A Grammar of Agolle Kusaal Revised Version

David Eddyshaw



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Preface

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

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

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

This grammar began as an attempt 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.

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 in 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			
BNY	Bunkonbid ne Niis ne ba yεla (see Sources)		
С	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		
Н	High toneme		
ILK	"An Introduction to Learning Kusaal" (David Spratt)		
ipfv	imperfective		
irreg	irregular		
KB	Kusaal Bible of 2016 (see Sources)		
KED			
KKY	Y 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)		
Μ	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		
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.

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Interlinear glossing

Abbreviations:

ABSTR	abstract	<u>9.1.1</u>
ADV	adverbial	<u>12.3</u>
AN	animate gender	<u>16.2.2</u>
CAT	clause catenator (underlyingly <i>n</i>)	<u>23.1</u>
CNTR	contrastive (personal pronouns)	<u>28.5</u>
СОР	copula <i>àe̯ňª</i>	<u>20.2</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 <i>n</i> ^ɛ	<u>24.1.1</u>
EXIST	existence/location verb bè ⁺	<u>20.1</u>
FOC	focus particle <i>nē</i> +/	<u>28.1.2</u>
GER	gerund	<u>12.2.1</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>
IPFV	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>19.5.1</u>
NEG.HAVE	(another use of the same verb)	<u>19.5.1</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>19.5.1</u>
NEG.LET	negative verb <i>mìt</i>	<u>19.5.1</u>
NUM	number prefix <i>à- bà- 'n- bù-</i>	<u>14.3</u>
NZ	nominaliser (underlyingly 'n)	<u>25</u>
OB	object (liaison-enclitic pronouns)	<u>8.2</u>
PERS	personifier clitic (à- or <i>'n-</i>)	<u>16.6</u>
PFV	independent-perfective marker <i>yā</i> +	<u>19.6.2.1</u>
PL	plural	<u>16.2.1</u>
PQ	polar question prosodic clitic	<u>8.1</u>
REL	relative pronoun	<u>25.3.2</u>
SG	singular	<u>16.2.1</u>
TNS	tense marker	<u>19.3.1</u>
VOC	vocative prosodic clitic	<u>8.1</u>

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<u>16.3.1</u>

Personal pronouns:1SG 1PL1st sg/pl2SG 2PL2nd sg/pl3AN 3INAN3rd sg animate/inanimate3PL3rd pl2PL.SUBpostposed 2nd pl Subject

The linker particle $k\dot{a}$ is conventionally glossed "and" throughout, though this very often does not reflect the true meaning in context 21.2; similarly $y\dot{a}'$ 24.1 is glossed "if" in all cases. The empty particle $n\bar{\epsilon}$ which follows objects of comparison which lack the article 18 is glossed "like."

Mass nouns <u>16.2.1</u> are not specified as <u>sc</u> or <u>PL</u> in the glossing; similarly, singleaspect verbs <u>11.2</u> are not labelled for aspect. The perfective of dual-aspect 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 clitic \hat{A} -/ \hat{N} -, 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: $p\bar{v}ygv-n$ "inside", not $p\bar{v}gv-n$.

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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 apply to all following unmarked morae, and a second acute after a first within a single word represents 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 ιv for IPA ιv , 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, and macron for mid tone. Except with Hausa, absent tone marks signify a lack of tonal information.

Words cited in foreign languages are written in *sans-serif italics*. *This* colour is reserved for words and word fragments in the working orthography of this grammar; it is not used for Kusaal in the orthography of written sources. This colour is used for interlinear glosses.

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 clause 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 26.2.1 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 8.2.1, 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 8.5.2; 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

Bunkonbid ne Niis ne ba yɛla Būn-kɔ́ňbìd nɛ̄ Níis nɛ́ bà yɛ̄lá

Kusaal Solima ne Siilima Kūsáàl Sólımà nɛ̄ Síilímà

Kusaas Kuob nɛ Yir yela Gbauŋ Kūsáàs Kúèb nɛ̃ Yīr yélà Gbàu̯ŋ

Kusaal Bible

1976 NT © World Home Bible League
1996 NT © The Bible League/GILLBT available as <u>Audio and searchable text</u>
2016 Complete Bible © GILLBT available as an <u>Android application</u>

"Animals and birds and their affairs" Matthew M. Abokiba

"Kusaal Stories and Proverbs" Samuel Akon, Joe Anabah

"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.

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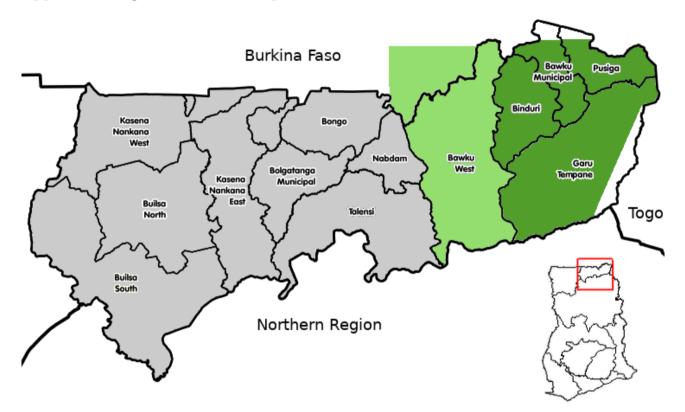
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1 Introduction to Kusaal and the Kusaasi

Upper East Region of Ghana (adapted from Macab5387):



Kusaal is the language of the Kusaasi, the majority ethnic group of the Bawku Municipal, Binduri, Pusiga, Garu-Tempane and Bawku West 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 part of this territory, west of the White Volta river and largely coinciding with Bawku West District, is called **Toende** in Ghanaian English (less often spelt "Tonde", and in French contexts "Tondé"), Kusaal¹ Tùen^{nɛ} "in front, West." The eastern part is **Agolle** (less accurately spelt "Agole"), Kusaal $\dot{A}g\dot{>}J^{lɛ}$ "Upper." These Ghanaian districts comprise most of $K\bar{v}s\dot{a}\dot{v}g^{>}$ "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 in Togo.

¹⁾ Superscript letters represent the parts of Kusaal words deleted in most contexts by apocope 2.4. They play no part in the pronunciation of citation forms, and may be ignored in this section.

1.1 The Kusaasi people

The name $K\bar{v}s\dot{a}\dot{a}l^{\epsilon}$ "Kusaal" and the name of the people $K\bar{v}s\dot{a}\dot{a}s^{\epsilon}$ "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 Fulbe and Mossi. There is one rainy season, lasting unpredictably from May to October. The main crop is millet of various kinds, along with rice to a lesser extent. Millet is used to make the Kusaasi staple millet porridge $s\bar{a}$ ' ab^{2} , 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 $(d\hat{z}_{g})$, "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 $p\bar{z}z^{\epsilon}$ "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 *tɛ̀ŋ-dāan*^a or earth-priest, who is supposed to be the descendant and heir of the original oikist or first settler. In precolonial times the dominant political structures in this region were the so-called Mossi-Dagomba states, the remarkably durable continuations and offshoots of polities founded, probably around the fourteenth century, by incoming conquerors traditionally held to be from the region of Lake Chad. The invaders created hereditary chiefdoms among previously acephalous peoples, who continued to provide the *tɛ̀ŋ-dàan-nàm*^a. The founder of these kingdoms was Naa Gbewaa, whose seat was at Pusiga (Kusaal $P\bar{u}s(q^{a})$ 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 ($f\bar{u}ug^{5/}$ "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, $W\bar{\iota}n^{n\epsilon/}$, invoked in proverbs and greetings but remote from everyday life and not to be approached in prayer or worship. Characteristic proverbs say

Dìm nẽ Wĩn, dā tớ'às nẽ Wĩnné +ø. Eat:IMP with God:sg, Neg.IMP talk with God:sg Neg. "Eat with God, don't talk with God."

Wīn ňyć 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 $w\bar{u}n^{n\epsilon/}$. A $w\bar{u}n^{n\epsilon/}$ resides in a $b\bar{v}gvr^{\epsilon}$, an object such as a stone or horn, but it is the $w\bar{u}n^{n\epsilon/}$ that is spiritually significant, not its place of attachment.

A central figure is the $b\bar{a}'a^{=}$ "diviner", who seeks guidance for a client ($b\bar{v}gvd^{a}$) 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: $nin-gb\bar{n}g^{2/}$ "body"; $ny\dot{z}-v\bar{v}r^{\epsilon/}$ "life" as opposed to death, possessed by all living animals; $w\bar{u}n^{n\epsilon/}$ (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: $w\bar{\iota}n$ - $t\dot{2}\dot{2}g^{2}$, 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 $b\bar{\upsilon}g\upsilon r^{\epsilon}$ 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 $s\bar{\iota}g\iota r^{\epsilon/}$ <u>30.2</u>.

Sɔ̃ɔňb^a "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 *zangòo* "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 <u>4.2</u> 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.

Introduction to Kusaal and the Kusaasi

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.

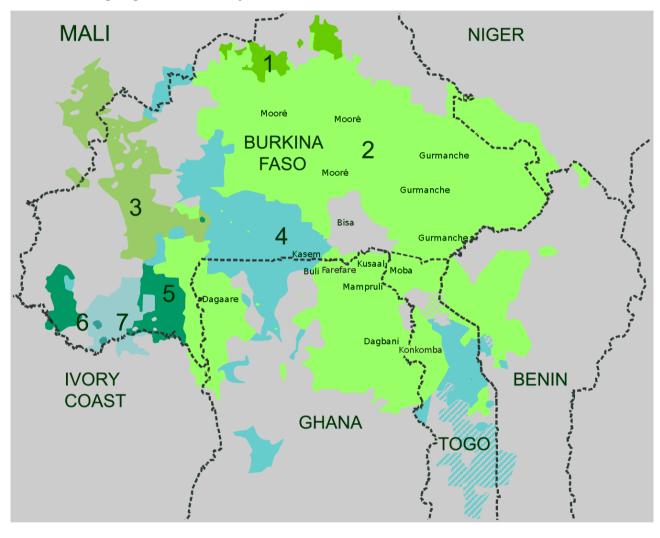
Berthelette reports a rate of apparent lexical cognates between Toende and Agolle of only 84%. Judging by Urs Niggli's dictionary, this figure seems surprisingly low; it may be that the divergence is more marked among the commonest words.

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 30.4.) 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.

1.2.3 Related languages

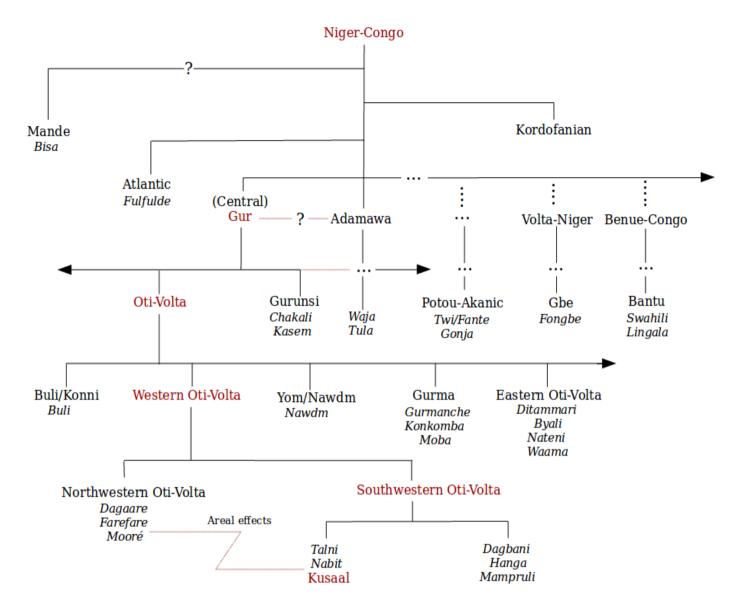
Kusaal belongs to the **Gur** or **Voltaic** language family within the huge and diverse **Niger-Congo** phylum.



The Gur Languages (created by <u>Davius</u>):

1 Koromfé	2 Oti-Volta languages	3 Bwamu	4 Gurunsi
5 Kirma–Lobi	6 Dogoso-Khe	7 Doghose-Gan	

The chart below 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. 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 as a subgroup is harder to establish.



Mande is the most divergent group, and may not belong with Niger-Congo at all. The inclusion of Kordofanian and Atlantic in Niger-Congo is a long-range hypothesis, rather than a well-established linguistic grouping like Indo-European. Striking typological similarities with core Niger-Congo do not prove genetic unity: for West Africa (and beyond) as a *Sprachbund* see especially Güldemann 2007.

However, there is unequivocal evidence for Volta-Congo (the branches after "Atlantic" in the chart) as a genetic grouping. Basic lexical items recur frequently: compare Kusaal $b\bar{i}ig^a$ "child", $d\hat{\iota}^+$ "eat", $n\bar{u}^+$ "drink", $kp\hat{\iota}^+$ "die", $t\hat{\iota}\iota g^a$ "tree", $\dot{a}t\dot{a}\check{n}^{\prime+}$ "three", $t\dot{v}bvr^{\epsilon}$ "ear" with their Fongbe equivalents $v\hat{\iota}$, $d\hat{u}$, $n\hat{u}$, $k\hat{u}$, $\dot{a}t\hat{\iota}n$, $\dot{a}t\hat{c}n$, $t\hat{o}$. Guthrie's Proto-Bantu reconstructions parallel all except "child": $d\hat{t}$ - "eat", $-n\hat{u}$ -"drink", $k\hat{u}$ - "die", $-t\hat{t}$ "tree", $-t\hat{a}t\dot{v}$ "three", $-t\dot{\sigma}$ "ear", and his Proto-Bantu $-t\dot{\sigma}m$ - "send" corresponds to Kusaal $t\dot{v}m^m$. The Potou-Akanic language group, which includes Twi/Fante and Gonja, here shows a regular sound correspondence $t \sim s$: Twi $\epsilon s\tilde{a}$ "three", $as\tilde{o}$ "ear", soma "send", Gonja \dot{a} -sá "three", $k\dot{o}$ -sówé "ear." 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 $n\bar{l}d\iota b^{a/}$ "people", plural of $n\bar{l}d^{a/}$, matches the Gonja human-plural *prefix* in *bá-sà* "people", plural of *é-sà*, and the *ba* of Lingala *bato* "people", plural of *moto*. Particular singular/ plural *pairings* of noun class affixes recur throughout Volta-Congo; for example, the suffixes $r^{\epsilon}|a^{+}$ seen in Kusaal $t\dot{v}bvr^{\epsilon}$ "ear", $t\dot{v}ba^{+}$ "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 $t\dot{v}bvr^{\epsilon}$ in this very class: *litói* "ear", plural *matói*. 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 *matói*. The Swahili subject prefixes for the 5/6 class are singular *li*, plural *ya*; as in Kusaal, names of fruits 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)

With some lower-level groupings detailed comparative work has achieved much already, very notably with Bantu; among languages closer to Kusaal, see Sambiéni 2005 on Eastern Oti-Volta. High-level comparative work is generally at an early stage; see, however, 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 family called **Western Oti-Volta** by Manessy; Adams Bodomo has suggested "Mabia" (cf Kusaal $m\dot{a}$ - $b\bar{i}ig^a$ "sibling") as an alternative name. The group is well demarcated by many common innovations. Proto-Oti-Volta **c* **f* have become *s z*; there is 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; words referring to trees have been transferred wholesale to the $g^a|s^{\varepsilon}$ class (Buli *tiib* "tree", Kusaal *tiug*^a, Mooré *tiugá* etc); there is much distinctive vocabulary, e.g. Kusaal $k\dot{u}'em^m$ "water", Mooré *kòóm*, versus Gurmanche *ñíma*, Buli *nyíam* (cf Kusaal *nì*+ "rain.") The Bulba (Nõõtre) language of Benin is classified by Manessy as Western Oti-Volta, but his own data suggest otherwise: **c* **f* fall together as *c*, for example, and "tree" is *tiibo*.

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 <u>13.1</u>.

Western Oti-Volta is roughly as diverse internally as Romance. Claims of mutual intelligibility are often 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.)

The group is subdivided into Northwestern and Southwestern branches. Northwestern Oti-Volta includes Mooré, 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.) Southwestern Oti-Volta includes Kusaal, Nabit, Talni, Mampruli, Dagbani, Hanga, Kamara and some smaller languages. A distinctive Southwestern feature is the inflection *-*ma* used for positive imperatives.

Where many people are multilingual in closely related languages, it can be difficult to distinguish historical common innovations from the effects of diffusion. Most of the numerous isoglosses which cross the Northwest/Southwest division clearly involve shared retentions, such as noun-class-based grammatical gender in Talni, Mampruli and Farefare and vowel glottalisation in Kusaal, Nabit, Talni and Farefare. Mooré and Farefare show some common innovations not seen in Dagaare, such as preverbal negative-indicative $k\dot{a}$, and rounding in the plural suffix -do/-ro <u>4.7</u>.

Mampruli, Dagbani, Hanga and some similar smaller languages form a clear subgroup. Among other shared innovations, they 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.

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 <u>2.4</u>. If this unusual behaviour is indeed common to all three languages it would be compelling evidence for a subgroup (Toende forms from Niggli):

Nabit	La bi'imε.	"It is ripe"
Toende	La bı'ı me.	
Agolle	Lì bì'ig nē.	
	SINAN ripen FOC.	

Nabit	La na bu biigɛ. "It is not yet ripe."
Toende	La nan bv bı'ıge.
Agolle	Lì nàm pō bí'igē +ø.
	3INAN still NEG.IND ripen NEG.
Talni	Bunpɔk dɔɣam pu bɔkəra, buraa dɔɣam m bɔkət.
	"A woman's kindred is not divided, a man's kindred is divided."
Toende	Bupok dogım bu bokıra, buraa dogım bokıt.
Agolle	[Pu̯'ā] dúˈàm pū bu̯ákìdā +ø, [dāu̯] dúˈamì_ø bu̯ákìd.
	Woman:sg kindred NEG.IND split:IPFV NEG, man:sg kindred CAT split:IPFV.

Other groups within the broader **Oti-Volta** family can readily be seen to be related. All groups show the characteristic noun classes with suffixes, and all but Buli distinguish perfective and imperfective aspects in verb flexion.

The detailed materials in Kröger 1992 show that Buli is closely related to Western Oti-Volta: there are numerous obvious cognates in vocabulary and parallels in nominal morphology. Buli preserves Proto-Oti-Volta *s *z *c *j unchanged.

The Gurma languages Gurmanche, Konkonba, Moba etc are much less close. Gurmanche and Konkonba typically show nouns with both class prefixes and class suffixes, and the languages have complex and unpredictable verb aspect flexion, making the imperfective by changing the stem tones, and/or dropping a derivational suffix from the perfective or adding one of several different imperfective suffixes.

Both Buli and Gurma have three-tone systems, and the three basic Western Oti-Volta Tone Patterns <u>7.1</u> can be systematically matched with these. Pattern H corresponds to Buli *high* tone, but Gurmanche *low*; Pattern O to Buli mid and Gurmanche high, and Pattern L to Buli low and Gurmanche mid:

Kusaal		Gurmanche	Buli
wáaf ^o	"snake"	wà	wáab
тว̄วg ^ว	"grass"	múagū	<i>mūub</i> ("blade of grass")
tìıg ^a	"tree"	tībū	tìib

Nawdm aligns tonally with Western Oti-Volta and Buli: $w\dot{a}:gb\dot{e}$ "snake", $m\dot{o}:g\dot{u}$ "grass", $t\dot{i}:b\dot{e}$ "tree." Nawdm has shifted $*p \rightarrow f$, $*s \rightarrow h$, $*c \rightarrow s$, and $*z \rightarrow f$. It has r for Proto-Oti-Volta $*\Lambda$, which has fallen together with y in Western Oti-Volta and Buli, and with l in Gurma. Nawdm noun morphology shows few innovations.

One verb class shows the suffixes *-ra* for perfective, *-n(e)* for imperfective, and the other opposes perfective *-e* to imperfective *-a*; verbs with perfective *-ege* have imperfective *-a*, not *-ega*.

Sambiéni 2005 provides considerable detail on the Eastern Oti-Volta languages Ditammari, Nateni, Byali and Waama. He assumes the validity of Manessy's Eastern Oti-Volta, which is based on shared initial-consonant changes. All these changes except $*z \rightarrow y$ (shared with Gurma) and $*_f \rightarrow y$ involve unconditioned losses of voicing contrasts and may be areal phenomena, shared with the neighbouring supposedly *Western* Oti-Volta Bulba. Eastern Oti-Volta has distinct reflexes of Oti-Volta $*_f$ and $*_s$: Waama $c\bar{a}\bar{a}b\dot{u}$ "millet porridge" $s\bar{o}ng\bar{a}$ "hare", Kusaal $s\bar{a}^{\dagger}ab^{2}s\dot{u}^{\dagger}e\eta^{a}$, Buli $s\bar{a}ab s\dot{u}om$.

The noun class systems do not seem to show any common innovations.

The verbal systems of Ditammari and Nateni are fairly similar, with some verbs opposing a perfective ending *-a* to imperfective *-u* (*-i* after alveolars), and other verbs making the imperfective by changing the stem tones or dropping a derivational suffix from the perfective, as in Gurma. Both languages also align with Gurma in showing L tones corresponding to Pattern H. Ditammari resembles Gurmanche and Konkomba in that nouns usually appear with noun class prefixes and suffixes together.

Byali verbs mostly oppose perfective $-s\partial$ to imperfective -u. Byali usually shows mid tones in cognates of Kusaal Pattern H words.

Waama shows high tones in words corresponding to Western Oti-Volta Pattern H. It has a group of verbs with stems ending in vowels or alveolars opposing perfective -*i* to imperfective -*u*, but most verbs use the bare stem as perfective and add -*ri* -*di* or -*ti* for the imperfective. Waama is an outlier lexically; of roughly 400 vocabulary items compared by Sambiéni, 55 Waama words are not cognate to those of the other languages; the figures for the other languages are all under 20. There are lexical isoglosses uniting Waama with Western Oti-Volta and Buli, 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 cáárō "forgeron" = Kusaal $s\bar{a}e\bar{n}^+$, versus Byali $m\dot{a}$ -máárāu, Ditammari $\bar{o}máát\dot{a}$, Nateni málō; Waama yété pl yéyā "maison" = Kusaal $y\bar{i}r^{\epsilon/}$, Buli yérí, versus Byali tápúú, Ditammari tācīētà, Nateni hɔ̃ɔ̃tā.

There is much less similarity between Oti-Volta as a whole and the other main branch of Central Gur, the **Gurunsi** languages. 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 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. In Ghana, Hausa has strong associations with Islam and with trade. There are many ethnic *Hàusàawaa* in the Kusaasi area, especially in Bawku, but the language which has influenced Kusaal is the *Gaanancii* lingua franca. Though mutually intelligible with Kano Hausa, *Gaanancii* among other differences lacks not only grammatical but even natural gender, uses [z] for $[d_3]$, 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.

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 Fulbe, found locally as throughout the savanna of West Africa. Fulfulde *nagge*, plural *na'i* "cow" strikingly resembles Kusaal *náaf*? ($\leftarrow *n\bar{a}\acute{a}gf\bar{v}$) plural $n\bar{i}igi(^+$, 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 nááb pl níígā.)

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 $k t p \eta$ are realised as [k:] [t:] [p:] [n:] in very deliberate speech.

The vowel symbols $a \varepsilon \circ i u$ have IPA values, while ιv represent [I] [v] respectively. The allophony [I]~[i] and [v]~[u] epenthetic and prefix vowels <u>4.6</u> <u>4.7</u> is ignored, only ιv being used. Written $e \circ$ always represent [I] [v], used instead of ιv only as non-initial elements of diphthongs <u>4.5</u> and for the 3sg animate pronoun o [v] along with the [v] mora which precedes it in liaison, which is written $\cdot o$ <u>1.3.1</u>.

	dīe	"receive"	[di̪ɪ]
	pāe	"reach"	[pʰaɪ]
	bēog	"tomorrow"	[bɛʊɡ]
	kpīoŋ	"strong"	[kpi̯ʊŋ]
but	dāvg	"male"	[daʊg]
	àbữa	"her child"	[white]
	ò bīig		[ʊbi:g]
	zú∙o	"steal him"	[zuʊ]
	dà'∙o	"bought for him"	[daʊ̯]

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

gbàỵŋ	"book"	[g͡baʊ̯ŋ]
sɔ̄e̯ň	"witch"	[sɔ̃ɪ̯]
mùį	"rice"	[mũj]

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 \underline{u}) other than \underline{i} :

dà'	"buy"	[da̯]
dà'a	"market"	[daː]
kù'əm	"water"	[kʰu̯əm]

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 pu̯'ā
 "woman"
 [pʰថ̯a]

 di̯ā'
 "get dirty"
 [di̯a]

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 $\cdot o$.

tēɛňs	"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 \breve{n} before the y or w:

h" [Ñ	vãm]
11	L • ·

The sequences [ia] [ua] [iə] [ue], with their nasalised and glottalised counterparts, arise from **Agolle vowel breaking**. *ia ua ia ue* are digraphs for *phonemic* monophthongs, though realised *phonetically* as diphthongs <u>4.2</u>.

"white"	[pʰiəlɪg]
"ask"	[bu̯es]
"change"	[tʰɪ̯ak]
"female"	[pʰʊ̯ak]
"shape wood"	[kpɪ̯a]
"cut"	[kʰɪ̯a]
	"ask" "change" "female" "shape wood"

Contrast the *phonemic* diphthongs in e.g.

kpì'a	"neighbour"	[kpi̯a]
รโล	"waist"	[sia]

1.3.1 Word division

Nominal compounds are hyphenated rather than written solid as in traditional orthography. Nominal combining forms <u>9.1</u> 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 <u>16.9</u>.

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"
bù-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 14.1.4.

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

Fù bɔ́ɔdī_m.	"You love me."	[fʊbɔ:dɪm]
2SG want 1SG.OB.		
Ѝ bɔ́ɔdī_f.	"I love you."	[m̥bɔ:dɪf]
1SG want 2SG.OB.		

The 3sg animate object pronoun \circ [σ] "him/her" loses its entire segmental form by apocope <u>2.4</u>, after causing the host final vowel mora to become [σ]. 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.

Fù bʻod·ō_ø. 256 want 3AN.0B.	"You love her."	[fʊbɔ:dʊ]
$F\dot{v}$ $p\bar{v}$ $b\dot{j}\dot{j}\dot{o}\dot{o}\dot{o}\dot{o}\dot{o}$ + ϕ . 2SG NEG.IND want-3AN.OB NEG.	"You don't love her."	[fʊpʰʊbɔ:dʊ:]
Fὺ ňyέ·ο_ø. 2SG see 3AN.OB.	"You've seen her."	[fʊjɛ̃ʊ̃]
Fὺ pῦ ňyē·ó-o ⁺ ø. 2SG NEG.IND SEE-3AN.OB NEG.	"You've not seen her."	[fʊpʰʊjɛ̃ʊ̃:]

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 cf <u>4.7 5.2.2</u>. In the orthography of this grammar they are accordingly separated from preceding words by hyphens:.

ุ pōugu-n	"inside"
inside:sg-loc	
bòɔdī-n	"might wish"
want-dp	

The personifier clitic \dot{a}/\dot{n} , 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" <u>16.6</u>.

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 $e \circ for \varepsilon \circ$, $i for both i and \iota$, u for both u and v; $e \circ are sometimes also used unsystematically for <math>\iota \circ v$ as root vowels. The 2016 Bible uses the same basic conventions as this grammar except that it does not distinguish [i]~[I]: $tiig = ti\iota g$ "tree", biig = biig "child."

Word-final short - ι after m n is usually written ε in KB: $p\varepsilon ban\varepsilon$ for $p\overline{\varepsilon}$ '-bánì "sheep which ..." Mk 6:34; so in all cases with the relative pronouns on ε kan ε lin ε ban ε 25.3.2 and with ano'on ε "who?" before liaison.

The root-vowel is consistently written as e in KB in the words ye "that" teŋ "land" keŋ "go" (pfv) ken "go" (ipfv) for $y\bar{\epsilon}$ tēŋ kēŋ kēŋ, 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 [I]: compare Toende tīŋ "land", Mampruli tiŋŋa "land" versus Toende meŋ, Mampruli maŋŋa = mēŋ "self." The demonstrative and pronoun forms $\frac{\partial n}{\partial n} \frac{\partial n}{\partial n}$ are written on ona. As in this grammar, *e o* are used non-initially in diphthongs for [I] [v]. The phonemic monophthongs *iə uo* are written respectively as *ie uo*:

pielig	pìəlıg	"white"	[pʰiəlɪg]
bu'os	bū' o s	"ask"	[bu̯es]

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 <u>8.5.2</u>:

di'e	dīe	"receive"	[djː]
zu o	zú∙o	"steal him"	[zuʊ]

The 2016 orthography writes -ue [uI] as -uoe and -ve [vI] 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* [iʊ] is written *io* in the 1976 NT but *ieu* later: thus *kpi'oŋ* "strong" [k͡pi̯ʊŋ] is *kpi'oŋ* in the 1976 NT, *kpi'euŋ* 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 <u>4.5</u>. The distinction ae/ae is expressed by writing aae (or aae) for ae versus ae for ae:

раае	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 *yàvg*, but *na'araug* "ox" for *nā'-dáòg*; *dau* for *dāu* "man" but *tavn* for *tāuň* "sibling of opposite sex." Ambiguity appears word-medially before *ŋ*:

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

The use of *ia ua* for the short monophthongs *ja ua* creates potential ambiguity with word-final *ia ua*:

kia	kįà	"cut"	[kʰɪ̯a]
sia	รĩa	"waist"	[sia]
kua	kųā	"hoe"	[kʰʊ̯a]
sabua	sàbùa	"lover"	[sabua]

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

kpi'a	kpì'a ⁺	"neighbour"	[kpja]
kpia'	kpįà'+	"shape wood"	[kpið]

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

po'a or pu'a	pu̯'ā	"woman"	[pʰថ្លគ្ល]
po'ab or pu'ab	pū'ab	"women"	[pʰʊ̯əb]

NT/KB write -*ey*- in Long Forms <u>2.4</u> corresponding to Short Forms where final y has become -*e*: $vveya = v\bar{v}y\dot{a}$ Long Form of $v\bar{v}e$ "be alive." Older NT versions also write $b\bar{v}n$ - $v\dot{v}y\dot{a}$ "living things" as *bunvoeya*, but KB has the expected *bunvoya*.

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

sa(n)rega	sārīgá	"prison"	[sarɪga]
ba(ii)i ega	Sartga	Prioon	[bairaga]

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 suor suor zuor*. Older sources write *sueya*, *zueya*.

Traditional orthography omits word-internal y after *i*, except with Long Forms <u>2.4</u> ending in -ya; thus $d\bar{u}n_iya^+$ "world" and $l\hat{a}afiya^+$ "health" are written *dunia* and *laafia* although they end in [Ija], not in the diphthong *ia*.

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

tɛɛns	tēɛňs	"lands"	[tʰɛ̃:s]
gɛn'	gēň'	"get angry"	[gɛ̃]
gɛn'ɛd	gēň'ɛd	<i>id</i> (ipfv)	[gɛ̃:d]
nwam	ňwām	"calabash"	[ŵãm]

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

dunduug dòndùug "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:

gaan (old: gaann)	gāaň	"ebony tree"	[gã:]
daan (old: daan)	dāan	"owner"	[da:n]

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 fāaňgíd fāaňgír are used when transliterating Bible verses. *Fāaňgíd fāaňgír* have become independent words, used to avoid the homophony with *fāaňd* "robber" and *fáaňr* "robbery."

NT versions prior to 2016 write *aaruŋ* for *àňrvŋ* "boat" (cf Toende *âarv̂ŋ*), and *malek* for *màliāk* "angel" (Toende *màlék*); KB has the expected *anrvŋ* and *maliak* throughout, matching the usage of all my informants and of the audio 1996 version.

The spelling *nyain* appears for $ny\bar{a}e$ "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 sg:

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

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

Fu boodi ti .	"You love us."	[fʊbɔ:dɪtʰɪ]
Fù bʻədī tí.		
2SG want 1PL.OB.		

KB writes the Short Form 2.4 pronouns *m f* solid with the preceding word:

Fu boodim.	"You love me."	[fʊbɔ:dɪm]
Fù bʻədī_m.		
2SG want 1SG.OB.		
M bɔɔdif.	"I love you."	[m̥bɔ:dɪf]
Ѝ bɔ́ɔdī_f.		
1SG want 2SG.OB.		

Prior to 2016, object m was written separately. It occurs before liaison <u>8.2</u> in

Fu noŋi mi n gat bamaa?
Fù nóŋī_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 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

1996 M nye uf.	"I've seen you."	[mj̃ɛ̃ʊf]
Μ̀ ňyέo_f.		
1SG See 2SG.OB.		
1996 Mgban'e uf.	"I've grabbed you."	[mɡ͡bãၙʊ̃f]
Ѝ gbáň'ʊ_f.		(See <u>8.5.2</u> for the - <i>e</i>)
1SG seize 2SG.OB.		

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 a).		"You love her."	[fʊbɔ:dʊ]
Fù bóɔd·	ō_ø.			
2SG want	3AN.OB.			
Fu pu boo	od oo.		"You don't love her."	[fʊpʰʊbɔ:dʊ:]
Fừ pũ	bʻod∙ó-o	+ø.		

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FU NYE O."You've seen her."[fʊjɛ̃ʊ̃]FÙ ny \pounds \circ oØ.25G see 3AN.OB."You've not seen her."[fʊpʰʊjɛ̃ʊ̃:]FÙ p\bar{v} ny \pounds \circ o."You've not seen her."[fʊpʰʊjɛ̃ʊ̃:]FÙ p\bar{v} ny \pounds \circ o.+Ø.25G NEG.IND See-3AN.OB NEG.
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In traditional orthography, focus- $n\bar{\epsilon}$ is always written solid after $\dot{a}(n)$ from $\dot{a}en$ "be", and temporal $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ is usually written solid with a preceding verb:

O anε biig. "He/she's a child." Ò à nε bīig. 3AN COP FOC child:sg.

Bipuŋ la pv kpii, o gbisidnε. Bī-púŋ lā pv̄ kpíi +ø, ò gbìsıd nē. Child-girl:sg ART NEG.IND die NEG, 3AN sleep:IPFV FOC. "The girl is not dead, she is sleeping." (Mt 9:24)

 $N\bar{\epsilon}$ "with" is written solid after $w\bar{\epsilon}n$ "resemble":

Ka o nindaa wenne nintaŋ 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)

In KB wεn nε appears as nwεnε: Ka o nindaa nwεnε winnig nε. A stressed final syllable <u>2.3</u> is sometimes mistaken for a segmentally homophonous particle:

Amaa fυ anε ninsaal ka ka' win nε. Àmáa fὺ á nĒ nīn-sáal kà kā' wīnnέ ⁺ø. But 2SG COP FOC person-smooth:SG and NEG.BE god:SG NEG. "But you are a human being and not a god." (Ezekiel 28:2)

Arezana nε dunia gaadug pu toi yaa Àrazánà nε dūnıya gáadùg pū tōyá ⁺ø. Heaven with world passing NEG.IND be.difficult NEG. "The passing of heaven and earth is not difficult" (Lk 16:17)

1.3.3 Kusaal proper names in English

When speaking English or French, Kusaasi cite Kusaal personal and place names in a form showing the underlying final vowel without apocope <u>2.4</u>: thus <u>À-Wīn</u> from <u>Wìdı-ňyá'an</u> will introduce himself as "Awini" from "Woriyanga." Similarly "Kusaasi" for <u>Kūsáàs</u>, "Bawku" for <u>Bòk</u>, and so forth.

If this behaviour were confined to personal names, it might plausibly be attributed to the incorporation of the vocative prosodic clitic <u>8.1</u>, but, as has been seen, it is equally characteristic of place names. Moreover, the form "Woriyanga" for *Widi-ňyá'aŋ* shows a characteristically Mampruli rather than Kusaal form for the initial combining form of "horse": Mampruli *wuri-* versus Kusaal *wid-*. It seems probable that this reflects a convention which originally arose from the fact that the British came to know the region through Mamprussi guides and interpreters. According to Tony Naden (p.c.) a parallel development had taken place earlier in Mamprussi country when the British arrived with Dagomba guides: thus "Gambaga" for the Mampruli place name "Gambaa."

However, not all these forms can be explained without further ado as Mampruli. The place name "Widana", for example, resembles Kusaal *Widāan* rather than Mampruli *Wuddaana* "(title of) a chief's linguist" and female personal names like "Awimpoaka" *À-Wīn-pu̯ák* even show the characteristic Agolle Kusaal vowel breaking, in contrast to the Toende form *Awinpɔka* (Niggli.) Again, the personal name "Akudugu" *À-Kūdog* shows the postvocalic *-d-* characteristic of Agolle Kusaal rather than Mampruli. The Toende place name *Tīl* "Tilli" corresponds to Toende Kusaal *tíl* and Farefare *tíllé* "tree trunk", but no cognate word appears in Naden's extensive dictionary of Mampruli. Accordingly, even if the convention of preserving underlying final vowels originated from transposition of personal and place names from Kusaal into Mampruli, it has apparently been generalised by analogy and can now produce forms which cannot be regarded as Mampruli.

Cases also occur of straightforward reproduction of the Kusaal, as in "Aruk", alongside "Aruku" for the personal name \dot{A} - $D\bar{\nu}k$.

1.4 Outline of Kusaal grammar

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** 2.4), 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 *bíiga* "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):

<i>Ò à nĒ bīig.</i> 3AN COP FOC child:sg.	"He/she's a child."
<i>Ò kā' bīiga ⁺ø.</i> 3AN NEG.BE child:sg NEG.	"He/she is not a child."
\dot{O} à $n\bar{\varepsilon}$ bíigàa $+\phi$? 3AN COP FOC child:SG PQ?	"Is he/she a child?"

So too at the end of vocative phrases:

Ň	bīiga	+ø!	"My child!"
1SG	child:sg	voc!	

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

Lì	kā'	gbīgımnɛ +ø	. "It's not a lion."
3INAI	N NEG.E	E lion:sg NEG	Ĵ.
Lì	àı	nē gbīgım.	"It's a lion."
3INA	N COP F	oc 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-question PQ and

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

In citing word forms, superscripts <u>2.4.1</u> will be used to write the parts of words which are dropped everywhere except before prosodic clitics and liaison: $b\bar{i}ig^{a}$ "child", $gb\bar{i}gim^{n\epsilon}$ "lion", $k\bar{o}k^{a}$ "chair", $d\bar{o}k^{5/}$ "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

vīidź "owls"

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

vīugó "owl"

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

vīug "owl"

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

āaňdıga "black plum tree"

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

gàadugɔ	"passing"	(gerund)
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has rounding of the vowel to *v* before the flexion *-gp*, and after the loss of the final vowel this rounding itself becomes contrastive in the usual Short Form *gàadug*.

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:

Ň pū k	oʻsdā +ø.	"I don't want to."
1SG NEG.IND W	vant NEG.	Long Form <i>bɔ̀ɔdā</i> preceding negative clitic.

Ѝ bɔ́ɔdī_bá.	"I love them."
1SG want 3PL.OB.	Modified Long Form bɔ̀ɔdī before liaison.
Μ̀ pū zábē +ø.	"I haven't fought."
1SG NEG.IND fight NEG.	Long Form <i>zàbē</i> preceding negative clitic.
Ѝ zábī_bá.	"I've fought them."
1SG fight 3PL.OB.	Modified Long Form <i>zàbī</i> 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 $b \partial d^a$ "wants, loves" and f^2 "you (sg)":

Ѝ pū bɔ́ɔdī_fɔ́ +ø.	"I don't love you."
1SG NEG.IND want 2SG.OB NEG.	Long Form <i>f</i> ² of the pronoun "you (sg)"
Ѝ bɔ́ɔdī_f.	"I love you."
1SG want 2SG.OB.	Short Form <i>f</i> 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:

Lì kā'	kūka	+ø.	"It's not a chair."
3INAN NEG	.BE chair:SG	NEG.	
Lì kā'	kūkı-nέ	+ø.	"It's not in a chair."
3INAN NEG	.BE chair:sg	-LOC NEG.	
kūkı-n			"in a chair"
chair:sg-	LOC		
	1-1 / J	_	u .
	dūkó +		"It's not a pot."
3INAN NEG	.BE pot:SG N	EG.	
	dōkí-nē	+ ~	"It's not in a not "
-			"It's not in a pot."
3INAN NEG	.BE pot:SG-LO	JC NEG.	
dōkí-n			"in a pot"
-	C		m a pot
pot:sg-lo			

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 [I] to [v], which is always written with a preceding raised point as $\cdot o$.

Compare the forms with P "you (sg)" with the forms with ° "him/her":

Ѝ pū bɔ́ɔdī_fɔ́ +ø.	"I don't love you."	
1SG NEG.IND want 2SG.OB NEG.		
M bʻədī_f.	"I love you"	
1SG want 2SG.OB.		
Ň pū b <i>ź</i> ɔd∙ó-o ⁺ ø.	"I don't love him/her."	[mpʰʊbɔ:dʊ:]
1SG NEG.IND want-3AN.OB NEG.	Long Form <i>o</i> of the pronoun "	'him/her"
Ѝ bɔ́ɔd∙ō_ø.	"I love him/her."	[m̥bɔ:dʊ]
1SG want 3AN.OB.	Short Form	"him/her"

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:

Gòsım!	"Look!"
Look:imp!	
Gòsımī_ø!	"Look ye!" by apocope from gɔ̀sımī-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 à- 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.

 \dot{m} $z\bar{u}g\dot{\upsilon}$ ø $z\dot{a}b\iota d$ $l\bar{a}$ $z\dot{u}g$ "because my head hurts" (nominaliser- \dot{n}) 1SG head:SG NZ fight:IPFV ART upon

Ň	zūgv_	Ø	zábìd.	"My head hurts." (catenator- <i>n</i>)
150	head:so	G 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** of earlier short and long ε \supset vowels, still preserved as phonetic monophthongs in the Toende dialect. This has produced four phonemes *ja ua ia ua* which are realised phonetically as diphthongs; for phonemic purposes these are digraphs representing monophthongs. Kusaal has also developed *phonemic* diphthongs from fusion of vowels following deletion of intervocalic **g* and from the final fronting and rounding effects already mentioned; these processes all remain active.

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 verb phrases 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`əsídìb	"receivers"
bāŋıdıb	"wise men"
gbīgımnɛ	"lion" (longer form, as above)

The only consonant clusters possible within stems following the root are kk tt pp $\eta\eta$ nn mm II mn, of which kk tt pp $\eta\eta$ are written and usually realised as single. For kp gb \check{n} ' see Orthography <u>1.3</u>. 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:

pīpīrıg	"desert"
dìndēog	"chameleon"

Other word-internal clusters are confined to loanwords.

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

Gbīgım lā dāa kūvd búŋ lā. Lion:sg ART TNS kill:IPFV donkey:sg ART. "The lion (*gbīgım*^{nε}) was killing (*kūvd*^{a/}) the donkey (*bùŋ*^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, and are all regular:

būvg	"goat"	bบิบร	"goats"
sàbùa	"lover"	sàbùøs	"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"	tēɛňs	"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**:

<i>būvg</i> a "goat"	+ pìəlıg ^a "white" -	→ bù-pìəlıg ^a	"white goat"
<i>bסֿטg</i> a "goat"	+ sī'a ⁺ "another" -	→ bù-sī a+	"another goat"
<i>kūk</i> a "chair"	+ pìəlıg ^a "white" -	→ kùg-pìəlıg ^a	"white chair"
<i>kūk</i> a "chair"	+ <i>kàŋā</i> +/ "this" -	→ kùg-kàŋā+/	"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 dual-aspect 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)
kūvd ^{a/}	imperfective	
ňyē+	perfective	"see"
ňyĒt ^{a/}	imperfective	
vūl ^ε	perfective	"swallow"
vūn ^{na/}	imperfective	

Dual-aspect verbs also have an imperative flexion $-m^a$, appearing only in positive polarity when the verb has independency-marking tone overlay (see below.)

Single-aspect 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	dìgı	nē.	"She's lying down."
3AN	be.lying.dowr	FOC.	
	<i>mòr búŋ.</i> Nhave donkey:s	G.	"She has a donkey."
	gìm. 1 be.short.		"She's short."

There are two **verbs** "to be": $b\dot{\epsilon}$ "exist, be in a place" and $\dot{a}\underline{e}n$ "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:

Ò	à	nē	bīig.	"He's a child."
3AN		P 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:

Ò kā'	bīiga	+ø.	"He's not a child."
3AN NEG.	BE child:	G NEG.	

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

kūvb ^{ɔ/}	"killing"
kūvd ^{a/}	"killer"
kōvdíŋ ^a	"killing implement"

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

gbìgım-kūvd ^{a/}	"lion-killer"

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

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M tís dự átà búŋ 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**, $n\bar{\epsilon}$ "with" and $w\bar{\upsilon}\upsilon$ "like" ($n\bar{\epsilon}$ also links NPs and some AdvPs in the sense "and", but $k\dot{a}$ is "and" when linking VPs and clauses.)

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

m̀ bīig	"my child"
dāu lā biìg	"the man's child"

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

téebùl lā zúg	"onto the table" (<i>zūg</i> "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:

mù'arī-n	"in a lake" (<i>mv</i> ' <i>arɛ</i> "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 kū búŋlā.Lion:SG ART TNS kill donkey:SG ART."The lion killed the donkey."

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

Gbīgım lā sá kỳ 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, limiting the *temporal* reference of the VP to "at the time referred to in particular":

Nīdıb	kpîìd.	"People die."	
Person:	PL die:IPFV.		
Nīdıb	kpîìd	$n\bar{\epsilon}$. "People are dying	ſ . "

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{aen} "be something" above, the temporal sense is usually not possible, and the particle must be interpreted as focussing a verb phrase constituent.

In Kusaal the verb phrase is specifically marked not for subordination but for its absence. Main and content clauses have **independency marking** of the first verb phrase, marked by a **tone overlay** affecting the first word, by 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 $k\bar{a}$ even in *coordinating* function, as in narrative:

Ò zàb dựˈátà.	"He's fought the doctor."			
3AN fight doctor:sg.				
Ò gòs dự'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	du̯'átà.	"And he's fought the doctor."
And	3AN	ı fight	doctor:sg.	
Kà	ò	gīs	dự'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 g*5*s dµ*'*á*tā*a* +*ø*! "Don't look at the doctor!" NEG.IMP look.at doctor:sg NEG!

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but Gòsım du̯'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 ya' "if" after their own subject, appear before the main clause subject:

Fù yá' bòɔd, m ná tīsı f búŋ.
2SG if want, 1SG IRR give 2SG.OB donkey:SG.
"If you want, I'll give you a donkey."

As with many West African languages, many clauses contain more than one verb phrase. Kusaal does not have canonical serial verbs, but clause subordination by **catenation** creates very similar structures with the same-subject catenator particle *n*; in this example *tis* "give" is used simply as means of adding an indirect object:

M dāa kúès bùŋu ø tís dự'átà.
1SG TNS sell donkey:SG CAT give doctor:SG.
"I sold a donkey to Doctor."

Clause catenation can introduce a different subject by using ka instead of n; one use is adnominal, with a meaning like a non-restrictive relative clause:

Lì à nē gbīgım lá kà m̀ ňyēt. 3INAN COP FOC lion:SG ART and 1SG see:IPFV. "It's the lion I see."

A second type of subordination is **nominalisation** by insertion of the nominaliser particle \dot{n} (frequently realised as segmental \emptyset) after the subject:

gbīgım lá g kū búŋ "the lion having killed the donkey" lion:sg ART NZ kill donkey:sg ART

One type of relative clause is internally-headed:

[*Paul* ǹ sɔ̄b gbáu̯ŋ-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 gbaung-sra is gbaung "book" compounded with the postdeterminer pronoun sra 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 \dot{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:

dàu-kànı pu'ā kpí lā "the man whose wife has died" man-rel.sg wife:sg die ART

A third type of subordinate clause uses the initial linker particles $y\bar{\varepsilon}$ or $k\dot{a}$ in **complementisation**. Purpose clauses are of this type:

 \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."

Kusaal **narrative** links clause after clause with $k\dot{a}$, 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 $d\dot{a}$ occurs only in the first clause. The second $k\dot{a}$ is preposing the time expression $d\bar{a}ar$ $y\bar{i}nn\dot{i}$, in a foregrounding 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 ... dá à né ò sàam À-Pū-zót-vēl bîg mà'aa. PERS-NEG.IND-fear: IPFV-thing:SG TNS COP FOC 3AN father:SG child:SG only. Kà dāar yīnní kà bīig lā né ò sàam zíň'i ø sɔ̃ňsıd. And day:sg one and child:sg ART with 3AN father:sg sit CAT converse:IPFV. yèl ò sàam Kà bīig lā tí νē ... And child:sg ART after 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 mōrí ò pu'à-yīmmír, kà pu'ā lā yé Man:sg TNS EXIST CAT have 3AN wife-single:sg and wife:sg ART say ōn pō lém bòod yé ò sīd lā dí pu'ā yá'asē +ø. 3AN.CNTR NEG.IND again want that 3AN husband:sg ART take wife:sg again NEG. "There was a man who had only one wife. [And] the wife said that **she** did not want her husband to take another wife." KSS p26

Clefting constructions have arisen from clause catenation, and given rise by ellipsis to structures using *n* for focussing subjects and ka for foregrounding other elements:

Ѝ zūgv_ø zábìd.	"My head is hurting."
1SG head CAT fight: IPFV.	(Reply to "Where is the pain?")
Gbīgím kà ṁ dāa ňyē.	"It was a lion that I saw."
Lion:sg and 1sg 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 an5' n "who?" as subject even though it remains *in situ* before the verb.

Fù bóòd bó	+ø?	"What do you want?"
2SG want wha	t cq?	
<i>Bó kà fù</i> What and 25G	-	"What can you see?"

Ànɔ´'ɔnì ø kū búŋ lā +ø?
Who cat kill donkey:sg art cq?
"Who has killed the donkey?"

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

Māmbénēmōɔgʋ-n."I'm in the bush." BNY p81SG.CNTR EXIST FOC grass:SG-LOC.

M̄ɔ̄ɔgú-n kà mām bɛ́. "I'm in the bush." BNY p10 (*kà required*) Grass:sg-loc and 1sg.cntr exist.

Morphophonemics

2 Preliminaries

2.1 Rule order

Agolle vowel breaking 4.2 belongs to the basic phonological structure.

Consonant assimilation/epenthetic-vowel insertion <u>6.2</u> precedes *g-deletion/vowel fusion <u>6.3</u> and vowel fronting/rounding <u>6.4</u>, which do not need to be ordered with respect to each other, but must both precede apocope <u>2.4</u>.

Tone Patterns 7.1 (and the tone overlay of independency marking 19.6.1.1) allocate tonemes prior to all segmental changes which delete morae 7.2.1.1, including apocope.

Tonal external sandhi follows apocope. L spreading <u>8.4</u> and the tonal effects of prosodic clitics <u>8.1</u> and liaison enclitics <u>8.2.2</u> precede M spreading <u>8.3</u>, which precedes toneme delinking <u>5.2</u>.

2.2 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 <u>16.11.1.3</u>.

All other words are **particles**. Most particles are bound words; exceptions include $\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon\bar{n}$ "yes" and $\dot{a}\gamma\iota$ "no." Particles include the article $|\bar{a}^{+/}|$ and the deictic $\bar{n}w\dot{a}^{+}$ "this", the locative marker $n\bar{\iota}^{+/}\sim n^{\epsilon}$, the prepositions $n\bar{\epsilon}$ "with" and $w\bar{\upsilon}\upsilon$ "like", preverbs and markers of tense, aspect and mood in VPs, the focus particle $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$, the clause linkers $k\dot{a}$ and $y\bar{\epsilon}$, nominaliser- \dot{n} , catenator-n, VP-final $n\bar{a}^{+/}$ "hither" and $s\dot{a}^{+}$ "hence", and some clause adjuncts and emphatics.

2.3 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. $s\acute{u}$ ' $\theta\eta$ SF "rabbit" has three morae, while the LF $s\acute{u}$ ' $\theta\eta\bar{a}$ has four. Vocalic morae are the domain of **tone**, but not all vocalic morae bear a toneme <u>5.2</u>.

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 $\underline{8.1}$, 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 $|\bar{a}^{+/}$. Even a liaison enclitic <u>8.2</u> 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 5.1.

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 $d\iota^+$ "eat"
	dàtìỵŋ ^ɔ	[daˈtʰເថ្ភŋ]	"right hand"
	bōtıŋ ^a	['bʊt:ɪŋ]	"cup" (instrument noun from
			<i>bùd</i> ^ε "plant seeds", but now "cup" in general)
pl	būtus ^ɛ	[bʊˈtʰɪ:s]	wholly exceptional apparent lengthening
			of an epenthetic vowel <u>6.2</u> via reanalysis of
		the	sg as prefix <i>bū</i> + stem <i>tīŋ</i> ^a

2.4 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 *bīig* 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" <u>8.2</u>:

Ò dāa ňyē bīig.	"She saw a child."
SAN TNS see child:sg.	
bīig lā nú'ùg	"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**

 \dot{O} $k\bar{a}$ ' $b\bar{i}iga$ + ø. "He/she is not a child." 3AN NEG.BE child:SG NEG.

 \dot{O} dāa p \bar{v} $ny\bar{e}$ b \bar{n} iga $+ \phi$. "He/she did not see a child." 3AN TNS NEG.IND see child:sg NEG.

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 <u>6.6</u>. Direct commands sometimes end in a LF <u>22.1.3</u>.

The LF appears in a modified form before **liaison**, with LF final short vowels losing all contrasts of quality $\underline{8.2}$.

The LF is not predictable in general from the shape of the SF alone (but see 2.4.2); 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 $k \ t \ p \ \eta$ but are *written* single in any case <u>1.3</u>) Word-final y becomes <u>e</u> after back vowels and zero elsewhere

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

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 <u>3.1</u> fn.)

Examples:

Lì	à	nē	kūk.		"It's a chair."
3INAN	COI	P FOC	chair:s	G.	
			<i>bódìg</i> get.los	-	"The chair has got lost."
	_		kūka.		"It's not a chair."
3INAN NEG.BE chair:sg neg.					
	-	_	<i>kúkàa</i> chair:s		"Is it a chair?"

Ànɔ´'ɔnì ø ňyē kúkà +ø? "Who saw a chair?" Who cat see chair:sg cq?

Similarly, with the same frames (also using \dot{o} 3AN "he/she", $b\dot{a}$ 3PL "they"):

Lì à nẽ 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 nẽ dūkóo?	"Is it a pot?"
Ànó'onì ňyẽ dūkó?	"Who saw a pot?"
Lì à nē gbīgım.	"It's a lion."
Lì kā' gbīgımne.	"It's not a lion."
Lì à nē gbígìmnee?	"Is it a lion?"
Ànó'ɔnì ňyē gbígìmne?	"Who saw a lion?"
Lì à nē yáarìm.	"It's salt."
Lì kā' yáarīmm.	"It's not salt."
Lì à nē yáarìmm?	"Is it salt?"
Ànó'ɔnì ňyē yáarìmm?	"Who saw salt?"
Bà à nẽ gbĩgıma.	"They're lions."
Bà kā' gbĩgımaa.	"They're not lions."
Bà à nẽ gbígımàa?	"Are they lions?"
Ànó'ɔnì ňyẽ gbígımà?	"Who saw lions?"
Ò à nẽ dāỵ.	"He's a man."
Ò kā' dāv.	"He's not a man."
Ò à nẽ dáὺυ?	"Is he a man?"
Ànɔ´'ɔnì ňyẽ dáυ?	"Who saw a man?"
Ò à nĒ sāẹň.	"He's a blacksmith."
Ò kā' sāeň.	"He's not a blacksmith."
Ò à nĒ sáèeň?	"Is he a blacksmith?"
Ànó'ɔnì ňyĒ sáeň?	"Who saw a blacksmith?"
Lì à nē múị.	"It's rice."
Lì kā' múi.	"It's not rice."
Lì à nē múìi?	"Is it rice?"
Ànó'ɔnì ňyē múi?	"Who saw rice?"

Kà ò siák. And 3an agree.	"And he agreed."
<i>Ò pū si̯ákē</i> +ø. 3AN NEG.IND agree NEG.	"He didn't agree."
<i>Kà ò dīgι.</i> And 3AN be.lying.	"And she's lying down."
Ò pō dīgiyá +ø. 3an neg.ind be.lying neg.	"She isn't lying down."
Kà ò vūẹ.	"And she's alive."
Ò pū vūyá.	"She's not alive."
Kà ò kỵā.	"And he farmed."
Ò pū kūa.	"He hasn't farmed."
Kà ò kịá.	"And she cut (it)."
Ò pū kía.	"She hasn't cut (it)."
Kà ò pāe.	"And he reached (it)."
Ò pū 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 $b\dot{\epsilon}dvg\bar{v}$ "a lot":

Lì à nẽ bōn-bếdùg. 3INAN COP FOC thing-big:SG.	"It's a big thing."
Lì kā' būn-bédugō +ø. BINAN NEG.BE thing-big:sg neg.	"It's not a big thing."
<i>À pú'ùs yā bédugū.</i> 1sg greet PFV much.	"Thank you very much."

2.4.1 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** <u>8.2</u>, and clause-finally before **prosodic clitics** <u>8.1</u>, 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** <u>6.6</u>. 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 -*i* -*v* as -*ɛ* -*ɔ*, *-*mv* *-*mi* as -*mm* -*mm* and -*iə* -*uə* as -*ia* -*ua* <u>4.2</u>, and its final toneme is always either M or H.

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 ^{ɔ/}	"pot"	sjàk ^ɛ	"agree"
gbīgım ^{nɛ}	"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
mòlı+	"gazelles"	SF mòlı	LF mòlĩı
gòň+	"hunt"	SF gòň	LF <i>gɔ̄ɔň</i>
tìeň+	"inform"	SF tìeň	LF <i>tìēeň</i>
kįà+	"cut"	SF <i>kij</i> a	LF <i>kīa</i>
kųā+	"hoe"	SF kỵā	LF <i>kūa</i>
dāỵ+	"man"	SF <i>dā</i> ỵ	LF dāυ
sāeň+	"blacksmith"	SF <i>sā</i> eň	LF <i>sāeň</i>

(This use of ⁺ exploits the extent to which LFs can be predicted from SFs <u>2.4.2</u>. More radical simplifications could be made: ⁺ = ε could all be taken as defaults, with -*m* defaulting to -*m*^m, and ^a used for ^{ya}.)

Superscript ^a is written after a vowel symbol in two cases.

	kpįà'+	"shape wood"	SF <i>kpi</i> à'	LF <i>kpī</i> a
but	dįā' ^a	"get dirty"	SF <i>dįā</i> '	LF dįā'a
	kųā+	"hoe"	SF <i>kųā</i>	LF <i>kūa</i>
but	pỵ'āª	"woman"	SF pự'ā	LF pự'āa

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

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

vūe ^{a/}	"be alive"	SF <i>vū</i> e	LF <i>vūyá</i>
tōe ^{a/}	"be bitter"	SF <i>tōẹ</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 $p\bar{a}mn\epsilon$ 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>5.2.1</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 <i>fūug</i>	LF <i>fūugó</i>
pāe ^{+/}	"reach"	SF <i>pāe</i>	LF <i>pāée</i>
nūa ^{+/}	"hen"	SF nūa	LF nūáa
yā ^{+/}	"houses"	SF yā	LF yáa
lā+/	(article)	SF <i>lā</i>	LF <i>láa</i>
bèdvgū ^{+/}	"a lot"	SF bèdugū	LF bὲdυgύυ
gāaň ^{=/}	"Nigerian ebony"	SF gāaň	LF gáaň
dāam ^{m/}	"millet beer"	SF dāam	LF dáamm
tāuň+/	"opposite-sex sib"	SF tāuň	LF távň
màlı+	"gazelles"	SF mòlı	LF mòlĩı

Similarly, when the liaison enclitic $^{\circ}$ "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:

 $ny\bar{\epsilon}\cdot o^{-o}$ "see him/her" SF $ny\bar{\epsilon}\cdot o$ LF $ny\bar{\epsilon}\cdot o-o$

Note that $k\bar{\upsilon}\cdot\dot{o}^{=}$ "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 kā' yáarīmm.	"It's not salt (<i>yàarım</i> ^m)."
but	Lì ká' ò tīımm.	"It's not her medicine ($\leftarrow t i \bar{i} mm \leftarrow t i i m^{m}$)."
	Lì kā' tíımm.	"It's not medicine (← <i>tíīmm</i>)."
	Lì ká' bà dā'a.	"It's not their market ($\leftarrow d\dot{a}'\bar{a} \leftarrow d\dot{a}'a^{=}$)."
	Lì kā' dá'a.	"It's not a market (← <i>dá</i> 'ā)."

Tautosyllabic delinking causes words like $n \acute{a} a f^{2}$ and $n \acute{u} \dot{u} g^{2}$ to coincide tonally in the LF only: such words are written in superscript notation with the SF tonemes.

Lì	kā'	nú'ugɔ̄ +ø.	"It's not a hand."
3INA	N NEG.B	E hand:SG NEG.	
Lì	kā'	náafɔ̄ +ø.	"It's not a cow."
3INA	N NEG.B	E COW:SG NEG.	

2.4.2 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 <u>9.1</u>. Historically expected LFs have been systematically replaced in some cases by different LFs corresponding to the same SFs <u>9.3.1</u> <u>9.3.2</u>. 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.

All 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 only to

late toneme delinking rules. However, Tone Patterns are suprasegmental features of stems rather than words 7.1, 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* ε or *ɔ*; preceding SF-final *m n* or *l* may or may not be geminated; -*m* may become -*mn*- instead of -*mm*-. Even before liaison <u>8.2</u>, where vowel quality is neutralised, the same issues arise with consonant clusters:

nwɛnɛ tinamɛ kɛt banɛ **tummi** ti taali [sic] basid si'em la. wɛ̄n nɛ̄ tīnámì_Ø kɛ́t bánì tùmmī_ tí tàallì_ Ø resemble with 1PL NZ let:IPFV REL.PL work:IPFV 1PL 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-bɛ́'ɛ̀d-nàm dáàmnī bá dāa ňyɛ̃ 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)

However, given whether a noun has human reference, it is usually possible to identify its noun class and thus the correct LF <u>9.1</u>. Perfectives end in *-mm* if the the SF ends in *-m* and in *-* ε otherwise; imperfectives end in *-a* with gemination of preceding $n \mid m$. Dual-aspect verb imperfectives with SFs ending in *-m* formerly had LFs in *-mna*, though not for my informants nor in KB:

kà pū týmnā.	"and does not work." (2 Thess 3:11, 1996,
	written <i>ka pu tum na <u>1.3.2</u>; KB ka pu tumma.</i>)

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

Li pu nar ye fu di fu ba'abiig po'a Herodiase. Lì pū nār yć fừ dí fừ bā'-bîig pự'á Herodiase ⁺ø. 3INAN NEG.IND must that 25G take 25G father-child:sG wife:sG Herodias NEG. "It's not right for you to marry your brother's wife Herodias." (Mt 14:4, 1996)

Pu'abi du'a sieba la wusa, sɔ' kae gat Joon nɛ [sic <u>1.3.2</u>]. $P\bar{v}$ 'abí \emptyset dụ'à sīəba lā wūsa, sɔ̄' kā'e \emptyset gát Joonɛ ⁺ \emptyset . Woman:PL NZ bear INDF.PL ART all, INDF.AN NEG.BE CAT pass:IPFV John NEG. "Of all those born of women, none surpasses John." (Lk 7: 28)

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 *ja ja*', short ι , or a fronting diphthong, and many that do:

sīa ⁺	"waist"	sàbùa ⁺	"girlfriend"
bāa=	"dog" <u>8.1</u>	pāe ^{+/}	"reach"
nìe+	"appear"	dūe+/	"raise/rise"
kūgá+	"stones"	wìdı+	"horses"
kū+	"kill"	mà+	"mother"
bèdugū ^{+/}	"a lot"		

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

dįā' ^a	"get dirty"	← *dįagι	Farefare	dềgὲ
dỵ'à ^a	"bear, beget"	← *dµagι	Farefare	dàgÈ
zò+	"run"		Farefare	zòè
dāỵ+ LF dāv	"man"	← *dawa	Mooré	ráoa
tāu̯ň+/ LF táuň	"opposite-sex sib"	← *tãwa	Mooré	tãoa

A marginal exception to predictability is the fact that words ending in $\underline{i}a'$ may have LFs in $\underline{i}a'a$ like $d\underline{i}\overline{a}'^a$ "get dirty" or in $\underline{i}'a$ like $k\underline{p}\underline{i}a'^+$ "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:

sā <u>e</u> ň	"blacksmith"	LF <i>sāeň</i> or <i>sāňya</i>
sɔ̄e̯ň	"witch"	LF <i>sɔ̄eň</i> or sɔ̄ňya

All other cases involve **single-aspect 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"
vūę ^{a/}	"be alive"	sū'e ^{ya/}	"own"

Before liaison, single-aspect verbs follow the *general* rule, prolonging any final short diphthong and then applying phrase-medial loss of fronting <u>8.2</u>.

3 Consonants

3.1 Inventory and symbols

The following consonant symbols are used:

k	t	p	kp			
g	d	b	kp gb			
ŋ	n	т				
	S			f		h
	Ζ			V		
	1					
	r					
			W		У	

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.

- tdnszlr 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 / is never velarised. For other variants of s r see below.
- k t p represent [k^h] [t^h] [p^h] 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.³
- k g η The symbol η is realised [ŋ] word-finally and [ŋ:] 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:

tóklàe+	"torch"	← English "torchlight"
sógįà ^a	"soldier"	(probably via Hausa <i>soojà</i>)

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 6.4.

