3.2</u>
DP	discontinuous-past marker n^{ϵ}	<u>27.1.1</u>
EXIST	existence/location verb $b\dot{\varepsilon}^+$	<u>21.1</u>
FOC	focus particle $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$	30.1.2 19.2
GER	gerund	<u>12.1.1</u>
IMP	independent imperative verb form	<u>11.1</u>
INAN	inanimate gender	<u>16.2.2</u>
INDF	indefinite pronoun	<u>16.3.3</u>
imperfective verb form		<u>11.1</u>
IRR	positive irrealis mood marker	<u>19.4</u>
Loc locative postposition $(n\bar{\iota}^{+/} \sim n^{\epsilon})$		<u>17.3</u>
NEG negative prosodic clitic		<u>8.1</u>
NEG.BE	negative verb to and cop and exist	<u>29.1.1</u>
NEG.HAVE	(another use of the same verb)	<u>29.1.1</u>
NEG.IMP	negative imperative marker	<u>19.4</u>
NEG.IND	negative indicative marker	<u>19.4</u>
NEG.IRR	negative irrealis marker	<u>19.4</u>
NEG.KNOW	negative verb zī'+	<u>29.1.1</u>
NEG.LET	negative verb <i>mìt</i>	<u>29.1.1</u>
NUM	number prefix à- bà- 'n- bὺ-	<u>14.3</u>
NZ	nominaliser (underlyingly \dot{n})	<u>28</u>
ОВ	object (liaison-enclitic pronouns)	<u>8.2.1</u>
PERS	personifier clitic à-	<u>16.6</u>
PFV	independent perfective marker $y\bar{a}^+$	19.6.2.1
PL	plural	<u>16.2.1</u>
PQ	polar question prosodic clitic	<u>8.1</u>
REL	relative pronoun	28.2.3
SG	singular	<u>16.2.1</u>
TNS	tense marker	<u>19.3.1</u>
VOC	vocative prosodic clitic	<u>8.1</u>

Personal pronouns:		<u>16.3.1</u>
1SG 1PL	1st sg/pl	
2SG 2PL	2nd sg/pl	
3AN 3INAN	3rd sg animate/inanimate	<u>16.2.2</u>
3PL	3rd pl	
2PL.SUB	postposed 2nd pl Subject	<u>25.2.3</u>

The linker particles $k\grave{a}$ and $y\bar{\epsilon}$ are conventionally glossed "and" and "that" respectively throughout, though this very often does not reflect the true meaning in context 24.1.2.; similarly $y\grave{a}'$ 27.1 is glossed "if" in all cases. The empty particle $n\bar{\epsilon}$ which follows objects of comparison which lack the article 18.1 is glossed "like."

Mass nouns $\underline{16.2.1}$ are not specified as **sg** or **PL** in the glossing; similarly, invariable verbs $\underline{11.2}$ are not labelled for aspect. The perfective of variable verbs is also unlabelled.

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. Prosodic clitics <u>8.1</u> are represented by $^+\emptyset$, and liaison <u>8.2</u> is marked by $_$.

For the purposes of interlinear glossing, I have adopted the concept of wordhood reflected in the traditional orthography. This entails a deviation from the Leipzig Glossing Rules for clitics. Clitics which the traditional orthography writes solid with their hosts, as if they were word fragments, are in both the working orthography of this grammar and in glossing joined to their hosts by *hyphens* (not =): these comprise the combining forms of nouns and adjectives, the personifier particle A-, and the liaison enclitics n^{ϵ} Loc n^{ϵ} DP ya 2PL.SUB along with the LF of o 3AN.OB 1.3.1. All other clitics are written as separate words throughout. Polysyllabic words ending in a vowel symbol before a hyphen are always followed by liaison, and as this is predictable, the __symbol is then omitted: $p\bar{v}vgv-n$ "inside", not $p\bar{v}vgv-n$.

Transcription conventions

For the working orthography used for Agolle Kusaal in this grammar see <u>1.3</u>. Phonetic transcriptions are written in square brackets; they are quite broad, and ignore a good deal of allophony, as explained in <u>3.1 4.1</u>.

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

Hausa words are cited in the orthography of Jaggar 2001, except that long vowels are written with double letters rather than macrons, as in Caron 1991. High tone is unmarked, low tone is marked with a grave, and a circumflex represents falling tone. 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.

Mooré words are cited as in Niggli 2016, along with his tone marking. Acute accents represent high tone, grave low; tone marks seem to apply to all following unmarked morae, and a second acute after a first within a single word seems usually to represent a downstepped H tone. The Mooré sources reflect Ouagadougou Mooré, which differs somewhat from the dialect with which Kusaal has been in contact.

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

All my Francophone sources use the symbols $\iota \upsilon$ for IPA $\iota \upsilon$, as do Urs Niggli's works in English and the working orthography of this grammar.

Words from other languages are cited as given in the sources from which they are drawn, except for tones, which are are transcribed using acute for H, grave for L, macron for mid tone and \downarrow for emic downstep. Except with Hausa, absent tone marks signify a lack of tonal information.

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 words and word fragments written in the working orthography of this grammar.

Internal and external hyperlinks appear like this.

Sources

The analyses adopted in this grammar are entirely original, except for the most basic aspects of the tonal system, where I was much helped initially by David Spratt's brief "Introduction to Learning Kusaal." The phonology and morphology are based on elicitation work with four informants. With great reluctance I have omitted their names, 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 would like to see his name included in its rightful place of honour, I would be delighted to comply. I identify them in the grammar by these abbreviations (which are not the initials of the informants' names):

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

The treatment of phrase-level syntax is largely based on work with these informants both in elicitation and in exploring puzzling constructions I had encountered while attempting to communicate at work. All four are first-language speakers of Agolle Kusaal, and have essentially first-language level competence in English. All are male, and were then around forty years old. I noted examples of conversation from many speakers, but recorded few examples of the usage of younger speakers specifically; I did notice a few comments about the incorrect grammar of the young from my informants (surely a cultural universal.) I found no 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 <u>16.11.1.3</u> are sparsely represented my data, and this has probably led to underestimation of their importance in the language as a whole.

At that time, I had little understanding of syntactic issues at clausal or higher level. I compensated as far as I could by private study of written materials, above all the 1976 New Testament version, storing up problems to discuss later with my teachers. In revising the work twenty years later I have had the advantage of access to digitised versions of the 1996 New Testament and the complete Bible version of 2016, which has enabled me to improve my analyses of Kusaal syntax substantially in several areas. I have also drawn on the collection of stories and proverbs *Kusaal Solima ne Siilima*, and to a small 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 materials would not exist.

The Bible versions are regarded by Kusaal speakers as good and idiomatic Kusaal; nevertheless, as translations, they naturally cannot be fully representative of the language. The 1996 revision adapted most foreign names to accord more closely with ordinary Kusaal spelling. Many changes were made to improve accuracy and clarity; strikingly, all instances of the previously very common indirect speech construction 26.3.2 were replaced by direct speech. The 2016 Kusaal Bible makes significant orthographic changes. There is some evidence of actual language change over this forty-year period 8.2.2, but most divergences between the spelling of older sources and the speech of my informants in the 1990's seem simply to be matters of orthographic convention 8.5.3; the audio version of the 1996 NT consistently agrees with my informants in such cases.

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 any of the Bible versions.

Written sources are cited in their original orthography, with a transliteration into the working orthography of this grammar. The tone marking of examples drawn from written materials is supplied by me; it should be regarded as illustrating the tonal principles described elsewhere, not as evidence for their validity.

The following texts are cited; apart from the Bible versions, they were published by the Tamale offices of GILLBT (the Ghana Institute of Linguistics, Literacy and Bible Translation):

Wina'am Gbauŋ Wínà'am Gbáuŋ Kusaal Bible
1976 NT © World Home Bible League
1996 NT © The Bible League/GILLBT
available as Audio and searchable text
2016 Complete Bible © GILLBT
available as an Android application

Bunkonbid ne Niis ne ba yɛla Bōn-kɔňbìd nē Níis né bà yēlá "Animals and birds and their affairs" Matthew M. Abokiba

Kusaal Solima ne Siilima Kūsáàl Sólımà nē Síilímà "Kusaal Stories and Proverbs" Samuel Akon, Joe Anabah

Kusaas Kuob nε Yir yela Gbauŋ Kūsáàs Kúèb nē Yīr yélà Gbàuŋ "A book on Kusaasi farming and housing" William A. Sandow, Joseph A.H.Anaba

Other studies of Kusaal

The pioneers of Kusaal grammatical study were **David and Nancy Spratt**. David Spratt's forty-two page "Introduction to Learning Kusaal" contains a useful sketch of the tone system, which was invaluable in starting me in the right direction. His work has also been helpful in lexical matters.

More recently, numerous 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, and edited a very useful dictionary of Mooré. 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 Toende dictionary has been an excellent resource for comparative material; it marks all vowel contrasts, and the most recent update also marks tone in many headwords. The tones as marked suggest that the effects of external tone sandhi have not always been taken into account.

Tony Naden is working on a dictionary of Agolle Kusaal, which is much the most extensive lexicographic work on the language so far. It is based on written sources and does 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 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.

References/Bibliography

Abubakari, Hasiyatu

Object-sharing as symmetric sharing: Predicate Clefting and Serial Verb

Constructions in Kusaal

Master's Thesis, University of Tromsø, 2011

<u>Ideophones in Kusaal</u>

Journal of West African Languages, Vol 44.1 (2017)

Adouna, Gbandi

Description phonologique et grammaticale du Konkomba

Université Rennes 2; Université de Lomé (TOGO), 2009.

Aikhenvald, Alexandra Y and Dixon, R M W

Serial Verb Constructions: A Cross-Linguistic Typology

Oxford University Press 2007

Akanlig-Pare, George and Kenstowicz, Michael

Tone in Buli

Studies in African Linguistics, Volume 31, Numbers 1/2,2002

Albro, Daniel

Nawdm-English Dictionary with Examples (1998)

Anttila, Arto and Bodomo, Adams

Stress and Tone in Dagaare

Ashton, Ethel O

Swahili Grammar (Including Intonation)

Longmans 1947

Balima, Adama et al

Moré Basic Course

Foreign Service Institute. Undated

Bendor-Samuel, John (Editor)

The Niger-Congo Languages

University Press of America 1989

Berthelette, John

Sociolinguistic Survey Report for the Kusaal Language

SIL International 2001

Bloomfield, Leonard

A Set of Postulates for the Science of Language

Language 2. 153-164 (1926)

Bodomo, Adams

The structure of Dagaare

Stanford Monographs in African Languages.

CSLI, Stanford, California 1997

Brindle, Jonathan

A dictionary and grammatical outline of Chakali

Language Science Press, 23 Jun. 2017

Canu. Gaston

La Langue Mò:rē; Dialecte de Ouagadougou (Haute-Volta)

Société d'Études Linguistiques et Anthropologiques de France 1976

Caron, Bernard

Le Haoussa de l'Ader

Dietrich Reimer Verlag, Berlin 1991

Chitoran, Ioana

A perception-production study of Romanian diphthongs and glide-vowel sequences

Journal of the International Phonetic Association

Volume 32, Issue 02 (December 2002) pp 203-222

Dimmendaal, Gerrit J

Historical Linguistics and the Comparative Study of African Languages John Benjamins 2011

Fiedler, Ines

Nawdm

In: Noun Class Systems in Gur Languages. Vol. 2: Oti-Volta Languages.

Gudrun Miehe, Brigitte Reineke & Kerstin Winkelmann (eds.), 566-601.

Köln: Köppe. (Generously shared by the author via Researchgate)

Giffen, Robyn

We begin to write: creating and using the first Nabit orthography

MA Thesis, University of British Columbia 2015

Güldemann, Tom

The Macro-Sudan Belt: towards identifying a linguistic area in northern sub-Saharan Africa; in A Linguistic Geography of Africa, Eds.

Bernd Heine, Derek Nurse, Cambridge University Press, 2007

Guthrie, Malcolm

Grammaire et Dictionnaire de Lingala

Librairie Évangelique au Congo, Léopoldville, 1951

Proto-Bantu reconstructions

Haaf. Ernst

Die Kusase

Gießener Beiträge zur Entwicklungsforschung, Reihe II, Band 1 Gustav Ficher Verlag, Stuttgart 1967

Heath, Jeffrey

Tondi Songway Kiini (Songhay, Mali)

Stanford Monographs in African Languages 2005

Dictionary Humburi Senni (Songhay of Hombori, Mali) - English - French

Huddleston, Rodney and Pullum, Geoffrey

The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language

Cambridge University Press 2002

Hunt, Geoffrey

A Phonology of the Hanga Language

Institute of African Studies, University of Ghana 1981

Hyman, Larry M

Niger-Congo Verb Extensions: Overview and Discussion

Selected Proceedings of the 37th Annual Conference on African Linguistics, ed. Doris L. Payne and Jaime Peña, 149-163. (2007)

Iliasu, AA

The Origins of the Mossi-Dagomba States

Institute of African Studies: Research Review, 1971

Inkelas, Sharon

"The Interaction Between Morphology and Phonology"

in The Handbook of Phonological Theory

Second Edition, edited John Goldsmith et al

Blackwell Publishing Ltd 2011

Jaggar, Philip

Hausa

Benjamins 2001

Jungraithmayr, Hermann and Abu-Manga, Al-Amin

Einführung in die Ful-Sprache

Dietrich Reimer Verlag, Berlin 1989

Kiparsky, Paul

"How Abstract is Phonology?"

in Kiparsky, Paul: "Explanation in Phonology"

Walter de Gruyter 1982

Kleinewillinghöfer, Ulrich

Relationship between Adamawa and Gur Languages:

the Case of Waja and Tula.

Cahiers Voltaïques / Gur Papers I (1996), 25-45

Kröger, Frantz

Buli-English Dictionary

LIT Verlag 1992

Kropp Dakubu, Mary Esther

Parlons farefari (gurenè) : Langue et culture de Bolgatanga (Ghana) et ses environs

L'Harmattan, 2009

The Portuguese Language on the Gold Coast, 1471-1807

Ghana Journal of Linguistics 1.1: 15-33 (2012)

Lambrecht. Knud

Information Structure and Sentence Form: Topic, Focus, and the Mental Representations of Discourse Referents

Cambridge University Press, 1994

Lébikaza, Kézié

Grammaire kabiyè: une analyse systématique

Rüdiger Köppe Verlag, Köln, 1999

Lefebvre, Claire and Brousseau, Anne-Marie

A Grammar of Fongbe

Mouton de Gruyter, 2002

Lund, Christian

'Bawku is still volatile': ethno-political conflict and state recognition in Northern Ghana

Journal of Modern African Studies, 41, 4 (2003), pp. 587-610. 2003 Cambridge University Press (available via Researchgate)

Manessy, Gabriel

Contribution à la Classification Généalogique des Langues Voltaïques Société d'Études Linguistiques et Anthropologiques de France 1979

Naden, Tony

The Gur Languages

in The Languages of Ghana, Ed. M E Kropp Dakubu

Kegan Paul International 1988

<u>Dictionaries</u> of Mampruli (very comprehensive), Nabit and Talni (much less so)

Newman, Paul and Roxana Ma

"Modern Hausa-English Dictionary"

University Press PLC Ibadan 1979

Niggli, Urs

Participant Reference in Kusaal Discourse

MA Degree in Field Linguistics,

Centre for Linguistics, Translation & Literacy, Redcliffe College 2014

La phonologie du kusaal 2012

Grammaire élémentaire du kusaal 2012

Dictionnaire kusaal-français-anglais sans images 2014

Esquisse Grammaticale du ninkare 2007

Dictionnaire Ninkare-Français 2013

Dictionnaire mooré-français-anglais 2016 © SIL International

and much other interesting material on Toende Kusaal, Farefare and Kassem

Nurse, Derek and Phillippson, Gérard (eds)

The Bantu Languages

Routledge, 2003

Olawsky, Knut

Aspects of Dagbani grammar

LINCOM Europa 1999

Olson. Kenneth S

An Evaluation of Niger-Congo Classification

SIL International, 2004

Ouaba, Bénôit Bendi

Dictionnaire Bilingue Gulimancéma-Français

Sous-Commission Nationale du Gulimancéma, BP 164 Fada N'Gourma

Painter, Colin

Gonja: a Phonological and Grammatical Study

Indiana University Publications, 1970

Plungian, Vladimir A and van der Auwera, Johan

Towards a typology of discontinuous past marking

Sprachtypol. Univ. Forsch. (STUF), Berlin 59 (2006) 4, 317-349

(Generously shared by the authors via Researchgate)

Prost, André

La Langue Bisa

Centre IFAN, Ouagadougou; republished by Gregg Press Ltd, 1968

Reinhard, Pierre

Description de la Langue Moba

SIL Togo 1984

Rennison, John R

Koromfe

Routledge 1997

Sambiéni, Coffi

Le Proto-Oti-Volta-Oriental

Rüdiger Köppe Verlag, Köln, 2005

Smits, Heleen

A Grammar of Lumun: a Kordofanian Language of Sudan

LOT (Netherlands Graduate School of Linguistics) 2017

Somé, Penou-Achille

Dàgàrà-?yèrbíé ou proverbes dagara

L'Harmattan 1992

Souag, Lameen

Language Contact in the Sahara

Oxford Research Encyclopaedias, Linguistics (online), June 2016

Spencer, Andrew and Luís, Ana

Clitics: An Introduction

Cambridge University Press 2012

Spratt, David

A Short Kusaal-English Dictionary

Ghana Institute of Linguistics, Tamale. Undated photocopy

An Introduction to Learning Kusaal

Ghana Institute of Linguistics, Tamale. Undated photocopy

Kusal Syntax

Institute of African Studies, University of Ghana 1972

Stewart, John M

The potential of Proto-Potou-Akanic-Bantu as a pilot

Proto-Niger-Congo, and the reconstructions updated

Journal of African Languages and Linguistics 23 (2002), 197-224

Swanson, Alan

Gourma Grammar

SIM, Fada N'Gourma. Burkina Faso; undated typescript distributed by ESSOR Rural

Trimingham, J. Spencer

Islam in West Africa

Clarendon Press 1959

Vance, Timothy J

'Canadian Raising' in Some Dialects of the Northern United States American Speech, Vol 63, no 3. (1987) pp 195-210

Zongo, Bernard

Parlons Mooré

L'Harmattan 2010

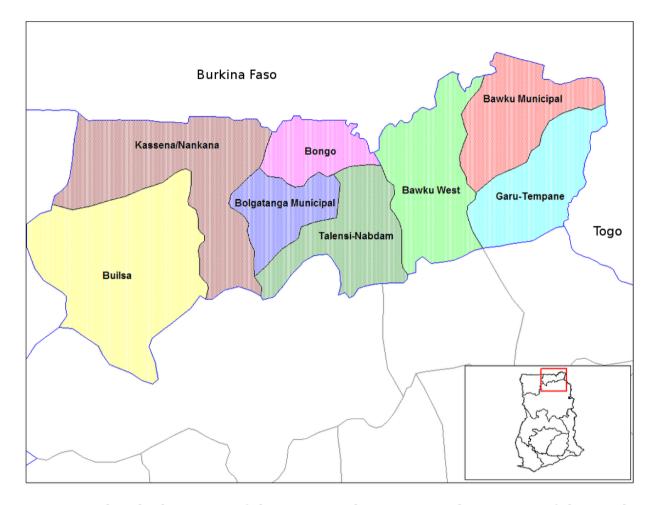
Zwicky, Arnold M and Pullum, Geoffrey K

Cliticization vs. Inflection: English N'T

Language, Vol 59 no 3 (Sept 1983) 502-513

1 Introduction to Kusaal and the Kusaasi

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



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 T55n "in front, West", Agolle Kusaal T00n. The larger eastern part is **Agolle** (less accurately spelt "Agole"), Kusaal $Ag3/I^{\rm E}$ "Upper." The Ghanaian districts comprise most of $K05a0g^{\rm O}$ "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.

¹⁾ Superscript letters represent the parts of Kusaal words deleted in most contexts by apocope 2.3. 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 $K\bar{\upsilon}s\dot{a}\dot{a}l^{\epsilon}$ "Kusaal" and the name of the people $K\bar{\upsilon}s\dot{a}\dot{a}s^{\epsilon}$ "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 Fulße 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 $s\bar{a}'ab^3$, called "TZ" /ti:'zɛd/ in local English (from Hausa $tuwon\ zaafii$, literally "hot porridge"), and the traditional millet beer, $d\bar{a}am^{m/}$, called "pito" (Hausa fitoo) in English.

The Kusaasi are divided into numerous patrilineal exogamous clans ($d\dot{z}_{z}$), "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 $p\bar{z}r^{\xi}$ "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 $t \approx \eta - d\bar{a}an^a$ 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 peoples, who continued to provide the $t \dot{\epsilon} \eta$ -dàan-nàm^a. The founder of these kingdoms was Naa Gbewaa, whose seat was at Pusiga (Kusaal *Pūsig*^{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 are part of a widespread culture which also encompasses neighbouring peoples like the Mossi, Farefare, Mamprussi, Dagomba and Bulsa. Traditional Kusaasi dress resembles that of the Mamprussi, Dagomba and Mossi, including the long-sleeved baggy $b\bar{a}n\bar{a}a^{=}$ smock, called a "fugu shirt" in English ($f\bar{u}ug^{2}$) "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 the south; likewise, of some 5% Muslims, many belonged to other ethnic groups.

Traditional belief includes a creator God, $Win^{n\epsilon}$, invoked in proverbs and greetings but remote from everyday life and not to be approached in prayer or worship. Characteristic proverbs say

 $D \wr m$ $n \bar{\epsilon}$ $W \bar{\iota} n$, $d \bar{a}$ $t \acute{\upsilon} ' \grave{a} s$ $n \bar{\epsilon}$ $W \bar{\iota} n n \acute{\epsilon}$ $^+ \varnothing$. Eat:IMP with God:SG, NEG.IMP talk with God:SG NEG. "Eat with God, don't talk with God."

Wīn ňyέ kà sīn.God:sg see and be.silent."God sees and is silent."

Everyday religious practice is concerned with local non-anthropomorphic spirits, also called $w\bar{\iota}n^{n\epsilon/}$. A $w\bar{\iota}n^{n\epsilon/}$ resides in a $b\bar{\upsilon}g\upsilon r^{\epsilon}$, an object such as a stone or horn, but it is the $w\bar{\iota}n^{n\epsilon/}$ that is spiritually significant, not its place of attachment.

A central figure is the $b\bar{a}^{\dagger}a^{=}$ "diviner", who seeks guidance for a client $(b\bar{\nu}g\nu d^{a})$ on all matters by casting lots. Traditional healers, a separate group, show considerable variation in approach from herbalist to occult.

A human being is understood as having four components: $nin-gb\bar{i}\eta^{5/}$ "body"; $nyb-v\bar{v}r^{\epsilon/}$ "life" as opposed to death, possessed by all living animals; $w\bar{i}n^{n\epsilon/}$ (in this sense) "genius, spirit, a person's own spiritual self"; and $kik\bar{i}r\iota s^{\epsilon/}$, protective spirits (called "fairies" in local English.) Men have three $kik\bar{i}r\iota s^{\epsilon/}$, women a fourth, because of the dangers of childbirth. (Throughout the cultural zone, three is a man's number, and four is a woman's.) There are wild $kik\bar{i}r\iota s^{\epsilon/}$ in the bush which are hostile and try to lead travellers astray. $S\bar{\iota}\iota g^a$ "life force", used for "spirit" in Christian materials, is in traditional belief intimately associated with a person's tutelary $kik\bar{i}r\iota s^{\epsilon/}$.

The key term $w\bar{\iota}n^{n\epsilon}$ has yet further senses, overlapping with the European concepts of fate or destiny: $w\bar{\iota}n^{-t}\dot{\partial}g^{\circ}$, literally "bitterness of $w\bar{\iota}n^{n\epsilon}$ " is "misfortune." Most people have a particular $s\bar{\iota}g\iota r^{\epsilon}$ "guardian spirit" which is often the $w\bar{\iota}n^{n\epsilon}$ of an ancestor; the word $b\bar{\iota}g\iota r^{\epsilon}$ may also mean "a $w\bar{\iota}n^{n\epsilon}$ inherited from one's mother's family." Many Kusaasi personal names refer to an individual's $s\bar{\iota}g\iota r^{\epsilon}$ 32.2.

Sɔɔnɒa "witches" exist in the traditional world view; though they cause harm, their condition can be involuntary. As in European tradition, those accused 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.

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 people were proficient in reading or writing the language in the 1990's. When I was learning to communicate in Kusaal at work, colleagues sometimes interrupted me to say that patients were "literate", meaning that they knew English.

Though 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. It is the normal medium of communication among Kusaasi of all ages, most of whom are monolingual, and is also 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 show numerous small differences in speech. Bawku 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 <code>zangòo</code> "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 standard.

The major dialect division is between Agolle and Toende. The differences are striking, considering the size of the Kusaasi area. Agolle Vowel Breaking 4.1.1 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 reported no difficulty communicating with Toende speakers, but 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: 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." Recorded text tests administered to Burkina Faso Toende speakers showed scores of 93% for comprehension of Ghanaian Toende versus 80.5% for Agolle, but Ghanaian Toende speakers achieved 94.5% with Agolle, presumably reflecting their greater exposure to the dialect. It is possible that Agolle speakers find Toende Kusaal 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, perhaps not on strictly linguistic grounds but because of speaker attitudes: Toende speakers feel their own dialect is "purer", which may affect judgments of comprehensibility.

Berthelette reports a rate of apparent lexical cognates between Toende and Agolle of only 84%. Judging by Urs Niggli's dictionary, this figure seems surprisingly low; it may be that the divergence is more 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 tendency to equate language and ethnicity (note the language names formed from ethnonyms in 32.5.) Nevertheless, the differences are great enough to justify separate grammatical treatment for the two major dialects.

This account describes Agolle Kusaal, the language of the majority of Kusaasi, including those of the vicinity of Bawku. This is the basis of most written materials, including the Bible versions. As a matter of convenience, by "Kusaal" I will mean "Agolle Kusaal" by default below; I do not intend by this to imply that Agolle speech is the sole standard form of the language.

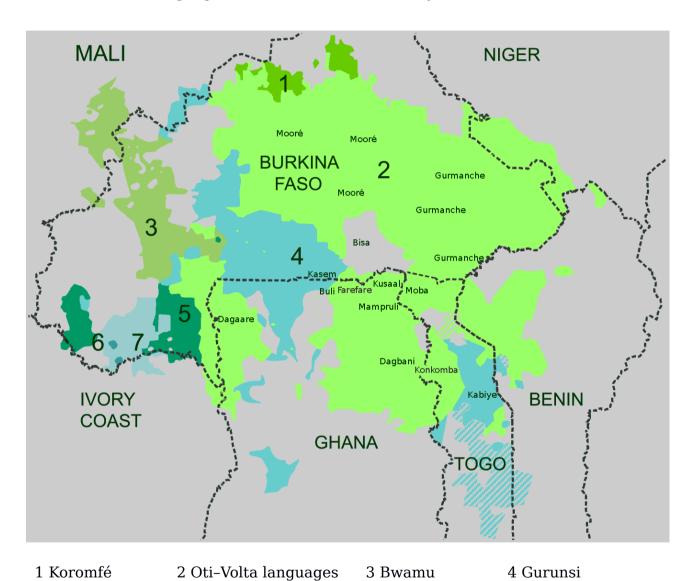
5 Kirma-Lobi

6 Dogoso-Khe

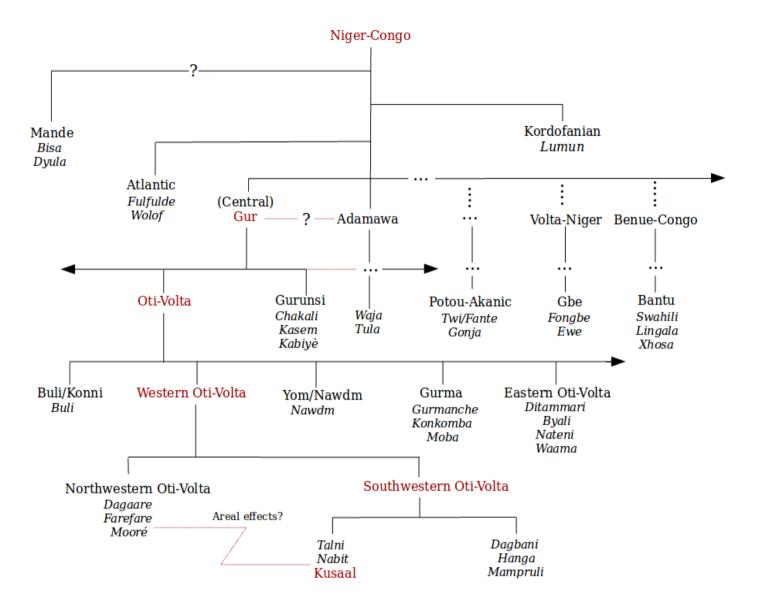
1.2.3 Related languages

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

The Gur Languages (Public Domain, created by <u>Davius</u>)



7 Doghose-Gan



This chart outlines the relationships between some of the Niger-Congo languages mentioned in this account, omitting all but a few branches and languages. Subclassifications are often uncertain. Mande is the most divergent group, and may not truly belong to Niger-Congo at all; neither "Atlantic" nor "Kordofanian" seems to be a real unity; Twi has been said to belong to a "Kwa" branch, 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 less certain. At present, the inclusion of Mande and Kordofanian in Niger-Congo is a long-range hypothesis, rather than a well-established linguistic grouping like Indo-European; to some extent, this is true even of Atlantic. Moreover, West Africa has probably always been characterised by widespread multilingualism and borrowing not only of lexicon but also of morphology and syntax: for West Africa (and beyond) as a *Sprachbund* see especially Güldemann 2007.

There is unequivocal evidence for Volta-Congo (the branches after "Atlantic" in the chart) as a true genetic grouping. Basic lexical items recur frequently; compare Kusaal $b\bar{\imath}ig^a$ "child", $d\hat{\imath}^+$ "eat", $n\bar{u}^+$ "drink", $kp\hat{\imath}^+$ "die", $t\hat{\imath}\iota g^a$ "tree", $ata\tilde{n}^{i+}$ "three", $t\hat{\imath}bbvr^\epsilon$ "ear" to their respective Fongbe equivalents $v\hat{\imath}$, $d\hat{\imath}$, $n\hat{\imath}$, $k\hat{\imath}$, $ata\hat{\imath}$

The most salient morphological feature of Niger-Congo is the presence of noun class systems, with frequent congruences in both form and meaning among the Volta-Congo branches. Thus the Kusaal human-plural noun $suffix -b^a$ seen in $n\bar{\iota}d\iota b^a$ / "people", plural of $n\bar{\iota}d^a$ /, matches the Gonja human-plural prefix in $b\acute{a}$ -sà "people", plural of \acute{e} -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 recur throughout Volta-Congo; for example, the suffixes $r^{\epsilon}|a^+|$ seen in Kusaal $t\dot{\upsilon}b\upsilon r^{\epsilon}$ "ear", $t\dot{\upsilon}ba^+|$ "ears" are cognate to the Bantu prefix pair labelled 5/6 in the Bleek-Meinhof system (Nurse and Phillippson 2003.) Lingala has the cognate of Kusaal $t\dot{\upsilon}b\upsilon r^{\epsilon}$ in this very class: $lit\acute{o}i$ "ear", plural $mat\acute{o}i$. In general, it is the Bantu pronominal and verbal concord prefixes which correspond to the affixes of other Volta-Congo languages, rather than the noun class prefixes themselves, which often show an additional initial nasal, as with $mat\acute{o}i$. The Swahili verbal subject prefixes for the 5/6 class are singular li, plural ya; as in Kusaal, names of fruits (for example) usually belong to this class.

Similarities also appear in verbal derivation by suffixes, here usually called "verbal extensions", after the term used for Bantu languages, in which such processes are typically highly productive. However, at the level of Niger-Congo, form and function can be difficult to correlate, and some processes may even be areal phenomena, found also in Afro-Asiatic and Nilo-Saharan (see Hyman 2007.²)

Mande shows no trace of noun class affixes or Niger-Congo-type verbal extensions, and offers little lexical evidence for a genetic link to Volta-Congo. Some Kordofanian languages (e.g. Lumun, thoroughly described in Smits 2017) bear a striking typological similarity to Volta-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 very little formal or lexical correspondence. Even with the Atlantic languages, typological resemblances are much more apparent than lexical, and affixes of similar meaning to those of Volta-Congo often show dissimilar forms.

²⁾ For Gur, Hyman cites only Canu 1976. Some of Canu's proposals segment CVC roots as CV+C, where CV- is not attested as a root; however, Canu's second-position suffixes have numerous cognates throughout Western Oti-Volta; for Kusaal see 13.2.

Many Niger-Congo subclassifications rely heavily on lexicostatistics, particularly problematic when so many of the relevant languages are poorly documented; detailed comparative work is necessary for reliable results. With some lower-level groupings much has been achieved already, very notably with Bantu; among languages closer to Kusaal, see 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.

At the lowest level Kusaal belongs to a clear-cut language family called **Western Oti-Volta** by Manessy, for which Adams Bodomo has suggested "Mabia" (cf Kusaal mà-bīiga "sibling") as an alternative name. This term, though attractive, is not a "shibboleth" word demarcating Western Oti-Volta: cf Buli mà-biīk id. There is, however, a good deal of distinctively Western Oti-Volta vocabulary, e.g. Kusaal kù'em" "water", Mooré kòóm, versus Gurmanche ñíma Buli nyíam (cf Kusaal nì+ "rain.") 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. The Western Oti-Volta languages are closely related to one another: the group is roughly as diverse as Romance. However, claims of mutual intelligibility are often much overstated; they reflect underappreciation of the fact that many local people are competent users of more than one distinct language. Kusaal and Mampruli, for example, are not mutually intelligible (as I had abundant opportunity to observe in our outpatient clinics.)

Western Oti-Volta is subdivided into Northwestern and Southwestern branches. Northwestern Oti-Volta includes Mooré (much the largest Gur language, 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. The Southwestern division includes Kusaal, Nabit and Talni along with Mampruli, Dagbani, Hanga, Kamara and some similar smaller languages. A distinctive feature of the Southwestern languages is the inflection *-maused for positive imperatives.

There is evidence of extensive language contact across this division, notably with Farefare and Nabit and with Mooré and Kusaal, and in a milieu where many people are multilingual in closely related languages, it can be difficult to distinguish historical shared innovations from the effects of diffusion. Numerous isoglosses cut across the division, but most involve shared retentions, such as noun-class based grammatical gender in Talni, Mampruli and Farefare 10, vowel glottalisation in Kusaal, Nabit, Talni and Farefare 4.2.2, and the contrast between non-initial /r/ and /d/ in Mooré, Agolle (not Toende) Kusaal, Talni and Nabit. The preverbal negation particles are recognisably similar across Southwestern Oti-Volta and also in Dagaare: Kusaal $p\bar{v}/b\bar{v}$, Dagbani bi, Dagaare ba for indicative, Kusaal $d\bar{a}$, Dagbani di, Dagaare

ta for imperative, Kusaal $k\dot{v}$, Dagbani ku, Dagaare kong replacing the positive markers ($n\grave{a}$ ni na respectively) in the irrealis. Mooré and Farefare share the innovation of negative $k\acute{a}$ for both indicative and irrealis; they also share the introduction of rounded vowels in the plural suffix -do/-ro 4.4.

The Kusaal 2sg pronoun $f\dot{v}$ "you" goes with the Northwestern languages (Mooré $f\dot{v}$, Farefare fv, Dagaare fv) rather than the Southwestern (Nabit, Talni and Mampruli i, Dagbani a); Buli fi and Nawdm $b\acute{e}$ suggest that the Kusaal and Northwestern forms are simply conservative, but Gurmanche has $a\dot{v}$, Konkomba i, and Moba has $a\dot{v}$ for the non-contrastive pronoun but fi for contrastive: Moba probably preserves a distinction independently levelled in the other languages.

Mampruli, Dagbani, Hanga and some similar smaller languages form a clear subgroup; there is said to be considerable mutual intelligibility. These languages show great simplification of the inherited vowel system, with loss of contrasts in glottalisation, nasalisation and tenseness, along with lowering of original short e to a, and the secondary development of a series of contrastively palatalised velars. There are other shared innovations: for example, for the basic kinship term "sibling of opposite sex (regardless of seniority)", Mooré, Farefare, and Talni all have cognates of Kusaal $t\bar{a}u\bar{n}^{+/}$, but Mampruli and Dagbani use the stem "younger sibling of the same sex" compounded with "man" for "woman's brother (regardless of seniority)" and "woman" for "man's sister (regardless of seniority)": Mampruli $tinz = Kusaal p\bar{t}t\dot{v}^+$, $tinz = t\bar{a}u\bar{n}^{+/}$.

Nabit, Talni and Kusaal may also constitute a subgroup. Tony Naden's Nabit materials closely resemble Toende Kusaal. Giffen 2015 in her interesting discussion of the social and cultural setting implies that that Nabit has been swept up into the cultural and political orbit of the more distantly related Farefare. She also notes that Talni speakers understand Nabit to some extent.

Nabit and Talni, like Kusaal, have lost inherited final short vowels in citation forms. This is of course very common cross-linguistically (and seen also in Moba), but some sentences in Naden's dictionaries suggest that Nabit and Talni retain the final vowel at the end of negated clauses and of questions, as with Kusaal apocope 2.3:

```
Nabit
               La bi'imε.
                                              "It is ripe"
Toende
               La bı'ı me.
Agolle
               Lì
                      bì'ig n\bar{\varepsilon}.
               3INAN ripen FOC
                                              "It is not yet ripe."
Nabit
               La na bu biige.
Toende
               La nan bu bı'ıge.
               Lì
                                     bi'ig\bar{\varepsilon}^{+}ø.
Agolle
                      nàm pū
               3INAN still NEG.IND ripen NEG.
```

Talni Bunpok doyam pu bokəra, buraa doyam m bokət.

"A woman's kindred is not divided, a man's kindred is divided."

Toende Bupok dogim bu bokira, buraa dogim bokit.

Agolle [Pu̞'ā] dứ'àm pū bu̞ákìdā +ø, [dāu̞] dứ'amì ø bu̞ákìd.

Woman:sg kindred neg.ind split:ipfv neg, man:sg kindred cat split:ipfv.

The Toende forms are from Niggli's dictionary, with the inflected forms bokıra and bı'ıge 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 are lexical isoglosses: for example, Kusaal $n\bar{b}k^{\epsilon/}$ "pick up" (Toende $n\bar{b}k$) has a cognate in Nabit nok but not, as far as I have been able to discover, in any other Western Oti-Volta language.

Other groups within the broader Oti-Volta family can be seen to be related to Western Oti-Volta even on fairly superficial examination. Buli, in particular, though placed quite far from Western Oti-Volta in some classifications, is shown by the detailed materials in Kröger 1992 to be much closer to Western Oti-Volta than are the Gurma languages Gurmanche, Konkonba and Moba; there are numerous obvious cognates in vocabulary and many parallels in morphology.

Both Buli and Gurmanche have three-tone systems, and the three basically distinct Western Oti-Volta Tone Patterns can be systematically matched with these 7.1. 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>
sāan ^{a/}	"stranger"	càanō	nícháanoā (ní- "person")
wáaf ^ɔ	"snake"	wà	wáab
nīf ^{ɔ/}	"eye"	nùnbū	núm

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

т̄эg ^э	"grass"	múagū	<i>mūub</i> ("blade of grass")
tìıa ^a	"tree"	tībū	tìib

It is the languages with H for Kusaal Pattern H (Western Oti-Volta, Buli/Konni, Yom/Nawdm, and Waama) which have innovated: cf Chakali $t \hat{\mu} \hat{\nu} \hat{\nu} \hat{\nu} \hat{\nu} \hat{\nu}$ "hare" = Kusaal $s \hat{\mu} \hat{\nu} \hat{\nu} \hat{\nu} \hat{\nu} \hat{\nu}$, Proto-Bantu $-n \hat{\mu} \hat{\nu} \hat{\nu} \hat{\nu} \hat{\nu} \hat{\nu}$ "mouth" = Kusaal $n \hat{\nu} \hat{\nu} \hat{\nu} \hat{\nu} \hat{\nu} \hat{\nu}$; Prot-Bantu $-t \hat{\nu} \hat{\nu} \hat{\nu} \hat{\nu} \hat{\nu} \hat{\nu}$; Prot-Bantu $-t \hat{\nu} \hat{\nu} \hat{\nu} \hat{\nu} \hat{\nu} \hat{\nu} \hat{\nu}$.

The Eastern Oti-Volta languages are distinctly different from Western Oti-Volta in both morphology and lexicon. Sambiéni 2005 provides considerable detail on the

language group, which shows much greater internal diversity than Western Oti-Volta. His comparative work assumes the validity of Manessy's Eastern Oti-Volta, which is based on the initial changes $*g \to k$, $*gb \to kp$ along with $*f \to y$, $*v \to f$ (also seen in Gurma.) In fact, the Eastern Oti-Volta languages lack $v \not gb \not f$ altogether, while g occurs only as a word-internal allophone of f (k), suggesting that these changes may be an areal development. Manessy has $*gb \to kw$ for the neighbouring Bulba/Nõõtre, which he classifies with Western Oti-Volta.

Of the four languages Ditammari, Nateni, Byali and Waama, Ditammari resembles Gurmanche and Konkomba in that nouns usually appear with noun class prefixes and suffixes together. The noun class systems do not show any innovations common to the entire group.

Ditammari and Nateni probably form a subgroup. Both show L tone corresponding to Kusaal Pattern H. They have similar systems of verb flexion, with some verbs opposing a perfective ending -a to an imperfective ending which is -i after alveolar consonants but -u otherwise, other verbs changing the stem tones, or dropping a derivational suffix from the perfective to make the imperfective. Individual verbs often behave alike in both languages.

Byali shows mid tones for the most part where Western Oti-Volta has Pattern H; in verbs it opposes perfective -sə to imperfective -u (including after alveolars.)

Waama has H tone corresponding to Western Oti-Volta Pattern H. A small group of verbs oppose final -i for perfective to -u for imperfective, but most verbs form the imperfective by adding a suffix -ri -di or -ti to the perfective form. There are lexical isoglosses uniting Waama with Western Oti-Volta and Buli over against the other Eastern languages, e.g. Waama $w\bar{o}mm\bar{a}$ "entendre" = Kusaal $w\bar{o}m^m$, Buli wom, versus Byali $y\bar{o}$, Ditammari $y\bar{o}$, Nateni $y\bar{e}k\dot{a}$; Waama $c\dot{a}ar\bar{o}$ "forgeron" = Kusaal $s\bar{a}\underline{e}n^+$, versus Byali $m\dot{a}$ - $m\dot{a}ar\bar{a}u$, Ditammari $\bar{o}m\dot{a}at\bar{a}$, Nateni $m\dot{a}l\bar{o}$ (and Gurmanche $m\dot{a}ano$); Waama $y\dot{e}t\dot{e}$ pl $y\dot{e}y\bar{a}$ "maison" = Kusaal $y\bar{i}r^{\epsilon l}$, Buli $y\dot{e}ri$, versus Byali $t\dot{a}p\dot{u}u$, Ditammari $t\bar{a}c\tilde{i}et\dot{a}$, Nateni $h\tilde{o}3t\bar{a}$.

There is much less similarity between Oti-Volta as a whole and the other main branch of Central Gur, the Gurunsi languages. It has been suggested that Oti-Volta and Gurunsi may be coordinate members of a continuum including at least some Adamawa groups: Kleinewillinghöfer 1996 references studies suggesting that the Adamawa languages Waja and Tula are closer to the Gurunsi languages than to the rest of "Central Gur." Further progress on this issue will probably only come about after more descriptive work on Adamawa languages.

A few languages are classified as Central Gur, but neither Oti-Volta nor Gurunsi. Most are poorly documented; an exception is Koromfe (Rennison 1997.)

Various languages have been previously taken as Gur on the basis of nonspecific typological criteria, especially the use of noun class suffixes rather than prefixes. This is notably the case with the Senoufo group, now usually held to constitute a distinct branch of Niger-Congo.

1.2.4 External influences

Most identifiable loanwords $\underline{15.1}$ in Kusaal come from **Hausa**, the largest African language after Arabic by number of first-language speakers, used by millions more as a lingua franca in the savanna zone of West Africa; Kusaal has far fewer Hausa loans than Dagbani or Mampruli, however. In Ghana, Hausa has strong associations with Islam and with trade. There are many ethnic $\underline{Hausaawaa}$ in the Kusaasi area, especially in Bawku, but the language which has influenced Kusaal is the $\underline{Gaanancii}$ lingua franca. Though mutually intelligible with Kano Hausa, $\underline{Gaanancii}$ among other differences lacks not only grammatical but even natural gender, uses [z] for $[\overline{d3}]$, monophthongises diphthongs, and drops the distinction between glottalic consonants and their plain counterparts.

The other major lingua francas of Ghana, Twi/Fante ("Akan") and English, have contributed 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. 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.

Among neighbouring languages, **Farefare** has certainly influenced Nabit and perhaps also Toende Kusaal. With **Mampruli**, matters are complicated by the political history of the area, and by the fact that many local Mamprussi speak Kusaal rather than Mampruli, but some loanwords are identifiable.

Many Mossi people 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.

There is little evidence of influence on Kusaal from Moba, the neighbouring language to the east, or even from Bisa to the north, despite the fact that many Bisa people have settled in the villages among the Kusaasi, and in Bawku. Bisa people in Ghana use Kusaal as the areal lingua franca, and few others can communicate in their Mande language. Nor is there evidence of borrowing from the language of the nomadic cattle-raising Fulße, found locally as throughout the savanna of West Africa. Fulfulde nagge, plural na'i "cow" strikingly resembles Kusaal $n\acute{a}af^{\circ}$ ($\leftarrow *n\~{a}\acute{a}gf\~{v}$) plural $n\~{u}ig\'{v}$, but this cannot be a loanword into Kusaal itself, because both the word and its distinctive flexion can be reconstructed to a stage prior to the Western Oti-Volta protolanguage (cf Buli $n\acute{a}\acute{a}b$ pl $n\'{u}ig\~{a}$.)

1.3 Orthography

Except as specified otherwise below, symbols represent sounds similar to their IPA values; for more specific details see 3.1 4.1. Acute, grave and macron signs mark tone 5.1; for word division conventions see 1.3.1.

```
y represents [j]; kp gb represent [kp] [gb].
```

Between vowels within a word k t p η are realised as [k:] [t:] [p:] [η :] in very deliberate speech.

The vowel symbols $a \in \mathfrak{I} \cup \mathbb{I}$ have IPA values, while $\iota \cup \mathbb{I}$ represent $[\mathfrak{I}] \cup \mathbb{I}$ respectively. The allophony $[\mathfrak{I}] \sim [\mathfrak{I}]$ and $[\mathfrak{V}] \sim [\mathfrak{U}]$ epenthetic and prefix vowels $\underline{4.3} \cdot \underline{4.4}$ is ignored, only $\iota \cup \mathbb{I}$ being used. Written $\underline{e} \circ \mathbb{I}$ always represent $[\mathfrak{I}] \cup \mathbb{I}$, used instead of $\iota \cup \mathbb{I}$ only as non-initial elements of diphthongs $\underline{4.2.3}$ and for the 3sg animate pronoun $o \cup \mathbb{I}$ along with the $[\mathfrak{V}]$ mora which precedes it in liaison, which is written $o \cup \underline{1.3.1}$.

	dī¹e	"receive"	[djiɪ]
	pāe	"reach"	[pʰaɪ]
	bēog	"tomorrow"	[bɛʊg]
	kpī'oŋ	"strong"	[kpi̪ʊ̯ŋ]
but	dāvg	"male"	[daʊg]
	ò bīig	"her child"	[ʊbi:g]
	zú∙o	"steal him"	[zuʊ]
	dà'∙o	"bought for him"	[daʊ̯]

 $\underline{\varrho} \ \underline{i}$ both represent $[\underline{\mathfrak{z}}]$; \underline{i} is used before vowel symbols and after u. The symbol \underline{u} is used for $[\underline{\mathfrak{v}}]$.

gbàu̯ŋ	"book"	[g͡baʊ̯ŋ]
sɔ̄e̯ň	"witch"	[sɔ̃ɪ̯]
mùi	"rice"	[műj]

Long vowels are written by doubling the vowel symbol.

```
bāa "dog" [ba:]
```

Glottalisation of vowels and diphthongs is marked by the symbol 'following the first/only vowel symbol (including u) other than i:

dà'	"buy"	[da̪]
dà'a	"market"	[daː]
kù'em	"water"	[kʰu̯e̯m]

pu̯'ā	"woman"	[bµゐg]
dįā'	"get dirty"	[dɪ̯a̯]

Nasalisation of vowels and diphthongs is marked by \check{n} following the entire vowel or diphthong unless it is also glottalised, in which case the \check{n} precedes the mark; \check{n} also precedes the raised dot of $\cdot o$.

tēεňs	"lands"	[tʰɛ̃:s]
áňsìb	"mother's brother'	'[ãsɪb]
gēň	"get tired"	[gɛ̃]
gēň'	"get angry"	[gɛ̃]
gēň'ɛd	id (ipfv)	[gɛ̃:d]
āň∙o	"be him/her"	[ãʊ̃]

After initial y or w nasalisation is instead marked with \check{n} before the y or w:

```
ňwām "calabash" [w̃am]
```

The sequences [ia] [ua] [ia] [ue], with their nasalised and glottalised counterparts, arise from **Agolle Vowel Breaking**. ia ua ia ua are digraphs for *phonemic* monophthongs, though realised *phonetically* as diphthongs 4.1.1.

pìəlıg	"white"	[pʰiəlɪg]
bū'es	"ask"	[bu̯es]
tiàk	"change"	[tʰɪ̯ak]
puāk	"female"	[pʰʊ̯ak]
kpjà'	"shape wood"	[k͡pɪ̯a̞]
kįà	"cut"	[kʰi̯a]

Contrast the *phonemic* diphthongs in e.g.

kpì'a	"neighbour"	[kpjia]	
sīa	"waist"	[sia]	

1.3.1 Word division

Nominal compounds are hyphenated rather than written solid as in traditional orthography. Nominal combining forms 9.1 are not word fragments but clitic words, and compounds are not single words but a particular type of noun *phrase*. Compounding occurs constantly where other languages would use uncompounded phrases, and compounds may even incorporate uncompounded elements 16.9.

zīm-gbáň'àd	"fisherman"	wāb-kúùd	"elephant-killer"
bì-fūug	"children's shirt"	pu̯'à-sāň'am	"adulterer"
bù-pìəlıg	"white goat"	bù-kàŋā	"this goat"
bὺ-pìəl-kàŋā	"this white goat"	wāb-píəlìg	"white elephant"

Nominals with prefixes, loanwords, and unanalysable stems are written solid:

kpùkpàrıg	"palm tree"	tītā'ar	"big"
wāb-títā'ar	"big elephant"	Ňwāmpūrıl	"Mampruli"
bùrkìn	"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 <u>14.1.4</u>.

Pronouns reduced to single consonants by apocope are still written as independent words:

```
Fù bóɔdī_m."You love me."[fʊbɔ:dɪm]2SG want 1SG.0B."I love you."[mbɔ:dɪf]M bóɔdī_f."I love you."1SG want 2SG.0B.
```

The 3sg animate object pronoun o [v] "him/her" loses its entire segmental form by apocope 2.3, after causing the host final vowel mora to become [v]. The LF-final vowel mora has traditionally been mistaken for the pronoun itself and written as a separate word. As a concession to tradition, the final vowel mora is separated from the rest of the host by a raised point $\cdot o$; the LF is written as ending in $\cdot o$ -o.

```
"You love her."
Fù bɔ́ɔd·ō ø.
                                                          [fʊbɔ:dʊ]
2SG want
            3AN.OB.
           bóod·ó-o
                                "You don't love her."
Fù pū
                                                          [fʊpʰʊbɔ:dʊ:]
                       +ø.
2SG NEG.IND want-3AN.OB NEG.
Fù ἤyέ·ο ø.
                                "You've seen her."
                                                          [fʊjɛ̃ʊ̃]
2SG see
           3AN.OB.
                                                          [fʊpʰʊjɛ̃ʊ̃:]
Fὺ ρῦ
           ňyē·ó-o
                      +ø.
                                "You've not seen her."
2SG NEG.IND See-3AN.OB NEG.
```

The locative enclitic $n\varepsilon$ and the discontinuous-past marker $n\varepsilon$ are reduced to n by apocope. Like the enclitic 2pl subject pronoun ya, they are traditionally written solid with the preceding word, but they follow allomorphs of complete words, with liaison changes just as before the object pronouns. The enclitic 2pl subject ya is in complementary distribution with the proclitic pronoun ya and the locative enclitic $n\varepsilon$ is in complementary distribution with the ordinary enclitic particle $n\bar{\iota}^{+/}$. Like all liaison enclitics they are clearly words and not flexions morphosyntactically; for phonological evidence of 4.45.4. In the orthography of this grammar they are accordingly separated from preceding words by hyphens:

pōυgυ-n "inside"
inside:**sg-Loc**bɔ̀ɔdī-n "might wish"
want-**pp**

The personifier clitic \grave{a} , which is traditionally written solid with the following word, will here be hyphenated, as it is a particle capable of being attached to entire phrases, like English possessive clitic "'s" 16.6.

À-Wīn "Awini" (personal name)

PERS-personal.spirit:sg

1.3.2 Written materials

Written materials are cited in their original orthography. Tone is unmarked. The clusters *II mm nn* are very often written single prior to 2016.

KSS uses ng throughout for η .

Older orthography writes \underline{e} o for ε \supset , i for both i and ι , u for both u and v; \underline{e} o are sometimes also used unsystematically for ι v as root vowels. The 2016 Bible uses the same basic conventions as this grammar except that it does not distinguish $[i]\sim[i]:tiig=ti\iota g$ "tree", $biig=b\overline{\iota}ig$ "child."

Word-final short - ι after m n is usually written ε in KB: $p\varepsilon ban\varepsilon$ for $p\overline{\varepsilon}$ '- $b\acute{a}n\grave{\iota}$ "sheep which ..." Mk 6:34; so in all cases with the relative pronouns $on\varepsilon$ $kan\varepsilon$ $lin\varepsilon$ $ban\varepsilon$ 28.2.3 and with $an\sigma$ '> $n\varepsilon$ "who?" before liaison.

The root-vowel is consistently written as e in KB in the words ye "that" $te\eta$ "land" $ke\eta$ "go" (pfv) ken "go" (ipfv) for $y\bar{\epsilon}$ $t\bar{\epsilon}\eta$ $k\bar{\epsilon}\eta$, where my informants have [ϵ]. The form ye is probably due to the unstressed nature of the particle, but the other words may reflect actual variants with ι [ι]: compare Toende $t\bar{\iota}\eta$ "land", Mampruli $ti\eta\eta a$ "land" versus Toende $me\eta$, Mampruli $ma\eta\eta a = m\bar{\epsilon}\eta$ "self."

The demonstrative and pronoun forms $\bar{\partial}n/\partial n/\partial n$ $\partial n\bar{\partial}$ are written on ona. As in this grammar, e o are used non-initially in diphthongs for [1] [v]. The phonemic monophthongs $i\partial u\theta$ are written respectively as ie uo:

pielig	pìəlıg	"white"	[pʰiəlɪg]
bu'os	bū'es	"ask"	[bu̯e̯s]

ie uo are also used to write the phonemic *diphthongs ie uo* [iɪ] [uʊ] but the ambiguity is marginal, because *ie uo* only appear word-finally and in *-iey-*, while *iə uo* only appear word-internally before consonants, and in external sandhi 8.5.3:

di'e	dī'e	"receive"	[djiɪ]
zu o	zú∙o	"steal him"	[zuʊ]

The 2016 orthography writes -ue [uɪ] as -uoe and -ve [vɪ] as -voe (similarly when nasalised and/or glottalised): $duoe = d\bar{u}e$ "raise, rise", $sv'oe = s\bar{v}'e$ "own."

The diphthong io [iv] is written io in the 1976 NT but ieu later: thus kpi'on "strong" [kpiyn] is kpi'on in the 1976 NT, kpi'eun in the 1996 NT and KB.

Traditional orthography uses e i u for non-moraic e i u and thus does not mark length in diphthongs consistently, but only two length contrasts are actually found in phonemic diphthongs $\underline{4.2.3}$. The distinction ae/ae is expressed by writing \underline{aae} (or \underline{aae}) for \underline{ae} versus \underline{ae} for \underline{ae} :

```
paae pāe "reach" [pʰaɪ]
```

The contrast av/au is not marked. KB uses both au and av, spelling each individual word consistently, but not as marking any length distinction: thus yavg "grave" for yavg, but na'araug "ox" for $n\bar{a}'-d\dot{a}\dot{v}g$; dau for $d\bar{a}u$ "man" but tavn for $t\bar{a}u\bar{n}$ "sibling of opposite sex." Ambiguity appears word-medially before g:

gbauŋ	gbāun	"skin"	[g͡baʊ̯ŋ]
mangauŋ	màngávŋ	"crab"	[maŋgaʊŋ]

The use of ia ua for the short monophthongs \underline{ia} \underline{ua} creates potential ambiguity with word-final \underline{ia} \underline{ua} :

kia	kįà	"cut"	[kʰi̯a]
sia	sīa	"waist"	[sia]
kua	k <u>u</u> ā	"hoe"	[kʰʊ̯a]
sabua	sàbùa	"lover"	[sabua]

The convention that ' is not written after i when it represents j disambiguates

kpi'a	kpì'a ⁺	"neighbour"	[k͡pi̯a̯]
kpia'	kpjà'+	"shape wood"	[k͡pɪ̯a̯]

Before 2016, u'a [va] was usually written o'a, but did not even then contrast consistently with u'a representing u'a [va]. All u'a v'a and v'a are now written u'a.

po'a or pu'a	pu̯'ā	"woman"	[bրထီ
po'ab or pu'ab	pū'ab	"women"	[þʰʊ̯a̞b]

NT/KB write -ey- in Long Forms 2.3 corresponding to Short Forms where final -y has become -e: vveya = vvya Long Form of vveya "be alive." Older NT versions also write bveya "living things" as bunveya, but KB has the expected bvnvvya.

After the low root vowels a and a, epenthetic ι is often written a:

```
sa(n)rega sārīgá "prison" [sarīga]
```

The 2016 orthography writes *bieya* for *biēyá* "elder same-sex siblings" etc, but suoya for suēyá "roads", zuoya for zuēya "hills" etc by analogy with the singulars. suor sūer and zuor zūer. Older sources write sueya, zueya.

Traditional orthography omits word-internal y after i, except with Long Forms 2.3 ending in -ya; thus $d\bar{u}n_iya^+$ "world" and $l\acute{a}afiya^+$ "health" are written dunia and laafia although they end in [i], not in the diphthong ia.

For nasalisation, plain n is used for the \check{n} of this grammar:

tεεns	tēεňs	"lands"	[tʰɛ̃:s]
gɛn'	gēň'	"get angry"	[gɛ̃]
gɛn'ɛd	gēň'ɛd	id (ipfv)	[gɛ̃ːd]
nwam	ňwām	"calabash"	[w̃ãm]

As prefix vowels show no contrastive nasalisation, n ending a prefix (not a combining form) in traditional orthography must represent the consonant n:

dunduug	dùndùug	"cobra"	[dundu:g]
---------	---------	---------	-----------

Elsewhere, the constraints on word-internal consonant clusters usually prevent ambiguity, except when the n would be word-final without even a following glottalisation mark. Here the orthography formerly wrote nn to mark nasalisation, but the 2016 system unfortunately uses an ambiguous single n:

kεn (older kenn)	kēň	"come"	(pfv)	[kʰε̃]
kεn (older ken)	kēn	"coming'	' (gerund)	[kʰεn]

Some NT/KB spellings represent **variant forms** different from those used by my informants; the words in question are probably loans from Toende Kusaal <u>15.1</u>.

NT/KB	WK's forms	Toende Kusaal	
Wina'am	Wínnà'am	Wínā'am	"God"
faangid	fāaňd	fãagıt	"saviour"
faangir	fáaňr	fãagıt	"salvation"

Wínà'am fāangíd fāangír are used when transliterating Bible verses. Fāangíd fāangír have become independent words, used to avoid the homophony with fāand "robber" and fáanr "robbery."

NT versions prior to 2016 write <code>aarun</code> for <code>anrun</code> "boat" (cf Toende <code>aarun</code>), and <code>malek</code> for <code>maliak</code> "angel" (Toende <code>maliak</code>); KB has the expected <code>anrun</code> and <code>maliak</code> throughout, matching the usage of all my informants and of the audio 1996 version.

The spelling *nyain* appears for nyaie "brightly" even in texts prior to 2016, where *nyainn* would be expected. The 1992 audio NT renders it [$\tilde{j}\tilde{a}\tilde{i}$].

Foreign proper names in the Bible 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 later versions than in the 1976 New Testament. There is no systematic relationship between the English pronunciation and the Kusaal renderings, and the 1996 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.

Traditional **word division** can generally be obtained from the orthography of this grammar by writing all hyphenated groups solid, and by replacing the raised dot symbol \cdot by word division.

Thus, compounds are written solid, except when a cb happens to have the same segmental form as the sq:

ziŋgban'ad	zīm-gbáň'àd	"fisherman"
bukaŋa	bù-kàŋā	"this goat"
yamug bipun	yàmmug-bī-púŋ	"slave girl" <u>9.2.2</u>

Pronouns are written as separate words when they have vowels of their own:

```
Fv bɔɔdi ti. "You love us." [fʊbɔ:dɪtʰɪ] Fv bɔ́ɔdī tí.

25G want 1PL.OB.
```

KB writes the Short Form 2.3 pronouns m f solid with the preceding word:

```
Fv bɔɔdim. "You love me." [fʊbɔ:dɪm]
Fù bɔ́ɔdī_m.

25G want 15G.0B.

M bɔɔdif. "I love you." [m̩bɔ:dɪf]
M bɔ́ɔdī_f.

15G want 25G.0B.

Prior to 2016, object m was written separately. It occurs before liaison 8.2 in
```

```
Fu noni mi n gat bamaa?

Fù nónī mī n gát bámmáa +ø?

2SG love 1SG.OB CAT pass:IPFV DEM.DEI.PL PQ?

"Do you love me more than these?" (Jn 21:15, 1976)
```

With $2 \operatorname{sg} f$ the final mora was separated from the verb and joined to the pronoun, creating spurious pronouns *if uf*; thus *M bood if* and

In the case of the 3sg animate pronoun, as noted above, the LF-final rounded vowel preceding the segmentally-zero Short Form of the pronoun has traditionally been mistaken for the pronoun itself and written as a separate word.

```
Fv bood o."You love her."[fvbo:dv]Fò bóod·ō ø.25G want 3AN.OB."You don't love her."[fvphvbo:dv:]Fò pō bóod·ó-o +ø.25G NEG.IND want-3AN.OB NEG.
```

```
Fu nye o. "You've seen her." [fvj\tilde{\epsilon}ṽ]

Fù nyé o ø.

25G see 3an.ob.

"You've not seen her." [fvj\tilde{\epsilon}ṽ]

Fu pu nye oo. "You've not seen her." [fvphvj\tilde{\epsilon}ṽ:]

Fù pv̄ nyē oo +ø.

25G NEG.IND see-3an.ob neg.
```

In traditional orthography, focus- $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ is always written solid after $\grave{a}(\check{n})$ from $\grave{a}\check{e}\check{n}^a$ "be", and temporal $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ is usually written solid with a preceding verb:

```
"He/she's a child."
O ane biig.
Ò à nē bīja.
3AN COP FOC child:SG.
Bipuŋ la pv kpii, o gbisidnε.
Bī-pún
              lā pū
                          kpíi <sup>+</sup>ø, ò gbìsıd
Child-girl:sg art neg.ind die neg, 3an sleep:ipfv foc.
"The girl is not dead, she is sleeping." (Mt 9:24)
N\bar{\varepsilon} "with" is written solid after w\bar{\varepsilon}n^{\text{na/}} "resemble":
Ka o nindaa wenne nintan ne.
Kà ò nīn-dáa
                      wĒn
                                  nē nīntān nē.
And 3AN eye-face:SG resemble with sun:SG like.
"His face is like the sun." (Rev 10:1, 1996)
```

In KB $w\bar{\epsilon}n n\bar{\epsilon}$ appears as $nw\epsilon n\epsilon$: Ka o nindaa $nw\epsilon n\epsilon$ winnig $n\epsilon$.

A stressed final syllable 2.2 is sometimes mistaken for a segmentally homophonous particle; this is rare in KB, however.

```
O ku nyaŋe liebi m nya'andol la.

O kù nyānu ø líəbù m nya'an-dòllā +ø.

BAN NEG.IRR prevail CAT become 1sG after-follower:sG NEG.

"He cannot become my disciple." (Lk 14:26, 1996; 2016 nya'andɔlla.)

Arezana nɛ dunia gaadug pu tɔi yaa

Àrazánà nē dūnuya gáadug pu tɔi yaa

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

"The passing of heaven and earth is not difficult" (Lk 16:17, 2016)
```

1.4 Outline of Kusaal grammar

1sg child:sg voc!

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** 2.3), 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 $b\bar{i}ig^a$ normally appears in the **Short Form** (SF) $b\bar{i}ig$. However, this change is not a simple historical matter, like the loss of the earlier word-final vowel in French *mer* \leftarrow Latin *mare*; 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."
3AN COP FOC child:sG.
Ò kā' bīiga +ø. "He/she is not a child."
3AN NEG.BE child:sG NEG.
Ò à nē bíigàa +ø? "Is he/she a child?"
3AN COP FOC child:sG PQ?
So too at the end of vocative phrases:
M bīiga +ø! "My child!"
```

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

```
Lì k\bar{a}' gb\bar{\iota}g\iota mn\varepsilon^+ \emptyset. "It's not a lion." 

3INAN NEG.BE lion:SG NEG.

Lì à n\bar{\varepsilon} gb\bar{\iota}g\iota m. "It's a lion." 

3INAN COP FOC lion:SG.
```

This appearance of surface untruncated forms rather than truncated is regarded as being triggered by following **prosodic clitics**, which have no segmental form of their own but show their presence by this effect on the preceding word form. There are four prosodic clitics: negative **NEG**, vocative **VOC**, polar-guestion **PQ** and

content-question \mathbf{cq} , with different effects on preceding vowel length and tone. In interlinear glossing they are represented by $^+ \mathbf{ø}$, as above.

In citing word forms, superscripts 2.3.1 will be used to write the parts of words which are dropped everywhere except before prosodic clitics and liaison: $b\bar{l}ig^a$ "child", $qb\bar{l}qtm^{n\epsilon}$ "lion", $k\bar{v}k^a$ "chair", $d\bar{v}k^{3}$ "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

usually appears with apocope as the Short Form $v\bar{\imath}id$ with the same long vowel as $b\bar{\imath}is$ "children", shortened from $b\bar{\imath}is\epsilon$, while the singular Long Form

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

After the deletion of the final - σ , the diphthong itself now contrasts with the vowel of $b\bar{i}ig$ "child", shortened from $b\bar{i}iga$ as seen above. Similarly

```
āaňdıga "black plum tree"
```

has the default epenthetic vowel ι before the flexion, and appears as $\bar{a}a\check{n}d\iota g$ after apocope, whereas

```
gàadvgɔ "passing" (gerund)
```

has rounding of the vowel to v before the flexion - g_2 , and after the loss of the final vowel this rounding itself becomes contrastive in the usual Short Form $g\grave{a}advg$.

Certain **liaison words** 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:

```
\dot{M} p\bar{v} b\acute{o}od\bar{a} +g. "I don't want to." 
1SG NEG.IND want NEG. Long Form b\grave{o}od\bar{a} preceding negative clitic.
```

 \dot{M} $b\acute{o}od\bar{\iota}$ $b\acute{a}$ "I love them."1SG want3PL.OB.Modified Long Form $b\grave{o}od\bar{\iota}$ before liaison. \dot{M} $p\bar{\upsilon}$ $z\acute{a}b\bar{\varepsilon}$ "I haven't fought."1SG NEG.IND fight NEG.Long Form $z\grave{a}b\bar{\varepsilon}$ preceding negative clitic. \dot{M} $z\acute{a}b\bar{\iota}$ b\'{a}."I've fought them."1SG fight3PL.OB.Modified Long Form $z\grave{a}b\bar{\iota}$ before liaison.

With interlinear glossing, liaison is marked by ___, as above.

Apocope reduces several liaison words of the underlying form CV to a single consonant. Thus with $b \ni cd^a$ "wants, loves" and f^a "you (sg)":

 \dot{M} $p\bar{v}$ $b\acute{o}od\bar{\iota}_{}$ $f\acute{o}$ $^{+}$ ø. "I don't love you." **1SG NEG.IND** want **2SG.OB NEG**. Long Form fo of the pronoun "you (sg)" \dot{M} $b\acute{o}od\bar{\iota}_{}$ f. "I love you." **1SG want 2SG.OB**. Short Form f of the pronoun "you (sg)"

The locative postposition n^{ε} is another such word. It is conventionally written solid with the preceding host word, but hyphenated to it in this grammar:

```
Ιì
                                  "It's not a chair."
      kā
             kūka
3INAN NEG.BE chair:SG NEG.
Lì
     kā'
            kūkι-nέ
                          +ø.
                                  "It's not in a chair."
3INAN NEG.BE chair:SG-LOC NEG.
                                  "in a chair"
kūkı-n
chair:sg-Loc
Lì
      kā'
             dūkɔ́ +ø.
                                  "It's not a pot."
3INAN NEG.BE pot:SG NEG.
Lì
      kā'
                                  "It's not in a pot."
             dūkί-nĒ
                         +ø.
3INAN NEG.BE pot:SG-LOC NEG.
dōkί-n
                                  "in a pot"
pot:sg-Loc
```

The 3sg animate object pronoun o "him/her" has the Long Form o [v] 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 [v] to [v], which is always written with a preceding raised point as v.

Compare the forms with forms with forms with of "him/her":

```
Μ̈́pū
          bɔ́ɔdī fɔ́
                         +ø.
                               "I don't love you."
1SG NEG.IND want 2SG.OB NEG.
                               "I love you"
M bóodī f.
1SG want 2SG.OB.
                               "I don't love him/her."
Ϋ οῦ
          bóod·ó-o
                       +ø.
                                                              [mphobo:do:]
1SG NEG.IND want-3AN.OB NEG.
                               Long Form o of the pronoun "him/her"
M bóod·ō ø.
                               "I love him/her."
                                                              [mbo:do]
                               Short Form ø of the pronoun "him/her"
1sg want
            3AN.OB.
```

A liaison word form y^a 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 after front vowels by apocope is deleted:

```
Gòsim! "Look!"

Look:IMP!

Gòsimī ø! "Look ye!" by apocope from gòsimī-yá

Look:IMP 2PL.SUB!
```

Liaison words are not all enclitic. Personal pronoun subjects and predeterminers also cause inhibition of apocope in the preceding word, as does one proclitic particle \grave{a} - and all words beginning with certain derivational prefixes.

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.

```
    m zūgó ø zàbid lā zúg
    15G head:sG Nz fight:IPFV ART upon
    "because my head hurts" (nominaliser-n)
    M zūgv ø zábìd. "My head hurts." (catenator-n)
    15G head:sG CAT 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."

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.

Agolle Kusaal shows a systematic mismatch between phonetics and phonemics in the vowel system, because of **Agolle Vowel Breaking** 4.1.1 of earlier short and long ε \supset vowels, still preserved as phonetic monophthongs in the Toende dialect. This has produced four phonemes $\dot{i}a$ $\dot{u}a$ $\dot{i}a$ $\dot{u}a$ $\dot{$

Kusaal is **tonal**, like the great 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. Original H has become M (Mid), and the new toneme takes the place of H.

There is a frequent **tone overlay** marking verbal predicators in main clauses, and pervasive external **tone sandhi**.

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.

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

dī əsídib bāŋıdıb gbīgımnɛ

"receivers"

"wise men"

"lion" (longer form, as above)

The only consonant clusters possible within stems following the root are kk tt $pp \eta\eta nn mm \parallel mn$, of which kk tt $pp \eta\eta$ are written and usually realised as single. For kp gb n 'see Orthography 1.3. Consonant clusters cannot occur word-initially or finally, except for final geminate -mm in Long Forms where there has been loss of syllabicity in an originally syllabic final m.

Many nouns, and one adjective, have a **noun prefix** before the root, taking the forms CV- or CVn-, or less often CVlin- or CVsin-. Nouns with prefixes may thus contain -nC- clusters at the junction between the prefix and the rest of the stem:

```
pīpīrig "desert" dìndēog "chameleon"
```

Other word-internal clusters are confined to loanwords.

Flexional **suffixes**, like prefixes, have only a three-way vowel contrast $a/\iota/\upsilon$. Suffix vowels are lost by apocope in the surface Short Forms; when they are retained before prosodic clitics, ι υ appear lowered to ε υ . Clusters of two consonants cccur freely across word division (including within compounds) due to apocope of word-final short vowels:

```
Gbīgım lā dāa kōvd búŋ lā. Lion:sg art tns kill:IPFV donkey:sg art. "The lion (gb\bar{\iota}g\iota m^{n\epsilon}) was killing (k\bar{\upsilon}\upsilon d^{al}) the donkey (b\dot{\upsilon} \eta^a)."
```

Most common **particles** are short clitics, like the postposed article $l\bar{a}$ and the preverbal tense marker $d\bar{a}a$ in this example.

Flexion is entirely by suffixing, as is all productive stem derivation. Noun prefixes do not usually have identifiable meanings, but prefixes derived from older flexions occur in some quantifiers and adverbs.

Kusaal flexional morphology is underlyingly fairly straightforward, but with some morphophonemic complications. These words all belong to the same $g^a|s^{\epsilon}$ noun class:

bīig	"child"	bīis	"children"
sàbùa	"lover"	sàbùes	"lovers"
nūa	"hen"	ทวิวร	"hens"
kūk	"chair"	kūgus	"chairs"
zàk	"compound"	zà'as	"compounds"
dà'a	"market"	dà'as	"markets"
bùŋ	"donkey"	bùmıs	"donkeys"
tēŋ	"land"	tēεňs	"lands"

Noun flexion marks 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 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 **postdeterminer pronoun**:

```
b\bar{\nu}\nu g^a "goat" +pi\partial_l g^a "white" \rightarrow b\dot{\nu}-pi\partial_l g^a "white goat" +s\bar{l}a^+ "another" \rightarrow b\dot{\nu}-s\bar{l}a^+ "another goat" k\bar{\nu}k^a "chair" +pi\partial_l g^a "white" \rightarrow k\dot{\nu}g-pi\partial_l g^a "white chair" +k\dot{a}\eta\bar{a}^{+/} "this" \rightarrow k\dot{\nu}g-k\dot{a}\eta\bar{a}^{+/} "this chair"
```

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 natural animate/inanimate gender opposition. Noun classes remain central to noun 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 **perfective** aspect and marking the **imperfective** aspect with a single suffix $-d^a$. There are few real irregularities, though unobvious consonant changes and vowel deletions again complicate the surface picture:

kū⁺	perfective	"kill" (+ means that the vowel is long in the LF)
kūυd ^{a/}	imperfective	
ňyē̄ ⁺	perfective	"see"
ňyē̄t ^{a/}	imperfective	
νūl ^ε	perfective	"swallow"
vūn ^{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 has either **stative** or **dynamic imperfective** aspect depending on the verb:

```
Ò dìgι nē. "She's lying down."
3AN be.lying.down Foc.
Ò mòr búŋ. "She has a donkey."
3AN have donkey:sg.
Ò gìm. "She's short."
3AN be.short.
```

There are two **verbs** "**to be**": $b\dot{\epsilon}$ "exist, be in a place" and $\grave{a}\underline{e}\check{n}$ "be something/somehow." The latter verb is usually followed by the focus particle $n\bar{\epsilon}$ (in this case focussing the complement) whenever this is syntactically permitted, and then loses both the final \underline{e} and the nasalisation:

```
\dot{O} à n\bar{\varepsilon} b\bar{\imath}ig. "He's a child." 
3AN COP FOC child:SG.
```

The two "be" verbs share a common negative-verb counterpart $k\bar{a}$ 'e "not be", which usually appears as $k\bar{a}$ ' clause-medially:

```
\dot{O} k\bar{a}' b\bar{i}iga ^+\emptyset. "He's not a child."
```

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:

```
kōυb<sup>ɔ/</sup> "killing"
kōυd<sup>a/</sup> "killer"
kōυd(η<sup>a</sup> "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:

```
gbìgım-kūvd<sup>a/</sup> "lion-killer"
```

Syntactically, Kusaal is strictly **SVO**, with indirect objects preceding direct:

```
M tís dụ'átà bóŋ lā.
1SG give 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**, $n\bar{\varepsilon}$ "with" and $w\bar{\upsilon}\upsilon$ "like" ($n\bar{\varepsilon}$ also links NPs and some AdvPs in the sense "and", but $k\grave{a}$ is "and" when linking VPs and clauses.)

In other respects Kusaal prefers head-final structures, with **possessors**, for example, always preceding their heads:

```
m bīig "my child" dāu lā bîig "the man's child"
```

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

```
tέεbὺl lā zúg "onto the table" (zūg "head")
```

The liaison word n^{ε} mentioned above is a very general locative postposition. It is hyphenated to the preceding word, and in its Short Form is reduced to n:

```
m\dot{v}'ar\bar{\iota}-n "in a lake" (m\dot{v}'ar\bar{\varepsilon} "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:

```
Gbīgım lā dāa kō búŋ lā.
Lion:sg art tns kill donkey:sg art.
"The lion killed the donkey."

Gbīgım lā dāa pō kō búŋ láa +ø.
Lion:sg art tns neg.ind kill donkey:sg art neg.
"The lion didn't kill the donkey."

Gbīgım lā sá kò búŋ lā.
Lion:sg art tns kill donkey:sg art.
"The lion killed the donkey yesterday."
```

The **focus** particle $n\bar{\varepsilon}$ appears frequently after a verb in a *temporal* sense; it limits the sense of the predicator, implying "at the time referred to in particular.":

```
Nīdıb kpîid. "People die."

Person:PL die:IPFV.

Nīdıb kpîid 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 it also focusses VP constituents or entire VPs. With stative verbs like $\grave{a} e \check{n}$ "be something" above, the temporal 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 by **VP chaining**. Kusaal uses the linker particle n **cat** to introduce an additional verb phrase; in this example t "give" is used, as very often, simply as means of adding an indirect object:

```
M dāa kúès bòŋv ø tís dự'átà.
1sg tns sell donkey:sg cat give doctor:sg.
"I sold a donkey to Doctor."
```

In Kusaal the verbal predicate is specifically marked not for subordination but for its absence. Main and content clauses have **independency marking** of the first verbal predicator, marked by a **tone overlay** affecting the first word of the predicator, the tonal behaviour of subject pronouns, a special imperative flexion and a particle $y\bar{a}$ which follows clause-final perfectives. The tone overlay marker is absent in negative polarity or irrealis mood and with various preverbal particles.

Independency marking itself is completely absent after the clause-linker particle $k\grave{a}$ even in *coordinating* function, as in narrative:

```
    Ò zàb dụ'átà. "He's fought the doctor."
    3AN fight doctor:sg.
    Ò gòs dụ'átà. "He's looked at the doctor."
    3AN look.at doctor:sg.
```

with the verbs zàb gòs showing identical tones because of the overlay; contrast

```
Kà ò záb dự'átà. "And he's fought the doctor."
And 3AN fight doctor:sg.
```

 \dot{K} à \dot{o} $g\bar{\jmath}s$ $d\dot{u}$ 'átà. "And he's looked at the doctor." And **3AN** look.at 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 dự'átāa +ø! "Don't look at the doctor!"

NEG.IMP look.at doctor:sg NEG!

but Gòsim du'átà! "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 $y\dot{a}'$ "if" after their own subject, appear before the main clause subject:

```
Fù yá' bòɔd, m̀ ná tīst f búŋ.

25G if want, 15G IRR give 25G.0B donkey:5G.

"If you want, I'll give you a donkey."
```

Clauses are often downranked by insertion of the nominaliser particle \grave{n} (very frequently realised as segmental \varnothing) after the subject:

```
gbīgım lá g kō búŋ "the lion having killed the donkey" lion:sg art nz kill donkey:sg art
```

One type of relative clause is internally-headed:

```
[Paul \grave{n} sɔ̄b gbáu̞ŋ-sī'a n tís Efesus dím lā] ø ňwá. Paul NZ write letter-INDF.INAN CAT give Ephesus one.PL ART CAT this. "This is [the letter Paul wrote to the Ephesians]." (NT heading)
```

Here $gb\grave{a}\underline{u}\eta$ - $s\vec{l}$ a is $gb\grave{a}\underline{u}\eta$ "book" compounded with the postdeterminer pronoun $s\vec{l}$ a which marks it as antecedent, and the entire sequence Paul ... $l\bar{a}$ is the relative clause. The subordinator is not the pronoun but the nominaliser particle n.

Kusaal has also developed an antecedent-initial relative clause type where the nominaliser has fused with a preceding demonstrative to form a relative pronoun:

```
d\grave{a}\underline{u}-k\grave{a}nı p\underline{u}'\bar{a} kpi l\bar{a} "the man whose wife has died" man-Rel.sg wife:sg die ART
```

Subordinate clauses may be introduced by the linker particles $y\bar{\varepsilon}$ or $k\dot{a}$, expressing purpose, result etc.

```
\dot{M} ná tī f tíìm yế fờ nīf dā zábē ^+Ø.

1SG IRR give 2SG.OB medicine that 2SG eye:SG NEG.IMP fight NEG.

"I'll give you medicine so your eye won't hurt."
```

Kà can introduce adnominal clauses, with a meaning like a non-restrictive relative clause:

```
Lì à n\bar{\epsilon} gbīgım lá kà \dot{m} n\bar{\gamma}\bar{\epsilon}t.

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

"It's the lion I see."
```

Kusaal **narrative** links clause after clause with $k\grave{a}$, 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 $d\grave{a}$ occurs only in the first clause. The second $k\grave{a}$ is preposing the time expression $d\~{a}$ are $y\={t}$ nn \acute{t} , part of a 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
                                                     bíìg
                                                             mà'aa.
PERS-NEG.IND-fear:IPFV-thing:sg tns cop foc 3AN father:sg child:sg only.
Kà dāar yīnní kà bīig
                             lā nέ ò
                                          sàam
                                                   zíň'i ø sɔ̃ňsıd.
And day:sg one and child:sg art with 3an father:sg sit
                                                         CAT converse: IPFV.
Kà bīig
            lā tí
                           vèl ò sàam
                                            νē ...
And child:sg art afterwards say 3an 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

Content clauses are formally identical to main clauses, and likewise display independency marking, but have personal pronouns altered as in indirect speech. Content clauses are used for reporting speech and also very generally after verbs expressing communication or thought. Most often they are introduced by $y\bar{\varepsilon}$ "that." There are **logophoric** uses of contrastive personal pronouns within content clauses.

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 ø mɔrí ò pu'à-yīmmír, kà pu'ā lā yé Man:sg tns exist cat have 3an wife-single:sg and wife:sg art say \bar{b} \bar
```

Clefting constructions are common; they have given rise to ellipted structures using n for focussing subjects and $k\grave{a}$ for foregrounding other elements:

```
M zūgυ ø zábìd. "My head is hurting."
15G head cat fight:IPFV. (Reply to "Where is the pain?")
Gbīgím kà m dāa ňyē. "It was a lion that I saw."
Lion:sG and 15G TNS see.
```

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

```
Fù bớờd bố + \varnothing? "What do you want?" 25G want what cQ?

Bố kà fừ ňy\bar{\epsilon}tá + \varnothing? "What can you see?" What and 25G see:IPFV CQ?

Ànố'ɔnì \varnothing k\bar{\nu} búŋ l\bar{a} + \varnothing? Who cAT kill donkey:SG ART CQ? "Who has killed the donkey?"
```

Place and manner adjuncts may only precede the subject by preposing with $k\dot{a}$:

```
Mām bέ nē mɔ̄ɔgv-n. "I'm in the bush." BNY p8 

1SG.CNTR EXIST FOC grass:SG-LOC.

Mɔ̄ɔgύ-n kà mām bέ. "I'm in the bush." BNY p10 (kà required) 

Grass:SG-LOC and 1SG.CNTR EXIST.
```

Morphophonemics

2 Words, morae and syllables

2.1 Word classes

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 $l\bar{a}^{+/}$. 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*; the distinction between clitics and flexions is made along the lines suggested in Zwicky and Pullum 1983. 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 noun and adjective combining forms, but denies it to prefixes.

The open word classes comprise **verbs** and **nominals**, the latter subdivided into **nouns** and **adjectives** along with closed subclasses of **quantifiers**, **adverbs**, and **pronominals**. **Ideophones** are treated in 16.11.1.3.

All other words are **particles**. Most particles are bound words; exceptions include $\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon\check{n}$ "yes" and $\acute{a}y\grave{\iota}\iota$ "no." Particles include the article $l\bar{a}^{+/}$ and the deictic $\check{n}w\grave{a}^{+}$ "this", the locative marker $n\bar{\iota}^{+/}\sim n^{\epsilon}$, the prepositions $n\bar{\epsilon}$ "with" and $w\bar{\nu}\nu$ "like", preverbs and markers of tense, aspect and mood in verbal predicators, the focus particle $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$, the clause linkers $k\grave{a}$ and $y\bar{\epsilon}$, nominaliser-n, catenator-n, VP-final $n\bar{a}^{+/}$ "hither" and $s\grave{a}^{+}$ "hence", and a number of clause-level words such as conjunctions and emphatics.

2.2 Morae, syllables and stress

All segments constitute **morae**, except for consonants immediately followed by vowels within the same word; other consonants represent **non-vocalic** morae. Written $k p t \eta$ between vowels represent $kk pp tt \eta \eta$, so that e.g. $s\acute{u}$ 'e η SF "rabbit" has three morae, while the LF $s\acute{u}$ 'e $\eta\bar{a}$ has four. Vocalic morae are the domain of **tone**, but not all vocalic morae bear a toneme 5.2 5.4.

Stress operates with **syllables**; all vocalic morae form syllables, except for the final morae of 2- and 3-mora vowels/diphthongs.

Three-mora vowel sequences are disyllabic, with syllable division following the first mora: LF $n\bar{u}$ -áa "hen."

Word stress falls on the root, except before a prosodic clitic <u>8.1</u>, where it falls on the last syllable. 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 $m\dot{\epsilon}$ "build (pfv)" $b\dot{v}\eta$ "donkey" 5n "he/she." Monosyllables with a long vowel, like $m\dot{\epsilon}\epsilon d$ "build (ipfv)" do have intrinsic stress.

Before pause, all intrinsically unstressed words acquire stress, including clitics like the article $l\bar{a}^{+/}$. Even a liaison enclitic 8.2.1 acquires stress if it has a vowel of its own, while its host retains its own stress.

Stress is important in allotony; downstepping before H tonemes is dependent on syllable structure and stress. See <u>5.3</u> for examples.

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

	dìtúŋ ^ɔ	[ˈdɪtːʊŋ]	"right hand", probably a derivative of dl^+ "eat"
	dàtìụŋ ^ɔ	[daˈtʰเซฺŋ]	"right hand"
	būtıŋ ^a	[ˈbʊt:ɪŋ]	"cup" (Instrument noun 13.1.1.3 from
			$b\dot{v}d^{\epsilon}$ "plant seeds", but now "cup" in general)
pl	būtus ^ε	[bʊˈtʰɪ:s]	wholly exceptional apparent lengthening
			of an epenthetic vowel $6.2.1$ via reanalysis of
			the sg as prefix $b\bar{v}$ + stem $t\bar{t}\eta^a$

2.3 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 $b\bar{\imath}ig$ 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" 8.2:

```
\dot{O} d\bar{a}a ny\bar{\epsilon} b\bar{n}ig. "She saw a child." 

3AN TNS see child:sg. "the child's hand" 

child:sg ART hand:sg
```

The Long Form (here, *bīiga*) 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 kā' bīiga +ø. "He/she is not a child."
3AN NEG.BE child:SG NEG.
Ò dāa pū ňyē bīiga +ø.
3AN TNS NEG.IND see child:SG NEG.
"He/she did not see a child."
Ànɔʻɔnì ø dāa ňyē bíigà +ø?
Who cat tns see child:sG cQ?
"Who saw a child?"
M bīiga +ø! "My child!"
1SG child:SG VOC!
```

The Long Form also appears as a **derivational** feature in the *citation* form of some words 6.4. Direct commands sometimes end in a LF 25.2.3.

The LF appears in a modified form before **liaison**, with LF final short vowels losing all contrasts of quality <u>8.2</u>.

The LF is not predictable in general from the shape of the SF alone (but see 2.3.2); however, the SF is always derivable from the LF by **apocope**:

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

Subsequently

Word-final consonant clusters drop the second consonant $(kk \ tt \ pp \ \eta\eta)$ become $k \ tp \ \eta$ but are *written* single in any case 1.3) Word-final y becomes e after back vowels and zero elsewhere

Shortening of final diphthongs by apocope (changes apply identically to nasalised and/or glottalised diphthongs):

```
ia \rightarrow ja ua \rightarrow ya ja'a \rightarrow ja' y'aa \rightarrow y'a

ae \rightarrow ae av \rightarrow ay ui \rightarrow uj

Vaa \rightarrow Va Vee \rightarrow Ve Vvv \rightarrow Vv
```

The term "apocope" will be used exclusively for this phenomenon. Apocope is described as a single process, but historically the matter was more complex: comparative and internal evidence suggests that loss of quality contrasts preceded the complete deletion of word-final vowels clause-medially, which was itself probably a stress-related process distinct from the clause-final apocope characteristic of Kusaal, Nabit and Talni. (Cf also on Toende word-final stop devoicing 3.1 fn.)

Examples:

```
Ιì
     à nē kūk.
                                 "It's a chair."
3INAN COP FOC chair:SG.
Κūk
        Ιā
             bódìg yā.
                                 "The chair has got lost."
Chair:sg ART get.lost PFV.
Lì
     kā'
                     +ø.
                                 "It's not a chair."
             kūka.
3INAN NEG.BE chair:SG NEG.
Lì
      à nĒ kύkàa
                       +ø?
                                 "Is it a chair?"
3INAN COP FOC chair:sg Po?
                                 "Who saw a chair?"
Ànó'onì ø ňyε kúkà
Who
         cat see chair:sg co?
Similarly, with the same frames (also using à 3AN "he/she", bà 3PL "they"):
Lì à nε dūk.
                                 "It's a cooking pot."
Dūk lā bódìg yā.
                                 "The pot's got lost."
Lì kā' dūkó.
                                 "It's not a pot."
                                                            /kk/
Lì à nē dūkɔ́ɔ?
                                 "Is it a pot?"
Ànó'ɔnì ňyē dūkó?
                                 "Who saw a pot?"
                                 "It's a lion."
Lì à nĒ gbīgim.
Lì kā' gbīgιmnε.
                                 "It's not a lion."
                                 "Is it a lion?"
Lì à nē gbígìmnee?
Ànó'ənì ňyē gbígìmne?
                                 "Who saw a lion?"
                                 "It's salt."
Lì à nĒ yáarìm.
Lì kā' yáarīmm.
                                 "It's not salt."
                                 "Is it salt?"
Lì à nĒ yáarìmm?
Ànό'ɔnὶ ňyē yáarìmm?
                                 "Who saw salt?"
```

"They're lions." Bà à nĒ gbīgima. Bà kā' gbīgımaa. "They're not lions." Bà à nĒ gbígimàa? "Are they lions?" "Who saw lions?" Ànó'onì ňyē gbígimà? "He's a man." Ò à nĒ dāu. Ò kā' dāv. "He's not a man." Ò à nē dáὺυ? "Is he a man?" Ànό'ɔnì ἤyē dáυ? "Who saw a man?" Ò à nē sāeň. "He's a blacksmith." Ò kā' sāeň. "He's not a blacksmith." Ò à nĒ sáèeň? "Is he a blacksmith?" Ànό'ɔnì ἤyē sáeň? "Who saw a blacksmith?" Lì à nē múi. "It's rice." Lì kā' múi. "It's not rice." Lì à nē múìi? "Is it rice?" "Who saw rice?" Ànό'ɔnὶ ňyē múi? Kà ò "And he agreed." sják. And **3AN** agree. "He didn't agree." Ò pū siákē ⁺ø. **3AN NEG.IND** agree **NEG**. Kà ò dīgı. "And she's lying down." And **3AN** be.lying. "She isn't lying down." Ò ρō dīgıyá ⁺ø. 3AN NEG.IND be.lying NEG. Kà ò vūe. "And she's alive." Ò pū vūyá. "She's not alive." "And he farmed." Kà ò kuā. Ò pō kūa. "He hasn't farmed." "And she cut (it)." Kà ò kịá. Ò pū kía. "She hasn't cut (it)."

```
Kà ò pāe."And he reached (it)."Ò pō pāée."He hasn't reached (it)."
```

The derivational type of Long Form appears in many adverbs and quantifiers. Thus with the adjective $b\dot{\epsilon}dvg$ "big" and the adverb $b\dot{\epsilon}dvg\bar{\nu}$ "a lot":

```
Lì à nē būn-bédùg. "It's a big thing."

3INAN COP FOC thing-big:sg.

Lì kā' būn-bédvgō +ø. "It's not a big thing."

3INAN NEG.BE thing-big:sg NEG.

M pú'ùs yā bédvgū. "Thank you very much."

1SG greet PFV much.
```

2.3.1 Superscript notation

The exact shape of a Long Form differs in different contexts. Final vowel length may be neutralised, final short vowel qualities may be altered or completely neutralised, and final tonemes may be altered. Changes to LFs occur clause-medially before **liaison** 8.2, and clause-finally before **prosodic clitics** 8.1, which have no segmental form of their own but cause the preceding word to appear as a LF rather than the default SF. Derivational LF types are taken as showing **apocope-blocking** 6.4. The Long Form as such is an 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 environment. For convenience, the LF form preceding the *negative* prosodic clitic will be taken as basic. It shows underlying LF-final short - ι - υ as - ε - ι , *- $m\upsilon$ *- $m\upsilon$ as - $m\upsilon$ - $m\upsilon$ and - $m\upsilon$ as - $m\upsilon$ - $m\upsilon$ as - $m\upsilon$ - $m\upsilon$ and - $m\upsilon$ as - $m\upsilon$ - $m\upsilon$ - $m\upsilon$ as - $m\upsilon$ - $m\upsilon$ as - $m\upsilon$ -

Words in isolation will be cited in **superscript notation**, writing forms with the portion of the LF which does not appear in the SF as a following superscript.

bīig ^a	"child"	kūk ^a	"chair"
dūk ^{⊃/}	"pot"	sįàk ^ε	"agree"
gbīgιm ^{nε}	"lion"	yàarım ^m	"salt"
dīgı ^{ya/}	"be lying down"	zì'e ^{ya}	"be standing"

When the LF ends in a long vowel or diphthong, superscript notation writes the SF followed by the mark $^+$:

gbīgıma+	"lions"	SF gbīgıma	LF gbīgımaa
mɔ̀lι+	"gazelles"	SF mɔ̀lı	LF m ὸlῖι
gòň ⁺	"hunt"	SF gòň	LF gɔ̃ɔň
tìeň+	"inform"	SF tìeň	LF tìēeň
kįà+	"cut"	SF <i>k</i> ịà	LF <i>kīa</i>
kuā+	"hoe"	SF <i>kuā</i>	LF kūa
dāu̯+	"man"	SF dāu	LF dāυ
sāeň+	"blacksmith"	SF <i>sāeň</i>	LF sāeň

(This use of $^+$ exploits the extent to which LFs can be predicted synchronically from SFs <u>2.3.2</u>. More radical simplifications could be made: $^+$ $^\epsilon$ m = are in complementary distribution, as are a y a. Separate symbols are used for clarity.)

Superscript $^{\mathsf{a}}$ is written after a vowel symbol in two cases.

Words ending in LF $\underline{i}a'a \underline{v}'aa$ are written with superscript ^a rather than ⁺ to distinguish them from words ending in LF $\underline{i}'a \underline{v}'a$:

	kpjà'+	"shape wood"	SF <i>kpia</i> '	LF <i>kpi</i> a
but	djā' ^a	"get dirty"	SF <i>dįā</i> '	LF dįā'a
	k <u>u</u> ā+	"hoe"	SF k <u>u</u> ā	LF kūa
but	pu̯'āa	"woman"	SF pự'ā	LF puˈāa

Words with LFs in -ya where the SFs changes the word-final -y to - \underline{e} are also written with superscript ^a:

νōę ^{a/}	"be alive"	SF <i>vō</i> e	LF <i>vōyá</i>
tōe ^{a/}	"be bitter"	SF <i>t5e</i>	LF tōyá

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

```
dà'a= "market"
```

In a few cases where superscript notation is impractical, the forms will be written out separately, e.g. $p\bar{a}mm$ SF $p\bar{a}mn\acute{\epsilon}$ LF "a lot."

In accordance with the LF tonemes seen before the negative prosodic clitic, the LF is to be understood as ending with M toneme, unless the superscript is followed by an acute mark / (for H.)

This final M or H tone is by default realised on the rightmost vocalic mora of the LF, but **tautosyllabic delinking** <u>5.2</u> may apply. If a pitch rise would otherwise result within a single syllable, the first mora is delinked and the second toneme links to both morae; this process is not marked in superscript notation itself:

fūug ^{ɔ/}	"shirt, clothes"	SF fūug	LF fūugó
pāe ^{+/}	"reach"	SF <i>pāe</i>	LF <i>pāée</i>
nūa ^{+/}	"hen"	SF nūa	LF nūáa
yā ^{+/}	"houses"	SF <i>yā</i>	LF yáa
Iā ^{+/}	(article)	SF <i>lā</i>	LF <i>láa</i>
bὲdυgῦ ^{+/}	"a lot"	SF bèdugū	LF bὲdυgύυ
gāaň ^{=/}	"Nigerian ebony"	SF gāaň	LF gáaň
dāam ^{m/}	"millet beer"	SF dāam	LF dáamm
tāu̯ň+/	"opposite-sex sib"	SF tāuň	LF tá υň
mὸlι+	"gazelles"	SF màlı	LF mὸlῖι

Similarly, when the liaison enclitic 0 "him/her" is attached to a perfective form ending in a root vowel, the first mora in the SF is delinked when a pitch rise would otherwise occur within the syllable: such forms are written with LF tones:

```
n y \bar{\epsilon} \cdot \delta^{-0} "see him/her" SF n y \epsilon \cdot \delta LF n y \bar{\epsilon} \cdot \delta-0
```

Note that $k\bar{\upsilon}\cdot\delta^=$ "kill him/her" represents the identical SF and LF $k\dot{\upsilon}\cdot o$.

Tautosyllabic delinking also applies if the sequence HM would result on a single syllable. In this case it is the M on the *second* mora which is delinked:

```
Lì k\bar{a}' y\acute{a}ar\bar{\iota}mm.

"It's not salt (y\grave{a}ar\iota m^m)."

Lì k\acute{a}' \delta t\bar{\iota}\iota mm.

"It's not her medicine (\leftarrow t\grave{\iota}\bar{\iota}mm \leftarrow t\grave{\iota}\iota m^m)."

Lì k\bar{a}' t\acute{\iota}\iota mm.

"It's not medicine (\leftarrow t\acute{\iota}\bar{\iota}mm)."

Lì k\acute{a}' b\grave{a} d\ddot{a}'a.

"It's not their market (\leftarrow d\grave{a}'\bar{a} \leftarrow d\grave{a}'a^=)."

Lì k\bar{a}' d\acute{a}'a.

"It's not a market (\leftarrow d\acute{a}'\bar{a})."
```

Tautosyllabic delinking causes words like $n\acute{a}af^{\circ}$ and $n\acute{u}'\grave{u}g^{\circ}$ to coincide tonally in the LF only: such words are written in superscript notation with the SF tonemes.

```
Lì k\bar{a}' n\dot{u}'ug\bar{b} ^{+}ø. "It's not a hand."

3INAN NEG.BE hand:SG NEG.

Lì k\bar{a}' n\acute{a}f\bar{b} ^{+}ø. "It's not a cow."

3INAN NEG.BE COW:SG NEG.
```

2.3.2 Predictability of Long Forms

The LF can usually be predicted from the SF given the aspect of a verb, or whether a noun has human reference 9.1. Historically expected forms may be replaced by such predicted forms, either as variants or throughout. Apocope frequently does *not* lead to loss of segmental contrasts despite deleting segments which condition preceding sound changes, and working in reverse, such features can often accurately predict LFs from SFs; even words completely deleted by apocope remain recognisable from their effects on preceding words.

This raises questions about the psychological reality of LFs as underlying word forms. The LF will be treated as synchronically primary, as it certainly is historically, but the matter merits discussion.

Apocope abolishes the contrast between Tone Patterns H and O in nominals with 2-mora stems, and where LFs lack contrasts present in SFs this is due to a late tone realisation rule <u>5.2</u>. However, Tone Patterns are best described synchronically as suprasegmental stem features <u>7.1</u>, so this does not establish the primacy of the LF.

With **SFs ending in consonants**, it is not possible in principle to predict the LF from the SF alone. The LF may end in $a \varepsilon$ or \mathfrak{I} ; preceding SF-final m n or l may or may not be geminated; -m may become -mn- instead of -mm-. However, given whether a noun has human reference, it is usually possible to identify its noun class and thus the correct LF 9.1. Variable-verb perfectives end in -mm if the the SF ends in -m and in $-\varepsilon$ otherwise; imperfectives end in -a with gemination of preceding $n \mid m$. Variable-verb imperfectives with SFs ending in -m formerly had LFs in -mna, though not for my informants nor in KB:

```
...kà pō tớmnā. "...and does not work." (2 Thess 3:11, 1996, written ka pu tum na 1.3.2; KB ka po tomma.)
```

The default LF ending corresponding to SFs ending in a consonant is $-\varepsilon$. Thus with loans like $t\bar{t}l\dot{a}s^{\varepsilon}$ "necessity", cf Hausa $tiil\dot{a}s$ id, and in e.g.

Before liaison 8.2 final affix-vowel quality is neutralised, but the same issues arise with gemination of lmn, and $mn \sim mm$:

```
nwene tiname ket bane tummi ti taali [sic] basid si'em la.

wēn nē tīnámì ø két bánì tùmmī tí tàallì ø
resemble with <code>lpl</code> Nz let:IPFV REL.PL work:IPFV <code>lpl</code> fault:SG CAT

básìd sī'əm lā.

throw.out:IPFV INDF.ADV ART.
```

"like we forgive the \sin of those who do it to us." (Lk 11:4)

```
ka ban ka kikirbe'ednam daamne ba daa nye laafiya kà bàn kà kìkīr-bé'èd-nàm dáàmnī bá dāa ňyē láafiya and REL.PL and fairy-bad-PL trouble: IPFV 3PL.OB TNS see health "And people who were afflicted by evil spirits became well." (Lk 6:18, 1976; KB: ka banɛ ka kikiris daamidi ba daa nyɛ laafi)
```

Almost all **SFs ending in vowels** have LFs which can be obtained simply by lengthening the final vowel/diphthong, including all that do not end in $\underline{ia} \underline{ia}'$, short ι , or a fronting diphthong, and many that do:

```
sīa+
                                           sàbùa+
                                                                "girlfriend"
                     "waist"
bāa=
                     "dog" 8.1
                                           pāe+/
                                                                "reach"
nìe+
                                           dūe+/
                                                                "raise/rise"
                     "appear"
kūgá+
                     "stones"
                                           wìdı+
                                                                "horses"
kū+
                     "kill"
                                           mà<sup>+</sup>
                                                                "mother"
bèdvaū+/
                     "a lot" <u>6.4</u>
```

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

```
diā'a
                    "get dirty"
                                        ← *diag( <u>6.3.1</u>
                                                            Farefare
                                                                          dềgὲ
du'àa
                    "bear, beget"
                                        ← *duagı
                                                            Farefare
                                                                          dàgὲ
zò+
                    "run"
                                                            Farefare
                                                                          zòè
dāu+
       LF dāυ
                    "man"
                                        ← *dawa
                                                            Mooré
                                                                          ráoa
tāuň<sup>+/</sup> LF távň
                    "opposite-sex sib" ← *tãwa
                                                                          tãoa
                                                            Mooré
```

A marginal exception to predictability is the fact that words ending in $\underline{i}a'$ may have LFs in $\underline{i}a'a$ like $d\underline{i}\bar{a}^{\dagger a}$ "get dirty" or in $\underline{i}'a$ like $kp\underline{i}\dot{a}^{\dagger +}$ "shape wood with an axe."

The major exception is SFs ending in a fronting diphthong or short ι , where the LF may either prolong the diphthong or add -ya. Two nouns have variant sg LFs:

sāeň	"blacksmith"	LF sāeň or sāňya
sōeň	"witch"	LF sɔ̄eň or sɔ̄ňya

All other cases involve **invariable verbs** <u>11.2</u>, where LF -*ya* is regular except for a handful of bare root forms:

dīgı ^{ya/}	"be lying down"	wà'e ^{ya}	"be en route for"
vūe ^{a/}	"be alive"	sū'e ^{ya/}	"own"

Before liaison, invariable verbs follow the *general* rule, prolonging any final short diphthong and then applying phrase-medial loss of fronting 8.2.1.

2.4 Ordering of morphophonemic rules

Agolle Vowel Breaking 4.1.1 is part of the underlying word form prior to the application of any rules.

Consonant assimilation/epenthetic vowel insertion <u>6.2.1</u>, vowel fusion <u>6.3.1</u>, and fronting/rounding of vowel morae <u>6.3.2</u> all precede apocope. Fronting/rounding can be taken as following epenthetic vowel insertion for simplicity.

Consonant assimilation precedes deletion of *g and vowel fusion, although synchronically only deletion after short vowels needs to follow assimilation, as with e.g. sg $z\grave{a}k^a\leftarrow *zagga$ "compound" pl $z\grave{a}'as^\epsilon\leftarrow *zags\iota$. After *CVVg- roots, flexions beginning with *g are systematically avoided 12.1.1.1, and before other suffixes former *g is reflected only in toneme allocation 7.2.1.1.

Tone Patterns <u>7.1</u> can be described without reference to segmental changes other than a few which delete underlying morae <u>7.2.1.1</u>. They allocate tonemes prior to apocope. The tonal overlay of independency marking <u>19.6.1.1</u> creates a new set of intrinsic tones.

External sandhi of all types 8 naturally follows apocope.

L spreading <u>8.4</u> and the tonal effects of prosodic clitics <u>8.1</u> and liaison enclitics <u>8.2.3</u> occur *prior* to M spreading <u>8.3</u> and the effects of fixed-L words: L tonemes resulting from the interrogative clitics following a Pattern O word, and the L tonemes produced by L spreading are subject to M spreading. Tautosyllabic delinking <u>5.2</u> precedes downstep insertion before H tonemes <u>5.3</u>; heterosyllabic H spreading <u>5.4</u> does not need to be ordered with respect to either of these rules.

3 Consonants

3.1 Inventory and symbols

The following consonant symbols are used:

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

- 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.
- 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 still contrast with the unaspirated word-final k t p.
- The symbol η is realised [η] word-finally and [η :] elsewhere. Original * η , preserved in related languages, has disappeared in all positions, and existing Kusaal η is always the result of the cluster assimilations *mg * $ng \rightarrow \eta \eta$ with simplification to η word-finally.

³⁾ In Toende Kusaal word-final g d b normally become k t p, but g b (though not d) remain at the end of verb perfectives and cbs; there are even minimal pairs like ya'ab "mould pots" versus ya'ap "potter." This suggests that in Toende, after proclitics and perfectives only, apocope applies later than word-final stop devoicing.

As with k t p, $\eta \eta$ is realised single except in very slow speech, and is written with single η .

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.

Velars may represent original palatal stops or affricates in loanwords:

```
t\acute{o}kl\grave{a}e^+ "torch" \leftarrow English "torchlight" s\acute{o}gi\grave{a}^a "soldier" (probably via Hausa sooj\grave{a})
```

Before rounded vowels, the velars are labialised. Synchronically, there is never a contrast between labialised and unlabialised velars, but velars are transparent to vowel rounding processes <u>6.3.2</u>.

Before a and \supset velars are pronounced further back, with some speakers even as uvulars:

```
kɔ̀bɪgā= "hundred" [qwhɔbɪga]
```

Underlying *g is deleted after short oral or nasal $a \not i a \not i a \not i a$, which become glottalised, and also after $aa i a u a a a \varepsilon \varepsilon n z z n$ and their glottalised counterparts unless it stands before a rounded vowel; diphthongs may result 6.3.1. The effect of this *g is still apparent in stem tone patterns 7.2.1.1.

f v are labiodental fricatives, found only word initially, after prefixes, and in the noun class suffix $-f^0$:

```
fūfūm<sup>mε</sup> "envy"
náaf<sup>o</sup> "cow"
```

- z is only found word initially and after prefixes.
- is often realised as [h] word-internally. It sometimes represents h in loanwords:

- h as a phoneme h itself is marginal, occurring only syllable-initially in loanwords; however these include the very common word hālí+ "as far as." In the personal name Dàhamáanì+ عبد الرحمن SAbdu-r-Raħma:n(i) there is alternation with -s- but particular individuals with the name seem to choose one alternant only.
- d as a word-initial is frequently realised as a flapped [r] when the preceding word in a phrase ends in a vowel (including glottalised vowels); within compounds this is invariable:

```
n\bar{\jmath}-d\acute{a}\grave{v}g^{\jmath} "cock" [nɔraʊg] n\bar{a}'-d\acute{a}\grave{d}^{\epsilon} "oxen" [na̞ra:d] but w\grave{i}d-d\bar{a}vg^{\jmath} "stallion" [wɪd:aʊg]
```

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

```
\dot{\epsilon} n d i g^{\epsilon} "unplug"
\dot{\epsilon} n r i g^{\epsilon} "shift along"
m \bar{\sigma} d^{\epsilon} "swell"
m \bar{\sigma} r^{a/} "have"
\dot{\gamma} a d^{\epsilon} "graves"
v \bar{a} a r^{\epsilon/} "scatter"
```

r

m

itself is the alveolar flap [r], except after an epenthetic vowel (e.g. in the r^{ε} noun class singular suffix) where it is realised as a retroflex lateral [l]. 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:

```
tīráàn<sup>a</sup> "neighbour"
àrazàk<sup>a</sup> "riches"
àrazánà<sup>+</sup> "heaven"
```

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

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 ι -vowels can be absorbed because of the potentially syllabic character of m:

Gòsımī m! "Look at me!"

Gòsīm. "Look at me!" contrasting with

Gòsım! "Look!"

Gòsimí fò nú'ùg! "Look at your hand!"

Gòsím fò nú'ùg! 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 <u>6.4</u>. like the SF $p\bar{a}mm$ "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 <u>8.1</u>.

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 catenator particle n and the clause nominaliser n are syllabic [n] for some speakers but my informants have consonantal, denasalised or zero reflexes instead.

are digraphs for the labiovelar double closures [kp] [gb].

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 kpùkpàriga "palm tree" where other speakers have kùkpàriga 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.

 $k\bar{u}m^{\mathsf{m}}$ "death" cf kpi^+ "die" $k\bar{b}ba^+$ "bones" cf Gurmanche $kp\dot{a}b\dot{a}$ id $kp\dot{a}k\bar{v}r^{\varepsilon/}$ "tortoise" cf Dagbani $kp\dot{a}kpili$ id

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

```
bákpàe<sup>+</sup> "week" ← Hausa bakwài "seven"
(also "week" in Gaanancii Hausa)
```

y w are respectively voiced palatal and labiovelar approximants. They are strongly nasalised before nasalised vowels, and are then written $\check{n}y\;\check{n}w$ with no further nasalisation marking on the vowel:

ňyē ⁺	"see"	[j̃̃̃̃E]
ňwādıg ^{a/}	"moon"	[w̃ãdɪg]
ňwὲ' ⁺	"beat"	[w̃̃̃̃̃]

Word-initial y w followed by contrastive nasalisation reflect earlier initial p \widehat{gm} respectively, and similarly word-initial contrastively nasalised vowels are historically derived from initial η :

<u>Dagb</u>	<u>ani</u>	<u>Kusaal</u>	
ŋariŋ		àĭrvŋ ^ɔ	"boat"
nyá	[ɲa]	йу $ar{arepsilon}^+$	"see"
ŋme	[ŋme]	ňwὲ' ⁺	"beat"

Mooré shows the same developments as Kusaal. Niggli 2012 reports that some Toende speakers still have consonantal [n] $[\widehat{nm}]$ phonetically in these cases, although he regards these as allophones of y w before nasalised vowels. Before u/i original p has often become n 8.2.1.2.

y w occur only syllable-initially. They are in complementary distribution with the the glides $\underline{i}/\underline{e}$ and \underline{v} respectively, which do not form syllable boundaries $\underline{4.2.3}$. When apocope leaves -y- as word-final after a short back vowel, it is replaced by \underline{e} , producing a short fronting diphthong $\underline{6.3.2}$.

Consonantal w occurs only root-initially, i.e. word-initially and after prefixes: $wi alpha f^D$ "horse", $d alpha w alpha n^{n alpha}$ "pigeon", but consonantal y occurs root-initially ($y alpha a n^a$ "grandchild", $d alpha y alpha u g^D$ "rat"), and also word-medially before the vowel a: $n alpha y alpha^+$ "mouths."

3.2 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*:

pāmm "a lot" dáamm "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.

ňwād-bíl^a "star"

Within phrases, there may be partial assimilation of the word-final consonant to the following word-initial consonant <u>8.5.1</u>.

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

At the junction between a noun 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 $[\eta]$.

 $k \dot{v} n d \dot{v} \eta^a$ "jackal" $g \bar{v} m p \bar{v} z \bar{\epsilon} r^{\epsilon/}$ "duck" $d \dot{a} n k \dot{c} \eta^a$ "measles"[daŋkʰɔŋ] $z \dot{v} n z \dot{c} \eta^a$ "blind"[zʊŋzɔŋ]

Loanwords may include clusters not found elsewhere.

bùrkìn^a "honourable/free/honest person"

Apart from this, the only word-internal clusters permitted are kk tt pp $\eta\eta$ nn mm ll mn. Of these kk tt pp $\eta\eta$ are only realised as geminates in very slow speech, and are written as single k t p η ; nevertheless intervocalic k t p η always pattern as clusters not only structurally but in toneme allocation and realisation 5.4 7.2.1 7.3.1.

Gemination of mm nn ll before LF affix vowels is clearly audible, even where the LF-final vowel has been downranked before liaison 8.2.1; the audio version of the 1996 NT for example provides numerous examples of $d5ll \cdot \delta$ "follow him" (written

dol o) clearly read as [dɔl:ʊ]. It is harder to hear length contrasts with mm nn ll preceding an epenthetic vowel. Written materials prior to 2016 rarely mark gemination in such cases, but KB is generally reliable. The tones of Pattern H stems can also confirm the presence of clusters. Urs Niggli's Toende materials never show geminate consonants except before LF flexions preceding prosodic clitics; this may be a genuine difference from Agolle Kusaal.

The only 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 mn in Variable-verb imperfectives:

```
kàrım<sup>m</sup> "read" → kàrım<sup>ma</sup> cf Dagbani karimda
```

There are a few examples of *mn* in the NT prior to 2016:

```
ka ba li' ba toba ka pu wum na [sic 1.3.2]
kà bà lí bà tùba kà pō wómnā ^+ø.
And 3PL block 3PL ear:PL and NEG.IND hear:IMPF NEG.
"they have blocked their ears and do not hear" (Mt 13:15, 1996)
```

kà bàn kà kikirbe'ednam daamne [sic 1.3.2] ba daa nye laafiya kà bàn kà kikir-bé'èd-nàm dáàmnī bá dāa ňyē láafiya and REL.PL and fairy-bad-PL trouble:IPFV 3PL.OB TNS see health "And people who were afflicted by evil spirits became well." (Lk 6:18, 1976)

Informants differ with regard to the singular forms of $r^{\varepsilon}|a^{+}$ class *m*-stems:

```
gb\bar{\iota}g\iota m^{n\epsilon} SB gb\bar{\iota}g\iota m^{m\epsilon} WK "lion" d\bar{\iota}um^{n\epsilon} SB d\bar{\iota}um^{m\epsilon} WK "knee"
```

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

```
Cf 1976 NT kobkennib = k \ni hb - k\bar{l} m m l b^a \leftarrow *k \ni b - k l m d l ba "herdsmen."
```

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

```
pe'es bane ka' konbkemma pē'ɛs bánì kā' kɔ́nb-kīmma ^+ø sheep:PL REL.PL NEG.BE animal-tender:SG NEG "sheep without a shepherd" (Mt 9:36, 1996)
```

```
m naan ku aan Kiristo tumtum na [sic 1.3.2].

m̀ nāan kú āa-n Kiristo túm-tūmna +ø.

1sg then neg.irr cop-dp Christ work-worker:sg neg.

"I would not have been Christ's servant." (Gal 1:10, 1996; KB tumtumma)

The plurals usually show -mn-:

O tumtumnib pii nɛ ayi' la yuda nwa.

O tùm-tūmnib pīi nɛ ayi' la yuda nwa.

An work-worker:pl ten with num:two art name:pl cat this.

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

All examples of dynamic adjectives derived from m-stem verbs in my data show -mm- before epenthetic vowels:

```
b\bar{v}n-t\acute{v}mm\grave{r}^{\epsilon} "useful thing"; plural t\bar{v}mna^{+} is cited by some informants. 
b\grave{v}-s\check{a}\check{n}'ammur^{\epsilon} "goat for destruction, scapegoat" WK
```

The great majority of cases -mn- within words precede front vowels; compare focus- $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$, corresponding to me in Toende Kusaal, Mooré etc 30.1.2. KB has no word-internal or word-final -mna- or -mn ϵ - at all; all examples so written involve separate words by the criteria of this grammar. Word-internal -mni- is common, however, in plurals like tumtumnib = tùm-tūmnıb "servants."

The consonants rfs are sometimes shown by Tone Pattern allocation rules or by morphophonemics <u>6.2.1</u> to reflect underlying clusters <u>7.2.1.1</u>, but unlike $ktp\eta$ they are never actually realised as geminates.

```
t\bar{l}nt\bar{j}nr(g^a)"mole" (animal)\leftarrow *t\bar{l}nt\bar{j}nrr(g\bar{a})p(linf^D)"genet"\leftarrow *p\bar{l}(nf\bar{v})n(is^E)"birds"\leftarrow *n\bar{l}(ns\bar{l})
```

4 Vowels

4.1 Inventory and symbols

There are great differences in the range of vowel contrasts possible in different positions within a full word. Correlation with stress <u>2.2</u> is only partial, so the system is best regarded as involving **positional prominence**.

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

Epenthetic Vowels show a contrast only of unrounded versus rounded high vowels, written ι and υ respectively; considering LFs alone even this distinction would be predictable.

Affix Vowels have a three-way contrast in quality $a \iota v$ and also distinguish short and long vowels. Prosodic clitics lower short ιv to $\varepsilon \supset$, which are here realised slightly closer than as root vowels $\underline{4.4}$.

 $a \in \mathcal{I} u$ represent [a] [s] [c] [i] [u].

 $\iota \ v$ represent [I] [v]. The symbols $\iota \ v$ sometimes represent [I] [u] as epenthetic and prefix vowels $4.3 \ 4.4$, but never in contrast with [I] [v].

e o always represent [I] [v]. They replace ι v as non-initial components of diphthongs <u>4.2.3</u>, except that [v] is written v after a. In addition, the 3sg animate pronoun [v] is always written o <u>16.3.1</u>. The sequence $\cdot o$ represents [v] when it is a vowel mora rounded before the enclitic pronoun \circ <u>8.2.1.1</u>.

Long vowels are written with double symbols.

The symbol \check{n} represents emic nasalisation <u>4.2.1</u>, while 'represents glottalisation <u>4.2.2</u>.

 $\underline{e} \ \underline{i} \ \underline{u}$ represent non-moraic glides; \underline{e} and \underline{i} are equivalent symbols for $[\underline{i}]$, and \underline{u} represents $[\underline{v}]$.

The vowel system shows a **systematic mismatch between phonetics and phonemics**.

iə ue are phonemic monophthongs but are realised phonetically as [iə] [ue]. Similarly, ja ua represent short monophthongs, realised [ia] [va], which appear as je ue [ii] [vi] 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 ue ja ua je ue are regarded throughout as **digraphs** representing monophthongs 4.1.1. The letters \Rightarrow e are used only in these digraphs.

4.1.1 Agolle Vowel Breaking

The sequences $i \ni u \ni v$, realised with the corresponding IPA values, pattern throughout as long *monophthongs*, with $i \ni u \ni v$ as the corresponding short vowels. They may be nasalised or glottalised, and are subject to the fronting and rounding processes described below 6.3.2 just like other monophthongs. They will be described as monophthongs throughout this grammar. All other sequences beginning with written $i \mid u$ are diphthongs both phonetically and phonemically.

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* ε $\supset \varepsilon \varepsilon \supset 0$:

<u>Toende</u>	<u>Agolle</u>	
sēēs	sīəs ^ɛ	"waists"
pē'ēs	pε̄'εs ^{ε/}	"sheep" pl
bó'ɔs	bū'es ^{ε/}	"ask"
tōom	tōɔm ^{m/}	"depart, disappear"

Common Kusaal probably preserved older diphthongs, like Mooré; Kusaal >>/ua pairings correspond to Mooré oo, but Mooré ao corresponds to >>/>>:

```
bòòt bòoda "want, wish" (Mooré bàoda)
```

There are gaps in the distribution of Agolle $\varepsilon\varepsilon$ 22 probably connected with their diphthongal origins; some occurrences seem to be due to levelling within $g^2|d^{\varepsilon}$ class paradigms 9.2.1. Short ε 2 do not contrast underlyingly with ia ua (see below.)

 $i \ni u \bullet$ may only occur word-finally through loss of fronting in word-final ie ue by phrase-internal sandhi 8.5.3:

```
p\bar{i}\dot{\sigma} t\bar{i}^{+/} "wash us" (p\bar{i}e^{+/} "wash") d\bar{u}\dot{\sigma} t\bar{i}^{+/} "raise us" (d\bar{u}e^{+/}"raise")
```

Word-final *iə ue* diphthongise to *ia ua* before prosodic clitics, but not liaison:

```
LF k\bar{l}a "cut" pfv [khia] cf k\hat{l}ad^a ipfv
LF k\bar{u}a "hoe" pfv [khua] cf k\bar{u}ed^a ipfv
```

Nasalised $i \ni \check{n} \ u \ni \check{n}$, including after $m \ n \ 4.2.1$, occur only in the inflexion and gerund formation of fusion verbs <u>6.3.1</u>. In all other contexts $i \ni \check{n} \ u \ni \check{n}$ and $\varepsilon \varepsilon \check{n} \ \supset \check{n}$ have fallen together. The vowels were distinct historically: compare $n \ni \supset r$ "times" (Mooré $n \ni o \cap e$) with $n \ni \supset r$ "mouth" (Mooré $n \ni o \cap e$) <u>16.4.2.4</u>.

57 Vowels 4.1.1

The short vowels corresponding to iə ue are ja ua [ɪa] [ʊa].

These, too, pattern as simple vowels throughout: $s\underline{i}\grave{a}k^{\epsilon}$ "agree" and $b\underline{u}\grave{a}k^{\epsilon}$ "split" do not violate the constraint that full words begin with at most one consonant.

Apocope shortens final iə uə to ja ua:

```
k\dot{\mu} "cut" SF of k\bar{l}a k\mu\bar{a} "hoe" SF of k\bar{l}a
```

Short ε 3 appear instead of \underline{ia} \underline{ua} everywhere except before k and underlying *g, which is deleted, with vowel glottalisation and fusion 6.3.1. Almost all short ε 3 are either of this origin, or derive from apocope of $\varepsilon\varepsilon$ 32. $B\grave{>}k^3$ "pit" contrasting with $b\underline{u}\grave{>}k^\varepsilon$ "split" is due to the rounding change * $\underline{u}akkv$ \rightarrow 3kkv 6.3.2, while $t\bar{\varepsilon}k^\varepsilon$ "pull", contrasting with $t\underline{\dot{i}}\grave{>}k^\varepsilon$ "change" is due to shortening of a long vowel before an original plosive cluster * $t\varepsilon\varepsilon kkv$ 6.3.3. Presumably $n\bar{>}k^\varepsilon$ "pick up" is similarly derived by shortening of *n3kv6; Toende Kusaal has n3k6, with a variant form v5v6.

 $\underline{i}e\ \underline{u}e\ [\underline{i}\underline{i}]\ [\underline{v}\underline{i}]$ appear in place of $\underline{i}a\ \underline{u}a$ before -y-, which can occur only in the context of $r^{\varepsilon}|a^{+}$ class plurals of nouns and adjectives with stems in $\underline{i}a$ and $\underline{u}a$ 6.1.1.1:

```
b\bar{\imath} = e^{\epsilon} "elder same-sex sib" pl b\underline{i} = e^{\epsilon} "road" pl su = e^{\epsilon} KB suoya 1.3.2
```

4.2 Root vowels

In root syllables $a \in \mathcal{I} \cup i u$ represent [a] [s] [J] [I] [V] [I] [V] respectively.

The vowel ι is more central after velars and labials, and v is slightly more fronted after alveolars and y; u is noticeably fronted after alveolar consonants, which may then even be realised as palato-alveolars. This is particularly common with z: [3yg] for $z\bar{u}g$ "head" 3.1.

Long vowels contrast with short in length alone, with no difference in vowel quality. They are written by doubling the vowel symbol.

There are few minimal pairs for the contrast u/v in short root vowels and very few indeed for i/ι ; there is no contrast in the corresponding nasal short vowels. There is a robust contrast between long uu/vv and long $ii/\iota\iota$, and thus between the corresponding vowels shortened by apocope, but even here it is difficult to find true minimal pairs; l "fall", for example, certainly contrasts phonetically with l "it", but the words contain a root vowel and an affix vowel respectively.

Minimal and near-minimal pairs include

lìdıg	"astonish, be amazed"	lìdıg	"turn a shirt" WK
sīd	"husband"	sīn	"be silent"
sībıg	antelope species KED	sībıg	"termite"
bùl	"astonish"	bùl	"germinate"
ùk	"vomit"	ūk	"bloat"
būn	"thing"	bùn	"germinate" ipfv
kūdvg	"old"	kūdvg	"piece of iron"
kūg-káŋā	"this mahogany tree"	kūg-káŋā	"this stone"
tūlıg	"heat up"	tùlıg	"invert"
yūgúm	"camel"	yūgvdır	"hedgehog"

4.2.1 Nasalisation

Contrastive nasalisation is confined to root vowels. It is marked with \check{n} in the orthography of this grammar 1.3. It often represents originally automatic nasalisation after $*\eta *\eta *\eta \widehat{m}$, or arises before underlying *ns *nf 6.2.1. High nasalised vowels left word-initial by the loss of historical initial $*\eta$ have been lowered to $\epsilon\check{n}$ $\flat\check{n}$: cf $\flat\check{n}b^{\epsilon}$ "chew", Dagbani ηubi .

Short $i\check{n}$ $u\check{n}$ are laxer than oral i u, but there are no contrasting short $*\iota\check{n}$ $*\upsilon\check{n}$. In all but one case, short $i\check{n}$ $u\check{n}$ arise from apocope of $ii\check{n}$ $uu\check{n}$:

sīiňf ^{ɔ/}	"bee"	cb	sīň-
zùuňg ^ɔ	"vulture"	cb	zùň-

The only remaining case is $s\bar{u}\bar{n}f^{0/}$ "heart" pl $s\bar{u}\bar{n}y\dot{a}^+$ cb $s\bar{u}\bar{n}$ -; the vowel of this word is consistently written vn in KB.

Nasalisation is automatic on long vowels preceded by a nasal consonant:

```
mὲεd<sup>a</sup> "build" ipfv [mε̃:d]
```

Long $\iota\iota\check{n}$ $\upsilon\upsilon\check{n}$ contrasting with $ii\check{n}$ $uu\check{n}$ appear exclusively from the change of *nf *ns to f s with nasalisation of the preceding vowel <u>6.2.1</u>:

```
níiŋa
                             "bird"
         píiňf
                             "genet"
                                                                    cf plural
                                                                                       pīıní+
but
                             "vultures"
         zùuňd<sup>ɛ</sup>
                             "dawadawa seed"
         zύυňf<sup>ο</sup>
                                                                                       zūυní<sup>+</sup>
                                                                    cf plural
but
                                                                    cf singular t \dot{\epsilon} \eta - z \dot{\nu} \eta^{\circ}
         tὲη-zὺυἤs<sup>ε</sup>
                             "foreign lands"
```

Nasalised iəň ueň occur only in fusion verbs 6.3.1.

4.2.2 Glottalisation

Glottalisation is confined to root vowels and the proclitic tense marker $p\grave{a}'$ "earlier today." It does not affect vowel quality. It is marked by the symbol ' 1.3.

Tonal considerations confirm that ' is not a consonant. Thus

```
but Li \ k\bar{a}' \ m\'olif\bar{\jmath}. "It's not a gazelle." 
but Li \ k\bar{a}' \downarrow n\'u'ug\bar{\jmath}. "It's not a hand." 
like Li \ k\bar{a}' \downarrow t\'i \iota g\bar{a}. "It's not a tree."
```

differ in whether the H toneme is realised with a preceding downstep, because the sequence $-l\iota$ - in $m5l\iota f5$ is a separate unstressed syllable preceding the final stress on -f5, whereas the ' in nu'uq5 is not a consonant and does not begin a syllable 5.3.

An unwritten [?] follows short vowels and diphthongs ending statements and commands, but not questions. Phrase-final $d\bar{a}\underline{\nu}$ "man", for example, is realised [daʊ̯?]. Before this [?], vowel glottalisation is lost:

```
Kà bà g\bar{\epsilon}\bar{n}."and they got tired" is homophonous withKà bà g\bar{\epsilon}\bar{n}."and they got angry"but B\dot{a} g\dot{\epsilon}\bar{n} n\bar{\epsilon}."they're tired" differs in realisation from B\dot{a} g\dot{\epsilon}\bar{n}' n\bar{\epsilon}."they're angry"
```

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

Farefare	yύ'ύrέ	"name"	Kusaal	yū'טr ^{ε/}
Talni	kwo?m	"water"	Kusaal	kù'em ^m
Nabit	kpa'uŋ	"guinea fowl"	Kusaal	kpá'ບŋ ^ɔ
Nabit	nɔnya'aŋ	"hen"	Kusaal	ทวิ-ทัyล์'ล้ŋ ^a

Nawdm, too, has ? in many words with Kusaal cognates showing glottalised vowels, e.g. mì-tâ? "three" (in counting) = Kusaal $nt\check{a}\check{n}'; n\check{u}?\check{u}$ "arm, hand" = $n\check{u}'\grave{u}g^{\circ}; r\check{a}?\check{m}$ "bile" = Kusaal $y\bar{a}'m^{\mathsf{m}/}$ (WK), Farefare $y\check{a}'\check{a}m$. Vowel glottalisation is thus clearly inherited from Oti-Volta.

60 Vowels 4.2.2

Glottalised short vowels are almost all the result of apocope. Besides $k\bar{a}'e^+$ "not be" ($\leftarrow *kag\iota$) all other cases precede m or η in closed syllables in some words for some informants.

```
kp\grave{\varepsilon}'\eta^{\varepsilon}"strengthen"l\bar{a}'\eta^{\varepsilon}/"set alight"n\bar{r}m^{n\varepsilon}/"meat"k\bar{\jmath}'m^{m}/"hunger"y\bar{a}'m^{m}/"gall bladder; sense"s\grave{v}'\eta\bar{a}^+"well"s\grave{v}'m^m"goodness"
```

The adjective $s \dot{v} \eta^{3}$ (pl $s \dot{v} m a^{+}$) "good" itself never has a glottalisation mark. The vowels are written as if long in KB: $kp \epsilon' \epsilon \eta$ $la'a \eta$ ni'im k a' m y a' a m $s v' v \eta a$. Toende Kusaal, Farefare, Nabit and Talni lack this phenomenon in all the cognate words, except Farefare $y \dot{a}' \dot{a} m$ "bile." It has probably arisen from gemination of $m \eta$; KB has 385 examples of a n s v m to 47 of a n s v' v m ($a \dot{n} s \dot{v} m$ "is good"), but 30 of k a' s v m to 40 of k a' s v' v m, which would be $k \dot{a}' s \dot{v} m m$ "is not good" when clause-final. $V \dot{a}' m^{m/}$ is perhaps genuinely $v \dot{a}' a m^{m/}$; it was the only word of this type where I was able to confirm the glottalisation with my informants.

4.2.3 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 2.2, are structurally extra-long diphthongs. Length contrasts among phonemic diphthongs in identical contexts can occur only with word-final ae/ae and with av/au before g, but the use of ia ua for ia ua as well as ia ua in the standard orthography creates potential ambiguity word-finally 1.3.2.

[I] is written e (not ι) after $a \supset v$, and [v] is written o (not v) after $i \in \mathcal{E}$.

The symbols \underline{i} and \underline{e} both represent $[\underline{i}]$ except in $u\underline{i}$ and in the monophthong $\underline{i}e$, where the realisation is $[\underline{i}]$; $[\underline{v}]$ is always written \underline{v} .

The digraphs \underline{ia} \underline{ua} represent \underline{single} segments phonemically, but are $\underline{realised}$ as written. Written \underline{ia} $\underline{[ia]}$ and \underline{ua} $\underline{[ua]}$, and their nasalised/glottalised forms, are the corresponding $\underline{phonemically}$ $\underline{monophthongal}$ long vowels $\underline{4.1.1}$, realised as falling diphthongs. All other sequences of dissimilar vowels are both phonetic and phonemic diphthongs; 3-mora sequences are rising, and all others falling.

The word-final diphthongs av avň ui arose historically from *Vw *Vy 6.1.1.1. All other word-internal **primary** diphthongs result from active word-internal morphophonemic processes of fusion, fronting and rounding 6.3.1 6.3.2. **Secondary** diphthongs are created by the simple *replacement* of final morae by [I] [v] before the liaison enclitics v 8.2.1.2 and v 8.2.1.1 respectively.

Rounding diphthongs occur only word-finally and before velars; fronting diphthongs only word-finally and before *y*.

The primary diphthongs are:

<u>1-Mo</u>	<u>ra</u>	<u>2-Mora</u>		<u>3-Mora</u>	
		ia	[ia]	iaa	[ia:]
		įa'a	[ĭä:]		
		ua	[ua]	uaa	[ua:]
		ט'a	[ជូធ្ង]		
ae	[aɪ̯]	ae	[aɪ]	aee	[aɪ:]
				acc	[a1.]
эĕ	[ɔĭ]	ɔ'e	[1C]		
νĕ	[ΩĬ]	υ'e	[01]		
u <u>i</u>	[ui̯]	ui	[ui]		
		ie	[iɪ]	iee	[iɪ:]
		ue	[uɪ]	uee	[uɪ:]
	[]		[]		
aŭ	[aŭ]	aυ	[aʊ]		
		iu	[iu]		
ιŭ	[I¤̃]				
εŭ	[ɛ¤̯]	ε0	[٤ʊ]		
įац	[ĭaŭ]				
		io	[iʊ]		

These diphthongs also occur nasalised, and if not 1-mora, glottalised; those written glottalised above *only* occur glottalised. A 2-mora diphthong may become 3-mora by prolongation of the second mora before the polar-question prosodic clitic 8.1. The diphthongs v'a $v\check{n}'a$ appear as $\underline{v}'aa$ $\underline{v}\check{n}'aa$ respectively when LF-final.

 $\not e/\not i$ $\not u$ contrast with y w in not forming syllable boundaries or consonant clusters, either as components of the digraphs $\not i$ a y a representing single short vowel phonemes, or as the final glide components of short diphthongs:

b <u>i</u> āuňk ^o	[bɪ̯ãʊ̯k]	"shoulder"	CVC
buàk ^ɛ	[bʊ̞ak]	"split"	CVC
dāu+	[daʊ̞]	"man"	CV
gbàu̯ŋɔ	[g͡baʊ̯ŋ]	"book"	CVC
sōeň	[sɔ̃ɪ̯]	"blacksmith" SF	CV
tōe	[ťpɔĭ]	"be bitter" SF	CV
mùj ⁺	[mũi]	"rice"	CVCV

62 Vowels 4.2.3

Word-final $-V\not e -V\not i -V\not u$ behave exactly like word-final short root vowels in being followed by [?] before pause in statements 4.2.2:

```
\dot{O} à n\bar{\varepsilon} d\bar{a}u. [vanɛdavှ] "He is a man"
```

Word-initial ya [ja] contrasts with ia [ja] in the tenseness of the semivowel, and probably in timing features:

```
j\bar{a}^+ [ja] "seek" y\bar{a}^{+/} [ja] "houses"
```

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

Chitoran 2002 finds that unlike ia/ea, a contrast ua/oa has no phonetic basis in Romanian, and hypothesises that this is due to the cross-linguistic difficulty of maintaining a contrast between two back rounded glides [w] and [o]. Kusaal, too, has no contrast of initial wa/ya.

```
zū·ó-o
             [zuʊ:]
                                 "steal him"
                                               LF
                                 "steal him"
zú·o
             [zuʊ]
                                               SF
                                 "be ve!"
bε̄ιyá
             [bɛɪja]
                                               LF
                                 "be ve!"
bēι
                                               SF
             [bɛɪ]
```

4.3 Epenthetic vowels

The default epenthetic vowel is ι .

Before LF $-g^3 - \eta^3$ the epenthetic vowel becomes v, remaining v in the SF <u>6.3.2</u>.

```
ar{a}aar{m}dıg^a \leftarrow *ar{a}adıga "black plum tree"

but g\grave{a}advg^o \leftarrow *gaadıgv "(sur)passing" (gerund)

pl mar{a}lıma^+ \leftarrow *malımaa "sacrifices"

but mar{a}lvg^o \leftarrow *malıgpv "sacrifice"
```

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

```
abīaım<sup>nɛ</sup>
                   [gbigim]
                                                "lion"
yūgύm<sup>nε</sup>
                   [jʊgʊm]
                                                "camel"
wābıd<sup>€/</sup>
                   [wabid]
                                                "elephants"
dūaυd<sup>ε/</sup>
                                                "cooking pots"
                   [dʊgʊd]
                                                "people who cook"
dūgυdíba
                   [dvgvdib]
p\bar{\upsilon}\upsilon g\upsilon - n^{\epsilon/}
                                                "belly" (p\bar{\nu}\nu q^a) + n^{\epsilon} locative
                   [nʊp:ʊˈn]
```

Speakers vary with rounding of epenthetic vowels after rounded root vowels, but this can only become contrastive before word-final velars, where it can lead to reanalysis of the g^a sg suffix as g^0 9.3.2.1. NT ILK KED have *poogin* and KB *pvvgin* for $p\bar{v}vgv-n^{\epsilon/}$ "inside." 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:

```
n\bar{b}bug^{\epsilon l} "grow" (but n\acute{b}lr^{\epsilon} "leg") k\bar{b}lvg^{a} "river" y\grave{a}mmug^{a} "slave"
```

After a single consonant preceded by short root i or u, epenthetic ι v are realised [i] [u] respectively; this is not contrastive and is ignored in the orthography:

4.4 Affix vowels

Except for combining forms, and some preverbs, post-subject particles, and emphatics, clitics have vowels showing the same set of *affix vowel* contrasts as the flexions and prefixes of full words.

The affix vowels are short $a \iota v$ and long $aa \iota \iota vv$. Glottalisation occurs only in the particle $p\grave{a}' \leftarrow *pag$ "earlier today." Nasalisation is never contrastive, but phonetic nasalisation probably underlies the ε for expected ι of various particles realised $n\bar{\varepsilon}$, with $n\bar{\iota}^{+/}$ found only as the non-liaison allomorph of the locative marker.

Prosodic clitics cause short LF-final ι υ to be lowered to ε \supset , here realised somewhat closer than as root vowels; the only context in which underlying LF-final short ι υ appear as such is with apocope-blocking <u>6.4</u>.

LF-final long $aa \ \iota\iota$ appear in the $r^{\epsilon}|a^{+}$ and $f^{0}|\iota^{+}$ class plural flexions. SF-final -a $-\iota$ in plurals behave like apocope-blocked forms before liaison, without vowel prolongation, except in $y\acute{a}an^{\epsilon}$, the irregular locative of $y\bar{a}^{+/}$ "houses." LF-final $aa \ \iota\iota \ vv$

Vowels 4.4

also arise from prolongation of forms with apocope-blocking before prosodic clitics, and vv arises as the result of liaison with the LF of the enclitic pronoun $^{\circ}$ 8.2.1.1.

Prefix $\iota \ v$ are realised [i] [u] when the first mora of the root is i or u; this is non-contrastive and ignored in the orthography, with $\iota \ v$ used throughout. Thus $t\bar{\iota}t\bar{a}'ar^{\varepsilon}$ "big", $k\dot{v}k\bar{\jmath}r^{\varepsilon/}$ "voice" have [ι] [v] respectively, but

```
kìkīrıg<sup>a/</sup>
                        [khikhirig]
                                                 "protective spirit"
        sìsì'əm<sup>m</sup>
                        [sisiəm]
                                                 "wind"
        dùndùug<sup>o</sup>
                        [dundu:g]
                                                 "cobra"
                                                                KB dunduug
        sīlınsíùňg<sup>ɔ</sup>
                        [silinsĩũq]
                                                 "spider"
                                                 "mason wasp"
        νὸlιηνὰuἤl<sup>ε</sup> [vulimvũ:l]
                                                "co-wife": there are no short *iň *vň 4.2.1
but
        nìn-tāa=
                        [nintha:]
```

Affix-vowel and pre-liaison ι υ differ in tone sandhi from epenthetic ι υ 5.4, and written materials suggest a prominence contrast at least between affix vowels and word-final epenthetic vowels preceded by a single consonant after a short root vowel, as seen in $d\bar{\iota}g\iota$ from $d\bar{\iota}g\iota^{ya/}$ "be lying down." In KB, I found no instances of loss of final affix ι υ , but $d\bar{\iota}g\iota$ appears as digi 101 times, and dig 185. Significantly, there are 33 instances of dig $n\varepsilon$ with only 5 of digi $n\varepsilon$, where there is no clause boundary after the verb, but where the verb is followed by the unstressed clause linker $k\grave{a}$ there are 7 cases of digi ka to only 2 of dig ka, while before a full stop there are 5 instances of digi to only one of digi (excepting the collocation digi dig.)

The affix vowels ι and υ contrast only after velars and word-initially: ι is the default after alveolars, and υ after labials, labiodentals and labiovelars. Prefixes, however, show υ rather than ι before root $u/\upsilon/\upsilon$ ($d\upsilon nd\upsilon ug^{\upsilon}$ "cobra") and ι instead of υ before root $i/\iota/\varepsilon$ ($kp\bar{\iota}kp\bar{\iota}n^{na/}$ "merchant.") In flexions -mm appears in place of *- $m\upsilon$; ι appears after labial consonants only in the perfectives of variable verbs like $z\dot{a}b^{\varepsilon}$ "fight" where it is probably analogical. Velars followed by affix-vowel υ could be internally reconstructed throughout as labiovelars (with 3sg $\dot{\upsilon}$ \leftarrow * $\eta m\dot{\upsilon}$ 16.3.1 fn.) A system with only two distinct affix vowels except after velars is probably reconstructable for Common Western Oti-Volta: in the equivalent of the $g^{\upsilon}|d^{\varepsilon}$ class, Mooré and Farefare have the plural suffix -do/-ro corresponding to singular -go, but Dagaare agrees with the Southwestern languages in showing an unrounded vowel, and this looks like a shared innovation based on the analogy of the singular suffix. Buli, which is close to the Western subgroup within Oti-Volta, also seems to show a three-way contrast in affix vowels only after velars and initially.

5 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 is now the M (mid) toneme in a three-toneme system. The sequence ML cannot occur word-internally, but must become either HL or MH.

There are great constraints on tone patterns for single words, with nominals showing only three distinct basic patterns, and verbs only two. Intrinsic tone patterns are frequently changed by tone sandhi <u>8.3</u> <u>8.4</u> and tone overlay <u>19.6.1.1</u>.

5.1 Tonemes

There are three tonemes:

Η	High, marked with an acute:	gέl ^{lε}	"egg"
M	Mid, marked with a macron:	bāŋ ^a	"ring"
L	Low, marked with a grave:	bàk ^o	"pit"

Every vocalic mora carries a toneme, except as a result of tautosyllabic delinking $\underline{5.2}$ or heterosyllabic H spreading $\underline{5.4}$. When syllabic, m n bear the L toneme, except for catenator-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, e.g. $b\bar{\epsilon}ogv$ -n for $b\bar{\epsilon}\bar{o}g\bar{v}$ -n, $p\acute{v}k\grave{>})\check{n}r$ for $p\acute{v}k\grave{>})\check{n}r$. After an acute mark, however, an unmarked mora is toneless, and the H toneme extends over both morae 5.4:

```
Lì k\bar{a}' m\acute{o}l\iota f\bar{o} ^+Ø. "It's not a gazelle." 
3INAN NEG.BE gazelle:SG NEG.
```

Nominals with prefixes $\underline{14}$ are written with a tone mark on the root even if it is identical to that on the prefix: $z\bar{\imath}nz\bar{a}\mu\eta$ "bat", $k\dot{\nu}kp\dot{a}r\iota g$ "palm tree."

The H toneme is in certain circumstances realised with a preceding *phonetic* downstep, lowering it to M level <u>5.3</u>, 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 in a closed syllable, where the fall in pitch occurs from the first mora to the second:

```
m sáam "my guests"but m gbέὲňm "my sleep"
```

Tone functions more as a syntactic marker than to distinguish lexemes, but numerous minimal pairs exist, e.g.

bāŋ ^a	"ring, chain"	bàŋ ^a	"agama lizard"
būk ^{ε/}	"weaken"	bὺk ^ε	"cast lots"
gāŋ ^{ɛ/}	"choose"	gàŋ ^ɛ	"step over"
kūk ^{a/}	"mahogany tree"	kùk ^a	"ghost"
kūk ^a	"chair"		
māk ^{ɛ/}	"measure"	màk ^ɛ	"crumple up"
mɔ̄ɔgɔ	"bush, wilderness"	Мэ̀эg ^э	"Mossi realm"
ρīd ^ε	"get bloated"	pìd ^ɛ	"put on hat, shoes etc"
sáam ^{ma}	"guests"	sàam ^{ma}	"father"
sįāk ^{ε/}	"suffice"	sjàk ^ɛ	"agree"
yáaŋ ^a	"grandchild"	Yàaŋ ^a	"Yansi, Yanga person"
y5 ⁺	"pay"	yò ⁺	"close"

5.2 Tautosyllabic delinking

These processes follow all external tone sandhi processes, but precede the insertion of downsteps before H tonemes <u>5.3</u>. Essentially, they are realisation rules, but they are written into the orthography to avoid having to write the same surface tones in several different ways.

A pitch rise is not permitted within a syllable; the first toneme is delinked and the second applies to both morae. This rule applies constantly with words with long root vowels which would be expected to have the tonemes MH in Tone Pattern H 7.2.1, and with the allocation of final M and H tones in LFs 2.3.1; it applies also when the discontinuous-past liaison enclitic n^{ϵ} imposes M toneme on the second mora of a LL root vowel 8.2.3.