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

kɔ̀bɪgā⁼ "hundred" [qʷʰɔbɪɕa]

Underlying *g is deleted after short oral or nasal $a \downarrow a \downarrow a$, which become glottalised, and also after $aa \downarrow a \downarrow a a \breve{n} \varepsilon \varepsilon \breve{n} \rightarrow D\breve{n}$ and their glottalised counterparts unless it stands before a rounded vowel; diphthongs may result <u>6.3</u>. The effect of this *g is still apparent in stem tone patterns <u>7.2.1.1</u>.

f v are labiodental fricatives, found only word initially, after prefixes, and in the noun class suffix $-f^{2}$:

fōfōm ^{mɛ}	"envy"
náaf ^o	"cow"

z is only found word initially and after prefixes.

s is often realised as [h] word-internally. It sometimes represents *h* in loanwords:

Àláasìd (dáar ^ɛ)	"Sunday"	← Hausa <i>Lahàd</i> ì (← Arabic)
Dàsmáanì+	عبد الرحمن	ናAbdu-r-Raħma:n(i)

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h	loan as." I there	as a phoneme <i>h</i> itself is marginal, occurring only syllable-initially in loanwords; however these include the very common word <i>hālí</i> ⁺ "as far as." In the personal name <i>Dàhamáanì</i> ⁺ عبد الرحمن <i>SAbdu-r-Raħma:n(i)</i> there is alternation with <i>-s</i> - but particular individuals with the name seem to choose one alternant only.			
d	prec	eding word in a		us a flapped [r] when the owel (including glottalised riable:	
	but	nō-dáùg ^ɔ nā'-dáàd ^ɛ wìd-dāʊg ^ɔ	"cock" "oxen" "stallion"	[nɔraʊg] [na̯ra:d] [wɪd:aʊg]	
			-	esemble [r], but there are ng root and epenthetic vowe	els:
		ὲňdιg ^ε ὲňrιg ^ε	"unplug" "shift along"		

mɔ̄dε "swell" mɔ̄ra/ "have" yàad^ε "graves" vāar^{ε/} "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 []]. 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 ^a	"neighbour"
àrazàk ^a	"riches"
àrazánà+	"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*:

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Gòsımī m!	"Look at me!"
Gòsīm.	"Look at me!" contrasting with
Gòsım!	"Look!"
Gòsımí fù nú'ùg!	"Look at your hand!"
Gòsím fừ 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>6.6</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>.

n is syllabic when representing various proclitic particles, and as the number prefix. Unlike *m*, it assimilates to the position of a following consonant even when syllabic. The clause catenator *n* and the clause nominaliser *n* are syllabic [n] for some speakers, but my informants have consonantal, denasalised or zero reflexes instead.

kp gb 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 *kpùkpàrug*^a "palm tree" where other speakers have *kùkpàrug*^a etc. Otherwise *kp gb* are replaced by velars before rounded vowels; they are thus in complementary distribution with labialised velars, which could be ascribed to these phonemes rather than to the velars.

kūm ^m	"death"	cf <i>kp</i> ì+	"die"	
kōba+	"bones"	cf Gurmanche	kpábá	id
kpàkūr ^{ε/}	"tortoise"	cf Dagbani	kpàkpílí	id

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

bákpàẹ+	"week" ← Hausa <i>bakwài</i> "seven"
	(also "week" in <i>Gaanancii</i> Hausa)

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y w are respectively voiced palatal and labiovelar approximants.
 They are strongly nasalised before nasalised vowels, and are then written ňy ňw with no further nasalisation marking on the vowel:

ňyē+	"see"	[ĵɛ̃]
ňwādıg ^{a/}	"moon"	[ŵãdɪɡ]
ňwè'+	"beat"	[ŵɛ̃]

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

Dagbani	Kusaal	
ŋariŋ	àňrvŋ ^ɔ	"boat"
<i>nyá</i> [ɲa]	ňyē+	"see"
<i>ŋme</i> [ŋ͡me]	ňwè'+	"beat"

Mooré shows the same developments as Kusaal. Niggli 2012 reports that some Toende speakers still have consonantal [n] [n]m] phonetically in these cases, although he regards these as allophones of y w before nasalised vowels. Before ι/i original p has often become n <u>8.2.3</u>.

y w occur only syllable-initially. They are in complementary distribution with the the glides i/e and u respectively, which do not form syllable boundaries <u>4.5</u>. When apocope leaves -*y*- as word-final after a short back vowel, it is replaced by e, producing a short fronting diphthong <u>6.4</u>.

Consonantal *w* occurs only root-initially, i.e. word-initially and after prefixes: *wiəf*^o "horse", *dàwān*^{nɛ/} "pigeon", but consonantal *y* occurs root-initially (*yáaŋ*^a "grandchild", *dàyūug*^{o/} "rat"), and also word-medially before the vowel *a*: $n\bar{2}y\dot{a}^+$ "mouths."

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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 [ŋ].

kùndùŋ ^a	"jackal"	
gūmpūzēr ^{ɛ/}	"duck"	
dànkòŋ ^ɔ	"measles"	[daŋkʰɔŋ]
zùnzòŋ ^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 <u>5.2.2</u> <u>7.2.1</u> <u>7.3.1</u>.

Gemination of *mm nn ll* before LF affix vowels is clearly audible, even where the LF-final vowel has been downranked before liaison <u>8.2</u>; 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 dual-aspect verb imperfectives:

 $karım^m$ "read" \rightarrow $karım^m$ 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 <u>1.3.2</u>]
kà bà lí bà tòba kà pū wúmnā ⁺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)

ka ban ka kikirbe'ednam daamne ba daa nye laafiya kà bàn kà kìkīr-bɛ́'ɛ̀d-nàm dáàmnī bá dāa ňyē láafìya 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:

<i>gbīg</i> កេ ^{nɛ}	SB	<i>gbīg</i> កេ ^{mɛ}	WK	"lion"
<i>dūm</i> nε	SB	<i>dūm</i> ^{mε}	WK	"knee"

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

ňwān ^{nε}	SB	pl <i>ňwāna</i> ⁺ (Lk 11:39, 1976) "calabash"
<i>ňwām</i> ^{mε}	WK	pl <i>ňwāma</i> + SB WK

Cf 1976 NT kobkennib = $k \ge nb - k \boxed{nm \cdot b^a} \leftarrow *k \boxed{b} - k \boxed{md \cdot ba}$ "herdsmen." There is variation also with the agent nouns of *m*-stem verbs:

pe'es bane ka' konbkemma pē'ɛs bánì kā' kɔ́ňb-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 <u>1.3.2</u>]. m 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 tomtomnib pii nε ayi' la yoda nwa.
Ò tòm-tōmnıb pīi nέ àyí lā yódà ø ňwà.
3AN 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:

būn-túmmìr^ɛ"useful thing"; plural tūmna+ is cited by some informants.bù-sāň'ammır^ɛ"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 <u>28.1.2</u>. 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 r f s are sometimes shown by Tone Pattern allocation rules to reflect underlying clusters <u>7.2.1.1</u>, but unlike $k t p \eta$ they are never actually realised as geminates.

tīntōňríg ^a	"mole" (animal)	← *tīntɔ̃ňrrígā
píıňf ^o	"genet"	← *pīínfū
níis ^ε	"birds"	← *nīínsī

Morphophonemic considerations also sometimes suggest that r s are simplified from clusters. The agent nouns $s i s^a$ "beggar" and $t i s^a$ "giver" drop the formant -d- in the sg and have Tone Pattern L like 3-mora stems <u>9.3.1</u>. The Pattern H verbs $g \bar{s} s^{\epsilon}$ "look", $s \bar{s} n \bar{s}^{\epsilon}$ "converse", $k \bar{l} r^{\epsilon}$ "hurry" make Pattern HL gerunds <u>7.2.1.2</u>, perhaps as a result of historical mora loss.

4 Vowels

4.1 Inventory and symbols

Agolle Kusaal has a basic seven-vowel system /a/ /ɛ/ /ɔ/ /i/ /u/ /ɪ/ /ʊ/, written by default as $a \varepsilon \circ i u \iota v$ respectively. See <u>1.3</u> for the orthographic conventions for the use of $e \circ$ in place of ιv for /ɪ/ /ʊ/, the symbols \check{n} and ' marking nasalisation and glottalisation, the glide symbols e i v and the representation of long vowels.

Long vowels contrast with short vowels in length, but not quality.

The vowel ι is more central after velars and labials, and υ 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" <u>3.1</u>. The glide symbols $\underline{e} \underline{i}$ both represent / \underline{I} /, but in $u\underline{i}$ and in the monophthong $\underline{i}e$ the realisation of \underline{i} is as [\underline{i}]. The symbol \underline{y} always represents [\underline{v}].

ja ua ia ua are phonemic monophthongs but are realised as written: [*ia*] [*va*] [*ia*] [*ua*]. Before *y* word-internally, *ja ua* are realised [*i*1] [*va*] and written *je ue*. The orthography of this grammar follows tradition in representing these segments according to their *phonetic* realisation, but the symbols are digraphs representing monophthongs <u>4.2</u>. The letters *a a* are used only in these digraphs.

There are many diphthongs, consisting either of contiguous dissimilar vowel morae or of a short vowel mora followed by a glide.

The glides $\underline{e}/\underline{i} \underline{u}$ contrast with $\underline{y} \underline{w}$ in not forming syllable boundaries or consonant clusters, either as components of the digraphs $\underline{ia} \underline{ua}$ representing single short vowel phonemes, or as the final components of short diphthongs:

bįāųňk ^ɔ	[bɪ̯äʊ̯k]	"shoulder"	CVC
buàk ^ɛ	[bʊ̯ak]	"split"	CVC
dāỵ+	[daʊ̯]	"man"	CV
gbàỵŋ ^ɔ	[g͡baʊ̯ŋ]	"book"	CVC
sīeň	[sɔ̃ɪ̯]	"blacksmith" SF	CV
tōẹ	[tʰɔɪ̯]	"be bitter" SF	CV
mùį+	[mũị]	"rice"	CVCV

Word-final $-V_{\underline{e}} -V_{\underline{i}} -V_{\underline{u}}$ behave exactly like word-final short root vowels in being followed by [?] before pause in statements <u>4.4</u>:

Ò à nɛ̄ dāų. [ʊanɛdaʊ̯?] "He is a man"

Word-initial ya [ja] contrasts with ia [Ia] in the tenseness of the semivowel, and probably in timing features; the contrast is not [?ja] ~ [ja].

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įā+	[ĭa]	"seek"
yā+/	[ja]	"houses"

Chitoran 2002 finds that unlike *ia/ea*, the 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/ua*.

There are great differences in the range of vowel contrasts possible in different positions within a full word. Correlation with stress <u>2.3</u> is only partial, so the system is best regarded as involving **positional prominence**. Diphthongs, glottalisation, emic nasalisation and the sevenfold quality contrast appear only in the **root vowels** of non-clitic words. **Affix vowels** have only a three-way contrast in quality *a ι v* but like root vowels also distinguish length. **Epenthetic vowels** contrast only short *ι v*.

Even in roots, there are few minimal pairs for the contrasts $i/\iota u/\upsilon$ in short vowels, except when shortened by apocope from long $ii/\iota uu/\upsilon \upsilon$, where the tenseness contrast is robust. Minimal pairs include

lìdıg	"astonish, be amazed"	lìdıg	"turn a shirt" WK
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"

4.2 Agolle vowel breaking

The sequences i = ue, realised with the corresponding IPA values, pattern throughout as long *monophthongs*, with *ia ua* as the corresponding short vowels. They may be nasalised or glottalised, and are subject to the fronting and rounding processes described below <u>6.4</u> just like other monophthongs. They will be described as monophthongs throughout this grammar. All other sequences beginning with written *i 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 $> \varepsilon \varepsilon$ >:

Toende	Agolle	
sēēs	sīəs ^ɛ	"waists"
pē'ēs	pē'ɛsɛ/	"sheep" pl
b <i>á'</i> ɔs	bū'θs ^{ε/}	"ask"
tōom	tɔ̄ɔm ^{m/}	"depart, disappear"

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

bòòt	bòɔd ^a	"want, wish" (Mooré <i>bàoda</i>)
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There are gaps in the distribution of Agolle $\varepsilon \varepsilon \rightarrow$ probably connected with their diphthongal origins; some occurrences seem to be due to levelling within $g^{2}|d^{\varepsilon}$ class paradigms <u>9.2.1</u>. Short $\varepsilon \rightarrow$ do not contrast underlyingly with *ja ya* (see below.)

 $i \partial u \partial u \partial u \partial u$ may only occur word-finally through loss of fronting in word-final *ie ue* by phrase-internal sandhi <u>8.5.2</u>:

pīá tī+/	"wash us"	(<i>pīe</i> +/ "wash")
dūé tī+/	"raise us"	(<i>dūe</i> +/"raise")

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

LF	kīa	"cut" pfv	[kʰia]	cf <i>kìəd</i> a	ipfv
LF	kūa	"hoe" pfv	[kʰua]	cf <i>kūød</i> a/	ipfv

Nasalised *iəň uəň*, including after *m n* <u>4.3</u>, occur only in the inflexion and gerund formation of fusion verbs <u>6.3</u>. In all other contexts *iəň uəň* and *ɛɛň ɔɔň* have fallen together. The vowels were distinct historically: compare *nɔ̄ɔr* "times" (Mooré *náooré*) with *nɔ̄ɔr* "mouth" (Mooré *nóor*è) <u>16.4.2.4</u>.

The short vowels corresponding to *iə uo* are *ia ua* [Ia] [va].

These, too, pattern as simple vowels throughout: $siak^{\epsilon}$ "agree" and $buak^{\epsilon}$ "split" do not violate the constraint that full words begin with at most one consonant.

Apocope shortens final *iə ue* to *ia ua*:

kįà	"cut"	SF of <i>kīa</i>
kųā	"hoe"	SF of <i>kūa</i>

Short ε \supset replace $\underline{ia} \ \underline{ua}$ everywhere else, except before k and underlying *g, which is deleted, with vowel glottalisation and fusion <u>6.3</u>. Almost all short ε \supset are either of this origin, or derive from apocope of $\varepsilon \varepsilon \supset .B \supset k^{\supset}$ "pit" contrasting with $b\underline{uak}^{\varepsilon}$ "split" is due to the rounding change $*\underline{uakkv} \rightarrow \underline{ckv} \ \underline{6.4}$, while $t\overline{\varepsilon}k^{\varepsilon/}$ "pull",

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contrasting with $t_{i}ak^{\epsilon}$ "change" is due to shortening of a long vowel before an original plosive cluster $t\epsilon\epsilon kk\iota$ 6.5. Presumably $n5k^{\epsilon/}$ "pick up" is similarly derived by shortening of $n5k\iota$; Toende Kusaal has $n\delta k$, with a variant form n5' (for n5').

ie ue [iɪ] [oɪ] appear in place of *ia ua* before -*y*-, which can occur only in the context of $r^{\epsilon}|a^{+}$ class plurals of nouns and adjectives with stems in *ia* and *ua* <u>6.1.1.1</u>:

bīər ^{ɛ/}	"elder same-sex sib"	pl <i>bi̯ēyá</i> +	
sūθr ^{ε/}	"road"	pl <i>suēyá</i> +	KB <i>suoya</i> <u>1.3.2</u>

4.3 Nasalisation

Contrastive nasalisation is confined to root vowels. It is marked with \check{n} in the orthography of this grammar <u>1.3</u>. It often represents originally automatic nasalisation after $*\eta *p *n \hat{m}$, or arises before underlying *ns *nf 6.2.

Short *iň uň* are laxer than oral *i u*, but there are no contrasting short $*\iota n * \upsilon n$. In all but one case, short *iň uň* arise from apocope of *iiň uuň*:

sīiňf ^{ɔ/}	"bee"	cb <i>sīň-</i>
zùuňg ^o	"vulture"	cb <i>zùň-</i>

The only remaining case is $s\bar{u}nf^{p/}$ "heart" pl $s\bar{u}nya^+$ cb $s\bar{u}n^-$; the vowel of this word is consistently written un in KB.

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

*m*έ*cd*^a "build" ipfv [mε̃:d]

Long $\iota n \, \upsilon \upsilon n$ contrasting with *iin uun* appear exclusively from the change of **nf* **ns* to *f s* with nasalisation of the preceding vowel <u>6.2</u>:

	níiŋ ^a	"bird"	
but	píıňf ^{>}	"genet"	pl <i>pīıní</i> +
	zùuňd ^ɛ	"vultures"	
but	zúuňf ^{>}	"dawadawa seed"	pl <i>zōʋní</i> +
	tɛ̀ŋ-zט̀טท័ระ	"foreign lands"	sg <i>tὲŋ-zùŋ</i> ɔ

Nasalised *iəň ueň* occur only in fusion verbs <u>6.3</u>.

4.4 Glottalisation

Glottalisation is confined to root vowels and the proclitic tense marker *pà*' "earlier today." It does not affect vowel quality. It is marked by the symbol '<u>1.3</u>.

Glottalisation may be realised as a creaky-voiced glottal approximant [?] after the first vocalic mora, or the creakiness may be more widely spread within the vowel; but in either case it behaves as a vowel feature, not a consonant. The flap realisation of initial d 3.1 occurs after V' as well as after V; and in general glottalised vowels pattern exactly like unglottalised vowels. The glottalisation which has arisen from deletion of *g after a ja ya 6.3 does not differ phonetically from other types.

Tonal considerations confirm that ' is not a consonant. Thus

	Lì kā' mólıfō.	"It's not a gazelle."
but	Lì kā' ↓nú'ugō.	"It's not a hand."
like	Lì kā' ↓tíιgā.	"It's not a tree."

differ in whether the H toneme is realised with a preceding downstep, because the sequence $-l\iota$ - in $m \delta l\iota f \bar{2}$ is a separate unstressed syllable preceding the final stress on $-f \bar{2}$, whereas the ' in $n \dot{u}' u g \bar{2}$ is not a consonant and does not begin a syllable <u>5.1</u>.

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

	Kà bà gēň. Kà bà gēň'.	"and they got tired" "and they got angry"	is homophonous with
but	Bà gèň nē. Bà gèň' nē.	"they're tired" "they're angry"	differs in realisation from

There is nothing corresponding to Kusaal vowel glottalisation in Mooré, Dagaare, Mampruli, Hanga or Dagbani, but Farefare, Nabit and Talni share it: yō'υr^{ε/} "name", Farefare yú'úrέ; kù'өm^m "water", Talni kwo?m; kpá'υŋ[>] "guinea fowl", Nabit kpa'uŋ; nō-ňyá'àŋ^a "hen", Nabit nɔnya'aŋ.

Nawdm, too, has ? in many words with Kusaal cognates showing glottalised vowels, e.g. mi-ta? "three" (in counting) = Kusaal $nta\check{n}$; nui?u "arm, hand" = $nui'ug^{2}$; ra?m "bile" = Kusaal $y\bar{a}'am^{m/}$ (WK), Farefare ya'am. Vowel glottalisation is thus clearly inherited from Oti-Volta.

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 *ŋ* in closed syllables in some words for some informants. The vowels are written as if long in KB.

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kpὲ'ŋ ^ε	"strengthen"	lā'ŋ ^{ε/}	"set alight"
nī m ^{nε/}	"meat"	kɔ̄'m ^{m/}	"hunger"
sù'ŋā+	"well"	sù'm ^m	"goodness"

The adjective $s \dot{v} \eta^{2}$ (pl $s \dot{v} ma^{+}$) "good" itself never has a glottalisation mark. Toende Kusaal, Farefare, Nabit and Talni lack this phenomenon. It has probably arisen from gemination of *m* η ; KB has 385 examples of *an* svm to 47 of *an* sv'vm (àň $s \dot{v} m$ "is good"), but 30 of ka' svm to 40 of ka' sv'vm, which would be $k\bar{a}' s \dot{v} mm$ "is not good" when clause-final. $Y\bar{a}m^{m/}$ "gall bladder; sense" seems to have a real variant $y\bar{a}'am^{m/}$; it was the only case where my informants confirmed glottalisation.

4.5 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 <u>2.3</u>, are structurally extra-long diphthongs.

The word-final diphthongs av avň ui arose historically from **Vw* **Vy* <u>6.1.1.1</u>. All other word-internal **primary** diphthongs result from active word-internal morphophonemic processes of fusion, fronting and rounding <u>6.3</u> <u>6.4</u>. Rounding diphthongs occur only word-finally and before velars, fronting diphthongs only word-finally and before *y*. The primary diphthongs are

1-Mora		2-Mora 3-Mora		ora	
		ia	[ia]	iaa	[ia:]
		į́a'a	[ĭä:]		
		ua	[ua]	uaa	[ua:]
		ט'a	[ʊ̯ə]		
a <u>e</u>	[aĭ]	ae	[aɪ]	aee	[aɪ:]
эĕ	[J]	<i></i> כ'e	[JĨ]		
υ <u>ę</u>	[ŭĬ]	υ'e	[ŭĭ]		
иį	[ui̯]	ui	[ui]		
		ie	[iɪ]	iee	[iɪ:]
		ue	[uɪ]	uee	[uɪ:]
aų	[aʊ̯]	av	[aʊ]		
		iu	[iu]		
ıų	[īŭ]				
εц	[ช <u>ू</u>]	80	[ɛʊ]		
jaų	[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 <u>8.1</u>. The diphthongs $v'a v \breve{n}'a$ appear as $u'aa u \breve{n}'aa$ respectively when LF-final.

zū∙ó - o	[zuʊ:]	"steal him"	LF
zú∙o	[zuʊ]	"steal him"	SF
bēīyá	[bɛɪja]	"be ye!"	LF
bε̄ι	[bɛɪ]	"be ye!"	SF

The digraphs ia ua ia ua and their nasalised/glottalised forms are *phonemic* monophthongs <u>4.2</u>. Long ia ua are falling diphthongs phonetically, as are all the phonemic diphthongs apart from the disyllabic 3-mora type.

Length contrasts among phonemic diphthongs in identical contexts can occur only with word-final ae/ae and with av/au before η .

4.6 Epenthetic vowels

The default epenthetic vowel is ι . Before LF $-g^{2} - \eta^{2}$ the epenthetic vowel becomes υ , remaining υ in the SF <u>6.4</u>.

	āaňdıg ^a	← *ããdıga	"black plum tree"
but	gàadvg ⁵	← *gaadıgv	"(sur)passing" (gerund)
pl	mālıma+	← *malımaa	"sacrifices"
but	māluŋ ^ɔ	← *malเŋŋบ	"sacrifice"

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

gbīgកេ ^{nɛ}	[g͡bɪɡɪm]	"lion"
yūgúm ^{nε}	[jʊgʊm]	"camel"
wābıd ^{ɛ/}	[wabɪd]	"elephants"
dūgud ^{ɛ/}	[dʊgʊd]	"cooking pots"
dūgudíb ^a	[dʊgʊdɪb]	"people who cook"
pūטgט-n ^{ɛ/}	[pʰʊ:ɡʊn]	"belly" $(p\bar{v}vg^a) + n^{\epsilon}$ locative

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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^2 9.3.2. 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:

nɔ̄bυg ^{ε/}	"grow" (but <i>nóbìr</i> ^ε "leg")
kɔ̃lug ^a	"river"
yàmmug ^a	"slave"

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

tìsıd ^a	[t ^h ISId]	"gives"
sīgıd ^{a/}	[sigid]	"lowers"
būgur ^ε	[bʊgʊr]	"spirit's dwelling"
kūgυr ^{ε/}	[kʰugur]	"stone"

4.7 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 $aa \iota vv$. Glottalisation occurs only in the particle $p\dot{a}' \leftarrow *pag$ "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 ιv to be lowered to ϵ , here realised somewhat closer than as root vowels; the only context in which underlying LF-final short ιv appear as such is with apocope-blocking <u>6.6</u>.

LF-final long *aa* $\iota\iota$ appear in the $r^{\varepsilon}|a^{+}$ and $f^{\circ}|\iota^{+}$ class plural flexions. SF-final *-a* - ι in plurals behave like apocope-blocked forms before liaison, without vowel prolongation, except in $y\acute{a}an^{\varepsilon}$, the irregular locative of $y\ddot{a}^{+/}$ "houses." LF-final *aa* $\iota\iota$ $\upsilon\upsilon$ also arise from prolongation of forms with apocope-blocking before prosodic clitics, and $\upsilon\upsilon$ arises as the result of liaison with the LF of the enclitic pronoun ^o <u>8.2.1</u>.

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

	kìkīrıg ^{a/} sìsì'əm ^m	[kʰikʰirig] [sisi̯əm]	"protective s "wind"	pirit"
	dùndùug ^o sīlınsíùňg ^o	[dundu:g]	_	KB dunduug
	vòlınvùuňl ^ɛ	[vuliŋvũ:l]	"mason wasp	
but	nìn-tāa ⁼	[nintʰa:]	"co-wife": th	iere are no short *נח័ <u>4.3</u>

Affix-vowel and pre-liaison ιv differ in tone sandhi from epenthetic ιv 5.2.2, 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 ιv , but $d\bar{\iota}g\iota$ appears as digi 101 times, and dig 185. Significantly, there are 33 instances of $dig n\epsilon$ with only 5 of $digi n\epsilon$, where there is no clause boundary after the verb, but where the verb is followed by the unstressed clause linker ka 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 *v* after labials, labiodentals and labiovelars. Prefixes, however, show v rather than ι before root u/v/2 ($d\dot{v}nd\dot{u}ug^2$ "cobra") and ι instead of vbefore root $i/l \in (kp\bar{l}kp\bar{l}n^{na/} \text{ "merchant."})$ In flexions -mm appears in place of *-mv; ι appears after labial consonants only in perfectives like $z\dot{a}b^{\varepsilon}$ "fight" where it is probably analogical. $S\bar{u}gvr\dot{v}^+$ "forbearance" is probably a loanword; in any case, it is likely that the final $-v^+$ is rounded from $-\iota^+$ because of the rounded root vowel. Velars followed by affix-vowel *v* could be internally reconstructed throughout as labiovelars (with $3sg \circ \leftarrow *\eta m \circ 16.3.1$ 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 $g^{2}|d^{\varepsilon}$ 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.

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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.

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 and tone overlay.

5.1 Tonemes

There are three tonemes:

Η	High, marked with an acute:	gél ^{le}	"egg"
Μ	Mid, marked with a macron:	bāŋ ^a	"ring"
L	Low, marked with a grave:	bòk ^o	"pit"

Structurally, H represents ML on a single mora. The sequence ML can only occur across a pause, otherwise always becoming either HL or MH <u>8.3</u>.

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"	bùk ^ε	"cast lots"
gāŋ ^{ɛ/}	"choose"	gàŋ ^ɛ	"step over"
kūk ^{a/}	"mahogany tree"	kùk ^a	"ghost"
kūk ^a	"chair"		
māk ^{ε/}	"measure"	màk ^ɛ	"crumple up"
mɔ̄ɔgɔ	"bush, wilderness"	Мòɔg ^ɔ	"Mossi realm"
pīd ^ε	"get bloated"	pìd ^ɛ	"put on hat, shoes etc"
sáam ^{ma}	"guests"	sàam ^{ma}	"father"
sįāk ^{ɛ/}	"suffice"	sjàk ^ε	"agree"
yáaŋ ^a	"grandchild"	<u>Yàaŋ</u> a	"Yansi, Yanga person"
yō+	"pay"	yò+	"close"

Every vocalic mora carries a toneme, except as a result of delinking 5.2. Syllabic *m n* bear 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.

Tones

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 $b\bar{\epsilon}o\bar{g}v$ -n, pvk>Jnr for pvk>Jnr. After an acute mark, however, an unmarked mora is *toneless*, and the H toneme extends over both morae 5.2.2:

Lì $k\bar{a}$ ' **mɔ́l** $lf\bar{j}$ + \emptyset . "It's not a gazelle." 3INAN NEG.BE gazelle:SG NEG.

Nominals with prefixes <u>14</u> are written with a tone mark on the root even if it is identical to that on the prefix: *zīnzāuŋ* "bat", *kùkpàrıg* "palm tree."

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:

	<i>m̀ sáam</i>	"my guests"	
but	m̀ gbέὲňm	"my sleep"	

The H toneme is in certain circumstances realised with a preceding *phonetic* downstep, lowering it to M level; this does not affect the relationship of the H to following tonemes. Downstep insertion applies after all tone sandhi and 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 $\underline{8.1}$.

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 <u>2.3</u>. 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 m g5s búŋ lā bēogv-n. And 1sg look.at donkey:sg ART morning-LOC. "And I looked at the donkey in the morning."

Bīiglā< ↓sá mɛ̀εd</th>yīrlā.Child:SG ARTTNSbuild:IPFV house:SG ART."The child was building the house yesterday."

but *Bīig lā sá m*ɛ̀ yīr lā. Child:sg ART TNS build house:sg ART. "The child built the house yesterday."

Mān↓ bú-**pìəl**kā'e+ø.ISG.CNTRgoat-white:SG NEG.BE NEG."My white goat isn't there."

but Mān bú-sùŋ kā'e ⁺ø. 1SG.CNTR goat-good:SG NEG.BE NEG. "My good goat isn't there."

> Yō↓góm kā'e +ø. "There's no camel." Camel:sg NEG.BE NEG.

but $Y \bar{v} g \acute{o} m$ $|\bar{a} k \bar{a}' e^+ \phi$. "The camel's not there." Camel:SG ART NEG.BE NEG.

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

Lìànē↓ náafIā."It's the cow."3INAN COP FOCCOW:SG ART.

but $Li \stackrel{a}{=} n\bar{\epsilon} d52g I\bar{a}$. "It's the hut." SINAN COP FOC hut:SG ART.

The tonemes of the following syllable itself are not relevant:

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Mān kúkòm kā'e ⁺ ø. "My leper isn't there." 1SG.CNTR leper:SG NEG.BE NEG.			
<i>Mān kúkār kā'e</i> + <i>ø.</i> "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 $k\bar{a}$ ' $ny\bar{\imath}\downarrow r(f\bar{j} + \phi)$. "It's not an egusi seed." SINAN NEG.BE egusi:SG NEG.			
Lì kā' púkòɔň rē +ø. "It's not a widow." 3INAN NEG.BE widow:sg NEG.			
Ànɔ´'ɔnì ø ňyē púkòɔň rɛ +ø? Who cat see widow:sg cq? "Who saw a widow?"			
Lì à nẽ ↓pú kòɔňr lā. "It's the widow."			

SINAN COP FOC widow:sg ART.

As downstepping between M and H does not occur before an unstressed syllable, $n\dot{u}\dot{u}g^{2}$ "hand" matches $n\dot{2}b\dot{l}r^{\epsilon}$ "leg" tonally in SF but $n\dot{a}af^{2}$ "cow" in LF:

Lì à nĒ nóbìr.	"It's a leg."
Lì à nĒ nú'ùg.	"It's a hand."
Lì à nĒ náaf.	"It's a cow."
Lì kā' nóbɪ rɛ .	"It's not a leg." (with delinking $5.2.2$)
Lì kā' ↓nú'u gɔ ̄.	"It's not a hand."
Lì kā' ↓náa f5 .	"It's not a cow."

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:

	Òрū	yādı↓gí dā +ø.	"He isn't scattering."
	3AN NEG.IN	D scatter: IPFV NEG.	
but	-	ø yādıgí dà +ø? CAT scatter:IPFV cQ?	"Who is scattering?"

but

Tones

	Lì kā' bī-↓pú ŋā +ø. 3INAN NEG.BE child-girl:sg neg.	"It's not a girl."
but	Lì kā' bī-pú ŋàa +ø? 3inan neg.be child-girl:sg pq?	"Isn't it a girl?"
	Ò pū ňyē↓sú'u gā +ø. 3an neg.ind see knife:sg neg.	"She didn't find a knife."
but	Ànɔ´'ɔnì ø ňyē sú'υ gà +ø? Who cat see knife:sg cq.	"Who found a knife?"
and	Ò pῦ dú gὲε +ø +ø? 3AN NEG.IND COOK NEG PQ.	"Didn't she cook?"

As downstep insertion applies later than delinking, words like $n\hat{a}af^{\circ}$ "cow" ($\leftarrow n\tilde{a}\hat{a}f^{\circ}$) behave exactly like $g\ell l^{|\epsilon}$ "egg":

Kà m g5sgéllā bēogu-n.And 1sg look.at egg:sg ART morning-LOC."And I looked at the egg in the morning."

but M g5s ↓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 bēogu-n.
And 1sg look.at donkey:sg ART morning-LOC.
"And I looked at the cow in the morning."

but M g5s ↓náaf lā bēogv-n.
1sg look.at cow:sg ART morning-LOC.
"I looked at the cow in the morning."

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5.2 Delinking

Delinking follows all tone sandhi. Essentially, these are realisation rules, but they are written into the orthography to avoid having to write the same surface tones in several different ways. They do not need to be ordered among themselves.

5.2.1 Tautosyllabic

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 2.4.1; it applies also when the discontinuous-past liaison enclitic n^{ε} imposes M toneme on the second mora of a LL root vowel 8.2.2.

	sáam ^{ma}	← *sāámmā	"guests"
LF	dáamm	← *dāámm	"beer"
LF	tīımm	← *tìīmm	"medicine"
	<i>mēε-n^{ε/}</i>	<i>← mὲĒ-n^{ε/}</i>	"build" $m\dot{\varepsilon}^+ + dp n^{\varepsilon}$

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

 $D\bar{a}\mu$ $l\bar{a}$ $m\epsilon\epsilon$ - $n (\leftarrow m\epsilon\epsilon$ -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 $n\dot{u}'\dot{u}g^{2}$ "hand" and $n\acute{a}af^{2}$ "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	kā'	nú'ugɔ̄	+ø.	"It's not a hand."
3INAN	NEG.BE	hand:sg	NEG.	
Lì	kā'	náafɔ̃ +	⁺ø.	"It's not a cow."
3INAN	NEG.BE	COW:SG N	EG.	

As three-mora diphthongs are disyllabic, with syllable division following the first mora <u>2.3</u>, 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 <u>2.4.1</u>.

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5.2.2 Heterosyllabic

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.

Lì $k\bar{a}$ ' $m \delta l \iota f \bar{\jmath}$ $+ \emptyset$. "It's not a gazelle." 3INAN NEG.BE gazelle:SG NEG. Bà $k\bar{a}$ ' $d\bar{\imath} \Rightarrow s(d\iota b\bar{a} + \emptyset$. "They are not receivers." 3PL NEG.BE receiver:PL NEG.

The rule does not apply if either syllable is closed:

	-	nē mólì f. oc gazelle:sg.		"It's a gazelle."
-		dī ə sídì b. receiver:⊧∟.		"They are receivers."
Lì	kā'	bōn -sábì llē	+ø.	"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 delinking 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 pūsiákidā*ø.And 2PL NEG.IND agree:IPFVNEG.

Delinking 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 $\underline{8.2}$:

Lì kā' dágò bıgā +ø.	"It's not a left hand."
3inan neg.be left.hand:sg neg.	(Prefix <i>dà-,</i> root <i>gòb-</i> <u>14</u>)
<i>Bà à nĒ dígà.</i>	"They are dwarfs."
3PL COP FOC dwarf:PL.	(Affix vowel - <i>à</i>)
Kà Ōn zábì f. And BAN.CNTR fight 2SG.OB.	"And he fought you."

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 \dot{O} $p\bar{v}$ **záb** \dot{c} $f\bar{5}$ +ø. "He didn't fight you." 3AN NEG.IND fight 2SG.OB NEG.

Contrast the example with the epenthetic vowel in *mòluf*^o "gazelle" above:

 $Li k\bar{a}$ ' **mól** $t\bar{f}$ + \emptyset . "It's not a gazelle." 3INAN NEG.BE gazelle:SG NEG.

For possible phonological differences between epenthetic vowels and wordfinal short vowels before liaison *apart* from tones cf <u>4.7</u>; in any case word-division before liaison enclitics is justifiable morphosyntactically <u>1.3.1</u>. Epenthetic vowels liable to delinking 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 heterosyllabic delinking.

6 Word segmental structure

This section treats the structure of free words, along with bound words which have the same segmental and tonal form as free words. These comprise all combining forms, some clause-level particles and most preverbs.

Clause-linker particles, VP particles, the article, prepositions, the locative marker, and the bound pronouns resemble affixes of full words, with the same much-reduced "affix vowel" contrasts. 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 <u>6.6</u>. Most proclitics other than cbs have not undergone apocope; some end in long vowels impossible for SFs: $l\dot{\epsilon}\epsilon$ "but" <u>19.7.1</u> $ny\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon$ "habitually" <u>19.7.2</u>. However, some do have forms implying apocope, like $p\dot{a}$ ' "earlier today": glottalised short vowels occur only in closed syllables before *m* or *ŋ*, or by apocope <u>4.4</u>.

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:

sāan ^{a/}	"stranger"	[sa:n]
<i>úun^{nε}</i>	"dry season"	[?u:n], [u:n]

For simplicity, possible root shapes will be given as CV(C) CVV(C) elsewhere. Only b d g l m n s r occur as second consonants of roots.

Root vowels show the full range of possible Kusaal vowels, including contrastive length, nasalisation and glottalisation. The underlying basic vowels are

i ja/ε u ι υ а ua/ว ii iə иө 33 22 uu ιι аа υU

The digraphs represent *monophthongs*, short or long, affected by Agolle vowel breaking <u>4.2</u>. Underlying *ja ua* are in complementary distribution with ε o. Long vowels have glottalised counterparts, and all vowels have contrastively nasalised counterparts except for *ja ua u vu vv*.

Stems are derived from roots by adding up to three **derivational suffixes** <u>13</u> of the form *C*; nominals may add optional **prefixes** <u>14</u>.

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 <u>6.2</u>; 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 <u>6.1.1.2</u>.

Prefixes are of the forms *V CV CVn CVsin CVlin*. They only occur in nominal stems. Their vowels are limited to the short **affix vowels** *a i v* and show no contrastive glottalisation or nasalisation. A few stems have two successive prefixes.

tītā'ar ^ε	"big"	bùmbàrıg ^a	"ant"
sīlınsíùňg ^ɔ	"spider"	tàsıntàl ^{lɛ}	"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 ya*. These draw their vowels from the set of **affix vowels** *a ı v* which may be short or long, but show no diphthongs, 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 ιv appear before prosodic clitics lowered to ϵ 2.

Stem	bīi-	"child"	sg <i>bīig</i> a	pl <i>bīis</i> ε
	dòɔ-	"hut"	sg dòɔgɔ	pl dكُترو pl d
	kù'ө-	"water"	sg <i>kù'əm</i> m	

Before vowel-initial flexions CVV root-stems become CVC. In productive forms they become CVy or CVd:

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

No consonant clusters occur word-initially, and only -*mm* (from -*mv*) word-finally.

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

kùndùŋ ^a	"jackal"
gūmpūzēr ^{ɛ/}	"duck"

Apart from this, word-internal consonant clusters are limited to kk tt pp $\eta\eta$ nn mm ll mn, with exceptions only in loanwords like $b\dot{v}rkin^a$ "honourable person" (from Songhay.) Compounds like $nw\bar{a}d$ - $bíl^a$ "star" are not single words 1.3.1.

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 v by adjacent consonants or after a short rounded root vowel <u>4.6</u>.

Stem <i>ňwād</i>	- "month"	+ sg - <i>ga</i>	\rightarrow	ňwādıgá	LF	ňwādıg	SF
		+ pl <i>-sι</i>	\rightarrow	ňwādısć	LF	ňwādıs	SF
kūg-	"chair"	+ sg - <i>ga</i>	\rightarrow	kūka	LF	kūk	SF
		+ pl <i>-sι</i>	\rightarrow	kūguse	LF	kūgus	SF
nób-	"leg"	+ sg - <i>rı</i>	\rightarrow	nóbırē	LF	nóbìr	SF
dūm-	"knee"	+ sg - <i>rι</i>	\rightarrow	dūmnɛ	LF	dūm	SF
		+ pl - <i>aa</i>	\rightarrow	dūmaa	LF	dūma	SF

Diphthongs result from deletion of postvocalic *g with subsequent vowel fusion and fronting or rounding of vowel morae before $*-ya *-gv *-kkv *-\eta\eta v$. Apocope removes conditioning factors for diphthong formation and for the quality contrast in epenthetic vowels, leaving these contrastive:

vīid ^{ε/}	← *viidι	"owls"
vīug ^{ɔ/}	← *viigυ	"owl"
āaňdıg ^a	← *ããdıga	"black plum tree"
gàadvg ^o	← *gaadıgv	"(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 <u>6.3</u>.

In flexion, non-glottalised roots show a long vowel before the class suffixes $-g^{a} - g^{2}$ and short elsewhere, with following $*d \rightarrow tt *b \rightarrow pp$ (but not $*m \rightarrow mm *l \rightarrow ll$):

fūug ^{ɔ/}	"clothing"	pl <i>fūt^{ε/}</i>	
pว̄วg ^{ɔ/}	"field"	pl <i>pɔ̄t^{ɛ/}</i>	
dòɔgɔ	"hut"	pl dòt ^ε	
dāvg ⁵	"male"	cf <i>dāp</i> a	"men"
bīig ^a	"child"	cf bīl a	"little"
gāaň ^{=/}	"ebony tree" (*gããga)	cf gāňr^{ε/}	"ebony fruit"
ňyē+	"see"	ipfv <i>ňyēt^{a/}</i>	imp <i>ňyὲm</i> ª
dū+	"rise"	ipfv <i>dūt</i> a/	imp dùm a
lù+ or lì+	"fall"	ipfv <i>lùt</i> a or <i>lìt</i> a	imp <i>lùm</i> ª or <i>lìm</i> ª
zò+	"run"	ipfv <i>zòt</i> a	imp <i>zòm</i> a
dì+	"eat"	ipfv <i>dìt</i> a	imp dìm a
yī+	"emerge"	ipfv yīt^{a/}	imp yìm a
kē+	"allow"	ipfv <i>kēt^{a/}</i>	imp <i>kèl</i> ^a

Some words which never appear with $-g^{a}$ or $-g^{2}$ show short vowels throughout:

yīr ^{ɛ/}	"house"	pl yā +/
zā+/	"millet"	
kī ^{+/}	"cereal, millet"	
mùį+	"rice"	

 $Z\bar{u}g^{5/}$ "head" pl $z\bar{u}t^{\epsilon/}$ cb $z\bar{u}g$ - or $z\bar{u}$ - is exceptional in showing a short vowel before $-g^{5}$. There may be two originally distinct stems *zu- and *zug-: cf Farefare $z\acute{u}ug\acute{o}$ pl zuto, Mampruli zugu pl zuguri.

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

fūug ^{ɔ/}	"clothing"	pl fūud ^{ɛ/}	or fūt ^{ε/}
pɔ̄ɔg ^{ɔ/}	"field"	pl pɔ̄ɔd ^{ɛ/}	or pɔ̄t ^{ε/}
dòɔg ^ɔ	"hut"	pl dòɔd ^ɛ	or dɔ̀t ^ε
dāvg ^o	"male"	pl <i>dāad</i> ɛ	
gāaň ^{=/}	"ebony tree"	pl gāaňsɛ/	
bīig ^a	"child"	pl bīisɛ	

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

	dìıs ^ɛ dàalım ^m	"feed" "masculinity"	cf cf	dì+ dāp ^a	"eat" "men"
but	gɔ̄sɛ	"look"		ipfv <i>gɔ̃t^{a/}</i> or <i>gɔ̃sıd^{a/}</i>	imp gòm ^a or gòsım ^a
	tìsε	"give"		ipfv tìt ^a or tìsıd ^a	5
	yīs ^ε	"make go/come ou	ıt"	yī+	"emerge"

The causative $y\bar{s}^{\epsilon}$ has a by-form $y\bar{i}s^{\epsilon}$ which is clearly shown to be analogical by its gerund $y\bar{i}s(b^{2})$, the sole 3-mora stem in the b^{2} class.

Gerunds in $-b^{2}$ always show long vowels: $d\bar{\iota}b^{2}$ "food", $n\bar{\gamma}\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon b^{2/}$ "seeing", and so, normally, do gerunds in $-r^{\epsilon}$: $n\bar{2}-l\dot{2}\dot{2}r^{\epsilon}$ "fasting" ("mouth-tying"), $f\bar{u}-\gamma\epsilon\epsilon r^{\epsilon}$ "shirt-wearing" (WK, nonce-formation), but WK cited two instances of a short vowel before $-r^{\epsilon}$: $n\bar{a}'-l\dot{2}r^{\epsilon}$ "place in a compound for tying up cows" and $w\dot{\iota}d-l\bar{2}r^{\epsilon/}$ "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*-; three probable **CVw* roots show no current *-*wa* LF variants 2.4.2:

	tōe ^{a/} vūe ^{a/} àe̯ň ^a	"be bitter" "be alive" "be something"	tōɔg ^ɔ vū'υg ^{ε/} àaňlím ^m	"bitter" "come alive" gerund
or	sā <u>e</u> ň ^a sāe̯ň+	"blacksmith"	pl <i>sāaňb</i> ^a	
or	sวēeň ^a sวēeň+	"witch"	pl <i>sōɔňb</i> ª	
	dāu ⁺ tāuň ^{+/} tòň ⁺	"man", Mooré <i>ráoa</i> "opposite-sex sib" "shoot", Mooré <i>tão</i>	pl dāp ^a pl tāňp ^{a/} tāňp ^ɔ	"war"

This suggests that $CV(C) \sim CVV$ alternations historically involved *CVy *CVwroots, with the final consonant preserved before *-a*, or assimilated $*yd \rightarrow tt$, $*yr \rightarrow r(r)$, $*wb \rightarrow pp$, or deleted with subsequent vowel fusion. Mooré cognates support this, but extensive levelling has evidently confused the picture. Some roots probably are simply *CV; this may explain the unexpected absence of L spreading after a few cbs <u>7.2.4</u>. Such roots may have acquired *CVy-type forms by analogy.

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

kùkɔ̃rɛ/	"voice"	pl <i>kùkōyá</i> +
gāňr ^{ε/}	"fruit of Nigerian ebony"	pl <i>gāňyá</i> +
bàlàar ^ɛ	"stick, club"	pl <i>bàlàya</i> +
nɔ̄ɔr ^{ε/}	"mouth"	pl <i>nōyá</i> +
<i>z</i> ῡυr ^ε	"tail"	pl <i>zūya</i> +

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

bīər ^{ɛ/}	"elder same-sex sibling"	pl <i>bįēyá</i> +
sūθr ^{ε/}	"road"	pl <i>sųēyá</i> +
zūθr ^ε	"hill"	pl <i>zųēya</i> +

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

yū'טr ^{ɛ/}	"name"	pl <i>yūdá</i> +
pòň'ɔr ^ɛ	"cripple"	pl <i>pòňda</i> +
tītā'ar ^ɛ	"big"	pl <i>tītāda</i> +
уū'өr ^ɛ	"penis"	pl <i>yųāda</i> +

Stems in *-*ag*- *-*jag*- *-*yag*- <u>6.3</u> may inflect as *CVC*- stems, or may show analogical forms with -*d*-:

si̯à'ar ^ɛ	"forest"	pl sįà'a ⁺
bà'ar [€]	"idol"	pl bà'a ⁺ or bàda ⁺ *bagrı; Farefare bàgrè
bįāň'ar ^{ε/}	"mud, riverbed"	pl <i>bi̯áň</i> 'a+
mὺ'ar ^ε	"reservoir, dam"	pl <i>mu្'àa</i> + or <i>mù'ada</i> +
zànkù'ar ^ɛ	"jackal"	pl zànku̯'àa+ or zànkù'ada+

kò+ pòod ^a	"break" intrans "be few"	kờ'ɔg ^ε pờ'ɔg ^ε	"break" trans/intrans "diminish"
vūe ^{a/}	"be alive"	<i>vū</i> ' <i>ug</i> ٤/	"make, come alive"
nīn-múa ⁺	"concentration"	mù'e ⁺ (*mɔ̃ɔ̃gι)	"intensify" <u>6.3</u>
kòɔlúŋɔ	"broken"	kờ'ɔs ^ε	"break several times"
tòň+	"shoot"	tòň'ɔs ^ε	"hunt"
vūę ^{a/}	"be alive"	νῡ'υςε/	"breathe, rest"
yÈ ⁺	"dress oneself"	yÈEg ^E	"undress oneself"
dì+	"eat"	dìιs ^ε	"feed"

Roots ending in \mathfrak{I} or v become glottalised before derivational *g and *s:

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

	pē'-sá'a ⁼ pɔ'ɔ-sa'a	"ewe lamb" "young woman" (Toende)		pu̯'à-sādır ^{ɛ/} pùgsádà	"young woman" "young woman" (Mooré)
cf	l5+ lo lóe	"tie" "tie" (Dagbani) "tie" (Mooré)		lɔ̄dıg ^{ɛ/} lɔrgi lókè or lódgè	"untie" "untie" (Dagbani) "untie" (Mooré)
cf	рѿ ⁺ р <i></i> і	"divide" "divide" (Mooré)		pūdıg ^{ɛ/}	"divide"
cf	bòı	" <i>perdre, disparaître</i> " (Toende)		bòdıg ^ɛ bóríg	"lose, get lost": " <i>fondre, disparaître</i> " (Toende)
	dā <u>u</u> +	"man"	cf	bī-díbìŋ ^a bìríblá bìpúglá pu̯'ā	"boy" "boy" (Mooré) "girl" (Mooré) "woman" (* <i>pu̯ag-</i>)
cf	nō+ nao	"tread" "tread" (Mooré)		nōbá+	"feet"; sg <i>nóbìr^ɛ</i> is modelled on the pl (cf Toende sg <i>nɔ̄'ɔ̄t</i>)
	wìid ^a vī ^{·+}	"draw water" ipfv "uproot"		wìk ^ɛ vīk ^{ɛ/}	pfv (← *wiggı) "uproot" (← *viggı)

but

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:

<i>zíiŋ</i> ª (← *zīímgā)	zīm(+	zīm-	"fish"
náaf ^o (← *nāágfū)	nīig(+	nā'- (← *nāg-)	"cow"
wáaf ^ɔ (← *wāágfū)	wīig(+	wā'- (← *wāg-)	"snake"
pīim ^{m/}	pīmá+		"arrow"
yὺυm ^{mε}	yùma+		"year"

The alternation also appears in derivation:

tūvma+	"work" noun	tùm ^m	"work" verb
yēóŋ	"one"	yīuŋ ^{ɔ/}	"single"
kāal ^{ε/}	"count"	<i>kāl^{lɛ/}</i>	"number"
màal ^ε	"sacrifice" verb	māluŋ ^ɔ	"sacrifice" noun
tūvlúg ⁵	"hot"	tōl ^{la/}	"be hot"

Before verb-deriving suffixes the short allomorph always appears:

pìəlıg ^a	"white"	pèlıg ^ɛ	"whiten"
kpī oŋ ^ɔ	"strong"	kpὲ'ŋ²	"strengthen"
lìəb ^ɛ	"become"	lèbıg ^ɛ	"turn over"
tūvlúg ⁵	"hot"	tūlιg ^{ε/}	"heat"
yāar ^{ɛ/}	"scatter"	yādıg ^{ε/}	"scatter"
dēɛŋª	"first"	dèŋ ^ɛ	"go first"
pìəb ^ɛ	"blow" (flute)	pèbıs ^ɛ	"blow" (wind)
yùul ^ɛ	"swing" intrans	yùlıg ^ɛ	"swing" transitive
Ēεňb ^{ε/}	"lay a foundation"		cf Mooré <i>yếbgè id</i>

The only derivational suffix found after a CVVC allomorph is -*l*- in -*l* ι *m*-"-ness/-hood" <u>13.2.2</u>:

sáannìm^m "strangerhood" (**saanlımmv*)

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 <u>6.5</u>.

cf

6.2 Consonant cluster assimilation

The deletion of underlying *g after short *a ia ua an ian uan* and long *aa ia ua aan ɛɛn ɔɔn* follows the changes described in this section.

Except between a prefix and a root, adjacent consonants within a word must either assimilate to one of the clusters *kk pp tt ŋŋ mm nn ll mn* or insert an

epenthetic vowel (*ι* by default); *kk pp tt חָח* are written with single symbols: *k p t ŋ*. Roots can end only in vowels or in *g d b m n r s l*; stems may also end in

consonant clusters or k t p ŋ; flexional suffixes begin with vowels or g d b m r s l f y.
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.

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

$1^{st}\downarrow 2^{nd} \rightarrow$	g	d	b	m	r	s	1	f	у
g	kk	ə	ə	ə	Ð	ə			ə
d	Ð	tt	ə	ə	ə	ə			
b	Ð	ə	рр	[mm]	ə	ə			ə
m	ŊŊ	mn	mm	mm	mn	[:̃s]	nn		
n	ŊŊ	nn	mm	ə	nn	ĩs	nn	~f	nn
r	Ð	ə	ə	ə	r	ə	tt	ə	r
S	Ð	ə	ə	ə	ə	ə			
I	Ð	nn	ə	ə	11	ə	11	ə	11

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 → mm	only occurs after a short root vowel
ms → :̃ <mark>s</mark>	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 *kvlinsi

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

bōtιŋ^a "cup" pl *bōtιιs*^ε

This reflects a reanalysis of the form as noun prefix $b\overline{v} + t\overline{i}\eta^a \underline{2.3}$.

***nf** becomes *f* with nasalisation of a preceding root vowel, but there is no lengthening of a short preceding root vowel in the only case which occurs:

nīf ^{o/}	"eye"	pl	nīn(+
píıňf ^o	"genet"	pl	pīıní+
* rr becomes <i>r</i> in e	.g.		
kùkpàr ^ɛ	"palm fruit"	pl	kùkpàra+
* <i>rr</i> → <i>r</i> is an active process in phrase-level sandhi <u>8.5.1</u> . * <i>ss</i> inserts an epenthetic vowel in			

pūsıg^{a/} pūsıs^{ɛ/} pūs- "tamarind"

However, all other examples of $g^a|s^{\epsilon}$ plurals ending in $-s\iota s^{\epsilon}$ in my materials are for *- $s\iota ns\iota$, from stems in **m*. A plural * $p\bar{u}s^{\epsilon/}$ would have appeared to show no ending in SF; nouns usually avoid such ambiguity by selecting a different flexion <u>9.1</u>, but there is a very strong association of tree names with the $g^a|s^{\epsilon}$ class and of their fruits with the $r^{\epsilon}|a^+$ and $g^{\circ}|d^{\epsilon}$ <u>30.5</u>; $p\bar{u}s\dot{a}^+$ in fact means "tamarind fruits."

Derivation precedes flexion in consonant cluster formation.

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

sวิททเr ^ะ	sɔ̄nna+	sòn-	"inner <i>zàk</i> wall"
sāngúnnìr ^ɛ	sāngúnnà+	sāngún-	"millipede"
vènnıg ^a	νὲnnιs ^ε	vèn-	"beautiful"
vÈnnır ^ɛ	v <i></i> enna ⁺		

With *-nn*- from **nd* <u>13.2.1.2.1</u>:

bùn ^ɛ	"reap"	\rightarrow	bōn-búnnìr ^ε	"thing for reaping"
gīlıg ^{ɛ/}	"go around"	\rightarrow	pu̯'à-gīnníg ^a	"prostitute"
<i>kēŋ^{ɛ/}</i>	"go"	\rightarrow	bùŋ-kɛ̄nnír ^ɛ	"moving donkey"
νūl ^ε	"swallow"	\rightarrow	tì-vōnním ^m	"oral medication"

The verbs tam^m "forget", zam^m "cheat, betray", dam^m "shake" and lam^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: $tammug^2 zammug^2 dammug^2 lammug^2$. The *mm* is probably from **mb*: cf Mooré *zâmbe* "*tricher*", *râmbe* "*remuer*", *lembe* "*goûter*". These verbs assimilate **mbm* \rightarrow *mm* in the imperative <u>11.1</u>. Apart from this, stem-final -*mm*- and -*mn*- never assimilate further:

sūmmır ^ɛ yīmmír ^ɛ	sūmma+ yīmmá+	sùm- yīm-	"groundnut" "solitary" Mooré <i>yémbré</i> "one"
With -mm	<i>mn</i> - clusters fror	n -* <i>md</i> - <u>13.2.1.2.1</u> :	
kìm ^m	"tend flock"	→ kòňb-kīm ^{na} kòňb-kīmmıb ^a or kòňb-kīmnıb ^a	"shepherd"
tùm ^m	"work"	→ būn-túmmìr ^ɛ tōmmır ^ɛ DK Wŀ pl tōmna+ DK	"useful thing" C "useful"

tūmma+

tùmmím-tāa⁼

WK

"co-worker"

Stems in *ll* r(r) completely assimilate the following initial of the noun class suffix $-r^{\varepsilon}$. This has led to the sg SF forms of agent nouns from single-aspect verbs in *ll* 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. The sg tones of the deverbal adjective in $k \dot{v} g - d \bar{\varepsilon} l^{|\varepsilon|}$ "chair for leaning on" (not $*k \dot{v} g - d \tilde{\varepsilon} l^{|\varepsilon|}$) are probably analogical.

 \rightarrow

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 (see below.)

tùm^m

"work"

dìgın ^ɛ	dìgınıd ^a	dìgınım ^a	"lie down"
dìgınvg ⁵			gerund
gờ'ɔn ^ε	gò'ɔnıd ^a	gò'ɔnım ^a	"extend neck"

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

	bùn ^ε būnιb ^ɔ	bùn ^{na}	bùnım ^a	"reap" gerund
	3-mora <i>m</i> -stem	s show epenthesis <i>op</i>	tionally:	
	tōɔm ^{m/}	tóɔm ^{ma} or tɔ̄ɔmíd ^a	tòɔm ^{ma}	"depart"
	tóɔŋɔ			gerund
or	tōɔmúg ^ɔ			
	kàrım ^m	kàrım ^m	kàrım ^{ma}	"read"
		or <i>kàrımıd</i> a		
	kàrvŋ ^ɔ			gerund
or	kàrımvg ⁵			

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 $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$, and require forms with epenthesis everywhere else:

Ň pῦ kárìmmā.	"I'm not reading."
À 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:

tùm ^m	tùm ^{ma}	tùm ^{ma}	"work"
wùm ^m	wùm ^{ma}	wùm ^{ma}	"hear"

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

Lin wusa ka ya tumid, tumi li ... Lìn wūsa kà yà từmid, 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 kpɛ̀n wv̀mid yɛ́ m̀ bɛ́ɛ lì pvvgv-n nānná-nā lā. and still still hear: IPFV that ISG EXIST 3INAN inside: SG-LOC now ART. "and are still hearing that I am in it now." (Phil 1:30)

Single -*n*- after a stem-internal epenthetic vowel may represent original **nd*. *Pībun^{nɛ}* pl *pībuna⁺* "covering" <u>12.2.2</u> has single -*n*- for my informants, but Mooré cognate has -*nd*-: *pìbíndgà* "*couvercle*." The Mooré equivalent of the assume-stance suffix -*n*- <u>13.1.1</u> is -*nd*-: *zī* "être assis", *zīndi* "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.

Examples of assimilation:

* <i>gg → kk</i>	gìgıs ^ɛ	"dumb people"	sg	gìk ^a
cf	kɔ̄lıs ^ɛ	"river"	sg	kɔ̄lıgª
*dd → tt	bùd ^ɛ	"plant"	ipfv	bùt ^a
cf	dūg ^ɛ	"cook"	ipfv	dūgud ^{a/}
*bb→ pp	sīb ^ɛ	"write"	ger	sɔ̄p ^{ɔ/}
cf	kpàr ^ɛ	"lock"	ger	kpārıb ^ɔ
* <i>ld → nn</i>	kòlvg ^o	"bag"	pl	kòn ^{nε}
cf	zūøbúg ^o	"hair"	pl	zūøbíd ^ε
*mg → ŋŋ	bὺmιs ^ε	"donkeys"	sg	bùŋ ^a
cf	ňwādιs ^{ε/}	"months"	sg	ňwādıg ^{a/}
*ng → ŋŋ	gbàna+	"books"	sg	gbàựŋ ^ɔ
cf	wābıd ^{ɛ/}	"elephants"	sg	wābvg ^{ɔ/}
*nr → nn	tāna+	"earths"	sg	tān ^{nɛ}
cf	dìga+	"dwarfs"	sg	dìgır ^ɛ
*mr → mn	dūma+	"knees"	sg	dūm ^{nɛ}
cf	nībá+	"legs"	sg	nóbìr ^ɛ
$*/r \to //$ cf	gēlá+	"eggs"	sg	gél ^{le}
	kūgá+	"stones"	sg	kūgvr ^{e/}

*nb → mm	sāan ^{a/}	"stranger"	pl	sáam ^{ma}	
cf	nīd ^{a/}	"person"	pl	nīdıb ^{a/}	
*mb → mm	kìm ^m	"tend flock"	ger	kīm ^{mɔ}	
cf	kàd ^ε	"drive away"	ger	kādıb ⁵	
* →	Bùl ^{lε}	"Buli"	cf	Bùlιs ^ε	"Bulsa"
	Àgòl ^{lɛ}	"Agolle Kusaal"	cf	Àgòl ^{lɛ}	"Agolle area"
*rl → tt	Bāt ^{ε/}	"Bisa language"	cf	Bārιs ^{ε/}	"Bisa people"
	Yāt ^{ε/}	"Yarsi language"	cf	Yārıs ^{ε∕}	"Yarsi people"
but	Ňwāmpūrıl ^{ɛ,}	[/] "Mampruli"	cf	Ňwāmpūrเs ^ŧ	^{:/} "Mamprussi"
*ml → nn	Dàgbān ^{nε/}	"Dagbani"	cf	Dàgbām ^{ma/}	"Dagomba"
	Yàan ^{nɛ}	"Yansi language"	cf	Yàamıs ^ɛ	"Yansi people"
but	Kàmbùnır ^ɛ	"Twi"	cf	Kàmbùmเs ^ɛ	"Ashanti"
*nl → nn	Gōrín ^{nɛ}	"Farefare language"	cf	Gūrís ^ɛ	"Farefare people"

6.3 Deletion of *g with vowel fusion

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

Underlying ******g* is deleted after a *ja ua aň jaň uaň* before any vowel, with fusion resulting in glottalised 2-mora vowel sequences:

*agV	→ a'a	*aňgV	→ aň'a
*įagV	→ įa'a	*įaňgV	→ įaň'a
*µagV	→ $\upsilon'a$ (word-final $\mu'aa$)	*u̯aňgV	<i>→ אוו</i> 'a (word-final עֵחׁ'aa)

This rule applies later than the assimilation $*gg \rightarrow kk \ \underline{6.2}$; thus e.g.

zàk ^a	"compound"	zà'as ^ɛ	plural	(g ^a s ^ε class)
lāuk ⁵	"item of goods"	lā'ad ^ε	plural	(g ⁵ d ^ε class)
yàk ^ɛ	"unhang"	yà'al ^ε	"hang up"	
pįàuňk ^o	"word"	pi̯àň'ad ^ɛ	plural	(g^ɔ d^ɛ class)
pųāk ^a	"female" (adj)	pū'as ^ε	plural	(g ª s ^ε class)
bàk ^o	"pit"	bὺ'ad ^ε	plural	(g^ͻ d^ε class)

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

pįāň' ^a	"speak" pfv	pįāň'ad ^{a/}	ipfv	
pự'ā ^a	"woman"	pū'ab ^a	plural	(^a b ^a class)

The sole single-aspect verb form unexpectedly has a fronting diphthong:

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

The sequences $\underline{i}a'a \ v'a \ \underline{i}a\ddot{n}'a \ v\ddot{n}'a$ contrast with long $\underline{i'a} \ u'a \ \underline{i}\ddot{n}'a \ u\ddot{n}'a$, except when shortened by apocope 2.4.2. However, there is no phonetic difference between the $\underline{a'a} \ \underline{a}\ddot{n}'a$ arising from *g deletion and underlying glottalised $\underline{a'a} \ \underline{a}\ddot{n}'a$, as in

 $d\dot{a}'a^{=}$ "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: $b\dot{a}'a^{\varepsilon}$ "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 *i*a'a *v*'a 2.4.2. Haaf 1967 has *baga* for $b\bar{a}'a$ "diviner" and *winbagr* for $w\bar{n}-b\dot{a}'\dot{a}r$ "altar", alongside *bab* for the plural $b\bar{a}'ab^a$ "diviners."

Underlying ***g** is deleted after *aa iə uo aaň* $\varepsilon \varepsilon \check{n} \ \mathcal{D}\mathcal{D}\check{n}$, 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	<i>→ aa</i> <u>8.1</u>	*aagı	<i>→ aee</i>
*iəga	→ iaa	*iəgı	<i>→ iee</i>
*uөga	→ uaa	*u <i>ө</i> gı	<i>→ uee</i>

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

	būvg ^a		"goat"	pl <i>būυs</i> ε
but	bāa ⁼	← *baaga	"dog"	pl <i>bāas</i> ɛ
	sīa+	← *siəga	"waist"	pl <i>sīəs</i> ɛ
	sàbùa+	← *sabuøga	"lover"	pl <i>sàbùøs</i> ɛ

The diphthongs *aee iee uee* appear in dual-aspect verbs with stems in **Caag* **Ciəg* **Cuøg* and their glottalised counterparts (see below on the nasalised equivalents); compare the forms with the suffix *-*g*- "become, make" seen in

	kpì'e+	← *kpi'əgι	"approach"
	kpì'əs ^ε	← *kpi'əsι	"neighbours"
cf	tēbιg ^{ε/}		"get/make heavy"
	tēbisír ^e		"heavy"

Many such "fusion verbs" exist, with perfectives in $-ae^+ -ie^+ -ue^+ \frac{11.1}{2}$, e.g.

pāe+/	← *paagι	"reach"
dūe+/	← *duøgι	"raise, rise"

There are no underlying nasalised i = n u = n; instead $\varepsilon \in n \to \infty$ appear <u>6.1</u>. However, *g is deleted after nasal $\varepsilon \in n \to \infty$ (unlike their oral equivalents $\varepsilon \in \infty$) in the same contexts as after i = u = 0 (i.e. before an affix vowel a or ι), and the resulting diphthongs coincide in vowel quality with those produced with i = u = 0:

*ããga	<i>→ аа</i> й <u>8.1</u>	*ããgı	→ аеей
*ɛ̃ɛ̃ga	→ iaaň	*ɛ̃ɛ̃gı	<i>→ ieeň</i>
*ɔ̃ɔ̃ga	→ uaaň	* <i>ゔ</i> ゔgเ	<i>→ ueeň</i>

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 *iaň uaň* and word-internal $\epsilon\epsilon ň$ so ň before a consonant:

zìň'a ⁺	← *zε̃'ε̃ga	"red" g ^a s ^ε class sg	
zèň'ɛsɛ	← *zἕ'ἕsι	"red" g ^a s ^ε class pl	
zὲň'εd ^ε	← *zɛ̃'ɛ̃dı	"red" $g^{D} d^{\varepsilon}$ class pl	
dùaň+	← *dɔ̃ɔ̃ga	"dawadawa" sg	
dòɔňs ^ɛ	← *dゔゔsı	"dawadawa" pl	
nūa+/	← *nゔゔga	"hen"	
nɔ̄ɔs ^{ɛ/}	← *ทวีวีรเ	"hens"	
Mùa ⁺	← *Mɔ̃ɔ̃ga	"Mossi person"	
Μὸͻϧε	← *Mõõsı	"Mossi people"	
Мòɔg ^ɔ	← *Mɔ̃ɔ̃gυ	"Mossi country"	
ΜὸͻͿε	← *Mゔゔlı	"Mooré language"	

In derivation the rule causes alternation between fusion verb forms from *- $g\iota$, ending in SF *ieň ueň*, and cognate forms with $\epsilon\epsilon n \ 20n$.

nìe ⁺	← *nɛ̃ɛ̃gı	"appear"
nèɛlɛ	← *nε̃ε̃lι	"reveal"

pūň'e ^{+/}	← *pɔ̃'ɔ̃gι	"rot"
pɔ៑ň'ɔl ^{ɛ/}	← *pɔ̃'ɔ̃lı	"cause to rot"
ňyū'e ^{+/}	← *yɔ̃'ɔ̃gι	"set alight"
ňyɔ̄'ɔs ^{ε/}	 + *yɔ̃'ɔ̃sι 	"smoke" (noun)
sūeň+/	← *sɔ̃ɔ̃gι	"anoint"
sɔ̃ň+	← *sɔ̃ɔ̃	"rub"
zìň'a+	← *zɛ̃'ɛ̃ga	"red" g ^a s ^ε class sg
zὲň'og ^ɔ	← *zε̃'ε̃gυ <u>6.4</u>	"red" g ^ͻ d ^ε class sg

The fronting effect of *- $g\iota$ differs from the fronting caused by *-y- <u>6.4</u>:

sūň'e ^{+/}	 + sɔ̃'ɔ̃gι 	"become better than" WK
sɔ̃ň'e ^{ya/}	← *sɔ̃'ɔ̃ya	"be better than"

When *aa iə 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 <u>7.2.1.1</u>.

náaf ^o	<i>← *nāágf</i> ū	"cow"	pl <i>nīigí</i> +	cb <i>nā</i> ' -
dí'ər ^ɛ	← *dī'ágrī	"receiving"	cf dī e +/	"get" ← *dī'əgí
νúθr ^ε	← *vūǿgrī	fruit of <i>vúøŋ</i> ª tree	pl <i>vūáa</i> =	

Surface *iəň uəň* appear in just one context: fusion verbs with nasal vowels introduce *iəň uəň* into the imperfective, imperative and gerund forms:

	nèɛr ^ɛ		"empty" (← "clear")
but	nìər ^ɛ		gerund of <i>nìe</i> + "appear"
	pɔ៑ň'ɔl ^{ɛ/}	 + *p3̈'3lι 	"cause to rot"
but	púň' o r ^ε		gerund of <i>pūň'e^{+/}</i> "rot"
	pūň'ød ^{a/}		ipfv

This is readily attributable to analogy with verbs with oral vowels:

	pūň'e ^{+/}	pfv	pūň'ød ^{a/}	ipfv	púň'θr ^ε	ger	"rot"
cf	dūe+/	pfv	dūød ^{a/}	ipfv	dúør ^ε	ger	"raise"

However, the gerund vowels are probably original. Imperfectives like *pon'od* appear in texts, but not **pon'or* or **neer* for gerunds like $p\acute{u}\breve{n}$ ' er^{ϵ} "rotting" or $n\wr er^{\epsilon}$ "appearing." Gerunds seem unlikely to be subject to levelling when finite forms are not <u>7.3</u>. Tonal evidence suggests that **g* was never present in the ipfv of fusion verbs

<u>7.3.1</u>: forms like pon'od $p\bar{}_{}\bar{}_{}n'_{}d^{a'}$ would also reflect this. However, gerund tones show phonologically-determined *loss* of *g. Historically, *g-deletion probably followed insertion of an epenthetic vowel between *g and a following consonant; absorption of this vowel by the preceding *i* $\bar{}_{}n$ *i* $u\bar{}_{}n$ *i* may have resulted in sequences which were still distinct from other *i* $\bar{}_{}n$ *i* $u\bar{}_{}n$ *i* at the point where those fell together with $\epsilon\epsilon\bar{n}$ $_{}D\bar{n}$.

6.4 Diphthongisation before *-ya *-gv *-kkv *-ŋŋv

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

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 2.4:

SF	vūę	LF	vūyá	"be alive"
SF	tōẹ	LF	tōyá	"be bitter"
SF	sā <u>e</u> ň	LF	sāňya	"blacksmith"
SF	sīeň	LF	sōňya	"witch"

Before y, long vowels undergo fronting of a back second mora to e [I]:

SF	sū'e	LF	sū'eyá	"own" <i>sū</i> 'e ^{ya/}
cf	<i>รง</i> ิ' <i>งlím</i> ^m			"property"
SF	s <i>īň</i> 'e	LF	sōň'eyá	"be better than" <i>sɔ̃ň</i> 'e ^{ya/}

Rounding: short unrounded root vowels become diphthongs in u before LF **kkv* אָקָטָרָיָי

gbàỵŋ ^ɔ	← *gbaŋŋט	"book"	pl <i>gbàna</i> +
lāuk ^o	← *lakkv	"goods item	"pl <i>lā</i> 'ad ^ɛ
yīuŋ ^{ɔ/}	← *уเŋŋʋ	"single"	pl yīná+
sàbùa+	← *sabuøga	"lover"	pl <i>sàbùøs</i> ɛ

Tense *i* does not become a diphthong in the only case in my materials:

nìn-gbīŋ^{ɔ/} "body" pl nìn-gbīná⁺

The vowel may simply be taken from the alternative singular $n i n - g b \bar{l} n^{\epsilon/}$.

6.4

Short *ja* becomes the short diphthong *jay*:

bįāµňk ^ɔ	← *bįãkkv	"shoulder"	pl <i>bi̯āň'ad</i> ε
Short <u>v</u> a bee	comes ⊃: *uakku → okku		
bòk ^ɔ	← *bu̯akku	"pit"	pl <i>bù'ad</i> ɛ

Long vowels undergo rounding of a back second mora before LF $*gv*\eta\eta v$. The second mora is always high.

	dàad [€]		"logs"
but	dàvg ⁵	← *daagv	"log"
	fēň'ɛdɛ/		"ulcers"
but	fēň'og ^{ɔ/}	← *fɛ̃'ɛ̃gυ	"ulcer"

The second mora of the long vowel *ii* becomes tense *u*, giving *iu*; this contrasts with the second mora of the long vowel *i* ∂ , which becomes [v], giving *io* [iv]:

	vīug ^{ɔ/}	← *viigv	"owl"	pl <i>vīid</i> ε/
but	dàbīog ⁵	← *dabiəgv	"coward"	pl dàbīəd ^ɛ
	kpī oŋ ^ɔ	← *kpi'əŋŋv	"strong"	pl <i>kpī</i> "əma+

A parallel case with uu/uv does not occur, because of a rule * $uegv \rightarrow cocur$:

	Sà'dàbòɔg ^ɔ	← *Sa'dabuøgv	"place of the Sarabose clan"
cf	Sà'dàbùøs ^ɛ		"Sarabose clan members"
	lām-fɔ́ɔ̀gɔ	← *lam-fuøgv	"toothless"
			(<i>lām^{mɛ/}</i> "gum" <i>fùe</i> + "draw out")

The **epenthetic vowel** *ι* is rounded to *ν* before LF *-*gv* *-*ŋv*:

	āaňdıg ^a	← *ããdıga	"black plum tree"
but	gàadvg ⁵	← *gaadıgv	"(sur)passing" (gerund)
pl	mālıma+	← *malımaa	"sacrifices"
but	mālvŋ ^ɔ	← *malเŋŋบ	"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 $d\bar{a}\mu$ "man" are followed by [?] before pause in statements, just like words ending in short vowels <u>4.4</u>. It is preferable to make word-internal fronting and rounding rules precede apocope <u>2.1</u>. (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.)

6.5 Vowel 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 *k t p*:

gàad ^ɛ	"pass"	gàt ^a	"pass" ipfv
tēεg ^{ε/}	"drag" ILK	tēk ^{ɛ/}	"pull" (*tɛɛkkı)

Hausa loanwords show this to be phonological, not morphophonemic:

àtìỵk ^ɔ	"sea"	\leftarrow	tèeku	"sea"
kótù+	"court"	\leftarrow	kootù	"court" (← English)

3-mora vowel sequences arise by vowel fusion <u>6.3</u> or by liaison before the pronoun $^{\circ}$ <u>8.2.1</u>. 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:

 $v\bar{u}\dot{a}a^{=}$ \leftarrow *vuegaa "fruits of the $v\dot{u}ega$ " tree"

A 3-mora monophthong appears with apocope-blocking in $m\dot{a}$ 'aa "only" (but LF $m\dot{a}$ 'an $\bar{\epsilon}$ <u>6.6</u>); everywhere else, 3-mora monophthongs reduce to two morae <u>8.1</u>.

Before liaison, word-final 3-mora diphthongs are reduced to two morae and then monophthongised; they may diphthongise again before $^{o ya} ya^+ y\dot{a}$.

Short *i u* may appear where long vowels might be expected. $Z\bar{u}g^{\supset l}$ "head" is the sole case where non-glottalised $CV \sim CVV$ roots show a short allomorph before **g* <u>6.1.1.1</u> (cf Farefare $z\acute{u}ug\acute{o}$ *id*.) $S\bar{u}nf^{\bigcirc l}$ "heart" pl $s\bar{u}n\check{v}a^+$ is the only instance of short $un\check{n}$ not attributable to apocope <u>4.3</u>. $N\bar{n}f^{\bigcirc l}$ "eye" is the only case where * $nC \rightarrow C$ after a root vowel which remains short <u>6.2</u>. $B\dot{u}g\acute{o}m^m$ "fire" has the tonemes that would be regular for * $b\dot{u}ug\acute{o}m^m$. $D\bar{u}n\iota ya^+$ "world" corresponds to Hausa *duuniyàa* and $t\bar{l}ds^{\varepsilon}$ "necessity" to Hausa *tiilàs*. However, long *ii uu* occur in many words, and there seems to be no single regular shortening process involved.

6.6 Apocope-blocking

Certain full words have citation forms without apocope. The form is like a LF, without the lowering of postconsonantal final ιv to ε ι seen before prosodic clitics. Words with apocope-blocking ending in SF M toneme have LF-final H <u>7.1</u>.

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>:

bèdugū	"a lot"	<mark>g</mark> ͻ d ^ε	class sg
sùŋā	"well"	<mark>g</mark> a s ^ε	class sg
yīnní	"one"	r ^ε a ⁺	class sg
ànāasí	"four"	<mark>g</mark> a s ^ε	class pl
pāmm	"a lot"	<mark>т</mark> т	class

A number of nouns ending in ι^+ or $\iota^+ 9.5$ 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 $y\bar{a}$) and numerous enclitic particles.

Words with apocope-blocking may display final extra-long simple vowels: *mà*'*aa* "only." They change final *-mv* to *-mm*: *pāmm* "a lot."

Apocope-blocked words make secondary LFs before prosodic clitics by prolonging a short final vowel. Compare:

	Lì à nē dóòg.	"It's a hut."
	Lì kā' dɔ́ɔɡɔ̄.	"It's not a hut."
with	Lì à nẽ bédugū.	"It's a lot."
	Lì kā' bέdugúu.	"It's not a lot."

Before prosodic clitics which neutralise preceding length distinctions, the final vowels of such LFs contrast in quality alone with $\varepsilon \circ 8.1$.

Forms not ending in a short vowel add $-n\varepsilon$ to make the secondary LF:

pāmm SF pāmné LF	"a lot"	mà'aa SF mà'anε LF	"only"
gùllım ^{nɛ}	"only"	kòtàa ^{nɛ}	"at all"

The LF of $ny\bar{a}e^{n\epsilon/}$ "brightly, clearly" <u>17.4</u> is $ny\bar{a}en\epsilon$ [$j\tilde{a}\tilde{i}n\tilde{\epsilon}$]. Cf also $m\epsilon$ DK KT SB NT $m\epsilon n$ WK; clause-finally (all sources) $m\epsilon n^{\epsilon}$ "also, too."

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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</u> and deletion of *g <u>6.3</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>sīiňf^{ɔ/}</i> sg	<i>sīiňs^{ε/}</i> pl	<i>sīň-</i> cb	"bee"
píıňf ^o	pīıní+	pīın-	"genet"

The difference is due to the fact that "bee" has a 2-mora CVV stem $s\bar{i}in$, whereas "genet" has a 3-mora CVVC stem $p\bar{i}in$, 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:

pů'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:

0	Lì à nĒ kūk.	"It's a chair."
0	Lì kā' kūka.	"It's not a chair."
Н	Lì à nĒ dūk.	"It's a cooking pot."
Н	Lì kā' dūkó.	"It's not a cooking pot."

With SFs like $k\bar{v}k$ "chair" and $d\bar{v}k$ "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 $n\acute{a}af^{\circ}$ "cow" versus $n\acute{u}'\grave{u}g^{\circ}$ "hand", but this is simply due to tautosyllabic delinking 5.2.1. 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 $\underline{6.6}$ with SFs ending in M toneme change to final H in the LF:

SF <i>yā</i>	LF <i>yáa</i>	"houses"	yā ^{+/}
SF <i>bèdvgū</i>	LF bὲdυgύυ	"a lot"	bèdvgū+/

Superscript notation writes $y\bar{a}^{+/}b\dot{\epsilon}dvg\bar{v}^{+/}$ by the usual convention <u>2.4.1</u>. The only exception among free words is $k\dot{b}b\iota g\bar{a}^{=}$ "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

Word tonal structure

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 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 <u>2.3</u>, 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 non-irrealis verb forms. The tone-copying proposal gains support from the facts that cbs and perfectives are the only full word types not followed by M spreading when ending in L or H, that final morae of non-irrealis perfectives without tone overlay never show M before liaison and that M-final cbs are followed by L spreading. Pattern LO *imperfective* forms may historically always have been Pattern L rather than O <u>7.3 12.1</u>.

However, derivational suffixes frequently produce Pattern O stems when added to Pattern L root or stems, which is difficult to reconcile with an analysis of Pattern O stems as intrinsically toneless. The appearance of H tonemes on the third morae of four-mora Pattern L stems <u>7.2.2</u> suggests that Pattern L has an underlying non-initial M⁴ which becomes L or H or is deleted altogether by internal tone sandhi in surface forms; Pattern O is in contrast intrinsically all-L. For descriptive purposes it is not necessary to attribute underlying tonemes as such to derivational suffixes: Tone Patterns can simply be described in terms of their surface tonemes, with derivational suffixes classified by the Patterns they produce.

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 6.6.

⁴⁾ Toende Kusaal shows word-internal H after L in words where Agolle does not, such as zìlím "langue", Agolle SF zìlim versus the 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 <u>8.3</u> rather than a survival of an earlier stem tone pattern; cf SF bùŋá "âne", Agolle LF bùŋā.

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 ^{ε/}	vūyá+	vōr-	"alive"
yīr ^{ɛ/}	yā+/	yī-	"house"
fūug ^{ɔ/}	fūud ^{ε/}	fū-	"shirt, clothes"
dūk ^{ɔ/}	dūgud ^{ɛ/}	dūg-	"cooking pot"
nīd ^{a/}	nīdıb ^{a/}	nīn-	"person"
nīf ^{ɔ/}	nīní+	nīn- or nīf-	"eye"
kūgυr ^{ε/}	kūgá+	kūg-	"stone
gōt ^{a/}	<i>gōtíb</i> ª /tt/	gōt-	"seer, prophet"
sābılíg ^a	sābılís ^ɛ	sābıl-	"black"
yūgóm ^{mε}	yūgumá+	yūgum-	"camel
sāb(l ^{lɛ}	sābılá ⁺	sābıl-	"black"
dī'əs ^{a/}	dī əsídìb ^a	dī əs-	"receiver"
sūgvríd ^a	sūgvrídìb ^a	sūgvríd-	"forgiver, forbearer"
kū'alíŋ ^a	kū'alís ^ε	kō'alíŋ-	traditional smock

By tautosyllabic delinking, MH on a long vowel becomes single H:

sú'ອŋ ª /ŋŋ/	sū'θmís ^ε	sū'øŋ-	"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>5.2.1</u>. Superscript notation still writes the acute tone mark at the end <u>2.4.1</u>:

nūa ^{+/}	SF nūa	LF nūáa	"hen"
dāam ^{m/}	SF dāam	LF dáamm	"millet beer"
<i>vōm^{m/}</i>	SF vūm	LF vómm	"life"
tāu̯ň+/	SF tāuň	LF távň	"opposite-sex sibling"

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-:

ňyīríf ²	ňyīrí ⁺		"egusi seed"
tīntōňríg ^a <u>7.2.4</u>	tīntɔ̃ňrís ^ε	tīntóňr-	"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 <u>6.2</u> or by deletion of *g when no affix vowel follows <u>6.3</u>. Tautosyllabic delinking <u>5.2.1</u> then always results in one H toneme applying to both morae of the long vowel.

níis ^ɛ	← *nīínsī	(beside <i>nīimís</i> ^ε)	"birds" (sg <i>níiŋ</i> ª /ŋŋ/)
píıňf ^o	← *pīínfū	(cf pl <i>pīıní</i> +)	"genet"
náaf ^o	<i>← *nāágf</i> ū	(cf pl <i>nīigi</i> ⁺)	"COW"
wáaf ^o	<i>← *wāágf</i> ū	(cf pl <i>wīig</i> (+)	"snake"
yáab ^a	← *yāágbā		"grandparent"
νúθr ^ε	← *vūégrī		fruit of the <i>vúøŋ</i> ª tree

Here belong all regular gerunds in $-r^{\varepsilon}$ formed from Pattern H fusion verbs <u>11.1</u> which have phonologically-deleted *g in the perfective:

	náar ^ɛ	← *nāágrī	"end"
from	nāe+/	← *nāagí	"finish"
	dí'ər ^ɛ	← *dī'ágrī	"receiving"
from	dī e+/	← *dī'əgí	"get"
	púň'θr ^ε	← *pɔ̃'ɔ̃grī	"rotting"
from	pūň'e ^{+/}	← *pɔ̃'ɔ̃gί	"rot"

Fusion verbs show evidence of *g only in perfectives and gerunds; in imperfectives and in derived agent nouns *g is absent:

nāad ^{a/}	"finish" ipfv
nāad ^{a/}	"finisher"

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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-gáờňg ⁵	à-gáàňd ^ɛ	à-gāň-	"pied crow"
nóbìr ^ɛ	n5bá ⁺	nōb-	"foot, leg"
gél ^{le}	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

sóňsìg ^a	"conversing"
gósìg ^a	"looking"
kìkírùg ^o	"hurrying" (L prefix)

Olawsky treats words like Dagbani $g\acute{all}$ "egg" (Kusaal $g\acute{el}^{|\epsilon}$) 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- 3.2, and cf Mooré gãoobgó "pied crow." $Nú'ug^{\circ}$ "hand" has $|^{\epsilon}$ class cognates in Nawdm nú?ú pl ní?í and Gurmanche nuu 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 -*ŋŋ*-), which carry H.

sù'ug ^a	sὺ'ʊs ^ɛ	sù'-	"knife"
zàk ^a	zà'as ^ε	zà'-	"dwelling-compound"
dìgır ^ɛ	dìga+	dìg-	"dwarf"
màlıf ²	mòlı+	mòl-	"gazelle"
kù'øm ^m	no pl	kỵ'à-	"water"
mà+	mà nám ^a	mà-	"mother"
mÈɛŋª	mÈɛmเs ^ɛ	mÈɛŋ-	"turtle"
pùgudıb ^a	pùgud-nàm ^a	pùgud-	"father's sister"

sàam ^{ma} dìəm ^{ma} àñrvŋ ^ɔ kàrvŋ ^ɔ or kàrımvg zùlvŋ ^ɔ	zùlıma+	sàam- dìəm- àňrʊŋ- zùlʊŋ-	"father" "man's parent-in-law" "boat" "reading" (gerund) "deep"
yàlυŋ ^ɔ zìlım ^{mε} sàal ^a (cf <u>7.3</u>) nòŋıd ^a	yàlıma+ zìlıma+ sàalıb ^a	yàlʊŋ- zìlɪm- sàal-	"wide" "tongue" "human" "lover"
sìilíŋ ^a zàaňsúŋ ^ɔ nòŋılím ^m	sìilímìs ^ɛ sìilís ^ɛ sìilímà ⁺ zàaňsímà ⁺	sìilíŋ- zàaňsúŋ- nòŋılím-	"proverb" "dream" "love"
nòŋıdím-tāa ⁼ sùŋıdím-tāa ⁼ dàalím ^m pù'alím ^m bì'isím ^m	<u>13.2.1.4</u> dàalímìs ^ɛ pù'alímìs ^ɛ	dàalím- pù'alím-	"fellow lover" WK "fellow-helper" "male sex organs" "female sex organs" "milk"

Nouns which are not *m*-stems do not show H before the class suffix m^m :

bòɔdım ^m	no pl	bòɔdım- <u>9.2.2</u>	"will"
zòtım ^m	no pl		"fear"
dàalım ^m	no pl		"maleness"
pù'alım ^m	no pl		"femininity"

Tonally exceptional in showing H before stem m on the *second* mora is

bùgóm ^m	no pl	bùgúm- or bùgōm- "fire"
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These forms in $-m(s^{\epsilon})$ perhaps derive from *-m(ms):

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.

būvg ^a	būυs ^ε	bù-	"goat"
tān ^{nɛ}	tāna+	tàn-	"earth"
sīd ^a	sīdıb ^a	sìd-	"husband"
pu̯'āª	pū'ab ^a	pự'à-	"woman, wife"
sā'ab ^o	no pl	sà'-	"millet porridge"
gbīgιm ^{nε}	gbīgıma+	gbìgım-	"lion"
ňwāaŋ ^a	ňwāamıs ^ɛ	ňwàaŋ-	"monkey"
mēɛdª	mēɛdıbª	mèɛd-	"builder"
sįākıd ^a	sjākıdıb ^a	sjàkıd-	"believer"
bōtıŋ ^a	būtus ^ε	bùtıŋ-	"cup"
mēɛdıŋª	mēɛdıs ^ɛ	mὲɛdɪŋ-	"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) <u>7.5</u>:

pù'us ^a	pū'usıdıb ^a	pù'us-	"worshipper"
kùøs ^a	kūøsıdıb ^a	kùøs-	"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.

Pattern O all-M LFs become all-L at the end of questions <u>8.1</u>:

Lì kā' gbígìmmεε?	"Isn't it a lion?"
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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 ^{ɛ/}	yūgvda+	yùgvd-	"hedgehog"
ňwāaŋ ^a	ňwāamเs ^{ɛ∕}	ňwàaŋ-	"monkey"
bāŋıd ^a	bāŋıdıb ^{a/}	bàŋıd-	"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*):

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 gbīgımmɛ́ɛ?	"Is it a lion?" WK only; rejected by DK
Lì à nē gbígìmmɛɛ?	"Is it a lion?" both WK and DK

7.2.4 Noun prefixes

On noun prefixes generally see $\underline{14}$. Tonally they are either M or L. L noun prefixes do not affect the rest of the tone pattern of the prefixed word:

Η	dàyūug ^{ɔ/}	dàyūud ^{ɛ/}	dàyū-	"rat"
HL	Bùsáŋ ^a	Bùsáàňs ^ε	Bùsāŋ -	"Bisa person"
L	kùkpàrıg ^a	kùkpàrιs ^ε	kùkpàr-	"palm tree"
0	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:

Н	<i>z</i> เิnzāนุŋ ^{ว/}	zīnzāná+	zīnzáu̯ŋ-	"bat"
Η	Ňwāmpūrıg ^{a/}	Ňwāmpūrιs ^{ε/}	Ňwāmpúr-	"Mamprussi person"
Η	gūmpūzēr ^{ɛ/}	gūmpūzēyá+	gūmpūzér -	"duck"
Η	tīntōňríg ^a	tīntōňrís ^ɛ	tīntóňr-	"mole" <u>7.2.1.1</u>
Н	pīpīrıg ^{a/}	pīpīrıs ^{ɛ/}	pīpír-	"desert"
Η	bālērug ^{ɔ/}	bālērıd ^{ɛ/}	bālźr-	"ugly person"
0	<i>fūfūm</i> ^{mε}	fūfūma+	fūfúm-	"envy; stye in the eye"
L	sāmán ^{nε}	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*-:

0	zūg-kūgυr ^{ε/}	zūg-kūga+	zūg-kúg-	"pillow" <u>9.2.2</u>
0	kā-wēnnιr ^{ε/}	kā-wēnna+	kā-wén-	"corn"
Η	pūkpāad ^{a/}	pūkpāadíb ^a	pūkpá-	"farmer" <u>14.1.4</u>

7.3 Verbs

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

Dual-aspect verbs have three finite forms <u>11.1</u>. The $-m^a$ imperative is found only (and always) with tone overlay <u>19.6.1.1</u> so it is unnecessary to treat it further here; perfective and imperfective forms will be cited in that order. Single-aspect verbs have one form, which is stative or dynamic imperfective as a lexical matter.

The Tone Patterns of all regular deverbal nominals are predictable 7.5.

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 most perfectives, where Pattern O stems do not change to all-M <u>7.1</u>, and a historical origin for dynamic imperfectives in a flexion *-a* added to a stem with a *derivational *d* or **y* suffix which produced Pattern L stems from both Pattern L and Pattern O forms <u>7.5</u>. There has been extensive tonal levelling, extending also to gerunds. Tonally anomalous 2-mora stem gerunds survive with Subpattern HL and with Pattern L <u>12.2.1.1</u>: segmental and tonal levelling correlate in the two gerunds of $k\bar{l}r^{\epsilon}$ "hurry, tremble": $k\bar{l}k\bar{l}r\dot{v}g^{2}$ and $k\bar{l}r\iota b^{2l}$.

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>5.2.1</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:

Ò pū gɔ̃sɛ.	"She didn't look"
Ò pū gósèɛ?	"Didn't she look?"
Ò pū dūgε.	"She didn't cook."
Ò pū dúgὲε?	"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 8.2.2:

Kà ò dūgí lī	"And she cooked it."
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Unlike nouns, verbs show no anomalous patterns due to mora deletion (see on fusion verbs below), and no Subpattern HL.

Examples for Pattern H:

ňyē+	ňyēt ^{a/}	"see"
kū+	kūvd ^{a/}	"kill"
dūgε	dūgud ^{a/}	"cook"
pįāň' ^a	pįāň'ad ^{a/}	"speak", "praise"
kūl ^ε	kūn ^{na/}	"go home"
yādıg ^{ɛ/}	yādıgíd ^a	"scatter"
mɔ̄ɔl ^{ɛ/}	móɔn ^{na}	"proclaim"
dīgıl ^{ɛ/}	dīgín ^{na}	"lay down"
<i>nōk^{ε/} /</i> kk/	nōkíd ^a /kk/	"take"
<i>lāŋím^m /</i> ŋŋ/	<i>lāŋím^{ma} /</i> ŋŋ/	"wander searching"
	νūę ^{a/}	"be alive"
	dīgı ^{ya/}	"be lying down"
	tī i ^{ya/}	"be leaning" (objects)
	zāňl ^{la/}	"be holding"

As with nominals <u>7.2.1</u>, tautosyllabic delinking results in MH on a long vowel becoming single H; again, LFs ending in long vowels or diphthongs or *-mm* where the LF final *mora* would have carried H toneme by the usual rules show H at the beginning of the final *syllable* <u>5.2.1</u>:

tɔ̄ɔm ^{m/}	tóom^{ma} or tōomíd^a	"disappear"
SF tōɔm LF tóɔm r	n	
pāe ^{+/}		"reach"
SF pāe LF pāée		
For the anomalous	s tonemes of e.g. <i>wā</i> ' <i>am</i> ^{ma/}	"be long,tall" see <u>12.1</u> .
Fusion verbs show	no sign of * <i>g</i> in the impert	fective tonally:

pāe ^{+/}	pāad ^{a/}	not * <i>páad</i> a	"reach"
dī e+/	dī'əd ^{a/}	not * <i>dí</i> 'əd ^a	"get"
pūň'e ^{+/}	pūň'ød ^{a/}	not * <i>púň'ød</i> a	"rot" WK

Contrast the corresponding gerunds in $-r^{\epsilon}$: $p\acute{a}ar^{\epsilon} di' \partial r^{\epsilon} p\acute{u}n' \partial r^{\epsilon}$.

7.3.2 Pattern LO

All stem tonemes are L in the indicative and imperative, and M in the irrealis.

bùdε	bùt ^a	"plant"
dì+	dìt ^a	"eat"
mὲ ⁺	mèɛdª	"build"
zàbε	zàbıd ^a	"fight, hurt"
bùəl ^ɛ	bùøn ^{na}	"call"
bòdιg ^ε	bòdıgıd ^a	"get lost, lose"
nìŋ ^ɛ	nìŋıd ^a	"do"
màal ^ɛ	màan ^{na}	"sacrifice"
dìgın ^ɛ	dìgınıd ^a	"lie down"
wàŋເm ^m	wàŋ៲m ^{ma}	"waste away"
sìilım ^m	sìilım ^{ma}	"cite proverbs"
<i>zàaňsım</i> ^m	zàaňsım ^{ma}	"dream"
	zìň'í ^{ya}	"be sitting down"
	tàbi ^{ya}	"be stuck to"
	tèňr ^a	"remember"
	vèn ^{na}	"be beautiful"

In the irrealis, as with nominal Pattern O, the last toneme of the LF is M:

Ò nà bɔ̄dιg.	"He'll get lost."
Ò nà vēn.	"She'll be beautiful."
Ò kὺ zābε.	"She won't fight."
Ò kù bɔ̄dιgε.	"He won't get lost."
Ò kù bɔ̄dıgıda.	"She won't be getting lost."
Ò kù būenna.	"She won't be calling."
Ò nà bɔ̄dıgı m.	"He will lose me."
Ò kù bɔ̄dıgı má.	"He will not lose me."
Ò nà bวิdıgı bá.	"She will lose them."
Ò kù bɔ̄dıgı báa.	"She won't lose them."
Ò kù bɔ̄dıgıdı má.	"He won't be losing me."
Ò kù zābıdı má.	"He won't be fighting me."
Ò kù zābıdın <i>ɛ́</i> .	"He wouldn't have been fighting."
Ò kù sīilımm.	"She won't cite proverbs" WK
Ò kù lāŋímm.	"She won't wander about searching (<i>lāŋím</i> ^m)."

Such forms are always followed by M spreading:

but

Ò nà zāb ná'àb lā.	"He'll fight the chief."
Ò nà gวิs 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):

	Ò kù zāb∙ó-o.	"He won't fight him."
or	Ò kù zāb∙o-o.	"He won't fight him."
	Ò kù kād∙ó-o.	"He won't drive him away."
or	Ò kù kād∙o-o.	"He won't drive him away."

In questions, clause-final M...M become L...L just as with Pattern O nominals:

Ň ná bòdιgεε?	"Will I get lost?"
M ha bulyee:	

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>8.2.2</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 $n\bar{w}a^+$ "this" and sa^+ "hence, ago"; Pattern O is the independent-perfective marker $y\bar{a}^+$ <u>19.6.2.1</u>.

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 bòdıg nē.	"It's lost."
Lì bòdıg nέε?	"Is it lost?"
Lì bòdıg yā.	"It's got lost."
Lì bòdıg yàa?	"Has it got lost?"

Ka o ba' nɛ o ma pu baŋ ye o kpɛlim yaa.

Kà ò $b\bar{a}$ 'né ò mà $p\bar{v}$ bányé òkpělum yāa + ø.and 3AN father:sg with 3AN mother:sg NEG.IND realise that 3AN remain PFVNEG."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, but this happens systematically in the derivation of stative verbs from adjectives 12.1 and of assume-stance verbs from stance verbs 13.1.1.

The word *gīŋılím^m* "shortness" is derived from the Pattern O adjective *gīŋ*^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 *gīiňlím^m id*.

Roots showing Subpattern HL in nouns and adjectives fall together with regular Pattern H in all other derived or cognate words:

áňsìb ^a	"maternal uncle"	āňsíŋ ^a	"sister's child"
kísùg ⁵	"hateful"	kīs ^{a/}	"hate"
gósìg ^a	"looking"	gɔ̃s ^ε	"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*:

bīig ^a	"child"	bìilím ^m	"childhood"	(-/-)
nà'ab ^a	"chief"	nā'am ^m	"chiefship"	(- <i>m</i> -)

Most derivational suffixes added to O/L roots produce Pattern L/LO stems. No stem with *g *l *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				Pattern H
froi	n Pattern LO verk	DS		
	2-mora stem p	erfective		Pattern O
	otherwise			Pattern L
dūgε	"cook"	\rightarrow	dūgub ^{ɔ/}	
nōk ^{ε/}	"take"	\rightarrow	nōkír ^ɛ	
dīgıl ^{ɛ/}	"lay down"	\rightarrow	dīgılúg ⁵	

mὲ+	"build"	\rightarrow	mēɛb ^ɔ	
		\rightarrow	mɛ̀ɛdím-tāa=	"fellow-builder"
sòŋ ^ε	"help"	\rightarrow	sòŋır ^ɛ	
dìgın ^ɛ	"lie down"	\rightarrow	dìgınvg ^ɔ	
<i>zàaทรเm</i> ^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 <u>13.2.1.4</u> with **d* from Pattern LO verbs are Pattern L, as in $b \ge d m^m$ "will" and $m \ge d (m - t a^a)^=$ "fellow-builder." This **d* may historically be identifiable with the *d* of the synchronic imperfective flexion -*d*^a, if this originated as a derivational Pattern-L-deriving suffix before an imperfective ending -*a*; this would have contributed to the merger of Patterns O and L in verbs.

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: $b\bar{c}dur^{\varepsilon}$ "desirable", $m\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon dug^{a}$ "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 <u>7.2.3</u>.

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 $gb\bar{a}u\eta^{2/}$ "skin", "book" DK, $gb\dot{a}u\eta^{2}$ "book" WK.

8 External sandhi

Kusaal shows a range of intricate external sandhi phenomena, comprising not only 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>2.4</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 and are detectable only by the vowel quality and/or tonal changes they induce at the end of the preceding LF. In interlinear glosses prosodic clitics are written as $+ \emptyset$, and liaison word without segmental form are written $- \emptyset$.

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 $|\bar{a}^{+/}$:

sā <u>e</u> ň lā	"the blacksmith"	
sàň-kàŋā	"this blacksmith"	
Ò sừ'u 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.

8.1 Prosodic clitics

All four prosodic clitics⁵ cause lowering of short LF-final ιv to ϵ 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:].

⁵⁾ The concept of prosodic "clitics" is also useful for describing complex clause structures <u>21.1</u>. Mooré has the clause-final particle *yé* after negative VPs, 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."

tìım ^m	"medicine"	SF tìım	LF tīımm	← *tìเmū
dāam ^{m/}	"millet beer"	SF dāam	LF dáamm	← *dāamύ
vōm ^{m/}	"life"	SF vūm	LF vómm	← *vūmmú

Word-final i = ue diphthongise to *ia ua* before prosodic clitics <u>4.2</u>. None of these changes occur before liaison <u>8.2</u>.

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 <i>sīa</i>	LF <i>sīaa</i>	<i>← *sīəga</i>
but	dà'a ⁼	"market"		SF dà'a	LF dā'a	← *dà'agā
	bāa ⁼	"dog"		SF <i>bāa</i>	LF <i>bāa</i>	← *bāaga
	kū·ó=	"kill him"	←	<i>kv</i> ⁺ "kill" +	° "him/her"	SF/LF [k ^h ʊ:]

The **negative prosodic clitic** appears at the end of a clause containing a negated or negative verb <u>19.5</u>. Superscript notation <u>2.4.1</u> represents LFs as they appear before the negative prosodic clitic, both segmentally and tonally.

Lì à në nóbìr.	"It's a leg."
SINAN COP FOC leg :SG.	
Lì kā' nóbırē ⁺ ø.	"It's not a leg."
3INAN NEG.BE leg:SG NEG.	
Lì à nē dūk.	"It's a cooking pot."
3INAN COP FOC pot:sg.	
Lì kā' dūkó ⁺ ø.	"It's not a pot."
LI KA UUKJ Ø.	it's not a pot.
3INAN NEG.BE pot:SG NEG.	

Unlike short *ι ν*, long final *ιι νν* are not lowered:

Bà à - I	nē mólì.		"They are gazelles."
3PL COP	FOC gazelle:	PL.	
Bà kā'	mว์lĩเ	+ø.	"They are not gazelles."
3PL NEG.	BE gazelle:P	L 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 bīisε +ø! "My children!"
 1sG child:PL voc!
 Pu'aa, bɔ ka fʋ kaasida?
 Pu'āa +ø, bɔ´ kà fù kāasídà +ø?

```
Woman:sg voc, what and 2sg cry:IPFV CQ?
"Woman, why are you crying?" (Jn 20:13)
```

This is not a vocative noun form, but a particle following the entire NP:

dau onε an yadda niŋida dāμ ´nì àň yàddā-níŋìdā ⁺ø man:SG REL.SG COP faith-doer:SG voc "You man, who are a believer!" (1 Cor 7:16)

Two **interrogative prosodic clitics** end questions. Final vowel length distinctions are neutralised to short in content questions, long in polar questions:

Lì à nẽ nớbìr. 3INAN COP FOC leg:sg.	"It's a leg (<i>nóbιr</i> ε)."
Ànɔ́'ɔnì ø ňyē nɔ́bırè +ø? Who cat see leg:sg cq?	"Who saw a leg?"
Lì à nĒ nɔ́burèɛ +ø? BINAN COP FOC leg:sg pq?	"Is it a leg?"
Lì à nẽ dūk. Ànó'ɔnì ňyē dūkó? Lì à nē dūkóò?	"It's a cooking pot (<i>dōkɔ́/</i>)." "Who saw a pot?" "Is it a pot?"
Lì à nẽ kūk. Ànó'ɔnì ňyē kúkà? Lì à nẽ kúkàa?	"It's a chair (<i>kōk</i> ª)." "Who saw a chair?" "Is it a chair?"

Lì à nē gbīgım.	"It's a lion (<i>gbīgım^{nɛ}).</i> "
Ànɔ´'ɔnì ňyē gbígìmnɛ?	"Who saw a lion?"
Lì à nē gbígìmnɛɛ?	"Is it a lion?"

Length neutralisation results in a five-way $a \varepsilon \circ \iota v$ contrast in LF-final vowels by quality alone in this context:

Ànɔ́'ɔnì ňyē kúkà?	"Who saw a chair(<i>kūk</i> ª)?"
Ànɔ́'ɔnì ňyē yīré?	"Who saw a house(<i>yιr^{ε/})</i> ?"
Ànɔ´'ɔnì ňyē dɔ́ɔɡɔ̀?	"Who saw a hut (dɔ̀ɔɡʰ)?"
Ànɔ´'ɔnì ňyē mɔ́lì?	"Who saw gazelles(mɔ̀lı+)?"
Ànɔ´'ɔnì ňyē bédugú?	"Who saw a lot (<i>bὲdʊgū</i> +/)?"

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 <u>8.3</u>. 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 5.1.

Ànɔ́'ɔnì_	Ø	ňyέ	bà	bìiga	+ø?
Who	CAT	see	3PL	child:sg	cq?
"Who sav	v th	eir c	hild	l (bīig ^a)?	11

Ànɔ́'ɔnì ňyē bíigà?	"Who saw a child?" tonally identical to
Ànɔ´'ɔnì ňyē sú'υgà?	"Who saw a knife (<i>sù'ug</i> ^a)?"
Fù bóòd bó?	"What (<i>bɔ̃</i> +) do you want?"
Ànź'ɔnì ňyē zựéyà?	"Who saw hills (<i>zỵēya</i> +)?"

Similarly with Pattern LO verbs in the irrealis mood:

À ná b5dιg.	"I will get lost."
Ň ná bòdιgεε?	"Will I get lost?"

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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.

With 2-mora stem Pattern H verb perfectives:

Ò pū gɔ̃sɛ.	"She didn't look"
Ò pū gósὲε?	"Didn't she look?"
Ò pῦ dῦgε.	"She didn't cook."
Ò pῦ dúgὲε?	"Didn't she cook?"

8.1.1 Long Forms in clause adjuncts

Clause adjuncts are not followed by M spreading, indicating that they form separate phrases. Some single words always end in a LF, and occasional examples occur with ya'-clauses:

Kikirig ya'a mor **buude**, fun tis o ka o lebig o moogin.
Kìkīrıg yá' mɔ̄r būvdɛ, fūn tís·ò ø kà ò lɛ̀bıg ò mɔ̄ɔgv-n.
Fairy:sG if have innocence, 2SG.CNTR give 3AN.OB and 3AN return 3AN grass:SG-LOC.
"When a fairy is right agree so that it will go back to the bush." (KSS p38)

Fù ná	kūl	bēog.	"You'll go home tomorrow."
2SG IRR	go.home	tomorrow.	

but *Bɛ̄ogɔ́ fù ná kūl.* Tomorrow 25G IRR go.home. "You're going home tomorrow." SB

No form which is capable of being a VP or NP constituent displays this feature. The LF form is like that seen before the negative prosodic clitic. In KB, all

examples written $b\varepsilon og\nu$ precede liaison; clause adjuncts with a final vowel are always written $b\varepsilon og\nu$. Similarly, KB consistently shows final $-\nu$ in the apocope-blocked word <u>6.6</u> $b\varepsilon deg\nu \ b\varepsilon dv g \bar{\nu}^{+/}$ "a lot", but just as consistently has final $-\nu$ in $b\nu z u g \mu$ $b\bar{\nu} z u g \bar{\nu}$ "because", dinzugo din $z u g \bar{\nu}$ "therefore", alazugo àlá z u g \bar{\nu} "therefore."

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Ka o kaas bɛdegv."And he wept greatly." (Genesis 27:38)Kà ò kāas bɛ́dvgū.And зам weep great:ADV.
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bɔzugɔ ba zi' onε tumi m la naa. bɔ̄ zúgɔ̄, bà zī' ´ɔnì tùmı 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)

External sandhi

8.2 Liaison

Liaison words prevent apocope applying to the preceding word, which retains its final affix vowel in downranked form with loss of quality contrasts. The vowel preceding liaison is not epenthetic and occurs where epenthesis does not:

Words which have not undergone apocope, such as the clause linker particles $k\dot{a}$ and $y\bar{\epsilon}$, do not change before liaison.

Enclitic liaison words are invariably preceded by liaison. They comprise two sets:

n٤	<u>17.3</u>
n٤	<u>24.1.1</u>
уа	<u>22.1.3</u>
	n ^ε

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.

all bound object pronouns				
Singular	Plural			
m ^a	tı+			
f	ya+			
٥ [ʊ]	ba+			
h^+				
	m ^a f ² ο [ʊ]			

These pronouns either attach directly to a verb word or after either of the Position 1 clitics, discontinuous-past n^{ϵ} or 2pl subject ^{ya}. They are written as separate words, except with the 3sg animate pronoun, which is altogether deleted by apocope; the preceding host-final rounded vowel mora is written $\cdot o$ <u>1.3</u>.

Non-enclitic liaison words comprise

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proclitic personal pronouns	m̀ fù ò lì tì yà bà	<u>16.3.1</u>
personifier clitic	à/ǹ	<u>16.6</u>
<i>ànڬ'òn^ɛ "who?"</i>		<u>16.3.4</u>
nominaliser	'n	<u>25</u>
catenator	n	<u>23.1</u>
words with number prefixes	à bà bù	<u>14.3</u>
words with manner-adverb prefix	à	<u>14.2</u>

Liaison is not invariable before these words, except with 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.	(Liaison before <i>bà</i> "their")

Older written materials show liaison more widely before non-enclitics, though always within a phrase.

If the host word LF ends in a short vowel, this is downranked to ι by default. LFs ending in -*mm* behave as -*mV* before liaison.

LF-final -*iə* -*ue* remain as such before liaison, not becoming -*ia* -*ua* <u>4.2</u>.

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>8.5.2</u>.

The liaison words $^{\circ ya} ya^+ ya$ and words beginning with the number prefix a subsequently cause new quality changes in the mora preceding liaison.

Examples with host LFs ending in short vowels:

kūk ^a	"chair"	+ n ε	"at, in"	\rightarrow	kūkι-n ^{ε/}
dūk ^{ɔ/}	"pot"	+ n ε	"at, in"	\rightarrow	dūkí-n ^ε
bうวd ^a	"want"	+ t ı ⁺	"us"	\rightarrow	bòɔdī tí+
<i>pบิบg</i> a	"inside"	+ n ε	"at"	\rightarrow	pūvgv-n ^{ε/}
<i>pɔ̄ɔg</i> ɔ/	"field"	+ n ε	"at"	\rightarrow	pɔ̄ɔgú - n ^ε
yàug ⁵	"grave"	+ n ε	"at"	\rightarrow	yàugū-n ^{ɛ/}

Bà bòɔdī m.	"They love me."
Bà pū bʻodī má.	"They don't love me."
Bà bòɔdī lí.	"They want it."
Bà pū bɔ́ɔdī líι.	"They don't want it."

LFs ending in *-mm*:

tùm ^m	"send"	+ t ı ⁺ "us"	\rightarrow	từmı tī+/
dāam ^{m/}	"beer"	+ <mark>n</mark> ^ε "at, in"	\rightarrow	dāamín ^ɛ
kù'øm ^m	"water"	+ n ^ε "in"	\rightarrow	kù'ømī-n ^{ε/}

LFs ending in long vowels:

dà'a ⁼	"market"	+ n ^ε	"at, in"	\rightarrow	dā'an ^{ε/} <u>2.4.1</u>
Kà bà kúv m. Kà bà pũ kúv mā. Kà bà kúv bā. Kà bà pũ kúv báa.		"And they killed me." ($kar{v}^+$ "kill") "And they didn't kill me." "And they killed them." "And they didn't kill them."			
Kà bà kíə lī. Kà bà pū kía			"And they "And they		(<i>ki̯à</i> + "cut") cut it."
Kà bà ňyέε Kà bà pū ňy			"And they "And they		e." (<i>ňyē</i> + "see") see me."

Reduction of 3-mora diphthongs to 2-mora long vowels:

pāe+/	"reach"	+ <i>tı</i> + "us"	\rightarrow	páa tī+/
pīe+/	"wash"	+ <i>tı</i> + "us"	\rightarrow	píə tī+/
dūe+/	"raise"	+ <i>tı</i> + "us"	\rightarrow	dúø tī+/

Single-aspect 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 2.4.2):

sū'e ^{ya/}	"own"	+ /1 ⁺ "it"	\rightarrow	ร <i>์</i> บ /เิ ^{+/}
vūę ^{a/}	"live"	+ n ^ε dp	\rightarrow	^v ūv-n ^{ɛ/}

Four liaison words are themselves reduced by apocope to segmental zero, and the only sign of their presence as SFs is the preceding liaison, with any associated changes to the vowel quality and toneme of the mora before liaison. This is invariably the case with the 3sg animate object pronoun $^{\circ}$ [v] "him/her" and the enclitic 2pl subject pronoun ya :

	bòɔd ^a	"want"	+ °	"him/her"	\rightarrow	b`od∙ó - o	(SF bɔ̀ɔd∙ō)
SF	gòsımī	Ø		"look ye!"		Traditional	: gosimi
LF	gòsımī	yá <u>22.1.3</u>				Traditional	: gosimiya

Nominaliser-n 25 combines with a preceding pronoun subject to produce a special set of pronouns <u>16.3.1</u>, but for my informants it is segmental zero in all other contexts; its presence remains apparent in the change of pre-liaison M tonemes to H. 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 zūəbíd wūsa kálli 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)

After pause, all sources realise catenator- $n \ 23.1 \ 22.3.1$ 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 z 2 g $k \bar{\epsilon} \eta$ $n \bar{a}$."And he came running"And 3AN run CAT come hither.B $\bar{2} 2 g$ l a + g?"What's that?"What CAT that co?"What's that?"

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.

8.2.1 Vowel quality changes

Fronting of the second mora of a LF-final long vowel occurs before the 2pl object pronoun ya^+ , exactly as word-internally before y <u>6.4</u> with any back mora becoming e [I] but no change to front morae:

	Bà bòɔdī yá. Kà bà ňyɛ́ɛ yā.		"They love you." "And they saw you (pl)." (<i>ňyē</i> + "see")
but	Kà bà kúe yā.	[kʰʊɪja]	"And they killed you (pl)." (<i>kū</i> ⁺ "kill")
	Kà bà kíe yā.	[kʰiɪja]	"And they cut you (pl)." (<i>kį̀à</i> ⁺ "cut")

This secondarily recreates fronting diphthongs in cases like

	Kà bà páa bā.	"And they reached them." (<i>pāe</i> +/ "reach")
but	Kà bà páe yā.	"And they reached you (pl)."

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^{2} "you":

or	Kà bà kíə f. Kà bà kío f.	"And they cut you (sg)."
or	Kà bà ňyέε f. Kà bà ňyέo f.	"And they saw you (sg)."
or	Kà bà páa f. Kà bà páv f.	"And they reached you (sg)."
or	Ѝ gbáň'a f. Ѝ gbáň'υ f.	"I've grabbed you (sg)."

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 $f^{2}|\iota^{+}$ class singular suffix.

The 3sg animate object pronoun \circ [v] "him/her" and the enclitic 2pl subject pronoun ^{ya}, both of which lose their entire segmental form in their SFs, share the property that they completely override the vowel quality of the pre-liaison mora, creating **secondary diphthongs** <u>4.5</u>.

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Before ^o the preceding mora becomes $\cdot o \ \underline{1.3.1}$ [v], always lax. In the LF the preliaison mora fuses with the [v] of the LF of the pronoun itself create a long vowel [v:], written $\cdot o - o$:

```
bòɔdā
                "wants"
                                 + 0
                                         "him/her"
                                                                 bòod·ó-o
                                                                                 (SF b \dot{2} ) \dot{0} )
                                                         \rightarrow
tùm<sup>m</sup>
                "send"
                                 + 0
                                        "him/her"
                                                                 tùm∙ó-o
                                                                                 (SF t\dot{v}m\cdot\bar{o})
                                                         \rightarrow
kīa
                "cut"
                                 + °
                                         "him/her"
                                                                 kì∙ō-o
                                                                                 (SF kì·o)
                                                         \rightarrow
ňγĒε
                                 + 0
                                        "him/her"
                                                                 ňγε̄∙ό-ο
                                                                                 (SF ny \epsilon \cdot o)
                "see"
                                                         \rightarrow
                                                                         [fʊbɔ:dʊ]
Fù bóod·ō Ø.
                                         "You love her."
2SG want
               3AN.OB.
                                         "You don't love her."
                                                                         [fʊpʰʊbɔ:dʊ:]
Fù pū
             bóod∙ó-o
                            +ø.
2SG NEG.IND want-3AN.OB NEG.
Fù ňyέ∙ο ø.
                                         "You've seen her."
                                                                         [fʊjɛ̃ʊ̃]
2SG see
              3AN.OB.
                                         "You've not seen her."
                                                                         [fʊpʰʊjɛ̃ʊ̃:]
Fù pū
             ňyε∙ó-o
                        +ø.
2SG NEG.IND SEE-3AN.OB NEG.
zū+
                "steal"
                                + °
                                         "him/her"
                                                                 zū∙ó⁻⁰
                                                                          SF [zuʊ]
                                                                                         LF [zuʊ:]
                                                         \rightarrow
                                + 0
                "see"
                                         "him/her"
NV\bar{\varepsilon}^+
                                                                 ňyē∙ó⁻⁰ SF [ĵɛ̃ʊ]
                                                                                          LF [ĵɛ̃ʊ:]
                                                         \rightarrow
dì+
                "eat"
                                + °
                                         "him/her"
                                                                 dì∙o⁻⁰
                                                                           SF [diʊ]
                                                                                          LF [div:]
                                                         \rightarrow
                                + 0
kįà+
                                         "him/her"
                "cut"
                                                         \rightarrow
                                                                 kì∙o⁻⁰
                                                                           SF [kʰiʊ]
                                                                                         LF [k<sup>h</sup>iʊ:]
                                + °
pāe<sup>+/</sup>
                "reach"
                                         "him/her"
                                                         \rightarrow
                                                                 pā∙ó⁻⁰
pīe<sup>+/</sup>
                "wash"
                                         "him/her"
                                + 0
                                                                 pī∙ó⁻o
                                                         \rightarrow
dūe+/
                "raise"
                                 + °
                                         "him/her"
                                                         \rightarrow
                                                                 dū∙ó⁻⁰
àeňa
                "be"
                                 + 0
                                                                 àĭ∙o⁻⁰
                                         "him/her"
                                                         \rightarrow
                                         "I am he." (Jn 18:5, 1976)
Mane a o.
Mānı_ ø áň∙o_ ø.
1SG.CNTR CAT COP
                     3AN.OB.
```

Before y^a the preceding mora becomes lax [1], usually written e as normal after another vowel symbol.

	gòsım		"look!"	
SF	g`zsımī	ø	"look ye!"	Traditional: gosimi
LF	g`zsımī	yá	<u>22.1.3</u>	Traditional: gosimiya

In many cases this has the same outcome as word-internal fronting before $y \underline{6.4}$ and before the 2pl object pronoun ya^+ , but replacement also affects front vowels:

	kū+	"kill"	+ ^{ya}	"ye"	\rightarrow	kūe ^{-ya/}	[kʰʊɪ]
	kjà+	"cut"	+ ^{ya}	"ye"	\rightarrow	kīē ^{-ya/}	[kʰiɪ]
	pāe+/	"reach"	+ ^{ya}	"ye"	\rightarrow	pāe ^{-ya/}	
	pīe ^{+/}	"wash"	+ ^{ya}	"ye"	\rightarrow	pīe ^{-ya/}	
	dūe+/	"raise"	+ ^{ya}	"ye"	\rightarrow	dūe ^{-ya/}	
but	bè ⁺	"be"	+ ^{ya}	"ye"	\rightarrow	bēe ^{-ya/}	[bɛɪ] written <i>bei</i>

Before liaison words beginning with \dot{a} - the quality of the final vowel mora of the preceding word is not predictable from the phonology alone.

Before $an j' jn^{\epsilon}$ "who?", the manner-adverb prefix a- and the personifier-clitic allomorph a- the LF-final vowel is ι (v after a velar preceded by a rounded vowel):

Ò nìŋí àlá.	"She did thus."
3AN do ADV:thus	(contrast <i>àlá</i> "how many?" below)
yeli Abaa yÈlı_À-Bāa say pers-dog:sg	"said to Dog" KSS p20

Fusion verbs <u>11.1</u> show forms in final e [I] in these cases, instead of the monophthongs *aa iə ue* usual before another word in the VP <u>8.5.2</u>:

[n] loo Abaa zuur	" tying Dog's tail" <u>16.6</u> KSS p20
n lóɔ_ À-Bāa zúòr	
cat tie pers-dog:sg tail:sg	

but ka ba gban'e Adayuug "and they seized Rat" KSS p20 kà bà gbáň'e_À-Dàyūug and 3PL seize PERS-rat:SG

However, the verb $\dot{a} e \check{n}^a$ "be something" always appears as $\dot{a} a \check{n}$, not $\dot{a} e \check{n}$.

Ka fυ aan anɔ'ɔnɛ?	"And who are you?" (Jn 1:19)
Kà fừ áaň ànź'ɔnὲ +ø?	
And 2SG COP who CQ?	

Before the number prefix *a*- the pre-liaison vowel is instead -*a*:

M m´r nɛ bīisá àtáň'. "I have three children."
 1SG have FOC child:PL NUM:three.

PÈɛdá	àlá	+ø?	"How many baskets?"
basket:PI	_ NUM:how.many	cq?	(contrast <i>àlá</i> "thus" above)

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):

Nū'-bíbìsálákà fù ňyētá+ø?hand-small:PL NUM:how.many and 2SGsee:IPFVcQ?"How many fingers do you see?"

With other words beginning with a- my informants generally do not show liaison at all, except with \dot{a}/\dot{a} after imperatives, where the $-\dot{a}$ - is contracted to either $-\dot{a}$ - or $-\dot{a}$ - or $-\dot{a}$ - depending on the speaker.

gòsımí lá or gòsım álá "Keep on looking!"

WK and DK both always round the LF-final vowel before \dot{o} "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 [I]), which is presumably the original older form.

The number prefix *a*- originated as * ηa -, the old $r^{\varepsilon}|a^{+}$ class pl agreement <u>14.3</u>. 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 yw 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 Toneme changes

Liaison enclitics themselves carry H toneme after host-final M toneme and M after L or H. The M becomes H before prosodic clitics:

	Ѝ zábī bá.	"I've fought them."
	Kà ṁ zábì bā.	"And I've fought them."
	Ѝ pū bɔ́ɔdī báa.	"I don't love them."
cf	Ѝ pū bɔ́ɔdī fɔ́.	"I don't love you."
	Kà ṁ pū zábì báa.	"And I didn't fight them."
cf	Kà ṁ pū zábì fɔ̄.	"And I didn't fight you."
	Ànɔ́'ɔnì kύυ bá?	"Who has killed them?" SF kúv bā

The locative enclitic n^{ε} does not alter the preceding toneme:

pūvg ^a	"inside"	+ n ε	"at"	<i>→ pūυgυ-n^{ε/}</i>	
bīig ^a	"child"	+ n ε	"at"	→ bīigι-n ^{ε/}	WK
mὺ'ar ^ε	"dam, lake"	+ n ε	"at"	→ mὺ'arī-n ^{ε/}	
<i>pɔ̄ɔg</i> ɔ/	"field"	+ n ^ε	"at"	→ pɔ̄ɔgύ-n ^ε	
yàad ^ɛ	"graves"	+ n ε	"at"	→ yàadī-n ^{ε/}	WK
kūvdíb ^a	"killers"	+ n ε	"at"	→ kūvdíbī-n ^{ε/}	WK
dà'a ⁼	"market"	+ n ^ε	"at"	<i>→ dā'a-n^{ε/}</i> for dà'ā	-n^{ε/} <u>5.2.1</u>

Note that in $d\bar{\nu}k \ |\bar{a} \ p \dot{\nu} v g \bar{\nu} - n^{\epsilon}$ "inside the pot", $p \bar{\nu} v g^{a}$ "inside" shows the normal LF-final M after L/H despite being changed by L spreading <u>8.4</u>.

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 ^ε dp	→ dūgυ-n ^{ε/}
	bòdιg ^ε	"lose"	+ n ^ε dp	→ bòdιgī-n ^{ε/}
	yādıg ^{ε∕}	"scatter"	+ n ^ε dp	→ yādıgı-n ^{ε/}
ipfv	kūud ^{a/}	"kill"	+ n ^ε dp	<i>→ kūvdι-n^{ε/}</i>
ipfv	yādıgíd ^a	"scatter"	+ n ^ε dp	→ yādıgídī-n ^{ε/}
	mè+	"build"	+ n ^ε dp	→ <i>mēε-n^{ε/}</i> for <i>mèē-n^{ε/}</i> <u>5.2.1</u>

Dā dɔllı yá +ø! NEG.IMP follow 2PL.SUB NEG!

"Follow ye not!"

8.2.2

bòdιgε	"lose"	+ <i>m</i> ^a "me"	→ bòdıgı m ^a
dì+	"eat"	+ /1 ⁺ "it"	→ dìı lī+/
yādıg ^{ε/}	"scatter"	+ <i>m</i> ^a "me"	→ yādıgí m ^a
dūgε	"cook"	+ / <i>ι</i> + "it"	→ dūgí lī ^{+/}
gɔ̄sɛ	"look"	+ ° "him/her"	→ gɔ̄s·ó ^{-o}
kū+	"kill"	+ <i>m</i> ^a "me"	<i>→ kúv m</i> ª for kūú mª <u>5.2.1</u>

Pattern H fusion verb perfectives behave exactly like CVV-stems:

pāe+/	"reach"	+ <i>m</i> ^a "me"	<i>→ páa m</i> ª
dī e+/	"get"	+ <i>ba</i> + "them"	→ dí'ə bā+/

After all other verb forms, object pronouns do not alter the host tonemes:

zàbıd ^a	"fights"	+ <i>m</i> ^a "me"	→ zàbıdī m ^{a/}
dìt ^a	"eats"	+ / <i>l</i> + "it"	→ dìtī lí+
yādıgíd ^a	"scatters"	+ <i>ba</i> + "them"	→ yādıgídī bá+
kūvd ^{a/}	"kills"	+	→ kūvdí m ^a
sū'e ^{ya/}	"own"	+ / <i>l</i> + "it"	→ sú'v /ī+/

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 <u>5.2.1</u>:

À bʻsd∙ō. Ѝ pū bʻsd∙ó-o. (←	·ō-ó)	"I love him/her." "I don't love him/her."
Kà bà kú∙o. Kà bà pū kú∙o.	[kʰซ:] <u>8.1</u>	"And they killed him." "And they didn't kill him."
Kà bà kí∙o. Kà bà pū kí∙ō-o.		"And they cut him." "And they didn't cut him."
Kà bà ňy£∙o. Kà bà pū ňyē∙ó-o.		"And they saw her." "And they didn't see her."

Irrealis mood forms of Pattern LO verbs:

	Ò nà bɔ̄dıgı m.	"He will lose me."
	Ò kù bɔ̄dıgı má.	"He will not lose me."
	Ò nà bɔ̄dıgı bá.	"She will lose them."
	Ò kù bɔ̄dıgı báa.	"She won't lose them."
	Ò kù bɔ̄dıgıdı má.	"He won't be losing me."
	Ò kù zābıdı má.	"He won't be fighting me."
	Ò kù zāb∙ó-o.	"He won't fight him."
or	Ò kù zāb∙o-o.	"He won't fight him."

Irrealis Pattern LO and indicative Pattern H thus contrast before object pronouns in 2-mora stems:

zābe + m ^a	\rightarrow	zābı m ^{a/}	"will fight me"
dūge + m ^a	\rightarrow	dūgí m ^a	"cook for me"

All non-enclitic liaison words begin with a fixed-L toneme $\underline{8.3.1}$ 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 díı_bà dīıb.	"And we ate their food."
And 1PL eat 3PL food.	
Kà ò bźdɪgì bà bùmɪs.	"And he lost their donkeys."
And 3AN lose 3PL donkey:PL.	
Kà ò dūgí bà dīıb.	"And he cooked their food."
And SAN cook SPL food.	

Imperfective without tone overlay:

Kà bà dìtī	bá.	"And they were eating them."
And 3PL eat:PFV	3PL.OB.	

but Kà bà dìtí bà dītb. "And they were eating their food." (ML \rightarrow HL) And 3PL eat:IPFV 3PL food.

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External sandhi

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 yɛl 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 the fixed-L toneme <u>8.3.1</u> of nominaliser- \dot{n} a final M tone becomes H. For my informants this is the only sign of the presence of the particle, except when it is combined in the special form of the preceding subject pronouns.

lā záb ná'àb "The man has fought the chief." Dāu lā. man:sg ART fight chief:sg ART Dāu lā gós ná'àb lā. "The man has looked at the chief." man:sg ART look.at chief:sg ART lá g zàb nà'ab "the man having fought the chief" dāu lā man:sg ART NZ fight chief:sg ART ná'àb dāu lá ø gōs lā

man:sg ART NZ look.at chief:sg ART "the man having looked at the chief"

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 sú'ugù ø kiá nīm lā.
1sg 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 $k\bar{\epsilon}$ $n\bar{a}$ $y\bar{\epsilon}$ ò $t\bar{\nu}m_{g}$ $tisi_b\bar{a}$ but 3AN come hither that 3AN work CAT give 3PL.OB "but he came to serve them" (Mt 20:28)

but

8.2.3 The pronoun ^{ya} before liaison

The pronoun ^{ya} adopts the allomorph -*n*(- before liaison, both before pronoun objects and before a/a^+ "thus" <u>19.4</u>. The pronoun was historically **na*, which regularly became **yã* with subsequent loss of emic nasalisation, as always with affix vowels. When the -*a* is deleted by apocope, *y* is also deleted. When followed by a liaison word, the vowel *a* was not deleted but became *ι*, before which *n* became *n*-. (Cf also nin^{ε} "do" = Toende Kusaal $\tilde{e}n$, locative $n^{\varepsilon} \sim n\bar{\iota}^{+/}$ = Toende -*ι*, nie^+ "appear" = Toende y $\tilde{e}eee, n\bar{n}n^a$ "body"= Mooré y $\tilde{n}na$.)