```
s\acute{a}am^{ma} \leftarrow *s\~{a}\acute{a}mm\~{a} "guests"

LF d\acute{a}amm \leftarrow *d\~{a}\acute{a}mm "beer"

LF t\~{\iota}\iota mm \leftarrow *t\`{\iota}\~{\iota}mm "medicine"

m\~{\epsilon}\epsilon - n^{\epsilon/} \leftarrow m\grave{\epsilon}\~{\epsilon} - n^{\epsilon/} "build" m\grave{\epsilon}^+ + dp n^\epsilon
```

When HM or HH would occur in one syllable the second toneme is delinked:

```
D\bar{a}\underline{u} I\bar{a} m\dot{\varepsilon}\varepsilon-n (\leftarrow m\dot{\varepsilon}\bar{\varepsilon}-n) "The man built (earlier today.)" Man:sg art build-dp
```

The only remaining sequence of dissimilar tones in one syllable is HL. Even the sequence **HL** is only permitted in a closed syllable; in an open syllable, the L is delinked and H applies to both morae. This means that words like $n\dot{u}'\dot{u}g^{3}$ "hand" and $n\dot{a}af^{3}$ "cow" which have different tonemes in the SF fall together in the LF as the syllable becomes open. Superscript notation writes such words with SF tones.

```
Lì k\bar{a}' n\dot{u}'ug\bar{b} ^{+}ø. "It's not a hand."

3INAN NEG.BE hand:SG NEG.

Lì k\bar{a}' n\acute{a}af\bar{b} ^{+}ø. "It's not a cow."

3INAN NEG.BE cow:SG NEG.
```

As three-mora diphthongs are disyllabic, with syllable division following the first mora $\underline{2.2}$, tautosyllabic delinking applies to the final two morae, e.g. LF $n\bar{u}$ -áa "hen" from $n\bar{u}a^{+/}$; see further examples of LFs at $\underline{2.3.1}$.

5.3 Downstepping before H

Downstep insertion applies after tautosyllabic delinking.

Downstep is inserted before H after:

H: always

M: if the next syllable is stressed and no other toneme intervenes

Downstep is not inserted after M before the last H toneme in a question, due to the interrogative intonation pattern 8.1.

Downstep lowers H to the level of the last preceding M: thus, in MHM the final M has the pitch of the first, but $M \downarrow HM$ is realised $[MM \downarrow M]$.

These predictable downsteps are not marked in the normal orthography of this grammar, but in this section will be written as \downarrow .

Examples for downstep after M before H immediately preceding stress 2.2. Where relevant, **bold** type marks stressed and *green* marks unstressed syllables.

Kà m̀ gɔ̄s ↓búŋ **lā**.

And 1SG look.at donkey:SG ART.

"And I looked at the donkey."

but Kà m̀ gɔ̄s bύη lā bēogυ-n.

And 1sg look.at donkey:sg art morning-Loc.

"And I looked at the donkey in the morning."

Bīig lā ↓sá **mὲɛd** yīr lā.

Child:sg art the build:iPFV house:sg art.

"The child was building the house yesterday."

but Bīig lā sá mè yīr lā.

Child:sg art tns build house:sg art.

"The child built the house yesterday."

Mān ↓bύ**-pìəl** kā'e ⁺ø.

1SG.CNTR goat-white:**SG NEG.BE NEG**.

"My white goat isn't there."

but $M\bar{a}n$ $b\dot{v}$ - $s\dot{v}n$ $k\bar{a}$ 'e + ϕ .

1SG.CNTR goat-good:**SG** NEG.BE NEG.

"My good goat isn't there."

 $Y\bar{v}\downarrow g\acute{v}m$ $k\bar{a}'e$ $^{+}\varnothing$. "There's no camel."

Camel:sg NEG.BE NEG.

but $Y \bar{\nu} g \acute{\nu} m l \bar{a} k \bar{a}' e^{-+} \varphi$. "The camel's not there."

Camel:sg art neg.be neg.

There is no downstep when L toneme intervenes before the stressed syllable:

Lì à $n\bar{\varepsilon} \downarrow n\acute{a}af$ $l\bar{a}$. "It's the cow."

3INAN COP FOC COW:SG ART.

but $L\hat{\iota}$ à $n\bar{\varepsilon}$ $d\acute{D}\acute{D}g$ $l\bar{a}$. "It's the hut."

3INAN COP FOC hut:SG ART.

The tonemes of the following syllable itself are not relevant:

```
Mānkúkòm kā'e^+ø."My leper isn't there."1SG.CNTR leper:SG NEG.BE NEG."My voice isn't there." (WK tone)Mānkúkōrkā'e^+ø."My voice isn't there." (WK tone)1SG.CNTR voice:SG NEG.BE NEG.
```

Before prosodic clitics LFs transfer stress from the root to the affix:

```
Lì
           kā'
                  ňyī↓ríf5
                           +ø.
                                     "It's not an egusi seed."
      3INAN NEG.BE equsi:SG
                            NEG.
                                     "It's not a widow."
      Lì
           kā'
                 pύkὸɔňrē +ø.
      3INAN NEG.BE widow:SG NEG.
      Ànɔʻɔnì ̞ø ňyē pύkɔ̀ɔňrɛ +ø?
      Who
               CAT see widow:SG CQ?
      "Who saw a widow?"
           à nē ↓púk>ɔňr lā.
                                     "It's the widow."
but
      Lì
```

3INAN COP FOC widow:SG ART.

As downstepping between M and H does not occur before an unstressed syllable, $n\dot{u}'\dot{u}g^{3}$ "hand" matches $n\dot{s}b\dot{u}r^{\epsilon}$ "leg" tonally in SF but $n\dot{a}af^{3}$ "cow" in LF:

The **interrogative intonation pattern** <u>8.1</u> prevents downstep preceding a H syllable even though the next syllable is stressed before a prosodic clitic:

```
    Ò pū yādı↓gídā +ø. "He isn't scattering."
    BAN NEG.IND Scatter:IPFV NEG.
    but Ànɔʻɔnì ø yādıgídà +ø? "Who is scattering?"
    Who cat scatter:IPFV co?
```

```
Lì
             kā'
                    bī-↓púŋā
                                          "It's not a girl."
                                 +ø.
       3INAN NEG.BE child-girl:SG NEG.
      Lì
                    bī-ρύηàa
                                          "Isn't it a girl?"
but
             kā'
                                  +ø?
       3INAN NEG.BE child-girl:SG PQ?
           pū
                  ňyē↓sύ'υgā +ø.
                                          "She didn't find a knife."
       3AN NEG.IND see knife:SG NEG.
      Ànɔʻɔnì \emptyset n 	 N 	 E 	 S 	 S 	 U 	 Q 	 A 	 P 	 P "Who found a knife?"
but
       Who
                 CAT see knife:sg cq.
                   dύgὲε +ø +ø?
                                         "Didn't she cook?"
and
           טֿמ
```

Downstep is inserted between any two adjacent H tonemes; as downstep insertion applies later than tautosyllabic delinking, words like $n\acute{a}af$ "cow" ($\leftarrow n\~{a}\acute{a}f$) behave exactly like $g\acute{\epsilon}l^{|\epsilon}$ "egg":

Kà m̀ gɔ̄s gɛ́l lā bēogv-n.

And 1sg look.at egg:sg art morning-loc.

"And I looked at the egg in the morning."

but M̀ gɔ́s ↓gɛ́l lā bēogv-n.

1sg look.at egg:sg art morning-loc.

"I looked at the egg in the morning."

Kà m̀ gɔ̄s náaf lā bēogv-n.

And 1sg look.at donkey:sg art morning-loc.

"And I looked at the cow in the morning."

3AN NEG.IND COOK NEG PQ.

but M gós ↓náaf lā bēogv-n.
1sG look.at cow:sG ART morning-Loc.
"I looked at the cow in the morning."

5.4 Heterosyllabic H spreading

If a short vowel in an open syllable carries H toneme, the toneme on a following *epenthetic* vowel in an open syllable is delinked and the H is realised across both morae. This process does not need to be ordered with respect to either tautosyllabic delinking or downstep insertion.

```
Lì k\bar{a}' m\acute{o}l\iota f\~{o} ^+\varnothing. "It's not a gazelle."

3INAN NEG.BE gazelle:SG NEG.

Bà k\bar{a}' d\vec{r} \ni s\acute{c}d\iota b\bar{a} ^+\varnothing. "They are not receivers."

3PL NEG.BE receiver:PL NEG.
```

The rule does not apply if either syllable is closed:

```
Lì à n\bar{\epsilon} mɔ́lìf. "It's a gazelle."

Bà à n\bar{\epsilon} dr̄ əsídìb. "They are receivers."

3PL COP FOC receiver:PL.

Lì k\bar{a}' b\bar{v}n-sábìl\bar{\epsilon} ^+\emptyset. "It's not a black thing."

3INAN NEG.BE thing-black:SG NEG.
```

Written intervocalic $k p t \eta$ represent $kk tt pp \eta \eta$, and block H spreading even though generally realised as single except in very slow speech:

```
Ka ya pv siakida. "But you did not agree." (Lk 13:34) Kà yà p\bar{v} siákìdā + \varphi. And 2PL NEG.IND agree:IPFV NEG.
```

H spreading does not occur if the L mora falls on a root or an affix vowel, or if it precedes liaison, where the short vowel is not epenthetic <u>8.2.1</u>:

```
Lì k\bar{a}' d\acute{a}g\grave{>}b\iota g\bar{a} ^+ø. "It's not a left hand."

3INAN NEG.BE left.hand:SG NEG. (Prefix d\grave{a}-, root g\grave{>}b- \underline{14})

Bà à n\bar{\epsilon} d\acute{a}g. "They are dwarfs."

3PL COP FOC dwarf:PL. (Affix vowel -\grave{a})
```

```
Kà 5n zábì f. "And he fought you." And 3AN.CNTR fight 2SG.OB.

Ö p\bar{v} zábì f\bar{5} +\emptyset. "He didn't fight you." 3AN NEG.IND fight 2SG.OB NEG.
```

Contrast the example with the epenthetic vowel in *mɔlɪf*ɔ "gazelle" above:

```
Lì k\bar{a}' m\acute{o}l\iota f\bar{o} ^+Ø. "It's not a gazelle." 
3INAN NEG.BE gazelle:SG NEG.
```

For possible phonological differences between epenthetic vowels and word-final short vowels before liaison *apart* from tones of 4.4; in any case word-division before liaison enclitics is justifiable morphosyntactically 1.3.1. Epenthetic vowels liable to H spreading could instead be regarded as *intrinsically* toneless, becoming L if left in a closed syllable by apocope when preceded by H. However, the distribution of tonemes within words is so constrained that a contrast in *realisation* between such toneless morae and those bearing tonemes would only ever occur after H, the very case addressed by H spreading. H spreading is preferred for descriptive purposes because, as with writing words with tautosyllabic delinking already applied 5.2, it avoids the need for multiple notations for identical surface tone patterns.

6 Word segmental structure

This section treats the structure of free words, along with various categories of bound words which have the same segmental and tonal form as free words. These comprise combining forms along with some emphatics, conjunctions, preverbs and post-subject particles.

Clause-linker particles, VPred particles, the article, prepositions, the locative marker, and the bound pronouns resemble affixes of full words, with the same much-reduced "affix vowel" contrasts; for their tonal behaviour see 7.4. Enclitics of this type are subject to apocope; in some cases this results in a SF consisting of a single consonant, or even a SF with no segmental form at all. Enclitics with SFs of the form CV behave as words with apocope-blocking 6.4. Most proclitics other than cbs have not undergone apocope; some end in long vowels impossible for SFs: $l\grave{\epsilon}\epsilon$ "but" 19.7.1 $n\check{\gamma}\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon$ "habitually" 19.7.2. However, some do have forms implying apocope, like $p\grave{a}$ "earlier today": glottalised short vowels occur only in closed syllables before m or η , or by apocope 4.2.2.

6.1 Roots, prefixes and suffixes

Word structure is based on **roots**. Roots have the forms (C)V(C) or (C)VV(C). Stressed syllables with no initial consonant may be realised with an initial glottal stop [?] but this is synchronically not a consonant but simply a prosodic feature:

```
s\bar{a}an^{a/} "stranger" [sa:n] uun^{n\epsilon} "dry season" [7u:n], [u:n]
```

For simplicity, possible root shapes will be given as CV(C) CVV(C) elsewhere. **Root vowels** show the full range of possible Kusaal vowels, including contrastive length, nasalisation and glottalisation. The basic *underlying* vowels are

```
i
                                                         υ
а
       įa/ε
              นูล/ว
                                           и
                                                  ι
                                    ii
       iә
              иθ
                     33
                            S
                                           uu
                                                  ш
                                                         טט
aa
```

The digraphs represent *monophthongs*, short or long, affected by Agolle Vowel Breaking 4.1.1. At this underlying level, short \underline{ia} \underline{ua} are in complementary distribution with ε b respectively, all long vowels have glottalised counterparts, and all vowels have contrastively nasalised counterparts except for \underline{ia} \underline{ua} \underline{ua}

Postvocalic consonants may be deleted with subsequent vowel fusion <u>6.3.1</u>.

Long vowels frequently undergo fronting or rounding of their second morae before fronted or rounded segments <u>6.3.2</u>; apocope of final vowels may then remove conditioning factors, creating contrastive diphthongs:

$$v\bar{i}id^{\epsilon}$$
 "owls" but sg $v\bar{i}ug^{5}$ "owl"

Only b d g l m n s r occur as second consonants of roots.

Stems are derived from roots by adding up to three **derivational suffixes** $\underline{13}$ of the form C; nominals may add optional **prefixes** $\underline{14}$.

Derivational suffixes again comprise the consonants b d g l m n s r, where b r are found in very few words. B g n s r cannot follow another suffix at all, and l only does so in the combination -lm which derives abstract nouns from other nouns. The suffix n may be historically derived from *ld 6.2.1.1; otherwise, the suffix d occurs almost exclusively in nouns and adjectives derived from verb stems and frequently either supplants a preceding derivational suffix or is itself omitted. If there are three derivational suffixes the last two can only be -dm or -lm. CVVC roots assume the allomorph CVC before a suffix of a type which cannot follow another 6.1.1.2.

```
t\bar{t}t\bar{a}'ar^{\epsilon} "big" b\dot{v}mb\dot{a}rig^a "ant" s\bar{t}lins\acute{l}u\check{n}g^{\circ} "spider" t\dot{a}sint\dot{a}l^{l\epsilon} "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 sı fv ıı rı lı aa gv dı mm bv da ma na la*. These draw their vowels from the set of **affix vowels** *a ı v* which here may be short or long:

```
a נ ט
aa נו טט
```

Affix vowels show no contrastive nasalisation or glottalisation.

Final -mm represents -mv; it is realised as geminate consonantal [m:] but still patterns in most respects as if the final m were syllabic.

LF-final short ι υ appear before prosodic clitics lowered to ε \supset .

```
Stem b\bar{i}i- "child" sg b\bar{i}ig^a pl b\bar{i}is^\epsilon d\dot{} "hut" sg d\dot{} 2g^0 pl d\dot{} 2g^0 pl d\dot{} 2g^0 pl d\dot{} 2g^0
```

Before vowel-initial flexions CVV root-stems become CVC; in productive forms always CVy or CVd:

Stem	ทวิว-	"mouth"	sg <i>nɔɔr^{ε/}</i>	pl <i>nōyá</i> +
	עט'ט-	"name"	sg <i>yū</i> ' <i>υr</i> ε/	pl <i>yūdá</i> +

No consonant clusters may occur word-initially, and only -mm (derived from - mv, as noted above) word-finally.

Clusters of homorganic nasal + C may occur where noun prefixes attach to the root or to another noun prefix.

```
kὺndὺŋ<sup>a</sup> "jackal"
gōmpōzēr<sup>ε/</sup> "duck"
```

Consonant clusters following the root vowel may only be *kk tt pp ŋŋ 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:

```
ňwād-bíl<sup>a</sup> "star"

bòrkìn<sup>a</sup> "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 ι by default but may be rounded to ν by adjacent consonants or after a short rounded root vowel 4.3.

```
Stem ňwād-"month"
                        + sg -ga
                                          ňwādıgá
                                                      LF ňwādıg SF
                        + pl -sı
                                          ňwādιsέ
                                                      LF ňwādıs SF
Stem kūg- "chair"
                        + sg -ga
                                          kūka
                                                      LF kūk
                                                                  SF
                                                      LF kūgus
                        + pl -si
                                          kūgυsε
                                                                  SF
Stem nób- "leg"
                        + sq -rı
                                          nóbιrē
                                                      LF nóbìr
                                                                  SF
Stem dūm- "knee"
                        + pl -aa
                                          dūmaa
                                                      LF dūma
                                                                  SF
                                    \rightarrow
Stem dūm- "knee"
                        + sg -rι
                                          dūmnε
                                                      LF dūm
                                                                  SF
                                    \rightarrow
```

Apocope of word-final -2 after velars may lead to a contrast between round and unrounded epenthetic vowels <u>6.3.2</u>:

```
\bar{a}a\check{n}dig^a \leftarrow *\tilde{a}a\check{d}iga "black plum tree"
but g\grave{a}advg^o \leftarrow *gaadigv "(sur)passing" (gerund)
```

6.1.1 Root alternations

6.1.1.1 CV~CVV~CVC

Most roots ending in a vowel show a long vowel before all consonant-initial flexional and derivational suffixes: $k\bar{v}^+$ "kill" ipfv $k\bar{v}vd^{a/}$. However, some show short vowels before at least some suffixes.

Glottalised roots of this kind are underlyingly *CVg, and their behaviour is explained by *g deletion and vowel fusion 6.3.1.

In *flexion*, non-glottalised roots show a long vowel before the class suffixes $-q^a - q^b$ and short elsewhere, with following $*d \to tt *b \to pp$ (but $not *m \to mm *l \to ll$):

```
fūug<sup>ɔ/</sup>
                 "clothing"
                                                    pl fūtε/
<sup>/כ</sup>מככֿמ
                 "field"
                                                    pl pɔ̄t<sup>ε/</sup>
dàɔgɔ
                 "hut"
                                                    pl dàt<sup>ε</sup>
dāυg<sup>⊃</sup>
                                                    cf dāpa
                 "male"
                                                                               "men"
bīiga
                                                    cf bīla
                 "child"
                                                                               "little"
                                                    cf qāňr<sup>ε/</sup>
gāaň=/
                 "ebony tree" (*gããga)
                                                                               "ebony fruit"
                                                    ipfv <u>ňvēt</u>a/
ňνē+
                 "see"
                                                                               imp ňyèma
d\bar{v}^+
                 "rise"
                                                    ipfv dvta/
                                                                               imp dùma
l\dot{u}^+ or l\dot{i}^+
                 "fall"
                                                    ipfv lùt<sup>a</sup> or lìt<sup>a</sup>
                                                                               imp lùma or lìma
zà+
                 "run"
                                                    ipfv zòta
                                                                               imp zòma
dì+
                 "eat"
                                                    ipfy dìta
                                                                               imp dìma
v\bar{i}^+
                                                    ipfv vīta/
                                                                               imp yìma
                 "emerge"
                                                    ipfv kɛ̄ta/
kē+
                 "allow"
                                                                               imp kèla
```

Some words which never appear with $-g^a$ or $-g^b$ show short vowels throughout:

```
y\bar{l}r^{\epsilon/} "house" pl y\bar{a}^{+/} z\bar{a}^{+/} "millet" k\bar{l}^{+/} "cereal, millet" m\dot{u}\dot{l}^{+} "rice"
```

 $Z\bar{u}g^{3/}$ "head" pl $z\bar{u}t^{\epsilon/}$ cb $z\bar{u}g$ - or $z\bar{u}$ - is exceptional in showing a short vowel before $-g^3$. There may be two originally distinct stems *zu- and *zug-: cf Farefare $z\dot{u}ug\dot{o}$ plzuto, Mampruli zugu plzuguri.

The long vowel before sg $-g^a$ or $-g^b$ is often introduced into the plural, in some cases invariably:

fūug ^{ɔ/}	"clothing"	pl <i>fūud^{ε/}</i>	or fūt^{ε/}
pɔ̄ɔgɔ/	"field"	pl <i>pɔ̃ɔd</i> ε/	or <i>pɔ̄t^{ε/}</i>
dòɔgɔ	"hut"	pl dɔ̀ɔd ^ɛ	or <mark>d</mark> ̀tε
dāvg ^o	"male"	pl <i>dāad</i> ε	
gāaň ^{=/}	"ebony tree"	pl <i>gāaňs^{ɛ/}</i>	
bīig ^a	"child"	pl <i>bīis</i> ɛ	

Before *derivational* suffixes the vowel is long, with some exceptions before -s-:

	dìıs ^ɛ	"feed"	cf	dì+	"eat"
	dàalım ^m	"masculinity"	cf	dāp ^a	"men"
but	gōs ^ε	"look"		ipfv <i>gɔ̄t^{a/}</i> or <i>gɔ̄sıd^{a/}</i>	imp gɔ̀ma or gɔ̀sıma
	tìs ^ε	"give"		ipfv tìt ^a or tìsıd ^a	
	yīs ^ε	"make go/come ou	ıt"	yī ⁺	"emerge"

The causative $y\bar{i}s^{\epsilon}$ has a by-form $y\bar{i}is^{\epsilon/}$ which is clearly shown to be analogical by its gerund $y\bar{i}is(b^{\circ})$, the sole 3-mora stem in the b° class.

Gerunds in $-b^{\circ}$ always show long vowels: $d\bar{\iota}\iota b^{\circ}$ "food", $n \bar{\nu} \bar{\epsilon} b^{\circ l}$ "seeing", and so, normally, do gerunds in $-r^{\epsilon}$: $n \bar{\jmath} - l \bar{\jmath} \dot{\nu} r^{\epsilon}$ "fasting" ("mouth-tying"), $f \bar{\iota} - \nu \dot{\epsilon} r^{\epsilon}$ "shirt-wearing" (WK, nonce-formation), but WK cited two instances of a short vowel before $-r^{\epsilon}$: $n \bar{a} - l \bar{\jmath} r^{\epsilon}$ "place in a compound for tying up cows" and $n \bar{\nu} d - l \bar{\jmath} r^{\epsilon l}$ "place in a compound for tying up horses."

There are a few *CVy roots, which preserve the final consonant before a flexion *-a but otherwise show loss of the *y with vowel fusion to CVV-; two probable *CVw roots show no current *-wa LF variants 2.3.2:

	tōea/	"be bitter"	tōɔgɔ	"bitter"
	νōe̞a/	"be alive"	<i>ν</i> ῡ'υg ^{ε/}	"come alive"
	à <u>e</u> ň ^a	"be something"	àaĭlím ^m	gerund
	sāeň ^a	"blacksmith"	pl <i>sāaňb</i> ^a	
or	sāeň+			
	sɔ̄e̯ňa	"witch"	pl <i>sɔ̄ɔňb</i> a	
or	sɔ̄e̯ň+			
	dāu ⁺	"man", Mooré <i>ráoa</i>	pl <i>dāp</i> a	
	tāuň+/	"opposite-sex sib"	pl <i>tāňp^{a/}</i>	

This suggests that $CV(C) \sim CVV$ alternations may historically involve root-final consonants, surfacing as y/w, assimilated, or deleted in different environments analogously to *CVg roots; Mooré cognates lend some support to this. Even so, some roots may be simply *CV; this may explain the unexpected absence of L spreading after a few cbs 7.2.4. Cf also Dagbani nya = Kusaal $ny\bar{\epsilon}$ "see" versus e.g. $me = m\dot{\epsilon}$ "build"; elsewhere it is only original short e which has become e in Dagbani.

Before the noun class plural suffix $-a^+$ stems ending in a root vowel insert $-y^-$, with shortening of long vowels:

```
k\grave{\upsilon}k\bar{\jmath}r^{\epsilon/}"voice"\operatorname{pl}\,k\grave{\upsilon}k\bar{\jmath}y\acute{a}^+g\bar{\mathsf{a}}\check{\mathsf{m}}r^{\epsilon/}"fruit of Nigerian ebony" \operatorname{pl}\,g\bar{\mathsf{a}}\check{\mathsf{m}}y\acute{a}^+b\grave{\mathsf{a}}l\grave{\mathsf{a}}a^\epsilon"stick, club"\operatorname{pl}\,b\grave{\mathsf{a}}l\grave{\mathsf{a}}ya^+n\bar{\jmath}\jmath r^{\epsilon/}"mouth"\operatorname{pl}\,n\bar{\jmath}y\acute{a}^+z\bar{\upsilon}\upsilon r^\epsilon"tail"\operatorname{pl}\,z\bar{\upsilon}ya^+
```

Shortening of *iə uə* produces *je ue* [iɪ] [uɪ], found solely in this context:

```
b\bar{\imath} = r^{\epsilon} "elder same-sex sibling" pl b\underline{i} = by\hat{a}^+ s\bar{u} = r^{\epsilon} "road" pl s\underline{u} = by\hat{a}^+ z\bar{u} = r^{\epsilon} "hill" pl s\underline{u} = by\hat{a}^+
```

A different rule of attachment of $-a^+$ is followed after Root-stems in with glottalised long vowels CV'V, which change to CVd:

```
y\bar{v}'vr^{\varepsilon/}"name"pl y\bar{v}d\acute{a}^+p\grave{o}\check{n}'or^{\varepsilon}"cripple"pl p\grave{o}\check{n}da^+t\bar{t}t\bar{a}'ar^{\varepsilon}"big"pl t\bar{t}t\bar{a}da^+y\bar{u}'or^{\varepsilon}"penis"pl y\bar{u}\bar{a}da^+
```

Stems in *-ag- *- μ ag- *- μ ag- *- μ ag- 6.3.1 may inflect as *CVC*- stems, or may show analogical forms with -d-:

```
s\dot{j}a'ar^{\epsilon} "forest" pl s\dot{j}a'a^{+} bà'ar^{\epsilon} "idol" pl bà'a^{+} or bàda^{+} *bagrı; Farefare bàgrè biān'ar^{\epsilon} "mud, riverbed" pl bián'a^{+} mù'ar^{\epsilon} "reservoir, dam" pl mu'àa^{+} or m\dot{v}'adaa^{+} pl a\dot{v}'ara^{\epsilon} "jackal" pl a\dot{v}'aba' or a\dot{v}'aba' or a\dot{v}'aba'
```

Roots ending in \supset or υ become glottalised before derivational *g and *s:

	kò+	"break" intrans	kὸ'ɔg ^ε	"break" trans/intrans
	pòɔd ^a	"be few"	pὸ'ɔg ^ε	"diminish"
	νῡe̞ ^{a/}	"be alive"	νῡ'υg ^{ε/}	"make, come alive"
	nīn-múa ⁺	"concentration"	mù'e ⁺ (*mɔ̃ɔ̃gı)	"intensify" <u>6.3.1</u>
	kàɔlúŋɔ	"broken"	kà'ɔs ^ɛ	"break several times"
	tòň+	"shoot"	tὸň'ɔs ^ε	"hunt"
	vūę ^{a/}	"be alive"	νō'υs ^{ε/}	"breathe, rest"
but	yὲ ⁺	"dress oneself"	yὲεg ^ε	"undress oneself"
	dì+	"eat"	dìιs ^ε	"feed"

Sporadic $CVV{\sim}CVC$ root alternations appear elsewhere in

	pē'-sá'a ⁼ pɔ'ɔ-sa'a	"ewe lamb" "young woman" (Toende)		pu̞'à-sādır ^{ɛ/} pùgsádà	"young woman" "young woman" (Mooré)
cf	l5 ⁺ lo lóe	"tie" (Dagbani) "tie" (Mooré)		lɔ̃dıg ^{ɛl} lɔrgi lókè or lódgè	"untie" (Dagbani) "untie" (Mooré)
cf	ρῦ ⁺ ρύi	"divide" "divide" (Mooré)		pūdıg ^{ɛ/}	"divide"
cf	bòı	"perdre, disparaître" (Toende)		bòdιg ^ε bórίg	"lose, get lost": "fondre, disparaître" (Toende)
	dāu ⁺	"man"	cf	bī-díbìŋ ^a bìríblá bìpúglá pu̯'ā	"boy" (Mooré) "girl" (Mooré) "woman" (*pu̯ag-)
cf	nō+ nao	"tread" "tread" (Mooré)		nōbá ⁺	"feet"; sg $n5bir^{\epsilon}$ is modelled on the pl (cf Toende sg $n5^{\circ}$)
	wìid ^a vī' ⁺	"draw water" ipfv "uproot"		wìk ^ɛ vīk ^{ɛ/}	pfv (← *wiggι) "uproot" (← *viggι)

6.1.1.2 CVVC~CVC

Roots of the form *CVVC* are confirmed by cases where they alternate with *CVC*. This happens in flexion with a few very common nouns:

zíiŋ ^a (← *zīímgā)	zīm(+	zīm-	"fish"
náaf ^ɔ (← *nāágfū)	nīigí+	nā'- (← *nāg-)	"cow"
wáaf¹(← *wāágfō)	wīigí+	wā'- (← *wāg-)	"snake"
pīim ^{m/}	pīmá ⁺		"arrow"
yὺυm ^{mε}	yùma ⁺		"year"

The alternation also appears in derivation:

tบิบma+	"work" noun	tùm ^m	"work" verb
yḗóŋ	"one"	yเินูŋ ^{ɔ/}	"single"
kāal ^{ɛ/}	"count"	kāl ^{lε/}	"number"
màal ^ɛ	"sacrifice" verb	mālvŋ ^ɔ	"sacrifice" noun
tōυlύg ^ɔ	"hot"	tū/ ^{la/}	"be hot"

Before verb-deriving suffixes the short allomorph always appears:

	pìəlıg ^a	"white"	pὲlιg ^ε	"whiten"
	kpī'oŋ ^ɔ	"strong"	kpὲ'ŋ ^ε	"strengthen"
	lìəb ^ε	"become"	lèbıg ^ε	"turn over"
	tūυlύg ^ວ	"hot"	tῦlιg ^{ε/}	"heat"
	yāar ^{€/}	"scatter"	yādıg ^{ε/}	"scatter"
	dēεŋ ^a	"first"	dὲŋ ^ε	"go first"
	pìəb ^ɛ	"blow" (flute)	pὲbιs ^ε	"blow" (wind)
	yùul ^ɛ	"swing" intrans	yùlıg ^ɛ	"swing" transitive
cf	ēεňb ^{ε/}	"lay a foundation"		cf Mooré <i>yĕbgè id</i>

The only derivational suffix found after a CVVC allomorph is -l- in - $l\iota m$ -"-ness/-hood" 13.1.2:

```
sáannìm<sup>m</sup> "strangerhood" (*saanlımmu)
```

CVVC 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 6.3.3.

6.2 Consonant changes

The deletion of underlying *g after short $a \not = a \not = a$

6.2.1 Consonant clusters and epenthetic vowels

Except between a prefix and a root <u>6.1</u>, adjacent consonants within a word must either assimilate to one of the clusters kk pp tt $\eta\eta$ mm nn ll mn or insert an **epenthetic vowel** (ι by default); kk pp tt $\eta\eta$ are written with single symbols: k p t η .

Roots can end only in vowels or in g d b m n r s l; stems may also end in consonant clusters or $k t p \eta$; 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 exceptions among alveolars, where changes attested in derivation have apparently been levelled in flexion <u>6.2.1.1</u>.

The treatment of the possible pairs is as follows, with ϑ representing the insertion of an epenthetic vowel. Suffixes beginning with lf do not occur in productive paradigms, so there are gaps in the table.

1 st ↓ 2 nd →	g	d	b	m	r	S	1	f
g	kk	Ә	ә	Ә	ð	Ә		
d	ә	tt	ә	Ә	ð	Ә		
b	ə	ə	pp	[mm]	ð	ə		
m	ממ	mn	mm	mm	mn	[:̃s]	nn	
n	ממ	nn	mm	ә	nn	ĩs	nn	~f
r	ə	ə	ə	ə	r	ə	tt	ә
S	ә	ә	ә	ә	ə	ə		
1	ә	nn	ə	ə	11	ə	II .	Ә

Potential pairs with *y as second consonant are an issue only with invariable verbs 11.2 and are treated as belonging to derivation rather than flexion 6.2.1.1.

The unusual change $Id \rightarrow nn$ is carried out completely regularly; Dagbani and Mooré have similar rules.

The forms in square brackets occur only under certain phonological conditions:

 $bm \rightarrow mm$ only occurs after a short root vowel never occurs after a short root vowel; elsewhere it is optional. Assimilation and epenthesis occur side by side in many words.

*ns, and *ms when it assimilates, become s with nasalisation of a preceding root vowel, and lengthening of a preceding short root vowel:

 $t\bar{\epsilon}\eta^a$ "land"pl $t\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon\bar{n}s^\epsilon$ \leftarrow *tensi $k\dot{\nu}li\eta^a$ "door"pl $k\dot{\nu}lis^\epsilon$ \leftarrow *k ν linsi

Exceptionally, an *epenthetic* vowel becomes long before *ns in

būtina "cup" pl būtiis[£]

This reflects a reanalysis of the form as noun prefix $b\bar{v} + t\bar{t}\eta^a 2.2$.

* \mathbf{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:

 $n\bar{i}f^{0}$ "eye" pl $n\bar{i}n(t^{+})$ p(inf^{0} "genet" pl $p\bar{i}in(t^{+})$

***rr** becomes *r* in e.g.

kὑkpàr^ε "palm fruit" pl kὑkpàra⁺

The few stems in -r- in the $r^{\epsilon}|a^{+}$ class may all be derived from *rr 6.2.1.1.

* $rr \rightarrow r$ is an active process in phrase-level sandhi <u>8.5.1</u>.

*ss inserts an epenthetic vowel in

 $p\bar{u}sig^{a/}$ $p\bar{u}sis^{\epsilon/}$ $p\bar{u}s$ - "tamarind"

However, all other examples of $g^a|s^{\varepsilon}$ plurals ending in $-s\iota s^{\varepsilon}$ in my materials are for *- $s\iota ns\iota$, from stems in *m. A plural * $p\bar{u}s^{\varepsilon}$ / would have appeared to show no ending in SF; nouns usually avoid such ambiguity by selecting a different flexion 9.1, but there is a very strong association of tree names with the $g^a|s^{\varepsilon}$ class and of their fruits with the $r^{\varepsilon}|a^+$ and $g^3|d^{\varepsilon}$ 32.6; $p\bar{u}s\dot{a}^+$ in fact means "tamarind fruits."

Derivation precedes flexion in cluster development.

Stem-final *kk pp tt nn* and *nn* (regardless of origin) never assimilate further.

 $s\bar{\jmath}nnir^{\epsilon}$ $s\bar{\jmath}nna^{+}$ $s\dot{\jmath}n$ "inner $z\dot{a}k$ wall" $s\bar{a}ng\acute{\upsilon}nnir^{\epsilon}$ $s\bar{a}ng\acute{\upsilon}nna^{+}$ $s\bar{a}ng\acute{\upsilon}n$ "millipede" $v\dot{\epsilon}nnig^{a}$ $v\dot{\epsilon}nnis^{\epsilon}$ $v\dot{\epsilon}n$ "beautiful" $v\dot{\epsilon}nnir^{\epsilon}$ $v\dot{\epsilon}nna^{+}$

With -nn- from *nd 13.1.1.2.1:

```
bùnε
                 "reap"
                                                                             "thing for reaping"
                                                   bōn-búnnìr<sup>ε</sup>
aīlιa<sup>ε/</sup>
                 "go around"
                                                   pu'à-gīnníga
                                                                             "prostitute"
kēn<sup>ε/</sup>
                 "ao"
                                                   bùη-k̄εnnír<sup>ε</sup>
                                                                             "moving donkey"
νῦΙε
                 "swallow"
                                                   tì-vōnním<sup>m</sup>
                                                                             "oral medication"
```

The verbs $t\grave{a}m^m$ "forget", $z\grave{a}m^m$ "cheat, betray", $d\grave{a}m^m$ "shake" and $l\grave{c}m^m$ "sip, taste" are -mm- stems: in KB their ipfvs are always written tammud zammud dammud lammud, and they form 3-mora-stem type gerunds: $t\grave{a}mmug^3$ $z\grave{a}mmug^3$ $d\grave{a}mmug^3$ $l\grave{c}mmug^3$. The mm is probably from *mb: cf Mooré $z\~{a}mbe$ "tricher", $r\~{a}mbe$ "remuer", $l\grave{e}mbe$ "goûter". These verbs assimilate *mbm \rightarrow mm in the imperative 11.1. Apart from this, stem-final -mm- and -mn- never assimilate further:

sūmmır ^ɛ	sūmma+	sùm-	"groundnut"
yīmmír ^ɛ	yīmmá+	yīm-	"solitary"
			Mooré <i>yémbré</i> "one"

With -mm- -mn- clusters from -*md- 13.1.1.2.1:

```
kìm<sup>m</sup>
                "tend flock"
                                                kàňb-kīm<sup>na</sup>
                                                                         "shepherd"
                                                kàňb-kīmmıba
                                            or kònb-kīmnıba
tùm<sup>m</sup>
                "work"
                                                būn-tύmmìr<sup>ε</sup>
                                                                         "useful thing"
                                         \rightarrow
                                                tōmmιr<sup>ε</sup> DK WK
                                                                         "useful"
                                            pl tūmna+
                                                                 DK
                                                tūmma+
                                                                 WK
tùm<sup>m</sup>
                "work"
                                                tùmmím-tāa=
                                                                         "co-worker"
```

Stems in ||r(r)| completely assimilate the following initial of the noun class suffix $-r^{\epsilon}$. This has led to the sg SF forms of agent nouns from invariable verbs in ||r(r)| being taken as due to the attachment of r^{ϵ} instead of a, along with new LFs and analogical plurals in $-a^{+}$ 9.3.1.1. The sg tones of the deverbal adjective in $k\dot{\nu}g-d\bar{\epsilon}l^{|\epsilon|}$ "chair for leaning on" (not $*k\dot{\nu}g-d\dot{\epsilon}l^{|\epsilon|}$) are probably analogical.

Single m n forms may be followed by unexpected epenthesis as a strategy to avoid ambiguous SFs in imperfectives. The suffix suppletion used for this purpose in nominals is not possible because there is only one regular imperfective suffix.

3-mora n-stems always show epenthesis, but this may reflect underlying gemination of the suffix 6.2.1.1.

dìgın ^ɛ	dìgınıd ^a	dìgınım ^a	"lie down"
dìgınvg ^ɔ			gerund
gὸ'ɔn ^ε	gà'ɔnɪd ^a	gà'ɔnım ^a	"extend neck"

Regular 2-mora stems in n show assimilation in the ipfv only:

bùn ^ε	bùn ^{na}	bùnım ^a	"reap"
bนิทเb ^ว			gerund

3-mora *m*-stems show epenthesis *optionally*:

	tōɔm ^{m/}	tɔ́ɔm ^{ma}	tòɔm ^{ma}	"depart"
		or <i>tɔ̃ɔmíd</i> a		
	tớɔŋɔ			gerund
or	tōɔmύg ^ɔ			
	kàrım ^m	kàrım ^m	kàrım ^{ma}	"read"
		or <i>kàrımıd</i> a		
	kàrvŋ ^ɔ			gerund
or	kàrımvg ^ɔ			

In a clear demonstration of epenthesis motivated by the avoidance of ambiguity, both WK and DK use assimilated forms only for clause-final LFs and before the focus particle $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$, and require forms with epenthesis everywhere else:

```
M pō kárìmmā."I'm not reading."M kárìm nē."I'm reading."Kà bà kárımìd."And they were reading."Kà bà kárìm.only "And they read."
```

2-mora *m*-stems regularly assimilate in the imperfective:

```
t\grave{\upsilon}m^{\mathsf{m}} t\grave{\upsilon}m^{\mathsf{ma}} t\grave{\upsilon}m^{\mathsf{ma}} "work" w\grave{\upsilon}m^{\mathsf{m}} w\grave{\upsilon}m^{\mathsf{ma}} "hear"
```

Even here, NT/KB may have unassimilated forms to avoid ambiguity:

```
Lin wusa ka ya tumid, tumi li ...

Lìn wūsa kà yà từmιd, từmmī Ø...

DEM.INAN all and 2PL do:IPFV, do:IMP 2PL.SUB ...

"Everything you do, do it..." (Col 3:23, 1996)
```

ka nan kpɛn wvmid ye m bɛɛ li pvvgin nannanna la. kà nán kpɛn wvmɪd yɛ́ m̀ bɛ́ɛ lì pvvgv-n nānná-nā lā. and still still hear: IPFV that 1SG EXIST 3INAN inside: SG-LOC now art. "and are still hearing that I am in it now." (Phil 1:30)

Examples of assimilation:

*gg →	kk	gìgıs ^ɛ	"dumb people"	sg	gìk ^a
	cf	kɔ̃lıs ^ɛ	"river"	sg	kɔ̃lıg ^a
*dd →	cf	bὺd ^ε dūg ^ε	"plant" "cook"	ipfv ipfv	bùt ^a dūgud ^{a/}
*bb→	<i>pp</i>	sɔ̃b ^ɛ	"write"	ger	sɔ̄pɔl
	cf	kpàr ^ɛ	"lock"	ger	kpārιbɔ
*Id →	nn	kòlvg ^ɔ	"bag"	pl	kòn ^{nε}
	cf	zūθbύg ^ɔ	"hair"	pl	zūθbíd ^ε
*mg -	→ ŋŋ	bùmıs ^ɛ	"donkeys"	sg	bὺŋ ^a
	cf	ňwādıs ^{ɛ/}	"months"	sg	ňwādιg ^{a/}
*ng →	cf	gbàna ⁺ wābıd ^{ɛ/}	"books" "elephants"	sg sg	gbàu̯ŋɔ wābvgɔ/
*nr →	<i>nn</i>	tāna+	"earths"	sg	tān ^{nε}
	cf	dìga+	"dwarfs"	sg	dìgιr ^ε
*mr →	→ <i>mn</i>	dūma+	"knees"	sg	dūm ^{nε}
	cf	nɔ̄bá+	"legs"	sg	nóbìr ^ε
* <i>lr</i> → <i>l</i>	ll	gēlá+	"eggs"	sg	gél ^{le}
	cf	kūgá+	"stones"	sg	kūgvr ^{e/}
*nb →	mm	sāan ^{al}	"stranger"	pl	sáam ^{ma}
	cf	nīd ^{al}	"person"	pl	nīdıb ^{a/}
*mb -	<i>→ mm</i> cf	kìm ^m kàd ^ɛ	"tend flock" "drive away"	ger ger	kīm ^{mɔ} kādıb ^ɔ

Language names 9.3.4.1:

*// → //	Bùl ^{lε}	"Buli"	cf	Bùlıs ^ɛ	"Bulsa"
	Àgòl ^{lɛ}	"Agolle Kusaal"	cf	Àgὸl ^{lε}	"Agolle area"
*rl → tt	Bāt ^{€/}	"Bisa language"	cf	Bārιs ^{ε/}	"Bisa people"
	Yāt ^{ɛ/}	"Yarsi language"	cf	Yārιs ^{ε/}	"Yarsi people"
*ml → nn	Dàgbān ^{nε/}	"Dagbani"	cf	Dàgbām ^{ma/}	"Dagomba"
	Υàan ^{nε}	"Yansi language"	cf	Yàamıs ^ɛ	"Yansi people"
*nl → nn	Gōrín ^{nε}	"Farefare	cf	Gūrís ^ε	"Farefare
		language"			people"

Unexpected epenthesis is seen in

<i>Ňwāmpūrɪl^{ɛ/}</i> "Mampruli"	cf	<i>Ňwāmpūrιs^{ε/}</i> "Mamprussi"
Kàmbùnır ^ɛ "Twi"	cf	<i>Kàmbὺmιs^ε</i> "Ashanti"

6.2.1.1 Consonant changes in derivation

Stem-internal *single* alveolar consonants sometimes reflect original clusters. Single -/- apparently results from *d/ in pil^{ϵ} "put (hat etc) on someone":

```
pid^{\epsilon} "put (hat etc) on"
pidig^{\epsilon} "take (hat etc) off"
pil^{\epsilon} "put (hat etc) on someone"
pilig^{\epsilon} "take (hat etc) off someone"
y\dot{\epsilon}^{+} "dress oneself"
y\dot{\epsilon}\varepsilon g^{\epsilon} "undress oneself"
y\dot{\epsilon}\varepsilon l^{\epsilon} "dress another"
```

Single -s- may also represent an earlier cluster in some words. The agent nouns $s \ni s^a$ "beggar" and $t \wr s^a$ "giver" drop the formant -d- in the sg and have Tone Pattern L like 3-mora stems 9.3.1. The similar Pattern H verb $g \ni s^{\epsilon}$ "look" makes a Pattern HL gerund like $k \bar{l} r^{\epsilon}$ "hurry" above, as does $s \ni \tilde{n} s^{\epsilon}$ "converse" 12.1.1.1.1.

Single -n- after an epenthetic vowel within a stem may represent an original cluster. Pībɪnnɛ pl pībɪna+ "covering" 12.1.2 has single -n- for my informants, but the corresponding Mooré word has -nd-: pìbíndgà "couvercle." The Mooré equivalent of the assume-stance suffix -n- 13.2.1.1 is -nd-: zǐ "être assis", zǐndi "s'asseoir"; gãe "être couché", gãandè "se coucher"; vábè "être à plat ventre", vábende "se mettre à plat

ventre"; *tàbe* "*être collé aux parois de*", *tàbende* "*se coller à*." A geminate origin for the Kusaal -*n*- may explain the fact that the suffix never assimilates further.

Consonant changes occur in the formation of invariable verbs $\underline{11.2}$ before a consonant which appears as -y- when not assimilated.

If the verb SF ends in vowel, the LF ends in -ya; stem-final root vowels become fronting diphthongs before the -y- 6.3.2; CVy roots remain CVy before -a 6.1.1.1:

```
s\bar{v}'e<sup>ya/</sup> "own" cf s\bar{v}'vl(m<sup>m</sup> "possession" t\bar{b}e^{a/} "be bitter" cf t\bar{b}2g3 "bitter"
```

After stem-final g b, an epenthetic vowel is inserted before -ya:

```
d\bar{\iota}g\iota^{ya/} "be lying down" v\bar{a}b\iota^{ya/} "be lying prone"
```

If the SF ends in lmnrs, -a is added to form the LF, with gemination of lmn; tonal evidence shows that r was also originally geminated:

```
d\bar{\jmath}l^{\mathrm{la}/} "be with someone in a subordinate rôle" n\bar{\varepsilon}n^{\mathrm{na}/} "envy" m\bar{\jmath}r^{\mathrm{a}/} "have" cf gerund m\bar{\jmath}r(m^{\mathrm{m}}) showing *rr
```

These forms can all be attributed to a suffix *-ya. Historically, the *y is probably derived from * Λ , becoming y before a but -l- elsewhere (cf *p 8.2.1.2.) In imperfective gerunds of relational verbs 13.1.1.4, verbs with SFs ending in vowels show -l-, parallel to -d- in variable verbs:

```
s\bar{v}'e^{ya/} "own" \rightarrow s\bar{v}'vl(m^m b\dot{>} > d^a "like, want" \rightarrow b\dot{>} > dm^m
```

Proto-Oti-Volta had palatal $*c *_f *_f$, which appear in Kusaal as $s z \check{n}y$ respectively. Evidence for 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

```
"slave"
                          Kusaal: yàmmıga
yommg
                                    yàarım<sup>m</sup>
yaalim
               "salt"
                                    nyúèb
nlwob
               "six"
nle
               "two"
                                    'nγί
               "open"
                                    νὸ'ɔq<sup>ε</sup>
Iwot
                                    yà+
               "close"
lwo
```

Cf also the ancient loanword $y\bar{v}g\acute{v}m^{n\epsilon}$ "camel" (Farefare $y\acute{v}gn\acute{\epsilon}$, pl yvgma, Mooré $y\acute{v}g\acute{\epsilon}md\grave{\epsilon}$) ultimately from Berber *a-ləqəm (Souag 2016); Koromfe logomde. (Many languages have borrowed the word via Hausa $r\grave{a}a\acute{\epsilon}umii$ instead.)

If the primary adjective formant -/- $\underline{13.1.2}$ represents this same * λ , it would explain the absence of any adjectival verbs like * $s\bar{a}b\iota/a$ /, because * $sab\iota\lambda a$ would result instead in * $s\bar{a}b\iota^{ya/}$; Manessy's Dagbani sab/a "be black" seems to be a ghost form.

No cases of stem-final d occur in dynamic-invariable verbs; *Vdy has perhaps become V'Vy.

Kusaal r is usually shown by toneme patterns to represent an original cluster 7.2.1.1, except in the class suffix $-r^{\varepsilon}$. Possibly original single *r was deleted after short root vowels, with glottalisation and lengthening of the vowel, unless it was followed by an affix vowel or by *y, where *ry subsequently gave rise to a new geminate *rr; this would account for the relationships in

```
g\bar{u}r^{a/} "guard" 

g\bar{u}'ul^{\epsilon/} "put on guard" 

g\bar{u}'us^{\epsilon/} "take care,watch out" 

g\bar{u}'ud^{a/} agent noun
```

In derivation, *rg may have become *dg:

```
g\bar{\jmath}r^{\mathrm{a}/} DK "have neck extended" g\bar{\jmath}d\iota g^{\varepsilon/} DK "look up, extend neck" y\bar{a}ar^{\varepsilon/} "scatter" y\bar{a}d\iota g^{\varepsilon/} "scatter" (for the shortening see <u>6.1.1.2</u>) (but \dot{\epsilon}\check{n}r\iota g^{\varepsilon} "shift along")
```

The sequence -*rtd*- does occur with agent nouns involving the suffix -*d*- but variant forms suggest that the -*rtd*- forms are analogical; agent noun formation is the most regular and flexion-like among derivational processes by suffix 13.1.1, and hence the most exposed to analogy:

```
kp\bar{a}rld^a"lock-er"g\bar{u}rld^{a/}"guard"g\bar{u}'ud^{a/}"guard"
```

The gerund $k\bar{l}rlb^{5/}$ "hurrying" beside $klk(rlb)^{5}$ is probably an analogical formation reflecting the loss of gemination in *rr and subsequent reanalysis of the stem as 2-mora; compare the unexpected gerund $p\bar{j}nrlb^{5}$ from the adjectival verb $p\bar{j}nrlb^{5}$ "be near." Tonemes do not support a geminate origin of r in the ethnonyms rlb^{5} rlb^{5} rlb^{5} rlb^{5} , however.

6.3 Vowel changes

The vowel changes described in this section apply before apocope but after consonant cluster assimilation and epenthetic vowel insertion.

6.3.1 Deletion of *g with vowel fusion

Underlying *g is deleted after a ja wa an jan wan before any vowel, with fusion resulting in glottalised 2-mora vowel sequences:

```
*agV \rightarrow a'a *aňgV \rightarrow aň'a

*iagV \rightarrow ia'a *iaňgV \rightarrow iaň'a

*uagV \rightarrow v'a (word-final u'aa) *uaňgV \rightarrow vň'a (word-final uň'aa)
```

This rule applies later than the consonant cluster assimilation * $gg \rightarrow kk$ 6.2.1; thus e.g.

zàk ^a	"compound"	zà'as ^ɛ	plural	(g ^a s ^ε class)
lāuk ^o	"item of goods"	lā¹ad [€]	plural	$(g^{\circ} d^{\varepsilon} \text{ class})$
yàk ^ε	"unhang"	yà'al ^ɛ	"hang up"	
pjàuňk ^o	"word"	pi̯àň'ad ^ɛ	plural	$(g^{3} d^{\varepsilon} \text{ class})$
p <u>w</u> āk ^a	"female" (adj)	ρῦ'as ^ε	plural	$(g^{a} s^{\epsilon} \text{ class})$
bàk ^o	"pit"	bὺ'ad ^ε	plural	$(g^{\circ} d^{\varepsilon} \text{ class})$

The outcomes are the same if the vowel after *q is an affix vowel:

```
p i \bar{a} \bar{n}^{a} "speak" pfv p i \bar{a} \bar{n}^{a} ipfv p i \bar{a} \bar{n}^{a} "woman" p \bar{v}^{a} \bar{n}^{a} plural (a|ba class)
```

The sole invariable-verb form unexpectedly has a fronting diphthong:

```
k\bar{a}'e^+ "not be" \leftarrow *kag\iota
```

The sequences \dot{a} a \dot{a} a \dot{a} $\dot{a$

```
d\dot{a}'a^{=} "market" d\dot{a}'as^{\epsilon} plural (g^{a}|s^{\epsilon} \text{class})
```

Deletion of *g after short vowels is recent historically: such stems in the $r^{\varepsilon}|a^{+}$ class may still behave as consonant-final: $b\dot{a}'ar^{\varepsilon}$ "idol" (Farefare $b\dot{a}gr\dot{\varepsilon}$), pl $b\dot{a}'a^{+}$ or $b\dot{a}da^{+}$; a glottalised affix vowel is seen only in $p\dot{a}' \leftarrow *pag$ "earlier today"; and LF-final

long vowels can be predicted from the SF everywhere except where i'a~u'a fall together in apocope with ja'a~v'a~2.3.2. Haaf 1967 has baga for $b\bar{a}'a$ "diviner" and winbagr for $w\bar{\imath}n-b\dot{a}'\dot{a}r$ "altar", alongside bab for the plural $b\bar{a}'ab^a$ "diviners."

Underlying *g is deleted after aa iə uə aaň $\epsilon\epsilon\check{n}$ >> \check{n} , along with their glottalised counterparts, whenever an affix vowel a or ι (not an epenthetic vowel or υ) follows the *g. Vowel fusion then creates three-mora vowel sequences:

```
*aaga \rightarrow aa \frac{8.1}{} *aagı \rightarrow aee
*iəga \rightarrow iaa *iəgı \rightarrow iee
*uəga \rightarrow uaa *uəgı \rightarrow uee
```

and likewise with the glottalised vowels. (See below for the nasalised equivalents.) The diphthongs *iaa uaa* arise from deletion of the *g in $g^a|s^\epsilon$ class singulars:

```
būυga
                                                    "goat"
                                                                   pl būυsε
                                                    "dog"
                                                                   pl bāasε
but
       bāa=
                      ← *baaga
                                                    "waist"
       sīa+
                      ← *siəga
                                                                   pl sīəs<sup>ɛ</sup>
                                                                   pl sàbùes<sup>E</sup>
       sàbùa+
                      ← *sabuega
                                                    "lover"
```

The diphthongs *aee iee uee* appear in variable verbs with stems in *Caag *Ciag *Cuag and their glottalised counterparts (see below on the nasalised equivalents); compare the forms with the suffix *-g- "become, make" seen in

```
kpi'e^+ \leftarrow *kpi' \ni g\iota "approach"

kpi' \ni s^{\epsilon} \leftarrow *kpi' \ni s\iota "neighbours"

cf t\bar{\epsilon}b\iota g^{\epsilon} "get/make heavy"

t\bar{\epsilon}b\iota s\iota r^{\epsilon} "heavy"
```

Many such "fusion verbs" exist, with perfectives ending -ae -ie -ue 11.1, e.g.

```
p\bar{a}e^{+/} \leftarrow *paagı "reach" d\bar{u}e^{+/} \leftarrow *duegı "raise, rise"
```

The LF aee iee ue reduce to the two-mora diphthongs ae ie ue after apocope.

There are no underlying nasalised $i \ni \check{n} \ u \ni \check{n}$; instead $\varepsilon \varepsilon \check{n} \supset \check{n}$ appear <u>6.1</u>. However, *g is deleted after nasal $\varepsilon \varepsilon \check{n} \supset \check{n}$ (unlike their oral equivalents $\varepsilon \varepsilon \supset 0$) in the same contexts as after $i \ni u \ni 0$ (i.e. before an affix vowel a or ι), and the resulting diphthongs coincide in vowel quality with those produced with $i \ni u \ni 0$:

```
*ããga\rightarrow aaň 8.1*ããgι\rightarrow aeeň*ɛ̃ɛ̃ga\rightarrow iaaň*ɛ̃ɛ̃gı\rightarrow ieeň*ɔ̃ɔ̃ga\rightarrow uaaň*ɔ̃ɔ̃gı\rightarrow ueeň
```

and likewise with the corresponding glottalised vowels.

The rule gives rise to alternations in nouns and adjectives in the $g^a|s^{\epsilon}$ class between SF-final $ia\check{n}$ $ua\check{n}$ and word-internal $\epsilon\epsilon\check{n}$ $\Sigma\check{n}$ before a consonant:

zìň'a ⁺	← *zɛ̃'ɛ̃ga	"red" $g^a s^{\varepsilon}$ class sg
zὲň'εs ^ε	← *zɛ̃'ɛ̃sı	"red" $g^a s^{\varepsilon}$ class pl
zὲň'εd ^ε	← *zε̃'ε̃dι	"red" $g^{\circ} d^{\varepsilon}$ class pl
dùaň+	← *dɔ̃ɔ̃ga	"dawadawa" sg
dòɔňs ^ε	← *dɔ̃ɔ̃sı	"dawadawa" pl
nūa ^{+/}	← *nɔ̃ɔ̃ga	"hen"
nɔ̄ɔs ^{ε/}	← *nɔ̃ɔ̃sı	"hens"
Mùa ⁺	← *Mɔ̃ɔ̃ga	"Mossi person"
Mòɔs ^ε	← *M̃ɔ̃ɔ̃sι	"Mossi people"
Мэ̀эg ^э	← *Mɔ̃ɔ̃gʊ	"Mossi country"
ΜὸͻͿ ^ε	← *Mɔ̃ɔ̃lı	"Mooré language"

In derivation the rule causes alternation between fusion verb forms from *- $g\iota$, ending in SF $ie\check{n}$ $ue\check{n}$, and cognate forms with $\epsilon\epsilon\check{n}$ $\supset \check{n}$:

```
nìe<sup>+</sup>
                                                                     "appear"
                   ← *nɛ̃ɛ̃gı
nὲεl<sup>ε</sup>
                   ← *nɛ̃ɛ̃lı
                                                                     "reveal"
pūň'e<sup>+/</sup>
                   ← *pɔ̃'ɔ̃gı
                                                                     "rot"
p̄ōň'ɔl<sup>ε/</sup>
                   +pɔ̃'ɔ̃lı
                                                                     "cause to rot"
ňyū'e<sup>+/</sup>
                                                                     "set alight"
                   ← *yɔ̃'ɔ̃gı
ňȳɔ'ɔs<sup>ε/</sup>
                   +yɔ̃'ɔ̃sı
                                                                     "smoke" (noun)
sūeň<sup>+/</sup>
                   ← *sɔ̃ɔ̃gı
                                                                     "anoint"
รวิทั+
                   +sɔ̃ɔ̃
                                                                     "rub"
zìň'a<sup>+</sup>
                   ← *zɛ̃'ɛ̃ga
                                                                     "red" g^a|s^{\varepsilon} class sg
                                                                     "red" q^{3}|d^{\varepsilon} class sq
zèň'og<sup>o</sup>
                   ← *zɛ̃'ɛ̃gv <u>6.3.2</u>
```

The fronting effect of *- $g\iota$ differs from the fronting caused by *-y- 6.3.2:

```
s\bar{u}\check{n}'e^{+/} \leftarrow *s\tilde{5}'\tilde{5}g\iota "become better than" WK s\bar{5}\check{n}'e^{ya/} \leftarrow *s\tilde{5}'\tilde{5}ya "be better than"
```

When aa ia ue aaň 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 7.2.1.1.

```
n\acute{a}af^{\circ} \leftarrow *n\~{a}\acute{a}gf\~{v} "cow" pl\ n\~{i}ig\'{\iota}^{+} cb\ n\~{a}' - d\'{\iota}' \ni r^{\varepsilon} \leftarrow *d\~{\iota}' \ni gr\~{\iota} "receiving" cf\ d\~{\iota}' e^{+/} "get" \leftarrow *d\~{\iota}' \ni g\'{\iota} v\'{u}\acute{e}r^{\varepsilon} \leftarrow *v\~{u}\acute{e}gr\~{\iota} fruit of v\'{u}\acute{e}\eta^{a} tree pl\ v\~{u}\acute{a}a^{=}
```

Surface $i \ni \check{n} u \ni \check{n}$ appear in just one context: fusion verbs with nasal vowels introduce $i \ni \check{n} u \ni \check{n}$ into the imperfective, imperative and gerund forms:

This is readily attributable to analogy with verbs with oral vowels:

```
p\bar{u}n'e^{+/} pfv p\bar{u}n'e^{-/} ipfv pun'e^{-/}e^{-/} ger "rot" cf d\bar{u}e^{+/} pfv d\bar{u}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-/}e^{-
```

However, the gerund vowels are probably original. Imperfectives like pon'od $p\bar{p}\bar{n}'od$ appear in texts, but not *pon'or or *neer for gerunds like $pu\bar{n}'er^{\epsilon}$ "rotting" or $n\hat{e}r^{\epsilon}$ "appearing." Gerunds seem unlikely to be subject to levelling when finite forms are not 7.3 and tonal evidence suggests a different analysis.

Fusion verbs show no tonal evidence of a lost mora in the ipfv 7.3.1: $p\bar{u}\bar{n}'ed^{al}$ not * $p\dot{u}\bar{n}'ed^a$ "rot." Comparative evidence and variable-verb irregularities 11.1.1 suggest that dropping of derivational suffixes in ipfvs may once have been common. Fusion verbs may preserve this pattern, with *g never present in the ipfv; forms like pon'od $p\bar{n}'d^a$ support this. Gerund $i\bar{e}\bar{n}'$ $u\bar{e}\bar{n}'$ correlate with tones reflecting loss of *g: $p\dot{u}\bar{n}'er^\epsilon$ "rotting." Historically, *g-deletion probably followed insertion of an epenthetic vowel between the *g and a following consonant; absorption of this vowel by the preceding $i\bar{e}\bar{n}'$ $u\bar{e}\bar{n}'$ may have resulted in sequences which were still distinct from other $i\bar{e}\bar{n}'$ $u\bar{e}\bar{n}'$ at the point where those fell together with $\epsilon\epsilon\bar{n}'$ $22\bar{n}'$.

6.3.2 Before *-ya *-gυ *-kkυ *-ŋŋυ

In the LF, vowels are subject to fronting before *y* and to rounding before a following rounded vowel if a velar intervenes.

The affected second morae are always high [i] [I] [U] or [v].

Fronting: short fronting diphthongs result when word-medial -y- of a LF would become syllable-closing after a short back vowel as a result of apocope and is instead changed to e 2.3:

SF	νōe̯	LF	νūyá	"be alive"
SF	tōe	LF	tōyá	"be bitter"
SF	sāeň	LF	sāňya	"blacksmith"
SF	sōeň	LF	sōňya	"witch"

Before y, long vowels undergo fronting of a back second mora to e [1]:

```
SF s\bar{v}'e LF s\bar{v}'eyá "own" s\bar{v}'e<sup>ya/</sup> cf s\bar{v}'vlím<sup>m</sup> "property" SF s\bar{o}'e LF s\bar{o}'eyá "be better than" s\bar{o}'e<sup>ya/</sup>
```

Rounding: short unrounded root vowels become diphthongs in \underline{v} before LF *kkv*nnv:

```
gb\grave{a}\mu\eta^{\circ}\leftarrow *gba\eta\eta\upsilon"book" pl gb\grave{a}na^+l\bar{a}\mu k^{\circ}\leftarrow *lakk\upsilon"goods item"pl l\bar{a}'ad^{\varepsilon}y\bar{\iota}\mu\eta^{\circ/}\leftarrow *y\iota\eta\eta\upsilon"single" pl y\bar{\iota}n\acute{a}^+s\grave{a}b\grave{u}a^+\leftarrow *sabuega"lover" pl s\grave{a}b\grave{u}es^{\varepsilon}
```

Tense *i* does not become a diphthong in the only case in my materials:

```
nìn-gbīŋɔ/ "body" pl nìn-gbīná+
```

The vowel may simply be taken from the alternative singular $n i n - g b \bar{i} n^{\epsilon}$. Short i a becomes the short diphthong i a u:

```
bjaunk^{\circ} \leftarrow *bjakkv "shoulder" pl bjan'ad^{\varepsilon} Short ya becomes bjaunda becomes <math>ajaunda becomes <math>ajaunda becomes ajaunda becomes <math>ajaunda becomes ajaunda becomes <math>ajaunda becomes ajaunda becomes <math>ajaunda becomes ajaunda becomes ajaunda becomes <math>ajaunda becomes ajaunda becomes ajaunda becomes <math>ajaunda becomes ajaunda becomes ajaunda becomes ajaunda becomes <math>ajaunda becomes ajaunda beco
```

Long vowels undergo rounding of a back second mora before LF $*gv *\eta\eta v$. The second mora is always high.

The second mora of the long vowel ii becomes tense u, giving iu; this contrasts with the second mora of the long vowel $i\partial$, which becomes [v], giving io [iv]:

```
v\bar{\imath}ug^{5/} \leftarrow *viigv "owl" pl v\bar{\imath}id^{\epsilon/} but d\dot{a}b\bar{\imath}og^{5} \leftarrow *dabi\partial gv "coward" pl d\dot{a}b\bar{\imath}\partial d^{\epsilon} kp\bar{\imath}^{2}og^{5} \leftarrow *kpi^{2}\partial gv "strong" pl kp\bar{\imath}^{2}\partial ma^{+}
```

A parallel case with uu/uv does not occur, because of a rule * $uegv \rightarrow cogv$:

```
S\grave{a}'d\grave{a}b\grave{b}2g^{2} \leftarrow *Sa'dabuegv "place of the Sarabose clan" cf S\grave{a}'d\grave{a}b\grave{u}es^{\epsilon} "Sarabose clan members" lām-f\acute{2}2g^{2} \leftarrow *lam-fuegv "toothless" (l\bar{a}m^{m\epsilon}/ "gum" f\grave{u}e+ "draw out")
```

The **epenthetic vowel** ι is rounded to υ before LF *- $g\upsilon$ *- $\eta\upsilon$:

```
ar{a}areve{n}dig^a \leftarrow *ar{a}adiga "black plum tree"

but g\grave{a}advg^{\circ} \leftarrow *gaadigv "(sur)passing" (gerund)

pl mar{a}lima^+ \leftarrow *malimaa "sacrifices"

but mar{a}lv\eta^{\circ} \leftarrow *mali\eta\eta v "sacrifice"
```

This multiplication of diphthongs and epenthetic vowels might be avoided by ascribing phonemic labialisation to word-final velars and positing abstract word-final /w/ or /j/ segments. However, there is no phonetic basis for such a contrast in velars, and word-final [j] or [w] do not behave as consonants: words like $d\bar{a}\underline{\nu}$ "man" are followed by [?] before pause in statements, just like words ending in short vowels 4.2.2. It is preferable to make word-internal fronting and rounding rules precede apocope 2.4. (Cf "Canadian Raising" in American English dialects which also show neutralisation 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.)

6.3.3 Length constraints

See also on $CVV \sim CVC$ root alternations <u>6.1.1.1</u>; in particular, note that unglottalised long vowels never occur before y.

Word-internally, long vowels are shortened before *ktp*:

gàad ^ɛ	"pass"	gàt ^a	"pass" ipfv
tēεg ^{ε/}	"drag" ILK	tēk ^{ε/}	"pull" (*tεεkkι)

Hausa loanwords show this to be phonological, not morphophonemic:

```
\grave{ati} \dot{u} k^{\circ} "sea" \leftarrow \grave{teeku} "sea" \acute{kot} \dot{v}^{+} "court" \leftarrow \acute{koot} \dot{u} "court" (\leftarrow English)
```

3-mora vowel sequences arise by vowel fusion $\underline{6.3.1}$ or by liaison before the pronoun 0 $\underline{8.2.1}$. They are reduced by apocope to 2-mora diphthongs in the SF. 3-mora diphthongs mostly occur word-finally in LFs, but can appear in SFs:

```
vūáa<sup>=</sup> ← *vuegaa "fruits of the vúen<sup>a</sup> tree"
```

A 3-mora *monophthong* appears with apocope-blocking in $m\dot{a}'aa$ "only" (but LF $m\dot{a}'an\bar{\epsilon}$ 6.4); everywhere else, 3-mora monophthongs reduce to two morae 8.1.

Before liaison, word-final 3-mora diphthongs are reduced to two morae and then monophthongised before all consonants except y 8.2.1.

Short i u may appear where long vowels might be expected. $Z\bar{u}g^{5/}$ "head" is the sole case where non-glottalised $CV\sim CVV$ roots show a short allomorph before *g 6.1.1.1 (cf Farefare $z\acute{u}ug\acute{o}$ id.) $S\bar{u}\check{n}f^{5/}$ "heart" pl $s\bar{u}\check{n}y\acute{a}^+$ is the only instance of short $u\check{n}$ not attributable to apocope 4.2.1. $N\bar{i}f^{5/}$ "eye" is the only case where $*nC \rightarrow C$ after a root vowel which remains short 6.2.1. $B\grave{u}g\acute{o}m^m$ "fire" has the tonemes that would be regular for $*b\grave{u}ug\acute{o}m^m$. $D\bar{u}n\iota ya^+$ "world" corresponds to Hausa $duuniy\grave{a}a$ and $t\bar{\imath}l\acute{a}s^\epsilon$ "necessity" to Hausa $tiil\grave{a}s$. However, long ii uu occur in many words, and there seems to be no single regular shortening process involved.

6.4 Apocope-blocking

Certain full words have citation forms without apocope. The form is like a LF, without the lowering of postconsonantal final $\iota \ v$ to $\varepsilon \ z$ seen before prosodic clitics. Words with apocope-blocking ending in SF M toneme have LF-final H 7.1.

This is a derivational feature seen in many adverbs and quantifiers (including number words), and as a downtoning measure with adjectives <u>16.11.1.2</u>:

bὲdυgῦ	"a lot"	$g^{\circ} d^{\varepsilon}$ class sg
sùŋā	"well"	$g^{a} s^{\epsilon}$ class sg
yīnní	"one"	$r^{\varepsilon} a^{+}$ class sg
ànāasí	"four"	$g^{a} s^{\epsilon}$ class pl
pāmm	"a lot"	<i>m</i> ^m class

A number of nouns ending in $-\iota^+$ or $-\upsilon^+$ 9.6 also display apocope-blocking.

Words of one underlying mora also do not show apocope, e.g $y\bar{a}^{+/}$ "houses", (SF $y\bar{a}$ LF $y\bar{a}a$) and numerous enclitic particles.

Words with apocope-blocking may display final extra-long simple vowels: $m\grave{a}'aa$ "only." They change final $-m\upsilon$ to -mm: $p\bar{a}mm$ "a lot."

Apocope-blocked words make secondary LFs before prosodic clitics by prolonging a short final vowel. Compare:

```
Lì à n\bar{\epsilon} dớờg. "It's a hut."

Lì k\bar{a}' dớɔgō. "It's not a hut."

with Lì à n\bar{\epsilon} bédvgō. "It's a lot."

Lì k\bar{a}' bédvgoo. "It's not a lot."
```

Before prosodic clitics which neutralise preceding length distinctions, the final vowels of such LFs contrast in quality alone with $\varepsilon > 8.1$.

Forms not ending in a short vowel add $-n\varepsilon$ to make the secondary LF:

```
p\bar{a}mm SF p\bar{a}mn\dot{\epsilon} LF "a lot" m\dot{a}'aa SF m\dot{a}'an\bar{\epsilon} LF "only" g\dot{\nu}llm^{n\epsilon} "only" k\dot{a}
```

```
The LF of \check{n}y\bar{a}e^{n\epsilon/} "brightly, clearly" \underline{17.4} is \check{n}y\bar{a}en\epsilon [\tilde{j}\tilde{a}\tilde{i}n\tilde{\epsilon}]. Cf also m\dot{\epsilon} DK KT SB NT m\dot{\epsilon}n WK; clause-finally (all sources) m\dot{\epsilon}n^{\epsilon} "also, too."
```

7 Word tonal structure

7.1 Tone Patterns

There are great constraints on the free occurrence of tonemes within words. Nominals show only three basic distinct overall patterns (labelled H, L and O), and verbs only two (H and LO.) Compounds have more tonal possibilities, being *phrases* composed of words with partly independent tones <u>8.4</u>.

The distribution of tonemes on a word, prior to any effects of external tone sandhi or tone overlay, is specified by a **Tone Pattern**.

Regularities in derivation establish that roots themselves have identifiable tone patterns, which may be altered by derivational suffixes.

Synchronically, Tone Patterns are suprasegmental features of word stems, allocating tonemes mora-by-mora over the segmental structure of each complete word belonging to a flexional paradigm, with the precise instantiation changing as the segmental form changes. Allocation precedes apocope, and furthermore precedes the application of segmental rules which delete morae (reduction of consonant clusters to single consonants <u>6.2.1</u> and deletion of *g <u>6.3.1</u>) and which disrupt the surface distribution of tonemes <u>7.2.1.1</u>. For example, these two Pattern H nouns show different tonemes in the singular:

<i>s</i> īiňf ^{ɔ/} sg	<i>sīiňs</i> ε/ pl	sīň- cb	"bee"
ρίιἤf ⁹	pīıní ⁺	pīın-	"genet"

The difference is due to the fact that "bee" has a 2-mora CVV stem $s\bar{\imath}i\check{n}$ -, whereas "genet" has a 3-mora CVVC stem $p\bar{\iota}\imath n$ -, and in the singular has lost a mora from simplification of the consonant cluster *nf to f.

A single paradigm only shows more than one Tone Pattern in the case of agent nouns which drop the derivational suffix -d- in the sg and cb; as agent nouns of Pattern LO verbs are Pattern O if they contain -d- and L otherwise, this produces a tonal alternation:

pù'us ^a pū'usıdıb ^a pù'us-	"worshipper"
--	--------------

Only with 2-mora Pattern H and O stems are the SF tonemes alone insufficient to predict LF-final tonemes:

With SFs like $k\bar{\nu}k$ "chair" and $d\bar{\nu}k$ "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 $n\acute{a}af$ "cow" versus $n\acute{u}$ ' $\dot{u}g$ " "hand", but this is simply due to a late tone realisation rule 5.2. However, if the surface distribution of LF tonemes were adopted as a less abstract substitute for suprasegmental Tone Patterns, the alternation of the all-M sg/pl with the all-L cb in Pattern O 7.2.3 would still need simply to be declared part of the Pattern.

Synchronically, intrinsic LF-final tonemes are underspecified whenever the last stem toneme is L or H. For descriptive convenience, LF-final intrinsic tonemes are taken as

M after H and L

M in nouns and verbs of Tone Patterns O/LO whenever the stem is all-M

H after M in all other cases

Words with apocope-blocking <u>6.4</u> with SFs ending in M toneme change to final H in the LF:

```
SF y\bar{a} LF y\acute{a}a "houses" y\bar{a}^{+/} SF b\grave{e}dvg\bar{v} LF b\grave{e}dvg\acute{v} "a lot" b\grave{e}dvg\bar{v}^{+/}
```

Superscript notation writes $y\bar{a}^{+/}$ $b\dot{\epsilon}dvg\bar{v}^{+/}$ by the usual convention 2.3.1. The only exception among free words is $k\dot{\rangle}bvg\bar{a}^{=}$ "one hundred." Three basic Tone Patterns are distinguished in nominals:

Pattern H initial M or H
Pattern L initial L

Pattern O all-M in sg/pl; all-L in cb

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 of Buli correspond systematically to these, showing respectively H, L and mid tone stems:

nááb	"cow"	cf Kusaal <i>náaf</i> ^o	id
tììb	"tree"	cf Kusaal <i>tìıg</i> a	id
būūk	"goat"	cf Kusaal <i>būvg</i> a	id

In the other Western Oti-Volta languages, Pattern O shows a regular alternation between all-H free forms and all-L cbs; in Buli, between all-mid free forms and all-L cbs, tonally identical to the cbs of the Buli equivalent of Pattern L.

Akanlig-Pare and Kenstowicz 2002 regard Mooré Pattern O stems as intrinsically tonally unmarked, copying the H tone (= Kusaal M) of a flexional suffix but otherwise defaulting to all-L. Olawsky 1999 takes Dagbani Pattern O stems as intrinsically toneless, but he follows Anttila and Bodomo (on Dagaare) in attributing the change to all-H to *stress*. This is not workable in Kusaal 2.2, and even in Dagbani, stressed verb forms often have all-L tonemes. The change to all-M in Pattern O is absent only in cbs and indicative perfectives, correlating with the imposition of L on the final morae of perfectives in liaison 8.2.3 and L spreading after cbs 8.4; this supports the tone-copying mechanism.

However, the addition of a derivational suffix to a Pattern L root or stem may result in a Pattern O stem, and it is difficult to reconcile this with an analysis of Pattern O stems as intrinsically toneless. The appearance of H tonemes on the third morae of Pattern L stems 7.2.2 suggests that such stems may have an underlying non-initial M⁴ which becomes L or H or is deleted altogether by internal tone sandhi in the surface form; Pattern O stems would in contrast be intrinsically all-L. This analysis attributes individual underlying tonemes to consonantal derivational suffixes, but this level of abstraction is not necessary for descriptive purposes: Tone Patterns can simply be described in terms of their surface tonemes, with derivational suffixes classified by the Patterns they produce, rather than being assigned tonemes 7.5.

7.2 Nominals

Prefixed nominals are tonally distinctive only in that *cbs* with M prefixes always have H on the root; sg and pl follow normal patterns. L prefixes do not affect stem tonemes at all <u>7.2.4</u>. Prefixes are ignored in counting stem morae below.

The tones of compounds are determined by external tone sandhi 8.3 8.4.

Noun and adjective examples will be given in the order sg, pl, cb <u>9.1</u>. The cb cannot occur phrase-finally and is therefore always affected by apocope.

Quantifiers and adverbs have the same segmental and tonal structure as nouns and adjectives, though often with the addition of apocope-blocking <u>6.4</u>.

⁴⁾ Toende Kusaal shows word-internal H after L in words where Agolle does not, such as zìlím "langue", Agolle SF zìlím versus the variable verb sìbìg "punir" (Niggli, "La phonologie du Kusaal" pp 134ff), but this is probably leftward docking of a following H tone left floating by apocope 8.3 rather than a survival of an earlier stem tone pattern; cf SF bờý LF bờŋá "âne", Agolle LF bờŋā.

7.2.1 Pattern H

Regular Pattern H displays H on 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. This H falls on a third mora if it exists and is vocalic; if not, H falls on the second mora, prior to tautosyllabic delinking. Cbs have M tonemes up until any third vocalic mora, which carries H.

vūr ^{€/}	νōyá ⁺	vūr-	"alive"
yīr ^{ɛ/}	yā ^{+/}	yī-	"house"
fūug ^{ɔ/}	fūud ^{ε/}	fū-	"shirt, clothes"
dūk ^{⊃/}	dūgυd ^{ε/}	dūg-	"cooking pot"
nīd ^{a/}	nīdıb ^{a/}	nīn-	"person"
nīf ^{ɔ/}	nīní+	nīn- or nīf-	"eye"
kūgvr ^{ε/}	kūgá ⁺	kūg-	"stone
gōt ^{a/}	<i>gɔ̄tíb</i> a /tt/	gōt-	"seer, prophet"
sābılíg ^a	sābılís ^ɛ	sābıl-	"black"
yūgύm ^{mε}	yūgvmá ⁺	yūgum-	"camel
sābíl ^{lɛ}	sābılá ⁺	sābıl-	"black"
dī'əs ^{a/}	dī'əsídìb ^a	dī'əs-	"receiver"
sūgvríd ^a	sūgvrídìb ^a	sūgvríd-	"forgiver, forbearer"
kบิ'alíŋ ^a	kū'alίs ^ε	kū'alίŋ-	traditional smock

By tautosyllabic delinking, MH on a long vowel becomes single H:

<i>sú'eŋ</i> a /ŋŋ/	sū'emís ^ε	sū'eŋ-	"rabbit"
sāan ^{a/}	sáam ^{ma}	sāan-	"stranger, guest"
sáannìm ^m			"strangerhood"

Tautosyllabic delinking applies *after* apocope. Where LFs end in long vowels or diphthongs, or in *-mm* (where the second *m* was historically syllabic but is now consonantal) the SF forms are regular, but if the LF final mora would have carried H toneme by the usual rules, the H appears at the beginning of the final *syllable* <u>5.2</u>. Superscript notation still writes the acute tone mark at the end <u>2.3.1</u>:

nūa ^{+/}	SF nūa	LF nūáa	"hen"
dāam ^{m/}	SF dāam	LF dáamm	"millet beer"
vōm ^{m/}	SF vūm	LF vómm	"life"
tāuň ^{+/}	SF tāuň	LF távň	"opposite-sex sibling"

7.2.1.1 Tonal effects of deleted morae

Pattern H forms which have lost an underlying mora may display the H toneme shifted to the left of its expected position. There are two groups of such words.

Some words have H on the second mora, when following -r- representing *-rr-:

```
\check{n}\check{y}\bar{i}r(f^0) \check{n}\check{y}\bar{i}r(f^1) "egusi seed" t\bar{i}nt\bar{j}\check{n}r(g^a) 7.2.4 t\bar{i}nt\bar{j}\check{n}r(s^\epsilon) t\bar{i}nt\check{j}\check{n}r "mole" (animal)
```

Many words have a long root vowel followed by a mora which has been deleted either by reduction of a consonant cluster to a single consonant by assimilation $\underline{6.2.1}$ or by deletion of *g when no affix vowel follows $\underline{6.3.1}$. Tautosyllabic delinking $\underline{5.2}$ then always results in one H toneme applying to both morae of the long vowel.

```
níisε
                    ← *nīínsī
                                       (beside n\bar{i}im(s^{\epsilon}))
                                                                                        "birds" (sg nίiη<sup>a</sup> /ηη/)
píıňf
                    ← *pīínfū
                                       (cf pl p\bar{\iota}\iota ni^+)
                                                                                        "genet"
                                                                                        "cow"
náaf<sup>o</sup>
                    ← *nāágfū
                                       (cf pl n\overline{i}ig(t^+)
wáaf
                    \leftarrow *w\bar{a}\acute{a}gf\bar{v} \quad (cf \ pl \ w\bar{i}igi^+)
                                                                                        "snake"
yáaba
                    ← *yāágbā
                                                                                         "grandparent"
                    ← *vūégrī
                                                                                         fruit of the vúeŋ<sup>a</sup> tree
vúerε
```

Here belong all regular gerunds in $-r^{\varepsilon}$ formed from Pattern H fusion verbs 11.1 which have phonologically-deleted *g in the perfective:

```
náar<sup>ε</sup>
                          ← *nāágrī
                                                                                      "end"
from nāe<sup>+/</sup>
                          ← *nāagí
                                                                                      "finish"
        dí'ər<sup>ε</sup>
                          ← *dī' ágrī
                                                                                      "receiving"
from d\vec{r}e^{+/}
                          ← *dīˈəqí
                                                                                      "get"
                          ← *pɔ̃'ɔ̃grī
        púň'er<sup>ε</sup>
                                                                                      "rotting"
from pūň'e<sup>+/</sup>
                          "rot"
```

Fusion verbs show evidence of *g only in perfectives and gerunds; in imperfectives and in derived agent nouns *g is absent:

```
n\bar{a}ad^{a/} "finish" ipfv n\bar{a}ad^{a/} "finisher"
```

7.2.1.2 Subpattern HL

Subpattern HL represents stems with intrinsic initial ML. Few words belong here, but several are very common. Sg/pl forms with consonant-initial flexions show root-initial H falling on a *short* vowel, or on a long vowel with L on the second mora in the SF; otherwise Subpattern HL coincides with regular Pattern H.

nú'ùg ^ɔ	nú'ùs ^ε	nū'-	"hand, arm"
à-gáὺňg ^ɔ	à-gáàňd ^ɛ	à-gāň-	"pied crow"
nóbìr ^ɛ	nōbá ⁺	nōb-	"foot, leg"
gέl ^{lε}	gēlá ⁺	gēl-	"egg"
gbéèňm ^m	no pl	gbēň-	"sleep"
kísùg ^o	kīsá ⁺	kīs-	"hateful, taboo" (adj)
áňsìb ^a	āňs-nám ^a	āňs-	"mother's brother"

Here belong the irregularly formed gerunds

Olawsky treats words like Dagbani $g\acute{all}$ "egg" (Kusaal $g\acute{\epsilon l}^{l\epsilon}$) as regular Pattern H, and the equivalent of Kusaal 2-mora Pattern H stems as a separate tone class.

Several HL words have probably lost a stem mora historically: -s- -r- can represent older -ss- -rr- 6.2.1.1, and cf Mooré $g\tilde{a}oobg\delta$ "pied crow." $N\dot{u}'\dot{u}g^{\circ}$ "hand" has $^{\circ}|^{\epsilon}$ class cognates in Nawdm $n\dot{u}?\dot{u}$ pl ni?i and Gurmanche $n\dot{u}u$ pl nii; Kusaal has probably added further class suffixes to the original sg/pl forms.

7.2.2 Pattern L

Pattern L comprises all nouns and adjectives beginning with L in sg/pl. All tonemes are L, except on third or fourth morae when followed by stem-internal *-m-(including cases where *-mg- has assimilated to - $\eta\eta$ -), which carry H.

sὺ'υg ^a	sὺ'υς ^ε	sù'-	"knife"
zàk ^a	zà'as ^ɛ	zà'-	"dwelling-compound"
dìgır ^ɛ	dìga ⁺	dìg-	"dwarf"
mòlıf	mὸlι+	mòl-	"gazelle"
kù'øm ^m	no pl	ku̞'à-	"water"
mà ⁺	mà nám ^a	mà-	"mother"
mὲεŋ ^a	mὲεmιs ^ε	mὲεŋ-	"turtle"
pùgvdıb ^a	pùgvd-nàm ^a	pùgud-	"father's sister"

sàam ^{ma}	sàam-nàm ^a	sàam-	"father"
dìəm ^{ma}	dìəm-nàm ^a	dìəm-	"man's parent-in-law"
àĭrvŋ ^ɔ	àňrıma+	àňrvŋ-	"boat"
kàruŋ³ or kàrımu	g°		"reading" (gerund)
zùlvŋ ^ɔ	zùlıma ⁺	zùloŋ-	"deep"
yàluŋ ^ɔ	yàlıma ⁺	yàluŋ-	"wide"
zìlım ^{mɛ}	zìlıma+	zìlım-	"tongue"
<i>sàal</i> ^a (cf <u>7.3</u>)	sàalıb ^a	sàal-	"human"
nòŋıd ^a			"lover"
sìilíŋ ^a	sìilímìs ^ɛ		
	sìilís ^ɛ		
	sìilímà+	sìilíŋ-	"proverb"
zàaňsúŋ ^ɔ	zàaňsímà+	zàaňsúŋ-	"dream"
nàŋılím ^m		nòŋılím-	"love"
nòŋɪdím-tāa ⁼	<u>13.1.1.4</u>		"fellow lover" WK
sờŋɪdím-tāa=			"fellow-helper"
dàalím ^m	dàalímìs ^ɛ	dàalím-	"male sex organs"
ρὺ'alím ^m	ρὺ'alímὶs ^ε	pὺ'alím-	"female sex organs"
bì'isím ^m			"milk"

Nouns which are not m-stems do not show H before the class suffix m^m :

bòɔdιm ^m	no pl	bɔ̀ɔdɪm- <u>9.2.2</u>	"will"
zòtım ^m	no pl		"fear"
dàalım ^m	no pl		"maleness"
ρὺ'alım ^m	no pl		"femininity"

Tonally exceptional in showing H before stem m on the second mora is

bùgύm^m no pl bùgύm- or bùgῦm- "fire"

These forms in $-m(s^{\epsilon})$ perhaps derive from *-mimsi:

no sg	tàdımís ^ɛ	"weakness"
no sg	bùdımís ^ɛ	"confusion"

7.2.3 Pattern O

Pattern O shows M throughout in sg/pl forms and L throughout in the cb.

būυg ^a	būυs ^ε	bὺ-	"goat"
tān ^{nɛ}	tāna+	tàn-	"earth"
sīd ^a	sīdıb ^a	sìd-	"husband"
pu̯'āa	pū'ab ^a	pu̞'à-	"woman, wife"
sā'ab ^o	no pl	sà'-	"millet porridge"
gbīgιm ^{nε}	gbīgıma ⁺	gbìgım-	"lion"
йwāaŋ ^a	ňwāamιs ^ε	йwàaŋ-	"monkey"
mēεd ^a	mēεdιb ^a	mὲεd -	"builder"
sįākıd ^a	si̯ākıdıb ^a	sjàkıd-	"believer"
būtıŋ ^a	būtus ^ε	bùtıŋ-	"cup"
mēεdιŋ ^a	mēεdιs ^ε	mὲεdιŋ-	"building tool"

Agent nouns of the types which have -d- only in the plural when derived from from Pattern LO verbs are tonally heteroclite, consistently showing Pattern L sg and Pattern O pl (the cb would have had L tonemes in either case) 7.5:

ρὺ'υs ^a	pvิ'บรเdเb ^a	ρὺ'υs -	"worshipper"
kùes ^a	kūesıdıb ^a	kùes-	"seller"

Pattern O nouns and adjectives 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.

The word $g\bar{i}\eta \iota l(m^m)$ "shortness" is derived from the Pattern O adjective $g\bar{i}\eta^a$ "short"; it is the only potential five-mora-stem Pattern O word in my data, so this may be the regular toneme assignment in such cases. Cf however $g\bar{i}i\check{n}l(m^m)id$.

Pattern O all-M LFs become all-L at the end of questions 8.1:

```
Lì kā' gbígìmmɛɛ? "Isn't it a lion?"
```

Certain Pattern O words show **LF-final H** instead of the expected M toneme before prosodic clitics, but not before liaison words. For WK this occurs when the LF has > 3 *vocalic* morae and ends in *-VCV*, where *C* is a *single* consonant (i.e. not η):

yūgvdır ^{ε/}	yūgvda ⁺	yùgvd-	"hedgehog"
йwāaŋ ^a	ňwāamιs ^{ε/}	йwàaŋ-	"monkey"
bลิทูเd ^a	bāŋıdıb ^{a/}	bàŋɪd-	"wise man"
kpārıdıŋ ^a	kpārιdιs ^{ε/}	kpàrıdıŋ-	"thing for locking"

It also occurs with LFs with three vocalic morae ending in -mmV, and with LFs of two vocalic morae ending in -mm (which is derived historically from *-mmv):

gbīgιm ^{mε/}	gbīgıma+	gbìgım-	"lion"
zɔ̄ɔm ^{mε/}	zɔ̄ɔma+	zòɔm-	"fugitive"
tādım ^{m/}	tādımıs ^{ε/}	tàdım-	"weak person"

For some speakers, words of this type also have alternative forms with the final H in questions, alongside those displaying the usual change to all-L:

Lì à nē gbīgımmée?	"Is it a lion?" WK only; rejected by DK
Lì à nε̄ gbígìmmεε?	"Is it a lion?" both WK and DK

7.2.4 Noun prefixes

On noun prefixes generally see <u>14</u>. Tonally they are either M or L. L noun prefixes do not affect the rest of the tone pattern of the prefixed word:

Н	dàyūug ^{ɔ/}	dàyūud ^{ɛ/}	dàyū-	"rat"
HL	Bùsáŋ ^a	Bὺsáàňs ^ε	Bùsāŋ-	"Bisa person"
L	kùkpàrıg ^a	kùkpàrıs ^ε	kùkpàr-	"palm tree"
O	dàkīig ^a	dàkīis ^ε	dàkì-	"sib-in-law via wife"

M toneme noun 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:

Η	zīnzāun ^{o/}	zīnzāná+	zīnzáun-	"bat"
Н	Ňwāmpūrıg ^{a/}	Ňwāmpūrıs ^{ɛ/}	Ňwāmpúr-	"Mamprussi person"
Н	gūmpūzēr ^{ɛ/}	gūmpūzēyá+	gūmpūzér-	"duck"
Н	tīntōĭríg ^a	tīntōĭrís ^ɛ	tīntóňr-	"mole" <u>7.2.1.1</u>
Η	pīpīrıg ^{a/}	pīpīrιs ^{ε/}	pīpír-	"desert"
Н	bālērvg ^{ɔ/}	bālērıd ^{ɛ/}	bālér-	"ugly person"
O	fῦfῦm ^{mε}	fūfūma+	fūfúm-	"envy; stye in the eye"
L	sāmán ^{nɛ}	sāmánà ⁺	sāmán-	"courtyard"

One or two compounds behave tonally as if the first element were a prefix, with neutralisation of stem tonemes in the cb alone. All examples found involve cbs as premodifiers rather than heads, with cbs originally of the form CV-:

Ο	zūg-kūgυr ^{ε/}	zūg-kūga+	zūg-kύg-	"pillow" <u>9.2.2</u>
O	kā-wēnnιr ^{ε/}	kā-wēnna+	kā-wέn-	"corn"
Н	pūkpāad ^{a/}	pūkpāadíb ^a	pūkpá-	"farmer" 14.1.4

7.3 Verbs

Variable and dynamic-invariable verbs show just two Tone Patterns:

Pattern H initial M or H

Pattern LO L throughout in the indicative and imperative moods

M throughout in the irrealis mood

Variable verbs have three finite forms $\underline{11.1}$. The $-m^a$ imperative is found only (and always) with tone overlay $\underline{19.6.1.1}$ so it is unnecessary to treat it further here; perfective and imperfective forms will be cited in that order. Dynamic-invariable verbs have a single finite form which behaves tonally like the ipfv of a variable verb.

The Tone Patterns of all regular deverbal nominals are predictable 7.5.

Variable verbs show levelling of variant subpatterns in Pattern H and conflation of Patterns O and L. This was probably driven by regular falling together of the tone patterns in perfectives, resulting from the inhibition there of the usual Pattern O change to all-M tonemes 7.1 and the loss of differing final tonemes in SFs. This would create analogical pressure to level gerund tones. Tonally anomalous 2-mora stem gerunds survive with Subpattern HL and with Pattern L 12.1.1.1.1, testifying to a once more complicated picture: segmental and tonal levelling correlate in the two gerunds of $k\bar{\imath}r^{\epsilon}$ "hurry, tremble": $k\hat{\imath}k\acute{\imath}r\dot{\imath}g^{\flat}$ and $k\bar{\imath}r\iota b^{\flat\prime}$.

Pattern LO *dynamic* imperfectives have all-L stem tonemes. They do not become all-M, unlike Pattern O nominal singulars and plurals 7.2.3, because the flexions - d^a and - d^a are historically the result of adding d^a to stems with *derivational* - d^a or - d^a are historically the result of adding d^a to stems with *derivational* - d^a or - d^a are historically the result of adding d^a to stems with derivational - d^a or - d^a and - d^a "human being" d^a "human being" d^a "human being" d^a and d^a and d^a "human being" d^a and d^a "human being" d^a and d^a and d^a "human being" d^a "human being" d^a and d^a "huma

The different tonemes of 4-mora stem Pattern LO pfvs like zàaňsım^m and ipfvs like zàaňsım^{ma} "dream" from Pattern L nouns like zàaňsúŋ³ "dream" cb zàaňsúŋ² must be attributed to levelling of the verbal forms on the analogy of 2- and 3-mora Pattern LO stems.

Irrealis mood triggers O Raising in perfectives, probably because the final mora does not then have an imposed L toneme <u>8.2.3</u>. By analogy, the much less common irrealis forms of Pattern LO dynamic imperfectives and Pattern L stative verbs also change all L tonemes to M.

7.3.1 Pattern H

Pattern H 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, prior to tautosyllabic delinking <u>5.2</u>; however, 2-mora perfectives carry MM. The form before interrogative clitics confirms the pattern, because it becomes LL like all other all-M sequences in this context:

```
\grave{O} p\bar{v} g\bar{\jmath}s\varepsilon. "She didn't look" \grave{O} p\bar{v} g\bar{\jmath}s\varepsilon? "Didn't she look?" \grave{O} p\bar{v} d\bar{v}g\varepsilon. "She didn't cook." \grave{O} p\bar{v} d\acute{v}g\varepsilon? "Didn't she cook?"
```

The final mora carries H before liaison words, probably from the same imposition of underlying L as in Pattern LO verbs <u>8.2.3</u>:

```
Kà ò dūgí lī "And she cooked it."
```

Unlike nouns, verbs show no anomalous patterns due to mora deletion (see on fusion verbs below), and no Subpattern HL.

Examples for Pattern H:

```
ňνē+
                             ňvĒta/
                                                                                       "see"
kū<sup>+</sup>
                             kūυd<sup>a/</sup>
                                                                                       "kill"
                             dūαυd<sup>a/</sup>
dūaε
                                                                                       "cook"
                             pįāň'ad<sup>a/</sup>
pįāň'<sup>a</sup>
                                                                                       "speak", "praise"
                             kūn<sup>na/</sup>
kūlε
                                                                                       "go home"
yādιg<sup>ε/</sup>
                             yādıgída
                                                                                       "scatter"
mɔ̄ɔlɛ/
                             mɔ́ɔn<sup>na</sup>
                                                                                       "proclaim"
dīgıl<sup>ε/</sup>
                             dīgín<sup>na</sup>
                                                                                       "lav down"
nōk<sup>ε/</sup>
                             nōkíd<sup>a</sup>
                                                                                       "take"
           /kk/
                                            /kk/
lāním<sup>m</sup> /ηη/
                             lāním<sup>ma</sup>
                                                                                       "wander searching"
                                            /ŋŋ/
                             dīgi<sup>ya/</sup>
                                                                                       "be lying down"
                             tīˈiya/
                                                                                       "be leaning" (objects)
                             zāňl<sup>la/</sup>
                                                                                        "be holding"
                             gɔ̃lla/
                                                                                       "have neck extended"
```

As with nominals 7.2.1, Tautosyllabic delinking results in MH on a long vowel becoming single H; again, as it applies after apocope, LFs ending in long vowels or diphthongs or *-mm* correspond to regular SFs, but where the LF final mora would have carried H toneme by the usual rules, the H appears at the beginning of the final *syllable* 5.2, with superscript notation writing the acute tone mark at the end 2.3.1:

```
tɔ̃ɔm<sup>m/</sup> tɔ́ɔm<sup>ma</sup> or tɔ̄ɔmíd<sup>a</sup> "disappear"

SF tɔ̄ɔm LF tɔ́ɔmm

pāe<sup>+/</sup> "reach"

SF pāe LF pāée
```

Fusion verbs show no sign of *g in the imperfective tonally:

```
p\bar{a}e^{+/} p\bar{a}ad^{a/} not*p\acute{a}ad^a "reach" d\bar{r}e^{+/} d\bar{r} \ni d^{a/} not*d\acute{t} \ni d^a "get" p\bar{u}\check{n}'e^{+/} p\bar{u}\check{n}'e^{a/} not*p\acute{u}\check{n}'e^{a/} "rot" WK
```

Contrast the corresponding gerunds in $-r^{\epsilon}$: $p\acute{a}ar^{\epsilon} d\acute{l} \rightarrow r^{\epsilon} p\acute{u} n' \rightarrow r^{\epsilon}$.

7.3.2 Pattern LO

All stem tonemes are L in the indicative and imperative, and M in the irrealis.

bὺd ^ε	bùt ^a	"plant"
dì+	dìt ^a	"eat"
mὲ ⁺	mὲεd ^a	"build"
zàb ^ε	zàbıd ^a	"fight, hurt"
bùel [€]	bùen ^{na}	"call"
bòdιg ^ε	bòdıgıd ^a	"get lost, lose"
nìŋ ^ε	nìŋɪd ^a	"do"
màal ^ɛ	màan ^{na}	"sacrifice"
dìgın ^ε	dìgınıd ^a	"lie down"
wàŋım ^m	wàŋเm ^{ma}	"waste away"
sìilım ^m	sìilım ^{ma}	"cite proverbs"
zàaňsım ^m	zàaňsım ^{ma}	"dream"
	zìň'i ^{ya}	"be sitting down"
	tàbı ^{ya}	"be stuck to"
	tèňr ^a	"remember"

In the irrealis, as with nominal Pattern O, the last toneme of the LF is M:

Ò nà b5d(g. "He'll get lost." Ò kừ zābε. "She won't fight." Ò kù bɔ̄dιgε. "He won't get lost." Ò kừ bɔdıgıda. "She won't be getting lost." Ò kừ būenna. "She won't be calling." Ò nà b5d(q) m. "He will lose me." "He will not lose me." Ò kù bɔdıgı má. "She will lose them." Ò nà b5d(g) bá. Ò kừ bōdıgı báa. "She won't lose them." Ò kù bɔdıqıdı má. "He won't be losing me." Ò kỳ zābidi má. "He won't be fighting me." Ò kỳ zābidinέ. "He wouldn't have been fighting." Ò kừ sĩilımm. "She won't cite proverbs" WK

but \dot{O} $k\dot{v}$ $l\bar{a}\eta$ $l\bar{m}m$. "She won't wander about searching $(l\bar{a}\eta$ $l\bar{m}^m$)."

Such forms are always followed by M spreading:

Ò nà zāb ná'àb lā. "He'll fight the chief." Ò nà gōs ná'àb lā. "He'll look at the chief."

The LF with the enclitic pronoun o can here show either M or H (all WK):

 \grave{O} $k\grave{\upsilon}$ $z\bar{a}b\cdot\acute{o}$ -o. "He won't fight him." or \grave{O} $k\grave{\upsilon}$ $z\bar{a}b\cdot o$ -o. "He won't fight him." or \grave{O} $k\grave{\upsilon}$ $k\bar{a}d\cdot\acute{o}$ -o. "He won't drive him away." or \grave{O} $k\grave{\upsilon}$ $k\bar{a}d\cdot o$ -o. "He won't drive him away."

In questions, clause-final M...M become L...L just as with Pattern O nominals:

M ná bὸdιgεε? "Will I get lost?"

7.3.3 Stative verbs

Because their stems do not contain a Pattern-L-deriving suffix before the $^{\rm a}$ flexion, stative verbs maintain distinct Patterns O and L. Where consonant gemination occurs before $^{\rm a}$, it is either part of an adjectival stem or due to analogy (so with all m-stems for WK 11.2.) Adjectives correspond to adjectival verbs with the same surface SF tones as the sg/pl of the adjective, HL being conflated with H:

Н	wōk ^{ɔ/}	"long, tall"	wā'am ^{ma/}	"be long,tall"
	būgvsír ^ε	"soft"	būgvs ^{a/}	"be soft"
	vūr ^{ε/}	"alive"	νōę ^{a/}	"be alive"
	zēmmύg ^ɔ	"equal"	zēm ^{ma/}	"be equal"
	kísùg ^o	"hateful, taboo"	kīs ^{a/}	"hate"
L	vènnıg ^a	"beautiful"	vèn ^{na}	"be beautiful"
	zùluŋ ^ɔ	"deep"	zùlım ^{ma}	"be deep"
	pòɔdɪg ^a	"small"	pòɔd ^a	"be few, small"
O	tɔ̄ɔgɔ	"bitter"	tōea∕	"be bitter"
	gīŋ ^a	"short"	gīm ^{ma/}	"be short"
	kpī'oŋ ^ɔ	"strong"	kpī əm ^{ma/}	"be strong"
	крḗєňт ^т	"elder"	kpēεňm ^{ma/}	"be older than"
	พ <i>ิ</i> ยิททเr ^ะ	"resembling"	wε̄n ^{na/}	"resemble"

However, the all-M tones of verbs corresponding to Pattern O adjectives have been reanalysed as verbal Pattern H, with LF-final H toneme. They never become all-L before the interrogative prosodic clitics (specifically checked with WK and DK.)

All-L SFs become all-M in the irrealis mood, by analogy with variable verbs 7.3:

 \dot{O} nà $v\bar{\epsilon}n$. "She'll be beautiful."

7.4 Particles

Some particles have the segmental and tonal structure of nouns.

Proclitic liaison words all have a single mora with a fixed-L toneme <u>8.3.1</u>. Catenator-*n* is toneless and transparent to M spreading. Liaison enclitics carry H after a host-final M toneme and M otherwise; this M becomes H in the LF <u>8.2.3</u>.

Enclitic particles with the Short Form CV which are not liaison words have three possible Tone Patterns, corresponding to the H, L and O Patterns of nominals. Most are Pattern H, like the article $l\bar{a}^{+/}$. Pattern L are $nw\dot{a}^{+}$ "this" and $s\dot{a}^{+}$ "hence, ago"; Pattern O is the Independent/perfective marker $y\bar{a}^{+}$ 19.6.2.1.

Pattern H enclitics change the M to H in the LF (compare the words with apocope-blocking 7.1.) Before the negative prosodic clitic 8.1 the Pattern H LFs thus end in H, while the Pattern O clitic ends in M, and before the two interrogative prosodic clitics 8.1, Pattern O becomes all-L. Thus with $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ and $y\bar{a}^{+}$:

```
Lì bòdig nē. "It's lost."

Lì bòdig née? "Is it lost?"

Lì bòdig yā. "It's got lost."

Lì bòdig yàa? "Has it got lost?"
```

```
Ka o ba' nɛ o ma pv baŋ ye o kpɛlim yaa.

Kà ò bā' nɛ ò mà pv báŋ yɛ ò kpɛlim yāa + \emptyset.

and 3AN father:SG with 3AN mother:SG NEG.IND realise that 3AN remain PFV NEG.

"His father and mother did not realise that he had remained." (Lk 2:43)
```

7.5 Tone in derivation

Root tone patterns can be deduced from the tone patterns of words with stems lacking any derivational suffix, and by comparing patterns in derived stems.

It is exceptional for forms derived from H roots to show L, O or LO Patterns, or vice versa; this happens systematically only with "assume-stance" verbs <u>13.2.1.1</u>.

Roots showing Subpattern HL in nouns and adjectives <u>7.2.1.2</u> fall together with regular Pattern H in all other derived or cognate words:

áňsìb ^a	"maternal uncle"	āňsíŋ ^a	"sister's child"
kísùg ^o	"hateful"	kīs ^{a/}	"hate"
gźsìg ^a	"looking"	gɔ̄s ^ɛ	"look"

After O/L roots derivational suffixes themselves differ in tonal behaviour, some producing Pattern L stems and others Pattern O. The Tone Pattern is determined entirely by the *last* derivational suffix, unless this is *m as a second suffix. Pattern O roots can give rise to Pattern L stems, and *vice versa*:

```
b\bar{i}ig^a "child" "childhood" (-l-) n\dot{a}'ab^a "chief" "n\bar{a}'am^m "chiefship" (-m-)
```

Most derivational suffixes added to O/L roots produce Pattern L/LO stems. No stem with *g *I *s or *b as a final derivational suffix is Pattern O.

All segmentally regular gerunds have predictable Tone Patterns; most segmentally irregular gerunds formed from root verbs are tonally regular.

	from Pattern H verbs			
	from Pattern LO verbs			
	2-mora stem per	fective		Pattern O
	otherwise			Pattern L
dūgε	"cook"	\rightarrow	dūgυb ^{ɔ/}	
nōk ^{ε/}	"take"	\rightarrow	nōkír ^ɛ	
dīgιlε	lay down"	\rightarrow	dīgılúg ^ɔ	

mὲ ⁺	"build"	\rightarrow	mēεb ^ɔ	
		\rightarrow	mὲεdím-tāa ⁼	"fellow-builder"
sùŋ ^ɛ	"help"	\rightarrow	sùŋır ^ɛ	
dìgın ^ε	"lie down"	\rightarrow	dìgınvg ^ɔ	
zàaňsım ^m	"dream"	\rightarrow	zàaňsúŋ ^ɔ	

The regular assignment of 3- and 4-mora stem Pattern LO verb gerunds to Pattern L can be explained by the fact that the great majority of such stems have a Pattern-L-deriving suffix; others would follow their analogy.

Imperfective gerunds $\underline{13.1.1.4}$ with *d from Pattern LO verbs are Pattern L, as in $b \grave{\supset} d\iota m^m$ "will" and $m \grave{\varepsilon} \epsilon d\iota m - t\bar{a}a^=$ "fellow-builder"; here as in finite imperfective forms $\underline{7.3}$, the suffix *d is Pattern-L-deriving.

Agent nouns, deverbal adjectives and instrument nouns also have predictable Tone Patterns:

from Pattern H verbs	Pattern H
from Pattern LO verbs	
containing derivational -d-	Pattern O
otherwise	Pattern L

The suffix *d in these formations is Pattern-O-deriving: $b\bar{\jmath}\jmath d\iota r^{\epsilon}$ "desirable", $m\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon d\iota \eta^a$ "building implement." Stems where this *d is absent (not just assimilated into a cluster as -mn- or -nn-) are Pattern L, with a change of Tone Pattern possible even within a single noun paradigm 7.2.3.

There is little evidence for change of Tone Pattern alone, without any segmental stem alteration, as a derivational process, but a possible case might be $gb\bar{a}u\eta^{5/}$ "skin", "book" DK, $gb\dot{a}u\eta^{5}$ "book" WK.

8 External sandhi

Kusaal shows a range of intricate external sandhi phenomena, comprising not only straightforward segmental contact phenomena <u>8.5</u>, but also tone sandhi of two types, one which applies across phrase boundaries <u>8.3</u> and one limited to certain NP and AdvP constructions <u>8.4</u>, and several processes related to apocope <u>2.3</u>, with its complete suppression before certain "prosodic clitics", which have zero segmental form themselves <u>8.1</u>, and partial suppression before several other particles and pronouns ("liaison words") <u>8.2</u>, some of which also have no segmental form of their own in most contexts (see below.)

Sandhi between proclitic words and following hosts often differs from that between word-forms capable of ending a phrase and following dependents, including enclitics which are not liaison words. Finite verb forms here align with *proclitics*. Proclitics and verbs ending in a fronting diphthong monophthongise phrase-internally, but this does not happen with noun singulars, even before the article $l\bar{a}^{+/}$:

sāeň lā	"the blacksmith"	
sàň-kàŋā	"this blacksmith"	
Ò sừ v lớr.	"She owns a lorry."	<i>sū</i> 'e ^{ya/} "own"
Lì nàa nē.	"It is finished."	<i>nāe</i> +∕ "finish"

In tone sandhi verb perfectives also resemble proclitics. Toende Kusaal perfectives behave like proclitics with respect to word-final stop devoicing 3.1 fn.

Two groups of very common words lack all segmental realisation, with their presence only detectable through segmental and/or tonal effects on preceding words. Prosodic clitics 8.1 cause the preceding word to appear as a LF instead of the usual SF. Four liaison enclitics 8.2.1 are reduced to zero by apocope. The 3sg animate object pronoun 0 and the post-imperative 2pl *subject* pronoun ya remain detectable after apocope only by the changes induced by the liaison preceding them. Nominaliser- \mathring{n} and catenator-n may be realised as $[\mathring{n}]$, but more often also appear only as segmental zero preceded by liaison. In interlinear glosses prosodic clitics are written as $^{+}\varnothing$, while these liaison enclitics are written $_{-}\varnothing$.

8.1 Prosodic clitics

All four prosodic clitics⁵ cause lowering of short LF-final ι υ to ε \supset respectively, which are realised slightly closer in this case than as root vowels.

Before prosodic clitics, and in forms with apocope-blocking, final $-m\iota$ and $-m\upsilon$ become -mm whenever the m is not geminated. The final m was presumably once syllabic, but the current realisation of -mm is [m:].

```
tìtm^m "medicine" SF tìtm LF tītmm \leftarrow *tìtm\bar{v} dāam^m/ "millet beer" SF dāam LF dáamm \leftarrow *dāamm0 v\bar{v}m^m/ "life" SF v\bar{v}m LF v\acute{v}mm \leftarrow *v\bar{v}mm\acute{v}
```

Word-final *iə uə* diphthongise to *ia ua* before prosodic clitics <u>4.1.1</u>.

None of these changes occur before liaison 8.2.

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:

```
sīa+
                    "waist"
                                       SF sīa
                                                    LF sīaa
                                                                  ← *sīəga
but
      dà'a=
                    "market"
                                       SF dà'a
                                                    LF dā'a
                                                                  ← *dà'agā
                    "dog"
      bāa=
                                       SF bāa
                                                    LF bāa
                                                                  ← *bāaga
      kū·ó=
                                       k\bar{v}^+ "kill" + ° "him/her"
                    "kill him"
                                                                  SF/LF [khv:]
```

The **negative prosodic clitic** appears at the end of a clause containing a negated or negative verb $\underline{19.5}$. Superscript notation $\underline{2.3.1}$ represents LFs as they appear before the negative prosodic clitic, both segmentally and tonally.

```
Lì à n\bar{\epsilon} n\acute{o}bìr. "It's a leg."

3INAN COP FOC leg:sG.

Lì k\bar{a}' n\acute{o}bir\bar{\epsilon} ^{+}Ø. "It's not a leg."

3INAN NEG.BE leg:sG NEG.

Lì à n\bar{\epsilon} d\bar{\nu}k. "It's a cooking pot."

3INAN COP FOC pot:sG.
```

⁵⁾ The concept of prosodic "clitics" is also useful for describing complex clause structures 24.2. Mooré has the clause-final particle *yé* after negative VPreds, and segmental vocative and interrogative clitics are also common in West Africa. For clitic-like elements cross-linguistically which lack segmental form see Spencer and Luís 2012: 5.5.1 on Tongan "definitive accent."

```
Lì k\bar{a}' d\bar{\nu}k\acute{\sigma} *^+Ø. "It's not a pot." 
3INAN NEG.BE pot:SG NEG.
```

Unlike short ιv , long final $\iota \iota vv$ are not lowered:

```
Bà à n\bar{\varepsilon} mớlì. "They are gazelles." 

3PL COP FOC gazelle:PL.

Bà k\bar{a}' mớlīι + \varphi. "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. The audio NT version sometimes shows a change of final H tone to falling (found also with some Hausa speakers, Jaggar p18.)

```
M bīiga
           +ø!
                               "My child!"
1sg child:sg voc!
                              "My children!"
M
   bīisε
           +a!
1SG child:PL voc!
Pu'aa, bo ka fu kaasida?
          +ø, bó kà fù kāasídà +ø?
Pu'āa
Woman:sg voc, what and 2sg cry:IPFV cq?
"Woman, why are you crying?" (In 20:13)
This is not a vocative noun form, but a particle following the entire NP:
dau one an yadda ninida
             àň yàddā-nínìdā +ø
dāu
       źnì
man:sg rel.sg cop faith-doer:sg voc
```

Two **interrogative prosodic clitics** end questions. Final vowel length distinctions are neutralised to short in content questions, long in polar questions:

```
Lì à n\bar{\varepsilon} n\acute{o}bir. "It's a leg (n\acute{o}b\iota r^{\varepsilon})."
```

"You man, who are a believer!" (1 Cor 7:16)

```
Ànó'onì ø ňyē nóbirè +ø?
                                    "Who saw a leg?"
          cat see leg:sg cq?
Who
      à n\bar{\epsilon} nóbirè\epsilon +\phi?
Lì
                                    "Is it a lea?"
3INAN COP FOC leg:SG
                                    "It's a cooking pot (d\bar{\nu}k^{)}."
Lì à nē dūk.
Ànó'ɔnì ňvē dūkó?
                                    "Who saw a pot?"
                                    "Is it a pot?"
Lì à nē dūkóò?
Lì à nε kūk.
                                    "It's a chair (kūka)."
Ànó'ɔnì ἤyē kύkà?
                                    "Who saw a chair?"
Lì à nĒ kúkàa?
                                    "Is it a chair?"
                                    "It's a lion (ab\bar{\iota}a\iota m^{n\epsilon})."
Lì à nĒ gbīgim.
Ànó'onì ňyē gbígìmne?
                                    "Who saw a lion?"
Lì à nē gbígìmnee?
                                    "Is it a lion?"
```

Length neutralisation results in a five-way $a \in \mathcal{I} \cup contrast$ in LF-final vowels by quality alone in this context:

Ànó'ɔnὶ ňyē kύkà?	"Who saw a chair(<i>kōk</i> a)?"
Ànó'ɔnì ňyē yīré?	"Who saw a house(<i>yῑr^{ε/}</i>)?"
Ànɔʻɔnὶ ňyē dɔ́ɔgɔ̀?	"Who saw a hut (dɔ̀ɔgɔ)?"
Ànɔʻɔnὶ ňyē mɔ́lì?	"Who saw gazelles(<i>mɔ̀lι</i> +)?"
Ànó'ɔnì ňyē bédugú?	"Who saw a lot (bɛ̀dvqū+/)?"

The two interrogative prosodic clitics induce a tonal change in the preceding LF. Kusaal is cross-linguistically unusual⁶ in signalling questions with a final *falling intonation*. All questions, polar or content, end with a L or H toneme.

Word-final M changes to L. Words with all-M tonemes change to all-L. This is an actual change of tonemes, not just a matter of intonation; the new L tonemes are subject to M spreading 8.3. 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 5.3.

⁶⁾ This is not uncommon in West Africa: cf Jaggar pp513, 525 on Hausa. Hausa also shows raising of the pitch of the last H tone preceding the fall in polar questions.

```
\dot{A}n\dot{\beta}'onì \ddot{n}y\bar{\epsilon} bíigà? "Who saw a child?" tonally identical to
```

Ànɔʻɔnì ňyē svʻvgà?"Who saw a knife (sv)'vga)?"Fv bɔɔ̀d bɔ?"What $(b\bar{o}^+)$ do you want?"Ànɔʻɔnì ňyē zuéyà?"Who saw hills $(zueya^+)$?"

Similarly with Pattern LO verbs in the irrealis mood:

```
\dot{M} ná b\bar{b}d\iota g.

"I will get lost."

\dot{M} ná b\dot{b}d\iota ge\epsilon?

"Will I get lost?"
```

With 2-mora stem Pattern H verb perfectives:

 \dot{O} $p\bar{v}$ $g\bar{\jmath}s\varepsilon$.

"She didn't look" \dot{O} $p\bar{v}$ $g\bar{\jmath}s\varepsilon$?

"Didn't she look?" \dot{O} $p\bar{v}$ $d\bar{v}g\varepsilon$.

"She didn't cook."

"Didn't she cook?"

8.1.1 Presubject Long Forms

There is often a pause after any pre-subject elements. Nevertheless, probable cases of liaison before subject pronouns occur:

```
Fù ná k\bar{u}l b\bar{\epsilon}og. "You'll go home tomorrow." 25G IRR go.home tomorrow.
```

```
but B\bar{\epsilon}og\dot{\nu} f\dot{\nu} n\acute{a} k\bar{u}l. "You're going home tomorrow." SB Tomorrow 25G IRR go.home.
```

All the examples in my materials of a LF ending a $y\dot{a}$ '-clause seem explicable as liaison before a subject pronoun:

```
Buŋ ya'a kpi be'ede, ba siido ne be'ed.

Bùŋ yá' kpì bĒ'ɛdɛ [?bĒ'ɛdɪ], bà sìɪd·ō Ø nĒ bĒ'ɛd.

Donkey:sG if die bad:PL, 3PL flay:IPFV 3AN.OB FOC bad:PL.

"When a donkey dies wrongly, they skin it wrongly." KSS p42

(i.e. "Make the best of a bad job.")
```

However, several conjunctions $\underline{24.1.3}$ have forms ending in LFs which resemble LFs preceding the negative prosodic clitic rather than liaison; thus KB consistently shows final - υ in the apocope-blocked $\underline{6.4}$ form $b\varepsilon deg\upsilon$ for $b\varepsilon d\upsilon g\bar{\upsilon}^{+/}$ "a lot", and equally consistently has final - υ in $b\upsilon zug\upsilon$ for $b\bar{\upsilon}$ zúg $\bar{\upsilon}$ "because", $dinzug\upsilon$ for $d\ln zúg\bar{\upsilon}$ "therefore" and $alazug\upsilon$ for $alazug\upsilon$ for $alazug\upsilon$ "therefore." This phenomenon is thus best regarded as an idiosyncratic derivational formation for conjunctions.

```
Ka o kaas bεdegv. "And he wept greatly." (Genesis 27:38)
Kà ò kāas bέdvgū.
And 3AN weep great:ADV.
bɔzugɔ ba zi' onɛ tvmi m la naa.
bɔ̄ zúgō, bà zī' ónì tòmi m lā náa +ø.
because 3PL NEG.KNOW REL.AN send 1SG.OB ART hither NEG.
"Because they do not know him who sent me here." (Jn 15:21)
```

8.2 Liaison

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 <u>8.3.1</u>, with the exception of catenator-*n*, which is toneless.

8.2.1 Liaison enclitics

Certain enclitics cause the preceding host word to appear as a modified LF instead of a SF.

They comprise two sets:

Locative	n ^ε	<u>17.3</u>
Discontinuous-past	n ^ε	<u>27.1.1</u>
Postposed 2pl subject pronoun	ya	25.2.3

The locative enclitic attaches directly to noun words; the discontinuous-past marker and the enclitic 2pl subject pronoun attach directly to verb words.

In this grammar, the Position 1 type words are hyphenated to the preceding host word, except with the enclitic 2pl subject when it is completely deleted by apocope 8.2.1.2.

Position 2:

all bound personal pronoun objects

16.3.1

	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>
1st	m ^a	tı+
2nd	P	ya ⁺
3rd animate	o [ʊ]	ba ⁺
3rd inanimate	lı+	

These pronouns either attach directly to a verb word or after either of the Position 1 clitics, discontinuous-past n^{ϵ} or 2pl subject y^{a} . They are written as separate words, except with the 3sg animate pronoun, which is altogether deleted by apocope 8.2.1.1; the preceding host-final rounded vowel mora is written $\cdot o$ 1.3.

Liaison enclitics prevent apocope applying to the preceding word, which retains its final affix vowel in **downranked** form with loss of quality contrasts. The downranked vowel is not epenthetic and occurs where epenthesis does not:

```
d\grave{u}m^{\mathsf{m}} "bite"
 + \mathrm{suffix} \cdot b^{\mathsf{D}} \rightarrow d\bar{u}m^{\mathsf{m}\mathsf{D}} gerund "biting"
but + ba^{+} "them" \rightarrow d\grave{u}m\iota b\bar{a} "bite them"
```

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 υ [υ] before υ "him/her" 8.2.1.1.

LF-final $-i\partial -u\partial$ remain as such before liaison, not becoming -ia -ua 4.1.1. Examples with host LFs ending in short vowels:

```
kūka
                   "chair"
                                     + n^{\epsilon} "at. in"
                                                                           kūkι-n<sup>ε/</sup>
d\bar{v}k^{2/}
                   "pot"
                                     + n^{\varepsilon} "at, in"
                                                                           dūkί-n<sup>ε</sup>
                                                                           bàadī tí+
bàɔda
                   "want"
                                     + tı+ "us"
                                                                           bàadī f<sup>ol</sup>
                                              "you"
                                                                           pūυgυ-n<sup>ε/</sup>
pūυga
                   "inside"
                                      + n^{\varepsilon} "at"
                                                                  \rightarrow
                                                                           ρ̄̄̄̄̄̄̄̄̄̄οαν̄-n<sup>ε</sup>
p̄ɔaɔ/
                   "field"
                                      + n^{\epsilon} "at"
                                                                  \rightarrow
                                                                           yàugū-n<sup>ε/</sup>
yàvg<sup>ɔ</sup>
                   "grave"
                                      + n^{\varepsilon} "at"
                                                                  \rightarrow
                                               "They love me."
Bà bòɔdī m.
Bà pũ bósdĩ má.
                                               "They don't love me."
M bóodī f.
                                               "I love you."
                                               "I don't love you."
M pū bóodī fó.
                                               "They want it."
Bà bòodī lí.
Bà pō bóɔdī líi.
                                               "They don't want it."
```

```
Bà bòɔdī bá. "They love them."
Bà pō bóɔdī báa. "They don't love them."
```

Examples with host LFs ending in long vowels: After *CVV* perfectives:

```
Kà bà kúv m.
                                  "And they killed me." (k\bar{v}^+ "kill")
                                  "And they didn't kill me."
Kà bà pũ kúu mã.
Kà bà kúu bā.
                                  "And they killed them."
                                  "And they didn't kill them."
Kà bà pū kúu báa.
Kà bà kía f.
                                  "And they cut you." (kjà+ "cut")
Kà bà pō kía f5.
                                  "And they didn't cut you."
Kà bà kíə lī.
                                  "And they cut it."
Kà bà pō kía líi.
                                  "And they didn't cut it."
                                  "And they saw me." (n v \bar{\epsilon}^+ "see")
Kà bà ἤyέε m.
Kà bà pῦ ňyέε mā.
                                  "And they didn't see me."
Kà bà ἤyέε bā.
                                  "And they saw them."
Kà bà pῦ ňyέε báa.
                                  "And they didn't see them."
```

LFs ending in -mm behave as -mV before liaison:

```
t\grave{v}m^{\mathsf{m}} "send" +t\iota^+ "us" \rightarrow t\grave{v}m\iota\ t\bar{\iota}^{+/} d\bar{a}am^{\mathsf{m}/} "beer" +n^{\epsilon} "at, in" \rightarrow d\bar{a}am(n^{\epsilon} k\grave{u}'\bullet m^{\mathsf{m}} "water" +n^{\epsilon} "in" \rightarrow k\grave{u}'\bullet m\bar{\iota}-n^{\epsilon/}
```

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 <u>8.5.3</u>.

dà'a ⁼	"market"	+ n^{ε} "at, in"	\rightarrow	dā'an ^{€/} <u>2.3.1</u>
pāe ^{+/}	"reach"	+ tı+ "us" + f "you"	→	páa tī ^{+/} páa f ^o
pīe ^{+/}	"wash"	+ tı+ "us" + f "you"	→ →	píə tī ^{+/} píə f ^{>}
dūe⁺/	"raise"	+ tı+ "us" + f "you"	\rightarrow \rightarrow	dúe tī ^{+/} dúe f ^o

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 2.3.2):

```
s\bar{v}'e<sup>ya/</sup> "own" + l\iota^+ "it" \rightarrow s\dot{v}'v l\bar{\iota}^{+/} v\bar{v}e^{a/} "live" + n^{\varepsilon} dp \rightarrow v\bar{v}v-n^{\varepsilon/}
```

Fronting of the second mora of a LF-final long vowel occurs before the 2pl object pronoun ya^+ , with exactly the same fronting changes as are seen word-internally before y 6.3.2 with any back second mora becoming e [I] but no change with front second morae:

```
Bà bòodī yá.
                                    "They love you."
                                    "They don't love you."
Bà pũ bósdī váa.
                                    "And they killed you (pl)." (k\bar{v}^+ "kill")
Kà bà kúe vā.
                     [kʰʊɪia]
Kà bà pũ kúe yáa.
                                    "And they didn't kill you (pl)."
Kà bà kíe yā.
                     [khiɪja]
                                    "And they cut you (pl)." (kjà+ "cut")
                                    "And they didn't cut you (pl)."
Kà bà pō kíe yáa.
                                    "And they saw you (pl)." (\check{n}y\bar{\varepsilon}^+ "see")
Kà bà ἤyέε yā.
                                    "And they didn't see you (pl)."
Kà bà pū ňyέε yáa.
                                    "And they reached you (pl)." (pāe<sup>+/</sup> "reach")
Kà bà páe yā.
                                    "And they didn't reach you (pl)."
Kà bà pū páe yáa.
```

For some speakers, rounding of unrounded long vowel second morae and of the default LF-final short vowel ι takes place before the 2 sg object pronoun f° "you":

```
Kà bà kíə f.
or Kà bà kío f.
Kà bà ἤyέε f.
or Kà bà ἤyέο f.
Kà bà páa f.
or Kà bà páv f.
"And they saw you (sg)."
"And they reached you (sg)."
```

```
\dot{M} gbáň'a f. "I've grabbed you (sg)." or \dot{M} gbáň'v f.
```

Rounded forms are invariable in the 1996 NT version; 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.

8.2.1.1 3sg animate pronoun °

The 3sg animate object pronoun o [o] "him/her" loses its entire segmental form when subject to apocope 2.3, after causing the host final vowel mora to become [o]; this rounded final mora remains to signal the silent presence of the pronoun. This mora is written ${}^{\cdot o}$ 1.3.1. It is always lax. In the LF the pre-liaison mora fuses with the [o] of the LF of the pronoun itself create a long vowel [o :], written ${}^{\cdot o}$ - o :

```
bòodā
               "wants"
                                     "him" →
                                                    bòod·ó-o
                                                                   (SF b \dot{z}) d \cdot \bar{o}
kīa
               "cut"
                                     "him" \rightarrow
                                                    kì∙ō-o
                                                                   (SF kì⋅o)
                                     "him" \rightarrow
ňγĒε
               "see"
                                                    ňyē·ó-o
                                                                   (SF ny \epsilon \cdot o)
Fù bɔ́ɔd·ō ø.
                                     "You love her."
                                                                   [fʊbɔ:dʊ]
2SG want
              3AN.OB.
Fὺ ρῦ
            bóod∙ó-o
                           +ø.
                                     "You don't love her."
                                                                  [fʊpʰʊbɔ:dʊ:]
2SG NEG.IND want-3AN.OB NEG.
Fὺ ἤγέ∙ο Ø.
                                     "You've seen her."
                                                                   [fʊjɛ̃ʊ̃]
25G see
             3AN.OB.
Εὺ ρῦ
             ňyē·ó-o
                                     "You've not seen her."
                                                                   [fʊpʰʊjɛ̃ʊː]
2SG NEG.IND See-3AN.OB NEG.
```

The second morae of pre-liaison long vowels always become [v], never [u] (contrast word-internal rounding before *kkv * $\eta\eta\nu$ 6.3.2):

```
z\bar{u}^+
                 "steal"
                                  + 0
                                                                   z\bar{u}\cdot\dot{o}^{-0} SF [zu\sigma]
                                                                                             LF [zuʊ:]
                                          "him/her"
                                                                   ňyē·ό-ο SF [ĩε̈ʊ]
ňyē+
                 "see"
                                  + 0
                                          "him/her"
                                                                                             LF [ĵ̃ẽʊ:]
dì+
                                  + 0
                                          "him/her"
                 "eat"
                                                                   dì∙o⁻o
                                                                              SF [dɪʊ]
                                                                                             LF [div:]
                                                           \rightarrow
kià+
                 "cut"
                                  + 0
                                          "him/her"
                                                           \rightarrow
                                                                   kì∙o<sup>-0</sup>
                                                                             SF [khiʊ]
                                                                                             LF [khiʊ:]
```

```
pāe+/
                             + 0
                                     "him/her"
              "reach"
                                                           pā·ó-0
pīe<sup>+/</sup>
               "wash"
                             + 0
                                     "him/her"
                                                           pī∙ó<sup>-0</sup>
                             + 0
dūe<sup>+/</sup>
                                                           dū·ó⁻o
               "raise"
                                     "him/her"
àeňa
               "be"
                             + 0
                                     "him/her"
                                                           àñ·o⁻º
                                     "I am he." (In 18:5, 1976)
Mane a o.
              áň·o_ ø.
Mānı ø
1SG.CNTR CAT COP
                     3AN.OB.
```

LFs ending in -mm behave as -mV before liaison:

```
t\dot{v}m^{m} "send" + ° "him/her" \rightarrow t\dot{v}m\cdot o^{-0}
```

The two final LF morae are subject to tautosyllabic delinking <u>5.2</u>:

```
M bɔ́ɔd·ō.
                                         "I love him/her."
\dot{M} p\bar{v} b\acute{5}cd\cdot\acute{6}-o. (\leftarrow\cdot\bar{o}-\acute{6})
                                         "I don't love him/her."
Kà bà kú·o.
                        [kʰʊ:]
                                         "And they killed him."
Kà bà pū kú·o.
                        8.1
                                         "And they didn't kill him."
Kà bà kí·o.
                                         "And they cut him."
                                         "And they didn't cut him."
Kà bà pō kí·ō-o.
                                         "And they saw her."
Kà bà ny \varepsilon \cdot o.
Kà bà pῦ ňyē·ó-o.
                                         "And they didn't see her."
```

8.2.1.2 Postposed 2pl subject pronoun ya

The enclitic 2pl subject pronoun ya loses its entire segmental form in the SF 2.3, and its presence is revealed only by the word-final $-\iota$ on the preceding LF:

```
g \grave{>} sim "look!"

SF g \grave{>} sim\overline{\i} \sigma "look ye!" Traditional: gosimi

LF g \grave{>} sim\overline{\i} y \acute{a} 25.2.3 Traditional: gosimiya
```

Before the pronoun y^a the pre-liaison mora is invariably replaced by lax [1], usually written e as normal. In many cases this has the same outcome as word-internal fronting before y 6.3.2 and before the 2pl object pronoun y^a :

```
kū+
               "kill"
                              + ya
                                     "ve"
                                                           kūe-ya/
                                                    \rightarrow
                                                                          [khul]
kià+
               "cut"
                              + ya
                                     "ve"
                                                           kīē-ya/
                                                                          [khii]
pāe+/
               "reach"
                              + ya
                                    "ve"
                                                           pāe-ya/
/+aīa
                                                           pīe-ya/
               "wash"
                              + ya "ve"
                              + <sup>ya</sup> "ve"
dūe+/
                                                           dūe-ya/
               "raise"
```

However, the replacement also affects front vowels:

$$b\dot{\varepsilon}^+$$
 "be" $+ ya$ "ye" $\rightarrow b\bar{\varepsilon}e^{-ya/}$ [bei] written bei

The pronoun ya adopts the allomorph $-n\ell$ - before liaison, both before pronoun objects and before ala^+ "thus" ala_1 . The pronoun was historically ala_2 , which regularly became ala_2 with subsequent loss of emic nasalisation, as always with affix vowels ala_2 . When the ala_2 is deleted by apocope, ala_2 is also deleted ala_2 . When followed by a liaison word, the vowel ala_2 was not deleted but became ala_2 , before which ala_2 became ala_3 . (Cf also ala_4 "do" = Toende Kusaal ala_4 , locative ala_4 "appear" = Toende ala_4 "body" = Mooré ala_4 "body" = Toende ala_4 "body" = Toende al

```
Dā
        dɔ̃llı yá
                                "Follow ye not!"
NEG.IMP follow 2PL.SUB NEG!
Dì'əmī
                                "Receive ve!"
            ø!
receive: IMP 2PL.SUB!
                                "Receive ve them!"
Dì'əmī-ní
                   bā!
receive:IMP-2PL.SUB 3PL.OB
Dì'əmī-n·ó
                   ø!
                                "Receive ye her!"
receive:IMP-2PL.SUB 3AN.OB.
Sidiba, nəngimini ya pu'ab.
Sīdıba
            +ø, nànımī-ní
                                yà pū'ab.
Husband:PL voc, love:IMP-2PL.SUB 2PL wife:PL.
"Husbands, love your wives!" (Eph 5:25)
Biise, siakimini ya du'adib noya.
Bīisε
        +ø, si̯àkımī-ní_
                              yà dū'adıb nóyà.
Child:PL voc, agree:IMP-2PL.SUB 2PL parent:PL mouth:PL.
"Children, obey your parents." (Eph 6:1)
```

Dìgī-ní àlá! "Keep ye on lying down!"

Be.lying-2PL.SUB ADV:thus!

Dì'əmī-ní àlá! "keep ye on receiving!"

receive:IMP-2PL.SUB ADV:thus!

Dì'əmī-ní lá /dì'əmī-n álá! "keep ye on receiving!" See 8.2.2

8.2.2 Non-enclitic liaison words

Non-enclitic liaison words comprise

proclitic personal pronouns	m̀ fù ò lì tì yà bà	<u>16.3.1</u>
personifier clitics	à ǹ m̀	<u>16.6</u>
ànɔ́'ɔ̀nε "who?"		<u>16.3.4</u>
nominaliser	'n	<u>28</u>
catenator	n	<u>23.1</u>

along with all words beginning with

number prefixes	à bà bù	<u>14.3</u>
manner-adverb prefix	à	<u>14.2</u>

All these words have an initial fixed-L toneme 8.3.1, except VP catenator n, which has no toneme.

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 8.2.1.2, and in the *lack* of vowel lengthening before non-enclitic liaison words of forms which have not undergone apocope, such as $k\grave{a}$, $y\bar{\epsilon}$ 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 ι , rounding to υ 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 nominaliser n and with the VP catenator n (see below), this phenomenon is very limited in my informants' speech. It is only invariable with personal pronouns immediately preceded by a verb within the same verb phrase:

```
Tì gòsí bà bīis. "We looked at their children."

1PL look.at 3PL child:PL. (Liason 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
bànı nà yēl Zūg-sɔ́b bà tūvmá_ ø àň sī'əm lā

REL.PL IRR say head-one:sg 3PL deed:PL NZ COP INDF.ADV ART

"Those who will tell the Lord how their deeds are." (Heb 13:17, 1996)
(as read by WK, with a SF before bà tūvma.)

The audio version has ...Zūg-sɔ́bí bà...
```

Words which do not have apocope-blocking and which end in short root vowels prolong them before liaison:

```
... [n] loo Abaa zuur "... tying Dog's tail" <u>16.6</u> KSS p20
... n l5ɔ_ À-Bāa zύὺr
...cat tie pers-dog:sg tail:sg
```

Before liaison words beginning with \grave{a} - the quality of the final vowel mora of the preceding word is not predictable from the phonology alone.

Before $\partial n \mathcal{S} \cap \mathcal{E}$ "who?" <u>16.3.4</u>, the manner-adverb prefix and the personifier clitic the LF-final vowel is ι (υ after a velar preceded by a rounded vowel):

```
Ò nìn( àlá."She did thus."3AN do Adv:thus(contrast àlá "how many?" below)yeli Abaa"said to Dog" KSS p20yèli À-Bāasay PERS-dog:sG
```

Fusion verbs $\underline{11.1}$ show forms in final e [I] in these two cases, instead of the monophthongs aa ia ua usual before another word in the VP $\underline{8.5.3}$:

```
ka ba gban'e Adayuug "and they seized Rat" KSS p20
kà bà gbáň'e_A-Dàyūug
and 3PL seize PERS-rat:SG
```

However, the verb àeňa "be something" always appears as àaň, not àeň.

Before the number prefix *a*- the pre-liaison vowel is instead -*a*:

```
\dot{M} m\acute{o}r n\bar{\epsilon} b\bar{i}is\acute{a} \dot{a}t\acute{a}n'. "I have three children." 

1SG have FOC child:PL NUM:three. 

P\grave{\epsilon}ed\acute{a} \dot{a}l\acute{a} +\not{o}? "How many baskets?"
```

These rules are consistent in written materials. However my informants contract $-\dot{a}$ \dot{a} - to \dot{a} - with the number prefix (effectively just treating it as having an ordinary L toneme susceptible to M spreading):

(contrast àlá "thus" above)

```
N\bar{u}'-bíbìs álá kà fù ňy\bar{\epsilon}tá ^+\varnothing? hand-small:PL NUM:how.many and 2SG see:IPFV cQ? "How many fingers do you see?"
```

basket:PL NUM:how.many cq?

With other words beginning with a- my informants generally do not show liaison at all, except with \grave{a}/\acute{a} after imperatives, where the $-\acute{a}$ - is contracted to either $-\acute{a}$ - or $-\acute{c}$ - depending on the speaker.

```
gɔ̀sɪmí lá or gɔ̀sɪm álá "Keep on looking!"
```

WK and DK both always round the LF-final vowel before ò "his/her":

```
Bà gòsú ò bīig. "They've looked at her child." 
3PL look:at 3AN child:SG.
```

All my written sources, the NT, literacy materials and ILK, consistently show -i (i.e. -i [1]), which is presumably the original older form.