Dā dɔllı yá Neg.imp follow 2pl.:		"Follow ye not!"
Dì'əmī Ø! receive:IMP 2PL.SUB	!	"Receive ye!"
Dì'əmī-ní receive:IMP-2PL.SUB	bā! 3PL.OB	"Receive ye them!"
Dì'əmī-n∙ó_ receive:IMP-2PL.SUB	Ø! 3AN.OB.	"Receive ye her!"
Sidiba, nongimini	i ya pu'ab.	

Sidiba, nongimini ya pu'ab. Sīdiba ⁺ø, nòŋımī-ní yà pū'ab. Husband:PL VOC, love:IMP-2PL.SUB 2PL wife:PL. "Husbands, love your wives!" (Eph 5:25)

Biisε, siakimini ya du'adib nɔya.
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.SU	JB 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!"

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" $\underline{8.3.1}$ a preceding M toneme must become H instead $\underline{5.1}$. M spreading follows

all words, clitic or free, ending in M toneme all other words which are not proclitic *except* Verb perfectives without independency-marking tone overlay <u>19.6.1.1</u> Certain words affected by L spreading <u>8.4</u> Words ending in an affix vowel with H toneme bound subject pronouns <u>19.6.1.2</u> (including ellipted subjects <u>21.2.2</u>) $\delta li b \delta \qquad except$ preceding independency marking $m f \delta ti y \delta \qquad except$ preceding independency marking after $y \bar{\epsilon}$

Catenator-*n* is transparent to M spreading <u>8.2.2</u>.

The number and manner-adverb prefixes \dot{a} - <u>14.2</u> <u>14.3</u> 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 clause adjuncts 21.2.1.

Bà tìs ná'àb lā búŋ.
3PL give chief:sg ART donkey:sg.
"They gave the chief a donkey (bùŋ^a)."

Bà ňw $\dot{\epsilon}$ ' ná'àb lā súŋā. "They beat the chief well ($s\dot{v}\eta\bar{a}^{+/}$)." 3PL beat chief:sg ART good:ADV.

Raising is absent after words ending in an affix vowel with H toneme:

	<i>À dìga lú yā.</i> 15G dwarf:PL fall PFV.	"My dwarfs have fallen down."
,	<i>À yōgumá lù yā.</i> 15G camel:PL fall PFV.	"My camels have fallen down."

M spreading examples, with zàb^ε "fight" gɔ̄s^ε "look at" nà'ab^a "chief": Kà-clause, without independency-marking tone overlay; all subject pronouns are followed by raising; perfectives are followed by raising only if ending in M:

but

	External sandhi	
Kà ṁ záb nà'ab lā.	"And I've fought the chief."	
Kà ò záb nà'ab lā.	"And he's fought the chief."	
Kà ṁ gวิs ná'àb lā.	"And I've 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:

"And he's looked at the chief."

À záb ná'àb lā.	"I've fought the chief."
Ò zàb ná'àb lā.	"He's fought the chief."
À 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:

Ò gòsī bá bédvgū.	"She looked at them a lot."	(<i>ba</i> object)
Ò gòsí bà bὲdυgū.	"She looked at a lot of them."	(<i>bà</i> possessive)

After proclitics ending in M toneme this is transparent tone spreading, H representing ML on a single mora <u>5.1</u>. 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. Although this is implied by the adoption of the term "M spreading", from a purely descriptive point of view such floating tonemes are simply an indirect way of labelling the conditions under which the process occurs, which are largely determined by syntactic rôle rather than word structure. Words with segmentally identical L-final sg and cb forms like mà "mother" zuà "friend" du'átà "doctor" and lànnig "squirrel" 9.2.2 show M spreading after the sg but not the cb. The Pattern LO bare-stem single-aspect verbs $b\dot{\epsilon}^+$ and $n\dot{2}\eta^{\epsilon}$ are followed by M spreading, unlike Pattern LO perfectives. $L \hat{\epsilon} \epsilon$ "but" is followed by M spreading when affected by independency marking, but it is not a verb, has no flexion, and has not undergone apocope.

Kà ò gɔ̄s ná'àb lā.

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 <u>8.2</u> except for catenator-*n*, which is toneless, along with the linker particle ka "and":

proclitic personal pronouns	m̀ fù ò lì tì yà bà
personifier clitic	à-/ ì-
<i>ànڬ'òn٤</i> "who?"	
nominaliser	'n
all words with number prefixes	à- bà- bù-
manner-adverb prefix	à-
linker particle	kà

Initial \dot{a} - in loanwords may be treated as fixed-L by analogy <u>15.1</u>. If there is no intervening pause, a preceding M toneme must become H:

Bà kùudī bá. 3PL kill:IPFV 3PL.OB.	"They kill them."
Bà kùudí bà būus. 3PL kill:IPFV 3PL goat:PL.	"They kill their goats."

Lì à **né** à-dàalúŋ. "It's a stork" 3INAN COP FOC PERS-stork:sg.

ba diib n yit na'ateŋ la na zug
bà d(ıb 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)

wuu saa naani iank ya nya'aŋ n ti paae ya tuona la. woo **sáa** ø nāanı įáňk yà ňyá'aŋ n tí páe yà tùona lā like rain:sg NZ then jump 2PL behind CAT after reach 2PL before.ADV ART "like when lightning leaps from East to West" (Mt 24:27, 1996)

but

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 <u>8.2.2</u>; this might explain its absence after some 1-mora forms <u>7.2.4</u>. 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:

bù-pìəlıg ^a	"white goat"	bù-pāalíg ^a	"new goat"
bī-púŋ-pìəlıg ^a	"white girl"	bī-púŋ-pāalíg ^a	"new girl"
nō-píəlìg ^a	"white hen"	nō-páalìg ^a	"new hen"

Cb as premodifier $(n\bar{z}zr^{\epsilon/} \text{ "mouth"}, d\bar{r}\partial s^{a/} \text{ "receiver" pl } d\bar{r}\partial s(d\bar{t}b^{a})$:

	nō-dí'àsª	"chief's interpreter"
pl	nō-dí'əsìdıb ^a	

No L spreading after personal pronouns:

m̀ bīig	"my child" (<i>bīig</i> ^a)
m̀ tìıg	"my tree" (<i>tìıg</i> a)
mān bīig	"my child"
mān tílg	"my tree"
m̀ gbīgim	"my lion" (<i>gbīgιm</i> ^{nε})
m yūgóm	"my camel" (<i>yōgύm</i> ^{nε})

L spreading after words which do not also induce M spreading:

m biēyá bìis	"my elder same-sex siblings' children (<i>bīis</i> ^ε)"
m biٍēyá 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* ?*tíntòňríg/tíntòňrig/tíntòňríg* "the man's mole (*tīntòňríg*^a)."

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L spreading after free noun phrases also followed by M spreading:

dāu bîig	"a man's child" (cf <i>dàu̯-bīig</i> ª "male child")
dāỵ tíìg	"a man's tree"
nà'ab bîig	"a chief's child"
dāu̯ lā gbígìm	"the man's lion"
dāu̯ lā yúgùm	"the man's camel"

Unlike M spreading, L spreading occurs only *within* NPs and AdvPs; there is thus a tonal minimal pair between

<i>Bà tìs ná'àb lā bîìg.</i>	"They've given (it) to the chief's child."
3PL give chief:sg ART child:sg.	(L spreading applied to <i>bīig</i> ^a "child")
<i>Bà tìs ná'àb lā bīig.</i>	"They've given the chief a child."
3PL give chief:sg ART child:sg.	(No L spreading applied to <i>bīig</i> ^a)

It occurs regardless of the meaning or rôle of the preceding dependent:

mɔ̄ɔɡʋ-n wábùg lā	"the wild (in-the-bush) elephant (<i>wābug</i> ⁾)"
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After *heads*, L spreading only occurs with cb heads, not free forms:

	kūg-yínnì	"one stone" with <i>y(nni</i> as adjective <u>16.4.2.1</u>
but	kūgor yīnní	"one stone"
	wābug lā	"the elephant"
	wābıs pīiga	"ten elephants"
	wābıs pīiga lā	"the ten elephants"

The final element of a compound induces following M spreading in accordance with the usual rules $\underline{8.3}$ 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-pìəlıg	"tall white hen"
nō-wók-pāalíg	"tall new hen"

bù-wōk díìb	"a tall goat's food"	
nō-wók díìb	"a tall hen's food"	(<i>dīıb</i> ^{>} "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 to neme before the locative enclitic n^{ε} :

	dāu lā póogū-n	"in the man's field (<i>pɔ̄ɔg</i> ɔ/)"
	dāu lā púvgū-n	"inside the man" (<i>pūvg</i> ^a "inside")
like	dāu lā dɔ́ɔgū-n	"in the man's hut (dɔ̀ɔgɔ̀)"

Examples, using the frames "the man's $(d\bar{a}y | \bar{a}) X$ has got lost $(b \dot{b} d\iota g y \bar{a})$ " and "my elder same-sex siblings' $(\dot{m} b \dot{a} \bar{e} y \dot{a}) X$ has got lost":

Pattern L, not subject to L spreading:

bùŋ ^a	"donkey"	Dāu lā búŋ bódìg yā.
àňrʊŋ ^ɔ	"boat"	Dāu lā áňrùŋ bódìg yā.
dòɔgɔ	"house"	Dāu lā dóòg bódìg yā.

Pattern HO nouns appear unchanged after L and M spreading, and by analogy have unchanged following tone sandhi; words like *náaf*² "cow" fluctuate:

à-gáờňg ^o	"pied crow"	Dāu lā gáùňg bódìg yā.
náaf ^o	"COW"	Dāu̯ lā náàf bódìg yā or Dāu̯ lā náàf bòdıg yā.

Pattern H and O nouns, affected by L spreading:

	wābug ^{ɔ/} pɔ̄ɔg ^{ɔ/} bāŋª pūvgª	"elephant" "field" "ring" "inside"	Dāu lā wábùg bòdıg yā. Dāu lā póòg bòdıg yā. Dāu lā báŋ bòdıg yā. Dāu lā púùg bòdıg yā.	
but	vābvg ^{c)} bāŋ ^a yūgvdır ^ɛ yūgvdır ^ɛ	"elephant" "ring" "hedgehog" "hedgehog"	 M biēyá wàbug bódìg yā. M biēyá bàŋ bódìg yā. M biēyá yùgudır bódìg yā. Dāu lā yúgudìr bódìg yā. 	no M spreading no M spreading no M spreading three tonemes

L spreading applies sequentially, reflecting the substructure of NPs and AdvPs.

External sandhi

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"
	nō-píəlìg	"white hen"
	nō-páalìg	"new hen"
	dāu lā b <i>ú-pìəl</i> ıg	"the man's white goat"
	dāu̯ lā bú-pāalíg	"the man's new goat"
	dāu lā n <i>ź-píəl</i> ìg	"the man's white hen"
	dāu̯ lā nź-páalኒg	"the man's new hen"
but	dūg-káŋā	"this pot" (<i>dūk</i> ^{ɔ/} cb <i>dūg-</i> "pot")
	[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

[fūug dɔ́ɔ̀g]	"tent" (<i>fūug^{ɔ/}</i> "cloth", dɔ̀ɔgɔ "house")
pù'ʊsʊg [fúùg dɔ́ɔ̀g]	(not *[<i>pù'טsטg fúùg</i>] dɔ̀ɔg)
	"tabernacle" (<i>pù</i> ' <i>vsvg</i> ² "worship")

Lì kā' [[[dāu̯ lā bíìg] bìər] náàf] zùurē.

"It's not the man's child's elder-same-sex-sibling's cow's tail." WK $(b\bar{i}ig^a$ "child" $b\bar{\imath} a r^{\epsilon/}$ "elder sib of same sex" $n\dot{a}af^o$ "cow" $z\bar{\upsilon}\upsilon r^{\epsilon}$ "tail")

8.5 Segmental contact phenomena

8.5.1 Consonants

Both the initial consonant and the emic nasalisation of the deictic nwa^+ "this" are lost when it appears as an enclitic after a word ending in a consonant:

bīis ňwá	"these children"	[bi:sa]
zàam ňwá	"this evening"	[za:ma]
but <i>pu្'ā ňwá</i>	"this woman" (e.g. as vocative)	[pʰថ្ថa្awã]

The initial / of the definite article $l\bar{a}^{+/}$ 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 *nīdıb lā* "the people."

Initial *n* of focus- $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ often assimilates completely to a preceding word-final *d t n r l m* in normal rapid speech. Subsequently [r:] becomes [r] and [d:] becomes [d]:

Bà kpìid nē.	"They're dying."	[ba k͡pi:dɛ]
À zót nē.	"I'm afraid."	[ṃ zɔt:ε]
Ѝ mór nē bīisá àyí.	"I have two children with me."	[ṃ mɔrɛ bi:sa:ji]
Lì pè'ɛl nɛ̄.	"It's full."	[lɪ pʰɛ̯:l:ε]
Lì sàň'am nē.	"It's spoilt."	[lɪ sã̯:m:ε]

Other accounts of Kusaal have taken this as a "progressive flexion" $-d\epsilon/t\epsilon$. Final nasal consonants of proclitics, cbs and noun prefixes assimilate to the place of articulation of a following consonant, as does syllabic \dot{n} but not \dot{m} :

	dànkòŋ	"measles"	[daŋkʰɔŋ]
	nīn-bámmā	"these people"	[nimbam:a]
	nàm zī'	"still not know"	[nanzı̯]
	Ň-Вīl	Mbillah (personal name)	[ṃbil]
,	Ѝ nóŋī_f.	"I love you."	[ṃnɔŋɪf]

I follow traditional orthography in writing final nasals of prefixes as n everywhere except before $p \ b \ m$, where I write m.

8.5.2 Vowels

but

Word-final short vowels denasalise before a clitic with initial n or m:

àwá nā	"like this here" (<i>àňwá</i> "like this")
kē nā	"come hither" (<i>kēň</i> + "come")

Some unstressed *CVň*- elements lose nasalisation even when the following consonant is not a nasal. Thus with compounds of $s\bar{u}nf^{2/}$ "heart" like $s\bar{u}$ -málisìm^m "joy", $s\bar{u}nkpi'on^2$ "boldness", $s\bar{u}np\epsilon\epsilon n^{\epsilon}$ "anger" the 1996 NT and older sources write sumalism sukpi'on/sukpi'eun supeen, reflecting the bleaching and phonological simplification which has created noun prefixes from some original cbs <u>14.1.4</u>. KB restores the nasalisation in writing: sunkpi'eun "boldness", $sunp\epsilon\epsilon n$ "anger."

External sandhi

With $\partial e \breve{n}^a$ "be something/somehow" there is loss of nasalisation before the focus particle $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ (for the loss of the <u>e</u> see below):

	Μ̀ á nĒ dāỵ.	"I'm a man."
but	Lì àň súŋā.	"It's fine."

Older written materials write an directly before a complement as a not ann, but KB consistently has an [\tilde{a}] whenever the form is not followed by $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$.

Combining forms, and verb forms which are not VP-final, may not end in fronting diphthongs unless the next word begins with y. Otherwise, the fronting diphthongs are replaced by the corresponding monophthongs <u>4.2</u>:

	ae	→ a			og	$\rightarrow 0$		υ <u>ę</u>	$\rightarrow D$
	ae	<i>→ aa</i>						ve	שט → טט
			ie	→ iə				ue	→ uө
	sā <u>ę</u> ň			"blacksmith	ı"				
	sā <u>ę</u> ň	lā		"the blacks	mith"				
but	sàň-k	càŋā		"this blacks	mith"				
	Ò sừ'	υ lśr.		"She owns a	a lorry		sū'e ^{ya}		"own"
	Lì àň	súŋā.		"It's good."			à <u>ę</u> ň ^a		"be something"
Ti ya'a vve, ti vvnɛ tis Zugsɔb la. Tì yá' vvē̯, tì vớ nē ø tís Zūg-sɔ́b lā. IPL if be.alive, IPL be.alive FOC CAT give head-one:SG ART. "If we live, we live to the Lord." (Rom 14:8): ($vvee^{a}$ "be alive")									
	Èňrıg	ıım_ ø	pāa	du̯'átà.					
		.along:IMP CAT							
	"Shif	t along up to	the do	ctor." (<i>pāe</i> +/	"reacl	n")			
	Lì nà Dú o v			"It is finishe "[You] arose			nāe ^{+/} dūe ^{+/}	-	
See also the examples with fusion verb perfectives before liaison <u>8.2</u> . The verb <i>kā</i> ' <i>e</i> ⁺ "not be/not have" loses <i>e</i> before complements but not adjuncts:									

 \dot{O} kā' bīiga +ø. "She is not a child." 3AN NEG.BE child:SG NEG. Dāu lā kā' dɔ́ɔgū-n láa +ø. Man:sg art neg.be room:sg-loc art neg. "The man's not in the room." (dɔ̀ɔgū-n lā as complement)

but Sɔ' kae na nyaŋi dɔl zugdaannam ayi'... Sɔ̄' kā'e_ø ná ňyāŋı_ø dɔ̄l 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)

Dāỵ kā'ẹ dɔ́ɔgū-n láa +ø. Man:sg NEG.BE room:sg-LOC ART NEG. "There's no man in the room." (dɔ̀ɔgū-n lā as adjunct)

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	= vūvn	"would live" (Gal 3:21, 1996)
Kristo da faaɛn ti	= Kristo dá fāaň tí	"Christ saved us." (Gal 5:1)
m wa'e ne	= ṁ wá'a nē.	"I'm going" ILK

 $\dot{A} e \check{n}^{a}$ "be something" is always written *aa* before liaison; this might reflect lack of stress 2.3, but it seems more likely that the rarity of phrase-final $\dot{a} e \check{n}^{a}$ 20.2 has prevented the analogical introduction of phrase-final spelling phrase-medially. Many other cases involve $f \check{a} e \check{n}^{+/}$ "save", perhaps written *faaenn* specifically to distinguish the forms from those of $f \check{a} \check{n}^{+}$ "grab, rob"; the 1996 NT has two instances of the certainly spurious *faaenm* for imperative *faanm*. (See also 15.1 on *faangid* "saviour", *faangir* "salvation.") Clearcut errors like *Noŋilim pu naae da* (1 Cor 13:8, 1996 NT) for KB *Noŋilim 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 *Widi-ňyá'aŋ^a* "Woriyanga" (*wid-ňyá'aŋ^a* "mare") and *nwadibil* (Mt 2:2, 1996) for *ňwād-bíl^a* "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 $a|b^a$, $g^a|s^{\epsilon}$, $g^{\flat}|d^{\epsilon}$, $r^{\epsilon}|a^+$ and $f^{\flat}|\iota^+$ **noun classes**. Two unpaired non-count suffixes $-b^{\flat}-m^{\mathsf{m}}$ 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 $r^{\varepsilon}|a^{+}$ classes <u>16.2.2</u>. 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 $g^{2}|d^{\varepsilon}$ stems ending in *m n* following a short vowel, which always use the plural suffix $-a^{+}$ instead of $-d^{\varepsilon}$, as do all gerunds in this class. Adjectives avoid potentially ambiguous suffixes altogether <u>10</u>.

Two 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 $r^{\varepsilon}|a^{+}$ with the singular suffix l^{ε} .

alpa ba (sg)	sīd ^a nà'ab ^a	sīdıb ^a nà'-nàm ^a	sìd- nà'-	"husband" "chief"
g ^a s ^ε	būvg ^a	būυs ^ε	bù-	"goat"
g [⊃] d ^ε	dòɔgɔ bū'əsúgɔ	dòɔd ^ɛ bū'əsá+	dò- bū'øs-	"hut" "question"
r ^ε a ⁺ ι ^ε	nɔ̄ɔr ^{ɛ/} Kūsáàl ^ɛ	nōyá+	nō-	"mouth" "Kusaal"
$f^{2} \iota^{+}$	mòlıf ²	mòlı+	mòl-	"gazelle"
b ^o	sā'ab ^ɔ		sà'-	"porridge"
m ^m	tìım ^m		tì-	"medicine"

The classes are thus as follows:

The SF of a sg class suffix has been reinterpreted as the SF of a different class suffix in some cases, with corresponding remodelling of LFs, and sometimes with new plurals corresponding to the reinterpreted sg suffix; stems in *m* with long root vowels in the ${}^{a}|b^{a}$ class avoid the plural suffix b^{a} ; some $g^{a}|s^{\epsilon}$ class nouns with human reference have alternative plurals with b^{a} ; countable nouns in the m^{m} class form plurals with $-a^{+}$ or $-s^{\epsilon}$ or nam^{a} ; and the small $f^{2}|\iota^{+}$ class has some members with $f^{2}|\iota^{+}$ suffixes in only one number. The sg suffix $-l^{a}$ is found only in the irregular adjective $b\bar{\imath}l^{a}$ "little" 10. Few other cases of irregular sg/pl pairing occur; examples are

pē'og ^{ɔ/}	pε̄'εs ^{ε/}		pē'-	"sheep"
gbè'og ⁵	gbè'ɛdɛ		gbè'-	"forehead"
	gbèda+			
bįāųňk ²	bįāň'ad ^ε	WK	bi̯àň'-	"shoulder"
	bįāň'ada+	SB		

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>9.6</u>.

Nouns with sg SF ending in a long monophthong, or in an unrounded vowel mora followed by a velar, belong to $g^a|s^{\epsilon}$; all nouns ending in a rounding diphthong followed by a velar belong to $g^{o}|d^{\epsilon}$, as do most ending in a long rounded monophthong followed by a velar, but a few are $g^a|s^{\epsilon}$.

All nouns in SF -*f* belong to $f^{2}|\iota^{+}$.

Noun flexion

Human-reference nouns otherwise default to ${}^{a}|b^{a}$, except for stems ending in a long vowel, which have been transferred to $r^{\epsilon}|a^{+}$ in Agolle Kusaal. Exceptional are $nay\bar{i}ig^{a}$ "thief" (${}^{a}|b^{a}$) $b\bar{a}'a^{=}$ "traditional diviner" (${}^{a}|b^{a}$) $z\bar{c}cm^{n\epsilon}$ "fugitive" ($r^{\epsilon}|a^{+}$). The b^{a} -singular subclass contains most human-reference nouns in sg SF -*b*, and also sam^{ma} "father", dam^{ma} "man's parent-in-law", $dayam^{ma}$ "woman's parent-in-law."

Perfective gerunds in SF -*m* belong to b° ; otherwise, mass nouns in -*m* belong to the m^{m} class, and in -*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 l n r 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, gall bladder", $p\bar{u}um^{m/}$ "flower", $d\dot{a}al(m^{m})$ "male sex organs", $p\dot{v}al(m^{m})$ "female sex organs." $P\bar{i}m^{m/}$ "arrow" is a relic of a lost $|c||^{\epsilon}$ class.

9.1.1 Noun class and meaning

As with almost all noun class systems, there are correlations between class membership and meaning, though with frequent exceptions. This association of class and meaning can be exploited to change the significance of a stem <u>12.3</u>.

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 <u>30.5</u>, many larger animals, and tools. Almost all ethnic group names belong to ${}^a|b^a$ or $g^a|s^{\epsilon}$ (*Zàngbèog*⁵ "Hausa" and *Nàsāara*⁺ "European" are the only exceptions in my materials); the place inhabited by the group has sg $-g^5$ <u>30.4</u>.

The $g^{2}|d^{\epsilon}$ and $r^{\epsilon}|a^{+}$ classes are the default non-human countable classes. They include all names of fruits, and most names of body parts <u>30.6</u>. Human-reference nouns in $g^{2}|d^{\epsilon}$ seem to be pejorative ($b\bar{a}|\bar{\epsilon}rvg^{2}|$ "ugly person", $d\dot{a}b\bar{\iota}og^{2}$ "coward", $z\bar{2}|vg^{2}|$ "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 l^{ϵ} subclass includes all names of languages.

The small $f^{2}|\iota^{+}$ class includes two groups: animals, and small round things. It contains all names of seeds. No $f^{2}|\iota^{+}$ noun refers to people.

The b° class has only two members in my own materials that are not gerunds: $s\bar{a}'ab^{\circ}$ "millet porridge, TZ" and $t\bar{a}n\bar{p}^{\circ}$ "war." There is also a word $ki'ib^{\circ}$ "soap" in written materials; WK uses the Mampruli loanword $k\bar{i}ibo'^+$ cb $k\bar{i}ib$ - instead.

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^2 or formally plural.

Deverbal nouns have predictable class membership: agent nouns belong to $a^{a}|b^{a}$, instrument nouns to $g^{a}|s^{\epsilon}$, and gerunds take $g^{2} r^{\epsilon} b^{2}$ or m^{m} by rule <u>12.2.1.1</u>.

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 sg when it has the suffix $-g^a$ or $-g^2$, 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 = n u = n with $\epsilon \epsilon n z = n$.

 $n\bar{u}a^{+/}$ "hen" $n\bar{z}s^{\epsilon/}$ "hens"

Such alternations are never levelled. However, the distribution of *oral iə uə* versus $\varepsilon\varepsilon$ >> is different between the $g^a|s^{\varepsilon}$ and the $g^{\flat}|d^{\varepsilon}$ classes. There are no stems in final *uə* before singular g^{\flat} and very few stems with *iə*: $dab\bar{i}og^{\flat}$ "coward" (pl $dab\bar{i}ad^{\varepsilon}$) and $kp\bar{i}on^{\flat}$ "strong" (pl $kp\bar{i}ama^+$.) There is an actual stem alternation before $g^a|s^{\varepsilon}$ and $g^{\flat}|d^{\varepsilon}$ suffixes in

 $b\bar{\imath}^{a+}$ $b\bar{\imath}^{a}s^{\epsilon}$ $b\underline{\dot{\imath}}\dot{a}$ '-"bad" $b\bar{\epsilon}^{i}og^{2}$ $b\bar{\epsilon}^{i}\epsilon d^{\epsilon}$ $b\dot{\epsilon}'$ -

 $B\bar{r} \partial m^{m}$ "enemy" is derived from the same root with derivational *m 13.2.2. The alternation is most likely due to a rule $*i\partial gv \rightarrow \varepsilon \varepsilon gv$, parallel to $*u\partial gv \rightarrow 0.000 \underline{6.4}$, with the plural vowels remodelled on the sg; cf $l\bar{a}m$ -f $5\partial g^{\circ}$ ($\leftarrow *lam$ -fuegv: $l\bar{a}m^{m\varepsilon/}$ "gum" f $\dot{u}e$ + "draw out") pl $l\bar{a}m$ -f $5\partial d^{\varepsilon}$ "toothless." The vowel of $dab\bar{r}og^{\circ}$ "coward" is perhaps reintroduced from $dab\bar{r}\partial m^{m}$ "fear." The formally-plural $z\dot{u}ed^{\varepsilon}$ "friendship" seems to be the only example for $-ued^{\varepsilon}$; significantly, there is no sg with 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/}	nīní+	nīn-	or <i>nīf</i> -	"eye"
zìň'a+	zèň'ɛsɛ	zį̀àň'-	or <i>zèň</i> '-	"red" (adjective)

Noun flexion

wōk ^{ɔ/}	wā'ad ^{ɛ/}	wā'- or w <i>5k-</i>	"long, tall" (adjective)
tāňp ^o		tàňp-	"war" <u>6.1.1.1</u>
zūg ^{ɔ/}	zūt ^{ε/}	<i>zū</i> - or <i>zūg-</i>	"head"

Mooré and Toende both show *zu*- consistently in cases where Agolle has $z\bar{u}g$ -:

Mooré	Toende	Agolle	
zusoaba	zùsóp	zūg-sób ^a	"boss"
zúkóká	zùkók	zūg-kūgυr ^ε	"pillow"

 $Z\bar{u}g$ -s5b^a "Lord" is very frequently read $Z\bar{u}$ -s5b^a in the audio version of the NT. The cb $z\bar{u}g$ - sometimes behaves tonally like a noun prefix <u>7.2.4</u>.

The "regular" cb of $n\bar{n}f^{()}$ "eye" is $n\bar{n}$, but as a head it appears as $n\bar{n}f$.

nīf-káņā	"this eye"

Nīn- still predominates as a premodifier: *nīn-dáa⁼* "face", *nīn-tám^m* "tears", *nīn-gótìs^ε* "spectacles." *Gbàuŋ*² "letter, book" now has the cb *gbàuŋ-*, but the "regular" cb *gbàn-* still occurred as a generic complement in the 1976 NT e.g. *gbanmi'id gbàn-mī'id* "scribe" ("book-knower") where later versions have *gbauŋmi'id*. Similarly, the 1976 NT *ziŋgban'ad zīm-gbáň'àd* "fisherman" has been replaced by KB *ziŋgban'ad*.

With m and n stems, the remodelled forms have become the regular cbs:

zīnzāu̯ŋ ^{ɔ/}	zīnzāná ⁺	zīnzáỵŋ-	"bat"
àňrʊŋ ^ɔ	àňrıma+	àňrʊŋ-	"boat"

So too with *CV*-stems in the $r^{\varepsilon}|a^+$ class:

gbēr ^{ɛ/}	gbēyá+	gbēr-	"thigh"
kùkɔ̃r ^{ε/}	kùkōyá+	kùkōr-	"voice"
	(but	kùkō-títā'ar	"loud voice" NT)

Vom^{m/} cb vom- "life", kom^m cb kòm- "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+/	<i>kī-</i> or <i>kā-</i>	"cereal, millet"
lā'af ^o	līgıdı+	là'- or lìg-	"cowrie" pl "money"

Two words have distinct sg- and pl-reference cbs:

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Noun flexion

dāu̯+	dāp ^a	dà u -	sg dàp- pl	"man, male person"
tāųň+/	tāňp ^{a/}	tāuň-	sg <i>tāňp-</i> pl	"sib of opposite sex"

Disambiguation is clearly involved with some longer remodelled cbs:

kòlug ^o	kòn ^{nε}	kàlug-	"bag"
lànnıg ^a	lànnıs ^ɛ	lànnıg-	"squirrel"
kòlug-kàŋā	"this bag"	cf cb <i>kòl-</i> from	<i>kɔ̃lıg</i> ª "river"
lànnıg-pìəlıg	"white squirrel"	cf cb <i>làn-</i> from	<i>lān^{nε}</i> "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:

dàỵ-sừŋ	"good man"	cf <i>dāu</i>	"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" <u>16.11.1.5</u>.

9.3 Noun paradigms

For tones see <u>7.2</u>. Combining forms are frequently remodelled segmentally after the singular <u>9.2.2</u>, regularly so with stems in m and n.

By default, sg and pl class suffixes simply attach after a stem-final epenthetic vowel or root vowel. Complications arise from consonant assimilation instead of epenthesis, rounding of stem-final vowels before singulars in $-g^{2} - k^{2} - \eta^{2}$, deletion of the *g of the sg suffix g^{a} after aa ia ue aaň ɛɛň ɔɔň, and the combination of root-vowel-final stems with the flexions a, ι^{+} and $a^{+} 6.1.1.1$.

9.3.1 ^a|b^a 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/}	kpīkpīnn(b ^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"

Most deverbal agent nouns are completely regular:

kūud ^{a/}	kūvdíb ^a	kūvd-	"killer"

Agent nouns from 3-mora stems in *s* regularly drop the *d* formant in sg and cb, which can result in "tonal heteroclites" <u>7.2.3</u>. Many also have nam^a plurals <u>9.4</u>.

kùøs ^a	kūøsıdıb ^a	kùøs-	"seller"
pù'us ^a	pū'usıdıb ^a	pù'us-	"worshipper"
dì'əs ^a	dī"əsıdıb ^a	dì'əs-	"receiver"
tù'as-tù'as ^a	tù'as-tū'asıdıb ^a	tù'as-tù'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	sวิรเdเb ^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-zābıdıb ^a	zàb-zàb-	"warrior"
gbān-záb ^a	gbān-záb-nàm ^a	gbān-záb-	"leatherbeater"
ňwī-ték ^a	ňwī-tékìdıb ^a		"rope-puller"

Exceptionally, consonant assimilation of *md does not appear in the plural in

	pu̯'à-sāň'am ^{ma}	pu̯'à-sāň'amıdıb ^a	pu̯'à-sàň'am-	"adulterer"
(cf	yōum-yú'ùm ^{na}	yōvm-yú'ùmnıb ^a	yūʊm-yú'ùm-	"singer")

Stems ending in vowels in this class are problematic because of the vowelinitial sg suffix. There is no single systematic rule for the outcome.

Four highly irregular nouns end in diphthongs in the sg 2.4.2:

Noun flexion

dāỵ+		dāp ^a	dàu̯-, dàp- <u>6.1.1.1</u>	"man" (<i>vir</i>)
tāu̯ň+/		tāňp ^{a/}	tāuň-, tāňp-	"sib of opposite sex"
sāeň+	WK	sāaňb ^a	sàň-	"blacksmith"
sā <u>e</u> ň ^a	DK			
sɔ̄e̯ň+	WK	sวิวทีb ^a	sòň-	"witch"
sɔ̄e̯ňª	DK			

There are also the two original *g-stems

pu̯'ā ^a ← *pu̯aga	pū'ab ^a	pự'à-	"woman, wife"
bā'a ⁼ ← *ba'aga	bā'ab ^a	bà'a-	"traditional diviner"

Some *CVV* stems introduce -*d*- in some forms but not others:

wìıd ^a	wìıb ^a	wìıd-	"hunter"
sɔ̃ň'ɔd ^{a/}	sɔ̃ň'ɔb ^{a/}	sɔ̃ň'ɔd-	agent noun of <i>sɔ̃ň</i> 'e ^{+/}
			"be better than"
pūkpāad ^{a/}	pūkpāadíb ^a	pūkpá-	"farmer" (but <i>kpāad</i> ^{a/}
			<i>id</i> is regular)

Sg final -v is dropped elsewhere in the paradigm of

pītú+	pītíb ^a	pīt-	"younger sibling
			of same sex"

Sàam-pīt^{a/} "father's younger brother" and *bì-pīt*^{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 $r^{\varepsilon}|a^{+}$ class:

pùkòɔňr [€]	pùkòňya+	"widow"
pókốót	pokõp	Toende <i>id</i>
pokõorε	pokõpa	Farefare <i>id</i>
dà-kòɔňr ^ɛ	dà-kòňya+	"bachelor"
dákốot	dakõp	Toende <i>id</i>
dàkôorὲ	dakõpa	Farefare <i>id</i>

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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", $p\partial n' \partial r^{\epsilon}$ "cripple", $ny\bar{\epsilon}'\epsilon r^{\epsilon/}$ "next-younger sibling" (but Toende sg $y\tilde{e}'et$ pl $y\tilde{e}ra$ *id*.)

Stems in l n r following a *short* root vowel show LF - ε with l and n geminated. This represents remodelling based on the SF, which could be the outcome of adding either -^a or - r^{ε} . If the SF could *not* result from attachment of sg - r^{ε} , as with stems in *nn mm mn* <u>6.2</u>, nouns with b^{a} plurals always have sg -^a.

The assimilation $*nb \rightarrow mm$ takes place in the plural:

Dàgbān ^{nε/}	Dàgbām ^{ma/}	Dàgbān-	"Dagomba person"
<mark>Βìn^{nε}</mark>	Bìm ^{ma}	Bìn-	"Moba person"
Kὺtān ^{nɛ/}	Kùtām ^{ma/}	Kùtān-	member of EW's clan
M5r ^{ε/}	Мо́от ^{ma} irreg	Mōr-	"Muslim"

Agent nouns from single-aspect verbs with stems in -*ll* 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} ňyā'an-dɔ́l ^{lɛ}	ňyà'an-dòllıb ^a ňyā'an-dóllà+	ňyà'an-dòl- ňyā'an-dól-	"disciple" NT <i>id</i> WK
	gbàn-zāňl ^{la/}	gbàn-zāňllíb ^a	gbàn-zāňl-	"one with a book in hand" KT WK
or	bù-zāňl ^{la/} bù-zāňl ^{lɛ/}	bù-zāňllíb ^a bù-zāňllá ⁺	bù-zāňl-	"goat-carrier" WK
	gbàn-mɔ̄r ^{a/} gbàn-tār ^{a/}	gbàn-mɔ̄ríbª gbàn-tāríbª	gbàn-mɔ̄r- gbàn-tār-	"book-owner" DK <i>id</i> DK
	bù-mวr ^{a/}	bù-mวríb ^a	bù-m코r-	"goat-owner" WK
or	bὺ-mɔ̄r ^{ε/}	bù-m코rá+		

WK specifically rejected all interpretations as head + deverbal adjective. Stems in *VVn*- undergo consonant assimilation in the pl: $*nb \rightarrow mm$:

sāan ^{a/} sáam ^{ma}	sāan-	"guest, stranger"
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Stems in *VVm*- have sg $-m^m$ instead of $-m^a$. The assimilation $*mb \rightarrow mm$ would cause SF sg and pl to coincide at least segmentally; this is avoided by using pl s^{ε} or by pluralising with $nam^a 9.4$:

kpī im ^{m/}	kpī imís ^ε	kpī im-	"dead person, corpse"
zū'em ^{m/}	zū'amís ^ε	zū'em-	"blind person"
tādım ^{m/}	tādımıs ^ɛ	tàdım-	"weak person"
	tàdım-nàm ^a		

Noun flexion

In two words WK accepted -*b*^a pl forms as LFs but not SFs, demonstrating that avoidance of ambiguity drives the variations:

<i>kpēɛňm</i> ^m	<i>kpēεňmma</i> LF only		
	kp <i>ɛ̀ɛňm-nàm</i>	^a kp <i>è</i> ɛňm-	"elder"
bī'əm ^m	bī'əmma	LF only	
	bì'əm-nàm ^a	bì'əm-	"enemy"

9.3.1.1 **b**^a singular

A subclass of nouns referring to older/important people has $-b^{a}$ in the sg, and makes the plural with *nàm*^a <u>9.4</u>:

nà'ab ^a	nà'-nàm ^a	nà'-	"chief"
yáab ^a (*yāágbā)	yāa-nám ^a	yāa-	"grandparent"
pùgudıb ^a	pùgud-nàm ^a	pùgud-	"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 $g^{a}|s^{\varepsilon}$ class

Straightforward examples include:

būvg ^a	būυs ^ε	bù-	"goat"
tè'ɛgª	tὲ'εs ^ε	tè'-	"baobab"
tìıg ^a	tìιs ^ε	tì-	"tree"
ňwādıg ^{a/}	ňwādιs ^{ε/}	ňwād-	"moon, month"
l5dıg ^{a/}	l̄ɔdιs ^{ε/}	l5d-	"corner"
āaňdıg ^a	āaňdıs ^ɛ	àaňd-	"Vitex doniana"
bù-dìbıg ^a	bù-dìbιs ^ε	bù-dìb-	"male kid"
kpìibıg ^a	kpìibιs ^ε	kpìib-	"orphan"
yàmmıg ^a	yàmmıs ^ɛ	yàm-	"slave"
kɔ̄lıg ^a	kɔ̃lıs ^ε	kòl-	"river"
kpùkpàrıg ^a	kpùkpàrιs ^ε	kpùkpàr-	"palm tree"
pūsıg ^{a/}	pūsıs ^{ɛ/}	pūs-	"tamarind"

<i>z</i> ɔ̄ɔgª	zɔ̄ɔsɛ	"run, race"
būdıg ^a		"planting"

Root-stems in *Caa Cia Cue* delete the *g of the sg suffix $-g^a \underline{6.3}$:

bāa ⁼	<u>8.1</u>	bāas ^ε	bà-	"dog"
sīa+		sīəs ^ɛ	sįà-	"waist"
sàbùa⁺	F	sàbùøs ^ɛ	sàbỵà-	"lover, girlfriend"

Nasal *iaň uaň* here alternates with *ɛɛň ɔɔň*:

zìň'a ⁺	zὲň'εs ^ε	zi̯àň'- or zɛ̀ň'-	"red" (adjective)
nū'-íň'a+	nū' - έň'ὲs ^ε	nū'- <i>έ</i> ň'-	"fingernail"
Mùa ⁺	Μὸͻϧε	Mò-	"Mossi person"
nūa ^{+/}	n̄ววร ^{ε/}	nō-	"hen"

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"

**Cag-* **Ciag-* **Cuag-* delete **g* when there is no assimilation <u>6.3</u>:

zàk ^a	zà'as ^ɛ	zà'-	"compound"
pųāk ^a	pū'as ^ε	pỵ'à-	"female" (adjective)

Stems in -*m*- and -*n*- show -*ŋ*- in the sg, via $*mg \rightarrow \eta\eta$ and $*ng \rightarrow \eta\eta$, and the cbs adopt the sg form; in the pl $*ns \rightarrow \tilde{:}s$ <u>6.2</u> whereas -*ms- remains with 2-morastems, but is frequently assimilated in longer stems. There are, however, no unequivocal three- or four-mora *n*-stems in this class in any case.

bāŋ ^a	bāaňs ^ε	bàŋ-	"ring, chain, fetter"
tēŋ ^a	tēεňs ^ε	tèŋ-	"land"
pàŋ ^a	pàaňs ^ɛ	pàŋ-	"power"
bùŋ ^a	bùmιs ^ε	bùŋ-	"donkey"
nāŋ ^a	nāmıs ^ɛ	nàŋ-	"scorpion"
sú'өŋ ^a	sū'θmís ^ε	รนิ' o ŋ-	"rabbit"
ňwāaŋ ^a	ňwāamιs ^ε	ňwàaŋ-	"monkey"
níiŋ ^a	níis ^ɛ	nīiŋ-	"bird"
	nīimís ^ɛ		

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kùlıŋ ^a	kòlıs ^ɛ kòlımıs ^ɛ	kùlıŋ-	"door"
kō'alíŋ ^a	kū'alís ^ɛ	kū'alíŋ-	sleeveless traditional
	kū'alímìs ^ε		smock

So too with all deverbal instrument nouns:

mēɛdıŋª	mēɛdısɛ mēɛdımısɛ	mὲɛdɪŋ-	"building tool"
pīəsíŋ ^a	pīəsís ^ɛ pīəsímìs ^ɛ	pīəsíŋ-	"sponge" ← <i>pīe^{+/}</i> "wash (self)"

Various irregular stem alternations are seen in

bīig ^a	bīis ^ε	bī- or bì-	"child"
bèrıŋ ^a	bèrıgıs ^ɛ		a plant used for fibre
tàmpūa+	tàmpɔ̄ɔs ^ɛ	tàmpò-	"housefly" DK (no <i>ň</i>)
būtıŋ ^a	būtus ^ε	bùtıŋ-	"cup" <u>2.3</u>

Very irregular in both flexion and phonology is

sāŋá+	<i>sānsá</i> + [saŋsa]	sān-	"time"
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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 Yàamιs ^ε /Yàaňs ^ε		
Sà'dàbùa ⁺	Sà'dàbùøb ^a		clan name <u>30.4</u>
	or <i>Sà'dàbùθs</i> ε		

Several s^{ϵ} -plural stems with rounded vowels have sg g° for the expected g^{a} . WK avoids the change to $-g^{\circ}$ with human-reference nouns.

	kūug ^{a/}	kūus ^{ε/}	kū-	"mouse"
or	kūug ^{ɔ/}			
	sù'ug ^a	sὺ'ʊsɛ	sù'-	"knife"
or	sù'ug ^o			
	nú'ùg ^ɔ	nú'ùs ^ε	nū'-	"hand"

or	zùnzòŋ ^a zùnzòŋ ^ɔ	zùnzòɔňsɛ	zùnzòŋ-	"blind person"
	tèŋ-zùŋ ^ɔ	tὲŋ-zὺυἤs ^ε		"foreign land"
but		pi̯àň'-zùna+		"foreign language"
	yú'טס ^כ	yū'umís ^ɛ	yū'ט ס-	"night"
	zùuňg ^ɔ	zùuňs ^ε	zùň-	"vulture"
		or <i>zùuňd</i> 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 *yàmmug* "slave" the epenthetic vowel before the flexion has been rounded by the -m- and the resulting SF reinterpreted as ending in g^{2} :

yàmmʊgª WK yàmmɪs^ɛ yàm- "slave" or yàmmʊg^ɔ

Some original $g^{2}|d^{\varepsilon}$ nouns have substituted pl $-s^{\varepsilon}$ for $-d^{\varepsilon}$ instead of $-a^{+}$ <u>9.3.3</u>:

	à-dàalúŋ ^ɔ	à-dàalís ^ɛ WK à-dàalímìs ^ɛ	à-dàalúŋ-	"stork"
	sī'úŋ ^ɔ	sī imís ^ε	รī'uŋ-	a kind of big dish
cf	d້ເເຣບ໌ŋ ^ວ	dìısís ^ɛ dìısímà+	dìιsύŋ-	"spoon"

Two words of this type drop -*s*- from the stem in the plural:

wīlเรง์ŋ ^ว	wīlımís ^ɛ	wīlısúŋ-	a kind of snail
yālısúŋ ^ɔ	yālımís ^ɛ	yālısúŋ -	"quail"

9.3.3 **g²**|**d**^ε class

All stems in *m n* following a short vowel use a^+ instead of d^{ϵ} for the plural suffix, as do all gerunds.

Before the sg $-g^{2} - k^{2} - \eta^{2}$ stem-final vowels are rounded, changing epenthetic vowels to v and creating rounding diphthongs from root vowels <u>6.4</u>.

dàvg ⁵	dàad ^ε	dà-	"piece of wood"
fēň'og ^{ɔ/}	fēň'ɛdɛ/	fēň'-	"ulcer"
vīug ^{ɔ/}	vīid ^{ε/}	vī-	"owl"
vāʋňgɔ/	vāaňd ^{ε/}	vāň-	"leaf"
mɔ̄ɔgɔ	mɔ̄ɔdɛ	mò-	"grass, bush"

dùndùug ⁵	dùndùudɛ	dùndù-	"cobra"
dàbīog ⁵	dàbīəd ^ɛ	dàbịà-	"coward"
	zùθd ^ε		"friendship"
wābug ^{ɔ/}	wābıd ^{ɛ/}	wāb-	"elephant"
zūθbúg ^ο	zūθbíd ^ε	zūəb-	"(human head) hair"
bālērug ^{ɔ/}	bālērıd ^{ɛ/}	bālźr-	"ugly person"
	or <i>bālērιs^{ε/}</i>		
bēsug ^o	bĒsıd ^ɛ	bès-	kind of pot
Dènnug ⁵			Denugu (place name)

Some stems ending in root vowels have plurals of the form CVt^{ϵ} <u>6.1.1.1</u>:

dòɔgɔ	dòɔd ^ɛ or dòt ^ɛ	dò-	"hut, room; clan"	
So too <i>pɔ̃ɔgɔ́/</i> "farı	n, field" <i>, fūug^{ɔ/}</i> "clo	othing, shirt." The s	g has a short vowel in	
zūg ^{ɔ/}	zūt ^{ε/}	zū- or zūg-	"head"	
*Cag- *Ci̯ag- *Cu̯a	g- stems <u>6.3</u> show s	sg -k ² , and <u>µa</u> becom	nes ɔ before -k² <u>6.4</u> :	
bòk ^ə lòk ^ə lāuk ^ə bi̯āu̯ňk ^ə	bù'ad ^ɛ lù'ad ^ɛ lā'ad ^ɛ bຼiāň'ad ^ɛ WK bຼiāň'ada ⁺ SB	bỵ'à- lỵ'à- là'- bịàň'-	"hole, pit" "quiver (for arrows)" "(item of) goods" "shoulder"	
Stems in <i>CVd</i> show	w -t- in the pl <u>6.2</u> vi	a * <i>dd → tt</i> :		
ùdvg ⁵ gādvg ^{5/}	ùt ^ε gāt ^{ε/}	ùd- gād-	"(piece of) chaff" "bed" (Hausa <i>gadoo</i>)	
Stems in CVg deve	elop <i>kk</i> in the singu	lar via * <i>gg → kk</i> :		
dūk ^{ɔ/}	dūgud ^{ɛ/} dūgub dút ^ɛ	dūg-	"cooking pot" "cooking pots" SB	
Stems in <i>I</i> develop the cluster <i>nn</i> in the pl via $*Id \rightarrow nn$:				
yɔ̄lug ^{ɔ/} zɔ̄lug ^{ɔ/}	yōn ^{nε/} zōn ^{nε/}	yōl- zōl-	"sack; 200 cedis" "fool"	

"hawk"

sìn^{nɛ} or sìlıs^ɛ sìl-

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sìlvg^o

The only *m n* stems making plurals with $-d^{\epsilon}$ are *CVVC* root-stems:

làngávŋ ^ɔ	làngāamá+	làngāvŋ-	"crab"
	or <i>làngáam^{mε}</i>		

So too $mang\bar{a}\omega\eta^{\circ}$ "crab", the plural-only $s\bar{u}n\bar{n}-p\dot{\epsilon}en^{n\epsilon}$ "anger" and perhaps the placename $T\dot{\epsilon}mp\dot{a}an^{n\epsilon}$ "Tempane" <u>30.3</u>.

All stems in *n m* following a short vowel use the plural suffix a^+ instead of d^{ϵ} . They show -*ŋ*- in the sg, via **ng* \rightarrow *ŋŋ* and **mg* \rightarrow *ŋŋ*, and normally use the sg segmental (but not tonal) form as cb <u>9.2.2</u>.

gbàỵŋ ⁵	gbàna+	gbàn- or gbàuŋ-	"letter, book"
zīnzāu̯ŋ ^{ɔ/}	zīnzāná+	zīnzáuŋ-	"bat"
àňrʊŋ ^ɔ	àňrıma+	àňrʊŋ-	"boat"
mālvŋ ^ว	mālıma+	màluŋ-	"sacrifice"

The expected \underline{y} -glide is absent in the sg and cb of

nìn-gbīŋ ^{ɔ/}	nìn-gbīná+	nìn-gbīŋ-	"body"
	2		5

This may represent the influence of the alternate sg form $n i n - g b \bar{l} n^{n\epsilon/}$. The formal plural $n i n - g b \bar{l} n \dot{a}^+$ is often used for singular "body."

All regular gerunds of 3-mora- and 4-mora-stem dual-aspect verbs belong to this noun class except for those with stems ending in velars and fusion verbs, which have the singular suffix r^{ϵ} 12.2.1.1.

gàadvg ^ɔ	←	gàad ^ɛ	"(sur)pass"
lìəbug ^o	\leftarrow	lìəb ^ε	"become"
dīgılúg ⁵	\leftarrow	dīgıl ^{ɛ/}	"lay down"
yāarúg ^o	\leftarrow	yāar ^{ɛ/}	"scatter"
sīgısúg ^o	←	sīgıs ^{ɛ/}	"lower"

Only stems in -*s*- and -*s*(*m*- have plurals, always with -*a*⁺:

bū' o súg ^o	bū'əsá+	bū' o s-	"question"
zàaňsúŋ ^ɔ	zàaňsímà+	zàaňsúŋ-	"dream"

Gerunds of 3-mora *n*-stem verbs never assimilate $*ng \rightarrow \eta\eta \underline{6.2}$:

Gerunds of 3-mora *m*-stems may optionally not assimilate $*mg \rightarrow \eta\eta$:

	tວ່ງງ ^ວ	←	tōɔm ^{m/}	"depart, disappear"
or	tōɔmúg ^ɔ			
	sàň'טŋ ^כ	←	sàň'am ^m	"destroy"
or	sàň'amvg ^o			
	kàrvŋ ⁵	←	kàrım ^m	"read"
or	kàrımvg ⁵			

Gerunds of 4-mora *m*-stems always assimilate:

zàaňsúŋ ^ɔ	\leftarrow	<i>zàaňsım</i> ^m	"dream"
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9.3.4 **r**^ε|**a**⁺ class

Straightforward examples include:

kūgυr ^{ε/}	kūgá+	kūg-	"stone"
dìgır ^ɛ	dìga+	dìg-	"dwarf"
būgur ^ε	būga+	bùg-	"abode of
			a <i>wīn^{nε} (spirit, god)</i> "
bàlàŋır ^ɛ	bàlàŋa+	bàlàŋ-	"hat"
yūgvdır ^ɛ	yūgvda+	yùgvd-	"hedgehog"
pu̯'à-sādιr ^{ε/}	pu̯'à-sādá+	pu̯'à-sād-	"young woman"
nóbìr ^ε	n5bá+	nōb-	"leg"
līıbır ^ɛ	līıba+	lìıb-	"twin"
sวิททเr ^ะ	sōnna+	sòn-	"inner
			compound wall"
sāngúnnìr ^ɛ	sāngúnnà+	sāngún-	"millipede"
bì'isır ^ɛ	bì'isa+	bì'is-	"woman's breast"
sūmmιr ^ε	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"

Noun flexion

-			
zūur ^ɛ	zūya+	zù-	"tail"
bīər ^{ɛ/}	bi̯ēyá+	bįā-	"elder same-sex sib"
zūθr ^ε	zųēya+	zuà-	"hill"
nɔ̄ɔr ^{ε/}	nōyá+	nō-	"mouth"
yòɔr ^ɛ	yòya ⁺	yò-	"soldier ant"
Glottalised vov	wel stems:		
yū'טr ^{ɛ/}	yūdá+	yū'-	"name"
tītā'ar [€]	tītāda+	tītá'-	"big" (adjective)
pòň'ɔr ^ɛ	pòňda+	pòň'-	"cripple"
ňyē'ɛr ^{ɛ/}	ňyēdá+	ňyē'-	"next-younger sibling"
pù-tèň'ɛr ^ɛ	pù-tÈňda+	pù-tÈň'-	"mind"
yū'⊖r ^ε	yųāda+	<u>уѝ'өг- 9.2.2</u>	"penis"

For the allomorphism in *CVV* root-stems before the plural $-a^+$ see <u>6.1.1.1</u>. Unglottalised vowel stems:

Stems in **Cag-* **Ciag-* **Ci*

bà'ar ^ε	bà'a ⁺ or bàda ⁺	bà'-	"idol" (Farefare <i>bàgr</i> è)
ňyā'ar [€]	ňyā'a+	ňyà'-	"root" (← *ɲɛg-)
sjà'ar ^ɛ	sįà'a+	sįà'-	"forest"
bįāň'ar ^{ε/}	bi̯áň'a+	bįāň'-	"wet mud, riverbed"
mὺ'ar ^ε	mỵ'àa+	mu̯'à-	"reservoir, dam"
	or <i>mò'ada</i> +		
zànkὺ'ar ^ε	zànkự'àa+	zànkự'à-	"jackal"
	or <i>zànkù'ada</i> +		
kùndù'ar ^ε	kùndu̯'àa+	kùndu̯'à-	"barren woman"
	or <i>kùndù'ada</i> +		

So too, despite the derivation from $d\dot{a}'^+$ "buy", where the glottalisation is not derived from *g:

kì-dà'ar [€]	<i>kì-dà'ada</i> + W	VΚ	"bought-in millet"
Stems in del	eted * <i>g</i> after a long	vowel include	
νúθr ^ε	vūáa ⁼	vūe-	"fruit of <i>vúøŋ</i> ª tree"

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and all fusion verb gerunds 11.1 like

gbáň'ar ^ɛ	←	gbāň'e ^{+/}	"grab"
dí'ər ^ɛ	←	dī e+/	"get"
dúør ^ε	←	dūe+/	"rise"

Some root-stems show *CV* with a short vowel before the $r^{\varepsilon}|a^{+}$ sg <u>9.2.1</u>. They regularly use the segmental form of the sg for cb.

gbēr ^{ɛ/}	gbēyá+	gbēr-	"thigh"
kùkɔ̃r ^{ε/}	kùkōyá+	kùkōr-	"voice"

Similarly $kp \partial k \bar{v} r^{\epsilon/}$ "tortoise" $g \bar{a} \bar{n} r^{\epsilon/}$ "ebony fruit" $g \bar{v} m p \bar{v} z \bar{\epsilon} r^{\epsilon/}$ "duck" $\bar{n} y \partial v \bar{v} r^{\epsilon/}$ "life". 2-mora stem verbs make gerunds in $-r^{\epsilon}$ instead of $-b^{2}$ after a noun cb:

nō-lóòr ^ɛ	"fasting" ("mouth-tying")
fū-yźὲr ^ɛ	"shirt-wearing"

These set expressions show shortening of the vowel, but this is not productive:

nā'-l∕r ^ε	"place in the compound for tying up cows"
wìd-lɔ̄rɛ/	"place in the compound for tying up horses"

Stems in *m n l r* undergo consonant assimilation in the sg: $*rr \rightarrow r \quad *lr \rightarrow ll$ $*nr \rightarrow nn \ *mr \rightarrow mn$; on the instability of the cluster *mn* see <u>3.2</u>.

kùkpàr ^ɛ Ňwād-dár ^ɛ	kùkpàra+	kùkpàr-	"palm fruit" "Venus"
tān ^{nɛ}	tāna+	tàn-	"earth"
<i>kpān^{nε}</i>	kpāna+	kpàn-	"spear"
má'an ^{nε}	mā'aná+	mā'an-	"okra"
<i>pībιn^{nε}</i>	pībına+	pìbın-	"covering"
dūm ^{nε}	dūma+	dùm-	"knee"
<i>z</i> ɔ̄ɔm ^{nε}	zōɔma+	zòom-	"fugitive"
yὺυm ^{nε}	yùma+	yùum-	"year" <u>6.1.1.2</u>
<i>gbīg៲m^{nɛ}</i>	gbīgıma+	gbìgım-	"lion"
yūgúm ^{nε}	yūgumá+	yūgum-	"camel"
gél ^{le}	gēlá+	gēl-	"egg"
ίι] ^{Ιε}	īιlá+	<i></i> τι <i>Ι-</i>	"horn"

With unusual sandhi in the sg, and presumably analogical levelling

<i>ňwān^{nε}</i> SB	<i>ňwāna</i> + NT	ňwàn-/ňwàm-	"calabash"
<i>ňwām^{mε}</i> WK	<i>ňwāma</i> + SB Wk	K NT	

An exceptional suppletive plural, segmentally and tonally, is seen in

dāar ^ɛ	dābá+	dà-	"day"

These two $r^{\varepsilon}|a^+$ class words probably have 1-mora stems:

[Mampruli <i>zari</i>]	zā+/	zā-	"millet"
yīr ^{ɛ/}	yā+/	yī-	"house"

 $Y\bar{i}r^{\epsilon}$ also has the irregular locative forms sg $y(n^{n\epsilon}$ pl $y\dot{a}an^{\epsilon}$ <u>17.3</u>.

9.3.4.1 I^{ϵ} singular

Language names <u>30.4</u> all belong to a $r^{\varepsilon}|a^{+}$ subclass partly formed with the suffix -/ $^{\varepsilon}$. The suffix is always -/ $^{\varepsilon}$ after stems ending in a root vowel:

Language		Speakers	
Kūsáàl ^ɛ	Kusaal	Kūsáàs ^ε	Kusaasi
Bùsáàňl ^ɛ	Bisa	Bùsáàňs ^ɛ	Bisa
ΜὸͻͿε	Mooré	Μὸͻϧε	Mossi
Sìmīil ^ɛ	Fulfulde	Sìmīis ^ε	Fulɓe
Zàngb <i>è</i> ɛl ^ɛ	Hausa	Zàngb <i>ɛɛd</i> ɛ	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
Tùønnır ^ɛ	Toende Kusaal	<i>Τùθn^{nε}</i>	Toende area
Dàgbān ^{nε/}	Dagbani	Dàgbām ^{ma/}	Dagomba
Bìn ^{nε}	Moba	Bìm ^{ma}	Moba
Yàan ^{nɛ}	Yansi	Yàaňs ^ɛ	Yansi
<i>Gōrín</i> ^{nε}	Farefare	Gūrís ^ɛ	Farefare
Tàlιn ^{nε}	Talni	Tàlιs ^ε	Tallensi
Bùl ^{lɛ}	Buli	Bùlιs ^ε	Bulsa
Àgòl ^{lɛ}	Agolle Kusaal	Àgɔ̀l ^{lɛ}	Agolle area

"millet seed"

"dawadawa seed"

	However, stems in - <i>r</i> - show the distinctive assimilation $*rl \rightarrow tt \underline{6.2}$:					
	Yāt ^{ε/}	Yarsi	Yārιs ^{ε/}	Yarsi		
	Bāt ^{ε/}	Bisa	Bārιs ^{ε∕}	Bisa		
	Unexpected epen	thesis occurs in:				
	Kàmbùnır ^ɛ	Twi	Kàmbùmıs ^ɛ	Ashanti		
	Ňwāmpūrıl ^{ɛ/}	Mampruli	Ňwāmpūrเs ^{ɛ/}	Mamprussi		
9.3. 5	5 ליין t ⁺ class					
	The plural $-\iota^+$ causes the stem vowels <i>aa iə</i> $\epsilon\epsilon$ to undergo "umlaut" to <i>ii</i> . Straightforward examples for the $f^{2} \iota^+$ class are					
	màlıf ⁹	mòlı+	mòl-	"gazelle"		
	bīilíf	bīil(+	bīil-	"seed"		
	ňyīríf ⁹	ňyīrí+	ňyīr-	"egusi"		
	zūríf ^o	zūr(+	zūr-	"dawadawa seed"		
	būn-búudìf ^o			"plant"		
	Two 1-mora stem f ⁹ ı ⁺ nouns are					
	no sg	kī+/	kī- or kā-	"cereal, millet"		
	cf Mampruli sg <i>kaafu</i> pl <i>kyi id</i> .					
	no sg	mùį+	mù <u>i</u> -	"rice"		
	cf Mooré sg muiif	2	î			
	Two words have stems in * <i>Caag-</i> with deletion of * <i>g</i> <u>6.3</u> :					
	náaf ^o	nīig(+	nā'- <u>6.1.1.2</u>	"cow"		
	wáaf ⁹	wīig(+	wā'-	"snake"		
	Stems in - <i>n</i> - show consonant assimilation in the sg with $*nf \rightarrow \tilde{f} \underline{6.2}$:					
	nīf ^{o/}	nīn(+	nīn- or nīf-	"eye"		
	píıňP	pīıní+	pīın-	"genet"		

kíiňf^o

zúvňf^o

kīin(+

zōυní+

Noun flexion

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The sg is probably remodelled after an umlauted pl (cf $m\dot{a}$ ' $an^{n\epsilon}$ "okra") in

míif ^o mīiní ⁺	"okra seed"
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In two words stem -*d*- is lost in the sg:

wìəf ^ว	wìdı+	wìd-	"horse"
lā'af ^o	līgıdı+	là'- or lìg-	"cowrie" pl "money"

Some words only have $f^{2}|\iota^{+}$ 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	wālısɛ	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:

gamba ioni	kpā'úŋ ^ɔ	kpī iní +	kpā'-	"guinea fowl"
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9.3.6 **b**² class

In my materials there are only two b^{2} class nouns which are not gerunds:

sā'ab ^o	sà'-	"millet porridge, TZ"
tāňp ^o	tàňp-	"war" <u>6.1.1.1</u>

Written sources also have $ki'ib^2$, probably $k\bar{\iota}'\iota b^{2/}$ "soap", cf Toende $k\ell'\iota p$. Al regular gerunds from 2-mora-stem dual-aspect verbs belong here:

kūub ^{ɔ/}	\leftarrow	kū+	"kill"
dūgub ^{ɔ/}	\leftarrow	dūgε	"cook"
dū'ab ⁵	←	dỵ'à ^a	"bear, beget"
kādıb ⁵	\leftarrow	kàd ^ɛ	"drive away"

Noun flexion

pīlıb ⁵	\leftarrow	pìl ^ɛ	"cover"
kpārıb ⁵	←	kpàr ^ɛ	"lock"
bāsıb ⁵	\leftarrow	bàs ^ε	"abandon, go away"

Stems in *b* show -*p*- via $*bb \rightarrow pp$

sōp ^{ɔ/}	←	sɔ̄bε	"write"
lōp ^{ɔ/}	←	lɔ̃b ^ε	"throw stones at"

Stems in m show the consonant assimilation ${}^{*}mb \rightarrow mm$

kīm ^{mɔ}	←	kìm ^m	"tend a flock/herd"
wūm ^{mɔ}	←	wòm ^m	"hear"

Stems in *n* do not assimilate, however (cf 3-mora *n*-stem gerunds <u>9.3.3</u>)

būnıb ⁵	\leftarrow	bùn ^ε	"reap"
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 $Y\bar{i}s^{\varepsilon}$ "make go/come out" has the expected gerund $y\bar{i}slb^{\prime\prime}$; the alternate form $y\bar{i}s^{\epsilon\prime}$ has $y\bar{i}s(b^{\prime\prime})$, the only 3-mora stem in the $b^{\prime\prime}$ class.

9.3.7 *m*^m class

Countable nouns in m^m class form plurals with $-a^+$ or $-s^{\epsilon}$, or use nam^a <u>9.4</u>. Straightforward forms include:

dāam ^{m/}	dā-	"millet beer, pito"
zīım ^{m/}	zī-	"blood"
kù'əm ^m	ku̥'à-	"water"
mèlıgım ^m		"dew"
kūdım ^m		"olden days"
dū'uním ^m	dū'un-	"urine"
zàam ^m	zà-	"evening"
dàalım ^m		"masculinity"
pò'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:

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vōm ^{m/}	vōm-	"life"
kūm ^m	kùm-	"death"
zōm ^{m/}	zōm-	"flour"
yām ^{m/}	yām-	"gall; gall bladder"

 m^m class stems in -*m*- can be securely identified when the cb ends in *m* after at least two stem morae, or when there is a plural form with another class suffix, or when there is a Pattern L four-mora stem toneme allocation <u>7.2.2</u>.

bùgóm ^m		bùgúm- or bùgūm-	· "fire"
pūum ^{m/}		pūum-	"flowers, flora"
bìilím ^m			"childhood"
bì'isím ^m			"milk"
dàalím ^m	dàalímìs ^ɛ	dàalím-	"male sex organs"
pù'alím ^m	pὺ'alímìs ^ɛ	pù'alím-	"female sex organs"
pīim ^{m/}	pīmá+	pīm-	"arrow" <u>6.1.1.2</u>

 $P\bar{i}im^{m/}$ "arrow" is a remnant of an old $^{9}|^{\epsilon}$ class, preserved in e.g. the Gurma languages and Nawdm: cf Nawdm *fi:mú* "arrow", plural *fi:mí*.

9.4 Nàm^a plurals

The word nam^a can pluralise words which do not make a plural through the class system. It appears as the NP head, with a noun premodifier appearing as cb if it is a count noun and as sg or pl if it is a mass noun <u>16.10</u>. It is not a suffix.

Plurals with nam^{a} are made for nouns where the pl stem differs from the sg, or the regular pl would be ambiguous 9.3.1; nouns using $-b^{a}$ as sg 9.3.1.1; nouns with a bare stem as sg; loanwords; pronouns without distinctive pl forms, like $anjjan^{\epsilon}$ "who" when asking for a plural answer or $n\bar{\epsilon}$ ^{+/} inanimate "this" in older materials 16.2.1; plural forms with singular meanings; mass nouns used with count meanings; quantifiers as noun-phrase heads 16.4.1; and forms with the personifier clitic 16.6.

Examples:

mà+	mà nám ^a	mà-	"mother"
	(tone <i>sic</i> , as if unc	ompounded)	
bā'+/	bā'-nám ^a	bā'-	"father"
zuà+	zuà-nàm ^a	zuà-	"friend"
bùrkìn ^a	bùrkìn-nàm ^a	bùrkìn-	"honourable person"
k <i>č</i> εkč ⁺	k <i>`ek`e</i> -nàm ^a	k <i></i> ekè-	"bicycle"
dāan ^a	dàan-nàm ^a	dàan-	"owner of"
tīráàn ^a	tīráàn-nàm ^a	tīráàn-	"neighbour, peer"

dà-pūʊdá nàmª	"crosses"
kūt nám ^a	"nails"; sg also "iron"
bē'ɛd námª	"evils"
bùgúm nám ^a	"fires, lights"
sā'ab nám ^a	"portions of porridge"
dāam nám ^a	"beers"

9.5 Nouns with apocope-blocking

A number of nouns ending in $-\iota^+$ or $-\upsilon^+$ display apocope-blocking <u>6.6</u>:

būudı+	bùud-	"tribe"
nà'ası+		"honour"
kābır(+		"entry permission"
sūgvrú ⁺		"forbearance"
pīint+	pìin-	"gift"

Such nouns include loanwords from languages without apocope, like the Mampruli loan $k\bar{i}ib\dot{v}^+$ "soap" <u>15.1</u>. Cognates of $b\bar{u}ud\iota^+$ show that the $-d\iota$ is the equivalent of the d^{ϵ} pl suffix: Mooré $b\dot{u}udu$ "famille, espèce" sg $b\dot{u}ugu$. $N\dot{a}^{\dagger}as\iota^+$ may similarly represent s^{ϵ} pl. $K\bar{a}b\iota r(\iota^+)$ and $s\bar{u}gvr\dot{v}^+$ may show the equivalent of r^{ϵ} sg, with $k\bar{a}b\iota r^{\epsilon/}$ "ask for admission" and $s\bar{u}gvr^{\epsilon/}$ "forbear" as back-formations <u>13.1.4</u>. With $p\bar{i}in\iota^+$ 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. The *ii* is probably umlauted from *aa*, as in $f^{2}|\iota^+$ class plurals: cf Gurmanch paabu "gift."

9.6 Loanwords

Loanwords adopt noun classes by analogy 9.1 or make nam^a plurals 9.4:

g ^a s ^ɛ : àrazàk ^a	àrazà'as ^ɛ	àrazà'-	"riches" Hausa <i>arzìkii</i>
màlįāk ^{a/}	màlįā'as ^{ε/}	màlįā'-	"angel" DK (Arabic)
g ^ɔ d ^ɛ : gādvg ^{ɔ/}	gāt ^{ɛ/}	gād-	"bed" Hausa <i>gadoo</i>
làmbà'ɔgɔ	lòmbò'ɔdɛ	lòmbò'-	"garden"
			Hausa <i>làmbuu</i>
r ^ε a ⁺ : Ιόr ^ε	lóyà ⁺ tones sic	lór-	"car, lorry"
	or <i>lʻom^{ma}</i>		cf <i>Μɔ̄r^ε</i> <u>9.3.1</u>
àĺɔ́pìr ^ɛ	àlópìya+		"aeroplane" SB
wādır ^{ɛ/}	wādá+	wād-	pl "customs, law" (English "order")
gādu+	gādv-nám ^a	gādv-	"bed" WK
k <i>č</i> εkč+	k <i>ɛ̀ɛkɛ̀-nàm</i> a	k <i></i> eke-	"bicycle" Hausa <i>kèekè</i>
dāká+	dāká-nàm ^a	dāká-	"box" Hausa <i>àdakàa</i>
tέεbùl ^ε	téɛbùl-nàmª	téɛbùl-	"table"
Nàsāara+	Nàsàar-nàm ^a	Nàsàar-	"white person,
	or <i>Nàsàa-nàm</i> a	Nàsàa-	European" <u>30.4</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 $\underline{8.3}$:

dự'átà ná'àb	"a doctor's chief"
dựˈátà-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 دنيا dunya:)
dūnıyá-kàŋā	"this world"

10 Adjective flexion

Unlike nouns, most Kusaal adjectives show suffixes from more than one noun class. This reflects the prehistory of the language, in which noun classes triggered agreement and adjectives took the suffix of the head noun, which preceded as a combining form, effectively infixing the adjective stem between the noun stem and its suffix. Like most Western Oti-Volta languages, Kusaal has lost the agreement system, but adjectives commonly remain extant with suffixes from more than one class, now usually in free variation. Thus from $b\bar{v}vg^a$ "goat":

bù-pìəlıg ^a	bù-pìəlıs ^ɛ	bù-pìəl-	(g ^a s ^ε)	"white goat"
bù-pìəl ^{lɛ}	bù-pìəla+	bù-pìəl-	(r ε a +)	id

A few traces of agreement remain, accounting for all cases with $m^m 16.11.1.1$. There is also some preference for $g^a|s^{\epsilon}$ suffixes for human reference: $n\bar{n}-s\dot{a}b\iota|\dot{a}^{\epsilon}$ "Africans", where $n\bar{n}-s\dot{a}b\iota|\dot{a}^+$ is accepted by informants but is much less common, and $Zu\dot{a}-w\dot{l}is^{\epsilon}$ "Red Zoose" (clan), where the adjective does not normally use pl s^{ϵ} . The suffixes $a|b^a$ and $f^a|\iota^+$ appear only in set expressions; b^a never occurs at all.

WK claims a meaning difference in intensity in gradable adjectives with sg suffixes of different classes, consistently ranking them $g^a r^{\epsilon} g^{\circ}$ in decreasing order, so that $f\bar{u}$ - $p(\hat{a})lg$ "white shirt" is whiter than $f\bar{u}$ - $p(\hat{a})l d$. However, DK specifically denied any difference of meaning.

Class suffixes are avoided when their combination with stem finals would give rise to unclear or ambiguous SFs. The availability of alternatives from three classes permits avoidance much more freely than with nouns <u>9.1</u>. A further major constraint is that only two adjectives show suffixes from both the $g^a|s^{\varepsilon}$ and $g^{\circ}|d^{\varepsilon}$ classes:

	zìň'a ⁺	zèň'ɛsɛ	zèň'-	"red"
	zὲň'og ^ɔ	<i>zèň'ɛdɛ</i> or <i>zèňda</i> +		
	bī ⁻ a ⁺	bī'əs ^ɛ	bià'-	"bad"
	bē'og ^o	bē'ɛdɛ	bè'-	
also	<i>bē̇'εd</i> ⁼ sg	<i>bè'ɛd-nàm</i> ª pl		

Other adjectives are *either* g^{a} - or g^{a} -type, along with $r^{\varepsilon}|a^{+}$ class suffixes; this probably reflects simplification of the old agreement system prior to its complete abandonment. Adjectives of the g^{a} type include:

wàbıg ^a	wàbıs ^ɛ	wàb-	"lame"
wàbır ^ɛ	wàba ⁺		

vènnıg ^a vènnır ^ɛ rare	vènnıs ^ɛ vènna ⁺	vèn-	"beautiful"
vÈňllıg ^a	vèňllıs ^ɛ vèňlla ⁺		"beautiful"
sābılíg ^a sābíl ^{iɛ}	sābılís ^ɛ sābılá ⁺	sābıl-	"black"

Similar are $w\bar{\epsilon}nn\iota r^{\epsilon}$ "resembling" $p\bar{a}al(g^{a} \text{ "new" } z\hat{a}al^{|\epsilon} \text{ "empty" } b\hat{a}a\breve{n}l\iota g^{a} \text{ "slim" } p\hat{a}l\iota g^{a}$ "white."

Sg r^{ε} is not used with g^{a} -type stems in m n:

dēɛŋª	dēɛňs ^ɛ		"first"
	dēɛmɪsɛ	dÈɛŋ-	
	dēɛna+		

Pl s^{ε} is not used with 2-mora stems in *m n*, or with any stems in *s d*:

gīŋ ^a	gīma+	gìŋ-	"short"
būgvsíg ^a būgvsír ^ɛ	būgusá ⁺	būgvs-	"soft"
pòɔdıgª pòɔdır ^ɛ	pòɔda+	pòod-	"few, small"

Similarly $m\bar{a}$ ' $as(r^{\epsilon}$ "cold, wet" $m\bar{a}ls(r^{\epsilon}$ "sweet" $t\bar{\epsilon}bs(r^{\epsilon}$ "heavy" $l\bar{a}bs(r^{\epsilon}$ "wide." Adjectives of the g^{2} -type only show pl d^{ϵ} in a few 2-mora stems ending in vowels or plosives:

nèog ^ɔ nèɛr ^ɛ	nèɛd ^ɛ nèya+	nè-	"empty"
wìug ^ɔ wìir ^ɛ	wìid ^ɛ wìya ⁺	wì-	"red"
wɔ̄k ^{ɔ/} wā'ar ^{ε/} rare	wā'ad ^{ε/} wā'á ⁺	wā'- or wɔ̄k-	"long, tall"

kūdug ^o kūdır ^ɛ	kūt ^ε rare kūda+	kùd-	"old"
<i>bèdug⁵ bèdır^ɛ rare</i>	bèda+	bèd-	"great"
tītā'vg ^o rare tītā'ar ^ɛ	tītāda+	tītá'-	"big"

Adjectives of the g^{2} -type with stems in l m n r s do not use sg r^{ϵ} , and accordingly end up with sg g^{2} pl a^{+} only:

sùŋ ^ɔ	sùma+	sùŋ-	"good"
kísùg ^o	kīsá+	kīs-	"hateful, taboo"
dà-zēmmúg ^o	dà-zēmmá+	dà-zēm-	"equal piece of wood"
tūvlúg ²	tūvlá+	tūul-	"hot"
lāllúg ^o	lāllá+	lāl-	"distant"
mì'isvg ^o	mì'isa+	mì'is-	"sour"
wàỵŋ ^ɔ	wàna+	wàỵŋ-	"wasted, thin"
kpī oŋ ^ɔ	kpī'əma+	kpì'oŋ-	"hard, strong"
zùlvŋ ^ɔ	zùlıma+	zùloŋ-	"deep"
yī-pźňrùg ^ɔ	yī-pźňrà+		"nearby house"

Similarly yàlvŋ[>] "wide" ňyālúŋ[>] "wonderful" yɛ̃l-nárùŋ[>] "necessary thing." Resultative adjectives derived with *-lum- <u>13.2.1.2.2</u> belong here. KT (but not WK) also has forms without -m- in both sg and pl:

kpìilúŋ ^ɔ	kpìilímà+	kpìilúŋ-	"dead"	WK
nīn-kpíilùg ⁵	nīn-kpíilìma+		"dead person"	ΚT
gēɛňlúŋ ^ɔ	gēɛňlímà+	gēɛňlúŋ-	"tired"	WK
nīn-gέɛňlùg ^ɔ	nīn-g <i>ɛ́ɛňlìma</i> +		"tired person"	ΚT
pὲ'εlúŋ ^ɔ	pè'ɛlímà+	pὲ'εlúŋ -	"full" WK	ΚT
	dūg-pć'ɛlà+		"full pots"	KT

Dynamic adjectives are derived with d 13.2.1.2.1, but the d is often assimilated or dropped, so not all dynamic adjectives are d-stems. They are g^{a} -type for WK, but g^{3} -type for KT. In either case, the pl suffix is always a^{+} , as expected:

kūυdír ^ε	kūvdá ⁺	kūvd-	"murderous;
<i>kūvdíg</i> a WK			liable to be killed"
<i>kūυdúg</i> ^ͻ KT			

tōmmır ^ɛ	tōmma ⁺ WK tōmna ⁺ KT	tùm-	"working, helpful"
sīnnír ^ɛ rare sīnníg ^a	sīnná ⁺	sīn-	"silent"
mɔ̄r ^{ε/}	mɔ̄rá+	mɔ̄r-	"having"
kùg-dĒl ^{lɛ/}	kùg-dēllá+		"chair for leaning on"

Stems in $g k \eta$ do not use the sg suffixes $g^a g^{\circ}$:

bōn-túlıgìr ^ɛ	būn-túlıgà+		"heating thing"
ňwī-tékìr ^ɛ	ňwī-tékà+	ňwī-ték-	"pulling-rope"
būn-súŋìr ^ɛ	būn-súŋà+		"helpful thing"

Adjectives derived from 4-mora stem verbs in -m in KT's speech take g^a or g^a sg and $-a^+$ pl; they may drop the -m- in the plural:

nīn-pú'alìŋ ^a	nīn-pú'alìma+	"harmful person"
nīn-záaňsùŋ ^ɔ	nīn-záaňsà+	"dreamy person"

Some adjectives simply belong to a single noun class even though this cannot be accounted for by the stem-suffix incompatibilities outlined above:

νūr ^{ε/}	vūyá+	vūr-	"alive"
dāvg ⁵	dāad ^ε	dà-	"male"
tōɔgɔ	tɔ̄ɔdɛ	tò-	"bitter"
pųāk ^a	pū'as ^ε	pự'à-	"female" (human)
ňyá'aŋ ^a	ňyá'as ^ε	ňyā'aŋ-	"female" (animal)
	or <i>ňyā'amís</i> ε		
ňy <i>è</i> ɛsíŋ ^a	ňy <i></i> ɛɛnsísɛ	ňyὲɛsíŋ-	"self-confident"

and similarly vɛ̀n̆llíŋª "beautiful" mālısíŋª "pleasant" lāllíŋª "distant."

bīl^a bībιs^ε bìl- or bì- "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.

Though written solid with the verb in traditional orthography, discontinuouspast n^{ϵ} 24.1.1 and the 2pl subject ^{ya} 19.7.3 are not flexions but liaison enclitics.

Some 90% of verbs are **dual-aspect**, distinguishing perfective and imperfective morphologically; these verbs are dynamic, and express activities, accomplishments or achievements. The stem form is used for perfective aspect, and the imperfective adds a flexional suffix $-d^a$. Dual-aspect verbs also use a suffix $-m^a$ to mark imperative mood whenever the verb carries the independency-marking tone overlay <u>19.6.2.2</u>.

The remaining 10% of verbs are **single-aspect**, with just one finite form, which is either dynamic imperfective or stative imperfective as a lexical matter in each case. Stative verbs further divide into agentive **relational verbs**, which can be used in direct commands, form agent nouns and mostly take obligatory complements, and non-agentive **adjectival verbs**.

Adjectival verbs usually consist simply of the corresponding adjective stem followed by a flexion *-a 12.1.

Five relational verbs consist of bare stems with no suffix, but they are distinct from perfectives in both syntax and tone sandhi.

The remaining single-aspect verbs show a suffix $-y^a$. Deverbal nominals appear without the *y formant in cases where it has not undergone assimilation to a preceding root-final consonant, but where assimilation occurs after $n \mid r$ the resulting cluster (reduced to a single consonant with rr) is carried over into the deverbal derivatives. Here nn consistently behaves exactly like nn derived from *nd, but || r(r)are subject to further assimilation just like $| r \underline{6.2}$.

11.1 Dual-aspect verbs

Perfective, imperfective and $-m^a$ imperative are cited in order. Straightforward examples include:

kū+	kūud ^{a/}	kùum ^a	"kill"
kpèň'+	kpèň'ɛdª	kpèň'ɛm ^a	"enter"
kįà+	kìəd ^a	kìəm ^a	"cut"
kỵā+	kūød ^{a/}	kùøm ^a	"hoe"
gòň+	gòɔňd ^a	дòɔňm ^a	"hunt"
dūgε	dūgud ^{a/}	dùgvm ^a	"cook"
yùug ^ε	yùugıd ^a	yùugım ^a	"delay, get late"
yādıg ^{ɛ/}	yādıgíd ^a	yàdıgım ^a	"scatter"
pįāň' ^a	pįāň'ad ^{a/}	pi̯àň'am ^a	"speak; praise"
du̯'àª	dù'ad ^a	dù'am ^a	"bear, beget"

nōk ^{ε/}	n <i>jk</i> íd ^a	nòkım ^a	"take"
gāŋ ^{ε/}	gāŋ(d ^a	gàŋım ^a	"choose"
kpɛ̀'ŋ²	kp <i>`e'ŋ</i> ıd ^a	<i>kpɛ̀'ŋ</i> נm ^a	"strengthen"
kpàr ^ε	kpàrıd ^a	kpàrım ^a	"lock"
sūgυr ^{ε/}	sūgvríd ^a	sùgvrım ^a	"forgive"
bàs ^ε	bàsıd ^a	bàsım ^a	"go/send away"
sīgιs ^{ε/}	sīg <i>is</i> íd ^a	sìgısım ^a	"lower"

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"
ňyē+	ňyēt ^{a/}	ňyÈm ^a	"see"

and so also $l\hat{i}^+$, $l\hat{u}^+$ "fall" $d\bar{v}^+$ "go up" $y\bar{i}^+$ "go/come out" $z\hat{z}^+$ "run, fear." Stems in -d- show -t- in the ipfv via $*dd \rightarrow tt$:

bùd ^ɛ	bùt ^a	bùdım ^a	"plant"
gàad ^ε	<u>gàt^a 6.5</u>	gàadım ^a	"pass, surpass"

Stems in *I* generate a cluster in the ipfv via $*Id \rightarrow nn \ \underline{6.2}$:

νūl ^ε	vūn ^{na/}	vùlım ^a	"swallow"
màal ^ɛ	màan ^{na}	màalım ^a	"make; sacrifice"
dīgıl ^{ɛ/}	dīgín ^{na}	dìgılım ^a	"lay down"

Only 2-mora *b*-stems assimilate $*bm \rightarrow mm$:

lὲb ^ε	lèbıd ^a	lèm ^{ma}	"return"
sɔ̄b ^ɛ	sɔ̄bıd ^{a/}	sòm ^{ma}	"write"
lìəb ^ɛ	lìəbıd ^a	lìəbım ^a	"become"
ēεňb ^{ε/}	ēɛňbíd ^a	<i></i> е́тыт ^а	"lay a foundation"

Only 2-mora *n*-stems show $*nd \rightarrow nn$; only $k\bar{\epsilon}\eta^{\epsilon/}$ (below) shows $*nm \rightarrow mm$:

bùn ^ɛ	bùn ^{na}	bùnım ^a	"reap"
mɔ̄n ^ε	mɔ̄n ^{na/}	mònım ^a	"make porridge"
gờ'ɔn ^ε	gò'ɔnɪd ^a	g`onım ^a	"extend neck"
dìgın ^ɛ	dìgınıd ^a	dìgınım ^a	"lie down"

The *nn*-stem $s \dot{u} n^{\epsilon}$ does not assimilate at all:

<u>sùn^{nε}</u>	sùnnıd ^a	sùnnım ^a	"bow head"

4-mora *m*-stems always assimilate $*md \rightarrow mn$, *mm*, while 3-mora *m*-stems assimilate optionally; 2-mora stems regularly assimilate, but the NT/KB sometimes have unassimilated forms to avoid ambiguity <u>6.2</u>.

sìilım ^m	sìilım ^{ma}	sìilım ^{ma}	"quote proverbs"
Iāŋím ^m	Iāŋím ^{ma}	làŋım ^{ma}	"wander searching"
kàrım ^m	kàrım ^m r kàrımıd ^a	kàrım ^{ma}	"read"
<i>tวิวm^{m/}</i>	tóom ^{ma} r tōomíd ^a	tòɔm ^{ma}	"depart"
tùm ^m	tùm ^{ma}	tùm ^{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"

Stems in -*mm*- (\leftarrow **mb*) only assimilate 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"

Fusion verbs show deleted *g after *aa iə uo aaň* $\varepsilon \varepsilon n \to \infty n 6.3$. *G-deletion appears only in the perfective and gerund; elsewhere *g is absent, not deleted (for the tonal implications see <u>7.3.1</u>.) For the perfective forms before liaison see see <u>8.2</u>.

fāeň+/	fāaňd ^{a/}	fàaňm ^a	"save"
dī'e+/	dī əd ^{a/}	dì'əm ^a	"get, receive"
dūe+/	dūød ^{a/}	dùøm ^a	"rise, raise"
pūň'e ^{+/}	pūň'ød ^{a/}	pùň'øm ^a	"rot" WK

Irregular dual-aspect verbs are few; I list all that I have encountered below. Most irregularities involve a derivational suffix in the perfective which is dropped in the imperfective. This is probably a survival of older patterns: outside the Western group, Oti-Volta languages often drop perfective derivational suffixes when forming imperfectives. Again, other suffixes are frequently deleted before

derivational d, and the Western Oti-Volta imperfective may have arisen by adding imperfective -a to a stem derived with -d.

ḡวs ^ɛ	gɔ̄sıd ^{a/}	gòsım ^a	"look"
	or <i>gɔ̄t</i> a/	gòm ^a	
tìs ^ɛ	tì sı d ^a	tìsım ^a	"give"
	or <u>tì</u> t ^a		

Before liaison-word objects the perfective may also be *tì*-, e.g. *tì f* "give you."

yÈl ^ɛ	yèt ^a	y <i>èlım</i> a	"say"
wìk ^ε	wìid ^a <u>6.1.1.1</u>	wìkım ^a	"fetch water"
įāňk ^{ɛ/}	įāň'ad ^{a/}	jàňkım ^a	"leap, fly"
gīlıg ^{ɛ/}	gīn ^{na/}	gìlıgım ^a	"go around"
kēŋ ^{ε/}	kēn ^{na/}	kèm ^a	"go"
dɛ̀lım ^m	[<i>dɛ̃l^{la/}</i>]	dèlım ^{ma}	"lean (of a person)"

 $D\dot{\epsilon}l\iota m^{m}$ is used as inchoative to $d\bar{\epsilon}l^{|a|}$ "be leaning (of a person)"; compare $g\dot{\upsilon}l^{\epsilon}$ ipfv $g\dot{\upsilon}n^{na}$ "suspend" beside the stance verb $g\dot{\upsilon}l^{|a|}$ "be hanging."

Only two dual-aspect verbs are irregular in the actual flexional suffixes taken:

kē+	kēt ^{a/}	k <i></i> el ^a	"let, allow"
kēň+	kēn ^{a/}	k <i>èm</i> a	"come"

11.2 Single-aspect verbs

11.2.1 Dynamic

Dynamic single-aspect verbs distinguish progressive/habitual senses with focus- $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ like dual-aspect verb imperfectives. Like dual-aspect verbs, they make gerunds usable in the immediate-future construction with $b \partial d^a$ "want" <u>19.3.4</u>, and form agent nouns, dynamic adjectives and instrument nouns, generally with the same derivational -*d* as dual-aspect verbs <u>13.2.1</u>.

Most dynamic single-aspect verbs are **stance verbs**.

īgı ^{ya/}	"be kneeling"	dīgı ^{ya/}	"be lying down"
vābı ^{ya/}	"be prone"	làbı ^{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)"
dēl ^{la/}	"be leaning (person)"	sùr ^a	"have head bowed"
<i>g</i> ɔ̄'e ^{ya/} WK	"have neck extended"	gùl ^{la}	"be hanging"
gōr ^{a/} DK	"have neck extended"	<i>gɔ̃l^{la/}</i> KT	"have neck extended"

Derived assume-stance verbs <u>13.1.1</u> do not express a change of state and cannot be used as resultatives, and stance verbs cannot form resultative adjectives.

For some informants, stance verb roots also occur with the ipfv suffix $-d^a$, here confined to habitual meaning; other informants use the ipfv of the derived assume-stance verb instead:

	Ò zìň'i nē.	"She's sitting down." WK KT
	Ò pū zíň'idā.	"She doesn't sit down" WK
but	Ò pū zíň'inìdā.	"She doesn't sit down." KT
	Ò zìň'i nē.	"She's sitting down."
	Ò pū zíň'idā.	"She doesn't sit down" WK
but	Ò pū zíň'inìdā.	"She doesn't sit down." KT
	Ò vàbı nē.	"He's lying prone."
	Ò pū vābıdá.	"He doesn't lie prone." WK
but	Ò pū vábınìdā.	"He doesn't lie prone." KT
	Ò dìgı nē.	"She's lying down."
	Ò pū dīgıdá.	"She doesn't lie down" WK
	Lì zì'ə nē.	"It's standing up."
	Lì pū zí'ıdā.	"It (a defective tripod) doesn't stand up." WK
	Lì tì'i nē.	"It's leaning against something."
	Lì tì'id.	"It can be leant against something." WK
	Lì pū tī iyá.	"It's not leaning against something."
	Lì pō tr'idá.	"It's not for leaning against something." WK

Non-stance dynamic single-aspect 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:

Ò sìn.	"She's silent."
Ò sìn nĒ.	"She's keeping silent."
Ò zàňl nē kólùg.	"He's holding a bag."

Ò zàňl kólùg.	"He holds a bag."
Ò pū zāňllá.	"He isn't holding/doesn't hold it."

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

Stative single-aspect verbs divide syntactically into agentive **relational** verbs that can be used in direct commands, and non-agentive **adjectival** verbs. Agentive verbs have derived agent nouns <u>13.2.1.1</u>. The negative relational verbs $k\bar{a}'e^+$ and $z\bar{\iota}'^+$ cannot be used in direct commands but $z\bar{\iota}'^+$ has an agent noun. Apart from those taking locative complements, relational verbs are obligatory transitives <u>19.8.1</u>. They include

àẹň ^a	"be something/somehow"		
mɔ̄rª/	"have" tār ^{a/} "have"		
sū'e ^{ya/}	"own"	sɔ̃ň'e ^{ya/}	"be better than"
nēn ^{na/}	"envy"	kīs ^{a/}	"hate"

Five relational verbs consist of base stems with no suffix.

mī'+	"know"	<i>z</i> ῑ'+	"not know"
bè ⁺	"be somewhere, exist"	kā'ẹ+	"not be" (← * <i>kag</i> ı)
nòŋ٤	"love"		

 $N \partial \eta^{\epsilon}$ is unique among single-aspect verbs in possessing a m^{a} -imperative, $n \partial \eta \iota m^{a}$, used when the verb word carries the tone overlay of independency marking.

Unlike perfectives, these bare-stem forms are never followed by particle $y\bar{a}^+$ <u>19.6.2.1</u>, and the Pattern LO verbs $b\dot{\epsilon}^+$ and $n\dot{\gamma}\eta^{\epsilon}$ have M tone before liaision enclitic pronouns and are followed by M spreading even when not subject to the tone overlay of independency marking <u>8.3</u>.

	Ѝ nóŋ.	"I love him." (e.g. in reply to a question) WK
not	*À nóŋ yā	specifically stated to be impossible by WK

Kà ò nóŋī f. "And she loves you."

Mit ka Zugsob tumtum a one noŋ zaba. Mìt kà Zūg-sób tóm-tōm á ónì nòŋ z**á**bāa ⁺ø. NEG.LET.IMP and head-one:SG work-worker:SG COP REL.AN love conflict:PL NEG. "Let not a servant of the Lord be someone who loves fights." (2 Tim 2:24, 1996)

The agent noun $n \partial \eta \iota d^a$ 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.

Ò nòŋıd kā'e.	"Nobody loves him." WK
	("His lover does not exist.")

Some dual-aspect verb imperfectives have become independent statives: bɔ̀ɔdª "want", zɔ̀tª "fear."

Adjectival verbs express predicative adjectival meanings. Cognate adjectives are primary, not deverbal, and show a characteristic Tone Pattern correspondence with their verbs: see the list at <u>12.1</u>. $D\dot{u}r^{a}$ "be many" and $k\dot{a}r^{a}$ "be few" have no associated adjectives..

A few adjectival verbs take complements:

zēm ^{ma/}	"be equal to"	kpēɛňm ^{ma/}	"be older than"
lāl ^{la/}	"be far from"	pòňr ^a	"be near to"
nār ^{a/}	"be necessary"	wēn ^{na/}	"resemble"

The verb $n\bar{a}r^{a/}$ has a related adjective $n\bar{a}rv\eta^{2}$ "necessary" (??tone) but the verb is probably primary; it is much commoner than the adjective. The verb $t\bar{u}n'e$ "be able" occurs almost exclusively as a stative auxiliary verb in *n*-catenation <u>23.2.1</u>; it has no extant Long Form in my materials, and no cognate nominal forms.

12 Stem conversion

12.1 Deadjectival stative verbs

Many stative single-aspect verbs are deadjectival, or derived from quasiadjectival human-reference nouns. Typically the nominal stem appears unchanged before the imperfective ending -*a*, but there is a characteristic **shift of Tone Pattern**, with Pattern L adjectives corresponding to Pattern LO verbs but with Pattern H and Pattern O adjectives both corresponding to Pattern H verbs. Historically, the all-M pattern of verbs corresponding to Pattern O adjectives may simply have represented Pattern O, but if so it has been completely assimilated to Pattern H synchronically, and the LF-final toneme is always H.

L	vÈnnıg ^a	"beautiful"	vÈn ^{na}	"be beautiful"
	vÈňllıg ^a	"beautiful"	vÈňl ^{la}	"be beautiful"
	zùloŋ ⁵	"deep"	zùlım ^{ma}	"be deep"
	p55dıg ^a	"small"	pòɔd ^a	"be few, small"
	mì'isog ⁵	"sour"	mì'is ^a	"be sour"
	sùŋ ⁵	"good"	sùm ^{ma}	"be good"
	yàloŋ ⁵	"wide"	yàlım ^{ma}	"be wide"
Н	būgusír ^ɛ vūr ^{ɛ/} zēmmúg ^ɔ mā'asír ^ɛ tēbısír ^ɛ mālısír ^ɛ lābısír ^ɛ	"soft" "alive" "equal" "cool" "heavy" "sweet" "wide"	būgus ^{a/} vūę ^{a/} zām ^{ma/} mā'as ^{a/} tābıs ^{a/} lābıs ^{a/}	"be soft" "be alive" <u>6.1.1.1</u> "be equal" "be cool" "be heavy" "be sweet" "be wide"
Ο	tōɔgɔ	"bitter"	tōẹ ^{a/}	"be bitter" <u>6.1.1.1</u>
	gīŋª	"short"	gīm ^{ma/}	"be short"
	kpī oŋɔ	"strong"	kpī'əm ^{ma/}	"be strong"
	kpēɛňm ^m	"elder"	kpēɛňm ^{ma/}	"be older than"
	wēnnır ^ɛ	"resembling"	wēn ^{na/}	"resemble"
	tādım ^{m/}	"weak person"	tàdım ^{ma}	"be weak"

The gemination of -*m*- in LF -*mma* after a *long* vowel is secondary. It is not found with all informants, and Tone Pattern H 3-mora-stem verbs have the tonemes which would be expected *without* gemination:

Stem conversion	Stem	conversion
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kpī əm ^{ma/}	not	*kpí'əm ^{ma}	"be strong, hard" WK
wā'am ^{ma/}	not	*wá'am ^{ma}	"be long, tall" KT WK

The Dagbani cognate *kpema* of *kpi əm^{ma/}* also confirms an original single -*m*-: Dagbani preserves long vowels always and only in originally closed syllables. (Dagbani *maani* sg *mana* pl = Kusaal $m\dot{a}$ 'an^{nɛ} sg $m\bar{a}$ 'an \dot{a} ⁺ pl "okra.")

Stem changes occur in

tūvlúg ⁰	"hot"	tūl ^{la/}	"be hot"
ňy <i>è</i> ɛsíŋ ^a	"self-confident"	ňyÈɛsª	"be self-confident"
wɔ̄kɔ/	"long, tall"	wā'am ^{ma/}	"be long, tall"

The gemination of -*m*- in the LF of $w\bar{a}'am^{ma/}$ is once again secondary.

Adjectival verbs do not normally have gerunds; associated abstract nouns are derived from the adjectives, not the verbs 12.3. An exception is the gerund *wennim*^m of $w\bar{\epsilon}n^{na/}$ "resemble", which is shown to be deverbal by the Tone Pattern contrast with the adjective $w\bar{\epsilon}nn\iotar^{\epsilon}$ "resembling" <u>13.2.1.4</u>.

12.2 Nouns from verbs

12.2.1 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 from dual-aspect and most stance verbs are formed by adding noun class suffixes to the verb stem. Gerunds from other single-aspect verbs are based on derived stems 13.2.1.4. Abstract nouns associated with adjectival verbs are not regarded as gerunds, although they show some syntactic resemblances <u>16.10.2.1</u>.

Gerunds may be used as abstract *count* nouns describing particular instances of the activity of the verb, and may then have plurals <u>16.2.1</u>.

The Tone Patterns of all regularly formed gerunds are predictable <u>7.5</u>.

12.2.1.1 From dual-aspect verbs

Dual-aspect 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 opaque forms, with the usual $-q^{2}$ replaced by $-r^{\varepsilon}$ after stems ending in underlying *g.

2-mora stems	-b ⊃	but $-r^{\varepsilon}$ as final element of a compound
3-mora stems in * <i>g</i>		
$[surface -g^{\varepsilon} -k^{\varepsilon} - \eta^{\varepsilon} -ae^{+} -ie^{+} -ue^{+}]$	-r ^ε	
all others	-a ^{>}	

-g²

Stem conversion

Gerunds differ in flexion from other substantives in frequently resisting the assimilations $*mg \rightarrow \eta\eta \; *ng \rightarrow \eta\eta \; \underline{6.2}$. They rarely shorten a *CVV*- stem before $-r^{\varepsilon}$. 4-mora stems in -sim -lim follow the rule and use $-g^{\circ}$:

sìilım ^m	"cite proverbs"	sìilúŋ ^ɔ	gerund
<i>zàaทรเm</i> ^m	"dream"	zàaňsúŋ ^ɔ	

but stems in *- $g\iota m$ drop the -m- and use - r^{ε} :

wàŋເm ^m	"waste away"	wàŋır ^ɛ
lāŋím ^m	"wander"	lāŋír ^ɛ
zàkım ^m	"itch"	zàkır ^ɛ

For examples of regular gerunds see under Noun Flexion <u>9.3.3</u> <u>9.3.4</u> <u>9.3.6</u>. 2-mora stems regularly use $-r^{\varepsilon}$ not b° in compounds; see <u>16.10.1</u>.

pu̯'à-dīเr ^ɛ	"marriage"
nīn-kúùr ^ɛ	"murder"
dā-núùr ^ɛ	"beer-drinking"
m̀ว - pīl ^{lε}	"grass roof"
fū-yέὲr ^ε	"shirt-wearing" WK

Irregular perfective gerunds are rare with stems of three or four morae. A few have plural-as-singular forms <u>16.2.1</u>; the verb $y\bar{i}is^{\epsilon}$ "make go/come out" has $y\bar{i}is(b^{\circ})$, like the alternate form $y\bar{i}s^{\epsilon}$ with regular $y\bar{i}s(b^{\circ})$. However, almost 20% of 2-mora-stem verbs in KED use suffixes other than b° . Most irregular 2-mora stem verbs have regular gerunds:

tìs ^ε	"give"	tīsıb ⁵
kē+	"let"	kēɛbɔ/
gùlɛ	"suspend"	<i>g</i> บิเbว

Few segmentally irregular gerunds are also tonally irregular. However, forms with the suffix $-g^{2}$ are Pattern L from Pattern LO verbs unless there are variants with g^{a} or s^{ϵ} showing that the word really belongs to $g^{a}|s^{\epsilon}$ with LF remodelling <u>9.3.2</u>.

A high proportion of 2-mora stem verbs with irregular gerunds have stems ending in *m* or *b*; the regular formation with $-b^{2}$ has probably been avoided because it would create ambiguous SFs <u>9.1</u>.

All of these examples occur in the $b \dot{c} d^a$ "want" + gerund construction <u>19.3.4</u>.

lì+	"fall"	līig ^a
zī+	"carry on head"	zīid ^{ε/}
bèň'+	"fall ill"	bēň'ɛsɛ
kēň+	"come"	kēn ^{nε/}
zò+	"run"	<i>zūa</i> + also <i>zɔ̃ɔg</i> ɔ
vū+	"make noise"	vūug ^{ɔ/}
pįāň' ^a	"speak"	pi̯àu̯ňk ^ɔ
bùdε	"plant"	būdıg ^a also būdug ^o
yÈl ^ɛ	"say, tell"	yὲlʊg ^ɔ (cf Mooré yèele; ?? *yiə → yε)
kūl ^ε	"go home"	kūlıg ^{a/} also kūlvg ^{ɔ/}
tàňs ^ε	"shout"	tàňsvg ^o
sว <i>ัทร</i> ะ	"converse"	sóňsìg ^a
ḡวร ^ะ	"look"	gósìg ^a
sòsε	"pray, beg"	sōsıg ^a
kīr ^ε	"hurry"	kìkírùg ^ɔ or kīrıb ^{ɔ/}
lὲb ^ε	"return"	lēbıg ^a
tὲb ^ε	"carry in both hands"	tēbıg ^a
kàňb ^ɛ	"scorch"	kāňbır ^ɛ
<i></i> ͻňb ^ε	"chew"	<i>ว</i> ňbır ^ε
lūb ^ε	"buck"	lūbır ^{ɛ/}
zàb ^ε	"fight"	zàbur ^ɛ
tὲňb ^ε	"tremble"	tèňbug ^o
tùm ^m	"work"	tōvma+
tùm ^m	"send"	tìtūmιs ^ε
wùm ^m	"hear"	wūm ^{mɔ} or wùmmug ^ɔ <u>13.2.1.4</u>

12.2.1.2 From stance verbs

Stance verbs mostly form perfective gerunds, adding class suffixes to the root and following the same tone pattern allocation rules as dual-aspect verbs <u>7.5</u>. They are idiosyncratic with regard to the class suffix selected, however.

zìň'i ^{ya}	"be sitting"	<i>zīň'ig</i> a also	o "place", reg	ular g^a s^ε class
zì'e ^{ya}	"be standing"	<i>zī</i> a+ KED	<i>zī</i> "əg ^a (very	irreg <u>6.3</u>) DK KT
dīgı ^{ya/}	"be lying"	dīk ^{a∕} KT	dīgır ^{ɛ/}	WK
īgι ^{ya/}	"be kneeling"	īk ^{a/} KT	īgιr ^{ε/}	WK
vābi ^{ya/}	"be lying prone"	<i>vāp^{ɔ/}</i> КТ	vābιr ^{ε/}	WK
tī i ^{ya/}	"be leaning"	tī'ib ^{ɔ/} (of a	n object)	
gùl ^{la}	"be hanging"	gūlıb ⁵		

 $P \supset n r^a$ "be near" similarly has the gerund $p \supset n r \iota b^\circ$.

Gerunds from other single-aspect verbs are of the imperfective type, as is the gerund of the stance verb $d\bar{\epsilon}l^{|a|}$ "be leaning" <u>13.2.1.4</u>.

12.2.2 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.

ēεňbír ^ε	"(physical) foundation"	<i>Ē</i> εňbúg ^ͻ	"laying a foundation"
dūk ^{ɔ/}	"cooking pot"	dūgub ^{ɔ/}	"cooking"
dà'a=	"market"	dā'ab ^o	"buying"
kūk ^a	"chair"	kūgub ^o	"resting on something"
zūg-kūgυr ^ε	"pillow"		
sųāk ^{a/}	"hiding place"	sū'ab ^{ɔ/}	"hiding"
sɔ̄bır ^{ɛ/}	"piece of writing"	sōp ^{ɔ/}	"writing, orthography"
kūt ^ε	"iron, nail" <u>16.2.1</u>	kūdvb ⁵	"working iron"
<i>kùөรเm</i> ^m	"merchandise"	kùøsvg ^o	"selling"
pèbısım ^m	"wind"	pèbısvg ⁵	"blowing of the wind; wind"

The forms $v\bar{a}b\iota r^{\epsilon/} |\bar{a}b\iota r^{\epsilon/} d\bar{c}g\iota r^{\epsilon/} \bar{r}g\iota r^{\epsilon/}$ used by WK as gerunds of stance verbs <u>12.2.1.2</u> are used by KT as concrete nouns meaning "place for lying prone" etc, contrasting for him with gerunds $v\bar{a}p^{5/}$ etc.

Three concrete deverbal nouns, from $pib_{\ell}l^{\epsilon}$ "cover", $zanb_{\ell}l^{\epsilon}$ "tattoo", $maal^{\epsilon}$ "sacrifice" show single -*n*- in place of -*l*-:

pībιn ^{nε}	pībına+	pìbın-	"covering"
<i>zā</i> n̆bเn ^{nɛ}	zāňbına+	zàňbın-	"tattoo" (NT "sign")
<i>māan^{nε}</i>	māana+	màan-	"sacrifice"

Although my informants definitely had single -n- in these words, this may be a secondary simplification of *nn; compare Mooré pìbíndgà "couvercle" <u>6.2</u>. Toende, like Mooré, has Pattern L for these words: zabín, maan. 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 <u>13.2.1.3</u>; compare $t\bar{u}edur^{\varepsilon}$ "mortar", from $tuaa^+$ "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 $d\bar{\iota} b^{2}$ "food."

12.3 Nominals from nominals

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 ${}^{-/\epsilon}$ subclass of $r^{\epsilon}|a^{+}$ 9.3.4.1 and the associated place, which has the suffix $-g^{2}$ 30.4.

A further example of sg $-g^{2}$ deriving associated place names is:

w <i></i> ecd ^a	"hunter"	w <i></i> eog ^o	"deep bush"
WCCG	nuncor	weby	ucop bush

The suffix $-d^{\epsilon}$ is found with some names of liquids which are not m^{m} class 16.2.1; hence also

sīiňf^{ɔ/} "bee" sīiňd^{ε/} "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 30.5.

The strong association of the m^m class with abstracts may lead to conversion of adjective stems to abstract nouns when used with $-m^m$ or, less commonly, the sg suffix $-g^3$. When there is an associated adjectival verb, these abstracts bear a somewhat analogous relationship to the verb as gerunds do to other verbs, and can, for example, be preceded by combining forms in senses resembling generic complements before gerunds <u>16.10.2.1</u>. However, such abstract nouns cannot be used in the immediate future construction with $b \partial 2d^a$ "want" <u>12.2.1</u>, and unlike imperfective gerunds <u>13.2.1.4</u>, which show the expected Tone Patterns for gerunds, they show the same tone pattern as the adjective.

Examples of adjectives with corresponding abstract nouns:

νūr ^{ε/}	"alive"	vōm ^{m/}	"life"
sùŋ ^ɔ	"good"	sùm ^m	"goodness"
pòɔdıg ^a	"few"	pòɔdım ^m	"scarcity"
vènnıg ^a	"beautiful"	vènnım ^m	"beauty"
v <i>èňllıg</i> a	"beautiful"	vÈňllım ^m	"beauty"
būgvsír ^ε	"soft"	būgusím ^m	"softness"
tēbısír ^ɛ	"heavy"	tēbısím ^m	"weight"
mā'asír ^ɛ	"cool, wet"	<i>mā'asím^m</i>	"coolness, damp"
mālısír ^ɛ	"sweet"	mālısím ^m	"sweetness"
lābısír ^ɛ	"wide"	lābısím ^m	"width"
ňyÈɛsíŋ ^a	"self-confident"	<i>ňy</i> ɛ̀ɛsเm ^m	"self-confidence"
pìəlıg ^a	"white"	pìəlım ^m	"brightness"

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tītā'ar ^ɛ	"big"	tītā'am ^m	"multitude"
kūdvg ^{>}	"old"	kūdım ^m	"old times"
lāllúg ⁵	"far"	lāllúg ^o	"distance"
kpī oŋ ^{>}	"strong, hard"	kpī oŋ ^ɔ	"hardness, strength"
yàluŋ ⁵	"wide"	yàluŋ ^ɔ	"width"
mì'isug ^o	"sour"	mì'isvg ^o	"sourness"
tōɔgɔ	"bitter"	tōɔgɔ	"bitterness"
<i>zùluŋ</i> ɔ	"deep"	zùlvŋ ^ɔ	"depth"
tūvlúg ⁵	"hot"	<i>tūvlúg^ɔ</i> or <i>tūllím</i> ^m	"heat"
<i>z</i> ēmmúg ^ͻ	"equal"	zēmmúg ^ͻ	"equality"

Some nouns referring to people form similarly derived abstract nouns:

gbáňyà'a ⁼	"lazy person"	gbáňyà'am ^m	"laziness"
dàmà'a ⁼	"liar"	dàmà'am ^m	"lying"
sāan ^{a/}	"guest"	<i>sāúŋ^ว</i>	"hospitality"
<i>kpēɛňm</i> ^m	"elder"	кр <i>ē</i> oňŋ ^ɔ	"eldership"
sīeň ^a	"witch"	sวิวทัg ^ว	"witchcraft"
zỵà+	"friend"	zùθd ^ε	"friendship"

Human-reference noun stems also form abstract m^m class derivatives with the derivational suffix -*lum* <u>13.2.2</u>.

The m^m class suffix with adjective stems often creates manner adverbs:

pāalíg ^a	"new"	pāalím ^m	"recently"
bāaňlíg ^a	"quiet"	bāaňlím ^m	"quietly"
záal ^{lɛ}	"empty"	<i>zāalím^m</i>	"emptily"
nèɛrɛ	"empty"	nèɛm ^m	"for free"

Several adjective stems form manner-adverbs with an ending $-ga^+$, i.e $g^a|s^{\varepsilon}$ class sg along with apocope-blocking <u>6.6</u>:

sòŋā+/	"well; very much"
mā'asígā+/	"coolly"
tūvlígā+/	"hotly"
gīŋa ⁺	"shortly"
būgvs(gā+/	"softly"
sàalíŋā+/	"smoothly"
ňyὲɛsíŋā ^{+/}	"self-confidently"

Cf also *yīigá*⁺ "firstly" <u>16.4.2.3</u>.

13 Derivational suffixes

The statement of underlying full word structure made in <u>6</u> 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 $g \le n \mid d \mid m$, along with b and r in just a handful of words. The suffix n may represent historical */ $d \le 2$.

 $g \ s \ n \ b \ r$ never follow another derivational suffix. g and s cause a preceding CVVC to become CVC, and a preceding oral \Im to become glottalised.

I follows another suffix only as part of the combination *Im*.

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 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 a derivational suffix seen in the corresponding adjective.

13.1.1 Assume-stance verbs

Stance verbs have derived dual-aspect verbs in $-n^{\epsilon}$ <u>6.2</u> 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	verb	Assume-stance	Make-assume-stance
	dīgı ^{ya/}	be lying	dìgın ^ɛ	dīgıl ^{ɛ/}
	vābι ^{ya/}	be lying prone	vàbın ^ɛ	vābıl ^{ε/}
	īgι ^{ya/}	be kneeling	ìgιn ^ε	īgιl ^{ε/}
	làbı ^{ya}	be crouching hidder	n <i>làbιn^ε</i>	làbıl ^ɛ
	zìň'i ^{ya}	be sitting	zìň'in ^ε	zìň'il ^ɛ
	zì'e ^{ya}	be standing	zì'ən ^ɛ	zì'əl ^ε
	tī i ^{ya/}	be leaning (of thing)) tì'in ^ɛ	tr il ^{ɛ/}
WK	gɔ̄'e ^{ya/}	be looking up	gờ'ɔn ^ε	
	sùr ^a	have bowed head	sùn ^{nε}	sùn ^{nε} sic
	-	cover oneself	lìgın ^ɛ	lìgıl ^ε
	-	perch (of bird)	zùen ^ε	zùθl ^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":

Níiŋ lā zúθ nĒ. "The bird is perching." KT Bird:sg ART perch FOC.

Other derivational relationships involving stance verbs are seen in

gùl ^{la}	be suspended	gὺl ^ε	gùl ^ɛ
tàbı ^{ya}	be stuck to	tàb ^ε	tàbıl ^ɛ
dēl ^{la/}	"be leaning" (person)	dèlım ^m	

13.1.2 Causatives

-*s*- is a common causative suffix:

kpèň'+	"enter"	kpὲň'ɛs ^ɛ	"make enter"
nìe+	"appear"	nèɛsɛ	"reveal"
уī ⁺	"go/come out"	<i>yīis^{ɛ/}</i> or <i>yīs^ɛ</i>	"make go/come out"
dì+	"eat"	dìıs ^ɛ	"feed"
nū+	"drink"	nūlιs ^{ε/}	"make drink"; also <i>nūlιg^{ε/}</i>
sīgε	"go down"	sīgιs ^{ε/}	"lower"
lèb ^ɛ	"return"	lèbıs ^ɛ	"make return; answer"

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mu̯'àª	"suck" (of a baby)	mὺ'asɛ	"give to suck"
[Mooré <i>tá</i>	"arrive"]	tā'as ^{ε/}	"help to travel, walk"
zēm ^{ma/}	"be equal"	<i>z</i> ε̄'mιs ^{ε/}	"make equal"
kpìigε	"go out (fire)"	kpìisε	"quench"

-*I*- has been seen above as the causative suffix for stance verb roots. It is also found with other roots with location-related meanings:

ňyá'aŋ ^a	"behind"	ňyā'al ^{ε/}	"leave behind"
gēog ^o	"space between legs"	gēɛl ^{ɛ/}	"put between legs" Tones <i>sic</i>
līk ^a	"darkness"	lìgıl ^ɛ	"cover up"
bāň'+	"ride"	bāň'al ^{ɛ/}	"put on a horse/bicycle etc"
gū'+	"guard"	gū'ul ^{ε/}	"set someone on guard"
yè+	"dress oneself"	yÈɛlɛ	"dress another person"

Verbs derived with -g- from nominal roots are usually patientive ambitransitives but may have separate causatives in -/- :

mā'e+/	"get cool"	mā'al ^{ε/}	"make cool"
pūň'e ^{+/}	"rot"	pɔ̄ň'ɔl ^{ɛ/}	"cause to rot"
nìe ⁺	"appear"	nèɛlɛ	"reveal"
mā'e+/	"get cool, wet"	mā'al ^{ε/}	"make cool, wet"
wū'טg²/	"get wet"	wū'ט ^{וε/}	"make wet"

There is no obvious reason for the choice of suffix in

zàb ^ε	"fight"	zàbıl ^ɛ	"cause to fight"
dỵ'à ^a	"bear, beget"	dù'al ^ɛ	"make interest (of a loan)"

-g- forms causatives in a few verbs:

dɔ̃l ^{la/}	"accompany"	dɔ̄lıg ^{ɛ/}	"make accompany"
gōr ^{a/}	"look up" DK	gɔ̄dιg ^{ε∕}	"make look up" DK
tèňr ^a	"remember"	tìeň+	"bring to mind, remind"
yùul ^ɛ	"swing" intransitive	yùlıg ^ɛ	"swing" transitive
kò+	"break" intransitive	kờ'ɔg ^ε	"break" ambitransitive
nū+	"drink"	nūlιg ^{ε/}	"make drink"; also <i>nūlιs^{ε/}</i>

13.1.3 Reverse action

-g- attached to dynamic verbal roots implies reversal:

yè+	"dress oneself"	у <i></i> еg ^ε	"undress oneself"
pìd ^ɛ	"put (hat etc) on"	pìdιgε	"take (hat etc) off"
pìl ^ɛ	"cover"	pìlıg ^ε	"uncover"
<i>l5</i> +	"tie up"	l5dιg ^{ε/}	"untie"
уò+	"close"	yɔ̀'ɔgɛ	"open"
<i>ὲňd</i> ε	"block up"	ὲňdιg ^ε	"unblock"
yà'al ^ε	"hang up"	yàk ^ε	"unhang"
pà'al ^ɛ	"put on top"	pàkε	"take off top"
pìbıl ^ɛ	"cover up"	pìbıg ^ɛ	"uncover"
tàbı ^{ya}	"be stuck to"	tàbıg ^ɛ	"unstick, get unstuck"
là'as ^ɛ	"gather together"	lāk ^{ε/}	"open" (eye, book); tone <i>sic</i>
		cf <i>lák</i> è	(Mooré) "un-stick together"

Possibly a reversal sense also underlies

lìəb ^ɛ	"become"	lèbıg ^ɛ	"turn over"
fāň+	"rob, snatch"	fāeň+/	"save" ?? for "snatch back"

Reversive -g- is a peculiarity of the Western group within Oti-Volta; the other groups show alveolar suffixes: Konkomba $pi:^n$ "close" pi:ri "open", Moba *lwo* "close" *lwot* "open", Byali *byá* "close" *byērá* "open", Nawdm *rów* "has closed" *rɔd* "open." Proto-Bantu had -*vl*- and -*vk*-, perhaps respectively transitive and intransitive. An alveolar variant may have been disfavoured in Western Oti-Volta because of the adoption of -*da* as the regular dynamic imperfective flexion.

13.1.4 Plural action

-s- may have a plural action sense:

kò+	"break"	kờ'ɔs ^ε	"break several times"
tòň+	"shoot"	tòň'ɔs ^ε	"hunt"
pìəb ^ɛ	"blow (flute etc)"	pèbıs ^ɛ	"blow (wind)"
làbı ^{ya}	"crouch in hiding"	làbıs ^ɛ	"walk stealthily"
vūe ^{a/}	"be alive"	νū'υs ^{ε/}	"breathe, rest"
įāňk ^{ε/}	"fly, jump"	įāň'as ^{ℓ/}	"leap, jump repeatedly"
yā'e ^{+/}	"open mouth"	yā'as ^{ε/}	"open repeatedly" WK
dī e+/	"receive"	dī'əs٤/	"receive (many things)"
gū'+	"guard"	gū'us ^{ε/}	"watch out; guard (many)"

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-g- attached to nominal roots has the meaning "make/become ...":

ňyɔ̄'ɔsɛ/	"smoke"	ňyū'e+/	"set alight"
ňwīig ^{a/}	"rope"	ňwīig ^{ε/}	"make a rope"
tādım ^{m/}	"weak person"	tàdıg ^ɛ	"become weak"
kpì'a+	"neighbour"	kpì'e ⁺	"approach"
zūθr ^ε	"hill"	zùe+	"get higher, more"
À-Tūl ^{lɛ}	"Breech-Delivered" 30.2	tùlıg ^ɛ	"invert"
mā'asír ^ɛ	"cool, wet"	mā'e ^{+/}	"get cool, wet"
būgusír ^ɛ	"soft"	būk ^{ε/}	"soften"
tēbısír ^ɛ	"heavy"	tēbıg ^{ɛ/}	"get/make heavy"
gīŋ ^a	"short"	gìŋ ^ε	"scrimp"
kpī oŋ ^ɔ	"strong"	kpɛ̀'ŋɛ	"strengthen"
vūr ^{ɛ/}	"alive"	<i>vū</i> ' <i>ug</i> ٤/	"make/come alive"
pòɔdıg ^a	"few"	pɔ̀'ɔg٤	"diminish; denigrate"
pìəlıg ^a	"white"	pèlıg ^ɛ	"whiten"
sābılíg ^a	"black"	sɔ̄bιg ^{ε/}	"blacken"
nīn-múa+	"concentration"	mù'e+	"redden, become intense"
kūdug ^o	"old"	kὺdιgε	"shrivel up, dry out, age"
sùŋ ^ɔ	"good"	sùŋ ^ε	"help"
tūulúg ⁵	"hot"	tōlιg ^{ε/}	"heat up"
mì'isvg ^o	"sour"	mì'ig ^ε	"turn sour"
zùlטŋ ^כ	"deep"	zùlιg ^ε	"deepen"
lāllúg ⁵	"far"	lālıg ^{ɛ/}	"get to be far, make far"
màỵk ⁵	"crumpled up"	màk ^ε	"crumple up"
dēɛŋª	"first"	dèŋ ^ɛ	"precede"
nèɛr ^ɛ	"clear, empty"	nìe+	"appear"

With the addition of *-m* as a second derivational suffix:

wàỵŋɔ	"wasted"	wàŋເm ^m	"waste away"
A similar se	ense is seen with a relati	onal verb roo	t in
sɔ̄ň'e ^{ya/}	"be better than"	sūň'e ^{+/}	"become better than" WK

-*lum*- derives verbs from noun roots, meaning "act as ..." or "make/become ...":

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pu̯'āª	"woman"		pù'alım ^m	"cook"
pòň'ɔr ^ɛ	"cripple"		pɔ̀ň'ɔlım ^m	"cripple, get crippled"
gìk ^a	"dumb"		gìgılım ^m	"become dumb"
wàbır ^ɛ	"lame"		wàbılım ^m	"make, go lame"
<i>gū'טs</i> ²	"semi-ripe things"		<i>gò'טונm</i> m	"become semi-ripe"
būgud ^a	"client of diviner"		bùgulım ^m	"cast lots"
		cf	bùkε	"cast lots"

Miscellaneous denominal dual-aspect verbs formed with s m b are seen in

	zuà+	"friend"	<i>zùθs</i> ε	"befriend"
	nēɛrɛ/	"millstone"	nēɛm ^{m/}	"grind with a millstone"
	yā'ad ^ε	"clay"	yà'ab [€]	"mould clay"
cf	yàge	(Mooré) "make pottery"		

-b- also appears in tam^m "forget", zam^m "cheat, betray", dam^m "shake" and lam^m "sip, taste", where $mm \leftarrow *mb$ 6.2, but I have found no cognate words without the suffix.

13.1.6 Miscellaneous cases

-*m*- derives some preverbs from verbs <u>19.7.2</u>:

cf cf	lèb ^ɛ là'as ^ɛ dèŋ ^ɛ malig	"return" "gather together" "go first" (Toende) "do again"	lèm là'am dèŋım màlıgım	"again" "together" "first" "again"
	It has no ob	ovious meaning in		
	kòňs ^ε	"cough"	kòňsım ^m	"cough"

-g- occurs with no clear meaning in

sīň+	"rub"	sūeň+/	"anoint"
nɔ̄bɛ	"get fat"	nɔ̄bιg ^{ε/}	"grow" (child, plant)
nā+	"join"	nāe+/	"finish"; compare
			Hausa <i>gamàa</i> "join, finish"

-**r**- appears in

<i>kāab</i> ^{ε/} "offer, invite"	kābιr ^{ε/}	"ask for admission"
	cf <i>kábıs</i>	Toende id
[no simplex]	sūgυr ^{ε/}	"forbear, be patient with"

Both words appear frequently in pan-regional set formulae <u>29</u> and may well be loanwords. They may be back-formations from the nouns $k\bar{a}b\iota r\ell^+$ and $s\bar{u}gvr\dot{v}^+$, where $r\ell/rv$ possibly originated in the equivalent of $r^{\epsilon}|a^+$ class singular flexions <u>9.5</u>.

13.2 Nominals

13.2.1 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.

13.2.1.1 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 ${}^{a}|_{D}{}^{a}$ class, although those derived from *II-* or r(r)-stem single-aspect verbs may also show $r^{\epsilon}|_{a}{}^{+}$ class forms 9.3.1. 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 <u>7.5</u>.

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Derivational suffixes

Most **dual-aspect verbs** have an agent noun with a singular form segmentally identical with the imperfective. For tones see 7.5. If there are alternate forms 11.1, the less "regular" form appears as the agent noun.

kū+	"kill"	kūud ^{a/}	"killer"
mè+	"build"	mēɛdª	"builder"
dì+	"eat"	dīt ^a	"eater"
ḡวร ^ะ	"look"	gōt ^{a/}	"seer, prophet"
dūg ^ε	"cook"	dūgud ^{a/}	"cook"
dỵ'à ^a	"bear, beget"	dū'ad ^a	"elder relation"
kàd ^ε	"drive away"	saríyà-kāt ^a	"judge" <u>19.8.1</u>
sɔ̄bε	"write"	รวิbเd ^{a/}	"writer"
bùn ^ε	"reap"	būn ^{na}	"reaper"
tùm ^m	"work"	tòm-tōm ^{na}	"worker"
kìm ^m	"tend flock"	kòňb-kīm ^{na}	"herdsman, shepherd"
kpàrε	"lock"	kpārıd ^a	"lock-er"
gbīs ^ε	"sleep"	gbīsıd ^{a/}	"sleeper"
sjàk ^ɛ	"believe"	sįākıd ^a	"believer"
įāňk ^{ε/}	"jump, fly"	įāň'ad ^{a/}	"flier"
sùŋε	"help"	รบิทเd ^a	"helper"
bàŋ ^ɛ	"understand"	bāŋıd ^a	"wise man"
<i>kēŋ^{ɛ/}</i>	"go"	kēn ^{na/}	"traveller"
gàad [€]	"pass"	tùøn-gāt ^a	"leader"
mɔ̄ɔl ^{ɛ/}	"proclaim"	mวิวl-mว์ว้ท ^{na}	"proclaimer"
màal ^ɛ	"sacrifice"	màal-māan ^{na}	"sacrificer"
pà'al ^ɛ	"teach"	pā'an ^{na}	"teacher"
sūgυr ^{ε/}	"forbear"	sūgvríd ^a	"forgiver"
yū'טm ^{m/}	"sing"	yūum-yú'ùm ^{na}	"singer"
		pl yūvm-yú'ùmnıb ^a	
sàň'am ^m	"spoil"	pu̯'à-sāň'am ^{na}	"adulterer"
		pl <i>pu្'à-sāň'amıdıb</i> ª	

Pattern H fusion verbs $\underline{7.3.1}$ $\underline{11.1}$, which delete the H toneme of the stem in the imperfective, show the same form for the agent noun:

nāe+/	"finish"	nāad ^{a/}	"someone who doesn't
			give up easily" WK
dī e+/	"receive"	dī əd ^{a/}	"receiver"
ňwà'e ⁺	"cut wood"	ňwā'ad ^a	"woodcutter"
gbāň'e ^{+/}	"catch"	zīm-gbáň'àd ^a	"fisherman"
pīe+/	"wash"	pīəd ^{a/}	"washer"

fāeň+/	"save"	fāaňd ^{a/}	"saviour" WK
		faangid	NT/KB <u>15</u>

3-mora stems in -*s* consistently drop the -*d* in the sg and cb:

sīgιs ^{ε/}	"lower"	sīgıs ^{a/}	"lowerer"
		pl <i>sīgısídìb</i> a	
kùθs ^ε	"sell"	kùøs ^a	"seller"
		pl <i>kūøsıdıb</i> a	
pù'טs ^ɛ	"worship"	pù'us ^a	"worshipper"
		pl <i>pū'vsıdıb</i> a	
tὺ'as ^ɛ	"talk"	tù'as-tù'as ^a	"talker"
		pl từˈas-tūˈasɪdɪba	
dī'əs٤/	"receive"	nō-dí'àsª	"chief's spokesman"
		pl <i>nɔ̄-díˈəsìdıb</i> ª	("linguist", see <u>31</u>)

Some 2-mora stems also irregularly drop the -*d* in the sg and cb:

zàbε	"fight"	zàb-zàb ^a	"warrior"
		gbān-záb ^a	"leather-worker"
tìsε	"give"	tìs ^a	"giver"
sòsε	"beg"	sòs ^a	"beggar"

Stems in -*mm*- ($\leftarrow *mb \ \underline{6.2}$) form reduplicated agent nouns with *nàm^a* plurals:

dàm ^m	"shake"	dàm-dàm ^{ma}	"shaker"

The *nn*-stem $s \dot{u} n^{n\epsilon}$ "bow the head" <u>6.2</u> has an agent noun stem in -*nn*-, but the tonemes show retention of the -*d*- formant:

sùn ^{nε}	"bow head"	<u>sūn</u> na	"deep thinker, close
		pl <i>sūnnıb</i> a	observer" WK <u>31</u>
		cb <i>sùn-</i>	(cf ipfv <i>sùnnıd</i> 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 $-\eta$ -:

yādıg ^{ε/}	"scatter"	yāt ^{a/}	technical term for one
			participant in a
			housebuilding ritual

Various irregular formations in my materials include:

tēk ^{ε/}	"pull"	ňwī-ték ^a	"rope-puller"
		pl <i>ňwī-tékìdıb</i> a	
nòŋ ^ɛ	"love"	nòŋıd ^a	"lover"; tones irreg
tì'əb ^ε	"heal"	tī ∂b ^a	"healer"; tones irreg;
			?noun primary <u>31</u>

For 4-mora stems: KT has no agent nouns; WK drops the final -m- and proceeds as for 3-mora stems:

<i>sìilım</i> ^m	"cite proverbs"	<i>sīin</i> ^{na}	"speaker of proverbs"
		pl <i>sīinnıb</i> a	
pò'alım ^m	"harm"	pū'an ^{na}	"harmer"
<i>zàaňsเm</i> ^m	"dream"	zàaňs ^a	"dreamer"
		pl <i>zāaňsıdıb</i> a	

Single-aspect verbs with roots ending in vowels or plosives add -*d*-:

zìň'i ^{ya}	"be sitting down"	zīň'id ^a	"sitter"
zì'e ^{ya}	"be standing still"	zī əd ^a	"stander"
mī+	"know"	mī ⁻ id ^{a/}	"knower"
		gbàn-mī ⁻ id ^{a/}	"scribe" NT
			("book-knower")
<i>z</i> ī'+	"not know"	zī'ıd ^{a/}	"ignorant person"
sū'e ^{ya/}	"own"	sū'ud ^{a/}	"owner"
sɔ̃ň'e ^{ya/}	"be better than"	sɔ̃ň'ɔdª/ pl sɔ̃ň'ɔbª	[/] <u>9.3.1</u>
dīgı ^{ya/}	"be lying down"	dīgıd ^{a/}	"lier-down"
īgι ^{ya/}	"be kneeling"	īgıd ^{a/}	"kneeler"
vābi ^{ya/}	"be lying prone"	vābıd ^{a/}	"lier prone"
làbı ^{ya}	"be crouching"	lābıd ^a	"croucher in hiding"
àẹň ^a	"be something"	āaňd ^a	"someone who
			continually is
			something" <i>sic</i> WK

Stems in *nn ll r(r)* drop -*d* throughout, showing the same stem as the finite verb, with gemination as in the verb. Those in *ll r(r)* may use $r^{\varepsilon}|a^{+}$ class suffixes, coinciding in form with dynamic adjectives <u>9.3.1</u>.

sīn ^{na/}	"be silent"	nīn-sín ^{na}	"silent person"
nēn ^{na/}	"envy"	nīn-nén ^{na}	"envious person"
dɔ̃l ^{la/}	"be with"	ňyà'an-dòl ^{la}	"disciple" (irreg. tone)
	0	r ňyà'an-dɔ̀l ^{lε}	
zāňl ^{la/}	"be holding"	nō-záňl ^{la}	"holder of hens"
	0	r n 5-zá ňl ^{lɛ}	
dēl ^{la/}	"be leaning"	nīn-dél ^{la}	"person prone to lean"
mɔ̄r ^{a/}	"have"	bù-mวr ^{a/}	"owner of goats"
	0	r bù-mɔ̄r^{ε/}	
tār ^{a/}	"have"	bù-tār ^{a/}	"owner of goats"
	0	r bù-tār ^{ε/}	

Variant formations occur in

kīs ^{a/}	"hate"	kīs ^{a/} or kīsıd ^{a/}	"hater"
tèňr ^a	"remember"	tēňrıd ^a	"rememberer"
gūr ^{a/}	"be on guard"	gūrıd ^{a/}	"guard"
		zà'-nō-gúr ^a	"gatekeeper"

13.2.1.2 Deverbal adjectives

13.2.1.2.1 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 $s\bar{u}m$ - $d\acute{v}gvda^+$ "cooked groundnuts" WK, *ziiŋdvgida* = zíin- $d\acute{v}gvda^+$ "cooked fish" (Lk 24:42), beside the more usual sense in ni'im dvgida = $n\bar{m}$ - $d\acute{v}gvda^+$ "meat for cooking" (1 Samuel 2:15.)