The distinctive sandhi of the number prefix a- can be accounted for historically. The prefix originated as * ηa -, the old $r^{\epsilon}|a^{+}$ class agreement 14.3. Original word-internal * η has disappeared completely throughout Western Oti-Volta (synchronic non-initial η being always from *mg or * $ng \rightarrow \eta \eta$), whereas word-medial y w survive in many contexts. Initial * η preceding unstressed vowels may likewise have disappeared early. Sandhi effects may outlive the complete phonetic disappearance of a consonant, as with the French "H aspiré." The data could be thus accounted for by supposing that * ηa 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*, but expressing this in terms of underlying synchronic phonological distinctions would be methodologically suspect in view of the absolute neutralisation involved (Kiparsky 1982.)

8.2.2.1 Nominaliser- \dot{n}

The post-subject clause nominaliser $n \ge 8$ combines with a preceding pronoun subject to produce a special set of pronouns 16.3.1. Note the contrasts between these pronouns and the plain and contrastive series in e.g.

```
zàb nà'ab
                                "I having fought the chief." (n-clause)
mán
                    Ιā
1SG:NZ fight chief:SG ART
Mānı ø záb nà'ab
                                "I have fought the chief." (n-focus)
                          Ιā.
1SG.CNTR CAT fight chief:SG ART
                                "we having fought the chief" (\dot{n}-clause)
tīnámì ø zàb nà'ab
                         Ιā
         NZ fight chief:SG ART
1PL
                                "We have fought the chief." (n-focus)
Tīnámì ø záb nà'ab
                            Ιā.
1PL
         CAT fight chief:SG ART
```

Elsewhere, my informants show neither n nor the segmental changes of preceding liaison, and the particle is represented by \emptyset in interlinear glossing. However, \grave{n} carries a fixed-L toneme 8.3.1 which causes a preceding M toneme to become H even when the particle has no segmental realisation itself.

```
záb ná'àb lā.
                                      "The man has fought the chief."
      Dāu
              Ιā
      man:sg art fight chief:sg art
                                      "The man has looked at the chief."
      Dāu
              lā gás
                        ná'àb
                                Ιā.
      man:sg art look.at chief:sg art
but
      dāu
             lá ø zàb nà'ab
                                      "the man having fought the chief"
      man:sg art nz fight chief:sg art
      dāu
              lá ø gōs
                             ná'àb
                                     Ιā
      man:sg art nz look.at chief:sg art
      "the man having looked at the chief"
```

Older texts frequently show n and/or liaison, but even texts which use n nearly always omit it after words with SFs ending in nasal consonants. In KB, n (without liaison) occurs mostly after foreign proper names. Texts confirm that the particle is a liaison word, with LF geminate consonants kept before the affix vowel:

```
ya zuobid wusa kalli an si'em
yà zūebíd wūsa kállì ø àň sī'əm
2PL hair:PL all number:SG NZ COP INDF.ADV
"how much the number of all your hairs is" (Lk 12:7)
```

8.2.2.2 Catenator-n

The VP catenator n 23.1 carries no toneme; a LF-final toneme before it is M after a M toneme and L otherwise.

After pause, all sources realise catenator-n as a syllabic nasal assimilated to the position of the following consonant. Elsewhere, WK has liaison before a particle with no segmental realisation, written \emptyset in interlinear glossing:

```
Kà ò zóɔ ø k\bar{\epsilon}\eta n\bar{a}. "And he came running" And san run cat come hither.
```

After a final vowel which is not a full word root vowel, WK has a consonantal nasal, assimilated to the position of the following consonant. Almost all instances of n in KB similarly appear after words with apocope-blocking, or after foreign names; the particle is usually segmental zero, with preceding liaison. Older sources again often show n and/or liaison, with n rare after words with SFs ending in nasal consonants.

Realisations with neither n nor liaison also occur, particularly after verbs often used as "auxiliaries"; some preverbs probably originated in this way. This is significantly more frequent in NT/KB after words ending in -m -n -l or in vowels.

Written materials confirm that catenator-n is a liaison word by showing LF geminate consonants preserved before the affix vowel, e.g.

```
tvvm kane ka m tvmmi tisid Wina'am la.
tvvm-kànı kà m tvmmī ø tísid Winà'am lā
work-rel.sg and 1sg work:IPFV cat give:IPFV God ART
"The work which I do for God" (Rom 15:17)
```

The *n* of non-verbal predicators 22 is phonologically identical to catenator-*n*:

```
B\bar{D} = \emptyset I\acute{a} +\emptyset? "What's that?" What cat that co?
```

8.2.3 Tonemes before liaison

Liaison enclitics themselves carry H toneme after host-final M toneme and M after L or H. The M becomes H before prosodic clitics:

```
M zábī bá.
                                       "I've fought them."
      Kà m zábì bā.
                                       "And I've fought them."
                                       "I don't love them."
      M pū bɔ́ɔdī báa.
                                       "I don't love you."
      M pū bóodī fó.
cf
      Kà m pū zábì báa.
                                       "And I didn't fight them."
cf
      Kà m pū zábì fō.
                                       "And I didn't fight you."
      Ànó'ɔnì kúu bá?
                                       "Who has killed them?" SF kúu bā
```

The locative enclitic n^{ε} does not alter the preceding toneme:

```
ρūυg<sup>a</sup>
                       "inside"
                                              + n^{\varepsilon} "at"
                                                                                 → pūυqυ-n<sup>ε/</sup>
                                                                                                                   (Pattern O)
                                                                                 → bīiaι-n<sup>ε/</sup>
bīiga
                       "child"
                                              + n^{\varepsilon} "at"
                                                                                                                   WK
mὺ'ar<sup>ε</sup>
                       "dam, lake"
                                              + n^{\varepsilon} "at"
                                                                                 → mờˈarī-n<sup>ε/</sup>
/כ<sub>סכ</sub>כֿמ
                                              + n^{\varepsilon} "at"
                                                                                 → p̄ɔ̄ɔqú-n<sup>ε</sup>
                       "field"
yàad<sup>€</sup>
                       "graves"
                                              + n^{\varepsilon} "at"
                                                                                → yàadī-n<sup>ε/</sup>
                                                                                                                   WK
                                                                                 → kūνdíbī-n<sup>ε/</sup>
kūυdíba
                       "killers"
                                                                                                                   WK
                                              + n^{\varepsilon} "at"
dà'a=
                       "market"
                                              + n^{\varepsilon} "at"
                                                                                 \rightarrow d\bar{a}'a-n^{\epsilon/1} for d\hat{a}'\bar{a}-n^{\epsilon/1} 5.2
```

Note that in $d\bar{\nu}k \, l\bar{a} \, p\dot{\nu}\nu g\bar{\nu}-n^{\epsilon}$ "inside the pot", $p\bar{\nu}\nu g^{a}$ "inside" shows the normal LF-final M after L/H despite being changed by L spreading 8.4.

Discontinuous-past n^{ε} and the postposed 2pl ^{ya} both impose M tone on the preceding LF-final mora, regardless of its intrinsic toneme:

```
dūgε
                                 "cook"
                                                       + n^{\varepsilon} dp
                                                                                        → dūgυ-n<sup>ε/</sup>
                                                                                        → bòdιaī-n<sup>ε/</sup>
           bòdιgε
                                 "lose"
                                                       + n<sup>ε</sup>
                                                                  dp
           vādıg<sup>€/</sup>
                                                                                        → yādıgı-n<sup>ε/</sup>
                                 "scatter"
                                                       + n<sup>ε</sup>
                                                                  dρ
           kūυd<sup>a/</sup>
                                                                                        → kūυdι-n<sup>ε/</sup>
                                 "kill"
                                                       + nε
ipfv
                                                                  dр
                                                                                        → vādıgídī-n<sup>ε/</sup>
ipfv
           yādıgída
                                 "scatter"
                                                       + nε
                                                                  dp
                                                                                        \rightarrow m\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon - n^{\epsilon/l} for m\dot{\epsilon}\bar{\epsilon} - n^{\epsilon/l} 5.2
           m\dot{\varepsilon}^+
                                                       + n<sup>ε</sup>
                                 "build"
                                                                  dp
           Dā
                        dɔ̃llı yá
                                                                  "Follow ye not!"
           NEG.IMP follow 2PL.SUB NEG!
```

Indicative perfectives without independency-marking tone overlay $\underline{19.6.1.1}$ change LF-final LM \rightarrow LL and MM \rightarrow MH before enclitic object pronouns

```
bòdιqε
                     "lose"
                                          + m<sup>a</sup> "me"
                                                                         → bòdigi ma
dì+
                                          + /t<sup>+</sup> "it"
                                                                         → dù lī+/
                     "eat"
vādιg<sup>ε/</sup>
                     "scatter"
                                          + m<sup>a</sup> "me"
                                                                         → yādıgí ma
                     "cook"
                                          + /t<sup>+</sup> "it"
                                                                          → dōaí lī<sup>+/</sup>
dūaε
ḡsε
                     "look"
                                          + 0
                                                                         \rightarrow a\bar{5}s\cdot\acute{0}^{-0}
                                                    "him/her"
k\bar{p}^+
                     "kill"
                                          + m<sup>a</sup> "me"
                                                                         \rightarrow k \dot{\nu} \dot{\nu} m^a for k \bar{\nu} \dot{\nu} m^a 5.2
```

Pattern H fusion verb perfectives behave exactly like CVV-stems:

```
p\bar{a}e^{+/} "reach" + m^a "me" \rightarrow p\acute{a}a m^a d\bar{r}e^{+/} "get" + ba^+ "them" \rightarrow d\acute{r}e^{+/}
```

After all other verb forms, object pronouns do not alter the host tonemes:

```
zàbıda
                   "fights"
                                      + m<sup>a</sup> "me"
                                                                  → zàbıdī ma/
                                                                  → dìtī lí+
                                      + /t<sup>+</sup> "it"
dìta
                   "eats"
                                                                  → yādıgídī bá+
vādıgíd<sup>a</sup>
                                      + ba+ "them"
                   "scatters"
                   "kills"
kūυd<sup>a/</sup>
                                      + m<sup>a</sup> "me"
                                                                  → kūυdí ma
                                      + /t<sup>+</sup> "it"
                                                                  \rightarrow s\dot{v}'v l\bar{\iota}^{+/}
sū'e<sup>ya/</sup>
                   "own"
```

The sequence $\cdot o$ -o resulting from the LF of the 3sg animate pronoun o fusing with the vowel before liaison is subject to tautosyllabic delinking 5.2:

```
\grave{M} b\acute{\circ} j \circ d \cdot \bar{o}. "I love him/her." \grave{M} p\bar{\upsilon} b\acute{\circ} j \circ d \cdot \dot{o} \circ o. (\leftarrow \cdot \bar{o} \circ \dot{o}) "I don't love him/her."
```

Irrealis mood forms of Pattern LO verbs:

```
Ò nà b5d(g) m.
                                    "He will lose me."
   Ò kù bɔdıgı má.
                                    "He will not lose me."
   Ò nà b5d(q) bá.
                                   "She will lose them."
                                   "She won't lose them."
   Ò kừ bōdigi báa.
   Ò kù bɔdıgıdı má.
                                   "He won't be losing me."
   Ò kù zābīdī má.
                                    "He won't be fighting me."
   Ò kù zāb·ó-o.
                                   "He won't fight him."
or Ò kừ zāb·o-o.
                                   "He won't fight him."
```

Irrealis Pattern LO and indicative Pattern H thus contrast before object pronouns in 2-mora stems:

```
z\bar{a}be + m^a \rightarrow z\bar{a}b\iota \ m^{a/} "...will fight me" d\bar{\nu}ge + m^a \rightarrow d\bar{\nu}g\ell \ m^a "...cook for me"
```

All non-enclitic liaison words begin with a fixed-L toneme <u>8.3.1</u> except for catenator-*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.

Perfectives without tone overlay:

```
Kà tì díu bà dīub. "And we ate their food."

And IPL eat 3PL food.

Kà ò bódigì bà bòmis. "And he lost their donkeys."

And 3AN lose 3PL donkey:PL.

Kà ò dōgí bà dīub. "And he cooked their food."

And 3AN cook 3PL food.
```

Imperfective without tone overlay:

Kà bà dìtī bá.

```
And 3PL eat:PFV 3PL.OB.

but K\grave{a} b\grave{a} d\grave{\iota}t\acute{\iota} b\grave{a} d\bar{\iota}\iota b. "And they were eating their food." (ML \rightarrow HL)

And 3PL eat:IPFV 3PL food.
```

"And they were eating them."

Noun LFs before fixed-L liaison words end in H toneme as expected; I could not elicit such forms reliably from informants, but examples appear in the audio NT:

```
bane na yel Zugsobi ba tuuma a si'em la
bànı nà yēl Zūg-sɔ́bí bà tūvmá ø àň sī'əm lā

REL.PL IRR say head-one:SG 3PL deed:PL NZ COP INDF.ADV ART
"Those who will tell the Lord how their deeds are." (Heb 13:17, 1996)
```

Before nominaliser- \dot{n} a final M tone becomes H:

```
d\bar{a}\mu l\acute{a} \not o n\acute{a} n\acute{a} n\acute{a} "the man having seen the chief" man:sg art NZ see chief:sg art
```

Before catenator-*n* the final toneme of a modified LF is M after M toneme and L otherwise. M spreading follows whenever the *preceding* word would induce it <u>8.3</u>.

```
M nók só'vgò ø kiá nīm lā.
15G pick.up knife:sG CAT cut meat:sG ART.
"I cut the meat with a knife."
amaa o kena ye o tum tisi ba
àmáa ò kē nā yé ò túm ø tìsı bā
but 3AN come hither that 3AN work CAT give 3PL.OB
"but he came to serve them" (Mt 20:28)
```

8.3 M spreading

Most words other than proclitics ending in L or H tonemes cause an initial L toneme in a following word to change to H toneme. If the L toneme is "fixed" <u>8.3.1</u> a preceding M toneme becomes H instead <u>5.3</u>. M spreading follows

The VP catenator n is transparent to M spreading 8.2.3.

The number and manner-adverb prefixes à- 14.2 14.3 are followed by M spreading to the stem, probably reflecting an origin as class agreement flexions.

M spreading crosses phrase boundaries if there is no intervening pause, but it does not occur after conjunctions 24.1.3 or presubject adjuncts 25.1.1.

```
Bà tìs ná'àb lā búŋ.

3PL give chief:sg ART donkey:sg.

"They gave the chief a donkey (bùŋ²)."

Bà ňwɛ̀' ná'àb lā súŋā. "They beat the chief well (sùŋā+/)."

3PL beat chief:sg ART good:ADV.
```

Raising is absent after words ending in an affix vowel with H toneme:

```
    M dìga lú yā. "My dwarfs have fallen down."
    15G dwarf:PL fall PFV.
    but M yōgomá lù yā. "My camels have fallen down."
    15G camel:PL fall PFV.
```

M spreading examples, with zab^{ϵ} "fight" $g\bar{\jmath}s^{\epsilon}$ "look at" $na^{\dagger}ab^{a}$ "chief": Ka-clause, without independency-marking tone overlay; all subject pronouns are followed by raising; perfectives are followed by raising only if ending in M:

```
Kà m záb nà ab lā."And I've fought the chief."Kà ò záb nà ab lā."And he's fought the chief."Kà m gōs ná àb lā."And I've looked at the chief."Kà ò gōs ná àb lā."And he's looked at the chief."
```

Main clause, with independency marking; the verbs have tone overlay and are now both followed by M spreading; 3rd persons are not followed by M spreading:

```
M záb ná'àb lā."I've fought the chief."Ò zàb ná'àb lā."He's fought the chief."M gós ná'àb lā."I've looked at the chief."Ò gòs ná'àb lā."He's looked at the chief."
```

A minimal pair: ba "them" is followed by M spreading; bà "they, their" is not:

```
\grave{O} g\grave{\supset}s\bar{\iota} b\acute{a} b\acute{e}dvg\bar{\upsilon}. "She looked at them a lot." (ba object) 
\grave{O} g\grave{\supset}s\acute{\iota} b\grave{a} b\grave{e}dvg\bar{\upsilon}. "She looked at a lot of them." (bà possessive)
```

After proclitics ending in M toneme this is transparent tone spreading, H representing ML on a single mora 5.1. Clitic pronouns have fixed-L tonemes for my informants even when followed by M spreading, but in such cases ILK and Niggli's materials show them carrying M tonemes, which can be taken as having given rise to floating M tonemes in current Agolle. To account for M spreading after SFs ending in H or L, floating tonemes can similarly be invoked, historically arising from the tonemes of affix vowels deleted by apocope. However, the occurrence of M spreading after SFs ending in H or L is now almost entirely determined morphosyntactically. Words with segmentally identical sg and cb forms ending in L like mà "mother" zuà "friend" du'átà "doctor" and lànnig "squirrel" 9.2.2 distinguish a sg followed by M spreading from a cb which is not. The only Pattern LO invariable verb with no suffix,

bὲ "exist", is followed by M spreading. Lὲε "but" is followed by M spreading when affected by independency marking 19.6.1.1 but it is not a verb, has no flexion, and has not undergone apocope. An analogous case is the "consonant mutations" of Insular Celtic, where loss of word-final segments has led to original sandhi phenomena becoming pure morphosyntactic processes.

8.3.1 Fixed L tonemes

Certain words carry an initial/sole L toneme which is never subject to M spreading. These fixed-L words comprise all non-enclitic liaison words 8.2.2 except for catenator-n, which is toneless, along with the linker particle $k\grave{a}$ "and":

```
m fù ò lì tì và bà
proclitic personal pronouns
                                       à- n- m-
personifier clitics
ànɔ́'ɔ̀nε "who?"
nominaliser
                                       à- bà- bù-
all words with number prefixes
               manner-adverb prefix à-
linker particle
                                       kà
```

Initial à- in loanwords may be treated as fixed-L by analogy 15.1.

If there is no intervening pause, a preceding M toneme must become H:

Ιā

```
Bà kừ vdī bá.
                                      "They kill them."
      3PL kill: IPFV 3PL.OB.
                                      "They kill their goats."
but
      Bà kừ với bà būvs.
      3PL kill:IPFV 3PL goat:PL.
      Lì
                                      "It's a stork"
           à nέ à-dàalύη.
      3INAN COP FOC PERS-stork:SG.
      ba diib n yit na'aten la na zug
      bà díib à vīt
                               ná'-tēn
                                           lā nā
      3PL food NZ emerge: IPFV king-land: SG ART hither upon
      "because their food came from the king's land" (Acts 12:20, 1996)
      wuu saa naani iank ya nya'an n ti paae ya tuona la.
      wūu sáa ø nāanı iáňk yà ňyá'an n tí
                                                          páe yà tùena
      like rain:sg nz then jump 2PL behind cat afterwards reach 2PL before.adv art
      "like when lightning leaps from East to West" (Mt 24:27, 1996)
```

8.4 L spreading

L spreading takes place exclusively within NPs and AdvPs. It occurs after any free form as a pre-dependent, with the exception of the contrastive personal pronouns (like *mān* "my"); it also occurs after any cb ending in M toneme, whether as modifier or head. Historically, L spreading after cbs may have arisen from a final L toneme like that imposed on verb perfectives 8.2.3; this might explain its absence after some 1-mora forms 7.2.4. After free pre-dependents, it may reflect an old associative L toneme.

L spreading affects only the one following word, which may be a cb. Words beginning with M or H tonemes change all tonemes to L^7 . Pattern L words are completely unaffected.

L spreading applies before initial M spreading; in the majority of cases the preceding word also induces M spreading, and the new initial L toneme becomes H. Examples with a cb as head:

```
b\dot{\upsilon}-p\dot{\imath}əlig^a "white goat" b\dot{\upsilon}-p\bar{a}alig^a "new goat" b\bar{\imath}-p\dot{\upsilon}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath}-p\dot{\imath
```

Cb as premodifier $(n\bar{z})r^{\epsilon/}$ "mouth", $d\bar{r}\partial s^{a/}$ "receiver" pl $d\bar{r}\partial s(d\hat{r})$:

```
n\bar{\jmath}-di'\partial s^a "chief's interpreter" pl n\bar{\jmath}-di'\partial sidib^a
```

No L spreading after personal pronouns:

```
\dot{m} b\bar{\imath}ig "my child" (b\bar{\imath}ig^a)
\dot{m} thing "my tree" (thing^a)
m\bar{a}n b\bar{\imath}ig "my child"
m\bar{a}n thing "my tree"
\dot{m} gb\bar{\imath}gim "my lion" (gb\bar{\imath}gim^{n\epsilon})
\dot{m} y\bar{\imath}g\acute{\imath}m "my camel" (y\bar{\imath}g\acute{\imath}m^{n\epsilon})
```

L spreading after words which do not also induce M spreading:

```
\dot{m} b\dot{l}e\dot{s} "my elder same-sex siblings' children (b\bar{l}is^{\epsilon})" \dot{m} b\dot{l}e\dot{s} fùud "my elder same-sex siblings' clothes (f\bar{u}ud^{\epsilon})"
```

⁷⁾ Unfortunately I did not think to check how words with M prefixes behave with L spreading. e.g dāu lā ?tíntɔ̀ňríg/tíntɔ̀ňríg/tíntɔ̀ňríg "the man's mole (tīntɔ̀ňríga)."

L spreading after free noun phrases also followed by M spreading:

```
d\bar{a}\underline{y} b\hat{n}g"a man's child" (cf d\dot{a}\underline{y}-b\bar{n}ig^a "male child")d\bar{a}\underline{y} t\hat{l}ig"a man's tree"n\dot{a} ab b\hat{n}g"a chief's child"d\bar{a}\underline{y} l\bar{a} gb(g)m"the man's lion"d\bar{a}\underline{y} l\bar{a} y\acute{b}g)m"the man's camel"
```

Unlike M spreading, L spreading occurs only within NPs and AdvPs; there is thus a tonal minimal pair between

```
Bà tìs ná'àb lā bîig. "They've given (it) to the chief's child."

3PL give chief:sG ART child:sG. (L spreading applied to bīiga "child")

Bà tìs ná'àb lā bīig. "They've given the chief a child."

3PL give chief:sG ART child:sG. (No L spreading applied to bīiga)
```

It occurs regardless of the meaning or rôle of the preceding dependent:

```
m\bar{\jmath} g v-n w\acute{a}b v g l\bar{a} "the wild (in-the-bush) elephant (w\bar{a}b v g^{3/})"
```

After heads, L spreading only occurs with cb heads, not free forms:

The final element of a compound induces following M spreading in accordance with the usual rules <u>8.3</u> regardless of whether it has been subject to L spreading, so that M spreading appears everywhere except after words ending in a affix vowel with H toneme and cbs ending in L or H:

```
bù-wōk "tall goat"

nō-wók "tall hen"

bù-wōk-píəlìg "tall white goat"

bù-wōk-páalìg "tall new goat"

nō-wók-pìəlig "tall white hen"

nō-wók-pāalíg "tall new hen"
```

```
b\grave{\upsilon}-w\~{z}k d(\grave{\iota}b) "a tall goat's food" n\~{z}-w\~{z}k d(\grave{\iota}b) "a tall hen's food" (d\~{\iota}\iota b) "food")
```

A word with only one or two tonemes, affected by both M $and\ L$ spreading after a free pre-dependent is not itself followed by M spreading.

The final vowel mora of a word affected by L spreading always has M toneme before the locative enclitic n^{ε} :

```
d\bar{a}y \ l\bar{a} \ p\acute{o} g\bar{v}-n"in the man's field (p\bar{o} g^{3})"d\bar{a}y \ l\bar{a} \ p\acute{v} vg\bar{v}-n"inside the man" (p\bar{v}vg^a \text{ "inside"})like d\bar{a}y \ l\bar{a} \ d\acute{o} g\bar{v}-n"in the man's hut (d\dot{o} g^3)"
```

Examples, using the frames "the man's $(d\bar{a}u | \bar{a}) X$ has got lost $(b\dot{>}d\iota g y\bar{a})$ " and "my elder same-sex siblings' $(\dot{m} b \dot{p} \bar{e} y \dot{a}) X$ has got lost":

Pattern L, not subject to L spreading:

```
bù\eta^a "donkey" Dāu lā bú\eta bódìg yā.
à\check{n}rv\eta^{\circ} "boat" Dāu lā á\check{n}rv\eta bódìg yā.
d\grave{o}g^{\circ} "house" Dāu lā d\acute{o}g bódìg yā.
```

Pattern HO nouns appear unchanged after L and M spreading, and by analogy have unchanged following tone sandhi; words like *náaf*? "cow" fluctuate:

```
à-gáờng "pied crow" Dāu lā gáờng bódìg yā.
náaf "cow" Dāu lā náàf bódìg yā or Dāu lā náàf bòdig yā.
```

Pattern H and O nouns, affected by L spreading:

	wābug ^{o/} pōog ^{o/} bāŋ ^a pūug ^a	"elephant" "field" "ring" "inside"	Dāu lā wábùg bòdıg yā. Dāu lā póòg bòdıg yā. Dāu lā bán bòdıg yā. Dāu lā púùg bòdıg yā.	
but	wābvg ^{ɔ/}	"elephant"	M bịēyá wàbug bódìg yā.	no M spreading
	bāŋª	"ring"	M bịēyá bàŋ bódìg yā.	no M spreading
	yūgvdır ^ɛ	"hedgehog"	M bịēyá yùgudır bódìg yā.	no M spreading
	yūgvdır ^ɛ	"hedgehog"	Dāu lā yúgudìr bódìg yā.	three tonemes

L spreading applies sequentially, reflecting the substructure of NPs and AdvPs.

When L spreading affects the first component of an existing compound, the second component retains any effects of prior L and M spreading even though the first element no longer ends in M toneme:

```
bù-pìəlıg
                                         "white goat"
      bù-pāalíg
                                         "new goat"
                                         "white hen"
      nō-píəlìg
                                         "new hen"
      nō-páalìg
      dāu lā bú-pìəlıg
                                         "the man's white goat"
      dāu lā bύ-pāalíg
                                         "the man's new goat"
                                         "the man's white hen"
      dāu lā nó-píəlìg
                                         "the man's new hen"
      dāu lā nó-páalìg
                                         "this pot" (d\bar{\nu}k^{2}) cb d\bar{\nu}q- "pot")
but
      dūg-káŋā
      [sālıma dúg-]kàŋā
                                         "this [golden pot]"
```

The order of applications of L spreading may also be revealed by the absence of M spreading after some words affected by L spreading (see above.) Thus

8.5 Segmental contact phenomena

8.5.1 Consonant assimilation

Both the initial consonant and the emic nasalisation of the deictic $\check{n}w\grave{a}^+$ "this" are lost when it appears as an enclitic after a word ending in a consonant:

```
b\bar{\imath}is \check{n}wá"these children"[bi:sa]z\grave{a}am \check{n}wá"this evening"[za:ma]but p\underline{\nu}'ā \check{n}wá"this woman" (e.g. as vocative) [phơạ wã]
```

The initial l of the definite article $l\bar{a}^{+l}$ assimilates totally to a preceding word-final -r, and [r:] simplifies to [r]:

yīr lā	"the house"	[jira]	
pùkòɔňr lā	"the widow"	[pʰʊkʰɔ̃:ra]	

Toende Kusaal shows this assimilation after all final consonants (Niggli 2012). The 1976 NT occasionally shows forms like nidiba for $n\bar{l}dlb$ $l\bar{a}$ "the people."

Initial n of focus- $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ often assimilates completely to a preceding word-final d t n r / m in normal rapid speech. Subsequently [r:] becomes [r] and [d:] becomes [d]:

```
Bà kpìid nē."They're dying."[ba kpi:dɛ]\dot{M} zót nē."I'm afraid."[m zɔt:ɛ]\dot{M} mór nē bīisá àyí."I have two children with me."[m mɔrɛ bi:sa:ji]\dot{L} pè'ɛl nē."It's full."[lɪ pʰɛ̯:l:ɛ]\dot{L} sàň'am nē."It's spoilt."[lɪ sã:m:ɛ]
```

Other accounts of Kusaal have taken this as a "progressive flexion" $-d\varepsilon/t\varepsilon$. Final nasal consonants of proclitics, cbs and noun prefixes assimilate to the place of articulation of a following stop:

```
d\grave{a}nk\grave{b}\eta"measles"[daŋkʰɔŋ]n\bar{l}n-b\acute{a}mm\bar{a}"these people"[nimbam:a]
```

Before $s\ z$ such word-final nasals are realised as $[\eta]$; in the case of noun prefixes, I follow traditional orthography in writing these nasals as n everywhere except before $p\ b\ m$, where I write m.

```
b\bar{v}n-zíidìr "thing for carrying on head" [bvŋzi:dɪr] n am z\bar{t} "still not know" [naŋzɪ̯]
```

8.5.2 Loss of nasalisation

Word-final short vowels denasalise before a clitic with initial *n* or *m*:

```
\dot{a} wá n\bar{a} "like this here" (\dot{a}\check{n}wá "like this") k\bar{\epsilon} n\bar{a} "come hither" (k\bar{\epsilon}\check{n}+ "come")
```

Some unstressed $CV\check{n}$ - elements lose nasalisation even when the following consonant is not a nasal. Thus with compounds of $s\bar{u}\check{n}f^{O}$ "heart" like $s\bar{u}$ -málisìm" "joy", $s\bar{u}\check{n}$ -kpí'òŋ" "boldness", $s\bar{u}\check{n}$ -péèn^{ne} "anger" the 1996 NT and older sources write sumalism sukpi'oŋ/sukpi'euŋ supeen, reflecting the bleaching and phonological simplification which has created noun prefixes from some original cbs $\underline{14.1.4}$. KB restores the nasalisation in writing: $\underline{sunkpi'}$ euŋ "boldness", $\underline{sunpeen}$ "anger."

With $\grave{a} \not\in \check{n}^a$ "be something/somehow" there is loss of nasalisation before the focus particle $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ (for the loss of the e see below 8.5.3):

```
\dot{M} á n\bar{\epsilon} dā\dot{q}. "I'm a man." but \dot{L} à\ddot{n} sú\etaā. "It's fine."
```

Older written materials write $\grave{a}\check{n}$ directly before a complement as a not ann, but KB consistently has an [\tilde{a}] whenever the form is not followed by $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$.

8.5.3 Loss of fronting

Regardless of origin, fronting diphthongs occur only word-finally and before y. 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 4.1.1:

```
ae
              → a
                                                 oe
                                                         \rightarrow 0
                                                                       υe
                                                                              → υ
       ae
              → aa
                                                                       υe
                                                                              טט →
                            ie
                                   → iə
                                                                       ue
                                                                              → uθ
                                   "blacksmith"
       sāeň
                                   "the blacksmith"
       sāeň lā
       sàň-kàŋā
                                   "this blacksmith"
but
       Ò sừ'v lớr.
                                   "She owns a lorry."
                                                                sū'eya/
                                                                              "own"
       Lì àň súŋā.
                                   "It's good."
                                                                àeňa
                                                                              "be something"
       Ti ya'a νυe, ti νυηε tis Zugsɔb la.
                         tì vớ
                                      nē ø tís Zūg-sób
                                                                   Ιā.
       1PL if be.alive, 1PL be.alive FOC CAT give head-one:SG ART.
       "If we live, we live to the Lord." (Rom 14:8): (v\bar{\nu}e^{a/} "be alive")
       Èňrigim j
                        Ø
                            pāa
                                    du'átà.
       Shift.along:IMP CAT reach doctor:SG.
       "Shift along up to the doctor." (p\bar{a}e^{+/} "reach")
                                                                nāe<sup>+/</sup> "finish"
       Lì nàa nē.
                                   "It is finished."
                                                                dūe<sup>+/</sup> "arise"
       Dúθ wĒlá?
                                   "[You] arose how?" 31
```

See also the examples with fusion verb perfectives before liaison at 8.2.1.

The SF of the negative verb $k\bar{a}'e^+$ "not be" loses the final e before the particle $n\bar{e}$ or an object; $k\bar{a}'e$ only occurs VP-finally:

```
S5'
              kā'e ø ná ňyānı ø dɔl
                                                 zūg-dáàn-nàm àyí ...
       INDF.AN NEG.BE CAT IRR prevail CAT follow head-owner:pl Num:two ...
       "Nobody can serve two masters." (Mt 6:24)
       Dāu
                      dɔ́ɔgū-n
                                    láa +ø.
               kā'e
       Man:sg neg.be room:sg-loc art neg.
       "There's no man in the room." (d \partial g \bar{v} - n \, l \bar{a} is a clause adjunct)
                                        láa +ø.
but
       Dāu
               Ιā
                    kā'
                          dว์วaบิ-n
       Man:sg art neg.be room:sg-loc art neg.
       "The man's not in the room." (d \partial g \bar{v} - n | \bar{a} is the complement of k\bar{a})
           kā'
cf
                                   "She is not a child."
       Ò
                            +ø.
                   bīiga
       3AN NEG.BE Child:SG NEG.
```

Sɔ' kae na nyani dɔl zugdaannam ayi'...

This fronting loss is regular in my informants' speech and in the audio version of the NT, but older written materials very frequently still write fronting diphthongs:

```
voen= v\bar{\upsilon}\upsilon n"would live" (Gal 3:21, 1996)Kristo da faaɛn ti= Kristo dá fāaň tí"Christ saved us." (Gal 5:1)m wa'e ne= \grave{m} wá'a nē."I'm going" ILK
```

Àeňa "be something" always appears as aa before liaison; this might be due to lack of stress 2.2, but it seems more likely that the rarity of phrase-final àeňa 21.2 has prevented the analogical introduction of phrase-final spelling phrase-medially. Many other cases involve fāeň+/ "save", perhaps written faaenn specifically to distinguish the forms from those of fāň+ "grab, rob"; the 1996 NT has two instances of the certainly spurious faaenm for imperative faanm; contrast KB Fv yadda ningir la faanf "Your faith has saved you." (Lk 7:50.) Cf on faangid "saviour" faangir "salvation" 15.1. Clearcut errors like Nonilim pu naae da (1 Cor 13:8, 1996 NT) for KB Nonilim pu naada "Love does not come to an end" confirm that the orthographic tradition has encompassed the writing of fronting diphthongs for undoubted monophthongs.

Morphology

9 Noun flexion

9.1 Noun classes

Nouns inflect for singular and plural by adding noun class suffixes to the stem; the bare stem 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 or demonstrative. The cb is always subject to apocope, as it can never appear clause-finally or before liaison. Archaisms like the place name *Wìdi-nyá'aŋa* "Woriyanga" (*wìd-nyá'aŋa* "mare") and *nwadibil* (Mt 2:2, 1996) for *nwād-bíla* "star" (KB *nwadbil*) suggest that consonant-final cbs once ended in an epenthetic vowel, but this is no longer the case.

In the paradigms, noun forms are cited as sg, pl and cb in order.

Each noun class suffix has a basic singular, plural or non-count meaning. Count nouns pair a singular and a plural suffix. Five pairings account for the majority of count nouns: these are labelled using superscript notation forms of the suffixes, as the $a|b^a$, $g^a|s^\epsilon$, $g^a|d^\epsilon$, $r^\epsilon|a^+$ and $f^a|\iota^+$ **noun classes**. Two unpaired non-count suffixes $a^b-b^a-m^b$ form two more noun classes mostly containing mass nouns.

The noun classes were once grammatical genders, with separate 3rd person pronouns and agreement of adjectives and numerals. Kusaal, like Dagbani and Mooré, now has a natural gender system opposing persons and non-persons, with pronouns based respectively on the original $^a|b^a$ and $r^\epsilon|a^+$ classes 16.2.2. A few isolated remnants of agreement will be pointed out as they occur.

Apocope of final vowels can leave expected morphological forms ambiguous, close to or identical with another form from the paradigm or from another word. Ambiguity may be avoided by **substitution** of a different flexional suffix for that expected for the class (cf Inkelas, 3.1 "Suppletive Allomorphy.") This has become regular in the case of class $g^{\circ}|d^{\varepsilon}$ stems ending in m n following a short vowel, which always use the plural suffix $-a^+$ instead of $-d^{\varepsilon}$, creating a $g^{\circ}|a^+$ **subclass**. Adjectives avoid potentially ambiguous suffixes altogether 10.1.

Two further subclasses have arisen by **reinterpretation** of SFs of one flexional suffix as the SF of a different suffix and remodelling of the LF 2.3.2. The $r^{\epsilon}|b^{a}$ subclass of $a|b^{a}$ has reinterpreted SFs ending in n r l as $n^{n\epsilon} r^{\epsilon} l^{|\epsilon|}$ instead of $n^{a} r^{a} l^{a}$, and the $g^{a}|s^{\epsilon}$ subclass of $g^{a}|s^{\epsilon}$ has reinterpreted SFs ending in g^{a} after a rounded vowel mora as g^{a} instead of g^{a} .

Two remaining subclasses are **semantically** motivated: a subclass of $a|b^a$ referring to older/important people uses b^a as the *singular* suffix, and names of languages belong to a subclass of $r^{\epsilon}|a^+|$ with the singular suffix l^{ϵ} .

The regular classes and subclasses are thus as follows:

a ba	sīd ^a	sīdıb ^a	sìd-	"husband"
r ^ɛ b ^a	Bìn ^{nε}	<i>Bìm</i> ^{ma}	Bìn-	"Moba person"
b ^a (sg)	nà'ab ^a	nà'-nàm ^a	nà'-	"chief"
g ^a s ^ε	būvg ^a	bū̄υร ^ε	bù-	"goat"
g [⊃] s ^ε	nú'ùg ^ɔ	nú'ùs ^ε	nū'-	"hand"
$g^{\circ} d^{\varepsilon}$	dòɔgɔ	dòɔdε	dò-	"hut"
$g^{\circ} a^{+}$	gbàun ^o	gbàna ⁺	gbàn-	"book"
$r^{\varepsilon} a^{+}$	nɔ̄ɔr ^{ɛ/}	nōyá ⁺	nō-	"mouth"
lε	Kūsáàl ^ɛ			"Kusaal"
f ^o t ⁺	mòlıf	mòlı+	mòl-	"gazelle"
b ^o	sā'ab ^ɔ		sà'-	"porridge"
m ^m	tìım ^m		tì-	"medicine"

M-stems with long root vowels in the ${}^{a}|b^{a}$ class avoid the plural suffix b^{a} 9.3.1. Some $g^{a}|s^{\epsilon}$ class nouns with human reference have alternative plurals with b^{a} 9.3.2. Countable nouns in the m^{m} class form plurals with $-a^{+}$ or $-s^{\epsilon}$ or $n\grave{a}m^{a}$ 9.4 9.3.7. The small $f^{a}|_{L^{+}}$ class has some members with $f^{a}|_{L^{+}}$ suffixes in only one number 9.3.5. The sg suffix $-l^{a}$ is found only in the irregular adjective $b\bar{n}l^{a}$ "little" 10.1.

There are few other cases of irregular sg/pl pairing with nouns; examples are

pē̄¹og⊃/	pε̄'εs ^{ε/}		pē'-	"sheep"
gbὲ'og ^ɔ	gbὲ'εd ^ε gbὲda+		gbὲ'-	"forehead"
bįāuňk ^o	bi̯āň'ad ^ɛ biāň'ada+	WK SB	biàň'-	"shoulder"

The sg SF is usually enough to identify the noun class correctly, given whether the word has human reference. Where it is not, there is often vacillation between classes, suggesting that speakers actually do use these criteria to determine class membership; compare too the assignment of loanwords to noun classes <u>9.7</u>.

Nouns with sg SF ending in a long vowel, or in an unrounded vowel mora followed by a velar, belong to $g^a|s^{\epsilon}$; nouns ending in a rounding diphthong followed by a velar belong to $g^a|d^{\epsilon}$ or its $g^a|a^+$ subclass, except for a few in the $g^a|s^{\epsilon}$ subclass of $g^a|s^{\epsilon}$. All nouns in SF -f belong to $f^a|t^+$.

Human-reference nouns otherwise default to ${}^a|b^a$ (or its $r^\epsilon|b^a$ subclass), except for stems ending in a long vowel, which have been transferred to $r^\epsilon|a^+$ in Agolle Kusaal. Exceptional are $n \dot{a} y \bar{i} i g^a$ "thief" $({}^a|b^a) b \bar{a} \dot{a} =$ "traditional diviner" $({}^a|b^a) z \bar{\jmath} \jmath m^{n\epsilon}$ "fugitive" $(r^\epsilon|a^+)$. The b^a -singular subclass is responsible for most human-reference nouns in sg SF -b, and also for $s \dot{a} a m^{ma}$ "father", $d \dot{i} a m^{ma}$ "man's parent-in-law", $d \dot{a} y \dot{a} a m^{ma}$ "woman's parent-in-law."

Gerunds in SF -m belong to b° ; otherwise, mass nouns in -m belong to the m^{m} class, and -b or -p to the b° class.

Names of languages belong to the l^{ε} subclass of $r^{\varepsilon}|a^{+}$.

Non-human-reference count nouns ending in lnr belong to the $r^{\epsilon}|a^{+}$ class, as do those ending in m apart from a few m^{m} class count nouns like $y\bar{a}m^{m/}$ "gall, common sense" and hence "gall bladder", $p\bar{u}um^{m/}$ "flower(s), flora", $d\hat{a}al\hat{l}m^{m}$ "male sex organs", $p\hat{v}'al\hat{l}m^{m}$ "female sex organs." $P\bar{l}lm^{m/}$ "arrow" is a relic of a lost $|r|^{\epsilon}$ class.

9.1.1 Noun class and meaning

As with almost all noun class systems, there a number of correlations between class membership and meaning, though with frequent exceptions. Phonologically motivated subclasses have the same correlations with meaning as their main classes.

The association of noun class and meaning can be exploited to change the significance of a stem 12.2.

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.

The $g^a|s^{\epsilon}$ class has general membership but notably includes the great majority of tree names 32.6, many larger animals, and tools. Almost all ethnic group names belong to $a|b^a$ or $g^a|s^{\epsilon}$ ($Z\grave{a}ngb\grave{\epsilon}og^{\circ}$ "Hausa" and $N\grave{a}s\bar{a}ara^+$ "European" are the only exceptions in my materials); the place inhabited by the group has sg $-g^{\circ}$ 32.5.

The $g^{3}|d^{\epsilon}$ and $r^{\epsilon}|a^{+}$ classes are the default non-human countable classes. They include all names of fruits <u>32.6</u>, and most names of body parts <u>32.7</u>. Human-reference nouns in $g^{3}|d^{\epsilon}$ seem to be pejorative ($b\bar{a}l\bar{\epsilon}rvg^{3}$ / "ugly person", $d\hat{a}b\bar{\iota}og^{3}$ "coward", $z\bar{\jmath}lvg^{3}$ / "fool.") Some original $a|b^{a}$ class nouns have been reallocated to $r^{\epsilon}|a^{+}$ for phonological reasons e.g. $b\bar{\iota}ar^{\epsilon}$ / "elder same-sex sibling."

The subclass in $-l^{\epsilon}$ includes all names of languages.

The small $f^0|\iota^+$ class includes two groups: animals, and small round things. It contains all names of seeds. No $f^0|\iota^+$ noun refers to people.

The b° class has only two members in my own materials that are not gerunds: $s\bar{a}^{\dagger}ab^{\circ}$ "millet porridge, TZ" and $t\bar{a}np^{\circ}$ "war." There is also a word $ki^{\dagger}ib^{\circ}$ "soap" in written materials; WK has instead $k\bar{i}ib^{\circ}$ cb $k\bar{i}ib$ -, a Mampruli loan 15.1.

The m^m class includes names of liquids and substances and abstract nouns. There are few count nouns, and none referring to people or animals. Names of liquids are all m^m or b^a or formally plural.

Deverbal nouns have predictable class membership: agent nouns belong to $a|b^a$, instrument nouns to $g^a|s^{\epsilon}$, and gerunds take $g^a|s^{\epsilon}$ or m^m by rule 12.1.1.1.

9.2 Stem levelling

9.2.1 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 allomorphism is often levelled in favour of the form shown in the more frequently used number.

Length changes in $CV \sim CVV$ root-stems are levelled on the singular in e.g.

$$f\bar{u}ug^{\circ}$$
 "clothing" pl $f\bar{u}t^{\epsilon}$ or $f\bar{u}ud^{\epsilon}$

and some $r^{\epsilon}|a^{+}$ singulars may have short vowels by analogy with plurals <u>6.1.1.1</u>.

Quality changes between singular and plural stem forms occur in the $g^a|s^{\epsilon}$ class as a result of the merger of nasalised $i \ni \check{n} u \ni \check{n} u \ni \check{n} 0$:

$$n\bar{u}a^{+/}$$
 "hen" $n\bar{\jmath}\jmath s^{\epsilon/}$ "hens"

Such alternations are never levelled. However, the distribution of *oral iə uə* versus $\varepsilon\varepsilon$ ε is strikingly different between the $g^a|s^\varepsilon$ and the $g^o|d^\varepsilon$ classes. There are no stems in final u before singular g^o and very few stems with i ∂v : ∂v : "coward" (pl ∂v) and ∂v : "strong" (pl ∂v) "strong" (pl ∂v); there are very few with oral ∂v 0 before the singular ∂v 0, e.g. ∂v 0 as ∂v 0 is "Goosi clan", ∂v 0 is "baobab". There is an actual alternation in the stems before ∂v 0 is an ∂v 1 is suffixed in

bī¹a ⁺	bī¹əs ^ε	bia'-	"bad"
bε̄'og ^o	bē'εd ^ε	bὲ'-	

 $B\bar{l} \ni m^{\text{m}}$ "enemy" is derived from the same root with derivational *m 13.1.2. The alternation is most likely due to a rule * $i \ni Cv \rightarrow \varepsilon \varepsilon Cv$, parallel to * $u \ni gv \rightarrow \jmath \jmath gv$ 6.3.2, with the plural vowels remodelled on the sg; cf $l\bar{a}m$ - $f \circlearrowleft g^{\jmath}$ (\leftarrow *lam- $f u \ni gv$: $l\bar{a}m^{m\varepsilon/}$ "gum" f u = 1 "draw out") pl $l\bar{a}m$ - $f \circlearrowleft g^{\varepsilon}$ "toothless." The vowel of $d \wr b\bar{l} u \ni g^{\varepsilon}$ "coward" is perhaps reintroduced from $d \wr b u \ni g u \ni g$

Levelling may account for the lack of any clear pattern in the $CVVC \sim CVC$ root alternation in flexion <u>6.1.1.2</u>; when length alternations do occur, it is plurals and cbs that have short-vowel allomorphs, which may have been the original rule.

9.2.2 Combining forms

Combining forms, lacking a flexional suffix and always subject to apocope, would be often reduced by the usual rules to ambiguous forms. Often the expected cb is replaced by a form which is segmentally **but not tonally** that of the singular.

nīf ^{ɔ/}	nīnί ⁺	nīn- or nīf-	"eye"
zìň'a ⁺	zὲň'ɛs ^ɛ	zjàň'- or zèň'-	"red" (adjective)
wɔ̄kɔ/	wā'ad ^{ε/}	<i>wā'-</i> or <i>w5k-</i>	"long, tall" (adjective)
tāňp ^ɔ		tàňp-	"war" <u>6.1.1.1</u>
zūg ^{ɔ/}	zūt ^{ε/}	zū- or zūg -	"head"

Mooré and Toende both show zu- consistently in cases where Agolle has zūg-:

<u>Mooré</u>	<u>Toende</u>	<u>Agolle</u>	
zusoaba	zùsóp	zūg-sɔ́b ^a	"boss"
zúkúká	zùkúk	zūg-kūgvr ^ɛ	"pillow"

 $Z\bar{u}g$ - $s\acute{o}b^a$ "Lord" is very frequently read $Z\bar{u}$ - $s\acute{o}b^a$ in the audio version of the NT. The cb $z\bar{u}g$ - sometimes behaves tonally like a noun prefix 7.2.4.

The "regular" cb of $n\bar{i}f^{5/}$ "eye" is $n\bar{i}n$ -, but as a head it appears as $n\bar{i}f$ -:

```
nīf-káŋā "this eye"
```

Nīn- still predominates as a premodifier: nīn-dáa= "face", nīn-tám^m "tears", nīn-gɔ́tìs^ɛ "spectacles." Gbàunɔ "letter, book" now has the cb gbàun-, but the "regular" cb gbàn- still occurred as a generic argument in the 1976 NT e.g. gbanmi'id gbàn-mī id "scribe" ("book-knower") where later versions have gbaunmi'id. Similarly, the 1976 NT zingban'ad zīm-gbáň'àd "fisherman" has been replaced by KB ziingban'ad.

With m and n stems, the remodelled forms have become the regular cbs:

zīnzāun ^{ɔ/}	zīnzāná+	zเิทzáนุŋ-	"bat"
àňrບŋ ^ɔ	àňrıma+	àňrʊŋ-	"boat"

So too with *CV*-stems in the $r^{\varepsilon}|a^{+}$ class:

```
gb\bar{\epsilon}r^{\epsilon l} gb\bar{\epsilon}y\dot{a}^{+} gb\bar{\epsilon}r_{-} "thigh" k\dot{\nu}k\bar{\jmath}r^{\epsilon l} k\dot{\nu}k\bar{\jmath}y\dot{a}^{+} k\dot{\nu}k\bar{\jmath}r_{-} "voice" (but k\dot{\nu}k\bar{\jmath}-tit\bar{a}'ar "loud voice" NT)
```

Vvm^{m/} cb *vvm*- "life", *kum* cb *kum*- "death" are probably actual *CVm*- stems.

The cb may be remodelled after the *plural* if there is no sg extant, or if the plural has a distinct specialised meaning:

no sg	kī ^{+/}	kī- or kā-	"cereal, millet"
lā'af ^o	līgıdı+	là'- or lìg-	"cowrie" pl "money"

Two words have distinct sg- and pl-reference cbs:

```
d\bar{a}\mu^+ d\bar{a}p^a d\dot{a}\mu- sg d\dot{a}p- pl "man, male person" t\bar{a}\mu\check{n}^{+/} t\bar{a}\check{n}p^{a/} t\bar{a}\mu\check{n}- sg t\bar{a}\check{n}p-pl "sib of opposite sex"
```

Disambiguation is clearly involved with some longer remodelled cbs:

kòlug ^o	kòn ^{nε}	kὸlυg-	"bag"
lànnıg ^a	lànnıs ^ε	lànnıg-	"squirrel"
kòlug-kàŋā	"this bag"	cf cb <i>kòl-</i> from	kɔ̃lιg ^a "river"
lànnıg-pìəlıg	"white squirrel"	cf cb <i>làn-</i> from	<i>lān</i> ^{nε} "testicle"

Remodelling of cbs after sg/pl forms never affects tones, revealing that cases where a sg/pl seems to precede an adjective or modifier pronoun in fact show cbs:

dàu̞-sùŋ	"good man"	cf <i>dā</i> u̯	"man"
dàp-sùma	"good men"	cf <i>dāp</i>	"men"

Remodelled cbs are traditionally written as separate words; as the orthography does not mark tone, this can lead to ambiguous forms. e.g. *yamug bipuŋ* (Acts 16:16, 1976) for *yàmmug-bī-púŋ* "slave girl" not *yàmmug bí-púŋ* "slave's girl" 16.11.1.5.

9.3 Noun paradigms

For tones see 7.2. Combining forms are frequently remodelled segmentally after the singular 9.2.2, 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^{3} in singulars in $-g^{3}-k^{3}-n^{3}$, deletion of *g after aa iə uə aaň $\varepsilon \varepsilon n$ εn with the $g^{a}|s^{\varepsilon}$ class sg, consonant assimilation instead of epenthesis in all classes, and the combination of root-vowel-final stems with the flexions a sg, ι^{+} pl and a^{+} pl 6.1.1.19.3.1.

9.3.1 a|ba class

Most stems ending in consonants straightforwardly show -a in the sg:

sīd ^a	sīdıb ^a	sìd-	"husband"
sàal ^a	sàalıb ^a	sàal-	"human being"
kpāad ^{a/}	kpāadíb ^a	kpāad-	"farmer"
kpīkpīn ^{na/}	kpīkpīnníb ^a	kpīkpín-	"merchant"
sàam-pīt ^{a/}	sàam-pītíb ^a	sàam-pīt-	"father's younger
			brother"
bì-pīt ^{a/}	bì-pītíb ^a	bì-pīt-	"younger child"
wād-tís ^a	wād-tísìb ^a	wād-tís-	"lawgiver" NT
zà'-nō-gúr ^a	zà'-nɔ̄-gúrìb ^a	zà'-nō-gúr-	"gatekeeper" NT
nīd ^{a/}	nīdıb ^{a/}	<i>nīn-</i> irreg	"person"

Most deverbal agent nouns are completely regular:

kūυd ^{a/}	kūυdίb ^a	kūud-	"killer"

Agent nouns from 3-mora stems in s regularly drop the d formant in sg and cb, which can result in "tonal heteroclites" 7.2.3. Many also have $n\grave{a}m^a$ plurals 9.4.

kùøs ^a	kūesıdıb ^a	kùes-	"seller"
ρὺ'υs ^a	pū'vsıdıb ^a	ρὺ'υѕ-	"worshipper"
dì'əs ^a	dī'əsıdıb ^a	dì'əs-	"receiver"
tù'as-tù'as ^a	tù'as-tū'asıdıb ^a	tὺ'as-tὺ'as-	"talker"
sīgıs ^{a/}	sīgısídìb ^a	sīgıs-	"lowerer"
dìıs ^a	dìıs-nàm ^a	dìıs-	"glutton"

The same behaviour is found with agent nouns from a few other verbs too:

sòs ^a	sōsıdıb ^a	sòs-	"beggar"
tìs ^a	tīsıdıb ^a	tìs-	"giver" WK
kīs ^{a/} or kīsıd ^{a/}	kīsıdíb ^a	kīsıd- (only)	"hater"

These may be original 3-mora stem verbs with * $ss \rightarrow s$. There are also

zàb-zàb ^a	zàb-zàb-nàm ^a	zàb-zàb-	"warrior"
	zàb-zābıdıb ^a		
gbān-záb ^a	gbān-záb-nàm ^a	gbān-záb-	"leatherbeater"
ňwī-tέk ^a	ňwī-tέkὶdιb ^a		"rope-puller"

Exceptionally, consonant assimilation of *md does not appear in the plural in

```
p \mu'à-s \bar{a} n'am^{ma} p \mu'à-s \bar{a} n'am! "adulterer" (cf y \bar{v} v m-y \bar{v}'v m-v v'v m-v m-v
```

Stems ending in vowels in this class are problematic because of the vowelinitial sq suffix. There is no single systematic rule for the outcome.

Four highly irregular nouns end in diphthongs in the sg 2.3.2:

dāu+		dāp ^a	dàu̯-, dàp- <u>6.1.1.</u>	<u>1</u> "man" (<i>vir</i>)
tāuň ^{+/}		tāňp ^{a/}	tāuň-, tāňp- <u>6.1.1.1</u> "sib of opposite sex'	
sāeň+	WK	sāaňb ^a	sàň-	"blacksmith"
sā <u>e</u> ň ^a	DK			
sɔ̄e̯ň+	WK	sɔ̄ɔňb ^a	sòň-	"witch"
sɔ̄e̯ňa	DK			

There are also the two original *g-stems

Some *CVV* stems introduce -*d*- in some forms but not others:

wìıd ^a	wìıb ^a	wìıd-	"hunter"
sɔ̃n̆'ɔd ^{a/}	sɔ̃n̆'ɔb ^{a/}	sɔ̃n̆'ɔd-	agent noun of sɔ̃n̆'e+/
			"be better than"
pūkpāad ^{a/}	pūkpāadíb ^a	pūkpá-	"farmer" (but <i>kpāad</i> a/
			id is regular)

Sg final -v is dropped elsewhere in the paradigm of

pītύ ⁺	pītíb ^a	pīt-	"younger sibling
			of same sex"

Sàam- $p\bar{i}t^{a/}$ "father's younger brother" and $b\hat{i}$ - $p\bar{i}t^{a/}$ "younger child" are regular. Another solution to the difficulty of adding sg a to stems ending in a long vowel is to use the suffix r^{ϵ} instead; related languages, including Toende Kusaal, keep - b^a plural forms, but in Agolle Kusaal such words have acquired - a^+ plurals and passed over completely into the $r^{\epsilon}|a^+$ class:

Agolle	pùkɔ̀ɔňr ^ɛ	pùkòňya ⁺	$r^{\varepsilon} a^{+}$	"widow"
Toende	pókőót	pɔkõp	r ^ε b ^a	
Farefare	pɔkõorε	pɔkõpa	r [€] b ^a	
Agolle	dà-kɔ̀ɔňr ^ɛ	dà-kɔ̀ňya+	$r^{\varepsilon} a^{+}$	"bachelor"
Toende	dákőot	dakõp	r [€] b ^a	
Farefare	dàkỗorὲ	dakõpa	$r^{arepsilon} b^{a}$	

This transfer explains several human-reference nouns found in $r^{\epsilon}|a^{+}$, e.g. $b\bar{\imath} \partial r^{\epsilon}$ "elder sibling of the same sex", $p \partial \check{n}' \partial r^{\epsilon}$ "cripple", $\check{n} y \bar{\epsilon}' \epsilon r^{\epsilon}$ "next-younger sibling" (but Toende sg $y \check{e}' e t$ pl $y \check{e} r a id$.)

Stems in a short root vowel followed by single $m \ n \ l$ regularly adopt a sg form resembling that of the the $r^{\epsilon}|a^+$ class 9.3.1.1.

Stems in *VVn*- undergo consonant assimilation in the pl: * $nb \rightarrow mm$:

sāan ^{a/}	sáam ^{ma}	sāan-	"guest, stranger"
Juan	Jaarri	Saari	quost, stranger

Stems in VVm- have sg $-m^m$ instead of $-m^a$. The assimilation $*mb \to mm$ would cause SF sg and pl to coincide at least segmentally; this is avoided by using pl s^{ϵ} or by pluralising with $n\grave{a}m^a$ 9.4:

kpī'im ^{m/}	kpī'imís ^ɛ	kpī¹im-	"dead person, corpse"
zū'em ^{m/}	zū'amís ^ɛ	zū'em-	"blind person"
tādım ^{m/}	tādımıs ^ɛ	tàdım-	"weak person"
	tàdım-nàm ^a		

In two words WK accepted $-b^a$ pl forms as LFs but not SFs, demonstrating that avoidance of ambiguity drives the variations:

kpēεňm ^m	kpēεňmma LF only		
	kpèɛňm-nàm ^a kpèɛňm-	"elder"	
<i>bī</i> ⁻əm ^m	<i>b</i> r∂ <i>əmma</i> LF only		
	bì'əm-nàm ^a bì'əm-	"enemy"	

9.3.1.1 $r^{\varepsilon}|b^{a}$ subclass

Stems in lnr following a *short* root vowel show LF - ε with l and n geminated. This represents remodelling based on the SF 2.3.2, which could be the outcome of adding either - a or - c . If the SF could *not* result from attachment of sg - c , as with stems in nnmmm mn 6.2.1, nouns with b^a plurals always have sg - a .

The assimilation * $nb \rightarrow mm$ takes place in the plural:

Dàgbān ^{nɛ/}	Dàgbām ^{ma/}	Dàgbān-	"Dagomba person"
<i>B</i> ìn ^{nε}	<i>Bìm</i> ^{ma}	Bìn-	"Moba person"
Κὺtān ^{nε/}	Kùtām ^{ma/}	Kùtān-	member of EW's clan

An *r*-stem with an irregular stem change in the plural is seen in

M5r ^{ε/}	Mɔ́ɔm ^{ma}	Mōr-	"Muslim"

Agent nouns from invariable verbs with stems in -// or -r(r) not only show alternative - ε LF sg forms but also have analogical plurals in - a^+ alongside - b^a .

	ňyà'an-dɔ̀l ^{la}	ňyà'an-dɔ̀llιba	ňyà'an-dòl-	"disciple" NT
	ňyā'an-dɔ́l ^{lε}	ňyā'an-dɔ́llà+	ňyā'an-dɔ́l-	id WK
	gbàn-zāňl ^{la/}	gbàn-zāňllíb ^a	gbàn-zāňl-	"one with a book in hand" KT WK
	bὺ-zāňl ^{la/}	bὺ-zāňllíb ^a	bὺ-zāňl-	"goat-carrier" WK
or	bὺ-zāňl ^{lɛ/}	bὺ-zāňllá ⁺		
	gbàn-mɔ̄r ^{a/}	gbàn-mɔ̄ríb ^a	gbàn-mɔ̄r-	"book-owner" DK
	gbàn-tār ^{a/}	gbàn-tāríb ^a	gbàn-tār-	id DK
	bὺ-mɔ̄r ^{a/}	bὺ-mɔ̄ríb ^a	bὺ-mɔ̄r-	"goat-owner" WK
or	bὺ-mɔ̄r ^{ε/}	bὺ-mɔ̄rá ⁺		

WK specifically rejected all interpretations as head + deverbal adjective.

9.3.1.2 b^a as singular

A subclass of nouns referring to older/important people has $-b^a$ in the sg, and makes the plural with $n \grave{a} m^a \ 9.4$:

nà'ab ^a	nà'-nàm ^a	nà'-	"chief"
yáab ^a (*yāágbā)	yāa-nám ^a	yāa-	"grandparent"
pùgudıb ^a	pùgvd-nàm ^a	pùgvd-	"father's sister"
áňsìb ^a	āňs-nám ^a	āňs-	"mother's brother"
With * $mb \rightarrow mm$:			

sàam ^{ma}	sàam-nàm ^a	sàam-	"father"
dìəm ^{ma}	dìəm-nàm ^a	dìəm-	"man's parent-in-law"
dàyáam ^{ma}	dàyāam-nám ^a	dàyāam-	"woman's parent-in-
			law"

9.3.2 $g^a|s^\epsilon$ class

Straightforward examples include:

būυg ^a	būυs ^ε	bù-	"goat"
tὲ'εg ^a	tὲ'εs ^ε	tè'-	"baobab"
tìıg ^a	tìιs ^ε	tì-	"tree"
ňwādıg ^{a/}	ňwādιs ^{ε/}	ňwād-	"moon, month"
lɔ̄dıg ^{a/}	l5dιs ^{ε/}	l5d-	"corner"
āaňdıg ^a	āaňdıs ^ɛ	àaňd-	"Vitex doniana"
bù-dìbıg ^a	bὺ-dὶbιs ^ε	bù-dìb-	"male kid"
kpìibıg ^a	kpìibιs ^ε	kpìib-	"orphan"
yàmmıg ^a	yàmmıs ^ɛ	yàm-	"slave"
kɔ̃lıg ^a	kɔ̃lιs ^ε	kòl-	"river"
kpùkpàrıg ^a	kpùkpàrıs ^ε	kpùkpàr-	"palm tree"
pūsıg ^{a/}	pūsιs ^{ε/}	pūs-	"tamarind"
zɔ̃ɔga	zōɔsε		"run, race"
būdıg ^a			"planting"

Root-stems in Caa Ciə Cue delete the *g of the sg suffix -g^a 6.3.1:

bāa= <u>8.1</u>	bāas ^ε	bà-	"dog"
sīa ⁺	sīəs ^ɛ	sia-	"waist"
sàbùa ⁺	sàbùes ^ɛ	sàbuà-	"lover, girlfriend"

Nasal iaň uaň here alternates with $\varepsilon \varepsilon n$ 22n 6.3.1

zìň'a ⁺	zèň'ɛs ^ɛ	ziàň'- or zèň'-	"red" (adjective)
nū'-íň'a ⁺	nū' - έň'ὲs ^ε	nū'-έň'-	"fingernail"
Mùa ⁺	Mòɔs ^ε	Mò-	"Mossi person"
nūa ^{+/}	n̄ɔɔs ^{ε/}	nō-	"hen"

*Cag- *Ciag- *Cyag- stems 6.3.1 show singulars with - k^a :

zàk ^a	zà'as ^ɛ	zà'-	"compound"
pųāk ^a	pū'as ^ε	pu̯'à-	"female" (adjective)

Stems in *CVg- display consonant assimilation in the sg via *gg $\rightarrow kk$:

gìk ^a	gìgıs ^ɛ	gìg-	"dumb person"
kūk ^a	kūgus ^ε	kùg-	"chair"

Stems in -m- and -n- show -ŋ- in the sg, via *mg \rightarrow ŋŋ and *ng \rightarrow ŋŋ, and the cbs adopt the sg form; in the pl *ns \rightarrow $\tilde{:}$ s 6.2.1 whereas -*ms- remains with 2-morastems, but is frequently assimilated in longer stems. There are, however, no unequivocal three- of four-mora n-stems in this class in any case.

bāŋ ^a	bāaňs ^ɛ	bàŋ-	"ring, chain, fetter"
tēŋª	tēεňs ^ε	tèŋ-	"land"
pàŋ ^a	pàaňs ^ε	pàŋ-	"power"
bùŋ ^a	bὺmιs ^ε	bùŋ-	"donkey"
nāŋ ^a	กลิmเร ^ะ	nàŋ-	"scorpion"
sú'øŋª	sū'emís ^ɛ	sū'eŋ-	"rabbit"
йwāaŋ ^a	ňwāamιs ^ε	йwàaŋ-	"monkey"
níiŋ ^a	níis ^ε nīimís ^ε	nīiŋ-	"bird"
kùlıŋ ^a	kùlıs ^ɛ kùlımıs ^ɛ	kùlıŋ-	"door"
kū'alíŋ ^a	kū'alís ^ɛ kū'alímìs ^ɛ	kū'alíŋ-	sleeveless traditional smock

So too with all deverbal instrument nouns:

mēεdιŋ ^a	mēεdιs ^ε	mὲεdιŋ-	"building tool"
	mēεdιmιs ^ε		
pīəsíŋ ^a	pīəsís ^ɛ	pīəsíŋ-	"sponge"
	pīəsímìs ^ε		← <i>pīe</i> +/ "wash (self)"

Various irregular stem alternations are seen in

bīig ^a	bīis ^ɛ	<i>bī-</i> or <i>bì-</i>	"child"
bὲrιŋ ^a	bèrıgıs ^ɛ		a plant used for fibre
tàmpūa+	tàmpɔ̄ɔs ^ɛ	tàmpò-	"housefly" DK (no <i>ň</i>)
būtıŋ ^a	būtιιs ^ε	bùtıŋ-	"cup" <u>2.2</u>

Very irregular in both flexion and phonology is

-=	-=1	_ =	1142
sāná+	sānsá+ [sansa]	san-	"time"

These human-reference nouns have alternative plurals with the suffix $-b^a$:

dàsāŋ ^a	dàsām ^{ma}	dàsàŋ-	"young man"
	or <i>dàsāaňs</i> ε		
Yàaŋ ^a	Yàam ^{ma}	Yàaŋ-	"Yanga, Yansi person"
	or <i>Yàamıs^ɛ/Yàaňs^ɛ</i>		
Sà'dàbùa ⁺	Sà'dàbùeb ^a		clan name <u>32.5</u>
	or Sà'dàbùes ^ɛ		

9.3.2.1 $g^{3}|s^{\varepsilon}$ subclass

Several s^{ε} -plural stems with rounded vowels have sg g° , by reinterpretation of $g^{\mathsf{a}}|s^{\varepsilon}$ class sg as g° when the SF forms coincide 2.3.2 9.1. WK avoids the change to g° with human-reference nouns. No regular deverbal instrument noun takes g° . Some of these words also have g^{ε} plurals, and some may have become $g^{\circ}|g^{\varepsilon}$ entirely.

	kūug ^{a/}	kūus ^{ε/}	kū-	"mouse"
or	kūug ^{ɔ/}			
	sù'vg ^a	<i>s</i> ὺ'υ <i>s</i> ^ε	sờ'-	"knife"
or	sù'ug ^o			
	nú'ùg ^ɔ	nú'ùs ^ε	nū'-	"hand"
	zùnzòŋ ^a	zὺnzὸɔňs ^ε	zùnzòŋ-	"blind person"
or	zùnzòŋ ^ɔ			
	tèŋ-zùŋ ^ɔ	tèŋ-zùʊĭs ^ɛ		"foreign land"
but		pi̯àň'-zùna+		"foreign language"
	yט'טŋ ^ɔ	yบิ'บmís ^ะ	yบิ'บŋ-	"night"
	zùuňg ^ɔ	zùuňs ^ɛ	zùň-	"vulture"
	or	zùuňd ^ε		

Compare Mampruli *nuuwa* pl *nuusi* "hand", *suuwa* pl *suusi* "knife", *kuuwa* pl *kuusi* "mouse", *zuuwa* pl *zuusi* "vulture" (but *yuŋŋu* pl *yunsi* "night.")

In $y \`{a}mmvg$ "slave" the epenthetic vowel before the flexion has been rounded by the -m- and the resulting SF reinterpreted as ending in g^3 :

```
y \grave{a} m m \upsilon g^a \ WK \qquad y \grave{a} m m \iota s^\epsilon \qquad y \grave{a} m -  "slave" or y \grave{a} m m \upsilon g^{\circ}
```

Some $g^{\circ}|s^{\varepsilon}$ *m*-stems were probably originally $g^{\circ}|d^{\varepsilon}$, but have disambiguated the plural by substituting pl $-s^{\varepsilon}$ for $-d^{\varepsilon}$ instead of the usual $-a^{+}$ 9.3.3.1:

à - dàalύŋ ^ɔ	à-dàalίs ^ε WK	à-dàalúŋ-	"stork"
	à-dàalímìs ^ɛ		
รเ'ิน์ŋ ^ว	sī'imís ^ɛ	รเ'ินทู-	a kind of big dish

cf $d i s i g^{\circ}$ $d i s i s^{\varepsilon}$ $d i s i g^{\circ}$ "spoon" $d i s i g^{+}$

Two words of this type drop -s- from the stem in the plural:

พเิโเรง์ŋ ^ว	wīlımís ^ε	wīlเรช์ŋ-	a kind of snail
yālısúŋ ^ɔ	yālımís ^ɛ	yālısúŋ-	"quail"

9.3.3 $g^{\circ}|d^{\varepsilon}$ class

Before the sg $-g^3 - k^3 - \eta^3$ stem-final vowels are rounded, changing epenthetic vowels to ν and creating rounding diphthongs from root vowels <u>6.3.2</u> <u>4.3</u>.

All stems in m n following a short vowel belong to the $g^{\circ}|a^{+}$ subclass instead, along with all stems which include a derivational suffix 9.3.3.1.

dàvg ^ɔ	dàad ^ɛ	dà-	"piece of wood"
fēň'og ^{ɔ/}	fēň'εd ^{ε/}	fēň'-	"ulcer"
vīug ^{ɔ/}	vīid ^{ε/}	VĪ-	"owl"
vāิบทัg ^{ว/}	vāaňd ^{€/}	vāň-	"leaf"
тɔ̄ɔg ^ɔ	mɔ̄ɔd ^ε	mò-	"grass, bush"
dùndùug ^o	dùndùud ^ɛ	dùndù-	"cobra"
dàbīog ^o	dàbīəd ^ɛ	dàbịà-	"coward"
	zùød ^ɛ		"friendship"
wābug ^{ɔ/}	wāb≀d ^{€/}	wāb-	"elephant"
zūebúg ^o	zūebíd ^ɛ	zūeb-	"(human head) hair"
bālērvg ^{ɔ/}	bālērıd ^{ɛ/}	bālér-	"ugly person"
	or <i>bālērιs^{ε/}</i>		
bēsvg ^o	bēsıd ^ɛ	bès-	kind of pot
Dènnug ^o			Denugu (place name)

Some stems ending in root vowels have plurals of the form CVt^{ε} 6.1.1.1:

 $d\dot{z}$ $d\dot{z}$ $d\dot{z}$ or $d\dot{z}$ "hut, room; clan"

So too $p\bar{p}g^{3}$ "farm, field", $f\bar{u}ug^{3}$ "clothing, shirt"; exceptionally, the *singular* also shows a short vowel in the following word, probably a true 1-mora stem:

 $z\bar{u}g^{5/}$ $z\bar{u}t^{\epsilon/}$ $z\bar{u}$ - or $z\bar{u}g$ - "head"

*Cag- *Ciag- *Cuag- stems 6.3.1 show sg $-k^3$, and μa becomes b before $-k^3$ 6.3.2:

bòk ^o	bὺ'ad ^ε		bu̞'à-	"hole, pit"
làk ^o	lὺ'ad ^ε		lu̞'à-	"quiver (for arrows)"
lāuk ^o	lā¹ad [€]		là'-	"(item of) goods"
bjāuňk ^o	bi̯āň'ad ^ɛ	WK	bi̯àň'-	"shoulder"
	biāň'ada+	SB		

Stems in *CVd* show -t- in the pl 6.2.1 via *dd \rightarrow tt:

ùdvg ^o	ùt ^ɛ	ùd-	"(piece of) chaff"
gādvg ^{ɔ/}	gāt ^{ε/}	gād-	"bed" (Hausa <i>gadoo</i>)

Stems in *CVg* develop kk in the singular via * $gg \rightarrow kk$:

dūk ^{⊃/}	dūgυd ^{ε/}	dūg-	"cooking pot"
	dūgυb dύt ^ε		"cooking pots" SB

Stems in *I* develop the cluster *nn* in the pl via **Id* \rightarrow *nn*:

yɔ̄lυg ^{ɔl}	ȳɔ̄n ^{nε/}	yōl-	"sack; 200 cedis"
zɔ̄lʊgɔ/	z̄ɔn ^{nε/}	zōl-	"fool"
sìlvg ^o	sìn ^{ne} or sìlıs ^e	sìl-	"hawk"

The only m n stems making plurals with $-d^{\varepsilon}$ are CVVC root-stems $\underline{6.1.1.2}$:

```
làngáυŋ<sup>5</sup> làngāamá<sup>+</sup> làngāυŋ- "crab"
or làngáam<sup>mε</sup>
```

So too $m ang \bar{a} \acute{v} \eta^{\circ}$ "crab", the plural-only $s \bar{u} \breve{n} - p \acute{\epsilon} \grave{\epsilon} n^{n \epsilon}$ "anger" and perhaps the placename $T \grave{\epsilon} m p \acute{a} a n^{n \epsilon}$ "Tempane" 32.3.

9.3.3.1 $g^3|a^+$ subclass

All stems in n m following a short vowel use the plural suffix a^+ instead of d^{ϵ} . They show $-\eta$ - in the sg, via $*ng \to \eta\eta$ and $*mg \to \eta\eta$, and normally use the sg segmental (but not tonal) form as cb 9.2.2.

gbàu̞ŋɔ	gbàna ⁺	gbàn- or gbàun-	"letter, book"
zīnzāuŋɔ/	zīnzāná ⁺	zīnzáun-	"bat"
àňrʊŋ ^ɔ	àňrıma+	àĭrvŋ-	"boat"
mālvŋ ^ɔ	mālıma+	màlvŋ-	"sacrifice"

The expected u-glide is absent in the sg and cb of

nìn-gbīŋ^{ɔ/} nìn-gbīná⁺ nìn-gbīŋ- "body"

This may represent the influence of the alternate sg form $n in-gb \bar{l} n^{n\epsilon}$. The formal plural $n in-gb \bar{l} n \acute{a}^+$ is often used for singular "body."

All regular gerunds of 3-mora- and 4-mora-stem variable verbs belong to the $g^{5}|a^{+}$ subclass except for those with stems ending in velars and fusion verbs $\underline{11.1}$, which have the singular suffix r^{ϵ} $\underline{12.1.1.1}$.

```
gàadvg<sup>o</sup>
                                 gàad<sup>€</sup>
                                                                                                     "(sur)pass"
lìəbug<sup>o</sup>
                                                                                                     "become"
                                 lìəbε
dīgılúg<sup>o</sup>
                      ← dīaul<sup>ε/</sup>
                                                                                                     "lav down"
                                 yāar<sup>ε/</sup>
yāarúg<sup>ο</sup>
                                                                                                     "scatter"
                      \leftarrow
sīgısúg<sup>o</sup>
                                 sīgis<sup>E/</sup>
                                                                                                     "lower"
                      \leftarrow
```

Only stems in -s- and -sim- have plurals, always with -a+:

```
b\bar{u}'es\acute{v}g b\bar{u}'es\acute{a} "question" z\grave{a}a\breve{n}s\acute{v}\eta z\grave{a}a\breve{n}s\acute{v}\eta "dream"
```

Gerunds of 3-mora n-stem verbs, uniquely, never assimilate * $ng \rightarrow \eta \eta$ (just as they never assimilate *nd in their imperfectives $11.1 \ 6.2.1.1$

```
d \log n u g^{\circ} \leftarrow d \log n^{\epsilon} "lie down" z i n' i n u g^{\circ} \leftarrow z i n' i n^{\epsilon} "sit down"
```

Gerunds of 3-mora *m*-stems may optionally not assimilate * $mg \rightarrow \eta \eta$:

```
t\acute{>}\jmath\jmath^{>}+t\bar{>}\jmathm^{m/}"depart, disappear"or t\bar{>}\jmathm\acute{y}^{>}+s\grave{a}\breve{n}'\upsilon\eta^{>}++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++</td
```

Gerunds of 4-mora *m*-stems always assimilate:

```
zàaňsúη<sup>3</sup> ← zàaňsιm<sup>m</sup> "dream"
```

9.3.4 $r^{\epsilon}|a^{+}$ class

Straightforward examples include:

kūgvr ^{ε/}	kūgá ⁺	kūg-	"stone"
dìgır ^ɛ	dìga ⁺	dìg-	"dwarf"
būgυr ^ε	būga ⁺	bùg-	"abode of
			a <i>wīn</i> ^{nε} (spirit, god)"
bàlàŋır ^ɛ	bàlàŋa ⁺	bàlàŋ-	"hat"
yūgvdır ^ɛ	yūgvda ⁺	yùgvd-	"hedgehog"
pu̞'à-sādιr ^{ε/}	pu̞'à-sādá+	pu̯'à-sād-	"young woman"
nóbìr ^ɛ	nōbá ⁺	nōb-	"leg"
līıbır ^ε	līıba ⁺	lìıb-	"twin"
sɔ̄nnır ^ɛ	sɔ̄nna+	sòn-	"inner
			compound wall"
sāngúnnìr ^ɛ	sāngύnnà ⁺	sāngún-	"millipede"
bì'isır ^ɛ	bì'isa ⁺	bì'is-	"woman's breast"
sūmmır ^ɛ	sūmma+	sùm-	"groundnut"
yīmmír ^ɛ	yīmmá ⁺	yīm-	"solitary" (adjective)

All gerunds of 3-mora stem verbs in $-k^{\varepsilon} - g^{\varepsilon} - \eta^{\varepsilon}$ belong to this class:

yùugʊr ^ɛ	"delay"
nōkír ^ɛ	"taking"
nìŋır ^ɛ	"doing"

For the allomorphism in CVV root-stems before the plural $-a^+$ see <u>6.1.1.1</u>. Unglottalised vowel stems:

zūur ^ɛ	zūya+	zὺ-	"tail"
bīər ^{ε/}	bjēyá+	bjā-	"elder same-sex sib"
zūer ^ε	z <u>u</u> ēya+	zuà-	"hill"
nōɔr ^{ε/}	nōyá+	nō-	"mouth"
yòɔr ^ɛ	yɔ̀ya ⁺	yò-	"soldier ant"

Glottalised vowel stems:

yō'υr ^{ε/}	yūdá ⁺	yō'-	"name"
tītā'ar ^ɛ	tītāda+	tītá'-	"big" (adjective)
pὸň'ɔr ^ε	pòňda ⁺	pàň'-	"cripple"
ňyē̄'εr ^{ε/}	ňyē̄dá+	ňyē'-	"next-younger sibling"

pὺ-tὲň'εr ^ε	pù-tèňda+	pὺ-tὲň'-	"mind"
yū'er ^ε	yuāda+	уѝ'өr- <u>9.2.2</u>	"penis"

Stems in *CVg 6.3.1 may have forms made by analogy with these original glottalised-vowel stems, instead of or alongside forms with vowel fusion:

bà'ar [€]	bà'a ⁺ or bàda ⁺	bà'-	"idol" (Farefare <i>bàgrὲ</i>)
ňyā'ar ^ε	йуā'а ⁺	йуà'-	"root" (← * <i>ηεg-</i>)
sià'ar ^ɛ	si̯à'a ⁺	sjà'-	"forest"
bi̯āĭ'ar ^{ε/}	bi̯áň'a+	bi̯āň'-	"wet mud, riverbed"
mὺ'ar ^ɛ	mu̯'àa+	mu̯'à-	"reservoir, dam"
	or mù'ada+		
zànkù'ar ^ɛ	zànkự'àa+	zànkự'à-	"jackal"
	or zànkừ'ada+		
kὺndὺ'ar ^ε	kừndự'àa ⁺	kùndự'à-	"barren woman"
	or kùndù'ada+		

So too, despite the derivation from $d\dot{a}^{+}$ "buy", where the glottalisation is not derived from *g:

kì-dà'ar^ε kì-dà'ada⁺ WK "bought-in millet"

Stems in deleted *g after a long vowel include

 $v\dot{u}\theta^{\epsilon}$ $v\bar{u}\dot{a}a^{=}$ $v\bar{u}\theta$ "fruit of $v\dot{u}\theta\eta^{a}$ tree"

and all fusion verb gerunds 11.1 like

gbáň'ar $^{\epsilon}$ ← gbāň'e $^{+/}$ "grab" dí'ər $^{\epsilon}$ ← d \bar{r} e $^{+/}$ "get" dúer $^{\epsilon}$ ← d \bar{u} e $^{+/}$ "rise"

Some root-stems show CV with a short vowel before the $r^{\varepsilon}|a^{+}$ sg 9.2.1. They regularly use the segmental form of the sg for cb.

 $gb\bar{\epsilon}r^{\epsilon l}$ $gb\bar{\epsilon}y\acute{a}^{+}$ $gb\bar{\epsilon}r_{-}$ "thigh" $k\dot{\nu}k\bar{\jmath}r^{\epsilon l}$ $k\dot{\nu}k\bar{\jmath}y\acute{a}^{+}$ $k\dot{\nu}k\bar{\jmath}r_{-}$ "voice"

Similarly $kp \grave{a} k \bar{v} r^{\epsilon/}$ "tortoise" $g \bar{a} \check{n} r^{\epsilon/}$ "ebony fruit" $g \bar{v} mp \bar{v} z \bar{\epsilon} r^{\epsilon/}$ "duck" $\check{n} y \grave{o} - v \bar{v} r^{\epsilon/}$ "life". 2-mora stem verbs make gerunds in $-r^{\epsilon}$ instead of $-b^{\circ}$ after a noun cb:

```
n\bar{\partial}-l\dot{\partial}\dot{\partial}r^{\varepsilon} "fasting" ("mouth-tying") 
f\bar{u}-y\dot{\varepsilon}\dot{\varepsilon}r^{\varepsilon} "shirt-wearing"
```

These set expressions show shortening of the vowel, but this is not productive:

```
n\bar{a}'-l\acute{z}r^{\varepsilon} "place in the compound for tying up cows" w\grave{i}d-l\ddot{z}r^{\varepsilon/} "place in the compound for tying up horses"
```

Stems in $m \ n \ l \ r$ undergo consonant assimilation in the sg: $*rr \rightarrow r \ *lr \rightarrow ll \ *nr \rightarrow nn \ *mr \rightarrow mn$; on the instability of the cluster mn see 3.2.

kùkpàr ^ɛ	kùkpàra ⁺	kùkpàr-	"palm fruit"
Ňwād-dár ^ε			"Venus"
tān ^{nɛ}	tāna+	tàn-	"earth"
kpān ^{nε}	kpāna ⁺	kpàn-	"spear"
má'an ^{nε}	mā'aná ⁺	mā'an-	"okra"
pībιn ^{nε}	pībına+	pìbın-	"covering"
dūm ^{nε}	dūma+	dùm-	"knee"
z̄ɔm ^{nε}	zɔ̄ɔma+	zòɔm-	"fugitive"
yὺυm ^{nε}	yὺma ⁺	yὺυm -	"year" <u>6.1.1.2</u>
gbīgιm ^{nε}	gbīgıma ⁺	gbìgım-	"lion"
yūgύm ^{nε}	yūgumá ⁺	yūgvm-	"camel"
gέl ^{lε}	gēlá ⁺	gēl-	"egg"
ίιΙ ^{Ιε}	īιlá ⁺	<i>ī</i> t/-	"horn"

With unusual sandhi in the sg, and presumably analogical levelling

```
    ňwān<sup>nε</sup> SB ňwāna<sup>+</sup> NT ňwàn-/ňwàm- "calabash"
    ňwām<sup>mε</sup> WK ňwāma<sup>+</sup> SB WK NT
```

An exceptional suppletive plural, segmentally and tonally, is seen in

```
dāar<sup>ε</sup> dābá<sup>+</sup> dà- "day"
```

These two $r^{\varepsilon}|a^{+}$ class words probably have 1-mora stems:

```
[Mampruli zari] z\bar{a}^{+/} z\bar{a} "millet" y\bar{\imath}r^{\epsilon/} y\bar{a}^{+/} y\bar{\imath} "house"
```

 $Y\bar{i}r^{\epsilon/l}$ also has the irregular locative forms sg $yin^{n\epsilon}$ pl $yin^{n\epsilon}$ pl

9.3.4.1 I^{ϵ} subclass

Language names 32.5 all belong to a $r^{\varepsilon}|a^{+}$ subclass partly formed with the suffix $-l^{\varepsilon}$. The suffix is always $-l^{\varepsilon}$ after stems ending in a root vowel:

<u>Language</u>		<u>Speakers</u>	
Kūsáàl ^ɛ	Kusaal	Kūsáàs ^ε	Kusaasi
Bùsáàňl ^ɛ	Bisa	Bὺsáàňs ^ε	Bisa
Mòɔl ^ɛ	Mooré	Mὸɔs ^ε	Mossi
Sìmīil ^ɛ	Fulfulde	Sìmīis ^ɛ	Fulße
Zàngbèɛl ^ɛ	Hausa	Zàngbὲεd ^ε	Hausa
Nàsāal ^ɛ	English/French	Nàsàa-nàm ^a	Europeans

After stems ending in a consonant other than -r- the suffix is either replaced by r^{ε} , or assimilates to the stem final in a way which is indistinguishable from r^{ε} :

Nàbır ^ɛ	Nabit	Nàbıdıb ^a	Nabdema
Tùennır ^ɛ	Toende Kusaal	Tùen ^{nε}	Toende area
Dàgbān ^{nε/}	Dagbani	Dàgbām ^{ma/}	Dagomba
Bìn ^{nε}	Moba	<i>Bìm</i> ^{ma}	Moba
Yàan ^{nε}	Yansi	Yàaἤs ^ε	Yansi
Gῦrín ^{nε}	Farefare	Gūrís ^ε	Farefare
Tàlιn ^{nε}	Talni	Tàlıs ^ɛ	Tallensi
Bùl ^{lε}	Buli	Bùlıs ^ɛ	Bulsa
Àgòl ^{lɛ}	Agolle Kusaal	Àgɔ̀l ^{lɛ}	Agolle area

However, stems in -r- show the distinctive assimilation *rl \rightarrow tt <u>6.2.1</u>:

Yāt ^{ε/}	Yarsi	Yārιs ^{ε/}	Yarsi
Bāt ^{ε/}	Bisa	Bārιs ^{ε/}	Bisa

Unexpected epenthesis <u>6.2.1</u> occurs in:

Kàmbùnır ^ɛ	Twi	Kàmbùmıs ^ɛ	Ashanti
Ňwāmpūrıl ^{ɛ/}	Mampruli	Ňwāmpūrıs ^{ɛ/}	Mamprussi

9.3.5 P|1+ class

The plural $-\iota^+$ causes the stem vowels $aa\ i\partial\ \epsilon\epsilon$ to undergo "umlaut" to ii. Straightforward examples for the $f^0|\iota^+$ class are

mòlıf ^o	mòlı+	mòl-	"gazelle"
bīilíf ^o	bīilí ⁺	bīil-	"seed"
ňyīríf ^o	ňyīrí+	ňyīr-	"egusi"
zūríf ^o	zūrí+	zūr-	"dawadawa seed"
būn-búvdìf ^o			"plant"

Two 1-mora stem $f^{0}|_{l}^{+}$ nouns are

```
no sg k\bar{\imath}^{+/} k\bar{\imath}- or k\bar{a}- "cereal, millet" cf Mampruli sg kaafu pl kyi id.

no sg m\grave{\imath}\dot{\jmath}^+ m\grave{\imath}\dot{\jmath}- "rice"
```

cf Mooré sg *muiifu* pl *mùí id*.

Two words have stems in *Caag- with deletion of *g 6.3.1 and also show root vowel length allomorphy 6.1.1.2:

náaf ^o	nīigί+	nā'-	"cow"
wáaf ^o	wīigí+	wā'-	"snake"

Stems in -*n*- show consonant assimilation in the sg with * $nf \rightarrow \tilde{i}f = 6.2.1$:

nīf ^{ɔ/}	nīnί ⁺	nīn- or nīf-	"eye"
ρίιἤf ⁹	pīıní+	pīın-	"genet"
kíiňf ^o	kīiní+		"millet seed"
zύυňf ^ɔ	zōυní ⁺		"dawadawa seed"

The sg is probably remodelled after an umlauted pl (cf $m\acute{a}$ 'an^{nɛ} "okra") in

```
míif<sup>o</sup> mīiní<sup>+</sup> "okra seed"
```

In two words stem -d- is lost in the sg:

wìəf ^o	wìdı+	wìd-	"horse"
lā'af ^o	līgıdı+	là'- or lìg-	"cowrie" pl "money"

Some words only have $f^0|\iota^+$ 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.

zíiŋ ^a	zīm(+	zīm-	"fish"
wālıg ^a	wālıs ^ɛ	wàl-	a kind of gazelle
	or <i>wālí</i> tones s	sic WK	
sībıg ^{a/}	sībí+	sīb-	a kind of termite
sīiňf ^{ɔ/}	sīiňs ^{ε/}	sīň-	"bee"
or <i>sīiňg^{a/}</i>			
sūňf ^{ɔ/}	sūňyá ⁺	sūň-	"heart"
or <i>sūuňr^{ε/}</i>			

One such word also irregularly deletes the final stem consonant of the cb:

 $kp\bar{a}'\dot{v}\eta^{\circ}$ $kp\bar{i}'ini'^+$ $kp\bar{a}'$ - "guinea fowl"

9.3.6 **b**² class

In my materials there are only two b° class nouns which are not gerunds:

sāˈab ^ɔ	sà'-	"millet porridge, TZ"
tāňp ^o	tàňp-	"war" <u>6.1.1.1</u>

Written sources also have $ki'ib^{0}$, probably $k\bar{\iota}'\iota b^{0}$ "soap", cf Toende $k(\iota'\iota p)$. WK has instead $k\bar{\iota}ib\dot{\upsilon}^{+}$, borrowed from Mampruli 15.1.

However, all regular gerund forms of 2-mora-stem variable verbs belong here:

←	kū+	"kill"
←	dūg ^ε	"cook"
←	du̯'àª	"bear, beget"
←	kàd ^ɛ	"drive away"
←	pìl ^ɛ	"cover"
←	kpàr ^ɛ	"lock"
←	bàs ^ε	"abandon, go away"
	+ + + +	← dūg ^ε ← du'à ^a ← kàd ^ε ← pìl ^ε ← kpàr ^ε

Stems in b show -p- via *bb $\rightarrow pp$

```
s\bar{p}^{5/} \leftarrow s\bar{b}^{\epsilon} "write" 
l\bar{p}^{5/} \leftarrow l\bar{b}^{\epsilon} "throw stones at"
```

Stems in *m* show the consonant assimilation * $mb \rightarrow mm$

```
k\bar{\iota}m^{\text{mo}} \leftarrow k\hat{\iota}m^{\text{m}} "tend a flock/herd" w\bar{\upsilon}m^{\text{mo}} \leftarrow w\dot{\upsilon}m^{\text{m}} "hear"
```

Stems in *n* do not assimilate, however (cf 3-mora *n*-stem gerunds <u>9.3.3.1</u>)

```
b\bar{u}n\iota b^{\circ} \leftarrow b\dot{u}n^{\varepsilon} "reap"
```

The verb $y\bar{i}s^{\varepsilon}$ "make go/come out" has the expected gerund $y\bar{i}s\iota b^{\circ l}$; exceptionally the alternate form $y\bar{i}is^{\varepsilon l}$ also makes its gerund in the b° class: $y\bar{i}is(b^{\circ})$, the only noun in the b° class which does not have a 2-mora stem.

$9.3.7 \, m^{\rm m} \, {\rm class}$

Countable nouns in m^m class form plurals with $-a^+$ or $-s^\epsilon$, or use $n \grave{a} m^a \ \underline{9.4}$. Straightforward forms include:

dāam ^{m/}	dā-	"millet beer, pito"
zīเm ^{m/}	zī-	"blood"
kù'em ^m	kự'à-	"water"
mὲlɪgɪm ^m		"dew"
kūdım ^m		"olden days"
dū'uním ^m	dū'un-	"urine"
zàam ^m	zà-	"evening"
dàalım ^m		"masculinity"
ρὺ'alım ^m		"femininity"
yàarım ^m	yàar-	"salt"
zāaňsím ^m	zāaňs-	"soup"

The few words with short stem vowels all use the segmental form of the sg for the cb, and are probably m-stems:

νōm ^{m/}	νūm-	"life"
kūm ^m	kùm-	"death"
z̄ɔm ^{m/}	zōm-	"flour"
yām ^{m/}	yām-	"gall; gall bladder"

 $m^{\rm m}$ 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 7.2.2.

bùgóm ^m		bùgóm- or bù	<i>gōm-</i> "fire"
pūum ^{m/}		pūum-	"flowers, flora"
bìilím ^m			"childhood"
bì'isím ^m			"milk"
dàalím ^m	dàalímìs ^ɛ	dàalím-	"male sex organs"
pὺ'alím ^m	pὺ'alímὶs ^ε	ρὺˈalím-	"female sex organs"
pīim ^{m/}	pīmá ⁺	pīm-	"arrow" <u>6.1.1.2</u>

 $P\bar{\imath}im^{m/}$ "arrow" is a remnant of an old $^{5}|^{\epsilon}$ class, preserved in e.g. the Gurma languages and Nawdm: cf Nawdm $fi:m\acute{u}$ "arrow", plural $fi:m\acute{u}$.

9.4 Nàma plurals

There is an alternative way of making plural nouns, with the word $n \grave{a} m^a$, 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 premodifier; the modifier appears as cb if it is a count noun and as a formal sg/pl if it is a mass noun 16.2.1 16.10. Plurals with $n\grave{a}m^a$ are made for:

(a) human-reference nouns where the pl stem differs from the sg, or the regular pl would be ambiguous 9.3.1, or $-b^a$ is used as sg 9.3.1.2, or which have a sg consisting of a bare stem:

mà ⁺	mà nám ^a	mà-	"mother"
	(tone sic, beha	aving as uncomp	oounded)
bā' ^{+/}	bā'-nám ^a	bā'-	"father"
zuà+	zuà-nàm ^a	zuà-	"friend"

(b) loanwords, human-reference or otherwise:

bùrkìn ^a	bùrkìn-nàm ^a	bùrkìn-	"honourable person"
kὲεkὲ ⁺	kὲεkὲ-nàm ^a	kèekè-	"bicycle"

(c) pronouns without distinctive pl forms, like $\frac{\partial n}{\partial n}$ "who" when asking for a plural answer "what people?", $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ inanimate "this" in older materials 16.2.1 or e.g.

```
d\bar{a}an^a d\dot{a}an-nàm^a d\dot{a}an- "owner of.." \underline{16.10.3.1} t\bar{\iota}r\dot{a}\dot{a}n^a t\bar{\iota}r\dot{a}\dot{a}n- "neighbour, peer"
```

- (d) quantifiers used as noun-phrase heads 16.4.1.
- (e) plural forms with singular meaning:

```
d\hat{a}-p\bar{v}vd\hat{a} nàm^a "crosses" k\bar{u}t n\hat{a}m^a "nails"; sg also "iron" b\bar{\varepsilon}'\varepsilon d n\hat{a}m^a "evils"
```

(f) mass nouns used with count meanings <u>16.2.1</u>.

```
    bùgóm nám<sup>a</sup> "fires, lights"
    sā'ab nám<sup>a</sup> "portions of millet porridge"
    dāam nám<sup>a</sup> "beers"
```

(g) forms with the personifier clitic \grave{a} - 16.6.

9.5 Plurals used as singulars

For $-b^a$ as sg see <u>9.3.1.2</u>; for nouns in $-\iota^+$ and $-\upsilon^+$ see <u>9.6</u>. A number of words referring to uncountables or abstracts are plural in form:

bāň'as ^ɛ	bàň'-	"disease"
ňyɔ̄'ɔs ^{ε/}	йуɔ̄'-	"smoke"
tàdımís ^ɛ		"weakness"
zɔ̄lɪmís ^ɛ		"foolishness"
mēt ^{ε/}	mēt- <u>9.2.2</u>	"pus"
kūt ^ε	kùt- <u>9.2.2</u>	"iron"
zùød ^ɛ		"friendship"
bῦυd ^ε		"innocence"
sīiňd ^{ɛ/}		"honey"
nīn-pύὺd ^ε		"pus"
wāad ^{€/}		"cold weather"
sūň-pέὲn ^{nε}		"anger"
ku̞'à-nūud ^{ɛ/}		"thirst"
sālıma ⁺	sàlım-	"gold"
sìda ⁺	sìd-	"truth"

 $K\bar{u}t^{\epsilon}$ is also "nail"; the original sg $k\bar{u}dvg^{\circ}$ appears in the name $A-K\bar{u}dvg^{\circ}$ 32.2. So too with a number of irregularly formed abstract nouns from verbs:

```
g\bar{\varepsilon}\varepsilon\bar{n}m(s^{\varepsilon})"madness"\leftarrow g\bar{\varepsilon}\varepsilon\bar{n}m^{m/}"madden, go mad"b\dot{u}d\iota m(s^{\varepsilon})"confusion""confuse"t\dot{t}t\bar{v}m\iota s^{\varepsilon}"sending"\leftarrow t\dot{v}m^{m}"send"z\bar{\imath}id^{\varepsilon/}"carrying on head""carry on head"
```

```
  vū<sup>+</sup>

     vūud<sup>ε/</sup>
                      "noise"
                                                                                 "make a noise"
     kēn<sup>nε/</sup>
                      "arrival"
                                               ← kēň+
                                                                                 "come"
                                               ← piāň'a
                                                                                 "speak" (irreg. tones)
     pịàň'ad<sup>ɛ</sup>
                      "speech"
[sq piàuňk<sup>3</sup>
                      "word"
     tēň'εsá+
                      "thought"
                                               cf tēň'esá yīnní
                                                                                 "one thought" <u>16.2.1</u>
                                               ← dì'əm<sup>m</sup>
     dì'əma+
                      "festival"
                                                                                 "play, not be serious"
                                                                                 "work"
     tūvma+
                      "work"
                                               ← tùm<sup>m</sup>
[sq tōυm<sup>mε</sup>
                      "deed"]
```

A single object may be referred to by the name of its parts:

```
dà-p\bar{\nu}\nudá<sup>+</sup> "cross"

pl dà-p\bar{\nu}\nudá nàma

cf dà-p\bar{\nu}\nudír^{\epsilon} "cross-piece"
```

A Kusaal plural may just happen to correspond to an English mass noun:

```
l\bar{a}\mu k^{3} "piece of goods" pl l\bar{a}'ad^{\epsilon} "goods" "cowrie" pl l\bar{i}gidi^{+} "money"
```

9.6 Nouns with apocope-blocking

A number of nouns ending in $-\iota^+$ or $-\upsilon^+$ display apocope-blocking <u>6.4</u>:

```
b\bar{u}ud\iota^+ b\dot{u}ud "tribe"

n\dot{a}'as\iota^+ "honour"

k\bar{a}b\iota r\iota'^+ "entry permission"

s\bar{u}gvr\iota'^+ "forbearance"

p\bar{\imath}in\iota^+ p\dot{\imath}in "gift"
```

Nouns in $-\iota^+$ or $-\upsilon^+$ include loanwords from languages without apocope, like the Mampruli loan $k\bar{\imath}ib\dot{b}^+$ "soap" 15.1. Cognates of $b\bar{u}ud\iota^+$ show that $-d\iota$ represents the equivalent of the $g^5|d^\epsilon$ class plural: Mooré $b\dot{u}udu$ "famille, $esp\grave{e}ce$ " sg $b\dot{u}ugu$. $N\grave{a}^\dagger as\iota^+$ may represent a $g^a|s^\epsilon$ class pl. $K\bar{a}b\iota r\dot{\iota}^+$ and $s\bar{u}g\upsilon r\dot{\upsilon}^+$ probably have the equivalent of r^ϵ sg suffix, in which case $k\bar{a}b\iota r^{\epsilon/}$ "ask for admission" and $s\bar{u}g\upsilon r^{\epsilon/}$ "forbear" are backformations 13.2.1.4. With $p\bar{\imath}in\iota^+$ cf Mampruli piini id; Mampruli also has $r^\epsilon|a^+$ type sg piinni pl piina, but Dagbani pini shows that single n is original, because Dagbani preserves long vowels in originally closed syllables. The form may be a remnant of a

noun class obsolete in Western Oti-Volta; Nawdm has a gu|(n)i class which includes some concrete deverbal nouns (cf 12.1.2).

9.7 Loanwords

Loanwords 15.1 adopt noun classes by analogy 9.1 or make nam^a plurals 9.4:

àrazàk ^a	àrazà'as ^ɛ	àrazà'-	"riches"
			Hausa <i>arzìkii</i>
màljāk ^{al}	màljā'as ^{ɛ/}	màlįā'-	"angel" DK (Arabic)
gādvg ^{ɔ/}	gāt ^{ε/}	gād-	"bed" Hausa <i>gadoo</i>
làmbà'ɔgɔ	lòmbò'ɔd [€]	lòmbò'-	"garden"
			Hausa <i>làmbuu</i>
lór ^ɛ	<i>lóyà</i> ⁺ tones <i>sic</i>	lór-	"car, lorry"
	or <i>lɔ́ɔm</i> ^{ma}		cf $M\bar{5}r^{\epsilon} \ 9.3.1.1$
àlópìr ^E	àlópìya ⁺		"aeroplane" SB
wādır ^{ɛ/}	wādá ⁺	wād-	pl "customs, law"
			(English "order")
gādv ⁺	gādv-nám ^a	gādv-	"bed" WK
kὲεkὲ ⁺	kὲεkὲ-nàm ^a	kèekè-	"bicycle" Hausa <i>kèekè</i>
dāká ⁺	dāká-nàm ^a	dāká-	"box" Hausa <i>àdakàa</i>
tέεbὺl ^ε	tέεbὺl-nàm ^a	<i>τέε</i> ρὺΙ-	"table"
Nàsāara+	Nàsàar-nàm ^a	Nàsàar-	"white person,
	or <i>Nàsàa-nàm</i> a	Nàsàa-	European" <u>32.5</u> ;
			cf Hausa <i>Nàsaara</i>

Loanwords ending in L or H toneme distinguish sg from cb by the fact that M spreading only follows the sg, conforming to the usual rule <u>8.3</u>:

```
du'átà ná'àb "a doctor's chief" du'átà-nà'ab "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 noun prefixes 7.2.4:

```
dūnıya+ "world" (Arabic ניֵּש dunya:)
dūnıyá-kàŋā "this world"
```

10 Adjective flexion

Primary adjectives are **stative**; many, though by no means all, have corresponding adjectival verbs which in principle have the same stem <u>11.2.2.2</u>. Deverbal adjectives are **dynamic** <u>13.1.1.2.1</u> or **resultative** <u>13.1.1.2.2</u>.

10.1 Primary adjectives

Kusaal primary 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"

bù-pìəlıg ^a	bὺ-pìəlιs ^ε	$b\dot{v}$ -pìəl- $(g^a s^{\epsilon})$	"white goat"
bὺ-pìəl ^{lε}	bὺ-pìəla ⁺	bù-pìəl- $(r^{\varepsilon} a^+)$	id

WK claims a meaning difference in intensity in gradable adjectives with suffixes of different classes, consistently ranking the singular suffixes $g^a r^{\epsilon} g^{\circ}$ in decreasing order, so that for example $f\bar{u}$ - $p(\hat{\sigma})$ "white shirt" is whiter than $f\bar{u}$ - $p(\hat{\sigma})$ id. However, DK specifically denied any difference of meaning.

A few traces of the agreement system remain 16.11.1.1. 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^{ε} over a^+ for human reference:

```
n\bar{l}n-sábılìs^{\epsilon} "Africans" accepted by informants but much less common Z_{u}\dot{a}-wìis^{\epsilon} "Red Zoose Clan" though wiug^{\circ} "red" is usually r^{\epsilon}|_{a}^{+}\sim g^{\circ}|_{d}^{\epsilon} type
```

The ${}^a|b^a$ and $f^a|\iota^+$ suffixes are found only in set expressions and b^a never occurs. Most often, $r^\epsilon|a^+$ class suffixes occur along with either $g^a|s^\epsilon$ or $g^a|d^\epsilon$ but not both; this perhaps reflects an intermediate stage in the collapse of the historical agreement system in which $g^a|s^\epsilon$ and $g^a|d^\epsilon$ had fallen together.

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 9.1. Just as with nouns, plural d^{ε} 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^{ε} , and deverbal adjective stems in $g k \eta$ do not use the sg suffixes $g^a g^b 10.2$.

Examples of adjectives with suffixes from more than one noun class:

zìň'a ⁺	zèň'ɛs ^ɛ	zὲň'-	"red"
zὲň'og ^ɔ	zὲň'ɛd ^ɛ		
	zèňda ⁺		
bī'a ⁺	bī¹əs [€]	bįà'-	"bad"
bε̄'og ^ɔ	bε̄'εd ^ε	bὲ'-	
<i>bē'εd</i> ε is	often used as sg, with	a <i>nàm</i> a plural	

Other primary adjectives use either $g^a|s^{\varepsilon}$ or $g^{\circ}|d^{\varepsilon}$ suffixes but not both:

wàbıg ^a wàbır ^ɛ	wàbıs ^ɛ wàba ⁺	wàb-	"lame"
vèňllıg ^a	vèňllıs ^ɛ vèňlla+		"beautiful"
vènnıg ^a vènnır ^ɛ rare	vὲnnιs ^ε vὲnna ⁺	vèn-	"beautiful"
and similarly <i>wɛ̃nr</i>	nur ^E "resembling."		

 $sar{a}b\iota l(g^{\mathsf{a}} \qquad sar{a}b\iota l(s^{\mathsf{c}} \qquad sar{a}b\iota l- \qquad \text{"black"}$ $sar{a}b\iota l^{\mathsf{l}\mathsf{c}} \qquad sar{a}b\iota l\acute{a}^+$

and similarly $p\bar{a}al(g^a$ "new" $z\acute{a}al^{l\epsilon}$ "empty" $b\grave{a}a\breve{n}l\iota g^a$ "slim" $p\grave{i}\partial l\iota g^a$ "white"

tītā'vg ^o rare tītā'ar ^ɛ	tītāda ⁺	tītá'-	"big"
nèog ^o nèer ^e	nὲεd ^ε nὲya ⁺	nὲ-	"empty"
wìug ^ɔ wìir ^ɛ	wìid ^ɛ wìya ⁺	wì-	"red"

wōk ^{ɔ/} wā'ar ^{ɛ/} rare	wā'ad ^{ɛ/} wā'á ⁺	wā'- or wɔ̄k-	"long, tall"
bὲdυg ^ɔ bὲdιr ^ɛ rare	bèda ⁺	bèd-	"great"
kūdvg ^ɔ kūdır ^ɛ	kūt ^ε rare kūda ⁺	kùd-	"old"
S-stems do not	use pl <i>s</i> ^ε :		
būgvsíg ^a būgvsír ^ε	būgusá+	būgvs-	"soft"

Similarly $m\bar{a}$ 'así r^{ϵ} "cold, wet" $m\bar{a}$ lısí r^{ϵ} "sweet" $t\bar{\epsilon}b$ ısí r^{ϵ} "heavy" $l\bar{a}b$ ısí r^{ϵ} "wide", and also

```
p \hat{\sigma} \hat{\sigma} \hat{\sigma} p \hat{\sigma} \hat{\sigma} "few, small" p \hat{\sigma} \hat{\sigma} \hat{\sigma} Stems in m n do not use sg r^{\epsilon}, except for
```

sờη^o sờŋ- "good" sờm^{mε} sờma⁺

As usual with adjectives, the singular may show either g^a or g^b but not both.

gīŋª	gīma+	gìŋ-	"short"
dēεŋª	dēεňs ^ε dēεmιs ^ε dēεna+	dὲεŋ-	"first"

Because (as with nouns) stems in m n, and all 3-mora stems, use pl $-a^+$ instead of $-d^{\epsilon}$, most adjectives in m n simply belong to the $g^{\circ}|a^+$ subclass 9.3.3.1:

dà - z̄ɛmmύg ^ɔ	dà-zēmmá+	dà-zēm-	"equal piece of wood"
tōυlύg ^ο	tūυlá ⁺	tōυl-	"hot"
lāllύg ^ο	lāllá ⁺	lāl-	"distant"
mì'isvg ^ɔ	mì'isa+	mì'is-	"sour"
wàuŋ ^ɔ	wàna+	wàuŋ-	"wasted, thin"

kpī'oŋ ^ɔ	kpī'əma+	kpì'oŋ-	"hard, strong"
zùluŋ ^ɔ	zùlıma+	zùloŋ-	"deep"

and so also $y \ge 100^\circ$ "wide" $y \ge 100^\circ$ "wonderful" $y \ge 100^\circ$ "necessary thing", along with the probably originally 3-mora stems (via *rr \rightarrow r, *ss \rightarrow s \frac{6.2.1}{0.2.1}):

yī-póĭrùg ^ɔ	yī-pźňrà+		"nearby house"
kísùg ^o	kīsá+	kīs-	"hateful, taboo"

Other single-class adjectives are:

pųāk ^a	pū'as ^ε	pu̯'à-	"female" (human)
йуа́'аŋ ^а	ňyá'as ^ε	йуā'aŋ-	"female" (animal)
	or <i>ňyā</i> 'amís ^ɛ		
ňyὲεsίŋª	ňyὲεnsίs ^ε	<i>ἤγὲε</i> ςίη-	"self-confident"
vūr ^{ε/}	νōyá ⁺	νōr-	"alive"
dāvg ^o	dāad ^ε	dà-	"male"
tɔ̄ɔgɔ	t5̇ɔd [€]	tò-	"bitter"

and other derivatives in -m-: $v\grave{\epsilon}\check{n}ll(\eta^a$ "beautiful" $m\bar{a}l\iota s(\eta^a)$ "pleasant" $l\bar{a}ll(\eta^a)$ "distant." Extremely irregular is

$$b\bar{\imath}l^a$$
 $b\bar{\imath}b\iota s^{\epsilon}$ bil - or bi - "little"

The sg flexion -la is found more widely in other Western Oti-Volta languages, where it has a diminutive sense: thus Farefare (Niggli) níílá "chick", pììlà "lamb", bùdíblá "boy", púglá "girl", kíílá "young guinea fowl"; Mooré bìríblá "boy", bìpúglá "girl." The plural stem bib- is reduplicated.

10.2 Deverbal adjectives

Dynamic adjectives are derived from dynamic variable or invariable verbs using d, the same formant as with agent nouns, but as the d is often assimilated or dropped 13.1.1.2.1, not all dynamic adjectives are d-stems. Dynamic adjectives always take $r^{\varepsilon}|_{a}$ class sg and pl suffixes, but may also take another sg suffix; this is g^{a} for WK, but g^{b} for KT:

kūυdír ^ε	kūυdá+	kūvd-	"murderous;
kῦυdíg ^a WK			liable to be killed"
kῦυdύg ^ɔ KT			

tōmmιr ^ε	tūmma+ WK tūmna+ KT	tòm-	"working, helpful"
<i>sīnnír</i> ^ɛ rare	sīnná ⁺	sīn-	"silent"
sīnn(g ^a	SIIIIIa	SIII-	Shent
_	.1=11.7±	.1=1	u1 · u
dĒl ^{l€/}	dēllá ⁺	dēl-	"leaning"
mōr ^{ε/}	mɔ̄rá ⁺	mōr-	"having"
nō-záňl ^{lε}	nō-záňlla+		"hen for holding"
kὺg-dɛ̄l ^{lɛ/}	kὺg-dēllá+		"chair for leaning on"
būn-gύl ^{lε}	būn-gúllà ⁺		"thing for suspending"

Stems in $g k \eta$ do not use the sg suffixes $g^a g^b$:

bōn-tύlιgìr ^ε	būn-túlıgà+		"heating thing"
ňwī-tέkὶr ^ε	ňwī-tékà+	ňwī-tέk-	"pulling-rope"
bบิท-รบ์ŋìr ^ะ	būn - sύŋà ⁺		"helpful thing"
bì-nὸŋιr ^ε	bì-nòŋa ⁺		"beloved child"

Adjectives derived from 4-mora stem verbs in -m in KT's speech take g^a or g^b sg and $-a^+$ pl; they may drop the -m- in the plural:

nīn-pύ'alὶŋ ^a	nīn-pύ'alìma ⁺	"harmful person"
ทīท - záaทัรงัŋ ^ว	nīn-záaňsà ⁺	"dreamy person"

Resultative adjectives are derived from variable verbs with the suffix *-lum-. They inflect regularly as $g^{\circ}|a^{+}$ subclass m-stems. KT (not WK) also has forms without -m- in both sg and pl:

kpìilύŋ ^ɔ	kpìilímà+	kpìilúŋ-	"dead"	WK
nīn-kpíilùg ^ɔ	nīn-kpíilìma+		"dead person"	KT
gēεĭlύŋ ^ɔ	gē̃εňlímà ⁺	gēεňlύŋ -	"tired"	WK
nīn - gέεἤlὺg ^ɔ	nīn-gέεἤlìma+		"tired person"	KT
pὲ'εlύŋ ^ɔ	pὲ'εlímà ⁺	ρὲ'εΙύŋ-	"full" WK	KT
	dūg - pέ'εlà ⁺		"full pots"	KT

11 Verb flexion

Though written solid with the verb in traditional orthography, discontinuous-past n^{ϵ} 27.1.1 and the 2pl subject ^{ya} 19.7.3 are not flexions but liaison enclitics.

Some 90% of verbs are "variable verbs", distinguishing perfective and imperfective aspects morphologically. With few exceptions, they are prototypical dynamic verbs expressing activities, accomplishments and achievements. The remaining 10% are "invariable verbs" with just one finite form, which is always imperfective. They divide into dynamic and stative types, and stative verbs further divide into agentive "relational" verbs, which can be used in direct commands and form deverbal agent nouns, and non-agentive "adjectival" verbs.

Tone patterns show that the imperfective forms of both variable verbs and dynamic-invariable verbs were historically created by the addition of a *derivational* suffix of the Pattern-L-deriving type 7.5 to the verb stem prior to adding the imperfective flexion *-a 7.3. In variable verbs this suffix was *d, and in dynamic-invariable verbs it was *y 6.2.1.1. In variable verbs, however, extensive levelling has produced a system which is synchronically flexional and strikingly regular 11.1. With dynamic-invariable verbs, forms without *y appear in perfective gerunds, agent nouns and dynamic adjectives; some stative verbs also show a formant *y, but in such cases it is also present in the cognate adjectives; in principle, stative verbs simply add the imperfective flexion *-a to the stem. (The -y- in the LFs of àeňa "be something/somehow", $v\bar{v}e^{a/}$ "be alive" and $t\bar{z}e^{a/}$ "be bitter" is root-final 6.1.1.1.)

Segmental levelling has partly obscured the morphological difference between dynamic-invariable verbs and stative verbs. Dynamic-invariable verbs with roots ending in $n \mid r$ have generalised the form with gemination due to *y to all related stems, and for some speakers, like WK, stative verbs with roots in m have acquired a secondary gemination of the m; this is not seen in written sources or found with all informants, and even for WK, Tone Pattern H 3-mora-stem verbs have the tonemes which would be expected without gemination:

```
kp\bar{l}' \ni m^{ma} not *kp\hat{l}' \ni m^{ma} "be strong, hard" w\bar{a}'am^{ma} not *w\acute{a}'am^{ma} "be long, tall" KT
```

The Dagbani cognate of $kp\bar{r} \ni m^{\text{ma}/}$ "be hard" is kpema, confirming an original single -m-: Dagbani preserves long vowels always and only in originally closed syllables. (Dagbani maani sg mana pl = Kusaal $m\dot{a}$ 'a $n^{\text{n}\epsilon}$ sg $m\bar{a}$ 'a $n\dot{a}$ + pl "okra.")

Four stative verbs consist of bare roots with no suffix:

```
m\bar{\iota}^{+} "know" z\bar{\iota}^{+} "not know" b\dot{\varepsilon}^{+} "be somewhere, exist" k\bar{a}^{+}e^{+} "not be" (\leftarrow *kag\iota)
```

The irregular variable verb $n \grave{j} \eta^{\epsilon}$ "love" similarly has a base form which is not perfective but stative <u>11.1.1</u>. Though they resemble variable-verb perfectives, the particle $y\bar{a}^+$ does not occur after these words <u>19.6.2.1</u>, and Tone Pattern LO $b\grave{\epsilon}^+$ with its intrinsic tonemes is followed by M spreading like other imperfectives <u>8.3</u>.

11.1 Variable verbs

The unmarked stem form is used for perfective aspect, and the imperfective adds a flexional suffix $-d^a$. The suffix $-m^a$ marks imperative mood when and only when the verb word itself carries independency-marking tone overlay 19.6.2.2.

Perfective, imperfective and $-m^a$ imperative are cited in order. Straightforward examples include:

kū ⁺	kūυd ^{a/}	kùvm ^a	"kill"
kpὲň' ⁺	kpèň'ɛdª	kpὲň'εm ^a	"enter"
kjà ⁺	kìəd ^a	kìəm ^a	"cut"
kuā+	kūød ^{a/}	kùøm ^a	"hoe"
gòň ⁺	gɔ̀ɔňd ^a	gэ̀эйт ^а	"hunt"
dūg ^ε	dūgvd ^{a/}	dùgvm ^a	"cook"
yùug ^ε	yùugıd ^a	yùugım ^a	"delay, get late"
yādıg ^{ɛ/}	yādıgíd ^a	yàdıgım ^a	"scatter"
pįāň' ^a	pi̯āň'ad ^{a/}	pi̯àň'am ^a	"speak; praise"
du̯'àª	dὺ'ad ^a	dὺ'am ^a	"bear, beget"
nōk ^{ε/}	nōkíd ^a	nòkım ^a	"take"
sįàk ^ε	sjàkıd ^a	sjàkım ^a	"believe, agree"
gāŋ ^{ε/}	gāŋíd ^a	gàŋım ^a	"choose"
kpὲ'ŋ ^ε	kpὲ'ŋιd ^a	kpὲ'ŋιm ^a	"strengthen"
kpàr ^ɛ	kpàrıd ^a	kpàrım ^a	"lock"
sūgvr ^{ε/}	sūgvríd ^a	sùgvrım ^a	"forgive"
bàs ^ε	bàsıd ^a	bàsım ^a	"go/send away"
sīgıs ^{ɛ/}	sīgısíd ^a	sìgısım ^a	"lower"
nā'mιs ^{ε/}	nā'mısíd ^a	nà'mısım ^a	"(make) suffer"

Some root-stems ending in a vowel show a CV- allomorph in both imperfective and imperative, with -t- for -d- 6.1.1.1:

dì+	dìt ^a	dìm ^a	"eat"	
ňνē ⁺	ňvēt ^{a/}	ňvὲm ^a	"see"	

and so also li^+ , lu^+ "fall" $d\bar{v}^+$ "go up" $y\bar{i}^+$ "go/come out" $z\dot{>}$ "run, fear."

Stems in -d- show -t- in the ipfv via *dd \rightarrow tt:

 $b\dot{v}d^{\epsilon}$ $b\dot{v}t^{a}$ $b\dot{v}d\iota m^{a}$ "plant"

 $g\grave{a}ad^{\epsilon}$ $g\grave{a}t^{a}$ 6.3.3 $g\grave{a}ad\iota m^{a}$ "pass, surpass"

Stems in *I* generate a cluster in the ipfv via * $Id \rightarrow nn \ 6.2.1$:

 $v\bar{v}l^{\epsilon}$ $v\bar{v}n^{na/}$ $v\dot{v}l\iota m^{a}$ "swallow"

 $m\grave{a}al^{\epsilon}$ $m\grave{a}an^{na}$ $m\grave{a}al\iota m^a$ "make; sacrifice" $d\bar{\iota}g\iota l^{\epsilon l}$ $d\bar{\iota}g\iota n^{na}$ "lay down"

Only 2-mora stems assimilate * $bm \rightarrow mm$:

 $l\grave{\epsilon}b^{\epsilon}$ $l\grave{\epsilon}b\iota d^{a}$ $l\grave{\epsilon}m^{ma}$ "return" $s\bar{\jmath}b^{\epsilon}$ $s\bar{\jmath}b\iota d^{a}$ $s\grave{\jmath}m^{ma}$ "write" $l\grave{\imath}ab^{\epsilon}$ $l\grave{\imath}ab\iota d^{a}$ $l\grave{\imath}ab\iota m^{a}$ "become"

 $\bar{\epsilon} \epsilon \check{n} b^{\epsilon /}$ $\bar{\epsilon} \epsilon \check{n} b i d^a$ $\hat{\epsilon} \epsilon \check{n} b i m^a$ "lay a foundation"

Only 2-mora *n*-stems show *nd \rightarrow nn; only $k\bar{\epsilon}\eta^{\epsilon/}$ (below) shows *nm \rightarrow mm:

 $b\grave{u}n^{\epsilon}$ $b\grave{u}n^{\mathsf{na}}$ $b\grave{u}n\iota m^{\mathsf{a}}$ "reap"

 $m\bar{\jmath}n^{\epsilon}$ $m\bar{\jmath}n^{na/}$ $m\dot{\jmath}n\iota m^{a}$ "make porridge" $g\dot{\jmath}'\jmath n\iota d^{a}$ $g\dot{\jmath}'\jmath n\iota m^{a}$ "extend neck" $d\grave{\imath}g\iota n^{\epsilon}$ $d\grave{\imath}g\iota n\iota d^{a}$ $d\grave{\imath}g\iota n\iota m^{a}$ "lie down"

The nn-stem $sùn^{\epsilon}$ does not assimilate at all:

sùn^{ne} sùnnid^a sùnnim^a "bow head"

4-mora *m*-stems always assimilate * $md \rightarrow mn$, mm:

 $sìilim^m$ $sìilim^{ma}$ $sìilim^{ma}$ "quote proverbs" $l\bar{a}\eta (m^m)$ $l\bar{a}\eta (m^m)$ "wander searching"

3-mora *m*-stems assimilate optionally:

kàrım^m kàrım^m kàrım^{ma} "read"

or kàrımıd^a

 $t\bar{z}_{2}m^{m/}$ $t\bar{z}_{2}m^{ma}$ "depart"

or tɔ̄ɔmída

Stems in -mm- (probably $\leftarrow *mb$) never assimilate in the imperfective, but simplify *mmm $\rightarrow mm$ in the imperative:

tàm ^m	tàmmıd ^a	tàm ^{ma}	"forget"
zàm ^m	zàmmıd ^a	zàm ^{ma}	"cheat, betray"
dàm ^m	dàmmıd ^a	dàm ^{ma}	"shake"
lèm ^m	lèmmıd ^a	lèm ^{ma}	"sip, taste"

2-mora stems normally assimilate:

tùm ^m	từm ^{ma}	từm ^{ma}	"work"
wùm ^m	wùm ^{ma}	wùm ^{ma}	"hear"
kìm ^m	kìm ^{ma}	kìm ^{ma}	"tend flock/herd"
dùm ^m	dùm ^{ma}	dùm ^{ma}	"bite"

but the NT/KB sometimes have unassimilated forms to avoid ambiguity 6.2.1.

Fusion verbs are 3-mora stems with deleted *g after aa iə uə aaň $\varepsilon\varepsilon$ ñ ɔɔň 6.3.1. They show the stem with *g only in the perfective and gerund, with all other forms dropping the *g by morphological rule; this has implications for the toneme distribution of Pattern H stems 7.3.1. Perfectives before liaison likewise drop the *g.

fāeň ^{+/}	fāaňd ^{a/}	fàaňm ^a	"save"
dī¹e ^{+/}	dī'əd ^{a/}	dì'əm ^a	"get, receive"
dūe⁺/	dūed ^{a/}	dùem ^a	"rise, raise"
pūň'e ^{+/}	pūň'ød ^{a/}	рѝй'өт ^а	"rot" WK

Contrast the tonemes of the Gerunds $f\acute{a} a \breve{n} r^{\epsilon} d\acute{u}' \theta r^{\epsilon} p \acute{u} \breve{n}' \theta r^{\epsilon}$. For the forms taken by fusion verb perfectives before liaison see 8.2.1.

11.1.1 Irregularities

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.

gōs ^ɛ	gɔ̄sıd ^{a/}	gòsım ^a	"look"
	or <i>gɔ̄t</i> a/	gòm ^a	
tìsε	tìsıd ^a	tìsım ^a	"give"
	or tìt ^a		

Before liaison-word objects the perfective may also be tì-, e.g. tì f "give you."

yèl ^E wìk ^E įāňk ^{El} gīlıg ^{El} kĒŋ ^{El}	yèt ^a wìid ^a <u>6.1.1.1</u> įāň'ad ^{a/} gīn ^{na/} kēn ^{na/}	yèlım ^a wìkım ^a jàňkım ^a gìlıgım ^a kèm ^a	"say" "fetch water" "leap, fly" "go around" "go"
The verb			
dèlım ^m	[dɛ̃l ^{la/}]	dὲlım ^{ma}	

is used as inchoative to $d\bar{\epsilon}l^{|a|}$ "be leaning (of a person)"; compare $g\dot{v}l^{\epsilon}$ ipfv $g\dot{v}n^{na}$ "suspend" beside the stance verb $g\dot{\nu}l^{la}$ "be hanging."

Only two variable verbs are irregular in the actual flexional suffixes taken:

kē ⁺	kēt ^{a/}	kèl ^a	"let, allow"
kēň ⁺	kēn ^{a/}	kèm ^a	"come"

 $K\bar{\epsilon}\check{n}^+$ is always immediately followed by $n\bar{a}^{+/}$ "hither" 20.7, disambiguating the forms which are homophonous with those of $k\bar{\epsilon}\eta^{\epsilon/}$ "go":

Kèm nā! "Come!" "Go!" Kèm sá!

The verb $n \ni \eta^{\epsilon}$ "love" has the regular $-m^a$ imperative $n \ni \eta \iota m^a$, but the stem form has *stative* aspect 11.2.2.1:

```
\dot{M} n \acute{o} j \bar{\iota} f. "I love you." (Family, spiritual.) cf \dot{M} b \acute{o} j d \bar{\iota} f. "I love you." (Romantic, sexual.)
```

Like other imperfective forms, $n \ni \eta^{\varepsilon}$ is *not* followed by the particle $y\bar{a}^{+}$ when it is phrase-final and affected by the independency-marking tone overlay 19.6.2.1.

```
M nóŋ. "I love him." (e.g. in reply to a question) WK
```

WK specifically stated that * \dot{M} $n\acute{o}n$ $y\bar{a}$ was an impossible form.

The agent noun $n \partial n d^a$ has Pattern L instead of the expected O. It is the only Pattern L 4-mora stem which is not a m-stem and does not show H on the 3rd mora.

```
O nònıd kā'e. "Nobody loves him." WK ("His lover does not exist.")
```

11.2 Invariable verbs

11.2.1 Dynamic

Dynamic-invariable verbs make gerunds capable of expressing events, which can be used in the immediate-future construction with $b \grave{>} c d^a$ "want" + gerund 19.3.3. They make deverbal nouns and adjectives by adding -d- to the stem, like variable verbs. Unlike stative verbs, they form not only agent nouns 13.1.1.1 but also dynamic adjectives 13.1.1.2.1, and instrument nouns 13.1.1.3. Stems in ll nn r(r) drop the -d-formant in derivation, including in agent nouns, with the exception of $t\bar{\epsilon}nr(d^a)$ "remember-er" and the variant $g\bar{u}r(d^a)$ "guard" beside $g\bar{u}'ud^a$ and $-gura^a$.

Most dynamic-invariable verbs are **stance verbs**:

īgι ^{ya/}		"be kneeling"	dīgı ^{ya/}		"be lying down"
vābι ^{ya/}		"be prone"	làbι ^{ya}		"crouch in hiding"
tàbı ^{ya}		"be stuck to"	zì'e ^{ya}		"be standing still"
zìň'i ^{ya}		"be sitting"	tī'i ^{ya/}		"be leaning (object)"
dε̄l ^{la} /		"be leaning (person)"	sùr ^a		"have head bowed"
gō'e ^{ya/}	WK	"have neck extended"	gùl ^{la}		"be hanging"
gōr ^{a/}	DK	"have neck extended"	<i>g5l</i> la∕ I	KT	"have neck extended"

Stance verbs are dynamic. They distinguish continuous/progressive from habitual/propensity with focus- $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ like dynamic imperfectives of variable verbs

<u>19.2.2.1</u>; derived assume-stance verbs <u>13.2.1.1</u> cannot use the perfective as a resultative, unlike verbs expressing a change of state in the subject; and it is not possible to form a resultative adjective <u>13.1.1.2.2</u> from a stance verb.

For some informants, stance verb stems also occur with the variable-verb ipfv suffix $-d^a$, here confined to the habitual/propensity meaning; other informants use the ipfv of the derived assume-stance variable verb instead:

```
Ò zìň'i nē.
                                        "She's sitting down." WK KT
                                        "She doesn't sit down" WK
      Ò pū zíň'idā.
                                        "She doesn't sit down." KT
but
      Ò pū zíň'inìdā.
      Ò zìň'i nē.
                                        "She's sitting down."
      Ò pū zíň'idā.
                                        "She doesn't sit down" WK
      Ò pū zíň'inìdā.
                                        "She doesn't sit down." KT
but
      Ò vàbι nē.
                                        "He's lying prone."
      Ò pũ vābidá.
                                        "He doesn't lie prone." WK
      Ò pō vábınldā.
                                        "He doesn't lie prone." KT
but
      Ò dìgi nē.
                                        "She's lying down."
                                        "She doesn't lie down" WK
      Ò pū dīgıdá.
      Lì zì'ə n\bar{\epsilon}.
                                        "It's standing up."
                                        "It (a defective tripod) doesn't stand up." WK
      Lì pō zí tdā.
                                        "It's leaning against something."
      Lì tì'i nē.
                                        "It can be leant against something." WK
      Lì tì'id.
      Lì pō tī iyá.
                                        "It's not leaning against something."
      Lì pō tī idá.
                                        "It's not for leaning against something." WK
```

Non-stance dynamic-invariable verbs include

wà'e ^{ya}	"travel to"	sīn ^{na/}	"be silent"
dɔ̃l ^{la/}	"accompany"	zāňl ^{la/}	"carry in one's hands"
gūr ^{a/}	"guard"	tèňr ^a	"remember"

They do not have distinct continuous and habitual forms:

```
\dot{O} sìn. "She's silent." \dot{O} sìn n\bar{\epsilon}. "She's keeping silent."
```

```
    Ò zàňl nē kólòg.
    Ö zàňl kólòg.
    "He's holding a bag."
    "He holds a bag."
    "He isn't holding/doesn't hold it."
```

Nor do they form separate derived inchoative variable verbs; instead, the same verb form is also used in inchoative senses:

```
Sìn! "Be quiet!"

Dòllī m. "Follow me!"

Kà bà sīn. "And they fell silent."

And 3PL be.silent.
```

11.2.2 Stative

11.2.2.1 Relational

Apart from the negative verbs $29.1.1 k\bar{a}'e^+$ and $z\bar{\iota}'^+$, relational verbs can be used in direct commands, and most have derived agent nouns 13.1.1.1. Relational verbs are all obligatory transitives 20.1 apart from $b\hat{\epsilon}^+$ and $k\bar{a}'e^+$ when used in the meanings "exist" and "not exist."

```
àeňa
                  "be something/somehow" 6.1.1.1
bὲ<sup>+</sup>
                  "be somewhere/exist" (no agent noun)
kā'e+
                  "not be" (\leftarrow *kag\iota); negative to both \grave{a}e\check{n}^a and b\grave{\varepsilon}^+
mɔ̄ra/
                                                      tār<sup>a/</sup>
                  "have"
                                                                         "have"
sū¹e<sup>ya/</sup>
                  "own"
                                                      sōň'e<sup>ya/</sup>
                                                                         "be better than"
mī<sup>+</sup>
                  "know"
                                                      z\bar{l}^{+}
                                                                         "not know"
n̄εn<sup>na/</sup>
                                                      kīsa/
                  "envy"
                                                                         "hate"
zēmma/
                                                      kpēεňm<sup>ma/</sup>
                  "be equal to"
                                                                        "be older than"
wēn<sup>na/</sup>
                  "resemble" 20.4
```

Some variable-verb imperfectives have given rise to independent relational verbs: $b \grave{\supset} d^a$ "want, like" is formally the ipfv of $b \grave{\supset} +$ "seek"; $z \grave{\supset} t^a$ "fear; experience emotion" 20.1 is derived from the ipfv of $z \grave{\supset} +$ "run."

The variable verb $n \ni \eta^{\epsilon}$ "love" has a relational *base* form 11.1.1.

11.2.2.2 Adjectival

Adjectival verbs express predicative adjectival meanings. They are intransitive, cannot be used in direct commands, and do not form agent nouns or gerunds. Any cognate adjectives are normally primary and not deverbal.

Adjectival V	<u>'erb</u>	<u>Adjective</u>	
vū́ea/	"be alive"	vūr ^{ε/}	"alive"
tōea/	"be bitter"	tōɔgɔ	"bitter"
mā'as ^{a/}	"be cool"	mā'asír ^ɛ	"cool"
būgvs ^{a/}	"be soft"	būgυsίr ^ε	"soft"
tēbıs ^{a/}	"be heavy"	tēbısír ^ε	"heavy"
mālıs ^{a/}	"be sweet"	mālısír ^ɛ	"sweet"
lābıs ^{a/}	"be wide"	lābısír ^ɛ	"wide"
mì'is ^a	"be sour"	mì'isvg ^ɔ	"sour"
vèn ^{na}	"be beautiful"	vènnıg ^a	"beautiful"
vèňl ^{la}	"be beautiful"	vèňllıg ^a	"beautiful"
lāl ^{la/}	"be far"	lāllúg ^o	"far"
pòɔd ^a	"be few"	pɔ̀ɔdɪg ^a	"few"
sùm ^{ma}	"be good"	sùŋ ^ɔ	"good"
kpī'əm ^{ma/}	"be strong"	kpi'oŋ ^ɔ	"strong"
yàlım ^{ma}	"be wide"	yàluŋ ^ɔ	"wide"
zùlım ^{ma}	"be deep"	zùlʊŋɔ	"deep"
tàdım ^{ma}	"be weak"	tādım ^{m/}	"weak person"
gīm ^{ma/}	"be short"	gīŋ ^a	"short"

With stem changes between adjective and verb:

```
t\bar{\upsilon}l^{|a|} "be hot" t\bar{\upsilon}\upsilon l\dot{\upsilon}g^{\circ} "hot" n\ddot{\gamma}\dot{\varepsilon}\varepsilon s^{a} "be self-confident" n\ddot{\gamma}\dot{\varepsilon}\varepsilon s(\eta^{a}) "self-confident" v\ddot{a}'am^{ma/} "be long" v\ddot{z}k^{\circ/} "long"
```

The verb $n\bar{a}r^{a/}$ "be necessary" has a related adjective $n\bar{a}r\upsilon\eta^{5}$ "necessary" (?? tone) but the verb is probably primary; it is much commoner than the adjective. The verb $p\bar{o}n\bar{r}^{a}$ "be near (to)" has an adjectival form seen in WK's $y\bar{\imath}$ - $p\bar{o}n\bar{r}^{a}$ "nearby houses" but makes the perfective gerund $p\bar{o}n\bar{r}\iota b^{5}$.

Dùr^a "be many" and kàr^a "be few" have no associated adjectives.

The verb $t\bar{u}n'e$ "be able" occurs almost exclusively as a stative auxiliary verb in VP-chaining constructions 23.3.1; it has no extant Long Form in my materials, and no cognate nominal forms.

12 Stem conversion

Nouns may be formed by added noun class suffixes to a verb stem, or by using an existing noun stem in a different class.

12.1 Nouns from verbs

12.1.1 Perfective 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 $b \grave{>} c d^a$ "want" 19.3.3:

Tùig lā bóòd līig. "The tree is about to fall." Tree:sg art want fall:ger.

This is only possible with gerunds that can have have event/process meanings, i.e. those derived from variable verbs and dynamic-invariable verbs. Relational verbs have abstract nouns derived from their single forms, and like other imperfective-based forms occurring in certain contexts these are classified as "imperfective" gerunds 13.1.1.4, but the term "gerund" will be used by default for the formations discussed in this section. Abstract nouns associated with adjectival verbs are not regarded as gerunds, although they show some syntactic resemblances 16.10.2.1.

Although gerunds can be expanded with arguments <u>16.10.3</u> 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 7.5.

12.1.1.1 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 $-g^{\circ}$ replaced by $-r^{\varepsilon}$ after stems ending in underlying *g. Those irregular 2-mora stem verbs which avoid the regular b° class suffix similarly include a significant proportion of stems in -b and -m.

```
2-mora stems -b^{\circ} \qquad \text{but } -r^{\varepsilon} \text{ as final element of a compound} 3-mora stems in *g [surface -g^{\varepsilon} -k^{\varepsilon} -\eta^{\varepsilon} -ae^+ -ie^+ -ue^+] -r^{\varepsilon} all others -g^{\circ}
```

Gerunds differ in flexion from other substantives in frequently resisting the assimilations $*mg \rightarrow \eta \eta *ng \rightarrow \eta \eta \; \underline{6.2.1}$. They rarely shorten a *CVV*- stem before $-r^{\epsilon}$. 4-mora stems in $-s\iota m$ - $\iota\iota m$ follow the rule and use $-g^{\circ}$:

```
siilim^m "cite proverbs" \rightarrow siiling^o zàansım^m "dream" \rightarrow zàansing^o
```

but stems in *-gim drop the -m- and use -r ϵ :

```
wànım"waste away"\rightarrowwànırlāním"wander"\rightarrowlānírzàkım"itch"\rightarrowzàkır
```

For examples of regular gerunds see 9.3 under Noun Flexion. 2-mora stems regularly use $-r^{\epsilon}$ not b° in compounds; see 16.10.1.

```
p \mu' \dot{a} - d \bar{\iota} \iota r^{\epsilon}"marriage"n \bar{\imath} n - k \acute{\nu} \dot{\nu} r^{\epsilon}"murder"d \bar{a} - n \acute{\mu} \dot{\nu} r^{\epsilon}"beer-drinking"m \dot{\nu} - p \bar{\imath} l^{|\epsilon}"grass roof"f \bar{u} - \gamma \epsilon \dot{\epsilon} r^{\epsilon}"shirt-wearing" WK
```

12.1.1.1 Irregularities

All of these have been verified as occurring in the b > c d "want" + gerund construction above.

Irregular 2-mora stem verbs 11.1.1 may have regular gerunds:

```
t \wr s^{\epsilon} "give" \rightarrow t \bar{\iota} s \iota b^{\circ} k \bar{\epsilon}^{+} "let" \rightarrow k \bar{\epsilon} \epsilon b^{\circ/} g \dot{\upsilon} l^{\epsilon} "suspend" \rightarrow g \bar{\upsilon} l \iota b^{\circ}
```

However, with 2-mora stems almost 20% of the regular verbs in KED use suffixes other than b° . A smaller number of these are also tonally irregular. No segmentally regular gerund in $-b^{\circ}$ shows tonal irregularity. Forms with the suffix $-g^{\circ}$ are Pattern L from Pattern LO verbs unless there are variant forms with g° or s^{ε} and the formation is thus shown to belong in fact to the $g^{\circ}|s^{\varepsilon}$ subclass 9.3.2.1.

A high proportion of these verbs have stems in m or b; the regular formation with - b° has probably been avoided because it would create ambiguous SFs 9.1. Examples:

```
lì+
                       "fall"
                                                                      līiaa
                                                          \rightarrow
zī+
                       "carry on head"
                                                                      zīid<sup>ε/</sup>
                                                          \rightarrow
                       "fall ill"
bὲň'<sup>+</sup>
                                                                      bēň'εs<sup>ε</sup>
                                                          \rightarrow
                                                                      kēn<sup>nε/</sup>
kēň+
                       "come"
                                                          \rightarrow
                       "run"
                                                                                                        zɔ̄ɔgɔ
zà+
                                                                      zūa+
                                                                                             also
                                                          \rightarrow
vū+
                                                                      vūug<sup>⊃/</sup>
                       "make noise"
                                                          \rightarrow
piāň'<sup>a</sup>
                       "speak"
                                                                      piàuňk<sup>o</sup>
                                                          \rightarrow
bùdε
                       "plant"
                                                                      būdıga
                                                                                                        būdvq<sup>5</sup>
                                                                                             also
                                                          \rightarrow
yὲl<sup>ε</sup>
                       "say, tell"
                                                                      vὲlυq<sup>ɔ</sup>
                                                                                             cf Mooré yèele; ?? *yi∂ → yε
                                                          \rightarrow
                                                                                                         kūlvg<sup>⊃/</sup>
                       "go home"
kūlε
                                                                      kūlıg<sup>a/</sup>
                                                                                             also
                                                          \rightarrow
tàňs<sup>ε</sup>
                       "shout"
                                                                      tàňsvg<sup>o</sup>
                                                          \rightarrow
sōňs<sup>ɛ</sup>
                       "converse"
                                                                      sóňsì q<sup>a</sup>
                                                          \rightarrow
ḡsε
                       "look"
                                                                      gźsìga
                                                          \rightarrow
sòs<sup>ε</sup>
                       "pray, beg"
                                                                      รวิรเต<sup>ล</sup>
                                                          \rightarrow
kīrε
                       "hurry"
                                                                      kìkírùq<sup>o</sup>
                                                                                                         kīrıb<sup>ɔ/</sup>
                                                          \rightarrow
                                                                                             or
                                                                      Ιξbιga
Ιὲbε
                       "return"
                                                          \rightarrow
tèbε
                       "carry in both hands"
                                                                      tēbιga
kàňb<sup>ε</sup>
                                                                      kāňbır€
                       "scorch"
òňbε
                       "chew"
                                                                      ōňbιr<sup>ε</sup>
                                                          \rightarrow
lūbε
                                                                      lūbιr<sup>ε/</sup>
                       "buck"
zàbε
                       "fiaht"
                                                                      zàbır<sup>€</sup>
                                                                      tèňbug<sup>o</sup>
tὲňbε
                       "tremble"
tùm<sup>m</sup>
                       "work"
                                                                      tōυma+
                                                          \rightarrow
tùm<sup>m</sup>
                       "send"
                                                                      tìtūmıs<sup>ɛ</sup>
                                                          \rightarrow
wùm<sup>m</sup>
                       "hear"
                                                                      wūm<sup>mɔ</sup>
                                                                                                         w\dot{v}mmvg^{3} 13.1.1.4
                                                          \rightarrow
                                                                                             or
```

With 3-mora and 4-mora stem verbs there are very few irregularities in gerund formation. A few have plural-as-singular forms 9.5. The verb $y\bar{\imath}is^{\xi/}$ "make go/come out" has $y\bar{\imath}is(b^3)$, like the alternate form $y\bar{\imath}s^{\xi}$ with regular $y\bar{\imath}s\iota b^{3/}$.

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 -d- formant compare agent nouns and deverbal adjectives 13.1.1.1 13.1.1.2.1:

ρὺ'υς ^ε	"greet, thank"	\rightarrow	ρὺ'υsιm ^m	"worship"
		0	or pù'usug ^o	
kū⁺	"kill"	\rightarrow	nīn-kύʊsìm ^m	"murderousness"
yɔ̄lιs ^{ε/}	"untie"	\rightarrow	yōlısím ^m	"freedom"

12.1.1.2 From dynamic-invariable verbs

Dynamic-invariable verbs mostly form perfective gerunds, adding class suffixes to the stem in a similar way to variable verbs and following the same tone pattern allocation rules <u>7.5</u>. They are idiosyncratic with regard to the class suffix selected, however.

```
"be sitting"
                                                          z\bar{i}n'iq^a also "place", regular q^a|s^{\epsilon} class
zìň'i<sup>ya</sup>
                                                 \rightarrow
                   "be standing"
                                                          zī'a+ KED zī'əqa
zì'e<sup>ya</sup>
                                                                                                 DK KT
                                                \rightarrow
                                                          (wholly exceptional undeleted g 6.3.1)
dīaiya/
                                                                              d\bar{\iota}g\iota r^{\epsilon/}
                   "be lying"
                                                          dīka/ KT
                                                                                                 WK
īat<sup>ya/</sup>
                   "be kneeling"
                                                                             īgιr<sup>ε/</sup>
                                                          īka/
                                                                                                 WK
                                                                    KT
vābı<sup>ya/</sup>
                   "be lying prone"
                                                          vāp<sup>⊃/</sup> KT
                                                                              vābιr<sup>ε/</sup>
                                                                                                 WK
tī iya/
                   "be leaning"
                                                          tī'ib<sup>ɔ/</sup>
                   (of an object)
qùlla
                   "be hanging"
                                                          gūlιb<sup>o</sup>
```

The adjectival verb $p \grave{o} \check{n} r^a$ also makes a perfective gerund:

```
p \ni \tilde{n} r^a "be near" \rightarrow p \ni \tilde{n} r \iota b^3
```

However, most invariable verbs with stems in || nn r(r)| form imperfective gerunds, including dynamic-invariable verbs 13.1.1.4.

12.1.2 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.

Ēεňbίr ^ε	"(physical) foundation"	ε̄εňbύg ^ɔ	"laying a foundation"
dūk ^{ɔ/}	"cooking pot"	dūgvb ^{ɔ/}	"cooking"
dà'a ⁼	"market"	dā'ab ^ɔ	"buying"
kūk ^a	"chair"	kūgυb ^ɔ	"resting on something"
zūg-kūgvr ^ɛ	"pillow"		
sųāk ^{a/}	"hiding place"	รบิ'ab ^{ɔ/}	"hiding"
sɔ̄bιr ^{ε/}	"piece of writing"	sōp ^{ɔ/}	"writing, orthography"
kūt ^ε	"iron, nail" <u>9.5</u>	kūdvb ^o	"working iron"
kùəsım ^m	"merchandise"	kùesvg ^o	"selling"
pèbısım ^m	"wind"	pὲbιsυg ^ɔ	"blowing of the wind; wind"

The forms $v\bar{a}b\iota r^{\epsilon/l} l\bar{a}b\iota r^{\epsilon/l} d\bar{\iota}g\iota r^{\epsilon/l}$ used by WK as gerunds of stance verbs 12.1.1.2 are used by KT as concrete nouns meaning "place for lying prone" etc, contrasting for him with gerunds $v\bar{a}p^{5/l}$ etc.

Three concrete deverbal nouns, from $pibil^{\epsilon}$ "cover", $zanbil^{\epsilon}$ "tattoo", $maal^{\epsilon}$ "sacrifice" show single -n- in place of -l-:.

pībιn ^{nε}	pībına+	pìbın-	"covering"
zāทัbเท ^{ทธ}	zāňbına+	zàňbın-	"tattoo" (NT "sign")
māan ^{nε}	māana+	màan-	"sacrifice"

Although my informants definitely had single -n- in these words, it is possible that this represents a secondary simplification of *nn; compare Mooré pìbíndgà "couvercle" 6.2.1.1. Toende, like Mooré, has Pattern L for these words: $z\tilde{a}b$ (n, màan). As nn is the regular reflex of *ld, these forms may be derivatives with *d in a sense related to its appearance in instrument nouns 13.1.1.3; compare $t\bar{u}edur^{\varepsilon}$ "mortar", from $t\bar{u}a^{+}$ "grind in a mortar." The Tone Pattern O is consistent with this.

It is exceptional for regularly formed gerunds to acquire concrete meaning, but a clearcut example is

Gerund forms may be abstract *count* nouns describing particular instances of the activity of the verb, and may then have plurals:

zɔ̄ɔgɔ	z̄ɔɔsɛ		"race"
bū'esύg ^ο	bū'esá ⁺	bū'es-	"question"
zàaňsúŋ ^ɔ	zàaňsímà+	zàaňsúŋ-	"dream"

Such words may be formally plural but construed as singular 9.5

```
d\hat{i}'əma^+ "festival" p\dot{a}iàn'ad^\epsilon "word, language" t\bar{\epsilon}n'esa^+ "thought"
```

Thus tēň'ɛsá yīnní "one thought" (Acts 4:32).

12.2 Nouns from nouns and adjectives

The partial association of noun class and meaning 9.1.1 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 $g^a|s^{\epsilon}$ classes, their languages, which belong to the $-l^{\epsilon}$ subclass of $r^{\epsilon}|a^+$ 9.3.4.1 and the associated place, which has the suffix $-g^3$:

```
K\bar{\upsilon}s\acute{a}a^{=} sg K\bar{\upsilon}s\acute{a}\grave{a}s^{\epsilon} pl Kusaasi person K\bar{\upsilon}s\acute{a}\grave{a}l^{\epsilon} Kusaasi language K\bar{\upsilon}s\acute{a}\grave{\upsilon}g^{\circ} Kusaasi territory
```

See many examples in 32.5.

A further example of sg $-g^3$ deriving associated place names is:

```
w \dot{\epsilon} \epsilon d^a or w \dot{\iota} \iota d^a "hunter" w \dot{\epsilon} o g^{\circ} "deep bush"
```

The suffix $-d^{\varepsilon}$ is found with some names of liquids which are not m^{m} class 9.5; hence also

```
s\bar{\imath}i\check{n}f^{D/} "bee" s\bar{\imath}i\check{n}d^{\epsilon/} "honey"
```

Names of trees are almost all $g^a|s^{\varepsilon}$ class, while their fruits belong to either the $r^{\varepsilon}|a^+$ or the $g^{\circ}|d^{\varepsilon}$ class 32.6.

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 $-g^3$. When there is an associated adjectival verb, these abstracts bear a somewhat analogous relationship to the verb as gerunds do to variable and dynamic-invariable verbs, and can, for example, be preceded by combining forms in senses resembling generic arguments before gerunds $16.10.1 \ 16.10.2.1$. However, such abstract nouns cannot be used in the immediate future construction with $b > cd^a$ "want" 12.1.1, and unlike imperfective gerunds derived from dynamic-invariable verbs and relational verbs 13.1.1.4, 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:

vūę ^{a/}	"be alive"	νōm ^{m/}	"life"
sùm ^{ma}	"be good"	sùm ^m	"goodness"
pòɔd ^a	"be few"	pòɔdım ^m	"scarcity"
vèn ^{na}	"be beautiful"	νὲnnιm ^m	"beauty"
νὲἤΙ ^{la}	"be beautiful"	vὲňllιm ^m	"beauty"
būgus ^{a/}	"be soft"	būgvsím ^m	"softness"
tēbıs ^{a/}	"be heavy"	tēbısím ^m	"weight"
mā'as ^{a/}	"be cool, wet"	mā'asím ^m	"coolness, damp"
mālıs ^{a/}	"be sweet"	mālısím ^m	"sweetness"
lābıs ^{a/}	"be wide"	lābısím ^m	"width"
ňyὲεs ^a	"be confident"	ňyὲεsιm ^m	"self-confidence"
lāl ^{la/}	"be far"	lāllúg ^o	"distance"
kpī əm ^{ma/}	"be strong, hard"	kpī'oŋ ^ɔ	"hardness, strength"
yàlım ^{ma}	"be wide"	yàluŋ ^ɔ	"width"
mì'is ^a	"be sour"	mì'isvg ^ɔ	"sourness"
tōea/	"be bitter"	tɔ̄ɔgɔ	"bitterness"
zùlım ^{ma}	"be deep"	zùlvŋ ^ɔ	"depth"
tūl ^{la/}	"be hot"	<i>tūυlúg</i> ^ɔ or <i>tūllím</i> ^m	"heat"

Abstract nouns derived from other adjectives (often used as adverbs) include

pìəlıg ^a	"white"	\rightarrow	pìəlım ^m	"brightness"
tītā'ar ^ɛ	"big"	\rightarrow	tītā'am ^m	"multitude"
kūdvg ^o	"old"	\rightarrow	kūdım ^m	"old times"
z̄Ēmmύg ^ɔ	"equal"	\rightarrow	zēmmύg ^ɔ	"equality"

Some nouns referring to people form similarly derived abstract nouns:

sāan ^{a/}	"guest"	\rightarrow	sāύŋ ^ɔ	"hospitality"
kpēεňm ^m	"elder"	\rightarrow	kpēoňŋ ^ɔ	"eldership"
sɔ̄e̯ňª	"witch"	\rightarrow	sɔ̄ɔйg ^ɔ	"witchcraft"
zuà+	"friend"	\rightarrow	zùød ^ɛ	"friendship"
gbáňyà'a ⁼	"lazy person"	\rightarrow	gbáňyà'am ^m	"laziness"
dàmà'a=	"liar"	\rightarrow	dàmà'am ^m	"lying"

Human-reference noun stems also form abstract m^m class derivatives with the derivational suffix - l_im 13.1.2.

12.3 Adverbs from adjectives

The m^{m} class suffix with adjective stems often creates manner adverbs:

pāalíg ^a	"new"	\rightarrow	pāalím ^m	"recently"
bāaňlíg ^a	"quiet"	\rightarrow	bāaňlím ^m	"quietly"
záal ^{lɛ}	"empty"	\rightarrow	zāalím ^m	"emptily"
nèer ^e	"empty"	\rightarrow	nὲεm ^m	"for free"

Several adjective stems form manner-adverbs with an ending $-ga^+$, i.e $g^a|s^\epsilon$ class sg along with apocope-blocking $\underline{6.4}$:

```
\begin{array}{lll} s \grave{\upsilon} \eta \bar{a}^{+/} & \text{"well; very much"} \\ m \bar{a} \text{'} a s (g \bar{a}^{+/} & \text{"coolly"} \\ t \bar{\upsilon} \upsilon l (g \bar{a}^{+/} & \text{"hotly"} \\ g \bar{\eta} \eta a^{+} & \text{"shortly"} \\ b \bar{\upsilon} g \upsilon s (g \bar{a}^{+/} & \text{"softly"} \\ s \grave{a} a l (\eta \bar{a}^{+/} & \text{"smoothly"} \\ \check{n} y \grave{\epsilon} \epsilon s (\eta \bar{a}^{+/} & \text{"self-confidently"} \end{array}
```

Cf also $y\bar{i}ig\acute{a}^+$ "firstly" see 16.4.2.3.

13 Derivational suffixes

The statement of underlying full word structure made in $\underline{6}$ implies that roots are only of the shapes CV(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 $CVC \sim CVVC$ 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.

The derivational suffixes are -g -s -n -l -d -m, along with -b and -r in just a handful of words. The suffix -n may represent historical *ld 6.2.1.1.

- -g -s -n -b -r never follow another derivational suffix. -g and -s cause a preceding CVVC to become CVC, and a preceding oral >>> to become glottalised.
 - -/ follows another suffix only as part of the combination -/m.
- -d is very productive in the formation of deverbal nouns and adjectives; it often deletes a preceding suffix or is itself deleted. It does not derive verb stems.

No stem has more than three derivational suffixes, or more than five morae apart from prefixes. All four-mora verb stems have -m as the second suffix, and all five-mora stems are formed with -lm.

The rules for consonant assimilation differ slightly from the rules operative in flexion, probably because they are less subject to analogical remodelling.

For Tone Patterns in derivation see 7.5.

13.1 Nouns and adjectives

13.1.1 From verbs

The 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 noun and adjective formation 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 nouns and adjectives are predictable 7.5.

13.1.1.1 Agent nouns

Agent nouns can be freely made from almost all verbs apart from adjectival verbs. Informants readily supply isolated forms on demand, but in conversation and texts they usually occur as second elements of compounds. All belong to the $a|b^a$ class, although those derived from II- or r(r)-stem invariable verbs may also show $r^{\epsilon}|a^+$ class forms 9.3.1.1. Despite their regularity of formation, agent nouns often develop specialised meanings, as will be seen in the examples. The name "agent noun" is not altogether felicitous; as with English derivatives in "-er", the formation may be found with verbs whose subject is not an agent. Agent nouns can be created from stative verbs usable in direct commands, i.e. from relational but not adjectival verbs 11.2.2.

The formant of agent nouns and dynamic adjectives is the derivational suffix -d. It is probably historically related to the -d- of the dynamic imperfective flexion $-d^a$, but the tonal effects differ, and derivational -d shows much less regularity in its mode of attachment; agent nouns show more levelling and regularisation than dynamic adjectives. These variations arise from a tendency to limit stem length, resulting in deletion of either -d itself or the suffix preceding it. The absence or presence of the suffix affects the Tone Pattern in forms derived from Pattern LO verbs 7.5.

Most **variable verbs** have an agent noun with a singular form segmentally identical with the imperfective. For tones see 7.5. If there are alternate forms, the less "regular" form appears as the agent noun.

kū⁺	"kill"	\rightarrow	kūυd ^{a/}	"killer"
mὲ ⁺	"build"	\rightarrow	mēεd ^a	"builder"
dì+	"eat"	\rightarrow	dīt ^a	"eater"
gōs ^ɛ	"look"	\rightarrow	gɔ̄ta/	"seer, prophet"
dūg ^ε	"cook"	\rightarrow	dūgvd ^{a/}	"cook"
du'àa	"bear, beget"	\rightarrow	dΰ'ad ^a	"elder relation"
kàd ^ε	"drive away"	\rightarrow	saríyà-kāt ^a	"judge" <u>20.1</u>
sɔ̄b ^ε	"write"	\rightarrow	sɔ̄bɪd ^{a/}	"writer"
bùn ^ε	"reap"	\rightarrow	būn ^{na}	"reaper"
tùm ^m	"work"	\rightarrow	tùm-tūm ^{na}	"worker"
kìm ^m	"tend flock"	\rightarrow	kòňb-kīm ^{na}	"herdsman, shepherd"
kpàr ^ε	"lock"	\rightarrow	kpārıd ^a	"lock-er"
gbīs ^ε	"sleep"	\rightarrow	gbīsıd ^{a/}	"sleeper"
sįàk ^ε	"believe"	\rightarrow	sjākıd ^a	"believer"
įāňk ^{ε/}	"jump, fly"	\rightarrow	įāň'ad ^{a/}	"flier" <u>11.1.1</u>
sὺŋ ^ε	"help"	\rightarrow	รงิทูเd ^a	"helper"
bàŋ ^ɛ	"understand"	\rightarrow	bāŋıd ^a	"wise man"
kēŋ ^{ε/}	"go"	\rightarrow	kēn ^{na/}	"traveller" <u>11.1.1</u>

gàad ^ɛ	"pass"	\rightarrow	tùen-gāt ^a	"leader"
mɔ̄ɔl ^{ε/}	"proclaim"	\rightarrow	mɔ̄ɔl-mɔ́ɔ̀n ^{na}	"proclaimer"
màal ^ɛ	"sacrifice"	\rightarrow	màal-māan ^{na}	"sacrificer"
pà'al ^ɛ	"teach"	\rightarrow	pā'an ^{na}	"teacher"
sūgυr ^{ε/}	"forbear"	\rightarrow	sūgvríd ^a	"forgiver"
yv̄'vm ^{m/}	"sing"	\rightarrow	yบิบm-yบ์'บ้m ^{na}	"singer"
		p	l yūvm-yvʻvmnıb ^a	
sàň'am ^m	"spoil"	\rightarrow	pu̯'à-sāň'am ^{na}	"adulterer"
		p	l pu̯'à-sāň'amıdıbˤ	à

Pattern H fusion verbs <u>7.3.1</u> <u>11.1</u>, which delete the H toneme of the stem in the imperfective, show the same form for the agent noun:

nāe+/	"finish"	\rightarrow	nāad ^{a/}	"someone who doesn't
				give up easily" WK
dr̃e⁺/	"receive"	\rightarrow	dī'əd ^{a/}	"receiver"
ňwà'e ⁺	"cut wood"	\rightarrow	ňwā'ad ^a	"woodcutter"
gbāň'e ^{+/}	"catch"	\rightarrow	zīm-gbáň'àd ^a	"fisherman"
pīe ^{+/}	"wash"	\rightarrow	pīəd ^{a/}	"washer"
fāeň+/	"save"	\rightarrow	fāaňd ^{a/}	"saviour" WK
			faangid	NT/KB <u>15</u>

3-mora stems in -s consistently drop the -d in the sg and cb:

sīgıs ^{ε/}	"lower"	\rightarrow	sīgıs ^{a/}	"lowerer"
			pl <i>sīgısídìb</i> a	
kùes ^ɛ	"sell"	\rightarrow	kùes ^a	"seller"
			pl <i>kūesıdıb</i> a	
ρὺ'υs ^ε	"worship"	\rightarrow	ρὺ'υs ^a	"worshipper"
			pl <i>pū'vsıdıb</i> a	
tὺ'as ^ε	"talk"	\rightarrow	tù'as-tù'as ^a	"talker"
			pl <i>tù'as-tū'asıdıb</i> a	
dī'əs ^{ε/}	"receive"	\rightarrow	nō-dí'ès ^a	"chief's spokesman"
			pl <i>nɔ̄-dí</i> ˈəsìdıb ^a	("linguist", see <u>33</u>)

Some 2-mora stems also irregularly drop the -d in the sg and cb:

zàb ^ε	"fight"	\rightarrow	zàb-zàb ^a	"warrior"
			gbān-záb ^a	"leather-worker"
tìs ^ε	"give"	\rightarrow	tìs ^a	"giver"
sàs ^ε	"beg"	\rightarrow	sòs ^a	"beggar"

Stems in -mm- (\leftarrow *mb <u>6.2.1</u>) form reduplicated agent nouns with $n\grave{a}m^a$ plurals:

 $d\grave{a}m^{\mathsf{m}}$ "shake" \rightarrow $d\grave{a}m$ - $d\grave{a}m^{\mathsf{m}a}$ "shaker"

The nn-stem $sù n^{n\epsilon}$ "bow the head" <u>6.2.1</u> has an agent noun stem in -nn-, but the tonemes show retention of the -d- formant:

 $sùn^{n\epsilon}$ "bow head" $\rightarrow s\bar{u}n^{na}$ "deep thinker, close pl $s\bar{u}nn\iota b^a$ observer" WK 33 cb sùn- (cf ipfv $sùnn\iota d^a$)

Agent nouns can only be formed from 3-mora verb stems in -*g- if the *g is either deleted or assimilated with the root final consonant as -k- or -n-:

 $y\bar{a}dig^{\epsilon}$ "scatter" \rightarrow $y\bar{a}t^{a}$ technical term for one participant in a housebuilding ritual

Various irregular formations in my materials include:

 $t\bar{\epsilon}k^{\epsilon/}$ "pull" $\rightarrow n \bar{n}w\bar{\imath}-t \epsilon k^a$ "rope-puller" $pl \ \bar{n}w\bar{\imath}-t \epsilon k i d \iota b^a$ $n \delta g^{\epsilon}$ "love" $\rightarrow n \delta g \iota d^a$ "lover"; tones irreg $t i b^{\epsilon}$ "heal" $\rightarrow t \bar{\imath} b^a$ "healer"; tones irreg;

?noun primary 33

For 4-mora stems: KT has no agent nouns; WK drops the final -m- and proceeds as for 3-mora stems:

 $siillim^{m}$ "cite proverbs" \rightarrow $s\bar{\imath}in^{na}$ "speaker of proverbs" $pl \; s\bar{\imath}inn\iota b^{a}$ pù'a $l\iota m^{m}$ "harm" \rightarrow $p\bar{\upsilon}$ 'a n^{na} "harmer" $z\dot{a}a\check{n}s\iota m^{m}$ "dream" \rightarrow $z\dot{a}a\check{n}s\iota d\iota b^{a}$ "dreamer"

Invariable verbs with stems ending in vowels or plosives add -*d*-:

 $zi\check{n}'i^{ya}$ "be sitting down" \rightarrow $z\bar{i}\check{n}'id^a$ "sitter" $zi'e^{ya}$ "be standing still" \rightarrow $z\bar{r} \ni d^a$ "stander"

mī⁺	"know"	\rightarrow	mī id ^{a/}	"knower"
			gbàn-mīˈid ^{a/}	"scribe" NT
				("book-knower")
zī'+	"not know"	\rightarrow	zī'ıd ^{a/}	"ignorant person"
sū'e ^{ya/}	"own"	\rightarrow	sū'vd ^{a/}	"owner"
sɔ̃n̆'e ^{ya/}	"be better than"	\rightarrow	sɔ̃n̆'ɔdal pl sɔ̃n̆'ɔbaı	9.3.1
dīgι ^{ya/}	"be lying down"	\rightarrow	dīgıd ^{a/}	"lier-down"
īgι ^{ya/}	"be kneeling"	\rightarrow	īgıd ^{a/}	"kneeler"
vābι ^{ya/}	"be lying prone"	\rightarrow	vābıd ^{a/}	"lier prone"
làbι ^{ya}	"be crouching"	\rightarrow	lābıd ^a	"croucher in hiding"
àeň ^a	"be something"	\rightarrow	āaňd ^a	"someone who
				continually is
				something" sic WK

Stems in $nn \parallel r(r)$ drop -d throughout, showing the same stem as the finite verb, with gemination as in the verb. Those in $\parallel r(r)$ may use $r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}$ class suffixes, coinciding in form with dynamic adjectives 9.3.1.1.

sīn ^{na/}	"be silent"	\rightarrow	nīn-sín ^{na}	"silent person"
nēn ^{na/}	"envy"	\rightarrow	nīn-nέn ^{na}	"envious person"
dɔ̃l ^{la/}	"be with"	\rightarrow	ňyà'an-dὸl ^{la}	"disciple" (irreg. tone)
		or	йуà'an-dɔ̀l ^{lε}	
zāňl ^{la/}	"be holding"	\rightarrow	nō-záĭl ^{la}	"holder of hens"
		or	nō-záňl ^{lε}	
dēl ^{la} ∕	"be leaning"	\rightarrow	nīn-dέl ^{la}	"person prone to lean"
mɔ̄ra/	"have"	\rightarrow	bù-mɔ̄ra/	"owner of goats"
		or	bὺ-mɔ̄r ^{ε/}	
tār ^{a/}	"have"	\rightarrow	bù-tār ^{a/}	"owner of goats"
		or	bὺ-tār ^{ε/}	

Variant formations occur in

"hate"	\rightarrow	kīs ^{a/} or kīsıd ^{a/}	"hater"
"remember"	\rightarrow	tēňrıd ^a	"rememberer"
"be on guard"	\rightarrow	gūrıd ^{a/}	"guard"
		gū'ud ^{a/}	"guard"
		zà'-nɔ̄-gúr ^a	"gatekeeper"
	"remember"	"remember" \rightarrow	"remember" $\rightarrow t\bar{\epsilon}\check{n}r\iota d^a$ "be on guard" $\rightarrow g\bar{u}r\iota d^a/g\bar{u}'ud^a/g$

13.1.1.2 Deverbal adjectives

13.1.1.2.1 **Dynamic**

In principle these adjectives have the same stem as the agent noun but with different class suffixes; however, dynamic adjectives drop the -d formant more readily, probably because they are not made as freely as agent nouns and are correspondingly not as far along the axis from derivational to flexional.

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 premodifier. It is not usual for a dynamic adjective to have a past passive sense like an English past participle, though examples occur, e.g $s\bar{u}m$ - $d\acute{v}gvd\grave{a}^+$ "cooked groundnuts" WK, $zii\eta dvgida = z\acute{i}\eta$ - $d\acute{v}gvd\grave{a}^+$ "cooked fish" (Lk 24:42), beside the more usual sense in $ni'im\ dvgida = n\bar{l}m$ - $d\acute{v}gvd\grave{a}^+$ "meat for cooking" (1 Samuel 2:15.)

When used without a preceding noun cb, dynamic adjective forms have the meaning of agent nouns:

```
k\bar{\nu}\nu d(r^{\epsilon} pl k\bar{\nu}\nu da^{+}) "killer" = k\bar{\nu}\nu da^{-} pl k\bar{\nu}\nu d(b^{a})
```

With a preceding cb the meanings differ:

```
pu̞'à-kōυd<sup>a/</sup>
"woman-killer, killer of women"

pu̞'à-kōυdír<sup>ε</sup>
"woman killer, murderous woman"
```

Accordingly, deverbal adjectives will be cited with a preceding cb. With **variable verbs**:

2-mora stems all retain the *d.

gòň ⁺	"hunt" -	\rightarrow	pu̯'à-gɔ̄ɔňdır ^ɛ	"prostitute"
				("wandering woman")
là' ⁺	"laugh" -	\rightarrow	pu̯'à-lāˈadır ^ɛ	"woman prone to laughter/
				woman to be laughed at"
ňyē̄+	"see" -	\rightarrow	būn-ňyέtìr ^ε	"visible object"
k <u>w</u> ā+	"hoe" -	\rightarrow	nā'-dá-kūødír ^ɛ	"ox for ploughing"
yὲ ⁺	"don clothes" -	\rightarrow	fū-yέεdìr ^ε	"shirt for wearing" WK
			fū - yέεdὺg ^ɔ	KT
kū⁺	"kill" -	\rightarrow	tì-kūvdím ^m	"poison" ("killing medicine")
du̞'àa	"bear/beget" -	\rightarrow	tèŋ-dū'adıg ^a	"native land"
dūg ^ε	"cook" -	\rightarrow	sūm-dúgvdà+	"cooked groundnuts" WK
sīg ^ε	"descend" -	\rightarrow	yī-sígıdìr ^ε	"lodging-house"
su'ā ^a	"hide" -	\rightarrow	yēl-sύ'adìr ^ε	"confidential matter"

òňb ^ε	"chew"	\rightarrow	būn-źňbιdà ⁺	"solid food"
bùn ^ε	"reap"	\rightarrow	bōn-búnnìr ^ε	"thing for reaping"
từm ^m	"work"	\rightarrow	būn-túmmìr ^ɛ	"useful thing"
νūl ^ε	"swallow"	\rightarrow	tì-vōnním ^m	"oral medication"
gbīs ^ε	"sleep"	\rightarrow	pu̞'à-gbīsıdír ^ɛ	"woman 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 <u>6.3.1</u> or otherwise <u>11.1.1</u>. The dropping of -d is thus much more consistent than in agent nouns.

```
gīlıg<sup>ε/</sup>
                    "go around"
                                                 pu'à-gīnníg<sup>a</sup>
                                                                               "prostitute"
sūeň<sup>+/</sup>
                    "anoint"
                                                 kpā-sɔʻɔňdìm<sup>m</sup>
                                                                               "anointing oil"
tūlιg<sup>ε/</sup>
                    "heat up"
                                                 būn-tύlιgìr<sup>ε</sup>
                                                                               "heater, thing for heating"
pὲlιg<sup>ε</sup>
                    "whiten"
                                                 būn-pέlιgìr<sup>ε</sup>
                                                                               "whitening thing, whitener"
                                          \rightarrow
vādιg<sup>ε/</sup>
                    "scatter"
                                                 būn-vátìr<sup>€</sup>
                                                                               "scattering thing, scatterer"
                                          \rightarrow
                                                                                (cf the agent noun y\bar{a}t^{a/})
iāňk<sup>€/</sup>
                    "fly, jump"
                                                 būn-įáň'adìr<sup>€</sup>
                                                                               "flying creature"
pàk<sup>ε</sup>
                    "surprise"
                                                 yēl-pákìr<sup>ɛ</sup>
                                                                               "disaster"
tēk<sup>ε/</sup>
                    "pull"
                                                 ňwī-tέkìr<sup>ε</sup>
                                                                               "rope for pulling with"
kēη<sup>ε/</sup>
                    "go"
                                                 bùη-k̄εnnír<sup>ε</sup>
                                                                               "donkey that doesn't sit still"
sùn<sup>ε</sup>
                                                 būn-sύnìr<sup>ε</sup>
                    "help"
                                                                                "helpful thing"
nòη<sup>ε</sup>
                    "love"
                                                 bì-nònır<sup>€</sup>
                                                                                "beloved child"
```

3-mora stems in -*m* retain the -*d*, forming the consonant cluster -*mm*-:

```
s \grave{a} \check{n}' a m^{\mathsf{m}} "destroy" \rightarrow b \grave{v} - s \check{a} \check{n}' a m m \iota r^{\varepsilon} "scapegoat" WK
```

3-mora stems in -s all drop the -d:

```
p\grave{\varepsilon}lls^{\varepsilon} "sharpen" \rightarrow b\bar{\upsilon}n-p\acute{\varepsilon}lls\grave{\iota}r^{\varepsilon} "sharpening thing" k\grave{\iota}uoled{\iota}os^{\varepsilon} "sell" \rightarrow b\bar{\upsilon}n-k\acute{\iota}uoled{\iota}os^{\varepsilon} "item for sale"
```

4-mora stems (all from KT) drop -d (whereas agent nouns drop stem-final -m):

```
sìilım<sup>m</sup>
                 "cite proverbs"
                                         būn-síilúη<sup>o</sup>
                                                                   "thing relating to proverbs"
ρὺ'alım<sup>m</sup>
                "harm"
                                         nīn-pύ'alìη<sup>a</sup>
                                                                   "harmful person"
                                         pu'à-pὺ'alíŋa
                                                                   "harmful woman"
zàaňsım<sup>m</sup>
                                         nīn-záaňsὺη<sup>ɔ</sup>
                                                                   "dreamy person"
                 "dream"
                                         pu'à-zàaňsύη<sup>ο</sup>
                                                                   "dreamy woman"
```

The adjectives associated with adjectival verbs are not deverbal but primary stative adjectives; dynamic adjectives from **dynamic-invariable verbs** show the same stem as the agent noun <u>13.1.1.1</u>:

```
dīgi<sup>ya/</sup>
                  "be lying"
                                             bùη-dīgιdír<sup>ε</sup>
                                                                        "donkey that lies down a lot"
vābi<sup>ya/</sup>
                  "be prone"
                                             bùn-vābıdír<sup>ɛ</sup>
                                                                        "donkey always lying prone"
zìň'i<sup>ya</sup>
                  "be sitting"
                                             kūg-zíň'idìr<sup>€</sup>
                                                                        "stone for sitting on"
                                                                         (i.e. not a būgυr<sup>ε</sup> WK)
zāňl<sup>la/</sup>
                                             nō-záňl<sup>lε</sup>
                  "be holding"
                                                                        "hen for holding"
dēlla/
                                             nīn-dέl<sup>lε</sup>
                  "be leaning"
                                                                        "person you can lean on" WK
                                             kùg-dēl<sup>lε/</sup>
                                                                        "chair for leaning on"
                                             būn-qύl<sup>lε</sup>
aùl<sup>la</sup>
                  "be hanging" →
                                                                        "thing for suspending"
```

13.1.1.2.2 Resultative

Resultative adjectives are only derived from verbs which can use the perfective form in a resultative sense 19.2.1. Almost all such verbs are either intransitive or patientive ambitransitive 20.1, and the adjectives are not passive participles, but express resulting states. There are no resultative adjectives from stance-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. The formant is $-l\iota m$ -; it either deletes a preceding derivational suffix or is a formation from roots alone; all examples show $-l\iota m$ after a CVV root. For the flexion see $\underline{10.2}$.

```
kpì+
                        "die"
                                                            kpìilύη<sup>2</sup>
                                                                                                 "dead"
gēň<sup>+</sup>
                        "get tired"
                                                            ḡεκἴΙύη<sup>ο</sup>
                                                                                                 "tired"
                        "fill"
                                                            p \dot{\epsilon}' \epsilon l \dot{\nu} \eta^{2}
p \dot{\varepsilon}' \varepsilon l^{\varepsilon}
                                                                                                 "full"
kà+
                        "break"
                                                            kàɔlúη<sup>ɔ</sup>
                                                                                                 "broken"
                                                                                                 "worn" (of a shirt)
v \dot{\varepsilon}^+
                        "wear"
                                                            γὲεΙύη<sup>ο</sup>
và<sup>+</sup>
                        "close"
                                                            γὸοΙύη<sup>ο</sup>
                                                                                                 "closed"
ρὺ'alım<sup>m</sup>
                                                            ρὺ alúη<sup>5</sup>
                        "harm"
                                                                                                 "damaged"
àeň+
                                                            àaňlún<sup>o</sup>
                                                                                                 "torn"
                        "tear"
```

13.1.1.3 Instrument nouns

Instrument nouns can be created at will by my informants whenever semantically appropriate from variable and dynamic-invariable verbs, so long as the derived dynamic adjective stem ends in dt or s; a further -m is then added. All these m-stems then inflect in the $g^a|s^\epsilon$ class. In a few cases the meaning overlaps with that of agent nouns.

kū⁺	"kill"	\rightarrow	kūυdíŋ ^a	"thing for killing with"
<i>1</i> 5+	"tie"	\rightarrow	si̯à-lɔ̄ɔdíŋa	"belt" ("waist-tying thing")
dūg ^ε	"cook"	\rightarrow	dūgvdíŋ ^a	"cooking utensil"
s5̄b ^ε	"write"	\rightarrow	sɔ̄bɪdíŋa	"writing implement"
kpàr ^ε	"lock"	\rightarrow	kpārıdıŋ ^a	"thing for locking"
йwà'e ⁺	"cut wood"	\rightarrow	ทัพลิ'adเŋ ^a	"axe"
pīe ^{+/}	"wash self"	\rightarrow	pīədíŋ ^a	"thing for washing oneself"
sù ⁺	"bathe"	\rightarrow	รงิงdเŋ ^a	"sponge"
gōs ^ɛ	"look"	\rightarrow	nīn-gótìŋ ^a	"mirror"
			nīn-gótìs ^ε	"spectacles" [<i>nīn-</i> "eye"]
bὺd ^ε	"plant"	\rightarrow	bῦtιŋ ^a <u>2.2</u>	"cup" (originally "seed cup")
pīəs ^{ε/}	"clean"	\rightarrow	pīəsíŋ ^a	"cleaning implement"
kùθs ^ε	"sell"	\rightarrow	kūesıŋ ^a	"professional salesperson"
dā'e ^{+/}	"push"	\rightarrow	dā'adíŋ ^a	"pusher (person or thing)"
zìň'i ^{ya}	"be sitting"	\rightarrow	zīň'idɪŋª	"thing for sitting on"

13.1.1.4 Imperfective gerunds

Relational verbs along with those dynamic-invariable verbs with stems in -// -nn -r(r) 11.2.1 make derived abstract nouns by adding the suffix -m- to the stem. These forms almost all belong to the m^m class. **Vowel-stems add** -/m-, where -/- may be of the same origin as the -y- formant of dynamic-invariable verb stems 6.2.1.1.

```
sū¹e<sup>ya/</sup>
                        "own"
                                                           \rightarrow
                                                                       รบิ'บlím<sup>m</sup> cf so'olimkan Mt 12:25, 1996
mī<sup>+</sup>
                       "know"
                                                                       mī'ilím<sup>m</sup>
                                                           \rightarrow
zī'+
                       "not know"
                                                                       zī'ılím<sup>m</sup>
                                                           \rightarrow
                       "be something"
                                                                       àaňlím<sup>m</sup>
àeňa
                                                           \rightarrow
bὲ+
                       "be somewhere"
                                                                       bèllím<sup>m</sup>
                                                           \rightarrow
                       "not be"
                                                                       kā'alím<sup>m</sup>
kā'e+
                                                           \rightarrow
sɔ̃n̆'e<sup>ya/</sup>
                       "be better than"
                                                                       has no gerund
mɔ̄ra/
                       "have"
                                                                       m̄̄̄rím<sup>m</sup>
                                                           \rightarrow
tār<sup>a/</sup>
                       "have"
                                                                       tārím<sup>m</sup>
                                                           \rightarrow
nār<sup>a/</sup>
                                                                       nārím<sup>m</sup>
                       "be necessary"
                                                           \rightarrow
n̄εnna/
                       "envy"
                                                                       n̄εnním<sup>m</sup>
w̄εn<sup>na/</sup>
                        "resemble"
                                                                       wēnním<sup>m</sup> [?? misheard for wènním<sup>m</sup>]
                                                           \rightarrow
sīn<sup>na/</sup>
                        "be silent"
                                                                       sīnním<sup>m</sup>
                                                           \rightarrow
d5lla/
                       "accompany"
                                                                       dɔ̃llím<sup>m</sup>
                                                           \rightarrow
zāňl<sup>la/</sup>
                        "hold in the hand" \rightarrow
                                                                       zāňllím<sup>m</sup>
dēl<sup>la</sup>/
                        "be leaning"
                                                                       d\bar{\epsilon}ll\dot{\nu}g^{\rm D} or d\bar{\epsilon}ll\dot{\epsilon}m^{\rm m}
                                                           \rightarrow
                       (of a person)
```

```
g\bar{u}r^{a/} "guard" \rightarrow g\bar{u}r(m^m)
t\dot{\epsilon}\check{n}r^a "remember" \rightarrow t\bar{\epsilon}\check{n}r(b^o)
or t\bar{\epsilon}\check{n}r(m^m) [?? misheard for t\dot{\epsilon}\check{n}r(m^m)]
But k\bar{l}s^{a/} "hate" \rightarrow k(s\dot{v}g^o)
```

Unlike abstract nouns associated with adjectival verbs, these forms obey the tonal rules for gerund formation, and are Pattern L when derived from Pattern L verbs; the third-mora L tone confirms that these are in fact m-stems 7.2.2.

Only imperfective gerunds from dynamic verbs can be used in the immediate future construction with $b \grave{\supset} d^a$ "want" 12.1.1.

Variable verbs with an imperfective form which has become an independent relational verb lexeme may also form imperfective gerunds; however, when formed from Pattern L verbs they do not show the third-mora H toneme:

```
bɔ̀ɔdım<sup>m</sup> "will" (Pattern L, unlike bɔ̄ɔdır^{\epsilon} "desirable") contrast the perfective gerund bɔ̄ɔb̄ɔ "seeking" gɔ̀ɔňdım<sup>m</sup> "wandering" (gɔ̀ň+ "hunt") zɔ̀tım<sup>m</sup> "fear" [M zɔ́t nɛ̄ "I'm afraid."] contrast zɔ̄ɔḡɔ "running"
```

This probably simply means that the stems do not contain -m- and have only three morae; cf the $d\grave{a}al\iota m^m$ "masculinity", $p\grave{v}'al\iota m^m$ "femininity" alongside $d\grave{a}al\iota m^m$ "male sex organs", $p\grave{v}'al\iota m^m$ "female sex organs" and $b\grave{i}ll\iota m^m$ "childhood" $\underline{13.1.2}$, and the variant forms of resultative adjectives which lack the -m- of the stem $\underline{10.2}$.

The gerund *wvmmvg* of *wvm* "hear" (written *wumug* in pre-2016 orthography, but read with *-mm*- in the 1996 audio NT) is perhaps a formation of this kind, representing **wvmdvg*2.

Unequivocal imperfective gerund forms with -m- derived from almost all agentive verbs occur as premodifiers of the bound noun

```
-t\bar{a}a^{=} -t\bar{a}as^{\epsilon} -t\dot{a}- or -t\bar{a}- "companion in ..."
```

The forms used for relational verbs and for other invariable verbs with stems in -II - nn - r(r) are identical to their usual imperfective gerunds:

```
"know"
                                 mī'ilím-tāa=
                                                     "partner in knowledge"
m\bar{l}^{+}
zī'+
                                 zī'ılím-tāa=
                                                     "partner in ignorance"
             "not know"
             "exist"
bὲ+
                                 bèllím-tāa=
                                                     "partner in existence"
                                                                                WK
d5lla/
                                                     "fellow-companion"
             "be with"
                                 dɔ̃llím-tāa=
```

Forms from variable verbs are made with -m- added to the stem seen in the derived dynamic adjective, but have the gerund tone pattern of Pattern L from Pattern L verbs, with H on the last vocalic mora:

mὲ ⁺	"build"	\rightarrow	mὲεdím-tāa=	"fellow-builder"
dì+	"eat"	\rightarrow	dìtím-tāa ⁼	"messmate"
<i>p</i> ῡ+	"share"	\rightarrow	pῦυdím-tāa ⁼	"fellow-sharer"
kpὲň' ⁺	"enter"	\rightarrow	kpèň'ɛdím-tāa=	"fellow-resident"
zàb ^ε	"fight"	\rightarrow	zàbıdím-tāa=	"enemy"
dūg ^ε	"cook"	\rightarrow	dūgυdím-tāa ⁼	"fellow-cook"
fāň+	"snatch"	\rightarrow	fāaňdím-tāa ⁼	"fellow-robber"
từm ^m	"work"	\rightarrow	tùmmím-tāa ⁼	"co-worker"
pὺ'υs ^ε	"worship"	\rightarrow	pὺ'ʊsím - tāa ⁼	"fellow-worshipper"
dìıs ^ɛ	"feed"	\rightarrow	dìısím-tāa=	"fellow-feeder"
sὺŋ ^ε	"help"	\rightarrow	sờŋím-tāa ⁼	"fellow-helper"
		or	sờŋɪdím-tāa ⁼	
sjàk ^ɛ	"agree"	\rightarrow	si̯àkím-tāa=	"fellow in agreement"

Stance verbs may use $-d\iota m$ - or $-l\iota m$ - or even $-n\iota m$ -; the forms with -n- at least probably belong rather to the derived assume-stance variable verbs 13.2.1.1 with the usual loss of the formant -d- when a preceding derivational suffix is retained.

īgι ^{ya/}	"be kneeling"	\rightarrow	īgılím-tāa=	"fellow-kneeler"	
		or	īgıdím-tāa ⁼	"fellow-kneeler"	WK
zìň'i ^{ya}	"be sitting"	\rightarrow	zìň'ilím-tāa=	"fellow-sitter"	
		or	zìň'idím-tāa=	"fellow-sitter"	WK
vābι ^{ya/}	"lie prone"	\rightarrow	vābılím-tāa ⁼	"fellow lier-prone"	
		or	vābıdím-tāa=	"fellow lier-prone"	WK
làbı ^{ya}	"be crouched"	\rightarrow	làbılím-tāa=	"fellow croucher in hidin	g"
zì'e ^{ya}	"be stood"	\rightarrow	zì'əlím-tāa ⁼	"fellow-stander"	
		or	zì'ədím-tāa=	"fellow-stander"	WK
dīgı ^{ya/}	"be lying"	\rightarrow	dīgılím-tāa=	"fellow-lier"	
		or	dìgıním-tāa ⁼	"fellow-lier"	WK

For the irregular verb $n \ni \eta^{\epsilon}$ WK has two forms with different nuances <u>11.1.1</u>

```
n 
ightight 
ightight n 
igh
```

13.1.1.5 Other deverbal formations

-s- appears in a few concrete nouns derived from verbs:

dīgısá ⁺	"lairs"	←	dīgı ^{ya/}	"be lying down"
dōυsá ⁺	"steps"	←	$d\bar{v}^+$	"go up"

-m- derives nouns from verbal roots in

$$z\bar{z}$$
 "refugee" cf $z\dot{z}$ "run" $kp\bar{r}im^{m/}$ "corpse" cf $kp\dot{r}$ "die"

-d- appears as an instrument noun formant instead of the usual -dim- in

 $t\bar{u}\theta d\iota r^{\epsilon}$ "mortar" $\leftarrow t\underline{v}\dot{a}^{+}$ "grind in a mortar"

See also on $p\bar{l}bin^{n\epsilon}$ "covering" etc, where the *n* may represent **Id* 12.1.2.

-b- derives nouns from verbal roots in

 $kp iib ig^a$ "orphan" cf $kp i^+$ "die" dà'abı r^ϵ "slave" cf da'^+ "buy"

This -b may be connected with the stem of $b\bar{\imath}ig^a$ "child"; cf Gurmanche $kp\bar{e}big\bar{a}$ "orphan", $kp\acute{e}$ "die", $big\bar{a}$ "child". The noun $s\grave{a}l\iota b\iota r^\epsilon$ "bridle" is not analysable.

13.1.2 From nouns and adjectives

-s- forms adjectives and cognate adjectival verbs.

mā'asír ^ɛ	"cold, wet"	cf	mā'e ^{+/}	"cool down"
mā'as ^{a/}	"be cold, wet"			
būgvsír ^ɛ	"soft"	\mathbf{cf}	būk ^{ε/}	"weaken"
būgvs ^{a/}	"be soft"			
tēbısír ^ε	"heavy"	\mathbf{cf}	tēbιg ^{ε/}	"get heavy"
tēbıs ^{a/}	"be heavy"			
mì'isvg ^ɔ	"sour"	cf	mì'ig ^ε	"get sour"
mì'is ^a	"be sour"			

-d- (apart from its use to form deverbal nouns and adjectives) features in a number of nouns where it has no evident derivational meaning:

```
y \bar{u} g v d \iota r^{\epsilon} "hedgehog"

l \bar{a}' a f^{\flat} "cowrie"

pl l \bar{\iota} g \iota d \iota^{\dagger} "money" *l a g \iota d-
p \dot{v} g v d \iota b^{a} "father's sister"
```

It appears in a number of $^a|b^a$ class words where it is not found throughout the paradigm; so regularly in agent nouns from 3-mora stems in -s- 13.1.1.1, but irregularly also in some words 9.3.1. In derivation compare

```
N\grave{a}b\iota d^a "Nabdema" but N\grave{a}b\iota r^{\epsilon} "Nabit language" 
D\grave{a}g\acute{a}\grave{a}d^a "Dagaaba person" = Dagaare Dagao 
n\bar{\imath}d\iota b^{a/} "people" = Mooré n\acute{e}b\grave{a}
```

-m- appears in both concrete and abstract nouns, with no single common meaning:

```
bī'əm<sup>m</sup>
                 "enemy"
                                           cf
                                                    bīˈa+
                                                                              "bad"
tādım<sup>m/</sup>
                 "weak person"
                                                    tàdıq<sup>ɛ</sup>
                                                                              "become weak"
                                           cf
āňsίη<sup>a</sup>
                 "sister's child"
                                           cf
                                                    áňsìb<sup>a</sup>
                                                                              "mother's brother"
yáana
                 "grandchild"
                                                    yáab<sup>a</sup>
                                                                              "grandparent"
                                           cf
← *yāámgā
                                                    ← *yāágbā
νύθη<sup>a</sup>
                                                    vúer<sup>E</sup>
                 "red kapok"
                                                                              "red kapok fruit"
                                           cf
← *vūémgā
                                                    ← *vūégrī
bì'isím<sup>m</sup>
                                                    bì'isιr<sup>ε</sup>
                 "milk"
                                                                              "breast"
                                           cf
γυσύm<sup>nε</sup>
                 "camel"
                                                    [ultimately ← Berber *a-ləqəm (Souag)]
gbīgım<sup>nɛ</sup>
                 "lion"
zὶlιm<sup>mε</sup>
                 "tongue"
àňrυη<sup>၁</sup>
                 "boat"
nā'am<sup>m</sup>
                 "chiefship"
                                           cf
                                                    nà'aba
                                                                              "chief"
zɔ̄lımís<sup>ɛ</sup>
                 "foolishness"
                                                    zɔ̄lvgɔ/
                                                                              "fool"
                                           cf
```

Abstract $-m(s^{\epsilon})$ forms seem always to have H toneme; cf $b\dot{u}d\iota m(s^{\epsilon})$ "confusion", where, however, the -m- is part of the verb stem $b\dot{u}d\iota m^m$ "get confused"; cf also

tàdımís ^ɛ	"weakness"	cf	tādım ^m /	"weak person"	
-m- is seer	n also in the adjec	tives			
zùloŋ ^ɔ	"deep"		ňyālύŋ ^ɔ	"wonderful"	
yàluŋ ^ɔ	"wide"		nàrບŋ ^ɔ	"necessary"	

Added to existing adjectival stems, -m- produces no change of meaning:

ňyὲεsίŋ ^a	"self-confident"	cf	ňyὲεs ^a	"be self-confident"
vèňllíŋ ^a	"beautiful"	cf	v <i>è</i> ĭllıg ^a	"beautiful"
mālısíŋ ^a	"pleasant"	cf	mālısíg ^a	"pleasant"
lāllíŋ ^a	"distant"	cf	lāllύg ^ο	"distant"

-*lum*- derives abstract nouns from nouns and adjectives. The -*l*- is perhaps the same suffix as in primary adjectives like

```
s\bar{a}b\iota l(g^a) "black" of s\bar{b}^{\epsilon} "get dark"
```

However, there are no adjectives in -/- alongside these abstract nouns; this is true even for abstract nouns derived with -/- alone, like

```
d\bar{a}\mu^+ "man" \rightarrow d\grave{a}al\iota m^{\mathsf{m}} "masculinity" p\mu'\bar{a}^{\mathsf{a}} "woman" \rightarrow p\grave{v}'al\iota m^{\mathsf{m}} "femininity"
```

versus $d\grave{a}al(m^m)$ "male sex organs", $p\grave{v}'al(m^m)$ "female sex organs", where the concrete meaning is presumably a metaphorical development from an original abstract sense, as with $y\bar{a}m^{m}$ "gall, common sense" \rightarrow "gall bladder" 9.1; cf the abstract sense of the parallel 4-mora stem formation $b\grave{i}ll(m^m)$ "childhood"; WK did not accept * $b\grave{i}ill(m)$.

-*lum*- is the only derivational suffix before which *CVVC* roots do not become *CVC* 6.1.1.2, and can even follow a preceding derivational suffix, creating five-mora stems.

```
tītā'al<sup>lɛ</sup>
                   "proud person"
                                                         tītā'alım<sup>m</sup>
                                                                                     "pride"
gīŋa
                   "short"
                                               \rightarrow
                                                        qīiňlím<sup>m</sup>
                                                                                     "shortness"
w\bar{j}k^{3/}
                                                                                     "tallness"
                   "long, tall"
                                                        wā'alím<sup>m</sup>
                                               \rightarrow
                                                        sáannìm<sup>m</sup>
sāan<sup>a/</sup>
                   "guest, stranger"
                                                                                     "strangerhood"
                   "neighbour"
                                                        tīráànnım<sup>m</sup>
tīráàna
                                                                                     "neighbourliness"
                                                        qīŋılím<sup>m</sup>
                                                                                     "shortness"
gīŋa
                   "short"
```

13.2 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 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 CVVCm only occurs as CVV root + sim or lim, never CVVC root + m. Some adjectival verbs have stems which include the a derivational suffix seen in the corresponding adjective.

13.2.1 From verbs

13.2.1.1 From stance verbs

Stance verbs have derived variable verbs in $-n^{\epsilon}$ 6.2.1.1 signifying "assume the stance" and in $-l^{\epsilon}$ "make assume the stance"; all the $-n^{\epsilon}$ verbs are Pattern LO regardless, but the $-l^{\epsilon}$ verbs have the same Pattern as the base stance verb.

	Stance y	<u>verb</u>	<u>Assume-stance</u>	<u>Make-assume-stance</u>
	dīgı ^{ya/}	be lying	dìgın ^ɛ	dīgıl ^{ɛ/}
	vābι ^{ya/}	be lying prone	vàbın ^ɛ	vāb≀l ^{ε/}
	īgι ^{ya/}	be kneeling	ìgιn ^ε	īgιΙ ^{ε/}
	làbι ^{ya}	be crouching hidder	n <i>làbın^ɛ</i>	làbıl ^ɛ
	zìň'i ^{ya}	be sitting	zìň'in ^ɛ	zìň'il ^ε
	zì'e ^{ya}	be standing	zì'ən ^ɛ	zì'əl ^ɛ
	tī i ^{ya/}	be leaning (of thing)) tì'in ^ɛ	tril ^{€/}
WK	gɔ̄'e ^{ya/}	be looking up	gὸ'ɔn ^ε	
	sùr ^a	have bowed head	sùn ^{nɛ}	sùn ^{nε} [sic]
	-	cover oneself	lìgın ^ε	lìgιl ^ε
	-	perch (of bird)	zùen ^ε	zùel ^ε
	-	perch (of bird)	yà'an ^ɛ	yà'al ^ɛ

The resultative perfective $\underline{19.2.1}$ of $z\dot{u}e+$ is used for "be perching":

Níin $l\bar{a}$ $z\acute{u}\theta$ $n\bar{\epsilon}$. "The bird is perching." KT Bird:sg art perch Foc.

Other derivational relationships involving stance verbs are seen in

gùl ^{la}	be suspended	gùl ^ɛ	gὺl ^ε
tàbı ^{ya}	be stuck to	tàb ^ε	tàbıl ^ɛ
dēl ^{la/}	"be leaning" (person)	dὲlιm ^m	

13.2.1.2 Causatives

Several derivational suffixes are found with a causative sense.

Patientive ambitransitive verbs <u>20.1</u> frequently describe entry into a state. Such verbs most often have no separate causative derivative.

-I- has been seen above as the causative suffix for stance verb roots; verbs derived with -g- from nominal roots are usually patientive ambitransitives but may have separate causatives in -I- (see below 13.2.2.) Other roots forming causatives in -I- are

gūr ^{a/}	"guard"	gū'ul ^{ε/}	"put someone on guard"
bāň' ⁺	"ride"	bāň'al ^{ε/}	"put on a horse/bicycle etc"
zàb ^ε	"fight"	zàbıl ^ɛ	"cause to fight"
dụ'à ^a	"bear, beget"	dὺ'al ^ε	"make interest (of a loan)"
yὲ ⁺	"dress oneself"	yὲεl ^ε	"dress another person"
pìd ^ɛ	"don hat/shoes/rings"	pìlε	"put hat/shoes/rings on
			another person"

-g- can form causatives or inchoatives from invariable or intransitive variable verbs:

dɔ̃l ^{la/}	"accompany"	dɔ̄lιg ^{ε/}	"make accompany"
gōr ^{a/}	"look up" DK	gɔ̄dιg ^{ε/}	"make look up" DK
zāňl ^{la/}	"be holding"	zàŋ ^ɛ	"pick up"
tèňr ^a	"remember"	tìeň+	"bring to mind, remind"
yùul ^ɛ	"swing" intransitive	yùlıg ^ε	"swing" transitive
kà+	"break" intransitive	kὸ'ɔg ^ε	"break" ambitransitive

-s- is the commonest causative suffix for variable verbs:

kpὲň' ⁺	"enter"	kpὲň'εs ^ε	"make enter"
nìe+	"appear"	nèɛs ^ɛ	"reveal"
yī ⁺	"go/come out"	$y\overline{i}is^{\epsilon/}$ or $y\overline{i}s^{\epsilon}$	"make go/come out"
dì+	"eat"	dìιs ^ε	"feed"
nū+	"drink"	nūlιs ^{ε/}	"make drink"; also $n\bar{u}l\iota g^{\epsilon/}$
sīg ^ε	"go down"	sīgıs ^{ɛ/}	"lower"
lèb ^ɛ	"return"	lèbıs ^ɛ	"make return; answer"
mu̯'àª	"suck" (of a baby)	mὺ'as ^ε	"give to suck"
[Mooré <i>tá</i>	"arrive"]	tā'as ^{ε/}	"help to travel, walk"

It is also seen in

zēm ^{ma/}	"be equal"	zēˈmɪs ^{ɛ/}	"make equal"
kpìig ^ɛ	"go out (fire)"	kpìis ^ɛ	"quench"

 $g\bar{u}r^{a/}$ "guard" has the causative $g\bar{u}'ul^{\epsilon/}$ (cf $g\bar{u}'ud^{a/}$, agent noun) but also has the derivative $g\bar{u}'us^{\epsilon/}$ "take care, watch out"

13.2.1.3 Reverse action

-g- attached to dynamic verbal roots implies reversal:

yὲ ⁺	"dress oneself"	yὲεg ^ε	"undress oneself"
pìd ^ε	"put (hat etc) on"	pìdıg ^ɛ	"take (hat etc) off"
pìl ^ε	"put (hat etc) on s'one"	pìlıg ^ε	"take (hat etc) off someone"
<i>l</i> 5+	"tie up"	lɔ̄dιg ^{ε/}	"untie"
<i>y</i> ̀ ว +	"close"	yὸ'ɔg ^ε	"open"
ὲňd ^ε	"block up"	ὲňdιg ^ε	"unblock"
yà'al ^ɛ	"hang up"	yàk ^ɛ	"unhang"
pà'al ^ɛ	"put on top"	pàk ^ɛ	"take off top"
pìbıl ^ɛ	"cover up"	pìbıg ^ɛ	"uncover"
tàbı ^{ya}	"be stuck to"	tàbıg ^ε	"unstick, get unstuck"
là'as ^ɛ	"gather together"	lāk ^{ε/}	"open" (eye, book)
		lákè	(Mooré) "un-stick together"
		làkὲ	(Farefare) "enlever, ouvrir"

Reversive -g- is a peculiarity of the Western group within Oti-Volta; the others show alveolars in reversive suffixes: Konkomba $pi:^n$ "close" $pi:^n$ "open", Moba lwo "close" lwot "open", Byali bya "close" byera "open", Nawdm row "has closed" rod "open." Proto-Bantu had -vl- and -vk-, perhaps respectively transitive and intransitive. An alveolar variant might have been disfavoured in Western Oti-Volta because of the adoption of -da as the regular dynamic imperfective flexion.

13.2.1.4 Other deverbal formations

-s- may have a plural action sense:

kò ⁺	"break"	kà'ɔs²	"break several times"
tòň+	"shoot"	tàň'ɔs²	"hunt"
pìəb ^ε	"blow (flute etc)"	pὲbιs ^ε	"blow (wind)"
làbι ^{ya}	"crouch in hiding"	làbıs ^ɛ	"walk stealthily"
νōe̞a/	"be alive"	νῡ'υς ^{ε/}	"breathe, rest"
įāňk ^{ε/}	"fly, jump"	įā̃ň'as ^{ε/}	"leap, jump repeatedly"
yā'e ^{+/}	"open mouth"	yā'as ^{ε/}	"open repeatedly" WK
dī'e ^{+/}	"receive"	dī'əs ^{ε/}	"receive (many things)"

-g- probably occurs with an inchoative meaning in the perfectives of several irregular verbs 11.1.1, and also in

 $s\bar{s}\bar{n}'e^{ya/}$ "be better than" $s\bar{u}\bar{n}'e^{+/}$ "become better than" WK

-m- derives some preverbs from variable verbs 19.7.2:

lèm	"again"	\mathbf{cf}	lὲb ^ε	"return"
là'am	"together"	cf	là'as ^ɛ	"gather together"
		also	là'am ^m	"associate with", main verb
dèŋım	"first"	cf	dὲŋ ^ε	"go first"
màlıgım	"again"	cf	malig	(Toende) "do again"

-g- and -m- occur with no clear meaning in

fāň+	"rob, snatch"	fāeň ^{+/}	"save" (? "snatch back")
lìəb [€]	"become"	lèbıg ^ε	"turn over"
		lèbge	(Mooré) "become"
sɔ̃ň ⁺	"rub"	sūeň ^{+/}	"anoint"
nōb ^ε	"get fat"	nɔ̄bιg ^{ε/}	"grow" (child, plant)
nā+	"join"	nāe+/	"finish"; compare
			Hausa <i>gamàa</i> "join, finish"
kòňs ^ɛ	"cough"	kờňsım ^m	"cough"

-b- appears in $t\grave{a}m^m$ "forget", $z\grave{a}m^m$ "cheat, betray", $d\grave{a}m^m$ "shake" and $l\grave{c}m^m$ "sip, taste", where $mm \leftarrow *mb$ 6.2.1, but I have found no cognate simplex forms.

-r- appears in

kāab ^{€/} "offer, invite"	kābιr ^{ε/}	"ask for admission"
	cf <i>kábıs</i>	Toende <i>id</i>
[no simplex]	sūg∪r ^{ε/}	"forbear, be patient with"

Both words appear frequently in pan-regional set formulae 31 and may well be loanwords. They may be back-formations from the nouns $k\bar{a}b\iota r\ell^+$ and $s\bar{u}g\nu r\ell^+$, where $r\iota/r\nu$ possibly originated in the equivalent of $r^{\epsilon}|a^+$ class singular flexions 9.6.

13.2.2 From nouns and adjectives

-g- derives many verbs from noun and adjective roots, with the meaning "make/become ..." With verbal roots the same suffix is inchoative 13.2.1.4.

йуɔ̄'ɔs ^{ε/}	"smoke"	йуū'е ^{+/}	"set alight"
ňwīig ^{a/}	"rope"	ňwīig ^{ε/}	"make a rope"
tādım ^{m/}	"weak person"	tàdıg ^ε	"become weak"
kpì'a ⁺	"neighbour"	kpì'e+	"approach"
zūer ^ε	"hill"	zùe ⁺	"get higher, more"
À-Tūl ^{lɛ}	"Breech-Delivered" 32.2	tùlıg ^ɛ	"invert"
mā'asír ^ɛ	"cool, wet"	mā'e ^{+/}	"get cool, wet"
		(māˈal ^{ε/}	"make cool, wet")
būgvsír ^ε	"soft"	būk ^{ε/}	"soften"
tēbısír ^ε	"heavy"	tēbιg ^{ε/}	"get/make heavy"
gīŋ ^a	"short"	gìŋ ^ɛ	"scrimp"
kpī'oŋ ^ɔ	"strong"	kpὲ'ŋ ^ε	"strengthen"
vōr ^{€/}	"alive"	νῡ'υg ^{ε/}	"make/come alive"
pòɔdɪg ^a	"few"	pὸ'ɔg ^ε	"diminish; denigrate"
pìəlıg ^a	"white"	pὲlιg ^ε	"whiten"
sābılíg ^a	"black"	sɔ̄bιg ^{ε/}	"blacken"
nīn-múa ⁺	"concentration"	mù'e ⁺	"redden, become intense"
kūdυg ^ɔ	"old"	kὺdιg ^ε	"shrivel up, dry out, age"
sùŋ ^ɔ	"good"	sùŋ ^ɛ	"help"
tūvlúg ^o	"hot"	tῦlιg ^{ε/}	"heat up"
mì'isvg ^ɔ	"sour"	mì'ig ^ɛ	"turn sour"
zùlʊŋɔ	"deep"	zùlıg ^ε	"deepen"
lāllúg ^ɔ	"far"	lālιg ^{ε/}	"get to be far, make far"
màuk ^o	"crumpled up"	màk ^ɛ	"crumple up"
dēεŋª	"first"	dὲŋ ^ε	"precede"
nὲεr ^ε	"clear, empty"	nìe ⁺	"appear"

With the addition of -m as a second derivational suffix:

wàuŋ ^ɔ	"wasted"	wànım ^m	"waste away"

-I- can make causatives from noun or adjective roots, often corresponding to an intransitive or patientive ambitransitive verb with derivational -g-:

mā'e ^{+/}	"get cool"	mā'al ^{ε/}	"make cool"
pūň'e ^{+/}	"rot"	pɔ̃ἤ'ɔl ^{ɛ/}	"cause to rot"
nìe ⁺	"appear"	nèɛl ^ɛ	"reveal"
wῡ'υg ^{ε/}	"get wet"	wū'טו ^{ε/}	"make wet"
йуа́'аŋ ^а	"behind"	ňyā'al ^{ε/}	"leave behind"
gēog ^o	"space between legs"	gēɛl ^{ɛ/}	"put between legs" Tones <i>sic</i>
līk ^a	"darkness"	lìgul ^e	"cover up"

-lum- derives verbs from noun roots, meaning "act as ..." or "make/become ...":

```
pu'ā<sup>a</sup>
                  "woman"
                                                     ρὺ'alım<sup>m</sup>
                                                                       "cook"
                 "cripple"
pàň'ɔr<sup>ε</sup>
                                                     pàň'ɔlım<sup>m</sup>
                                                                       "cripple, get crippled"
gìka
                 "dumb"
                                                     gìgılım<sup>m</sup>
                                                                       "become dumb"
wàbır<sup>€</sup>
                 "lame"
                                                     wàbılım<sup>m</sup>
                                                                       "make, go lame"
gū'υs<sup>ε</sup>
                 "semi-ripe things"
                                                     gὺ'υlιm<sup>m</sup>
                                                                       "become semi-ripe"
būgvda
                 "client of diviner"
                                                     bùgulım<sup>m</sup>
                                                                       "cast lots"
                                                 cf bùk<sup>€</sup>
                                                                       "cast lots"
```

-m- appears deriving a verb from a noun root in

```
n\bar{\varepsilon}\varepsilon^{\varepsilon} "millstone" n\bar{\varepsilon}\varepsilon m^{m/} "grind with a millstone"
```

-s- has a factitive sense in

```
zu\dot{a}^+ "friend" z\dot{u}es^{\epsilon} "befriend"
```

-b- appears in

```
y\bar{a}'ad^{\epsilon} "clay" y\dot{a}'ab^{\epsilon} "mould clay" cf y\dot{a}ge (Mooré) "make pottery"
```

14 Derivational prefixes

14.1 Nouns and adjectives

Many noun stems, and one or two adjectives and adverbs, have an element preceding the root which is not the combining form of any noun. Such elements will be called **noun prefixes**. No finite verb form has a prefix.

Noun prefixes usually have no identifiable individual meanings. Even where parallel stems without prefixes or with different prefixes exist, there are no regular processes relating the various forms (contrast the manner-adverb prefix \grave{a} - and the number prefixes.) However, noun prefixes are common in particular semantic fields, such as with nouns referring to small animals, reptiles and insects.

Most noun prefixes fall into just a few phonological types, with limited possibilities for vowel distinctions and for tones. Segmentally, they are mostly of the shape CV(n), where V shows only the three-way $a \ \iota \ v$ vowel distinction of affix vowels; the ι/v distinction itself and realisations as [i] or [u] are predictable $\underline{4.4}$. There is also a complex reduplicated type CVsin or CVlin. Stems with noun prefixes usually lack derivational suffixes. Prefixes have either M or L tonemes throughout, and they differ from cbs in their tonal effects on following elements $\underline{7.2.4}$.

The distinction between noun prefixes and combining forms is not absolute, and a few prefixes clearly originated as cbs, sometimes with phonological simplifications. Other prefixes are related to verbal negative particles. Nevertheless, cbs and noun prefixes are distinct in principle, and most cases readily distinguishable in practice. Thus, an element is a combining form if it is part of a noun paradigm, if it ends in a consonant other than a nasal, if it has a vowel other than short <code>a ι v</code> without glottalisation or contrastive nasalisation, or if it has M toneme and is followed by L spreading affecting singular and plural forms. On the other hand, an element is a noun prefix if it is formed by reduplication of the stem-initial consonant, or if it has M toneme and is not followed by L spreading affecting singular and plural forms.

Complicating the issue are many stems with elements preceding the final root which do not fit into the common segmental prefix patterns, though behaving tonally as prefixes. Most are **loanwords**, but not all: many names of ethnic groups and of Kusaasi clans are of this type <u>15</u>.

For the personifier clitic \grave{a} - as part of some common nouns referring to living creatures see <u>16.6</u>; it is not a prefix but a proclitic particle.

14.1.1 Reduplication-prefixes

The simplest type of noun prefix copies the initial C of the root, followed by a vowel which is ι by default, but υ after labials, labiodentals and labiovelars; υ replaces ι before root $u/\upsilon/\upsilon$ and ι replaces υ before root $i/\iota/\varepsilon$. No cases occur with voiced stops or voiced fricatives.

```
kùk5r<sup>€/</sup>
                                               "voice"
kùkòm<sup>mɛ</sup>
                                               "leper"
kìkàna
                                               "fig tree"
kìkīrıg<sup>a/</sup>
                                               "tutelary spirit"
k[p]ùkpàrıga
                                               "palm tree"
kpīkpīn<sup>na/</sup>
                                               "merchant"
kpàkūr<sup>€/</sup>
                                               "tortoise" (anomalous prefix vowel)
tītā'ar<sup>€</sup>
                                               "bia"
tìtūmıs<sup>ɛ</sup>
                                               "sending" (tòm<sup>m</sup> "send")
tàtàl<sup>lɛ</sup>
                                               "palm of hand"
pīpīrıg<sup>a/</sup>
                                               "desert"
fūfūm<sup>mɛ</sup>
                                               "envy"; "stye" (believed to result from envy)
sìsì'əm<sup>m</sup>
                                               "wind"
zà-sìsɔ̄bır<sup>€/</sup>
                                               "evening"
                                                (zà- cb of zàam<sup>m</sup> "evening", s\bar{b}^{\varepsilon} "get dark")
lìlāalína
                                               "swallow"
mìmīilím<sup>m</sup>
                                               "sweetness"
mìmīilúg<sup>ɔ</sup>
                                                id
```

More complex is a similar type with a final nasal consonant; voiced stops and fricatives do occur with this type:

```
gùngūm<sup>mε</sup>
                                        "kapok material" (gὑm<sup>mε</sup> "kapok fruit")
dùndùug<sup>o</sup>
                                        "cobra"
dìndēog<sup>5/</sup>
                                       "chameleon"
bìmbìm<sup>mɛ</sup>
                                       "altar"
bùmbàrıg<sup>a</sup>
                                       "ant"
zùnzòŋa
                                       "blind" (zū'em<sup>m/</sup> "go/make blind")
                                       "bat"
zīnzāuŋɔ/
kìnkàna
                                       "fig"
tīntōňríga
                                       "mole"
                                        "housefly" (cf tàmpūa+ id 9.3.2)
pùmpɔ̄ɔgɔ
sīnsáaň=
                                        a kind of tiny ant
n̄ɔb-pύmpàu្ŋɔ
                                        "foot"
```

An even more complex type follows the reduplicated *CV* with -sin or -lin:

kpìsınkpìl^{lɛ} "fist" tàsıntàl^{lɛ} "palm of hand" sīlınsíùňg^o "spider" pl sīlınsíjňď^ɛ *s*īlınsíùg^o "ghost" pl *sīlınsıîs*^ɛ "unknown" cf zī'+ "not know" zīlınzíòq^o νὺlιηνὰuἤl^{lε} "mason wasp" wàsınwàl^{lɛ} a parasitic gall on trees, called "mistletoe" in local English nēsınnēog^{ɔ/} "envious person" cf *nε̄n*^{na/} "envy" WK others "centipede" = WK $n\dot{a}$ '- $n\bar{\epsilon}sinn\bar{\epsilon}og^{5/2}$

$14.1.2 \, Da(n) \, ba(n) \, sa(n)$

dàwàlıga "hot, humid period just before the rainy season" dàyūug^{ɔ/} "rat." dàyáam^{ma} "woman's parent-in-law" dàtāa= "enemy" cf nìn-tāa= "co-wife", Ghanaian "rival" dàmà'a= "liar" cf *mà*'+ "lie" dàkīiga "sibling-in-law via wife" dàwān^{nɛ/} "pigeon" dādúk^o a kind of large pot, cf $d\bar{\nu}k^{3/}$ "pot" dàtìun "right hand" dàgòbiga "left hand" bānāa= traditional long-sleeved smock "hat" bàlànır^ɛ bàlàar[€] "stick. staff" bālērυg^{5/} "ugly" cf *lɛ̃r*^ɛ "get ugly" bàyε̄oq^{ɔ/} "betraver of secrets" cf *yɛ̃ɛs*^{ɛ/} "betray a secret" "fox" sākárùg^o sàbùa+ "lover, girlfriend" ? bɔɔda "want, love" sāmán^{nε} clear space in front of a zàka "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 15:

 $d\grave{a}nk\grave{b}\eta^{\mathtt{o}}$ "measles" $s\bar{a}ng\acute{\nu}nn\grave{\iota}r^{\mathtt{E}}$ "millipede" $z\grave{a}nk\grave{b}'ar^{\mathtt{E}}$ "jackal" $Z\grave{a}ngb\grave{\epsilon}og^{\mathtt{o}}$ "Hausa person" $m\grave{a}ng\acute{a}\upsilon\eta^{\mathtt{o}}$ "crab" $l\grave{a}ng\acute{a}\upsilon\eta^{\mathtt{o}}$ "crab" $n\bar{a}nz\bar{u}'us^{\mathtt{E}/}$ "pepper"

The interesting word $n \grave{a} y \bar{i} i g^a$ "thief" is written n a' a y i i g in NT/KB as if it were a compound with the cb $n \bar{a}'$ - "cow", but it has 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 $a \mid b^a$ class and the -g- belongs to the stem: pl $n \grave{a} y i i g - n \grave{a} m^a$, though there is an analogical $g^a \mid s^e$ pl $n \grave{a} y \bar{i} i s^e$ as well; there is also a derived abstract noun $n \grave{a} y \bar{i} i g i m^m$ "thievery." The Farefare cognate of $n \grave{a} y \bar{i} i g^a$ is $n \grave{a} y i g \grave{a}$, pl n a y i g s i g a i g s i g a

$14.1.3 \, P\bar{v} \, k\dot{v}(n)$

In some words these prefixes have a negative meaning, and they are then presumably connected with the verb negative particles $p\bar{v}$ $k\dot{v}$:

kòndò'ar $^{\epsilon}$ "barren woman"; cf $d\underline{u}$ 'à a "bear, beget" $n\bar{l}n-p\bar{v}-n\bar{a}n^{na/}$ "disrespectful person"; cf $n\bar{a}n^{\epsilon}$ "love, respect" $t\dot{v}b-p\bar{v}-w\acute{v}mn\grave{v}b^{a}$ "deaf people" (Rom 11:7) $cf\ t\dot{v}bvr^{\epsilon}$ "ear", $w\grave{v}m^{m}$ "hear."

However, most cases are not analysable:

kùndùŋa "jackal" gōmpōzēr^{ɛ/} "duck" dāmpōsāar^ɛ "stick"

 $b\bar{a}n-k\dot{v}s\dot{\epsilon}l^{l\epsilon}$ "lizard" ? first element connected with $b\grave{a}\eta^a$

"agama lizard", but the tones are unexpected.

14.1.4 Stranded combining forms

Some original cbs have become partly bleached of their original meaning and/or simplified phonologically, and then detached from their regular paradigms after being ousted by new cbs based on analogy with sg forms <u>9.2.2</u>.

nin "body" is accepted by WK as cb of nin^a $niis^{\epsilon}$ [= Mooré yinga] but the word is rare; as a noun prefix cf

```
nin-gb\bar{i}\eta^{5/} "human skin; body" nin-t\bar{a}a^{\pm} "co-wife"
```

 $d\grave{a}$ "man" is replaced as regular cb by forms segmentally remodelled on sg and pl $d\grave{a}u$ -, $d\grave{a}p$ -, but the $d\grave{a}$ - form is seen in

```
dà-p\bar{a}al^{a/} "son, boy" cf p\bar{a}al(g "new" dà-k\dot{>})\check{n}r^{\epsilon} "son, bachelor" cf a\dot{a}\dot{a}k\dot{>}\check{n}" "one" compare p\dot{o}k\dot{>})\check{n}r^{\epsilon} below
```

 $p\dot{v}$ "woman" cf $p\dot{u}'\dot{a}^a$ "woman" cb $p\dot{u}'\dot{a}$ -. Identifiable in e.g.

 $p\bar{v}$ - "farm" cf $p\bar{z} g^{3/}$ "field, farm", pl $p\bar{z} t^{\epsilon/}$, regular cb $p\bar{z}$ -; Mooré $p\acute{v} ug\grave{o}$ pl $p\acute{v}t\grave{o}$ Tonally, this $p\bar{v}$ - behaves as a M prefix, not a cb 7.2.4.

```
p\bar{v}kp\bar{a}ad^{a/} "farmer" (= kp\bar{a}ad^{a/}id)
```

 $n\dot{a}$ ' "chief"(?) appears before a number of nouns signifying animals and insects:

```
n\grave{a}'-n\bar{\epsilon}sinn\bar{\epsilon}og^{5/} "centipede" WK cf n\bar{\epsilon}sinn\bar{\epsilon}og^{5/} "envious person" WK; others: "centipede" n\grave{a}'-z\grave{o}m^{m\epsilon} "locust" n\grave{a}'-d\grave{a}w\bar{a}n^{n\epsilon/} "pigeon" = d\grave{a}w\bar{a}n^{n\epsilon/}
```

The "chief" cb perhaps relates to traditional folklore; cf \grave{a} - $k\bar{\jmath}ra$ - $d(\grave{a}m^{ma}$ "praying mantis" ("hyena's parent-in-law") and animal and bird names which incorporate the personifier clitic $\underline{16.6}$ like \grave{a} - $d\grave{a}al\acute{b}g^{3}$ "stork", \grave{a} - $g\acute{a}\grave{v}\check{n}g^{3}$ "pied crow", \grave{a} - $m\acute{u}s^{\epsilon}$ "cat."

14.2 Adverbs

The manner-adverb prefix \grave{a} - appears before some stems which are also followed by apocope-blocking 17.4:

àmε̄ŋá ⁺	"truly"
àsīda ⁺	"truly"
àníŋà+	"promptly"

The same prefix is also seen in a number of proadverbs and in the locative $\frac{\partial g}{\partial l}^{|\epsilon|}$ "upwards" 17.3. Forms with this prefix are all liaison words. The prefix is followed by M spreading, like the number prefix, but differs from it in that it does not cause a preceding LF-final vowel mora to appear as -a 8.2.2.

14.3 Number words

In all uses, the numbers 2 to 9 begin with an inseparable number prefix. Forms with number prefixes are all liaison words <u>8.2.2</u>. Although unprefixed forms are not available for comparison, the number prefixes are probably followed by M spreading to the root of the number word.

Because of its origin from * ηa -, the \grave{a} - number prefix, unlike all other aparticles and prefixes, causes a preceding LF-final vowel following a consonant to appear as -a rather than - ι 8.2.2:

```
bīisá àtáň' "three children" child:PL NUM:three
```

This same \dot{a} - is also seen in $\dot{a}l\acute{a}^+$ "how many?" contrasting with $\dot{a}l\acute{a}^+$ "thus", which has the manner-adverb \dot{a} -:

```
Pὲεdá àlá +ø? "How many baskets?" Basket:PL NUM:how.many co?
```

```
nìnı àlá "did thus" do ADV:thus
```

The expected corresponding number prefix $b\grave{a}$ - is not now found after nouns with animate gender, but is still preserved after personal pronouns:

```
tì bàtáň' "we three"
yà bàyópòe "you seven"
bà bàyí "they two"
```

The forms of the number words 2-9 used for counting $\underline{16.4.2.2}$ represent the old $m^{\rm m}$ class agreement, in the "abstract" sense of $m^{\rm m}$ $\underline{9.1.1}$:

ntán'	"three"	(in counting)
'nnāas	"four"	(in counting)
'nnū	"five"	(in counting)

Compare Nawdm mì-tâ? "three" mì-ná: "four" mì-nû? "five" etc in counting. When referring to a specific noun Nawdm numbers have a prefix agreeing with the noun class nidbá bà-tâ? "three people"; mi marks the abstract/mass class cognate to the Kusaal m^m class (Fiedler 2012.)

The number prefix $b\dot{v}$ - appears in various adverbial number words <u>16.4.2.4</u>. It probably represents either an old b° or m^{m} class agreement.

```
ab\dot{v}\dot{v}i^+ "twice"
ab\dot{v}t\dot{a}\ddot{n}i^+ "three times"
ab\dot{v}n\bar{a}asi^+ "four times"
ab\dot{v}n\bar{a}asi^+ "ten times"
ab\dot{v}n\bar{a}asi^+ "three times"
ab\dot{v}n\bar{a}asi^+ "three times"
```

15 Unanalysable complex stems

Numerous words in Kusaal (including the very name of the language, $K\bar{\upsilon}s\acute{a}\grave{a}l^{\epsilon}$) have stems which are more complex structurally than the ordinary unprefixed type but are simply unanalysable units. Tonally, they most often resemble forms with noun prefixes, though examples occur with an initial H toneme. They are often aberrant segmentally, for example in containing unusual consonant clusters. 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

```
K\bar{\upsilon}s\dot{a}\dot{a}s^{\epsilon} "Kusaasi"

N\bar{\upsilon}mp\bar{\upsilon}r\iota s^{\epsilon/} "Mamprussi"

K\dot{\upsilon}t\bar{a}m^{ma/} WK's clan

gb\check{a}n\check{\jmath}a^{\dagger}a^{=} "lazy person" gonya^{\dagger}am "idleness" 1976 NT

cf Dagbani gbinya\chi li "laziness"
```

15.1 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 9.7. Analogy may also cause the initial \grave{a} - of loanwords like \grave{a} raz \grave{a} n \grave{a} ⁺ "heaven" and \grave{a} raz \grave{a} k a "riches" to be treated tonally as fixed-L 8.3.1.

Most loanwords were probably borrowed from **Hausa** in the first instance. Hausa loans often 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

```
d\bar{a}k\acute{a}^+"box"\leftarrow àdakàa (\leftarrow Portuguese arca)g\bar{a}d\upsilon^+"bed"\leftarrow gadook\grave{\epsilon}\epsilon k\grave{\epsilon}^+"bicycle"\leftarrow kèekèb\acute{a}kp\grave{a}e^+"week"\leftarrow bakwài (Hausa "seven")
```

Identifiable verb loanwords are much less common. They are subject to the usual constraints on possible Kusaal verb shapes 13.2:

```
d\grave{a}am^{m} "disturb, trouble" \leftarrow d\grave{a}amaa b\grave{v}g^{\epsilon} "get drunk" \leftarrow b\grave{v}gu; a Hausa idiom: literally "get thoroughly beaten"
```

Several function words are loans, most probably from Hausa:

àsέε	"except"	← sai
kūv	"or"	← koo
báa	"not a" <u>29.4</u>	← bâa

Loanwords with clear Hausa counterparts do not necessarily originate in Hausa, which is not only a great lender of words to other languages but also a great borrower, and they may not always have been borrowed into Kusaal from Hausa itself. Some such words appear in many languages of the Sahel and Savanna: $h\bar{a}li^+$ "until", Hausa har, Kikara Songhay hálì id, possibly from Arabic "atta: (Heath 2005); $l\bar{b}mb\bar{b}'\bar{b}'\bar{b}''$ "garden", Hausa $l\bar{a}mbuu$, Humburi Senni $l\bar{a}mb\bar{b}$ "enclosed vegetable garden"; $l\bar{a}b\iota^{ya}$ "be crouching, hiding behind something", Hausa $l\bar{a}b\bar{e}e$ id, Kikara Songhay $l\bar{a}:b\bar{u}$ "hide behind or under something." With Kusaal $l\bar{a}b\iota^{ya}$ and Hausa $l\bar{a}b\bar{e}e$, the coincidence of highly specific meanings with very similar forms is striking. However, if the Kusaal word is a Hausa loan, it has been remarkably well integrated into the language, with an invariable-verb type Long Form in -ya 2.3.2 and variable-verb assume-stance and make-assume-stance derivatives 13.2.1.1.

Loans from Hausa have travelled far in West Africa, with an entry point into Songhay via the Zarma and Kaado languages of Niger, e.g. Humburi Songhay $til\dot{a}s\dot{o}$ "duty", Zarma, Kaado $til\dot{a}s \leftarrow$ Hausa $tiil\dot{a}s$. Accordingly, wide distribution does not in itself rule out Hausa origin or transmission.

Words from **Arabic** are frequent throughout the languages of the Sahel and Savanna; thus, among others:

```
láafiya+
             "health"
                          Hausa
                                              laafiyàa
                                                           id
                          Mooré
                                              làafí
                                                           id
                          Kikara Songhay
                                              ?àlà:fíyà
                                                           id
                          Arabic
                                              العافية Pal-Sa:fiya(tu)
                                              "(the) wellness"
àrazàka
             "riches"
                                              arzìkii
                          Hausa
                                                           id
                          Mooré
                                              àrzέká
                                                           id
                          Kikara Songhay
                                              ?árzúkù
                                                           "good luck"
                          Arabic
                                              (ar-rizq(u الرزق
                                              "(the) livelihood"
                                    cf plural ارزاق Parza:q(un)
Tàláatà+
             "Tuesday"
                                              Tàlaatàa
                          Hausa
                          Arabic
                                              ?aθ-θala:θa:?(i) الثلاثاء
```

àrazánà†	"heaven"	Hausa Mooré Kikara Songhay Arabic	àljannàa àrzấnà Pàljánnà الجنة Pal-janr "(the) garde	"heaven, paradise" id id na(tu) n, paradise"
yàddā ^{+/} yàdā WK	"assent"	Hausa Gao Songhay Kikara Songhay probably Arabic	•	(verb) "consent" id id 3sg m ipfv of b) "be satisfied"

It is likely that Arabic words have mostly entered Kusaal via Hausa. Usually this is impossible to prove or disprove, but in some cases the Kusaal forms clearly resemble Mooré rather than Hausa; Arabic words have reached Mooré from several West African languages widely used by Muslims, including Dyula and the Songhay languages beside Hausa.

Thus màliākal "angel" (always malek in NT versions prior to 2016) is derived from the Arabic كلاك malʔak(un). The vocalism suggests transmission via Mooré màlékà and Toende màlék; the word is usually found in Christian materials, which would be consistent with this pathway (see below.) The forms clearly do not match Hausa màlaa'ikàa, which is from the Arabic plural مراكة mala:ʔika(tu). A similar case in the realm of religion is Sūtáanà+ "Satan", matching Mooré Sutãana rather than Hausa shàidân, which is a learned borrowing of the Arabic شيطان [aytra:n(u)].

Loanwords from **Songhay** languages, probably via Mooré, include <code>bòrkìna</code> "honest person", Mooré <code>bùrkĩná</code> "free, noble" (as in "Burkina Faso"), Dagbani <code>bilchina</code> "free, not slave", Yoruba <code>bòrkìnní</code> "gentleman"; cf Kikara Songhay <code>bòrkin</code> "noble (caste.)" The word <code>bàunv</code> is used only in <code>kpɛň'</code> <code>bàunv</code> "get circumcised" (<code>kpɛň'+" language l</code>

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. Kusaal speakers themselves very often ascribe forms which are not part of their own usage to **Mooré** influence.

One word revealed as a loan by its phonology is $W(nn\grave{a}'am^m)$ (WK) $W(n\grave{a}'am^m)$ (always Wina'am NT/KB) "God." It is common in Christian materials; the Creator of traditional religion often appears simply as $W\bar{\iota} n^{n\epsilon/}$ in proverbs etc. $W(nn\grave{a}'am)$ looks analysable as a compound of $W\bar{\iota} n^{n\epsilon/}$ "god" and the stem of $n\grave{a}'ab^a$ "chief" or $n\bar{a}'am^m$ "chieftaincy", but the tones should then have been * $W\bar{\iota} n$ - $n\acute{a}'am$, and the prevalence of the form $W(n\grave{a}'am)$ with single -n- likewise shows that the form is not in fact a

synchronic compound in Agolle Kusaal. The earliest Christian missionary work among the Kusaasi began in Haute Volta (now Burkina Faso), using Mooré materials, but direct borrowing of the corresponding Mooré word *Wennaam* would not account for the glottalised -a'a-; most likely the immediate source of the loan is the **Toende Kusaal** of Haute Volta. Niggli's materials have *Winā'am*, with a tonal fall like the Agolle *Winā'am*, and always with single *n*: Niggli records consonant gemination in Toende only before the affix vowels of Long Forms.

The word *faangid* "saviour" in the NT/KB is read [fã:gʲɪd] by my informants; preservation of g in this position <u>6.3.1</u> is almost completely isolated within Agolle Kusaal; apart from the corresponding gerund *faangir* "salvation", the only other case in my data is the gerund $z\bar{r} \ni g^a$ of $z\bar{r} \models g^a$ "be standing" used by DK KT instead of KED $z\bar{r} = g^a + g^a$

As with $W(n\grave{a}'am, faangid)$ is probably a loan, either from Mooré $f\~aagd\~a$ "sauveur", or from Toende Kusaal, where loss of *g is consistent word-finally after all long vowels ($b\~i$ "child" = $b\~i ig^a$, $b\~v\~v$ "goat" = $b\~v vg^a$), but optional elsewhere, with variation between speakers (Niggli, "La phonologie du kusaal"):

```
páa "arriver" (Agolle pāe<sup>+</sup> "reach")
Õ bv paage. "Il n'est pas arrivé." (Agolle Ò pō pāée.)
```

Niggli's dictionary has both *fãagıt* and *fãat* for "sauveur", with *fãat* also glossed as "voleur, brigand."

A more everyday example is WK's $k\bar{\imath}ib\dot{o}^+$ cb $k\bar{\imath}ib$ - "soap." Written sources have ki'ib, probably $k\bar{\imath}'\iota b^{3/}$ = Toende $k\ell'\iota p$. The length and quality of the vowels clearly identify the source as **Mampruli** kyiibu: contrast Farefare $k\ell'\ell b\dot{o}$, Dagbani chibo.

Other words with singulars ending in $-\iota^+$ or $-\upsilon^+$ 9.6 like $k\bar{a}b\iota r\dot{\iota}^+$ "permission for entry" and $s\bar{u}g\upsilon r\dot{\upsilon}^+$ "forbearance" may similarly have originated as loans from other Western Oti-Volta languages.

I have identified few loans from **Twi/Fante** ("Akan"), the major lingua franca of southern Ghana; in part, this surely 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

```
k\bar{\jmath}d\acute{\upsilon}^+ "banana" \leftarrow kwadu s\bar{a}af\iota^+(?tones) "lock, key" \leftarrow saf\~e "key" (\leftarrow Portuguese chave) b\bar{\nu}r\iota\gamma\acute{a}^+ "Christmas" \leftarrow bronya (itself of unclear origin)
```

A few loans from **English** are found. English differs even more than Hausa from Kusaal in phonological structure, and loanwords which are sufficiently naturalised that they are used by speakers unfamiliar with English have often undergone considerable changes:

àlópìr ^ɛ	"aeroplane"	? back-formation from [alɔpɪ[ɪn]
		taken as locative $\partial \partial p i r \bar{\iota} - n^{\epsilon l}$
du̞'átà+	"doctor"	(cf Dagbani <i>dɔ́γtέ id</i>)
tóklàe ⁺	"torch"	← "torchlight"
lór [€]	"car, lorry"	(often borrowed even in
		Francophone Africa: cf Kabiyè
		lɔɔríyε, Mooré lórè)

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: $l\acute{o}y\grave{a}$ "cars", not * $l\~{o}y\acute{a}$ 9.7.

Several loanwords of English origin have probably been transmitted via Hausa:

kátù+	"court"	Hausa <i>kootù</i>	
sóg <u>i</u> à ^a	"soldier"	Hausa <i>soojà</i>	
tέεbὺl ^ε	"table"	Hausa <i>teebùr</i>	
wādá ⁺	"law"	Hausa <i>oodà</i> (← English "order")	
		sg <i>wādır^{€/}</i> cb <i>wād-</i>	
		created by back-formation	

A clear **French** loan in Agolle Kusaal is $l\grave{a}mp5$ (i.e. l'impôt) "tax", as in $l\grave{a}mp5$ - $di'\grave{a}s^a$ "tax gatherer." This word is widespread in northern Ghana (Dagbani lampoo), reflecting extensive French influence in the region prior to the British annexation. Another word probably derived from French is $k\grave{a}s\bar{\epsilon}t^{al}$ "witness, testimony", Mooré $k\grave{a}s\acute{\epsilon}t\grave{o}$ "testimony, proof", as in $k\grave{a}s\acute{\epsilon}t$ sé $br\grave{e}$ "receipt" ("evidence writing.") The ultimate origin is probably French cachet in the sense "seal (of authenticity)", with the Mooré -t- perhaps introduced from the corresponding French verb: il $cach\grave{e}te$ "he seals." Mooré $k\grave{a}s\acute{\epsilon}t\grave{o}$ and Farefare $k\grave{a}s\acute{\epsilon}t\grave{o}$ have only the abstract sense "testimony"; the adaptation as a $a|b^a$ class human-reference noun "witness" seems to be a Kusaal innovation (Agolle and Toende) enabled by the dropping of the final vowel.

There are naturally many more French loans in the Toende Kusaal of Burkina Faso (Niggli 2014.)

224 Syntax

Syntax

16 Noun phrases

16.1 Overview

A nominal phrase may be either a noun phrase (NP) or an adverbial phrase (AdvP $\frac{17}{1}$.) A noun phrase has a noun, pronoun or quantifier as head. If present, the **article** $l\bar{a}^{+/}$ occurs last in a NP $\frac{16.5}{1}$. (For the sole exception, see $\frac{20.7}{1}$.)

Dependent nominal phrases may precede the head, possibly recursively, as **predeterminers**. The meaning depends on the nature of the head: some words have specialised rôles as NP heads <u>16.10.3.1</u>; with quantifier or pronoun heads the sense is **partitive**; predeterminers of gerunds and similar nouns are subjects; predeterminers of all other heads are **possessors** <u>16.10.3</u>.

A nominal phrase may be a relative clause <u>28.2</u>. No dependents may occur with a relative clause apart from the article or a predeterminer. Nominal phrases may be formed by **coordination** <u>16.7</u> or by **apposition** <u>16.8</u>.

As is characteristic of Oti-Volta, **compounding** 16.9 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 16.9. Adjectives and postdeterminer pronouns regularly compound with the preceding head; accordingly the combining form is a regular part of the noun paradigm. Combining forms also function as **premodifiers**, particularly before deverbal nouns in the rôle of arguments.

Uncombined NPs of various kinds also appear within NPs as premodifiers, and uncombined quantifier and adverbial phrases may follow heads as postdeterminers.

Personal pronouns accept only postdeterminer pronouns as dependents.

16.2 Noun phrase categories

16.2.1 Number

Number is a category only of nouns, pronouns and quantifiers. Agreement is confined to pronouns. Verbal predicators show no agreement with any argument (on plural-subject imperatives see $\underline{25.2.3}$.) However, in compounds of noun + adjective and noun + postdeterminer pronoun, it is the dependent which inflects to show the number of the head noun cb $\underline{16.11.1}$.

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:

zɔ̄ɔgɔ	zōɔs ^ɛ		"race"
bū'esύg ^ο	bū'esá ⁺	bū'es-	"question"
zàaňsúŋ ^ɔ	zàaňsímà ⁺	zàaňsúŋ-	"dream"

Some abstract count nouns are formally plural but construed as singular 9.5

```
dì'əma^+ "festival" p\dot{a} "word, language" t\bar{\epsilon} "thought"
```

Cf tēň'ɛsá yīnní "one thought" (Acts 4:32).

Typical underived mass nouns belong to the b° and m^{m} noun classes, which do not have paired sg/pl suffixes, but some are formally plural, and gerunds of 3-mora stem verbs regularly show sg r^{ε} or g° suffixes 12.1.1.1.

The count/mass distinction is significant in the choice of quantifiers $\underline{16.4.1}$ and when plurals are formed with $n\grave{a}m^a$ $\underline{9.4}$, and it affects the meaning of constructions with preceding NPs as dependents $\underline{16.10}$.

Mass nouns can be used in count senses (as in English): *dāam nám* "beers." Count nouns can be used in mass senses, where number distinctions are irrelevant 16.10.2.2:

```
fūug dɔ́ɔ̀g"tent" (cloth hut): fūug "item of clothing, shirt"dàad bún-nám"wooden things": dàad "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 17.4:

```
\dot{M} k \in n \bar{b} = 0 "I went on foot." SB

1SG go leg:PL. WK corrected to \dot{M} k \in n \bar{b} = 0 (n \bar{b} = 0) with")
```

16.2.2 **Gender**

Gender is marked only in pronouns. It is natural, distinguishing **animate** from **inanimate**. Not only human beings, but also supernatural beings, "fairies" and the like have "animate" gender. Without a context, my informants all rejected

```
*\dot{O} à n\bar{\varepsilon} náaf. attempted "It is a cow."
```

Nevertheless, the Bible versions and other written materials often do use the animate pronouns for higher animals:

Bung va'a bood ve o lubuf, fu po nyeti o tubaa.

```
yá' bòɔd yέ ò lūbύ f,
Bùn
Donkey:sg if want that 3AN throw.off 2SG.OB,
           ňyētí ο tùbāa +ø.
fù pō
2SG NEG.IND See:IPFV 3AN 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.")
Ka wief ya'a sigi li ni, li zulun na paae o salibir.
Kà wìəf
             yá' sīgí
                         Ιì
                              nī. Iì
                                        zùlvn ná pāe ò sàlıbır.
And horse:sg if descend 3INAN LOC, 3INAN depth IRR reach 3AN bridle:sg.
"If a horse goes down in it, its depth will reach its bridle." (Rev 14:20)
```

In stories where animals speak, they are naturally assigned animate gender. Trees, which are animate in the traditional Kusaasi world view, may also have animate gender:

```
Tiig wela bigisid on a si'em.

Tìig wélà bìgisid ón àň sī'əm.

Tree:sg fruit:PL show:IPFV 3AN:NZ 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 inanimate:

```
Tiig wela bigisid lin a tisi'a.

Titg wélà bigisid lín àň tí-sīa.

Tree:sg fruit:pl show:IMPF 3INAN:NZ COP tree-INDF.INAN.

"The fruit of the tree shows what tree it is." (Mt 12:33, 1996)
```

Babies may be counted as animate or inanimate gender:

```
\grave{O}/\grave{L}\grave{\iota} à n\bar{\varepsilon} b\acute{\iota}-l\bar{\iota}a. "He/she/it is a baby." 
3AN/3INAN COP FOC child-baby:SG.
```

When body parts are metaphorically represented as having opinions in this New Testament passage, they have animate gender:

Nobir ya'a yelin ye, on pu a nu'ug la zug, o ka' ningbin nii, lin ku nyanin keen ka o ka' ningbin nii.

```
Nóbìr vá' vèlī-n vē, ón
                                   áň nú'ùg
                                               lā zúg,
                           ρō
Leg:sg if say-dp that 3AN:NZ NEG.IND COP hand:SG ART upon,
ò kā'
          nín-gbīŋ
                       níι +ø, līn
                                        kύ
                                               ňyāηι-n
3AN NEG.BE body-skin:sg loc neg, dem.inan neg.irr accomplish-dp cat
                kā'
                                    níι +ø.
kēε-n
         kà ò
                       nín-gbīŋ
```

cause-dp and 3AN 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.)

The relevant distinction is thus whether the referent is being regarded as a potential thinking agent or "person"; if a first or second person pronoun could in principle apply, the gender is "animate."

At some points the language makes a clear distinction specifically between human and non-human. It is this distinction which is useful for predicting noun class membership on the basis of a SF 9.1, reflecting the fact that the $a \mid b^a$ class has exclusively human reference. Only human-reference nouns can be used as modifiers after a head cb like adjectives 16.11.1.5; probably only human-reference heads can be used with appositional relative clauses 28.2.4. Cf also $n\bar{l}n$ - (human) and $b\bar{v}n$ - (nonhuman) as "dummy" cbs with following adjectives 16.10.3.1.

There has been a change over the past decades in the alignment of gender and number. The current system distinguishes animate/inanimate in the singular with no gender distinction in the plural. In older sources like the 1976 NT, inanimate pronoun forms used as heads, like demonstrative $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{1+}$, are used indifferently for sg or pl, occasionally with nàma plurals to avoid ambiguity. However, even the 1976 NT always uses the animate plurals $b \grave{a} m m \bar{a}^{+/} b \grave{a} n^{\epsilon} s \bar{i} = b a^{+}$ of the dependent pronouns for inanimate, and my informants use the animate plural forms of all pronouns freely for both genders both as dependents and heads:

```
"They are stones."
Bà à
       nē kūgá.
3PL COP FOC stone:PL.
```

In my informants' unselfconscious utterances there seem to be signs of gender distinctions breaking down altogether:

```
Nīf-káŋā,
               ōп
                         sáň'àm nē.
Eye-dem.dei.sg, 3an.cntr spoil
"This eye, it's spoilt." KT
```

```
\dot{M} p\bar{v} ny\bar{\varepsilon}\cdot\dot{o}-o +\emptyset. "I can't find it [a stethoscope]" (Overheard) 1SG NEG.IND See-3AN.OB NEG. sāluma lá'àd n\dot{\varepsilon} ò b\bar{v}tus "gold stuff and (gold) cups" WK gold item:PL with 3AN cup:PL
```

Speakers correct the gender to inanimate if their attention is drawn it.

The dummy subject pronoun "it" is always l, never \dot{o} .

The inanimate sg pronoun subject li is not changed to animate o to agree with an animate complement of $\grave{a}e\check{n}^a$ "be something":

```
Li ans Zugsəb la. "It is the Lord." (Jn 21:7)

Lì à n\bar{\varepsilon} Zūg-sə́b lā.

3INAN COP FOC head-one:SG ART.
```

16.2.3 Person

Person is a category confined to personal pronouns. The verbal predicator shows no agreement with any argument (on plural commands see <u>25.2.3</u>.) 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 yá' bɔɔd yɛ́ ò lūbʊ́ f,

Donkey:sg if want that 3AN throw.off 2sg.ob,

fv pv ňyētí ò tvbāa +ø.

2sg neg.ind see:ipfv 3AN 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 súŋàa +ø?

3PL pay:IPFV 2SG.OB good:ADV PQ?

"Are you well paid?" "Do they [never mentioned] pay you well?" SB
```

This construction has become grammaticalised so far that in VP chaining, the object can be construed as the grammatical subject 23.1, e.g.

```
Diib wusa nari ba di. "All foods may be eaten." (Rom 14:20)
Dītb wūsa nárì ø bà dí.
Food all must cat apl eat.
```

There are formal means of distinguishing different third persons by the use of pronoun ellipsis <u>24.1.5.2</u> and logophoric use of the free pronouns <u>26.3.2</u>.

16.3 Pronouns

16.3.1 Personal

		<u>Proclitic</u>	<u>Enclitic</u>	<u>Free</u>	<u>Subject+'n</u>
Sg	1st	m̀	m ^a	mān SF mánε̄ LF	mán
	2nd	fὺ	f	fῦn SF fúnε̄ LF	fún
	3rd an	<u>၀</u> ဲ ⁸ [ၓ]	o [ʊ]	5n ^ε	ón
	3rd inan	lì or dì	h+	$l\bar{\iota}n^{\epsilon}$ or $d\bar{\iota}n^{\epsilon}$	lín or dín
Pl	1st	tì	tı ⁺	tīnám ^{a 9}	tīnámì_ ø
	2nd	yà	ya ⁺	yānám ^a	yānámì_ ø
	3rd	bà	ba ⁺	bān ^ε	bán

"an" = animate, "inan" = inanimate: on gender see 16.2.2.

The alternate form $m\bar{a}m$ also occurs for 1st sg in any rôle. The clitics are liaison words 8.2. They are always non-contrastive. The proclitics are subjects and NP/AdvP predeterminers, and the enclitics are objects. The " $+\dot{n}$ " forms are used as subjects in \dot{n} -clauses 28. The 2pl subject has an enclitic form ya used *after* imperatives 25.2.3 with the allomorph $-n\dot{\iota}$ - before liaison 8.2.1.2.

For the realisation of 3sg animate o see <u>8.2.1.1</u>. My informants only have *I*-forms for 3sg inanimate; for bound objects, no *d*-forms are extant.

Free forms may be used for cbs before relative pronouns 28.2.3:

```
Fun kane buoli fu meŋ ... "You who call yourself ... (Rom 2:17)
Fūn-kánì bùəlı fù mēŋ ...

25G-REL.SG call 25G self ...
```

Number is sg/pl; Kusaal has no honorific usages of plural for singular like Mooré. For the interaction of number and gender see <u>16.2.2</u>.

⁸⁾ Toende Kusaal has \tilde{v} . The original form was probably $*\widehat{gmv}$, with later $*\widehat{gm} \to *g$ before the rounded vowel. Cf also the Dagbani free pronoun $guna = \text{Kusaal } \bar{\jmath}n^{\epsilon}$.

⁹⁾ Toende has 1pl tvn 2pl nam for the free pronouns; the nam component of the Agolle forms is presumably the element seen in the pluraliser nam^a 9.4.

16.3.2 Demonstrative

Some forms of the demonstrative pronouns are limited to usage either as NP heads or as postdeterminer pronouns, while other forms may appear in both uses.

Head or postdeterminer pronoun:

	Animate sg	<u>Inanimate s</u>	g	<u>Plural</u>
Long	ວ້ŋā+/	lìnā+/	far	bàmmā+/
Short	òn ^ε	lìn ^ε	far	bàn ^ɛ

Head only:

Long $n\bar{\epsilon}' \eta \acute{a}^+$ near

Short $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{-+}$ near $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{-}$ -nám^a NT

Postdeterminer pronoun only:

Long $k \dot{a} \eta \bar{a}^{+/}$ $k \dot{a} \eta \bar{a}^{+/}$ Short $k \dot{a} \eta \bar{a}^{\epsilon}$ $k \dot{a} \eta \bar{a}^{\epsilon}$

Note the tone difference in the short series from the free 3rd person pronouns. The postdeterminer-only series is based on an obsolete $g^a|s^{\epsilon}$ class pronoun $k\dot{a}$, parallel to $l\dot{l}$, originally $r^{\epsilon}|a^+$ class. My informants use these forms for animate reference as well as inanimate, but NT prefers $\partial\eta\bar{a}^{+/}\partial\eta^{\epsilon}$.

Postdeterminer pronouns follow a noun cb. Some speakers allow sg and pl noun forms, but these probably have the tones of combining forms 16.8. After quantifiers (other than $\grave{a}d\grave{a}k\acute{o}\check{n}$), which lack cbs, $k\grave{a}n^\epsilon$ $k\grave{a}n\bar{a}^{+/}$ do not occur, but $k\grave{a}n^\epsilon$ may follow a free pronoun doing duty for a cb 16.3.1.

Examples after nouns:

```
du'átà lā lór-kàŋā "this car of the doctor's"
```

bù-kàṇā lā "that goat"

After a quantifier:

bèdvgō línā "this multitude"

After a free pronoun form used as a cb:

fūn-kánì bùel ... "you who call ..."

Postdeterminer pronouns follow any adjectives:

```
nō-píàl-kànā "this white hen"
```

The "short" series are used for referents not in view, as interrogatives in the sense "which?" and (much the most commonly) as the basis of **relative pronouns** 28.2.3. The demonstratives do not distinguish near and far except with sg inanimate heads; "that" can be specified by following the demonstrative with $l\bar{a}^{+/}$ and "this" by a following $n\bar{w}a^+$ (cf French gaci.) This use of $l\bar{a}^{+/}$ as deictic rather than article is enabled by the fact that demonstratives automatically make the NP definite 16.5.

dàu-kànā sáàm"this/that man's father"dàu-kàn sáàm"that (not visible) man's father"dàu-kànā lā sáàm"that man's father"dàu-kànā ňwá sáàm"this man's father"tèn-kàn lā ná'àb"the king of that country" (from a story)sān-kán lā"at that time"

16.3.3 Indefinite

	<u>Animate sg</u>	<u>Inanimate sg</u>	<u>Plural</u>
Head or postdeterminer	s5'+	sī əl ^a	sīəba+
Postdeterminer only	sī a+	sī'a ⁺	

Note that the vowel is *not* glottalised in the plural. For NT WK, but not KT, $s\vec{l}a^+$ is much commoner than $s\vec{l}a^-$ used as a postdeterminer. WK feels that for people $s\vec{l}a^+$ is pejorative; NT occasionally has $s\vec{l}a^+$ for inanimate: $t\hat{l}a^-$ a certain land." For indefinite pronouns in relative clauses see 28.2.2.

The sense is "some, someone, something", "a certain", indefinite but *specific*:

```
yà bì-sɔ̄' "a certain child of yours"

2PL child-INDF.AN
```

The meaning is often contrastive, "another, a different" (compare Hausa *wani*, which has very similar usage in general to this pronoun, Jaggar p314, Caron pp102ff):

```
ka man ti ye m sig la, ka sɔ' pvn dɛŋi sig sa.

kà mán tì yé m̀ sīg lā,

and 1sg:nz afterward say 1sg descend art,

kà sɔ̄' pvn dɛ̀ŋı ø sīg sá.

and INDF.AN already before cat descend thither.

"when I'm then about to go down, someone else goes down first." (Jn 5:7)
```

```
Mεεri onε an Magdalen nε Mεεri sɔ'
      Meeri źnì
                  àň Magdalen nē Meeri sɔ̄'
      Mary Rel.an cop Magdalen with Mary INDF.AN
      "Mary who was Magdalen and another Mary" (Mt 28:1)
      Winnig mor o men venlim, ka nwadig me mor venlim si'a.
      Wìnnig mór ò mēn véňllìm kà ňwādig mé mōr véňllìm-sī a.
      Sun:sg have 3AN self beauty and moon:sg also have beauty-INDF.INAN.
      "The sun has its own beauty and the moon, too, has another beauty."
      (1 Cor 15:41)
      M ná tī f tí-sī a.
      1SG IRR give 2SG.OB medicine-INDF.INAN.
      "I'll give you a different medicine." WK
      The indefinite pronouns can be used to introduce new information:
                  dāa bέ ...
                                     "There was a certain man ..."
      Dàu-sɔ̄'
      Man-INDF.AN TNS EXIST ...
but this is likely to mean "There was another man ..."; it is commoner just to use an
indefinite NP 16.5 30.4:
                                     "Once there was a man ..."
      Dāu
             dāa bέ ...
      Man:sg tns exist ...
      Sɔ̄'/sr̄'əl mέ-kàma means "anyone, anything, everyone, everything":
      O ninid si'el mεkama su'una.
                         mέ-kàma
      Ò nìntd sī'əl
                                        sύnā.
      3AN do: IPFV INDF. INAN also-whatever good: ADV.
      "He does everything well." (Mk 7:37)
      In negative clauses the indefinites mean "(not) ... anything", "(not) ... anybody":
      Ka so' kudin ku len nyee li ya'asa.
                 kūdım kú
                               lēm ňyέε lī
      Kà sɔ̄'
                                                   vá'asā +ø.
      And INDF.AN ever NEG.IRR again see
                                            3INAN.OB again NEG.
      "Nobody will ever see it again." (Rev 18:21, 1996)
```

```
S\bar{\mathfrak{I}} k\bar{\mathfrak{a}} e +\emptyset. "There's nobody there." 

INDF.AN NEG.BE NEG.

\mathring{M} p\bar{v} y\acute{e} s\ddot{r} \partial a "I didn't say anything." 

1SG NEG.IND say INDF.INAN NEG.
```

16.3.4 Interrogative

```
Animate Inanimate \dot{a}n\dot{b}\dot{b}^{\dagger} "who?" \dot{b}\dot{b}^{\dagger} "what?"
```

Plurals with $n \grave{a} m^a$ may be used if a specifically plural answer is being sought. The initial \grave{a} - of $\grave{a} n \acute{b} i$ is fixed-L and behaves like the manner-adverb prefix with regard to liaison 8.2.2:

```
... keŋ tisi anɔ'ɔnɛ? "to go to whom?" (1 Samuel 6:20) ... kēŋ ø tísì ànɔʻɔnè +ø? ... go cat give who co?
```

16.3.5 Reciprocal

 $T\bar{a}aba^+$ "one another" appears as $t\bar{a}ab$ clause-medially for some speakers. It occurs also as an adjective meaning "fellow-": \dot{o} $t\dot{v}m$ - $t\dot{v}m$ - $t\bar{a}aba$ "his fellow-workers"; the stem also appears in the bound noun - $t\bar{a}a$ = used after imperfective gerunds 13.1.1.4, and with noun prefixes in $n\dot{n}$ - $t\bar{a}a$ = "co-wife" and $d\dot{a}t\bar{a}a$ = "enemy."

Examples of the pronoun use:

```
Sòŋɪmī ø tāaba. "Help one another."

Help:IMP 2PL.SUB each.other.

Tì yúùg nē tāaba. "It's been a long time." KT

1PL delay with each.other.

Bà dòl nē tāaba. "They went together." (dɔ̄la/ "accompany")

3PL follow with each.other.
```

16.4 Quantifiers

16.4.1 Overview

Formally, quantifiers resemble noun sg or pl forms, frequently with apocopeblocking <u>6.4</u>; most number words <u>16.4.2</u> are also preceded by number prefixes <u>14.3</u>.

Quantifiers can be classified as **count** or **mass** 16.2.1, 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:

```
nīdıb bédvgū "a lot of people"
nīdıb bábıgā "many people"
kù'əm bédvgū "a lot of water"
not *kù'əm bábıgā *"many water"
```

Mass quantifiers are

```
b\grave{\epsilon}d\upsilon g\bar{\upsilon}^{+/} "a lot" p\bar{a}mm SF "a lot" (LF p\bar{a}mn\acute{\epsilon} <u>6.4</u>)

f\bar{l}i\check{n}^{=} "a little (liquid)" b\bar{l}^{-}\partial l\acute{a}^{+} "a little"

w\bar{\upsilon}\upsilon^{=} "all" "all"
```

Count quantifiers include the number words, and also

```
b\grave{a}big\bar{a}^{+/} "many" k\grave{a}lig\bar{a}^{+/} "few" f\bar{a}a\check{n}^{=} "every" z\bar{a}\check{n}'a^{=} "every" k\grave{a}m^a "every"
```

Kàma "every" occurs by itself as a quantifier and also before others:

```
s\bar{a}\eta\dot{a} k\dot{a}m = s\bar{a}\eta\dot{a} k\dot{a}m z\bar{a}\ddot{n}'a "all the time"
```

Quantifiers appear typically as postdeterminers in NPs <u>16.11.2.2</u>, but like pronouns they may also be heads of NPs, naturally manifesting the category of number:

```
Pāmm ké nā.

Bèdvgū ké nā.

Bèdvgū lā ké nā.

"The crowd came"

Àyí ké nā.

"Two came."

The two came."
```

Quantifier heads pluralise with nàma:

```
màliāk-nám túsà pīiga 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."
```

Quantifier heads may be followed by postdeterminer 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 yế tì ňyē dīīb yáa
                             ňwá
And 3PL say 3PL find food where Loc grass:sg-Loc this
ø diis nīdib
                 bέdυgῦ bámā
                                 ňwá +ø?
CAT feed person:PL many DEM.DEI.PL this CQ?
"Where are we going to find food in this wilderness to feed this crowd of
people?" (Mt 15:33, 1996: KB nimbama nwa wusa "all these people")
nīdıb
         bέdυgῦ bánì kē
                                  Ιā
                            nā
person:PL much REL.PL come hither ART
"the crowd of people who have come"
```

All cases where quantifiers are followed by postdeterminer pronouns are probably quantifier-headed phrases, not NPs with quantifiers as dependents.

As with pronoun heads of NPs, there is a contrast between a phrase with a quantifier head and a NP with a quantifier as a dependent <u>16.11.2.2</u>, and the latter construction is **partitive** <u>16.10.3</u>.

16.4.2 Number words

The basic number words are quantifiers, but there are associated forms used as adverbs; for "one", there are also forms meaning "first" and "only."

The quantified noun is normally plural, except with $y\bar{\imath}nni^+$, but may be singular with units of measure:

```
yɔ̄lvgá àtáň' "¢600 [cedis]" (yar{z}) "sack" for £100/¢200; Hausa jàkaa.)
```

16.4.2.1 Quantifiers

The numbers in their core rôle as quantifiers take the forms

1	yīnní ⁺	10	pīiga ⁺	100	kɔ̀bɪgā=
2	àyí ⁺	20	<i>pīsí</i> + [pʰisi]	200	<i>k</i> ὸ <i>bιsí</i> ⁺ [kʰɔbɪsi]
3	àtáň' ⁺	30	pīs táň' ⁺	300	kòbıs táň' ⁺
4	ànāasí+	40	pīs nāasí+	400	kòbıs nāasí+
5	ànū+	50	pīs nū+	500	kòbıs nū+
6	àyúebù ⁺	60	pīs yúebù ⁺	600	kòbιs yúθbὺ ⁺
7	àyópòẹ+	70	pīs yópòe+	700	kàbıs yápàe ⁺
8	àníi ⁼	80	pīs níi ⁼	800	kòbıs níi=
9	àwāe+	90	pīs wāe+	900	kàbıs wāe+

The forms for 1, 4, 6, 8, 10, and 100 show apocope-blocking <u>6.4</u>; the forms for 20 and 200 are not apocope-blocked but are combinations with the stem of $\grave{a}y\acute{t}^+$.

 $k \grave{>} b \iota g \bar{a}^{=}$ has LF like the SF, not * $k \grave{>} b \iota g \acute{a} a$, contrary to the usual rule for forms with apocope-blocking.

"Thousand" is a regular $r^{\epsilon}|a^{+}$ class noun, $t\bar{u}sir^{\epsilon/}$: $t\bar{u}s\acute{a}$ $\grave{a}t\acute{a}n'$ "3000." "Half" is $p\bar{v}-s\acute{v}k^{a}$ pl $p\bar{v}-s\acute{v}g\grave{v}s^{\epsilon}$. Other numbers are formed with $n\bar{\epsilon}$ "with, and":

kòbis táň' nē pīs yúobò nē nū "three hundred and sixty-five"

11 to 19 have the special contracted forms

```
pīi nē yīnní, pīi nē yí, pīi nē táň' ... pīi nē wāe (or pīi nā yīnní, pīi nā yí ...)
```

The clitic \dot{a} - is omitted after $n\bar{\varepsilon}$ "with", and sometimes also after focus $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$:

Lì à nē nāasí. / Lì à né ànāasí. "They're four."

The forms $\partial y i \eta \bar{a}^{+/} \partial t a \eta \bar{a}^{+/}$ mean "two, three exactly." If I have four children

M mór bīisá àtáň'."I have three children."15G have child:PL NUM:three.is true, though misleading

but *M mór bīisá àtáṇā*. "I have exactly three children." is false.

These forms can also be used after $n\bar{\varepsilon}$ "and", as in $p\bar{i}i$ $n\bar{\varepsilon}$ $yin\bar{a}$ "twelve exactly." They are exceptional in not permitting focus with the particle $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ 30.1.2.1.3. $Y\bar{\iota}nn(\bar{\iota}^+)$ can also be construed with a preceding noun cb:

```
k\bar{u}g-y(nn)^+ "one stone" (L spreading 8.4)
cf k\bar{u}gvr\ y\bar{\iota}nn(^+ "one stone" (no L spreading)
```

In Dagbani both "one" and "ten" can be used after a combining form, but Kusaal has only a few isolated forms like *dà-pīiga* "ten days".

After personal pronouns the number prefix is $b\dot{a}$ - instead of \dot{a} - 14.3:

```
tì bàtáň' "we three"
yà bàyópòe "you seven"
bà bàyí "they two"
```

16.4.2.2 Counting forms

1 to 9 have different forms used in counting, lacking apocope-blocking and using the number prefix \dot{n} - instead of \dot{a} - $\frac{14.3}{14.3}$.

1	yēóŋ or àdàkóň'	6	'nyúèb
2	ὴyí	7	ὴρὸ̞ [tone sic]
3	ntán'	8	'nnίi
4	'nnāas	9	'nwāe̯
5	'nnū	conti	nuing <i>pīiga, pīi nε̄ yí</i> as with quantifiers

Àdàkóň' can also be used as a quantifier:

```
bốug àdàk\acute{o}n' "one goat"

Lì k\acute{a}' àdàk\acute{o}n'^{\prime}' ^{\prime} "It's not one."

3INAN NEG.BE NUM: one NEG.
```

The reduplicated adverb form $k\bar{j}\tilde{n}'jk\bar{j}$ is used as a postposition <u>17.6</u>, as in

```
m kɔ̃n'ɔkɔ̄ "by myself"
```

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 twos are four."
```

16.4.2.3 Adjectives and ordinal constructions

yīmmír^ɛ yīmmá⁺ yīm- "single, alone"

e.g. bì-yīmmír "only child"

wāb-yímmìr "solitary elephant"

There are two words meaning "one of a pair": $\check{n}y\grave{a}uk^{\circ}$ pl $\check{n}y\grave{a}'ad^{\varepsilon}$ is only used for eyes, while $y\bar{\iota}u\eta^{\circ}$ pl $y\bar{\iota}n\acute{a}^+$ is used for other normally paired body parts:

nīf-ňyáuk "one eye"

bà-nīf-ňyáuk "one-eyed dog"

tùb-yīun "one ear"

bì-tùb-yīná "one-eared children"

The only ordinal word is

 $d\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon\eta^a$ $d\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon\eta^s$ "first" or $d\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon m\iota s^\epsilon$ or $d\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon na^+$

as in sɔ̄b-dɛ́ɛ̀ŋ "first census" (Lk 2:2, 1976.)

"First" can also be expressed by $y\overline{i}ig\dot{a}^+$ "firstly" as a predeterminer:

line da an yiiga dabisir

līnı g dá àň yīigá dàbısır.

3INAN.CNTR CAT TNS COP firstly day:**SG**.

"That was the first day." (Genesis 1:5)

For other ordinals two constructions occur. One is to use a periphrasis with $p \grave{a} a s^{\epsilon}$ or $p \grave{\epsilon}' \epsilon s^{\epsilon}$ "add up to":

dàu-kànı pè'esa àyí lā

man-rel.sg add.up.to num:two art

"the second man" ("man who has added up to two")

lìnı pàasa àtáň' lā

REL.INAN add.up.to NUM:three ART

"the third one"

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 postdeterminers:

```
àyí dāan lā "the second one" 
bōvgá àtáň' dāan lā "the third goat"
```

Yīigá dāan may be used for "first." In "Kusaal Solima ne Siilima" p35 ordinal forms used in counting "first, second, third ..." appear without apocope-blocking: atan'-daan ... ka anaas-daan ... ka nu-daan ... ka yuob-daan ... ka poi-daan ... ka niidaan ... ka wai-daan ... ka piig-daan, but my informants use the ordinary quantifier forms in this construction.

16.4.2.4 Adverbs

Multiplicatives (answering àbùlá? "how many-fold?") are expressed

```
y\bar{\imath}mm\acute{\upsilon}^+ "straight away, at once" 
àb\grave{\upsilon}y\acute{\iota}^+ "twice" 
àb\grave{\upsilon}t\acute{a}\breve{n}^{\dagger}^+ "three times" 
àb\grave{\upsilon}n\bar{a}as\acute{\iota}^+ "four times"
```

and so on, with the same stems after the prefixes as for the quantifiers, up to

```
bùpīiga+ "ten times"
```

The \grave{a} - of these forms is not the number prefix but the manner-adverb formant, and a LF-final vowel mora before it is - ι not -a; its attachment only to 2-9 is presumably therefore analogical.

Answers to nɔ̄ɔrá àlá "how many times?" have forms of the pattern

This $n\bar{\jmath}$ is not "mouth" (= Mooré $n\acute{o}$ orè) but corresponds to Mooré $n\acute{a}$ oré "times", homophonous with Mooré $n\acute{a}$ oré "leg"; cf Toende Kusaal $n\bar{\jmath}$ = Agolle $n\acute{\jmath}$ "leg". Original open and closed oo fall together when nasalised 4.1.1. For the semantics cf Hausa $s\grave{a}u$ $uk\grave{u}$ "three times" sau "foot(print)." Niggli's dictionary gives Toende $n\acute{\jmath}$ (tone sic) in the sense "fois" and even has $n\jmath ba$ ayi beside $n\jmath$ ayi "ayi" ayi "ayi" ayi "ayi" ayi Agolle ayi" ayi" ayi a

Distributives ("two by two" etc) are reduplicated forms without apocopeblocking; there is no L spreading on the second part except with 10, 100, 1000:

1	yīn yīn	10	pīi píìg	100	kòbıg kóbìg
2	àyí yí	20	pīsí pīsí	200	kàbısí kábısí or kàbıs yí yí
3	àtáň' táň'	30	pīs táň' táň'	300	kòbıs táň' táň'
4	ànāas nāas	40	pīs nāas nāas		etc
5	ànū nū	50	pīs nū nū	1000	tūsır túsìr
6	àyúèb yúèb	60	pīs yúèb yúèb		
7	àyópòe póe	70	pīs yópòe póe		
8	àníi níi	80	pīs níi níi		
9	àwāe wāe	90	pīs wāe wāe		

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 àyɔʻpɔʻe pɔʻe "weekly" ("by sevens of days")
```

16.4.3 Proquantifiers

Quantifiers have corresponding proforms; the \grave{a} - is the *number* prefix, and induces preceding LF-final -a not - ι 8.2.2; contrast proadverbs 17.7.

<u>Demonstrative</u>	<u>Indefinite</u>	<u>Interrogative</u>
àlá ⁺	sī əm ^m	àlá ⁺
"so much/many"	"some amount"	"how much/many?"

16.5 The article $l\bar{a}^{+/}$

The two words $l\bar{a}^{+/}$ and $\check{n}w\grave{a}^+$ presumably originated as corresponding deictics "that" and "this." Although $\check{n}w\grave{a}$ retains this sense, $l\bar{a}^{+/}$ in the great majority of its occurrences is a definite article. It retains a deictic sense, in opposition to $\check{n}w\grave{a}^+$, in the non-verbal predicators $n\ l\bar{a}$, $n\ \check{n}w\grave{a}$ 22 and after demonstratives 16.3.2.

Unlike $l\bar{a}^{+/}$, $\tilde{n}w\dot{a}^{+}$ can stand alone as a NP:

```
\check{N} wà \acute{a} n\bar{\varepsilon} b\bar{i}ig. "This is a child." WK; tones sic. This cop foc child:sg.
```

Both $l\bar{a}^{+/}$ and $\check{n}w\dot{a}^+$ always stand finally in the NP (though this entire phrase may be a predeterminer within another NP) except for the marginal case where a VP-final particle occurs in an \grave{n} -clause, when it may follow the article attached to the clause 20.7.

As the definite article, $l\bar{a}^{+/}$ corresponds in many cases to English "the", marking referents as specific and already established. However, unlike "the", $l\bar{a}^{+/}$ is not typically used for "familiar background", unless there was an explicit prior mention of the referent:

```
Winnig Ii y\bar{a}. "The sun has set." Sun:sg fall PFV.
```

It is not used with pronouns, or with proper names of people or places, which are inherently definite:

```
      mān
      "me"

      À-Wīn
      "Awini"

      Bòk
      "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 premodifiers <u>16.10.2.2</u>):

```
"Love does not come to an end." (1 Cor 13:8)
Nonilim pυ naada.
Nànılím pū
                  nāadá
                              +ø.
Love
         NEG.IND finish: IPFV NEG.
L\bar{a}^{+/} is not used in vocatives:
                                    "Child!"
Bīiga
          +ø!
Child:sg voc!
This contrasts with \check{n}w\grave{a}^+, which is common in vocatives <u>25.2.4</u>:
Bīis ňwá!
                                    "Children!"
                                                          [bi:sa]
```

There is no indefinite article: a NP with no $l\bar{a}^{+/}$ is indefinite if it could have taken $l\bar{a}^{+/}$ 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 $b\bar{l}ig$ "child" in

```
\dot{M} b\bar{i}ig k\bar{a}'e ^+ø. "I've no child" WK 1SG child:SG NEG.BE NEG.
```

and with the complement of àeña "be something" when used ascriptively 21.2:

```
\overset{\circ}{O} \quad \stackrel{\circ}{a} \quad n\bar{\varepsilon} \quad b\bar{\imath}ig.
 "She is a child."
```

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 30.4:

```
Dau da be mori o biribing

Dāu dá bè ø mōrí ò bī-díbìŋ

Man:sg tns exist cat have зan child-boy:sg

"Once there was a man who had a son ..." KSS p35

Anina ka o nyɛ dau ka o yv'vr buon Aneas.

Àníná kà ò ňyē dáu kà ò yō'vr búèn Aneas.

Adv:there and san see man:sg and san 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", $l\bar{a}^{+/}$ is not used with generic reference:

```
Tumtum pu gat o zugdaana.
Tùm-tūm
                סֿמ
                        gát
                                 ò
                                     zūg-dáanā
Work-worker:sg neg.ind pass:iPFV 3AN head-owner:sg neg.
"The servant does not surpass his master." (In 15:20)
Tiig walaa bigisid lin an tisi'a.
       wélàa ø bìgisid lín
Tìıg
                                     àň tí-sī'a.
Tree:sg fruit:pl cat show:ipfv 3inan:nz cop tree-indf.inan.
"It's the fruit of the tree that shows what tree it is." (Mt 12:33)
                                "The Kusaasi say ..." KSS p16
Kusaas ye ...
                                drawing the moral of a story.
```

Generic reference core arguments are incompatible with a VPred with the particle $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ in its temporal sense 30.1.2.1.2.

A possessive predetermining NP ending in $l\bar{a}^{+/}$ makes the following head definite, and the head does not itself take the article:

```
d
u'átà l\bar{a} b\hat{n}g "the doctor's child" not *du'átà l\bar{a} b\hat{n}g l\bar{a}
```

devil out of her child." (Mk 7:25-26)

Wínà'am máljāk

Pronouns and personal names as possessive predeterminers do *not* have this effect; only predeterminers *with the article*, along with demonstrative pronouns, automatically make their NPs definite:

"an angel of God"

```
"the angel of God"
      Wínà'am máljāk lā
                                     "my child" (at first mention)
      m bīig
      m̀ bīig lā
                                     "my child" (previously mentioned)
In
      Pu'a sɔ' da bε mɔr o bipuŋ ka kikirig dɔl o. Ka o wυm Yesu yɛla, ka keŋ
      igin o tuon. Ka səs Yesu ye o kadim kikirig la yis o biig la ni.
                     dá bè jø mór ò bī-púŋ
      Pu'à-sɔ̄'
                                                      kà kìkīrıg dɔll·ó ø.
      Woman-INDF.AN TNS EXIST CAT have 3AN child-girl:sg and fairy:sg follow 3AN.OB.
              wύm Yesu yέlà, kà kēŋ ø ígìn
      And JAN hear Jesus about, and go CAT kneel.down JAN in.front.
      Kà sós Yesu yé ò kàdım
                                         kíkīrıg lā ø yís
                                                                  bīig
      And beg Jesus that 3AN drive.out:IMP fairy:SG ART CAT expel 3AN child:SG ART LOC.
```

the article does not occur in \dot{o} $b\bar{i}$ - $p\acute{v}\eta$ "her daughter" on first introduction, but does occur in \dot{o} $b\bar{i}ig$ $|\bar{a}|$ "her child" after the reference is established. Note the idiom at first introduction of a new possessed referent:

"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

```
Pu'a sɔ' da bɛ mɔr o bipuŋ
Pu'à-sɔ̄' dá bɛ̀ ø mɔ́r ò bī-púŋ
Woman-INDF.AN TNS EXIST CAT have 3AN child-girl:sG
"There was a woman who had a [literally "her"] daughter..." (Mk 7:25)

Dau da be mori o biribing
Dāu dá bɛ̀ ø mɔ̄rí ò bī-díbìŋ
Man:sG TNS EXIST CAT have 3AN child-boy:sG
"Once there was a man who had a son ..." KSS p35
```

```
and \dot{M} bīig kā'e +ø. "I've no child" WK

1SG child:SG NEG.BE NEG.

\dot{M} bīig lā kā'e +ø. "My child's not there" WK

1SG child:SG ART NEG.BE NEG.
```

further demonstrating that pronoun possessors do not automatically entail definiteness of the head. A postposition with a predeterminer with the article does not become referential, can appear as a NP premodifier <u>16.10.2.3</u>, and may function for focus purposes as pragmatically non-recoverable <u>30.1.2.2</u>.

Certain words consistently lack the article after a pronoun possessor even if they are specific old information. This may be a question of uniqueness within a particular context; examples are $b\bar{a}^{!+/}$ and $s\grave{a}am^{ma}$ "father."

The presence of the article itself, not definiteness, causes dropping of the empty particle $n\bar{\epsilon}$ which follows complements of comparisons <u>18.1</u>.

For an unambiguously indefinite specific meaning like "some, another", indefinite pronouns are used <u>16.3.3</u>.

```
N\bar{a}'-síəbà ɔੱnੱbìd n\bar{\epsilon} mɔ̃ɔd.
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 predeterminer with the article:

```
d
u'átà l\bar{a} bí-s\bar{b}' "a child of the doctor's" doctor:sG ART child INDF.AN
```

The number $y\bar{\imath}nn\ell^+$ "one" is sometimes used to introduce a new referent, but remains a number word, and is not bleached to an indefinite article:

```
Farisee dim nid yinne da bε
Farisee dím nìd yīnní dà bὲ ...
Pharisee individual.PL person:sg one TNS EXIST ...
"There was one man of the Pharisees ..." (Jn 3:1)

cf Dapa atan' n da be. "There were once three men." KSS p16
Dāpá àtáň' n dá bὲ.
Man:PL NUM:three CAT TNS EXIST
```

16.6 Personifier clitics

Indigenous Kusaasi personal names are always preceded by the personifier clitics \dot{A} - or \dot{N} -/ \dot{M} -; \dot{A} - is the default, with \dot{N} -/ \dot{M} - appearing before adjective stems. \dot{M} - is found before labial consonants. These are all liaison words. This \dot{A} -, like the manneradverb prefix \dot{a} -, is preceded by word-final - ι , not -a as with the number prefix.

Personal names do not take the article or modifiers, but may take pre-or postdeterminers. \hat{A} -, but not \hat{N} -/ \hat{M} -, are deleted after a predeterminer.

Personal names can pluralise with $n\grave{a}m^a$; such plurals can mean e.g. "more than one person called Awini"; Niggli's Toende Kusaal dictionary also gives the *cum suis* meaning: *Awınnam*: "Awin and his people. *Awinne et consort (les Awinne)*."

 À-Wīn
 "Awini"

 tì Wīn
 "our Awini"

 M Wīn
 "my Awini"

 À-Wīn-káŋā
 "this Awini"

 À-Wīn nám
 "Awinis"

 N-Dāvg
 "Ndago"

 tì N-Dāvg
 "our Ndago"

In speech, A- is used before most 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-Yīisa "Jesus" À-Sīimɔɔ̀n "Simon"

For examples of Kusaasi names see 32.2.

NT has some personifications of abstractions: \grave{A} -Sàn'uŋ "Destruction, Abaddon."

In stories where animals are characters, animal names take \dot{A} -:

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 \grave{a} -d \grave{a} al \acute{u} n \acute{u} 0" "stork" \grave{a} -g \acute{a} \grave{v} n \acute{u} 0" "pied crow" \grave{a} -k \bar{o} ra-d \acute{a} n \acute{u} 0" "praying mantis" and the loanword \grave{a} -m \acute{u} s $^{\epsilon}$ "cat." Thus

```
à-dàalún
                              "a stork"
m/mān
           dáalún
                              "my stork"
1SG/1SG.CNTR stork:SG
                              "the man's stork"
dāu
       Ιā
          dáalún
man:sg art stork:sg
                              "It's a stork"
Lì
     à nέ à-dàalúη.
3INAN COP FOC PERS-stork:SG.
                              "I've seen a stork."
1SG see PERS-stork:SG.
```

The \grave{a} - clitic is not simply elided after a predeterminer but is completely displaced, as shown by the M spreading affecting the stem. \grave{A} - thus behaves syntactically like a predetermining personal pronoun; it is also *phonologically* similar to a clitic pronoun 8.2.2. This may reflect a historical origin in an indefinite third-person pronoun "someone", perhaps related to the Mooré 3sg pronoun $y \check{e} \sim a$.

A further similarity with personal pronouns appears when *verb phrases* are nominalised by the personifier clitic, which then takes the place of a subject pronoun in the sense "someone who ...":

À-wùm

tùba.

```
Atum so'
                               "Siloam" 20.1 (Jn 9:7)
À-tùm
          sō'
                               ("Someone sent someone")
PERS-send INDF.AN
Apυ-kpεn'-baŋυ dim
À-pō
           kpέň' bàuηυ
                               dím
PERS-NEG.IND enter circumcision individual:PL
"the Uncircumcised" (Eph 2:11)
This is common in proverbs and similar set expressions:
À-dāa
        vέl kā'
                     tíımm
                               +ø.
PERS-TNS say NEG.HAVE medicine NEG.
"Did-say has no remedy." (No use crying over spilt milk.)
```

À-ἤγĒ

nē

nīf

sóň'ɔ_

PERS-see with eye:sg be.better.than PERS-hear ear:PL

"Saw-with-eye beats Heard-with-Ears" (Seeing is believing.)

 $A-K\bar{l}dlgl = B\bar{u}$ "Crossed over and asked"

PERS-cross CAT ask (name of the constellation Orion.)

Apozotyel À-Pū-zɔ́t-yɛ̃l "Doesn't-fear-trouble", character in KSS p35.

PERS-NEG.IND-run:IPFV-thing:SG

The expected final LF in this expression, induced by the negative clitic paired with $p\bar{\nu}$, is seen only when the name is clause-final:

Apozotyel da ane o saam biig ma'aa.

À-Pū-zɔ´t-yēl dá à né ò sàam bíig mà'aa.

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

"Fears-nothing was his father's only child." KSS p35

 \dot{A} - can appear as the predeterminer of the subject of an entire clause, with the meaning "someone whose ...":

Bà kèn nế À-nà kóu mì nūa yír, kà bà pō kén $\mathbf{3PL}$ go: \mathbf{IPFV} FOC PERS-IRR kill $\mathbf{1SG}$ chicken: \mathbf{SG} house: \mathbf{SG} and $\mathbf{3PL}$ NEG.IND go: \mathbf{IPFV} À- \mathbf{n} 5 $\mathbf{5}$ 5 bé yírē \mathbf{F} 6.

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 Nɔɔs bɛ́. "There are chickens, chickens exist."]

À-Tìım bódìg yā

PERS-medicine get.lost PFV

Personal name 32.2, literally "Someone's medicine has got lost."

Nominalisations with \dot{a} - can pluralise with $n\dot{a}m^a$:

À-zī' g kpí nàm kpíld né kà téňbìd.

PERS-NEG.KNOW CAT die 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.")

16.7 Coordination

Coordination is characteristically a feature of NPs, but also occurs with AdvPs.

The particles for "or" are $b\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon$ or $k\bar{\nu}\nu$. Here the two are synonymous; the only place where they consistently have different senses is in the formation of polar questions 25.2.2. 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 kūv dāu lā kūv 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 NPs and AdvPs is $n\bar{\varepsilon}$. This $n\bar{\varepsilon}$ is fundamentally the same word as the preposition "with" 18.1; the conjunctions $b\bar{\varepsilon}\varepsilon$ and $k\bar{\upsilon}\upsilon$ can be used in a parallel way. $N\bar{\varepsilon}$ links nominal words and phrases, but no clauses other than (previously nominalised) $n\bar{c}$ -clauses.

Consistent with this analysis, it is not possible to omit coordinating particles in a series of three or more items, or to use $n\bar{\epsilon}$ to join two words with the same referent:

```
À-Wīn né À-Būgur né À-Nà'ab "Awini, Abugri and Anaba"

du'átà nē ná'àb "a doctor and a chief"

(necessarily two different people)
```

Coordination within NPs is restricted.

In compounds, the only possibility is a coordinated head before an adjective:

```
Ka m nyε saŋgbauŋ nε teŋgbaung paal.
Kà m ňyē sáŋ-gbàuŋ- nē téŋ-gbàuŋ-páal
And 1sG see heaven-skin- with earth-skin-new:sG.
"And I saw a new heaven and a new earth." (Rev 21:1)
```

```
but *[b\bar{\epsilon}\eta(d n\bar{\epsilon} k\bar{\imath}] k\dot{u}\dot{e}s not possible for "seller of b\bar{\epsilon}\eta(d n\bar{\epsilon} k\bar{\imath}" (beanleaf-and-millet, a conceptual unity like "fish and chips", "lox and bagels")
```

Coordinated heads may not share a determiner or an article:

```
m ba'abiis nε m saamnama
m bā'-bîis nε m sàam-nàmā +ø

1sG father-child:PL with 1sG father-PL voc
"my siblings and [my] fathers!" (Acts 7:2)
```

```
pự ^{\dagger} ^{\dagger} ^{\dagger} ^{\dagger} ^{\dagger} ^{\dagger} "the woman and the man" woman:sG ART with man:sG ART

Yīigá+ "firstly" ^{\dagger} ^{\dagger} ^{\dagger} ^{\dagger} is a modifier "former", rather than a determiner in yiiga sangbaun nɛ tengbaun nɛ atɛuk yīigá sàŋ-gbàun nɛ tɛŋ-gbàun nɛ tɛŋ-gbàun nɛ àtiuk firstly heaven-skin:sG with earth-skin:sG with sea:sG "the former heaven and earth and sea" (Rev 21:1)
```

Coordinated heads may share a single modifier, as long as it is not a cb:

```
Kūsáàl sɔʻlımà nē síilímà "Kusaasi stories and proverbs"
Kusaal story:PL with proverb:PL
```

 $K\bar{\upsilon}s\dot{a}\dot{a}s$ $k\dot{u}\dot{e}b$ $n\bar{\varepsilon}$ $y\bar{\imath}r$ "Kusaasi agriculture and housing" Kusaasi:**PL** hoeing with house:**sg**

```
s\bar{a}llma\ b\acute{v}tlis\ n\bar{\epsilon}\ d\'{l}is\'{l}is\'{m} "gold cups and spoons" gold cup:PL with spoon:PL ("all of them gold", KT)
```

However, KT WK both agreed that

```
sālıma lá'àd nē būtus
```

must mean "gold goods and [not gold] cups", WK offering the correction

```
sālıma lá'àd nέ ò būtιις "gold goods and (gold) cups" WK gold item:PL with 3AN cup:PL
```

where \grave{o} refers to $s\bar{a}lima$. (See 16.2.2 on the unexpected gender of the pronoun.) The difference from $s\bar{a}lima$ $b\acute{v}t\grave{\iota} is$ $n\bar{\epsilon}$ $d\acute{\iota} is\acute{m} \grave{a}$ (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 $s\bar{a}lima$ $b\acute{v}t\grave{\iota} is$ $n\bar{\epsilon}$ [$s\bar{a}lima$] $d\acute{\iota} is\acute{m} a$ "gold cups and [gold] spoons" (I am grateful to Tony Naden for this suggestion.)