When used without a preceding noun cb, dynamic adjective forms have the meaning of agent nouns:

	<i>kūυdír^ε pl kūυdá</i> +	"killer" = <i>kūvd</i> a/	pl <i>kūvdíb</i> a
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With a preceding cb the meanings differ:

pu̯'à-kūʊd ^{a/}	"woman-killer, killer of women"
pu̯'à-kūvdír ^ɛ	"woman killer, murderous woman"

Accordingly, deverbal adjectives will be cited with a preceding cb. With **dual-aspect verbs**:

2-mora stems all retain the *d.

gòň+	"hunt"	pu̯'à-gɔ̄ɔňdır ^ɛ	"prostitute" ("wandering woman")
là'+	"laugh"	pu̯'à-lā'adır ^ε	"woman prone to laughter/ woman to be laughed at"
ňyē+	"see"	būn-ňyέtìr ^ε	"visible object"
kųā+	"hoe"	nā'-dá-kūødír ^ɛ	"ox for ploughing"
уÈ ⁺	"don clothes"	fū-yέɛdìr ^ɛ	"shirt for wearing" WK
		fū-yέɛdùgɔ	KT
kū+	"kill"	tì-kūvdím ^m	"poison" ("killing medicine")
dỵ'à ^a	"bear/beget"	tɛ̀ŋ-dū̄'adıgª	"native land"
dūgε	"cook"	sūm-dúgvdà+	"cooked groundnuts" WK
sīgε	"descend"	yī-sígıdìr ^ɛ	"lodging-house"
sự'ā ^a	"hide"	yēl-sú'adìr ^ɛ	"confidential matter"
òňb ^ε	"chew"	būn- <i>źňb</i> ıdà+	"solid food"
bùn ^ε	"reap"	bōn-búnnìr ^ɛ	"thing for reaping"
tùm ^m	"work"	bōn-túmmìr ^ɛ	"useful thing"
vūl ^ε	"swallow"	tì-vūnním ^m	"oral medication"
gbīs ^ɛ	"sleep"	pu̯'à-gbīsıdír ^ɛ	"woman always sleeping"

3-mora stems in $*g \operatorname{drop} -d$ in all cases except where the *g derivational suffix is deleted in the imperfective, whether regularly or otherwise <u>11.1</u>. The dropping of -d is thus much more consistent than in agent nouns.

gīlıg ^{ε/}	"go around"	pu̯'à-gīnnígª	"prostitute"
sūeň+/	"anoint"	kpā-sɔ́ɔňdìm ^m	"anointing oil"
tūlιg ^{ε/}	"heat up"	bōn-túlıgìr ^ɛ	"heater, thing for heating"
pèlıg ^ɛ	"whiten"	būn-pέlıgìr ^ε	"whitening thing, whitener"
yādıg ^{ε∕}	"scatter"	bōn-yátìr ^ε	"scattering thing" (cf <i>yāt</i> ^{a/})
įāňk ^{ɛ/}	"fly, jump"	būn-į́áň'adìr ^ɛ	"flying creature"
pàk ^ε	"surprise"	yēl-pákìr ^ɛ	"disaster"
tēk ^{ɛ/}	"pull"	ňwī-tékìr ^ɛ	"rope for pulling with"
kēŋ ^{ε/}	"go"	bùŋ-kɛ̄nnír ^ɛ	"donkey that doesn't sit still"
sùŋ ^ɛ	"help"	būn-súŋìr ^ɛ	"helpful thing"
nòŋ ^ε	"love"	bì-nòŋır ^ɛ	"beloved child"

3-mora stems in -*m* retain the -*d*, forming the consonant cluster -*mm*-:

sàň'am ^m	"destroy"	bù-sāň'ammır ^ɛ	"scapegoat" WK
3-mora ster	ns in - s all drop the	-d:	
pèlıs ^ɛ kùөs ^ɛ	"sharpen" "sell"	bōn-pέlısìr ^ɛ bōn-kúəsìr ^ɛ	"sharpening thing" "item for sale"
4-mora stems (all from KT) drop - <i>d</i> (whereas agent nouns drop stem-final - <i>m</i>):			
sìilım ^m	"cite proverbs"	bōn-síilúŋ ^ɔ	"thing relating to proverbs"

Smenn	cite proverbs	bon-sinoij	timing relating to prover by
pט̀'alım ^m	"harm"	nīn-pú'alìŋ ^a	"harmful person"
		pu̯'à-pʋ̀'alíŋª	"harmful woman"
<i>zàaทัรเm</i> ^m	"dream"	nīn-záaňsùŋ ^ɔ	"dreamy person"
		pu̥'à - zàaňsúŋɔ	"dreamy woman"

The adjectives associated with adjectival verbs are not deverbal but primary stative adjectives. Dynamic adjectives from **stance verbs** show the same stem as the agent noun <u>13.2.1.1</u>:

dīgı ^{ya/}	"be lying"	bùŋ-dīgıdír ^ɛ	"donkey that lies down a lot"
vābi ^{ya/}	"be prone"	bùŋ-vābıdír ^ɛ	"donkey always lying prone"
zìň'i ^{ya}	"be sitting"	kūg-zíň'idìr ^ɛ	"stone for sitting on"
			(i.e. not a <i>būgur^ɛ</i> WK)
zāňl ^{la/}	"be holding"	nō-záňl ^{lε}	"hen for holding"
dēl ^{la/}	"be leaning"	nīn-dέl ^{lε}	"person you can lean on" WK
		kùg-dēl ^{lε/}	"chair for leaning on"
gùl ^{la}	"be hanging"	būn-gúl ^{lε}	"thing for suspending"

13.2.1.2.2 Resultative

Resultative adjectives are only derived from verbs which can use the perfective form in a resultative sense <u>19.2.1</u>. Almost all such verbs are either intransitive or patientive ambitransitive <u>19.8.1</u>, 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 dual-aspect verbs used passively e.g. "eaten."

It is not clear how far the formation is productive. The formant is $-l_{im}$; it either deletes a preceding derivational suffix or is a formation from roots alone; all examples show $-l_{im}$ after a *CVV* root. For the flexion see <u>10</u>.

kpì+	"die"	kpìilúŋ ^ɔ	"dead"
gēň+	"get tired"	gēɛňlúŋ ^ɔ	"tired"
pè'ɛlɛ	"fill"	pè'ɛlúŋ ^ɔ	"full"
kò+	"break"	kòɔlúŋ ^ɔ	"broken"
yὲ ⁺	"wear"	yÈɛlúŋ ^ɔ	"worn" (of a shirt)
уò+	"close"	y`olúŋ ^o	"closed"
pù'alım ^m	"harm"	pù'alúŋ ^ɔ	"damaged"
àeň+	"tear"	àaňlúŋ ^ɔ	"torn"

13.2.1.3 Instrument nouns

Instrument nouns can be created at will by my informants whenever semantically appropriate from dual-aspect and stance verbs, so long as the derived dynamic adjective stem ends in d t or s; a further -m is then added. All these m-stems then inflect in the $g^a|s^{\epsilon}$ class. In a few cases the meaning overlaps with that of agent nouns.

kū+	"kill"	kūvdíŋ ^a	"thing for killing with"
<i>l5</i> +	"tie"	sįà-lɔ̄ɔdíŋª	"belt" ("waist-tying thing")
dūg ^ε	"cook"	dūgvdíŋ ^a	"cooking utensil"
sɔ̄bɛ	"write"	sɔ̄bɪdíŋª	"writing implement"
kpàr ^ε	"lock"	kpārıdıŋ ^a	"thing for locking"
ňwà'e+	"cut wood"	ňwā'adıŋ ^a	"axe"
pīe+/	"wash self"	pīədíŋ ^a	"thing for washing oneself"
sù+	"bathe"	รบิบdเŋ ^a	"sponge"
ḡวร ^ะ	"look"	nīn-gótìŋ ^a	"mirror"
		nīn-gótìs ^ɛ	"spectacles" [<i>nīn-</i> "eye"]
bùd ^ɛ	"plant"	būtıŋ ^a <u>2.3</u>	"cup" (originally "seed cup")
pīəs ^{ɛ/}	"clean"	pīəsíŋ ^a	"cleaning implement"
kùθs ^ε	"sell"	kūøsıŋ ^a	"professional salesperson"
dā'e ^{+/}	"push"	dā'adíŋ ^a	"pusher (person or thing)"
zìň'i ^{ya}	"be sitting"	zīň'idıŋ ^a	"thing for sitting on"

13.2.1.4 Imperfective gerunds

Apart from stance verbs, which mostly make perfective gerunds <u>12.2.1.2</u>, and adjectival verbs, which do not have gerunds at all apart from those verbs which take complements, single-aspect verbs usually make m^m class gerunds by adding derivational -*m*- to the stem. **Vowel-stems add -***l*(*m*-:

sū'e ^{ya/}	"own" gerund:	<i>sōˈʋlím^m</i> cf <i>so'olimkan</i> Mt 12:25, 1996
mī ⁺	"know"	mī ilím ^m
zī'+	"not know"	zī'ılím ^m
àẹňª	"be something"	àaňlím ^m
bè+	"be somewhere"	<i>bèlím</i> ^m [short vowel <i>sic</i>]
kā'e+	"not be"	kā'alím ^m
mɔ̄rª/	"have"	mōrím ^m
tār ^{a/}	"have"	tārím ^m
nēn ^{na/}	"envy"	nēnním ^m
nār ^{a/}	"be necessary"	nārím ^m
wēn ^{na/}	"resemble"	<i>wɛ̄nním^m</i> [tones show this is <i>deverbal</i>]
sīn ^{na/}	"be silent"	sīnním ^m
dɔ̃l ^{la/}	"accompany"	dɔ̄llím ^m
zāňl ^{la/}	"hold in the hand"	zāňllím ^m
dēl ^{la/}	"be leaning (of person)"	dēllúg ^o or dēllím ^m
gūr ^{a/}	"guard"	gūrím ^m
tèňr ^a	"remember"	tēňrıb ^o
kīs ^{a/}	"hate"	kísùg ^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 LO verbs; the third-mora L tone confirms that these are in fact m-stems <u>7.2.2</u>.

Dual-aspect verbs with an imperfective which has acquired an independent stative meaning <u>19.2.2.2</u> also form imperfective gerunds; however, when formed from Pattern LO verbs they do not show the third-mora H toneme:

<i>bòɔdเm</i> ^m	"will" (Pattern L, unlike <i>bɔ̃ɔdır^ɛ "</i> desirable")			
	contrast the perfective gerund <i>b5ob⁵</i> "seeking"			
gว้วทัdเm ^m	"wandering" (gòň ⁺ "hunt")			
zòtım ^m	"fear" [<i>À zót nē</i> "I'm afraid."]			
contrast <i>zɔ̃ɔg</i> ɔ "running"				

But

This probably simply means that the stems do not contain -*m*- and have only three morae; cf the $daalm^m$ "masculinity", $p\dot{v}'alm^m$ "femininity" alongside $daalm^m$ "male sex organs", $p\dot{v}'alm^m$ "female sex organs" and $biil(m^m$ "childhood" 13.2.2, and the variant forms of resultative adjectives which lack the -*m*- of the stem 10.

The gerund *wommug* of $w\dot{v}m^m$ "hear" (written *wumug* in pre-2016 orthography, but read with *-mm*- in the 1996 audio NT) is perhaps a formation of this kind, representing **womdugo*. A number of deverbal abstract nouns from 3-mora verb stems in *-s*- appear in the m^m class and resemble gerunds in tone. They too are probably imperfective gerund forms: for the dropping of the *-d*- formant compare agent nouns and deverbal adjectives.

pù'טs ^ɛ	"greet, thank"	pט̀'טsเm ^m	"worship"
	or	pù'usug ^o	
kū+	"kill"	nīn-kúusìm ^m	"murderousness"
yɔ̄lıs ^{ɛ∕}	"untie"	yɔ̄lısím ^m	"freedom"

Unequivocal imperfective gerund forms with -m- derived from almost all agentive verbs occur as premodifiers of the bound noun

	-tāa ⁼	-tāas ^ε	<i>-tà-</i> or <i>-tā-</i>	"companion in"
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The forms used for relational verbs and for other single-aspect verbs with stems in -ll -nn -r(r) are identical to their usual imperfective gerunds:

mī'+	"know"	mī'ilím-tāa=	"partner in knowledge"
zī'+	"not know"	zī'ılím-tāa=	"partner in ignorance"
bè+	"exist"	bèlím-tāa ⁼	"partner in existence" WK
dɔ̃l ^{la/}	"be with"	dɔ̄llím-tāa=	"fellow-companion"

For the irregular stative verb $n \partial g^{\epsilon}$ WK has two forms with different nuances:

nòŋ ^ɛ	"love"	nòŋılím - tāa⁼	= "fellow liker"
		or nòŋıdím-tāa	= "fellow lover"

Forms from dual-aspect verbs are made with *-m-* added to the stem seen in the derived dynamic adjective, but have gerund Tone Patterns:

mè+	"build"	m`ecdím-tāa=	"fellow-builder"
dì+	"eat"	dìtím-tāa ⁼	"messmate"
рō+	"share"	pūvdím-tāa=	"fellow-sharer"
kpèň'+	"enter"	kp <i>èň'ɛdím-tāa</i> =	"fellow-resident"

zàb ^ε	"fight"	zàbıdím-tāa ⁼	"enemy"
dūgε	"cook"	dūgudím-tāa=	"fellow-cook"
fāň+	"snatch"	fāaňdím-tāa ⁼	"fellow-robber"
từm ^m	"work"	tùmmím-tāa ⁼	"co-worker"
pù'טs ^ɛ	"worship"	pù'ʊsím-tāa=	"fellow-worshipper"
dùsɛ	"feed"	dìısím-tāa ⁼	"fellow-feeder"
sòŋ ^ε	"help"	sòŋím-tāa=	"fellow-helper"
	or	r sờŋıdím-tāa ⁼	
sįàk ^ε	"agree"	si̯àkím-tāa ⁼	"fellow in agreement"

Stance verbs may use $-d\iota m$ - or $-l\iota m$ - or even $-n\iota m$ -; $-l\iota m$ - and $-n\iota m$ - forms may belong rather to the derived assume-stance/make-assume-stance verbs <u>13.1.1</u>, with deletion of *d* after the 3-mora stems:

īgι ^{ya/}	"be kneeling"		īgılím-tāa ⁼	"fellow-kneeler"
		or	īgıdím-tāa=	"fellow-kneeler" WK
zìň'i ^{ya}	"be sitting"		zìň'ilím-tāa=	"fellow-sitter"
		or	zìň'idím-tāa ⁼	"fellow-sitter" WK
vābı ^{ya/}	"lie prone"		vābılím-tāa=	"fellow lier-prone"
		or	vābıdím-tāa=	"fellow lier-prone" WK
làbı ^{ya}	"be crouched"		làbılím-tāa ⁼	"fellow croucher in hiding"
zì'e ^{ya}	"be stood"		zì'əlím-tāa=	"fellow-stander"
		or	zì'ədím-tāa=	"fellow-stander" WK
dīgı ^{ya/}	"be lying"		dīgılím-tāa ⁼	"fellow-lier"
		or	dìgıním-tāa ⁼	"fellow-lier" WK

13.2.1.5 Other deverbal nominals

-s- appears in a few concrete nouns derived from verbs:

dīgı ^{ya/}	"be lying down"	dīgısá+	"lairs"
dū+	"go up"	dūvsá+	"steps"

-*m*- derives nouns from verbal roots in

zò+	"run"	<i>z</i> ɔ̄ɔm ^{mε}	"refugee"
kpì+	"die"	kprim ^{m/}	"corpse"

-d- appears as an instrument noun formant instead of the usual -dim- in

tuà+	"grind in a mortar"	tūødır ^ɛ	"mortar"
	g a		11101001

See also on $p\bar{l}bin^{n\epsilon}$ "covering" etc, where the *n* may represent **ld* <u>12.2.2</u>.

-b- derives nouns from verbal roots in

kpì+	"die"	kpìibıg ^a	"orphan"
dà'+	"buy"	dà'abır [€]	"slave"

This -b may be connected with the stem of $b\bar{i}ig^a$ "child"; cf Gurmanche $kp\bar{e}big\bar{a}$ "orphan", $kp\dot{e}$ "die", $big\bar{a}$ "child". Sàlıbır^{ϵ} "bridle" is not analysable.

13.2.2 From nominals

-s- forms adjectives and cognate adjectival verbs.

mā'e+/	"cool down"	mā'asír ^ε	"cold, wet"
		mā'as ^{a/}	"be cold, wet"
būk ^{ε/}	"weaken"	būgvsír ^ɛ	"soft"
		būgus ^{a/}	"be soft"
tēbιg ^{ε/}	"get heavy"	tēbısír ^ɛ	"heavy"
		tēbıs ^{a/}	"be heavy"
mì'ig ^ε	"get sour"	mì'isug ^o	"sour"
		mì'is ^a	"be sour"

-**d**- features in a number of nouns with no evident derivational meaning, such as $y\bar{u}gvd\iota r^{\epsilon}$ "hedgehog", $l\bar{a}'af^{2}$ "cowrie" pl $l\bar{i}g\iota d\iota^{+}$ "money", $p\dot{v}gvd\iota b^{a}$ "father's sister."

-*m*- appears in both concrete nouns, mostly with human reference, and abstracts:

bī'a+	"bad"	bī'əm ^m	"enemy"
tàdıg ^ɛ	"become weak"	tādım ^{m/}	"weak person"
áňsìb ^a	"mother's brother"	āňsíŋ ^a	"sister's child"
yáab ^a	"grandparent"	yáaŋ ^a	"grandchild"
*yāágbā		*yāágmgā	
vúør ^ɛ	"red kapok fruit"	vúøŋ ^a	"red kapok"
*vūégrī		*vūégmgā	
bì'isır ^ɛ	"breast"	bì'isím ^m	"milk"
nà'ab ^a	"chief"	nā'am ^m	"chiefship"
<i>zɔ̃lug</i> ɔ/	"fool"	<i>z</i> ɔ̄lιmís ^ε	"foolishness"

Derivational suffixes

Abstract $-m(s^{\epsilon}$ forms seem always to have H toneme; cf $b\dot{u}dim(s^{\epsilon}$ "confusion", where, however, the -m- is part of the verb stem $b\dot{u}dim^{m}$ "get confused"; cf also

tādım ^{m/}	"weak person"	tàdımís ^ɛ	"weakness"
cuutin	would poi boli	caacinco	Woulditobb

Added to existing adjectival stems, -*m*- produces no change of meaning:

ňyżɛs ^a	"be self-confident"	ňy <i></i> esíŋ ^a	"self-confident"
v <i></i> čňllıg ^a	"beautiful"	v <i>èňllíŋ^a</i>	"beautiful"
mālısíg ^a	"pleasant"	mālısíŋ ^a	"pleasant"
lāllúg ⁵	"distant"	lāllíŋ ^a	"distant"
nār ^{a/}	"be necessary"	nàruŋ ^ɔ	"necessary"
wɔ̄kɔ/	"long, tall"	wā'am ^{ma/}	"be long, tall"

-*m*- is seen in a good many unanalysable 3-mora nominal stems, such as the nouns $y\bar{v}g\dot{v}m^{n\epsilon}$ "camel" (ultimately from Berber), $gb\bar{\iota}gm^{n\epsilon}$ "lion", $z\dot{\iota}lm^{m\epsilon}$ "tongue, $a\check{n}rv\eta^{\circ}$ "boat", and the adjectives $z\dot{u}lv\eta^{\circ}$ "deep", $\check{n}y\bar{a}l\dot{v}\eta^{\circ}$ "wonderful", $y\dot{a}lv\eta^{\circ}$ "wide."

-*lum*- derives abstract nouns from nouns and adjectives. The -*l*- is perhaps the same suffix as in primary adjectives like

s5b^ε "get dark" *sābιlíg*^a "black"

However, there are no adjectives in -/- alongside these abstract nouns; this is true even for abstract nouns derived with -/- alone, like

dāỵ+	"man"	dàalım ^m	"masculinity"
pỵ'ā ^a	"woman"	pò'alım ^m	"femininity"

-lum- is the only derivational suffix before which *CVVC* roots do not become *CVC* <u>6.1.1.2</u>, and it can follow a preceding derivational suffix, creating five-mora stems.

tītā'al ^{lε}	"proud person"	tītā'alım ^m	"pride"
gīŋ ^a	"short"	gīiňlím ^m	"shortness"
wōk ^{ɔ/}	"long, tall"	wā'alím ^m	"tallness"
sāan ^{a/}	"guest, stranger"	sáannìm ^m	"strangerhood"
tīráàn ^a	"neighbour"	<i>tīráànnım</i> ^m	"neighbourliness"
gīŋ ^a	"short"	<i>gīŋılím</i> m	"shortness"

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 \dot{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* ι *v* vowel distinction of affix vowels; the ι/v distinction itself and realisations as [i] or [u] are predictable <u>4.7</u>. 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 <u>7.2.4</u>.

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 *a ι v* 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 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 v after labials, labiodentals and labiovelars; v replaces ι before root u/v/2 and ι replaces v before root $i/\iota/\varepsilon$. No cases occur with voiced stops or voiced fricatives.

kùkɔ̄rɛ/	"voice"
kùkòm ^{mε}	"leper"
kìkàŋ ^a	"fig tree"
kìkīrıg ^{a/}	"tutelary spirit"
k[p]ùkpàrıgª	"palm tree"
kpīkpīn ^{na/}	"merchant"
kpàkūr ^{ɛ/}	"tortoise" (anomalous prefix vowel)
tītā'ar ^ɛ	"big"
tìtōmιs ^ε	"sending" (<i>tùm</i> ^m "send")
tàtàl ^{lɛ}	"palm of hand"
pīpīrıg ^{a/}	"desert"
fūfūm ^{mɛ}	"envy"; "stye" (believed to result from envy)
sìsì'əm ^m	"wind"
zà-sìsɔ̄bɪr ^{ɛ/}	"evening"
	(zà- cb of zàam ^m "evening", sɔ̄b ^ε "get dark")
lìlāalíŋ ^a	"swallow"
mìmīilím ^m	"sweetness"
mìmīilúg ^o	id

More complex is a similar type with a final nasal consonant; voiced stops and fricatives do occur with this type:

gùngōm ^{mε} dùndùug ^ɔ dìndēog ^{ɔ/} bìmbìm ^{mε} bùmbàrıg ^a zùnzòŋ ^a zīnzāu̯ŋ ^{ɔ/} kìnkàŋ ^a tīntōňríg ^a pùmpōɔg ^ɔ sīnsáaň ⁼	"kapok material" (gừm ^{mε} "kapok fruit") "cobra" "chameleon" "altar" "ant" "blind" (zū'em ^{m/} "go/make blind") "bat" "fig" "mole" "housefly" (cf tàmpūa ⁺ id 9.3.2) a kind of tiny ant
1 1 5	

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An even more complex type follows the reduplicated *CV* with *-sun* or *-lun*:

kpìsınkpìl ^{lɛ}	"fist"
tàsıntàl ^{lɛ}	"palm of hand"
sīlınsíùňg ^ɔ	"spider" pl <i>sīlınsíìňd</i> ^ɛ
sīlınsíùg ⁵	"ghost" pl <i>sīlιnsîis</i> ε
zīlınzíòg ⁵	"unknown" cf zī'+ "not know"
vòlınvùuňl ^{lɛ}	"mason wasp"
wàsınwàl ^{lɛ}	a parasitic gall on trees,
	called "mistletoe" in local English
nēsınnēog ^{ɔ/}	"envious person" cf <i>nēn^{na/}</i> "envy" WK
	others "centipede" = WK nà'-nɛ̄sınnɛ̃ogɔ/

14.1.2 **Da(n)** ba(n) sa(n)

dàwàlıg ^a dàyūug ^{ɔ/} dàyáam ^{ma} dàtāa ⁼ dàmà'a ⁼ dàkīig ^a dàwān ^{nɛ/} dādúk ^ɔ dàtìųŋ ^ɔ dàgɔ̀bıg ^a	<pre>"hot, humid period just before the rainy season" "rat" "woman's parent-in-law" "enemy" cf nìn-tāa⁼ "co-wife", Ghanaian "rival" "liar" cf mà'⁺ "lie" "sibling-in-law via wife" "pigeon" a kind of large pot, cf dūk^{ɔ/} "pot" "right hand"</pre>
bānāa ⁼ bàlàŋır ^ɛ bàlàar ^ɛ bālɛ̄rʊg ^{ɔ/} bàyɛ̄og ^{ɔ/}	traditional long-sleeved smock "hat" "stick, staff" "ugly" cf $l\bar{\epsilon}r^{\epsilon}$ "get ugly" "betrayer of secrets" cf $y\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon s^{\epsilon/}$ "betray a secret"
sākárὺg ^ɔ sàbùa+ sāmán ^{nε}	"fox" "lover, girlfriend" ? <i>bɔ̀ɔd</i> ª "want, love" clear space in front of a <i>zàk</i> ª "compound"

Various forms show prefixes of the form *Can-*; those with initial consonants other than $d \ b \ s$ are probably best classified with the unanalysable residue of complex stems which includes loanwords <u>15</u>:

dànkòŋ ^ɔ	"measles"
sāngúnnìr ^ɛ	"millipede"
zànkὺ'ar ^ε	"jackal"
Zàngbèog ⁵	"Hausa person"
màngáʋŋ ^ɔ	"crab"
làngávŋ ^ɔ	"crab"
nānzū'us ^{ε/}	"pepper"

The interesting word $nay\overline{iig}^a$ "thief" is written na'ayiig in NT/KB as if it were a compound with the cb $n\overline{a}'$ - "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 $a|b^a$ class and the -g- belongs to the stem: pl $nayiig-nam^a$, though there is an analogical $g^a|s^{\epsilon}$ pl $nay\overline{iis}^{\epsilon}$ as well; there is also a derived abstract noun $nay\overline{iig}m^m$ "thievery." The Farefare cognate of $nay\overline{iig}^a$ is nayiga, pl nayigba or nayigsi; Dagbani has nayiga pl nayigsi and also tayiga id.

14.1.3 Pū kù(n)

In some words these prefixes have a negative meaning, and they are then presumably connected with the verb negative particles $p\bar{o} k\dot{v}$:

kùndù'ar ^ɛ	"barren woman"; cf <i>dự</i> 'à ^a "bear, beget"	
nīn-pū-nān ^{na/}	"disrespectful person"; cf <i>nān</i> ^ε "love, respect"	
tùb-pū-wúmnìb ^a	"deaf people" (Rom 11:7)	
	cf <i>tùbur^ɛ "ear", wùm^m "hear."</i>	

However, most cases are not analysable:

kùndùŋ ^a	"jackal"	
gūmpūzēr ^{ɛ/}	"duck"	
dāmpūsāar [£]	"stick"	
bān-kúsél ^{lε}	"lizard" ? first element connected with <i>bàŋ</i> 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 9.2.2.

nìn	"body"	is accepted by WK as cb of $n\bar{n}g^a n\bar{n}s^{\epsilon}$ [= Mooré y $\bar{n}ga$] but the word is rare; as a noun prefix cf	
		nìn-gbīŋ ^{ɔ/} nìn-tāa ⁼	"human skin; body" "co-wife"
dà	"man"	is replaced as regular cb by forms segmentally remodelled on sg and pl <i>dàu̯-, dàp-,</i> but the <i>dà-</i> form is seen in	
		dà-pāal ^{a/} dà-kòɔňr ^ɛ compare pùkòɔňr	"son, boy" cf <i>pāalíg</i> "new" "son, bachelor" cf <i>àdàkóň</i> ' "one" ^ɛ below
рù	"woman"	cf <i>pu̯'ā</i> ª "woman" cb <i>pu̯'à-</i> . Identifiable in e.g.	
		pùkòɔňr ^ɛ	"widow" cf Mooré pùgkôoré "widow" with Mooré pùgsádà "young woman" = Kusaal pự'à-sādιr ^{ε/}
pū-	"farm"	cf $p\bar{j}g^{j}$ "field, farm", pl $p\bar{j}t^{\epsilon}$, regular cb $p\bar{j}$ -; Mooré púugò pl pútò Tonally, this $p\bar{v}$ - behaves as a M prefix, not a cb <u>7.2.4</u> .	
		pūkpāad ^{a/}	"farmer" (= $kp\bar{a}ad^{a/}id$)
nà'	"chief"(?)	appears before a number of nouns signifying animals and insects:	
		nà'-nɛ̄sınnɛ̄og ^{ɔ/} cf nɛ̄sınnɛ̄og ^{ɔ/} nà'-zòm ^{mɛ} nà'-dàwān ^{nɛ/}	"centipede" WK "envious person" WK; others: "centipede" "locust" "pigeon" = dàwān ^{nε/}

The "chief" cb perhaps relates to traditional folklore; cf *à-k5ra-díàm*^{ma} "praying mantis" ("hyena's parent-in-law") and animal and bird names which incorporate the personifier clitic <u>16.6</u> like à-dàalúŋ[>] "stork", à-gáùňg[>] "pied crow", à-mús^ɛ "cat."

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14.2 Adverbs

The manner-adverb prefix \dot{a} - appears before some stems which are also followed by apocope-blocking <u>17.4</u>:

àmĒŋá+	"truly"
àsīda+	"truly"
àníŋà+	"promptly"

The same prefix is also seen in a number of proadverbs and in the locative $\partial g \mathcal{J}^{|\epsilon}$ "upwards" <u>17.3</u>. 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 <u>8.2.1</u>.

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</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.

The number prefixes represent **fossilised noun class agreement prefixes**. With the collapse of noun-class based grammatical gender <u>9.1</u> in favour of a system of natural gender <u>16.2.2</u> the old ${}^{a}|b^{a}$ class agreement pronouns \dot{o} $b\dot{a}$ have been generalised for animate while the old $r^{\epsilon}|a^{+}$ class singular pronoun $l\hat{i}$ has been adopted for inanimate gender. In Dagbani, where there has been a very similar change, the inanimate singular pronouns are similarly based on the equivalent of the $r^{\epsilon}|a^{+}$ class, with the old plural pronoun ηa still extant in older materials for inanimate plural (Olawsky 1999.) Number words originally agreed with the counted noun with a prefix similar in form to the corresponding plural pronoun, and the \dot{a} - of the Kusaal numbers 2-9 used as quantifiers <u>16.4.2.1</u> represents original * ηa -.

Because of its origin from $*\eta a$ -, the \dot{a} - number prefix, unlike all other aparticles and prefixes, causes a preceding LF-final vowel following a consonant to
appear as -a rather than $-\iota$ 8.2.1:

bīisá àtáň' "three children" child:PL NUM:three

This same \dot{a} - is also seen in \dot{a}/\dot{a}^+ "how many?" contrasting with \dot{a}/\dot{a}^+ "thus", which has the manner-adverb \dot{a} -:

Pἐεdáàlá+ø?"How many baskets?"Basket:PL NUM:how.many cq?

nìŋı_	àlá	"did thus"
do	ADV:thus	

The expected corresponding number prefix $b\dot{a}$ - is not now found after nouns with animate gender, but is still preserved after personal pronouns:

tì bàtáň'	"we three"
yà bàyźpż <u>ę</u>	"you seven"
bà bàyí	"they two"

The forms of the number words 2-9 used for counting <u>16.4.2.2</u> represent the old m^m class agreement, in the "abstract" sense of m^m <u>9.1.1</u>:

htáň'	"three"	(in counting)
'nnāas	"four"	(in counting)
'nnū	"five"	(in counting)

Compare Nawdm $mi-t\hat{a}$? "three" $mi-n\hat{a}$: "four" $mi-n\hat{u}$? "five" etc in counting. When referring to a specific noun Nawdm numbers have a prefix agreeing with the noun class $nidb\hat{a} b\hat{a}-t\hat{a}$? "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^{2} or m^{m} class agreement.

àbùyí+	"twice"
àbùtáň'+	"three times"
àbùnāasí+	"four times"
bùpīiga+	"ten times"
nɔ̄ɔrím bùtáň'+	"three times"

15 Unsegmentable complex stems

Numerous words in Kusaal (including the very name of the language, $K\bar{\upsilon}s\dot{a}\dot{a}l^{\varepsilon}$) have stems which are more complex structurally than the ordinary unprefixed type but are simply unanalysable units. Tonally, they usually resemble forms with noun prefixes, but examples occur with an initial H toneme. Segmentally, they may contain unusual consonant clusters. Most are identifiable as loanwords, but by no means all. Many names of ethnic groups and clans fall into this category.

Examples of such complex stems include

Kūsáàs ^ε	"Kusaasi"
Ňwāmpūrιs ^{ε/}	"Mamprussi"
Kùtām ^{ma/}	WK's clan
gbáňyà'a ⁼	"lazy person" gonya'am "idleness" 1976 NT
	cf Dagbani <i>gbinyaɣli</i> "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 <u>9.6</u>. Analogy may also cause the initial \dot{a} - of loanwords like $\dot{a}raz\dot{a}n\dot{a}^+$ "heaven" and $\dot{a}raz\dot{a}k^a$ "riches" to be treated tonally as fixed-L <u>8.3.1</u>.

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

dāká+	"box"	← àdakàa (← Portuguese arca)
gādv ⁺	"bed"	← gadoo
k <i>ɛɛkɛ̀</i> +	"bicycle"	← kèekè
bákpàe ⁺	"week"	<i>← bakwài</i> (Hausa "seven")

Identifiable verb loanwords are much less common. They are subject to the usual constraints on possible Kusaal verb shapes <u>13.1</u>:

dàam ^m	"disturb, trouble"	← dàamaa
bùg ^ε	"get drunk"	<i>← bùgu;</i> a Hausa idiom: literally
		"get thoroughly beaten"

Several function	words	are	loans,	probably	from	Hausa:

àsée	"except"	← sai
kūv	"or"	← koo
báa	"not a" <u>27.2</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: $h\bar{a}l(+$ "until", Hausa *har*, Kikara Songhay *hálì id*, possibly from Arabic \neg $\hbar atta$: (Heath 2005); *lòmbò*' g° "garden", Hausa *làmbuu*, Humburi Senni *làmbò* "enclosed vegetable garden"; *làbi*^{ya} "be crouching, hiding behind something", Hausa *labèe id*, Kikara Songhay *lá:bú* "hide behind or under something." With Kusaal *làbi*^{ya} and Hausa *labèe*, 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 a single-aspect type Long Form in -ya 2.4.2 and dual-aspect assume-stance and make-assume-stance derivatives <u>13.1.1</u>.

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 tíláso"duty", Zarma, Kaado $tílas \leftarrow$ Hausa tiilas. 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:

láafìya+	"health"	Hausa	laafiyàa	id
		Mooré	làafí	id
		Kikara Songhay	?àlà:fíyà	id
		Arabic	al-sa العافية	:fiya(tu)
			"(the) wellr	ness"
àrazàk ^a	"riches"	Hausa	arzìkii	id
alazak	Ticlies		-	-
		Mooré	àrzéká	id
		Kikara Songhay	?árzúkù	"good luck"
		Arabic	Par-rizo الرزق	q(u)
			"(the) livel	ihood"
		cf plura	l ارزاق Parza:	q(un)
Tàláatà ⁺	"Tuesday"	Hausa	Tàlaatàa	
	J U U U J	Arabic	الثلاثاء ٢٥٩-٥	əala:θa:?(i)

àrazánà+	"heaven"	Hausa Mooré Kikara Songhay Arabic	àljannàa àrzấnà ?àljánnà الجنة ?al-Janr "(the) garde	
yàddā ^{+/} yàdā WK	"assent"	Hausa Gao Songhay Kikara Songhay probably Arabic	•	(verb) "consent" id id 3sg m ipfv of) "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 màlįāk^{a/} "angel" (always malek in NT versions prior to 2016) is derived from the Arabic ملاك mal?ak(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 ملائكة mala:?ika(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 ?ika(tu).

Loanwords from **Songhay** languages, probably via Mooré, include *bòrkìn*^a "honest person", Mooré *bùrkĩná* "free, noble" (as in "Burkina Faso"), Dagbani *bilchina* "free, not slave", Yoruba *bòròkìnní* "gentleman"; cf Kikara Songhay *bòrkǐn* "noble (caste.)" The word *bàuŋv* is used only in *kpɛ̀ň*' *bàuŋv* "get circumcised" (*kpɛ̀ň*'+ "enter"), Mooré *kề bãongó id*; cf Kikara Songhay *bàŋgù* "pool, spring", *à húró bàŋgù* "he entered the pool", i.e. "he was circumcised" (Trimingham 1959.)

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 $W(nn\dot{a}'am^{m} (WK) W(n\dot{a}'am^{m} (always Wina'am NT/KB)$ "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. $W(nn\dot{a}'am$ looks analysable as a compound of $w\bar{\iota}n^{n\epsilon/}$ "god" and the stem of $n\dot{a}'ab^{a}$ "chief" or $n\bar{a}'am^{m}$ "chieftaincy", but the tones should then have been $*W\bar{\iota}n$ - $n\dot{a}'\dot{a}m$, and the prevalence of the form $W(n\dot{a}'am$ 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 *Wếnnàám* 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 *Wínā'am*, with a tonal fall like the Agolle *Wínà'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 [$f\tilde{a}:q^{j}Id$] by my informants; preservation of *g* in this position <u>6.3</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 $z\bar{r} \Rightarrow g^{a}$ of $z\bar{r}'e^{ya}$ "be standing" used by DK KT instead of KED $z\bar{r}'a^{+}$ <u>12.2.1.2</u>.) The expected agent noun from $f\bar{a}en\bar{n}^{+/}$ "save" is $f\bar{a}and^{a/}$, presumably avoided as identical to the agent noun of $f\bar{a}n\bar{n}'$ "rob, snatch", found in NT/KB as *faand* "robber." WK has the identical agent noun $f\bar{a}and^{a/}$ for both verbs, and he specifically confirmed that the word had both meanings in his idiolect.

As with $W(n\dot{a}'am, faangid$ is probably a loan, either from Mooré $f\tilde{a}agd\dot{a}$ "sauveur", or from Toende Kusaal, where loss of *g is consistent word-finally after all long vowels (bii "child" = $b\bar{i}ig^a$, $b\bar{v}\bar{v}$ "goat" = $b\bar{v}vg^a$), but optional elsewhere, with variation between speakers (Niggli, "La phonologie du kusaal"):

páa	" <i>arriver</i> " (Agolle <i>pāe</i> ⁺ "reach")
Õ bv paage.	"Il n'est pas arrivé." (Agolle Ò pū 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 $k\bar{i}ib\dot{o}^+$ cb $k\bar{i}ib$ - "soap." Written sources have ki'ib, probably $k\bar{i}'\iota b^{\prime\prime}$ = Toende $k\dot{i}'\iota p$. The length and quality of the vowels clearly identify the source as **Mampruli** kyiibu: contrast Farefare $k\dot{i}'b\dot{o}$, Dagbani chibo.

Other words with singulars ending in ι^+ or $\upsilon^+ \underline{9.5}$ like $k\bar{a}b\iota r\ell^+$ "permission for entry" and $s\bar{u}g\upsilon r\upsilon^+$ "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

kɔ̄dú+	"banana"	← kwadu
sāafı+(?tones)	"lock, key"	<i>← safẽ</i> "key" (<i>←</i> Portuguese <i>chave</i>)
būrıyá ⁺	"Christmas"	← bronya (itself of unclear origin)

Unsegmentable complex stems

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:

àlɔ´pìr ^ɛ	"aeroplane"	? back-formation from [alɔpɪ[ɪn]
		taken as locative <i>àlɔ´pìrī-n^{ε/}</i>
dỵ'átà+	"doctor"	(cf Dagbani dóγté id)
tóklàe ⁺	"torch"	← "torchlight"
lśr ^ε	"car, lorry"	(often borrowed even in
		Francophone Africa: cf
		Mooré <i>lór</i> è)

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: l5ya "cars", not *l5ya 9.6.

Several loanwords of English origin have probably been transmitted via Hausa:

kótù+	"court"	Hausa <i>kootù</i>
sógjà ^a	"soldier"	Hausa <i>soojà</i>
téɛbùlɛ	"table"	Hausa <i>teebùr</i>
wādá+	"law"	Hausa <i>oodà</i> (← English "order")
		sg wādır ^{ɛ/} cb wād-
		created by back-formation

A clear **French** loan in Agolle Kusaal is lamp5 (i.e. l'impôt) "tax", as in lamp5 $di'as^a$ "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 $kastat^{a/}$ "witness, testimony", Mooré kastatot "testimony, proof", as in kastattatot "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 cachete "he seals." Mooré kastatot and Farefare kastot 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.)

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Syntax

16 Noun phrases

16.1 Overview

A nominal phrase may be either a noun phrase (NP) or an adverbial phrase (AdvP <u>17</u>.) A noun phrase has a noun, pronoun or quantifier as head. If present, the **article** $|\bar{a}^{+}|$ occurs last in a NP. (For the sole exception, see <u>19.10</u>.)

Dependent nominal phrases may precede the head recursively. Some words have specialised rôles as NP heads; otherwise, a specific-reference predependent is a **predeterminer**. With quantifier or pronoun heads the sense is **partitive**; predeterminers of gerunds and similar nouns are subjects; predeterminers of other heads are **possessors**. Generic-reference predependents are either **premodifiers** or **complements** to deverbal noun heads.

As is characteristic of Oti-Volta, **compounding** <u>16.9</u> is pervasive in NP structure where most languages use uncompounded constructions. Closeness of syntactic binding is not always reflected in whether the components are compounded or not. Adjectives and postdeterminer pronouns regularly compound with the preceding head; accordingly the combining form is a regular part of the noun paradigm. Generic complements and count-reference premodifiers also compound with the following head.

Quantifier phrases follow NP heads as uncombined postdeterminers.

A nominal phrase may be a relative clause <u>25.3</u>. No dependents may occur with a relative clause apart from the article or a predeterminer. Nominal phrases may be formed by **coordination** or by **apposition**.

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. VPs show no agreement; plural imperatives are followed by a liaison enclitic subject pronoun 22.1.3. However, in a compound of a noun with a following adjective or postdeterminer pronoun, it is the dependent which inflects to show the number of the head noun cb 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: Noun phrases

zɔ̄ɔgɔ	zɔ̄ɔsɛ		"race"
bū' o súg ^o	bū'əsá+	bū' o s-	"question"
zàaňsúŋ ^ɔ	zàaňsímà+	zàaňsúŋ -	"dream"

Typical underived mass nouns belong to the b^{2} and m^{m} noun classes, which do not have paired sg/pl suffixes, but gerunds of 3-mora stem verbs regularly show sg r^{ϵ} or g^{2} suffixes <u>12.2.1.1</u>, and a number of words referring to uncountables or abstracts are formally plural, but construed as singular:

bāň'as ^ɛ	bàň'-	"disease"
ňyɔ̄'ɔs ^{ε/}	ňyɔ̄'-	"smoke"
tàdımís ^ɛ		"weakness"
zɔ̄lımís ^ε		"foolishness"
mĒt ^{ε/}	<i>m</i> ε̄t- <u>9.2.2</u>	"pus"
kūt ^ε	<u>kùt- 9.2.2</u>	"iron"
zùəd ^ɛ		"friendship"
bῦυd ^ε		"innocence"
sīiňd ^{ɛ/}		"honey"
nīn-pύὺd ^ε		"pus"
wāad ^{ɛ/}		"cold weather"
sūň-pέὲn ^{nε}		"anger"
ku̯'à-nūud ^{ε/}		"thirst"
sālīma+	sàlım-	"gold"
sìda+	sìd-	"truth"

 $K\bar{u}t^{\varepsilon}$ is also "nail"; the original sg $k\bar{u}dvg^{\circ}$ appears in the name \dot{A} - $K\bar{u}dvg^{\circ}$ 30.2. So too with a number of irregularly formed deverbal abstract nouns:

gēɛňmís ^ɛ	"madness"	←	gēɛňm ^{m/}	"madden, go mad"
bùdımís ^ɛ	"confusion"	←	bùdım ^m	"confuse"
tìtūmιs ^ε	"sending"	←	tùm ^m	"send"
zīid ^{ε/}	"carrying on head"	←	<i>zī</i> +	"carry on head"
vūud ^{ε/}	"noise"	←	vū+	"make a noise"
kēn ^{nε/}	"arrival"	←	kēň+	"come"
pįàň'ad ^ε	"speech"	←	pįāň' ^a	"speak" (irreg. tones)
[sg <i>pi̯àu̯ňk</i> ɔ	"word"]			
dì'əma+	"festival"	←	dì'əm ^m	"play, not be serious"
tūvma+	"work"	←	tùm ^m	"work"
[sg <i>tōυm^{mε}</i>	"deed"]			

Noun phrases

tēň'ɛsá+	"thought"	cf	tēň'ɛsá yīnní	"one thought"
			(Acts 4:32)	

A single object may be referred to by a plural naming its components:

	dà-pūvdá+	dà-pūvdá nàm ^a	"cross"
cf	dà-pūvdír ^ɛ	dà-pūvdá+	"cross-piece"

A Kusaal plural may just happen to correspond to an English mass noun:

lāuk ^o	lā'ad ^ɛ	là'-	"piece of goods"
lā'af ^o	līgıdı+	là'- or lìg-	"cowrie" pl "money"

The count/mass distinction is significant in the choice of quantifiers $\underline{16.4.1}$ and when plurals are formed with $nam^a \underline{9.4}$, 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 $\underline{16.10.2.2}$:

fūug dóòg	"tent" (cloth hut): <i>fūug</i> "item of clothing, shirt"
dàad bún-nám	"wooden things": <i>dàad</i> "pieces of wood"

Manner-adverbs resemble mass nouns syntactically. Mass nouns may occur as manner adverbs, as may count nouns used where number is irrelevant <u>17.4</u>:

Ì kέŋ	nōbá.	"I went on foot." SB
1SG go	leg:pl.	WK corrected to <i>À kéŋ nē nɔ̄bá (nē</i> "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

*Ò à nĒ náaf.	attempted "It is a cow."
3AN COP FOC COW:SG.	

Nevertheless, the Bible versions and other written materials often do use the animate pronouns for higher animals:

Bung ya'a bood ye o lubuf, fu po nyeti **o** tubaa. Bùŋ yá' bòɔd yé ò lūbú f, fù pō ňyɛtí ò tùbāa ⁺ø. Donkey:sG if want that 3AN throw.off 2SG.OB, 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 zuluŋ na paae **o** salibir. Kà wiəf yá' sīgí lì nī, lì zùluŋ 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. When body parts are metaphorically represented as having opinions in this NT 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 yá' yèlī-n yē, ón рū áň nú'ùg lā zúg, Leg:sg if say-dp that 3AN:NZ NEG.IND COP hand:SG ART upon, ò kā' nín-gbīŋ níi +ø, līn kύ ňyāŋı-n ø 3AN NEG.BE body-skin:sg loc NEG, DEM.INAN NEG.IRR accomplish-dp CAT níι +ø. kēε-n kà ò kā' nín-abīn 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.)

Babies may be counted as animate or inanimate gender:

Ò/Lì à nĒ bí-līa. "He/she/it is a baby." 3AN/3INAN COP FOC child-baby:sg.

Trees, animate in the traditional world view, may also have animate gender:

Tiig wela bigisid **on** a si'em. Tìıg wélà bìgısıd 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. Tìıg wélà bìgısıd lín àň tí-sĩa. 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)

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 <u>9.1</u>, reflecting the fact that the $|b|^a$ class has exclusively human reference. Only human-reference nouns can be used as modifiers after a head cb like adjectives <u>16.11.1.5</u>; probably only human-reference heads can be used with appositional relative clauses <u>25.3.3</u>. Cf also *nīn*- (human) and *būn*- (nonhuman) as "dummy" cbs with following adjectives <u>16.10.4</u>.

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 $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$, are used indifferently for sg or pl, occasionally with nam^a plurals to avoid ambiguity. However, even the 1976 NT always uses the animate plurals $bamm\bar{a}^{+/}ban^{\epsilon}s\bar{s}aba^{+}$ 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:

Bà à nẽ kūgá."They are stones."3PL COP FOC stone:PL.

In my informants' unselfconscious utterances there seem to be signs of gender distinctions breaking down altogether:

Nīf-káŋā, ɔ̄n sáň'àm nē. Eye-dem.dei.sg, 3AN.CNTR spoil FOC. "This eye, it's spoilt." KT (Overheard)

 \dot{M} $p\bar{v}$ $ny\bar{v}\cdot \dot{o}\cdot o$ $+\phi$. "I can't find it [a stethoscope]" (Overheard) ISG NEG.IND SEE-3AN.OB NEG.

sālıma lá'àd né ò būtus "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 $l\hat{i}$, never \hat{o} .

The inanimate sg pronoun subject li is not changed to animate o to agree with an animate complement of aen^a "be something":

Li ane Zugsob la. "It is the Lord." (Jn 21:7) $Li a n\bar{e} Z\bar{u}g$ -sob lā. SINAN COP FOC head-one:SG ART.

16.2.3 Person

Person is a category confined to personal pronouns. VPs show no agreement with any argument (on plural commands see 22.1.3.) Person is straightforward, with no inclusive/exclusive distinctions and no honorific uses. 2sg is used in proverbs for a generic "one":

Bung ya'a bood ye o lubuf, fu po nyeti o tubaa.
Bùŋ yá' bòod yé ò lūbú f, fù pū ňyētí ò tùbāa ⁺ø.
Donkey:sg if want that 3AN throw.off 2SG.OB, 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 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 *n*-catenation, 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)Dī ub wusa nárì ø bà dí.Food all must CAT 3PL eat.

There are formal means of distinguishing different third persons by the use of pronoun ellipsis 21.2.2 and logophoric use of the free pronouns 26.2.

16.3 Pronouns

16.3.1 Personal

		Proclitic	Enclitic	Free	Subject+ <i>'n</i>
Sg	1st	'n	m ^a	<i>mān</i> SF <i>mánē</i> LF	mán
	2nd	fù	f	fūn SF fúnē LF	fún
	3rd an	<mark>ὸ</mark> ⁸ [ʊ]	⁰ [ʊ]	ラn ^ε	́эп
	3rd inan	lì or <mark>d</mark> ì	<i>l</i> ι+	līn ^ε or dīn ^ε	lín or <mark>dín</mark>
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.

The alternate form $m\bar{a}m$ also occurs for 1st sg in any rôle. The clitics are liaison words <u>8.2</u>. They are always non-contrastive. The proclitics are subjects and NP/AdvP predeterminers, and the enclitics are objects. The "+ \hbar " forms are used as subjects in \hbar -clauses <u>25.1</u>. The 2pl subject has an enclitic form ^{ya} used *after* imperatives <u>22.1.3</u> with the allomorph -ni- before liaison <u>8.2.3</u>.

For the realisation of 3sg animate $^{\circ}$ see <u>8.2.1</u>. My informants only have /- forms for 3sg inanimate; for bound objects, no *d*- forms are extant.

Free forms may be used for cbs before relative pronouns:

Fun kanɛ buoli f	քս тɛŋ	"You who call yourself (Rom 2:17)
Fōn-kánì bùəlı	្វfù mɛ̄ŋ	
2SG-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>.

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⁸⁾ Toende Kusaal has $\tilde{\nu}$. The original form was probably $*\eta m \nu$, with later $*\eta m \rightarrow *\eta$ before the rounded vowel. Cf also the Dagbani free pronoun $\eta una = \text{Kusaal } \bar{\rho}n^{\epsilon}$. 9) Toende has 1pl tun 2pl nam for the free pronouns; the nam component of the Agolle forms is presumably the element seen in the pluraliser nàm^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 Plural Inanimate sg ònā+∕ lìnā+/ bàmmā+/ Long far ònε lìn^ε bàn^ε Short far Head only: Long nē'ŋá+ near $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ nē'-nám^a NT Short near Postdeterminer pronoun only: kàŋā+/ kàŋā+/ Long kàn^ε kàn^ε Short

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 ka, parallel to li, originally $r^{\epsilon}|a^+$ class. My informants use these forms for animate reference as well as inanimate, but NT prefers $\partial n^{\bar{a}+/} \partial n^{\epsilon}$.

Postdeterminer pronouns follow a noun cb. Some speakers allow sg and pl noun forms, but these probably have the tones of combining forms <u>16.8</u>. After quantifiers (other than $\partial d\partial k \partial n'$), which lack cbs, $k\partial n^{\epsilon} k\partial n^{\bar{\epsilon}} / do$ not occur, but $k\partial n^{\epsilon}$ may follow a free pronoun doing duty for a cb <u>16.3.1</u>.

Examples after nouns:

dự'átà lā l <i>źr-kàŋā</i>	"this car of the doctor's"
bù-kàŋā lā	"that goat"
After a quantifier:	
bèdugū línā	"this multitude"
After a free pronoun form used	as a cb:

fūn-kánì bùel ... "you who call ..."

Postdeterminer pronouns follow any adjectives:

Noun phrases

nō-píàl-kàŋā

"this white hen"

The "short" series are used for referents not in view. They also appear as interrogatives in the sense "which?":

Lìnɛ?	"Which one?"
Nīf-kánè?	"Which eye?"
Nīn-kánè?	"Which person?"

Much their commonest use is as the basis of **relative pronouns** <u>25.3.2</u>.

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 $nw\dot{a}^+$ (cf French caci.) This use of $l\bar{a}^{+/}$ as deictic rather than article is enabled by the fact that demonstratives automatically make the NP definite <u>16.5</u>.

dàu̯-kàŋā sáàm	"this/that man's father"
dàu្-kàn sáàm	"that (not visible) man's father"
dàu̯-kàŋā lā sáàm	"that man's father"
dàu̯-kàŋā ňwá sáàm	"this man's father"
tèŋ-kàn lā ná'àb	"the king of that country" (from a story)
sān-kán lā	"at that time"

16.3.3 Indefinite

	Animate sg	Inanimate sg	Plural
Head or postdeterminer	sī'+	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, $s\bar{r}a^+$ is much commoner than $s\bar{r}\partial/a$ used as a postdeterminer. WK feels that for people $s\bar{r}a^+$ is pejorative; NT occasionally has $s\bar{j'}^+$ for inanimate: $t\epsilon\eta$ - $s\bar{j'}$ "a certain land." For indefinite pronouns in relative clauses see 25.3.1.

The sense is "some, someone, something", "a certain", indefinite but *specific*:

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yà bì-sɔ̄' "a certain child of yours"
2PL child-INDF.AN
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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' pun dɛŋi sig sa.
kà mán tì yế m̀ sīg lā,
and 1SG:NZ after say 1SG descend ART,
kà sɔ̄' pún dɛŋı ø sīg sá.
and INDE.AN already before CAT descend thither.
"when I'm then about to go down, someone else goes down first." (In 5:7)

Mεεri onε an Magdalen nε Μεεri sɔ' Meeri ɔ´nì àň Magdalen nε̄ Meeri sɔ̄' Mary REL.AN COP Magdalen with Mary INDF.AN "Mary who was Magdalen and another Mary" (Mt 28:1)

Winnig mor o mɛŋ vɛnlim, ka nwadig mɛ mor vɛnlim si'a. Wìnnig mór ò mɛŋ vɛ́ňllìm kà ňwādıg mɛ́ mor vɛ́ňllìm-sī'a. Sun:sg have ȝăn 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:

Dàu-sɔ̄'dāa bź ..."There was a certain man ..."Man-INDEAN TNSEXIST ...

but this is likely to mean "There was another man ..."; it is commoner just to use an indefinite NP $\underline{16.5}$:

Dāỵdāa bέ ..."Once there was a man ..."Man:sg τNS EXIST ...

Sɔ̄'/sī'əl mɛ́-kàma means "anyone, anything, everyone, everything":

O niŋid si'el mɛkama sʊ'ʋŋa. Ò nìŋıd sī'əl mɛ́-kàma súŋā. 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.

Kà sɔ̄' kūdım kú lēm ňyéε lī yá'asā +ø.And INDF.AN ever NEG.IRR again see 3INAN.OB again NEG."Nobody will ever see it again." (Rev 18:21, 1996)

Sō'kā'e+ø."There's nobody there."INDF.AN NEG.BE NEG.

 \dot{M} $p\bar{v}$ $y \not\in l \ s\bar{r} \ \partial la$ $+ \not o$. "I didn't say anything." 1SG NEG.IND SAY INDF.INAN NEG.

16.3.4 Interrogative

Animate		Inanimate	
àn <i>á'</i> àn ^ɛ	"who?"	bɔ̄+	"what?"

Plurals with $n \dot{a} m^a$ may be used if a specifically plural answer is being sought. The initial \dot{a} - of $\dot{a} n \dot{2} \dot{2} n^{\epsilon}$ behaves like the manner-adverb prefix in liaison 8.2.1:

keŋ tisi anɔ'ɔnɛ?	"to go to whom?" (1 Samuel 6:20)
kēŋ_ø tísì_ànɔ́'ɔnè +ø?	
go cat give who cq?	

 $B\bar{2}^+$ can be used after a cb as an interrogative determiner "what?":

"what cow?" WK DK
(not <i>náaf b</i> ź,
only possible in the sense "What, of a cow's?")
"what goat?"
"what beer?"

The compound $b\dot{}-b\bar{u}ud\iota^+$ "what kind of?" can be used as a postdeterminer:

nā'-bź-būudı	"what kind of cow?"
dā-bź-būudı	"what kind of beer?"

Note the idiom:

Fù á nē bó- bùudı	+ø?	"What tribe do you belong to?"
2SG COP FOC what sort	cq?	

B>- can be used as a premodifier, querying a description: "what sort of ...?"

Fù túm bó-tùvma +*ø*? "What kind of work do you do?" 2SG work:IPFV what-work cq?

Bo yir ka ya na me' n tis mane? Bò-yír kà yà ná mē n tís mánè ⁺ø? 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)

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-": $\dot{o} t\dot{v}m$ - $t\bar{a}aba$ "his fellow-workers"; the stem also appears in the bound noun $-t\bar{a}a^=$ used after imperfective gerunds 13.2.1.4, 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:

Sòŋımī ø tāaba. Help:IMP 2PL.SUB each.other.	"Help one another."
<i>Tì yúùg nē tāaba.</i> 1P∟delay with each.other.	"It's been a long time." KT
<i>Bà dòl nī tāaba.</i> 3PL follow with each.other.	"They went together." (<i>dɔ̃l^{la/}</i> "accompany")

16.4 Quantifiers

16.4.1 Overview

Formally, quantifiers resemble noun sg or pl forms, frequently with apocopeblocking <u>6.6</u>; most number words are also preceded by number prefixes <u>14.3</u>.

Quantifiers can be classified as **count** or **mass** <u>16.2.1</u>, 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:

	ทเิdเb bέdบgū	"a lot of people"
	nīdıb bábıgā	"many people"
	kù'əm bέdugū	"a lot of water"
not	*kù'əm bábıgā	*"many water"

Mass quantifiers are

bèdvgū+/	"a lot"	<i>pāmm</i> SF	"a lot" (LF <i>pāmné <u>6.6</u></i>)
fīiň ⁼	"a little (liquid)"	br̃əlá+	"a little"
พบิบ=	"all"	wūsa+	"all"

Count quantifiers include the number words, and also

bàbıgā+/	"many"	kàlıgā+/	"few"
fāaň=	"every"	zāň'a ⁼	"every"
kàm ^a	"every"		

Kàm^a "every" occurs by itself as a quantifier and also before others:

 $s\bar{a}n\bar{a} k\bar{a}m = s\bar{a}n\bar{a} k\bar{a}m z\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ "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.	"Many came."
Bèdvgū ké nā.	"Many came."
Bèdugū lā ké nā.	"The crowd came"
Àyí kź nā.	"Two came."
Àyí lā ké nā.	"The two came."

Quantifier heads pluralise with *nàm*^a:

màlįāk-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:

nīdıb bédugū bánì kē nā lā person:PL much REL.PL come hither ART "the crowd of people who have come" Ka ti ye ti nye diib yaani moogin nwa diis nidib bedego bama nwa?
Kà tì yế tì ňyẽ dĩ b yáa ní mɔɔɡu-n ňwá
And 3PL that 3PL find food where LOC grass:sG-LOC this
Ø dì s nīd b bédugū bámā ňwá +Ø?
CAT feed person:PL many DEM.DEL.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")

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 $y\bar{i}nni^+$, but may be singular with units of measure:

"¢600 [cedis]" (*yɔ̄lug^{ɔ/}* "sack" for £100/¢200; Hausa *jàkaa*.)

16.4.2.1 Quantifiers

yɔlugá àtáň'

The numbers in their core rôle as quantifiers take the forms

1	yīnní+	10	pīiga+	100	kòbıgā=
2	àyí ⁺	20	<i>pīsí</i> + [pʰisi]	200	<i>kòbısí</i> + [kʰɔbɪsi]
3	àtáň'+	30	pīs táň'+	300	kòbıs táň'+
4	ànāas(+	40	pīs nāasí+	400	kòbıs nāasí+
5	ànū+	50	pīs nū+	500	kòbıs nū+
6	àyúøbù+	60	pīs yúəbù+	600	kòbιs yúθbù ⁺
7	àyźpż <u>ę</u> +	70	pīs yópòẹ+	700	kòbıs yópòẹ+
8	àníi ⁼	80	pīs níi=	800	kòbıs níi ⁼
9	àwāẹ+	90	pīs wāe̯+	900	kòbıs wāẹ+

The forms for 1, 4, 6, 8, 10, and 100 show apocope-blocking <u>6.6</u>; the forms for 20 and 200 are not apocope-blocked but are combinations with the stem of $\frac{\partial y}{\partial t}^+$.

 $k \ge b i g \bar{a}^=$ has LF like the SF, not $*k \ge b i g \dot{a} a$, contrary to the usual rule for forms with apocope-blocking.

Noun phrases

"Thousand" is a regular $r^{\epsilon}|a^+$ class noun, $t\bar{u}sir^{\epsilon/}$: $t\bar{u}s\dot{a} \dot{a}t\dot{a}n'$ "3000." "Half" is $p\bar{v}-s\dot{v}k^{a}$ pl $p\bar{v}-s\dot{v}g\dot{v}s^{\epsilon}$. Other numbers are formed with $n\bar{\epsilon}$ "with, and":

kòbıs táň' nē pīs yúobù nē nū "three hundred and sixty-five"

 $11 \mbox{ to } 19 \mbox{ have the special contracted forms}$

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 $n\bar{\epsilon}$ "with", and sometimes also after focus- $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$:

Lì à nĒ nāasí. / Lì à nÉ ànāasí. "They're four."

The forms $\partial y (\eta \bar{a}^{+/} \partial t \dot{a} \eta \bar{a}^{+/} mean$ "two, three exactly." If I have four children

Ѝ mźr bīisá àtáň'.	"I have three children."
1SG have child:PL NUM:three.	is true, though misleading
Ì mór bīisá àtáŋā.	"I have exactly three children." is false.

These forms can also be used after $n\bar{\epsilon}$ "and", as in $p\bar{i}i n\bar{\epsilon} yin\bar{a}$ "twelve exactly." They are exceptional in not permitting focus with the particle $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ <u>28.1.2.1.3</u>.