Coordinated dependents are permitted so long as there is no compounding:

```
o nya'andəlib pii n\varepsilon yi "his twelve disciples" (Mt 26:20) ò nya'an-dəllıb pii n\overline{\varepsilon} yí san after-follower:PL ten with two
```

```
dự'átàn\bar{\epsilon}ná'àbl\bar{a}lóyà"Doctor's and the chief's cars"doctor:\mathbf{s}\mathbf{G} with chief:\mathbf{s}\mathbf{G} ART car:\mathbf{P}\mathbf{L}"gold and silver goods"sālıma n\bar{\epsilon}ānzúrıfà lá'àd"gold and silver goods"goldwith silveritem:\mathbf{P}\mathbf{L}
```

The last two examples, like their English translations, are ambiguous; they can, but need not, be taken as representing ellipsis of the first of two repeated heads within a coordination of two parallel dependent + head NPs (cf 24.1.5.1):

```
dự átà (lóyà) nẽ ná ab lā lóyà "[Doctor's cars] and [the chief's cars]"
sālıma (lá ad) nē ānzúrıfà lá ad "[gold goods] and [silver goods]"

cf [dự átà nẽ ná ab lā] lóyà "the cars of [Doctor-and-the-chief]"
[sālıma nē ānzúrıfà] lá ad "[gold-and-silver] goods"
```

Elliptical interpretations are sometimes impossible. As is not possible to coordinate cbs, and $n\bar{\epsilon}$ cannot join NPs with the same reference, this is the case with

"silver- and goldsmith"

```
silver with gold item-maker:sg

*ānzúrɪfà lá'- nē sālɪma lá'-māan (impossible)
ānzúrɪfà lá'-māan nē sālɪma lá'-māan (necessarily two different people)
```

16.8 Apposition

cf

ānzúrıfà nē sālıma lá'-māan

For apposition in locative AdvPs see <u>17.3</u>. Titles and other NPs may precede personal names in apposition:

```
"King Agrippa." (Acts 25:13)

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

Lì pō nār yé fò dí fò bā'-bíig pu'á Herodiase +ø.

3INAN 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, 1996)

... lebis ye, eenn, o zua Asibigi n kabirid.

... ø lèbis yē, Ēɛň, ò zuà À-Sībigi n kābiríd.
```

...cat reply that, Yes, 3AN friend:SG PERS-termite:SG CAT ask.admission:IPFV.
"...replying that, Yes, it was his friend Termite asking for admission." KSS p12

The fact that the personifier clitic \grave{a} - is not omitted in these cases shows that the relationship is not dependent-head $\underline{16.6}$.

Personal pronouns in apposition use free forms 30.5:

```
Man Paul [...] pv'vsidi ya. "I, Paul ... greet you." (2 Thess 3:17)

Mān Paul [...] pύ'vsὶdī yá.

1SG Paul greet:IPFV 2PL.OB.
```

Two compounded noun stems with the same referent seem necessarily to have human reference; this is regarded as adjectival use of the second noun $\underline{16.11.1.5}$. Appositional relative clauses probably must have human reference; again the second element has adjectival function $\underline{28.2.4}$. I have no other examples in NPs where the second component is not a personal name.

Apposition is to be distinguished from cases where a preceding head has no combining form, as with quantifiers, or coordinated structures <u>16.7</u>, or where the cb has the segmental, but not tonal, form of the singular <u>9.2.2</u>. 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:

```
Nonaar Paal for Nonapaal Nɔ̄-ná-pāal "New Testament" Siig Suŋ for Sisuŋ Sì-sòŋ "Holy Spirit"
```

The tonal evidence from similar cases in my informants' speech shows that this reflects segmental remodelling of combining forms, not expansion of the rôle of apposition at the expense of compounding:

```
lànnıg-kàŋā "this squirrel" WK dàp-bàmmā "these men" WK
```

The many examples of *Siig Suŋ* in the <u>1996 NT audio version</u> are likewise clearly read as Siig-sin (or Siig-sin) with M spreading) or Si-sin, not *Siig-sin.

SB showed a much greater tendency to produce segmental sg forms before postdeterminer pronouns and even adjectives than my other informants.

16.9 Compounding

Like other Oti-Volta languages, Kusaal shows abundant productive formation of compound nouns. Kusaal compounds fall into two basic types, depending on whether the combining form is the head or a premodifier. Compounding is the regular construction for head nouns with following adjectives and postdeterminer pronouns 16.11.1 16.11.2.1:

```
b\bar{\upsilon}\upsilon g^{a} "goat" 

b\dot{\upsilon}-p\dot{\imath}əl\iota g^{a} "white goat" 

b\dot{\upsilon}-k\dot{a}\eta\bar{a}^{+/} "this goat" 

b\dot{\upsilon}-p\dot{\imath}əl-k\dot{a}\eta\bar{a}^{+/} "this white goat"
```

It is also the normal construction for a generic concrete noun when preceding a head as a modifier $\underline{16.10.2.1}$ or as a generic argument to a deverbal noun $\underline{16.10.1}$:

```
n\dot{a}'ab\ l\bar{a}\ w'(\dot{a}f\ z\bar{v}vr) "the chief's horse's tail" but n\dot{a}'ab\ l\bar{a}\ w'(d-z\bar{v}vr) "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, typically bare stems which have undergone apocope, though analogical remodelling is common, and regular with some stem types <u>9.2.2</u>. Compounding is so productive that the cb is a regular part of noun and adjective flexion <u>9.1</u>.

For the tone sandhi rules which affect the component following the combining form see <u>8.3</u> <u>8.4</u>. They are not sensitive to whether the cb is head or modifier.

Compounds may have compound components, most often as a result of the addition of an adjective or postdeterminer pronoun to an existing compound, where the binding of the new element is weaker than that within the existing compound:

```
 [b\dot{\upsilon}-\rho\dot{\imath}\partial l-]k\dot{a}\eta\bar{a} \qquad \text{"this [white goat]"} \\ [n\bar{\imath}n-w\acute{\jmath}k-]\rho\dot{\imath}\partial lig \qquad \text{"white [tall person]"} \\ [z\dot{a}'-n\bar{\jmath}-]\rho\acute{\imath}\partial lig \qquad \text{"white gate" ("white [compound-mouth]")}
```

A compound may appear as a generic argument to a following deverbal noun:

```
[z\dot{a}'-n\bar{\jmath}-]g\acute{u}r "gate-keeper" [[z\dot{a}'-n\bar{\jmath}-]g\acute{u}r-]k\dot{a}\eta\bar{a} "this [gate-keeper]"
```

Kusaal also possesses bahuvrihi adjectives <u>16.11.1.4</u> formed by zero-derivation of a noun-adjective compound to an adjective:

nīf-ňyáuk "one eye"

bù-[nīf-ňyáuk] "[one-eyed] goat"

n5b-w5k "long leg"

 $k\grave{\upsilon}g$ - $[n\bar{\jmath}b$ - $w\acute{\jmath}k]$ "[long-legged] stool"

The bahuvrihi meaning is also possible when the compound is used as the complement of $\grave{a}e\check{n}^a$ "be something":

Kỳg-kànā á n $\bar{\epsilon}$ n \bar{b} -w \dot{s} k. Chair-**DEM.DEI.SG COP FOC** leg-long:**SG**. "This chair is long-legged." WK

Adjective combining forms can only be used before another adjective or before a postdeterminer pronoun. If a noun-adjective compound is used as a generic argument it must adopt a sg or pl form:

```
f\bar{u}-z\check{\epsilon}\check{n}d\grave{a} k\grave{u} estimates "seller of red (i.e. dyed) cloth" not *f\bar{u}-z\check{\epsilon}\check{n}'-k\grave{u} estimates
```

Compounds may contain uncompounded 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 premodifiers within other NPs <u>16.10.2.2</u>:

```
sālıma bótìŋ "gold cup"
ānzúrıfà nē sālıma lá'àd "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:

```
[ānzúrɪfà lá'-]māan "silversmith" ("[silver goods]-maker")
[ānzúrɪfà nē sālɪma lá'-]māan "silver- and goldsmith"

cf [fū-zéňdà] kùes "[dyed cloth]-seller"
with an adjective postmodifier (see above)
```

If the cb is itself a premodifier, the the construction is nested, with the cb binding to the following head and the preceding unbound premodifier applying to the whole resulting compound:

```
sālıma [zá'-nɔ̄ɔr] "golden gate" ("golden [compound-mouth]")
zūgύ-n [níf-gbáuη] "upper eyelid" ("upper [eye-skin]")
```

Determiners, whether preceding or following the head, and whether compounded or uncompounded, have the loosest binding:

```
[sālıma bútìŋ-]kàŋā "this [gold cup]"
[[sālıma lá'-]màan-]kàŋā "this [[gold-item]-maker]"
ò [[sālıma lá'-]māan] "her [[gold-item]-maker]"
```

16.10 Dependents preceding the head

The head of a NP may be preceded by a dependent. Only one is permitted, but the resulting NP may itself recursively serve as the head of a NP with yet another pre-dependent. Cbs come last, and predeterminers precede premodifiers:

```
W(nà'am [pú'vsòg [fúùg dɔɔ̂g]]
"tabernacle" (God's [worship [cloth hut]])
```

The nature of the pre-dependent determines whether compounding occurs: generic arguments of any type before deverbal nouns must be cbs; generic *count* nouns as premodifiers must be cbs; all other pre-dependents appear uncompounded.

For the rules regarding L spreading after pre-dependents see <u>8.4</u>.

Pronoun, pronoun-like, quantifier or deverbal heads lead to the pre-dependent + head construction having specialised meanings 16.10.3. With other head types:

A pre-dependent NP with definite and/or count reference is a possessor. A pre-dependent AdvP or uncompounded indefinite mass NP is a premodifier. One quantifier appears as a predeterminer.

16.10.1 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.

```
d\bar{a}-nú\dot{u}r^{\epsilon} "beer-drinking" g\bar{\epsilon}l-kú\dot{\theta}s^a "egg-seller"
```

With **agent nouns** from transitive verbs the cb normally represents an object. Agent nouns from intransitives may have an AdvP or indirect object cb argument. These compounds can be freely coined, and their meanings are generally transparent, but there are many idiomatic set expressions. Examples:

```
"murderer"
nīn-kúùda
bù-kūυd<sup>a/</sup>
                                      "goat-killer"
n5-kύùda
                                      "hen-killer"
pu'à-kūvd<sup>a/</sup>
                                      "woman-killer"
nō-záňl<sup>lε</sup>
                                      "holder of hens"
wìd-kùesa
                                      "horse-seller"
bù-kùesa
                                      "goat-seller"
sàlım-kùesa
                                      "gold-seller"
dā-núùda
                                      "beer-drinker"
                                      "fisherman" ("fish-catcher")
zīm-gbáň'àda
nō-dí¹àsa
                                      "chief's spokesman" ("command-receiver")
                                      (Ghanaian English "linguist")
tàn-mɛɛda
                                      "builder" (tān<sup>nε</sup> "earth")
làmp5-dí¹èsa
                                      "tax collector" (French l'impôt)
abàn-mī'id<sup>a/</sup>
                                      "scribe" NT ("book-knower")
pu'à-sāň'am<sup>ma</sup>
                                      "adulterer" ("woman-spoiler")
zà'-n5-gúra
                                      "gate-keeper" (z\dot{a}'-n\bar{z}) "gate")
dà-kīəda
                                      "wood-cutter"
kàňb-kīm<sup>na</sup>
                                      "herdsman"
                                      (k)\tilde{n}b- as cb of b\bar{v}n-k)\tilde{n}b\hat{v}g^{3} "tame animal")
bùl-sīgıd<sup>a/</sup>
                                      "well-diver" (bùlıqª "well")
tùen-gāt<sup>a</sup>
                                                    (O gàad túèn "He's gone ahead")
                                      "leader"
ňyà'an-dòl<sup>la</sup>
                                      "disciple"
                                                    (nyá'ana "behind")
                                                    (dɔ̄lla/ "accompany")
                                      "laugher at women" WK
pu'à-lā'ada
                                      (Ò là 'ad pū 'ab "He laughs at women")
```

My informants freely create and cite agent nouns in isolation, but it is unusual in practice for agent nouns to appear thus; in my materials only $b\bar{a}\eta\iota d^a$ "wise man", $s\bar{\imath}a\bar{k}\iota d^a$ "believer", $s\bar{\imath}\eta\iota d^a$ "helper", $f\bar{a}a\check{n}d^a$ "robber" "Saviour" occur often. With monosyllabic agent nouns there is often a preceding cognate cb, sometimes an object, but often apparently just a reduplication of the agent noun stem:

```
m\grave{a}al-m\bar{a}an^{na}"sacrificer"z\bar{\imath}-z\hat{\imath}id^a"carrier-on-head"t\grave{\upsilon}'as-t\grave{\upsilon}'asa"talker"z\grave{a}b-z\grave{a}b^a"warrior" (tone sic)z\grave{\jmath}t-z\bar{\jmath}t^a"racer, athlete"t\grave{\upsilon}m-t\bar{\upsilon}m^{na}"worker"
```

Cbs occur before deverbal **instrument nouns** in object or adverb senses:

```
s \dot{a} = 15 \circ d (\eta^a) "belt" (waist-tying thing)
n \bar{n} = g \circ t i \gamma^a "mirror" (eye-looking thing)
n \bar{n} = g \circ t i \gamma^\epsilon "spectacles"
```

If the head is a **gerund**, a cb pre-dependent may represent a subject or complement. For the $-r^{\epsilon}$ (not $-b^{\circ}$) suffix of these 2-mora stem gerunds see <u>12.1.1.1</u>.

If the underlying verb is transitive, a cb pre-dependent cannot be a subject. It is most often an object:

```
"marriage" (Ò dì pu'ā "He's married a wife")
pu'à-dīιr<sup>ε</sup>
nīn-kύὺr<sup>ε</sup>
                                        "murder"
dā-núùr<sup>€</sup>
                                        "beer-drinking"
Sāmán-píər<sup>€</sup>
                                        Traditional New Year ("Courtyard Cleaning")
bùgύm-tɔ̄ɔňr<sup>ε</sup>
                                        Fire Festival ("Fire Throwing")
nō-lóòr<sup>€</sup>
                                        "fasting" ("mouth-tying")
                                        "oath" (p5+ "swear")
nō-póòr<sup>€</sup>
nō-náàr<sup>€</sup>
                                        "covenant" (nā+ "join")
nīn-báàl-zɔ̄ɔrɛ
                                        "pity" (Ò zòt·ō nīn-báalìg. "He has pity on him")
```

It may represent an AdvP:

```
mò-p\bar{l}^{|\epsilon} "grass roof" ("covering with grass")
k \dot{u} m - v \bar{v}^{\dagger} v g (r^{\epsilon}) "resurrection"
(\dot{O} \ v \dot{v}^{\dagger} v g \ k \bar{u} m \iota n. \text{ "He came alive from death."})
```

Although many of these are set forms, free creation of nonce-forms is possible:

```
f\bar{u}-y\dot{\varepsilon}\dot{\varepsilon}r^{\varepsilon} "shirt-wearing" WK
```

Cbs as subjects are thus confined to verbs which can be used intransitively:

```
"breaking a leg" (k\hat{\jmath}^+) is intransitive)

n\bar{u}^- m \dot{\jmath} d \hat{\iota} r^{\epsilon} "swelling of the hand"

"sunset"

(W\hat{\iota} n n \iota g \ l i \ y \bar{a}. "The sun has set/fallen.")

s\bar{u} n \dot{\iota} - s \dot{a} n \dot{\iota} \dot{b} \eta^{\jmath} "sorrow"

(\dot{M} s \bar{u} n \dot{\iota} s \dot{a} n \dot{a} n \bar{e}. "My heart is spoilt"

= "I'm \ sad.")

s\bar{u} - p \dot{\epsilon} \dot{\epsilon} n^{n \epsilon} "anger" (\dot{M} s \bar{u} n \dot{t} f p \dot{\epsilon} l \dot{\iota} g n \bar{\epsilon}. "My heart is white.")
```

16.10.2 Premodifiers

Modifiers can never be specific. They vary in form depending on the nature of the dependent. AdvP premodifiers may contain *constituents* with specific reference, but as AdvPs they do not themselves refer.

16.10.2.1 Generic count nouns

A count noun as a premodifier must appear as a combining form.

Compounds with a count noun premodifier are freely created, but resemble the compounds seen in other languages more closely than the type with combining form heads preceding adjectives and postdeterminer pronouns. 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 never with postdeterminer pronouns.

Note the contrast between a generic premodifier and a predeterminer in e.g.

bīig fúùg	"a child's shirt" (belonging to some child)
bì-fūug	"a children's shirt" (perhaps a small woman's)
-	
nà'ab lā wíèf zōʊr	"the chief's horse's tail" (the chief has a horse)
nà'ab lā wíd-zūvr	"the chief's horse-tail" (the chief may not own a
	complete horse at all)

Cb premodifiers have a very general quasi-adjectival sense. The resulting compounds are very liable to develop specialised lexical meanings:

```
náaf-bì'isím "cow's milk"
bōvg-bí'isím "goat's milk"
```

where the modifier has singular form and tone, but the tone sandhi is that of a compound (note the lack of M spreading after *náaf-*.)

A cb premodifier of a deadjectival abstract noun may have a sense much like a generic argument:

```
s\bar{u}\check{n}-kp\hat{l} on"boldness" ("heart-strength")s\bar{u}\check{n}-m\acute{a}'asìm""joy" ("heart-coolness")(\dot{M} s\bar{u}\check{n}f m\acute{a}'e y\bar{a}. "I'm joyful.")nìn-t\bar{v}ll(m^m)"fever" ("body-heat")w\bar{l}n-t\acute{o}'j\acute{a}""ill fate" ("fate-bitterness")
```

Cases like these resemble those where the second element is a gerund <u>16.10.1</u>, but deadjectival nouns are not gerunds <u>12.2</u>, and such constructions are not limited to cases where corresponding adjectival verbs exist:

```
pò-pìə/tm<sup>m</sup> "holiness" ("inside-whiteness")
```

16.10.2.2 Generic non-count NPs

Premodifers may also consist of noun phrases with generic non-count reference. If they have *abstract* senses, they ascribe a quality to the head:

```
n\bar{a}'am k\acute{v}k"throne" ("chieftaincy chair")n\bar{a}'am s\acute{v}'vlìm"kingdom" ("chieftaincy possession")p\grave{v}'vsvg d\acute{o}\grave{o}g"temple" ("worship house")t\bar{v}ligír b\acute{v}n"heater" ("heating thing" = b\bar{v}n-t\acute{v}ligìr^{\epsilon})d\bar{v}gvb d\acute{v}t"cooking pots"l\bar{v}gidi t\acute{v}vmà"expensive work" (l\bar{v}gidi" "money")
```

Language names may appear as abstract nouns describing an ethnic group:

Κῦsáàl yír nē kūθb"Kusaasi houses and agriculture"Nàsāal búgóm"electricity" ("European fire")

NPs with *concrete* mass sense express the material of which the head consists. Most often the premodifier is a single noun:

sālima bútin "golden cup"

Count nouns may appear if used in a mass sense 16.2.1:

fūug dóὸg "tent" (cloth hut)

dàad bún-nám "wooden things" (dàug³ "piece of wood")

NPs formed by coordination may occur in this use:

sālıma nē ānzúrıfà lá'àd "gold and silver goods"

Such premodifiers are referential, and can be the antecedents of pronouns:

sālıma lá'àd nέ ò būtιις "gold goods and [gold] cups" WK 16.7

Contrast the non-referential use of mass nouns as generic arguments:

sàlım-kùes "gold-seller" dā-núùd "beer-drinker"

Cb forms of abstract non-count nouns do sometimes occur as premodifiers:

	tàňp-sɔ̄b ^a	"warrior"	(<i>tāňp</i> ɔ "war")
	pὺ-pìəl-sɔ̄b ^a	"holy person"	(Rom 3:10, 1996)
but	pù-pìəlım sób ^a	"holy person"	(Mt 10:41, 1996)
	pù-pìəl-tūvma ⁺	"holy actions"	(Rom 6:13, 1996)
but	pù-pìəlım túvmà+	"holy actions"	(Mt 5:10, 1996)

An interesting case involving a concrete mass noun is the compound $k \underline{\nu} = n w \overline{i} g$ "current" ("water" + "rope.") This perhaps represents "aquatic rope" in contrast to * $k \underline{\nu} = n w \underline{u} = n$

16.10.2.3 Adverbial phrases

Like indefinite mass nouns, AdvPs as pre-dependents are premodifiers (contrast the determiner sense of AdvPs *following* the head <u>16.11.2.3</u>.)

AdvPs as premodifiers may not be proadverbs. I do not have any examples of time AdvPs used as NP premodifiers.

Examples of AdvP premodifiers:

būgusígā dáàn "softly-softly sort of person"

dūnιya ní nìn-gbīŋkù'emī-n búnkù'emī-n dín"earthly body""water creature"raquatic one"

kɔ̄lugu-n nɔဴ-dáùg "crayfish" ("in-the-river cock")

Although the AdvPs in cases like

dàtìun níf "right eye" dàgòbig níf "left eye"

zūgύ-n níf-gbáun "upper eyelid" tēŋι-n níf-gbáun "lower eyelid"

seem to answer "which?" rather than "what kind of?", the possibility of indefinite plurals like $d\hat{a}t\hat{\iota}\underline{u}\eta$ n(n) "right eyes" or $t\bar{\epsilon}\eta\iota$ - $n(f-gb\acute{a}n\grave{a})$ "lower eyelids" shows that the construction is actually modifying, not determining.

Postpostional phrases with $y\bar{\epsilon}l\acute{a}^+$ "about" 17.6 appears as premodifiers, not predeterminers. Adverbs, including postpositions, behave as generic non-count NPs syntactically; they are not made specific by a definite predeterminer:

Kūsáàs kúèb nē yīr yélà gbàun "A book about Kusaasi houses and agriculture" dàu-kànā lā yélà gbàun "a book about that man" WK

In the same way, locative AdvPs, including Kusaal place names with no locative particle, may occur as uncompounded premodifiers:

Bàk dím "Bawku people"

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" 17.3; like other postpositions, this is never itself referential and is not itself rendered specific even though it has a specific predeterminer. See also on locative complements and their focus behaviour 30.1.2.2.

16.10.3 Predeterminers

The **quantifier** $y\bar{i}ig\dot{a}^+$ "firstly" appears as a predeterminer "first" <u>16.4.2.3</u>, e.g.

```
line da an yiiga dabisir
līnı ø dá àň yīigá dàbısır.

3INAN.CNTR CAT TNS COP firstly day:sg.
"That was the first day." (Genesis 1:5)
```

Count and/or definite reference NPs as preceding dependents before noun heads are also **determiners**.

If the head itself is a pronoun or quantifier the construction is **partitive**:

nīn-síəbà	"certain people"	síəbà	dependent
yà sɔ̄'	"some one among you"	รวิ'	head
nīdıb lā síəbà	"certain of the people"	síəbà	head
nīdıb síəbà	"certain ones among people"	síəbà	head
nīdıb bέdvgū	"a lot of people"	bὲdυgῦ	dependent
nīdıbá àyí	"two people"	àyí	dependent
nīdıb bédvgū lā	"the lot of people, the crowd"	bὲdυgῦ	dependent
nīdıbá àyí lā	"the two people"	àyí	dependent
nīdıb lā bέdvgū	"a lot of the people"	bὲdυgῦ	head
nīdıb lá àyí	"two of the people"	àyí	head

The sense is also partitive if the head is a relative clause with an indefinite pronoun as relative:

```
Pa'alimi ti nidiba ayi' nwa fun gaŋ sɔ'
Pà'alımī tí nīdıbá àyí ňwá fún gāŋ sɔ̄'
Teach:IMP 1PL.OB person:PL NUM:two this 2SG:NZ choose INDF.AN
"Tell us which of these two people you have chosen" (Acts 1:24)
```

NP predeterminers before **gerunds** and other abstract nouns describing events or processes are interpreted as **subjects**:

```
Dāu lā kúlòg dāa mālısí m.

Man:sg art return.home:ger tns be.sweet 1sg.ob.

"The man's return home pleased me."
```

A generic object argument may also occur as a combining form, and adjunct AdvPs or VP-final particles 20.7 may follow the head:

```
nīn-sáalìb
                  yáddā-nínìr 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 àntu'à-mɔ̄rím kɔ́tù
                         ní nē tāaba
                                              Ιā
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)
Ninsaal Biig la lebug la na
                          lā lέbùg
Nīn-sáàl
                  Bíìg
                                         lā nā
Person-smooth:sg Child:sg art return:ger art hither
"the return of the Son of Man" (Mt 24:27)
```

ninsaalib yadda ninir Wina'am ni

Other deverbal abstract nouns may also be used in this way:

```
Kristo kum dapuudir zug "Christ's death on the cross" (1 Cor 1:18)
Kristo kúm dá-pōvdír 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.

The words $m\bar{\epsilon}\eta^{a/}$ "self", $d\bar{a}an^a$ "owner", $s\bar{\jmath}b^a$ "individual" and $b\bar{\nu}n^{n\epsilon/}$ "thing" as heads have specialised senses with predeterminers (see below.)

In all other cases, predeterminers express **possessors**.

```
m bīig "my child"

dāu lā bíig "the man's child"

dāu lā bíir bīig náir zūvr "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 16.5.

A partitive sense is not possible with noun (as opposed to pronoun) heads:

```
nīdıb lā gígìs "the dumb ones belonging to the people"

Not possible as "among the people" WK.
```

16.10.3.1 Before mēŋa/ dāana sɔ̄ba būnnε/

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** 17.6.)

 $M\bar{\epsilon}\eta^{a/}$ "self" is used in differently for sg/pl, always with a predeterminer:

```
mm mēŋ
yà mēŋ
"yourselves"
nà'ab lā méŋ
chief:sg art self
"They've seen for themselves."
3PL see 3PL self.
```

"Self" forms must be used for verb arguments referring back to the clause subject :

```
\dot{M} n w \dot{\epsilon}' \dot{\epsilon}_{m} m \bar{\epsilon} \eta. "I hit myself." 
15G hit 15G self.
```

not *M ňwέ'ε m or *M ňwέ' 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 pv piesidi ba nu'us wvv lin nar si'em la ka ditta.

Bà pv piesidi bà nu'us wvv lin nār si'em lá

3PL NEG.IND clean:IPFV 3PL hand:PL like 3INAN:NZ be.proper INDF.ADV ART kà dítā + \emptyset.

and eat:IPFV NEG.

"They don't wash their hands properly before they eat." (Mt 15:1)
```

Where ordinary pronouns would be permissible, using $m\bar{\epsilon}\eta$ implies contrast:

```
M pía m mēŋ nú'ùs. "I washed my own hands."
1sg wash 1sg self hand:PL.
Fù mēŋ kōv bí-lìaa +ø? "Yourself or the baby?"
2sg self or child-baby:sg cq? ("Which of you needs the doctor?")
```

See also 16.11.2.3 on $am\bar{\epsilon}\eta\acute{a}^+$ "really, truly" as a postdeterminer "genuine, real"; cf the adjective $m\bar{\epsilon}\eta\acute{t}^\epsilon$ seen in $y\bar{\epsilon}l$ - $m\acute{\epsilon}\eta\grave{t}^\epsilon$ "truth" ("genuine matter.")

Dāan^a "owner of ...", *nàm*^a pl, always has a preceding dependent NP or AdvP. In a few set forms this is a generic count noun cb:

```
y\bar{\imath}-d\dot{a}an^a "householder" = y\bar{\imath}-s\acute{b}a Hausa m\grave{a}i gidaa t\grave{\epsilon}\eta-d\bar{a}an^a literally "land-owner": traditional earth-priest
```

Normally, the possession is expressed by a free NP, definite or indefinite:

```
lớr dáàn<sup>a</sup> "car owner"
bōvg dáàn<sup>a</sup> "goat owner"
kù'em dáàn<sup>a</sup> "water owner"
tìəŋ dáàn<sup>a</sup> "bearded man" Hausa mài geemùu
dāam dáàn<sup>a</sup> "beer owner"
pɔ̄ɔg lā dáàn<sup>a</sup> "the owner of the field" (Mt 21:40)
```

Zu-wok daan po gangid bugum.

```
Zù-wōk dáàn pō gáŋìd búgúmm +ø.

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 *mài*, or Arabic **ذو**

```
pὺ-pìəlım dáàn<sup>a</sup> "holy person"
```

Manner-adverbs can appear in the same sense as abstracts before *dāan*^a:

```
būgusígā dáàna "softly-softly sort of person" WK
```

See 16.4.2.3 on the use of $d\bar{a}an^a$ with numbers to make ordinal expressions.

55b^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.

```
Animate sg s\bar{b}^a
Animate pl dim^a
Inanimate sg/pl din^{n\epsilon}
```

With noun or pronoun predeterminers the meaning is possessive:

```
m\bar{a}n\ d(n^{n\epsilon} "my one, mine" 
À-Wīn d(m "Awini's family" 
Fūn piáň'àd nē tīnám d(n).

25G.CNTR speak:IPFV FOC 1PL.CNTR individual.INAN.

("We can't speak your language but ...") "You're speaking ours."
```

Abstract NPs and AdvPs preceding *s5b*^a are premodifiers:

```
pù-pìəlım sɔ́ba pl pù-pìəlım díma "holy person" (pù-pìəlım "holiness") dūnıya ní dìn^{n\epsilon} "earthly one" (1 Cor 15:44) Bɔ̀k dím "Bawku people"
```

The quantifier $y\overline{i}ig\acute{a}^+$ "first" is a predeterminer in

```
yīigá sɔ̄ba "first (person)" beside yīig-sɔ́ba id
```

Specialised senses may be found with cb premodifiers:

```
yī-sób<sup>a</sup>
                                         "householder"
                                                                 (v\bar{i}r^{\epsilon}) "house")
pl yī-sób-nàma
vī-díma
                                         "members of the household"
nīf-sóba
                                                                (nīf<sup>ɔ/</sup>
                                         "miser"
                                                                          "eye")
tàňp-sɔ̄ba
                                         "warrior"
                                                                (tāňp<sup>o</sup> "war")
zūg-sóba
                                        "boss" NT "Lord" (z\bar{u}g^{5}) "head")
pl zūg-sób-nàma
```

The expression $5n s5b^a$ means "the person we were just talking about."

 $B\bar{\upsilon}n^{n\epsilon/}$ "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 $r^{\epsilon}|a^{+}$ class plural $b\bar{\upsilon}n\acute{a}^{+}$, but in placeholder use it is found indifferently as sg and pl, or pluralises with $n\grave{a}m^{a}$ like inanimate pronouns:

```
Būn-námá àlá kà fù ňyētá +ø?
Thing-PL NUM:how.many and 2SG see:IPFV CQ?
"How many things do you see?" SB
```

It is used (beside $n\bar{l}n$ - "person" for human) as a dummy non-human cb before adjectives, avoiding the use of an adjective as complement of $\grave{a} e \check{n}^a$ "be" 21.2.

 $D\bar{\iota}\iota b$ á $n\bar{\varepsilon}$ $b\bar{\upsilon}n$ - $s\dot{\upsilon}g$. "Food is good." ("Food is a good thing.") Food **cop Foc** thing-good:**sg**.

WK requires adjectives to have the suffix m^m in abstract meanings <u>16.11.1.1</u>. Some adjectives cannot be used as NP heads at all; $b\bar{v}n$ - is necessary in:

 $b\bar{\nu}n$ - $v\acute{\nu}r^{\epsilon}$ "living thing"

No adjective cb may be a head, so $b\bar{v}n$ - is also necessary in:

 $b\bar{\nu}n$ - $p(\hat{a}l-k\hat{a}\eta\bar{a}^{+/})$ "this white one"

Deverbal adjectives with no preceding cb are interpreted as agent nouns 13.1.1.2.1, so $b\bar{\nu}n$ - marks different meanings in e.g.

būn-kύυdìr^ε "thing to do with killing"

but $k\bar{\nu}\nu dir^{\epsilon}$ "killer"

Note the idioms

 $b\bar{v}n$ - $ging^a$ "short chap" (informal, humorous) $b\bar{v}n$ - $k\dot{v}d\dot{v}g^o$ "old man" (the normal expression) (but $pu'\dot{a}$ - $n\ddot{v}a'$ a n^a "old woman")

Būn also occurs with abstract and AdvP premodifiers:

 $t\bar{\upsilon}lig(r\ b\acute{\upsilon}n^{n\epsilon})$ "heating thing, heater" = $b\bar{\upsilon}n$ - $t\acute{\upsilon}lig(r^{\epsilon})$

kù'emīn bύn^{nε} "water creature"

 $B\bar{v}n$ is a "thing", tangible or abstract, while d in is purely a semantically empty head, with only number and gender specified:

 $k\grave{u}'\Theta m\bar{\iota} n\;d(n^{n\epsilon})$ "the (non-human) one in the water,

aquatic one"

16.11 Dependents following the head

Dependents follow a head noun in the order adjective(s), quantifier, postdeterminer pronoun or AdvP, article.

It is characteristic of Kusaal and of other Oti-Volta languages that the normal construction with both adjectives and postdeterminer 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 separate combining forms, and are not followed by the postdeterminer-only forms $k \grave{a} n^{\epsilon} k \grave{a} n \bar{a}^{+/}$ of the demonstrative pronouns 16.3.2 (cf on apposition 16.8.) For quantifiers as postdeterminers see 16.11.2.2.

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 noun and adjective paradigms, and it is in these cases particularly that cbs remodelled segmentally on the basis of the singular form (or even the plural) 9.2.2 are frequent.

```
bar{\upsilon} vg^a "goat" 

b\dot{\upsilon}-p\dot{\imath}əl\iota g^a "white goat" 

b\dot{\upsilon}-k\dot{a}\eta \bar{a}^{+/} "this goat" 

b\dot{\upsilon}-p\dot{\imath}əl-k\dot{a}\eta \bar{a}^{+/} "this white goat"
```

Compounds with postdeterminer pronouns naturally cannot be lexicalised; compounds with adjectives may develop specialised individual lexical meanings, though much less often than modifier-first compounds.

For my informants WK and DK, a noun preceding a postdeterminer pronoun must appear as a combining form, but SB accepts preceding sg/pl forms. I did not record the tones of such forms, but this is probably simply segmental remodelling of cbs 9.2.2. Thus for SB:

```
?náaf-kàŋā "this cow" cf náaf-bì'isím 16.10.2.1
?nāaf-káŋā "this cow" WK DK SB
```

16.11.1 Postmodifiers: adjectives

Adjectives always follow the head, and do not themselves appear as heads, except to a very limited extent as complements to $\grave{a} e \check{n}^a$ "be something" 21.2.

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 could sometimes be induced to accept sg + adjective but never produced such forms spontaneously.

būυg ^a	"goat"	būυs ^ε	"goats"
bù-pìəlıg ^a	"white goat"	bὺ-pìəlιs ^ε	"white goats"
bù-sùŋ ^ɔ	"good goat"	bù-sùma ⁺	"good goats"
nūa ^{+/}	"hen"	nɔ̄ɔsε/	"hens"
Tiua	11611	11333	116113
nō-píəlìg ^a	"white hen"	nō-píəlìs ^ɛ	"white hens"

A second adjective or a postdeterminer pronoun can follow a first adjective, which thus itself appears as a cb:

```
n\bar{n}-w\acute{o}k-p\grave{i}\partial l\iota g^a "white tall person" n\bar{o}-p\acute{o}l-k\grave{a}\eta\bar{a}^{+/} "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:

```
f\bar{u}-z \in \tilde{n} d a k u \Theta s^a "seller of red (i.e. dyed) cloth" not f\bar{u}-z \in \tilde{n}'-k u \Theta s^a
```

i.e. adjective cbs may only precede other adjectives or postdeterminer pronouns. Compounds with adjectives may develop specialised lexical meanings:

```
n\bar{u}'-bíl^a "finger" ("small hand") a traditional remedy ("black medicine")
```

Several names of plant and tree species are formed in this way:

```
gɔ̀n̆'-sābulíga Haaf gosabliga "Acacia Hockii" ("black thorn")
```

16.11.1.1 Class agreement

There are isolated set forms showing traces of the old agreement system:

```
là'-bīəlíf
                        NT
                                                 "small coin" (lā'af<sup>o</sup> "cowrie")
        bī'əlá+
                                                 "a little"
cf
        dà-sī'ər<sup>ɛ</sup>
                                                 "some day; perhaps" (dāar<sup>ε</sup> "day")
        sī'a+
                                                 "some"
cf
        dàbıs-sī¹ər<sup>€</sup>
                                                 "some day" (dàbιsιr<sup>ε</sup> "day")
        sī'a+
                                                 "some"
cf
        pu'à-pāal<sup>a/</sup>
                                                 "bride" (pu'āa "wife")
        pāalíga
                                                 "new"
cf
                                                 "young man, son" (dāu+ "man")
        dà-pāala/
        pāalíga
                                                 "new"
cf
```

where the dependents 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 $b\bar{v}n$ "thing" when it has abstract rather than concrete sense:

```
dā-páalìm<sup>m</sup>
                                                "new millet beer"
                                                 WK does not accept *dā-páàl, *dā-páalìg.
        tì-sābılím<sup>m</sup>
                                                "black medicine", a specific traditional remedy
        tì-vōnním<sup>m</sup>
                                                "oral medication" ("swallowing medicine")
        tì-kōvdím<sup>m</sup>
                                                "poison" ("killing medicine")
                                                "anointing oil" (kpāaňm<sup>m/</sup> "oil, grease")
        kpāň-sɔ́ɔňdìm<sup>m</sup>
                                                "desirable thing" (1 Cor 14:1: nɔ̀ntlím<sup>m</sup> "love")
        būn-bɔ́ɔdìm<sup>m</sup>
        būn-bɔ́ɔdìr<sup>€</sup>
                                                "desirable thing" (BNY p17: a sheep)
but
        būn-ňyέtìm<sup>m</sup>
                                                "the visible world"
        būn-ňyέtìr<sup>ε</sup>
                                                "a visible object"
but
```

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."

16.11.1.2 Downtoning

Adjectives may show apocope-blocking 6.4 as a downtoner (all examples KT):

Lì à $n\bar{\varepsilon}$ fū- $p(\bar{\sigma}l)$ gā.

Lì à $n\bar{\varepsilon}$ fū- $p(\bar{\sigma}l)$ gā lā.

Lì à $n\bar{\varepsilon}$ wíùg.

Lì à $n\bar{\varepsilon}$ wíùg.

Lì à $n\bar{\varepsilon}$ wíugō.

"It's the whitish shirt."

"It's red."

"It's reddish."

"It's reddish."

"It's reddish shirt"

Lì à $n\bar{\varepsilon}$ tītā'arı.

"It's biggish."

This seems to be possible only with singular forms.

16.11.1.3 Ideophones

Adjectives cannot themselves take adverbs as modifiers. In e.g.

Lì à nē píəlìg pāmm. "It's very white"

the adverb *pāmm* must be taken with the copula verb rather than the adjective; it is not possible to say

*fū-píəlìg pāmm lā attempted "the very white shirt"

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.

Lì à $n\bar{\varepsilon}$ píəlìg fáss fáss. "It's very white." Lì à $n\bar{\varepsilon}$ sābulíg zím zím. "It's deep black." Lì à $n\bar{\varepsilon}$ zíň'a wím wím. "It's deep red."

Ideophones are not limited to use with adjectives as complements of $\grave{a} e \check{n}^a$ "be something/somehow" but occur with adjectives in their normal modifier rôle:

Lì à $n\bar{\epsilon}$ fū-zíň'a wím wím. "It's a deep red shirt." WK \dot{M} n0 \dot{M} 0 \dot{M} 0

Adjectival verbs may take ideophones as intensifiers; they share the ideophone of the corresponding adjective:

 \grave{O} à $n\bar{\varepsilon}$ $w\bar{\jmath}k$ $t\acute{\jmath}lllll$. "She's very tall." \grave{O} à $n\bar{\varepsilon}$ $g\bar{\imath}\eta$ $t\acute{\imath}rlg\grave{a}$. "She's very short."

 \dot{O} wà'am tớlıllı. "She's very tall." \dot{O} gìm n $\bar{\epsilon}$ tírıgà. "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

Lì à súŋā pāmm.

Lì à nē bē'ɛd pāmm.

Lì zùlım pāmm.

Lì mà'as pāmm.

"It's very good."

"It's very bad."

"It's very deep."

Apart from adjectival verbs, I have found no unequivocal ideophones in use with verbs; thus only

Ò tòm pāmm. "She's worked hard."

Ò từm hālí. "She's worked hard." 18.1

Ò zò pāmm. "She's run a lot."Ò zò hālí. "She's run a lot."

However, many verbs can be followed by "onomatopoeic" words which resemble ideophones at least in phonology:

O zòt nē tólìb tólìb. "He [a rabbit] is running lollop-lollop." WK

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.

16.11.1.4 Bahuvrihis

The combination noun + adjective may be used as a bahuvrihi adjective itself:

```
Lì à n\bar{\epsilon} n\bar{u}'-kp(iil\acute{u}). "It's a dead hand." 
Bīig lā á n\bar{\epsilon} n\bar{u}'-kp(iil\acute{u}). "The child is dead-handed." 
\grave{O} à n\bar{\epsilon} b\acute{t}-[n\bar{u}'-kp(iil\acute{u}). "He's a dead-handed child."
```

In constructions like $bi-n\bar{u}'-kp(illon)$ "child with a withered hand" the adjective is modifying the cb immediately preceding it, not *vice versa*. It is not possible to say $*bi-n\bar{u}'-kpllm^m$, and in such constructions the adjective may even be plural despite singular reference of the whole noun + adjective compound:

```
bi-t\dot{v}b-kp\bar{\imath}da^+ "deaf child" (t\dot{v}bvr^{\varepsilon} "ear", kpi^+ "die") plural bi-t\dot{v}b-kp\bar{\imath}da náma or bi-t\dot{v}b-kp\bar{\imath}d\iota s^{\varepsilon} "child/children with blocked ears" (/\bar{\imath}^+ "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:

```
kùg-n5b-w5k<sup>3</sup>
                                               "long-legged stool"
        kùg-n5b-wá'àd<sup>ε</sup>
                                               "long-legged stools"
        zūg-máuk<sup>o</sup>
plural zūg-má'àd<sup>ɛ</sup>
                                               "crushed-headed"
        zù-wɔ̄kɔ/
                                               "long-tailed"
        nōb-gíŋa
                                               "short-legged"
        zū-pέεlùg<sup>ɔ</sup>
                                               "bald"; cf Dau sɔ' zug ya'a pie
plural zū-pέεlà+
                                               "If a man has gone bald" (Leviticus 13:40)
                                               "toothless" (lām<sup>mε/</sup> "gum" fùe+ "draw out")
        lām-fɔ́ɔ̀gɔ
plural lām-fɔ́òd<sup>ɛ</sup>
                                                9.2.1
```

The two adjectives "one of a pair" 16.4.2.3 are often used in bahuvrihis: $nyauk^3$ pl $nyauk^3$ for eyes:

```
nīf-nyáuk "one eye" bà-nīf-nyáuk "one-eyed dog"
```

yīun^{ɔ/} pl yīná⁺ of other paired body parts:

```
t \grave{\upsilon} b - y \bar{\iota} \underline{\nu} g^{5/}"one ear"b \grave{\iota} - t \grave{\upsilon} b - y \bar{\iota} n \acute{a}^+"one-eared children"n \bar{\jmath} b - y (\underline{\nu} g)^{5}"one-legged"n \bar{\nu} - y (\underline{\nu} g)^{5}"one-handed"
```

16.11.1.5 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-sāanal or bì-sáaŋa
                                                  "stranger-child"
only bù-sáaŋ<sup>a</sup>
                                                  "stranger goat"
        bì-kpī'im<sup>m/</sup>
        bì-kpìilúŋ<sup>ɔ</sup>
                                                  "dead child"
or
only
        bὺ-kpìilúŋ<sup>ɔ</sup>
                                                  "dead goat"
        bì-dāu+
        bì-dāvg<sup>o</sup>
                                                  "male child"
or
only
        bù-dāυg<sup>ο</sup>
                                                  "male goat"
        bì-pu'āa or bì-puāka
                                                  "female child"
        bì-zū'em<sup>m/</sup>
        bì-zùnzòŋa
                                                  "blind child"
or
```

The same behaviour is also seen with some agent nouns:

```
p \mu' \hat{a} - z \hat{a} a n \bar{s}^a "dreamy woman" KT n \bar{n} - n \epsilon n^{na} "envious person" b \hat{a} - s \bar{n} n^{na} "silent child" only b \hat{b} - s \bar{n} n n \epsilon g^a "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 $g^a|s^{\epsilon}$ or $r^{\epsilon}|a^+$ class, even with derivatives of intransitive verbs:

```
p \dot{q}' \dot{a} - k \bar{v} v d (g^a)"murderous woman, murderess"p \dot{q}' \dot{a} - k \bar{v} v d^{al}only "killer of women"p \dot{q}' \dot{a} - l \bar{a}' a d l g^a"woman given to laughing"p u' \dot{a} - l \bar{a}' a d^a"laugher at women"
```

Nouns (of any class) expressing bodily defects can be used adjectivally:

```
bì-zùnzòŋa"blind child"bì-gìka"dumb child"bì-wàb\iotar^{\varepsilon}"lame child"bì-bālērvg^{\circ}"ugly child"bì-pòň'\iotar^{\varepsilon}"crippled child"
```

Other examples include:

```
nàsàa-bīiga
                                      "European child"
    yàmmug-bī-púna
                                      "girl slave"
                                      (written yamug bipun Acts 16:16, 1976 <u>9.2.2</u>)
    yàm-bī-pύη<sup>a</sup>
                                      "girl slave" (WK's preferred form)
cf yàmmug bí-púŋa
                                      "slave's girl"
    bī-pύη-yàmmuga
                                      "slave girl"
    nà'-bīiga
                                      "prince" ("royal child" not "boy king")
    bì-nà'aba
                                      id
    dàu-bīiga
                                      "male child"
cf bì-dāu+
                                      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 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 $m^{\rm m}$ class like adjective stems 12.2.

16.11.2 Postdeterminers

16.11.2.1 Postdeterminer pronouns

Demonstrative, indefinite and interrogative pronouns may follow a NP head cb as postdeterminers.

Pronouns naturally also occur as NP heads. Some pronouns have forms used only as heads or only as postdeterminers <u>16.3.2</u> <u>16.3.3</u>.

16.11.2.2 Quantifiers

Quantifiers as NP dependents follow the head, except for $y\bar{i}ig\dot{a}^+$ "firstly." A head can appear as a cb only with $y\bar{i}nn\dot{i}^+$ "one" and in a few fixed expressions 16.4.2.1; elsewhere, quantifiers are not subject to L spreading:

```
k\bar{u}g-y(nn)<sup>+</sup> "one stone"
but k\bar{u}gvr\ y\bar{\iota}nn(<sup>+</sup> "one stone"
```

I do not have any examples of co-occurrence with adjectives; when quantifiers precede postdeterminer pronouns the construction is probably always to be taken as a quantifier head with a predeterminer, not a postdetermining quantifier.

```
nīdıb bédvgū "a lot of people"

nīdıb bédvgū lā "the lot of people, the crowd"

nīdıbá àyí "two people"

nīdıbá àyí lā "the two people"
```

The head + quantifier postdeterminer construction contrasts in meaning with the *partitive* sense of predeterminer + quantifier head <u>16.10.3</u>.

Quantifiers as postdeterminers can be coordinated: this is the mechanism for the creation of numbers other than simple digits, tens or hundreds <u>16.4.2.1</u>.

```
o nya'andəlib pii nɛ yi
ò nya'an-dəllıb pīi nɛ yí

3AN after-follower:PL ten with two

"his twelve disciples" (Mt 26:20)
```

16.11.2.3 Adverbial phrases

AdvPs following a NP head are postdeterminers. Proadverbs do not occur in this use. There is no compounding or L spreading.

Contrast the premodifying use with the postdetermining in

```
m\bar{\jmath} j j m\bar{\jmath} j j m\bar{\jmath} j m\bar{\jmath} j m\bar{\jmath} j m\bar{\jmath} j m\bar{\jmath} j m\bar{\jmath} m\bar{\jmath}
```

I do not have any unequivocal examples of time adverbs in this position; in

```
ňwādιs yύὺm lā pύυgū-n "months in the year" SB
```

the postposition phrase is formally locative, though used metaphorically.

The manner-adverb amēṇá "really, truly" occurs meaning "genuine, real":

```
\bar{\partial}n s\bar{\partial}b á n\bar{\epsilon} d\mu'átà am\bar{\epsilon}ŋá l\bar{a}.

3AN.CNTR individual.AN 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, a following AdvP may occur which represents an adjunct in the corresponding clause structure. Such adjuncts may also even be prepositional phrases, which are not found elsewhere as NP dependents, and even VP-final particles occur. Accordingly, this is best regarded as a distinct clause nominalisation process rather than part of NP structure as such; see further 16.10.3.

```
ya antu'a morim koto ni ne taaba la
yà àntu'à-mɔr(m kɔ́tù ní nε̄ 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)
```

17 Adverbial phrases

17.1 Overview

Most adverbs can be categorised as adverbs of time, place or manner.

Adverbial phrases characteristically appear as adjuncts within clauses and VPs. They also appear as arguments of verbs $\underline{17.5}$, and (excepting proadverbs) as NP determiners or modifiers $\underline{16.10.2.3}$ $\underline{16.11.2.3}$. AdvPs of time, circumstance or reason usually appear as clause adjuncts $\underline{25.1.1}$ before the subject, or as VP adjuncts $\underline{20.6}$, but AdvPs of place or manner may only appear as VP adjuncts or preceding the subject through preposing with $k\grave{a}$ $\underline{30.2}$.

Many adverbs are formally identical to nouns. Unequivocally distinctive adverbs include proadverbs <u>17.7</u> and various types which do not conform to ordinary noun structure.

Many adverbial phrases represent adverbial *uses* of NPs, and have the usual structural possibilities for NPs. Otherwise, the range of structures for AdvPs is more limited. Only specialised *postpositions* can have a NP predeterminer <u>17.6</u>.

Absolute clauses occur as adverbs of time/circumstance 28.1, while relative clauses with pronouns expressing place or manner occur as corresponding types of AdvP. As with NPs, coordination of AdvPs uses the particle $n\bar{\epsilon}$.

17.2 Time and circumstance

Adverbial phrases expressing **time** may be instantiated by proadverbs <u>17.7</u> or by distinctive time adverbs which do not have the structure of nouns, such as

zīná ⁺	"today"
sù'øs ^a	"yesterday"
dūnná ⁺	"this year"

Some time adverbs resemble nouns in form but lack cb or pl forms, and cannot be referred to by pronouns, or occur with dependents, e.g. $b\bar{\epsilon}og^{\circ}$ "tomorrow"; $d\bar{a}ar^{\epsilon}$ "day after tomorrow/day before yesterday" is in the same category but happens to be homophonous with the ordinary noun $d\bar{a}ar^{\epsilon}$ "day."

However, many time AdvPs are simply NPs with temporal meanings, and no special marking. Such NPs may consist of single nouns, but the possibility of adding dependents distinguishes them from specialised time adverbs; see <u>32.9</u> and e.g.

```
y \dot{v}' v \eta^{3} "night" "heat of the day, early afternoon" \dot{u}un^{n\epsilon} "dry season"
```

Adverbial phrases expressing **circumstances** are typically absolute clauses; such clauses are also frequently used to express time <u>28.1.1</u>.

No formal distinction is made between a point in time and a period over which a state of affairs persists:

```
Fù ná k\bar{u}l b\bar{\epsilon}og. "You'll go home tomorrow." 2SG IRR go.home tomorrow.
```

```
Tì kpślìm ànínā dábisà bí'əlà.

1PL remain ADV:there day:PL few.

"We stayed there a few days."
```

Time AdvPs can be coordinated:

```
Bēogv-n nē záàm kà fừ ná nīŋ tí-kàŋā.

Morning-Loc with evening and 25G IRR do medicine-DEM.DEI.SG.

"You'll use this medicine morning and evening."
```

17.3 Place

Locative adverbs comprise proforms along with Kusaasi place names; other locative AdvPs use the locative particle $n\bar{\iota}^{+/} \sim n^{\epsilon}$. It is not possible to use a noun other than a place name by itself as a place adverb, unless it has become a postposition 17.6; synchronically such postpostions are separate lexical items, and the process of zero-derivation that created them is no longer productive.

The core adverb of place is thus the locative particle, which has the allomorphs $n\bar{\iota}^{+/}$ and n^{ϵ} along with **zero allomorph** accompanying the "intrinsically locative" forms discussed below; like all postpositions, this is never referential even though it has a predeterminer. This accounts for the availability of all kinds of locative AdvP as NP premodifiers 16.10.2.3 and for the focus behaviour of locatives 30.1.2.2.

The form $n\bar{\iota}^{+/}$ is used after words ending in a vowel in SF, after pronouns and after loanwords; the liaison enclitic n^{ϵ} is used elsewhere:

```
m\dot{v}'ar\bar{\iota}-n "in a lake" y\bar{v}dá n\bar{\iota} "among names" \dot{m} n\bar{\iota} "in me" m\bar{a}n n\bar{\iota} "in me" la'asvg dɔɔdin nɛ suoya ni la'asvg dɔɔdin nɛ suoya ni assembly:sg house:PL-LOC with road:PL LOC "in the synagogues and in the streets" (Mt 6:2)
```

 $Y\bar{i}r^{\epsilon l}$ "house" has the exceptional sg and pl locative forms $y\bar{i}n^{n\epsilon}y\bar{a}a-n^{\epsilon}$ which have the particular nuance "home", as in the parting formula

```
Pù'vsım yín. "Greet (those) at home." i.e. "Goodbye."
```

Note also the locative adverb *yìn*^a "outside."

The article $l\bar{a}^{+/}$ may precede or follow the locative particle:

```
m\dot{v}'ar\bar{l}-n l\bar{a} or m\dot{v}'ar l\bar{a} n\acute{t} "in the lake"
```

Quantifiers may also follow the locative particle:

```
m gbana ni wusa "in all my letters" (2 Thess 3:17, 1996) \dot{m} gbana ni w\bar{v}sa 156 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 buligini pie fo nini.

Kèm Siloam buligō-nı ø píə fò nīní.

Go:IMP Siloam well:sg-loc cat wash 2sg eye:PL.

"Go to the well of Siloam and wash your eyes." (Jn 9:7)

Ka Suntaana kpɛn' Judas [...] sunfun.

Kà Sūtáanà kpɛñ' Judas [...] sunfin.

And Satan enter Judas [...] heart:sg-loc.

"Satan entered Judas' heart." (Lk 22:3)

Ka Pailet lɛn yi nidibin la na ya'asi yɛli ba ye...

Kà Pailet lɛ́m yī nīdıbí-n lā nā yá'àsı ø yɛ́lì bā yɛ̃...

And Pilate again emerge person:PL-loc art hither again cat say 3PL.ob that ...

"Pilate came out to the people again and said to them ..." (Jn 19:4)
```

ILK has, transposed into the orthography of this grammar:

```
\grave{O} b\grave{\epsilon} d\acute{a}'a-n. "He's at market." \grave{O} b\grave{\epsilon} s\check{j}\acute{a}'ar\bar{\iota}-n. "He's at the bush." \grave{O} b\grave{\epsilon} p\bar{\jmath}2g\acute{u}-n. "He's at the farm."
```

Ò

dìaıl

```
Ò bὲ yín.
Ö bὲ sākulí-n.
Ö bὲ mɔ̄ɔgv-n.
Ö bὲ kɔ̄lɪgɪ-n
Ö bὲ tūνmmι-n.
"He's at home."
"He's at school."
"He's in the grasslands."
"He's at the stream."
"He's at work."
```

More precise locative meanings are expressed with postpositions, many of which themselves include the locative particle 17.6.

```
3AN lay.down book:sg art table:sg art upon.

"She's put the book on the table."

Dāμ lā bέ nē dɔ́-kàŋā lā pύυgō-n.

Man:sg art exist foc hut-dem.dei.sg art inside:sg-loc.

"The man is inside that hut."
```

gbáun lā téebòl lā zúg.

Kusaasi place names <u>32.3</u>, many postpositions, and a number of proadverbs <u>17.7</u> are "intrinsically locative", here analysed as accompanied by a zero allomorph of the locative particle (see above):

```
Ò bè Bók.
                                  "He's at Bawku." ILK
Ò bè Témpáan.
                                  "He's at Tempane." ILK
Ò kèn Bók.
                                  "He's gone to Bawku."
                                 "She's put the book on the table." (above)
Ò dìgıl gbáun lā téebbl lā zúg.
dàtluŋ² or dltúŋ²
                                  "righthand"
dàgòbiga
                                  "lefthand"
àgźl<sup>lɛ</sup> or àgɔ̄lá+
                                  "upwards"
IāIIί+
                                  "far off"
                                               (? lal n(+))
```

Place names often have a locative proform in apposition, particularly to express rest at a place, as opposed to movement towards or away:

```
M ná kēŋ Bók."I'm going to Bawku."Fò yúùg Bók kpēláa?"Have you been long in Bawku (here)?"Fò yúùg 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 $n\bar{\iota}^{+/}$ or paraphrases like *Jerusalem ténī-n* "in Jerusalem-land."

Proforms used in locative heads of relative clauses are intrinsically locative, and consequently so is the relative clause as a whole 28.2:

```
biig la n be si'el la
bīig lá n bè sī'əl lā
child:sg art nz exist indf.inan art
"the place where the child was" (Mt 2:9, 1976)

ka mɔri fu keŋ zin'ikanɛ ka fu pu bɔɔda.
kà mɔ̄rí fù ø kēŋ zín'-kànı kà fù pū bɔ́ɔdā +ø.
and have 2sg.ob cat go place-rel.sg and 2sg neg.ind want neg.
"and take you where you do not want." (Jn 21:18)
```

Some words incorporate n^{ε} always, whether used as locatives or not:

```
t \dot{\epsilon} \eta - p \bar{\upsilon} \upsilon g \upsilon - n^{\epsilon/} "village" pl t \dot{\epsilon} \eta - p \bar{\upsilon} \upsilon d \iota - n^{\epsilon/}
```

Note also the *time* expressions:

```
b\bar{\epsilon}og^{\circ} "tomorrow"
b\bar{\epsilon}og\upsilon\text{-}n^{\epsilon l} "morning"
s\bar{a}n\text{-}si'\bar{a}\text{-}n l\bar{a} "at one time, once..." 24.1.3
y\bar{i}igi\cdot n^{\epsilon} "at first"
```

Locative AdvPs can be coordinated:

```
Nyalima na bɛ winnigin nɛ nwadigin nɛ nwadbibisin.

Nyālımá nà bē winnigī-n nē nwādlgi-n nē nwād-bibisī-n.

Wonder:PL IRR 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 $z\bar{u}g$ "upon" 17.6; similarly for proforms:

```
àlá z \dot{u} g^{\circ} "therefore" b \bar{b} z \dot{u} g^{\circ} "why?" dìn z \dot{u} g^{\circ} "therefore"
```

17.4 Manner

AdvPs of manner may be instantiated by proforms, and there also are several morphologically distinctive manner-adverb formations. Various NP types can be used as manner AdvPs; like time adverbs, true manner-adverbs do not take dependents.

Distinctive manner-adverbs often show apocope-blocking <u>6.4</u>. Some have the **manner-adverb prefix** \grave{a} - <u>14.2</u> or are derived from adjective stems with the suffixes m^{m} or $-ga^{+}$ <u>12.3</u>. Others include

```
p\bar{a}al\dot{b}^+ "openly" "brightly, clearly" written nyain 1.3.2
```

 $\check{N}y\bar{a}e^{n\epsilon/}$ shows the characteristic distribution of a manner-adverb rather than a noun, appearing as complement of $\grave{a}e\check{n}^a$ "be something" and as an adjunct:

```
Wina'am a su'um nyain.
                                "God is light." (1 Jn 1:5, 1996)
Wínà'am áň sým
                         ňyāe.
God
         COP good: ABSTR brightly.
... kε ka ti lieb nyain.
                                "... make us light." (1 Jn 1:7)
... kέ
         kà tì líàb
                         ňyāe.
... cause and 1PL become brightly.
... na nye lini nie nyain pamm
... nà ňyĒ línì
                   nìe
                          ňyāe
                                   pāmm
... IRR see REL.INAN appear brightly much
"...will see a great light" ["what appears very brightly"] (Mt 4:16, 1976)
```

A number of manner-adverbs are formed by **reduplication of roots**.

```
n\dot{a}'an\bar{a}^{+/}"easily"t\dot{b}'b\dot{b}^{+/}"straight away" (Mooré taotao id)k\bar{b}''b\dot{b}^{+}"solely, by oneself"
```

Reduplication of nouns forms a number of **distributive** manner-AdvPs:

```
dàbısır dábısìr "day by day" zīň'ig zíň'ìg "place by place"
```

Reduplication of number words is similarly distributive <u>16.4.2.4</u>. Reduplication of manner-adverbs themselves is intensifying:

```
àmēŋá mēŋá "very truly"àsídà sídà "very truly"
```

M wóm Kōsáàl bī əlá. "I know Kusaal a little."15G hear: IPFV Kusaal slightly,

M wóm brəl brəl. "I understand a very little."

15G hear: IPFV little little.

A very common form of manner-AdvP is a relative clause using the proform $s\bar{r} \rightarrow m^m$ "somehow" as head 28.2.2.

Manner-adverbs resemble generic mass nouns in their syntactic behaviour in several respects. Even count nouns in generic senses may be encountered as AdvPs:

```
\mathring{M} k \not\in g n \not\ni b \nota. "I went on foot." SB; WK corrected this to 1SG go leg:PL. \mathring{M} k \not\in g n \not\ni b \nota, using n \not\in b "with."
```

A prepositional phrase with $n\bar{\varepsilon}$ occurs parallel to a count plural used adverbially in

```
À-nyē nē nīf són'o À-wòm tòba.

PERS-see with eye:sg be.better.than PERS-hear ear:PL

"Saw-with-eye beats Heard-with-Ears" (Seeing is believing.)
```

Mass quantifiers, like abstract mass nouns, are frequently used adverbially:

```
Ò tùm bέdugō. "She's worked a lot."Ò tùm pāmm. "She's worked a lot."
```

Wūsa "all" readily switches from quantifying an object to adverbial use:

```
Bà gòsī tí wūsa. "They've looked at us all." WK

3PL look.at 1PL.0B all. (for: Bà gòsí tì wūsa. 3PL look.at 1PL all.)
```

This is not a universal property of quantifiers:

```
B\grave{a}\ g\grave{>}\bar{\imath}\ t\acute{\iota}\ b\acute{\epsilon}dvg\bar{\upsilon}. "They've looked at us a lot." WK B\grave{a}\ g\grave{>}\bar{\imath}\ t\grave{\iota}\ b\grave{\epsilon}dvg\bar{\upsilon}. "They've looked at a lot of us." WK
```

Numbers have specific forms for the adverbial meaning "so many times"

16.4.2.4; the other count quantifiers sometimes appear similarly as adverbs:

```
Bà gòsĩ tí bábıgā. "They've looked at us many times." WK
Bà gòsí tì bàbıgā. "They've looked at many of us." WK
```

Manner AdvPs can be coordinated: so for example with *sī əm* clauses <u>28.2.2</u>.

17.5 AdvPs as verb arguments

The prototypical use of AdvPs is as adjuncts within the VP, or for time or circumstance AdvPs, as clause adjuncts:

```
Fù dúe w\bar{\epsilon}l\acute{a} +\emptyset? literally "How did you rise?"; morning greeting. 25G rise how cQ? B\bar{\epsilon}og\acute{o} fù ná k\bar{u}l. "You're going home tomorrow." SB Tomorrow 25G IRR return.home.
```

AdvPs also occur as verb arguments. All types can appear as subjects of the verb $\grave{a} \not\in \check{n}^a$ "be something /somehow" 21.2. Adjectival verbs may also have an AdvP subject, and there are a few examples with other verbs:

```
Yin venl, ka poogin ka'a su'um.
        vέňl
                    kà pūvgv-n
                                     kā'
                                            súmm
                                                        +ø.
Yìn
Outside be.beautiful and inside:sg-loc neg.be good:abstr neg.
"Outside is beautiful but inside is not good." (Acts 23:3, 1996)
Kristo da kpii ti yεla la kε ka ti baŋ nɔŋilim an si'em.
Kristo ø dà kpìi tì yēlá lā ké
                                       kà tì báŋ
                                                      nònılím ø àň sī əm.
Christ NZ TNS die 1PL about ART cause and 1PL realise love
"Christ dying for us makes us understand what love is like." (1 Jn 3:16)
(absolute clause AdvP 28.1 as subject)
```

```
In S\grave{\upsilon}\eta\bar{a} b\acute{\epsilon}. "OK it is." WK Good: ADV EXIST.
```

sờŋā is however used metalinguistically, meaning "the word sờŋā."

The verb $\grave{a} \underline{e} \check{n}^a$ characteristically takes a manner-adverb or derived abstract noun complement in preference to an adjective $\underline{21.2}$.

Kusaal frequently uses manner-adverb proforms instead of pronouns with abstract reference as verb objects <u>20.2.1</u>:

```
O nìní àlá. "She did that." ("thus")
```

Relative clauses with the proform $s\vec{r} \ni m^m$ "somehow" as head are accordingly used after verbs of cognition, reporting and perception, to express the subordinate interrogative sense "say [etc] what ..." 28.2.2.

Verbs with appropriate meanings frequently take locative AdvPs as complements, rather than as adjuncts 20.3. The verb $k\bar{a}'e$ "not be" shows differing sandhi behaviour depending on the status of the AdvP 8.5.3.

17.6 Postpositions

Postpositions are adverbs with a predeterminer $\underline{16.10.3}$. Most are either literally or metaphorically locative. Postpositional phrases are AdvPs and can be preposed with $k\grave{a}$ $\underline{30.2}$ freely, unlike prepositional phrases with $n\bar{\epsilon}$. Regardless of the definiteness of their predeterminers, postpositions continue to behave syntactically like generic non-count nouns, so that postpositional phrases as NP pre-dependents are modifiers rather than determiners $\underline{16.10.2.3}$.

Postpositions may not be coordinated, but their predeterminers may:

```
tinam n\varepsilon fun suugin\varepsilon? "between us and you?" (Mt 8:29) tīnám n\bar{\varepsilon} fūn súugū-n\varepsilon +\varphi?

1PL with 2SG between-LOC PQ?
```

Many postpositions are readily recognisable as special uses of ordinary nouns. Some postpositions are AdvPs including the locative particle.

```
"onto" (zūgɔ/ "head")

téɛbùl lā zúg "onto the table"

Zūgɔ/ is frequently used metaphorically to express a reason "because of ..."

dāu lā zúg "on account of the man"

bɔ̄-zúgò? "why?" (cf bɔ̄ zúgɔ̄ "because" 24.1.3)

Mán ňwè' dāu lā zúg kà police gbáň'a m.

1sg:Nz strike man:sg art upon and police seize 1sg.ob.

"Because I struck the man the police arrested me." 28.1.2
```

Although reason-AdvPs are, as here, frequently preposed with $k\grave{a}$, they may occur as clause-level presubject adjuncts 25.1.1:

```
Pian'akane ka m pian' tisi ya la zug, ya ane nyain.
       Piàň'-kànı
                     kà m̀ piān' g tísì yā lā zúg, yà á nε nyāe.
       Word-REL.SG and 1SG speak CAT give 2PL.OB ART upon, 2PL COP FOC brightly.
       "Because of the the words I have spoken to you, you are clean." (Jn 15:3)
       The set expression s\bar{a}a z u g^3 is used for "sky"; it is intrinsically locative:
       Ka kukor yi saazug na ...
       Kà kùkōr yī
                           sāa zúg nā ...
       And voice emerge rain onto hither
       "And a voice came from heaven..." (Jn 12:28)
zūgύ-n<sup>ε</sup>
                                          "on"
       tέεbùl lā zúgō-n
                                          "on the table"
tēŋίrε
                                          "under" (t\bar{\epsilon}\eta^a "ground")
       tέεbùl lā ténìr
                                          "under the table"
       As a locative adverb without a predeterminer:
                                          "Look down!", more commonly Gɔ̀sım tēηι-n!
       Gàsım tēŋír!
pūυgυ-n<sup>ε/</sup>
                                          "inside" (pvvga "belly, inside")
       dūk lā púvgū-n
                                          "in the pot"
       ňwādis yúùm lā púugū-n
                                          "months in the year" (metaphorical locative)
                                          "beside" (pl of bābur<sup>ɛ/</sup> "sphere of activity")
bābá<sup>+</sup>
       m n5bá bàba
                                          "beside my feet"
sìsùugū-n<sup>ɛ/</sup>
                                          "between" (replaced by s\dot{\nu}ug\bar{\nu}-n^{\epsilon/} in KB)
       tīnám nē fūn sísùugū-n
                                          "between us and you"
```

"in front of"

tùen^{nε}

```
dāká lā túèn
                                          "in front of the box"
       Gàsım túèn!
                                          "Look to the front", without a predeterminer
cf
gbìn<sup>nɛ</sup>
                                          "at the bottom of" (gbin^{n\epsilon} "buttock")
       zūer lā gbín
                                          "at the foot of the mountain"
ňyá'aŋ<sup>a</sup>
                                          "behind; after (time)" (nyá'aŋa "back")
       lì ňyá'aŋa
                                          "afterwards" as a presubject adjunct 25.1.1
                    ňyá'àη kà ò
       ΝĒ'ŋá
                                     kūl.
       DEM.DEI.INAN after and 3AN return.home.
       "After this she went home."
sā'an<sup>€/</sup>
                                          "into/in the presence of", "in the opinion of"
       Wínà'am sá'àn
                                          "in the sight of God"
       Fù ná dī'e
                       tíìm
                                  pu'á-bàmmā
                                                      lā sá'àn.
       2SG IRR receive medicine woman-DEM.DEI.PL ART among.
       "You'll get the medicine from where those women are."
                                          "about, concerning" (pl of y\bar{\epsilon}l^{|\epsilon|} "matter, affair")
yĒlá<sup>+</sup>
       Bà yèl·ō ø
                                    yĒlá
                                           wūsa.
                           mān
       3PL say
                   3AN.OB 1SG.CNTR about all
       "They told him all about me."
kōň'okō
                                          cf àdàkóň' "one" 16.4.2.2
       m̀ kɔ̃n̆'ɔkɔ̃
                                          "by myself"
```

17.7 Proadverbs

Adverbs have corresponding proforms.

	<u>Demonstrative</u>		<u>Indefinite</u>	<u>Interrogative</u>	
Place	kpē+	"here"	zìň'-sī'a ⁺	yáa ní+	"where?"
	kpēlá ⁺	"there"	"somewhere"	yáa	"whither
	àní ⁺	"there"			/whence?"
	ànínā ^{+/}	"there"			
Time	nānná+	"now"	sān-sí¹a+	sān-kán ^ε	"when?"
	nānná-nā ^{+/}	"now"	"sometime"	būn-dáàr [€]	"which day?"
	sān-kán ^ɛ	"then"		bò-wìn ^{nε}	"what time of day?"
Manner	àňwá ⁺	"like this"	sī'əm ^m	wε̃lá ⁺	"how?"
	àwá nā+/	"like this"	"somehow"		
	àlá ⁺	"like that"			

The indefinites are used in relative clauses 28.2.2.

The \grave{a} - of the "manner" forms is the manner-adverb prefix and is preceded by the LF-final vowel - ι 8.2.2; contrast proquantifiers 16.4.3.

Proforms expressing reason are formed with the postposition $z\bar{u}g^{5}/17.6$: àlá $z\dot{u}g^{5}$ "because of that", $b\bar{z}ug^{5}$? "why?" (cf $b\bar{z}ug^{5}$ "because" 24.1.3.)

18 Prepositions

Prepositional phrases function typically as clause adjuncts, but sometimes as VP complements 20.4. They cannot form components of noun phrases. Neither prepositions, nor their objects, can be coordinated. For prepositions used as conjunctions see 24.1.3.

18.1 Simple

 $n\bar{\epsilon}$ is "with" in both the "accompanying" and instrumental senses. The $n\bar{\epsilon}$ "and" which coordinates NPs and AdvPs <u>16.7</u> is presumably fundamentally the same word, although in that sense it is parallel in usage to $b\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon$ and $k\bar{\nu}\nu$ "or", which do not behave as prepositions. Unlike other prepositions, $n\bar{\epsilon}$ may only take NPs as complements, including nominalised $n\bar{\nu}$ -clauses, but excluding content clauses; it cannot function as a conjunction.

WK has forms of $n\bar{\epsilon}$ with bound personal pronouns:

```
n(m^a) n(t\bar{\iota}^{+/}) n(f^a) n(y\bar{a}^{+/}) n\cdot \dot{o}^{-0} [n\tilde{v}(:)] n(b\bar{a}^{+/})
```

The $ne\ o$ of the 1996 NT version is frequently read $[n\tilde{o}]$ in the audio version. Other speakers only use $n\bar{\epsilon}$ with free pronouns; WK has alternative forms also with $n\dot{\epsilon}$ before those clitic pronouns which have a vowel in SF: $n\dot{\epsilon}\ l\hat{\iota}$, $n\dot{\epsilon}\ t\hat{\iota}$, $n\dot{\epsilon}\ y\dot{a}$, $n\dot{\epsilon}\ b\dot{a}$, with the pronouns having L toneme throughout; SB has the same forms. The H toneme on the preposition in WK's forms with $n\dot{\iota}$ is difficult to explain; compare perhaps the tonemes of Pattern H 2-mora stem verbs before object pronouns 7.3.1. Examples for $n\bar{\epsilon}$:

```
Lìginím fò nīf
                        fù nú'ùg.
                   nέ
Cover:IMP 2SG eye:SG with 2SG hand:SG.
"Cover your eye with your hand."
                              "They've gone on foot." WK
Bà kèn nē nōbá.
3PL go with leg:PL.
Dìm
                    dā
                           tύ'às nē Wīnnέ +ø.
       nē
            Wīn.
Eat:IMP with God:sg, NEG.IMP talk with God:sg NEG.
"Eat with God, don't talk with God."
(Proverb. Be grateful for God's generosity and don't complain.)
```

```
Kùlım nē sumbogosom.

Kùlım nē sùmbōgosím.

Return.home:IMP with peace.

"Go home in peace." (Mk 5:34)

[Bárıkà né fù] kēn kēn.

[Blessing with 2sG] arrival arrival.

"Welcome!" (a greeting template 31)

M géň' né fù. "I'm angry with you." SB

1sG get.angry:PRV with 2sG.
```

 $w\bar{v}v$ "like" occurs often after $w\bar{\varepsilon}n^{\mathsf{na}/}$ "resemble" introducing its complement; the preposition $n\bar{\varepsilon}$ also frequently occurs instead of $w\bar{v}v$.

The object of comparison, whether introduced by $w\bar{\nu}\nu$ or by $n\bar{\epsilon}$ after $w\bar{\epsilon}n^{\mathsf{nal}}$, is followed by an empty particle $n\bar{\epsilon}$ after any object which does not already have the article $|\bar{a}^{+}|$, even if it is a pronoun, or is specific:

```
"like me"

"like a donkey"

Ka o nindaa wenne nintaŋ ne.

Kà ò nīn-dáa wēn nē nīntāŋ nē.

And ЗАN eye-face:sg resemble with sun:sg like.
"His face is like the sun." (Rev 10:1, 1996)

Alazugɔ mɔri ya'am wvv wiigi nɛ...
Àlá zùgō, mòrī yā'm wvv wiigí nē...
Therefore, have sense like snake:pl like...
"Therefore, be wise as serpents ..." (Mt 10:16)
```

 $W\bar{\upsilon}\upsilon$, $w\bar{\varepsilon}n$ $w\bar{\upsilon}\upsilon$, and $w\bar{\varepsilon}n$ $n\bar{\varepsilon}$ can also be used for "about" with numbers. The object is not followed by the redundant $n\bar{\varepsilon}$ in this case:

```
wōv tūsá àyí "about 2000" like thousand:PL NUM:two
```

The object of a comparison is often a *sī'əm* relative clause:

```
Ò zòt wūu búŋ n zòt sī əm lā.
```

3AN run:IPFV like donkey:SG NZ run:IPFV INDF.ADV ART.

"He runs like a donkey runs."

With pronoun objects WK has

```
w\bar{\upsilon}\upsilon mān LF mán\bar{\varepsilon}w\acute{\upsilon}\upsilon tìw\bar{\upsilon}\upsilon fōn LF fún\bar{\varepsilon}w\acute{\upsilon}\upsilon yàw\bar{\upsilon}\upsilon \bar{\varsigma}n^{\varepsilon}w\acute{\upsilon}\upsilon bà
```

H toneme again appears before the fixed-L pronouns.

WK permits phrases introduced by $w\bar{\nu}v$ to be preposed with $k\grave{a}$ 30.2, but rejects this construction for $n\bar{\epsilon}$ + NP:

```
Wūυ bún né kà ò zót.
```

Like donkey:sg like and 3AN run:IPFV.

"Like a donkey, he runs."

```
but *N\(\xi\) m n\(\displies\) n\(\displies\) k\(\alpha\) m s\(\overline{\cappa}\) 'is.
```

With **1sg** hand:**sg** and **1sg** touch.

is not possible for "With my hand, I touched it."

A clausal object of $w\bar{v}v$ is typically a relative clause with $s\bar{r} \ni m$ 28.2.2, but $w\bar{v}v$ can also be construed with a following content clause, i.e. as a conjunction 24.1.3.:

```
M pian'adi tisidi ya wvv ya anɛ m biis nɛ.

M pi̯áň'adī ø tísìdī yá wvv yà á nɛ́ m̀ bīis nɛ̃.

1SG speak:IPFV CAT give:IPFV 2PL.OB like 2PL COP FOC 1SG child:PL like.

"I talk to you as if you were my children." (2 Cor 6:13)
```

```
àsέε<sup>=</sup> is "except for" (← Hausa sai)
```

```
àsέε Wínà'am "except for God" (calquing the Twi gye Nyame)
```

For pronoun objects the free forms are used.

 $\dot{A}s\dot{\epsilon}\varepsilon^{-}$ also occurs commonly as a conjunction <u>24.1.3</u>.

hālí⁺ means "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 hatta: (Heath 2005.)

O daa pun ane ninkuud hali pin'ilugun sa.

Ò dāa pún à nε̄ nīn-kύὺd hālí pīň'ilúgō-n sá.

3AN TNS previously **cop foc** person-killer:**sg** even beginning:**sg-loc** since.

"He was a murderer from the beginning." (In 8:44)

For pronoun objects, the free forms are used.

 $H\bar{a}l(+)$ can also appear as a conjunction 24.1.3, before catenator-n 23.4, and as an Emphatic 30.6.

Before a manner-adverb $h\bar{a}l\ell$ means "even" or just "very"

Lì tòe hālí bédugū. "It's very difficult." **3INAN** be.bitter until much.

The adverb itself may be ellipted:

Lì tòe hālí. "It's very difficult."

 $H\bar{a}li$ in the adverbial sense "even" may be preposed with $k\dot{a}$ 30.2:

Hali ka nidib mor ban'adnam na.

Hālí kà nīdıb mɔr báň'àd-nàm nā.

Even and person:PL have sick.person-PL hither.

"People even brought the sick" (Acts 5:15)

18.2 Complex

W $\bar{\epsilon}$ n $n\bar{\epsilon}$ X and **w** $\bar{\epsilon}$ n **w** $\bar{\nu}$ v X have become prepositional phrases, to the extent that the entire sequence $w\bar{\epsilon}$ n + preposition + object can be preposed with $k\dot{a}$ 30.2, and a change of polarity can occur before it:

```
Da lo ya nindaase, wenne foosug dim la niŋid si'em la.
```

do: IPFV INDF. ADV ART.

"Don't screw up your faces like the hypocrites do." (Mt 6:16, 1976)

The compound preposition $l\hat{a}'am n\bar{\epsilon}$ "together with" derives from a VP-chaining construction 23.3.2:

```
...mɔr ya'am yinne la'am nɛ tɛn'ɛsa yinne.
... mɔr yā'm yīnní là'am nē tēň'ɛsá yīnní.
... have sense one together with thought one.
"... had one mind together with one thought." (Acts 4:32)
```

Hālí $n\bar{\epsilon}$ and $h\bar{a}lí$ $l\dot{a}$ 'am $n\bar{\epsilon}$ are found before \dot{n} -clauses with the meaning "despite, even though":

```
hali nε man daa sobi tisi ya si'em la, m daa pυ sobi li
hālí nē mán dāa sɔ̄bı ø tísì yā
                                         sī'əm
even with 1SG:NZ TNS write CAT give 2PL.OB INDF.ADV ART
              s5bί lī ...
m dāa pū
1SG TNS NEG.IND write 3INAN.OB ...
"Though I wrote to you like that, I did not write it ..." (2 Cor 7:12)
Hali la'am nε on daa an yεlsυm wusa daan la, o da lieb nɔŋdaan...
Hālí là'am
              nē ón
                          dāa áň yēl-súm
                                                   wūsa dáàn
                                                                  Ιā,
Even together with 3AN:NZ TNS COP matter-goodness all
                                                         owner:sg art,
ò dà lìəb
               nōn-dáàn...
3AN TNS become poverty-owner:SG...
"Although he possessed every blessing, he became poor..." (2 Cor 8:9)
```

19 Verbal predicators

19.1 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 which are also phonologically dependent on the VPred are described in this section 19.7, although they are not part of the VPred syntactically. They comprise preverbs, 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 VPred is subject to independency marking $\underline{19.6}$. This is primarily a tone overlay, but there are associated segmental features: the particle $y\bar{a}^+$ after phrase-final perfective forms 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, primarily marked by verb flexion. 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 flexion $-m^a$ of variable verbs is a portmanteau marker of imperative mood, positive polarity and independency.

The VPred shows no agreement. Apparent number agreement in imperatives is actually due to the incorporation of the postposed 2nd pl subject pronoun ^{ya}.

The VPred thus consists of a single verb word, along with proclitic and enclitic particles which occur in a fixed order:

	Tense		Mood	Preverb		LE1	LE2
Ιὲε	dàa	nàm	$\emptyset \leftrightarrow p\bar{\upsilon}$	pùn	VERB	n ^ε	m ^a
	sàa		ø ↔ dā	lèm		ya	f
	Ø		nà ↔ kừ	tì			0
	pà'			kpèlım			h+
	sà			là'am			tı+
	dāa			dèŋım			ya ⁺
	dà			ňyēε(tι)			ba ⁺
				•••			

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. LE1. LE2 are liaison enclitic slots 19.7.3.

For $l \varepsilon \varepsilon$ "but" see 19.7.1; for $n \delta m$ "still" see 19.3.

Verbs of the majority "variable" type mark aspect by flexion 11.1.

Tone Pattern LO verbs have all-M tones in the irrealis mood 7.3.

19.2 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**, with imperfective further subdivided into **dynamic** and **stative**. Variable verbs distinguish aspects by flexion: the unmarked stem form is perfective, the suffix *-da forms a dynamic (not stative) imperfective, and a form with *-ma is used for imperative when the verb word itself carries the independency-marking tone overlay 11.1 19.6.1.1. Invariable verbs have a single form which is either dynamic or stative imperfective as a lexical matter.

Directly following a verb with imperfective aspect, with no words other than liaison enclitics intervening, the **VP focus particle** $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ 30.1.2 may limit the VPred time reference or mark a contrast with another time at which the situation expressed by the verb did not obtain; the meaning might be paraphrased "at the time referred to in particular." With dynamic imperfectives this marks a distinction analogous to the difference between English "progressive" (with $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$) and "habitual" (without $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$) aspects. After perfectives which express a change of state in the subject, $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ typically occurs when there is a **resultative** sense.

The focus particle $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ may not be used at all in certain syntactic contexts, and may not appear a second time in a temporal sense if it is already present focussing a constituent; the corresponding VPred distinctions are then unmarked 30.1.2.1.1. The temporal use of $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ is possible only with VPreds having positive polarity and indicative mood; otherwise the corresponding meaning differences may occur, but are again unmarked. Passive constructions always have meanings incompatible with the temporal use of $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$. After perfectives the temporal use of $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ is only possible if the verb expresses a change of state in the subject. See further 30.1.2.1.2.

19.2.1 Perfective

The 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. The perfective of verbs which express a change of state in the subject may have a *resultative* meaning. Perfective is the usual aspect found with the irrealis mood to express future events. Nevertheless, in contexts where there is no tense marking, perfective often does have an implication of *completion*, in contrast with the imperfective.

In fact, the perfective often does occur without tense marking, either explicit or implicit from context 19.3.4. 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:

```
"She's died."
          kpì yā.
      3AN die PFV.
      Sāa dāa ní.
                                       "It rained." (before yesterday.)
      Rain TNS rain.
                                       "It rained." (earlier today.)
      Sāa pá' nì yā.
      Rain TNS rain PFV.
      Sāa ní vā.
                                       "It has rained."
but
      Rain rain PFV.
                                       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 perfective is appropriate. This resembles the English use of the simple present as an **instantaneous present**:

```
\dot{O} y\dot{\epsilon}l y\bar{\epsilon} ... "He says ...." (translating for the foreign doctor) 
3AN say that ...
```

Performatives naturally fall into this category:

```
    M ρύ'òs yā.
    "Thankyou", "I thank you."
    (cf Hausa Naa goodèe, also perfective)
    M siák yā.
    "I agree."
    1sg agree PFV.
```

Verbs of perception and cognition (often correponding to English "stative" verbs that do not use the progressive present) frequently appear as present perfectives, once again corresponding to English simple present:

```
M ňyé nū'-bíbιsá àtáň'.
15G see hand-small:PL NUM:three.
"I can see three fingers."
M téň'ès kà ... "I think that ..."
15G think and ...
```

With verbs which express a change of state in the subject the perfective may have a **resultative** meaning:

```
Lì bàdg yā . "It's got lost." 

3INAN lose PFV. 
Lì bàdg nē . "It's lost." 

3INAN lose FOC.
```

In this sense, perfectives are typically followed by the particle $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$. The meaning arises from the nature of the verb; the particle has its normal temporal meaning "temporary or contingent; at the time referred to in particular." However, temporal $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ is not compatible with the perfective aspect in its usual eventive sense, so a perfective followed by temporal $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ must be taken as resultative.

```
\dot{O} kpi n\bar{\epsilon}. "He's dead."

3AN die FOC. (Not temporary, but still contingent.)

\dot{L} \dot{C} \dot{C} \dot{C} "It's spoilt."

3INAN spoil FOC.
```

Μ αέἤ "I'm tired." nē. **1SG** get.tired **FOC**. Μ αέἤ' "I'm angry." nē. 1SG get.angry FOC. Bà kừdưg "They're old." nē. **3PL** grow.old **FOC**. bòdιg nē. "It's lost." Lì 3INAN lose FOC. wàbιlιm nē. "She's lame." **3AN** lame FOC. \hat{O} gè ϵ \tilde{n} \bar{n} . "She's mad." зам madden **Foc**. "It's full." Lì pè'εl nē. **3INAN** fill FOC. "It's closed." Lì γò nē. 3INAN close FOC. "I'm drunk." M bύg nē. **1SG** get.drunk **FOC**. [calque/borrowing of Hausa bùgu]

There is probably always an implication of a prior change of state, though this is not always clear in WK's glosses, e.g.

Ò lèr "He's ugly." nē. зам get.ugly гос. Lì pèlig nē. "It's white." **3INAN** whiten **FOC**. Lì "It's black." 3INAN blacken Foc. "It's red." Lì mù'ө nē. 3INAN redden Foc.

Most verbs expressing a change of state in the subject are intransitives like kpl^+ "die" or patientive ambitransitives 20.1 like $b \partial d l g^{\epsilon}$ "lose, get lost." The only agentive transitive verbs I have found in this category express putting on clothing:

```
\dot{M} y\dot{\varepsilon} f\bar{u}ug. "I've put a shirt on." 

1SG put.on shirt:SG. "I'm wearing a shirt." 

1SG put.on FOC shirt:SG.
```

Only verbs expressing a change of state in the subject can use the perfective in a resultative meaning. After other perfectives, $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ cannot have a temporal meaning, and must be interpreted as focusing a VP constituent or the entire VP 30.1.2.1.2.

In VP chaining and in complex clauses, the choice of perfective over imperfective implies that the event is complete. Consequently, in VP chaining the order of VPs when the first has perfective aspect is iconic, with constituent order constrained to follow event order 23.1. Thus while English might say: "Two men stood with them, dressed in white", Kusaal must have

```
Ka dapa ayi' yɛ fupiela zi'e ba san'an. Kà dāpá_àyí yɛ fū-píəlà_ ø zì'e bà sā'an. And man:PL NUM:two dress shirt-white:PL CAT stand 3PL among. "Two men dressed in white were standing with them." (Acts 1:10)
```

In contrast, an imperfective may be followed by a perfective:

```
    Nwādisá àtáň' kà fù ná mōr bīig lā n kē nā.
    Month Num:three and 2sg irr have child:sg art cat come hither.
    "Bring the child here in three months." ("having the child, come here.")
```

With absolute clauses as presubject adverbs expressing past "when" the temporal relationship to the main clause is determined by aspect, with a perfective in the absolute clause implying priority and an imperfective simultaneity 28.1.1. In the same way, narrative generally features chains of tense-unmarked sequential clauses 25.3.2 with perfectives describing events strictly in order.

19.2.2 Imperfective

19.2.2.1 Dynamic

The imperfective of variable verbs is marked by the flexion *-da 11.1; it is normally dynamic. The single finite form of invariable verbs is dynamic imperfective or stative, as a lexical matter in each case 11.2.

The dynamic imperfective can be followed by the particle $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ in its temporal sense "at the time referred to in particular."

Without $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$, this aspect implies that the subject has a propensity to the achievement, accomplishment or activity expressed by the verb (often called "habitual aspect"):

Ò ờnbid. "He chews."

3AN chew:IPFV.

Nīdıb kpîid. "People die."

Person:PL die:IPFV.

Nīigí ànbid mād. "Cows eat grass."

Cow:PL chew:IPFV grass:PL.

 $N\bar{i}ig($ $)\check{n}bid$ $n\bar{\epsilon}$ $m\bar{b}id$. "Cows eat grass." ("What do cows eat?")

Cow:PL chew:IPFV FOC grass:PL. Temporal $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ is not possible with a generic

subject: Constituent focus 30.1.2.2.

Nīigí lā ɔ̃ňbìd mɔ̄ɔd. "The cows eat grass."

Cow:pl art chew:ipfv grass:pl.

Nīigí lā ɔ́ňbìd mɔ̄ɔd lā.

Cow:PL ART chew:IPFV grass:PL ART.

"The cows eat the grass."

Nā'-síəbà śňbìd mɔɔd. "Some cows eat grass."

Cow-INDF.PL chew:IPFV grass:PL.

Nā'-síəbà óňbìd mɔɔd lā.

Cow-indf.pl chew:ipfv grass:pl art.

"Some cows eat the grass."

```
\dot{M} zí\ddot{n}'i. "I sit." 

15G be.sitting. \dot{M} zá\ddot{n}l d\bar{a}ká l\bar{a}. "I carry the box in my hands."
```

With $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$, the dynamic imperfective typically has a meaning analogous to the English "progressive" or "continuous."

```
\grave{O} \grave{)}\check{n}\check{b}\iota d n\bar{\epsilon}. "He's chewing."

3AN chew:IPFV FOC.

\grave{M} z(\check{n}'i) n\bar{\epsilon}. "I'm sitting."

1SG be sitting FOC.

\grave{M} z\check{a}\check{n}l n\bar{\epsilon} d\bar{a}k\acute{a} l\bar{a}.

1SG carry.in.hands FOC box:SG ART.

"I'm carrying the box in my hands."
```

1SG carry.in.hands box:SG ART.

As with the English progressive, the sense with verbs describing events rather than processes is typically "time-limited habitual." The plural subject without the article $l\bar{a}^{+/}$ 16.5 contributes to making this the natural interpretation in

```
N\bar{l}dlb kp\hat{l}d n\bar{\epsilon}. "People are dying." Person:PL die:IPFV FOC.
```

19.2.2.2 Stative

The single imperfective finite form of an **invariable verb** may have stative aspect as a lexical matter 11.2.

```
O gìm. "She's short."
BAN be.short. "It's deep."
BINAN be.deep.
M mór pu'ā. "I have a wife."
15G have wife:sG.
```

```
\dot{M} bɔʻɔdī f. "I love you." 
1SG want 2SG.OB.
```

In English, "stative" verbs characteristically do not use the progressive aspect: "I have a car", not *"I am having a car." Kusaal stative verbs similarly do not usually appear with the particle $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ in its temporal sense:

```
\dot{M} mốr lớr. "I have a car." 

15G have car:SG. not *\dot{M} mớr n\bar{\epsilon} lớr.
```

Stative verbs express abiding/intrinsic relationships or predicative adjectival senses, and by default if the particle $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ follows such a verb it is interpreted as focussing either a VP constituent or the VP as a whole; $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ can only be temporal if there is an explicit time reference in the clause itself 30.1.2.1.2 or if the following constituent does not permit focussing with $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ 30.1.2.1.3.

19.3 Tense

19.3.1 Preverbal tense particles

Tense particles come first in the VPred, preceded only by $l\dot{\epsilon}\epsilon$ "but." They are mutually exclusive. The markers are

dàa	"day after tomorrow"
sàa	"tomorrow"
Ø	present, or unmarked 19.3.4
pà'	"earlier today"
sà	"yesterday"
dāa	before yesterday
dà	before the time marked by $d\bar{a}a$

The day begins at sunrise. Thus the common morning greeting:

```
Fù sá ghìs w\bar{\epsilon}l\acute{a} +\phi? "How did you sleep yesterday?" i.e. "last night" 2SG TNS sleep how cQ?
```

The future tense markers require irrealis 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:

```
O sáa zàb nà'ab lā. "Let him fight the chief tomorrow."3AN TNS fight chief:sg ART.
```

The tense particle $d\bar{a}a$ means "before yesterday" but can be used freely for even remote past. Some speakers seem not to use $d\dot{a}$ at all; the NT has numerous parallel passages where the same events are narrated in one passage with $d\bar{a}a$ and in another with $d\dot{a}$. When both markers occur, $d\dot{a}$ always expresses time prior to $d\bar{a}a$. ("Pluperfect" meanings also arise with unaltered tense markers in indirect speech 26.3.2, and tense marking in \dot{n} -clauses within sequential clauses 25.3.2.)

The auxiliary tense particle $n\grave{a}m$ means "still" or with a negative "yet." It can occur after the tense marker \varnothing :

```
Tùm lā nám bὲε +ø? "Is there any medicine left?"

Medicine ART still EXIST PQ? ("Does the medicine still exist?")

dunia nam pv pin'il la

dūnιyá ø nàm pv pin'il lā

world:sg Nz still NEG.IND begin ART

"before the world began" (Mt 25:34) ("The world having not yet begun.")

M nám zī' ø ňyē gbīgιmnε +ø.

1sg still NEG.KNOW CAT see lion:sg NEG.

"I've never seen a lion." SB (see 23.3 on VP-chaining idioms)
```

19.3.2 Discontinuous past

My informants use the **discontinuous-past** marker n^{ε} to make an earlier-today past with indicative meaning:

```
\dot{M} 5\dot{n}bid\bar{l}-n s\bar{u}mma. "I was eating groundnuts." 
1SG chew:IPFV-DP groundnut:PL.
```

This implies "and now I'm not", a sort of anti-current-relevance. Such a "discontinuous" past is proposed for many languages (especially in West Africa) in Plungian and van der Auwera 2006. The clitic n^{ϵ} fulfils the authors' criteria well as a typical manifestation of discontinuous past, unlike the preverbal tense particles, which are not "idle" (in their term) but *required*, except in quite well defined syntactic circumstances 19.3.4. They note (5.2) that discontinuous-past markers often acquire attenuative, hypothetical or counterfactual senses, and in Kusaal this is much the commonest function of n^{ϵ} 27.1.1.

19.3.3 Periphrastic future constructions

Kusaal does not use tense-unmarked indicative imperfectives for immediate future (like English "I'm going home.") The common expression at leave-taking

```
\dot{M} k\acute{u}l y\bar{a}. equivalent in usage to "I'm going home."
```

instead uses a perfective verb form as an instantaneous present 19.2.1.

There are two periphrastic indicative constructions for "to be about to ...":

(a) $b \partial d^a$ "want" + gerund. The subject need not be animate.

```
Tìug lā bóòd līig. "The tree is about to fall." Tree:sg art want fall:ger.
```

```
Yυ'υŋ bɔɔd gaadυg, ka bɛog bɔɔd nier.
Yύ'υŋ bɔ́ɔd gáadùg kà bēog bɔ́ɔd níər.
```

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 from variable and dynamic-invariable verbs, which can be interpreted as expressing an event or process.

(b) using the construction subject + $y\bar{\varepsilon}$ -purpose clause. (Compare subject + $y\bar{\varepsilon}$ -content clause 26.3.) This construction does require an animate subject.

```
\dot{M} y\dot{\epsilon} \dot{m} ku\bar{a} s\bar{u}mma. "I'm going to hoe groundnuts." 
1SG say 1SG hoe groundnut:PL. 
\dot{M} y\dot{\epsilon} \dot{m} ki\dot{a} n\bar{i}m. "I'm going to cut meat" 
1SG say 1SG cut meat:SG.
```

19.3.4 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 constrast 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:

```
Nīdıb
           kpîid n\bar{\epsilon}.
                                  "People are dying."
Person:PL die:IPFV FOC.
Nīdıb
           kpíid.
                                  "People die."
Person:PL die:IPFV.
M zíň'i
                                  "I'm sitting down."
              nē.
1SG be sitting FOC.
Ò gìm.
                                  "She's short."
3AN be.short.
M mór pu'ā.
                                  "I have a wife."
```

1sg have wife:sg.

1sg think and ...

In isolation, it it is not possible to construe expressions like these as past. With perfective aspect, similarly, the sense without an explicit context must be resultative present, perfective-present or instantaneous present 19.2.1:

```
"She's dead."
  kpì nē.
зан die Foc.
                                 "She's died."
Ò kpì yā.
3AN die PFV.
                                 "He says ...." (translating for the foreign doctor)
\hat{O} yèl y\bar{\epsilon} ...
3AN say that ...
M ρύ'ùs yā.
                                 "(I) thank you." cf Hausa Naa goodèe.
1SG greet PFV.
M siák yā.
                                 "I agree."
1SG agree PFV.
M ňyέ nū'-bíbιsá àtáň'.
                                 "I can see three fingers."
15G see hand-small:PL NUM:three.
M tέň'ès kà ...
                                 "I think that ..."
```

Tense-markers can, however, be omitted if there is another time reference in the clause itself, such as a time adverb, or with the irrealis mood, or with the today-past usage of discontinuous-past n^{ϵ} :

```
M sá zàb ná'àb lā sú'ès.
      1SG TNS fight chief:SG ART vesterday.
          záb ná'àb
                      Ιā
                           sú'ès.
and
      15G fight chief:5G ART vesterday.
      both acceptable as "I fought the chief yesterday."
      Fù sáa nà kūl.
      2SG TNS IRR return.home.
and Fù sáa nà kūl
                              bēoa.
      2SG TNS IRR return.home tomorrow.
    Fù nà kūl
and
                          bε̄og.
      2SG IRR return.home tomorrow.
      ... all acceptable for "You'll go home tomorrow."
cf
      Fù ná kūl.
      2SG IRR return.home.
      "You will go home." (later today, tomorrow, next week ...)
      M pá' òňbidī-n
                          sūmma.
      1SG TNS chew:IPFV-DP groundnut:PL.
and
      M źňbidī-n
                       sūmma.
      1SG chew:IPFV-DP groundnut:PL.
      "I was eating groundnuts earlier today."
      (today-past sense of discontinuous-past n^{\varepsilon})
```

Systematic meaningful omission of past tense markers occurs in the sequential clauses characteristic of narrative. In narrative clauses with perfective aspect preceded by $k\grave{a}$, 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 25.3.2.

19.4 Mood

There are three moods: indicative, imperative and irrealis. The distinction among them 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 $p\bar{\nu}$. It is used for statements and questions about the present and past, and timeless events and states. It can express immediate future in periphrastic constructions <u>19.3.3</u>. It is used instead of the irrealis in clauses with $y\dot{a}$ "if", though with some exceptions in negative polarity <u>27.1</u>. It is the only mood which permits the use of the particle $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ with temporal meaning.

Imperative mood is negated by $d\bar{a}$. With variable verbs carrying the independency-marking tone overlay it shows a special inflection $-m^a$ 19.6.2.2 but otherwise the verb word coincides in form with the indicative.

Ò vùl tíìm kà ò nóbìr p \bar{v} záb $\bar{\varepsilon}$ + φ .

3AN swallow medicine and 3AN leg:SG NEG.IND fight NEG.

"She took medicine and her leg didn't hurt." WK

 \dot{O} \dot{V} \dot{V}

3AN swallow medicine and 3AN leg:SG NEG.IMP fight NEG.

"She took medicine so her leg wouldn't hurt." WK

Note that the clause introducer particle $k\grave{a}$ permits either construction 26.1. The $-m^a$ imperative of variable verbs is perfective by default:

Kòňsim! "Cough!"

Imperatives without independency-marking tone overlay make perfective/imperfective distinctions in the usual way by verb flexion:

Dā kóňsē +ø! "Don't cough!"

NEG.IMP cough **NEG!**

(To a patient during an eye operation under local anaesthetic, who just has coughed.)

Dā kóňsidā +ø! "Don't cough!"

NEG.IMP cough: IPFV NEG!

(Explaining before the operation what to avoid throughout)

Whether or not it carries the distinctive $-m^a$, imperative mood is followed by the enclitic 2pl subject pronoun y^a in direct commands to several people 25.2.3.

The particle $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ cannot appear in its temporal sense with the imperative, but $\grave{a}l\acute{a}$ "thus" after imperatives imposes continuous/progressive meaning:

```
"Eat!"
Dìm!
Dìmí àlá!
                                "Carry on eating!"
Informants contract the -(-à- in these forms to either -(- or -á- [dimila] [dimala]
Dìmī-ní
                àlá!
                                "Keep ye on eating!"
                                                          [dɪmɪnɪla] [dɪmɪnala]
Eat:IMP-2PL.SUB ADV:thus!
Kùesımī-ní
               àlá
                        kī
                               n tísıdī bá.
Sell:IMP-2PL.SUB ADV:thus millet CAT give:IPFV 3PL.OB.
"Keep ye on selling millet to them."
Invariable verbs used as imperatives frequently add à/á:
```

```
Dìgí àlá!
                                "Keep on lying down!"
                                                            [digila] [digala]
Zì'é àlá!
                                "Be still!" (Jesus to the storm, Mk 4:39, 1976)
             text zi'ela
                      àlá!
                                "Keep (ye) on lying down." [dɪgɪnɪla] [dɪgɪnala]
Dìgī-ní
Be.lying.down-2PL.SUB ADV:thus!
Āa-nί
           àlá
                    bāaňlím!
                                "Be (ye) quiet!"
COP-2PL.SUB ADV:thus quiet:ABSTR!
Bēe-nί
             àlá
                      ànínā!
                                "Be ye there!"
EXIST-2PL.SUB ADV:thus ADV:there!
```

Imperative mood is used in direct commands and prohibitions and in subordinate clauses expressing purpose. Imperative mood also follows another imperative in VP chaining.

```
      Gɔ̀sɪm!
      "Look!"

      Look:IMP!
      "Look ye!"

      Cɔ̀sɪmī ø!
      "Look ye!"

      Look:IMP 2PL.SUB!
```

```
Dā
       ḡsε +ø!
                                "Don't look!"
NEG.IMP look NEG!
ΚὲΙ
                                "Let her look!"
          kà ò
                   aɔ̄s!
Cause: IMP and 3AN look!
                                "Come and look!"
Kὲm
         nā
                n gɔ̄s!
Come: IMP hither CAT look!
                                "Follow!"
Dàl!
Follow!
Dòllī ø!
                                "Follow ye!"
Follow 2PL.SUB!
                                "Follow me!"
Dòllī_ m!
Follow 1SG.OB!
Dàllī-ní
                                "Follow ye me!"
Follow-2PL.SUB 1SG.OB!
Mòr nīn-báalìg!
                                "Have pity!"
Have eye-pity!
```

Irrealis mood expresses future statements and questions and has the preverbal mood markers $n\dot{a}$ (positive) $k\dot{v}$ (negative.) Tone Pattern LO verbs show a tone perturbation to all-M tonemes in this mood. 7.3.

The irrealis mood distinguishes aspects by verb flexion like the indicative, but temporal $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ cannot occur. Perfective aspect occurs much more often than imperfective.

Irrealis mood with past tense markers is *conditional* (not future-in-the-past.)

```
    Ò dāa ná zāb ná'àb lā.
    3AN TNS IRR fight chief:sg ART.
    "He would have fought the chief" (but didn't)
```

For the use of this form in clauses with $y\dot{a}$ ' "if" see 27.1.

19.5 Polarity

VPred negation markers are preverbal particles which combine this function with mood marking. They appear after tense markers but before preverbs. The negation markers induce the appearance of a clause final negative prosodic clitic which causes the clause-final word to appear in Long Form 8.1; on the position of the clitic see further 29.3.

Temporal use of $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ is not compatible with negative polarity 30.1.2.1.2. Indicative mood is negated by $p\bar{v}$ (for some speakers $b\bar{v}$, as in Toende Kusaal.) Imperative mood is negated by $d\bar{a}$; conversely, forms which are negated by $d\bar{a}$ are imperative. Irrealis mood is negated by $k\dot{v}$, which replaces the positive irrealis marker $n\dot{a}$. Younger speakers sometimes use $k\dot{v}$ for $p\bar{v}$, but none of my informants accepts this.

```
zàb ná'àb lā.
                                "He's fought the chief."
3AN fight chief:SG ART.
Òρū
           záb nà ab láa +ø.
3AN NEG.IND fight chief:SG ART NEG.
"He hasn't fought the chief."
Zàm
         ná'àb
                                "Fight the chief!"
                lā!
Fight: IMP chief: SG ART!
Dā
       záb nà'ab
                    láa +ø!
                                "Don't fight the chief!"
NEG.IMP fight chief:SG ART NEG!
   nà zāb ná'àb
                                "He'll fight the chief."
Ò
                     Ιā.
3AN IRR fight chief:SG ART.
Ò
   kὺ
           zāb ná'àb
                        láa +ø.
3AN NEG.IRR fight chief:SG ART NEG.
"He won't fight the chief."
```

There are four negative verbs, which are equivalent to negative particle + positive verb $\underline{29.1.1}$ mit "see that it doesn't happen that...", $z\bar{\iota}^{"}$ "not know", $k\bar{a}^{"}\dot{\varrho}^{+}$ "not be, not have", and $k\dot{a}^{"}$ as $ig\bar{\epsilon}$ (LF only) "not exist."

19.6 Independency marking

The VPred of a main clause 25.1 or content clause 26.3 is marked as independent. The marking is absent in all subordinate clause types other than content clauses, and all VPs in VP chaining after the first. It is also absent in all clauses introduced by $k\grave{a}$ other than content clauses, regardless of whether they are subordinate or insubordinate 24.2. The marker is primarily a tone overlay, but has associated segmental manifestations.

19.6.1 Tonal Features

19.6.1.1 Tone overlay

The independency-marking tone overlay is manifested only on VPreds with positive polarity and indicative or imperative mood. It affects only the *first* word in the predicator capable of carrying it: first the preverbal particle $l\dot{\epsilon}\epsilon$ "but" 19.7.1, next any preverb, then the verb itself. Preverbal particles which have intrinsic M tonemes (past tense marker $d\bar{a}a$, preverb $\check{n}y\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon$) 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 M spreading, and show M toneme on the final vowel mora before liaison (changed as usual to H before liaison words beginning with a fixed-L toneme 8.3.1.)

Intrinsic tones after $k\dot{a}$ (with $z\dot{a}b^{\epsilon}$ "fight" $g\bar{c}s^{\epsilon}$ "look at" $n\dot{a}'ab^{a}$ "chief"):

Kà m záb nà ab lā."And I've fought the chief."Kà ò záb nà ab lā."And he's fought the chief."Kà m gōs ná àb lā."And I've looked at the chief."Kà ò gōs ná àb lā."And he's looked at the chief."

Intrinsic tones with preverbal particles having intrinsic M tonemes:

Ò dāa záb nà'ab lā."He didn't fight the chief."Ò dāa gōs ná'àb lā."He didn't look at the chief."

Intrinsic tones with negative polarity:

Ò pō záb nà'ab láa."He hasn't fought the chief."Ò pō gōs ná'àb láa."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

```
k\bar{a}'e^+ "not be, not have" and z\bar{\iota}'^+ "not know":
```

```
D\bar{a}u l\bar{a} k\bar{a}' n\dot{a}'ab\bar{a} ^{+}ø. "The man isn't a chief." Man:sg art neg.be chief:sg neg.
```

```
B \dot{\nu} \eta - b \bar{a} \check{n}' a d z \bar{\iota}' \qquad y \bar{\epsilon} \qquad t \dot{\epsilon} \eta \qquad t \dot{\nu} l l \bar{a} \qquad + \phi .
```

Donkey-rider:sg NEG.KNOW that ground:sg be.hot NEG.

Intrinsic tones in subordinate clauses, without independency marking:

```
Ò yá' zàb nà'ab lā.
Ö yá' gōs ná'àb lā.
"If he fights the chief."
Ó yá' gōs ná'àb lā.
"He having fought the chief."
Ón gōs ná'àb lā.
"He having looked at the chief."
```

Tone overlay manifesting independency marking in main clauses:

```
M záb ná'àb lā."I've fought the chief."O zàb ná'àb lā."He's fought the chief."M gós ná'àb lā."I've looked at the chief."O gòs ná'àb lā."He's looked at the chief."O sà zàb ná'àb lā."He fought the chief yesterday."O sà gòs ná'àb lā."He looked at the chief yesterday."
```

Tone overlay in content clauses, which have independency marking 26.3:

```
Bà yèl yé ò zàb ná'àb l\bar{a}.

3PL say that 3AN fight chief:SG ART.

"They say he's fought the chief."
```

```
Bùŋ-bāň'ad zī' yē tēŋ túllā + \emptyset. Donkey-rider:sg neg.know that ground:sg be.hot neg. "The donkey-rider doesn't know the ground is hot." (T\bar{\epsilon}\eta túl. "The ground is hot." t\bar{\nu}l^{|a|} "be hot")
```

Examples for the M of the final host mora before liaison, using the verbs $b \partial d \iota g^{\epsilon}$ "lose", $y \bar{a} d \iota g^{\epsilon}$ "scatter" and the clitics m^a "me" ba^+ "them": Intrinsic tones:

[&]quot;He who rides a donkey does not know the ground is hot." (Proverb)

```
b\grave{o}digi\ m^a b\grave{o}digid\bar{i}\ m^{a/}\ (ipfv) b\grave{o}digi\ b\bar{a}^{+/} y\bar{a}digi\ m^a y\bar{a}digid\bar{i}\ m^{a/}\ (ipfv) y\bar{a}digi\ b\bar{a}^{+/}
```

After tone overlay:

3PL look.at 3AN child:sg.

```
bàdıgī m<sup>al</sup> bàdıgıdī m<sup>al</sup> bàdıgī bá<sup>+</sup>
yàdıgī m<sup>al</sup> yàdıgıdī m<sup>al</sup> yàgıdī bá<sup>+</sup>
```

Before a liaison word with initial fixed-L toneme 8.3.1: contrast

```
Bà kòvdī bá. "They kill them."

3PL kill:IPFV 3PL.OB.

with Bà kòvdí bà bōvs. "They kill their goats."

3PL kill:IPFV 3PL goat:PL.

and Bà gòs·ō ø. "They looked at her."

3PL look.at 3AN.OB.

with Bà gòsú ò bīig. "They looked at her child."
```

with ML necessarily changed to HL before the fixed-L proclitic pronouns.

19.6.1.2 Absent M spreading after subject pronouns

Bound pronoun subjects are normally followed by M spreading despite their own fixed L tonemes 8.3.

However, the *third* persons \grave{o} $l\grave{\iota}$ $b\grave{a}$ are never followed by M spreading when the following VPred has independency marking.

Examples with zab^{ϵ} "fight" $g\bar{\jmath}s^{\epsilon}$ "look at" $na^{\dagger}ab^{a}$ "chief": Without independency marking (sequential clause 25.3.2):

```
Kà m záb nà ab lā."And I've fought the chief."Kà ò záb nà ab lā."And he's fought the chief."Kà m gōs ná àb lā."And I've looked at the chief."Kà ò gōs ná àb lā."And he's looked at the chief."
```

With independency marking:

```
M záb ná'àb lā.
Ö zàb ná'àb lā.
M gós ná'àb lā.
"I've looked at the chief."
Ö gòs ná'àb lā.
"He's looked at the chief."
```

The first and second person bound subject pronouns *are* followed by M spreading before a VPred with independency marking, *unless* they are immediately preceded by $y\bar{\varepsilon}$ "that" (here introducing a content clause 26.3):

```
    Ò tèň'εs kà ò zàb ná'àb lā.
    3AN think and 3AN fight chief:sG ART.
    "He thinks he's fought the chief." WK
```

Ò tèň'ɛs kà m záb ná'àb lā.
3AN think and 1sG fight chief:sG ART.
"He thinks I've fought the chief."

but *Ò yèl yé ò zàb ná'àb lā.* **3AN** say that **3AN** fight chief:**sg ART**.

"He says he's fought the chief."

and *Ò yèl yé m̀ zàb ná'àb lā.* **3AN** say that **1SG** fight chief:**SG ART**.

"He says I've fought the chief."

Absence of M spreading after bound subject pronouns is independent of tone overlay and is still seen when tone overlay is absent, e.g. when the VPred has irrealis mood, or there is a preverbal particle carrying a M toneme:

 $\dot{\mathbf{O}}$ $\dot{\mathbf{k}}\dot{\mathbf{v}}$ $z\bar{a}b$ $n\dot{a}$ ' $\dot{a}b$ $l\dot{a}a$ $^{+}\varnothing$. 3AN NEG.IRR fight chief:SG ART NEG. "He will not fight the chief."

Ò lèe dāa záb nà lā.
3AN but TNS fight chief:sg ART.
"But he did fight the chief."

O yèl yé m nà zāb ná'àb lā.
3AN say that 1sG IRR fight chief:sG ART.
"He says I'll fight the chief."

19.6.2 Segmental features

There are two segmental features of independency marking. They occur when and only when the verb word itself has undergone *tone* overlay, and are therefore absent whenever the verb is preceded by the particle $l\grave{\epsilon}\epsilon$ "but", a preverb, or any VPred particle with M toneme. Similarly, they are absent when the predicator has irrealis mood or negative polarity. Verbs which have intrinsic L tonemes have unchanged stem tonemes after overlay, but these segmental features and the following M spreading reveal its presence.

19.6.2.1 Perfective yā+

Any perfective verb form carrying the independency-marking tone overlay which would otherwise be phrase-final (without even an enclitic following) is followed by the enclitic particle $y\bar{a}^+$.

This particle is tonally unique among enclitic particles bearing M toneme as being Pattern O: when the LF occurs in questions, the toneme is L not H $\frac{7.4}{1.4}$.

```
Lì bàdig yā. "It's got lost."

3INAN get.lost PFV.

Lì bàdig yàa ^+ø? "Has it got lost?"

3INAN get.lost PFV PQ?
```

The phrase-final constraint on the appearance of $y\bar{a}^+$ may reveal that a final element is a clause adjunct rather than a VP complement 30.3:

```
Ya yidigya bεdegv. "You are very much mistaken." (Mk 12:27)
Yà yidìg yā bέdvgū.
2PL go.astray PFV much.
M ρύ'òs yā bέdvgū. "Thank you very much."
1SG greet PFV much.
```

NT usually writes this particle as -*eya*, but informants show no trace of liaison, and KB writes *ya* solid with a preceding ordinary perfective SF.

Further examples:

```
Sāa ní yā. "It has rained."
Rain:sg rain prv.
```

Ò zàb yā. "She's fought." 3AN fight PFV. Ò gàs yā. "She's looked." 3AN look PFV. sà zàb yā. "She fought (yesterday.)" **3AN TNS** fight **PFV**. M tέň'ès kà lì "I think it's fallen down." (content clause) lù yā. 1SG think and 3INAN fall PFV. Non-final: "He's fought me." zàbī m. 3AN fight 1SG.OB. Ò gòsī m. "He's looked at me." зан look.at isg.oв. When the independency-marking tone overlay is absent, so is the particle: Sāa dāa ní. "It rained." (M preverbal particle) Rain:sg TNS rain. Ò nà zāb. "She'll fight." (irrealis mood) 3AN IRR fight. Ò dāa záb. "He fought." (M preverbal particle) **3AN TNS** fight. Kà ò "And he fought." (no independency marking) záb. And **3AN** fight. Kà ò gōs. "And he looked." (no independency marking) And **3AN** look. zábē +ø. ρō "He's not fought." (negative polarity) 3AN NEG.IND fight NEG.

 \dot{O} $p\bar{v}$ $g\bar{\jmath}s\varepsilon^+ \varphi$. "He's not looked." (negative polarity)

3AN NEG.IND look NEG.

Stative, not perfective:

Ò gìm. "She's short." Ò mì'. "She knows."

Ò nòn. "She loves him." <u>11.1.1</u>

19.6.2.2 Imperative -m^a

Imperatives of variable verbs carrying the independency-marking tone overlay adopt the flexion $-m^a$ 11.1.

Gòsim! "Look!"

Gòsimī m! "Look at me!"

Look:IMP 1SG.OB!

Gòsīm. "Look at me!" vowel absorbed 3

Gòsimí fò nú'ùg! "Look at your hand!"

Look:IMP 2SG hand:SG!

Gɔ̀s(m fù nú'ùg! id with ι-vowel absorbed

Without tone overlay on the verb word:

 $D\bar{a}$ $g\bar{b}s\epsilon + \emptyset!$ "Don't look!" (negative polarity)

NEG.IMP look NEG!

 $K \dot{\epsilon} l$ $k \dot{a}$ \dot{o} $g \bar{\varsigma} s!$ "Let her look!"

Cause: IMP and 3AN look! (No independency marking: subordinate)

Kèm nā n gɔ̄s! "Come and look!"

Come: IMP hither CAT look! (No independency marking after CAT)

With overlay, but not a variable verb:

Dòllī m! "Follow me!"

Follow 1SG.OB!

```
Dàllī-ní
                                "Follow ye me!"
               m!
Follow-2PL.SUB 1SG.OB!
                                 (-ni- for -ya *na before liaison 8.2.1.2)
Dì'əm!
                                "Receive!"
                                "Receive ye!"
Dì'əmī
            ø!
Receive: IMP 2PL. SUB!
Dì'əmī-ní
                                "Receive ye them!"
                    bā!
Receive: IMP-2PL.SUB 3PL.OB!
                                "Receive ye her!"
Dì'əmī-n∙ó
                   ø!
Receive: IMP-2PL.SUB 3AN.OB!
                                "Keep ye on receiving!" 19.4
Dì'əmī-ní
                    àlá!
Receive: IMP-2PL.SUB ADV: thus!
```

19.7 Clitics bound to the predicator

Clitic subject pronouns $\underline{16.3.1}$ are bound to the predicator, to the extent that they are involved in the tonal manifestations of independency marking $\underline{19.6.1.2}$.

19.7.1 *Lὲε* "but"

lèe "but" precedes even tense particles, but like a preverb, and unlike a post-subject particle 24.1.4, it prevents the independency-marking tone overlay from falling on the verb, and is then itself followed by M spreading:

```
Kà ò lée dāa záb nà'ab lā.

And 3AN but TNS fight chief:sG ART.

"But he fought the chief."

Ka man pian'ad la lee ku gaade.

Kà m̀ pi̯àn̆'ad lā lée kù gāade +ø.

And 1sG speech ART but NEG.IRR pass NEG.

"But my words will not pass away. (Mt 24:35, 1996)

Bà lèe záb nà'ab lā. "But they've fought the chief." WK

3PL but fight chief:sG ART.
```

Kà bà lée zàb nà ab lā. "But they've fought the chief." WK And 3PL but fight chief:sg art.

Lὲε záb nà lā! "But fight the chief!" WK But fight chief:sg ART!

NT has the $-m^a$ -imperative, suggesting tone overlay on the verb, in

Lee iemini o na'am so'olim la...

Lès ìəmī-ní ò nā'am sú'ulìm lā...

But seek: IMP-2PL.SUB 3AN kingship possession ART...

"But seek ye his kingdom ..." (Lk 12:31, 1976)

WK does not accept this, and he corrected e.g.

*Lèɛ gɔ́sìm ná'àb lā! attempted: "But look at the chief!"
But look.at:IMP chief:sg ART!

to $L\grave{\varepsilon} E g\bar{g} S = n\acute{a} \dot{a}b = l\ddot{a}$. But look.at chief:sg ART.

19.7.2 Preverbs

Preverbs follow all other preverbal particles. All carry the independency-marking tone overlay in place of the following main verb (cf $l\dot{\epsilon}\epsilon$ "but" 19.7.1.) Those derived from verbs show a suffix -m- 13.2.1.4.

pùn "previously, already"

Ò pùn záb nà'ab lā. "He's already fought the chief." **3AN** already fight chief:**sg art**.

Kà ò pún zàb nà ab lā.

And **3AN** already fight chief:**SG** ART.

"And he's already fought the chief."

lèm "again" (cf $l \dot{\epsilon} b^{\epsilon}$ "return")

Ò lèm záb nà'ab lā. "He's fought the chief again" **3AN** again fight chief:**SG ART**.

lém zàb nà ab lā. "And he's fought the chief again."

Kà ò

```
And 3AN again fight chief:SG ART.
      Òρῦ
                  lέm zàb nà ab láa +ø.
      3AN NEG.IND again fight chief:SG ART NEG.
      "He hasn't fought the chief again."
                                  lā. "He'll fight the chief again."
      Ò nà lēm záb nà ab
      3AN IRR again fight chief:SG ART.
      M nīf
                 lέm zábìd nē.
                                       "My eye is hurting again."
      1SG eye:SG again fight FOC.
      Ka so' kudin ku len nyee li ya'asa.
      Kà sɔ̄'
                  kūdım kú
                                lēm ἤyέε lī
                                                     vá'asā +ø.
      And INDF.AN ever NEG.IRR again see
                                             3INAN.OB again NEG.
      "Nobody will ever see it again." (Rev 18:21, 1996)
kpèlim "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." KB has the reduced form kpin.
      Ka o kpelim zu'om.
      Kà ò kpélìm
                            zū'em.
      And 3AN immediately go.blind.
      "Immediately he went blind." (Acts 13:11, 1996: KB Ka o kpen zu'om.)
      m biig Josef nan kpεn νυe.
      m bīig
                  Josef nán kpèn vūę.
      1SG child:SG Joseph still still be alive.
      "My child Joseph is still alive." (Genesis 45:28)
l\dot{a}'am "together" (cf l\dot{a}'as^{\epsilon} "gather"); as a main verb l\dot{a}'am^{m} is "associate with."
      ka nidib wυsa da la'am kpi nε o.
                     wūsa dá là'am
                                        kpì n\dot{\epsilon} ò.
      kà nīdıb
                         TNS together die with 3AN.
      and person:PL all
      "so all people died together with him." (2 Cor 5:14)
```

```
dènım "beforehand" (cf d \dot{\epsilon} \eta^{\epsilon} "go, do first": \dot{m} d \dot{\epsilon} \eta \bar{\iota} f "I've got there before you."
      D \dot{\epsilon} \eta^{\epsilon} is used with the same meaning in VP chaining 23.3.)
      Ka Wina'am pun denim nye bunsuma ye o tisi ti.
      Kà Wínà'am pún
                               dènım
                                           ňyē būn-súmà
                                                                        tísì tī.
                                                               vέ ò
                      already beforehand see thing-good:PL that 3AN give 1PL.OB.
      And God
      "God previously found good things in advance to give us" (Heb 11:40, 1976)
màligim "again" (cf Toende Kusaal malig "do again")
      Amaa man pian'ad la kv maligim gaade.
      Àmáa ṁ piàň'ad lā kú
                                     mālιgιm gáadē <sup>+</sup>ø.
              1SG speech ART NEG.IRR again
      But
                                                pass
       "But my words will not pass away. (Mt 24:35)
nyēε or nyēε tí "habitually" NT nyii ti KT ēεň, ēεň tí. The main verb is imperfective.
      Ο ἤνξε
                   zábìd
                             ná'àb
                                    Ιā.
      3AN usually fight: IPFV chief:SG ART.
      "He's accustomed to fight the chief." WK
          ňνĒε
                                ná'àb
      Ò
                   aวิรเd
                                        Ιā.
      3AN usually look.at:IPFV chief:SG ART.
      "He's accustomed to look at the chief." WK
      Ò
           dāa ňyēɛ
                        zábìd
                                  ná'àb
                                           Ιā.
      3AN TNS usually fight: IPFV chief: SG ART.
      "He was accustomed to fight the chief." WK
           Ēεň tí zàbιd
      Ò
                             nē ná'àb
                                          Ιā.
      3AN usually fight: IPFV FOC chief:SG ART.
      "He's accustomed to fight the chief." KT
          ēεň tí zìň'i
                                        "She's accustomed to sit there." KT
      Ò
                             kpēlá.
      3AN usually be sitting there.
                                         "She's accustomed to lie there." KT
          ēεň tí dīgι
                            kpēlá.
      3AN usually be lying there.
```

tì "afterwards" conveys accomplishment or completion; the main verb is perfective. It occurs often in VP chaining; for hālí tì pāa ... "up until" see 28.1.2. It is common with the irrealis mood, perhaps in a "future perfect" sense.

```
hali ka Herod ti kpi.
hālí kà Herod tí
                           kpì.
Until and Herod afterwards die.
"Until Herod had died." (Mt 2:15)
                     ňyε̄ du'átà.
Kèm ø tí
Go:IMP CAT afterwards see doctor:SG.
"Go to see the doctor." SB
Noraug ku ti kaas zina nwaa, ka fu na ki'isim noora atan'.
                                      zīná ňwāa +ø
Nō-dáùa
            kύ
                   tī
                              kāas
Hen-male:sg neg.irr afterwards cry.out today this neg
kà fù ná kī'ısí m
                        nōɔrá
and 2SG IRR deny 1SG.OB occasion:SG NUM:three.
"The cock will not have crowed this day before you deny me three times."
(Lk 22:61)
```

19.7.3 Liaison enclitics

Liaison enclitics precede all other verb phrase complements and also precede the focus particle $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ 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" 25.2.3 or discontinuous-past n^{ε} 27.1.1; there are no circumstances in which they might occur together, as discontinuous-past n^{ε} is only found with indicative and irrealis moods.

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 20.1 or by periphrasis with a VP chain using tis^{ϵ} "give" 23.3.

20 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 by VP chaining <u>23</u>.

"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.

NP and AdvP complements can be classified as direct and indirect objects, as predicative complements, or as locative complements.

20.1 Transitivity and objects

Indirect objects precede direct, and objects precede other complements, except in cases of extraposition or dislocation due to weight <u>30.3</u>. A clitic pronoun before a noun object therefore cannot be the direct object:

```
*M dāa tísì lī ná'àb lā.

1SG TNS give 3INAN.OB 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. Transitive verbs vary in whether they require a direct object/complement:

```
da ku nidaa, da zuuda dā k\bar{v} n\bar{i}dá ^{+}ø, dā z\bar{u}udá ^{+}ø... 

NEG.IMP kill person:SG NEG. NEG.IMP steal:IPFV NEG... "Do not kill [a person] ... do not steal ..." (Lk 18:20, 1996)
```

Obligatorily Transitive verbs may appear without any expressed object, but in such cases the meaning is necessarily **anaphoric**:

```
\dot{O} p\bar{v} z\acute{a}mm ^+ø. "She didn't cheat him/her." 
3AN NEG.IND cheat NEG.
```

Transitive invariable verbs always require a complement, and again there is necessarily an anaphoric sense if none is explicitly present. Thus with $\grave{a} \underline{e} \check{n}^a$ "be something/somehow":

```
Mānı ø áň dụ'átà àmáa fūn pū áňyā †ø.

15G.CNTR CAT COP doctor:5G but 25G.CNTR NEG.IND COP NEG.

"I'm a doctor but you aren't."

Mānı ø áň dụ'átà kà fūn mén áẹň.

15G.CNTR CAT COP doctor:5G and 25G.CNTR also COP.

"I'm a doctor and you are too."
```

Particular cases of null anaphora appear with direct objects preposed with $k\grave{a}$ 30.2 28.2.3 and with adnominal $k\grave{a}$ -clauses 26.2.

In replies to questions and reponses to commands, null anaphora of complements may refer to an antecedent in the previous speaker's words:

- Q. Fù mór gbāun láa +ø? "Do you have the letter?" 25G have letter:sG ART PQ?
- A. $\bar{\mathcal{E}}$ \bar
- Q. $F\dot{v}$ $b\acute{o}$ o o o "Do you love her?" **2SG** want-**3AN.OB PQ**?
- A. $\acute{A}y \wr \iota$, \grave{m} $p\bar{\upsilon}$ $b\acute{S} d\bar{a}$ $^{+} \varnothing$. "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

```
bànɛ zuud nidibi gban'ad
bànɛ zūud nīdıbı ø gbāň'ad

REL.PL steal:IPFV person:PL CAT seize:IPFV

"those who steal people by force" (1 Tim 1:10)

onɛ daa zuud "he who used to steal" (Eph 4:28)
ònɛ dāa zūud

REL.AN 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:

```
Fù tứm bó-tùvma +ø? "What work do you do?"

25G work:IPFV what-work cq?

Ka ya ninkvda zaansim zaansima.

Kà yà nīn-kúdà zàaňsım záaňsímà.

And 2PL person-old:PL dream:IPFV dream:PL.

"And your old people dream dreams." (Acts 2:17)
```

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

```
"close"
và<sup>+</sup>
                                          nāe+/
                                                            "finish"
zà'mιs<sup>ε</sup>
                 "learn/teach"
                                          nā'mιs<sup>ε/</sup>
                                                            "suffer/make suffer"
bòdιgε
                 "lose, get lost"
                                           bàsε
                                                            "go/send away"
dūe<sup>+/</sup>
                                                            "get cool"
                 "raise/rise"
                                           mā'e<sup>+/</sup>
```

Many, though not all, patientive ambitransitive verbs express a change of state and can use the perfective form in a resultative sense <u>19.2.1</u>:

```
Kỳliŋ lā yớ nē."The door is closed."Door:sg art close foc."I've finished the work."M náa tōuma lā."I've finished the work."1sg finish work art."The work is finished."Tōuma lā náa nē."The work is finished."Work art finish foc.
```

Conversely, most variable verbs capable of forming a resultative are patientive ambitransitive, though there are also some intransitive-only verbs like kpi^+ "die."

Almost any verb can potentially take an indirect object expressing benefit, interest etc (this could lead to ambiguity in principle):

```
\dot{O} d\dot{v}g\bar{v} m. "He cooked (for) me." 
3AN cook 1SG.OB.
```

```
Lì màlisī m. "I like it." ("It's sweet for me.")

3INAN be.sweet 15G.0B.

Äláafὺ bέε bá. "They are well." ("Health exists for them.")

Health Exist 3PL.0B
```

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; tis^{ϵ} "give" is the prototypical example, along with causatives from transitive verbs like dis^{ϵ} "feed" $n\bar{u}lvs^{\epsilon}$ "give to drink."

```
M tís ná'àb lā dāká.
                                "I've given the chief a box."
1SG give chief:SG ART box:SG.
M tís ná'àb lā.
                                "I've given it to the chief."
1SG give chief:SG ART.
*M tís dāká.
                                impossible as "I've given him a box", which is
M tís·ō ø
                 dāká.
1SG give 3AN.OB box:SG.
Dā
       tís·ò, ø
                    sīˈəla
                             +ø.
NEG.IMP give 3AN.OB INDF.INAN NEG.
"Don't give her anything!"
Dā
       tísē +ø!
                                "Don't give it to her!"
NEG.IMP give NEG.
M tís yā.
                                "I've given it to him."
1SG give PFV.
```

Certain verbs take a fixed direct object as a set idiom after an indirect object which expresses the functional object, e.g. $k\grave{a}d$ X $s\grave{a}r\acute{y}\grave{a}$ "judge X", $m\bar{\jmath}r$ X $n\bar{\imath}n$ - $b\acute{a}al\grave{\imath}g$ or $z\grave{\jmath}$ X $n\bar{\imath}n$ - $b\acute{a}al\grave{\imath}g$ "have pity on X", $n\grave{\imath}\eta$ X $y\grave{a}dd\bar{a}$ "believe X, believe in X", $z\grave{\jmath}$ X $d\bar{a}b\acute{a}m$ "fear X", $s\grave{\imath}ak$ X $n\bar{\jmath}\jmath r$ "obey X", $n\check{m}w\grave{\epsilon}$ X $n\acute{u}$ ' $u\grave{g}$ "make an agreement with X."

```
Wina'am na kad nidib poten'esua'ada saria.

Winà'am ná kād nīdib pú-tèň'-sū'adá sàríyà.

God IRR drive person:PL inside-mind-secret:PL judgment.

"God will judge people's secret thoughts." (Rom 2:16, 1996)
```

```
Biise, siakimini ya du'adib noya.
        +ø, siàkımī-ní
                              và dū'adıb nóvà.
Child:PL voc, agree:IMP-2PL.SUB 2PL parent:PL mouth:PL.
"Children, obey your parents." (Eph 6:1)
   zàt·ō
                           nīn-báalìg.
                     Ø
3AN feel.emotion:IPFV 3AN.OB eye-pity.
"She has pity on him."
Bà zòt·ō
                           dābíèm.
3PL feel.emotion: IPFV 3AN.OB fear.
"They are afraid of him."
                               "They believed her."
Bà nìn·ō ø
                 váddā.
3PL do
          3AN.OB assent.
Ò ňwè' ná'àb lā nú'ùg.
                               "He made an agreement with the king."
3AN strike king:SG ART hand:SG.
```

20.1.1 Passives

For passive meaning expressed by an empty $b\grave{a}$ "they" as subject see 16.2.3. Transitive verbs expressing a change of state are usually patientive ambitransitives, and thus appear in the same form whether the argument which changes state is subject or object. It is also possible for other transitive verbs, whether obligatory transitives or agentive ambitransitives like $n\bar{u}^+$ "drink", to be used passively with no formal change:

```
M nú dāam lā."I've drunk the beer."15G drink beer ART."The beer has got drunk."Dāam lā nú yā."The beer has got drunk."Beer ART drink PFV.
```

It is not possible to express an agent with passives. Indirect objects cannot become passive subjects:

```
D\bar{a}k\acute{a} l\bar{a} t\acute{t}s y\bar{a}. "The box was given." Box:sg art give pfv.
```

```
not possible in sense "The chief was given (it.)"
but
      *Nà'ab lā tís vā.
      Chief:sg art give PFV.
```

Stative verbs cannot be used as passives. Even with dynamic verbs, **passives** can only express punctual events 30.1.2.1.2.

The verb $s\bar{b}^{\varepsilon}$ "write" is a specialised usage of $s\bar{b}^{\varepsilon}$ "make/go dark", and is patientive ambitransitive despite the English translation. It can form a resultative:

```
lā sób yā.
Gbàun
                              "The letter has been written."
Letter:sg art write pfv.
                              "The letter is written."
Gbàun
         lā sób nē.
Letter:sg ART write FOC.
```

The imperfective sɔ̄bɪda/ seems to accept intransitive use only when some adverbial modification is present:

```
"Letters get written today." WK
Letter:PL write:IPFV today.
         lā sóbìd
                       sύnā.
                                "The letter is writing well (i.e. easily.)" WK
Gbàun
Letter:sg art write:IPFV good:ADV.
```

20.1.2 Middle uses of intransitives

Gbàna sóbìd

The assume-stance verbs 13.2.1.1, rather than the make-assume-stance series, are often used transitively for parts of one's own body:

```
Lìginím fò nīf
                        nέ
                             fù nú'ùg.
     Cover:IMP 2SG eye:SG with 2SG hand:SG.
     "Cover your eye with your hand."
Thus Diginim
                                  "Put your hand down."
                  fù nú'ùg.
```

zīná.

Lie.down: IMP 2SG hand: SG.

is commoner than

```
"Put your hand down."
Dìgulím
             fù nú'ùg.
Lay.down:IMP 2SG hand:SG.
```

Similarly nie^+ "appear" is usually intransitive, corresponding to transitive $n\dot{\epsilon}\epsilon l^\epsilon$ "reveal", but nie^+ is much more frequent than $n\dot{\epsilon}\epsilon l^\epsilon$ before \dot{o} $m\bar{\epsilon}\eta^{a/}$ "him/herself" etc.

```
Ka o nie o mɛŋ Jemes san'an ...

Kà ò níe ò mēŋ Jemes sá'àn ...

And <code>3AN</code> appear <code>3AN</code> self James among

And he revealed himself to James (1 Cor 15:7)
```

20.2 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:

```
Kεl ka m liebi fv tvmtvm yinne.
          kà m̀ líəbì fò tòm-tōm
ΚὲΙ
                                                yīnní.
Cause: IMP and 1SG become 2SG work-worker: SG one.
"Make me [become] one of your servants" (Lk 15:19); dynamic liab<sup>\varepsilon</sup>
                                 "I am your servant."; stative àeňa
M
    á nέ fù tùm-tūm.
1SG COP FOC 2SG work-worker:SG.
Àeňa "be something/somehow" 21.2 takes a predicative complement:
\dot{O} à n\bar{\varepsilon} bīig.
                                 "She is a child."
3AN COP FOC child:SG.
Μ̀ kā'
          du'átāa +ø.
                                 "I'm not a doctor."
1SG NEG.BE doctor:SG NEG.
```

As with other transitive invariable verbs, the complement is obligatory 20.1. 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 $p\dot{v}d^{\varepsilon}$ "name, dub" has as first object a NP with the head $y\bar{v}'vr^{\varepsilon}$ "name", and the name itself as second object; this may be introduced by $y\bar{\varepsilon}$ "that."

```
Kà fù nà pud o yu'ur ye Yesu.

Kà fù ná púd ò yū'ur yē Yesu.

And 2sg irr dub 3an name:sg that Jesus.

"And you will call him Jesus." (Mt 1:21)

Ka o pud biig la yu'ur Yesu.

Kà ò púd bīig lā yú'ùr Yesu.

And 3an dub child:sg art name:sg Jesus.

"And he called the child Jesus." (Mt 1:25)
```

The verb $b\dot{u}e^{\xi}$ "call, call out, summon" can be used in the imperfective with an object expressing the person named and the name as a complement, again possibly introduced by $y\bar{\varepsilon}$:

```
on ka ba buon ye Pita la

òn kà bà búèn yē Pita lā

REL.AN and 3PL call:IPFV that Peter ART

"who was called Peter" (Mt 10:2)
```

The verb is often used passively 20.1.1 with $y\bar{v}'vr^{\epsilon/}$ "name" as subject and the name itself as complement:

```
dau sɔ' ka o yv'vr buon Joon.
dàu-sɔ' kà ò yv̄'vr búèn Joon.
man-INDF.AN and 3AN name:sg call:IPFV John.
"a man [habitually 30.1.2.1.2] called John." (Jn 1:6)
```

The verb $m\grave{a}al^\epsilon$ "make" is used with an object and a resultative predicative complement in the 1976 NT in Acts 8:9

```
Ka o maal o meŋ nintita'ar.

Kà ò máàl ò mēŋ nīn-títā'ar.

And <code>3AN</code> make <code>3AN</code> self person-great:<code>sg</code>.

"He made himself out to be a great man."
```

The 1996 NT version has instead

```
Ka o du'osi o meŋ ye o ane nintita'ar.

Kà ò dū'\Thetasí ò mēŋ yé ò à nē nīn-títā'ar.

And 3AN elevate 3AN self that 3AN 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 màan gígìs kà bà wúm kà pịāň'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)
```

With a result clause $\underline{26.1}$ after its object, $\check{n}y\bar{\varepsilon}^+$ "see, find" can have the sense "see as", resulting in a predicative sense:

lá kà ò áň ná'àb.

```
ISG TNS see man:SG ART and 3AN COP chief:SG.

"I saw the man as a chief."

M dāa pō nyē dāu lá kà ò án ná'abā +ø.

ISG TNS NEG.IND see man:SG ART and 3AN COP chief:SG NEG.

"I didn't see the man as a chief."
```

20.2.1 Manner-adverbs

M dāa nvē dāu

Manner-adverbs behave syntactically in many respects like abstract mass nouns, and indeed may arise from such noun usages $\underline{17.4}$. One such instance is in their common usage as predicative complements.

Kusaal characteristically uses manner proadverbs <u>17.7</u> as predicative complements in place of pronouns with abstract reference. i.e. the language says "be/do *how*" rather than "be/do *what*."

```
Dā
       níηὶ àláa
                      +ø!
                                 "Don't do that!" ("thus")
             ADV:thus NEG.
NEG.IMP do
Fυ wυm ban yεt si'em laa?
Fù wúm
             bán
                   νὲt
                            sī'əm láa +ø?
2SG hear:IPFV 3PL:NZ say:IPFV INDF.ADV ART PQ?
"Do you hear what they are saying?" (Mt 21:16)
Tiig wela bigisid on a si'em.
       wέlà
               bìgısıd
                        źп
                               àň sīˈəm.
Tìıa
Tree:sg fruit:pl show:ipfv 3an:nz cop indf.adv.
"The fruit of a tree shows what ["how"] it is." (Mt 12:33, 1976)
```

The indefinite proadverb $s\vec{r} \ni m^m$ is particularly commonly used in this way as head of a relative clause 28.2.2.

```
The idiom "X n i n w \bar{\epsilon} l \acute{a} k \grave{a} ..." means "how can X ...?"
```

```
M na niŋ wala ka nyɛ faangirɛ?

M ná nīŋ wēlá kà ňyē fāaňg(rὲ +ø?

1sg irr do how and find salvation co?

"How can I get saved?" (Acts 16:30)
```

The verb $\grave{a} \not\in \breve{n}^a$ "be something/somehow" typically has a derived manner-adverb or abstract noun as complement rather than an adjective as NP head 21.2:

```
Lì à n\bar{\varepsilon} z\bar{a}alím. "It's empty."

Lì à n\bar{\varepsilon} b\bar{\upsilon}g\upsilon s(g\bar{a}) "It's soft."

Lì à s\dot{\upsilon}\eta\bar{a}. "It's good."
```

20.3 Locative complements

Locative AdvPs <u>17.3</u> occur as complements after verbs of position and movement. Some verbs *require* a locative complement, and its absence is anaphoric.

```
"I left Bawku."
       Μ̈ yí
                     Bàk.
       15G emerge Bawku.
                                           "I've left [there]."
       Μ yí
                     νā.
       1SG emerge PFV.
       Others do not; so with k\bar{\epsilon}\eta^{\epsilon/} "go, walk" digin<sup>\epsilon</sup> "lie down" dīgil<sup>\epsilon/</sup> "lay down":
       ...ka pv tun'e kenna..
                       tūň'e ø kēnná +ø.
         3AN NEG.IND be.able CAT go:IPFV NEG.
       "who couldn't walk." (Acts 14:8)
but
       Ò kèŋ Bók.
                                           "She's gone to Bawku."
       зан go Bawku.
       Ò dìgin
                                           "He's lain down."
                      vā.
       3AN lie.down PFV.
```

but *Dìginim kpē!* "Lie down here!" Lie.down:**IMP** here!

O dìgil gbáun lā. "She's put the book down."BAN lay.down book:sg art.

but Ò dìgιl gbáun lā tέεbùl lā zúg.
 3AN lay.down book:sg art table:sg art upon.
 "She's put the book on the table."

The verb $b\dot{\varepsilon}^+$ 21.1 without a complement is "exist":

Wínà'am bέ. "God exists."

God **EXIST**.

Àláaf \dot{v} $b\dot{\epsilon} \cdot o_{\phi}$. "He's well." ("Health exists for him.")

Health EXIST 3AN.OB.

(Indirect object but no complement.)

With a locative complement, $b\dot{\epsilon}^+$ means "be in a place":

Dāu lā bέ nē dó-kàŋā lā pύυgō-n.

Man:sg art exist foc hut-dem.dei.sg art inside:sg-loc.

"The man is inside that hut."

20.4 Prepositional phrases as complements

 $W\bar{\epsilon}n^{\text{na/}}$ "resemble" usually takes a phrase introduced by $n\bar{\epsilon}$ or $w\bar{\nu}\nu$ 18.1.

Ka o nindaa wenne nintan ne.

Kà ò nīn-dáa wēn nē nīntāŋ nē.

And **3AN** eye-face:**sg** resemble with sun:**sg** like.

"His face is like the sun." (Rev 10:1, 1996)

With other verbs it can be difficult to distinguish phrases with $n\bar{\epsilon}$ as complements from NP objects or complements preceded by focus- $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ 30.1.2, unless the $n\bar{\epsilon}$ occurs in contexts where focus is prohibited like \dot{n} -clauses. Thus $y\bar{i}$ $n\bar{\epsilon}$ X occurs in the sense "come from X" and the metaphorical sense "arise from X":

 \dot{M} yí $n\bar{\varepsilon}$ B3k. "I come from Bawku." SB **15G** emerge **Foc** Bawku.

```
Yadda niŋir yitnɛ labaar la wwmmvg ni.
Yàddā-niŋìr yit n\bar{\epsilon} lábāar lā wwmmvg ni.
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 \dot{n} -clause lack $n\bar{\varepsilon}$:

```
Meeri one yi Magdala "Mary who came from Magdala"
Meeri ɔ´nì yī Magdala (Mk 16:9, 1996)
Mary rel.an emerge Magdala
```

A probable case of a verb taking a prepositional phrase as complement in a metaphorical sense is $d\bar{b}l^{|a|}$ "accompany a person in subordinate rôle", which with $n\bar{\epsilon}$ means rather "be in accordance with":

```
Li dɔlnɛ lin sɔb Wina'am gbauŋvn si'em la ye ...

Lì dòl nɛ̄ lín sɔ̄b Wínà'am gbáu̞ŋv̄-n sr̄ əm lā yē ...

3INAN follow with 3INAN:NZ write God book:SG-LOC INDF.ADV ART that ...

"This is in accordance with what is written in God's book ..." (1 Cor 2:16)
```

20.5 Clausal complements

Certain verbs require a following subordinate clause introduced by a linker particle $k\grave{a}$ or $y\bar{\varepsilon}$ 26. They include like $k\bar{\varepsilon}^+$ "let", $m\grave{i}t$ "let not", $n\bar{a}r^{a/}$ "be obliged to." Of these, $k\bar{\varepsilon}^+$ does not appear at all without a following $k\grave{a}$ -clause, while if $n\bar{a}r^{a/}$ appears without there is a necessarily anaphoric sense; $m\grave{i}t$ appears with a NP object in the sense "beware of..." 29.1.1.

The verb $b \dot{c} c d^a$ "want, love" takes a $y \bar{\epsilon}$ -purpose clause in the sense "want to ..."; without any object it has an anaphoric meaning in either sense.

The verb $g\bar{u}r^{a/}$ "be on guard, watch, wait for" takes a NP headed by a gerund or a $y\bar{\varepsilon}$ -purpose clause complement to express "waiting for an event."

Verbs of cognition, reporting, and perception have as complement a content clause, a relative clause with $s\bar{i} \ni m$, or a postpositional AdvP with $y\bar{\epsilon}l\acute{a}$ "about." Most such verbs have an anaphoric sense without such an object.

The verb $\grave{a} \not\in \check{n}^a$ "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 $y\bar{\varepsilon}$ as a complement too 21.2.

20.6 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 VPred may contain clause-level adjuncts preceding the subject 25.1.1.

VP adjuncts may be AdvPs, prepositional phrases, or subordinate clauses.

```
Bà dìt n\bar{\varepsilon} sā'ab dó-kànā lā púvg\bar{v}-n.

3PL eat:IPFV FOC porridge hut-DEM.DEI.SG ART inside:sg-Loc.

"They're eating porridge in that hut."
```

A subordinate clause after a verb is most often a complement:

```
Fù bớờd bố + \emptyset? "What do you want?" 25G want what cQ? \mathring{M} bớờd yế fừ kūl. "I want you to go home." 15G want that 25G return.home.
```

Content clauses <u>26.3</u> are always complements:

```
B\grave{v}\eta-b\bar{a}\check{n}'ad z\bar{\iota}' y\bar{\varepsilon} t\bar{\varepsilon}\eta t\acute{o}ll\bar{a} ^+\emptyset. Donkey-rider:sg neg.know that ground:sg be.hot neg. "The donkey-rider doesn't know the ground is hot."
```

20.7 Verb-phrase-final particles

The particles $n\bar{a}$ "hither" and $s\dot{a}$ "hence; ago" follow any complements. The verb $k\bar{\epsilon}\check{n}^+$ "come" is invariably used with $n\bar{a}$; the imperative SF $k\dot{\epsilon}m$, which coincides for $k\bar{\epsilon}\check{n}^+$ "come" and $k\bar{\epsilon}\eta^{\epsilon/}$ "go", is always disambiguated by the fact that it is followed by $n\bar{a}$ or $s\dot{a}$ respectively: $k\dot{\epsilon}m$ $n\bar{a}!$ "come" $k\dot{\epsilon}m$ $s\dot{a}!$ "go!"

Examples:

```
M mór kú'èm náa +ø? "Shall I bring water?" SB 1sG have water hither PQ?
bùgóm lā yít yáa ní ná +ø?
Fire ART emerge:IPFV where Loc hither CQ?
"Where is the light coming from?"
```

```
Fù ví
            váa
                 ní ná
                              +ø?
2SG emerge where Loc hither co?
"Where have you come from?" WK
Sà is often used temporally, for "since" or "ago":
O daa pun ane ninkuud hali pin'ilugun sa.
Ò dāa pún
                   à nē nīn-kύὺd
                                           hālí pīň'ilúgū-n
                                                                  sá.
3AN TNS previously COP FOC person-killer:SG even beginning:SG-LOC since.
"He was a murderer from the beginning." (In 8:44)
Fu na ban li nya'an sa.
Fù ná bán
                   ňvá'an sá.
            Ιì
25G IRR realise 3INAN behind since.
"You will come to understand afterwards." (Jn 13:7, 1976)
Lazarus pun bε yaugun la daba anaasi sa.
Lazarus pún
                   bὲ yáugū-n
                                     lā dābá ànāasí
                                                           sà.
Lazarus previously EXIST grave:SG-LOC ART day:PL NUM:four since.
"Lazarus had already been in the grave four days." (In 11:17)
The particles are VP-final, not clause-final:
                                "Come and look!" SB
Κèm
          nā
                n gōs.
Come: IMP hither CAT look.
Man ya'a ρυ kεεn na tu'asini ba ...
Mān
        yá' pū
                   kēε-n
                            nā ø tύ'asī-ní bā...
1SG.CNTR if NEG.IND come-DP hither CAT talk-DP
"If I had not come to talk to them ..." (Jn 15:22)
N\bar{a}^{+/} and s\dot{a}^{+} often follow any article I\bar{a}^{+/} ending an \dot{n}-clause containing them:
ba diib n yit na'aten la na zug
bà dīıb 'n yīt
                        ná'-tĒn
                                    lā nā
                                               zúg
3PL food NZ emerge: IPFV king-land: SG ART hither upon
"because their food came from the king's land" (Acts 12:20, 1996)
Closely parallel constructions may show either nā lā or lā nā:
```

```
    ňwādig-kánì kēn nā lā
    month REL.SG come:IPFV hither ART
    "next month" SB
```

dūnιyá-kànι kēn lā nā
world-**REL.SG** come:**IPFV ART** hither
"the world which is coming" (Lk 20:35)

M diib anε ye m tum onε tumi m la na boodim naae.

 \dot{M} dīth á nē yé \dot{m} tóm ònt tòmt m lā nā bóɔdìm ø nāe. 15G food cop foc that 15G work rel.an send 15G.0B art hither will cat finish. My food is that I do the will of him who sent me completely. (Jn 4:34)

```
ti tυm onε tυm man na la tυυma.
```

tì tóm òni tòm mān nā lā tōoma

1PL work REL.AN send 1SG.CNTR hither ART work

"Let us do the work of him who sent me." (In 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 Zakaria yiib na.
```

Nīdıb lā dāa gūr Zakaria yîib nā.

Person:PL ART TNS watch Zechariah emerge:GER hither.

The people were watching for Zechariah's coming out. (Lk 1:21)

Ninsaal Biig la lebug la na

Nīn-sáàl Bíìg lā lébòg lā nā

Person-smooth:sg Child:sg art return:ger art hither

"the return of the Son of Man" (Mt 24:27)

21 The verbs "to be"

21.1 $B\dot{\epsilon}^+$ "be somewhere, exist"

 $B\dot{\epsilon}^+$ is followed by M spreading even when not carrying the independency-marking tone overlay; it is formally as well as semantically imperfective.

With no associated locative $b\dot{\varepsilon}^+$ means simply "exist":

Wínà'am bέ. "God exists."

God **EXIST**. (Calque of the West African Pidgin *God dey*,

implying "It'll all work out in the end.")

Àláafù $b \not\in o$ \emptyset . "She's well." ("Health exists for her.")

Health EXIST 3AN.OB.

Wāad bέ. "It's cold."

Cold.weather **EXIST**.

Before a locative $b\dot{\varepsilon}^+$ means "be located in a place" if the locative is a complement 30.1.2.2, but "exist in a place" if the locative is a clause adjunct:

Mam bene moogin. "I'm in the bush." BNY p8 $M\bar{a}m$ $b\dot{\epsilon}$ $n\bar{\epsilon}$ $m\bar{\delta}$ 2qv-n. (focus on the locative)

1SG.CNTR EXIST FOC grass:**SG-LOC**.

Moogin ka mam bε. "I'm in the bush." BNY p10

 $M\bar{o}$ οgύ-n $k\dot{a}$ $m\bar{a}m$ $b\dot{\epsilon}$. $(k\dot{a}$ -preposed locative)

Grass:sg-loc and 1sg.cntr exist.

Dāu lā bέ nē dó-kànā lā pύυgō-n.

Man:sg art exist foc hut-dem.dei.sg art inside:sg-loc.

"The man is inside that hut." (Reply to "Where is that man?"; focus on locative)

Dàu-sɔ̄' bέ dɔ́-kànā lā pύυgū-n.

Man-indf.an exist hut-dem.dei.sg art inside:sg-loc.

"There's a certain man in that hut." (focus on subject)

 $B\dot{\varepsilon}^+$ is common in presentational constructions <u>30.4</u>.

For the corresponding negative $k\bar{a}^{\dagger}e^{+}$ see $\underline{29.1.1}$. * $p\bar{v}$ $b\dot{\varepsilon}$ is not used.

 $B\dot{\epsilon}^+$ plays a rôle analogous to a "passive" to $m\bar{\nu}r^{a}$ "have" in constructions like:

 \dot{M} $b\bar{i}ig$ $b\dot{\epsilon}$. "I have a child."; equivalent to 15G child:5G EXIST.

M mór bīig.

1SG have child:SG.

 \dot{M} $b\bar{i}ig$ $k\bar{a}'e^{+}\phi$. "I have no child."; equivalent to 15G child:5G NEG.BE NEG.

 \dot{M} $k\bar{a}$ ' $b\bar{i}iga$ +g.

15G NEG.HAVE child:SG NEG.

 $B\dot{\varepsilon}^+$ can be used in direct commands:

 $B \dot{\epsilon} \dot{\epsilon}$ aninā. "Be (i.e. stay) there!" SB

EXIST ADV:there.

 $B\bar{\epsilon}e$ -n($\dot{a}l\acute{a}$ $\dot{a}n\acute{n}\bar{a}.$ "Be ye there!" [bɛ:nala anina] **EXIST-2PL.SUB ADV:**thus **ADV:**there.

21.2 Àeňa "be something/somehow"

The $\not\in$ of the SF of $\grave{a} \not\in \breve{n}^a$ is always lost except on the rare occurrence of the word phrase-finally 8.5.3.

 \grave{O} \grave{a} $n\bar{\varepsilon}$ $b\bar{\imath}ig.$ "She is a child."

3AN COP FOC child:**SG**.

Lì àň súŋā. "It's good."

3INAN COP good:**ADV**.

but Mānı ø áň dự'átà kà fūn mén áẹň.

1SG.CNTR CAT COP doctor:SG and 2SG.CNTR also COP.

"I'm a doctor and you are too."

The usual negative uses the negative verb $k\bar{a}^{\dagger}e^{+}$ "not be":

 \dot{M} $k\bar{a}'$ du' $\dot{a}t\bar{a}a$ $^+$ g. "I'm not a doctor."

1SG NEG.BE doctor:SG NEG.

However, pū áeň can occur, for example in contrasts:

```
Mānı ø áň dụ'átà
                         àmáa fūn
                                       υū
                                               áňyā +ø.
1SG.CNTR CAT COP doctor:SG but
                               2SG.CNTR NEG.IND COP
"I'm a doctor but you aren't."
Àeňa can be used in direct commands:
Àň bāaňlím!
                               "Be quiet!"
COP quiet:ABSTR!
Āa-nί
           àlá
                   bāaňlím!
                               "Be (ye) quiet!"
COP-2PL.SUB ADV: thus quiet: ABSTR!
```

As with English copular clauses, the sense may be ascriptive or specifying (cf CGEL p266.) If it is **ascriptive**, the complement is non-referring, and normally focussed with $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ 30.1.2.2 if permitted 30.1.2.1.1 30.1.2.1.3:

```
\grave{O} à n\bar{\varepsilon} b\bar{\imath}ig. "She is a child." 

3AN COP FOC child:SG. 

\grave{O} à n\bar{\varepsilon} b\hat{\imath}ig\grave{a}a + \emptyset? "Is she a child?" 

3AN COP FOC child:SG PO?
```

In **specifying** constructions focus frequently falls on the subject, which usually then has n-focus 30.1.1:

```
Mane an konbkem sup la.

Mānı ø áň kóňb-kìm-sùŋ lā.

15G.CNTR CAT COP animal-tender-good:sG ART.

"I am the good shepherd." (Jn 10:11)

Mane a o. "I am he." (Jn 18:5, 1976) 8.2.1.

Mānı ø áň·o ø.

15G.CNTR CAT COP 3AN.OB.

Nɔbibisi a mam disuŋ.

Nō-bíbɪsì ø áň mām dí-sùŋ.

Hen-small:PL CAT COP 15G.CNTR food-good:sG.

"Chicks are my favourite food." BNY p13
```

```
N\varepsilon'\varepsilon\eta a an Yesu [...] yaanam y\varepsilon la.

N\bar{\varepsilon}'\eta \acute{a} à\check{n} Yesu [...] yáa-nám y\acute{e}là.

DEM.DEI.INAN COP Jesus [...] ancestor-PL about.

"This is the account of Jesus' ancestors." (Mt 1:1)
```

When the complement of $\grave{a} e \check{n}^a$ is definite, the construction is usually specifying, with the subject in focus:

```
M á nē dự'átà. "I'm a doctor." ("What do you do?")

15G COP FOC doctor:sG. Ascriptive.

but Mānı Ø áň dự'átà lā. "I'm the doctor." ("Which one is the doctor?")

15G.CNTR CAT COP doctor:sG ART. Specifying.
```

However, definite complements may be in focus as "pragmatically non-recoverable" because of their internal structure or other factors: see 30.1.2.2.

 $\dot{A}\underline{e}\check{n}^a$ 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 $\underline{17.5}$:

```
Today cop foc market:sg.

Yiŋ venl, ka poogin ka'a su'um.

Yiŋ véňl kà pōvgv-n kā' súmm +ø.

Outside be.beautiful and inside:sg-loc neg.be good:Abstr neg.

"Outside is beautiful but inside [place] is not good." (Acts 23:3, 1996)

Man noni ya si'em la ane bedego.

Mán nòni yā sī əm lā á nē bédvgō.

1sg:nz love 2pl.ob indf.adv art cop foc much.

"How much I love you [manner], is a lot." (2 Cor 7:3, 1976)
```

 $\dot{A}\underline{e}\check{n}^a$ is remarkable in being able to take a complement consisting of an adjective without any noun head. The article $l\bar{a}^{+/}$ is permitted, but no other dependents apart from ideophones $\underline{16.11.1.3}$.

```
Lì à n\bar{\epsilon} píəlìg. "It's white, a white one."

Lì à n\bar{\epsilon} píəlìg fáss. "It's very white."

Bà à n\bar{\epsilon} píəlà. "They're white."
```

Most adjectives do not permit this. All examples in my materials involve adjectives without corresponding adjectival verbs, or having human reference (cf the adjectival use of human-reference nouns $\underline{16.11.1.5}$.) More often, compounds with $n\bar{l}n$ -"person" or $b\bar{v}n$ - "thing" + adjective $\underline{16.10.3.1}$ are used:

```
Ò à nē nīn-súŋ. "She's a good person."
β a good person."
β a good person."
β a good person."
β a good thing."
β a good thing."
β a good thing."
β a good thing."
```

Even adjectives which may appear without a noun head cannot do so before a postdeterminer pronoun; thus only

```
Lì à n\bar{\varepsilon} b\bar{\upsilon}n-p(\hat{\partial}l-k\hat{a}n\bar{a}. "It is this white one."
```

 $\dot{A}\underline{e}\check{n}^a$ often takes a manner-adverb or deadjectival abstract noun as complement 20.2.1. Such constructions are ascriptive, using $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ where syntactically permissible:

```
Lì
      à nĒ ná'anā.
                                  "It's easy."
3INAN COP FOC easily.
Lì
      à nĒ zāalím.
                                  "It's empty."
3INAN COP FOC empty:ABSTR.
                                  "It's soft."
Lì
      à nē būgusígā.
3INAN COP FOC soft:ADV.
Lì
     àň súηā.
                                 "It's good." <u>30.1.2.1.3</u>
3INAN COP good:ADV.
```

Possible complements of $\grave{a} \not\in \check{n}^a$ also include circumstance-AdvPs 28.1 and even content clauses:

```
M diib ans ye m tom ons tomi m la na boodim naae.

M dītb á nē yé m tóm ònt tòmi m lā nā bóodim ø nāe.

15G food cop foc that 15G work Rel.an send 15G.08 art hither will cat finish.

My food is that I do the will of him who sent me completely. (Jn 4:34)
```

22 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 n lā.	"That is X."
X n ňwá.	"This is X."
X n wá nā.	"This here is X."
X lía?	"Where is X?"

The particle n in these forms is identical phonologically to catenator-n 8.2.2.2 and is 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:

```
"That's a door."
Kùlını ø lā.
Door:sg cat that.
                             "See you tomorrow" ("That's tomorrow.")
Bēogυ ø lā.
Tomorrow cat that.
Fù mà
            lā lía
                          +ø?
2SG mother:SG ART be.where co?
"Where is your mother?" WK
Ka awai la dia [sic]?
                             "But where are the nine?" (Lk 17:17, 1976)
Kà àwāe
            lā lía
                         +ø?
And NUM: nine ART be where co?
                             "What's that?"
Bɔɔ ø lá +ø?
What cat that co?
```

Non-verbal predicators may have a VP-chaining construction appended to them, or there may be an adnominal $k\grave{a}$ -clause 26.2 modifying X; $k\grave{a}$ is used to introduce a subject different from X, VP chaining otherwise. The resulting constructions are variants of n-clefting and $k\grave{a}$ -clefting 30.1.1 30.2.

Ano'on nwaa yisid nidib tuumbe'edi basida?

Ànɔʻ'ɔn_ø ňwáa_ø yīsıd nīdıb túòm-bɛ̄'ɛdı_ø básıdà +ø?

Who **cat** this **cat** expel:**IPFV** person:**PL** deed-bad:**PL cat** throw.out:**IPFV co**? "Who is this who drives people's sins out?" (Lk 7:49)

Ōnι ø lá kà fù dāa ňyēt.

3AN.CNTR CAT that and **2SG TNS** see:IPFV.

"This is he whom you saw." WK

Ànó'onì ø ňwá kà tì ňyētá +ø?

Who cat this and 1PL see: IPFV cq?

"Who is this that we can see?"

Bɔɔ ø lá kà m nyētá +ø?

What **cat** that and **1sg** see: **IPFV co**?

"What is that I can see?"

23 Verb phrase chaining

23.1 Overview

After an initial VP or non-verbal predicator, a clause often adds further VPs, each preceded by the VP catenator n; for the realisation of this particle see 8.2.2.2. Complements, VP adjuncts, and even subordinate clauses may be incorporated within such VP chains.

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-sɔ́b máliak dāa kēŋ n yɔʻòg sārugá dɔ́òg

But and head-one:sg angel:sg tns go cat open prison:sg house:sg
zá'-nɔ̄ɔr lā yū'vŋ-kán, n mɔ̄r(bā n yīis yíŋ.

compound-mouth:sg art night-dem.sg, cat have 3pl.ob cat extract outside.

"But an angel of the Lord came and opened the gate of the prison that night and took them outside ..." (Acts 5:19, 1996)

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 dàu-sɔ̄' dūe n zí'e lā nīdıb n áň lá'asùg sísờugō-n, And man-INDF.AN rise cat stand assembly:sg art person:PL among-Loc, cat cop kà ò yū'ur búèn Gamaliel, n áň ónì Pharisee person:sg and 3AN name:sg call:IPFV Gamaliel, CAT COP REL.AN teach:IPFV Wínà'am wádà lā yélà, kà lém àň yū'ur dáàn nīdıb sá'àn. law **ART** about, and again **COP** name:**SG** owner:**SG** person:**PL** among. "A man stood up in the assembly, a Pharisee called Gamaliel, a teacher of God's law and also reputable among the people." (Acts 5:34, 1976)

Toende Kusaal (like Dagaare, Bodomo 1997) has zero throughout corresponding to catenator-n, but most other Western Oti-Volta languages show n, at least in slow speech. In languages with the zero realisation, these structures have usually been regarded as serial verb constructions, and many uses of VP chaining are indeed closely parallel to uncontroversial serial verb constructions in other languages. However, VP chaining shows greater flexibility than typical serial verb constructions, and there are also similarities to the **catenative** constructions of the CGEL description of English (pp1176ff), suggesting an alternative analysis of n as a marker of a following subjectless non-finite clause.

Olawsky's account of Dagbani describes the structure n+verb as an "infinitive", presumably meaning that it is used as the citation form, but he gives no examples of

actual usage. (I have not encountered a citation use in Kusaal.) Both Niggli and Zongo describe the same construction in Mooré as an *infinitif*, and Canu, who calls it the "état neutre" (p272), confirms that it is used in citation and in one-word answers to questions (p175) and in constructions like $\bar{e}m$ dátā ndī "je désire manger." Nevertheless, it is difficult to see a firm basis for distinguishing finite from non-finite VPs in Kusaal without circularity, given that there is no subject agreement, and that tense-marking does not play the central rôle in verb morphology that it does in English. It remains possible to regard catenator-n as a marker of a subjectless formally subordinate clause; significantly, there is a near-complementary relationship between VP chaining and adnominal $k\dot{a}$ -clauses. The great majority of $k\dot{a}$ -clauses with ellipse of a subject pronoun after $k\dot{a}$ are insubordinate 24.2 main clauses, and most of the clearly subordinate types can be explained as replacing VP chaining because of a change of polarity (see below.)

Nominaliser- \dot{n} 28 may be historically related to catenator-n. The particles differ tonally, and in Toende Kusaal they are even distinct segmentally: nominaliser- \dot{n} is ne, whereas catenator-n is \varnothing . However, this might be attributed to the effect of a preceding subject NP, in a way analogous to L spreading in NP structure 8.4.

Verbal predicators in a chain each have their own aspect marking, which need not necessarily be the same throughout. Normally only the first VPred carries tense and polarity particles, which apply to the entire chain, but each retains discontinuous-past n^{ε} , and while initial irrealis mood marking applies to the whole chain, a VPred following an indicative may be in the irrealis, in which case it will be marked itself. The preverb $t\hat{i}$ is often found with non-initial VPs.

Change in polarity within a chain is unusual; if there is a change of polarity the construction is normally replaced by an adnominal $k\grave{a}$ -clause (the only case where an adnominal $k\grave{a}$ -clause can have the same subject as the main clause before it 26.2):

```
Ka dau daa zin'i Listra ni ka pu tun'e kenna.

Kà dāu dāa zíň'i Listra ní kà pō tūň'e ø kēnná +ø.

And man:sg tns sit Lystra Loc and Neg.IND be.able cat go:IPFV Neg.

"There was a man in Lystra who could not walk." (Acts 14:8, 1996)
```

```
Ka Joon kena lood noor ka pu nuud daam
```

Examples of a change from positive to negative polarity do occur:

This is probably connected with the presentational character of the main $VP \ \underline{30.4}$.

VPs within a chain may be coordinations of component VPs linked by $k\grave{a}$ "and" or $b\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon/k\bar{\nu}\nu$ "or" 23.2.

VP chaining seems always to involve semantic subordination; the equivalent in translation in European languages would often be a participle modifying the main verb subject. However, it may be the *first* VP in a chain which is semantically subordinate; many verbs have characteristic subordinate "auxiliary" rôles in chains, and whether they precede or follow the "main" verb depends on their own semantics. Moreover, in all VP chains the order of events, if they are not simultaneous, must be mirrored in the order of the VPs 19.2.1.

A VP chain can be attached after a non-verbal predicator 22:

```
Anɔ'ɔn nwaa yisid nidib tvvmbɛ'ɛdi basida?
Ànɔʻòn ø ňwáa ø yīsıd nīdıb tvvm-bɛ̄'ɛdı ø básıdà +ø?
Who cat this cat expel:IPFV person:PL deed-bad:PL cat throw.out:IPFV co?
"Who is this who drives people's sins out?" (Lk 7:49)
```

Common patterns with verbs without specialised VP chain uses include (a) main VP + imperfective VP expressing accompanying events:

```
Kà Nīn-sáàl Bīig kēn nā ø dít kà nūud...

Kà Nīn-sáàl Bīig kēn nā ø dít kà nūud...

And Person-smooth:sg child:sg come:IPFV hither cat 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' yε fupiela zi'e ba san'an.

Kà dāpá àyí yε fū-píəlà Ø zì'e bà sā'an.

And man:PL NUM:two dress shirt-white:PL CAT stand 3PL among.

"Two men dressed in white were standing with them." (Acts 1:10)
```

(c) main VP + perfective VP in irrealis or imperative mood, expressing purpose. The preverb $t\hat{i}$ is commonly seen in the second VP in such cases.

```
Amaa m pv mɔr antu'a zugv o yɛla na sɔbi tis na'atita'ar laa.
                mɔr ántù'a zúgύ ο yε̄lá ø nà sɔ̄bι ø
Àmáa ṁ pū
     1SG NEG.IND have case:SG upon 3AN about CAT IRR write CAT give
ná'-tītā'ar
             láa +ø.
king-great:sg ART NEG.
"But I have no case about him to write to the Emperor." (Acts 25:26)
Man ya'a ρυ kεεn na tu'asini ba ...
Mān
        γá' pū
                  kēε-n
                           nā ø tú'asī-ní bā...
1SG.CNTR if NEG.IND come-DP hither CAT talk-DP
"If I had not come to talk to them ..." (In 15:22) Note DP on both verbs.
Kèm ø tí
                     ňyε̄ du'átà.
Go:IMP CAT afterwards see doctor:sg.
"Go and see the doctor."
```

23.2 Coordination

VPs within chains can be coordinated with $k\dot{a}$ "and", $b\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon$ "or", $k\bar{\nu}\nu$ "or"; $b\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon$ and $k\bar{\nu}\nu$ are here synonymous.

```
ka ken ... n ian'asid ka pian'ad n du'osid Wina'am yu'ur su'una.
kà kēη ... n jāň'asíd kà pjāň'ad
                                     n dū'əsíd
and go ... CAT leap: IPFV and praise: IPFV CAT elevate: IPFV
Wínà'am yú'ùr
                  sύηā.
God
        name:sg good:ADV.
"and went ... leaping and praising the name of God greatly." (Acts 3:8, 1996)
Sogia so' kae' n tum ka yood o mena.
Sógià-sɔ̄'
              kā'e n túm
                                  kà yōɔd
                                               ò mēná +ø.
Soldier-Indf.an neg.be cat work: IPFV and pay: IPFV 3AN self Neg.
"No soldier works and pays for himself." (1 Cor 9:7, 1976)
```

23.3 Auxiliary verbs in VP chains

Certain verbs have characteristic specialised meanings in VP chaining. Variable verbs of this type agree in aspect with the main VP verb.

23.3.1 Preceding the main VP

```
b\dot{\epsilon}^+ "exist, be somewhere" + \dot{a}nin\bar{a} "there" + imperfective "be in the process of ..."
      Ò bè
                ànínā
                           n ἤwé'èd bīig
      3AN EXIST ADV: there CAT beat:IPFV child:SG ART.
      "He's currently beating the child."
àeňa "be something/somehow." This construction is parallel to the adnominal kà-
clause type 26.2 but with the subject of the main clause as antecedent. By ellipsis, it
gives rise to n-focus 30.1.1.
      Li ane o sidi su'oe li.
      Lì á né ò sīdı
                                     ø sύ'υ lī.
      3INAN COP FOC 3AN husband:sg cat own 3INAN.OB.
      "It's her husband who owns it." (1 Cor 7:4)
m\bar{i}^{+} "know", z\bar{i}^{+} "not know": n\grave{a}m\ m\bar{i} n + perfective "always have X-ed",
      nàm zī' n + perfective "never have X-ed"
      Makir bane buudi paadi ya la nan mi' paae sieba men.
      Mākír bànı būudı pāadí yā lā nám mī ø pāe sīəba mén.
      Testing Rel.PL sort reach: IPFV 2PL.OB ART still know CAT reach INDF.PL also.
      "Trials of the kind that have reached you have always reached others too."
      (1 Cor 10:13)
      \dot{M} nám zī' \phi ňy\bar{\epsilon} gb\bar{\epsilon}gımn\epsilon +\phi.
      1SG still NEG.KNOW CAT see lion:SG
                                             NEG.
      "I've never seen a lion." SB
z\grave{a}n^{\epsilon} and n\bar{b}k^{\epsilon/} "pick up, take" with object "using" (of a literal object as instrument)
      M nók
                   sύ'υgὺ ø kịá nīm
                                             Ιā.
      1SG pick.up knife:SG CAT cut meat:SG ART.
      "I cut the meat with a knife."
      M zání m nú'ugò ø sī'ıs dāká lā.
      1SG pick.up 1SG hand:SG CAT touch box:SG ART.
       "I touched the box with my hand."
```

(*M zání m nú'ùg kà sī'ıs dāká lā "I picked up my hand and touched the box.")

```
mɔra/ "have" + object "bringing" with motion verbs:
      Dābá àyópòe kà fù mōr∙ó ø
                                                       nā.
      Day:PL NUM:seven and 2SG have 3AN.OB CAT come hither.
      "Bring her here in a week." WK
dɔ̃la/ "accompany in subordinate rôle, attend"
      Bà dòll·ō ø j
                       ø kēn Bók.
      3PL follow 3AN.OB CAT go Bawku.
      "They went to Bawku with him."
Beginning verbs naturally precede:
      Ka Pita pin'ili pa'ali ba
      Kà Pita pīň'il ø pá'alì bā.
      And Peter begin cat teach 3PL.OB.
      "Peter began to tell them." (Acts 11:4)
      Tì dέηὶ ø tís·ò ø
                                   lźr.
      1PL precede CAT give 3AN.OB car.
      "We previously gave him a car." (d \dot{\epsilon} \eta^{\epsilon} "do/go first")
      Ka dau sɔ' duoe zi'en la'asvg la svvgin ...
                                       là'asvg
      Kà dàu-sɔ̄'
                      dūe ø zí'èn
                                                lā รบ์บgบิ-n ...
      And man-indf.an rise cat stand.up assembly art among-loc ...
      "And a man (having risen) stood up in the synagogue ..." (Acts 5:34)
"Come" and "go" can be used similarly as initiators:
                                     "I went and washed my hands."
      M kέηὶ ø pīə nú'ùs.
      1SG go CAT wash hand:PL.
su'āa "conceal" is used in this construction for "secretly":
      Ka Na'ab Herod su'a buol banidib la ...
      Kà Nà'ab Herod sự'ā g búèl bāŋıdıb
                                                         Ιā ...
      And king:sg Herod conceal cat ask understander:pl art...
      "Herod secretly called for the wise men ..." (Mt 2:7)
```

ñyān^ε/ means "overcome" as a main verb:

```
Ka m nyaŋ dunia. "I have overcome the world." (Jn 16:33)
Kà ṁ nyāŋ dūnɪya.
And 1sg overcome world:sg.
```

As a VP-chain auxiliary it means "carry out successfully, prevail in":

```
\dot{M} p\bar{v} ny\bar{a}nv g z\acute{a}b n\grave{a}'ab l\acute{a}a +g.

15G NEG.IND prevail CAT fight chief:SG ART NEG.

"I wasn't able to fight the chief."
```

Unlike English "can", $\check{n}y\bar{a}\eta^{\epsilon}$ expresses events and not states. Thus, to express present ability or inability, the auxiliary is in the irrealis mood:

```
    M kú nyānı ø záb nà'ab láa +ø.
    1SG NEG.IRR prevail cat fight 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:

```
wad line nyaŋedin ketin ka nidib voen,
wād-línì ňyāŋídī-n ø kētí-n kà nīdıb vūv-n
law-rel.inan prevail:ipfv-dp cat cause:ipfv-dp and person:pl be.alive-dp.
"a law which could make people live." (Gal 3:21, 1996)
```

 $t\bar{u}\check{n}$ 'e means "be able"; it almost always occurs as an auxiliary. A rare example of independent use appears in:

```
ba daa tis ka li zemisi ba paŋi na tun'e si'em
bà dāa tís kà lì z\bar{\epsilon}m(sì bà pàŋı ø nà tūň'e sī'əm

3PL TNS give and 3INAN become equal 3PL strength NZ IRR be able INDF.ADV

"They gave as much as their strength would permit" (2 Cor 8:3)
```

I have no examples of the LF, but there are no imperfective forms in $-d^a$ and $t\bar{u}\check{n}'e$ occurs before both perfective and imperfective main verbs. The verb is thus invariable. Unlike $\check{n}y\bar{a}\eta^{\epsilon/}$, $t\bar{u}\check{n}'e$ expresses a state, and both indicative and irrealis moods can express present ability or inability.

```
ka li ku tun'e su'a.
kà lì
          kύ
                 tūň'e ø su'āa +ø.
and SINAN NEG.IRR be able CAT hide NEG.
"which cannot be hidden" (Mt 5:14)
Ya na tun'e zin' tenin la nɛ ti.
Yà ná tūň'e jø zíň'i
                             tēηι-n
                                         lā nέ tì.
2PL IRR be.able CAT be.sitting land:SG-LOC ART with 1PL.
"You can dwell in the land with us." (Genesis 34:10)
Fυ tun'e nyεt si'ela?
Fù túň'e ø ňyēt
                      sí¹əlàa
2SG be.able CAT see: IPFV INDF. INAN PQ?
"Can you see anything?" (Mk 8:23)
O pv tun'e pian'ada.
Òρū
           tūň'e ø piāň'adá <sup>+</sup>ø.
3AN NEG.IND be.able CAT speak:IPFV NEG.
"He could not speak." (Lk 1:22)
T\bar{u}\bar{n}'e occurs as auxiliary to \bar{n}y\bar{a}\eta^{\epsilon} used as a main verb in
bozugo ba ku tun'e nyane ba mena.
                   tūň'e ø ňyāní bà mēná +ø.
bɔ̄ zúgɔ̄ bà kù
because 3PL NEG.IRR be.able CAT control 3PL self
"because they cannot control themselves." (1 Cor 7:5, 1996)
```

23.3.2 Following the main VP

tìs^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.

```
Fu pu ma' n tis ninsaala, amaa fu ma' n tis ne Wina'am Siig Suŋ.

Fù pū má' n tìs nīn-sáalā +ø, àmáa fù mà'

2SG NEG.IND lie CAT give person-smooth:SG NEG but 2SG lie

n tís nē Wínà'am Sí-sùŋ..

CAT give Foc God Spirit-good:SG.

"You have not lied to a human being; rather, you have lied to God's Holy Spirit." (Acts 5:4, 1996)
```

```
M dāa kúès bònv ø tís du'átà.
      1SG TNS sell donkey:SG CAT give doctor:SG.
      "I sold a donkey to the doctor."
Not *M dāa kúès bùn
                             kà tís du'átà.
      1SG TNS sell donkey:SG and give doctor:SG.
      ("I sold a donkey and gave it to the doctor.")
gàad<sup>E</sup> "pass, surpass" can be used in comparisons:
      Isaac kárìm ø gát
                                 John.
      Isaac read: IPFV CAT pass: IPFV John.
      "Isaac reads better than John." SB
      À-Wīn
                         ø gát
                gím
                                     À-Būgur.
      PERS-Awini be.short cat pass:IPFV PERS-Abugri.
      "Awini is shorter than Abugri." SB
      Fu sid non mam gat bamaa?
      Fù síd nòn mām ø gát
                                       bámmáa +ø?
      2SG truly love 1SG CAT pass:IPFV DEM.DEI.PL PQ?
      "Do you really love me more than these?" (In 21:15)
gàlis<sup>E</sup> "get to be too much" (Sāa gálìs yā "There's too much rain"):
      Ò dì n gálìs.
                                     "She's eaten too much."
      3AN eat CAT exceed.
      Dā
             kárìm
                       gbánà ø gálisìdā
      NEG.IMP read:IPFV book:PL CAT exceed:IPFV NEG.
      "Don't read books too much."
bàs<sup>ε</sup> "send/go away" is used for "away, off, out":
                      lā ø bás.
                                     "They threw the man out."
      Bà vìis
               dāu
      3PL expel man:SG ART CAT throw.out.
      Ano'on nwaa yisid nidib tuumbe'edi basida?
      Ànɔʻ'ɔ̀n_ø ňwáa_ø yīsıd
                                      nīdıb
                                                tύὺm-bĒ'εdι ø básıdà
                                                                               +ø?
                         CAT expel:IPFV person:PL deed-bad:PL CAT throw.out:IPFV CQ?
```

"Who is this who drives people's sins out?" (Lk 7:49)

Ending verbs naturally follow the main VP:

```
\dot{O} d l l \not \varnothing n \bar{a} e. "He's finished eating."

3AN eat CAT finish.

\dot{O} d l l \not \varnothing t l l g. "She's eaten to satiety."

3AN eat CAT become satiated.
```

Motion verbs occur here with meanings like local prepositions e.g.

```
O kàt kíkīr-bɛ́'ɛ̀d-nàm n yīisíd nīdıb.

3AN drive:IPFV fairy-bad-PL CAT expel:IPFV person:PL.

"He drives evil spirits out of people."

Jesus ban'ad buŋ n kpen'ed Jerusalem

Jesus ø bāň'ad búŋ n kpɛ́ň'ɛ̀d Jerusalem

Jesus Nz ride:IPFV donkey:sG CAT enter:IPFV Jerusalem

"Jesus riding a donkey into Jerusalem" (picture caption, NT 1976)

Èňrɪgɪm ø páa m.

Shift.along:IMP CAT reach 1sG.OB.

"Shift along up to me." (pāe+/ "reach")
```

 $w\bar{\epsilon}n^{na/}$ "be like" is very common in VP chaining. $W\bar{\epsilon}n^{na/}$ + complement sequences are often treated like prepositional phrases 18.2. As a main verb:

```
Ka o nindaa wenne nintaŋ ne.
Kà ò nīn-dáa wēn nē nīntāŋ nē.
And βΑΝ eye-face:sg resemble with sun:sg like.
"His face is like the sun." (Rev 10:1, 1996: KB κα o nindaa nwɛnɛ winnig nɛ)
```

 $W\bar{\epsilon}n^{\text{na/}}$ takes a prepositional phrase with $w\bar{\nu}\nu$ "like" or $n\bar{\epsilon}$ "with" as complement 18.1. Any object without the article $l\bar{a}^{+/}$, even a pronoun or proper name, must be followed by a meaningless $n\bar{\epsilon}$. Before numbers and measurements $w\bar{\epsilon}n^{\text{na/}}$ means "about, approximately"; numbers when appearing alone are not followed by $n\bar{\epsilon}$:

```
Li ane woo maila ayi' ne.

Lì à nē wōo maila àyí nē.

3INAN COP FOC like mile NUM:two like.

"It's about two miles." (Jn 11:18)
```

```
but ka ba kal an wvv kəbiga nɛ pisi.
kà bà kāl áň wvv kəbigā nē pīsí.
and 3PL number:sg cop like hundred with twenty
"and their number was about 120." (Acts 1:15)
```

 $l\grave{a}'am^m$ "together" is also found as a preverb $\underline{19.7.2}$. In $l\grave{a}'am\ n\bar{\epsilon}$ "together with" the expression has become a compound preposition $\underline{18.2}$. It appears as a main verb meaning "associate with":

```
B\grave{a}\ p\bar{v} I\acute{a}'amìd t\bar{a}abaa ^+\emptyset.

3PL NEG.IND associate:IPFV each.other NEG.

"They don't associate together."
```

 $y\dot{a}'as^{\epsilon}$ or $y\dot{a}'as^{a}$ "again" usually lacks n and has become effectively an adverb, preposable with $k\dot{a}$ 30.2. ILK glosses the word as "repeat", but I have no example of its use as a main verb.

```
Ya'as ka m gos ... "Again I looked ..." (Rev 5:11, 1976)
Yà'as kà \dot{m} gɔ̄s ...
Again and 1sg look ...
```

23.4 Hālí⁺ preceding catenator-n

 $H\bar{a}l(+18.1)$ can precede catenator-*n* in the sense "until":

```
...ka keŋ ia arakon' kane bodig la hale n ti nye o?
...kà kēŋ ø já àdàkóň'-kànı bòdıg lā
...and go cat seek num:one-rel.sg get.lost art
hālí n tì ňyē·ó-o +ø?
until cat afterwards see-зан.ов cq?
"... and go and look for the one which is lost until he finds it?" (Lk 15:4, 1996)
```

Ka bε mɔɔgin hali ti paae saŋkanε ka o yis o mɛŋ paalv ni Israel dim san'an.

```
Kà bế mɔɔgu-n hālí ø tì pāe sān-kánì and exist grass:sg-loc until cat afterwards reach time-rel.sg kà ò yís ò mēŋ pāalú nì Israel dím sá'àn. and san emerge san self openly loc Israel individual.pl among.
"... and remained in the bush until the time when he showed himself openly to the Israelites." (Lk 1:80); 1996 hale n ti paae
```

24 Clauses

24.1 Structure

Kusaal is strictly SVO; deviations not achieved by $k\grave{a}$ -preposing 30.2 always represent extraposition or dislocation 30.3. Indirect objects precede direct, and objects precede other complements.

Verb phrases can be concatenated by VP chaining 23.

Except in certain special circumstances clauses require a subject NP.

Clause-level particles appear in various positions within the clause structure: clause-linker particles, post-subject particles and emphatics 30.6.

VP adjuncts may follow each VP. Clause-level adjuncts may follow the last VP; it is generally not possible to distinguish these from adjuncts of the last VP itself, unless the VP ends in a VP-final particle 30.3.

Main clauses and content clauses have similar structures. Both display independency marking on the first verbal predicator 19.6, and have structural possibilities not permitted to clauses of any other type: they may contain non-verbal predicators 22 or lack a predicator altogether 25.2.4, they can show clefting or preposing with $k\grave{a}$, or focus with $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ 30.1.2, and they may have clause-level adjuncts expressing time or circumstance preceding the clause subject 25.1.1.

24.1.1 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

```
"It [weather] is hot."

BINAN be.hot.

"It's good."

Contrast Mooré yaa sõama, with no pronoun.

Lì nàr kà fù kūl.

"It's necessary for you to go home."

BINAN must and 25G return.home.
```

The dummy pronoun is 3sg inanimate; animate \grave{o} is not found. The dummy subject may be omitted in $y\grave{a}$ '-clauses:

```
Ya'a ka'anɛ alaa, m naan kv yɛlinɛ ya ye ...
Yà' kā'a-n( àlá, m nāan kv yēlu-n( yā yē ...
If NEG.BE-DP ADV:thus, 1SG then NEG.IRR say-DP 2PL.OB 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 $k\grave{a}$ "and" a pronoun repeating the subject of the previous clause is deleted 24.1.5.2 (though its tone-raising effect remains 8.3.)

Absence of subject pronouns in other cases is due to *informal* ellipsis 24.1.5; such structures 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 M spreading induced by the ellipted pronoun 8.3 remains.

```
Náe yàa +ø? "[Have you] finished?"
Finish PFV 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 how cQ?

Dúø wēlá? literally "(You) arose how?"
for Fù dúø wēlá +ø?
2SG arise how cQ?
```

24.1.2 Clause-linker particles

The **clause-linker particles** $k\grave{a}$ "and" and $y\bar{\varepsilon}$ "that" are placed before the subject (which may itself be ellipted after $k\grave{a}$ 24.1.5.2.) Conjunctions almost always precede any clause-linker particles 24.1.3. When other clausal elements precede $k\grave{a}$ before the subject, the construction is to be understood as $k\grave{a}$ -preposing instead 30.2. "Resumptive" $y\bar{\varepsilon}$ in longer passages of indirect speech frequently precedes clause-linking $k\grave{a}$ 26.3.3, but otherwise the clause-linker particles are mutually exclusive; apparent exceptions always arise from ellipsis 24.1.5.1.

While $y\bar{\varepsilon}$ is invariably subordinating, $k\dot{a}$ may be coordinating or subordinating. The glosses "and" and "that" are merely conventional; both particles are used in a variety of constructions with meanings that vary considerably $25.3 \ 26 \ 30.2$.

24.1.3 Conjunctions

No one group of words in Kusaal corresponds exactly to English conjunctions. The particles $k\grave{a}$ "and" and $y\bar{\epsilon}$ "that" are clause-linker particles 24.1.2, and some words translatable as English conjunctions are presubject adjuncts 25.1.1. The term "conjunction" will here be reserved for forms which either do not occur together with clause-linkers at all, or precede them, whereas presubject adjuncts follow. When there are no clause-linkers, conjunctions precede adjuncts. Thus

```
kōυ "or" (← Hausa)
bēε "or"
```

never appear before or after kà, while

```
amáa

"but" (cf Arabic اما ?amma: "as for")

hāli

"until" (cf Arabic حتى hatta:); preposition hatta:

as \epsilon \epsilon

"unless" (cf Hausa hatta:); preposition
```

occur overwhelmingly more often before $k \grave{a}$ than after it. The 1996 NT version has 92 examples of the order $\grave{a}m\acute{a}a$ $k\grave{a}$, 99 of $h\bar{a}l\acute{l}$ $k\grave{a}$ and 49 of $\grave{a}s\acute{\epsilon}\epsilon$ $k\grave{a}$; in the KB versions:

```
Ka sieba la' o. Amaa ka sieba yɛl ye ...
Kà sīəba lá'∙o ø.
                        Àmáa kà sīəba yél yē ...
And INDF.PL laugh 3AN.OB. But
                               and INDF.PL say that...
"Some laughed at him, but others said..." (Acts 17:32)
... zin'in anina hali ka Herod ti kpi.
                   hālí kà Herod tí
... zíň'ìn ànínā,
                                               kpì.
        ADV: there, until and Herod afterwards die.
"...remaining there until Herod had died." (Mt 2:14)
Amaa baa yinne ku lu tenin kpii, asee ka li aan ya Ba' Wina'am boodim.
Àmáa báa yīnní kù
                        lū tēŋι-n
                                          ø kpíi +ø, àsέε kà lì
                NEG.IRR fall ground:SG-LOC CAT die NEG, unless and 3INAN
But not.one
áaň và Bā'
                   Wínà'am bɔɔdìm.
      2PL father:sG God:sG will.
"But not one of them will fall to the ground and die, unless your Father God
 agrees to it." (Mt 10:29)
```

The 1996 NT has just one example each of kà àmáa, kà hālí and kà àsέε, e.g.

Ka na'ab la sunf sa'am, **ka amaa** on po saam tuon la zug ka o tis noor ye ba tisim bipun la on bood si'el.

Kà nà'ab lā sūňf sáň'àm, kà àmáa ɔ́n pɔ̄ sáam

And king:sg art heart:sg spoil, and but san:nz swear stranger:pl

túèn lā zúg kà ò tís nɔ̄ɔr yɛ́ bà tìsım bī-púŋ lā

before art upon and san give command:sg that spl give:imp child-girl:sg art

ɔ́n bɔ̀ɔd sīˈəl.

3AN:NZ want INDF.INAN.

"The king was sad, but because he had sworn in front of guests he commanded that they give the girl what she wanted." (Mt 14:9, 1996: KB *amaa on pɔ*)

Conjunctions also precede $y\bar{\varepsilon}$ (both as linker and "resumptive" $y\bar{\varepsilon}$ 26.3.3):

Wina'am daa pv gaŋi ti ye ti tvm dian'ad tvvma, **amaa ye** ti bɛ nyain. Wínà'am dāa pv gāŋí tī yɛ́ tì tvm dia'ad tvvmà + ø, God **TNS NEG.IND** choose **1PL.OB** that **1PL** work dirt work **NEG**, àmáa yɛ́ tì bɛ́ nyāe.

but that **IPL EXIST** brightly.

"God did not choose us so that we would do the work of impurity, but so that we would be in cleanliness."(1 Thess 4:7)

Adjuncts appear *after* clause-linking $k\grave{a}$; any following $k\grave{a}$ is not clause-linking but $k\grave{a}$ -preposing 30.2. Time and circumstance adjuncts are not often $k\grave{a}$ -preposed.

For example, a rough count of the text of the 1996 NT shows with *nannanna* $n\bar{a}nn\acute{a}+n\bar{a}+n$ "now" and $lin\ a\ si'em\ la\ l(n\ \grave{a}\ s\bar{l})+n$ "as things stand":

	<u>X alone</u>	<u>kà X</u>	<u>X kà</u>
nānná-nā ^{+/}	33	28	4
lín à sīˈəm lā	4	6	0

Similarly sān-sí ān lā "at one time, once ..." is a presubject AdvP:

saŋsi'en la ya da ka' yinni ne Kiristo sān-sí'ā-n lā, yà dà kā' yīnní n $\bar{\epsilon}$ Kiristo time-INDF.IH-LOC ART 2PL TNS NEG.BE one with Christ "at one time you were not one with Christ." (Eph 2:12, 1996)

Ka saŋsi'en la tinam meŋ da ane zon

Kà sān-sí -ā-n lā tīnám mēn dá à nē zōn.

And time-indf.inan-loc art 1pl.cntr self this cop foc fool:pl

[&]quot;and once we ourselves were fools" (Titus 3:3, 1996)

Constructions based on $z ug\bar{\jmath}$ (see 8.1.1), like $d u z ug\bar{\jmath}$ "therefore" $b\bar{\jmath} z ug\bar{\jmath}$ "because" are conjunctions like $k\bar{\upsilon}\upsilon/b\bar{\varepsilon}\varepsilon$ "or" which do not usually occur with clause linkers at all. $B\bar{\jmath} z ug\bar{\jmath}$, though stigmatised as an Anglicism in ILK, is in fact freely used in the NT/KB for "because."

Police gbáň'a m bɔ̄ zúgɔ́ m̀ ňwέ' dāu lā.
Police seize **1sg.ob** because **1sg** hit man:**sg ART**.
"The police arrested me because I hit the man." (ILK)

However, the corresponding types with apocope, like $\grave{a}l\acute{a}$ $z\grave{u}g$ "therefore" $d\grave{i}n$ $z\acute{u}g$ "therefore", can be used either as $k\bar{v}v/b\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon$ -type conjunctions or as AdvPs; in the latter case, if they precede the subject they must be $k\grave{a}$ -preposed because they do not express time or circumstance $\underline{17.1}$. This results in a characteristic pattern: all combinations with $k\grave{a}$ occur except $k\grave{a}$ X (1996 NT again):

	<u>X alone</u>	<u>kà X</u>	<u>X kà</u>	<u>kà X kà</u>
dìn zúgō	208	2	0	0
dìn zúg	39	2	69	17

Unlike the NT, WK also treats $n\bar{a}nn\dot{a}-n\bar{a}^{+/}$ "now" in this way:

Nānná-ná \dot{m} á $n\bar{\epsilon}$ ná'àb. "Now I am a chief." Now-hither **1sg cop Foc** chief:**sg**.

Nānná-ná **kà** m̀ án̆ ná'àb. "Now I am a chief." Now-hither and **1sg cop** chief:**sg**.

Kà nānná-ná **kà** m̀ án̆ ná'àb. "And now I am a chief." And now-hither and **1sg cop** chief:**sg**.

not *Kà nānná-ná m̀ áň ná'àb "And now I am a chief." *Kà nānná-ná m̀ á nē ná'àb. (rejected by WK as ungrammatical)

Conjunctions have no effect the structure of the following clause, and if this is an insubordinate sequential clause or a subordinate clause introduced by $k\grave{a}$, the linker particle remains in place after the conjunction. Conjunctions do not affect tense marking in narrative 25.3.2. However, if a conjunction precedes a content clause 26.3, there is no following linker particle; this is the only context in which a conjunction *alone* may behave as a subordinator. The preposition $w\bar{v}v$ "like" 18.1 can be used in this way as a conjunction:

ka tuumbe'ed **ku** len so'e ti wuu ti aa li **yamugo**.

kà tùvm-bē'ɛd kú lēm sú'v_tī wūv tì áaň_lì yàmmvgɔ̄ $^+$ ø. and work-bad:PL NEG.IRR again own 1PL.OB like 1PL COP 3INAN slave:SG NEG. "and that sin will not again own us as if we were its slave." (Rom 6:6, 1996)

M pian'adi tisidi ya wυυ ya a**nε** m biis nε.

M̀ pi̯án̆'adī ø tísìdī yá wῦυ yà á nέ m̀ bīis nē.

15G speak:IPFV CAT give:IPFV 2PL.OB like 2PL COP FOC 15G child:PL like.

"I talk to you as if you were my children." (2 Cor 6:13)

 $\dot{A}s\dot{\epsilon}\epsilon$ "unless, except for" 18.1 can similarly introduce a nominalised \dot{n} -clause or a content clause. Clauses introduced by $\dot{a}s\dot{\epsilon}\epsilon$ without $k\dot{a}$ consistently follow any negative clitic from the preceding clause, probably reflecting the scope of the negation rather than lack of subordination 29.3.

```
O kv kpii, asee o ti nye Zugsob Kristo la.

Ò kv kpii ^+ø, àsée ò tì ňyè Zūg-sób Kristo lā.

3AN NEG.IRR die NEG, unless 3AN afterwards see head-one:sG Christ ART.

"He will not die, without seeing the Lord's Christ." (Lk 2:26)
```

Interestingly, CGEL (pp1011ff) classifies almost all the subordinating conjunctions of traditional English grammar as prepositions which can take a content clause as complement, distinguishing them from subordinators like "that." In Kusaal, as in English, only a subset of prepositions can behave like this: $n\bar{\varepsilon}$ "with, and" can only be followed by NPs or AdvPs (including \dot{n} -clauses.)

24.1.4 Post-subject particles

Two particles marking nominalised subordinate clause types follow the subject: $y\dot{a}'$ "if" 27.1 and nominaliser- \dot{n} 28; $s\bar{a}dig(m)$ "since" follows \dot{n} 28.1.1. Other particles found after the clause subject are

```
sìd "truly"
```

```
\grave{O} sìd \grave{a} n\bar{\epsilon} z\bar{\delta}lvg. "He really is a fool." 
3AN truly COP FOC fool:SG.
```

 \grave{O} sìd dāa á n $\bar{\epsilon}$ ná'àb. "Truly, he was a chief." WK 3AN truly TNS COP FOC chief:sg.

kūlım or **kūdım** "always" (← Hausa) is most often found with negatives:

```
Ka so' kudin ku len nyee li ya'asa.
      Kà sɔ̄'
                 kūdım kú
                               Ιε̄m ἤνέε Ιῖ
                                                    vá'asā +ø.
      And INDF.AN ever NEG.IRR again see
                                           3INAN.OB again NEG.
      "Nobody will ever see it again." (Rev 18:21, 1996)
nyāan or nāan 27.1.2 "next, afterwards"
      Ka Yesu tans nε kυkɔtita'ar ka nyaan kpi.
      Kà Yesu táňs nē kúkō-títā'ar
                                         kà ňyāan kpí.
      And Jesus shout with voice-great:sc and next die.
      "Jesus cried out with a loud voice and then died." (Mt 27:50)
pà' tì "perhaps", like và', is followed by indicative mood with future meaning:
      Ya yinni pa'a ti bu'osi m ye ...
      Yà yīnní pá' tì
                        bū'esí m
                                      νē...
      2PL one perhaps ask
                                1SG.OB that...
      "One of you will perhaps ask me ..." (Rom 9:19, 1976)
עס'סי "then, next"
```

Manoa yυ'un da baŋ ye o anε Zugsɔb maliak.

24.1.5 Ellipsis

Manoa yū'un dá bàn

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. More systematic ellipsis often implies anaphora or is used to avoid repetition of preceding material. In yet more formalised cases the ellipted type has become an autonomous construction with its own meaning.

yέ ò à nē Zūg-sób

"Then Manoah realised that he was an angel of the Lord." (Judges 13:12)

Manoah then TNS realise that 3AN COP FOC head-one:SG angel:SG.

máliāk.

Bound words, by definition, can never be left standing alone after ellipsis of the word to which they are bound but must be ellipted along with it.

Cases where I invoke ellipsis as a descriptive and explanatory device are with yes/no questions ending in $k\acute{v}v^+$ or $b\acute{\varepsilon}\epsilon^+$ 25.2.2; indirect commands 26.1 26.3.1; ellipsis of complements of verbs 20.1; $k\grave{a}$ -preposing and n-focus 30.1.1 30.2; $h\bar{a}l\acute{t}^+$ as intensifier 18.1; ambiguity with coordinated modifiers and determiners in the NP and

cases where a premodifier applies to a coordinated head <u>16.7</u>; and omission of temporal $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ in replies to questions <u>30.1.2.1.2</u>. Implicit tense marking <u>19.3.4</u> could also reasonably be classified as a form of ellipsis.

24.1.5.1 Coordination and ellipsis

Ellipsis is involved in many cases of coordination within NPs <u>16.7</u>. Ellipsis of repeated elements in clause coordination is common, e.g.

```
Dāu lā ňyế bī-díbìŋ kōv bī-púŋàa +ø?
Man:sg art see child-boy:sg or child-girl:sg pq?
"Did the man see a boy or a girl?"
```

The sequence $k\grave{a}$ $y\bar{\varepsilon}$ "but in order that ..." is always the result of ellipsis; the two linker particles cannot both occur in a clause, unless the $y\bar{\varepsilon}$ is "resumptive" 26.3.3, in which case it precedes the $k\grave{a}$. Thus, with $k\grave{a}$ $y\bar{\varepsilon}$, a clause must have been ellipted between the two clause-linker particles:

```
\dot{M} p\bar{v} t(s) f gbaun l\bar{a} y\dot{\epsilon} f\dot{v} k\dot{u}es l(\iota) +\phi, 1SG NEG.IND give 2SG.OB book:SG ART that 2SG sell 3INAN.OB NEG, k\dot{a} y\dot{\epsilon} f\dot{v} k\dot{a}r im. and that 2SG read.

"I didn't give you the book so you'd sell it, but [I gave it] so you'd read it."
```

24.1.5.2 Null anaphora of subjects

For null anaphora of VP complements see 20.1.

Explicit clause subjects are normally required, with cross-linguistically common exceptions like the subjects of direct commands <u>24.1.1</u>. Dummy subject pronouns (always 3sg inanimate) must be used in impersonal constructions like

```
Lì tòl.

"It (weather) is hot."

Lì à súŋā.

"It's good."

Lì nàr kà fò kūl.

"It's necessary for you to go home."
```

However, subject pronouns are regularly deleted after the clause-linker particle $k\grave{a}$ when they would have the same reference as the subject of the preceding clause. The M spreading that would follow the pronoun remains 8.3. Pronouns after $k\grave{a}$ introducing a content clause are not subject to this, and adnominal $k\grave{a}$ -clauses 26.2 usually have different subjects from the main clause, so this is characteristic of **sequential clauses** 25.3.2. It also occurs in the idiom " $n\grave{n}n$ $w\bar{\epsilon}l\acute{a}$ $k\grave{a}$...?" 26.1.

A non-deleted subject pronoun after $k\grave{a}$ thus usually signals a change of subject. A conversation may be reported simply by $K\grave{a}$ \grave{o} $y\acute{\epsilon}l$... $k\grave{a}$ \grave{o} $y\acute{\epsilon}l$... with each \grave{o} 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 <u>16.3.1</u> this can mean any antecedent of the same number, and can trump semantic appropriateness, e.g. (all WK):

```
Pu'ā
         lā dá' dāká kà kēη Bók.
Woman:sg art buy box:sg and go Bawku.
"The woman bought a box and went to Bawku."
*Pu'ā
          lā dá' dāká kà ò kēη Bók.
Woman:sg art buy box:sg and 3an go Bawku.
("The woman bought a box and it went to Bawku")
Pū'ab
         lā dá' dāká kà kēn Bók.
Woman:PL ART buy box:sg and go Bawku.
"The women bought a box and went to Bawku."
Pū'ab
         lā dá' dāká kà bà kēη Bók.
Woman:PL ART buy box:sg and 3PL go Bawku.
"The women bought a box and they went to Bawku."
```

(acceptable, though unusual, with $b\dot{a} = p\bar{v}'ab$)

Occasionally the pronoun after $k\grave{a}$ is ellipted as referring, not to the subject of the preceding clause, but to the subject of a preceding $k\grave{a}$ -preposed absolute clause:

```
Ban daa yit la, ka nyɛ dau ...

Bán dāa yīt lā, kà ňyē dāu ...

3PL:NZ TNS emerge:IPFV ART, and see man:sg...

"As they were going together, (they) saw a man ..." (Mt 27:32)

Ban wwm nɛ'ɛŋa la ka sin.

Bán wwm nē'ŋá lá kà sīn.

3PL:NZ hear DEM.DEI.INAN ART and be.silent.

"After they heard this they fell silent." (Acts 11:18)
```

24.2 Clause types

Criteria for describing a clause as **main** or **subordinate** do not always neatly align with each other. They may be semantic or syntactic, and syntactic criteria may in turn relate either to the internal structure of the clause itself or to its placing within larger structures. **Independency marking** of verbal predicators $\underline{19.6}$ in principle marks a clause as non-subordinate, but the matter is complicated by **downranking** of main clauses to function as subordinate content clauses without internal alteration, and by the fact that main clauses preceded by the linker particle $k\grave{a}$ "and" in its *coordination* function always lack independency marking.

Historically, $k\grave{a}$ was perhaps once consistently subordinating (compare $n\bar{\epsilon}$ "and" connecting NPs, fundamentally identical with the preposition $n\bar{\epsilon}$ "with" 16.7.) Promotion of subordinate clauses to main-clause function is **insubordination**, defined in Evans 2009 as "the conventionalised main-clause use of what, on prima facie grounds, appear to be formally subordinate clauses." Because even now they lack independency marking, $k\grave{a}$ -clauses which are not subordinate will be specifically called "insubordinate clauses" below 25.3.

Conjunctions may precede main clauses, sequential clauses, subordinate $k\grave{a}$ -clauses, or content clauses (which then have no clause-linker particle) 24.1.3.

	independency-marked	not independency-marked
main or insubordinate	main clauses <u>25</u>	kà sequential clauses 25.3.2 kà coordinated main clauses 25.3.1
subordinate	yε̄/kà content clauses <u>26.3</u>	ȳε̄/kà purpose/necessity/permission and kà result clauses 26.1 kà adnominal clauses 26.2
nominalised- subordinate		n absolute/relative clauses 28yà' conditional clauses 27.1

Main clauses and content clauses, including those coordinated with $k\grave{a}$, can be statements, questions or commands, and may have non-verbal (or no) predicators. Adjuncts preceding the subject and focus with $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ are found only in main clauses, content clauses and sequential clauses. $K\grave{a}$ -preposing is found only in these clause types and in relative clauses with initial antecedents 28.2.3.

Subordinate clause types marked by the post-subject particles \dot{n} and $y\dot{a}'$ are downranked to the status of AdvPs or NPs; they are unproblematically subordinate, and always lack independency marking. $Y\dot{a}'$ -clauses are not coordinated; whereas all other clauses, like VPs, are coordinated by $k\dot{a}$, \dot{n} -clauses are coordinated with $n\bar{\epsilon}$ like other AdvPs and NPs. These **nominalised** clause types also differ from purpose, result and adnominal clauses in having independent tense marking.

All clauses introduced by the linker particle $y\bar{\varepsilon}$ "that" are subordinate, but they fall into two different groups with regard to independency marking. **Purpose** clauses, for example <u>26.1</u>, lack independency marking and have VPreds with imperative mood; they show tense marking only if the main clause is ellipted <u>19.3.1</u>.

```
\dot{M} p\bar{v} b\dot{j}\dot{j}d y\dot{\epsilon} f\dot{v} k\bar{\epsilon}\eta B\dot{j}k\bar{j} ^{+}ø. 
1sg neg.ind want that 2sg go Bawku neg. 
"I don't want you to go to Bawku."
```

On the other hand, **content** clauses <u>26.3</u> are downranked main clauses, showing both independency marking and the full range of possible main clause structures. They function as arguments of verbs of cognition, reporting, and perception:

```
Ka o ba' nɛ o ma pv baŋ ye o kpɛlim yaa.

Kà ò bā' nɛ ò mà pv báŋ yɛ ò kpɛlim yāa ^+ø.

and <code>3AN</code> father:sg with <code>3AN</code> mother:sg <code>NEG.IND</code> realise that <code>3AN</code> remain <code>PFV NEG</code>.

"His father and mother did not realise that he had remained." (Lk 2:43)
```

Despite the conventional gloss "and" adopted for convenience, the linker particle $k\grave{a}$ is often subordinating. It can, like $y\bar{\varepsilon}$, introduce content clauses, which show independency marking as usual:

```
M téň'ès kà nīigí lā śňbìd nē.
15G think and cow:PL ART chew:IPFV FOC.
"I think the cows are eating." WK; content clause showing focus marking
```

All other *subordinate* clauses introduced by $k\grave{a}$ lack independency marking, as expected; like purpose $y\bar{\varepsilon}$ -clauses, such clauses cannot have focus marking, or tense marking (unless the main clause is ellipted):

```
M dāa pū
                                  lá
                                      kà ò áň ná'abā +ø.
                     ňyε̄ dāu
      1SG TNS NEG.IND see man:SG ART and 3AN COP chief:SG NEG.
      "I didn't see the man as a chief." KT; result clause 26.1
      *M dāa pū
not
                     ňyε̄ dāu
                                 lá kà
                                          ò
                                             á
                                                 nē ná'abā <sup>+</sup>ø.
      1SG TNS NEG.IND see man:SG ART and 3AN COP FOC chief:SG NEG.
                                     kà ò dāa áň ná'abā <sup>+</sup>ø.
      *M dāa pū
                     ňγĒ dāu
nor
      1SG TNS NEG.IND see man:SG ART and 3AN TNS COP chief:SG NEG.
```

In *coordinating* function, $k\grave{a}$ is also never followed by independency marking. This use of $k\grave{a}$ to coordinate semantically and structurally independent clauses is especially characteristic of narrative, where potentially long series of *insubordinated* result clauses, **sequential clauses** 25.3.2, are each introduced by $k\grave{a}$ so long as the sequence of events is proceeding in order.

A clause must be subordinate if it precedes clause-final elements belonging to the preceding clause, such as negative prosodic clitics 29.1:

```
kà po nar ka ba buolim ye Tumtumma
kà pō nár kà bà búelì m yē Túm-tōmma +ø.
and NEG.IND must and 3PL call 1SG.OB that work-worker:SG NEG.
"and (I) ought not to be called an apostle" (1 Cor 15:9)
```

However, the converse is not true: with constructions which induce negative raising 29.2, if the subordinate clause is, exceptionally, outside the semantic scope of the negation of the main clause, the negative clitic placement is also exceptional, preceding the subordinate clause 29.3:

```
Ka li pv yuugɛ ka o pu'a mɛ kena.

Kà lì pv̄ yúugɛ̄ +ø, kà ò pu'ā mɛ́ kɛ̄ nā.

And 3INAN NEG.IND delay NEG, and 3AN wife:SG also come hither.

"Not much later, his wife came too." (Acts 5:7)
```

The structure can also be obscured by extraposition 30.3, as with the undoubtedly subordinate $k\dot{a}$ -clause after $k\bar{\epsilon}^+$ "cause" 26.1, unexpectedly placed after the phrase-final perfective marker $y\bar{a}$ 19.6.2.1 in

```
Amaa Wina'am kɛya ka ya an nɔɔr yinne nɛ Yesu Kristo.
Àmáa Wínà'am kɛ́ yá kà yà áň nɔ̄ɔr yīnní nē Yesu Kristo.
But God cause PFV 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)
```

Clauses of the type introduced by linker particles are themselves coordinated with $k\dot{a}$ "and" $k\bar{v}v/b\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon$ "or", not $n\bar{\epsilon}$ like \dot{n} -clauses:

```
\dot{M} b\dot{j}\dot{j}d y\bar{\epsilon} d\bar{a}u l\bar{a} k\bar{\epsilon}\eta d\dot{a}'a-n, k\dot{a} pu'\bar{a} l\bar{a} d\bar{v}g d\bar{\iota}\iota b.

1SG want that man:SG ART go market:SG-LOC, and woman:SG ART cook food.

"I want the man to go to market and the woman to cook food." WK
```

25 Main clauses

25.1 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 26.3. Both clause types display characteristic independency marking on the first verbal predicator 19.6. They may contain nonverbal predicators 22 or even lack a predicator altogether 25.2.4. They can be focussed or clefted or prepose elements with $k\grave{a}$; focus- $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ occurs at most once in a main or content clause, following a VPred, before a verb complement or adjunct, or clause-finally 30. Main and content clauses may contain time, circumstance or reason-why adjuncts before the subject.

25.1.1 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 $k\grave{a}$ 30.2. Thus the AdvP may precede the subject in e.g.

```
Bēogύ fừ ná kūl.

Tomorrow 25G IRR return.home.

"You're going home tomorrow." SB
```

but not in

```
*M\bar{\jmath}jg\dot{\nu}-n m\bar{a}m b\dot{\varepsilon}. for "I'm in the bush." Grass:sg-loc 1sg.cntr exist.
```

which is corrected by WK to

```
M\bar{\jmath}οgύ-n kà mām bέ. "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 absolute clauses, $s\bar{a}d\iota g(m)$ -clauses 28.1.1, AdvPs like $\dot{a}l\dot{a}$ $z\dot{u}g$, $d\dot{\iota}n$ $z\dot{u}g$ "therefore"; $l\dot{\iota}$ $n\ddot{u}$ "afterwards", $y\dot{a}$ -clauses "if/when ...", $h\bar{a}l\dot{\iota}$ + $n\ddot{u}$ -clause "although ...", "even though ... ", $y\bar{a}$ + NP "as for ...", $l\dot{\iota}n$ \dot{a} $s\bar{\iota}$ a things stand", \dot{a} $s\bar{\iota}$ a "truly."

Pre-subject adjuncts are not followed by M spreading 8.3.

25.2 Main 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.

25.2.1 Content questions

Content questions (except those with *lìa* 22) contain an interrogative pronoun or determiner; the final word of the question appears as a LF with a tone perturbation due to the following content-question prosodic clitic 8.1.

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 30.1.1 when syntactically possible, and other interrogatives are very often also fronted with $k\grave{a}$ 30.2, obligatorily so in the case of $b\bar{b}$ in the sense "why?" (compare the parallel construction with a demonstrative pronoun expressing a reason in $Din\ ka\ Kusaas$ $ye\ ...$ "That is why the Kusaasi say ..." KSS p16.)

```
Ànɔʻɔnì ø nyē bíigà +ø?

Who cat see child:sg cq?

"Who has seen a child?"

Fù bɔʻɔd bɔʻ +ø?

"What do you want?"

2sg want what cq?

Bɔ́ kà fù kúmmà +ø?

"Why are you crying?"

What and 2sg weep:IPFV cq?
```

For "which?" the short demonstratives are used:

```
Lìne?"Which one?"Nīf-kánè?"Which eye?"Nīn-kánè?"Which person?"Fù bóòd línè+ø?"Which do you want?"25G want DEM.INAN CO?
```

Note the *short* final LF vowels <u>8.1</u>; these are content, not polar, questions. Used after a cb, as a dependent pronoun, $b5^+$ is a determiner: "what?":

```
"what cow?" WK DK (not n\acute{a}af \,b\acute{o}, only possible in the sense "What, of a cow's?") b\grave{v}-b\~{o} "what goat?" d\~{a}-b\acute{o} "what beer?"
```

Bò- can be used as a premodifier, querying a description: "what sort of ...?"

```
Fù túm bó-tùuma +ø?

25G work:IPFV what-work co?

"What kind of work do you do?"
```

```
Bo yir ka ya na me' n tis mane?
```

```
Bò-yír kà yà ná m\bar{\epsilon} n tís mán\hat{\epsilon} +\phi?
```

What-house:sg and 2PL IRR build CAT give 1SG.CNTR CQ?

"What kind of house will you build for me?" (Acts 7:49, 1996)

The compound $b\grave{\partial}$ - $b\bar{u}ud\iota^+$ "what kind of?" can be used as a postdeterminer:

```
nā'-bɔ́-būudı "what kind of cow?"
dā-bɔ́-būudı "what kind of beer?"
```

Note the idiom:

```
Fù á n\bar{\varepsilon} bó- bùud\iota +\emptyset? "What tribe do you belong to?" 2SG COP FOC what sort cQ?
```

The focus particle $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ may not be used in content questions; this applies also to temporal $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$.

```
D\bar{a}\dot{u} l\bar{a} n\dot{y}\dot{\epsilon} b\bar{i}ig. "The man has seen a child." Man:sG ART see child:sG.

Ànɔʻɔnì ø n\dot{\epsilon} b\dot{i}ig\dot{a} +ø? "Who has seen a child?" Who cAT see child:sG co?
```

or

```
"Whom did the man see?"
Dāu
       lā ňyέ ànό'ɔnὲ +ø?
Man:sg art see who
                          co?
                   Ιā ἤνέε +ø?
Ànó'òn kà dāu
       and man:sg ART see co?
"Whom did the man see?"
Bà kỳud
           nē būυs.
                                "They're killing goats."
3PL kill:IPFV FOC goat:PL.
Ànó'ənì ø kūvd
                     bύυsὲ +ø?
Who
         CAT kill: IPFV goat:PL CQ?
"Who is killing goats?"
                                 Progressive sense without n\bar{\varepsilon}.
Ànó'òn bīigu ø ňwá <sup>+</sup>ø?
                                "Whose child is this?"
Who
       child:sg cat this co?
B5
     kà
          fù kúesìda +ø?
                                "What are you selling?"
What and 2SG sell: IPFV co?
                                 Progressive sense possible without n\bar{\epsilon}.
Fù bóàd bó + \varphi?
                                "What do you want?"
2SG want what co?
Fù bóàd n\bar{\epsilon} bó
                    + a?
                                "What do you want it with?"
                                 WK confirms that n\bar{\varepsilon} must be "with" here.
2SG want with what co?
                                "I am a man."
Μ á nē dāu.
1SG COP FOC man:SG.
    áň bó
                                "What am I?"
M
1SG COP what co?
Fù wá'e váa
               +ø?
                                "Where are you going?"
2SG go where co?
                              ní ná
Bùgóm lā yít
                        váa
       ART emerge: IPFV where LOC hither CQ?
"Where is the light coming from?"
```

25.2.2 Polar questions

Polar questions are of two types. One is exactly like a statement but with final LF and tone changes due to the polar-question prosodic clitic; in this case the neutralisation of LF-final vowel length is to long 8.1. There are no restrictions on focus $n\bar{\varepsilon}$. The answer expected is $\bar{\varepsilon}\varepsilon\check{n}$ 25.2.4.

```
"Has the man seen a child?"
Dāu
        lā ňyέ bíigàa +ø?
Man:sg art see child:sg po?
Bà kùvd
            nē bύυsὲε +ø?
                                 "Are they killing goats?"
3PL kill:IPFV FOC goat:PL PQ?
                                  "Am I a man?"
M
    á nĒ dáὺυ
1SG COP FOC man:SG PQ?
           wύmmàa +ø +ø?
                                  "Don't you understand?"
Fὺ ρῦ
                                   (expects \bar{\varepsilon}\varepsilon \tilde{n}, here "no")
2SG NEG.IND hear: IPFV NEG PQ?
```

Note that the negative prosodic clitic \mathbf{NEG} is effectively lost before the interrogative prosodic clitics \mathbf{cq} and \mathbf{pq} .

The second type of polar question follows the ordinary statement form with either $b\dot{\epsilon}\varepsilon$ (expecting disagreement, with $\dot{a}y\dot{\iota}\iota$) or $k\dot{\upsilon}\upsilon$ (expecting agreement, with $\bar{\epsilon}\varepsilon\check{n}$.) NT rarely uses $k\bar{\upsilon}\upsilon$ 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.

```
D\bar{a}\underline{u} I\bar{a} ny\hat{\epsilon} b\bar{\imath}ig k\acute{v}v ^+\varnothing?

Man:sg art see child:sg or pq?

"Has the man seen a child?" (I expect so.)

D\bar{a}\underline{u} I\bar{a} ny\hat{\epsilon} b\bar{\imath}ig b\hat{\epsilon}\hat{\epsilon} ^+\varnothing?

Man:sg art see child:sg or pq?

"Has the man seen a child?" (I expect not.)
```

25.2.3 Commands

For indirect commands, see 26.1 26.3.1.

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 <u>8.2.1.2</u>. Thus

```
Fù gás
                  bīig
                          Ιā.
                                       "You (sg) have looked at the child."
      2SG look.at child:SG ART.
      Yà gás
                                       "You (pl) have looked at the child."
                  bīig
                           Ιā.
      2PL look.at child:SG ART.
but
      Gàsım
                  bīig
                           lā!
                                       "Look (sg) at the child!"
      Look.at:IMP child:SG ART!
      Gàsımī
                          bīig
                                  lā! "Look (pl) at the child!"
      Look.at:IMP 2PL.SUB child:SG ART!
      Gòsim tēŋi-n!
                                       "Look (sg) down!"
      Look: IMP ground: SG-LOC!
                                       "Look (pl) down!"
      Gàsimī, ø
                       tēnι-n!
      Look:IMP 2PL.SUB ground:SG-LOC!
      Dā
              gōs tēŋι-nέ
                                  +ø! "Don't (sg) look down!"
      NEG.IMP look ground:SG-LOC NEG!
      Dā
                            tēnι-nέ
                                           +ø!
              gōsı ø
      NEG.IMP look 2PL.SUB ground:SG-LOC NEG!
      "Don't (pl) look down!"
      Dā
              āsε +ø!
                                       "Don't (sg) look."
      NEG.IMP look NEG!
      Dā
                             +ø!
                                       "Don't (pl) look."
              gɔ̄sı_ yá
      NEG.IMP look 2PL.SUB NEG!
```

No pronoun changes occur after presubject elements, e.g $y\dot{a}$ '-clauses 27.1:

```
Fv ya'a mɔr pu'a, fvn da mɔɔd ye fv bas oo.

Fv ya' mɔr pu'ā, fvn dā mɔɔd yɛ fv bás·ō-o + \emptyset.

25G if have wife:sG, 25G NEG.IMP struggle:IPFV that 25G abandon-3AN.OB 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 <u>26.3.1</u>, even when the addressee is the same as in the original utterance:

```
Ò yèl yé bà gòsim tēŋi-n.
3AN say that 3PL look:IMP ground:SG-LOC.
"She said to them: Look down!" WK
Ò yèl yé fù gòsim tēŋi-n.
3AN say that 2SG look:IMP ground:SG-LOC.
"She said to you SG: Look down!"
Ò yèl yé yà gòsim tēŋi-n.
3AN say that 2PL look:IMP ground:SG-LOC.
"She said to you PL: Look down!"
```

Some speakers still keep the enclitic y^a after the verb even when there is a pronoun subject before it:

In VP chaining, where WK does not repeat ya in VPreds after the first:

```
Kèmī ø nā n gōs! Come:IMP 2PL.SUB hither CAT look! "Come (ye) and look!"
```

such speakers have e.g.

```
Kèmī ø nā n gɔ̄sı ø! Come:IMP 2PL.SUB hither cat look 2PL.SUB! "Come (ye) and look!"
```

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:

```
Gòsımā! "Look!"

Gòsımīyá! "Look! (plural)
```

25.2.4 Clauses without predicators

Some particles and phrases occur characteristically as complete utterances:

```
T3. "OK." (= Hausa t60) Báp. "Wallop!" N fá! "Well done!"
```

Some of these are onomatopoeic; others are widely shared among local languages.

"Yes" is $\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon\check{n}$; "No" is $\acute{a}y$ i. As in many languages, the reply agrees or disagrees with the question, so that if the question is negative, the usage differs from English:

```
Ιì
      nàa nέε <sup>+</sup>ø?
                                   "Is it finished?"
3INAN finish FOC PO?
Ēεň.
                                   "Yes."
Áyὶι.
                                   "No"
Lì
      ρō
              nāée +ø +ø?
                                   "Isn't it finished?"
3INAN NEG.IND finish NEG PQ?
Ēεň.
                                   "No."
Áylı.
                                   "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 <u>8.1</u>:

```
    M bīiga +ø! "My child!"
    1sg child:sg voc!
    M bīisε +ø! "My children!"
    1sg child:pl voc!
```

```
\dot{M} pu'\bar{a} n\dot{\epsilon} \dot{m} b\bar{\imath}is\epsilon +\emptyset! 15G wife:sG with 15G child:PL voc! "My wife and my children!"
```

```
\dot{M} dìəmmā +ø, bó kà fù kúesìda +ø? 1sG parent.in.law:sG voc, what and 2sG sell:IPFV cQ? "Madam 32.1, what are you selling?"
```

Vocative phrases often end in mwa "this":

```
Bīis ňwá![bi:sa]"Children!"8.5.1P
u
'ā ňwá![phơạwã]"Woman!"Zōn ňwá[zon:a]"Fools!"
```

This structure is sometimes simply exclamatory:

```
Nwāamıs nwá! [wã:mɪsa] "Monkeys!" (From a passenger in my car, on suddenly catching sight of some.)
```

25.3 Insubordinate kà-clauses

25.3.1 Coordination of main clauses

Coordinated main clauses agree in type as declarative, interrogative or imperative. They are coordinated with $k\grave{a}$ "and", $k\bar{\nu}\nu$ "or", $b\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon$ "or". $K\bar{\nu}\nu$ and $b\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon$ are conjunctions; they are synonymous in this use. The linker particle $k\grave{a}$ can also follow conjunctions, though never $k\bar{\nu}\nu$ or $b\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon$ 24.1.3. In coordinating function $k\grave{a}$ always introduces a clause without independency marking on the VPred 24.2.

Coordinating statements outside of narrative, $k\grave{a}$ has much the same sense as English "and", though $k\grave{a}$... $l\grave{\epsilon}\epsilon$ means "but" 19.7.1.

Coordination of commands is most often with kà:

```
Pò'vsım À-Wīn, kà pú'vs À-Būgvr.
Greet:IMP PERS-Awini, and greet PERS-Abugri.
"Greet Awini, and greet Abugri."
```

Coordination of questions with $k\grave{a}$ is not common. More often, coordination involves alternative questions:

```
Fù búg nέε +ø? Bēε fù gέὲňm yā kúυ +ø?

25G get.drunk Foc PQ? Or 25G go.mad PFV or PQ?

"Are you drunk? Or have you gone mad?"
```

25.3.2 Sequential clauses

Kusaal narrative joins clause after clause with $k\grave{a}$, corresponding to zero in English. As always, there is no independency marking after coordinating $k\grave{a}$ 24.2. Within narrative, main clauses without $k\grave{a}$ show tense marking overwhelmingly more often than not unless the clause contains an explicit time expression (which may be an absolute clause, see below); a rough count of the narrative portions of the first 12 chapters of Acts in the 1996 NT version shows over a fivefold excess of tense-marked over unmarked forms. Clauses introduced by $k\grave{a}$, on the other hand, usually only have tense marking to signal that they disrupt the narrative flow, as with flashbacks or descriptive passages. Kusaal narrative favours long sequences of such **sequential** $k\grave{a}$ -clauses with perfective aspect without tense marking, which carry on the sequence of events narrated in order.

Ka Yesu **daa** an yuma pii nε ayi' la, ka ba keŋ maluŋ la wuu ban εεnti niŋid si'em la. Ka maluŋ la dabisa naae la, ka ba lɛbidi kun. Ka Yesu kpɛlim Jerusalem teŋin ka o ba' nɛ o ma pu baŋ ye o kpɛlim yaa. Ba **daa** tɛn'ɛs ye o dɔlnɛ ba teŋ dim la, ka keŋ ...

Kà Yesu ø dāa áň yúmà pīi né àyí lā, kà bà kēŋ málùŋ And Jesus NZ TNS COP year:PL ten with NUM:two ART, and 3PL go sacrifice:SG lā wūu bán ε̄εň tí nìηιd sī'əm lā. Kà màlυη lā dábisà ø ART like 3PL:NZ usually do:IPFV INDF.ADV ART. And sacrifice:SG ART day:PL nāe lā, kà bà lébidì ø kūn. Kà Yesu kpélìm Jerusalem finish ART, and 3PL return: IPFV CAT go.home: IPFV. And Jesus remain Jerusalem bā' nέ ò mà ρō bán νέ ò kp*èl*ım land:sg-loc and 3AN father:sg with 3AN mother:sg NEG.IND realise that 3AN remain yāa ⁺ø. Bà dāa tēň'εs yέ ò dòl nέ bà tèŋ-dìm lā, kà kēη... PFV NEG. 3PL TNS think that 3AN accompany FOC 3PL land-person.PL ART, and go... "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, and his father and mother didn't realise that he had stayed. They **thought** that he was accompanying their fellow-countrymen. And they went ..." (Lk 2:42-44)

In the genealogy of Jesus in Luke 3:23ff, which moves backwards in time, there are dozens of consecutive examples in the 1996 version of

```
k\grave{a} X s\acute{a} a d\acute{a} a n\bar{\epsilon} Y "and X's father was Y" and X father:sg the cop foc Y
```

whereas the genealogy in Matthew 1.1ff has dozens of clauses of the pattern

```
k\grave{a} X d
u'\acute{a} Y "and X begat Y." and X beget Y
```

Note the "aside" O mà **dá** à $n\bar{\varepsilon}$... in

Ka Jese du'a na'ab David. Ka David du'a Solomon. O ma **da** anɛ Uria pu'a. Ka Solomon du'a Rehoboam.

Kà Jese dụ'á ná'àb David. Kà David dụ'á Solomon. Ò mà And Jesse beget king:sg David. And David beget Solomon. 3AN mother:sg dá à nē Uria pụ'á. Kà Solomon dụ'á Rehoboam...

TNS COP FOC Uriah wife:sg. And Solomon beget Rehoboam...

"And Jesse begat King David. And David begat Solomon. His mother **was** Uriah's wife. And Solomon begat Rehoboam..." (Mt 1:6-7)

Very long series of coordinated "asides" do sometimes drop tense marking; in KB the genealogy of Jesus in Lk 3:23ff shows $ka\ X\ saam\ da\ an\epsilon\ Y$ at the beginning of paragraphs in the text, but $ka\ X\ saam\ an\ Y$ otherwise.

In texts, dynamic imperfectives appear without temporal $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ in sequential clauses to express several instances of an event:

```
Ka on kp\epsilon n' la, o y\epsilon li ba y\epsilon [...]. Ka ba la'ad o.

Kà \delta n kp\epsilon \check{n}' l\bar{a}, \delta y\epsilon li b\bar{a} y\bar{\epsilon} [...]. Kà bà l\dot{a}'ad\cdot\bar{o} \emptyset.

And 3an:nz enter art, 3an say 3pl.ob that ... and 3pl laugh:lpfv 3an.ob.

"After he came in, he said to them [...]. But they laughed at him." (Mk 5:39-40)
```

 \hat{N} -clauses normally mark tense independently, but within sequential clauses they mark tense relative to the narrative timeline:

```
\bar{\mathcal{D}}n dāa nyēt súnā ón dāa án bí-līa láa + \varphi? 3AN.CNTR TNS see:IPFV good:ADV 3AN:NZ TNS COP child-baby:SG ART PQ? "Did he see well when he was a baby?"
```

```
but Ka Pita yv'vn tiɛn Yesu n sa yɛl si'el la ye ...
```

```
Kà Pita yū'vn tíeň Yesu n sà yèl sī'əl lā y\bar{\epsilon} ...
```

And Peter then remember Jesus NZ TNS say INDF.INAN ART that ...

"And Peter then remembered what Jesus had said the day before..." (Mt 26:75)

Most clauses without tense marking in narrative show initial $k\grave{a}$, but some begin with absolute clauses *followed* by $k\grave{a}$. Note these patterns of tense marking

with absolute clauses preceding main clauses (from Mark, Luke, and Acts 1-14, 1976 version):

Tense markers		А, В	A kà B	kà A, B	kà A kà B
A	В				
-	-	7	23	40	85
-	+	2	0	4	2
+	-	0	7	3	17
+	+	11	2	11	0

Absent tense marking in \hbar -clauses within narrative is expected, because they mark tense relative to the narrative timeline. Absent tense marking in A- $k\dot{a}$ -B type main clauses shows that even tense-unmarked absolute clauses licence implicit tense marking in main clauses 19.3.4. This phenomenon also explains the appearance of temporal $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ within what misleadingly resembles a sequential clause, in a case like

```
Ka ba due keŋ. Ka ban ken la, Jesus gbisid ne.

Kà bà dūe ø kēŋ. Kà bán kēn lā, Jesus gbīsıd nē.

And 3PL arise CAT go. And 3PL:NZ 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.)
```

A tense-marked interruption in the narrative flow may itself contain clauses coordinated with $k\grave{a}$; the tense marker of the first such clause is not repeated, but the following $k\grave{a}$ -clauses are not sequential and accordingly can have any aspect:

Ka siakidib wusa bane be Judea ne Galilee ne Samaria **daa** mor sumalisim. Ka ba kal **paasid**. Ka ba yadda niŋir **nobugid**.

Kà siākidib wūsa bánì bế Judea nē Galilee nē Samaria
And believer:PL all REL.PL EXIST Judea with Galilee with Samaria
dāa mōr sū-málisìm. Kà bà kāl páasìd. Kà bà
TNS have heart-sweetness. And 3PL number:SG increase:IPVF. And 3PL
yàddā-níŋìr nōbigíd.

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)

Ba da pu mor biiga, bozugo Elizabet **da** ane kundu'ar, ka babayi la wusa me **kudigne**.

```
Bà dà pō mōr bīiga +ø, bōzúgō Elizabet dá à nē

3PL TNS NEG.IND have child:sg NEG, because Elizabeth TNS COP FOC

kóndò'ar kà bà bàyí lā wōsa mé kòdıg nē.

barren.woman:sg and 3PL NUM:two ART all also get.old Foc.

"They had no child, because Elizabeth was barren and they were both old."

(Lk 1:7, 1996; no nɛ in the KB ka babayi' la wvsa mɛ kvdig hali.)
```

Tense marking is not affected by conjunctions $\underline{24.1.3}$ or by the "resumptive" $y\bar{\varepsilon}$ of indirect speech $\underline{26.3.3}$, all of which precede the clause linker $k\dot{a}$. If $k\dot{a}$ is absent, just as with clauses without conjunctions, tense marking is very much commoner than its absence; if $k\dot{a}$ follows the conjunction, tense marking is absent unless the clause marks an interruption in the narrative flow. In other words, conjunctions can precede sequential clauses.

Amaa ba da zot o ne dabiem, ban da pv nin o yadda ye o sid ane nya'andol la zug. Amaa ka Barnabas zan Saul n mor o ken ...

```
Àmáa bà dà zòt·ō ø n\bar{\epsilon} dābíàm, bán dà p\bar{v} níg·ò ø But 3PL TNS fear:IPFV 3AN.OB FOC fear, 3PL:NZ TNS NEG.IND do 3AN.OB yáddā yé ò sìd à n\bar{\epsilon} nightarrow nigh
```

"But they were afraid of him, because they did not believe that he was really a disciple. But Barnabas brought Saul ..." (Acts 9:26-27)

The occurrence of pre-subject adjuncts and constituent-focussing $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ in sequential clauses shows that they are not only semantically but structurally main rather than subordinate clauses.

The fact that it is specifically the presence of the clause linker $k\grave{a}$ which licenses the dropping of tense marking in main clauses in narrative justifies setting up sequential clauses as a distinct main clause subtype, probably derived from insubordinated result clauses historically $\underline{24.2}$. If tense marking could simply be omitted in narrative when it was deducible from context, this would not explain why omission requires a preceding $k\grave{a}$ in the absence of an explicit time expression. Further evidence for a distinct clause type arises from the fact that my informants consistently refused to accept a resultative interpretation of a perfective followed by the particle $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ when presented in an isolated $k\grave{a}$ -clause without tense marking. Such clauses were always interpreted as expressing events, with the particle $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ necessarily marking constituent focus:

Lì bàdig $n\bar{\varepsilon}$. "It's lost." **3INAN** get.lost **FOC**.

Kà lì $b\acute{o}d\grave{i}g$ $n\bar{\epsilon}$. Rejected by WK as ill-formed; accepted after And **3INAN** get.lost **Foc**. some thought by DK, explaining the expression

as contradicting "someone hid it"

- contrastive VP focus

 $B\grave{a}\ k\grave{v}d\iota g\ n\bar{\epsilon}.$ "They're old."

3PL get.old Foc.

 \dot{K} à \dot{b} à \dot{k} \dot{b} \dot{c} "And they're old." Rejected by WK; acceptedAnd 3PL get.old Foc.by DK with the gloss "You're saying they're old

when he promised to give you new ones"

- contrastive VP focus

With any tense marker, such isolated $k\grave{a}$ -clauses were no longer taken as sequential and $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ was readily taken as temporal by both WK and DK:

Kà lì dāa bódìg $n\bar{\epsilon}$. "And it was lost." And sinan the get.lost Foc.

Kà bà sá kừdig nē. Kà bà dāa kúdig nē.

 $K\grave{a}$ bà dá kỳd ιg n $\bar{\epsilon}$. all acceptable as "and they were old."

It is not unusual 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, Caron pp171ff), and the Kordofanian Talodi language Lumun has \acute{a} "and, while" followed by the Dependent Perfective, used elsewhere in purpose clauses and in coordinated commands following the Imperative (Smits pp363, 652.)

26 Subordinate clauses after $k\dot{a}$ and $y\bar{\epsilon}$

26.1 Purpose, result, necessity and permission

Both $y\bar{\varepsilon}$ and $k\dot{a}$ can introduce subordinate clauses which function as VP complements or adjuncts, or as clause adjuncts.

Purpose clauses have imperative mood, or occasionally irrealis. There is no independency marking and hence no $-m^a$ flexion with variable verbs, so the imperative is apparent only in the use of $d\bar{a}$ as the negation particle. Purpose clauses are usually introduced by $y\bar{\epsilon}$, but $k\dot{a}$ is also possible. They may be clause adjuncts:

```
Bà tìs∙ō ø
                kú'èm νέ ò
3PL give 3AN.OB water that 3AN drink.
"They gave him water to drink. ("So that he might drink it.")
M ná tĩ, f
                 tíìm
                           vέ fù nīf
                                         dā
                                                zábē +ø.
1SG IRR give 2SG.OB medicine that 2SG eye:SG NEG.IMP fight NEG.
"I'll give you medicine so your eye won't hurt."
Ò
   νùΙ
            tíìm
                     kà ò
                           nóbìr dā
                                          zábē +ø.
3AN swallow medicine and 3AN leg:SG NEG.IMP fight NEG.
"She took medicine so her leg wouldn't hurt." WK
```

The "purpose" sense of a purpose-clause adjunct can be very attenuated:

```
Ka ba gban'e ba kpɛn'ɛs sanrega ni ye bɛog nie.

Kà bà gbáň'a bā ø kpɛ́ň'ɛ̀s sārιgá nī yē bēog níe.

And 3PL seize 3PL.OB CAT put.in prison:sg Loc that morning appear.

"They seized them and put them in prison until tomorrow came." (Acts 4:3)
```

Purpose clauses appear as complements of particular verbs, e.g $b \partial d^a$ "want"; or $y \dot{\epsilon} l^{\epsilon}$ "tell"; after these verbs the particle is nearly always $y \bar{\epsilon}$. Negative raising 29.2 occurs with $b \partial d^a$ but not with $y \dot{\epsilon} l^{\epsilon}$.

```
\dot{M} b\dot{j}\dot{j}d y\dot{\epsilon} \dot{o} k\bar{u}l.

1SG want that 3AN return.home.

"I want her to go home."

\dot{M} p\bar{v} b\dot{j}\dot{j}d y\dot{\epsilon} \dot{m} k\bar{u}l\epsilon +\phi.

1SG NEG.IND want that 1SG return.home NEG.

"I don't want [me] to go home."
```

```
\dot{M} y \not\in l\bar{l} f y \not\in f\dot{v} d\bar{a} k\bar{u}l\varepsilon ^+ \varnothing.

1SG tell 2SG.OB that 2SG NEG.IMP return.home NEG.

"I told you not to go home."
```

The verb $g\bar{u}r^{a/}$ "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 introduced by $y\bar{\epsilon}$, again with an attenuated sense:

```
Nīdib lā dāa gūr Zakaria yiib na.

Nīdib lā dāa gūr Zakaria yiib nā.

Person:PL ART TNS watch Zechariah emerge:GER hither.

The people were watching for Zechariah's coming out. (Lk 1:21)

... gūr ye pu'a la du'a ka o ɔnb biig la.

... gūr yē pu'ā lā du'á kà ò ɔňb bīig lā.

watch that woman:SG ART bear and 3AN eat child:SG ART.

"...waiting for the woman to give birth so he could devour her child." (Rev 12:4)
```

Purpose is also expressed by VP chaining 23, often with the preverb ti 19.7.2. **Result** clauses have indicative mood, and are always introduced by $k\dot{a}$. It is unclear whether result clauses can appear as clause adjuncts. Examples are unlikely after a negated VPred, and other candidates may simply contain sequential clauses 25.3.2 which happen to lack main-clause features such as pre-subject adjuncts, focus, or $k\dot{a}$ -clefting:

```
\dot{O} \dot{v}\dot{v}l \dot{t}llm \dot{k}\dot{a} \dot{o} \dot{n}\dot{5}\dot{b}\dot{v}r p\bar{v} \dot{z}\dot{a}b\bar{\epsilon} ^{+}ø. 
3AN swallow medicine and 3AN leg:SG NEG.IND fight NEG. 
"She drank medicine and (so) her leg didn't hurt." WK
```

Unequivocally subordinate $k\grave{a}$ -clauses with indicative mood appear as VP complements, though there may be parallel constructions with the imperative, or the mood may not be determinable because negative raising always occurs 29.2.

 $K\bar{\epsilon}^+$ "let, leave off" is used with a subordinate $k\dot{a}$ -clause in the sense "let, cause that." The subordinate clause mood matches the VPred containing the verb $k\bar{\epsilon}^+$; imperative often replaces irrealis mood in the $k\dot{a}$ -clause.

```
Li da kɛ ka ba pv nyaŋi kvv o.

Lì dà kɛ kà bà p\bar{v} nyaŋı ø kó·o ø +ø.

3INAN TNS cause and 3PL NEG.IND prevail CAT kill 3AN.OB NEG.

"This caused them not to be able to kill him." (2 Kings 11:2)
```

```
Ba kυdim ninidi lin ye li kε ka ba da nyε Kristo kum dapuudir namisυg laa.
Bà kūdım nínìdī lí
                          vέ
                               Ιì
                                     kέ
                                           kà bà dā
                                                          ňvε̄ Kristo kúm
3PL ever do: IPFV 3INAN.OB that 3INAN cause and 3PL NEG. IMP see Christ death
dà-pōvdír
               námisòg láa +ø.
wood-cross:sg suffering ART NEG.
"They have always been doing this so that they will not experience the
suffering of the cross of the death of Christ." (Gal 6:12)
dine na ke ka ba da kpi'ilim.
                                       kpī'ılímm +ø.
Dīnı
         ø ná kέ
                       kà bà dā
3INAN.CNTR CAT IRR cause and 3PL NEG.IMP finish
```

The irregular imperative $k\grave{\epsilon}l^a$, followed by a $k\grave{a}$ -clause with imperative mood, creates a way of expressing indirect commands, including first and third persons:

"That will cause them not to come to an end." (Genesis 6:20)

```
ΚὲΙ
          kà ò gōs tēηι-n.
Cause: IMP and 3AN look ground: SG-LOC.
"Let him look down."
Dā
       kέ
             kà dābíèm bέε +ø!
NEG.IMP cause and fear
                         EXIST NEG.
"Don't be afraid." ("Let fear not exist.")
ΚÈΙ
         [or Kèlí
                       ø ] kà tì pú'ùs Wínà'am.
Cause: IMP
             cause: IMP 2PL. SUB and 1PL greet God.
"Let us praise God."
```

In informal speech $k \grave{\epsilon} l \ k \grave{a} \dots$ is often ellipted 24.1.5, leaving the lack of independency marking as the only sign that the clause is an indirect command:

```
Ò gōs tēnı-n.
                                      "Let her look down."
      3AN look ground:SG-LOC.
                                      No tone overlay on q5s
      M gōs
                 nīf
                       Ιā.
                                      "Let me look at the eye." (Overheard in clinic)
      1SG look.at eye:SG ART.
                                      No tone overlay on q5s
                                      "I've looked at the eye."
cf
      M ass
                 nīf
                        Ιā.
                                       Independency marked: tone overlay on gós
      1SG look.at eye:SG ART.
```

```
M dígιnὲε +ø?
IsG lie.down PQ?
No independency marking: no imp -m<sup>a</sup>
Ö zàb ná'àb lā.
"He's fought the chief."
Jan fight chief:sg art.
Independency; no M spreading after ò 19.6.1.2
Ö záb nà'ab lā.
"He should fight the chief."
Jan fight chief:sg art.
No independency: M spreading after ò
```

Mìt is a defective verb used only in the imperative 29.1.1. It occasionally appears with an NP object in the meaning "beware of", but much the most common use is with a $k\dot{a}$ -clause complement as "see that it doesn't happen that ...":

```
Mid ka ya maali ya tuum suma nidib tuon ye ba gɔs.

Mìt kà yà máali yà tùum-sùma nīdıb túèn yε bà gɔ̄s.

NEG.LET.IMP and 2PL make 2PL deed-good:PL person:PL front that 3PL look.at.

"Don't do your good deeds in front of people so they'll look." (Mt 6:1)
```

The idiom "X $n i n w \bar{\epsilon} l \dot{a} k \dot{a} ...$?" means "how can X ...?" with ellipse of the repeated subject after $k \dot{a}$:

```
M na niŋ wala ka nyε faangirε?

M ná nīŋ wēlá kà ňyē fāaňg(rὲ +ø?

1sg IRR do how and find salvation co?

"What must I do to get saved?" (Acts 16:30)
```

There is a corresponding impersonal expression, with a dummy subject in the main clause and the effective subject in the $k\dot{a}$ -clause:

```
Li niŋ wala ka o an David yaaŋa?

Lì nìŋ wēlá kà ò áň David yáàŋa +ø?

3INAN do how and 3AN COP David descendant:sG CQ?

"How can he be David's descendant?" (Mt 22:45)
```

Result clauses can occur in a predicative sense 20.2. Thus with $ny\bar{\epsilon}^+$ "see" it is possible to make a construction meaning "see as" (all KT's translations):

```
M dāa nyē dāu lá kà ò án ná'àb.
1SG TNS see man:SG ART and 3AN COP chief:SG.
"I saw the man as a chief."
```

```
\dot{M} d\bar{a}a p\bar{v} ny\bar{\epsilon} d\bar{a}u l\acute{a} k\grave{a} \grave{o} \acute{a}n n\acute{a} lab a lab
```

KT would not accept interpretations with the $k\grave{a}$ -clause as adnominal, such as "I saw the man, who was a chief" or "I didn't see the man, who was a chief."

Expressions of **necessity** or **permission** may be followed by subordinate $y\bar{\varepsilon}$ - or $k\dot{a}$ -clauses; imperative cannot be distinguished from indicative, as the constructions induce negative raising 29.2. Such clauses follow $n\bar{a}r^{a/}$ "be obliged to" (negated "be obliged not to"); $m\bar{\rho}r$ $s\bar{u}er$ "be allowed to"; $l\hat{\iota}$ a $[n\bar{\varepsilon}]$ $t\bar{\iota}l\dot{a}s$ "it is necessary":

```
nār yέ fù nín àláa
      Εὺ ρῦ
      2SG NEG.IND must that 2SG do ADV: thus NEG.
      "You're not allowed to do that."
      Yà mór sūer
                      yέ yà kūl.
                                           "You may go home."
      2PL have way:SG that 2PL go.home.
                                           "You must go home."
      Lì
           nàr yέ/kà
                         fù kūl.
      3INAN must that/and 2SG go.home.
      Lì
                       yέ fù kūlε
                                        +ø.
           טֿמ
                  nār
      3INAN NEG.IND must that 2SG go.home NEG.
                  nár
                       kà fì) kūle
or
      3INAN NEG.IND must and 2SG go.home NEG.
      "You must not go home."
             bέ yέ/kà
                                           "We may go home."
      Sūer
                           tì kūl.
      Way:sg exist that/and ipl go.home.
                                           ("There's a way that we go home.")
      Li a tilas ye m ken Jerusalem.
           àň tīlás
                         yέ m̀ kēη Jerusalem.
      Lì
      3INAN COP necessity that 1SG go Jerusalem.
      "I must go to Jerusalem." (Mt 16:21, 1996)
      Li ane tilas ka m ninid ala.
           à nĒ tīlás
                               m̀ níŋìd
                            kà
```

3INAN COP FOC necessity and **1SG** do: **IPFV ADV**: thus.

"I must do that." (1 Cor 9:16, 1996)

26.2 Adnominal kà-clauses

A subordinate $k\grave{a}$ -clause may be **adnominal**, attached to a NP "anchor" which is usually though not invariably the NP directly preceding the $k\grave{a}$, but in any case not the main clause subject (with one exception discussed below.) The $k\grave{a}$ -clause contains a pronoun referring to this NP, which is ellipted if it is a verb direct object 20.1. The sense is usually that of a non-restrictive relative clause:

```
Asse line an be'ed ma'aa ka m na tun'e nin. Àsée línì àn bē'ed má'àa kà m ná tūň'e ø nín. Only rel.inan cop bad only and isgirr be.able cat do. "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 bánì pù'usid Wínà'am kà lì nár

3INAN COP FOC 2PL fellow REL.PL greet:IPFV God and 3INAN must kà yà kád sàríyà.

and 2PL drive judgment.

"It is your fellow-worshippers of God whom you must judge." (1 Cor 5:12)

```
Dau sɔ' da bε Sizerea, ka o yv'vr buon Konelius.
```

```
Dàu̞-sɔ̄' dá bὲ Sizerea kà ò yō'vr búèn Konelius.
```

Man-INDF.AN TNS EXIST Caesarea and 3AN name:SG call:IPFV Cornelius.

"There was a man in Caesarea whose name was Cornelius." (Acts 10:1)

Anina ka o nyε dau ka o yυ'υr buon Aneas.

Àníná kà ò ňyε̄ dáu kà ò yō'vr búèn Aneas.

ADV: there and 3AN see man: SG and 3AN 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 22:

```
Jnı ø lá kà fù dāa ňyēt.

3AN.CNTR CAT that and 2SG TNS see:IPFV.

"This is he whom you saw." WK

Ànɔʻɔnì ø ňwá kà tì ňyētá †ø?

Who cat this and IPL see:IPFV co?

"Who is this that we can see?"
```

```
B50 Ø lá kà m̀ nyētá +ø?
What cat that and 1sg see:IPFV cq?
"What is that that I can see?"
```

Adnominal $k\dot{a}$ -clauses are the basis of $k\dot{a}$ -clefting and $k\dot{a}$ -preposing 30.2.

Adnominal $k\grave{a}$ -clauses are essentially in complementary distribution with VP chaining 23.1, replacing this when the subject and/or polarity do not agree with those of the main clause. Polarity change is the only way in which an adnominal $k\grave{a}$ -clause can have the same subject as the main clause:

```
Dau sɔ' da bɛ Listra tengin an pɔn'ɔri zin' o nɔba zug ka pv tun'e kenna. Dàu-sɔ̄' dá bɛ̀ Listra tɛ́ŋī-n Ø áň pɔ́ň'òrı Ø zíň'i ò nɔ̄bá Man-indf.an tns exist Lystra land:sg-loc cat cop cripple:sg cat sit 3an leg:pl zùg kà pv̄ tūň'e Ø kēnná ^+Ø. upon and neg.ind be.able cat go:ipfv neg. "There was a man in Lystra who was crippled and sat on his legs and could not walk." (Acts 14:8)
```

Compare also *n*-focus versus $k\grave{a}$ -preposing constructions <u>30.1.1</u> <u>30.2</u>.

26.3 Content clauses

For content clauses after prepositions see 24.1.3.

 $Y\bar{\epsilon}$, and less often $k\dot{a}$, may introduce clauses displaying independency marking on the verbal predicator 19.6. 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

```
νὲl<sup>ε</sup>
                                                                   wùm<sup>m</sup>
                      "sav"
                                                                                          "hear"
                                                                                         "think"
ny\bar{\varepsilon}^+
                      "see"
                                                                   tēň'εs<sup>ε/</sup>
mī<sup>+</sup>
                      "know"
                                                                   bàn<sup>ε</sup>
                                                                                          "come to know"
                                                                   kàrım<sup>m</sup>
pà'al<sup>ɛ</sup>
                      "teach, show"
                                                                                          "read"
z\bar{\iota}^{+}
                      "not know"
```

Absolute clauses <u>28.1</u> cannot be used as objects of such verbs, but another possibility apart from content clauses is NP + $y\bar{\epsilon}l\acute{a}$ "about" <u>17.6</u>.

Except in indirect speech 26.3.1, content clauses are normally declarative.

The equivalent of an interrogative main clause is a relative clause headed by an indefinite pronoun 28.2.2, and the equivalent of an imperative main clause is a subordinate purpose clause 26.1.

```
Fo wom ban yet si'em laa?

Fò wóm bán yèt sī'əm láa 'ø?

25G hear:IPFV 3PL:NZ say:IPFV INDF.ADV ART PQ?

"Do you hear what ["how"] they are saying?" (Mt 21:16)

Bà nà yēl·o ø ón nà nīŋ sī'əm.

3PL IRR say 3AN.OB 3AN:NZ IRR do INDF.ADV.

"They will tell him what he is to do."
```

WK usually has $y\bar{\varepsilon}$ before content clauses, but he prefers $k\dot{a}$ after $t\bar{\varepsilon}\check{n}'\varepsilon s^{\varepsilon/}$ "think"; the structure is otherwise the same. $K\dot{a}$ + content clause is the only context where $k\dot{a}$ is followed by independency marking, and where $k\dot{a}$ does not delete a following subject pronoun with the same reference as the preceding subject:

```
tèň'es kà ò zàb ná'àb
                               Ιā.
3AN think and 3AN fight chief:SG ART.
"He thinks he's fought the chief." WK
Μ tέň'ès kà
            ò à nĒ dụ'átà.
1SG think and 3AN COP FOC doctor:SG.
"I think she's a doctor." WK
                              "I think she's fallen." WK
Μ tέň'ès kà ò lù yā.
1SG think and 3AN fall PFV.
                              "I think I've fallen" WK
M téň'ès kà m lú yā.
1SG think and 1SG fall PFV.
M téň'ès kà nīigí lā óňbìd.
1SG think and cow:PL ART chew:IPFV.
"I think the cows eat." WK
M téň'ès kà nīiaí lā óňbìd
1SG think and cow:PL ART chew:IPFV FOC.
"I think the cows are eating." WK
```

KB also has $k\dot{a}$ before content clauses after other verbs, and $y\bar{\epsilon}$ after $t\bar{\epsilon}n'\epsilon s^{\epsilon}$:

```
Ya pun wum ka ba da yel ye...
             wòm kà bà dá yèl yē ...
2PL previously hear and 3PL TNS say that...
"You previously heard that they had said ..." (Mt 5:43)
...yanam baŋim ka li san'auŋ li'el ya.
...vānám bànım
                     kà lì
                               sàň'un
                                           lí àl
                                                    νā.
... 2PL.CNTR realise: IMP and 3INAN destruction approach PFV.
"Know that its destruction has come near." (Lk 21:20)
Ka ya ten'es ye m mood ye m ma'e nidib sunf bee?
Kà và téň'ès vé m mɔɔd
                                vέ m̀ mā'e nīdιb
                                                         súňf
                                                                 bέε +ø?
And 2PL think that 1SG strive: IPFV that 1SG cool person: PL heart: SG or PQ?
"And do you think that I am trying to please people?" (Gal 1:10, 1976)
```

```
Man bɔɔdin nɛ yanamɛ naan aan ma'asiga bɛɛ yanamɛ naan aan tvuliga.

Mān bɔɔdī-n nē yānámì ø nāan áa-n mā'asigā bēɛ

1SG.CNTR want-DP that 2PL Nz then COP-DP cold:ADV or
yānámì ø nāan áa-n tūvlígā.

2PL Nz then COP-DP hot:ADV.

"I might wish you had been cold or you had been hot." (Rev 3:15)
```

There are a few examples in KB of $n\varepsilon$ for $y\varepsilon$ $y\overline{\varepsilon}$ "that" (cf Mampruli ni id):

Pronouns are changed throughout in the content clause to reflect its setting, on the same basis as in English "indirect speech."

Free personal pronouns have **logophoric** 26.3.2 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.
3AN TNS say that 3PL TNS return.home.
"She said that they had gone home."
Tì dāa tēň'ɛs yé ò nà zāb ná'àb lā.
1PL TNS think that 3AN IRR fight chief:SG ART.
"We thought he was going to fight the chief."
```

Examples of main-clause type structural features within content clauses:

```
bán mi' ye biig la kpinɛ la zug
bán mi' yē bīig lā kpí nē lā zúg

3PL:NZ know that child:sG ART die FOC ART upon
"because they knew that the child was dead" (Lk 8:53)
```

where focus- $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ occurs in a content clause within an absolute clause. (The second article $l\bar{a}$ marks the end of the absolute clause.)

```
Bùŋ-bāň'ad z\bar{\iota}' y\bar{\varepsilon} t\bar{\varepsilon}\eta t\acute{o}ll\bar{a} ^+ø. Donkey-rider:sg neg.know that ground:sg be.hot neg. "The donkey-rider doesn't know the ground is hot." (T\bar{\varepsilon}\eta t\acute{o}l. "Ground is hot."; t\bar{\upsilon}l^{|a|}"be hot")
```

There is independency-marking tone overlay on $t\bar{v}l^{|a|}$; the final LF is induced by the negative prosodic clitic belonging with $z\bar{\iota}'$.

26.3.1 Direct and indirect speech

After a speech-verb $y\bar{\epsilon}$ may introduce the words of the direct speech itself, unaltered except for the presence of "resumptive" $y\bar{\epsilon}$ at intervals 26.3.3. This is uncommon in the older texts, and in the 1976 NT mostly confined to direct utterances of Jesus. Much 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 26.3.2 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. Later Bible versions consistently replace all indirect speech with direct.

Indirect speech content clauses are distinctive in that they may include direct questions, which are replaced by relative clauses headed by indefinite pronouns elsewhere, or direct commands, elsewhere replaced by purpose clauses.

A direct question in indirect speech:

```
Ka Peter bu'os o ye, Ananias, ye bo ka o ke ka Sutaana kpen' o suunrin...

Kà Peter bū'os·ó ø yē Ananias, yē bó kà ò ké kà Sūtáanà

And Peter ask JAN.OB that Ananias, that what and JAN cause and Satan kpèň' ò sūuňrí-n ... +ø?

enter JAN heart:sG-LOC ... cQ?

"Peter asked him: Ananias, why did you let Satan enter your heart ...?"

(Acts 5:3, 1976)
```

In quoted direct commands the usual deletion of a 2nd sg subject and change of 2pl subject to enclitic ^{ya} does not occur, even if the addressee is the same as in the original utterance and the pronoun remains 2nd person. Some speakers keep the enclitic ^{ya} after the verb even when there is a preceding pronoun subject 25.2.3.

Quoting gives an alternative to purpose clauses <u>26.1</u> for expressing indirect commands; again, the main clause and linker may be ellipted <u>24.1.5</u> informally:

```
[M yél yé] ò gòsim tēŋi-n.

15G say that 3AN look:IMP ground:SG-LOC.

"[I said] she should look down."

[M téň'ès kà] tì pú'vsìm Wínà'am.

15G think and 1PL greet:IMP God.

"[I think] we should praise God."
```

A main clause with no predicate can also appear in indirect speech 25.2.4:

```
O y \not \in I y \not \in I "She said Bap!" "She said Bap!"
```

Pronouns are changed even within a vocative:

```
Ka m wum Wina'am kokor ka li yi arazana ni na ye,
o nidiba, ye ba yimi teng la ni na.
Kà m wóm Wínà'am kókór kà lì
                                        yī
                                               áràzánà ní nā
                                                                  νē,
And 1sg hear God
                      voice:sg and 3INAN emerge heaven Loc hither that
ò nīdıbá
            +ø, γέ bà yìmī
                                    Ø
                                           tēη
                                                  lā ní nā.
3AN person:PL VOC, that 3PL emerge:IMP 2PL.SUB 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)
```

26.3.2 Logophoric pronouns

Within content clauses personal pronouns are altered throughout as in English indirect speech, except in directly embedded passages of direct speech <u>26.3.1</u>.

The free 3rd person pronouns have **logophoric** sense. In contexts where bound pronouns could have occurred instead (i.e. where they are contrastive <u>30.5</u>) 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.

```
Festus tans Paul ye o geem ne ... ka Paul lebis ye on pu geem. Festus táňs Paul yé ò gèeňm nē ... kà Paul lébìs Festus shout Paul that 3AN go.mad FOC ... and Paul reply y\bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\jmath}n p\bar{\upsilon} g\acute{\varepsilon}e\~nmm ^+ø. that 3AN.CNTR NEG.IND go.mad NEG. "Festus shouted to Paul that he [Paul] was mad ... Paul replied that he [Paul] was not mad." (Acts 26:24-25, 1976)
```

Thus "He1 said he1 would kill them." is usually

```
\dot{O} yèl yē \bar{\jmath}n ná kúv bā.
3AN say that 3AN.CNTR IRR kill 3PL.OB.
```

It is possible to say O $y \ge l$ $y \le O$ $n \ge k \le O$ but this is much more likely to mean "He₁ said he₂ would kill them."

26.3.3 Resumptive $y\bar{\epsilon}$

Àmáa yé kà 5n

Passages of direct or indirect speech longer than two or three clauses insert "resumptive" $y\bar{\varepsilon}$ at intervals of roughly every third clause, after any conjunctions but before clause-linker $k\dot{a}$ (this is the only origin for $y\bar{\varepsilon}$ $k\dot{a}$ beside ellipsis 24.1.5.1.)

```
Yé kà Paul yél yé ò bòɔd yé ò kpélìm sārīgá nī.

That and Paul say that 3AN want that 3AN remain prison:sg Loc.

"But 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 bóɔd yé bà siák·ò ø nɔɔré +ø.
but that 3PL ancestor-PL TNS NEG.IND want that 3PL agree 3AN.OB mouth:sg NEG

"But their ancestors did not want to obey him" (Acts 7:39, 1976)

Amaa ye ka on yeli ba ye ...
```

νē...

yέlì bā

"But he [the speaker] had said to them ..." (Acts 25:16, 1976)

But that and **3AN.CNTR** say **3PL.OB** that...

```
Alazug ye Wina'am sadigim tisi ba piini kan ka o daa tisi ti la... Àlá zùg yē Wínà'am ø sādıgím tísì bā pīinı-kán kà ò dāa Thus that God NZ since give 3PL.OB gift-REL.SG and 3AN TNS tísì l\bar{a}... give 1PL.OB 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 yế kà 5n kế kà bà m5r·6 Ø bà sā'an nā...

Thus that and 3AN.CNTR let and 3PL have 3AN.OB 3PL before hither...

"So he [the speaker] had made them bring him [Paul] into their presence..."

(Acts 25:26, 1976)
```

Resumptive $y\bar{\varepsilon}$ 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 zua-nam, yé ò baŋ yē ...
Now-hither that 3AN friend-PL, that 3AN understand 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 yɛ́ ò nìŋī bá Wínà'am nɛ́ ò pù-pìəlim
And now-hither that **3AN** do **3PL.OB** God with **3AN** inside-whiteness piáň'àd lā nú'usī-n...

"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.

O zuanam né o saamnamā +ø, yé ba kelisim!

SAN friend-PL with SAN father-PL voc that SPL listen:IMP!

"His friends and his fathers should listen." (Acts 7:2, 1976)
```

speech **ART** hand:**PL-LOC**...

27 Conditional clauses

27.1 Overview

Conditional clauses have a subordinate $y\grave{a}$ '-clause protasis before the subject of the main apodosis clause. $Y\grave{a}$ '-clauses cannot be coordinated with each other, though they may contain coordinated subclauses, and a main clause may contain more than one $y\grave{a}$ '-clause:

```
Fù yá' bòɔd, m yá' lèb nā, m ná yóɔ_f.

25G if want, 15G if return hither, 15G IRR pay 25G.0B.

"If you want, when I return, I will pay you."
```

Ya'-clauses occur immediately before the subject of the main clause, after any other pre-subject adjuncts, clause-linker particles or conjunctions.

There must be a non-zero subject after a $y\grave{a}$ '-clause; even direct commands do not, as usual, delete the 2nd person subject pronoun 25.2.3; my informants use a free pronoun in this context, as does the KB version in

```
Fv ya'a mɔr pu'a, fvn da mɔɔd ye fv bas oo.

Fv ya' mɔr pu'ā, fvn dā mɔɔd yɛ fv bás·ō-o +ø.

2sg if have wife:sg, 2sg neg.imp struggle:ipfv that 2sg abandon-3an.ob neg.

"If you have a wife, don't try to leave her." (1 Cor 7:27)
```

Other sources permit bound pronouns:

```
Bung ya'a bood ye o lubuf, fu po nyeti o tubaa.

Bùŋ yá' bòɔd yɛ́ ò lūbú f,

Donkey:sg if want that 3AN throw.off 2sg.ob,

fù pv ňyētí ò tùbāa +ø.

2sg neg.ind see:IPFV 3AN ear:PL Neg.

"If a donkey wants to throw you off, you don't see his ears." KSS p44
```

The main clause can be of any type, including a command, as above, or a question; it may have elements preposed with $k\grave{a}$ 30.2:

```
Fù yá' gōs kpēlá, bó kà fù ňyētá +ø?

2SG if look here, what and 2SG see:IPFV CQ?

"If you look here, what do you see?"
```

 $Y\dot{a}$ '-clauses express tense independently of the main clause. Indicative mood, not irrealis, is used for future meaning, but WK accepts negation with $k\dot{v}$ instead of $p\bar{v}$ when the sense is future; so too NT

```
So' ya'a ku tum, on da dii. 
Sɔ̄' yá' kờ tōm, ɔ̄n dā díι ^+ø. 
INDF.AN if NEG.IRR work, 3AN.CNTR NEG.IMP eat NEG. 
"If anybody will not work, let him not eat." (2 Thess 3:10, 1976)
```

Occasionally, the $y\grave{a}$ '-clause appears clause-finally because of dislocation due to weight 30.3, 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 n\bar{a}anı s\bar{o}n'o-n, b\dot{a} y\dot{a} n\bar{o}kı-n n\bar{\epsilon}er-títā'arı \emptyset l\bar{o}o-n \emptyset sinan then be better-dp 3pl if take-dp millstone-big:sg cat tie-dp cat k\dot{o}lī-n \bar{o}n nin-g\dot{o}or k\dot{a} zan·\dot{o}0 \emptyset \emptyset l\bar{o}bl put.around.neck-dp 3an.cntr body-neck:sg and take 3an.ob cat throw \emptyset bas k\bar{o}lvgv-n, n gat ... cat abandon river:sg-loc cat 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, 1996)

```
Dinzug li naan a su'um ba ya'a pu du'an dau kaŋaa. Dìn-zúg lì nāan áň sým bà yá' p\bar{v} dý'ā-n dáu-kàŋáa ^+ø. Thus <code>3INAN</code> then <code>cop</code> good:ABSTR 3PL if <code>NEG.IND</code> bear-DP man-DEM.DEI.SG NEG. "So it would have been better for that man not to have been born." (Mk 14:21, 1996)
```

27.1.1 Discontinuous-past n^{ϵ}

Discontinuous-past n^{ε} 19.3.2 can attach to any verb form in indicative or irrealis mood; it is not compatible with the imperative. In VP chaining, if n^{ε} is found in the first predicator it is repeated in all 23.1.

In much its commonest function, the particle has a meaning analogous to the modal remoteness expressed by the use of the English preterite in non-temporal usage (CGEL pp148ff.) It expresses a hypothetical or unlikely state of affairs; it is frequently accompanied by the post-subject particle $n\bar{a}an(\iota)$ 27.1.2, which creates a contrary-to-fact interpretation. It is most often seen, without $n\bar{a}an(\iota)$, in $y\dot{a}'$ -clauses, and with or without $n\bar{a}an(\iota)$ in apodoses, but also appears both with and without $n\bar{a}an(\iota)$ in other main and subordinate clause types.

In main clauses, n^{ϵ} without $n\bar{a}an(\iota)$ is most often seen in $b \ni d\bar{\iota}n$ "might wish":

```
m pa'ati nye ka ya pu wenne wuu man boodin ye ya aan si'em laa. \dot{m} pá' tì \ddot{n}yé kà yà p\bar{v} w\bar{\epsilon}n n\bar{\epsilon}

1SG perhaps see and 2PL NEG.IND resemble with \dot{v}\bar{v}\bar{v} mán \dot{b}\dot{c}\bar{v}\bar{c}\bar{v}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{
```

```
Man bɔɔdin nɛ yanamɛ naan aan ma'asiga bɛɛ yanamɛ naan aan tvvliga.

Mān bɔɔdī-n nē yānámì ø nāan áa-n mā'asigā bēɛ

1sg.cntr want-dp that 2pl nz then cop-dp cold:Adv or
yānámì ø nāan áa-n tūvlígā.

2pl nz then cop-dp hot:Adv.

"I might wish you had been cold or you had been hot." (Rev 3:15)
```

The modal sense, though it occurs much more frequently, is probably secondary to this temporal function.

27.1.2 Nāan(ı) "in that case"

The post-subject particle $n\bar{a}an(\iota)$ is distinct from $n\bar{y}aan$ "next, afterwards, then", but $n\bar{a}an$ (never $n\bar{a}an\iota$) occurs commonly in the same sense as $n\bar{y}aan$. Thus in the parallel NT passages from the 1996 version:

```
Fu na ki'is noor atan' ye, fu zi' ma, ka noraug nyaan kaas.
Fù ná kī'ıs nóor
                       àtáň'
                                 yέ fù zí'ı
                                                  mā
                                                         +ø.
2SG IRR deny occasion:SG NUM:three that 2SG NEG.KNOW 1SG.OB NEG,
kà nō-dáùg
                ňyāan kāas.
and hen-male:sg next cry.
"You will deny three times that you know me before the cock crows."
(Mt 26:75, 1996)
Fu na ki'is man noor atan' ka noraug naan kaas noor ayi.
Fù ná kī'ıs mān
                    nóor
                               àtáň'
                                          kà nō-dáùg
2SG IRR deny 1SG.CNTR occasion:SG NUM:three and hen-male:SG
nāan kāas nóor
                      àví.
next cry occasion:sg num:two.
"You will deny me three times before the cock crows twice."
(Mk 14:30, 1996: KB nyaan)
```

The particle $\check{n}y\bar{a}an$ is probably a form of $\check{n}y\acute{a}'a\eta^a$ "behind, after" with loss of glottalisation and assimilation of the final nasal because of its proclitic status 4.2.2 8.5.1. The particle $n\bar{a}an(\iota)$ 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 $\check{n}y\bar{a}an$ to temporal "then", unless the falling-together of the forms is simply phonological or dialectal.

There are examples in NT/KB of $n\bar{a}an(\iota)$ used as an auxiliary verb with its own locative complement in both VP chaining and in adnominal $k\dot{a}$ -clauses:

```
M nye ka Sutaana naane arazana ni n lu wenne saa yiti iank si'em la.

M ňyé kà Sūtáanà nāaní ø àrazánà ní n lù ø wēn nē

1sg see and Satan be.there cat sky Loc cat fall cat resemble foc
sáa ø yītı ø jāňk sī'əm lā.
rain:sg nz emerge:IPFV cat leap INDF.ADV ART.
"I saw Satan [being] in heaven fall like lightning." (Lk 10:18, 1996)
```

dap banɛ gur ye ba zugdaan naan pu'adiir di'ema zin'igin kul na dàp-bànı gūr yɛ́ bà zūg-dáàn nāan pu̯'á-dīır dí'əmà man-Rel.pl wait that 3pl head-owner:sg be.there wife-taking:sg feast:pl zín̆'igī-n \emptyset kūl nā place:sg-loc cat return.home hither. "men who are waiting for their lord [being] at a wedding feast to return ..."

yinni piiga wusa puugin ka li naan o yaab Abraham nu'usin yīnní pīiga wūsa ρύυgύ-n kà lì nāan ò yáab Abraham one ten all inside:sg-Loc and 3INAN be.there 3AN ancestor:sg Abraham nú'usī-n

hand:PL-LOC

(Lk 12:36)

"the tithe which was in his ancestor Abraham's hands" (Heb 7:9, 1996)

```
Kà nwadbibis na naan agɔla lit tenin na.

Kà nwād-bíbìs ná nāan àgɔlà ø lít tēni-n nā.

And moon-small:PL IRR be.there Adv:above CAT fall:IPFV ground:SG-LOC hither.

"And the stars [being] above will fall to earth." (Mk 13:25)
```

The form $n\bar{a}an\iota$ thus evidently originated in $n\bar{a}an$ followed by catenator-n, but I will omit **cat** in the interlinear glossing henceforward for simplicity.

In main clause statements $n\bar{a}an(\iota)$ without n^{ϵ} is most often a by-form of $n\bar{b}aan$ as described above. By far the most cases of modal $n\bar{a}an(\iota)$ appear in the apodoses of conditional clauses 27.3. Elsewhere the meaning is "in that case, matters being thus",

and has a contrary-to-fact implication when discontinuous-past n^{ϵ} is also present. Especially in absolute clauses, $n\bar{a}an(\iota)$ without n^{ϵ} may be effectively equivalent to $y\dot{a}'$ "if/when."

In non-conditional main clause contexts it appears most often in the NT/KB with $b \grave{\supset} d^a$ "want, wish" to convey a hypothetical "might have wished":

```
M naan boodin ye ya sid aan na'anam.

M nāan bóodī-n yé yà sìd āa-n ná'-nàm.

15G then want-DP that 2PL truly COP-DP king-PL.

"I might have wished you really were kings." (1 Cor 4:8)
```

Other examples do occur, in both main clauses and content clauses:

```
Ka so' naam mori [sic] pe'is kobuga ka yinni bodige?

Kà sɔ̄' nāan mɔ̄r pɛ̄'ɛs kɔ́bɪgá kà yīnní bɔ̀dɪgɛ ^+ø?

And INDF.AN then have sheep:PL hundred and one get.lost PQ?

"If someone had a hundred sheep and one got lost?" (Mt 18:12 1976)
```

```
Li an sum ye dau yinne naan kpi nidib la yɛla gaad ...

Lì àň súm yē dāu yīnní nāan kpí nīdıb lā yɛ́là ø gàad ...

3INAN COP good that man:sG one then die person:PL ART about CAT pass ...

"It is better if one man should die for the people than ..." (Jn 11:50)
```

 $N\bar{a}an(\iota)$ also appears in subordinate clauses. Examples are uncommon in KB, which usually simply shows the irrealis marker $n\dot{a}$ where older versions have $n\bar{a}an$. Subordinate clauses introduced by $y\bar{\epsilon}$ or $k\dot{a}$:

```
Ka m bood ye li naani pun niŋin sa.
Kà m̀ bɔʻɔ̀d yɛ́ lì nāanı pun niŋī-n sá.
And \mathbf{1sG} want that \mathbf{3INAN} then already do-\mathbf{DP} hence.
"I wish it had happened already." (Lk 12:49, 1976)
```

```
Li su'm ka fu daa naan zaŋin m ligidi n su'an banki ni.

Lì sù'm kà fù dāa nāan záŋí-n m līgɪdɪ n sū'a-n bánkì ní.

3INAN be.good and 2SG TNS then take-DP 1SG money CAT hide-DP bank:SG LOC.

"You should have put my money in the bank." (Mt 25:27, 1976)
```

N-clauses:

```
M daa pu bood ye nimbane naan tisini m sumalisim la keen ka m moren susa'aŋa.
```

 \dot{M} $d\bar{a}a$ $p\bar{v}$ $b\dot{5}\dot{5}d$ $y\bar{\varepsilon}$ $n\bar{n}n$ - $b\acute{a}n\grave{i}$ $n\bar{a}an$ $t(s\bar{\imath}-n(\underline{\ }m$ 15G TNS NEG.IND want that person-Rel.PL then give-DP 15G.OB $s\bar{v}$ - $m\acute{a}ls\grave{i}m$ $l\bar{a}$ $k\bar{\varepsilon}\varepsilon$ -n $k\grave{a}$ m $m\bar{5}r\iota$ -n $s\bar{v}$ - $s\acute{a}n'\dot{a}n\bar{a}$ $^+$ \varnothing . heart-sweetness ART cause-DP and 15G have-DP heart-spoiling NEG. "I did not want those who should have given me joy to give me sorrow." (2 Cor 2:3, 1996)

... fun di'em o wuu fun naan di'enim si'em la.

... $f\bar{\upsilon}n$ $di' \partial m \cdot \bar{o}$ \emptyset $w\bar{\upsilon}\upsilon$ $f\acute{\upsilon}n$ $n\bar{a}$ a $di' \partial -n\acute{\iota}$ m $s\bar{\imath}' \partial m$ $l\bar{a}$.

... 2SG.CNTR receive:IMP 3AN.OB like 2SG:NZ then receive-DP 1SG.OB INDF.ADV ART.

"Welcome him as if you were welcoming me." (Philemon 1:17)

Hale baa m meni naani moren suekane na keen ka m nwe' nyo'og ne saalib yela laa.

Hālí báa m̀ mēní ø nāanı mōrı-n suā-kánì nà kēɛ-n Even not $\mathbf{1sG}$ self \mathbf{Nz} then have- \mathbf{DP} way- $\mathbf{Rel.sG}$ irr cause- \mathbf{DP} kà m̀ ñwé' ñyō'ɔg nē sáalìb yélà láa $^+$ ø. and $\mathbf{1sG}$ beat chest: \mathbf{sG} with human: \mathbf{PL} about \mathbf{ART} \mathbf{NeG} . "Although I myself might have had reason to boast in human terms." (Phil 3:4, 1996)

Fun naani tum be'ed ka ba sigis uf ne kpisinkpil ka fu sin ka mor suguru, li su'um a bo?

Fún nāanı túm bē'ɛd kà bà sīgɪsú f nē kp(sìnkpìl 25G:NZ then do bad and 3PL put.down 25G.0B with fist:SG kà fù sín kà mōr sūgurú, lì sùm áň bó $^+$ ø? and 25G be.silent and have forbearance, 3INAN 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, 1996)

Ningbin naan be ka siig kae' ka li a zaalim la, ala men ...

Nìn-gbín ø nāan bé kà sītg kā'e kà lì áň zāalím lā,

Body-skin:sg nz then exist and spirit:sg neg.be and зінан сор empty:abstr art,

àlá mèn ...

ADV:thus also...

"As a body with no spirit is empty, so too ..." (Jas 2:26, 1996)

```
Amaa da ke ka ya so' namisid tuum bamanaminee, on naani a ninkuud ...
Àmáa dā
             kέ
                   kà và sɔ̄'
                                 nā'mιsíd tύờm-bàmmā námī-nέ +ø,
But
     NEG.IMP cause and 2PL INDF.AN suffer: IPFV deed-DEM.DEI.PL PL-LOC
źп
      nāanι áň nīn-kύὺd ...
3AN:NZ 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, 1996)
Nonir lem kae' gaad nidi naan kpi o zuanam zugo.
Nònır lém kā'e ø gáàd nīdí
                                  ø nāan kpí ò zuà-nàm zúgō +ø.
Love again NEG.BE CAT pass person:SG NZ then die 3AN friend-PL upon NEG.
"There is no love greater than if a person dies for his friends." (In 15:13, 1996)
wenne wuu saa naani iank ya nya'an n ti paae ya tuona la
         nē wūυ sáa go nāani jáňk yà ňyá'an
resemble with like rain:sg Nz then jump 2PL behind
              páe và tùena
n tí
                                  Ιā
CAT afterwards reach 2PL before.ADV ART
"like when lightning leaps from East to West" (Mt 24:27, 1996)
Ba wenne zunzon naani ve'ed zunzon ne.
Bà wēn
                                ø nāanι vē'εd
                 zúnzòn
                                                 zúnzòn
                                                                nē.
3PL resemble with blind.person:SG NZ then lead:IPFV blind.person:SG like.
"They are like when a blind person leads a blind person." (Mt 15:14, 1996)
Ka namisug ne'ena wenne po'a naani sa'a ye o du'a ne.
Kà nā'mιsúg nē'ηá
                         wĒn
                                  nē
                                       pu'á
                                                  ø nāanı sā'
And suffering dem.dei:Inan resemble with woman:sg nz then strain
yέ ò dụ'á nē.
that 3AN bear like.
"This suffering is like when a woman labours to give birth." (Mt 24:8, 1996)
wuu kunduna naan lusi ba men ne pe'es gbana n kpen' pe'esin.
wūv kúndùna ə nāan lūsí bà mēŋ nē pē'es
like jackal:PL NZ then wrap 3PL self with sheep:PL skin:PL
n kpèň'es pē'esí-n.
CAT enter
           sheep:PL-Loc.
"Like when jackals wrap themselves in sheepskins to go among sheep."
(Mt 7:15, 1996)
```

27.2 **Open**

Conditional clauses without discontinuous-past n^{ε} or $n\bar{a}an(\iota)$ express "if", and also "when" with a main clause with present or future reference. With main clauses with past reference, $y\dot{a}$ ' is only used for conditionals; for the meaning "when", an absolute clause with time reference is used as a pre-subject adjunct 28.1. In a $y\dot{a}$ '-clause, indicative mood is consistently used instead of irrealis in positive polarity, and usually though not invariably in the negative.

```
Nid ya'a tum tuuma, o di'ed yood.
Nīd
         yá' từm
                      tūυma, ò dì'əd
                                              yɔ̄ɔd.
Person:sg if work:IPFV work, 3AN receive:IPFV pay.
"If a person works, he gets pay." (Rom 4:4)
Ka Kristo ya'a da pu vu'ug kumine, alaa ti labasun la moolug la ane zaalim.
Kà Kristo yá' dà pū
                         νō'υq
                                   kūmι-nέ +ø, àláa tì làba-sòn
And Christ if TNS NEG.IND come.alive death-LOC NEG, ADV:thus 1PL news-good:SG
                lā á nĒ zāalím.
ART proclamation ART COP FOC empty: ABSTR.
"If Christ did not rise from death, our preaching is empty." (1 Cor 15:14)
Bεog ya'a nie fu na wum o pian'ad.
                    fù ná wúm ò piàň'ad.
Βε̄οα
         yá' nìe,
Tomorrow if appear, 25G IRR hear 3AN speech.
"When tomorrow comes, you will hear his words." (Acts 25:22)
```

Cf Hausa *ìdan gàrii yaa waayèe zaa mù tàfi* "When dawn comes we'll go." (Jaggar p608), where *ìdan* is likewise "if/when."

```
Fù yá' siàk, tì ná dīgulí f.

25G if agree, 1PL IRR lay.down 25G.OB.

"If you agree, we'll put you to bed. [i.e. admit you to hospital]"

Bōn-píəlìg bɛ́ fù nīf lā púvgō-n. Fù yá' bòɔd, tì ná

Thing-white:5G EXIST 25G eye:5G ART inside:5G-LOC. 25G if want, 1PL IRR

yīis, kà fù ná ňyē súŋā yá'às.

extract, and 25G IRR see 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."

Negative polarity with non-past reference in the $y\dot{a}$ '-clause:

```
M ya'a ρυ kenε, Sυnid la kυ kεεn ya ni naa.
M vá' pō
              kēηέ +ø, sūηιd
                                 lā kύ
                                            kέεň yà nī náa
                   NEG, helper:SG ART NEG.IRR come 2PL LOC hither NEG.
1SG if NEG.IND go
"If I do not go, the Helper will not come here to you." (In 16:7)
So' ya'a ku tum, on da dii.
S5'
       vá' kù
                 tūm. 5n
                                dā
                                        díι +ø.
INDF.AN if NEG.IRR WORK, 3AN.CNTR NEG.IMP eat NEG.
"If anybody will not work, let him not eat." (2 Thess 3:10, 1976)
```

27.3 Hypothetical

If discontinuous-past n^{ε} occurs in the $y\dot{a}$ '-clause, it also occurs in the main clause. Here n^{ε} has an effect similar to the non-temporal use of the preterite in English conditional constructions.