 $Y\bar{i}nni^+$ can also be construed with a preceding noun cb:

	kūg-yínnì+	"one stone" (L spreading <u>8.4</u>)
cf	kūgor yīnní+	"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} - $\underline{14.3}$:

tì bàtáň'	"we three"
yà bàyźpż <u>ę</u>	"you seven"
bà bàyí	"they two"

but

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} - <u>14.3</u>.

1	yēóŋ or àdàkóň'	6	<i>ì</i> уи́ <i>è</i> b
2	'nуí	7	npòe [tone sic]
3	htáň'	8	'nníi
4	'nnāas	9	<i>ìwā</i> e
5	'nnū	conti	nuing <i>pīiga, pīi nē yí</i> as with quantifiers

Àdàkɔ̌ň' can also be used as a quantifier:

búug àdàkóň'	"one goat"
boog adamsn	ono gout

The reduplicated adverb form $k \bar{j} \bar{n}' \bar{j} k \bar{j}$ is used as a postposition <u>17.6</u>, as in

'n	kōň'ɔkō	"by myself"
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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": $n y a y a d^{\epsilon}$ is only used for eyes, while $y \bar{\iota} y \eta^{2/2}$ pl $y \bar{\iota} n a^{4+1}$ is used for other normally paired body parts:

nīf-ňyáuk	"one eye"
bà-nīf-ňyáu̯k	"one-eyed dog"
tùb-yīỵŋ	"one ear"
bì-tùb-yīná	"one-eared children"

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dèɛŋ-

"first"

The only ordinal word is

dēɛŋª

or *dēεmιs*ε

or *dēɛna*+

dēɛňsɛ

as in sɔ̄b-dɛ́ɛ̀ŋ "first census" (Lk 2:2, 1976.)

"First" can also be expressed by $y\bar{i}ig\dot{a}^+$ "firstly" as a predeterminer:

linε da an yiiga dabisir līnι_____ø 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 $p \dot{a} a s^{\epsilon}$ or $p \dot{\epsilon}' \epsilon s^{\epsilon}$ "add up to":

> dàu̯-kànι pɛ̀'ɛsa 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"
būvgá 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. Multiplicatives (answering *àbùlá*? "how many-fold?") are expressed

yīmmú ⁺	"straight away, at once"
àbùyí+	"twice"
àbùtáň' ⁺	"three times"
àbùnāasí+	"four times"

and so on, with the same stems after the prefixes as for the quantifiers, up to

bùpīiga+	"ten times"

The \dot{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

	nōɔr yīnní+	"once"
	nɔ̄ɔrá àtáň'+	"three times"
or	nɔ̄ɔrím bùtáň'+	"three times" NT

This $n\bar{}_{}$ is not "mouth" (= Mooré *nóor*è) but corresponds to Mooré *náoor*é "times", homophonous with Mooré *náoor*é "leg"; cf Toende Kusaal $n\bar{}_{}$ $\bar{}_{}$ $\bar{}_{}$ Agolle $n\bar{}_{}$ $\bar{}_{}$ $\bar{}_{}$

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 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	yīn yīn àyí yí àtáň' táň' ànāas nāas ànū nū àyúèb yúèb àyópòẹ póẹ àníi níi	10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80	pīi píìg pīsí pīsí pīs táň' táň' pīs nāas nāas pīs nū nū pīs yúèb yúèb pīs yópòẹ póẹ pīs níi níi	100 200 300 1000	kòbıg kóbìg kòbısí kóbısí or kòbıs yí yí kòbıs táň' táň' etc tūsır túsìr
8 9	àwāc wāc	80 90	pis nii nii 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"
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The distributives can have a preceding NP as a determiner:

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dābá àyópòg póg "weekly" ("by sevens of days")
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16.4.3 Proquantifiers

Quantifiers have corresponding proforms; the \dot{a} - is the *number* prefix, and induces preceding LF-final -*a* not - ι <u>8.2.1</u>; contrast proadverbs <u>17.7</u>.

Demonstrative	Indefinite	Interrogative
àlá ⁺	<i>sī</i> 'əm ^m	àlá ⁺
"so much/many"	"some amount"	"how much/many?"

16.5 The article *lā*^{+/}

The two words $l\bar{a}^{+/}$ and $n\bar{w}a^+$ presumably originated as corresponding deictics "that" and "this." Although $n\bar{w}a$ 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 $n\bar{w}a^+$, in identificational clauses <u>22.3.1</u> and after demonstratives <u>16.3.2</u>.

Unlike $l\bar{a}^{+/}$, $n\bar{w}a^+$ can stand alone as a NP:

Ňwà á nē bīig."This is a child." WK; tones sic.This cop Foc child:sg.

Both $l\bar{a}^{+/}$ and $n\bar{w}a^+$ 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 n-clause, when it may follow the article attached to the clause <u>19.10</u>.

As the definite article, $|\bar{a}^{+/}$ corresponds in many cases to English "the", marking referents as specific and already established. However, unlike "the", $|\bar{a}^{+/}$ is not typically used for "familiar background", unless there was an explicit prior mention of the referent:

Wìnnıg lí yā.	"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>):

Nonjilim pv naada."Love does not come to an end." (1 Cor 13:8)Nonjilim pv $n\bar{a}ada' + ø$.LoveNEG.IND finish: IPFV NEG. $L\bar{a}^{+/}$ is not used in vocatives: $B\bar{i}iga + ø!$ Child:sg voc!

This contrasts with $\check{n}w\dot{a}^+$, which is common in vocatives <u>22.3.4</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 $b\bar{i}ig$ "child" in

 \dot{M} bīig kā'e ⁺ø. "I've no child" WK 1SG child:SG NEG.BE NEG.

and with the complement of $\partial e n$ "be something" when used ascriptively <u>20.2</u>:

Ò à nē bīig. "She is a child."
3AN COP FOC child:SG.

An indefinite NP is only likely to have a *specific* sense in the context of an explicit introductory presentational statement, such as the introduction of a new character in a story <u>28.4</u>:

Dau da be mori o biribing Dāu dá bè ø mɔrí ò bī-díbìŋ Man:sg TNS EXIST CAT have 3AN child-boy:sg "Once there was a man who had a son ..." KSS p35

Anina ka o nyε dau ka o yv'vr buon Aneas. Àníná kà ò ňyε̄ dáu kà ò yū'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)

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 pū gát ò zūg-dáanā +ø. Work-worker:sg NEG.IND pass:IPFV 3AN head-owner:sg NEG. "The servant does not surpass his master." (Jn 15:20)

Tiig walaa bigisid lin an tisi'a. Tìıg wélàa_ø bìgısıd lín 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)

Kusaas ye	"The Kusaasi say" KSS p16
	drawing the moral of a story.

Generic reference core arguments are incompatible with the particle $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ used in its temporal sense <u>28.1.2.1.2</u>.

A possessive predetermining NP ending in $|\bar{a}^{+}|$ makes the following head definite, and the head does not itself take the article:

dỵ'átà lā bîg	"the doctor's child"
not *du̯'átà lā bîìg lā	

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:

Wínà'am máli̯āk	"an angel of God"
Wínà'am máli̯āk lā	"the angel of God"

m̀ bīig	"my child" (at first mention)
m̀ bīig lā	"my child" (previously mentioned)

In Pu'a sɔ' da bɛ mɔr **o bipuŋ** ka kikirig dɔl o. Ka o wum Yesu yɛla, ka keŋ igin o tuon. Ka sɔs Yesu ye o kadim kikirig la yis **o biig la** ni. Pu'à-sɔ̄' dá bè ø mór ò bī-púŋ kà kìkīrıq dɔll·ó ø. Woman-INDF.AN TNS EXIST CAT have 3AN child-girl:sg and fairy:sg follow 3AN.OB. wóm Yesu yźlà, kà kēŋ ø ígìn ò tùən. Kà ò And SAN hear Jesus about, and go CAT kneel.down SAN in.front. Kà sós Yesu yế ò kàdım kíkīrıg lā ø yís ò bīia lā ní. And beg Jesus that 3AN drive.out:IMP fairy:SG ART CAT expel 3AN child:SG ART LOC. "There was a woman whose daughter was oppressed by a devil. She heard about Jesus and came and knelt down before him. She asked Jesus to cast the devil out of her child." (Mk 7:25-26)

the article does not occur in $\partial b\bar{i}-p\dot{v}\eta$ "her daughter" on first introduction, but does occur in $\partial b\bar{i}g l\bar{a}$ "her child" after the reference is established. Note the idiom at first introduction of a new possessed referent:

Pu'a sɔ' da bɛ mɔr o bipuŋ Pu̯'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 bè 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 *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>28.1.2.2</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 $s\bar{a}am^{ma}$ "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</u>.

For an unambiguously indefinite specific meaning like "some, another", indefinite pronouns are used <u>16.3.3</u>.

Nā'-síəbà ʻ>nbìd nā mɔɔd. 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:

du̯'átà	lā	bí-sɔ̄'	"a child of the doctor's"
doctor:so	G ART	child INDF.AN	

The number $y\bar{i}nni^+$ "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 bεFarisee dímnìdyīnní dà bè ...Pharisee individual.PL person:SG oneTNS 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 bè. Man:PL NUM:three CAT TNS EXIST

16.6 The personifier clitic

Indigenous Kusaasi personal names are always preceded by the personifier clitic, which appears as \hat{A} - by default, but \hat{N} - before adjective stems, where \hat{N} - is a syllabic nasal assimilated to the point of articulation of a following consonant. The clitic is a liaison word. The \hat{A} - allomorph, like the manner-adverb prefix \hat{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. \dot{A} - is deleted after a predeterminer, but \dot{N} - remains.

Personal names can pluralise with *nàm*^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"
Ѝ Wīn	"my Awini"
À-Wīn-káŋā	"this Awini"
À-Wīn nám	"Awinis"
Ň-Dāvg	"Ndago"
tì Ň-D āvg	"our Ndago"

In speech, \dot{A} - is normally also used before foreign names, though the Kusaal Bible versions, unlike the Mooré Bible, use such names without any personifier clitic:

À-Mūusa	"Moses"
À-Yīisa	"Jesus"
À-Sīimóòn	"Simon"

For examples of Kusaasi names see <u>30.2</u>. NT has some personifications of abstractions: \dot{A} -Sàň'vŋ "Destruction." In stories where animals are characters, animal names take \dot{A} -:

À-Bāa	"Mr Dog"
A-Daa	MI DOY

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 \dot{a} - $d\dot{a}al\dot{v}\eta^{2}$ "stork" \dot{a} - $g\dot{a}\dot{v}ng^{2}$ "pied crow" \dot{a} - $k\bar{z}ra$ - $d\hat{a}m^{ma}$ "praying mantis" and the loanword \dot{a} - $m\dot{u}s^{\epsilon}$ "cat." Thus

à-dàalı	úŋ		"a stork"
		dáalúŋ R stork:sg	"my stork"
<i>dāų</i> man:so		dáalúŋ stork:sg	"the man's stork"

Lì	à	nέ	à-dàalúŋ.	"It's a stork"
3INAI	N COF	P FOC	pers-stork:sg.	
Ň	ňyέ	à-d	àalúŋ.	"I've seen a stork."
1SG :	see	PERS	-stork:sg.	

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The \dot{a} - allomorph is not elided after a predeterminer but is *replaced* by it , as shown by the M spreading affecting the stem. \dot{A} - thus behaves syntactically like a predetermining personal pronoun; it is also *phonologically* similar to a clitic pronoun. This may reflect a historical origin in an indefinite third-person pronoun "someone", perhaps related to the Mooré 3sg pronoun $y\tilde{e}\sim a$.

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 ...":

Atum sɔ'	"Siloam" <u>19.8.1</u> (Jn 9:7)
À-từm sɔ̄'	("Someone sent someone")
PERS-Send INDF.AN	

Apv-kpεn'-baŋv dim À-pv kpέň' bàμŋv dím PERS-NEG.IND enter circumcision individual:PL "the Uncircumcised" (Eph 2:11)

This is common in proverbs and similar set expressions:

À-dāa yέl kā' t(ιmm ⁺ø. PERS-TNS say NEG.HAVE medicine NEG. "Did-say has no remedy." (No use crying over spilt milk.)

À-ňyē nē nīf sóň'ɔ___ À-wùm tùba. PERS-see with eye:sg be.better.than PERS-hear ear:PL "Saw-with-eye beats Heard-with-Ears" (Seeing is believing.)

À-Kīdıgı_ ø Bū'əs	"Crossed over and asked"
PERS-Cross CAT ask	(name of the constellation Orion.)

Apozotyel"Doesn't-fear-trouble", character in KSS p35.À-Pū-zźt-yēlPERS-NEG.IND-run:IPFV-thing:SG

The expected final LF in this expression, induced by the negative clitic paired with $p\bar{v}$, is seen only when the name is clause-final:

Apozotyel da ane o saam biig ma'aa.À-Pū-zót-yɛldá à né ò sàam bîig 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

À- can appear as the predeterminer of the subject of an entire clause, with the meaning "someone whose ...":

Bà kèn né À-nà kúu m nūa yír, kà bà pū kén
3PL go:IPFV FOC PERS-IRR kill 1SG chicken:SG house:SG and 3PL NEG.IND go:IPFV
À-nɔɔs bé yírē +ø.
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 Nɔ̄os bé. "There are chickens, chickens exist."]

À-Tìım bódìg yā

PERS-medicine get.lost PFV

Personal name 30.2, literally "Someone's medicine has got lost."

Nominalisations with \dot{a} - can pluralise with $n\dot{a}m^a$:

À-zī' ø kpí nàm kpîld 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 22.1.2. 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 $n\bar{\epsilon}$. This $n\bar{\epsilon}$ is fundamentally the same word as the preposition "with" <u>18</u>; the linker adjuncts $b\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon$ and $k\bar{\nu}\nu$ can be used in a parallel way. $N\bar{\epsilon}$ links nominal words and phrases, but no clauses other than (previously nominalised) \dot{n} -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"
dự'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 nyɛ saŋgbauŋ nɛ teŋgbaung paal. Kà m̀ ňyē sáŋ-gbàu̯ŋ- nē tɛ́ŋ-gbàu̯ŋ-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 *[*bɛ̄ŋíd nɛ̄ kī*] kúès

not possible for "seller of *bɛŋ(d nɛ̃ kī*" (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)

pu'ālānēdāulā"the woman and the man"woman:sg ART with man:sg ART

 $Yiiga'^+$ "firstly" <u>16.10.3</u> is a modifier "former", rather than a determiner in

yiiga saŋgbauŋ nɛ teŋgbauŋ nɛ atɛuk yīigá sàŋ-gbàuŋ nɛ̄ tɛ́ŋ-gbàuŋ nɛ́ àtìu̯k 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 sólımà nē síilímà Kusaal story:PL with proverb:PL	"Kusaasi stories and proverbs"
<i>Kūsáàs kúèb nē yīr</i> Kusaasi:PL hoeing with house:sg	"Kusaasi agriculture and housing"
sālıma bútiıs nē díısímà gold cup:PL with spoon:PL	"gold cups and spoons" ("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

sālīma	a lá'àd	nέ	ò	būtus	"gold goods and (gold) cups" WK
gold	item:PL	with	I 3AN	cup:pl	

where \dot{o} refers to $s\bar{a}lima$. (See <u>16.2.2</u> on the unexpected gender of the pronoun.) The difference from $s\bar{a}lima$ $b\dot{v}t\dot{\iota}s$ $n\bar{\varepsilon}$ $d\dot{\iota}s\dot{m}\dot{a}$ (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 $s\bar{a}lima$ $b\dot{v}t\dot{\iota}s$ $n\bar{\varepsilon}$ [$s\bar{a}lima$] $d\dot{\iota}s\dot{m}\dot{a}$ "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'andɔlib pii nɛ yi ò ňyà'an-dɔ̀llıb pīi nɛ̄ yí 3AN after-follower:PL ten with two	"his twelve disciples" (Mt 26:20)
dự'átà nẽ ná'àb lā lóyà doctor:sg with chief:sg ART car:PL	"Doctor's and the chief's cars"
sālıma nē ānzúrıfà lá'àd gold with silver item:PL	"gold and silver goods"

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:

	dự'átà (lóyà) nẽ ná'àb lā lóyà	"[Doctor's cars] and [the chief's cars]"
	sālıma (lá'àd) nē ānzúrıfà lá'àd	"[gold goods] and [silver goods]"
cf	[dựˈátà nɛ̄ náˈàb lā] lóyà	"the cars of [Doctor-and-the-chief]"
	[sālıma nē ānzúrıfà] lá'àd	"[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

ānzúrıf	à nĒ	sālım	a lá'-māan	"silver- and goldsmith"
silver	with	gold	item-maker:sg	

cf *ānzúrīfà lá'- nē sālīma lá'-māan (impossible) ānzúrīfà lá'-māan nē sālīma lá'-māan (necessarily two different people)

16.8 Apposition

For apposition in locative AdvPs see <u>17.3</u>. Titles and other NPs may precede personal names in apposition:

Na'ab Agrippa	"King Agrippa." (Acts 25:13)
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Li pu nar ye fu di fu ba'abiig po'a Herodiase.

Lì pū nār yέ fò dí fò bā'-bíìg pự'á Herodiasε ⁺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 allomorph \dot{a} - is not omitted in these cases shows that the relationship is not dependent-head <u>16.6</u>.

Personal pronouns in apposition use free forms 28.5:

Man Paul [] pu'usidi ya.	"I, Paul greet you." (2 Thess 3:17)
Mān Paul [] pú'ʊsìdī _ 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 <u>16.11.1.5</u>.

Appositional relative clauses probably must have human reference; again the second element has adjectival function 25.3.3. 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 <i>Nonapaal</i>	Nō-ná-pāal	"New Testament"
Siig Suŋ	for <i>Sisuŋ</i>	Sì-sùŋ	"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-sig (or Siig-sig with M spreading) or Si-sig, not *Siig-sig.

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:

būvg ^a	"goat"
bù-pìəlıg ^a	"white goat"
bù-kàŋā+/	"this goat"
bù-pìəl-kàŋā ^{+/}	"this white goat"

It is also the normal construction for a generic concrete noun preceding a head as a modifier or as a generic complement to a deverbal noun:

nà'ab lā wíàf zūur	"the chief's horse's tail"
but <i>nà'ab lā wíd-zū</i> ur	"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 8.3 8.4. 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:

[bù-pìəl-]kàŋā	"this [white goat]"
[nīn-wók-]pìəlıg	"white [tall person]"
[zà'-nɔ̄-]píəlìg	"white gate" ("white [compound-mouth]")

A compound may appear as generic complement to a following deverbal noun:

[zà'-nɔ̄-]gúr	"gate-keeper"
[[zà'-nɔ̄-]gúr-]kàŋā	"this [gate-keeper]"

Kusaal also possesses bahuvrihi adjectives 16.11.1.4 formed by zero-derivation of a noun-adjective compound to an adjective:

nīf-ňyáuk	"one eye"
bù-[nīf-ňyáu̯k]	"[one-eyed] goat"
nōb-wók	"long leg"
kùg-[nɔ̄b-wɔ́k]	"[long-legged] stool"

The bahuvrihi meaning is also possible when the compound is used as the complement of $\dot{a} e \ddot{n}^a$ "be something":

Kùg-kàŋāánēnɔ̄b-wók.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 complement it must adopt a sg or pl form:

Noun	phrases
------	---------

fū-zéňdà kùos "seller of red (i.e. dyed) cloth"

not **fū-zéň*'-kùøs

Compounds may contain uncompounded elements within their structure, because regardless of whether compounded or not, **modifiers bind tighter than complements, 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 bútìŋ	"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 complement than the cb does to a following deverbal noun:

	[ānzúrıfà lá'-]māan [ānzúrıfà nē sālıma lá'-]māan	"silversmith" ("[silver goods]-maker") "silver- and goldsmith"
cf	[fū-zźňdà] kùøs	"[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-gbáμŋ]	"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]"

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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:

Wínà'am [pú'usùg [fúùg dóòg]]

"tabernacle" (God's [worship [cloth hut]])

Pronoun, pronoun-like, quantifier or deverbal heads lead to the pre-dependent + head construction having specialised meanings <u>16.10.3</u>. Otherwise, specific-reference predependents are determiners, and generic-reference predependents are either modifiers or complements.

The nature of the pre-dependent determines whether compounding occurs: generic complements of any type 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 8.4.

16.10.1 Complements

If the head is a deverbal noun, it may be preceded by a combining form representing a **generic complement**. The dependent appears as a cb regardless of whether it has count or mass reference.

dā-núùr ^ɛ	"beer-drinking"
gēl-kúès ^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 complement. These compounds can be freely coined, and their meanings are generally transparent, but there are many idiomatic set expressions. Examples:

nīn-kúùd ^a	"murderer"
bù-kūvd ^{a/}	"goat-killer"
nō-kúùd ^a	"hen-killer"
pu̯'à-kṻvdª/	"woman-killer"
nō-záňl ^{lɛ}	"holder of hens"
wìd-kùөs ^a	"horse-seller"
bù-kùөs ^a	"goat-seller"
sàlım-kùөs ^a	"gold-seller"
dā-núùd ^a	"beer-drinker"
zīm-gbáň'àd ^a	"fisherman" ("fish-catcher")

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	nō-dí'àsª	"chief's spokesman" ("command-receiver")	
		(Ghanaian English "linguist")	
	tàn-mɛɛda	"builder" (<i>tān^{nɛ} "earth"</i>)	
	làmp5-dí'àsª	"tax collector" (French <i>l'impôt</i>)	
	gbàn-mī ⁻ id ^{a/}	"scribe" NT ("book-knower")	
	pu̯'à-sāň'am ^{ma}	"adulterer" ("woman-spoiler")	
	zà'-nō-gúr ^a	"gate-keeper" (<i>zà'-nɔ̄ɔr^{ε/}</i> "gate")	
	dà-kīəd ^a	"wood-cutter"	
	kòňb-kīm ^{na}	"herdsman"	
		(kờňb- as cb of būn-kớňbùg ^ɔ "tame animal",)
	bùl-sīgıd ^{a/}	"well-diver" (<i>bùlıg</i> ª "well")	
	tùøn-gāt ^a	"leader" (Ò gàad túòn "He's gone ahead	1")
	ňyà'an-dòl ^{la}	"disciple" (<i>ňyá'aŋ</i> ª "behind")	
		(<i>dɔ̄l</i> ^{la/} "accompany")	
	pu̯'à-lā'ad ^a	"laugher at women" WK	
		(<i>Ò là'ad pō'ab</i> "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 $b\bar{a}\eta d^a$ "wise man", $s_{\bar{l}}\bar{a}k_{l}d^{a}$ "believer", $s\bar{v}\eta d^{a}$ "helper", $f\bar{a}a\breve{n}d^{a/}$ "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:

màal-māan ^{na}	"sacrificer"
zī-zíìd ^a	"carrier-on-head"
tù'as-tù'as ^a	"talker"
zàb-zàb ^a	"warrior" (tone <i>sic</i>)
zòt-zōt ^a	"racer, athlete"
tòm-tōm ^{na}	"worker"

Cbs occur before deverbal **instrument nouns** in object or adverb senses:

si̯à-lɔ̄ɔdíŋª	"belt" (waist-tying thing)
nīn-gótìŋ ^a	"mirror" (eye-looking thing)
nīn-gótìs ^ɛ	"spectacles"

If the head is a **gerund**, a cb pre-dependent may represent a subject or complement. For the $-r^{\epsilon}$ (not $-b^{2}$) suffix of these 2-mora stem gerunds see <u>12.2.1.1</u>.

If the underlying verb is transitive, a cb pre-dependent cannot be a subject. It is most often an object:

pu̯'à-dīır ^ɛ	"marriage" (<i>Ò dì pự̯'ā</i> "He's married a wife")
nīn-kύὺr ^ε	"murder"
dā-núùr ^ɛ	"beer-drinking"
Sāmán-píər ^ɛ	Traditional New Year ("Courtyard Cleaning")
bùgúm-tɔ̄ɔňrɛ	Fire Festival ("Fire Throwing")
nō-lóòr ^ɛ	"fasting" ("mouth-tying")
nō-póòr ^ɛ	"oath" (<i>p</i> 5 ⁺ "swear")
nō-náàr ^ε	"covenant" (<i>nā</i> + "join")
nīn-báàl-zɔ̄ɔrɛ	"pity" (<i>Ò zòt·ō nīn-báalìg.</i> "He has pity on him")

It may represent an AdvP:

mڬ-pīl ^{lɛ}	"grass roof" ("covering with grass")
kùm-vū'ugír ^ɛ	"resurrection"
	(<i>Ò vù'ug kūmın.</i> "He came alive from death.")

Although many of these are set forms, free creation of nonce-forms is possible:

fū-yέὲr ^ε	"shirt-wearing" WK

Cbs as subjects are thus confined to verbs which can be used intransitively:

nōb-kóòr [€]	"breaking a leg" ($k\dot{2}^+$ is intransitive)
nū'-mźdìr ^ɛ	"swelling of the hand"
wìn-līir ^ɛ	"sunset"
	(<i>Wìnnıg lí yā.</i> "The sun has set/fallen.")
<i>รน</i> ิทั-รล์ทั'บ้ŋ ^ว	"sorrow" (<i>À sūňf sáň'àm nē.</i> "My heart is spoilt"
	= "I'm sad.")
sūň-pέὲn ^{nε}	"anger" (<i>À sūňf pέlìg nē.</i> "My heart is white.")

16.10.2 Premodifiers

Modifiers must be generic. 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 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 wíàf zūvr nà'ab lā wíd-zūvr	"the chief's horse's tail" (the chief has a horse) "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:

wāb-mɔ́ɔgū-n WK	"in elephant-bush, where there are elephants"
zà'-nɔ̄ɔr	"gate" ("compound-mouth")
mà-bīig	"sibling" ("child by [same] mother")
bā'-bîg	"half-sibling" ("child by [same] father")
tèŋ-bīig	"native" ("child of a country")
nàsàa-sìlvg	"aeroplane" (European hawk) ILK

WK has the exceptional forms

náaf-bì'isím	"cow's milk"
būvg-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 $n\acute{aaf}$.)

A cb premodifier of a deadjectival abstract noun may have a sense much like a generic complement, but the cb in such cases is a premodifier. Deadjectival nouns are not gerunds <u>12.3</u>, and such constructions are not limited to cases where corresponding adjectival verbs exist; where they do exist, the cb corresponds to the subject rather than a complement.

pù-pìəlım ^m	"holiness" ("inside-whiteness")	
sūň-kpí'òŋ ^ɔ	"boldness" ("heart-strength")	
sūň-má'asìm ^m	"joy" ("heart-coolness")	
	(<i>À sūňf má'e yā.</i> "I'm joyful.")	
nìn-tōllím ^m	"fever" ("body-heat")	
wīn-tóòg ^o	"ill fate" ("fate-bitterness")	

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16.10.2.2 Non-count NPs

Premodifers may consist of NPs with generic non-count reference. If they have abstract senses, they ascribe a quality to the head:

nā'am kúk	"throne" ("chieftaincy chair")
nā'am sú'ulìm	"kingdom" ("chieftaincy possession")
pù'usug dźżg	"temple" ("worship house")
tōlıgír bún	"heater" ("heating thing" = $b\bar{v}n-t\dot{v}l\iota g\iota r^{\varepsilon}$)
dūgub dút	"cooking pots"
līgıdı túvmà	"expensive work" (<i>līgıdı</i> + "money")

Language names may appear as abstract nouns describing an ethnic group:

Kūsáàl yír nē kūøb	"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:

sālīma bútiņ "gol

Count nouns may appear if used in a mass sense 16.2.1:

fūug dóòg	"tent" (cloth hut)
dàad bún-nám	"wooden things" (<i>dàvg</i> ^{>} "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 né ò būtus "gold goods and [gold] cups" WK <u>16.7</u>

Contrast the non-referential use of mass nouns as generic complements:

sàlım-kùøs	"gold-seller"
dā-núùd	"beer-drinker"

Cb forms of abstract non-count nouns do sometimes occur as premodifiers:

	tàňp-sɔ̄bª	"warrior"	(<i>tāňp</i> ^ɔ "war")
	pù-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 túumà+	"holy actions"	(Mt 5:10, 1996)

An interesting case involving a concrete mass noun is the compound $k\underline{u}'\dot{a}$ - $\check{n}w\bar{n}ig$ "current" ("water" + "rope.") This perhaps represents "aquatic rope" in contrast to * $k\dot{u}$ 'om $\check{n}w\hat{n}g$ "a rope made of water"; the construction with concrete mass premodifiers may be limited to the specific sense "made of ..."

16.10.2.3 Adverbial phrases

AdvPs as premodifiers may not be proadverbs. All examples in my materials involve either locative AdvPs or phrases with $y\bar{\epsilon}l\dot{a}^+$ "about" <u>17.6</u>, except before the specialised head $d\bar{a}an^a$ <u>16.10.4</u>.

dūnıya ní nìn-gbīŋ	"earthly body"
kɔ̄lʊgʊ-n nɔ́-dáùg	"crayfish" ("in-the-river cock")
Bòk dím	"Bawku people"

Ba da mɔr mɔɔɡin bvnkɔnbid nɛ ba buudi, yin bvnkɔnbid nɛ ba buudi ... Bà dà mòr mɔ̄ɔɡv-n bún-kɔ́ňbìd nɛ́ bà būudı, yín bún-kɔ́ňbìd 3PL TNS have bush:sG-LOC thing-hair:PL and 3PL kind, house:sG:LOC thing-hair:PL nɛ́ bà būudı... and 3PL kind ... "They took wild animals with their kind, tame animals with their kind ..." (Gen 7:14)

Kūsáàs kúèb nē yīr yélà gbàu̯ŋ	"A book about Kusaasi houses and agriculture"
dàu̯-kàŋā lā yźlà gbàu̯ŋ	"a book about that man" WK

Although the AdvPs in cases like

dàtìựŋ níf	"right eye"
dàgòbıg níf	"left eye"
zūgú-n níf-gbáu̯ŋ	"upper eyelid"
tēŋı-n níf-gbáu̯ŋ	"lower eyelid"

seem to answer "which?" rather than "what kind of?", the possibility of indefinite plurals like datiun níni "right eyes" or $t\bar{\epsilon}\eta\iota$ -n níf-gbánà "lower eyelids" shows that the construction is modifying, not determining.

Postpositional phrases behave as generic non-count NPs syntactically, and are not made specific by a definite predeterminer. This premodifying use of AdvPs is thus parallel to the similar use of indefinite mass nouns. 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" <u>17.3</u>; like other postpositions, this is itself non-referential and remains so even though it has a specific predeterminer. Cf locative complements and focus <u>28.1.2.2</u>.

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.

linɛ 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"	sīəba	dependent
yà sɔ̄'	"some one among you"	s ī'	head
nīdıb lā síəbà	"certain of the people"	sīəba	head
nīdıb síəbà	"certain ones among people"	sīəba	head
ทเิdเb bέdυgū	"a lot of people"	bèdugū	dependent
nīdıbá àyí	"two people"	àyí	dependent
nīdıb bέdugū lā	"the lot of people, the crowd"	bèdugū	dependent
nīdıbá àyí lā	"the two people"	àyí	dependent
nīdıb lā bźdvgū	"a lot of the people"	bèdugū	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**:

Dāulākúlògdāa mālısím.Man:sg ART go.home:ger TNSbe.sweet 1sg.ob."The man's return home pleased me."

A generic object may also occur as a combining form, and adjunct AdvPs or VP-final particles <u>19.10</u> may follow the head:

ninsaalib yadda niŋir Wina'am ni nīn-sáalìb yáddā-níŋìr Wínà'am ní Person-smooth:PL assent-do:GER God LOC "People's faith in God." (Rom 4:14)

ya antu'a morim koto ni ne taaba la yà àntu'à-mɔ̄rím kɔ́tù ní nɛ̄ 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)

Ninsaal Biig la lɛbvg la na Nīn-sáàl Bîig lā lɛ́bv̀g lā nā Person-smooth:sg Child:sg ART return:ger ART hither "the return of the Son of Man" (Mt 24:27)

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-pōvdírzúgChrist 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", $s\bar{s}b^{a}$ "individual" and $b\bar{\upsilon}n^{n\epsilon/}$ "thing" as heads have specialised senses with dependents (see below.)

In all other cases, predeterminers express **possessors**.

m̀ bīig	"my child"
dāu̯ lā bîìg	"the man's child"
dāu lā bíèr bīig náàf 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.

16.10.4 Before $m\bar{\epsilon}\eta^{a/} d\bar{a}an^{a} s\bar{b}b^{a} b\bar{v}n^{n\epsilon/}$

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** <u>17.6</u>.)

 $M\bar{\epsilon}\eta^{a/}$ "self" is used indifferently for sg/pl, always with a predependent:

m̀ mɛ̄ŋ yà mɛ̄ŋ	"myself" "yourselves"
nà'ab lā méŋ chief:sg art self	"the chief himself"
Bà ňyέε_ bà mĒŋ. 3PL see 3PL self.	"They've seen for themselves."

"Self" forms must be used for complements referring to the clause subject:

Ň	ňwé'ɛ_	m	mēŋ.	"I hit myself."
1SG	hit	1SG	self.	

not *À ňwé'ɛ m or *À ňwé' 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 pīəsídí bà nú'ùs wvv lín nār sī'əm lá kà dítā +ø. 3PL NEG.IND clean:IPFV 3PL hand:PL like 3INAN:NZ be.proper INDF.ADV ART 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:

Ѝ píə_m mēŋ nú'ùs.	"I washed my own hands."
1SG wash 1SG self hand:PL.	
Fù mɛ̄ŋ kūʊ bí-lìaa +ø?	"Yourself or the baby?"
2SG self or child-baby:SG CQ?	("Which of you needs the doctor?")

See also <u>16.11.3</u> on $am\bar{\epsilon}\eta\dot{a}^+$ "really, truly" as a postmodifier "genuine, real"; cf the adjective $m\bar{\epsilon}\eta\dot{r}^{\epsilon}$ seen in $y\bar{\epsilon}l-m\epsilon\eta\dot{r}^{\epsilon}$ "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:

yī-dáàn ^a	"householder" = yī-sób ^a	Hausa <i>mài gidaa</i>
tèŋ-dāan ^a	literally "land-owner": tra	ditional earth-priest

Normally, the possession is expressed by a free NP, definite or indefinite:

"car owner"
"goat owner"
"water owner"
"bearded man" Hausa mài geemùu
"beer owner"
"the owner of the field" (Mt 21:40)

Zu-wok daan po gangid bugum.Zù-wōkdáànpōgáŋìdbúgúmm +ø.Tail-long:sg owner:sg NEG.IND step.over:IPFV fireNEG.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

pù-pìəlım	dáàn ^a	"holy person"

Noun	phrases
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Even manner-adverbs can be predependents before *dāan*^a:

būgusígā dáàn^a "softly-softly sort of person" WK

See <u>16.4.2.3</u> on the use of $d\bar{a}an^a$ with numbers to make ordinal expressions.

S5b^a "the one of ..." is a dummy head for a preceding NP or AdvP dependent; it specifies only number and gender and is otherwise semantically empty.

Animate	sg	sīb ^a
Animate	pl	<u>dìm</u> a
Inanimate so	J/pl	<u>dìn^{nε}</u>

With noun or pronoun predependents the meaning is possessive:

mān dín ^{nε}	"my one, mine"
À-Wīn dím	"Awini's family"

Fūn pi̯áň'àd nē tīnám dín.
2SG.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 sób ^a pl pù-pìəlım dím ^a	"holy person" (<i>pù-pìəlım</i> ^m "holiness")
dūnıya ní dìn ^{nɛ}	"earthly one" (1 Cor 15:44)
Bòk dím	"Bawku people"

The quantifier $y\bar{i}ig\dot{a}^+$ "first" is a predeterminer in

yīigá sīb ^a	"first (person)"	beside y <i>īig-sób</i> a	id
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Specialised senses may be found with cb premodifiers:

yī-sób ^a	"householder"	(<i>yīr^{ε/}</i> "house")
pl <i>yī-sób-nàm</i> ª		
yī-dím ^a	"members of the h	ousehold"
nīf-sób ^a	"miser"	(<i>nīf^{ɔ/}</i> "eye")
tàňp-sɔ̄bª	"warrior"	(<i>tāňp</i> ^ɔ "war")

zūg-sɔ́b^a "boss" NT "Lord" (*zūg*^{ɔ/} "head") pl *zūg-sɔ́b-nàm*^a

The expression *5n s5b*^a means "the person we were just talking about."

 $B\bar{o}n^{n\epsilon/}$ "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 $b\bar{o}n\dot{a}^{+}$, but in placeholder use it is found indifferently as sg and pl, or pluralises with $n\dot{a}m^{a}$ like inanimate pronouns:

Būn-námá_àlá kà fù ňyētá +ø? Thing-PL NUM:how.many and 25G see:IPFV CQ? "How many things do you see?" SB

It is used (beside $n\bar{n}$ - "person" for human) as a dummy non-human cb before adjectives, avoiding the use of an adjective as complement of $a e \bar{n}^a$ "be" <u>20.2</u>.

Dīιb á nē būn-súŋ."Food is good." ("Food is a good thing.")Food COP FOC thing-good:sg.

Some adjectives cannot be used as NP heads at all; *bon*- is necessary in:

būn-vúr^ε "living thing"

No adjective cb may be a head, so *bon*- is also necessary in:

būn-píàl-kàŋā^{+/} "this white one"

Deverbal adjectives with no preceding cb are interpreted as agent nouns, so $b\bar{v}n$ - marks different meanings in e.g.

	bōn-kúudìr ^ɛ	"thing to do with killing"
but	kūvdír ^ɛ	"killer"

Note the idioms

būn-gíŋ ^a	"short chap" (informal, humorous)
būn-kúdùg ^o	"old man" (the normal expression)
	(but <i>pu្</i> 'à-ňyá'aŋ ^a "old woman")

Bon also occurs with abstract and AdvP premodifiers:

tūlιgír bún ^{nε}	"heating thing, heater" = $b\bar{v}n-t\dot{v}ligir^{\varepsilon}$
kù'θmī-n bύn ^{nε}	"water creature"

 $B\bar{v}n$ is a "thing", tangible or abstract, while $d\iota n$ is purely a semantically empty head, with only number and gender specified:

kù'emī-n dín^{nε} "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 cannot be followed by the postdeterminer-only forms $kan^{\varepsilon} kana^{+/}$ of the demonstrative pronouns (cf on apposition <u>16.8</u>.) For quantifiers as postdeterminers see <u>16.11.2.2</u>.

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) <u>9.2.2</u> are frequent.

būvg ^a	"goat"
bù-pìəlıg ^a	"white goat"
bù-kàŋā ^{+/}	"this goat"
bù-pìəl-kàŋā ^{+/}	"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 accepted preceding sg/pl forms. I did not record the tones at that time, and this was probably segmental remodelling of cbs. Adjectives always follow the head, and do not themselves appear as heads, except to a very limited extent as complements to $\partial e n^a$ "be something" 20.2.

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.

būvg ^a	"goat"	būυs ^ε	"goats"
bù-pìəlıg ^a	"white goat"	bù-pìəlιs ^ε	"white goats"
bù-sùŋ ⁵	"good goat"	bù-sùma+	"good goats"
nūa ^{+/}	"hen"	nōɔs ^{ɛ/}	"hens"
nō-píəlìg ^a	"white hen"	nō-píəlìs ^ɛ	"white hens"
nō-súŋ ^ɔ	"good hen"	nō-súmà+	"good hens"

A second adjective or a postdeterminer pronoun can follow a first adjective, which thus itself appears as a cb:

nīn-wók-pìəlıg ^a	"white tall person"
nō-píəl-kàŋā ^{+/}	"this white hen"

However, a noun + adjective compound cannot form a cb to be used as the generic complement of a deverbal noun; a sg/pl form is used instead:

	fū-z <i>ćňdà kù</i> øs ^a	"seller of red (i.e. dyed) cloth"
not	*fū-zźň'-kùøs ^a	

i.e. adjective cbs may only precede other adjectives or postdeterminer pronouns. Compounds with adjectives may develop specialised lexical meanings:

nū'-bíl ^a	"finger" ("small hand")
tì-sābılím ^m	a traditional remedy ("black medicine")

Several names of plant and tree species are formed in this way:

gòň'-sābılíg^a Haaf gosabliga "Acacia hockii" ("black thorn")

16.11.1.1 Class agreement

There are isolated set forms showing traces of the old agreement system:

cf	là'-bīəlíf ⁹ bī'əlá ⁺	"small coin" NT (<i>lāˈaf</i> ² "cowrie") "a little"
cf	dà-sī`ər ^ɛ dàbıs-sī`ər ^ɛ sī'a ⁺	"some day; perhaps" (<i>dāar</i> ^ɛ "day") "some day" (<i>dàbısır^ɛ</i> "day") "some"
cf	yēl-súm ^{mɛ} sùŋ ^ɔ	"blessing" (<i>yε̄l^{lε/}</i> "matter") "good"
cf	pu̯'à-pāal ^{a/} dà-pāal ^{a/} pāalíg ^a	"bride" (<i>pu្</i> 'ā ^a "wife") "young man, son" (<i>dāu្</i> + "man") "new"

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 ^m	"new millet beer"
		WK does not accept * <i>dā-páàl, *dā-páal</i> ìg.
	tì-sābılím ^m	"black medicine", a specific traditional remedy
	tì-vōnním ^m	"oral medication" ("swallowing medicine")
	tì-kōvdím ^m	"poison" ("killing medicine")
	kpāň-sɔ́ɔňdìm ^m	"anointing oil" (<i>kpāaňm^{m/}</i> "oil, grease")
	būn-bóɔdìm ^m	"desirable thing" (1 Cor 14:1: nɔ̀ŋılím ^m "love")
but	būn-bʻodìr ^ɛ	"desirable thing" (BNY p17: a sheep)
	būn-ňyέtìm ^m	"the visible world"
but	bōn-ňyétìr ^ɛ	"a visible object"

The exceptional character of the m^m class in this matter is presumably due to its strong semantic association with the meanings "liquid" and "abstract."

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16.11.1.2 Downtoning

Adjectives may show apocope-blocking <u>6.6</u> as a downtoner (all examples KT):

Lì à nĒ fū-píəlìgā.	"It's a whitish shirt."
Lì à nĒ fū-píəlìgā lā.	"It's the whitish shirt."
Lì à nĒ wíùg.	"It's red."
Lì à nē wíugū.	"It's reddish."
fū-wíugō lā	"the reddish shirt"
Lì à nɛ̄ 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 nẽ píəlìg pāmm.	"It's very white"
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the adverb $p\bar{a}mm$ 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"
	\mathbf{I}

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 nĒ píəlìg fáss fáss.	"It's very white."
Lì à nĒ sābılíg zím zím.	"It's deep black."
Lì à nĒ zíň'a wím wím.	"It's deep red."

Ideophones are not limited to use with adjectives as complements of $\partial e \breve{n}^a$ "be something/somehow" but occur with adjectives in their normal modifier rôle:

Lì à nĒ fū-zíň'a wím wím.	"It's a deep red shirt."	WK
Ѝ ňyź fū-zíň'a wím wím.	"I've seen a deep red shirt."	WK
Fū-zíň'a wím wím bέ.	"There's a deep red shirt."	WK
Ѝ bóòd fū-zíň'a wím wím lā.	"I want the deep red shirt."	WK

Adjectival verbs may take ideophones as intensifiers; they share the ideophone of the corresponding adjective:

Ò à nē wōk tólılìlı.	"She's very tall."
Ò à nē gīŋ tírıgà.	"She's very short."
Ò wà'am tólılìlı.	"She's very tall."
Ò gìm nĒ tírιgà.	"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.	"It's very good."
Lì à nẽ bẽ'ɛd pāmm.	"It's very bad."
Lì zùlım pāmm.	"It's very deep."
Lì mà'as pāmm.	"It's very damp."

Apart from adjectival verbs, I have found no unequivocal ideophones in use with verbs; thus only

Ò tùm pāmm.	"She's worked hard."
Ò tòm hālí.	"She's worked hard." 28.6
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:

Ò zòt nɛ̃ 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 nē nū'-kpíilúŋ.	"It's a dead hand."
Bīig lā á nē nū'-kpíilóŋ.	"The child is dead-handed."
Ò à nē bí-[nū'-kpíilúŋ].	"He's a dead-handed child."

In constructions like $bi-n\bar{u}'-kp(ilog)$ "child with a withered hand" the adjective is modifying the cb immediately preceding it, not *vice versa*. It is not possible to say $bi-n\bar{u}'-kp(im^m)$, and in such constructions the adjective may even be plural despite singular reference of the whole noun + adjective compound:

plura or	bì-tùb-kpīda+ 1 bì-tùb-kpīda nám ^a bì-tùb-kpīdıs ^ɛ	"deaf child" (<i>tùbυr</i> ^ε "ear", <i>kpì</i> + "die")
	bì-tùb-līıd ^ɛ	"child/children with blocked ears" (/ī ⁺ "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-wók ⁵ kùg-n5b-wá'àd ^ɛ	"long-legged stool" "long-legged stools"
pl	zūg-máuk ^o zūg-má'àd ^ɛ	"crushed-headed"
	zù-wōk ^{ɔ/} nōb-gíŋ ^a	"long-tailed" "short-legged"
pl	zū-pέεlòg ⁵ zū-pέεlà ⁺	"bald"; cf <i>Dau s</i> ɔ' zug ya'a pie "If a man has gone bald" (Leviticus 13:40)
pl	lām-fóòg ^o lām-fóòd ^ɛ	"toothless" (<i>lām^{mε/}</i> "gum" <i>fùe</i> + "draw out") <u>9.2.1</u>

The two adjectives "one of a pair" <u>16.4.2.3</u> are often used in bahuvrihis:

 $\check{n}y\check{a}\chi k^{2}$ pl $\check{n}y\check{a}'ad^{\epsilon}$ for eyes:

nīf-ňyáu̯k ^ɔ	"one eye"
bà-nīf-ňyáu̯k ^ɔ	"one-eyed dog"

 $y\bar{u}y^{3/}$ pl $y\bar{u}n\dot{a}^+$ of other paired body parts:

tùb-yīu̯ŋ ^{ɔ/}	"one ear"
bì-tùb-yīná+	"one-eared children"
nōb-yíu̯ŋ ^{>}	"one-legged"
nū'-yíu̯ŋ ^{>}	"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:

only	bì-sāan ^{a/} or bì-sáaŋ ^a bù-sáaŋ ^a	"stranger-child" "stranger goat"
	bì-kpī ⁻ im ^{m/} bì-kpìilúŋ ^ɔ bù-kpìilúŋ ^ɔ	"dead child" "dead goat"
or only	bì-dāu ⁺ bì-dāvg ^{>} bù-dāvg ^{>}	"male child" "male goat"
	bì-pu̯'āª or bì-pu̯ākª	"female child"
or	bì-zū'өm ^{m/} bì-zùnzòŋ ^a	"blind child"

The same behaviour is also seen with some agent nouns:

	pu̯'à-zàaňsª	"dreamy woman" KT
	nīn-nén ^{na}	"envious person"
	bì-sīn ^{na/} or bì-sīnníg ^a	"silent child"
only	bù-sīnníg ^a or bù-sīnnúg ⁵	"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:

pu̯'à-kūvdígª	"murderous woman, murderess"
pu̯'à-kūvdª/	only "killer of women"
pu̯'à-lā'adıgª	"woman given to laughing"
pu̯'à-lā'adª	"laugher at women"

Nouns (of any class) expressing bodily defects can be used adjectivally:

bì-zùnzòŋ ^a	"blind child"
bì-gìk ^a	"dumb child"
bì-wàbır ^ɛ	"lame child"
bì-bālērug ⁵	"ugly child"
bì-pòň'ɔr ^ε	"crippled child"

Other examples include:

	nàsàa-bīig ^a	"European child"
	yàmmug-bī-púŋ ^a	"girl slave"
		(written <i>yamug bipuŋ</i> Acts 16:16, 1976 <u>9.2.2</u>)
	yàm-bī-púŋ ^a	"girl slave" (WK's preferred form)
cf	yàmmug bí-púŋ ^a	"slave's girl"
	bī-púŋ-yàmmug ^a	"slave girl"
	nà'-bīig ^a	"prince" ("royal child" not "boy king")
	bì-nà'ab ^a	id
	dàu̯-bīigª	"male child"
cf	bì-dāỵ+	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^m class like adjective stems 12.3.

16.11.2 Postdeterminers

16.11.2.1 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 $16.3.2 \ 16.3.3$.

16.11.2.2 Quantifiers

Quantifiers as NP dependents follow the head, except for $y\bar{i}g\dot{a}^+$ "firstly." A head can appear as a cb only with $y\bar{i}nn\dot{i}^+$ "one" and in a few fixed expressions <u>16.4.2.1</u>; elsewhere, quantifiers are not subject to L spreading:

	kūg-yínnì+	"one stone"
but	kūgvr yīnní+	"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.

ทเิdเb bέdυgū	"a lot of people"
nīdıb bέdvgū 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 16.10.3.

Quantifiers as postdeterminers can be coordinated: this is the mechanism for the creation of numbers other than simple digits, tens or hundreds 16.4.2.1.

o nya'andɔlib pii nɛ yi ò ňyà'an-dɔ̀llıb pīi nɛ̄ yí 3AN after-follower:PL ten with two "his twelve disciples" (Mt 26:20)

16.11.3 Adverbial phrases

When an abstract noun with verbal sense has a preceding NP functioning as subject, a following AdvP may occur which represents a complement or adjunct. Such adjuncts may be prepositional phrases, which are not found elsewhere as NP dependents, or VP-final particles. Accordingly, this is best regarded as a clause nominalisation process rather than part of NP structure as such; see further <u>16.10.3</u>.

Apart from this, the use of AdvPs as postdeterminers is marginal. The manner-adverb *amɛ̄ŋá* "really, truly" occurs meaning "genuine, real":

JnsJbá nē dự'átàamēŋálā.JAN.CNTR individual.AN COP FOC doctor:SG ADV:real:ADV ART"That one's the real doctor."

It is not clear that manner-adverbs can appear in any other rôle as NP dependents, except preceding the specialised head word $d\bar{a}an^a$ <u>16.10.4</u>.

My informants supplied

ňwādıs yóùm lā púugū-n	"months in the year" SB
wābug mวิวgม-n lā	"the elephant in the bush" WK

but I have not recorded the full context in either case, and it is possible that the examples were extracted or ellipted from clauses such as $\dot{M} \ d\bar{a}a \ ny\bar{\epsilon} \ w\bar{a}bvg \ m\bar{o}cgv-n$ $l\bar{a}$ "I saw an elephant in the bush." The 1976 NT at Mk 1:1 has

Lina ane labasuŋ Jesus Christ Wina'am Biig la yela. Lìnā á nē lábà-sùŋ Jesus Christ Wínà'am bîig lā yélà. DEM.DEI.INAN COP FOC news-good:sG Jesus Christ God child:sG ART about. "This is the good news about Jesus Christ, God's Son."

but the 1996 revision recasts this as

Lina ane Yesu Kiristo one a Wina'am Biig la labasuŋ. Lìnā á nĒ Yesu Kiristo ɔ́nì à Wínà'am bíìg lā lábà-sùŋ. DEM.DEI.INAN COP FOC Yesu Kiristo REL.AN COP God child:sg ART news-good:sg.

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, and (excepting proadverbs) as dependents in NPs <u>16.10.2.3</u>. AdvPs of time, circumstance or reason appear as postlinker adjuncts <u>21.2.1</u> or VP adjuncts <u>19.9</u>, often *kà*-preposed <u>28.2</u>; AdvPs of place or manner only appear as VP adjuncts, and can only precede the subject by *kà*-preposing .

Many adverbs are formally identical to nouns. Unequivocally distinctive adverbs include proadverbs, 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.

Absolute clauses occur as adverbs of time/circumstance 25.2, 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 $\underline{17.7}$ or by distinctive time adverbs which do not have the structure of nouns, such as

zīná+	"today"	
sù'өs ^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. $b\bar{\epsilon}og^{2}$ "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>30.8</u> and e.g.

yú'טŋ ^o	"night"
nīntāŋ ^{a/}	"heat of the day, early afternoon"
úun ^{nε}	"dry season"

Adverbial phrases expressing **circumstances** are typically absolute clauses; such clauses are also frequently used to express time <u>25.2</u>.

No formal distinction is made between a point in time and a period over which a state of affairs persists:

Fù ná kūlbēog."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:

Bēogu-n nē záàm kà fù 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 <u>17.6</u>; synchronically such postpositions 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 <u>16.10.2.3</u> and for the focus behaviour of locatives <u>28.1.2.2</u>.

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:

mù'arī-n	"in a lake	11	yūdá nì	"among names"
m̀ nī	"in me"		mān nī	"in me"
la'asvg do:	odin nɛ suoy	a ni		
là'asug	dʻodī-n	nē	sỵēyá nì	
assembly:s	G house:PL-LO	oc witl	n road:PL loc	
"in the syn	agogues an	d in tł	ne streets" (N	/It 6:2)

 $Y\bar{i}r^{\epsilon}$ "house" has the exceptional sg and pl locative forms $yin^{n\epsilon} y\dot{a}a-n^{\epsilon}$ which have the particular nuance "home", as in the parting formula

Pù'ʊsɪm yín.	"Greet (those) at home." i.e. "Goodbye."			
Note also the locative adverb yin^a "outside." The article $l\bar{a}^{+/}$ may precede or follow the locative particle:				
mù'arī-n lā mù'ar lā ní	"in the lake"			
Quantifiers may also follow the locative particle:				
m abana ni uuca	"in all my lattons" (2 These 2.17, 1006)			

m gbana ni wusa	"in all my letters" (2 Thess 3:17, 1996)
m̀ gbàna ní wūsa	
1SG letter:PL LOC all	

The meaning is completely non-specific location: at, in, to, from. The locative particle is attached to nouns which are not place names whenever they are used as complements of verbs expressing motion or location:

Kem Siloam buligini pie fo nini.
Kèm Siloam búlogō-n ø píð 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 kpɛ́ň' Judas [...] súňfī-n.
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 yɛ̄...
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:

Ò bè dá'a-n.	"He's at market."
Ò bè si̯á'arī-n.	"He's at the bush."
Ò bè pɔ̄ɔgú-n.	"He's at the farm."

or

Ò bὲ yín.	"He's at home."
Ò bè sākulí-n.	"He's at school."
Ò bè mɔ̄ɔgʋ-n.	"He's in the grasslands."
Ò bè kɔlıgı-n	"He's at the stream."
Ò bὲ tūʊmmւ-n.	"He's at work."

More precise locative meanings are expressed with postpositions, many of which themselves include the locative particle 17.6.

Ò dìgιl gbáuŋ lā tέεbùl lā zúg.
3AN lay.down book:sg ART table:sg ART upon.
"She's put the book on the table."

Dāu lā bé nē dó-kàŋā lā púugū-n. Man:sg ART EXIST FOC hut-DEM.DEI.SG ART inside:sg-LOC. "The man is inside that hut."

Kusaasi place names 30.3, many postpositions, and a number of proadverbs 17.7 are "intrinsically locative", here analysed as accompanied by a zero allomorph of the locative particle (see above):

"He's at Bawku." ILK		
"He's at Tempane." ILK		
"He's gone to Bawku."		
"She's put the book on the table." (above)		
"righthand"		
"lefthand"		
"upwards"		
"far off" (? <i>lāl ní</i> ⁺)		

Place names often have a locative proform in apposition, particularly to express rest at a place, as opposed to movement towards or away:

Ѝ ná kēŋ Bók.	"I'm going to Bawku."
Fù yúùg Bók kpēláa?	"Have you been long in Bawku (here)?"
Fù 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 téŋī-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 25.3:

Onε ken likin zi' on ken si'ela. Ònι kɛ̄n līkι-n zī' ón kɛ̄n sī'əla +ø. REL.AN go:IPFV darkness-LOC NEG.KNOW 3AN:NZ go:IPFV INDF.INAN NEG. "He who walks in darkness does not know where he is going." (Jn 12:35)

ka mori fu keŋ zin'ikanɛ ka fu pu booda. kà morí fu \emptyset kɛŋ zíň'-kànı kà fu pu boodā ⁺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)

Note the *time* expressions:

bēog ^o	"tomorrow"
bēogu-n ^{ɛ/}	"morning"
sān-sí'ā-n lā	"at one time, once" <u>21.2.1</u>
yīigí-n ^ɛ	"at first"

Locative AdvPs can be coordinated:

Nyalima na bɛ winnigin nɛ nwadigin nɛ nwadbibisin. Ňyālımá nà bɛ̄ wínnìgī-n nɛ̄ ňwādıgí-n nɛ̄ ňwād-bíbısī-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 constructed by a metaphorical extension of the sense of the postposition $z\bar{u}g$ "upon" <u>17.6</u>; similarly for proforms:

àlá zùg ^ɔ	"therefore"	bวิ zúg ^ว	"why?"
dìn zúg ^ɔ	"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>6.6</u>. Some have the **manner-adverb prefix** \dot{a} - <u>14.2</u> or are derived from adjective stems with the suffixes $m^{\rm m}$ or $-ga^+$ <u>12.3</u>. Others include

pāalú ⁺	"openly"	
ňyāe ^{nε/}	"brightly, clearly" written	nyain <u>1.3.2</u>

 $Ny\bar{a}e^{n\epsilon}$ shows the characteristic distribution of a manner-adverb rather than a noun, appearing as complement of $\partial e n^a$ "be something" and as an adjunct:

Wina'am a su'um nyain."God is light." (1 Jn 1:5, 1996)Wínà'am áň súm ňyāe.GodCOP 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.

Ka li sid nie nyain."And there truly was light." (Genesis 1:3)Kà lì síd nìe ňyāe.And BINAN truly appear brightly.

A number of manner-adverbs are formed by **reduplication of roots**.

nà'anā ^{+/}	"easily"	
tò'ɔtɔ̄+/	"straight away"	(Mooré taotao id)
kōň'ɔkō+	"solely, by onesel	f"

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 àsídà sídà	"very truly" "very truly"	
<i>À wúm Kūsáàl bī'əlá.</i> 15G hear:IPFV Kusaal slightly.	"I know Kusaal a little."	
<i>À wúm bī'əl bī'əl.</i> 15g hear:1PFV little little.	"I understand a very little."	

A very common form of manner-AdvP is a relative clause using the proform $s\bar{r} \partial m^m$ "somehow" as head 25.3.1.

Manner-adverbs resemble generic mass nouns in their syntactic behaviour in several respects. Even count nouns in generic senses may be encountered as AdvPs:

Μ̀ kέŋ	nōbá.	"I went on foot." SB; WK corrected this to
1SG go	leg:pl.	<i>Ѝ kéŋ nē nɔ̄bá,</i> using <i>nē</i> "with."

A prepositional phrase with $n\bar{\epsilon}$ parallels a count plural used adverbially in

À-ňyē nē nīf sóň'ɔ___ À-wùm tùba. 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 từm bédugū.	"She's worked a lot."
Ò tùm pāmm.	"She's worked a lot."

Wosa "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.OB all.	(for: <i>Bà gòsí tì wūsa.</i> 3PL look.at 1PL all.)

This is not a universal property of quantifiers:

Bà gòsĩ tí bédugū.	"They've looked at us a lot." WK
Bà gòsí tì bèdvgū.	"They've looked at a lot of us." WK

Numbers have specific forms for the adverbial meaning "so many times" <u>16.4.2.4</u>; the other count quantifiers sometimes appear similarly as adverbs:

Bà gòsī 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 *si* am clauses <u>25.3.1</u>.

17.5 AdvPs as verb arguments

The prototypical use of AdvPs is as VP adjuncts; time/circumstance AdvPs also commonly appear as postlinker adjuncts:

Fὺ dúə wēlá +ø?	literally "How did you rise?"; morning greeting.
2SG rise how CQ?	
Nānná-ná ṁ áň ná'àb.	"Now I am a chief." WK
Now-hither 1SG COP chief:SG.	

AdvPs also occur as verb arguments. All types can appear as subjects of the verb $\dot{a}en$ ^a "be something /somehow" <u>20.2</u>. Adjectival verbs may also have an AdvP subject, and there are a few examples with other verbs:

Yiŋ venl, ka poogin ka'a su'um.
Yìŋ véňl kà pūvgv-n kā' súmm +ø.
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 yɛla la kɛ ka ti baŋ nɔŋilim an si'em. Kristo ø dà kpìi tì yɛlá lā kɛ́ kà tì báŋ nɔ̀ŋılím ø àň sī'əm. Christ NZ TNS die IPL about ART cause and IPL realise love NZ COP INDF.ADV "Christ dying for us makes us understand what love is like." (1 Jn 3:16) (absolute clause AdvP <u>25.2</u> as subject)

In Sòŋā bέ. "OK it is." WK Good:ADV EXIST.

sòŋā is however used metalinguistically, meaning "the word sòŋā."

Verbs with appropriate meanings frequently take locative AdvPs as complements, rather than as adjuncts <u>19.8.3</u>.

The verb $\dot{a}ent{n}^a$ "be something/somehow" typically has a derived manner-adverb or abstract noun as complement rather than an adjective as NP head <u>20.2</u>:

Lì à nĒ zāalím.	"It's empty."
Lì à nē būgusígā.	"It's soft."
Lì à súŋā.	"It's good."

Kusaal characteristically uses manner proadverbs as predicative complements in place of pronouns with abstract reference. i.e. the language says "be/do *how*" rather than "be/do *what*."

Dā níŋì àláa +ø! "Don't do that!" ("thus")
NEG.IMP do ADV:thus NEG.
Fv wvm ban yɛt si'em laa?
Fv wvm bán yɛt 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. Tìıg wélà bìgısıd 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)

Relative clauses with the proform $s\vec{r}
i m^m$ "somehow" as head are accordingly used after verbs of cognition, reporting and perception, to express the subordinate interrogative sense "say [etc] what ..." <u>25.3.1</u>.

For the idiom "X nìŋ wɛlá ...?" "how can X ...?" see <u>23.2.1</u>.

17.6 Postpositions

Postpositions are adverbs with a predeterminer <u>16.10.3</u>. Most are either literally or metaphorically locative. Postpositional phrases are AdvPs and can be preposed with ka <u>28.2</u> 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 <u>16.10.2.3</u>.

Postpositions may not be coordinated, but their predeterminers may:

tinam nε fun suugine? "between us and you?" (Mt 8:29) tīnám nē fūn súugū-nέ +ø? IPL with 25G between-LOC PQ?

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Many postpositions are readily recognisable as special uses of ordinary nouns. Some postpositions are AdvPs including the locative particle.

<i>zūg</i> ٥/	1	"onto" (<i>zūg^{ɔ/}</i> "head")
	téɛbùl lā zúg	"onto the table"
	$Z\bar{u}g^{2/}$ is frequently used metaphorically to express a reason "because	
	dāu lā zúg	"on account of the man"

dāu lā zúg	"on account of the man"
bō-zúgò?	"why?" (cf <i>bɔ̄ zúgɔ̄</i> "because" <u>21.2.1</u>)

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." 25.2

Although reason-AdvPs are, as here, frequently preposed with ka, they may also occur as postlinker adjuncts <u>21.2.1</u>:

Pian'akanε ka m pian' tisi ya la zug, ya anε nyain.
Pjàň'-kànι kà m̀ pjāň' ø tísì yā lā zúg, yà á nē ňyāe.
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 $s\bar{a}a z \dot{u}g^{3}$ is used for "sky"; it is intrinsically locative:

Ka kokor yi saazug na ... Kà kòkōr yī sāa zúg nā ... And voice emerge rain onto hither "And a voice came from heaven..." (Jn 12:28)

zūgύ-n^ε

tēŋír^ɛ

"on"

téebùl lā zúgū-n

"on the table"

"under" (*tɛ̃ŋ*ª "ground")

tέε	bùl	lā	tén	ìr
LCCI	001	Ia	ccij	U

"under the table"

As a locative adverb without a predeterminer:

274	A	dverbial phrases	17.6
	Gòsım tēŋír!	"Look down!", more commonly Gɔ̀sım tēr	<u> ๆ</u> เ-n!
pūug	ט-n ^{ɛ/}	"inside" (<i>pōvg</i> ª "belly, inside")	
	dūk lā púugū-n ňwādıs yúùm lā púugū-n	"in the pot" "months in the year" (metaphorical locat	ive)
bābā	j +	"beside" (pl of <i>bābιr^{ε/}</i> "sphere of activity"	")
	m̀ nɔ̄bá bàba	"beside my feet"	
sìsù	ש gū-n^{ɛ/}	"between" (replaced by <i>sòυgū-n^{ε/}</i> in KB)	
	tīnám nē fūn sísòบgū-n	"between us and you"	
tùøn	nε	"in front of"	
cf	dāká lā túèn Gòsım túèn!	"in front of the box" "Look to the front", without a predeterm	iner
gbìn	ηε	"at the bottom of" (<i>gbìn^{nɛ}</i> "buttock")	
	zūər lā gbín	"at the foot of the mountain"	
ňyá'a	aŋ ^a	"behind; after (time)" (<i>ňyá'aŋ</i> ª "back")	
	lì ňyá'aŋ ^a	"afterwards" as a postlinker/VP adjunct 2	<u>21.2.1</u>
	<i>Nēʿŋá ňyáʿàŋ kà ò kūl.</i> DEM.DEI.INAN after and 3AN go.h "After this she went home."	ome.	
sā'ai	η ^{ε/}	"into/in the presence of", "in the opinion	of"
	Wínà'am sá'àn	"in the sight of God"	
	Fù ná dī e tíìm pự á-b 25G IRR receive medicine woma	pàmmā lā sá'àn. an-DEM.DEI.PL ART among.	