The particle $n\bar{a}an(\iota)$ does not occur in a $y\dot{a}'$ -clause. If it is also absent in the main clause, there is no contrary-to-fact implication; such main clauses usually have irrealis mood.

```
Wief ya'a sigin li ni, li zulun na paaen o salabir.
Wìəf
         vá' sīgí-n
                         Ιì
                              nī. lì
                                         zùlon ná páa-n
                                                               sàlıbır.
Horse:sg if descend-dp 3inan loc, 3inan depth irr reach-dp 3an bridle:sg.
"If a horse went down in it, its depth would reach its bridle." (Rev 14:20, 1976)
Ya ya'a aan zunzoos, ya pu morin taale.
Yà yá' āa-n zúnzòɔňs,
                              yà pū
                                         mɔ̄rι-n táàllε̄
2PL if COP-DP blind.person:PL, 2PL NEG.IND have-DP fault:SG NEG.
"If you were blind, you wouldn't be guilty ." (In 9:41, 1976; 1996 ya ku moren)
Nobir ya'a yelin ye, on pu a nu'ug la zug, o ka' ningbin nii, lin ku nyanin
keen ka o ka' ningbin nii.
Nóbìr yá' yèlī-n yē, ón
                             טֿמ
                                    áň nú'ùg lā zúg,
Leg:sg if say-dp that 3an:nz neg.ind cop hand:sg art upon,
ò kā'
          nín-gbīn
                       níι +ø, līn
                                          kύ
                                                 ňyānı-n
3AN NEG.BE body-skin:sg loc neg, dem.inan neg.irr accomplish-dp cat
         kà ò kā'
                        nín-gbīŋ
                                     níι +ø.
cause-dp and 3AN 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)
```

27.4 Contrary-to-fact

If the main clause has $n\bar{a}an(\iota)$ there is a contrary-to-fact implication:

```
Man ya'a ρυ kεεn na tu'asini ba, ba naan ku morin taale.
        γá' pū
                   kēε-n nā ø tύ'asī-ní bā,
1SG.CNTR if NEG.IND come-DP hither CAT talk-DP 3PL.OB, 3PL then NEG.IRR
mɔrɪ-n táàllē
have-pp fault:sg NEG.
"If I had not come to speak to them, they would not have been guilty."
(Jn 15:22)
Ba ya'a daa mi'inε li, ba naan kυ kpa'an Zugsob onε an na'atita'ar la
dapuudir zugo.
Bà yá' dāa mī'i-nί lī, bà nāan kύ
                                            kpā'a-n Zūg-sɔ́b
                                                                   źηὶ
3PL if TNS know-dp 3INAN.OB, 3PL then NEG.IRR fasten-dp head-one:SG REL:AN
                                   zùaō +ø.
àň ná'-tītā'ar
                 lā dá-pūvdá
COP king-great:SG ART wood-cross:SG upon NEG.
"If they had known it, they would not have fastened the Lord, who was a great
king, to a cross." (1 Cor 2:8)
Ya ya'a mi'in line na tisi ya sumbugusum zina nwa, li naan aan su'um!
Yà yá' mī'i-n
               línì
                       nà tīsı yá
                                     súmbūgusím zīná ňwá,
2PL if know-dp rel.inan irr give 2PL.0B peace
                                                   today this,
     nāan āa-n sύm!
3INAN then COP-DP good:ABSTR.
"If you had known this day what would have brought you peace, that would
have been good." (Lk 19:42)
Ya'a ka'anε alaa, m naan ku yεlinε ya ye ...
Yà' kā'a-ní àlá,
                    ṁ nāan kύ
                                    yēlι-nί yā
If NEG.BE-DP ADV:thus, 1SG then NEG.IRR say-DP 2PL.OB that...
"If it were not so, I would not have told you that ..." (In 14:2)
Ya ya'a siakin Moses ya naan siakin man mɛn.
Yà yá' siàkī-n
                 Moses, yà nāanı siákī-n
                                            mān
                                                    mέn.
2PL if believe-DP Moses, 2PL then believe-DP 1SG.CNTR also.
```

"If you had believed Moses you'd have believed me too." (Jn 5:46)

```
Li ya'a aane m meŋ gaŋir ka m tummin tuum kaŋa, m naani di'edin nyood.

Lì yá' āa-ní m mēŋ gáŋìr kà m túmmī-n túòm-kàŋā,

3INAN if COP-DP 1SG self choice and 1SG work:IPFV-DP work-DEM.DEI.SG,
m nāanı dī ədı-n nyōɔd.

1SG then receive:IPFV-DP pay.

"If it had been my own choice that I did this work, I would be getting pay."

(1 Cor 9:17, 1976)
```

Contrary-to-fact conditions in the past are also sometimes marked by combining the irrealis mood with preverbal past tense markers:

Bɔzugɔ Josua ya'a da tisini ba vv'vsvm zin'ig, Wina'am da kv lɛm pian' dabis-si'a yɛla ya'asɛ.

Bō zúgō Josua yá' dà tìsī-ní bā vū'vsím zíň'ìg, Wínà'am dá kỳ
Because Joshua if TNS give-DP 3PL.OB resting place:SG, God TNS NEG.IRR
lēm piāň' dábìs-sī'a yélà yà'asē +ø.
again speak day-INDF.INAN about again NEG.
"For if Joshua had given them a resting place, God would not subsequently have spoken of a certain day." (Heb 4:8)

Similarly, but without a yà'-clause:

Ò dāa ná zāb ná'àb lā.

3AN TNS IRR fight 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."

28 N-clauses

Nīn-bánì

Kusaal transforms complete clauses into AdvPs or NPs by inserting the postsubject particle \dot{n} . (For the realisation of the particle, see 8.2.2.1.) The \dot{n} by itself is a nominaliser, which turns the original clause "X" into an absolute clause 28.1 signifying "it being the fact that X." N-clauses also form the basis of Kusaal relative clauses, though in the commonest type the nominaliser particle has fused with a preceding demonstrative pronoun to create what is synchronically simply a relative pronoun <u>28.2.3</u>.

Nominaliser- \dot{n} may be historically related to the VP catenator n 23.1.

All types of \dot{n} -clause have independent tense marking (but relative to the narrative timeline within a series of sequential clauses 25.3.2.)

They cannot use the imperative mood; irrealis appears instead:

```
Yaname na mor sam si'a ane ye ya non taaba.
Yānámì ø nà mōr sām-sí'a
                                 á nē yέ yà nóŋ tāaba.
         NZ IRR have debt-indf.inan cop foc that 2PL love each.other
"Any debt which you are to have is to love each other." (Rom 13:8)
```

 \dot{N} -clauses cannot have any pre-subject elements or be *n*-focussed, but relative pronouns are often preposed with $k \ge 28.2.3$.

If the \dot{n} -clause has a negative VPred, it only shows a final LF if the \dot{n} -clause is itself clause-final in the superordinate clause:

```
ná kpī.
Person-rel.pl neg.ind eat:ipfv irr die.
"People who don't eat will die." WK
M ἤyέ nīn-bánì
                             dítā
                                     +ø.
                     טֿמ
1SG see person-rel.pl neg.ind eat:IPFV neg.
"I've seen some people who don't eat."
```

ρō

dít

 \dot{N} -clauses can contain other \dot{n} -clauses, VP-chaining constructions and subordinate clauses:

```
ban mi' ye biig la kpinɛ la zug
      тī
            yε̄ bīig
                        lā kpí nε lā zúg
3PL:NZ know that child:SG ART die FOC ART upon
"because they knew that the child was dead" (Lk 8:53)
```

Paul n sob gbauŋ si'a n tis Efesus dim la nwa.

Paul n sɔ̄b gbáu̞ŋ-sr'a n tís Efesus dím lā ø nwá.

Paul nz write book-INDF.INAN CAT give Ephesus individual.PL ART CAT this.

"This is the letter Paul wrote to the Ephesians." (1996 NT heading)

Kà m tuuma lin ka m tum n tis Zugsob la ke ka yanam a yadda niŋidib.
Kà m tūvma lín kà m túm n tìs Zūg-sɔ́b lā
And 1sg work rel.inan and 1sg work cat give head-one:sg art
ké kà yānám áň yáddā-níŋìdıb.
cause and 2pl.cntr cop assent-doer:pl.
"My actions which I did for the Lord led to you being believers."
(1 Cor 9:1, 1996)

 $d\grave{a}\underline{u}$ - $k\grave{a}n\underline{u}$ $b\grave{o}$ $y\acute{\epsilon}$ \grave{o} $z\acute{a}b$ $n\grave{a}$ 'ab $l\bar{a}$ man-Rel.sg want that 3AN fight 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 mì' ón dāa túm sī'əm ón dāa bɛ́ bà sā'an

3PL know 3AN:NZ TNS work:IPFV INDF.ADV 3AN:NZ TNS EXIST 3PL presence sānsá wūsa, dàa-lìn kà ò dāa pāe Asia sú'ulìm lā nā sá. time:PL all, day-REL.INAN and 3AN TNS reach 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:

 $d\bar{a}\underline{u}$ $l\acute{a}$ \grave{n} $d\bar{a}a$ $k\bar{\epsilon}\eta$ $d\acute{a}$ 'a-n, $k\grave{a}$ $p\underline{u}$ ' \bar{a} $l\bar{a}$ $d\bar{a}a$ $k\bar{\epsilon}\eta$ Man:sg art nz tns go market:sg-loc and woman:sg art tns go $p\bar{\sigma}$ $d\bar{a}$ $d\bar{a}$

"because the man went to market and the woman went to the farm" WK

mam pu sa'amidi ba la'ad, ka mɛ pu diti ba ki la.
mán pv sáň'amìdí bà lā'ad, kà mɛ́ pv dítí

15G:NZ NEG.IND spoil:IPFV 3PL goods:PL and also NEG.IND eat:IPFV bà $k\bar{l}$ láa +ø.
3PL millet ART NEG.

"that I don't spoil their property or eat their millet" BNY p20

 \dot{N} -clauses are NPs or AdvPs and may take the article $l\bar{a}^{+/}$, but they cannot take modifiers or postdeterminer pronouns. They can participate in forming larger NPs or AdvPs as predeterminers, and may also themselves have predeterminers:

```
bà dib n yit na'aten la na zug
bà dī b n yīt ná'-tēŋ lā nā zúg

3PL food NZ emerge:IPFV king-land:SG ART hither upon
"because their food came from the king's land" (Acts 12:20, 1996)

Pa'alimi ti nidiba ayi' nwa fun gan sɔ'
Pà'alımī tí nīdıbá àyí nwá fún gān sɔ'
Teach:IMP 1PL.OB person:PL NUM:two this 2SG:NZ choose INDF.AN
"Tell us which of these two people you have chosen" (Acts 1:24)
```

The article $l\bar{a}^{+/}$ is not repeated a second time after an \tilde{n} -clause which ends in a NP with $l\bar{a}^{+/}$.

If the clause contains the VP-final particles $n\bar{a}^{+/}$ "hither" $s\hat{a}^+$ "hence" these may follow an article $l\bar{a}^{+/}$ belonging to the \hat{n} -clause 20.7.

 \dot{N} -clauses, like other NPs/AdvPs, are coordinated with $n\bar{\epsilon}$ "and" $k\bar{\nu}\nu/b\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon$ "or."

```
... pa'ali ba on daa nye Zugsob la suorin, ka o pian' tis o si'em,
nε Saul n mɔɔl Yesu yɛla nɛ svnkpi'eun Damaskus tenin si'em.
... páˈalì bā
                     dāa ňyē Zūg-sób
                źп
                                          Ιā
                                              sūerί-n,
...teach 3PL.OB 3AN:NZ TNS see head-one:SG ART road:SG-LOC and 3AN
pįāň' jø tís·ò jø
                       sī'əm, nē Saul n mɔɔl
speak cat give
                 3AN.OB INDF.ADV with Saul NZ proclaim Jesus about
    sūň-kpí'òŋ
                    Damaskus tέηι-n
                                          sīˈəm.
with heart-strength Damascus land:sg-Loc INDF.ADV
"...informing them how he had seen the Lord on the road and He had spoken
to him, and how Saul had preached boldly about Jesus in Damascus."
(Acts 9:27)
```

The first \dot{n} -clause itself contains two subclauses linked by $k\dot{a}$.

28.1 Absolute clauses

 \hat{N} -clauses which do not contain relative pronouns or determiners as heads are **absolute clauses** meaning "it being the fact that X", where "X" is the clause prior to the insertion of \hat{n} :

```
Dāu lā dāa záb nà'ab lā.

Man:sg art tns fight chief:sg art
"The man fought the chief."

dāu lá ø dāa záb nà'ab lā
```

Man:sg art nz tns fight chief:sg art "the man having fought the chief"

Absolute clauses always take the article $l\bar{a}^{+/}$.

The most characteristic use of absolute clauses is as **AdvPs** of circumstance or time. Like other AdvPs, they have limited use as verb arguments, most often as the complement of $\grave{a} e \check{n}^a$ "be", though occasionally as subjects:

```
Dine k\varepsilon ka m a saalbiis zua la an\varepsilon mam pu sa'amidi ba la'ad ka m\varepsilon pu diti ba ki la.

Dìni k\varepsilon kà m̀ án̆ sáàl-bīis zuá lā á n\varepsilon mán

REL.SG cause and 1SG COP smooth-child:PL friend:SG ART COP FOC 1SG:NZ

pv̄ sánˇamìdí bà lā'ad kà m\varepsilon pv̄ dítí bà kī láa ^+ø.

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
```

```
Kristo da kpii ti yɛla la kɛ ka ti baŋ nɔŋilim an si'em.
Kristo ø dà kpìi tì yɛlá lā kɛ́ kà tì báŋ
Christ nz tns die lpl about art cause and lpl realise
nòŋulím ø àň sī əm.
love nz cop indf.adv
"Christ dying for us makes us understand what love is like." (1 Jn 3:16)
```

Absolute clauses are accordingly not used as objects of verbs of perception or communication; either relative clauses with indefinite pronouns as relatives <u>28.2.2</u> or content clauses <u>26.3</u> appear in this function.

28.1.1 Time/circumstance adjuncts

Absolute clauses are the usual way of expressing past "when." They may occur as adjuncts in the pre-subject position of main clauses 25.1.1, or preposed with $k\grave{a}$ 30.2, or less commonly as adjuncts clause-finally. Kusaal is stricter than English in requiring constituent order to reflect event order (cf VP chaining 23.1), so the clause-final position is usually confined to cases where the absolute clause expresses a state of affairs rather than a single event:

```
\bar{\mathcal{D}}n dāa nyēt súnā, śn dāa án bí-līa láa + \varnothing? 3an.cntr tns see:IPFV good:ADV, 3an:nz tns cop child-baby:sg art pq? "Did she see well when she was a baby?"
```

Tense markers in an absolute clause are the same as in the main clause; the main clause markers may be omitted if the absolute 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 absolute clause implying a prior event and imperfective a simultaneous one, setting the temporal scene for the main clause.

```
Kà bán dìt lā, Yesu yélì bā ...

And 3PL:NZ eat:IPFV ART, Jesus say 3PL.OB

"As they were eating, Jesus said to them ..." (Mt 26:21)

Ka ban yi la, ka Zugsob malek nie o meŋ ...

Kà bán yī lā, kà Zūg-sób máliāk níe ò mēŋ ...

And 3PL:NZ emerge ART and head-one:sg angel:sg appear 3AN self

"After they had left, an angel of the Lord showed himself ..." (Mt 2:13, 1996)
```

Absolute clauses with $s\bar{a}dig(m)$ "since, because" immediately following nominaliser- \dot{n} occur in the pre-subject adjunct position of a main clause and express "reason why":

```
Tinamɛ sagidim aan o biis la, ti da tɛn'ɛs ...

Tīnámì ø sādɪgím áaň ò bīis lā, tì dā tēň'ɛs ...

1PL NZ since COP 3AN child:PL ART, 1PL NEG.IMP think ...

"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. Winà'am Si-sùŋ Ø sādigim tisì tī vūm-páàl lā, God spirit-good:sg nz since give 1PL.0B life-new:sg art kèlí Ø kà tì bèllím dɔl né ò bòɔdim lā. cause 2PL.suB and 1PL existence follow with 3AN will ART "Since God's Holy Spirit has given us new life, let our lives be in accord with his will." (Gal 5:25, 1996)
```

On sadigim nin ala la, o sid na tisi ti si'el mekama wusa la'am ne o. Ón sād ι gím nīn álá lā, ò sìd nà tīs ι _tí sī'əl

3AN:NZ since do ADV:thus ART, 3AN truly IRR give 1PL.OB INDF.INAN

mékàma wūsa lá'àm né ò.

altogether all together with 3AN

"Since he has done this, he will certainly give us everything together with him."

(Rom 8:32, 1976)

For absolute clauses with post-subject $n\bar{a}an(\iota)$ see 27.1.2.

28.1.2 With prepositions and postpositions

Absolute clauses occur after hālí nē or hālí là'am nē "although"

```
Hali la'am ne on daa an yelsum wusa daan la
Hālí là'am nē ón dāa áň yēl-súm wūsa dáàn lā
Even together with 3AN:NZ 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 ..." 23.3

```
h\bar{a}l( n t\hat{i} p\bar{a}a t\bar{i}n\acute{a}m\hat{i} g k\bar{u}l l\bar{a} Up.to CAT afterwards reach 1PL NZ return.home ART "Until we'd returned home."
```

Before the postposition $z\bar{u}g^{\supset l}$ "on account of", absolute clauses form reasonwhy AdvPs used as adjuncts:

Ka ba la'as taaba n deni 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'aten la na zug.

```
Kà bà lá'às tāaba n déŋὶ Ø ňyē Blestus

And 3PL gather each.other cat do.first cat see Blastus

όnὶ àň ná'àb Herod sāmán-nà'ab lā n máàl sūer

REL.AN COP king:sg Herod courtyard-chief:sg art cat make way:sg

yé ò ňwé' nà'ab nú'ùg, bà dīιb n yīt ná'-tēŋ

that 3AN strike king:sg hand:sg, 3PL food Nz 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, 1996)

When they contain perfective forms, such absolute clauses may need to be preposed with $k\grave{a}$ 30.2 to match the word order to event order 19.2.1:

```
Mán ňwὲ' dāu lā zúg kà police gbáň'a m.
15G:NZ strike man:SG ART upon and police seize 15G.OB
"Because I struck the man the police arrested me."
```

It is commoner for causation to be simply implied by a pre-subject absolute clause or by a result clause:

```
Mán ňwè' dāu lā, kà police gbáň'a m.

15G:NZ strike man:SG ART and police seize 15G.OB.

"I having struck the man, the police arrested me."

M ňwé' dāu lā, kà police gbáň'a m.

15G strike man:SG ART and police seize 15G.OB.

"I struck the man and the police arrested me."
```

 $y\bar{\epsilon}l\dot{a}^+$ "concerning" appears after an absolute clause in section headings in the NT:

```
Jesus n kpen' Jerusalem la yela
Jesus n kpèň' Jerusalem lā yélà
Jesus nz enter Jerusalem art about
"[about] Jesus entering into Jerusalem."
```

The NT favours absolute clauses alone as picture captions:

```
Ban meed yir

Bán mèɛd yīr

3PL:NZ build:IPFV house:SG

Paul n sobid gboŋ nwa
Paul n sɔ̄bid gbáun nwá
Paul nz write:IPFV letter:SG this
```

28.2 Relative clauses

Relative clauses are usually restrictive in meaning, except when the construction is appositional 28.2.4. Compare 26.2 on adnominal $k\grave{a}$ -clauses, used typically with a non-restrictive relative meaning.

28.2.1 Structure

Structurally, Kusaal relative clauses are of two distinct types: those which use relative pronouns, and those which use indefinite pronouns in the rôle of relatives. The relative clause subject is followed by \dot{n} in the indefinite pronoun type; diachronically, the unitary relative pronouns have arisen from fusion of a clause-initial short demonstrative pronoun 16.3.2 with a following \dot{n} .

Relative clauses using indefinite pronouns as relatives are **internally headed**. The pronoun may occur as a head, functioning as the clause antecedent, or as a postdeterminer pronoun after a cb which is then the clause antecedent; in either case it remains *in situ* within the relative clause. The pronoun is thus followed not only by the article belonging to the whole clause, but by any adverbial elements, chained VPreds, and subordinate clauses:

```
ye Wina'am nodi'esidib n daa yel si'el n sob Wina'am gbauŋin la, ane ameŋa.
yē Winà'am nó-di'àsidib n dāa yél sī'əl n sɔ̄b

That God mouth-receiver:PL NZ TNS say INDF.INAN CAT write
Winà'am gbáuŋō-n lā á né àmēŋá.
God book:sg-loc art cop foc truly.
"So that what God's prophets said and wrote in God's book is true."
(Mt 26:56, 1996)
```

Instead of analysing these clauses as internally headed, one might try to take such trailing elements as modifying the relative clause; however, this cannot explain cases where the pronoun appears in a subordinate clause within the relative clause, or is itself a predeterminer within a NP:

```
Fun bood ye fu ku dau so' la ya'a kpi...

Fún bòod yế fừ kū dáu-sō' lā yá' kpì...

25G:NZ want that 25G kill man-INDF.AN ART if die...

"If the man you are seeking to kill dies ..." (2 Samuel 17:3)

M na tumi m Ba' zi'el noor so' yela la tisi ya

M ná tūmí m Bá' ø zì'əl noor sō' yélà ø tísì yā.

15G IRR send 15G father:5G NZ stand mouth:5G INDF.INAN about CAT give 2PL.OB.

"I will send whom my Father made a promise about to you." (Lk 24:49)
```

The indefinite pronoun or noun-pronoun compound usually follows a VPred directly, but this is not invariable:

```
... fon yelim fon niŋ li si'el.
... fon yelim fon niŋi lī sī'əl.
... 2SG.CNTR Say:IMP 2SG:NZ do 3INAN INDF.INAN.
"... that you tell me where you have put it." (Jn 20:15)
```

```
M ňy є dáu-kànı ø zàb nà'ab lā.
1sG see man-dem.sG nz fight chief:sG ART
"I saw the man who fought the chief."
```

When the pronoun is not the subject of the relative clause, but is either another constituent preposed by $k\grave{a}$, or belongs to a predeterminer of the subject, one might expect the \grave{n} to be absent and the pronoun to have the normal SF form. This indeed the case for WK, and commonly in the older NT versions too:

```
bàn kà nà'ab lā záb lā

DEM.PL and chief:SG ART fight ART
"those whom the chief fought."
```

```
yikan ka mam Paul be la

yī-kán kà mām Paul bɛ́ lā

house-dem.sg and isg.cntr Paul exist art

"the house where I, Paul, am" (Rom 16:23, 1976)

on buudi ka Jew dim kis

on būudí kà Jew dím kīs

dem.an tribe:sg and Jew individual.pl hate

"whose tribe the Jews hate" (Lk 10:33, 1996)
```

However, frequently even in older written materials, and almost invariably in KB, the pre-liaison forms are generalised to these cases too:

```
gbauŋ kanɛ ka dau la sɔb la

for gbàuŋ-kàn kà dāu lā sɔ̄b lā
    letter-Rel.sg and man:sg art write art
    "the letter which the man has written"

In dau kanɛ yadda niŋiri pv zu'oe
    dàu-kànı yàddā-níŋìrı ø pō zú'e lā
    man-Rel.sg assent-doing:sg nz neg.ind become.great art
    "a man whose faith is not great..." (Mt 14:31)
```

the nominaliser occurs after the actual relative clause subject.

In view of all this, it seems best to regard the forms $\partial n i$ $k \partial n i l \partial n i$ synchronically as subordinating relative pronouns rather than demonstrative + nominaliser combinations, and where sources use the historically expected forms $\partial n i \partial n i \partial n i \partial n i \partial n i$ heads of relative clauses they will be regarded as allomorphs of the relative pronouns in that context. Accordingly, elsewhere I will write e.g.

Toende Kusaal shows the same development. Nominaliser- \dot{n} is ne in Toende; 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 kiŋ 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."

As a cb before a relative pronoun is a word in its own right rather than a word fragment, and compounded forms are not necessarily bound tighter than uncompounded forms syntactically <u>16.9</u>, there is no need to regard the pronouninitial type of relative clause as internally-headed.

A relative clause introduced by a relative pronoun may contain indefinite pronouns with their normal meaning, and a relative clause with an indefinite pronoun as relative may contain other indefinite pronouns in their normal function so long as they precede the pronoun which appears with the relative meaning:

```
Wina'am one gaad si'el wusa la

Wina'am śnì gàad sī'əl wūsa lā

God rel.an pass indf.inan all art

"God who surpasses everything." (Lk 1:35)

wuu bani gban'ad si'el si'em la

wūu bāni ø gbāň'ad sī'əl sī'əm lā

like trap:sg nz seize:ipfv indf.inan indf.adv art

"like a trap seizes something" (Lk 21:35)
```

Short demonstrative pronouns are never relatives when non-initial, and long demonstratives <u>16.3.2</u> are never relative pronouns at all:

```
O pa'al nɛ'ɛnam nyain tis sɔ' wʊsa on vʊ'ʊg ninkan kumin la zug.

Ò pà'al nɛ'-nám ňyāe ø tís sɔ̄' wʊsa ɔ́n vʊ'ʊg nīn-kán

3AN show DEM.INAN-PL clearly CAT give INDF.AN all 3AN:NZ revive person-DEM.SG

kūmι-n lā zúg.

death-Loc ART upon

"He has shown this clearly to everyone because he has raised that person from death." (Acts 17:31)
```

```
o na tvm tvvmnyalima gaad dau kaŋa tvm si'el laa?
ò nà tvm tvvm-nyalıma ø gàad dàu-kàŋa ø tvm si'el laa +ø?

3AN IRR work work-marvellous:PL CAT pass man-DEM.DEI NZ work INDF.INAN ART PQ?

"Will he do miracles greater than this man has?" (Jn 7:31)
```

28.2.2 Using indefinite pronouns

The antecedents of this type of relative clause can be direct objects, VP complements or adjuncts:

```
Źп
      vèl sīˈəl
                   lā kā'
                            sídāa +ø.
3AN:NZ Say INDF.INAN ART NEG.BE truth NEG.
"What he says is not true" SB
on gan dau so' la
źп
      gāŋ
              dáu-sɔ̄'
3AN:NZ choose man-INDF.AN ART
"the man whom he has chosen" (Numbers 16:5)
M mi' man gan sieba la.
M mí' mán gān
                      sīəba lā.
1SG know 1SG:NZ choose INDF.PL ART.
"I know those whom I have chosen." (Jn 13:18)
Ka ban tυm sɔ' la kυ gaad onε tυm o la.
Kà bán
          tùm sɔ̄'
                                                             láa +ø.
                      lā kύ
                                gāad
                                        źnὶ
                                              tùm·o ø
And 3PL:NZ send INDF.AN ART NEG.IRR surpass REL.AN send
                                                      3AN.OB ART NEG.
"The one who was sent does not surpass the one who sent him." (In 13:16)
Paul n sob gbauŋ si'a n tis Efesus dim la
Paul n sɔb gbáun-sī a
                            n tís Efesus dím
                                                         Ιā
Paul NZ write letter- INDF.INAN CAT give Ephesus individual.PL ART
"the letter which Paul wrote to the Ephesians" (NT heading)
Man mi' si'el nan anε bi'ela.
Mán mĩ sĩəl
                    nān á nē bī əlá.
1SG:NZ know INDF.INAN now COP FOC small.ADV
"What I know now is small." (1 Cor 13:12)
```

It is possible for the head to be part of a subordinate clause within the relative clause, or for the indefinite pronoun to be a predeterminer; all cases which I have found involve the pronoun $s\bar{5}^{1+}$:

```
Fun bood ye fu ku dau so' la ya'a kpi...
      bòɔd yέ fù kū dáu-sɔ̄'
                                   lā vá' kpì...
2SG:NZ want that 2SG kill man-INDF.AN ART if die...
"If the man you are seeking to kill dies ..." (2 Samuel 17:3)
ya na baŋ man yɛl ye m an sɔ' la.
yà ná bāŋ
                  mán yèl yé mà n sɔ̄'
2PL IRR understand 1SG:NZ say that 1SG COP INDF.AN ART.
"you will understand who I say that I am." (In 8:28)
Gosim ye fu na ban la'abama an so' bunnεε?
        yέ fừ ná bān
                                lá'-bàmmá g àň sɔ̄'
                                                            bύnnὲε +ø?
Look: IMP that 2SG IRR understand item-DEM.DEI.PL NZ COP INDF.AN thing:SG PO?
"Can you see if you can find out whose property these things are?"
(Genesis 38:25)
Alaa mam mε kυ yεli ya mam nyε nɔɔr la sɔ' san'anε.
Àláa mām
             mέ kù
                        yēlı yá
                                     mán ἤȳε nɔ̄ɔr
                                                         Ιā
Thus 15G.CNTR also NEG.IRR say 2PL.OB 15G:NZ see mouth:SG ART
        sá'anē +ø.
รวิเ
INDF.INAN among NEG.
"Thus I too will not tell you from whom I derived the authority." (Mt 21:27)
M na tυmi m Ba' zi'el nɔɔr sɔ' yεla la tisi ya
M ná tōmí m Bá'
                         ø zì'əl nɔɔr
                                           รวิ'
                                                     yélà ø
                                                               tísì yā.
1SG IRR send 1SG father:SG NZ stand mouth:SG INDF.INAN about CAT give 2PL.OB.
"I will send whom my Father made a promise about to you." (Lk 24:49)
```

Relative clauses with an indefinite pronoun as a postdeterminer are comparatively uncommon. Only one case occurs in the 1996 NT of $s\bar{5}^{"}$ or $s\bar{i}\partial ba^{"}$ in a relative clause preceded by a cb, but KB has several examples:

```
Nidib la da wum Yesu n tum tuum sieba ...

Nīdıb lā dá wùm Yesu n tùm tùvm-sīəba ...

Person:PL ART TNS hear Jesus NZ work work-INDF.PL ...

"The people heard of the deeds that Jesus had performed..." (Mk 3:7, 1996)
```

```
Ban da ku ninsieba da ka' bi'elaa.
Bán dà kō nīn-síəbà
                           dá kā'
                                     bī əláa +ø.
3PL:NZ TNS kill person-INDF.PL TNS NEG.BE few
"Those they had killed were not few." (1 Samuel 4:10)
ka ban ne ban tum ninsieba la dol taaba ken David san'an...
            nē bán từm nīn-síəbà
                                          lā dɔl
and 3PL.CNTR with 3PL:NZ send person-INDF.PL ART accompany each.other CAT
```

kēη David sá'àn... go David among ...

"They and those whom had been sent went together with David" (1 Sam 25:42)

tāaba

```
Kem tv'vs Samaria na'abi tvm ninsieba la na ...
```

```
Kèm ø tū'us Samaria ná'abí ø tùm nīn-síəbà
                                                    lā nā...
Go:IMP CAT greet Samaria king:sg Nz send person-INDF.PL ART hither ...
```

"Go and greet the men sent by the king of Samaria ..." (2 Kings 1:3)

The postdeterminer-only pronoun $s\bar{r}a^+$ appears quite commonly in relative clauses in the 1996 NT, but of 56 examples, 27 involve zìn'-sī'a+ "somewhere", as in

```
M Zugsoba, ti zi' fun ken zin'isi'a la.
M Zūa-sóbā
                 + \varphi, tì z\bar{\iota}
                                     fún
                                            kēn
                                                    zíň'-sī'a
                                                                    láa +ø.
1SG Head-one:SG VOC, 1PL NEG.KNOW 2SG:NZ go:IPFV place-INDF.INAN ART NEG.
"My Lord, we don't know where you are going." (Jn 14:5, 1996)
```

A further six examples involve cbs of other nouns referring to places, four with $t\bar{\epsilon}\eta^a$ "land", and one each with $s\bar{\nu}'\nu l(m^m)$ "kingdom, country" and $d\hat{\sigma}^0$ "house":

```
Ka bugum nie on be doog si'a la ni.
                              dó-sī'a
Kà bùgóm níe
                  źп
                         bὲ
                                            Ιā ní.
```

And fire appear 3SG:NZ EXIST room-INDF.INAN ART LOC.

"And fire illuminated the room where he was." (Acts 12:7, 1996)

Nine cases involve sān-sí'a+ "sometime", e.g.

Abraham da nan kae' **sansi'a** la, ka man pun be.

Abraham dá nàm kā'e sān-sí'a lā, kà mān nùa bè.

Abraham the still neg.be time-indf.inan art, and 1sg.cntr already exist.

"When Abraham still did not exist, I already existed." (In 8:58, 1996)

There remain 14 other examples in the 1992 NT. As expected, the antecedents cannot have human reference, but they may be abstract or concrete, and as with $s\bar{5}^{++}$ and $s\bar{i}b\bar{b}a^{+}$, need not have an indefinite-specific meaning:

```
Nannanna, yaname daa sob gbauŋ si'a la ka m ye m sob lebisi ya. Nānná-nā, yānámì ø dāa sōb gbáuŋ-sī'a lá kà m̀ yɛ́ Now, 2PL NZ TNS write letter-INDF.INAN ART and 1SG that \dot{m} sōb ø lɛ́bìsì yā.
```

1SG write CAT answer 2PL.OB.

"Now, it's the letter you wrote that I'm going to write back to you about." (1 Cor 7:1, 1996)

Ka bugum n dit **tentita'ar si'a** la nyo'os dut ne agol sana dine ka' benne.

```
Kà bùgóm n dìt téŋ-tītá'-sī'a lā nyɔʻ'ɔ̀s dùt né And fire nz eat:IPFV land-big-INDF.INAN ART smoke ascend:IPFV FOC àgɔ́l sāŋá dìnı kā' bēnnɛ ^+ø.
```

ADV:upwards time:sg rel.inan 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 ten tita'ar* "the great city of Babylon" (Rev 18:21, 1996)

```
ka fun gban'e ziŋ si'a yiiga la, fun ya'ami o noor
kà fún gbāň'e zīm-sí'a yīigá lā, fūn yá'amí_ò nɔ̄ɔr.
And 2sg:nz grab fish-INDF.INAN firstly ART, 2sg.cntr open:IMP 3AN mouth:sg.
"The first fish that you catch, open its mouth ..." (Mt 17:27, 1996)
```

```
... li pu nar ye m zaŋ Zugsob la tisi m paŋ si'a la n tum ne sutoogo.

... lì pō nār yé m̀ záŋ Zūg-sɔ́b lá ø tìsì m

... sinan neg.ind be.necessary that 1sg pick.up Head-one:sg art nz give 1sg.ob páŋ-sī'a lā n tóm nē sūň-tɔ́ɔgɔ̄ +ø.

power-indf.inan art cat work with heart-bitterness neg.

"... it's not necessary that I use the power which the Lord gave me in acting
```

with harshness." (2 Cor 13:10, 1996)

```
Yaname na mor sam si'a ane ye ya noŋ taaba.

Yānámì ø nà mōr sām-sí'a á nē yé yà nóŋ tāaba.

2PL NZ IRR have debt-INDF.INAN COP FOC that 2PL love each.other

"Any debt which you are to have is to love each other." (Rom 13:8, 1996)
```

Some cases are of the "subordinate interrogative clause" type described below:

```
Tiig wela bigisid lin a tisi'a.

Titg wélà ø bìgisid lín àň tí-sī'a.

Tree:sg fruit:PL cat show:IMPF 3INAN:NZ cop tree-INDF.INAN.

"It's the fruit of the tree that shows what tree it is." (Mt 12:33, 1996)
```

When an indefinite pronoun is itself the head of a relative clause it usually keeps the indefinite-specific sense of indefinite pronouns in other contexts 16.3.3 (the main exceptions are a sequence in Rev 2-3 of man nye so' la "the one I saw.") In the 1996 NT, out of 33 examples of s5'+ used in this way, 20 involve constructions where the relative clause is the complement of a verb of cognition, reporting, or perception. Relative clauses with indefinite pronouns as relatives are strongly preferred in clauses which correspond to what CGEL calls "subordinate interrogative clauses" (pp1070ff, pp972ff), and may be obligatory when such a clause follows a VPred as its complement and the pronoun is not the subject of the subordinate clause. Such cases account for the great majority of relative clauses with uncompounded indefinite pronouns:

```
o naan banin po'a kane si'is o la a so'
                                sī'ıs∙ó ø
    nāan bánī-n
                   pu'á-kànì
                                              lá ø àň sɔ̄'.
3AN then realise-dp woman-rel.sg touch 3AN.OB ART NZ COP INDF.AN.
"He would know what [kind of] woman it is who touched him" (Lk 7:39, 1996)
m na pa'ali ya on wen so'.
m ná pā'alı yá
                    źп
                          wĒn
                                    sō'.
1SG IRR teach 2PL.OB 3AN:NZ resemble INDF.AN.
"I will teach you what he is like." (Lk 6:47, 1996)
                               "I know who you are." (Lk 4:34, 1996)
M mi' fun a so'.
         fún
M mí¹
               àň sɔ̄'.
1SG know 2SG:NZ COP INDF.AN
Similarly, the 2016 Bible has
David da tum so' ye o bu'osi ban pu'a la an so'.
David dá từm sɔ̄'
                      yέ ò bū'esι ø báŋ
David TNS send INDF.AN that 3AN ask
                                   CAT understand
pu'ā
         lá ø àň
woman:sg art nz cop indf.an.
"David sent someone to ask and find out who the woman was." (2 Samuel 11:3)
```

```
... baŋi ba yaanamɛ an sieba
... báŋi bà yāa-námi ø àň sīəba
... understand 3PL ancestor-PL NZ COP INDF.PL
"... discover who their ancestors were." (Ezra 2:61)
```

Relative clauses headed by the independent inanimate indefinite pronoun $s\vec{r} \cdot \partial l^a$ are very frequent, and actually account for most occurrences of $s\vec{r} \cdot \partial l^a$ in the 1996 NT. The majority of examples (75 out of 130 in Matthew, Mark, Luke and John in the 1995 NT) again appear where either $s\vec{r} \cdot \partial l^a$ or the entire relative clause (or both) is the object or complement of a verb of cognition, reporting, or perception, and represents the (abstract, uncountable) information transmitted:

```
Mam mi' si'el ane ye, m daa ane zu'om ka yu'un nyet.
Mán mī'
            sī'əl
                    á nē yē, m̀ dāa á nē zū'em, kà yū'υn ňyēt.
1SG:NZ know INDF.INAN COP FOC that, 1SG TNS COP FOC blind:SG, and after see:IPFV.
"What I know is, that I was blind and now I see." (In 9:25, 1996)
Kem yeli Joon yanam wum ka nye si'el.
Kèm ø yēli ø
                      Joon yānám ø wòm kà ňyē sī əl.
Go:IMP CAT say 2PL.SUB John 2PL
                                   NZ hear and see INDF.INAN.
"Go and tell John what you have heard and seen." (Mt 11:4, 1996)
Ya ban man nin si'el laa?
               mán nìŋ sīˈəl
Yà bán
                                 láa +ø?
2PL understand 1SG:NZ do INDF.INAN ART CQ?
"Do you understand what I have done?" (In 13:12, 1996)
```

Of the remaining 55 examples, 22 have $s\vec{r} \cdot \partial l^a$ in a locative meaning "where, whither"; neither the pronoun nor the relative clause have the locative particle in such cases:

```
Bozugo ya araza'ase be si'el la, ya potenda me bene anina.
Bɔ̄ zúgɔ´ yà àrazà'así ø bɛ̀ sī'əl
                                      lā, và pù-tèňda mé bè
                                                                 nέ àní nā.
Because 2PL treasure NZ EXIST INDF.INAN ART, 2PL mind:PL too EXIST FOC there.
"For where your treasure is, your mind is too." (Mt 6:21, 1996)
One ken likin zi' on ken si'ela.
Òηι
      kēη līkι-n
                       zī'
                                źп
                                       kēn
                                              sīˈəla
                                                       +ø,
REL.AN go darkness-loc neg.know 3an:nz go:IPFV INDF.INAN NEG.
"He who walks in darkness does not know where he is going." (In 12:35, 1996)
```

In the remaining 33 examples, $s\vec{r} \cdot \partial^{la}$ consistently has an abstract uncountable meaning, often shading into "whatever":

```
Kà o niŋ on tun'e si'el.

Kà ò níŋ śn tūň'e sī'əl.

And ЗАN do ЗАN:NZ be.able INDF.INAN.

"She has done what she could."(Mk 14:8,1996)

In 14 of these cases it is followed by wūsa+ "all":
```

```
M na tis uf fun bood si'el wusa.

M ná tīsı f fún bòod sī'əl wūsa.

1SG IRR give 2SG.OB 2SG:NZ want INDF.INAN all.

"I will give you anything you want." (Mk 6:23, 1996)
```

 $S\vec{r} \ni m^m$, 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 20.2.1. Accordingly, relative clauses with $s\vec{r} \ni m$ are, once again, common as objects of verbs of cognition, reporting, and perception:

```
Kristo da kpii ti yɛla la kɛ ka ti baŋ nɔŋilim an si'em.

Kristo ø dà kpìi tì yɛ̃lá lā kɛ́ kà tì báŋ nòŋılím ø àň sī'əm.

Christ nz tns die lpl about art cause and lpl realise love nz cop indf.adv

"Christ dying for us makes us understand what love is like." (1 Jn 3:16)
```

The article $l\bar{a}^{+/}$ has its usual function with $s\bar{r} \ni m$ -relative clauses:

```
M mí mán nà nīŋ sī əm.

15G know 15G:NZ IRR do INDF.ADV.

"I know what to do."
```

```
\dot{M} mi' m\acute{a}n n\grave{a} n\ddot{i}n s\ddot{i} \ni m l\ddot{a}.
1SG know 1SG:NZ IRR do 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 $s\bar{r} \ni m$ and past tense marking have $l\bar{a}^{+/}$; 75% lacking $l\bar{a}^{+/}$ have irrealis mood. Cf the two standing expressions

```
ón bòɔd sr̄əm "as he wishes"

3AN:NZ want INDF.ADV

lín àň sr̄əm lā "as things are"

3INAN:NZ COP INDF.ADV ART
```

 $Y \grave{\epsilon} I^{\epsilon}$ "say, tell" tends to take a $s\bar{r} \ni m$ -relative clause with $l\bar{a}$ in its sense of "say, tell how something is" and without $l\bar{a}$ in the sense "say how to do something":

```
Bà yèl·ō ø bán nìŋ sī əm lā.

3PL say 3AN.OB 3PL:NZ do INDF.ADV ART

"They told him what they'd done"

Bà nà yēlı f fún nà nīŋ sī əm.

3PL IRR tell 2SG.OB 2SG:NZ IRR do INDF.ADV.

"They'll tell you what to do."
```

 $P\dot{a}'al^{\epsilon}$ "teach, inform", surprisingly, typically takes a relative clause object without $l\bar{a}$:

```
Bà pà'al·ō ø bán nìŋ sī'əm.

3PL inform 3AN.OB 3PL:NZ do INDF.ADV.

"They informed him of what they'd done."
```

Other verbs taking a *sī'əm*-relative clause as an object are

Gàad^ɛ "pass, surpass" in comparing actions:

```
Mam tum bεdegu gaad ban tum si'em la.

Mām túm bέdugū ø gáàd bán từm sī'əm lā.

1SG.CNTR work much CAT pass 3PL:NZ work INDF.ADV ART

"I've worked much harder than (how) they have." (2 Cor 11:23)
```

 $Gb\bar{a}\bar{n}'e^{+/}$ "catch" is used with a $s\bar{r} \ni m$ -clause idiomatically for "decide what to do":

```
M gbáň'e mán nà nīŋ sī'əm.1SG seize 1SG:NZ IRR do INDF.ADV."I've decided what to do."
```

With verbs of doing a *sī'əm*-relative clause can be a manner-adverb:

```
Bà nìn 5n yèlı 5\bar{a} 5\bar{l} 9m 1\bar{a}.

3PL do 3AN:NZ tell 3PL.OB INDF.ADV ART.

"They did as he'd told them."
```

Like other AdvPs *sī'əm*-relative clauses can be verb subjects:

```
Man noni ya si'em la ane bedego.

Mán nònı yā sī'əm lā á nē bédvg\bar{v}.

15G:NZ love 2PL.OB INDF.ADV ART COP FOC much.

"How much I love you, is a lot." (2 Cor 7:3, 1976)
```

 $S\bar{r} \ni m$ -relative clauses occur often as objects of $w\bar{v}v$ "like", $w\bar{\varepsilon}n^{\mathsf{na}/}$ "resemble"

```
    Ò zòt wōv bóŋù ø zòt sī əm lā.
    3AN run:IPFV like donkey:SG NZ run:IPFV INDF.ADV ART
    "He runs like a donkey (runs.)"
```

...ka ya na kɛ ka nidib dɔl man wvv ziingba'adibi gban'ad zimi si'em la.
...kà yà ná kɛ́ kà nīdıb dɔl mān wvv zīin-gbáň'adìb ø
...and 3PL IRR cause and person:PL follow 1SG.CNTR like fish-catcher:PL NZ
gbāň'ad zīmí sī'əm lā.
catch:IPFV fish:PL INDF.ADV ART
"... you will make people follow me like fishermen catch fish." (Mt 4:19)

 $H\bar{a}l(la)$ $n\bar{\epsilon}$ "although", alongside its use with absolute clauses 28.1.2 can take a $s\bar{l}$ ∂m -relative clause in the sense "despite how...":

```
hali nɛ man daa sɔbi tisi ya si'em la
hālí nɛ̄ mán dāa sɔ̄bı ø tísì yā sr̄əm lā
even with 1SG:NZ TNS write CAT give 2PL.OB INDF.ADV ART
"despite how I wrote to you" (2 Cor 7:12)
```

Indefinite pronouns as relatives may be omitted before ordinal expressions:

```
ka fun gban'e ziiŋ si'a yiiga la, fun ya'am o nɔɔr ...
kà fun gbān'e zīŋ-si'a yīigá lā, fun yá'àm ò nɔ̄ɔr ...
and 2sg:nz catch fish-indf.inan firstly art, 2sg.cntr open:imp 3an mouth:sg
"and the first fish you catch, open its mouth..."(Mt 17:27)
```

```
but Paul n sob gbauŋ yiiga daan n tis Korint dim la nwa.
```

```
Paul n sɔ̄b gbáun yīigá dāan n tís Korint dím lā ø n wá.
Paul nz write letter:sg firstly owner:sg cat give Corinth one.pl art cat this.
"This is the first letter which Paul wrote to the Corinthians." (NT heading)
```

Perhaps parallel, but with the deictic nwa^+ "this" instead of a determiner, is

```
Zugsəb yɛl ye, Hali nɛ man vve nwa...

Zūg-səb yɛl yē, Hālí nē mán vve nwá ...
head-one:sg say that even with 1sg:Nz be.alive this ...
"The Lord says: As I live .." (Rom 14:11)
```

COP breath-alive-new:SG individual.PL book:SG ART

28.2.3 Using relative pronouns

If the antecedent is the subject within a relative clause, or a premodifier of the subject, a relative pronoun must be used:

```
bànı zàb nà'ab lā "those who fought the chief"

REL.PL fight chief:sG ART

M ňyé dáu-kànı zàb nà'ab lā.

1sG see man-REL.SG fight chief:sG ART
"I saw the man who fought the chief."

nimbane yvda səb Pebil la gbauŋvn line an nyəvvpaal dim gbauŋ la nīn-bánì yūdá sāb Pē'-bíl lā gbáuŋō-n línì person-REL.PL name:PL write Lamb:sG ART book:sG-LOC REL.INAN àň ňyó-vō-páàl dím gbáuŋ lā
```

"those whose names are written in the Lamb's book of new life" (Rev 21:27)

A relative pronoun can also relativise a direct or indirect object, a complement or adjunct, or an antecedent extracted from a prepositional phrase or from a subordinate clause. The antecedent is preposed with $k\grave{a}$ and a resumptive pronoun is placed in the corresponding gap within the relative clause if it has been extracted from a phrase or clause, or is an indirect object. Occasionally there is a resumptive pronoun corresponding to a *human* direct object. There is no focus or foregrounding sense with $k\grave{a}$ -preposing in relative clauses; $k\grave{a}$ -preposing in subordinate clauses is seen in only this construction.

```
Gbaun kane ka Jerusalem kpeenmnam daa sob la nwa.
Gbàun-kànı kà Jerusalem kpéèňm-nàm dāa sɔ̄b lā ø ňwá.
Letter-REL.SG and Jerusalem elder-PL
                                        TNS write ART CAT this.
"This is the letter that the elders of Ierusalem wrote."
(heading, Acts 15:23, 1996)
nà'-kàn
           kà dāu
                       lā záb lā
chief-REL.SG and man:SG ART fight ART
"the chief whom the man fought"
bàn
      kà nà'ab
                 lā záb lā "those whom the chief fought."
REL.PL and chief:SG ART fight ART
m antu'a linε [1996 lin] ka ba mɔr na
                  kà bà m5r nā
m àntù'a lìni
1SG case REL.INAN and 3PL have hither
"the charge they are bringing against me" (Acts 25:11)
yeltəəd ayəpəi bane ka maliaknama ayəpəi mər la
vēl-tóòd
               àyźpże
                         bánì kà màliāk-námá àyópòe
matter-bitter:PL NUM:seven REL.PL 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-rel.sg and chief:sg art die art
"at the time the chief died"
niŋkanε [1996 niŋkan] ka ba gban'e ο la
nīn-kánì
             kà bà gbáň' o ø
person-REL.SG and 3PL seize
                              3AN.OB ART
"a person whom they have seized" (Acts 25:16) (human VP object)
One ka ba tis o ka li zu'oe, ba me mor puten'er ye o na lebis line zu'oe.
                                                   bà mè mòr
Òηι
      kà bà tís·ò ø
                          kà lì
                                     zú'e,
REL.AN and 3PL give 3AN.OB and 3INAN become.much, 3PL also have
              γέ ò nà lēbιs línì
pύ-tὲň'εr
                                        zù'e.
inside-mind:sg that 3AN IRR return REL.INAN become.much.
"Whom they have given much to, they expect he will return much." (Lk 12:48)
```

```
Búraa số dãa bế ànīa, ôn kà mãn néōn dãa túm lã.

Būrá-sɔ̄' dãa bɛ́ ànínā, òn kà mān nɛ̄ ɔ̄n dāa túm lā.

Man-INDF.AN TNS EXIST ADV:there, REL.AN and 1SG with 3AN TNS work:IPFV ART

"There was a man there whom I used to work with." ILK
```

```
ninkanε ka Na'ab Aretus kε ka o sv'oe Damaskus la
nīn-kánὶ kà nà'ab Aretus kέ kà ò sv̄'e Damaskus lā
person-rel.sg and king:sg Aretus cause and 3AN own Damascus ART
"the person whom King Aretus had caused to possess Damascus" (2 Cor 11:32)
```

```
nimbane ka ya ten'es ye ba ane tuongatib la
nīn-bánì kà yà tēň'es yé bà à nē túèn-gātíb lā
person-rel.pl and 2pl think that 3pl cop foc ahead-passer:pl art
"those whom you consider to be leaders" (Gal 2:6)
```

```
line [1996 lin] ka Kristo bood ye ti pian' la lìnı kà Kristo bóòd yé tì pịāň' lā REL.INAN and Christ want that 1PL speak ART "what Christ wishes us to say" (2 Cor 12:19)
```

If the antecedent is a predeterminer in an NP which is not the subject, that entire NP is $k\grave{a}$ -preposed, but obviously no resumptive pronoun is needed:

```
Samaritan nid (on buudi ka Jew dim kis)
Samaritan níd, àn būudí kà Jew dím kīs
Samaritan person:sg rel.an tribe:sg and Jew individual.PL hate
"a Samaritan, whose tribe the Jews hate" (Lk 10:33, 1996)
```

```
bikanε [1996 biig kan] pvvg ka o mɔr la
bì-kànι pύὺg kà ò mɔ̄r lā
child-REL.SG belly:SG and 3AN have ART
"the child which she is pregnant with" (Mt 1:20)
("child whose pregnancy she has")
```

In cases where either would be permissible, constructions with non-initial antecedents other than $s\vec{r} \cdot \partial l^a$ and $s\vec{r} \cdot \partial m^m$ are less common than those with relative pronouns and $k\dot{a}$, but the non-initial type is usual when the clause corresponds to an English "subordinate interrogative clause", and is then perhaps required if the pronoun is not the subject within its clause. However, antecedents *compounded* with indefinite pronouns need not be indefinite-specific, and the meanings can be parallel to those of clauses with relative pronouns 28.2.2.

Relative clauses with locative reference using relative pronouns, like those using indefinite pronouns, do not take the locative $n\bar{\iota}^{+/}$ 17.3:

```
yikan ka mam Paul be la yidaan

yī-kán kà mām Paul bέ lā yí-dáàn

house-REL.SG and 1SG.CNTR Paul EXIST ART house-owner:SG

"the owner of the house where I, Paul, am" (Rom 16:23, 1976)
```

28.2.4 Uncompounded antecedents

Written materials frequently show a human-reference NP followed by a relative clause introduced by $on\varepsilon$ or $ban\varepsilon$. Before $on\varepsilon$, the preceding word is never a cb, and with human-reference heads (as elsewhere 16.8 16.11.1.5) the construction is **appositional**. Unequivocally appositional cases are usually non-restrictive:

```
o sid one da be ne o la
ò sīd ónì dà bè né ò lā

3AN husband:SG REL.AN TNS EXIST with 3AN ART
"her husband, who was there with her" (Genesis 3:6)
```

In KB, appositional relative $on\varepsilon$ most often occurs after proper names. Relative pronouns cannot be compounded with coordinate structures, demonstratives, quantifiers $\underline{16.3.2}$ or locatives; such cases are not confined to human-reference, and are simply parallel in usage to compounded constructions:

```
Mam Paul ne Timoti bane an Yesu Kristo tumtumnib la sobid gbaun kana
                 Timoti bánì àň Yesu Kristo tým-tūmníb
Mām
        Paul nε̄
1SG.CNTR Paul with Timothy REL.PL COP Jesus Christ work-worker:PL
lā sɔ̄bɪd
              gbáun-kànā...
ART write: IPFV letter-DEM.DEI.SG ...
"I, Paul, and Timothy, servants of Jesus Christ, are writing this letter." (Phil 1:1)
sanlima laas ayɔpɔi linε ka Wina'am onε bε saŋa linε ka' bɛn la sυnpεεn
pε'εli ba la
sālıma láàs
               àyźpże
                          línì
                                  kà Wínà'am śnì
                                                      bὲ
aold
      vessel:PL NUM:seven REL.INAN and God
                                                REL.AN EXIST
sāŋá
       lìnı
                kā'
                        bēn
                                lā súň-péèn
                                                    pέ'εlì_bā
                                                                 Ιā
time:SG REL.INAN NEG.HAVE end:SG ART heart-whiteness fill
"the seven gold bowls filled with the anger of God who exists for time without
 end" (Rev 15:7)
```

```
kokor kana lini yi arazana ni la na
               línì
                               àrazánà ní lā
kùkɔr-kánā
                       νí
voice-dem.dei.sg rel.inan emerge sky:sg Loc art hither
"this voice which came from heaven" (2 Pet 1:18, 1976)
nimbane yuda sob Pebil la gbaunun line an nyovupaal dim gbaun la
nīn-bánì
            νūdá
                     sɔ̄b Pē'-bíl lā gbáunō-n
person-rel.pl name:pl write Lamb:sg art book:sg-loc rel.inan
àň ňyó-vū-páàl
                       dím
                                   gbáun lā
COP breath-alive-new:sg individual.PL book:sg ART
"those whose names are written in the Lamb's book of those with new life"
(Rev 21:27)
Ka Yesu ken Nazaret, ban da ugus o ten si'a la.
Kà Yesu kēn Nazaret bán dà ūg∪s·ó ø
                                                             Ιā.
                                                tèn-sī a
And Jesus go Nazareth 3PL:NZ TNS raise
                                         3AN.OB land-indf.inan art.
"And Jesus went to Nazareth, where he was raised." (Lk 4:16)
```

28.2.5 The article with relative clauses

With relative pronouns other than $s\vec{r} \ni m$ the function of the **article** after a relative clause is similar to its usage elsewhere <u>16.5</u>. Absence of the article after a relative clause with a relative pronoun does duty for what with nouns is expressed by indefinite postdeterminer pronouns.

```
Ōп
        รวิท
                          nē dáu-kànι sà kē
                                                          sú'ès
                     á
                                                   nā
                                                                    Ιā.
3AN.CNTR individual.SG COP FOC man-REL.SG TNS come hither yesterday ART
"That one's the man who came yesterday."
Dàp-bànı bòod yé bà nyée f
                                       kέ
                                             nā.
Man-Rel.PL want that 3PL see
                                2SG.OB come hither
"Some men who want to see you have come."
onε du'a nε Siig
                                "someone born of the Spirit" (In 3:8)
òηι
      du'à nε̄
                 Sīιg
REL.AN bear with spirit:SG
onε tumi m la na
                                "he who sent me hither" (Mk 9:37)
ònι
      từmi m
                   lā nā
                                 (\partial nl = REL.AN; contrast <math>\partial n 3SG:NZ)
REL.AN send 1SG.OB ART hither
```

29 Negation

29.1 Negation of clauses

Negation of clauses is achieved by using a negative particle in the VPred <u>19.5</u> along with a clause-final negative prosodic clitic <u>8.1</u>.

```
Ti pv bood ye dau kaŋa aan ti na'aba.

Tì pv̄ bóòd yē dáu-kàŋā áaň tì nà'abā ^+ø.

1PL NEG.IND want that man-DEM.DEI.SG COP 1PL king:SG NEG.

"We don't want this man to be our king." (Lk 19:14)
```

 $P\bar{v}$ negates the indicative mood, as above; imperative is negated with $d\bar{a}$:

```
Dìm n\bar{\varepsilon} W\bar{\iota}n, d\bar{a} t\acute{\upsilon}'às n\bar{\varepsilon} W\bar{\iota}nn\acute{\varepsilon} ^{+}\varnothing. Eat:IMP with God:sg, neg.IMP talk with God:sg neg. "Eat with God, don't talk with God."
```

The negative particle kv replaces the positive irrealis mood marker $n\dot{a}$:

```
Amaa man pian'ad la kv maligim gaad\epsilon.

Àmáa m pian'ad lā k\acute{v} māligim g\acute{a}ad\bar{\epsilon} ^{+}ø.

But 1sG speech ART NEG.IRR again pass NEG.

"But my words will not pass away. (Mt 24:35)
```

29.1.1 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 carry the independency-marking tone overlay 19.6.1.1.

Mìt (always imperative) "see that it doesn't happen that ..." is construed with a following subordinate $k\grave{a}$ -clause 26.1. In address to more than one person it may or may not have the usual postposed 2pl subject enclitic ya: $m\grave{t}\bar{t}$.

```
Mit ka ya maal ya tuumsuma nidib tuon ye ba gosi yaa.

Mìt kà yà máàl yà tùvm-sùma nīdıb túèn

NEG.LET.IMP and 2PL do 2PL deed-good:PL person:PL before

yé bà gōsí yáa +ø.

that 3PL look.at 2PL.OB NEG.

"See that you don't do your good deeds in front of people so they'll look at you." (Mt 6:1, 1976)
```

In KB, this word appears throughout as invariant *mid*, *without* a following negative clitic: *Mid ka ya maali ya tuum suma nidib tuon ye ba gos.*

Mit 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.

Mìtī ø zīrí nò-dí'əsìdιb bánì kε̄nní yà sā'an nā lā.

Beware 2PL.SUB lie mouth-receiver:PL REL.PL come:IPFV 2PL among hither ART.

"Beware of false prophets who come among you." (Mt 7:15, 1996)

 $Z\bar{\iota}^{+}$ "not know" normally replaces negative particle + $m\bar{\iota}$:

 $B \dot{v} g - b \bar{a} n' a d z \bar{\iota}'$ $y \bar{\epsilon} t \bar{\epsilon} g$ $t \acute{v} l \bar{a} + g$.

Donkey-rider:sg neg.know that ground:sg be.hot neg.

"He who rides a donkey does not know the ground is hot." (Proverb)

Instances of *mī* with negative particles do occur:

M biig Solomon anε dasaŋ , ka ρυ mi' wυυ lin nar si'em.

M bīig Solomon á nē dá-sāη, kà pō mī'i

1SG child:SG Solomon FOC COP young.man:SG, and NEG.IND know

wūυ lín nār sī əmm +ø.

how **3INAN:NZ** be.proper **INDF.ADV NEG**.

"My son Solomon is young, and does not know how things ought to be." (1 Chronicles 22:5)

A clause-final LF $zi'isig\epsilon$ appears in KB, NT (e.g. Lk 12:40); cf $k\grave{a}'asig\bar{\epsilon}$ below.

 $K\bar{a}'e^+$ "not be, not have" appears as $k\bar{a}'$ in close connexion with a following word 8.5.3. It is the negative to both "be" verbs, $\grave{a}e\check{n}^a$ "be something/somehow" and $b\grave{\epsilon}^+$ "be somewhere, exist" and also to $m\bar{\jmath}r^{a}$ "have." * $P\bar{\upsilon}$ $b\acute{\epsilon}$ is not found, but $p\bar{\upsilon}$ $m\bar{\jmath}r$ is quite common; $p\bar{\upsilon}$ $\acute{a}e\check{n}$ is rare but can be found in contrastive contexts like

Mānı \emptyset áň dụ'átà àmáa fūn $p\bar{v}$ áňyā $^+\emptyset$.

1SG.CNTR CAT COP doctor:SG but 2SG.CNTR NEG.IND COP NEG.

"I'm a doctor, but you're not."

Examples:

```
Dāu lā kā' dɔɔgō-n láa +ø.
```

Man:sg art neg.be room:sg-loc art neg.

"The man is not in the room."

Dāu lā kā' bīiga +ø.

Man:sg art neg. have child:sg neg.

"The man hasn't got a child."

 $D\bar{a}u$ $l\bar{a}$ $k\bar{a}'$ $n\dot{a}'ab\bar{a}$ $^+$ ø. "The man isn't a chief."

Man:sg art neg.be chief:sg neg.

 $D\bar{a}u$ $l\bar{a}$ $k\bar{a}$ 'e $+ \varphi$. "The man isn't there."

Man:sg art neg.be neg.

Dāu kā'e dɔ́ɔgū-n láa +ø.

Man:sg neg.be room:sg-loc art neg.

"There's no man in the room."

Pu̯'ā lā mór bīig àmáa dāu̯ lā kā'e +ø.

Woman:sg art have child:sg but man:sg art neg.have neg.

"The woman has a child but the man hasn't."

Κà'asıgε (LF always, as the word only appears clause finally) "not exist"

O $b\bar{i}ig$ $k\acute{a}$ 'as $ig\bar{\epsilon}$ $^{+}$ ø. "She has no child."

29.2 Negative raising

Negative raising occurs in a way generally analogous to negative raising in English. It appears in result clauses and in expressions of necessity and permission 26.1, but not in adnominal $k\grave{a}$ -clauses 26.2:

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

Lì pō nār yέ fò dí fò bā'-bîg pu̯'á Herodiasɛ +ø.

3INAN 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, 1996)

With purpose clauses, it occurs after $b \ni d^a$ "want", but not e.g. $y \not\in l^{\epsilon}$ "tell":

Ti pv bood ye dau kana aan ti na'aba.

```
Tì p\bar{v} b\dot{z} d\dot{a}u-k\dot{a}\eta\bar{a} d\dot{a}n tì n\dot{a}'ab\bar{a} +\phi.
```

1PL NEG.IND want that man-dem.dei.sg cop 1PL king:sg neg.

"We don't want this man to be our king." (Lk 19:14)

With content clauses, negative raising is found with some main verbs but not others, much as in English; thus it occurs following $t\bar{\epsilon}\check{n}'\epsilon s^{\epsilon/}$ "think":

Tiname sagidim aan o biis la, ti da ten'es ye Wina'am bellim nwene bada bane ka ninsaal nɔk sanlima bεε anzurifa bεε kuga, ten'esi maal nε o nu'usε. Tīnámì ø sādīgím áan ò bīis lā, tì dā tēň'εs yē Wínà'am 1PL NZ since COP 3AN child:PL ART 1PL NEG.IMP think that God bέllím wĒη nē bádà bànì kà nīn-sáàl nāk sālīma existence resemble with idol:PL REL.PL and person-smooth:sG take gold bēε ānzúrιfà bēε kūgá φ tēň'εsι φ máàl nέ ò nú'usē +ø. or silver or stone:PL CAT think CAT make with SAN 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)

It does not occur with $m\bar{n}^{+}$ "know", ban^{ϵ} "realise":

```
B \dot{\nu} \eta - b \bar{a} \check{n}' a d z \bar{\iota}' y \bar{\epsilon} t \bar{\epsilon} \eta t \acute{u} l \bar{a} + \sigma.
```

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 lεε pu ban ye li anε onε.

```
kà ò lée pū bán yé lì à nē ɔ̄ne +ø.
```

And san but neg.ind realise that sinan cop foc san.cntr neg.

"but she didn't realise it was him." (Jn 20:14)

It does not occur after existence verbs; so in constituent negation 29.4

```
Di len ka' fun yel si'el la zug, ka ti niŋ o yadda.
```

```
Lì lèm kā' fún yèl sī'əl lā zúg kà
```

3INAN again NEG.BE 2SG:NZ say INDF.INAN ART upon and

```
tì nín·ò ø yáddáa +ø.
```

1PL do 3AN.OB assent NEG.

[&]quot;It is no longer because of what you said that we believe in him." (In 4:42)

29.3 Position of the negative prosodic clitic

The negative prosodic clitic <u>8.1</u> normally appears at the end of the clause containing the negated verb, passing over all subordinate clauses:

```
Ti pv bood ye dau kaŋa aan ti na'aba.

Tì p\bar{v} bóòd y\bar{\varepsilon} dáu-kàŋā áaň tì nà'abā ^+ø.

1PL NEG.IND want that man-DEM.DEI.SG COP 1PL king:SG NEG.

"We don't want this man to be our king." (Lk 19:14)
```

To exclude a subordinate clause from the scope of negation in a construction which induces negative raising 29.2, the negative prosodic clitic must be placed *before* it:

```
Nidib be ka pu tum si'ela ye ba a popielim dim, ka kudun nin Wina'am
one ke ka tuumbe'ed dim lieb popielim dim o tuon la yadda.
         bέ
              kà pū
                                           +ø vέ bà áň
Nīdıb
                         tύm
                                   sī'əla
person:PL EXIST and NEG.IND work:IPFV INDF.INAN NEG that 3PL COP
pú-pìəlım
                dím.
                             kà kūdım nín Wínà'am
inside-whiteness individual.PL and ever
                                        do God
            kà tùvm-bē'ed dím
ónì
     kέ
                                          líàb
REL.AN cause and work-bad:PL individual.PL become
                                tùen lā váddā.
m)leía-úa
                dím
inside-whiteness individual.PL 3AN 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)
on nye ka Yesu pu pie o nu'use ka nyaan di la.
```

The negative clitic is dropped after \dot{n} -clauses containing a negative unless they are themselves clause final in the main clause, and before the article $l\bar{a}^{+/}$:

```
m bi'emnam banɛ pv bɔɔd ye m an na'abi sv'oe ba la m bì'əm-nàm bánì p\bar{v} bɔɔd yɛ m áň ná'abì p\bar{v} sv'v bā lā 1sg enemy-pl rel.pl neg.ind want that 1sg cop king:sg cat own 3pl.ob art "my enemies who do not want me to be king over them" (Lk 19:27)
```

Clauses with yà' "if" keep their own negative clitics:

```
Ba ya'a pv niŋ si'ela, o pv'vsim dɔɔg la na lieb zaalim.

Bà yá' pv níŋ sī'əla +ø, ò pù'vsim dɔɔg lā

3PL if NEG.IND do INDF.INAN NEG 3AN worship house:SG ART

ná līəb zāalím.

IRR become empty:ABSTR.

"If they don't do anything, her temple will become of no account." (Acts 19:27)
```

Apparent exceptions in the NT probably all involve $y\dot{a}$ '-clauses ending in words with final vowels or final -m, and do in fact end with a negative clitic.

With clauses with two VPs coordinated with $b\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon/k\bar{\nu}\nu$ "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 $b\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon/k\bar{\nu}\nu$ also.

29.4 Constituent negation

Clefting is the usual way of achieving constituent negation, using the patterns

```
Lì kā' X kà ... /Lì kā' X n ...
                                 "It's not X that ..."
                                 "There's no X that ..."
X ká'ẹ kà ... /X kā'ẹ n ...
Sɔ' kae na nyaŋi dɔl zugdaannam ayi'...
S5'
       kā'e ø ná ňyānı ø dɔl
                                        zūg-dáàn-nàm àyí ...
INDF.AN NEG.BE CAT IRR prevail CAT follow head-owner:PL NUM:two ...
"Nobody can serve two masters." (Mt 6:24)
Sogia so' kae' n tum ka yood o mena.
               kā'e n túm
                                     kà vɔɔd
                                                  ò mēná +ø.
Soldier-Indf.an neg.be cat work: IPFV and pay: IPFV 3AN self Neg.
"No soldier works and pays for himself." (1 Cor 9:7, 1976)
Ιì
      kā
             mān
                      bīig
                              k\grave{a} f\grave{v} n w \acute{\epsilon} \epsilon + \sigma.
3INAN NEG.BE 1SG.CNTR child:SG and 2SG beat NEG.
"It's not my child that you've beaten."
```

The particle $b\acute{a}a$ (Hausa $b\^{a}a$ "not exist") appears in $b\acute{a}a$ $b\~{l}a/a$ "not at all", $b\acute{a}a$ $y\={l}nn\'{l}$ "not one", which are both used with a negative VPred. $B\acute{a}a$ $y\={l}nn\'{l}$ can be used as a NP head, or as a postdependent.

```
Da tumi si'el baa bi'elaa.
```

Amaa ba pu nyani nye line tu'al baa yinne.

Àmáa bà $p\bar{v}$ $ny\bar{a}n_{\omega} \not o ny\bar{\varepsilon} l(n)$ $t\dot{v}'al$ [+ ϕ] báa $y\bar{\iota}nn\dot{\iota}$. But **3PL NEG.IND** prevail **CAT** find **REL.INAN** condemn [**NEG**] not one. "But they couldn't find anything condemning, not one thing." (Mt 26:60)

Ka nid baa yinne ρυ yεl ye on mɔr si'el la, onε su'oe lii.

INDF.INAN ART 3AN.CNTR CAT OWN 3INAN.OB NEG.

"Not one person said that what he had, he owned." (Acts 4:32)

Fυ du'adib baa yinne kae ka o yυ'υr buon alaa.

Fù d \bar{v} 'adıb báa y \bar{i} nní k \bar{a} 'é kà ò y \bar{v} 'vr búèn àláa $+ \varphi$. 2SG relative:PL not one NEG.BE and 3AN name:SG call:IPFV ADV:thus NEG. "Not one of your relatives is named thus." (Lk 1:61)

Relative clauses can be used for constituent negation:

Da mor noor yinne ne bane ka' yadda niŋidib la ye ya niŋ si'ela. Dā mōr nōor yīnní nē bánì kā' yáddā-niŋìdıb lā **NEG.IMP** have mouth:**SG** one with **REL.PL NEG.BE** assent-doer:**PL ART** yé yà níŋ sī'əla $^+$ ø. that **2PL** do **INDF.INAN NEG.**

[&]quot;Do not agree with those who are not believers to do anything." (2 Cor 6:14)

30 Information packaging

30.1 Focus

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."

A distinction is made 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 CGEL p1424, foregrounded elements in English need not be focussed.

Two syntactic devices in Kusaal relate to focus: subject focussing with catenator-n, and the use of the particle $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$. Clefting constructions with the clause linker $k\dot{a}$ and corresponding ellipted types relate to foregrounding rather than focus, or are motivated simply by ordering constraints.

Main clauses without any special syntactic marking of focus have ordinary focus on the predicate by default.

The usage of the **article** $l\bar{a}^{+/}$ <u>16.5</u> interacts with the focus mechanisms described below.

30.1.1 Subject focus with catenator-n

N-clefting uses a VP-chaining construction in the sense of a relative clause with the subject as antecedent, after a main clause with $L\hat{\iota}$ à $n\bar{\epsilon}$ "It is ..." The sense resembles that of the formally analogous "it-clefting" of English, foregrounding the clefted element and backgrounding the rest:

```
Ka dau mɛ pv sv'oe o mɛŋ niŋgbinaa. Li anɛ o pu'a sv'oe li.

Kà dāu mɛ pv sv'v ò mēŋ nín-gbīnáa +ø.

And man:sg also neg.ind own san self body-skin:pl neg.

Lì á nɛ ò pu'ā ø sv'v lī.

Sinan cop foc san wife cat own sinan.ob.

"And a husband, too, does not own his own body. It is his wife who owns it."

(1 Cor 7:4)
```

Like it-clefting in English (CGEL p1416) the construction has an implicature of exhaustiveness and exclusiveness: it is the wife (only), not the husband, who is the owner

The main clause may instead have a non-verbal predicator 22:

```
Anɔ'ɔn nwaa yisid nidib tvvmbɛ'ɛdi basida?
Ànɔ'ɔn ø ňwáa ø yīsıd nīdıb tvvm-bɛ̄'ɛdı ø básıdà +ø?
Who cat this cat expel:IPFV person:PL deed-bad:PL cat 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, with the rest of the clause introduced by n, phonologically identical to the VP catenator 8.2.2.2. The clause lacks independency marking but has independent tense marking, unlike a non-initial VP. (Compare tense marking in ellipted indirect commands 19.3.1.)

The meaning of this construction is *focus* rather than foregrounding:

```
Wáaf\dot{v} ø dúm\cdot \bar{o} ø. "A snake bit him." WK Snake:sg cat bite 3AN.OB.
```

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 $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ 30.1.2.

Focus rather than foregrounding is also demonstrated by the fact that **interrogative pronouns as subjects are always n-focussed**. As a subject $\grave{a}n\acute{b}$ ' $\grave{b}n$ "who" thus always appears as $\grave{a}n\acute{b}$ 'n [anɔ:nɪ] (always NT n0'n0, KB n0'n0.)

```
Ànɔʻɔnì ø kābırídà +ø?
Who cat ask.for.entry:IPFV co?
"Who is asking permission to enter?"
```

Clauses containing interrogative pronouns may not contain focus- $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$, 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 $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ in all its rôles is excluded from clauses which are n-focussed, with the corresponding VPred temporal distinctions present but unmarked, as in other cases of formal exclusion of the marker 30.1.2.1.1:

```
\dot{M} z\bar{u}gv o z\acute{a}b\grave{\iota}d. "My head is hurting." 
1SG head CAT fight: IPFV. (Reply to "Where is the pain?")
```

```
cf \dot{M} z\bar{u}g l\bar{a} p\dot{v}'allm n\bar{\epsilon}. "My head is hurting."

15G head ART damage: IPFV FOC. (Reply to "What's the matter with you?")
```

Accordingly, the ellipted construction with catenator-n after the subject represents focus, parallel to the use of $n\bar{\varepsilon}$ with other clause constituents.

30.1.2 VP constituent and VP focus with $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$

As a constituent-focus particle $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ has two distinct rôles, readily distinguishable by position: preceding a VP-constituent, $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ focusses that constituent, while VP-final $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ focusses the entire VP contrastively.

The focus particle is homophonous with the preposition $n\bar{\varepsilon}$ "with, and" and with the empty particle $n\bar{\varepsilon}$ which follows objects of comparisons when they do not have the article 18.1; on distinguishing constituent-focus $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ from the preposition see 20.4.

Greater difficulty arises over the distinction from the $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ which is part of the VPred 19.2^{10} , and which actually represents a specialised use of the same particle for temporal focus. The temporal marker is subject to the same formal constraints on appearance as the constituent focus marker, and $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ cannot appear twice in a clause in both constitutent and temporal focus senses. The temporal sense normally prevails wherever semantically and formally possible; otherwise, the particle is interpreted as constituent focus. When temporal $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ is excluded only by formal constraints, the different VPred meanings still appear but are unmarked.

30.1.2.1 Restrictions

30.1.2.1.1 Where $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ cannot appear at all

 $N\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ cannot appear in either constituent focus or temporal sense

- (a) if the subject has n-focus
- (b) in subordinate clauses other than content clauses
- (c) in content questions

 $N\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ may only occur *once* in a clause; this not necessarily in the *first* VP of a VP chain:

¹⁰⁾ In Dagbani, two different particles, mi and la, correspond to Kusaal $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$, but they are in complementary distribution with no meaning difference to shed light on $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$; together, they show much the same range of senses. Mampruli ni shares the initial n-of $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$, but in the related languages the corresponding particles mostly have m-: Dagbani mi, Mooré me, Nabit and Farefare $m\epsilon$; even Toende Kusaal has me.

but

and

but

```
Fu pu ma' n tis ninsaala, amaa fu ma' n tis ne Wina'am Siig Sun.
                                                   +ø, àmáa fù mà'
                  má' n tìs nīn-sáalā
      2SG NEG.IND lie CAT give person-smooth:SG NEG but 2SG lie
      n tís nē Wínà'am Sí-sòn...
      CAT give FOC God
                              Spirit-good:sg.
       "You have not lied to a human being, but you have lied to the Holy Spirit."
      (Acts 5:4, 1996)
      When n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/} marks constituent focus, VPred temporal distinctions are unmarked.
This constraint reveals that temporal n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/} is a specialised use of focus-n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}.
      Examples of exclusion of n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}:
      Exclusion with N-focussing of the subject:
                                        "My head is hurting/hurts." (No temporal n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/})
      M zūgv ø zábìd.
                                         Reply to "Where is the pain?"
      1SG head CAT fight: IPFV.
      Ànó'ənì ø dít
                             sá'abò
                                        +\alpha?
                CAT eat: IPFV porridge co?
      Who
      "Who eats/is eating millet porridge?" (No temporal n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/})
      Exclusion of n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/} in subordinate clauses:
      In \dot{n}-clauses:
                                        "She was a child."
      Ò dāa á nē bīig.
      3AN TNS COP FOC child:SG.
                                        "because she's a child"
      źп
              àň bīig
                           lā zúg
      3AN:NZ COP child:SG ART upon
      Μ ví
                                        "I come from Bawku." SB
                   nē Bók.
      1SG emerge FOC Bawku.
      Yadda ninir yitne labaar la wummug ni.
      Yàddā-nínìr yít
                                  nē lábāar lā wúmmùg ní.
      Assent-doing emerge: IPFV FOC news ART hearing LOC.
      "Faith comes from hearing the news." (Rom 10:17)
      Meeri one yi Magdala
                                        "Mary who came from Magdala"
      Meeri źnì
                             Magdala
                                         (Mk 16:9, 1996)
                    yī
      Mary REL.AN emerge Magdala
```

In adnominal *kà*-clauses:

```
\dot{M} dāa p\bar{v} ny\bar{\varepsilon} dāu lá k\dot{a} \dot{o} ány\bar{\varepsilon} ná'ab\bar{a} +\omega.

1SG TNS NEG.IND see man:SG ART and 3AN COP chief:SG NEG.

"I didn't see the man as a chief." not *k\dot{a} \dot{o} á n\bar{\varepsilon} ná'ab\bar{a}.
```

Contrast a main clause introduced by $k \grave{a} 25.3.2$, with temporal $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$:

```
Kà bà due keŋ. Ka ban ken la, Jesus gbisid ne.

Kà bà due ø kēŋ. Kà bán kēn lā, Jesus gbīsid nē.

And 3PL arise CAT go. And 3PL:NZ go:IMPF ART, Jesus sleep:IPFV FOC.

"So they started out. As they were travelling, Jesus was sleeping."

(Lk 8:22-23, 1976)
```

Exclusion of $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ in content questions: temporal $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$:

```
Вэ́
     kà fù kúesìda +ø?
                              "What are you selling/do you sell?"
What and 2SG sell: IPFV co?
Fù kúesìd bó
                               "What are you selling/do you sell?"
2SG sell: IPFV what co?
B5
     kà fù kúmmà +ø?
                              "Why are you crying/do you cry?"
What and 2SG cry:IPFV co?
Fù nínìd bó
                               "What are you doing/do you do?"
2SG do: IPFV what co?
Fù wá'e yáa
                              "Where are you going (just now)?"
2SG go where cq?
```

Exclusion of $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ in content questions: constituent-focus $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$:

```
Māmáň bó^+ø?"What am I?"ISG.CNTR COP what cq?"Who are you?"Fù áaň ànó'ɔnè ^+ø?"Who are you?"2SG COP who cq?"What do you want it with?"Fù bóòd n\bar{\epsilon} bó ^+ø?"What do you want it with?"2SG want with what cq?N\bar{\epsilon} must be interpreted as preposition (WK)
```

Focussing a constituent, thereby leaving temporal focus distinctions unmarked because $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+}$ cannot be used twice:

```
M pú'usìdī f
                                      "I'm greeting you."
                           nē.
      1SG greet:IPFV 2SG.OB FOC.
                                      "I'm greeting the chief."
      M ρύ'υsìd nē ná'àb
                                Ιā.
      1SG greet:IPFV FOC chief:SG ART.
          kùesıdī bá
                         nē.
                                      "She's selling them."
      3AN sell:IPFV 3PL.OB FOC.
           kùesid sūmma
but
      Ò
                                 lā nē.
       3AN sell: IPFV groundnut: PL ART FOC.
      "She sells/is selling the groundnuts." ("They're not free.")
      M pú'usìd ná'àb
                                      "I greet/am greeting the chief."
                             lā nē.
      1SG greet:IPFV chief:SG ART FOC.
```

30.1.2.1.2 Where $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ cannot be temporal

nē.

There is potential ambiguity between $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ as marking constituent focus or as temporal. The default interpretation is temporal, but this may be ruled out by the position of the particle, by incompatibility of mood or polarity, by passive use of the verb, by impossibility of a resultative reading of a perfective, by the absence of an explicit time marker with stative verbs, or by the fact that the subject has generic status.

Temporal use of $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ requires that it follow the verb word directly, with at most liaison enclitics intervening; if not, the relevant VPred distinctions are unmarked:

```
kùəsıdī_ bá
                                      "She's selling them." (Temporal)
      3AN sell:IPFV 3PL.OB FOC.
but
      Ò
           kùesid sūmma
                                 lā nē.
       3AN sell:IPFV groundnut:PL ART FOC.
      "She sells/is selling the groundnuts." (VP focussed: "They're not free.")
```

 $N\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ may only be used temporally if the VPred has positive polarity; if not, the relevant VPred distinctions are again unmarked:

```
    O zàbid. "He fights."
    O zàbid nē. "He's fighting."
    SAN fight:IPFV FOC.
    but O pō zábidā +ø. "He's not fighting"/"He doesn't fight."
    SAN NEG.IND fight:IPFV NEG.
```

The predicator must have indicative mood for temporal use of $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$. It is not clear if the relevant distinctions actually occur in the irrealis.

In direct commands $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ may occur only as the VP-final marker of contrastive focus on the entire VP <u>30.1.2.3</u>. It cannot be temporal or focus a constituent.

```
gàsid
                                         "She's looking."
                    nē.
      3AN look:IPFV FOC.
                                         "Look here!"
      G\delta s\epsilon m \epsilon m
      Look: IMP here.
but
      Gòsim nē.
                                         "Look!" ("Don't touch." WK)
      Look:IMP FOC.
                                         "She is quiet."
          à nē bāaňlím.
      3AN COP FOC quiet:ABSTR.
but
      Àň bāaňlím!
                                         "Be quiet!"
      COP quiet:ABSTR.
```

However, a following \grave{a} / \acute{a} "thus" imposes a continuous/progressive imperfective sense on the verb, in a similar sense to $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ with a dynamic imperfective 19.4.

Passive constructions $\underline{20.1.1}$ may only express punctual events, and are thus limited to perfective aspect and to dynamic imperfective in the propensity/habitual sense. Accordingly, the particle $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ can never be interpreted temporally with passives.

(All interpretations WK):

```
D\bar{a}k\acute{a} I\bar{a} z\acute{a}n\'{l} n\bar{\epsilon}. "The box is portable by hand." Box:sg ART carry.in.hands Foc. not "The box is being carried."
```

 $D\bar{a}k\acute{a}$ $l\bar{a}$ $z\hat{n}id$ $n\bar{\epsilon}$. "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 $D\bar{a}am l\bar{a} n\dot{u}\dot{u}d$ $n\bar{\epsilon}$. 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

Contrast the intransitive use of patientive ambitransitive verbs expressing changes of state 20.1:

 \dot{M} yớ $\dot{\gamma}$ d $n\bar{\epsilon}$ kớlì η $l\bar{a}$. "I'm closing the door."

1SG close: IPFV FOC door: SG ART.

K $\dot{\nu}$ lιη $l\bar{a}$ $y\acute{2}$ $\dot{2}$ d $n\bar{\epsilon}$. "The door is closing."

Door:sg art close:IPFV FOC.

 \dot{O} tùligid $n\bar{\varepsilon}$. "He's heating it up."

3AN heat.up:IPFV FOC.

Lì tòligid $n\bar{\epsilon}$. "It's heating up."

3INAN heat.up:IPFV FOC.

Lì $m\dot{a}'ad$ $n\bar{\epsilon}$. "It is getting cool" (ipfv of $m\bar{a}'e^{+/}$ "get cool")

3INAN get.cool:IPFV FOC.

but $L\tilde{\iota}$ mà'an $n\tilde{\epsilon}$. "It gets cooled." (contrastive focus on the VP)

3INAN cool: **IPFV FOC**. (ipfv of the causative $m\bar{a}^{\dagger}al^{\epsilon/}$ "cool" as passive)

A perfective form can only be interpreted as resultative if it expresses a change of state in the subject.

M dá' búŋ. "I've bought a donkey."

1SG buy donkey:**SG**. ("What have you done?")

```
M dá' nē búŋ.
I'I've bought a donkey."
IsG buy Foc donkey:sg.
("What have you bought?")
M pō dá' bùŋā +ø. "I haven't bought a donkey."
IsG NEG.IND buy donkey:sg NEG.
M pō dá' nē búŋā +ø.
IsG NEG.IND buy Foc donkey:sg NEG.
"I haven't bought a donkey." ("I bought something else.")
```

Note that assume-stance verbs do not express a change of state in the subject, because stance verbs are not stative <u>11.2.1</u>. Accordingly, the perfective of an assume-stance verb cannot accept a resultative reading:

```
Ò dìgil
             nē.
                                "He's laid it down." ("I thought he'd pick it up.")
зан lay.down Foc.
                                "He's lain down." DK: "Someone calls at your
   dìgın
             nē.
зан lie.down Foc.
                                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 zì'ən
                                "She's pregnant." (Not "She's stood still.")
              nē.
зам stand.still Foc.
```

With stative verbs, temporal $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ may only occur if there is an explicit time expression in the immediate context. If not, $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ must be interpreted as focussing the VP or a constituent:

```
O gìm. "She's short."
but O gìm nē. "He's short." ("I was expecting someone taller.")
3AN be.short FOC.
Lì zùlım. "It's deep."
3INAN be.deep.
```

```
but
      Lì
            zùlιm nē.
                                      "It's deep." (Focus on the verb.)
      3INAN be.deep FOC.
                                      "I have a wife."
      M mór pu'ā.
      1sg have wife:sg.
                                      "I have a woman."
but
          mór nε̄ pu'ā.
                                       (not "wife": implies an irregular liaison, WK)
```

The verb $\partial e \tilde{n}^a$ "be something/somehow" is characteristically followed by $n \tilde{\epsilon}^{+/}$ focussing its complement 21.2:

```
"He/she's a child."
Ò
     à n\bar{\varepsilon} bīig.
3AN COP FOC child:SG.
```

1SG have FOC woman:SG.

Stative verbs can be constrained to a temporary stative meaning if there is an explicit time-limiting constituent present in the clause: this may, however, be as little as a tense marker. (This requirement for an *explicit* marker of time in the clause to licence temporal $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ may be partly an artefact of acceptability judgments based on short isolated clauses.) The meaning is limitation of the state described by the verb to a particular time period, with a clear implication of contrast between the time referred to and other times when the state was not in effect:

```
"It's beautiful." (Focus on the verb.)
      Ιì
            vèn
      3INAN be.beautiful Foc.
but
      Nānnánā, lì
                      νèn
                                    nē.
                 3INAN be.beautiful Foc.
      Now.
      "Just now, it's beautiful."
      Sān-kán
                   Ιā.
                        Ιì
                             dāa zúlım
                                         nē.
      Time-dem.sg art, sinan the bedeep foc.
      "At that time, it was deep."
      Mù'ar
               lā dāa zúlìm nē.
                                       "The lake was deep."
                                       (Implying, "Now it's shallow." WK)
      Lake:sg art the bedeep foc.
      Lì
            dāa vén
                                       "It was beautiful."
                             nē.
      3INAN TNS be beautiful FOC.
                                       WK: "I gave you a cup, and it was OK then,
                                        but you've spoiled it."
```

```
Lì dāa būgus n\bar{\epsilon}. "It was soft." ("Now it isn't.") 
3INAN TNS be soft FOC.
```

Temporal interpretation of $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ is also forced when the following constituent does not permit focusing with $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ 30.1.2.1.3.

A generic subject is not semantically compatible with the temporal use of $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$:

```
N\bar{l}ig( )\check{n}bld n\bar{\epsilon} m\bar{b}od. "Cows eat grass." ("What do cows eat?") Cow:PL chew:IPFV FOC grass:PL.
```

A form like $n\bar{i}ig\ell$ 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 <u>16.5</u>. By context, pronoun subjects also can be generic or specific:

```
Bà \grave{o}\check{n}\check{b}\iota d n\bar{\varepsilon} m\bar{o}od. "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 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 so much generic as illustrative or exemplary:

```
Kukoma da zab taaba ason'e bi'ela yela.

Kùkòma dá zàb tāabá à-sɔ̄n̆'e biʾəlá yɛ̀la.

Leper:PL TNS fight each other PERS-better.than slightly about.

"Lepers once fought each other about who was a bit better." KSS p40
```

The particle $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ in its temporal sense is omitted in replying to polar questions or responding to questions by repeating the verb:

```
A: G\grave{\triangleright}sim! "Look!"

B: \grave{M} g\acute{\triangleright}s\grave{\wr}d! "I'm looking!"

A: F\grave{\triangleright} g\acute{\triangleright}s\grave{\wr}d "Are you looking?"

B: \grave{M} g\acute{\triangleright}s\grave{\wr}d! "I'm looking!"
```

This probably simply represents the cross-linguistically common phenomenon of ellipsis in declarative replies to questions 24.1.5.

30.1.2.1.3 Words which cannot be focussed with $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$

Certain words do not prevent focus- $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ from being used in the clause (unlike interrogative proforms 30.1.2.1.1), but cannot themselves be focussed with $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$. Words which behave like this include $s\dot{v}\eta\bar{a}^{+/}$ "good", $s\dot{v}m^{\rm m}$ "good", $b\bar{\epsilon}'\epsilon d^{\epsilon}$ "bad" $s\dot{\iota}da^{+}$ "truth" when used as adverbs, and the "two, three exactly" quantifier forms $\dot{a}y'\eta\bar{a}^{+/}$ $\dot{a}t\acute{a}\eta\bar{a}^{+/}$ 16.4.2.1. AdvPs formed by coordinating such words and NPs with these quantifiers as dependents share the same property.

```
Lì
     àň súnā.
                                "It's good."
3INAN COP good:ADV.
Lì
     àň súm.
                                "It's good."
3INAN COP good:ABSTR.
Lì
     àň bē'εd.
                                "It's bad."
3INAN COP bad: ABSTR.
Lì
                                "It's true."
     àň sídà.
3INAN COP truth.
[ve ka] o sariakadib a sum ne sida.
ò sàríyà-kādıb áň súm
3AN law-drive
                COP good: ABSTR with truth.
"His judgments are good and true. (Rev 19:2, 1976)
```

If $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ does occur before such constituents it must be interpreted temporally, limitating the state described to a particular time period, even with stative verbs and even if there is no explicit time marker in the clause (cf 30.1.2.1.2):

```
M mór bīisá àtáŋā.
15G have child:PL NUM:three.exactly.
"I've got exactly three children."
```

```
but \dot{M} mɔ́r nē bīisá àtánā.

15G 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."

```
Lì
       dāa áň súŋā.
                                  "It was good." WK
   3INAN TNS COP good:ADV.
   Lì
       dāa á nē sύηā.
                                  "At the time, it was good." WK
   3INAN TNS COP FOC good:ADV.
= Sān-kán
               lā. lì
                        dāa á
                               nē súnā.
   Time-dem.sg art, 3inan ths cop foc good:adv.
   Lì
        à nĒ súŋā.
                                  "It's good." ("Now; it wasn't before." WK)
   3INAN COP FOC good:ADV.
   Emphatics 30.6 do not behave in this way:
   bozugo o ane fo biig men.
   bō zúgó ò
               à né fù bīig
   Because 3AN COP FOC 2SG child:SG also.
   "Because he is your child too." (Genesis 21:13)
```

30.1.2.2 VP constituent focus

(See <u>30.1.2.1.2</u> for the constituent-focus sense of $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ in the examples below.) 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 <u>30.1</u>:

```
M dá' nē bύη.
                               "I've bought a donkey."
1SG buy FOC donkey:SG.
                               ("What have you bought?")
                               "Cows eat arass."
Νīigί
       òňbıd
                 nē mɔ̄ɔd.
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:
Ďα M
          dá' nε̄ búnā
1SG NEG.IND buy FOC donkey NEG.
"I haven't bought a donkey."
                               ("I bought something else.")
```

Definite objects/predicative complements normally have old-information status, making the ordinary-focus sense of "unpredictable or pragmatically non-recoverable" unlikely; hence $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ before a definite object is usually temporal:

```
Nīigí lā ɔ́ňbìd nē mɔ̄ɔd lā.
```

Cow:PL ART chew:IPFV FOC grass:PL ART.

Nā'-síəbà óňbìd nē mɔ̄ɔd lā.

Cow-indf.pl chew:ipfv foc grass:pl art.

If focus does occur with old-information arguments, it is **contrastive**.

```
Fu pu ma' n tis ninsaala, amaa fu ma' n tis ne Wina'am Siig Suŋ. Fù pō má' n tìs nīn-sáalā ^+ø, àmáa fù mà' 2SG NEG.IND lie CAT give person-smooth:SG NEG but 2SG lie n tís nē Wínà'am Sí-sùŋ.. CAT give FOC God Spirit-good:SG.

"You have not lied to a human being, but to the Holy Spirit." (Acts 5:4, 1996)
```

Line ka ba'amaannib maanne tisid bada la, ba maanne tisid**ne** kikiris, ka pu maanne tisid Wina'am.

```
Lìni kà bà'-māannib máànni ø tísìd bádà lā,

REL.INAN and idol-sacrifice:PL sacrifice:IPFV CAT give:IPFV idol:PL ART

bà màanni ø tísìd nē kíkīris kà pō máànni

3PL sacrifice:IPFV CAT give:IPFV FOC fairy:PL and NEG.IND sacrifice:IPFV

ø tísìd Wínā'amm +ø.

CAT give:IPFV God NEG.
```

"That which idol-worshippers sacrifice to an idol, they sacrifice to *demons* and they don't sacrifice to God." (1 Cor 10:20)

The predicative complement of $\grave{a} \not\in \check{n}^a$ "be something/somehow" in its ascriptive sense 21.2 is non-referring and almost prototypically "unpredictable or pragmatically non-recoverable", and therefore is naturally preceded by $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ for **ordinary** focus:

```
Ò à nē bīig. "She is a child."
3AN COP FOC child:sG.
Ò dāa á nē bīig. "She was a child."
3AN TNS COP FOC child:sG.
Ò à nē nīn-súŋ. "She's a good person."
3AN COP FOC human-good:sG.
```

[&]quot;The cows are eating the grass."

[&]quot;Some cows are eating the grass."

```
Tood cop foc thing-good:sg.

Dīlb á nē būn-súŋ.

Food is a good thing."

Food is a good thing."

She is quiet."

She is quiet."

It's empty."

It's empty."

Lì à nē zāalím.

Lì à nē būgvsígā.

"It's soft."

SINAN 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 dí'əmìd nε dúaň gbínnī-n. Bà zà'mιsιd nε

Child:PL ART play:IPFV FOC dawadawa:sG base:sG-LOC. 3PL learn:IPFV FOC

būla wá'àb. Bà à nε À-Pām bíis.

shoot:PL dance:sG. 3PL COP FOC PERS-Apam child:PL.

"The children are playing under a dawadawa tree. They are learning the dance
```

of the young shoots. 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 bumbuuda banɛ lu gɔn'ɔs suugin la anɛ banɛ wum pian'ad la, ka... Kà būn-búudà bànı lù gòň'ɔs súugū-n lā á nĒ And thing-planting:PL REL.PL fall thorn:PL among-LOC ART COP FOC bánì wùm piaň'ad lā, kà REL.PL hear 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 CGEL p402):

```
O yv'vr na anɛ Joon. "His name will be John." (Lk 1:60) 
Ò y\bar{v}'vr ná ā n\bar{\epsilon} Joon. 
3AN name:sg irr cop foc John.
```

As with objects, when the complement falls under the scope of the negative (here with the negative verb $k\bar{a}'e^+$ "not be") focus is difficult to interpret in the "ordinary" sense, so that if $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ is present at all the result is normally **contrastive**:

```
M á nē du'átà. "I'm a doctor."
1SG COP FOC doctor:SG.
M kā' du'átāa +ø. "I'm not a doctor."
1SG NEG.BE doctor:SG NEG.
M kā' nē du'átāa +ø. "I'm not a doctor." ("I'm a lab assistant.")
1SG NEG.BE FOC doctor:SG NEG.
```

Focus on a **locative complement** 20.3 typically involves a definite predeterminer of a locative postposition or an old-information place name, but the fact that a referent is at a known place is often new information resulting in **ordinary** focus on the locative. The head of a locative AdvP is the locative particle, with a zero allomorph for Kusaal place names 17.3; like other postpositions, it is not itself referential even though it has a predeterminer. (Cf locative premodifiers 16.10.2.3.)

```
lā bέ nē dó-kàŋā
                                lā pύυgō-n.
Dāu
Man:sg art exist foc hut-dem.dei.sg art inside-loc.
"The man is inside that hut." (Reply to "Where is that man?")
Mam bene moogin.
                              "I'm in the bush." BNY p8
Mām
        bέ nē mɔɔgu-n.
1SG.CNTR EXIST FOC grass:SG-LOC.
Μ̈ yí
           nē Bók.
                              "I come from Bawku." SB
1sg emerge Foc Bawku.
Yadda niŋir yitnɛ labaar la wummug ni.
Yàddā-nínìr vít
                        nē lábāar lā wύmmòg ní.
Assent-doing emerge: IPFV FOC news ART hearing LOC.
"Faith comes from hearing the news." (Rom 10:17)
```

Contrast the existential use of $b\dot{\epsilon}^+$, where the locative is a clause adjunct:

```
Dàu̞-sɔ̄' bέ dɔ́-kànā lā pύvgū-n.

Man-INDF.AN EXIST hut-DEM.DEI.SG ART inside:SG LOC.

"There is a certain man in that hut."
```

There are few examples of $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ -focus on an adjunct in my data; one is

Tì dít sā'ab nē záàm. "We eat millet porridge in the evening."

1PL eat:IPFV porridge Foc evening. ("When do you eat porridge?")

30.1.2.3 VP focus

When $n\bar{\varepsilon}$ is placed finally in the VP and cannot be interpreted as temporal, 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 (cf 30.1.2.1.2 for the constituent-focus sense of $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ here):

```
Gòsim n\bar{\varepsilon}. "Look!" ("Don't touch." WK)
Look:IMP FOC.
```

 \dot{O} $k\dot{u}$ estimates summa $l\bar{a}$ $n\bar{\epsilon}$.

3AN sell:IPFV groundnut:PL ART FOC.

"She sells/is selling the groundnuts." ("They're not free.")

O gim $n\bar{\varepsilon}$. "He's short." ("I was expecting someone taller.")

Lì zùlım $n\bar{\varepsilon}$. "It's deep." 3INAN be.deep FOC.

 \dot{M} bɔʻɔdī f $n\bar{\epsilon}$. "I really love you." 1SG want 2SG.OB FOC.

 \dot{O} dìgul $n\bar{\epsilon}$. "He's laid it down." ("I thought he'd pick it up.") 3AN lay.down Foc.

 \dot{O} dìgin $n\bar{\epsilon}$. "He's lain down."

зан lie.down **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 n $\bar{\epsilon}$. "It's lost."

And **3INAN** get.lost **Foc**. Contradicting "someone hid it." <u>25.3.2</u>

```
Dāká lā záňl
                         nē.
                                "The box gets carried in the hands."
Box:sg art carry.in.hands foc.
                                ("Not on your head.")
Dāká lā zîid
                             nē.
Box:sg art carry.on.head:IPFV FOC.
"The box is for carrying on the head." ("Not carrying in the hands.")
Dāam lā núùd
                    nē.
                                "The beer is for drinking."
Beer ART drink: IPFV FOC.
                                ("Not washing with!")
Lì
     mà'an
                  nē.
                                "It gets cooled."
3INAN get.cool:IPFV FOC.
                                ("Not heated!")
```

An idiomatic use (marking a euphemism) is seen in

Ò zì'ən nē. "She's pregnant." (Not "She has stood still.") **3AN** stand.still **FOC**.

30.2 Clefting and preposing with kà

 $K\dot{a}$ -clefting arises from constructions with adnominal $k\dot{a}$ -clauses 26.2 in a way similar to the development of *n*-clefting from VP chaining. Once again, there is an implicature of exhaustiveness and exclusiveness, here made explicit by mà'aa "only."

```
Asee line an be'ed ma'aa ka m na tun'e nin.
Àsέε línì
             àň bē'ed má'àa kà mì ná tūň'e ø nín.
Only rel.inan cop bad only and 1sg irr be.able cat do.
"It's only that which is bad that I can do." (Rom 7:21)
```

The preposed element may be extracted from a subordinate clause:

```
Li ang ya taaba bang pu'usid Wina'am ka li nar ka ya kad saria.
        nέ yà tāaba bánì pỳ'υsιd Wínà'am kà
3INAN COP FOC 2PL fellow rel.pl greet:IPFV God
                                               and 3INAN must
kà yà kád sàríyà.
and 2PL drive judgment.
"It is your fellow-worshippers of God whom you must judge." (1 Cor 5:12)
```

The main clause may again have a non-verbal predicator:

```
Jnı ø lá kà fù dāa ňyēt.

3AN.CNTR CAT that and 2SG TNS see:IPFV.

"This is he whom you saw." WK

Ànɔʻɔnì ø ňwá kà tì ňyētá +ø?

Who cat this and IPL see:IPFV cq?

"Who is this that we can see?"
```

Bōɔ ø lá kà m̀ nyētá +ø? What cat 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 20.1.

```
B\acute{o} k\grave{a} f\grave{v} k\acute{u}es\grave{c}da +\emptyset? "What are you selling?" What and 2sG sell:IPFV cQ?
```

Unlike the construction with n, the effect of $k\grave{a}$ -preposing remains foregrounding, not focus. Preposing with $k\grave{a}$ is compatible both with n-focus and with the occurrence of the focus particle $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$:

Dinzug ka mam Paul n be sarega ni Yesu Kiristo zug yanam buudbane ka' Jew dim la yela.

Dìn-zúg kà mām Paul n b ϵ sār ι gá n ι Yesu Kiristo zúg yānám That-upon and 1sg.cntr Paul cat exist prison:sg loc Jesus Christ upon 2PL.cntr búùd-bàn ι kā' Jew dím lā y ϵ là.

tribe-rel.pl 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, 1996)

Kà-foregrounding of VP objects containing interrogative pronouns is very common. There is no syntactic movement rule for interrogative pronouns/proforms:

```
Bùgóm lā yít yáa ní ná +ø?
Fire ART emerge:IPFV where Loc hither co?
"Where is the light coming from?"
```

but $b\bar{\jmath}$ "what?" is very often preposed with $k\dot{a}$, as in the example above; preposing is required if the sense is "why?" rather than "what?":

```
Bố kà fù kứmmà? "Why are you crying?" cf *Fù kứm bố? *"What are you crying?"
```

This construction with $b \circ k \grave{a}$... is by far the most frequent way of rendering "Why?", and most cases of $b \circ k \grave{a}$... have this meaning, but foregrounding $b \circ b$ in the normal sense "What?" occurs too:

```
Bo ka ti na nine? "What are we going to do?" (Acts 21:22) Bó kà tì ná nìne + \emptyset? What and 1PL IRR do co?
```

Other queried NP objects in content questions are often preposed with kà:

```
N\bar{u}'-bíbisá àlá kà f\dot{v} ny\bar{e}tá +\emptyset? 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 anɔ'ɔnam ka Wina'am svnf da pɛlig nɛ ba yvma piisnaasi la?
Kà ànɔʻɔn-nàm kà Winà'am sunf dá pɛlig nɛ bà
And who-pl and God heart:sg tns go.white with 3pl
yòma pīs nāasi lá +ø?
year:pl tens four Art co?
"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 $k\grave{a}$, 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 bóàd bó + \emptyset? "What do you want?" 25G want what co?
```

Examples do occur:

```
Ningbin bo buudi ka ba na ti mora?

nìn-gbīn bó-būudí kà bà ná tī mōrá +ø?

Body-skin:sg what-sort and splir afterwards have co?

"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 áň bɔ́ ^+ø? "What am I?"

15G.CNTR COP what co?

Kà fù áaň ànɔ́'ɔnɛ̂ ^+ø? "Then who are you?"

And 25G COP who co?
```

Adjuncts are often preposed with $k\dot{a}$; there is probably a contrast between foregrounding with $k\dot{a}$ and focusing with $n\bar{\epsilon}$:

```
Ňwādısá_ àtáň' kà fù ná lēb nā.
```

Month:PL NUM:three and 2SG IRR return hither.

"You're to come back in three months."

Instructions: not a reply to a question; excludes any other time.

```
Tì dít sā'ab nē záàm.
```

1PL eat:**IPFV** porridge **FOC** evening.

"We eat millet porridge in the evening."

Reply to "When do you eat porridge?"

 $K\grave{a}$ -preposed elements cannot be clause subjects, as is to be expected if the construction has arisen from ellipsis, because an adnominal $k\grave{a}$ -clause normally has a different subject from its main clause.

The only structure other than a NP (including \dot{n} -clauses) or AdvP that I have found preposed with $k\dot{a}$ is $w\bar{v}v$ "like" + object:

```
Wūυ búŋ né kà ò zót.
```

Like donkey:sg like and 3AN run:IPFV.

"It's like a donkey that he runs."

```
*Né m̀ nú'ùg kà m̀ sī'ıs.

*With 1sg hand:sg and 1sg touch.

attempted for "With my hand, I touched it."
```

 $K\grave{a}$ -preposing is often simply a means of bringing a constituent before the clause subject with **no implication of foregrounding** at all. Purely formal $k\grave{a}$ -preposing is a feature of many relative clauses 28.2.3. Manner, place and reason adjuncts can *only* precede the subject by $k\grave{a}$ -preposing, and absolute clauses as adjuncts must often precede the main clause subject so that constituent order parallels event order 19.2.1 23.1 28.1.1:

```
Mán ňwὲ' dāu lā zúg kà police gbáň'a m.

1sg:Nz hit man:sg ART upon and police seize 1sg.ob.
"Because I hit the man, the police caught me." ILK
```

30.3 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 yidigya bεdegv. "You are very much mistaken." (Mk 12:27)
Yà yidìg yā bέdvgū.
2PL go.astray PFV much.
M ρύ'ὺs yā bέdvgū. "Thank you very much."
1SG greet PFV much.
```

NP objects (other than pronouns) can be extraposed; the sense seems to be that the extraposed element is contrary to expectation:

```
    Ö ňyè yā ná'àb lā. "He's seen the chief." ("of all people!")
    3AN see PFV chief:sg ART.
    Ò dà' yā múi. "She's bought rice." ("of all things!")
    3AN buy PFV rice.
```

Contrast the effects of focusing with $n\bar{\varepsilon}$, and foregrounding by $k\dot{a}$ -clefting:

```
Ò dà' nē múi."She's bought rice."3AN buy Foc rice.(reply to "What did she buy?")
```

Lì à $n\bar{\varepsilon}$ $m\dot{u}_{j}$ kà \dot{o} $d\dot{a}'$. "It's rice that she's bought." ("not millet.") **3INAN COP FOC** rice and **3AN** buy.

Leftward dislocation of objects and complements on the basis of **weight**, without clefting or $k\grave{a}$ -preposing, occurs in e.g.

```
Wilkane bee m ni ka pv wanna, m Ba' nwaadi li ne [sic: 1996 n] basid. Wil-kànı bèe m ní kà pv wénnā + \emptyset, Branch-rel.sg exist 1sg loc and neg.ind bear.fruit:ipvf neg. m Bā' nwá'adī lí n básìd.

1sg father:sg cut:ipfv 3inan.ob cat 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'oe, ba me mor puten'er ye o na lebis line zu'oe. 

One ka ba tis o ka li zu'oe, ba me mòr kà lì zú'e, bà mè mòr rel.an and 3pl give 3an.ob and 3inan become.much, 3pl also have pú-tèň'er yé ò nà lēbis línì zù'e. 

inside-mind:sg that 3an irr return rel.inan become.much. 

"Whom they have given much to, they expect 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 gbáun-kànā Wínà'am nídìb bànı àň 1sg.cntr Paul ... give:IPFV book-dem.dei.sg God person:Pl rel.pl cop sídà dím kà áň yīnní nē Jesus Christ Efesus ténī-n 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; KB ...gbaun kana tisid Wina'am...)

30.4 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 $l\bar{a}^{+/}$ typically reflects an indefinite but *specific* rather than generic reference <u>16.5</u>. The NP head may (but need not) be followed by an indefinite postdeterminer pronoun or postdetermining number.

The verb $b\dot{\varepsilon}^+$ "be somewhere/exist" is frequent in presentational clauses, often with a following VP-chaining construction 23 or adnominal $k\dot{a}$ -clause 26.2.

```
Dau da be mori o po'a yimmir
Dāu
       dá bè jø mōrí jò
                             pu'à-yīmmír
Man:sg the exist cat have san wife-single:sg
"There was a man who had one wife." KSS p26
Pu'a sɔ' da bε mɔr o bipuŋ ka kikirig dɔl o.
                  dá bè jø mōr ò bī-púŋ
Kà pu'à-sɔ̄'
                                                   kà kìkīrıg d5ll·ó ø.
And woman-INDF.AN TNS EXIST CAT have 3AN child-girl:sg and fairy:sg follow 3AN.OB.
"There was a woman whose daughter was oppressed by a devil." (Mk 7:25)
                              "There were once three men." KSS p16
Dapa atan' n da be.
Dāpá_ àtáň'
                n dá bὲ.
Man:PL NUM:three CAT 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.

```
Kà dau daa zin'i Listra ni ka pu tun'e kenna.

Kà dāu dāa zíň'i Listra ní kà pū tūň'e ø kēnná †ø.

And man:sg tns sit Lystra loc and neg.ind be.able cat go:ipfv neg.

"There was a man in Lystra who could not walk." (Acts 14:8, 1996)

Anina ka o nyɛ dau ka o yv'vr buon Aneas.

Àníná kà ò ňyē dáu kà ò yō'vr búèn Aneas.

ADV: there and 3AN see man:sg and 3AN name:sg call:ipfv Aeneas.

"There he found a man whose name was Aeneas." (Acts 9:33)
```

Change of polarity within a VP chain, which is otherwise unusual, may occur with presentational constructions:

```
Ya sieba bɛ kpɛla kv kpii asɛɛ ba ti nyɛ Wina'am na'am la. Yà sīəba bɛ́ kpɛlá ø kv kpīi ^+ø, àsɛ́ɛ bà nà tì 2PL INDF.PL EXIST here CAT NEG.IRR die NEG, except 3PL IRR afterwards ňyɛ̂ Wínà'am ná'àm lā. see God kingdom ART. There are some of you here who will not die before they see the kingdom of God." (Lk 9:27)
```

30.5 Free and bound personal pronouns

There are environments in which only free pronoun *forms* are possible, and in which the forms are simply allomorphs of the bound pronouns:

Isolation: $M\acute{a}n\grave{\epsilon}$?"Me?"Apposition: $m\bar{a}n$ Paul"I, Paul"Coordination: $t\bar{\iota}n\acute{a}m$ $n\bar{\epsilon}$ $f\bar{\upsilon}n$ "us and you"Before relative pronouns: $f\bar{\upsilon}n$ -kánì ..."you, who ..."

and for some speakers, the 2nd persons before direct commands after a $y\grave{a}'$ -clause 27. In other contexts, the choice of a free pronoun over bound implies *contrast*. For the special case of **logophoric** use see 26.3.2.

A personal pronoun which is focussed <u>30.1</u> must be contrastive:

```
Mane an konbkem sun la.

Mānı ø áň kóňb-kìm-sùŋ lā.

15G.CNTR CAT COP animal-tender-good:SG ART.

"I am the good shepherd." (Jn 10:11)

Fune mi', ka man zi'.

Fūnı ø mī', kà mān zī'ı ^+ø.

25G.CNTR CAT know, and 15G.CNTR NEG.KNOW NEG.

"You know but I do not know." (Rev 7:14)
```

Subordinate clauses cannot show any other markers of focus:

```
Li nar ka on dv ka man sie.

Lì nàr kà ɔ̄n dv̄, kà mān sie.

3INAN must and 3AN.CNTR rise, and 1SG.CNTR lower.

"He must increase and I must decrease." ([n 3:30)
```

Contrastive pronouns as subjects of \dot{n} -clauses are distinct from the *non-contrastive* fused \dot{n} -clause pronoun subject series $\underline{16.3.1}$:

```
wuu mane a si'em la.

wōv mánì Ø àň sī'əm lā.

like 1sg.cntr nz cop Indf.adv art.

"as I am." (1 Cor 7:7, 1996)
```

30.6 Emphatics

I have borrowed the term "emphatic" from Jeffrey Heath's Songhay grammars (e.g. Heath 2005 pp202ff.) The category corresponds quite well to CGEL's "Focussing Modifiers" in English (pp586ff); however, this "focus" is not "informational focus" of the kind discussed in 30.1 but "scopal focus", the semantic element which the particle applies to: this need not be the syntactic head of the NP, and is not necessarily the informational focus of the clause.

Emphatics relate a NP or AdvP to the discourse context. Apart from $h\bar{a}l(^+)$, they occur after top-level NPs or AdvPs within clauses, and share the unusual morphological feature of forming the LF by adding $-n\varepsilon$ to the SF <u>6.4</u>.

mè DK KT SB NT mèn WK; clause finally (all sources) mènε "also, too"

```
bozugo o ane fo biig men.
bɔ̄ zúgɔ́ ò
             à né fù bīig
                                mέn.
Because 3AN COP FOC 2SG child:SG also.
"Because he is your child too." (Genesis 21:13)
O pu'a mε kena.
                                "His wife also came." (Acts 5:7)
Ò pu'ā
           mέ kὲ
                      nā.
3AN wife:SG also come hither.
The particle may follow ka + ellipted subject pronoun 24.1.5.2:
Wina'am tisid ... ka mɛ tisid ...
Wínà'am tísìd ...
                     kà mέ tιsιd...
         give: IPVF ... and also give: IPFV ...
God
"God gives ... and [God] also gives ..." (1 Cor 15:38)
```

```
mà'aa (LF mà'anē) "only"
      Asee line an be'ed ma'aa ka m na tun'e nin.
                    àň bē'ed má'àa kà mì ná tūň'e ø nín.
      Only rel.inan cop bad only and 1sg irr be.able cat do.
      "It's only that which is bad that I can do." (Rom 7:21)
      (Kà-foregrounding of the NP, which also implies exclusiveness 30.2.)
gờllιm<sup>nε</sup> "only"
      M ninī li
                        m gùllım.
                                       "I did it myself alone."
      1SG do 3INAN.OB 1SG only
kòtàa<sup>nε</sup> "at all"
      Áyìι kỳtàa.
                                       "Not at all."
      The added -n\varepsilon of the LF of these words is found also with the quantifier p\bar{a}mm
SF p\bar{a}mn\dot{\epsilon} LF "a lot" and the adverb ny\bar{a}e^{n\epsilon} "brightly, clearly" 6.4.
hālí+ in addition to its many other rôles 18.1 24.1.3 23.4 can be used as an
      Emphatic preceding a NP or AdvP with the meaning "even":
      Hali tυυmbε'εd dim ninid ala.
      Hālí tùvm-bē'ed dím
                                      nínìd àlá.
      Even deed-bad:PL individual:PL do:IPFV ADV:thus.
      "Even sinners do that." (Lk 6:33)
      Hālí báa is also used in this way:
      Hali baa lampɔdi'esidib mε ninid ala.
      Hālí báa làmpō-dí'əsìdıb mé nìnıd àlá.
               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 basif, man ku basi fo.
      Hālí báa bàmmā wūsa yá' nà zó kà básì f,
      Even
               DEM.DEI.PL all
                               if IRR run and abandon 25G.OB,
                       bāsı_
      mān
               kύ
                                fź
                                       +ø.
      1SG.CNTR NEG.IRR abandon 2SG.OB NEG.
      "If even they all run away and leave you, I will not leave you." (Mt 26:33)
```

465 Lexicon

Lexicon

31 Greetings and other formulae

(a) Enquiries after health.

[Fù sá] gbìs wēlá? "How did you sleep?"

Dúθ wēlá? 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?"

Yύ'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?"

Pu̞'ā nē bíisὲε? "[How are your] wife and children?"

... and so on, often at great length.

Replies:

Àláafὺ bέ. literally "There is health."

(Also a general purpose greeting itself.)

Àláaf \dot{v} $b\dot{\varepsilon} \cdot o$ for him/her. Àláaf \dot{v} $b\dot{\varepsilon}\varepsilon$ $b\dot{\epsilon}$ for them.

(b) Blessings

These follow the pattern

Bárιkà nέ fù ... "Blessing with your ..."

with the introductory words usually ellipted; the reply to all of these is Náa.

*K*ε̄n kε̄n. "Welcome!" *K*ε̄n, gerund of kε̄ň "come"

cf Hausa: Barkà dà zuwàa.

Nē záàm záàm. "Good evening."

Τōυma!

or Tōuma tōuma! literally "(Blessing on your) work!"

Interpreted to include practically anything which could be regarded as work, and hence probably the commonest daytime greeting.

Nε̄ sɔ̃nsigā. "(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 $w\bar{\imath}n^{n\epsilon/}$ (spiritual essence,

personal *genius*)

Νέ fù būrιyá-sùŋ. "Merry Christmas." ($b\bar{\nu}r_iya^+$ ← * $b\nu r\tilde{\nu}ya$

← Twi/Fante *bronya*, of unclear ultimate origin)

Nέ fù yòum-pāalíg. "Happy New Year."

(c) Prayers. Reply Amí! "Amen!"

Wīn ná lēbisi f nē láafíya. "Safe journey!"

literally "[I pray that]

God will bring you back in health."

Wīn ná sūnı f. "God will help you."

Generally a formula expressing thanks.

Wīn ná tā'así f. "Safe journey!" ("God will help you travel.")

(d) Statements of fact and commands. Reply T $\stackrel{>}{\circ}$ "OK", or as appropriate.

Bε̃ogυ lā. "See you tomorrow!" ("That's tomorrow.")

Àtínì dáarì lā. "See you on Monday."

Gbìsım súŋā. "Sleep well."

Kpὲlɪmī sứm. "Remain (ye) well."

Said by departing person to those remaining.

Pù'usım yín. "Greet (those) at home." i.e. "Goodbye."

reply Tò "OK", or Bà nà wūm "They will hear."

(e) Miscellaneous formulae

M ρύ'ὑs yā. "Thankyou."

reply Τὸ, or Pὐ'υsυg kā'e.

"No thanks (sc. needed.)"

M ρύ'ὺs yā bέdυgō. "Thank you very much."

Gáafàra. (← Arabic) "Pardon me, sorry."

Also (like Ghanaian English "sorry") used simply to empathise with misfortune, with no

implication of apology as such.

Kābır kābırí! 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 sūgυrύ. "Please forgive me."

 \dot{M} bélim $n\bar{\epsilon}$. "I beg you." Not equivalent to "please"; Kusaasi

etiquette does not demand a spoken equivalent

of the English "please."

X lábāar á wεlá? "What is the news of X?"

A common initial reply is Dīıb má'àa.

"Only food." i.e. "good"

M m5r kú'èm náa? literally "Shall I bring water?"

Traditional first words to guest.

Reply for "No, thank you" is Kù'em á sóm.

("Water is good.")

Wīn yél sídà. "Bless you!" (after a sneeze.) Literally

"God speaks truth"; WK explained: "If you

sneeze, it means someone elsewhere is praising

you."

Fὺ wóm Kōsáalὲε? "Do you understand [literally "hear"] Kusaal?"

Ēεň, m̀ wóm. "Yes, I do."

Áyὶι, m̀ pō wómmā. "No, I don't."

32 Structured semantic fields

32.1 Kinship terms

Pervading the whole system of Kusaal kinship terms 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 $s\grave{a}am^{ma}$, less formally $b\bar{a}^{+/}$

Father's elder brother sàam-kpēεňm^m

Father's younger brother $s\`{a}am-p\bar{\imath}t^{a/}$ Father's sister $p\`{\upsilon}g\upsilon d\iota b^a$

My

Mother is my $m\dot{a}^+$

Mother's elder sister

or senior co-wife mà-kpξεňm^m

Mother's younger sister

or junior co-wife mà-bīla or mà-pīta/

Mother's co-wives are my mà nám^a Mother's brother is my áňsìb^a

I am my mother's brother's $\bar{a}nsin^a$; to all the other relatives above I am $b\bar{i}ig^a$ "child" or specifically $d\dot{a}-k\dot{>})\bar{n}r^\epsilon$ "son" or $pu\dot{a}-y\dot{u}a^+$ "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.

My

Grandparent is my yáab^a Sex can be specified as

♂ yāa-dáu⁺ ♀ yāa-pu'á^a

Grandchild yáaŋa

These words are also used for ancestor/descendant.

My

Elder sibling of my own sex is my $b\bar{\iota} = r^{\xi/}$ Younger sibling of my own sex is my $p\bar{\iota} t \dot{\upsilon}^+$ Sibling of opposite sex is my $t\bar{\iota} u \ddot{v}^{+/}$

These words are also used for cousins, with seniority, as always, going by family branch.

My

Wife is my $y\bar{i}$ - $p\mu'\dot{a}^a$ or simply $p\mu'\bar{a}^a$

Wife's parent $di ext{o} m^{ma}$ Sex can be specified as

σ' dìəm-dāu⁺ ♀ dìəm-puāk^a

Wife's sibling dàkīig^a Sex can be specified as

ď dàkì-dāu⁺ ♀ dàkì-puāk^a

 $Diam^{ma}$ is also used in polite address to an unrelated person of opposite sex and similar or greater age to oneself but not old enough to be called \dot{m} $m\dot{a}$ "my mother" or \dot{m} $b\bar{a}$ ' "my father." 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 $B\dot{u}g\dot{v}m$ - $t\bar{b}$ \bar{o} n \bar{v} \bar{v} , the Fire Festival, one throws eggs at one's brothers-in-law.

I am my wife's parents' bīiga "child" and my wife's siblings' dàkīiga.

My

Husband is my sīda

Husband's parent dàyáam^{ma} Sex can be specified as

ď dàyāam-dáu⁺ ♀ dàyāam-puák^a

Husband's elder brother sìd-kpēsňm^m

Husband's younger brother $sid-b\bar{l}^a$ Husband's sister $sid-p\mu\bar{a}k^a$

I am my husband's parents' $b\bar{i}ig^a$ "child"; all my husband's siblings (of both sexes) call me $p u' \bar{a}^a$ "wife."

My co-wife is my $nin-t\bar{a}a^=$, "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 $d\hat{a}k\hat{i}$ - $t\hat{u}a^+$ to the other; two women married to brothers are $n\hat{i}n$ - $t\bar{a}as^\epsilon$, "co-wives." "Fiancée" is $p\underline{u}'\hat{a}$ - $\bar{\epsilon}l(\eta^a)$.

32.2 Personal names

See Haaf pp87ff for a detailed account of Kusaasi personal naming practices.

Personal names are mostly formed by the personifier clitic \grave{A} - 16.6 followed by common nouns, but a few based on adjective stems are preceded by \grave{N} -, becoming \grave{M} -before labial consonants. There are also some less common names with the clitic \grave{A} -followed by a whole verb phrase, or even by a clause. Most names of foreign origin also take the \grave{A} - clitic: \grave{A} -Sīimɔɔ́n "Simon"; none take \grave{N} -/ \grave{M} -.

On the form in which Kusaal personal and place names appear in Englishlanguage contexts see 32.4.

The 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 few personal names account for a large proportion of all individuals; \grave{A} - $W\bar{\iota}n$ and \grave{A} - $B\bar{\upsilon}g\upsilon r$ are especially common male names. Identification of particular individuals often requires further enquiries about kindred or residence.

Many names allude to a guardian spirit $(s\bar{\iota}g\iota r^{\epsilon})$ assigned to a newborn child through the father's consultation with a diviner $(b\bar{a}^{\dagger}a^{=})$; this may be the $w\bar{\iota}n^{n\epsilon}$ 1.1 33 of an ancestor, or of a powerful spiritually significant tree:

Awini	wīn ^{nε/}	person with a $s\bar{\iota}g\iota r^{\epsilon/}$ from father's
		side of the family
Abugri	būgur ^ɛ	person with a $sigur^{\epsilon/}$ from mother's
		side of the family
Atiga	tìıg ^a	"tree", as <i>sīgır^{ɛ/}</i>
Akudugu	kūdvg ^o	"piece of iron" (sc. as a marker on
		a tree- <i>sīgιr</i> ε/); displaced as a
		common noun by the pl-as-sg $k\bar{u}t^{\epsilon}$
	Abugri Atiga	Abugri $b\bar{v}gvr^{\varepsilon}$ Atiga $t lg^a$

A younger sibling of \dot{A} - $W\bar{\iota}n^{n\epsilon/}$ with the same $s\bar{\iota}g\iota r^{\epsilon/}$ is called \dot{A} - $W\bar{\iota}n$ - $b\acute{\iota}l^a$ "Awimbillah", of \dot{A} - $K\bar{\iota}d\upsilon g^3$, \dot{A} - $K\iota ud$ - $b\bar{\iota}l^a$ "Akudibillah" etc. Names for girls may follow the pattern \dot{A} - $W\bar{\iota}n$ - $pu\acute{a}k^a$ "Awimpoaka."

Other names refer to birth circumstances:

À-Nà'ab ^a	Anaba	nà'ab ^a	"chief" but in the sense "afterbirth"
			(because a chief leaves his house
			after his retainers)
			Name for sole survivor of twins
À-Fūug ^{ɔ/}	Afugu	fūug ^{ɔ/}	"clothing"
			for child born with a caul
À-ΤūΙ ^{Ιε}	Atuli	tùlıg ^ε	"invert" for breech-delivered child

A whole clause is seen as a birth-circumstance personal name in

À-Tìım bódìg yā

"The medicine has got lost."

Many names relate to customs intended to break a cycle of stillbirths. One such custom is the apotropaic practice of throwing away the dead child or just burying it in a pot to avoid attracting malevolent spiritual attention; the next surviving child may then be called e.g.

À-Tàmpῦυr ^ε	Tampuri	tàmpūvr ^ε	"ashpit, rubbish tip"
À-Dūk ^{>/}	Aruk	dūk ^{ɔ/}	"pot"

Another strategy is pretended adoption by an outsider, resulting in names like Jambeedu "Fulani", or

À-Sāan ^{a/}	Asana	sāan ^{a/}	"guest, stranger"
À-Sāan-dύ ⁺	Sandow	sāan ^{a/}	"guest" + dāu̯+ "man"
À-Zàngbèog ^o	Azangbego	Zàngbèog ^o	"Hausa person"
À-Nàsà-pụāk ^a	Anasapoaka	ì	"European woman"; also a birth-
			circumstance name: "child
			delivered by a European midwife"

Names based on adjectives:

Ň-Dāυg ^ɔ	Ndago	dāvg ^o	"male"
М-Рµāk ^а	Mpoaka	p <u>u</u> āk ^a	"female"
М-Вīl ^а	Mbillah	bīl ^a	"little"

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.

À-Tínì+	"Girl born on Monday"
À-Tàláatà+	"Girl born on Tuesday"
Àrzúmà ⁺	"Boy born on Friday"
À-S(bì+	"Boy born on Saturday"

Muslims also have formal Islamic Arabic names, sometimes adapted to Kusaal phonology, like Dàhamáanì+/Dàsmáanì+ عبد الرحين ṢAbdu-r-Raħma:n(i).

KKY p6 has the interesting girl's personal name Amoryam, perhaps an adaptation of the Arabic مريم Maryam(u) "Mary" as $A-M\bar{b}r$ Yā'm "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."

32.3 Place names

For the form in which Kusaal personal and place names appear in English-language contexts see <u>32.4</u>.

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:

Bòk ³	Bawku	"pit, geographical depression"
Kūk ^{a/}	Koka	"mahogany tree"
Kùkpàrıg ^a	Kokpariga	"palm tree"
Tὲmpáan ^{nε}	Tempane	perhaps "new villages"
Mu̯'à-nɔ̄ɔr ^{ε/}	Mogonori	"lakeside" ("lake-mouth")
Bàs-ȳɔn ^{nε/}	Basyonde	"abandon sacks" ?reason for name
Kūgυr ^{ε/}	Kugri	"stone"
Βῦgυr ^ε	Bugri	$b\bar{\nu}g\nu r^{\epsilon}$, object housing
		a <i>wīn^{nɛ/}</i> "spirit"
Wìdì-ňyá'aŋ ^a	Woriyanga	archaic for <i>wìd-ňyá</i> ' <i>aŋ</i> ª "mare"
Bì-nà'ab ^a	Binaba	"prince"
Gàarv ⁺	Garu	Hausa <i>gàaruu</i> "wall around a town
		or compound"
Wìid-nà'ab ^a	Widinaba	"chief of the clan <i>Wìid</i> a"
Pūsıg ^{a/}	Pusiga	"tamarind"
Tīl ^{lɛ/}	Tilli	"tree trunk" cf Toende Kusaal <i>tíl id</i>
		(Hasiyatu Abubakari, p.c.)
Dènnug ^o	Denugu	No known meaning
Pùlıma Kú'èm ^m	Pulimakom	"water by <i>pùlıma</i> + (grass sp)"
Wìdāan ^a	Widana	for <i>Wìd-dāan</i> ^a "Horse-Owner", title
		of a chief's <i>nɔ̄-dí</i> 'ə̀sa "linguist" <u>33</u> .
		Usual informal name for
		Pulimakom, as the seat of this
		particular linguist.

Mì'isıg ^a	Missiga	Explained locally as from "mission" i.e. the Assemblies of God mission around which the village grew; perhaps influenced by mi'isvg" "dunking" (not in my materials, but cf Toende mi'isvk "baptism", KED mi'is "duck someone")
Sā-bíl ^a Sā-píəlìg ^a Kòl-tā'amís ^ε	Zebilla Sapeliga Kultamse	"small grass"? " <i>Isoberlinia Doka</i> " ("white grass") "dog almonds" ("river shea trees")

WK thought that the first component of the names $S\bar{a}$ - bil^a and $S\bar{a}$ - $pi\partial l^a$ was a plant used in making brooms. * $S\bar{a}a^{=/}$ does not occur in my data (only $S\bar{a}a^{=-}$ "rain") or in Niggli's dictionary, but the cognate $S\bar{a}aga$ is glossed in his Farefare dictionary as "a kind of grass used for making brooms", and the Mampruli/Dagbani cognate $S\bar{a}a$ refers to a grass Sporobolus Sporo

*Kὑlugúŋ*⁵ Kulungungu ?? *kòl-gùŋ*^a "river-kapok"

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 $k\acute{u}r$ " $karit\acute{e}$." The second element is probably a simplex form of Prost's gongeda " $arqu\acute{e}$ " ($ng = [\eta]$); Prost notes an adjectival suffix -da "s'appliquant aux grandes choses ou marquant $intensit\acute{e}$."

Àgɔ̀l ^{lɛ}	Agolle	the Kusaasi area east of the White
		Volta; cf à <i>gڬا^{اد}</i> "upwards"; for the
		H toneme see <u>8.3</u> .
Tùθn ^{nε}	Toende	Kusaasi area west of the White
		Volta; cf <i>tùen</i> ^{nε} "in front", "West"

For points of the compass, WK gave as accepted terms

```
N B\bar{a}rvg^{5/} "Bisa country"

E Ny\acute{a}'a\eta^a "behind"

S Zu\bar{e}ya^+ "hills" (i.e. the Gambaga Escarpment)

W Tuen^{n\epsilon} "in front"
```

reflecting the traditional Kusaasi West-facing orientation. For "South" and "North", KB has respectively *ya-dagɔbvg yà dàgòbvg* "your left hand" and *ya-datiuŋ yà dàtìuŋ* "your right hand." KB similarly has *ya-nya'aŋ* "East", *ya-tuona* "West."

Words referring to ethnic groups and clans consistently have place names formed from the same stem with the suffix $-g^3$. These can be nonce-formations and need not necessarily refer to any established political entity or permanent settlement:

Kùtāuŋ ^{ɔ/}	any place inhabited by the clan <i>Kỳtām</i> ^{ma/}
Kūsáùg ^o	"Kusaasiland"
Мэ̀эg ^э	"Mossi country"
	(Mɔ̀ɔɡ Ná'àbª "Moro Naba, King of the Mossi")

Places outside $K\bar{v}s\dot{a}\dot{v}g^{\circ}$ generally do not have Kusaal names (an exception is $S\bar{a}nk\dot{a}\dot{a}ns^{\varepsilon}$ "Sankanse" in Burkina Faso.) For "Accra" the Twi-derived name Ankara is usual. Niggli's dictionary has Toende Wa'arvk for "Ouagadougou", but I could not elicit any Agolle equivalent. The form looks like $*W\bar{a}'ad\acute{v}g^{\circ}$ "Place of the Dancers $(w\bar{a}'ad\acute{v}b^{a})$ ", but the Mooré name Waogdgo apparently does not have a transparent meaning for Mooré speakers, and its true etymology is uncertain.

There seems to be no Agolle Kusaal proper name for the White Volta river, which is simply $k\bar{\jmath}lvg^a$ "river"; presumably this is simply because it is the only real river within $K\bar{\upsilon}s\dot{a}\dot{\upsilon}g^{3}$.

32.4 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 \grave{A} - $W\bar{\iota} n^{n\epsilon/}$ from $W\hat{\iota} d\iota$ - $\check{n} y \acute{a}$ 'a η^a will introduce himself as "Awini" from "Woriyanga." Similarly "Kusaasi" for $K\bar{\upsilon} s \acute{a} \grave{a} s^{\epsilon}$, "Bawku" for $B \grave{\upsilon} k^{\jmath}$, and many other examples in 32.2 and 32.3.

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 <code>Widi-nyá'aŋa</code> shows a characteristically Mampruli rather than Kusaal form for the initial combining form of "horse": Mampruli <code>wuri-</code> versus Kusaal <code>wid-</code>. 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 $Wid\bar{a}an^a$ rather than Mampruli Wuddaana "(title of) a chief's linguist" and female personal names like "Awimpoaka" $AWin-puák^a$ even show the characteristic Agolle Kusaal vowel breaking, in contrast to the Toende form Awinpoka (Niggli.) Again, the personal name "Akudugu" $AKudug^a$ shows the postvocalic -d-characteristic of Agolle Kusaal rather than Mampruli. The Toende place name $Til^{|E|}$ "Tilli" corresponds to Toende Kusaal til^a and Farefare til^a "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 \dot{A} - $D\bar{\nu}k^{3/}$.

32.5 Ethnic group and clan names

Names for the group belong to the ${}^a|b^a$ or $g^a|s^\epsilon$ classes (apart from $Z\grave{a}ngb\grave{\epsilon}og^{\circ}$ "Hausa" and $N\grave{a}s\bar{a}ara^+$ "European") and their language to the I^ϵ subclass of $r^\epsilon|a^+$. The place they inhabit has the suffix $-g^{\circ}$.

Ethnic gp sg	Ethnic gp pl	<u>Language</u>	<u>Place</u>	
Kūsáa=	Kūsáàs ^ε	Kūsáàl ^ɛ	Kūsáùg ^o	Kusaasi
Ňwāmpūrıg ^{a/}	Ňwāmpūrıs ^{ɛ/}	Ňwāmpūrıl ^{ɛ/}	Ňwāmpūrvg ^{ɔ/}	Mamprussi
Bārıg ^{a/}	Bārıs ^{ε/}	Bāt ^{ε/}	Bārυg ^{⊃/}	Bisa
Mùa ⁺	Mὸɔs ^ε	MὸͻͿ ^ε	Мэ̀эg ^э	Mossi
Dàgbān ^{nε/}	Dàgbām ^{ma/}	Dàgbān ^{nε/}	Dàgbāuŋ ^{ɔ/}	Dagomba
<i>B</i> ìn ^{nε}	<i>Bìm</i> ^{ma}	Bìn ^{nε}	Bìu̯ŋ ^ɔ	Moba
Sìmīig ^a	Sìmīis ^ɛ	Sìmīil ^ɛ	Sìmīug ^o	Fulße
Yàaŋ ^a	Yàaňs ^ε	Yàan ^{nε}		Yansi
Gōríŋ ^a	Gūrís ^ε	Gōrín ^{nε}		Farefare
Yārıg ^{a/}	Yārιs ^{ε/}	Yāt ^{ε/}		Yarsi
Zàngbèog ^o	Zàngbèɛd ^ɛ	Zàngbèɛl ^ɛ		Hausa
Bùlıg ^a	Bùlıs ^ɛ	Bùl ^{lε}		Bulsa
Tàlıŋ ^a	Tàlıs ^ε	Tàlιn ^{nε}		Tallensi
Nàbıd ^a	Nàbıdıb ^a	Nàbır ^ɛ		Nabdema
Bùsáŋ ^a	Bὺsáàňs ^ε	BùsáàĭI ^ɛ		Bisa
Nàsāara ⁺	Nàsàa-nàm ^a	Nàsāal ^ɛ		European
Kàmbùŋ ^a	Kàmbùmıs ^ɛ	Kàmbùnır ^ɛ		Ashanti

 $B\bar{a}r\iota s^{\epsilon/}$ is "Bisa" generally, not just the Bareka; $B\iota m^{\mathsf{ma}}$ similarly is "Moba" in general, and not only the Bemba (WK.)

Note

Tùen ^{ne}	"Toende area"
Tùennır ^ɛ	"Toende dialect of Kusaal"
Àgòl ^{lɛ}	"Agolle area"
Àgòl ^{lɛ}	"Agolle dialect of Kusaal"
Ò pi̯àň'ad Àgɔ̀l.	"She speaks Agolle Kusaal."
3AN speak:IPFV Agolle.	-

Kusaasi clan names include, among many others:

Singular	<u>Plural</u>	<u>Place</u>	
Kὺtān ^{nε/}	Kừtām ^{ma/}	Kùtāuŋɔl	WK's clan
Zùa ⁺	Zùes ^ε		
	Zuà-sābılís ^ɛ		subclans
	Zuà-wìib ^a		
or	· Zuà-wìis ^ɛ		
Wìid ^a	Wìid-nam ^a	Wìidvg ^ɔ	
Nàbıd ^a	Nàbıdıb ^a	Nàbıdvg ^o	
Gòɔga	Gòɔs ^ɛ	Gὸɔg ^ɔ	
Sà'dàbùa ⁺	Sà'dàbùes ^ɛ -bùeb ^a	Sà'dàbɔ̀ɔgɔ	
	Nà'dàm ^{ma}	Nà'dau̯ŋ ^ɔ	
	Gùm-dìm ^a	Gὺm ^{mε}	

Nàbida as a clan name is different from the ethnic group "Nabdema" (WK.)

32.6 Trees and fruits

Tree names are almost all $g^a|s^{\varepsilon}$ class, like $t i \iota g^a$ "tree"; their fruits are classes $r^{\varepsilon}|a^+$ or $g^{\circ}|d^{\varepsilon}$.

Tree sg	<u>Tree pl</u>	<u>Fruit sg</u>	<u>Fruit pl</u>	
āaňdıg ^a	āaňdıs ^ɛ	āaňdır ^ε	āaňda ⁺	Vitex doniana
dùaň+	dὸɔňs ^ε	dэ̀эйg ^э	dɔ̀ɔnĭd ^ɛ	dawadawa
gāaň ^{=/}	gāaňs ^{ɛ/}	gāĭr ^{ε/}	gāňyá ⁺	Nigerian ebony
gùŋ ^a	gὺmιs ^ε	gὺm ^{mε}	gùma ⁺	kapok
kìkàŋ ^a	kìkàmıs ^ɛ	kìkàm ^{mɛ}	kìkàma ⁺	fig tree
kpùkpàrıg ^a	kpùkpàrıs ^ɛ	kpùkpàr [£]	kpùkpàra ⁺	palm
pūsıg ^{a/}	pūsιs ^{ε/}	pūsır ^{ε/}	pūsá ⁺	tamarind
sīsíbìg ^a	sīsíbìs ^ɛ	sīsíbìr [£]	sīsíbà+	neem
tá'aŋ ^a	tā'amίs ^ε	tá'am ^{mε}	tā'amá ⁺	shea butter
tὲ'εg ^a	tὲ'εs ^ε	tὲ'og ^ɔ	tὲ'εd ^ε	baobab
vúøŋ ^a	vūemís ^ε	vúer ^ε	vūáa ⁼	red kapok

The stems for "red kapok" and its fruit are slightly different: tree *vuem- fruit *vueg-

32.7 Body parts

Most human and animal body parts belong to the classes $r^{\epsilon}|a^{+}$ and $g^{\circ}|d^{\epsilon}$:

bjāuňk ^o	"shoulder"	bīən ^{nε}	"shin"
bì'isır ^ɛ	"woman's breast"	dūm ^{mε}	"knee"
gbāun ^{ɔ/}	"animal skin; lip, eyelid"	gbēr ^{ɛ/}	"thigh"
gbὲ'og ^ɔ	"forehead"	gbìn ^{nɛ}	"buttock"
gbìn-vɔ̀ɔňr [€]	"anus"	gūʊr ^ɛ	"ridge of back"
ίιΙ ^{Ιε}	"horn"	kɔ̄bır ^ɛ	"bone"
kɔ̃ňbʊgɔ	"hair"	kpēňdιr ^{ε/}	"cheek"
kpìsukpìl ^{lɛ}	"fist"	lām ^{mε/}	"gum"
lān ^{nε}	"testicle"	lūgvr ^ɛ	"organ, member"
nìn-gbīŋ ^{ɔ/}	"human skin, body"	nìn-gɔ̀ɔr ^ɛ	"neck"
nóbùr ^ɛ	"leg"	ทวิb-pง์mpàuุŋ ^ว	"foot"
nōɔr ^{ε/}	"mouth"	ňyīn ^{nε/}	"tooth"
ňyɔ̄ɔd ^ε	"intestines"	йуɔົ'ɔg ^{ɔ/}	"chest"
ňyɔ̄ɔr ^ε	"nose"	pèn ^{ne}	"vagina"
pūυr ^{ε/}	"stomach"	รวิวทัr ^ะ	"liver"
tàsıntàl ^{lɛ}	"palm"	tàtàl ^{lɛ}	"palm"
tìəŋ-gūʊr ^ɛ	"chin"	tùb-kpìr ^ɛ	"half of jaw"
tùbυr ^ε	"ear"	yìər ^ɛ	"jaw"
yū'⊖r ^ε	"penis"	zàňl ^{lɛ}	"umbilicus"
zìlım ^{mɛ}	"tongue"	zūg ^{ɔ/}	"head"
zūθbύg ^ο	"human head hair"	zūυr ^ε	"tail"

There are significant exceptions, however: $g^a|s^{\varepsilon}$ class:

nú'ùg ^ɔ nū'-bíl ^a nū'-íň'a ⁺ nɔ̄b-íň'a ⁺ ňyá'aŋ ^a	"hand" <u>9.3.2.1</u> "finger" "fingernail" "toenail" "back"	perhaps as the probut $n\bar{u}'$ - $d\acute{a}\grave{v}g^{3}$ $n\bar{b}b$ - $b\acute{l}l^{a}$ $s\bar{\imath}a^{+}$ $t\grave{\imath}\partial\eta^{a}$	ototypical tool. "thumb" "toe" "waist" "beard"
f ⁰ ι ⁺ class: nīf ⁰ / sià-nīf ⁰ / sūňf ⁰ /	"eye" "kidney" "heart"	as a "small round as a compound of beside <i>sūuňr</i> ^{ε/}	J

32.8 Colour terms

Kusaal, like many local languages, has a basic three-colour system:

zὲň'og ^ɔ	"red"	covering all reddish shades
sābılíg ^a	"black"	covering all darker shades of colour
pìəlıg ^a	"white"	covering all lighter shades of colour

 $Wing^{\circ}$ "red" is synonymous with $z \grave{\epsilon} \breve{n}' o g^{\circ}$. Kusaal has many more or less standardised expressions for colour (e.g. $w\bar{v}v$ $t\acute{a}mp\bar{v}vr$ $n\bar{\epsilon}$ "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.

32.9 Time expressions

Answers to bɔ̀-wìn^{nε} "what time of day?"

bε̄ogυ - n ^{ε/}	"morning"	àsùbá ⁺	"dawn" (← Arabic)
bèkèkèoňg ^o	"very early morning"	zàam ^m	"evening"
wìn-līir ^ε	"sunset"	yטׁ'טŋ ^ɔ	"night"
wìn-kɔ̀ɔňr ^ɛ	"sunset"	nīntāŋ ^{a/}	"heat of the day, early
			afternoon"

 $Win^{n\epsilon}$ "time of day" (cf $winnig^a$ "sun"), always with a predeterminer. There are no traditional expressions for clock time; NT/KB adapts from Hausa:

kérıfà àtáň' "three o'clock" Hausa: *ƙarfèe ukù*

The deictic particle <u>ñwà</u> "this" is commonly attached to time words:

zàam ňwá "this evening" [za:ma]
yú'uŋ ňwá "tonight" [yʊ̯:ŋ:a] <u>8.5.1</u>

The day begins at sunrise.

Answers to $b\bar{\nu}n$ -dáàr^{ϵ} "which day?":

 $z\bar{\imath}n\acute{a}^+$ "today" $s\grave{u}$ ' es^a "yesterday" $b\bar{\varepsilon}og^{\circ}$ "tomorrow" $d\bar{a}ar^{\varepsilon}$ "day after tomorrow/ day before yesterday"

Weekday names are of Arabic origin, 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.

Àláasìd dáàr ^ɛ	"Sunday"	Àtínì dáàr ^ɛ	"Monday"
Àtàláatà dáàr ^ɛ	"Tuesday"	Àlárıbà dáàr ^ɛ	"Wednesday"
Àlàmíisì dáàr ^ɛ	"Thursday"	À(r)zúmà dáàr ^ɛ	"Friday"
Àsíbıtì dáàr ^ɛ	"Saturday"		

 $D\bar{a}ar^{\epsilon}$ "day" is "twenty-four hour period" ($n\bar{i}nt\bar{a}n$ "day as opposed to night") and is used with predeterminers to specify a particular day; the word $d\bar{a}bisir^{\epsilon}$ is also used for "day" in counting periods of time, occurring usually in the plural:

Dābá àyópòẹ dáàr kà fù ná lēb nā.	"You'll come back in a week."
Dābá àyópòẹ kà fù ná lēb nā.	"You'll come back for a week."
Àláasìd dáàr kà fù ná lēb nā.	"You'll come back on Sunday."
Tì kpélìm ànínā dábısà bī əlá.	"We stayed there a few days."

Longer periods of time:

dābá àyópòe	"week"	also <i>bákpàė ←</i> Hausa <i>bakwài</i> "seven"
ňwādıg ^{a/}	"moon, month"	
ňwād-kánì kēn nā lā	"next month"	("the month which is coming")
ňwād-kánì gàad lā	"last month"	("the month which has passed")

There are two seasons:

sēoňg ^o	"rainy season"	úun ^{nε}	"dry season"
--------------------	----------------	-------------------	--------------

The Harmattan part of $\acute{u}un$ is called $s\bar{a}p\acute{a}l^{|\epsilon}$ and the very hot humid part before the rains is $d\grave{a}w\grave{a}l\iota g^a$.

1	γὺυm ^{mε}	"year"	dūnná ⁺	"this year"

"Time" in general is the irregular noun $s\bar{a}\eta\dot{a}^+$ pl $s\bar{a}ns\dot{a}^+$ cb $s\bar{a}n$ -; "time of day" is $win^{n\epsilon}$; "time" as in "several times" is $n\bar{b}$ 16.4.2.4. Examples with $s\bar{a}\eta\dot{a}^+$:

sān-kánè?	"when?"	sān-kán lā	"at that time"
sāŋá kám	"all the time"	sāŋá bὲdvgῦ	"a long time"
sānsá bèdugū	"many times"	sāŋá bīˈəlá	"for/in a short time"

33 General vocabulary

Words are ordered by Short Forms.

Vowel glottalisation, and the distinctions n/\tilde{n} , $\partial/e/e/\epsilon$, $i/\iota/i$, $\partial/o/O$ and $\iota/\iota/i$ are ignored in the ordering. The consonant η follows n.

Compounds are not listed if they are regularly formed and have transparent meanings. Those that *are* listed are included under the entry for the first element.

Nouns are listed under the singular form. Adjectives are listed under the $g^a|s^{\epsilon}$ class form if extant, if not, then $g^{\circ}|d^{\epsilon}$ or $r^{\epsilon}|a^+$. Variable verbs are listed under the perfective.

Variable-verb imperfectives and imperatives are listed only where irregular. Gerunds, agent nouns and dynamic 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 32.2 32.3 for examples.

I have attempted to list all function words, with references to the sections in which they are treated above.

All words occuring 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 ι v 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 15.1.

Binomial names of plants taken from Haaf (see References) are likely to be reliable; he checked the identifications with local botanical experts.

Abbreviations:

adj	adjective	adv	adverb
agt	agent noun	cb	combining form
ger	gerund	imp	imperative
ipfv	imperfective	iν	invariable verb
n	noun	pl	plural
q	quantifier	res	resultative
sg	singular	νν	variable verb

Α

```
à- personifier proclitic 16.6
\bar{a}a\bar{n}d\iota q^a pl \bar{a}a\bar{n}d\iota s^\epsilon cb \dot{a}a\bar{n}d- n. black plum tree, Vitex doniana \underline{32.6}
āaňdır<sup>€</sup> pl āaňda<sup>+</sup> n. black plum fruit 32.6
àaňs<sup>ε</sup> vy. tear
àbùlá<sup>+</sup> how many-fold? 16.4.2.4
àbùyí+ àbùtáň'+ àbùnāasí+ adv. twice, three times etc 16.4.2.4
\dot{a}-dàalúŋ³ pl à-dàalís^{\varepsilon} à-dàalímìs^{\varepsilon} cb à-dàalúŋ- n. stork \underline{16.6}
àdàkóň' + q. one 16.4.2.2
àeňa ger àaňlím<sup>m</sup> iv. be something/somehow 21.2 8.5.3 8.5.2
àeň<sup>+</sup> vv. get torn; res adi àaňlúη<sup>3</sup> torn
à-gáờng plà-gáànd cb à-gān-n. pied crow 16.6
àgɔ́llɛ àgɔ̃lá+ adv. upwards
\mathbf{A}\mathbf{g}\mathbf{\hat{j}}^{\mathbf{l}\epsilon} n. Agolle district of Kusaasi territory; n. Agolle Kusaal dialect
à-kɔra-díàm<sup>ma</sup> pl à-kɔra-díàm-nàm<sup>a</sup> n. praying mantis 16.6
àlá<sup>+</sup> adv. thus 17.7
\dot{a}l\dot{a}^+ q. so many; how many? 17.7
àláafù<sup>+</sup> n. health; in greetings <u>31</u> cf láafìya<sup>+</sup> ← Arabic العافية ?al-ʕa:fiya(tu)
\dot{A}l\acute{a}as\grave{\iota}d\ d\acute{a}\grave{a}r^{\epsilon}\ n.\ Sunday\ \frac{32.9}{2} \leftarrow Arabic
Àlàmíisì dáàr<sup>\epsilon</sup> n. Thursday <u>32.9</u> ← Arabic
Àlárıbà dáàr<sup>€</sup> n. Wednesday 32.9 ← Arabic
àlá zùg<sup>3</sup> therefore 25.1.1 17.7
àlópìr<sup>€</sup> pl àlópìya<sup>+</sup> n. aeroplane \leftarrow English
àmáa = but 24.1.3 ← Hausa ← Arabic
àmēηá<sup>+</sup> adv. really, truly 17.4
àmí amen ← Arabic آمين; in replies to greetings 31
à-mús<sup>E</sup> pl à-mús-nàma n. cat 16.6; cf Hausa mussàa id
ànāasí<sup>+</sup> q. four <u>16.4.2.1</u>
ani^+ adv. there 17.7
àníi = q. eight 16.4.2.1
àní nā<sup>+/</sup> adv. there 17.7
ànínà<sup>+</sup> adv. promptly 17.4
àn5'òn<sup>ε</sup> who? 16.3.4
\grave{a}\check{n}r\upsilon\eta^{2} pl \grave{a}\check{n}r\iota ma^{+} cb \grave{a}\check{n}r\upsilon\eta- n. boat (written aaru\eta in the 1976/1996 NT)
āňs<sup>ε</sup> νν. pluck (leaves)
áňsìba pl āňs-náma cb āňs- n. mother's brother 32.1
\bar{a}nsig^{\epsilon} vv. break at an angle
\bar{a}ns(\eta^a) pl \bar{a}ns(s^{\epsilon}) cb \bar{a}ns(\eta-n) (man's) sister's child \underline{32.1}
àntù'a pl àntù'\theta s^{\epsilon} cb àntu'à n. lawsuit
ànū<sup>+</sup> q. five 16.4.2.1
```

```
ànwá<sup>+</sup> adv. like this 17.7
ānzúrıfà<sup>+</sup> n. silver; cf Hausa azùrfaa ← Berber *a-zrəf, Souag 2016
\dot{a}razàk^a pl àrazà'as\epsilon cb àrazà'- Generally used in pl: n. wealth, riches \leftarrow Arabic الزق
         ?ar-riza(u)
àrazánà<sup>+</sup> n. heaven ← Arabic الجنة ?al-¡anna(tu)
Arzúma dáar^{\epsilon} n. Friday 32.9 \leftarrow Arabic
àsée except, unless 18.1 24.1.3 ← Hausa sai
\triangle sibitì dáàr^{\epsilon} n. Saturday 32.9 ← Arabic
àsīda<sup>+</sup> adv. truly <u>17.4</u>
àsùbá<sup>+</sup> n. dawn ← Arabic الصباح ?asˤ-sʿaba:ħ(u)
àtáň'<sup>+</sup> q. three <u>16.4.2.1</u>
Àtàláatà dáàr<sup>\epsilon</sup> n. Tuesday 32.9 \leftarrow Arabic
àtánā<sup>+/</sup> q. three exactly 16.4.2.1
Àtínì dáàr<sup>\epsilon</sup> n. Monday <u>32.9</u> ← Arabic
àtìuk³ n. sea ← Hausa tèeku
\grave{a}w\acute{a}n\ddot{a}^{+/} adv. like this 17.7
\dot{a}w\bar{a}e^{+} q. nine <u>16.4.2.1</u>
àyí+ q. two 16.4.2.1
áγιι no 25.2.4
\dot{a}yin\bar{a}^{+/}q. two exactly <u>16.4.2.1</u>
àyɔ́pɔ̀e<sup>+</sup> q. seven <u>16.4.2.1</u>
\dot{a}y\dot{u}\theta\dot{b}\dot{v}^{+}q. \sin \frac{16.4.2.1}{}
В
bà they, their (proclitic) 16.3.1
ba<sup>+</sup> them (enclitic object) <u>16.3.1</u>
bā'+/ pl bā'-náma cb bā'- n. father 9.4
bāa pl bāas cb bà n. dog
báa (← Hausa bâa "not exist") in constituent negation 29.4
bā'a= pl bā'aba cb bà'a- n. traditional diviner; bà'a-kòlugo pl bà'a-kònne cb bà'a-kòl-
        n. diviner's bag
b\bar{a}'a^{-} pl b\bar{a}'as^{\varepsilon} cb b\dot{a}'- n. peg to hang things on
bà'an<sup>nɛ</sup> pl bà'ana<sup>+</sup> cb bà'an- n. stocks (punishment)
bàaňlig<sup>a</sup> pl bàaňlis<sup>ɛ</sup> adj. narrow, slender
bāaňlíg<sup>a</sup> adj. quiet
bāaňlím<sup>m</sup> adv. quietly
bà'ar<sup>E</sup> pl bàda<sup>+</sup> bà'a<sup>+</sup> cb bà'- n. idol
b\bar{a}ba^{\dagger} beside postposition 17.6; cf b\bar{a}b\iota r^{\epsilon} sphere of activity
bàbig\bar{a}^{+/}q, many 16.4.1
bákpàe+ n. week ← Hausa bakwài "seven"
```

```
bàlàar<sup>€</sup> pl bàlàya<sup>+</sup> cb bàlà- n. stick, staff, club
bàlànır<sup>E</sup> pl bàlàna+ cb bàlàn- n. hat
b\bar{a}l\bar{\epsilon}r\nu q^{3/} pl b\bar{a}l\bar{\epsilon}r\iota d^{\epsilon/} b\bar{a}l\bar{\epsilon}r\iota s^{\epsilon/} cb b\bar{a}l\acute{\epsilon}r- n. ugly person; cf l\bar{\epsilon}r^{\epsilon} get ugly
bàmmā<sup>+/</sup> these, those demonstrative 16.3.2
bàn<sup>E</sup> these, those demonstrative 16.3.2
bán they (subject of n-clause) 16.3.1
bān<sup>E</sup> they, them (contrastive) 16.3.1
bāň'+ vv. ride
b\bar{a}n\bar{a}a^{=} pl b\bar{a}n\bar{a}as^{\epsilon} cb b\dot{a}n\dot{a}- (tone sic in my materials) n. traditional "fugu" smock
bàň'ad<sup>a</sup> pl bàň'ad-nàm<sup>a</sup> n. ill person
bāň'al<sup>€</sup>/ vv. make to ride (horse, bicycle)
bāň'as<sup>ɛ</sup> cb bàň'- n. pl as sa disease
bàn-dāvg<sup>o</sup> pl bàn-dāad<sup>e</sup> cb bàn-dà- n. crocodile
bān-kύsεl<sup>lε</sup> pl bān-kύsεlá<sup>+</sup> cb bān-kύsεl- n. lizard
bān<sup>a</sup> pl bāaňs<sup>ε</sup> cb bàn- n. ring, chain, fetter
bàn<sup>a</sup> n. agama lizard
bàn<sup>ε</sup> νν. come to know
báp wallop!
B\bar{a}rig^{al} pl B\bar{a}ris^{\epsilon} cb B\bar{a}r- n. Bisa person 32.5 (not only the Bareka, WK)
bárıkà<sup>+</sup> n. blessing; in greetings 31 ← Arabic يوكة baraka(tun)
Bārvg<sup>5/</sup> n. Bisa country: North 32.3
bàsε νν. go away; abandon; throw out
B\bar{a}t^{\epsilon}/n. Bisa language 32.5
bàtáň' + q. three (after personal pronoun 16.4.2.1)
bàuηυ<sup>+</sup> n. found only as in Ò kpὲň' báuηυ. He was circumcised. ← Songhay "pool"
         (for the idiom 15.1)
bày\bar{\epsilon}og<sup>3/</sup> betrayer of secrets (cf y\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon s^{\epsilon/})
bàyí<sup>+</sup> q. two (after personal pronoun 16.4.2.1)
bàyópòe<sup>+</sup> q. seven (after personal pronoun 16.4.2.1)
b\dot{\epsilon}^+ ger b\dot{\epsilon}ll(m^m (sic) iv. exist; be in a place 21.1
bēdig<sup>€</sup>/ vv. go rotten
bèdug bèdir pl bèda cb bèd- adj. great
bèdva\bar{v}^{+/} q. much, a lot 16.4.1
bε̃ε or 24.1.2 25.2.2
bèkèkèongo or bèkèongo n. very early morning
bèlim<sup>m</sup> vv. beg
bèlis<sup>e</sup> vv. comfort
bēn<sup>nε</sup> pl bēna<sup>+</sup> cb bèn- n. end
b \tilde{\epsilon} \tilde{n}'^+ qer b \tilde{\epsilon} \tilde{n}' \epsilon s^{\epsilon} vv. fall ill
bὲňsιg<sup>ε</sup> νν. serve soup
bèη<sup>ε</sup> νν. mark out a boundary
```

```
b\bar{\epsilon}\eta id^{\epsilon} cb b\bar{\epsilon}\eta- n. pl bean leaves, Vigna unquiculata (Haaf); b\bar{\epsilon}\eta id n\bar{\epsilon} k\bar{i}^{+/} n. beanleaf-
         and-millet, a traditional snack
b\bar{\epsilon}n(r^{\epsilon}) pl b\bar{\epsilon}n\dot{a}^{+} cb b\bar{\epsilon}n- n. brown bean
b\bar{\epsilon}og^{3} n. tomorrow 32.9; Kà b\bar{\epsilon}og níe kà ... The next day ...
b\bar{\epsilon}og\nu-n^{\epsilon}/n, morning 32.9
b\bar{\epsilon}'oq^{3} b\bar{l}'a^{+} pl b\bar{\epsilon}'\epsilon d^{\epsilon} b\bar{l}' \ni s^{\epsilon} cb b\dot{\epsilon}'- bià'- adi. bad
bèrigis<sup>e</sup> sic n. a plant used for fibre (KED), Hibiscus cannabinus (Haaf)
bēriga cb bèrig- pl leaves of bèrin used for soup (KED)
b\bar{\epsilon}sug^{3} pl b\bar{\epsilon}sid^{\epsilon} cb b\dot{\epsilon}s- n. a kind of wide-mouthed pot
biāň'ar<sup>ε/</sup> pl biāň'adá<sup>+</sup> biáň'a<sup>+</sup> cb biāň'- n. wet mud, black mud; riverbed
biāuňk³ pl bjāň'ad<sup>ɛ</sup> cb bjàň'- n. shoulder
bīálle pl bīalá adj. naked
bìəl<sup>E</sup> vv. accompany
b\bar{i}'əlá<sup>+</sup> q. a little \underline{16.4.1}; b\bar{i}'əl b\bar{i}'əl q. and adv. a very little; little by little
bī'əm<sup>m</sup> pl bì'əm-nàm<sup>a</sup> bī'əmma LF cb bì'əm- n. enemy
bīən<sup>nε</sup> pl bīəna<sup>+</sup> cb bìən- n. shin
b\bar{i} = r^{\epsilon} pl bi\bar{e} v \hat{a}^+ cb bi\bar{a} n. elder sibling of the same sex
bì'əsε νν. doubt
bìgıs<sup>ε</sup> vv. show, teach
b\bar{i}ig^a pl b\bar{i}is^\epsilon cb b\hat{i}- b\bar{i}- n. child; b\bar{i}-d(b\hat{i})\eta^a n. boy; b\hat{i}-l\bar{i}a^+ n. baby; b\hat{i}-n\hat{a}'ab^a n. prince;
         bì-pīta/ pl bì-pītíba cb bì-pīt- n. father's younger brother 32.1; bī-púŋa n. girl
bì'iq<sup>ε</sup> νν. ripen, become pregnant
bīilí pl bīilí cb bīil- n. seed
bìilím<sup>m</sup> n. childhood
bīım<sup>m</sup>/ cb bī- n. soup, stew
bì'is(m<sup>m</sup> n. milk (human or animal)
bì'isır<sup>E</sup> pl bì'isa<sup>+</sup> cb bì'is- n. woman's breast
bīla pl bīb\iotas<sup>\epsilon</sup> cb bìl- or bì- adj. little, small
bìlig<sup>E</sup> vv. roll (transitive)
bìlım<sup>m</sup> vv. roll (intransitive)
bìmbìm<sup>mε</sup> pl bìmbìma<sup>+</sup> cb bìmbìm- n. altar NT (KED: mound or pillar of earth)
Bìn<sup>nε</sup> pl Bìm<sup>ma</sup> cb Bìn- n. Moba, Bimoba person 32.5 (not only Bemba, WK)
Bin^{n\epsilon} n. Moba language 32.5
bīn<sup>nε</sup> n. excrement
Bìun<sup>3</sup> n. Moba country 32.5
bà+ vv. seek; bàada ipfv used for: want, like, love (sexual, romantic); imperfective
         gerund bòodım<sup>m</sup> will 13.1.1.4
b\bar{5}^+ cb b\bar{5}- what? why? \underline{16.3.4}; b\bar{5}-b\bar{u}ud\iota^+ what sort of ..?; b\bar{5}-zug\bar{5} because \underline{24.1.3},
         why? 17.7; bò-wìn<sup>nɛ</sup> what time of day?
bòbιg<sup>ε</sup> νν. wrap round, tie round
bòdig<sup>ε</sup> vv. lose, become lost
```

```
bòdòbòdò<sup>+</sup> n. bread (? ultimately ← English)
b\dot{a}k^{3} pl b\dot{b}' ad<sup>\epsilon</sup> cb bu'\dot{a}- n. pit
bɔ̃sır<sup>ɛ</sup> pl bɔ̃sa<sup>+</sup> cb bɔ̀s- n. a kind of small, very poisonous snake
b\bar{v}^{+} vv. beat
buàk<sup>ε</sup> νν. split
bù'ar<sup>£</sup> pl bu'àa<sup>+</sup> cb bu'à- n. hole
bū'ar<sup>€</sup>/ pl bu'áa<sup>+</sup> cb bu'ā- n. skin bottle
bùd<sup>ε</sup> ger būdιg<sup>a</sup> būdυg<sup>5</sup> vv. plant seeds
bùdım<sup>m</sup> vv. get confused
bùdımís<sup>E</sup> n. confusion
bù'e+ vv. pour out
bùgε vv. get drunk; cf Hausa bùgu id
b\bar{v}gvd^a n. client of a b\bar{a}'a^= traditional diviner
bùgulım<sup>m</sup> vv. cast lots
būgur<sup>\epsilon</sup> pl būga<sup>+</sup> cb bùg- n. dwelling-place of a w\bar{i}n^{n\epsilon} localised spirit; also a w\bar{i}n^{n\epsilon/} as
         a s\bar{i}gir^{\epsilon/3}2.2 inherited from one's mother's family
bùgύm<sup>m</sup> cb bùgūm- bùgúm- n. fire; Bùgύm-tɔ̄ɔňr<sup>ε</sup> n. Fire Festival
būgvs<sup>a/</sup> iv. be soft
būgusíga būgusír<sup>£</sup> pl būgusá<sup>+</sup> cb būgus- adj. soft, weak
būgvsígā<sup>+/</sup> adv. softly <u>17.4</u>
būgusím<sup>m</sup> n. softness, weakness
b\bar{\nu}k^{\epsilon}/\nu\nu, weaken
bùk<sup>€</sup> vv. cast lots
bùl<sup>E</sup> vv. germinate, ooze
būl<sup>lɛ</sup> pl būla<sup>+</sup> n. shoot, sprout
bùl<sup>€</sup> vv. astonish
Bùl<sup>|\epsilon|</sup> n. Buli language 32.5
Bùliga pl Bùlis^{\varepsilon} cb Bùl- n. Bulsa person 32.5
bùl\mathbf{g}^{\mathbf{a}} pl bùl\mathbf{s}^{\mathbf{\epsilon}} cb bùl- n. well, pond
bùmbàrıga pl bùmbàrıs cb bùmbàr- n. ant
bùn<sup>E</sup> vv. reap. harvest
b\bar{v}n^{n\epsilon} pl b\bar{v}n\dot{a}^+ b\bar{v}n-n\dot{a}m^a cb b\bar{v}n-n. thing (concrete or abstract) 16.10.3.1; b\bar{v}n-
         bύνdìf<sup>o</sup> n. plant; būn-gín<sup>a</sup> n. short chap (informal, joking); būn-kɔ́n̄bùg<sup>o</sup>
         pl b\bar{v}n-k\acute{o}nb\`{i}d^{\epsilon}cb k\grave{o}nb- (sic) n. animal; b\bar{v}n-k\acute{v}d\grave{v}g^{\sigma} n. old man
būn-dáàr<sup>E</sup> which day? 17.7
bù\eta^a pl bùmis^{\epsilon} cb bù\eta- n. donkey
bùn<sup>ε</sup> vv. take a short cut
bùel<sup>E</sup> vv. call, summon; Ò yō'vr búèn X. She is called X. 20.2
bùer<sup>€</sup> pl buèya<sup>+</sup> cb buà- n. grain store, silo
b\bar{u}'es^{\epsilon} vv. ask; qer b\bar{u}'es\dot{q}^{\sigma} n. question; bu'oskana this question (In 18:34)
bù-piiga adv. ten times 16.4.2.4
```

```
būráa = n. man, male adult (in ILK but characteristically Toende Kusaal; no examples
       in NT. See dāu+)
būrıyá<sup>+</sup> n. Christmas ← Twi/Fante bronya
bùrkìn<sup>a</sup> pl bùrkìn-nàm<sup>a</sup> cb bùrkìn- n. free person; honourable person ← Songhay 15.1
Bùsáànl<sup>E</sup> n. Bisa language 32.5
Bὺsán<sup>a</sup> pl Bὺsáàňs<sup>ε</sup> cb Bὺsān- n. Bisa person 32.5
būtin<sup>a</sup> pl būtiis irregular 6.2.1; cb bùtin- n. cup (in general; etymologically \leftarrow
       "seed planting [cup]")
bῦνα<sup>ε</sup> n. pl as sg innocence
būudi + cb bùud- n. kind, sort, ethnic group
b\bar{v}vg^a pl b\bar{v}vs^{\epsilon}cb b\dot{v}- n. goat; b\dot{v}-dibig^a n. male kid
D
dà before two days ago, tense particle 19.3.1
dā not with imperative mood 19.5
dàa day after tomorrow, tense particle 19.3.1
dāa before yesterday, tense particle 19.3.1
dà'+ vv. buy
dà'a= pl dà'asε cb dà'- n. market
dà'abır<sup>E</sup> n. slave
dàalım<sup>m</sup> n. masculinity
dàalím<sup>m</sup> pl dàalímìs^{\epsilon} n. male organs
dāam<sup>m/</sup> cb dā- n. millet beer, "pito"; dā-núùr<sup>ε</sup> n. beer-drinking; dā-bín<sup>nε</sup> cb dā-bín-
       n. residue of beer; NT yeast (cf b\bar{l}n^{n\epsilon})
dàam<sup>m</sup> vv. disturb, trouble (cf Hausa dàamaa id)
dāana pl dàan-nàma cb dàan-n. owner of ... 16.10.3.1
dāar<sup>ε</sup> pl dābá+cb dà- n. day, 24-hour period 32.9; dà-pīiga+ n. ten days
dābíèm<sup>m</sup> tone sic n. fear
dab\bar{l}og^{3} pl dab\bar{l}od^{\epsilon} cb dab\bar{l}a- n. coward
dàbisir<sup>E</sup> pl dàbisa<sup>+</sup> cb dàbis- n. day (as one of several)
dādύk<sup>3</sup> n. a kind of large pot
dā'e+/ vv. push; blow (of wind)
Dàgáada pl Dàgáadìba Dàgáad-nàma cb Dàgáad- n. Dagaaba person (L prefix sic)
Dàgbān<sup>nε/</sup> pl Dàgbām<sup>ma/</sup> cb Dàgbān- n. Dagomba person 32.5
Dàgbān<sup>n\epsilon</sup>/ n. Dagbani language 32.5
Dàgbāun<sup>3</sup>/ n. Dagomba country, Dagbon 32.5
dàgòbiga n. left-hand; (yà) dàgòbiga South KB 32.3
dāká+ pl dāká-nàma cb dāká- n. box ← Hausa àdakàa
dàkīiga pl dàkīis cb dàkì- n. wife's sibling 32.1; dàkì-dāu n. wife's brother; dàkì-
       puāka n. wife's sister; dàki-tùa+ n. wife's sister's husband
```

```
dà-kònr<sup>e</sup> pl dà-kònya<sup>+</sup> cb dà-kòn- n. unmarried son 32.1
dàm<sup>m</sup> ipfv dàmmıda vv. shake
dama'a n. liar cf ma'
dàmà'am<sup>m</sup> n. lie, untruth, lying
dàmà'ar<sup>E</sup> n. lie, untruth
dāmpūsāar<sup>€</sup> n. stick
dànkòno n. measles
dà-pāala/ n. young man, son
dà-sāŋa pl dà-sāans dà-sām cb dà-saŋ- n. young man
d\hat{a}-t\bar{a}a pl d\hat{a}-t\bar{a}as cb d\hat{a}-t\hat{a}- n. enemy
dàtìuŋ³ n. right-hand; (yà) dàtìuŋ³ North KB 32.3
d\bar{a}u^+ pl d\bar{a}p^a cb d\dot{a}u- d\dot{a}p- 9.2.2 n. man (as opposed to woman)
dàug<sup>3</sup> pl dàad<sup>ɛ</sup> cb dà- n. piece of wood, log; pl also: wood (material); dà-kīəd<sup>a</sup>
        n. wood-cutter; dà-kpī'əda n. carpenter; dà-pūvdír<sup>E</sup> n. cross-piece, pl dà-
        pūvdá<sup>+</sup> n. used as sa cross NT
dāυg<sup>3</sup> pl dāad<sup>ε</sup> cb dà- adj. male
dàwàlıga n. hot humid season before the rains
dàwān<sup>nɛ/</sup> pl dàwāná<sup>+</sup> cb dàwān- n. pigeon
dàyáam<sup>ma</sup> pl dàyāam-nám<sup>a</sup> cb dàyāam- n. husband's parent 32.1; dàyāam-dáu<sup>+</sup> n.
        husband's father; dàyāam-puáka n. husband's mother
dàyūug<sup>\Sigma</sup> pl dàyūud<sup>\epsilon</sup> cb dàyū- n. rat
d\hat{\epsilon}bir^{\epsilon} pl d\hat{\epsilon}ba^{+} n. mat, pallet, bed
d\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon\eta^a pl d\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon\check{n}s^\epsilon d\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon m\iota s^\epsilon d\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon na^+ cb d\hat{\epsilon}\epsilon\eta- q. first \underline{16.4.2.3}
d\bar{\epsilon}l^{|a|} qer d\bar{\epsilon}ll\dot{\nu}g^{3} d\bar{\epsilon}ll\dot{\nu}m^{m} iv. lean on something (of a person)
dèlim<sup>m</sup> vv. begin to lean on something (of a person)
d\bar{\epsilon}\eta^a pl d\bar{\epsilon}m (s^{\epsilon}) cb d\dot{\epsilon}\eta- n. accidental bruise
dὲη<sup>ε</sup> νν. go, do first
dènim beforehand, preverb 19.7.2
dì it, its (proclitic) 16.3.1 = 1ì
dì + ipfv dìta imp dìma vv. eat, receive; ger dītb n. food; Ò dì pu'ā. He's married a
        wife. O dì nyán. She's ashamed.
diā'a vv. get dirty
diā'ad<sup>€</sup>/ n. dirt
dī'e+/ vv. receive, get
dìəm<sup>ma</sup> pl dìəm-nàm<sup>a</sup>cb dìəm- n. wife's parent 32.1; also in polite address to an
        unrelated person of opposite sex and similar or greater age than onself;
        dìəm-dāu<sup>+</sup> n. wife's father; dìəm-puāk<sup>a</sup> n. wife's mother
dì'əm<sup>m</sup> vv. play, not be serious
dì'əma<sup>+</sup> n. festival
d\bar{i}' \ni s^{\epsilon}/vv, receive (many things)
dīgi<sup>ya/</sup> ger dīk<sup>a/</sup> KT dīgir<sup>ɛ/</sup> WK iv. be lying down
```

```
dīgīsá<sup>+</sup> n. pl lairs
dīgıl<sup>ε</sup>/ vv. lay down
digin<sup>ε</sup> vv. lie down
dìgır<sup>€</sup> pl dìga+ cb dìg- n. dwarf
dis<sup>E</sup> vv. feed; agt dis<sup>a</sup> n. glutton
dìma dummy head pronoun, animate pl 16.10.3.1
din<sup>ne</sup> dummy head pronoun, inanimate 16.10.3.1
dín it (subject of n-clause) 16.3.1
din^{\varepsilon} it (contrastive) 16.3.1 = lin^{\varepsilon}
dìndēog^{\circ}/ pl dìndē\epsilond^{\epsilon}/ cb dìndē- n. chameleon
dìndìis n. glutton
dìn zúg<sup>3</sup> therefore 17.7
dìtύη<sup>3</sup> n. right-hand (see dàtìųη<sup>3</sup>)
di-z\bar{\partial}r\nu q^{3/} pl di-z\bar{\partial}r\acute{a}^+ cb di-z\bar{\partial}r- n. crumb
dɔ̃lla/ ger dɔ̃llím<sup>m</sup> iv. accompany in a subordinate rôle; Ànɔ́'ɔnì dɔ̃llí fɔ̂? Who has
        come with you? (to an elderly patient.) Bà dòl nē tāaba. They went together.
d5 lig^{\epsilon}/vv. make accompany, send along with
dɔ̄lιs<sup>ε</sup>/ νν. investigate, trace
d\bar{\rho} n \log^{\epsilon} vv. stretch oneself
dòň'ɔs<sup>ε</sup> νν. water plants
d \partial g^{3} pl d \partial g^{2} d\partial t^{\epsilon} cb d\partial g^{-1} n. house, hut; clan; d\partial g^{-1} d\partial g^{-1} n. (house) cat
dòɔngo pl dòɔndε cb dòn- n. dawadawa fruit 32.6
d\bar{v}^+ ipfy d\bar{v}t^{al} imp d\hat{v}m^a vv. go up
du'à vv. bear, give birth, beget; agt dō'ad n. elder relation
dò'al<sup>E</sup> vv. make interest (of a loan)
dō'am<sup>™</sup> n. birth
dùaň<sup>+</sup> pl dòɔňs<sup>ε</sup> cb dòň- n. dawadawa 32.6 Parkia clappertoniana [biglobosa] (Haaf)
du'átà<sup>+</sup> n. doctor ← English
dūe+/ vv. raise, rise
dūg<sup>ε</sup> νν. cook
d\bar{\nu}k^{3} pl d\bar{\nu}g\nu d^{\epsilon} dút cb d\bar{\nu}g- n. cooking pot; d\bar{\nu}g-p\epsilon'èla n. full pots
dùm<sup>m</sup> vv. bite
dūm<sup>mε</sup> dūm<sup>nε</sup> pl dūma<sup>+</sup> cb dùm- n. knee
dùndùug<sup>3</sup> pl dùndùud^{\varepsilon} cb dùndù- n. cobra
dunya+ cb dūnıyá- 9.7 n. world ← Arabic دنيا dunya:
dūnná<sup>+</sup> adv. this year 32.9
d\bar{u}\eta^a pl d\bar{u}m\iota s^{\epsilon} cb d\dot{u}\eta- n. mosquito
dūer<sup>ε/</sup> pl duēyá<sup>+</sup> cb duā- n. stick
dū'esε/ νν. lift up, honour
dùra iv. be many
```

```
dū'unε/ νν. pass water (ger recorded as dū'unύg<sup>3</sup>)
dū'uním<sup>m</sup> cb dū'un- n. urine
dūvsá<sup>+</sup> n. pl. steps
Ε
ε̃εň yes <u>25.2.4</u>
εεň or εεň tí see ňyεε, ňyεε tí preverb 19.7.2
\bar{\epsilon} \epsilon \tilde{n} b^{\epsilon} / vv. lay a foundation
\bar{\epsilon} \epsilon \bar{n} b (r^{\epsilon} n. \text{ foundation } 12.1.2)
ὲňbιs<sup>ε</sup> νν. scratch
¿ňď vv. block up, plug up
Èňdig<sup>E</sup> vv. unblock, unplug
Èmrig<sup>E</sup> vv. shift along (e.g. a bench)
F
fāaň = q. every <u>16.4.1</u>
fāeň<sup>+/</sup> vv. save; agt fāaňd<sup>a/</sup> fāaňgíd<sup>a</sup> n. saviour <u>15.1</u>
fāň+ vv. grab, rob
fáss ideophone for piəliga white 16.11.1.3
f\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon q^{\epsilon}/vv. (of food) get old, cold
f\bar{\epsilon}\bar{n}'og^{2} pl f\bar{\epsilon}\bar{n}'\epsilon d^{\epsilon} cb f\bar{\epsilon}\bar{n}'- n. ulcer
fiəb<sup>ε</sup> νν. beat
fi'ig<sup>E</sup> vv. cut off
fiin = q. a little (liquid) <u>16.4.1</u>
fitlá<sup>+</sup> n. lamp \leftarrow Hausa fitilàa; in KB adapted to the r^{\epsilon}|_{a} class: sq fitir pl fita
f\bar{\sigma} s^{\epsilon} vv. blow, puff (wind); ger f\bar{\sigma} s u^{\sigma} n. hypocrisy NT
fv you, your sq (proclitic) 16.3.1
\mathbf{P} you sq (enclitic object) 16.3.1
fùe+ vv. draw out
fūfūm<sup>mε</sup> pl fūfūma<sup>+</sup> cb fūfúm- n. envy; stye (believed to result from envy)
fún you sa (as subject of n-clause) 16.3.1
fūn SF fúnē LF you sg (contrastive) 16.3.1
fūug<sup>5/</sup> pl fūud<sup>\epsilon/</sup> fūt<sup>\epsilon/</sup> cb fū- n. shirt, clothing; pl also: cloth
G
gàad<sup>E</sup> vv. pass, surpass 23.3.2
gáafàra sorry formula 31 (Hausa gaafaràa, ultimately ← Arabic)
gà'al<sup>ε</sup> vv. button up
```

```
gà'am<sup>m</sup> vv. grind teeth
g\bar{a}a\check{n}^{=/} pl g\bar{a}a\check{n}s^{\epsilon/} cb g\bar{a}\check{n}- n. Nigerian ebony 32.6 Diospyros mespilliformis (Haaf)
gàas<sup>ε</sup> νν. pass by
gādv+ gādvg<sup>5</sup>/ pl gādv-náma gāt<sup>ɛ</sup>/ cb gād- gādv- n. bed ← Hausa gadoo
gàlım<sup>m</sup> vv. joke
gàlis<sup>E</sup> vv. exceed, get to be too much
gāňr<sup>€</sup>/ pl gāňyá<sup>+</sup> cb gāňr- n. fruit of Nigerian ebony 32.6
gàη<sup>ε</sup> vv. step over
gāη<sup>ε/</sup> vv. choose
gbāň'e+/ vv. catch
gbáňyà'a= n. lazy person 15
gbáňyà'am<sup>m</sup> n. laziness; 1976 NT gonya'am
gbàun<sup>3</sup> pl gbàna<sup>+</sup> cb gbàn- gbàun- n. book WK
gbāuŋ<sup>ɔ/</sup> pl gbāná<sup>+</sup> cb gbān- gbāuŋ- n. animal skin WK; animal skin, book DK
gbέὲňm<sup>m</sup> cb gbēň- n. sleep
gbè'og<sup>5</sup> pl gbè'\epsilon d^{\epsilon} gb\dot{\epsilon}da^{+} cb gb\dot{\epsilon}'- n. forehead; shore of a lake
\mathbf{q}\mathbf{b}\bar{\mathbf{e}}\mathbf{r}^{\mathbf{\epsilon}l} pl \mathbf{q}\mathbf{b}\bar{\mathbf{e}}\mathbf{v}\hat{\mathbf{a}}^{+} cb \mathbf{q}\mathbf{b}\bar{\mathbf{e}}\mathbf{r}- n. thigh
gbīgım<sup>nɛ</sup> pl gbīgıma<sup>+</sup> cb gbìgım- n. lion
gbìn<sup>nε</sup> pl gbìna<sup>+</sup> cb gbìn- n. buttock; base (e.g. of a mountain); postposition 17.6
gbìn-vòɔňr<sup>ɛ</sup> n. anus
gbīs<sup>ε</sup> νν. sleep
ḡεε/νν. place between one's legs (Pattern H)
gēεňm<sup>m/</sup> νν. go mad, madden
ḡεκ̄mίs<sup>ε</sup> n. pl as sg madness
gέεἤη<sup>a</sup> pl ḡεἔἤm(s<sup>ε</sup> n. madman
gél<sup>le</sup> pl gēlá<sup>+</sup> cb gēl- n. egg
gēň<sup>+</sup> vv. get tired; res adj gēεňlúη<sup>3</sup> adj. tired
g\bar{\epsilon}\check{n}^{+} vv. get angry
gε̄og<sup>3</sup> n. place between one's legs (Pattern O sic)
gīiňlím<sup>m</sup> n. shortness
gik^a pl gigis^{\epsilon} cb giginary n. dumb person
gigilim<sup>m</sup> vv. become dumb
q\bar{l}llq^{\epsilon}/ipfv q\bar{l}n^{na}/vv. go around 11.1.1
gīm<sup>ma/</sup> iv. be short
gīna pl gīma + cb gìn- adj. short
gìn<sup>ε</sup> vv. scrimp
gīna<sup>+</sup> adv. shortly 17.4
gīnılím<sup>m</sup> n. shortness
g\bar{\rho}d\iota g^{\epsilon}/g\dot{\rho}'\rho' \nuv. look up
qɔ̃lla/ qɔ̄ra/ qɔ̄'eya/ iv. be looking up
gòn+ vv. hunt; ipfv gòonda wander, ger gòondim wandering 13.1.1.4
```

```
Gòɔga pl Gòɔs^{\varepsilon} n. clan name 32.5
Gòog n. place of the Gòos Goosi clan
qò'ɔn<sup>ε</sup> νν. look up
āra/ iv. be looking up
q\bar{c}s^{\epsilon} ipfv q\bar{c}sid^{a/} q\bar{c}t^{a/} imp q\bar{c}sim^{a} q\bar{c}m^{a} qer q\bar{c}siq^{a} vv. look; aqt q\bar{c}t^{a/} n. seer,
         prophet
gùl<sup>E</sup> ipfv gùn<sup>na</sup> vv. suspend
gùlla ger gūlıb' iv. be suspended
gùllim<sup>nɛ</sup> only; post-NP/AdvP particle 30.6
gỳm<sup>mε</sup> pl gỳma<sup>+</sup> n. kapok fruit 32.6; also thread WK
Gὑm<sup>mε</sup> n. place of the clan Gỳm-dìm<sup>a</sup> 32.5
gūmpūzēr<sup>ɛ/</sup> pl gūmpūzēyá<sup>+</sup> cb gūmpūzér- n. duck
\dot{q}\dot{u}\dot{n}'a^+ pl \dot{q}\dot{o}\dot{n}'\dot{o}s^{\epsilon} cb \dot{q}\dot{o}\dot{n}'- n. thorn
gὑngūm<sup>mε</sup> n. kapok material
gùn<sup>a</sup> pl gỳmιs<sup>ε</sup> cb gỳn- n. kapok tree 32.6 Ceiba pentandra (Haaf)
gūral ger gūrím<sup>m</sup> iv. be on guard, watch for 26.1
Gōrίn<sup>nε</sup> n. Farefare language 32.5
G\bar{\nu}r(\eta^a) pl G\bar{\nu}r(s^{\epsilon}) n. Farefare person 32.5
q\bar{u}'ul^{\epsilon}/vv. put on quard
gờ'vlim<sup>m</sup> vv. become half-ripe
gòur<sup>\epsilon</sup> pl gòya<sup>+</sup> cb gò- n. upland; bank of river
q\bar{v}v^{\epsilon} pl q\bar{v}ya^{+} cb q\dot{v}- n. ridge of back
g\bar{u}'us^{\epsilon} vv. take care, watch out
q\bar{\upsilon}'\upsilon s^{\varepsilon} n. pl half-ripe fruit
н
hālí+ until, up to and as far as, even 18.1 \ 24.1.3 \ 23.4 \ 30.6; ? \leftarrow Arabic حتى hatta:
         hālí báa even 30.6
Ī
iā+ vv. seek
iāň'as<sup>ε/</sup> νν. leap
iāňk<sup>ε/</sup> ger jāň'ad<sup>a/</sup> agt jāň'ad<sup>a/</sup> νν. leap, fly 11.1.1
igu<sup>ya</sup>/ ger īk<sup>a</sup>/ KT īgur<sup>€</sup>/ WK iv. be kneeling
igul<sup>€</sup>/ vv. make to kneel
igιn<sup>ε</sup> νν. kneel down
(ιΙ<sup>lε</sup> pl  llá cb ll- n. horn
istr^{\epsilon} pl isa^+cb is- n. scar
isig<sup>ε</sup> vv. get up early
```

```
Κ
```

```
kà and, that 24.1.2
k\bar{a}ab^{\epsilon}/vv, offer, invite
kāal<sup>€</sup>/vv. count
kāas<sup>€</sup>/ vv. crv out, weep; (cock) crow
kà'asıgē LF only; iv. not exist 29.1.1
kābig<sup>ε/</sup> vv. ladle out (liquid)
k\bar{a}b\iota r^{\epsilon} vv. call out asking for admission <u>31</u>; ger k\bar{a}b\iota r^{\epsilon} n. calling out for admission
kàd<sup>ɛ</sup> vv. drive away; kàd sàríyà vv. judge 20.1; agt sàríyà-kāt<sup>a</sup> n. judge NT
k\bar{a}'e^+ ger k\bar{a}'al(m^m)iv. not exist, not be, not have 29.1.1 8.5.3
kāl<sup>l€</sup>/ pl kālá<sup>+</sup> cb kāl- n. number
kàlq\bar{a}^{+} q. few 16.4.1
kàm<sup>a</sup> q. every <u>16.4.1</u>
Kàmbònır<sup>E</sup> n. Twi language 32.5
Kàmbùŋa pl Kàmbùms^{\epsilon} cb Kàmbùŋ- n. Ashanti person 32.5
kan^{\epsilon} this, that demonstrative 16.3.2
kàňb<sup>ε</sup> ger kāňbιr<sup>ε</sup> vv. scorch
k \dot{a} n \bar{a}^{+/} this, that demonstrative 16.3.2
kàra iv. be few
kàrım<sup>m</sup> vv. read
kàsēta/ n. witness; testimony (Mooré kàsétò "proof, testimony"; probably ultimately
         \leftarrow French cachet <u>15.1</u>; pl kàsētíb<sup>a</sup> witnesses)
k\bar{\epsilon}^+ ipfv k\bar{\epsilon}t^{a/} imp k\dot{\epsilon}l^a vv. let, cause to ... 11.1.1 26.1
kèɛkè+ pl kèɛkè-nàma cb kèɛkè- n. bicycle ← Hausa kèekè
kὲεs<sup>ε</sup> νν. say farewell to
kèlis<sup>E</sup> vv. listen
k\bar{\epsilon}n^+ ipfv k\bar{\epsilon}n^{a/} imp k\dot{\epsilon}m^a ger k\bar{\epsilon}n^{n\epsilon/} vv. come 11.1.1; always with n\bar{a} 20.7; k\bar{\epsilon}n k\bar{\epsilon}n
         welcome! 31
k\bar{\epsilon}n^{\epsilon} ipfv k\bar{\epsilon}n^{na} imp k\dot{\epsilon}m^a (disambiguated with sà 20.7) vv. go; walk 11.1.1; agt
         k\bar{\epsilon}n^{\mathsf{na}/} n. traveller
kérıfà or kárıfà ← Hausa ƙarfèe; in telling time 32.9
k\bar{i}^{+} cb k\bar{i}- k\bar{a}- n. cereal, millet; k\hat{i}-d\hat{a}' ar^{\epsilon} pl k\hat{i}-d\hat{a}' ada^{+} n. purchased millet; k\bar{a}-
         wēnnιr<sup>ε</sup> pl kā-wēnna<sup>+</sup> cb kā-wén- n. corn
kià+ vv. cut
k\bar{l}dlg^{\epsilon} vv. cross over, meet; \hat{A}-K\bar{l}dlgl B\bar{u}'es n. the constellation Orion
k\bar{i}ib\dot{o}^+ cb k\bar{i}ib^- n. soap WK; \leftarrow Mampruli 15.1; written materials ki'ib^3, probably k\bar{i}'lb^3
kíiňP pl k\overline{i}in\ell n. millet seed
kìis<sup>E</sup> vv. listen
k\bar{\iota}'\iota s^{\epsilon}/\nu\nu, denv
kìkàm<sup>mε</sup> pl kìkàma<sup>+</sup> n. fig 32.6
```

```
kìkàna kìnkàna pl kìkàmıs cb kìkàn- n. fig tree 32.6 Ficus capensis (Haaf)
kìkīr\cdotga/ pl kìkīr\cdots<sup>\epsilon</sup>/ cb kìkīr- n. "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 k i k \bar{l} r \iota s^{\epsilon/l} hostile to man live in the bush: "Their feet
        are attached backwards to confuse trackers." WK; k i k \bar{i} r - b \epsilon' \hat{\epsilon} d^{\epsilon} n. NT evil
        spirit, demon (KB just uses kìkīrıga/)
kīlım<sup>m/</sup> vv. become, change into
kìm<sup>m</sup> vv. tend flock, herd; agt kònb-kīm<sup>na</sup> n. herdsman, shepherd
kīr<sup>€</sup> ger kıkíròg<sup>3</sup> kīrıb<sup>3</sup> vv. hurry, tremble
kīs<sup>a</sup>/ ger kísòg<sup>3</sup> agt kīs<sup>a</sup>/ kīsıd<sup>a</sup>/ iv. hate
kísòg<sup>3</sup> adj. hateful, taboo
kɔ̀+ νν. get broken, break (intransitive); res adj kɔ̀ɔlúη̄ adj. broken
kòbigā kòbisí^+ q. one hundred, two hundred 16.4.2.1
kɔ̄bır<sup>€</sup> pl kɔ̄ba+ cb kɔ̀b- n. bone
kɔ̄dψ <sup>+</sup> n. banana ← Twi kwadu
kò/<sup>€</sup> vv. put something around the neck
k\bar{\rho} \log^a pl k\bar{\rho} \log^\epsilon cb k\bar{\rho} - n. river; k\bar{\rho} \log^2 n. crayfish
kòlug<sup>3</sup> pl kòn<sup>nɛ</sup> cb kòlug- 9.2.2 n. sack, bag
kɔ̃m<sup>m/</sup> cb kɔ̃m- n. hunger
k\bar{\jmath}nbvg^{\jmath} pl k\bar{\jmath}nbid^{\varepsilon} cb k\bar{\jmath}nb- (also used as cb of b\bar{v}n-k\dot{\jmath}nb\dot{v}g^{\jmath} animal) n. animal hair
        or human body hair; cf zūebúg³; kòňb-kīm³ pl kòňb-kīmmıb³ n. shepherd,
        herdsman
k\bar{j}n'jk\bar{j}^+ adv. alone, by oneself 17.4
kòňs<sup>ε</sup> νν. cough
kòňsım<sup>m</sup> vv. cough
k\hat{\sigma}^{\prime}\hat{\sigma}g^{\epsilon} vv. break (transitive or intransitive)
κὸ'ɔs<sup>ε</sup> νν. break several times
kòtàa<sup>nε</sup> at all; post-NP/AdvP particle 30.6
k\acute{j}t\dot{v}^{\dagger} n. lawcourt ← English, probably via Hausa
kpà'a= pl kpà'a-nàma n. rich person
kpāada/ pl kpāadíba cb kpāad- n. farmer, cultivator
kpà'am<sup>m</sup> n. riches
kpāaňm<sup>m/</sup> cb kpāň- n. grease, ointment; kpāň-sɔ́ň'ɔdìm<sup>m</sup> n. anointing oil
kpàkūr^{\epsilon} pl kpàkūyá<sup>+</sup> cb kpàkūr- n. tortoise
kpān<sup>nε</sup> pl kpāna<sup>+</sup> cb kpàn- n. spear
kpàňdιr<sup>ε</sup> pl kpàňda<sup>+</sup> cb kpàňd- n. baboon
kpàr<sup>ε</sup> νν. lock
kpār-kéòng pl kpār-kéènd<sup>e</sup> cb kpār-kéň- n. rag
kp\bar{a}'\dot{u}\eta^{2} pl kp\bar{i}'in(\dot{t}+cb) kp\bar{a}'-n. guinea fowl
kp\bar{\epsilon}^+ adv. here 17.7
```

kpēεňm^m pl kpèεňm-nàm^a cb kpèεňm- n. elder

```
kpēεňm<sup>ma/</sup> iν. be older than
kp\bar{\epsilon}l\dot{a}^+ adv. here <u>17.7</u>
kpèlim still; immediately after, preverb 19.7.2
kpὲlιm<sup>m</sup> νν. remain
kpèn reduced form of the preverb kpèlim
kpὲň'<sup>+</sup> νν. enter
kp\bar{\epsilon}\bar{n}d\iota r^{\epsilon/} pl kp\bar{\epsilon}\bar{n}d\dot{a}^+ cb kp\bar{\epsilon}\bar{n}d- n. cheek
kpὲň'εs<sup>ε</sup> νν. make enter
kp\dot{\epsilon}'\eta^{\epsilon} vv. strengthen
kpēoňn<sup>o</sup> n. seniority
kpì+ vv. die; res adj kpìilún adj. dead
kpì'a<sup>+</sup> pl kpì' \ni s^{\epsilon} cb kpià' - n. neighbour
kpià'+ vv. shape wood with axe etc
kpì'e<sup>+</sup> vv. approach
kpi'əm<sup>ma/</sup> iv. be strong, hard
kpìibg^a pl kpìibs^{\varepsilon} cb kpìib- n. orphan
kpìig<sup>ε</sup> νν. go out (fire)
kpī'ılím<sup>m</sup> vv. finish, come to an end
kp\bar{l}'im^{m/l} pl kp\bar{l}'im(s^{\epsilon} cb kp\bar{l}'im-n). dead person, corpse
kpìis<sup>ε</sup> νν. quench (fire)
kpīkpīn<sup>na/</sup> pl kpīkpīnníb<sup>a</sup> cb kpīkpín- n. merchant
kpī'oŋ³ pl kpī'əma+ cb kpì'oŋ- adj. strong, hard
kpisınkpil<sup>le</sup> pl kpisınkpila<sup>+</sup> cb kpisınkpil- n. fist
kpìsυkpìl<sup>lε</sup> n. fist
kpùkpàr<sup>ε</sup> pl kpùkpàra<sup>+</sup> n. palm tree fruit <u>32.6</u>
kpùkpàrıg<sup>a</sup> pl kpùkpàrıs<sup>ɛ</sup> cb kpùkpàr- n. palm tree 32.6 (Probably Borassus akeassii
         or aethiopum)
kpùkpàuŋ² pl kpùkpàma+ cb kpùkpàuŋ- n. arm, wing
kù not; negates irrealis mood 19.5
kῡ+ νν. kill
k\bar{v}^+ vv. gather, threaten (of rain): S\bar{a}a \, k\dot{v} \, y\bar{a}. It looks like rain.
kuā<sup>+</sup> vv. hoe, farm
k\bar{v}'al(n^a) pl k\bar{v}'al(m)s^{\epsilon} k\bar{v}'al(s^{\epsilon}) cb k\bar{v}'al(n-n). sleeveless traditional smock
kùd<sup>ε</sup> νν. work iron
kùdıg<sup>E</sup> vv. shrivel up, dry out, age
kūdım<sup>m</sup> n. the olden days; also for kūlım qv
k\bar{\nu}d\nu g^{3} k\bar{\nu}d\iota r^{\epsilon} pl k\bar{\nu}da^{+} k\bar{\nu}t^{\epsilon} cb k\dot{\nu}d- adj. old
k\bar{u}dvg^{5} pl k\bar{u}t^{\epsilon} (used as sg 9.5)cb k\dot{u}t- n. iron, nail; sg obsolete except in names 32.2
k\bar{u}gvr^{\epsilon} pl k\bar{u}g\dot{a}^+ cb k\bar{u}g- n. stone
k\bar{\nu}k^{a} pl k\bar{\nu}g\nu s^{\epsilon} cb k\dot{\nu}g- n. chair
kùka n. ghost
```

```
kūka/ n. mahogany tree, Khaya senegalensis (Haaf); cf Hausa kuukàa
kùkòm<sup>mε</sup> pl kùkòma<sup>+</sup> cb kùkòm- n. leper
kùkɔr<sup>€</sup>/ pl kùkɔ̄yá<sup>+</sup> cb kùkɔ̄r- n. voice
kùkpàrıqa see kpùkpàrıqa id
kūl<sup>E</sup> ger kūlıg<sup>a/</sup> vv. return home; transitive marry (woman subject, man object)
kūlım always, post-subject particle 24.1.4
kùlin<sup>a</sup> pl kùlimis<sup>\epsilon</sup> kùlis<sup>\epsilon</sup> cb kùlin- n. door
kòm<sup>m</sup> vv. crv. weep
k\bar{u}m^{m} cb k\dot{u}m- n. death; k\dot{u}m-v\bar{v}'vg(r^{\epsilon}) n. resurrection NT
kùndù'ar<sup>E</sup> pl kùndù'ada<sup>+</sup> cb kùndu'à- n. barren woman
kùndù\eta^a pl kùndùm\iota s^{\epsilon} kùndùna^+ n. jackal, hyena
k\dot{u}'em^m cb k\underline{u}'\dot{a}-n. water; k\underline{u}'\dot{a}-n\bar{u}ud^{\epsilon}/n. thirst; k\underline{u}'\dot{a}-n\bar{w}iig^{a}/pl k\underline{u}'\dot{a}-n\bar{w}iis^{\epsilon}/n.
        current in a river
kùes<sup>ε</sup> νν. sell
kừrkūr<sup>ε/</sup> pl kừrkūyá<sup>+</sup> cb kừrkūr- n. pig
Kūsáa pl Kūsáàs cb Kūsá- n. Kusaasi person 32.5
Kūsáàl<sup>E</sup> n. Kusaal language 32.5
Kūsáùg³ n. Kusaasi country 32.5
Κὺτān<sup>nε/</sup> pl Κὺτām<sup>ma/</sup> cb Κὺτān- n. member of WK's clan
Kùtāuŋɔ/ n. country of clan Kùtām<sup>ma/</sup> Kutamba
kōv or 24.1.2 25.2.2 ← Hausa
k\bar{u}ug^{a/}k\bar{u}ug^{5/} pl k\bar{u}us^{\epsilon/} cb k\bar{u}- n. mouse
kùvl<sup>€</sup> vv. get drunk
L
lā<sup>+/</sup> definite article 16.5
là'+ vv. laugh
lā'af' n. cowrie; pl līgıdı<sup>+</sup> n. cowries, money; cb lìg- là'-; là'-bīəlíf' n. small coin
láafìya<sup>+</sup> n. health ← Arabic العافية ?al-ʕa:fiya(tu); replaced throughout by laafe láafì
        in 1996 NT and KB
là'am together, preverb 19.7.2
là'am<sup>m</sup> vv. associate with; together with 23.3
là'as<sup>ε</sup> νν. gather together (transitive); Bà là'as tāaba They gathered together.
làbāar<sup>e</sup> cb làbà- n. news ← Arabic الاخبار ?al-?axba:r(u)
làbiya iv. be crouching, hiding behind something (cf Hausa labèe "crouch behind
        something to eavesdrop" 15.1)
làbul<sup>E</sup> vv. make crouch behind something
làbin<sup>E</sup> vv. crouch behind something
làbis<sup>E</sup> vv. walk stealthily
lābisa/ iv. be wide
```

```
lābısíga lābısír<sup>€</sup> pl lābısá+ cb lābıs- adj. wide
lābısím<sup>m</sup> n. width
lākε/ νν. open (eye, book)
lāl<sup>la</sup>/ iv. be distant
l\bar{a}l(q^{\epsilon}) vv. get to be far, make far
lāllí + adv. far off
lāllí\eta^a pl lāllís^{\varepsilon} cb lāllí\eta- adj. distant
lāllúg<sup>3</sup> pl lāllá<sup>+</sup> cb lāl- adj. distant
l\bar{a}m^{m\epsilon/} pl l\bar{a}m\acute{a}^+ cb l\bar{a}m- n. gum (of tooth); l\bar{a}m-f\acute{o}\acute{o}g^{\circ} pl l\bar{a}m-f\acute{o}\acute{o}d^{\epsilon} adj. toothless
         16.11.1.4
làmpō-dí'èsa n. tax collector \underline{15} ← French l'impôt
lān<sup>nε</sup> pl lāna<sup>+</sup> cb làn- n. testicle
làngáuη<sup>2</sup> pl làngáam<sup>mε</sup> làngāamá<sup>+</sup> cb làngāuη- n. crab (cf màngáuη<sup>2</sup> id)
lànnıg<sup>a</sup> pl lànnıs<sup>\epsilon</sup> cb lànnıg- 9.2.2 n. squirrel
l\bar{a}'n^{\epsilon}/vv, set alight
lāním<sup>m</sup> vv. wander around searching
lāuk<sup>3</sup> pl lā'ad<sup>ɛ</sup> cb là'- n. item of goods pl goods
là'טח<sup>o</sup> pl là'ama<sup>+</sup> n. fishing net
lὲb<sup>ε</sup> ger lēbιg<sup>a</sup> vv. return (intrans)
lèbιg<sup>ε</sup> νν. turn over
lèbis<sup>E</sup> vv. answer; send back; divorce (wife)
lèe but, VPred particle 19.7.1
lèm again, preverb 19.7.2
lèm<sup>m</sup> ipfv lèmmıd<sup>a</sup> vv. sip, taste
l̄εrε νν. get ugly
\hat{\mathbf{n}} it, its (proclitic) 16.3.1
h<sup>+</sup> it (enclitic object) 16.3.1
lì+ ipfv lìta imp lìma ger līiga vv. fall
li+ vv. block up
lìa where is ...? 22
lidιg<sup>ε</sup> νν. turn a shirt WK
lidig^{\varepsilon}vv. astonish, be amazed
lìəb<sup>ε</sup> νν. become
lì'əl<sup>€</sup> vv. approach, come near
lían pl līamís^{\varepsilon} cb līan n. axe
lìg<sup>ε</sup> vv. patch
lìgu<sup>E</sup> vv. cover
lìgιn<sup>ε</sup> νν. cover oneself
lītbir^{\varepsilon} pl lītba^{+} cb lìtb- n. twin
lik^a pl liqis^{\epsilon} n. darkness
lìlāalíŋ<sup>a</sup> pl lìlāalís<sup>ɛ</sup> lìlāalímìs<sup>ɛ</sup> cb lìlāalíŋ- n. swallow
```

```
lín it (subject of n-clause) 16.3.1
līn<sup>ε</sup> it (contrastive) 16.3.1
\lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \epsilon that demonstrative 16.3.2
lìná<sup>+</sup> that demonstrative 16.3.2
15+ vv. tie
l5b^{\epsilon} vv. throw stones at
l̄bidíg<sup>a</sup> pl l̄bidís<sup>ε</sup> n. water drawing vessel
l\bar{b}dig^{a/} pl l\bar{b}dis^{\epsilon/} cb l\bar{b}d- n. corner; l\bar{b}dig(n k\dot{u}g-s\dot{v}n) cornerstone NT
l\bar{b}d\iota q^{\epsilon}/\nu\nu, untie
lòk<sup>3</sup> pl lò'ad<sup>ɛ</sup> cb lu'à- n. quiver (for arrows)
làmbà'ɔg³ pl làmbà'ɔd<sup>ɛ</sup> cb làmbà'- n. garden ← Hausa làmbuu
l\bar{b}\eta^a pl l\bar{b}m\iota s^{\epsilon} cb l\dot{b}\eta- n. a kind of frog
15'n^{\epsilon}/vv, go across river, road etc
I5r^{\epsilon} pl I5ya^{+} I5m^{ma} cb I5r- n. car, lorry ← English
lù<sup>+</sup> ipfv lùt<sup>a</sup> imp lùm<sup>a</sup> vv. fall
l\bar{u}b^{\epsilon} ger l\bar{u}b\iota r^{\epsilon}/vv. buck, kick, struggle, throw off rider
lūg<sup>ε</sup> νν. swim
l\bar{\upsilon}g\upsilon r^{\varepsilon} n. organ, member
М
m I, my (proclitic) 16.3.1
m<sup>a</sup> me (enclitic) 16.3.1
mà + cb mà - n. mother; pl mà náma (tone sic) mother's sisters/co-wives; mà-bīiga n.
        sibling with same mother; mà-bīla n. mother's younger sister or junior co-wife;
        mà-kpēεňm<sup>m</sup> n. mother's elder sister or senior co-wife; mà-pīt<sup>a</sup>/n. mother's
        younger sister
mà'+ vv. lie, deceive
mà'aa SF mà'anε LF only; post-NP/AdvP particle 30.6
màal<sup>E</sup> vv. prepare, sacrifice; agt màal-māan<sup>na</sup> n. sacrificer; used for "priest" in the
        NT, but in traditional usage just a worker who conducts the actual slaying for
        the the t \approx \eta - d\bar{a}an^a earth-priest himself
m\bar{a}'al^{\epsilon}/vv. make cool, wet
māan<sup>nε</sup> pl māana<sup>+</sup> cb màan- n. sacrifice 12.1.2
má'an<sup>nε</sup> pl mā'aná<sup>+</sup> cb mā'an- n. okra
mā'asa/ iv. be cool, wet
m\bar{a}'asíq^a m\bar{a}'asír^{\epsilon} pl m\bar{a}'asá^+ cb m\bar{a}'as- adj. cool, wet
m\bar{a}'as(g\bar{a}^{+}) adv. coolly 17.4
mā'asím<sup>m</sup> n. coolness, wetness
mādıq<sup>ε</sup>/ vv. overflow, abound
mā'e+/ vv. cool down
```

```
màk<sup>ε</sup> νν. crumple up
māk<sup>€</sup>/ vv. measure, judge
màliāk^{a/} pl màliā'as<sup>ɛ/</sup> màliāk-nám<sup>a</sup> cb màliā'- n. angel \leftarrow Arabic علا mal?ak(un) 15.1
        written malek in NT versions before 2016
màliqum again; preverb 19.7.2
mālıs<sup>a/</sup> iv. be sweet, pleasant
mālisíga mālisír<sup>ε</sup> pl mālisá+ cb mālis- adj. sweet, pleasant
mālısím<sup>m</sup> n. sweetness
mālisín pl mālisís cb mālisín- adj. sweet, pleasant
māluŋ² pl mālıma+ cb màluŋ- n. sacrifice
mām I, me <u>16.3.1</u>
mán I (as subject of n-clause) 16.3.1
mān SF mánē LF I, me (contrastive) 16.3.1
màngáυŋ³ pl màngáam<sup>mε</sup> màngāamá<sup>+</sup> cb màngāvη- n. crab (cf làngávη³ id)
màuk<sup>3</sup> pl mà'ad<sup>ɛ</sup> adi. crumpled up
m\dot{\epsilon}^+ vv. build
mè mèn<sup>ε</sup> too, also; post-NP/AdvP particle 30.6; mè-kàma -soever 16.3.3
mēdε νν. mash up
m \tilde{\epsilon} \epsilon \eta^a pl m \tilde{\epsilon} \epsilon m \iota s^{\epsilon} cb m \tilde{\epsilon} \epsilon \eta- n. turtle
mèligim<sup>m</sup> n. dew
m\bar{\epsilon}\eta^{a/} self <u>16.10.3.1</u>
mēnίr<sup>ε</sup> adj. genuine
m\bar{\epsilon}t^{\epsilon} cb m\bar{\epsilon}t- n. pl as sq pus
mī'+ ger mī'il(m<sup>m</sup> iv. know; agt gbàn-mī'ida/ n. scribe ("book-knower") NT
míif pl mīin(+ n. okra seed
mì'iq<sup>ε</sup> νν. become sour
mì'isa iv. be sour
mì'isug<sup>3</sup> pl mì'isa<sup>+</sup> cb mì'is- adj. sour
mīlιg<sup>ε/</sup> νν. get dirty
mimīilím<sup>m</sup> mimīilúg<sup>o</sup> n. sweetness
mit see that it doesn't happen that... 29.1.1; always mid in KB
m5<sup>+</sup> vv. strive, struggle
mɔ̄d<sup>ε</sup> νν. swell
m\bar{\rho}dig^{\epsilon}/\nu\nu. be patient, endure
mòlif pl mòli cb mòl- n. gazelle
mɔ̄n<sup>ε</sup> vv. grind millet to make sā'ab<sup>o</sup> porridge
m\bar{\rho}^{\epsilon} vv. refuse to lend
m\bar{\sigma} g^{\sigma} pl m\bar{\sigma} d^{\varepsilon} cb m\dot{\sigma} n. grass, "bush"; m\dot{\sigma} p\bar{\iota} l^{\varepsilon} n. grass thatch
M 	arrow g^{3} n. Mossi realm; M 	arrow g N 	arrow a^{4} a b^{4} n. the Moro Naba, King of the Mossi
mɔ̄ɔlɛ/ vv. proclaim; aqt mɔ̄ɔl-mɔ́ɔ̀n<sup>na</sup> n. proclaimer
Mòol<sup>€</sup> n. Mooré language
```

```
Mɔ̄r<sup>ε/</sup> pl Mɔ́ɔm<sup>ma</sup> cb Mɔ̄r- n. Muslim
mɔral ger mɔrím iv. have, possess; mɔr nā bring 20.7
M\dot{u}a^+ pl M\dot{z} cb M\dot{z}- n. Mossi person 32.5
mu'à vv. suck (of a baby)
muàk<sup>a</sup> pl m\dot{v}'as<sup>\epsilon</sup> cb m\dot{v}'à- n. maggot
mò'ar<sup>ɛ</sup> pl mu'àa<sup>+</sup> mò'ada<sup>+</sup> cb mu'à- n. dam; reservoir
mὑ'as<sup>ε</sup> vv. give (to baby) to suck
mù'e+ vv. redden; catch fire/ignite; become intense, severe
mùi+ cb mùi- n. pl as sg rice
mùl<sup>€</sup> vv. itch
mùm<sup>m</sup> vv. bury
Ν
n clause nominaliser particle 28
n VP catenator particle 23.1
n- personifier clitic before an adjective 16.6
n^{\epsilon} discontinuous-past enclitic 27.1.1
n^{\epsilon} n_{i}^{+} locative enclitic 17.3
nà positive irrealis mood marker 19.4
nā<sup>+/</sup> hither; VP-final particle 20.7
nā<sup>+</sup> νν. join
náa reply to greetings invoking blessings 31
nà'aba pl nà'-nàma cb nà'- n. chief, king; nà'-bīiga n. prince, princess
náaf pl n\overline{i}ig(t^+) cb n\overline{a}t^- n. cow; n\overline{a}t^- n. place in compound for tying up cows;
        n\bar{a}'-d\hat{a}\hat{v}g^{2} pl n\bar{a}'-d\hat{a}\hat{d}^{\epsilon} cb n\bar{a}'-d\hat{a}-n. ox; n\bar{a}'-d\hat{a}-k\bar{u}\theta d(r^{\epsilon}) n. ox for ploughing
nàam<sup>m</sup> vv. happen
nā'am<sup>m</sup> cb nà'am- n. chieftaincy, kingdom
n\bar{a}an next, afterwards = ny\bar{a}an
nāan or nāant then, in that case, being thus/there 27.1.2
n\dot{a}'an\ddot{a}<sup>+/</sup> adv. easily 17.4
nà'as<sup>ε</sup> vv. honour; ger nà'asι<sup>+</sup> n. honour
Nàbida pl Nàbidiba ch Nàbid- n. Nabdema person 32.5
Nàbidug<sup>3</sup> n. Nabdema country
Nàbur^{\epsilon} n. Nabit language 32.5
Nà'dàm<sup>ma</sup> n. clan name 32.5
Nà'dàun<sup>3</sup> n. place of clan Nadamba
n\dot{a}'-d\dot{a}w\bar{a}n^{n\epsilon}/n. pigeon KED (= d\dot{a}w\bar{a}n^{n\epsilon}/n)
nāe<sup>+/</sup> vv. finish
nàm still, yet; auxiliary tense particle 19.3.1
nàma pluraliser 9.4
```

```
nā'mιsε/ νν. persecute, suffer
nān<sup>ε</sup> vv. love, respect, appreciate
nà'-nēsιnnēog<sup>5/</sup> n. centipede WK
nānná<sup>+</sup> adv. now 17.7
nānná-nā+/ adv. now 17.7
nānzū'us<sup>€</sup>/ n. pepper tones uncertain
n\bar{a}\eta^a pl n\bar{a}m\iota s^\epsilon cb n\dot{a}\eta- n. scorpion
nāra/ ger nārím<sup>m</sup> iv. be obliged to; impersonal: to be necessary; with following
         subordinate y\bar{\varepsilon} or k\dot{a}-clause 26.1; negated: be obliged not to 29.2
nàrun<sup>3</sup> pl nàrıma<sup>+</sup> cb nàrun- adj. necessary
Nàsāal<sup>€</sup> n. English/French language
Nàsāara<sup>+</sup> pl Nàsàa-nàm<sup>a</sup> Nàsàar-nàm<sup>a</sup> cb Nàsàa- Nàsàar- n. European person
         ← Arabic نصاري Nas<sup>r</sup>a:ra: "Christians"; Nàsàa-bīiga n. European child
nàyīiga pl nàyìig-nàma nàyìis<sup>ε</sup> n. thief
nàyīigum<sup>m</sup> n. thievery
nà'-zòm<sup>mε</sup> n. locust
n\bar{\epsilon} preposition: with <u>18.1</u>; linking NPs and AdvPs: and <u>16.7</u>
n\bar{\epsilon} uncommon variant of y\bar{\epsilon} that 26.3 (cf Mampruli ni id)
n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/} focus particle 30.1.2; temporal marker 19.2
n\bar{\epsilon}^{+} meaningless particle after objects of w\bar{\nu}v and w\bar{\epsilon}n^{na} 18.1
n\bar{\epsilon}^{+} this (pronoun) 16.3.2
nὲεΙ<sup>ε</sup> νν. reveal
nè€m<sup>m</sup> adv. for free
nēεm<sup>m/</sup> νν. grind with a millstone
nēɛr<sup>ε/</sup> n. millstone
nὲες<sup>ε</sup> νν. reveal
nὲεsιm<sup>m</sup> n. light
n\bar{\epsilon}m-n\acute{\epsilon}\grave{\epsilon}r^{\epsilon} pl n\bar{\epsilon}m-n\acute{\epsilon}y\grave{a}^{+} n. someone who grinds
nēn<sup>na/</sup> ger nēnním<sup>m</sup> iv. envy
n\bar{\epsilon}'\eta\dot{a}^+ this (pronoun) 16.3.2
n \hat{\epsilon} o g^{3} n \hat{\epsilon} \epsilon r^{\epsilon} pl n \hat{\epsilon} \epsilon d^{\epsilon} n \hat{\epsilon} v a^{+} cb n \hat{\epsilon} - adj. empty
n\bar{\epsilon}sinn\bar{\epsilon}og^{5/} pl n\bar{\epsilon}sinn\hat{\epsilon}ed^{\epsilon/} cb n\bar{\epsilon}sinn\hat{\epsilon}-n. envious person WK; others: centipede
n fá! Well done! 25.2.4
n\bar{\iota}^{+} locative enclitic 17.3 see n^{\epsilon}
nì+ vv. rain
nīdal pl nīdıbal cb nīn- n. person; nīn-sáàla pl nīn-sáalìba cb nīn-sáàl- n. human being;
         nīnpūnān<sup>na/</sup> pl nīnpūnānníb<sup>a</sup> cb nīnpūnán- n. disrespectful person; nīn-
         sábilis<sup>E</sup> n. Africans
nìe+ vv. appear, reveal
```

```
nīf<sup>ɔ/</sup> pl nīn(+ cb nīn- nīf- n. eye; nīf-gbáuŋɔ n. eyelid; nīf-sɔ́ba n. miser; nīf-nyáukɔ
                          adj. one-eyed 16.4.2.3 16.11.1.4; n\bar{i}n-d\acute{a}a^{=} pl n\bar{i}n-d\acute{a}\dot{a}s^{\epsilon} cb n\bar{i}n-d\acute{a}-n. face; n\bar{i}n-
                          gótina n. mirror pl nīn-gótis n. spectacles, glasses; nīn-kúgudiga pl nīn-
                          k \dot{\nu} g \nu d i s^{\epsilon} n. eyebrow; n \bar{i} n - t \dot{a} \dot{a} m^{m} n. tear(s); n \bar{i} n - m \dot{u} a^{+} n. concentration ("eye-
                          redness"); m nīní mù'e nē ... I'm concentrating on ... (KB "zealous for ...")
níin<sup>a</sup> pl nīimís<sup>\epsilon</sup> níis<sup>\epsilon</sup> cb nīin- n. bird
nīm<sup>nε/</sup> nī'm<sup>nε/</sup> pl nīmá<sup>+</sup> cb nīm- n. meat
n\bar{l}_{n} n\bar{l
nin^a pl niis^\epsilon cb nin- nin- n. body (uncommon); nin-t\bar{\nu}ll(m^m n. fever; nin-t\bar{a}a^= pl nin-
                          tāas<sup>ɛ</sup> cb nìn-tà- n. co-wife; husband's sister's wife (Ghanaian English: "rival");
                          nìn-gbīŋ<sup>3/</sup> pl nìn-gbīná<sup>+</sup> cb nìn-gbīŋ- n. body (plural often used as singular);
                          nin-g \ni r^{\epsilon} n. neck
nīn-pύὺd<sup>ε</sup> n. pl as sq pus
n\bar{l}nt\bar{l}a\eta^{al} pl n\bar{l}nt\bar{l}an\tilde{l}s^{\epsilon l} cb n\bar{l}nt\dot{l}a\eta- n. heat of the day, early afternoon
nìη<sup>ε</sup> νν. do
n lā that is ... 22
nnāas q. four, in counting 16.4.2.2
nníi q. eight, in counting 16.4.2.2
\dot{n}n\bar{u} q. five, in counting 16.4.2.2
n ňwà this is ... 22
n ňwà nā this here is ... 22
n5⁺ vv. tread
n5b<sup>ε</sup> νν. get fat
nɔ̃bιg<sup>ε/</sup> vv. grow (e.g. child, plant)
nóbìr<sup>ɛ</sup> pl nōbá<sup>+</sup> cb nōb- n. leg, foot; nōb-bíla n. toe; nōb-yíuŋ³ adj. one-legged
                          16.4.2.3 \ 16.11.1.4; n\bar{b}-i\tilde{n}'a^{+} n. toenail; n\bar{b}-p\dot{v}mp\dot{a}u\eta^{2} n. foot
n\bar{j}k^{\epsilon}/vv. pick up, take up
n \ni \eta^{\epsilon} agt n \ni \eta \iota d^{a} (irregularly Pattern L) vv. love (family, spiritual); stative \underline{11.1.1}
nɔ̄ŋɔ/ cb nɔ̄ŋ- n. poverty; nɔ̄ŋ-dáàna n. poor person
nànılím<sup>m</sup> n. love
n\bar{\sigma} \bar{\sigma} 
                          a councillor who speaks on a chief's behalf on all official occasions (a custom
                          by no means confined to the region of the old Mossi-Dagomba states, where
                          the chiefs were originally foreign invaders who may once have needed
                          interpreters 1.1: "linguist" in Ghana typically refers to an Akan chief's herald
                          and spokesman, the okyeame); Wínà'am nó-dí'às<sup>a</sup> ("God's linguist") prophet
                          NT/KB; nō-lóòr<sup>E</sup> n. fasting ("mouth-tying", as throughout W Africa); nō-náàr<sup>E</sup>
                          n. covenant; n\bar{z}-p\acute{z})r^{\epsilon} n. oath; n\bar{z}-gb\acute{a}u\eta^{\sigma} pl n\bar{z}-gb\acute{a}n\grave{a}^{\dagger} n. lip
n\bar{\rho} times 16.4.2.4
n\bar{z}rím<sup>m</sup> times 16.4.2.4
npòe q. seven, in counting 16.4.2.2
```

```
ntán' q. three, in counting 16.4.2.2
nū<sup>+</sup> νν. drink
n\bar{u}a^{+/} pl n\bar{z}z^{\epsilon/} cb n\bar{z}- n. hen; n\bar{z}-dávg^{z} n. cock; n\bar{z}-nyá'à\eta^{a} n. (specifically female)
          hen: Nō-ňvá'àn-nέ-ò-Bīis the Pleiades
nūlıq<sup>€/</sup> vv. make drink
nūlιsε/ νν. make drink
n\dot{u}'\dot{u}g^{2} pl n\dot{u}'\dot{u}s^{\epsilon} cb n\bar{u}'- n. hand, arm; n\bar{u}'-bíl^{a} pl n\bar{u}'-bíbl^{\epsilon} n. finger; n\bar{u}'-dál^{a}
          n. thumb; n\bar{u}'-y(u\eta^2) adj. one-armed 16.4.2.3 16.11.1.4; n\bar{u}'-i\check{n}'a^+ pl n\bar{u}'-i\check{n}'\dot{\epsilon}s^\epsilon
          cb n\bar{u}'-\epsilon n'- n. fingernail; n\bar{u}'-w\epsilon n'\epsilon d^a n. mediator
ňwà<sup>+</sup> this 16.5
ňwā'+ vv. smash, break up
\ddot{n}w\bar{a}a\eta^a pl \ddot{n}w\bar{a}am\iota s^{\epsilon} cb \ddot{n}w\dot{a}a\eta- n. monkey
\check{\mathbf{n}} w \bar{\mathbf{a}} d \iota g^{\mathbf{a}/} p l \check{\mathbf{n}} w \bar{\mathbf{a}} d \iota s^{\varepsilon}/ cb \check{\mathbf{n}} w \bar{\mathbf{a}} d - n. moon, month; \check{\mathbf{n}} w \bar{\mathbf{a}} d - b \iota l^{\mathbf{a}} p l \check{\mathbf{n}} w \bar{\mathbf{a}} d - b \iota b \iota s^{\varepsilon} n. star;
          Nwād-dár<sup>E</sup> n. Venus
ňwà'e<sup>+</sup> vv. cut wood
\dot{n}w\bar{a}e q. nine, in counting 16.4.2.2
ňwām<sup>mε</sup> ňwān<sup>nε</sup> pl ňwāma<sup>+</sup> ňwāna<sup>+</sup> cb ňwàm- ňwàn- n. calabash
Nwāmpūrıga/ pl Nwāmpūrıs<sup>ɛ/</sup> cb Nwāmpúr- n. Mamprussi person 32.5
Ňwāmpūrıl<sup>€</sup>/ n. Mampruli language 32.5
Nwāmpūrvg<sup>5</sup>/ n. Mamprussi country
\vec{n}w\hat{\epsilon}^{\dagger} vv. beat; \vec{n}w\hat{\epsilon}' X nu'ug make an agreement with X; \vec{n}w\hat{\epsilon}' \vec{n}y\bar{\jmath}'\jmath g boast
\vec{n}w\vec{i}ig^{al} pl \vec{n}w\vec{i}is^{\epsilon l} cb \vec{n}w\vec{i}- n. rope; \vec{n}w\vec{i}-t\epsilon k^a pl \vec{n}w\vec{i}-t\epsilon kidtb \vec{n} cb \vec{n}w\vec{i}-t\epsilon k- n. rope-puller;
          ňwī-tékìr<sup>€</sup> pl ňwī-tékà<sup>+</sup> n. rope for pulling
\tilde{n}w\tilde{i}ig^{\epsilon}/vv. make a rope
nyā'al<sup>ε/</sup> νν. leave behind
nyāan next, afterwards; post-subject particle 24.1.4
nya'an^a pl nya'as^{\epsilon} nya'am(s^{\epsilon} cb nya'an- adj. female (animal)
nyá'ana behind, postposition 17.6; East 32.3; nyà'an-dòlla nyà'an-dòlle pl nyà'an-dòlle
          dòlla<sup>+</sup> nyà'an-dòllıba cb nyà'an-dòl- n. disciple NT; tones unexpected, Pattern L
nyā'ar<sup>€</sup> pl nyā'a<sup>+</sup> cb nyà'- n. root
\vec{n} \vec{v} = \vec{a} \vec{v}. in the light, brightly, clearly 17.3
nyālύη pl nyālımá cb nyālυη- adj. wonderful
n, shame; Ò dì nyán. He's ashamed.
n \sqrt{a} n^{\epsilon} / vv. overcome 23.3
\vec{n}yàuk^{3} pl \vec{n}yà'ad^{\epsilon} adj. only (eye) <u>16.4.2.3</u> <u>16.11.1.4</u>
\vec{n} y \bar{\epsilon}^+ ipfv \vec{n} y \bar{\epsilon} t^{a/} imp \vec{n} y \hat{\epsilon} m^a vv. see, find; \vec{n} y \bar{\epsilon} l \acute{a} a f \hat{\iota} y a get well
ňyēε, ňyēε tί habitually, preverb 19.7.2
nyē'εr<sup>ε/</sup> pl nyēdá<sup>+</sup> cb nyē'- n. next-younger sibling
ϻ϶ἐεκ iv. be self-confident
nγὲεςιm<sup>m</sup> n. self-confidence
\vec{n}y\hat{\epsilon}esí\eta^a pl \vec{n}y\hat{\epsilon}esís\epsilon cb \vec{n}y\hat{\epsilon}esí\eta- adj. self-confident
```

```
\vec{n} \vec{v} \approx \sin^{4} a dv. self-confidently 17.4
\dot{n}yí q. two, in counting 16.4.2.2
ñvīn<sup>nε/</sup> pl ñvīná<sup>+</sup> cb ñvīn- n. tooth
nvīrí pl nvīrí n. a kind of edible seed, egusi: Colocynthis citrullus (Haaf)
n, intestines
n. chest
\vec{n} y \vec{o} \vec{o} r^{\epsilon} pl \vec{n} y \vec{o} y \vec{o} + cb \ \vec{n} y \vec{o} - n. nose; breath; \vec{n} y \vec{o} - v \vec{v} r^{\epsilon/l} pl \vec{n} y \vec{o} - v \vec{v} y \vec{o} + cb \ \vec{n} y \vec{o} - v \vec{v} r - n. life;
                           nvò-v\bar{v}r-p\acute{a}\acute{a}l^{l\epsilon} n. new life NT
nyɔ̄'ɔsε' n. smoke
nyúbb q. six, in counting 16.4.2.2
nyūur<sup>ε/</sup> pl nyūyá<sup>+</sup> cb nyū- n. yam
0
o [v] he, she, his, her (proclitic) 16.3.1
• LF [v] him, her (enclitic object) 16.3.1 8.2.1.1
5n he, she (subject of \dot{n}-clause) 16.3.1
5n^{\epsilon} he, she (contrastive) 16.3.1
\mathbf{\hat{o}n}^{\mathbf{\epsilon}} this, that (animate sq demonstrative) 16.3.2
>ňb<sup>ε</sup> ger 5ňbιr<sup>ε</sup> vv. chew
\hat{\partial} \eta \bar{a}^{+/} this, that (animate sq demonstrative) 16.3.2
\bar{\delta}ος \bar{\epsilon}^{l}νν. warm oneself; \dot{O} \dot{\delta}ος \dot{\partial}ος \dot
Р
pà' earlier today, tense particle 19.3.1
pà'al<sup>E</sup> vv. teach, inform; agt pā'an<sup>na</sup> pl pā'annıb<sup>a</sup> cb pà'an- n. teacher
pà'al<sup>E</sup> vv. put on top of something
pāalíga páal<sup>le</sup> pl pāalís<sup>e</sup> pāalá<sup>+</sup> cb pāal- adj. new
pāalím<sup>m</sup> adv. recently 17.4
p\bar{a}al\dot{v}^+ adv. openly 17.4
pàaňlύŋ³ pl pàaňlímìs<sup>ε</sup> n. spider's web
pàam<sup>m</sup> vv. receive a gift
pàas<sup>ε</sup> vv. add up to, amount to
pāe+/ vv. reach
pàk<sup>ε</sup> vv. surprise
p \grave{a} k^{\epsilon} vv. take off from the top
pāmm SF pāmnέ LF q. much, a lot 16.4.1 6.4
pàň'alım<sup>m</sup> vv. dedicate
pàňsig<sup>ε</sup> vv. lack
pàna pl pàans cb pàn- n. power
```

```
pà' tì perhaps; post-subject particle 24.1.4
pὲbιs<sup>ε</sup> νν. blow (of wind)
pěbisim<sup>m</sup> pěbisug<sup>o</sup> n. wind
pè'εlε vv. fill; res adj pè'εlύη<sup>2</sup> full
pεεlug<sup>3</sup> in zū-pέε/ὑg<sup>3</sup> bald 16.11.1.4; cf pie "go bald" (Leviticus 13:40), Mooré pẽoogè
p\dot{\epsilon}'\epsilon s^{\epsilon} vv. add up to, amount to
pὲlιg<sup>ε</sup> νν. whiten, go white
pèlis<sup>ε</sup> vv. sharpen
pὲn<sup>nε</sup> n. vagina
p\bar{\epsilon}'\eta^{\epsilon}/vv. borrow; knock over WK
p\grave{\epsilon}og^{\circ} pl p\grave{\epsilon}\epsilon d^{\varepsilon} cb p\grave{\epsilon}- n. basket
p\bar{\epsilon}'oq^{3/} pl p\bar{\epsilon}'\epsilon s^{\epsilon/} cb p\bar{\epsilon}'- n. sheep; p\bar{\epsilon}'-sá'a= n. ewe lamb
p\bar{\epsilon}sig^{\epsilon}/vv. sacrifice
piā+ vv. dig up
piāň'a vv. speak, praise; ger piàuňk<sup>3</sup> n. word pl piàň'ad<sup>8</sup> language cb pjàň'-;
         piàn'-zùna+ n. foreign language
pìbiq<sup>ε</sup> vv. uncover
pìbul<sup>E</sup> vv. cover up
pībın<sup>nɛ</sup> pl pībına<sup>+</sup> cb pìbın- n. covering 12.1.2
pìd<sup>E</sup> vv. put on (hat, shoes, rings)
pid<sup>ε</sup> νν. get bloated
pidig<sup>E</sup> vv. take off (hat, shoes, rings)
pie+/ vv. wash (part of one's own body)
pìəb<sup>ε</sup> vv. blow (e.g. flute)
pialig^a pial^{l\epsilon} pl piala^+ pialis^{\epsilon} cb pial- adi. white
pìəlım<sup>m</sup> n. whiteness
pìəs<sup>ɛ</sup> vv. fool someone
pīəsε/ νν. wash
piiga<sup>+</sup> q. ten <u>16.4.2.1</u>
pīim<sup>m/</sup> pl pīmá<sup>+</sup> cb pīm- n. arrow
píinf<sup>9</sup> pl pīiní<sup>+</sup> cb pīin- n. genet
pīint + cb pìin- pl as sg (?) n. gift
pìl<sup>E</sup> vv. put (hat, shoes, rings) on someone
pilig<sup>E</sup> vv. take (hat, shoes, rings) off someone
pīň'il<sup>ε/</sup> vv. begin
p\bar{i}p\bar{i}rig^{a/} pl p\bar{i}p\bar{i}ris^{\epsilon/} cb p\bar{i}p\acute{i}r- n. desert
pisi^+ q. twenty 16.4.2.1
pītó<sup>+</sup> pl pītíb<sup>a</sup> cb pīt- n. younger sibling of the same sex 32.1
על + למ
pòňď<sup>ε</sup> νν. crouch down
pɔ̃n˙ɔlɛ/ vv. cause to rot
```

```
pàň'ɔlım<sup>m</sup> vv. cripple, get crippled
pòň'ɔr<sup>ε</sup> pl pòňda<sup>+</sup> cb pòň'- n. cripple
pònra ger pōnrubo iv. be near
pòɔda iv. be few, small
pòɔdig<sup>a</sup> pòɔdir<sup>ε</sup> pl pòɔda<sup>+</sup> cb pòɔd- adj. few, small
pòɔdιm<sup>m</sup> n. fewness
p\bar{z} g^{2} pl p\bar{z} d^{\epsilon} p\bar{z} t^{\epsilon} cb p\bar{z} n. field, farm
pò'ɔgε vv. diminish, denigrate
p\bar{s} of a clan, part of its traditional genealogy WK; \leftarrow p\bar{s}^+ swear (cf.
        Farefare pote, pore "nom de famille, nom par lequel on jure", also "serment")
p\vec{v} not: negates indicative mood 19.5
שׁם + vv. divide
pu'ā pl pū'ab cb pu'à n. woman, wife; Ò dì pu'ā. He's married a wife; pu'à-dīιr<sup>ε</sup>
        n. marriage; pu'\dot{a}-\bar{\epsilon}l(\eta^a n). fiancée; pu'\dot{a}-g\bar{\epsilon}nn(g^a), pu'\dot{a}-g\bar{\epsilon}nn(g^a), pu'\dot{a}-g\bar{\epsilon}nn(g^a)
        pu'à-nva'an^a pl pu'à-nva'as^{\epsilon} n. old woman; pu'à-p\bar{a}al^{a/n} n. bride; pu'à-s\bar{a}dir^{\epsilon/n}
        n. young woman; pu'à-sāň'am^{na} n. adulterer; pu'à-yùa^+ n. daughter
puāk<sup>a</sup> pl p\bar{v}'as<sup>\epsilon</sup> adj. female (human only)
ρὺ'alım<sup>m</sup> νν. cook
pò'alım<sup>m</sup> vv. harm, damage; res adj pò'alóŋ³ damaged
pò'alım<sup>m</sup> n. femininity
p\dot{v}'alím<sup>m</sup> pl p\dot{v}'alímìs<sup>\epsilon</sup> cb p\dot{v}'alím- n. female sex organs
pùd<sup>E</sup> vv. name
p\bar{\nu}d\iota g^{\epsilon}/\nu\nu. divide, share out
pùgudib<sup>a</sup> pl pùgud-nàm<sup>a</sup> cb pùgud- n. father's sister 32.1
ρὺkὸͻἤr<sup>ε</sup> pl pùkòἤya<sup>+</sup> cb pùkòἤ- n. widow
pūkpāada/ pl pūkpāadíba cb pūkpá- (irreg: contrast kpāada/) n. farmer
pùlima<sup>+</sup> n. a species of grass, Imperata cylindrica (Haaf)
pùmpɔ̄ɔqɔ n. housefly
pùn previously, already; preverb 19.7.2
pūň'e<sup>+/</sup> vv. rot
p\bar{u}sig^{a/} pl p\bar{u}sis^{\epsilon/} cb p\bar{u}s- n. tamarind 32.6
p\bar{u}sir^{\epsilon} pl p\bar{u}s\dot{a}^+ n. tamarind fruit 32.6
p\bar{v}-s\dot{v}k^a pl p\bar{v}-s\dot{v}g\dot{v}s^{\epsilon} n. half 16.4.2.1
p\bar{v}t^{\epsilon} n. pl as sg contents of stomach WK
pūum<sup>m/</sup> cb pūum- n. flowers
pūvga cb pò- n. inside, belly; Pu'ā lā mór pūvg The woman is pregnant;
        p\bar{v}vgv-n^{\epsilon/l} inside, postposition 17.6; p\hat{v}-p\hat{i}=l(m^m n. holiness; p\hat{v}-t\hat{\epsilon}n'\epsilon r^{\epsilon}
        pl pù-tè\vec{n}da+ cb pù-tè\vec{n}'- n. mind
pōvr<sup>€</sup>/ n. stomach
pù'us<sup>E</sup> vv. greet, worship, thank; ger pù'usum<sup>m</sup> n. worship; ger pù'usug<sup>3</sup> n. thanks;
        pὑ'υsυg dóòg<sup>5</sup> NT temple
```

S

```
sà yesterday, tense particle 19.3.1
sà hence, ago, VP-final particle 20.7
sā'+ vv. be in distress
sàa tomorrow, tense particle 19.3.1
sāa= pl sāas<sup>ɛ</sup> cb sà- n. rain; sky; as subject of jāňk<sup>ɛ/</sup> "leap": lightning; sāa
        díndēog<sup>5</sup>/ rainbow ("rain chameleon"); sāa zúg<sup>5</sup> n. sky <u>17.6</u>
sā'ab<sup>3</sup> cb sà'- n. millet porridge, "TZ", the staple food of the Kusaasi
sāafı+ (?tones) n. lock, key ← Twi safe
sàal pl sàal\iota b^a cb sàal- n. human (perhaps \leftarrow "hairless" cf b\bar{\upsilon}n-kɔ́nb\dot{\upsilon}g^a); sàal-bīig
        pl sàal-bīis<sup>\varepsilon</sup> n. human being
sàalínā<sup>+/</sup> adv. smoothly 17.4
sàam<sup>ma</sup> pl sàam-nàm<sup>a</sup> cb sàam- n. father; sàam-kpξεňm<sup>m</sup> n. father's elder brother;
        sàam-pīta/ pl sàam-pīt(ba cb sàam-pīt- n. father's younger brother
sāam<sup>m/</sup> vv. mash, crumble
s\bar{a}'an^{\epsilon} in the presence of, in the opinion of; postposition 17.6
sāan<sup>a/</sup> pl sáam<sup>ma</sup> cb sāan- n. guest, stranger
sáannìm<sup>m</sup> n. strangerhood
sàbɛ̃og<sup>o</sup> pl sàbɛ̃\epsilond<sup>ɛ</sup> cb sàbɛ̃- n. wind, storm
s\bar{a}b\iota l(g^a s\bar{a}b\iota l^{l\epsilon}pl s\bar{a}b\iota l(s^{\epsilon} s\bar{a}b\iota l\dot{a}^+cb s\bar{a}b\iota l-adj. black
sàbùa<sup>+</sup> pl sàbùes<sup>ɛ</sup> cb sàbuà- n. lover, girlfriend
Sà'dàbòɔg<sup>o</sup> n. place of the clan Sarabose 32.5
Sa'dabùa^+ pl Sa'dabùes^{\epsilon} Sa'dabùeb^a n. clan name: 32.5
sādıgím since, because 28.1.1
sāeň<sup>+</sup> or sāeň<sup>a</sup> pl sāaňb<sup>a</sup> cb sàň- n. blacksmith
sākárùg<sup>3</sup> pl sākárìd<sup>ɛ</sup> cb sākár- n. fox
sàlıbır<sup>E</sup> n. bridle
sālıma + cb sàlım- n. pl as sa gold; sàlım-kùes a n. gold merchant
sām<sup>nɛ/</sup> pl sāmá<sup>+</sup> cb sām- n. debt; sām-kpá'àsa n. household servant
sāmán<sup>ne</sup> pl sāmánà<sup>+</sup> cb sāmán- n. open space in front of a zàka compound;
        Sāmán-píər<sup>E</sup> n. traditional New Year ceremony
sàn'am<sup>m</sup> vv. spoil, get spoiled, get broken; destroy
sāngύnnìr<sup>ε</sup> pl sāngύnnà<sup>+</sup> cb sāngύn- n. millipede
s\bar{a}\eta\dot{a}^+ pl s\bar{a}ns\dot{a}^+ cb s\bar{a}n- n. time 32.9 9.3.2; s\bar{a}n-k\acute{a}n^\epsilon adv. then; when?
        s\bar{a}n-si'\bar{b}n l\bar{a} adv. at one time, once ... 24.1.3
sàn-gbàun<sup>o</sup> n. sky, heaven; cf sāa=
sāpál<sup>lε</sup> n. Harmattan part of the dry season úun<sup>nε</sup>
sārīgá<sup>+</sup> n. prison ← Hausa sarkàa "chain"
sàríyà+ or sèríyà+ n. law ← Arabic شريعة ʃari:ʕa(tun); sàríyà-kāta n. judge NT
s\bar{a}vg^{3} pl s\bar{a}ad^{\epsilon} cb s\bar{a}- n. broom, brush
```

```
sàuk^{3} pl sà'ad^{\epsilon} n. mote of dust
sāύη<sup>3</sup> n. hospitality
s\dot{\epsilon}^+ ipfy s\dot{\epsilon}\epsilon d^a vv. transplant
sēoňσ<sup>3</sup> n. rainy season
sì+ vv. skin, flav
si^{\dagger}a^{\dagger} some, any (sq) 16.3.3
sīa<sup>+</sup> pl sīəs<sup>ε</sup> cb sià- n. waist; sià-lɔ̄ɔdíŋa n. belt ("waist-tying-thing"); sià-nīf<sup>ρ/</sup>
         n. kidnev
siā'al<sup>ε/</sup> νν. get to be enough
sià'ar<sup>ε</sup> pl sià'a<sup>+</sup> cb sià'- n. forest (WK), wilderness
siàk<sup>E</sup> vv. agree (cf Mooré sàke id)
siāk<sup>ɛ/</sup> vv. suffice (cf Mooré sékè id)
sībq^{a/} pl sībl^+ cb sīb- n. a kind of termite
sìd truly, post-subject particle 24.1.4
sìda<sup>+</sup> pl sìd- n. pl as sa truth
sīda pl sīdıba cb sìd- n. husband 32.1; sìd-bīla n. husband's younger brother;
         sìd-kpēεňm<sup>m</sup> n. husband's elder brother; sìd-puāk<sup>a</sup> n. husband's sister
sie<sup>+/</sup> vv. descend, be humbled
sīəba<sup>+</sup> some(ones), any (ones) 16.3.3
sī'əla something, anything 16.3.3
s\bar{i}'am^m somehow, anyhow 16.3.3 17.7
sig<sup>ε</sup> νν. descend
sig(r^{\epsilon}) n. guardian spirit, typically but not invariably the win^{n\epsilon} of an ancestor 32.2
sīgιsε/ νν. lower
sīgisír<sup>E</sup> pl sīgisá<sup>+</sup> n. stopping-place
silg^a pl sils^{\varepsilon} cb siles^{\varepsilon} n. shade, personal spirit (KED); used in NT for "spirit"; in
         traditional belief rather Lebenskraft (Haaf) "vital energy", closely associated
         in concept with the individual's tutelary k i k \bar{l} r \iota s^{\epsilon/l} (qv); s i - s i n^{2} n. Holy Spirit NT
sìilum<sup>m</sup> vv. cite proverbs
sìilí\eta^a sìiló\eta^a pl sìilís^{\epsilon} sìilímìss^{\epsilon} sìilímàt^+ cb sìilí\eta- n. proverb
s\bar{i}i\bar{n}d^{\epsilon}/n. honey
s\bar{i}i\bar{n}f^{0}/s\bar{i}i\bar{n}g^{a}/pls\bar{i}i\bar{n}s^{\epsilon}/cbs\bar{i}\bar{n}-n. bee
sī'ιs<sup>ε/</sup> νν. touch
sīlınsíùg<sup>5</sup> pl sīlınsíis<sup>8</sup> n. ghost
sīlınsíùng pl sīlınsíind n. spider
sìlug<sup>o</sup> pl sìn<sup>nɛ</sup> sìlıs<sup>ɛ</sup> cb sìl- n. hawk
sìm<sup>m</sup> vv. sink in a liquid
Sìmīig<sup>a</sup> pl Sìmīis<sup>ɛ</sup> cb Sìmì- n. Fulbe person, Fulani 32.5
Sìmīil<sup>E</sup> n. Fulfulde language
Sìmīug<sup>o</sup> n. place of the Fulße
sīn<sup>na/</sup> ger sīnním<sup>m</sup> iv. be silent
```

```
sīnsáaň = n. a kind of tiny ant
sin^a pl siins^{\epsilon} cb sin- n. a kind of very big pot
s\bar{\iota}'n^{\epsilon}/\nu\nu, begin
sīsíbìg<sup>a</sup> pl sīsíbìs^{\varepsilon} cb sīsíb- n. neem tree 32.6 Azadirachta indica (Haaf)
s\bar{i}s\hat{i}b\hat{i}r^{\epsilon} pl s\bar{i}s\hat{i}b\hat{a}^{+} n. fruit of neem tree 32.6
sìsì'əm<sup>m</sup> n. wind, storm
sìsòugō-n<sup>ɛ/</sup> between, postposition 17.6 KB suugun
s\bar{i}'un^{3} pl s\bar{i}'m(s^{\epsilon}cb\ s\bar{i}'un-n) a kind of large dish
s5'+ some(one), any(one), animate sq 16.3.3
s5ba dummy head pronoun, animate sq 16.10.3.1
s\bar{b}^{\epsilon} vv. go/make dark; usually write; s\bar{b} u^{\epsilon} n. piece of writing 12.1.2
s\bar{b}\iota q^{\epsilon} vv. blacken
sɔ̄eň<sup>+</sup> or sɔ̄eň<sup>a</sup> pl sɔ̄ɔňb<sup>a</sup> cb sòň- n. witch
sógià<sup>a</sup> n. soldier ← English
sວັໄບຖວ/ pl sວັໄເmá+ n. story
sɔ̃n+ vv. rub
sɔ̄n'eya/ iv. be better than; aat sɔ̄n'ɔda/ pl sɔ̄n'ɔba/ cb sɔ̄n'ɔd-
sɔ̄nnır<sup>ɛ</sup> pl sɔ̄nna<sup>+</sup> cb sɔ̀n- n. courtyard dividing wall
sɔ̃nsε ger sɔ́nsìga vv. converse, talk with
sɔɔñg<sup>o</sup> n. witchcraft
sɔ̃ɔňr<sup>€</sup> pl sɔ̃ňya<sup>+</sup> cb sòň- n. liver
sòs<sup>ɛ</sup> qer sɔ̄sıg<sup>a</sup> vv. ask; agt sòs<sup>a</sup> n. beggar
sν νν. take a bath
su'āa vv. do secretly, hide
suāk<sup>a/</sup> n. hiding place
sūeň⁺/ vv. anoint
s\bar{v}'e^{ya/} iv. own; ger s\bar{v}'vl(m^m n. property, country, realm
s\bar{u}gvr^{\epsilon}/vv. show forbearance, be patient with; s\bar{u}gvr\dot{v}^{+}n. forbearance
sòm<sup>m</sup> n. goodness; well <u>17.4</u> <u>21.2</u>
sùm<sup>ma</sup> iv. be good
sùmbōqvsím<sup>m</sup> n. peace
sūmmιr<sup>ε</sup> pl sūmma<sup>+</sup> cb sùm- n. groundnuts; sūm-dúgvdà<sup>+</sup> n. cooked groundnuts
sùn^{n\epsilon} qer sùnn\iota r^{\epsilon} or sùnn\upsilon g^{\circ} vv. bow one's head <u>6.2.1</u>; agt sūn^{na} n. ("someone who
        goes about with bowed head") deep thinker, close observer WK
sūň'e<sup>+/</sup> vy. become better than
s\bar{u}nf^{0}/s\bar{u}u\bar{n}r^{\epsilon}/pl s\bar{u}nya^{+} cb s\bar{u}n- n. heart; s\bar{u}n-kpi'on n. boldness 16.10.1;
        s\bar{u}\bar{n}-m\dot{a}'as\grave{u}m^m n. joy (\dot{M} s\bar{u}\check{n}f m\dot{a}'e y\bar{a}. "My heart has cooled"= I'm joyful);
        sūň-málιsìm<sup>m</sup> cb sūň-málìs- n. joy; sūň-pέὲn<sup>nε</sup> n. anger (M sūňf pélìg nē. "My
        heart is whitened"= I'm angry); sūň-sáň'òŋ³ n. sorrow (M sūňf sáň'àm nē.
        "My heart is spoilt" = I'm sad)
sờη<sup>ε</sup> νν. help
```

```
sờη<sup>3</sup> sờm<sup>mε</sup> pl sờma<sup>+</sup> cb sờη- adj. good
sònā<sup>+/</sup> adv. well 17.4 21.2
sú'en<sup>a</sup> pl sū'em(s^{\varepsilon} cb sū'en- n. rabbit
s\bar{u}er^{\epsilon} pl suevá + cb sua- n. road: permission in suer bé, mor suer 26.1
sù'esa n. vesterday 32.9
sù'es<sup>ε</sup> νν. trick
sùra iv. have one's head bowed
sùsòm<sup>mε</sup> n. grasshopper
Sūtáanà<sup>+</sup> n. Satan
sōυqε/ vv. wither (leaves) WK
s\dot{\upsilon}'\upsilon g^a s\dot{\upsilon}'\upsilon g^b pl s\dot{\upsilon}'\upsilon s^{\epsilon} cb s\dot{\upsilon}'-n. knife
Т
t\bar{a}a^{=}t\bar{a}as^{\epsilon} fellow- as second part of compound 13.1.1.4
tāaba<sup>+</sup> tāab each other 16.3.5
tā'adır<sup>€</sup> pl tā'ada<sup>+</sup> cb tà'ad- n. sandal
tàal<sup>le</sup> pl tàala<sup>+</sup> cb tàal- n. fault, sin
tá'am<sup>mε</sup> pl tā'amá<sup>+</sup> n. shea tree fruit 32.6
t\acute{a}'an^a pl t\ddot{a}'am(s^\epsilon cb t\ddot{a}'a\eta- n. shea butter tree 32.6 Butyrospermum Parkii (Haaf)
tā'as<sup>ε/</sup> νν. help someone to walk; in greetings 31
tàb<sup>ε</sup> vv. get stuck to
tàbiya iv. be stuck to
tàbig<sup>ε</sup> vv. get unstuck from
tàbul<sup>E</sup> vv. stick to (transitive)
t \dot{a} d \iota q^{\epsilon} n. become weak
tādım<sup>m/</sup> pl tàdım-nàm<sup>a</sup> cb tàdım- n. weak person
tàdımís<sup>E</sup> n. weakness
Tàlιn<sup>nε</sup> n. Talni language
Tàlin pl Tàlis cb Tàlin n. Tallensi person 32.5
tàm<sup>m</sup> ipfv tàmmıda vv. forget
tàmpūa<sup>+</sup> pl tàmpɔ̄ɔs^{\epsilon} cb tàmpò- n. housefly 9.3.2
tàmpūvr<sup>ε</sup> cb tàmpù- n. ashpit, rubbish tip
tān<sup>nε</sup> pl tāna<sup>+</sup> cb tàn- n. earth; tàn-mεεd<sup>a</sup> n. builder
tāňp<sup>3</sup> n. war; tàňp-sɔ̄b<sup>a</sup> n. warrior
t \tilde{a} \tilde{n} s^{\epsilon} ger t \tilde{a} \tilde{n} s v g^{\circ} v v. shout; Winnig t \tilde{a} \tilde{n} s \tilde{i} d n \bar{\epsilon}. The sun is shining.
tāral ger tārím<sup>m</sup> iv. have; more typical of Toende Kusaal; NT always has the Agolle
         word mɔra/ instead
t \dot{a} s unt \dot{a} l^{l \epsilon} n, palm of hand
tàtàl<sup>lɛ</sup> n. palm of hand
tāuň<sup>+/</sup> pl tāňp<sup>a/</sup> cb tāuň- tāňp- n. sibling of opposite sex 32.1
```

```
tὲb<sup>ε</sup> ger tēbιg<sup>a</sup> vv. carry in both hands
t\bar{\epsilon}b\iota g^{\epsilon}/\nu\nu. get heavy
tε̄bιsa/ iv. be heavy
tēbisíga tēbisíre pl tēbisá+ cb tēbis- adj. heavy
tēbisím<sup>m</sup> n. heaviness
téɛbùI^{\epsilon} pl téɛbùI-nàI^{a} n. table ← English
tēεgε/ νν. drag (ILK)
t\dot{\epsilon}'\epsilon g^a pl t\dot{\epsilon}'\epsilon s^{\epsilon} cb t\dot{\epsilon}'- n. baobab 32.6 Adansonia digitata (Haaf)
tēk<sup>ε/</sup> νν. pull
tèňb<sup>ε</sup> ger tèňbυg<sup>3</sup> vv. tremble, struggle
tèň'εsε νν. remind
t\bar{\epsilon}n'\epsilon s^{\epsilon}/vv. think; ger t\bar{\epsilon}n'\epsilon s\acute{a}^+n. thought
t \tilde{\epsilon} \tilde{n} r^a ger t \tilde{\epsilon} \tilde{n} r (b^3) or t \tilde{\epsilon} \tilde{n} r (m^m) (tone sic; ??misheard for t \tilde{\epsilon} \tilde{n} r (m^m)) iv. remember
t\bar{\epsilon}\eta^a pl t\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon\check{n}s^{\epsilon} cb t\dot{\epsilon}\eta- n. land; t\dot{\epsilon}\eta-b\bar{i}ig^a n. native; t\dot{\epsilon}\eta-d\bar{a}an^a n. traditional earth-
          priest; t \dot{\epsilon} \eta - d \bar{\nu}' a d \iota g^a n. native land; t \dot{\epsilon} \eta - g b \dot{a} u \eta^a n. earth, land; t \dot{\epsilon} \eta - p \bar{\nu} u g v - n^{\epsilon/2}
          pl tèŋ-pōvd\iota-n^{\epsilon/} n. village \frac{17.3}{\epsilon}; tèŋ-zùŋ³ pl tèŋ-zùvňs\epsilon n. foreign country
t\bar{\epsilon}n\iota-n^{\epsilon} downward; as postposition under 17.6
tēnír<sup>E</sup> downward; as postposition under 17.6
tèog<sup>o</sup> pl tè\varepsilond<sup>\varepsilon</sup> n. nest
t \dot{\epsilon}' o g^{\circ} pl t \dot{\epsilon}' \epsilon d^{\epsilon} n. baobab fruit 32.6
tì we, our (proclitic) 16.3.1
tt+ us (enclitic object) 16.3.1
tì preverb conveying completion or purpose 19.7.2
tià'al<sup>E</sup> vv. come next
tiàk<sup>ε</sup> vv. change
tì'əb<sup>ε</sup> vv. prepare, get ready; heal in this sense perhaps influenced by
         Arabic طب t<sup>r</sup>ibb(un) "medicinal art"; tī'əb<sup>a</sup> n. healer
tìeň<sup>+</sup> vv. inform WK (KED remember)
tìeň+ vv. stretch out
tìəŋa pl tìəms^{\epsilon} cb tìəŋ- n. beard; tìəŋ-gōvr n. chin
tig^{\epsilon} vv. become sated; ger tigir^{\epsilon} n. glut
tī'iya/ ger tī'ib<sup>5</sup>/ iv. be leaning (object)
tìig<sup>a</sup> pl tìis ^{\varepsilon} cb tì- n. tree
t\bar{l}'il^{\epsilon} vv. lean something
tìım<sup>m</sup> cb tì- n. medicine; tì-kōvdím<sup>m</sup> n. poison (killing-medicine); tì-sābılím<sup>m</sup> n.
          "black medicine" (a particular traditional remedy); tì-vōnním<sup>m</sup> n. oral
          medication
tì'in<sup>ε</sup> vv. begin to lean
tīlás<sup>ε</sup> n. necessity ← Hausa tiilàs 26.1
tilig<sup>E</sup> vv. survive, be saved
tīnámì we (subject of n-clause) 16.3.1
```

```
tīnám<sup>a</sup> we, us (contrastive) 16.3.1
t\bar{t}nt\bar{j}nr(g^a) pl t\bar{t}nt\bar{j}nr(s^c) cb t\bar{t}ntjnr- n. mole (animal)
tip^a pl tip-nàma cb tip- n. healer (see t\vec{l} \ni b^a id)
tīráàna pl tīráàn-nàma ch tīráàn-n, neighbour, peer
tīráànnım<sup>m</sup> n. neighbourliness
tírigà ideophone for gīn<sup>a</sup> short 16.11.1.3
tìs<sup>E</sup> ipfv tìsid<sup>a</sup> tìt<sup>a</sup> agt tìs<sup>a</sup> vv. give; also tì before enclitic pronouns: tì f gave you
tītā'al<sup>lε</sup> n. proud person
tītā'alım<sup>m</sup> n. pride
tītā'am<sup>m</sup> n. multitude
tītā'vg<sup>3</sup> tītā'ar<sup>ε</sup> pl tītāda<sup>+</sup> cb tītá'- adj. big, great
tò OK 25.2.4 (= Hausa tôo)
t \ni d^{\epsilon} vv. give to the poor, share
tōea/ iv. be bitter, difficult
tóklàe<sup>+</sup> n. torch ← English "torchlight"
tillili ideophone for w\bar{b}k^{3/} tall 16.11.1.3
tólib onomatopoeic word 16.11.1.3
tòň+ vv. shoot
tòň'ɔs² vv. hunt
t\bar{b} g^{2} pl t\bar{b} d^{\epsilon} cb t\dot{b} - adj. bitter, difficult
tɔ̄ɔm<sup>m/</sup> vv. depart, disappear
tà'atō+/ adv. straight away 17.4
tuà+ vv. grind in a mortar; tuà-bīla n. pestle
tu'à vv. speak, plead in court
tò'al<sup>E</sup> vv. condemn in court
tờ'asε νν. talk
t\dot{v}bvr^{\epsilon} pl t\dot{v}ba^{+} cb t\dot{v}b- n. ear; t\dot{v}b-kpir^{\epsilon} n. half of jaw; t\dot{v}b-y\bar{\iota}u\eta^{5/} adj. one-eared
        16.4.2.3 16.11.1.4
tūlla/ iv. be hot
tùlig<sup>E</sup> vv. invert
tūlig<sup>ε</sup>/ vv. heat up
từm<sup>m</sup> νν. work; ger tūνm<sup>mε</sup> n. deed pl tūνma<sup>+</sup> n. deeds; work cb từνm-; từνm-bɛ̄'εd<sup>ε</sup>
        n. bad deeds; t \dot{v} v m - b \bar{\epsilon}' \epsilon d - d (m^a) n. sinners NT; a q t t \dot{v} m - t \bar{v} m^{na} n. worker
từm<sup>m</sup> ger tìtūmιs<sup>ε</sup> vv. send; compare Hausa àikaa "send", aikàtaa "work"
tūň'e iv. be able 23.3
tūedır<sup>€</sup> pl tūeda<sup>+</sup> cb tùed- n. mortar
tùen<sup>ne</sup> in front; as postposition 17.6; West (KB yà tùena) 32.3; tùen-gāta n. leader
Tùen<sup>ne</sup> n. Toende, Western part of Kusaasiland
Tuennur<sup>E</sup> n. Toende dialect of Kusaal
t\bar{u}sir^{\epsilon}/n. thousand 16.4.2.1
tòtūl<sup>lɛ</sup> n. upside-down thing cf tùlig<sup>ɛ</sup>
```

*ง*บ**่งร์เm**^m n. resting

```
t\bar{\nu}\nu l(g\bar{a}^{+/}adv. hotly 17.4)
tūvlúg<sup>3</sup> pl tūvlá<sup>+</sup> cb tūvl- adj. hot
tū'טs<sup>ε</sup>/ vv. meet
U
\dot{u}dvg^{\circ} pl \dot{u}t^{\varepsilon} cb \dot{u}d- n. (piece of) chaff
\bar{u}qvs^{\epsilon}/vv. bring up a child
ờk<sup>ε</sup> νν. vomit
ūkε vv. bloat
mm vv. close eyes
úun<sup>nε</sup> n. dry season <u>32.9</u>
V
vābι<sup>ya/</sup> ger vāp<sup>5/</sup> KT vābιr<sup>ε/</sup> WK iv. be lying prone
vābι/ε/ νν. make lie prone
vàbιn<sup>ε</sup> νν. lie prone
vāυňg<sup>5/</sup> pl vāaňd<sup>ε/</sup> cb vāň- n. leaf
v\bar{\epsilon}^{+} vv. lead
νε̄'εgε/ νν. drag
νὲη<sup>na</sup> iv. be beautiful
vèňla iv. be beautiful
v \dot{\epsilon} n I l g^a pl v \dot{\epsilon} n I l l s^\epsilon v \dot{\epsilon} n I l a^+ c b v \dot{\epsilon} n I - a d j. beautiful
vèňllíŋ<sup>a</sup> pl vèňllís<sup>ɛ</sup> cb vèňllíŋ- adj. beautiful
v \hat{\epsilon} n n \iota g^a v \hat{\epsilon} n n \iota r^{\epsilon} p l v \hat{\epsilon} n n \iota s^{\epsilon} v \hat{\epsilon} n n a^+ c b v \hat{\epsilon} n - a d j. beautiful
vènnım<sup>m</sup> n. beauty
vi + vv. uproot
νīkε/ νν. uproot
viug<sup>5/</sup> pl viid<sup>\epsilon/</sup> cb vi- n. owl
v\bar{u}^+ qer v\bar{u}uq^{5/}vv. make a noise; v\bar{u}ud^{\epsilon/}n. noise
vōea/ iv. be alive
νοًΙ<sup>ε</sup> νν. swallow
νὸἰιηνὰμἤΙ<sup>lε</sup> n. mason wasp
vōm<sup>m/</sup> cb vōm- n. life; vōm-páàllε n. new life
νύθη<sup>a</sup> pl vūθm(s<sup>ε</sup> n. red kapok <u>32.6</u> Bombax buonopozense (Haaf)
νύθ<sup>ε</sup> pl νūάa<sup>=</sup> cb νūθ- n. fruit of red kapok 32.6
v\bar{v}r^{\epsilon} pl v\bar{v}v\acute{a}^+ cb v\bar{v}r- adj. alive
v\bar{\upsilon}'\upsilon g^{\varepsilon/} vv. come, make alive
v\bar{\upsilon}'\upsilon s^{\epsilon}/vv. breathe, rest
```

W

```
wā' + vv. dance
w\bar{a}ad^{\epsilon}/n. cold weather
wáaf pl wīigí + cb wā' - n. snake
wāal<sup>€/</sup> vv. sow, scatter seed
wā'alím<sup>m</sup> n. length
wā'am<sup>ma/</sup> iv. be long, tall
wablg^a wable^{\epsilon} pl wable^{\epsilon} waba+ cb wab- n. lame person
wàbilim<sup>m</sup> vv. make, go lame
w\bar{a}bug^{5/} pl w\bar{a}bid^{\epsilon/} cb w\bar{a}b- n. elephant
wādır<sup>\epsilon</sup>/ pl wādá<sup>+</sup> cb wād- n. law (← English "order" via Hausa) plural as sg: law
         wād-tísa n. lawgiver NT
wà'eya iv. be travelling
w\bar{a}lig^a pl w\bar{a}lis^{\epsilon} w\bar{a}li^+ (tone sic) cb w\dot{a}l- n. a kind of gazelle
wànım<sup>m</sup> vv. waste away
wàsınwàl<sup>le</sup> n. a parasitic gall on trees, called "mistletoe" in local English
wàuŋ² pl wàna+ cb wàuŋ- adj. wasted, thin
wὲεd<sup>a</sup> see wìιd<sup>a</sup>
w\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon^{|\epsilon|} vv. be left unsold (KED) but see w\bar{\epsilon}oq^{3/2}
wēl<sup>€</sup> vv. bear fruit
wēl<sup>|E|</sup> pl wēlá<sup>+</sup> cb wēl- n. fruit
w\bar{\epsilon}l\dot{a}^+ or w\bar{a}l\dot{a}^+ how? 17.7; nìn w\bar{\epsilon}l\dot{a} kà how can ...? 26.1
wēn<sup>na/</sup> iv. resemble; in KB wēn nē appears as nwεnε; ger wēnním<sup>m</sup>??misheard for
         w\dot{\epsilon}nním<sup>m</sup>; cf the Pattern O adjective w\bar{\epsilon}nnır^{\epsilon}
w\bar{\epsilon}nnir^{\epsilon} adj. resembling (Pattern O, specifically confirmed with WK)
wèog<sup>3</sup> n. deep bush
w\bar{\epsilon}oq^{5}/pl\ w\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon d^{\epsilon}/n. cheap thing sold in abundance WK
wìdıg<sup>ɛ</sup> vv. scatter
wìəf pl wìdi + cb wìd- n. horse; wìd-l5r ^{\epsilon} n. place for tying up horses in a compound;
         wid-d\bar{a}\nu g^{3} n. stallion; wid-\bar{n}\gamma\dot{a}^{\dagger}a\eta^{a} n. mare; wid-z\bar{\nu}\nu r^{\epsilon} n. horsetail
wilda or wèeda pl wilba cb wild- n. hunter
Wìida pl Wìid-nàma ch Wìid-n. member of the clan Wiid 32.5
Wildug<sup>3</sup> n. place of the clan Wild
wiiqa/ n. whistle
wìtm<sup>m</sup> n. sickness, disease ("worse than bāň'as<sup>E</sup>" WK)
wìk<sup>ε</sup> ipfv wìid<sup>a</sup> vv. fetch water 11.1.1
wìl<sup>lɛ</sup> pl wìla<sup>+</sup> cb wìl- n. branch
wīlisúŋ<sup>3</sup> pl wīlimís<sup>\epsilon</sup> cb wīlisúŋ- n. a kind of snail 9.3.2.1
wím ideophone for zìň'a<sup>+</sup> red 16.11.1.3
```

```
win<sup>nε/</sup> pl winá<sup>+</sup> cb win- n. God: god: spiritual double. aenius: destiny: win-tóòa<sup>3</sup>
          n. misfortune
Wínà'am<sup>m</sup> n. God <u>15.1</u> (usually Christian)
wìnnq^a cb wìn- n. sun: talent: wìn-līir^{\epsilon} n. sunset: wìn-kòɔnr^{\epsilon} n. sunset
wìug<sup>o</sup> wìir<sup>\epsilon</sup> pl wìya<sup>+</sup> wìid<sup>\epsilon</sup> cb wì- adj. red
\mathbf{w}\bar{\mathbf{c}}\mathbf{k}^{\mathbf{J}} \mathbf{w}\bar{\mathbf{a}}^{\mathbf{E}} \mathbf{p} \mathbf{w}\bar{\mathbf{a}} \mathbf{a} \mathbf{b} \mathbf{w}\bar{\mathbf{a}} \mathbf{b} \mathbf{w}\bar{\mathbf{a}} \mathbf{b} \mathbf{w}\bar{\mathbf{a}} \mathbf{b} \mathbf{v}\bar{\mathbf{a}} \mathbf{b} \mathbf{v}\bar{\mathbf{a}} \mathbf{b} \mathbf{v}\bar{\mathbf{a}} \mathbf{b} \mathbf{v}\bar{\mathbf{a}} \mathbf{b} \mathbf{v}\bar{\mathbf{a}}
wòm<sup>m</sup> vv. hear; understand (a language)
w\bar{v}sa^+ q. all <u>16.4.1</u>
w\bar{v}^+ q. all <u>16.4.1</u>
wōv like, resembling 18.1
w\bar{\upsilon}'\upsilon g^{\varepsilon}/\nu\nu. get wet
wõ'טו<sup>€/</sup> vv. make wet
Υ
yà you, your pl (proclitic) 16.3.1
ya<sup>+</sup> you pl (enclitic object) 16.3.1
ya you pl, enclitic subject after imperative 8.2.1.2 16.3.1 25.2.3
yā<sup>+</sup> Independent/perfective particle 19.6.2.1
yà' if, when <u>27</u>
yáa adv. whither? 17.7
vā'a as for ... 25.1.1
yáaba pl yāa-náma cb yāa- n. grandparent, ancestor 32.1; yāa-dáu n. grandfather;
          yāa-pu'áa n. grandmother
yà'ab<sup>ε</sup> νν. mould clay
y\bar{a}'ad^{\epsilon} cb y\dot{a}'-n. clay
yà'al<sup>ε</sup> νν. hang up; make perch (bird)
yà'an<sup>ε</sup> νν. perch (of a bird)
Yàan<sup>nε</sup> n. Yansi language (apparently Mooré now)
v\acute{a}a n\acute{t}^+ adv. where? 17.7
yáaη<sup>a</sup> pl irr yáas<sup>ε</sup> (consistently without nasalisation) cb yāaη- n. grandchild,
          descendant 32.1
Yàan^a pl Yàam^{ma} Yàam(s^{\epsilon} Yàas^{\epsilon} cb Yàan- n. Yansi person 32.5
yāar<sup>ε/</sup> vv. scatter
yàarım<sup>m</sup> cb yàar- n. salt
yà'asa yà'asε again 23.3
v\bar{a}'as^{\epsilon}/vv. open repeatedly
yàdd\bar{a} or yàd\bar{a} n. faith, trust \leftarrow Hausa yàrda; probably \leftarrow Arabic يرضى yard^{5}a: 15.1
          20.1; yàddā-nínìr<sup>\epsilon</sup> n. belief
yādıg<sup>€</sup>/ vv. scatter; agt yāta/ irreq. agent noun: technical term for a participant in a
          housebuilding ritual
```

```
vā'e⁺/ vv. widen, open (mouth)
yàk<sup>ε</sup> νν. unhang, unhook
yàlım<sup>ma</sup> iv. be wide
yālım<sup>m/</sup> pl yālım-nám<sup>a</sup> n. worthless person
y\bar{a}lis\dot{v}\eta^{2} pl y\bar{a}lim(s^{\epsilon}cb) y\bar{a}lis\dot{v}\eta- n. quail 9.3.2.1
vàlun<sup>3</sup> pl vàlıma<sup>+</sup> cb vàlun- adj. wide
yām<sup>mε</sup> pl yàma<sup>+</sup> cb yàm- n. hay WK
yām<sup>m/</sup> cb yām- n. gall; gall bladder; common sense WK yā'm<sup>m/</sup>.
yàmmıga yàmmuga yàmmuga pl yàmmıs<sup>ɛ</sup> cb yàm- n. slave
yānámì you pl (subject of n-clause) 16.3.1
yānám<sup>a</sup> you pl (contrastive) 16.3.1
Y\bar{a}rig^{a/} pl Y\bar{a}ris^{\epsilon/} cb Y\bar{a}r- n. Yarsi 32.5; also called Kantonsi; said to have been
          originally of Manding/Dyula origin
Yāt<sup>€</sup>/ n. Yarsi language (no longer Dyula/Bambara, but a Western Oti-Volta language)
v a u q^{3} pl v a a d^{\epsilon} n. grave, tomb
y\bar{\epsilon} that 26.1 26.3 26.3.3
v\bar{\epsilon} be about to ... 19.3.3
y \dot{\epsilon}^+ vv. dress oneself; res adj y \dot{\epsilon} \epsilon l \dot{\nu} \eta^{3} worn (e.g. of a shirt)
γὲεσε νν. undress oneself
γὲεΙ<sup>ε</sup> νν. dress someone
y\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon s^{\epsilon}/vv. betray a secret
γὲΙ<sup>ε</sup> ipfv yὲt<sup>a</sup> ger yὲlυg<sup>ο</sup> vv. say, tell
y\bar{\epsilon}l^{|\epsilon|} pl y\bar{\epsilon}l\dot{a}^+ (as postposition: about 17.6) cb y\bar{\epsilon}l^- n. matter, affair; y\bar{\epsilon}l^- mé\etair^{\epsilon}
          n. truth; y\bar{\epsilon}l-n\acute{a}r\grave{v}\eta^{3} n. necessity; y\bar{\epsilon}l-p\acute{a}k\grave{\iota}r^{\epsilon} n. disaster; y\bar{\epsilon}l-s\acute{v}'ad\grave{\iota}r^{\epsilon}
          n. confidential matter
yēním<sup>m</sup> νν. oscillate (like waves)
y \hat{\epsilon} o g^{\circ} pl y \hat{\epsilon} \epsilon d^{\epsilon} n. bird's crop; person displaced from family (KED)
v\bar{\epsilon}\acute{o}\eta q. one, in counting 16.4.2.2
yī<sup>+</sup> ipfv yīt<sup>a/</sup> imp yìm<sup>a</sup> vv. go, come out
yìdιg<sup>ε</sup> νν. go astray
vidig^{\epsilon}/vv. untie
yìər<sup>ε</sup> n. jaw
y\bar{i}iga^{+}q. firstly <u>16.4.2.3</u> <u>17.4</u>; former <u>16.7</u>; y\bar{i}ig-sjb^{a}n. first person <u>16.10.3.1</u>
yīis<sup>ɛ</sup>/ ger yīisíb<sup>ɔ</sup> vv. make go/come out, extract
yīmmír^{\varepsilon} pl yīmmá^{+} cb yīm- adj. solitary, lone <u>16.4.2.3</u>
y\bar{i}mm\dot{v}^{+} adv. straight away, at once <u>16.4.2.4</u>
y\bar{i}nn(^{+}q) one 16.4.2.1
yìn<sup>a</sup> adv. outside
y\bar{i}r^{\epsilon}/pl\ y\bar{a}^{+}/cb\ y\bar{i}-n. house; y\bar{i}-dáàn^a n. householder; y\bar{i}-sób^a pl\ y\bar{i}-sób-nàm^a n.
          householder; yī-dím<sup>a</sup> n. members of the household; yī-pɔ́nròq<sup>o</sup> pl yī-pɔ́nrà+
          n. neighbouring house; y\bar{i}-sígidìr^{\epsilon} n. lodging-house; yin^{n\epsilon} at home pl y\acute{a}an^{\epsilon}
```

```
γīs<sup>ε</sup> νν. make go/come out, extract
y\bar{\iota}u\eta^{5/} pl y\bar{\iota}n\acute{a}^{+} adj. single- 16.4.2.3 16.11.1.4
vò<sup>+</sup> vv. close; res adj vòɔlúη<sup>o</sup> closed
v\bar{\mathbf{5}}^{+n}vv, pav: aer v\bar{\mathbf{5}}\mathbf{5}d^{\mathbf{\epsilon}/n}, pav
yɔ̃lιsε/ νν. untie
yɔ̃lısím<sup>m</sup> n. freedom
v\bar{\rho} \log^{3/p} pl \ v\bar{\rho} n^{n\epsilon/pl} \ cb \ v\bar{\rho} l- n. sack, moneybag, £100, ¢200 (200 cedis)
yà'ɔg<sup>ε</sup> νν. open
y \ni r^{\epsilon} pl y \ni y a^{+} cb y \ni -n. soldier ant
yuà<sup>+</sup> vv. bleed; also fornicate WK
yùbig^a pl yùbis^\epsilon cb yùb- n. small bottle-like pot
yūgvdır<sup>€</sup> pl yūgvda<sup>+</sup> cb yùgvd- n. hedgehog
yūgύm<sup>mε</sup> yūgύm<sup>nε</sup> pl yūgυmá<sup>+</sup> cb yūgυm- n. camel
yùlig<sup>E</sup> vv. swing (transitive)
vūň'e<sup>+/</sup> vv. set alight
y\bar{u}'er^{\epsilon} pl yuāda<sup>+</sup> cb yù'er- n. penis
\dot{yuug}^{\epsilon} vv. get to be a long time, delay; Ti \dot{yuug} n\bar{\epsilon} t\bar{a}aba. It's a long time since we met.
yùul<sup>E</sup> vv. swing (intransitive)
yō'vm<sup>m/</sup> vv. sing; agt yōvm-yó'òm<sup>na</sup> pl yōvm-yó'òmnιb<sup>a</sup> n. singer
yύ'υm<sup>nε</sup> pl yū'υmá<sup>+</sup> cb yū'υm- or yūυm- n. song
yὺυm<sup>mε</sup> pl yὑma<sup>+</sup> cb yὑυm- n. year; yὺυm-pāalíg<sup>a</sup> n. new year
v\bar{v}'un then, next 24.1.4
yὑ'υη⁻ pl yū'υmίs<sup>ε</sup> cb yū'υη- n. night
vō'ur<sup>ε/</sup> pl yūdá<sup>+</sup> cb yō'- n. name
y\bar{v}v^{\epsilon} pl y\bar{v}ya^{+} cb y\dot{v}- n. water pot
Ζ
zā+/ cb zā- n. millet
zāalíg<sup>a</sup> záal<sup>lɛ</sup> pl zāalís<sup>ɛ</sup> zāalá<sup>+</sup> cb zāal- adj. empty
zāalím<sup>m</sup> adv. emptily
zàam<sup>m</sup> cb zà- n. evening; zà-sìsɔ̃bır<sup>€/</sup> n. evening
zàaňsım<sup>m</sup> vv. dream
zāaňsím<sup>m</sup> cb zāaňs- n. soup; soup in general, not "fish soup" despite Mampruli
         zaasim "fish"; cf Toende zãasím "soupe à viande" (Niggli)
zàaňsύη<sup>3</sup> pl zàaňsímà<sup>+</sup> cb zàaňsύη- n. dream
zàb<sup>ɛ</sup> ger zàbır<sup>ɛ</sup> vv. fight; hurt (of body part); agt zàb-zàb<sup>a</sup> n. warrior;
         agt gbān-záb<sup>a</sup> n. leather-beater, leather-worker
zàbil<sup>E</sup> vv. cause to fight
z\dot{a}k^a pl z\dot{a}'as^{\epsilon} cb z\dot{a}'- n. compound; z\dot{a}'-n\bar{b} n. gate; z\dot{a}'-n\bar{b}-gúr^a n. gatekeeper
zàkım<sup>m</sup> vv. itch
```

```
zàlin pl zàlimis cb zàlin n. electric eel
zàm<sup>m</sup> ipfv zàmmıd<sup>a</sup> vv. cheat; agt zàm-zām<sup>na</sup> n. cheat
zà'mιs<sup>ε</sup> νν. learn, teach
z\bar{a}n'a=a, every 16.4.1
zàň'as<sup>ɛ</sup> vv. refuse
zàňbul<sup>€</sup> vv. tattoo, mark skin
zāňbιn<sup>nε</sup> pl zāňbιna<sup>+</sup> cb zàňbιn- n. tattoo; NT sign <u>12.1.2</u>
Zàngbèɛl<sup>ɛ</sup> n. Hausa language 32.5
Zàngbèog<sup>5</sup> pl Zàngbè\varepsilon d^{\varepsilon} n. Hausa person 32.5
zàngùem<sup>mɛ</sup> pl zàngùema<sup>+</sup> cb zàngùem- n. wall
zànkù'ar<sup>E</sup> pl zànku'àa<sup>+</sup> zànkù'ada<sup>+</sup> cb zànku'à- n. jackal
zāňl<sup>la/</sup> ger zāňllím<sup>m</sup> iv. be holding, carrying in hands
zàňl<sup>lɛ</sup> n. umbilicus
zàη<sup>ε</sup> νν. pick up, take up
zēm<sup>ma/</sup> ger zēmmύg<sup>3</sup> iv. be equal
z\bar{\epsilon}'m\iota s^{\epsilon}/vv. make equal
zēmmúg³ pl zēmmá+ cb zēm- adj. equal
z\bar{i}^+ ger z\bar{i}id^{\epsilon}/vv. carry on one's head; agt \ z\bar{i}-z\hat{i}id^a \ n. carrier on the head
z\bar{\iota}^{+} ger z\bar{\iota}^{-}\iota l(m^{m}iv. not know 29.1.1; agt <math>z\bar{\iota}^{-}\iota d^{a}/n. ignorant person
zi'e^{ya} ger zi'a^+ KED; DK KT zi' \ni g^a (exceptional phonology 15 12.1.1.2) iv. be standing
zì'əl<sup>\epsilon</sup> vv. make to stand; zì'əl nɔ̄ɔr<sup>\epsilonl</sup> promise, command; with n tìs X: promise to X
zi' \ni n^{\varepsilon} vv. stand still: Ozi' \ni n n\overline{\varepsilon}. She's pregnant.
zīım<sup>m/</sup> cb zī- n. blood
zíin^a pl zīm(^+ cb zīm-n. fish; zīm-gbán'àd^a n. fisherman
zìlιm<sup>mε</sup> pl zìlιma<sup>+</sup> cb zìlιm- n. tongue
zīlınzíùg<sup>3</sup> adj. unknown
zím ideophone for sābilíga black 16.11.1.3
zīná<sup>+</sup> today 32.9
zì\ddot{n}'a^+z\dot{\epsilon}\ddot{n}'\upsilon g^{\circ} pl z\dot{\epsilon}\ddot{n}'\varepsilon d^{\varepsilon}z\dot{\epsilon}\ddot{n}'\varepsilon s^{\varepsilon}z\dot{\epsilon}\ddot{n}da^+cbz\dot{\epsilon}\ddot{n}'-adj. red
zìň'i<sup>ya</sup> iv. be sitting; ger zīň'ig<sup>a</sup> pl zīň'is<sup>ε</sup> cb zìň- (also place)
zìň'il<sup>ε</sup> vv. make sit. seat
zìň'in<sup>ε</sup> νν. sit down
zīnzāuŋɔ/ pl zīnzāná+ cb zīnzáun- n. bat
zīrí<sup>+</sup> n. lie, untruth
z\dot{b}^+ ipfv z\dot{c}t^a imp z\dot{c}m^a vv. run; fear; experience emotion; ger z\bar{u}a^+ z\bar{c}cg^2 run;
          imperfective ger zòtım fear 13.1.1.4 \dot{O} z\dot{o}t\cdot\bar{o} n\bar{n}-báalìg. He has pity on him
zɔ̄/ε νν. castrate
zɔ̃lιmίs<sup>ε</sup> n. foolishness
z\bar{z}lvg^{2/} pl z\bar{z}n^{n\epsilon/} cb z\bar{z}l- n. fool
zɔ̃m<sup>m/</sup> cb zɔ̃m- n. flour
zɔ̄ɔm<sup>mε</sup> zɔ̄ɔm<sup>nε</sup> pl zɔ̄ɔma<sup>+</sup> cb zòɔm- n. refugee, fugitive
```

```
zɔ̃rıqa/ n. small child WK
zōrug<sup>ɔ/</sup> pl zōrá<sup>+</sup> n. piece
z\bar{u}^+ vv. steal
zuà+ pl zuà-nàma cb zuà- n. friend
Zùa<sup>+</sup> pl Zù\thetas<sup>\epsilon</sup> n. member of clan Zoose 32.5; pl Zuà-wìis<sup>\epsilon</sup> Zuà-wìib<sup>a</sup>, pl Zuà-sābılís<sup>\epsilon</sup>
         subclans of Zoose
zù'e+ vv. get higher, more
zùe<sup>+</sup> vv. perch, get on top (? variant of zù'e<sup>+</sup>)
z\bar{u}g^{3} pl z\bar{u}t^{\epsilon} cb z\bar{u}g- z\bar{u}- \frac{9.2.2}{2} n. head; as postposition \frac{17.6}{2}; z\bar{u}g\dot{v}-n<sup>\epsilon</sup> is also used as a
         postposition; zūg-dáàna n. boss, master (replaces zūg-sóba in KB for meanings
         other than "the Lord"); z\bar{u}g-k\bar{v}gv^{\epsilon} pl z\bar{u}g-k\bar{v}ga^{+} cb z\bar{u}g-k\dot{v}g- n. pillow; z\bar{u}g-
         máuk<sup>3</sup> pl zūg-má'àd<sup>ε</sup> adj. crushed-headed <u>16.11.1.4</u>; zūg-s5b<sup>a</sup> n. boss; NT
         Lord (often read as z\bar{u}-s5b in the audio NT); z\bar{u}-pɛɛlòg pl z\bar{u}-pɛɛlòg pl z\bar{u}-pɛɛlòg pl z\bar{u}-pɛɛlòg
         16.11.1.4; zū-píbìg<sup>a</sup> n. hat
zùlιg<sup>ε</sup> νν. deepen
zùlım<sup>ma</sup> iv. be deep
zùlvŋ² pl zùlıma+ cb zùlvŋ- adj. deep
zùluŋ³ n. depth
z\dot{v}nz\dot{v}\eta^a z\dot{v}nz\dot{v}\eta^o pl z\dot{v}nz\dot{v}v\dot{v} cb z\dot{v}nz\dot{v}\eta- n. blind person
zūebúg<sup>3</sup> pl zūebíd<sup>\epsilon</sup> cb zūeb- n. hair (of human head); see k\bar{\jmath} \bar{n}b\nug<sup>3</sup>
zùød<sup>€</sup> n. friendship
zùel<sup>€</sup> vv. make to perch
z\bar{u}'em^{m/} pl z\bar{u}'em(s^{\epsilon}cb\ z\bar{u}'em-n.\ blind\ person
zū¹em™/ vv. go blind, make blind
zùen<sup>ε</sup> νν. begin to perch
zūer<sup>€</sup> pl zuēya<sup>+</sup> cb zuà- n. hill
zùes<sup>ε</sup> νν. befriend
zūríf pl zūrí + cb zūr- n. dawadawa seed
zύυňf pl zōυní + n. dawadawa seed
zùuňg³ pl zùuňs<sup>ɛ</sup> zùuňd<sup>ɛ</sup> cb zùň- n. vulture
z\bar{v}v^{\epsilon} pl z\bar{v}ya^{+} cb z\dot{v}- n. tail; z\dot{v}-w\bar{s}k^{3} adj. long-tailed 16.11.1.4
```