"You'll get the medicine from where those women are."

yēlá+

"about, concerning" (pl of $y\bar{\epsilon}l^{|\epsilon|}$ "matter, affair")

Bà yèl·ō_ ø mān yēlá wūsa. 3AN.OB 1SG.CNTR about all 3PL say "They told him all about me."

kōň'ɔkō	cf àdàkóň ' "one" <u>16.4.2.2</u>	
m̀ kɔ̃n̆'ɔkɔ̃	"by myself"	

17.7 Proadverbs

Adverbs have corresponding proforms.

	Demonstrative		Indefinite Interrogative		ve
Place	kpē+	"here"	zìň'-sī'a+	yáa ní+	"where?"
	kpēlá+ àní+ ànínā+ [/]	"there" "there" "there"	"somewhere"	yáa	"whither /whence?"
Time	nānná ⁺ nānná-nā ^{+/} sān-kán ^ɛ	"now" "now" "then"	<i>sān-sí</i> 'a ⁺ "sometime"	sān-kán ^ɛ būn-dáàr ^ɛ bò-wìn ^{nɛ}	"when?" "which day?" "what time of day?"
Manner	àňwá ⁺ àwá nā ^{+/} àlá ⁺	"like this" "like this" "like that"	<i>sī</i> 'əm ^m "somehow"	wēlá ⁺	"how?"

The indefinites are used in relative clauses 25.3.1.

The à- of the "manner" forms is the manner-adverb prefix and is preceded by the LF-final vowel - ι 8.2.1; contrast proquantifiers 16.4.3.

Proforms expressing reason are formed with the postposition $z\bar{u}g^{3/}$ <u>17.6</u>: àlá zùg^o "because of that", bɔ̄zúgò? "why?" (cf bɔ̄ zúgɔ̄ "because" 21.2.1.)

18 Prepositions

Prepositional phrases function typically as VP adjuncts, less often as complements. They cannot form components of noun phrases directly. Neither prepositions nor their own complements can be coordinated. Except for $n\bar{\epsilon}$ "with", the prepositions are also used as clause adjuncts <u>21.2.1</u>.

 $N\bar{\epsilon}$ is "with" in both accompanying and instrumental senses. The $n\bar{\epsilon}$ "and" which coordinates NPs and AdvPs <u>16.7</u> is fundamentally the same word. $N\bar{\epsilon}$ may only take NPs or AdvPs as complements (including nominalised \hbar -clauses.)

WK has forms with bound personal pronouns as complements; note the H toneme on the preposition:

ní m ^a	ní tī ^{+/}
ní f ^o	ní yā+/
<i>n∙ó</i> ⁻⁰ [nỡ(:)]	ní bā+/
ní lī ^{+/}	

The *ne o* of the 1996 NT version is frequently read $[n\tilde{\sigma}]$ in the audio.

Other speakers only use $n\bar{\epsilon}$ with free pronouns; WK has alternative forms also with $n\epsilon$ before those clitic pronouns which have a vowel in SF: $n\epsilon l$, $n\epsilon t$, $n\epsilon y$, $n\epsilon b$, with the pronouns having L toneme throughout; SB has the same forms.

Examples for *n* $\bar{\epsilon}$:

Lìginím fù nīf fù nú'ùg. nέ Cover:IMP 2SG eye:SG with 2SG hand:SG. "Cover your eye with your hand." Bà kèn nē n5bá. "They've gone on foot." WK 3PL go with leg:PL. Dìm nē Wīn, dā tú'às nē Wīnné +ø. 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.)

Kulim nɛ sumbvgvsvm."Go home in peace." (Mk 5:34)Kùlımnēsùmbvgvsím.Go.home:IMP with peace.

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[Bárıkà nế fừ] kẽn kẽn.
[Blessing with 256] arrival arrival.
"Welcome!" (a greeting template <u>29</u>)
```

M gέň' nέ fù. "I'm angry with you." SB
 1SG get.angry:PRV with 2SG.

The compound preposition $l\dot{a}$ 'am $n\bar{\epsilon}$ "together with" derives from a *n*-catenation construction <u>23.2.2</u>:

...mɔr ya'am yinne la'am nɛ tɛn'ɛsa yinne. ... mɔ̄r yā'm yīnní là'am nɛ̄ tɛ̄ň'ɛsá yīnní. ... have sense one together with thought one. "... had one mind together with one thought." (Acts 4:32)

Wōv means "like." With pronoun complements WK has

wῦυ mān LF mánẽ	wύυ tì
wōu fūn LF fúnē	wúu yà
พบิบ วิท ^ะ	wúu bà
wóo lì	

WK permits phrases introduced by $w\bar{v}v$ to be preposed with $k\dot{a}$ 28.2, but rejects this construction for $n\bar{\epsilon}$ + NP:

Wōv búŋnế kà ò zót.Like donkey:sG like and 3AN run:IPFV."Like a donkey, he runs."

but *Né m nú'ùg kà m sī'ıs. With 1sg hand:sg and 1sg touch. is not possible for "With my hand, I touched it."

The complement is often a *si am* relative clause <u>25.3.1</u>:

Ò zòt wöv bóŋ n zòt srəm lā.
3AN run:IPFV like donkey:sg NZ run:IPFV INDF.ADV ART.
"He runs like a donkey runs."

Prepositions

 $W\bar{\upsilon}\upsilon$ occurs often after $w\bar{\varepsilon}n^{na/}$ "resemble", introducing its complement; the preposition $n\bar{\varepsilon}$ is frequently used instead. In any case, the complement is followed by the empty particle $n\bar{\varepsilon}$ whenever it does not already have the article $|\bar{a}^{+/}$, even if it is a pronoun, or is specific:

พบิบ mān nē	"like me"
wōu búŋ nē	"like a donkey'

Ka o nindaa wenne nintaŋ 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)

Alazugɔ mɔri ya'am wυυ wiigi nɛ... Àlá zùgɔ̄, mòrī yā'm wūυ wīigí nɛ̄... 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 complement is not followed by the redundant $n\bar{\varepsilon}$ in this case:

wōv tūsá àyí "about 2000" like thousand:PL NUM:two

 $W\bar{\epsilon}n n\bar{\epsilon} X$ and $w\bar{\epsilon}n w\bar{\upsilon}\upsilon X$, using $w\bar{\epsilon}n^{na/}$ "resemble" in *n*-catenation 23.2.2, behave as unitary prepositional phrases to the extent that the entire sequence $w\bar{\epsilon}n$ + preposition + complement can be preposed with $k\dot{a}$, or extraposed after the negative prosodic clitic:

Da lo ya nindaase, wenne foosug dim la niŋid si'em la. Dā ló yà nīn-dáasē ⁺ø, wēn nē fɔ̄ɔsúg dím lá ø NEG.IMP tie 2PL eye-face:PL NEG, resemble with puff:GER individual.PL ART NZ nìŋıd sī'əm lā. do:IPFV INDF.ADV ART. "Don't screw up your faces like the hypocrites do." (Mt 6:16, 1976)

Àsέε⁼ is "except for" (← Hausa *sai*)

àsέε Wínà'am "except for God" (calquing the Twi gye Nyame)

For pronoun complements the free forms are used.

Prepositions

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 ħatta: (Heath 2005.)

O daa pun anε ninkuud hali pin'ilugun sa.
Ò dāa pún à nē nīn-kúùd 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." (Jn 8:44)

For pronoun complements, the free forms are used.

 $H\bar{a}l\ell^+$ can also appear as a prelinker adjunct and as an emphatic <u>28.6</u>. As emphatic "even" preceding $n\bar{\epsilon}$ or $l\dot{a}$ 'am $n\bar{\epsilon}$ "(together) with" and a \dot{n} -clause complement, it produces the meaning "despite, even though, even as":

Hali la'am nε on daa an yεlsum wusa daan la, o da lieb nɔŋdaan...
Hālí là'am nε̄ ón dāa áň yɛ̄l-súm wūsa dáàn lā,
Even together with 3AN:NZ TNS COP matter-goodness all owner:sg ART,
ò dà lìəb nɔ̄ŋ-dáàn...
3AN TNS become poverty-owner:sg...
"Despite his having possessed every blessing, he became poor..." (2 Cor 8:9)

Zugsob yεl ye, Hali nε man vve nwa...Zūg-sób yέl yē, Hālí nē mán vve ňwá ...head-one:sg say that even with 1sg:NZ be.alive this ..."The Lord says: Even as I live .." (Rom 14:11)

hali nε man daa sɔbi tisi ya si'em la, m daa pu sɔbi li hālí nĒ mán dāa sɔ̄bı ø tísì yā sī'əm lā even with 1sg:NZ TNS write CAT give 2PL.OB INDF.ADV ART m dāa pū sɔ̄bí lī ... 1SG TNS NEG.IND write 3INAN.OB ... "Despite how I wrote to you, I did not write it ..." (2 Cor 7:12)

19.1 Structure

The core of the verb phrase is a verb word along with clitics which, together with verb flexion, mark tense, aspect, mood and polarity. Some verb complements are also enclitic; remaining complements and adjuncts follow in that order, after which VP-final particles may occur.

The VP is subject to independency marking. This is primarily a tone overlay, but there are associated segmental features: the particle $y\bar{a}^+$ after phrase-final perfective forms and the dual-aspect verb imperative flexion $-m^a$ appear only when the tone overlay is present.

The system separates tense, marked by proclitic particles, from aspect, 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 dual-aspect verbs is a portmanteau marker of imperative mood, positive polarity and independency.

The VP shows no agreement. Apparent number agreement in imperatives is actually due to the incorporation of the postposed 2nd pl subject pronoun ya .

	Tense		Mood	Preverb		LE1	LE2
Ιὲε	dàa	nàm	ø ⇔ pū	pùn	VERB	n ^ε	m ^a
	sàa	ňyēɛ(tı)	ø ⇔dā	lèm		уа	f
	ø		nà ↔ kừ	tì			0
	pà'			kpèlım			<i>l</i> ι+
	sà			là'am			tı+
	dāa			dÈŋım			ya+
	dà						ba+

Clitic VP particles occur in a fixed order:

 ${\it {\it ø}}$ marks places where the absence of any particle can be contrastive.

The particles in the column "Mood" also mark polarity: positive \leftrightarrow negative. LE1, LE2 are liaison enclitic slots <u>19.7.3</u>.

For $l \hat{\epsilon} \epsilon$ "but" see <u>19.7.1</u>; for $n \hat{a}m$ "still" and $n \bar{\gamma} \bar{\epsilon} \epsilon(t \iota)$ "habitually" see <u>19.3.2</u>. Tone Pattern LO verbs have all-M tones in the irrealis mood <u>7.3</u>.

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**. Dual-aspect 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 <u>19.6.2.2</u>. Single-aspect 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** $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ 28.1.2 may limit the VP 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 VP distinctions are then unmarked. The temporal use of $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ is possible only with VPs having positive polarity and indicative mood; in negative polarity 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.

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 $\underline{19.3.5}$. With most verbs this straightforwardly expresses a completed event or process where the time is unspecified, resembling the English

"present perfect." As with the English tense/aspect, this very absence of time specification creates the implication that the event is still currently relevant:

	Ò <i>kpì yā.</i> 3an die pfv.	"She's died."
	<i>Sāa dāa ní.</i> Rain ™s rain.	"It rained." (before yesterday.)
	Sāa pá' nì yā. Rain tns rain pfv.	"It rained." (earlier today.)
but	<i>Sāa ní yā.</i> Rain rain pfv.	"It has rained." The time is unspecified: "Perhaps the grass is still wet, or I am explaining that the area is not really a desert." (WK)

Other events and processes can be conceptualised as being simultaneous with the moment of utterance, so that the perfective is appropriate. This resembles the English use of the simple present as an **instantaneous present**:

 \dot{O} yèl yē ... "He says" (translating for the foreign doctor) 3AN say that ...

Performatives naturally fall into this category:

Μ̀ pύ'ὺs yā.	"Thankyou", "I thank you."
1SG greet PFV.	(cf Hausa <i>Naa goodèe</i> , also perfective)
Ѝ si҉ák 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 ňyź nū'-bíbısá àtáň'.
1sg see hand-small:PL NUM:three.
"I can see three fingers."

Ň	téň'ès	kà	"I think that"
1SG	think	and	

With verbs which express a change of state in the subject the perfective may have a **resultative** meaning:

Lì	bòdıg yā .	"It's got lost."
3INAN	lose PFV.	
Lι	bòdıg nē .	"It's lost."
3INAN	lose foc.	

In this sense, perfectives are typically followed by the particle $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$. 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 $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ is not compatible with the perfective aspect in its usual eventive sense, so a perfective followed by temporal $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ must be taken as resultative.

<i>Ò kpì nē.</i> 3AN die FOC.	"He's dead." (Not temporary, but still contingent.)
Lì sàň'am nē. BINAN spoil FOC.	"It's spoilt."
<i>À géň nē.</i> 1sg get.tired foc.	"I'm tired."
Bà kùdug nē. 3PL grow.old foc.	"They're old."
Ò wàbılım nē. 3AN lame FOC.	"She's lame."
Lì pè'el nē. BINAN fill FOC.	"It's full."
Lì yò nē. BINAN close foc.	"It's closed."
<u>Μ búg nē.</u> 1sg get.drunk foc.	"I'm drunk." [calque/borrowing of Hausa <i>bùgu</i>]

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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	nē.	"He's ugly."				
зан get.ugly	FOC.					
Lì pèlig 3inan whiter		"It's white."				
Lì sòbig	nē.	"It's black."				
зімам blacken Foc.						
Lì mù'ə Sinan reddei		"It's red."				

Most verbs expressing a change of state in the subject are intransitives like kpl^+ "die" or patientive ambitransitives <u>19.8.1</u> like $bdlg^{\epsilon}$ "lose, get lost." The only agentive transitive verbs I have found in this category express putting on clothing:

Ň	yέ	fūug.	"I've put a shirt on."
1SG	put.on	shirt:sg.	
		<i>nē fūug.</i> Foc shirt:sg.	"I'm wearing a shirt."

Only verbs expressing a change of state in the subject can use the perfective in a resultative meaning. After other perfectives, $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ cannot have a temporal meaning, and must be interpreted as focussing a VP constituent or the entire VP <u>28.1.2.1.2</u>.

In catenation and in absolute clauses, the choice of perfective over imperfective implies that the event is complete. Consequently, in catenation the order of VPs when the first has perfective aspect is iconic, with constituent order constrained to follow event order <u>23.1</u>. Thus while English might say: "Two men stood with them, dressed in white", Kusaal must have

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)

In contrast, an imperfective may be followed by a perfective:

Ňwādısá àtáň'kà fù ná mōr bīiglā nkēnā.MonthNUM:three and 25G IRR have child:SG ART CAT come hither."Bring the child here in three months." ("having the child, come here.")

With absolute clauses as postlinker or $k\dot{a}$ -preposed VP adjuncts 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 25.2. In the same way, narrative generally features series of tense-unmarked sequential clauses 22.2.1 with perfectives describing events strictly in order.

19.2.2 Imperfective

19.2.2.1 Dynamic

The imperfective of dual-aspect verbs is marked by the flexion *- $da \ \underline{11.1}$; it is normally dynamic. The finite form of single-aspect verbs is dynamic imperfective or stative, as a lexical matter in each case $\underline{11.2}$.

The dynamic imperfective can be followed by the particle $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+\prime}$ in its temporal sense "at the time referred to in particular."

Without $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$, this aspect implies that the subject has a propensity to the achievement, accomplishment or activity expressed by the verb (often called "habitual aspect"):

Ò ờňbιd. 3AN chew:IPFV.	"He chews."
Nīdıb kpîid. Person:PL die:IPFV.	"People die."
Nīigí òňbıd mɔɔd. Cow:pl chew:IPFV grass:pl.	"Cows eat grass."
<i>À zíň'i.</i> 1sg be.sitting.	"I sit."
À záňl dāká lā.	"I carry the box in my hands."

1SG carry.in.hands box:SG ART.

With $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$, the dynamic imperfective typically has a meaning analogous to the English "progressive" or "continuous."

Ò òňbid nē. "He's chewing."
 3AN chew:IPFV FOC.

À zíň'i nē. 1sg be.sitting foc. "I'm sitting."

M záňl nē dāká lā.
1SG carry.in.hands Foc box:SG ART.
"I'm carrying the box in my hands."

Nā'-síəbà śňbìd nē mɔɔd. Cow-INDF.PL chew:IPFV FOC grass:PL. "Some cows are eating grass." cf <u>28.1.2.1.2</u>

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

Nīdıb	kpîìd nē.	"People are dying."
Person:PL	die:IPFV FOC.	

19.2.2.2 Stative

The finite form of a **single-aspect verb** may have stative aspect as a lexical matter $\underline{11.2}$.

<i>Ò gìm.</i> 3AN be.short.	"She's short."
Lì zùlım. BINAN be.deep.	"It's deep."
<i>À mór pựʿā.</i> 1sg have wife:sg.	"I have a wife."
<i>M</i> bʻodī f. 15G want 25G.0B.	"I love you."

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 $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ in its temporal sense:

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	Ѝ mór lór.	"I have a car."
	1sg have car:sg.	
not	*À mór nē lór.	

Stative verbs express abiding/intrinsic relationships or predicative adjectival senses, and by default if the particle $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ follows such a verb it is interpreted as *focussing* either a VP constituent or the VP as a whole; $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ can only be temporal if there is an explicit time reference in the clause itself 28.1.2.1.2 or if the following constituent does not permit focussing with $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ 28.1.2.1.3.

Some dual-aspect verb imperfectives have acquired the meaning and syntax of statives, e.g. $b \partial d^a$ "want, like" ($b \partial^+$ "seek"), $z \partial t^a$ "fear; experience emotion" <u>19.8.1</u> ($z \partial^+$ "run.")

19.3 Tense

19.3.1 Preverbal tense particles

Tense particles come first in the VP, preceded only by $|\dot{\epsilon}\epsilon$ "but." They are mutually exclusive. They comprise

dàa	"day after tomorrow"
sàa	"tomorrow"
Ø	present, or implicit tense <u>19.3.5</u>
pà'	"earlier today"
sà	"yesterday"
dāa	before yesterday
dà	before the time marked by <i>dāa</i>

The day begins at sunrise. Thus the common morning greeting

Fù sá gbìs wēlá	+ø?	"How did you sleep yesterday?" i.e."last night"
2SG TNS sleep how	cq?	

Future tense markers normally require irrealis mood, but imperative is possible if a main clause has been ellipted before a subordinate clause of purpose:

Ò 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. The NT has numerous parallel passages where the same events

are narrated in one passage with $d\bar{a}a$ and in another with $d\dot{a}$, but when both markers occur, $d\dot{a}$ always expresses time prior to $d\bar{a}a$. (For other "pluperfects", cf tense marking in content clauses <u>26.2</u>, and in \dot{n} -clauses within narrative <u>22.2.1</u>.)

19.3.2 Auxiliary tense particles

Two particles may occur in the slot following tense particles but preceding polarity/mood particles.

Nàm means "still" or with a negative "yet":

Tìım	lā	nám	bÈE	+ø?	"Is there any medicine left?"
Medicin	e art	- still	EXIST	PQ?	("Does the medicine still exist?")
dunia na	am p	pir סס	n'il la		
dūnıyá	ør	nàm p	υŪ	pīň'il	lā
world:sg	NZ S	till N	EG.IND	begin	ART
"before	the v	world	bega	an" (M	t 25:34) ("The world having not yet begun.")
			_		

M nám zī' ø ňyē gbīgımne +ø.
1SG still NEG.KNOW CAT see lion:SG NEG.
"I've never seen a lion." SB (see <u>23.2</u> on *n*-catenation idioms)

 $\check{N}y\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon$ or $\check{n}y\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon$ tí (KT $\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon\check{n}$ tí, NT nyii ti, KB $\epsilon\epsilon nti$) means "habitually." The main verb is naturally imperfective.

Ò ňyēε zábìd ná'àb lā.
 3AN usually fight:IPFV chief:SG ART.
 "He's accustomed to fight the chief." WK

Ò ňyēε gɔ̄sıd ná'àb lā.
3AN usually look.at:IPFV chief:sG ART.
"He's accustomed to look at the chief." WK

Ò dāa ňyēε zábìd ná'àb lā.
 3AN TNS usually fight: IPFV chief:sg ART.
 "He was accustomed to fight the chief." WK

δ ε ε ň tí zàbιd nε ná'àb lā.

 3AN usually fight: IPFV FOC chief: SG ART.

 "He's accustomed to fight the chief." KT

 \dot{O} $\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon n t(z)n'i$ kp $\bar{\epsilon}l\dot{a}$. "She's accustomed to sit there." KT 3AN usually be.sitting there.

*Ò ε*ε*ň t*(*dīg*_{*i*} *kpεlá*. "She's accustomed to lie there." KT 3AN usually be.lying there.

Ti **ɛɛnti pv** sɔbid dinɛ ka ya na karim ka kv nyaŋi gban'e li gbinnɛ. Tì ɛ̃ɛň tí pv̄ sɔ̄bid dínì kà yà ná kārím kà kớ ňyāŋı Ø IPL usually NEG.IND write:IPFV REL.INAN and 2PL IRR read and NEG.IRR prevail CAT gbáň'e lì gbìnnɛ̄ +Ø. grab 3INAN base:SG NEG.

"We do not write what you will read and not be able to grasp the meanig of." (2 Cor 1:13)

19.3.3 Discontinuous past

My informants use the **discontinuous-past** marker n^{ϵ} to make an earlier-today past with indicative meaning:

Ṁ ʻñbıdī-n sūmma. "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 <u>19.3.5</u>. 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} <u>24.1.1</u>.

19.3.4 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} kúl $y\bar{a}.$ equivalent in usage to "I'm going home now."1SG go.home PFV.

instead uses a perfective verb form as an instantaneous present $\underline{19.2.1}$.

There are two periphrastic indicative constructions for "to be about to ...":

(a) $b \dot{2} d^a$ "want" + gerund. The subject need not be animate.

Tùglābɔ́ɔ̀dlīig."The tree is about to fall."Tree:sg ART want fall:ger.

Yv'vŋ bɔɔd gaadvg, ka bɛog bɔɔd nier. Yv'vŋ bɔ́ɔd gáadvg kà bɛ̄og bɔ́ɔd níàr. Night want pass:GER and morning want appear:GER. "The night is about to pass and tomorrow is about to appear." (Rom 13:12)

This construction is only possible with gerunds from dual-aspect and dynamic single-aspect verbs, which can be interpreted as expressing an event or process.

(b) using the construction subject + $y\bar{\epsilon}$ -purpose clause. This construction does require an animate subject. (Cf ellipse of a verb before $y\bar{\epsilon}$ -content clauses <u>26.2</u>.)

Ň	yέ	'n	kųā sūmma.	"I'm going to hoe groundnuts."			
1SG	that	150	hoe groundnut:PL.				
Ň	yέ	'n	kiá nīm.	"I'm going to cut meat"			
1sg that 1sg cut meat:sg.							

19.3.5 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	kpîìd	$n\bar{\epsilon}$. "People are dying."
Person:pl	die:IPFV	FOC.
Nīdıb	kpîìd.	"People die."
Person:PL	die:IPFV	
<u></u> М zíň'i	nē.	"I'm sitting down."
1sg be.sit	ting Foc	

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291		Verb phrases	19.3.5
	Ò gìm. 3AN be.short.	"She's short."	
	<i>À mór pự'ā.</i> 1sg have wife:sg.	"I have a wife."	

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 <u>19.2.1</u>:

<i>Ò kpì nĒ.</i> 3AN die FOC.	"She's dead."
<i>Ò kpì yā.</i> 3AN die PFV.	"She's died."
Ò yèl yē 3AN say that	"He says" (translating for the foreign doctor)
<i>À pú'ùs yā.</i> 1SG greet PFV.	"(I) thank you." cf Hausa <i>Naa goodèe</i> .
<u>Ň si</u> ák yā. 1SG agree PFV.	"I agree."
<i>À ňyé nū'-bíbısá àtáň'.</i> 1sg see hand-small:pl NUM:three	
<i>À téň'ès kà</i> 1sg think and	"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 yesterday.
and M záb ná'àb lā sú'ès.
1SG fight chief:SG ART yesterday.
both acceptable as "I fought the chief yesterday."

Fò sáa nà kūl. 2SG TNS IRR go.home.

and *Fò sáa nà kūl bɛ̄og.* 2SG TNS IRR go.home tomorrow.

and *Fò nà kūl bēog.* 2SG IRR go.home tomorrow. ... all acceptable for "You'll go home tomorrow."

cf	Fù ná kūl.	"You will go home."
	2SG IRR go.home	(later today, tomorrow, next week)

À pá' òňbidī-n sūmma. 1SG TNS chew:IPFV-DP groundnut:PL.

and *À źňbidī-n sūmma.*

1SG chew:IPFV-DP groundnut:PL.
"I was eating groundnuts earlier today."
(today-past sense of discontinuous-past n^ε)

Systematic meaningful omission of past tense markers occurs in the sequential clauses characteristic of narrative. In narrative clauses with perfective aspect preceded by ka, 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 <u>22.2.1</u>.

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 $p\bar{v}$. 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>19.3.4</u>. It is used instead of the irrealis in clauses with $y\dot{a}$ ' "if", though with some exceptions in negative polarity <u>24.1</u>. It is the only mood which permits the use of the particle $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ with temporal meaning.

Imperative mood is negated by $d\bar{a}$. With dual-aspect verbs carrying the independency-marking tone overlay it shows a special inflection $-m^a$ <u>19.6.2.2</u> but otherwise the verb word coincides in form with the indicative.

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 \dot{O} vùl tíìm kà ò nóbìr pō záb $\bar{\epsilon}$ +ø. 3AN swallow medicine and 3AN leg:sg NEG.IND fight NEG. "She took medicine and her leg didn't hurt." WK

 \dot{O} vòl 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 $-m^a$ imperative of dual-aspect verbs is perfective by default:

Kòňsım! "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 kóňsıdā ⁺ø! "Don't cough!"

 ${\tt NEG.IMP} \ cough: {\tt IPFV} \ {\tt NEG!}$

(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 <u>22.1.3</u>.

The particle $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ cannot appear in its temporal sense with the imperative, but \dot{a}/\dot{a} "thus" after imperatives imposes continuous/progressive meaning:

Dìm!	"Eat!"
Dìmí àlá!	"Carry on eating!"

Informants contract the $-i-\dot{a}$ - in these forms to either $-i-\dot{a}$ - [dimila] [dimala]

Dìmī-níàlá!"Keep ye on eating!"[dımınıla] [dımınala]Eat:IMP-2PL.SUB ADV:thus!

Kùesımī-ní àlákīntísıdī bá.Sell:IMP-2PL.SUB ADV:thus millet CAT give:IPFV 3PL.OB."Keep ye on selling millet to them."

Single-aspect verbs used as imperatives frequently add *àlá*:

Dìgí àlá! Zì'é àlá!	text <i>zi'ela</i>	"Keep on lying down!" [dɪɡɪla] [dɪɡala] "Be still!" (Jesus to the storm, Mk 4:39, 1976)
Dìgī-ní Be.lying.dowr	àlá! n-2pl.sub adv:thus!	"Keep (ye) on lying down." [dɪgɪnɪla] [dɪgɪnala]
•	<i>bāaňlím!</i> thus quiet:ABSTR!	"Be (ye) quiet!"
0	á ànínā! pv:thus ADV:there!	"Be ye there!"

Imperative mood is used in direct commands and prohibitions and in subordinate clauses expressing purpose. Imperative mood also follows another imperative in catenation.

Gòsım! Look:IMP!	"Look!"
LOOK:IMP:	
Gòsɪmī_ø!	"Look ye!"
Look:imp 2pl.sub!	
Dā gɔ̄sε +ø!	"Don't look!"
NEG.IMP look NEG!	
Kèl kà ò gɔ̄s!	"Let her look!"
Cause:IMP and 3AN look!	
Kèm nā n gōs!	"Come and look!"
Come:IMP hither CAT look!	
Dòl!	"Follow!"
Follow!	
Dòllī_ ø!	"Follow ye!"
Follow 2pl.sub!	
Dòllī, m!	"Follow me!"
Follow 1SG.OB!	

Dòllī-ním!	"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 <u>7.3</u>.

The irrealis mood distinguishes aspects by verb flexion like the indicative, but temporal $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ cannot occur. Perfective aspect occurs much more often than imperfective. Irrealis mood with past tense markers is contrary-to-fact, not future-in-the-past: see <u>24.1</u> for its use in conditionals.

Ò dāa ná zāb ná'àb lā. "He would have fought the chief" (but didn't) 3AN TNS IRR fight chief:SG ART.

19.5 Polarity

VP 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 <u>8.1</u>; on the position of the clitic see further <u>27.1</u>. Four negative verbs <u>19.5.1</u> are equivalent to negative particle + positive verb: *mit* "let not ...", $z\bar{i}$ " "not know", $k\bar{a}$ 'e⁺ "not be/have", $k\bar{a}$ 'as $\iota g\bar{\varepsilon}$ "not exist."

Temporal use of $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ is not compatible with negative polarity <u>28.1.2.1.2</u>.

Indicative mood is negated by $p\bar{v}$ (for some speakers $b\bar{v}$, as in Toende Kusaal.) Imperative is negated by $d\bar{a}$; conversely, forms which are negated by $d\bar{a}$ are imperative. Irrealis 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.

Ò zàb ná'àb lā. "He's fought the chief." 3AN fight chief:SG ART.

 \dot{O} $p\bar{v}$ záb nà'ab láa $+\phi$. "He hasn't fought the chief." 3AN NEG.IND fight chief:sg art NEG.

Zàmná'àblā!"Fight the chief!"Fight:IMPchief:SGART!

	áb nà'ab lá ght chief:sg Al		"Don't fight the chief!"
	sāb ná'àb lả ght chief:sg A		"He'll fight the chief."
Ò kù	zāb ná'àb	láa +ø.	"He won't fight the chief."

19.5.1 Negative verbs

3AN NEG.IRR fight chief:SG ART NEG.

Four verbs are equivalent to negative particle + verb. They do not carry the independency tone overlay <u>19.6.1.1</u>. Negative prosodic clitics appear as usual.

Mit (always imperative) "see that it doesn't happen that ..." <u>23.3</u>. In address to several people the postposed 2pl subject enclitic y^a may or may not occur: *mit*.

Mit ka ya maal ya tuumsuma nidib tuon ye ba gosi.
Mit kà yà máàl yà tùum-sùma nīdıb túàn yé bà gɔ̄sɛ +ø.
NEG.LET.IMP and 2PL do 2PL deed-good:PL person:PL before that 3PL look.at NEG.
"See that you don't do your good deeds in front of people so they'll look at you." (Mt 6:1, 1996)

KB has invariant *mid* without a following negative clitic: *Mid ka ya maali ya* tuum suma nidib tuun ye ba gos.

Mit also appears with a NP object in the sense "beware of ..."; no final negative clitic appears in this case:

Miti ziri nodi'esidib bane kene ya sa'an na la. Mìtī ø zīrí nò-dí'əsìdıb bánì kɛ̄nní 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)

 $Z\bar{i}^{+}$ "not know" normally replaces negative particle + $m\bar{i}$. A clause-final LF zi'isige also appears in KB, NT (e.g. Lk 12:40); cf $k\dot{a}'asig\bar{e}$ below.

Bùŋ-bāň'ad zī' yē tēŋ túllā +ø. 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 *mi* with negative particles do occur:

M biig Solomon anε dasaŋ, ka pv mi' wvv lin nar si'em.
M bīig Solomon á nē dá-sāŋ, kà pv mī'i
1sg child:sg Solomon Foc COP young.man:sg, and NEG.IND know
wvv lín nār sī amm +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)

 $K\bar{a}'e^+$ "not be, not have" appears as $k\bar{a}'$ before a complement <u>8.5.2</u>. It is the negative to both "be" verbs, $\dot{a}env{n}a$ "be something/somehow" and $b\dot{\epsilon}^+$ "be somewhere, exist" and also to $m\bar{c}r^{a/}$ "have." * $P\bar{v}b\dot{\epsilon}$ is not found, but $p\bar{v}m\bar{c}r$ is quite common; $p\bar{v}aenv{n}$

Examples:

Dāỵlā kā'ná'abā+ø."The man isn't a chief."Man:SG ART NEG.BE chief:SG NEG.Dāỵlā kā'bīiga+ø.Dāỵlā kā'bīiga+ø."The man hasn't got a child."Man:SG ART NEG.HAVE child:SG NEG."The man hasn't got a child."

 $Pu'\bar{a}$ $I\bar{a}$ $m \circ r$ $b \overline{i} i g$ $a m \circ a$ $a d \overline{a} u$ $I \overline{a}$ $k \overline{a} ' e$ + øWoman:sg ART have child:sg butman:sg ART NEG.HAVE NEG."The woman has a child but the man hasn't."

 $D\bar{a}\underline{u}$ $l\bar{a}$ $k\bar{a}$ 'e $+ \emptyset$. "The man isn't there." Man:SG ART NEG.BE NEG.

 $D\bar{a}\mu$ $k\bar{a}'e$ $d52g\bar{v}$ -n laa + ø. "There's no man in the room." Man:SG NEG.BE room:SG-LOC ART NEG.

 $D\bar{a}\mu$ $l\bar{a}$ $k\bar{a}$ ' $djg\bar{v}$ -n $l\dot{a}a$ + ϕ . "The man is not in the room." Man:SG ART NEG.BE room:SG-LOC ART NEG.

Kà'asıgɛ̃ (LF always, as the word only appears clause finally) "not exist"

Ò bīig ká'asìgē ⁺ø. "She has no child."
 3AN child NEG.EXIST NEG.

19.6 Independency marking

The VP of a main clause $\underline{22}$ or content clause $\underline{26.2}$ is marked as independent. The marking is absent in all subordinate clause types other than content clauses. It is also absent in all clauses introduced by ka other than content clauses, regardless of whether they are subordinate or coordinate $\underline{21.1}$. 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 VPs with positive polarity and indicative or imperative mood. It affects only the *first* word in the VP capable of carrying it: first the preverbal particle $l\hat{\epsilon}\epsilon$ "but", next any preverb, then the verb itself. Preverbal particles which have intrinsic M tonemes (past tense marker $d\bar{a}a$, auxiliary tense marker $ny\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon$) 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 <u>8.3.1</u>.)

Intrinsic tones after $k\dot{a}$ (with $z\dot{a}b^{\varepsilon}$ "fight" $g\bar{\jmath}s^{\varepsilon}$ "look at" $n\dot{a}'ab^{a}$ "chief"):

Kà ṁ záb nà'ab lā.	"And I've fought the chief."
Kà ò záb nà'ab lā.	"And he's fought the chief."
Kà ṁ gว̄s ná'àb lā.	"And I've looked at the chief."
Kà ò gวิs 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 gวิs ná'àb lā.	"He didn't look at the chief."

Intrinsic tones with negative polarity:

Ò pū záb nà'ab láa.	"He hasn't fought the chief."
Ò pū gɔ̄s 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":

 $D\bar{a}\mu$ $l\bar{a}$ $k\bar{a}$ ' $n\bar{a}$ ' $ab\bar{a}$ + ϕ . "The man isn't a chief." Man:SG ART NEG.BE chief:SG NEG.

Intrinsic tones in subordinate clauses, without independency marking:

Ò yá' zàb nà'ab lā.	"If he fights the chief."	
Ò yá' gōs ná'àb lā.	"If he looks at the chief."	
Źn zàb nà'ab 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:

Ѝ záb ná'àb lā.	"I've fought the chief."
Ò zàb ná'àb lā.	"He's fought the chief."
Ѝ gós ná'àb lā.	"I've looked at the chief."
Ò gòs ná'àb lā.	"He's looked at the chief."
Ò sà zàb ná'àb lā.	"He fought the chief yesterday."
Ò sà gòs ná'àb lā.	"He looked at the chief yesterday."

Tone overlay in content clauses, which have independency marking <u>26.2</u>:

Bùŋ-bāň'ad $z\overline{\iota}$ ' $y\overline{\varepsilon}$ $t\overline{\varepsilon}\eta$ $t\'ull\overline{a}$ + ϕ . Donkey-rider:SG NEG.KNOW that ground:SG be.hot NEG. "The donkey-rider doesn't know the ground is hot." ($T\overline{\varepsilon}\eta$ túl. "The ground is hot." $t\overline{\upsilon}l^{|a|}$ "be hot")

Bà yèl yé ò zàb ná'àb lā.
3PL say that 3AN fight chief:sg ART.
"They say he's fought the chief."

Examples for the M of the final host mora before liaison, using the verbs $b\partial d_{i}g^{\epsilon}$ "lose", $y\bar{a}d_{i}g^{\epsilon}$ "scatter" and the clitics m^{a} "me" ba^{+} "them": Intrinsic tones:

bòdıgı m ^a	bòdıgıdī m ^{a/} (ipfv)	bòdıgı bā+/
yādıgí m ^a	<i>yādıgídī m^{a/}</i> (ipfv)	yādıgí bā+/

After tone overlay:

bòdıgī m ^{a/}	bòdıgıdī m ^{a/}	bòdıgī bá+
yàdıgī m ^{a/}	yàdıgıdī m ^{a/}	yàgıdī bá+

Before a liaison word with initial fixed-L toneme 8.3.1: contrast

	Bà kὺυdī bá. 3PL kill:IPFV 3PL.OB.	"They kill them."
with	Bà kùudí bà būus. 3PL kill:IPFV 3PL goat:PL.	"They kill their goats."
and	Bà gòs·ō_ø. 3pl look.at 3an.ob.	"They looked at her."
with	<i>Bà gòsú_ ò bīig.</i> 3P∟ look.at 3AN child:sg.	"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 $\underline{8.3}$.

However, the *third* persons $\partial l \dot{l} b \dot{a}$ are never followed by M spreading when the following VP has independency marking.

Examples with zab^{ϵ} "fight" $g\bar{j}s^{\epsilon}$ "look at" $naab^{a}$ "chief": Without independency marking (sequential clause <u>22.2.1</u>):

Kà ṁ záb nà'ab lā.	"And I've fought the chief."
Kà ò záb nà'ab lā.	"And he's fought the chief."
Kà ṁ gว̄s ná'àb lā.	"And I've looked at the chief."
Kà ò gɔ̃s ná'àb lā.	"And he's looked at the chief."

With independency marking:

Ѝ záb ná'àb lā.	"I've fought the chief."
Ò zàb ná'àb lā.	"He's fought the chief."
À gós ná'àb lā.	"I've looked at the chief."
Ò gòs ná'àb lā.	"He's looked at the chief."

Verb phrases

The first and second person bound subject pronouns *are* followed by M spreading before a VP with independency marking, *unless* they are immediately preceded by $y\bar{\varepsilon}$ "that" (here introducing a content clause <u>26.2</u>):

Ò tèň'ɛs 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 m̀ 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* y*è*l **y***é m* **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 VP has irrealis mood, or there is a preverbal particle carrying a M toneme:

Ò kò zāb ná'àb láa ⁺ø.
 3AN NEG.IRR fight chief:sG ART NEG.
 "He will not fight the chief."

Ò *lɛɛ* dāa záb nà'ab lā.
3AN but TNS fight chief:sg ART.
"But he did fight the chief."

Ò yèl yé m̀ 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 $l\dot{\epsilon}\epsilon$ "but", a preverb, or any particle with M toneme. Similarly, they are absent when the VP 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 is followed by the enclitic particle $y\bar{a}^+$. 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.

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 7.4.

Lì	bòdıg	yā.	"It's got lost."
3INAN	get.los	t PFV.	
~			
Li	bódig	yàa +ø?	"Has it got lost?"
3inan get.lost pfv pq?			

The phrase-final constraint on the appearance of $y\bar{a}^+$ may show that a final element has been extraposed <u>28.3</u>:

Ya yidigya bɛdegʊ. Yà yídìg yā bɛ́dʊgʊ̄. 2PL go.astray PFV much.	"You are very much mistaken." (Mk 12:27)
<i>À pú'òs yā bédvgū.</i> 1sg greet PFV much. Further examples:	"Thank you very much."
<i>Sāa ní yā.</i> Rain:sg rain pfv.	"It has rained."
<i>Ò zàb yā.</i> 3an fight pfv.	"She's fought."

Ò sà zàb yā.
3AN TNS fight PFV.

À téň'ès kà lì lù yā. 1SG think and 3INAN fall PFV.

But *Ò zàbī m.* 3AN fight 1SG.OB.

> Ò gòsī m. BAN look.at 15G.OB.

Sāa dāa ní. Rain:sg tns rain.

Ò dāa záb. 3AN TNS fight.

Ò nà zāb. 3AN IRR fight.

Kà òzáb.And 3AN fight.

Kàòḡs.And 3AN look.

Ò pū zábē +ø.
3AN NEG.IND fight NEG.

Ò pū gɔ̄sε +ø.
 3AN NEG.IND look NEG.

Ò gìm. Ò mì'. Ò nòŋ. "She's looked."

"She fought (yesterday.)"

"I think it's fallen down." (content clause)

"He's fought me." (not final)

"He's looked at me." (not final)

"It rained." (M preverbal particle)

"He fought." (M preverbal particle)

"She'll fight." (irrealis mood)

"And he fought." (no independency marking)

"And he looked." (no independency marking)

"He's not fought." (negative polarity)

"He's not looked." (negative polarity)

"She's short." (stative) "She knows." (stative) "She loves him." (stative)

19.6.2.2 Imperative -*m*^a

Imperatives of dual-aspect verbs carrying the independency-marking tone overlay adopt the flexion $-m^a 11.1$.

Gòsım!	"Look!"
Gɔ̀sımī m! Look:imp isg.ob!	"Look at me!"
Gòsīm.	"Look at me!" vowel absorbed 3
Gòsımí fò nú'ùg! Look:IMP 25G hand:sg!	"Look at your hand!"
Gòsím fò nú'ùg!	id with ι -vowel absorbed
Dì'əm!	"Receive!"
Dì'əmī Ø! Receive:IMP 2PL.SUB!	"Receive ye!"
Dì'əmī-ní bā! Receive:IMP-2PL.SUB 3PL.OB!	"Receive ye them!"
Dì'əmī-n·óø! Receive:imp-2pl.sub 3an.ob!	"Receive ye her!"
Dì'əmī-ní àlá! Receive:IMP-2PL.SUB ADV:thus!	"Keep ye on receiving!" <u>19.4</u>
Dā gɔ̃sε +ø! NEG.IMP look NEG!	"Don't look!" (negative polarity)
<i>Kèl kà ò gɔ̃s!</i> Cause:ımp and 3AN look!	"Let her look!" (No independency marking: subordinate)
Kèm nā n gōs! Come:IMP hither CAT look!	"Come and look!" (No independency marking: subordinate)

But

Dòllī_ m!	"Follow me!" (single-aspect verb)
Follow 1sg.ob!	
Dòllī-ní m!	"Follow ye me!"

19.7 Clitics bound to the verb

Follow-2pl.sub 1sg.ob!

Clitic subject pronouns 16.3.1 are bound to the verb, to the extent that they are involved in the tonal manifestations of independency marking 19.6.1.2.

(-ní- for -ya *na before liaison 8.2.3)

19.7.1 Lèe "but"

l ϵ "but" precedes even tense particles, but like a preverb, and unlike a post-subject particle <u>21.2.3</u>, it prevents the independency-marking tone overlay from falling on the verb, and is then itself followed by M spreading:

 Kà ò lέε 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 pi̯àň'ad lā lɛ́ε kỳ gāadɛ +ø. And 1sg speech ART but NEG.IRR pass NEG. "But my words will not pass away. (Mt 24:35, 1996)
Bà lὲε záb nà'ab lā."But they've fought the chief." WK3PL but fight chief:SG ART.
Kà bà lέε zàb nà'ab lā."But they've fought the chief." WKAnd 3PL but fight chief:SG ART.
<i>L</i> έε záb nà'ab 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

 Lée lemini o na am so olim la...

 Lèε 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*έε ḡs ná'àb lā. But look.at chief:sg ART.

19.7.2 Preverbs

Preverbs follow all other preverbal particles. All carry the independencymarking tone overlay in place of the following main verb (cf $l\dot{\epsilon}\epsilon$ "but" <u>19.7.1</u>.) Those derived from verbs show a suffix -*m*- <u>13.1.4</u>.

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.

Kà ò lém zàb nà'ab lā. "And he's fought the chief again." And 3AN again fight chief:SG ART.

Ò pū lém zàb nà'ab láa ⁺ø.
3AN NEG.IND again fight chief:sg ART NEG.
"He hasn't fought the chief again."

Ò nà lām záb nà'ab lā. "He'll fight the chief again." 3AN IRR again fight chief:sg ART.

 \dot{M} nīf lém zábìd nē. "My eye is hurting again." 1SG eye:sG again fight FOC. kpɛ̀lım "still" with a following imperfective; "immediately afterwards" before a perfective (compare Latin continuo "immediately.") It occurs also as a main verb "remain, still be." KB has the reduced form kpɛ̀n.

Ka o kpelim zu'om. Kà ò kpέlìm zū'θm. And 3AN immediately go.blind. "Immediately he went blind." (Acts 13:11, 1996: KB Ka o kpɛn zu'om.)

m biig Josef nan kpɛn vve.
m̀ bīig Josef nán kpɛ̀n vve.
1sc child:sc Joseph still still be.alive.
"My child Joseph is still alive." (Genesis 45:28)

 $l\dot{a}$ 'am "together" (cf $l\dot{a}$ 'as^{ϵ} "gather"); as a main verb $l\dot{a}$ 'am^m is "associate with."

ka nidib wusa da la'am kpi nε o. kà nīdιb wūsa dá là'am kpì nέ ò. and person:PL all TNS together die with 3AN. "so all people died together with him." (2 Cor 5:14)

dèŋım "beforehand" (cf $den j^{\epsilon}$ "go, do first": m den j l f "I've got there before you." $Den j^{\epsilon}$ is used with the same meaning in *n*-catenation <u>23.2</u>.)

Pin'ilugun sa ka Pian'ad la da pun dɛŋim bɛ.
Pīň'ilúgū-n sá kà Pi̯àň'ad lā dá pùn dɛ̀ŋım bɛ̀.
Beginning:SG-LOC hence and word:SG ART TNS already beforehand EXIST.
"In the beginning, the Word already existed beforehand." (Jn 1:1)

màlıgım "again" (cf Toende Kusaal malig "do again")

Amaa man pian'ad la kv maligim gaadε. Àmáa m̀ pi̯àň'ad lā kú mālıgım gáadē +ø. But 1SG speech ART NEG.IRR again pass NEG. "But my words will not pass away. (Mt 24:35) tì "after" occurs often in *n*-catenation; for *hālí tì pāa* ... "up until" see <u>21.2.1</u>.
If the next following VP in the same clause or series of coordinated clauses is perfective, there is disturbance of the usual iconic alignment of VPs with event order <u>19.2.1</u>, with *tì* corresponding to English "before."

hali ka Herod ti kpi. "Until Herod had died." (Mt 2:15)
hālí kà Herod tí kpì.
Until and Herod after die.
Kèm_ø tí ňyē du'átà. "Go to see the doctor." SB
Go:IMP CAT after see doctor:sg.

Bεogυ ti nied la ka ba gaad! Bε̄ogύ ø tì nìəd lá kà bà gáàd. Morning NZ after appear: IPFV ART and 3PL pass. "Before morning appears they have passed!" (Isaiah 17:14)

19.7.3 Liaison enclitics

Liaison enclitics precede all other verb phrase complements and also precede the focus particle $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ in all its senses. There are two slots, and a verb may have two successive liaison enclitics.

The first slot may be occupied by one of the two clitics y^a "2pl subject of direct command" <u>22.1.3</u> or discontinuous-past n^{ϵ} <u>24.1.1</u>; there are no circumstances in which they might occur together. The two clitics are tonally alike, changing the toneme of the last preceding host vowel mora to M, and themselves having 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 both non-contrastive direct and indirect object pronouns without ellipsis are expressed by *n*-catenation using tis^{ϵ} "give" <u>23.2</u>.

19.8 Complements

"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.

19.8.1 Transitivity and objects

Indirect objects precede direct, and objects precede other complements, except in cases of extraposition due to weight <u>28.3</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 kū nīdá ⁺ø, dā zūudá ⁺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**:

Ò $p\bar{v}$ zámm ⁺ø. "She didn't cheat him/her." 3AN NEG.IND cheat NEG.

Transitive single-aspect verbs which do not take locative complements are all obligatory transitives. Thus with $\partial e n^a$ "be something/somehow":

Mānı g áň dụ'átà àmáa fūn pū áňyā +g. 1SG.CNTR CAT COP doctor:SG but 2SG.CNTR NEG.IND COP NEG. "I'm a doctor but you aren't."

Mānı gáň 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."

Particular cases of null anaphora appear with direct objects preposed with $k\dot{a}$ 28.2 25.3.2 based on adnominal $k\dot{a}$ -catenation 23.3.

In replies to questions and reponses to commands, null anaphora of complements may refer to an antecedent in the previous speaker's words:

310		Verb phrases	19.8.1
Q.	<i>Fù mór gbāun láa</i> + <i>ø?</i> 2sg have letter:sg ART pq?	"Do you have the letter?"	
A.	Ēεň, ṁ mźr. Yes, 1sg have.	"Yes, I have it."	
Q.	Fù bʻəd·ó-o +ø? 25g want-3an.ob pq?	"Do you love her?"	
A.	Áyì <i>i, m̀ pū bɔ́ɔdā +ø.</i> No, 1sg neg.ind want neg.	"No, I don't love her."	

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

banε zuud nidibi gban'ad bànι zūud nīdιbι 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) כחו 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:

Fò túm bó-tòuma +ø? "What work do you do?"
25G work:IPFV what-work cQ?
Ka ya ninkuda 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

Verb phrases

yò+	"close"	nāe+/	"finish"
zà'mıs٤	"learn/teach"	nā'mเs ^{ɛ/}	"suffer/make suffer"
bòdιg ^ε	"lose, get lost"	bàs ^ε	"go/send away"
dūe+/	"raise/rise"	mā'e+/	"get cool"

Many, though not all, patientive ambitransitive verbs express a change of state and can use the perfective form in a resultative sense 19.2.1:

Ѝ náa tūvma lā.	"I've finished the work."
1SG finish work ART.	
Tūvma lā náa nē.	"The work is finished."
Work ART finish FOC.	

Almost any verb can potentially take an indirect object expressing benefit, interest etc (this could lead to ambiguity in principle):

Ò dùgū_m. ЗАN cook 1SG.OB.	"He cooked (for) me."
Lì màlısī m. 3INAN be.sweet 15G.0B.	"I like it." ("It's sweet for me.")
Àláafù bée bá. Health EXIST 3PL.OB.	"They are well." ("Health exists for them.")

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 $dics^{\epsilon}$ "feed" $n\bar{u}los^{\epsilon}$ "give to drink."

Ѝ tís ná'àb lā dāká.	"I've given the chief a box."
1SG give chief:SG ART box:SG.	
<i>À tís ná'àb lā.</i> 1sg give chief:sg art.	"I've given it to the chief."
* <i>Ň tís dāká.</i> <i>Ň tís∙ō_ø dāká.</i> 1sg give зам.ов box:sg.	impossible as "I've given him a box", which is

Verb phrases

 $D\bar{a}$ $t(s \cdot \dot{o} \otimes s \vec{r} = a + \omega$."Don't give her anything!"NEG.IMP give3AN.OB INDF.INAN NEG. $D\bar{a}$ $t(s\bar{z} + \omega)$ "Don't give it to her!"NEG.IMP give NEG."I've given it to him." \dot{M} $t(s \ y \bar{a}.$ "I've given it to him."1SG give PFV.1SG"I've given it to him."

Certain verbs take a fixed direct object as a set idiom after an indirect object which expresses the functional object, e.g. *kàd* X *sàríyà* "judge X", *mɔ̄r* X *nīn-báalìg* or *z*ɔ̀ X *nīn-báalìg* "have pity on X", *nìŋ* X *yàddā* "believe X, believe in X", *z*ɔ̀ X *dàbīəm* "fear X", *si̯àk* X *nɔ̄ɔr* "obey X", *ňwɛ̀*' X *nú*'ù*g* "make an agreement with X."

Wina'am na kad nidib poten'esua'ada saria.
Wínà'am ná kād nīdıb 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)

 \dot{O} $z\dot{z}t\cdot\bar{o}$ ø nīn-báalìg. "She has pity on him." 3AN feel:IPFV 3AN.OB eye-pity.

Bà zòt·ō_∅ dábīəm. "They are afraid of him." 3PL feel:IPFV 3AN.OB fear.

Bà nìŋ $\cdot \bar{o} agettimes agets a$

Ò ňwɛ̀' ná'àb lā nú'ùg. "He made an agreement with the king." 3AN strike king:sg ART hand:sg.

19.8.1.1 Passives

For passive meaning expressed by an empty $b\dot{a}$ "they" as subject see <u>16.2.3</u>. 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:

<i>À nú dāam lā.</i> 1sg drink beer ART.	"I've drunk the beer."
Dāam lā nú yā. Beer art drink pfv.	"The beer has got drunk."
It is not needible to even and	an agant with passives

It is not possible to express an agent with passives. Indirect objects cannot become passive subjects:

	Dāká lā tís yā.	"The box was given."
	Box:sg art give PFV.	
but	*Nà'ab lā tís yā. Chief:sg art give pfv.	not possible in sense "The chief was given (it.)"

Stative verbs cannot be used as passives. Even with dynamic verbs, **passives** can only express punctual events <u>28.1.2.1.2</u>.

The verb $s\bar{b}b^{\epsilon}$ "write" is a specialised usage of $s\bar{b}b^{\epsilon}$ "make/go dark", and is patientive ambitransitive. It can form a resultative; the imperfective $s\bar{b}ld^{a/}$ seems to accept intransitive use only when some adverbial modification is present.

Gbàỵŋ	lā sób	yā.	"The letter has been written."
Letter:so	g art write	PFV.	
Gbàỵŋ	lā sób	nē.	"The letter is written."
Letter:so	g art write	FOC.	
Gbàna	sźbìd	zīná.	"Letters get written today." WK
Letter:PL	write:IPFV	' today.	

Gbàuŋ lā sóbìd súŋā. "The letter is writing well (i.e. easily.)" WK Letter:sg ART write:IPFV good:ADV.

19.8.1.2 Middle use of intransitives

The assume-stance verbs 13.1.1, rather than the make-assume-stance series, are often used transitively for parts of one's own body:

Lìgıním_fò nīf nế fò nú'ùg. Cover:IMP 2SG eye:SG with 2SG hand:SG. "Cover your eye with your hand." Verb phrases

Thus	Dìgıním	fù	nú'ùg.	"Put your hand down." is commoner than	
	Lie.down:IM	P 250	hand:sg.		

Dìgılím fừ nú'ùg. "Put your hand down." Lay.down:IMP 25G hand:sG.

Similarly $n i e^+$ "appear" is usually intransitive, corresponding to transitive $n \epsilon \epsilon l^{\epsilon}$ "reveal", but $n i e^+$ is much more frequent than $n \epsilon \epsilon l^{\epsilon}$ before $\delta m \epsilon n^{a/}$ "him/herself" etc.

Ka o nie o mɛŋ Jemes san'an ...
Kà ò níe ò mɛŋ Jemes sá'àn ...
And зам appear зам self James among ...
And he revealed himself to James (1 Cor 15:7)

19.8.2 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:

Kɛl ka m liebi fu tumtum yinne.
Kɛ̀l kà m líəbì fù tùm-tūm yīnní.
Cause:IMP and 1sg become 2sg work-worker:sg one.
"Make me [become] one of your servants" (Lk 15:19); dynamic lìəb^ɛ

À á né fù tùm-tūm. "I am your servant."; stative àeňa 1SG COP FOC 2SG work-worker:SG.

 $A e \check{n}^a$ "be something/somehow" takes a predicative complement, and typically has a derived manner-adverb or abstract noun as complement rather than an adjective as NP head <u>20.2</u>.

Some 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."

Ka fu na 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 pvd biig la yv'vr 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 $b\dot{u}e^{\epsilon}$ "call, call out, summon" can be used in the ipfv with an object expressing the person and the name as a complement, again often introduced by $y\bar{\epsilon}$:

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 with $y\bar{\upsilon}'\upsilon r^{\epsilon/}$ "name" as subject and the name itself as complement:

dau sɔ' ka o yv'vr buon Joon. dàu̯-sɔ́' kà ò yṻ'vr búèn Joon. man-INDF.AN and 3AN name:SG call:IPFV John. "a man [habitually <u>28.1.2.1.2]</u> called John." (Jn 1:6)

 $M \dot{a} a l^{\epsilon}$ "make" is used with object and resultative predicative complement in

Ka o maal o meŋ nintita'ar.
Kà ò máàl ò mēŋ nīn-títā'ar.
And 3AN make 3AN self person-great:SG.
"He made himself out to be a great man." (Acts 8:9. 1976)

The 1996 NT version has instead

Ka o du'osi o meŋ ye o ane nintita'ar.
Kà ò dū'osí ò mɛŋ yé ò à nɛ 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 *kà*-catenation <u>23.3</u> can appear as a resultative predicate.

Verb phrases

19.8.3 Locatives

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.

M yí Bòk. "I left Bawku."
ISG emerge Bawku.
M yí yā. "I've left [there]."
ISG emerge PFV.

Others do not; so with single-aspect verbs which take locative complements, and also e.g. $k\bar{\epsilon}\eta^{\epsilon/}$ "go, walk" $digin^{\epsilon}$ "lie down" $d\bar{\iota}gil^{\epsilon/}$ "lay down":

...ka pv tun'e kenna.. ...kà pv̄ tūň'e ø kēnná ⁺ø. ...and NEG.IND be.able CAT go:IPFV NEG. "who couldn't walk." (Acts 14:8)

but *Ò k≿ŋ Bók.* "She's gone to Bawku." 3AN go Bawku.

Ò dìgın yā. "He's lain down." 3AN lie.down PFV.

but Diginim kpē! "Lie down here!" Lie.down:IMP here!

> *Ò dìgıl gbáuŋ lā.* "She's put the book down." 3AN lay.down book:sg ART.

but Ò dìgιl gbáỵŋ lā tέεbòl lā zúg. 3AN lay.down book:sg ART table:sg ART upon. "She's put the book on the table."

Wínà'am bź.	"God exists."
God exist.	
Àláafù bÉ∙o_ø.	"He's well." ("Health exists for him.")
Health exist gan.ob.	Indirect object but no complement.

19.8.3

but $D\bar{a}\mu$ $l\bar{a}$ $b\epsilon$ $n\bar{\epsilon}$ $d\delta$ - $kan\bar{a}$ $l\bar{a}$ $p\delta vg\bar{v}$ -n. Man:sg ART EXIST FOC hut-DEM.DEI.SG ART inside:sg-LOC. "The man is inside that hut."

19.8.4 Prepositional phrases

 $W\bar{\epsilon}n^{na/}$ "resemble" usually takes a phrase introduced by $n\bar{\epsilon}$ or $w\bar{\upsilon}\upsilon$ <u>18</u>.

Ka o nindaa wenne nintaŋ 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)

 $L\bar{a}|^{|a|}$ "be far" usually takes a phrase introduced by $n\bar{\epsilon}$:

Amaa o pv lal nε tii. Àmáa ò pv̄ lāl nέ tīι +ø. But 35G NEG.IND be.far with 1PL NEG. "But he is not far from us." (Acts 17:27)

 $D5l^{|a|}$ "accompany" with the preposition $n\bar{\epsilon}$ means "be in accordance with":

Li dɔlnɛ lin sɔb Wina'am gbauŋʋn si'em la ye ... Lì dɔ̀l nɛ̄ lín sɔ̄b Wínà'am gbáu̯ŋʋ̄-n sī'əm lā yɛ̄ ... 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)

The preposition $n\bar{\epsilon}$ can be distinguished from focus- $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ <u>28.1.2</u> by contexts where focus is prohibited. $Y\bar{i}^+$ "emerge" does not take a prepositional phrase:

M yí nē Bók. "I come from Bawku." SB 1SG emerge FOC Bawku.

Yadda niŋir yitnε labaar la wummug ni.Yàddā-níŋìryítnē lábāar lā wúmmug ní.Assent-doing emerge:IPFV FOC newsART hearingLOC."Faith comes from hearing the news."(Rom 10:17)

but Meeri one yi Magdala "Mary who came from Magdala" Meeri ónì yī Magdala (Mk 16:9, 1996) Mary RELAN emerge Magdala

Verb phrases

19.8.5 Clauses

Certain verbs require a following subordinate clause introduced by $k\dot{a}$ or $y\bar{\epsilon}$. They include like $k\bar{\epsilon}^+$ "let", mit "let not", $n\bar{a}r^{a/}$ "be obliged to." Of these, $k\bar{\epsilon}^+$ does not appear at all without a following $k\dot{a}$ -catenation, while if $n\bar{a}r^{a/}$ appears without a purpose clause there is a necessarily anaphoric sense; mit appears with a NP object in the sense "beware of..." <u>19.5.1</u>.

The verb *bɔ̀ɔd*^a "want, love" takes a 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 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 $s\bar{r} \rightarrow m$, or a postpositional AdvP with $y\bar{\epsilon}l\dot{a}$ "about." Most such verbs have an anaphoric sense without such an object.

The verb $\dot{a}en$ ^a "be something/somehow", which is uniquely flexible in the variety of different types of argument it may appear with, may take a content clause introduced by $y\bar{e}$ as a complement too <u>20.2</u>.

19.9 Adjuncts

Adjuncts of all types occur as the last element in the VP. Several VP adjuncts may occur together. Clause-final adjuncts are always taken as VP adjuncts in this grammar, while clause-level adjuncts must precede the subject <u>21.2.1</u>.

VP adjuncts may be AdvPs, prepositional phrases, or subordinate clauses.

Bà dìt nē sā'ab dó-kàŋā lā púvgō-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 bóòd bó +ø?	"What do you want?"
2SG want what co?	
Μ̀ bó̀̀̀d yέ fù kūl.	"I want you to go home."
1SG want that 2SG go.home.	

Content clauses <u>26.2</u> are always complements:

Bùŋ-bāň'ad zī' yē tēŋ túllā +ø. Donkey-rider:sg NEG.KNOW that ground:sg be.hot NEG. "The donkey-rider doesn't know the ground is hot."

19.10 Verb-phrase-final particles

For the independent-perfective marker $y\bar{a}^+$ see <u>19.6.2.1</u>.

The particles $n\bar{a}^{+/}$ "hither" and $s\dot{a}^{+}$ "hence; ago" follow any complements. The verb $k\bar{\epsilon}n^{+}$ "come" is invariably used with $n\bar{a}^{+/}$; the imperative SF $k\dot{\epsilon}m$, which coincides for $k\bar{\epsilon}n^{+}$ "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:

M̀ 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?"

Fò yí yáa ní ná +*ø*? 2sg emerge where Loc hither cq? "Where have you come from?" WK

Sà⁺ is often used temporally, for "since" or "ago":

Fu na baŋ li nya'aŋ sa.
Fù ná báŋ lì ňyá'aŋ sá.
2SG 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." (Jn 11:17)

The particles are VP-final, not clause-final:

Kèmnāng5s."Come and look!" SBCome:IMP hither CAT look.

Man ya'a pv kεεn na tu'asini ba ...
Mān yá' pv kēε-n nā ø tú'asī-ní bā...
ISG.CNTR if NEG.IND come-DP hither CAT talk-DP 3PL.OB...
"If I had not come to talk to them ..." (Jn 15:22)

19.10

 $N\bar{a}^{+/}$ and $s\dot{a}^{+}$ often follow any article $|\bar{a}^{+/}|$ ending an \dot{n} -clause containing them:

ba diib n yit na'ateŋ 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)

Closely parallel constructions may show either *nā lā* or *lā nā*:

ňwādıg-kánì kēn nā lā month REL.SG come:IPFV hither ART "next month" SB

dunia kanε ken **la na** dūnıyá-kànı kēn lā nā world-REL.SG come:IPFV ART hither "the world which is coming" (Lk 20:35)

M diib ane ye m tum one tumi m **la na** boodim naae. \dot{M} dī b á nē yé m túm one tumi m lā nā boodim mae. ISG food COP FOC that ISG work RELAN send ISG.OB ART hither will CAT finish. My food is that I do the will of him who sent me completely. (Jn 4:34)

ti tum onε tum man **na la** tuuma. tì túm ònι tùm mān nā lā tūuma 1PL work REL.AN send 1SG.CNTR hither ART work "Let us do the work of him who sent me." (Jn 9:4)

VP-final particles can also follow the *gerund* of a verb which is associated with such a particle, and again may follow the associated article:

Nidib la daa gur Zakaria yiib na.Nīdıblā dāa gūrZakariayîbnā.Person:PL ART TNSwatch Zechariah emerge:GER hither."The people were watching for Zechariah's coming out." (Lk 1:21)

Ninsaal Biig la lɛbvg la na Nīn-sáàl Bîig lā lɛ́bòg lā nā Person-smooth:sg Child:sg ART return:ger ART hither "the return of the Son of Man" (Mt 24:27)

20 The verbs "to be"

20.1 $B\dot{\epsilon}^+$ "be somewhere, exist"

 $B\dot{\epsilon}^+$ is followed by M spreading even when not carrying the independencymarking tone overlay; it is formally as well as semantically imperfective.

With no locative $b\dot{\epsilon}^+$ means simply "exist":

Wínà'am bế. God Exis		"God exists." (Calque of the West African Pidgin <i>God dey,</i> implying "It'll all work out in the end.")
Àláafù bέ·ο Health εχιςτ		"She's well." ("Health exists for her.")
<i>Wāad</i> Cold.weathe	<i>bέ.</i> εr εχιςτ.	"It's cold."

Before a locative, $b\dot{\epsilon}^+$ means "be located in a place" when the locative is focussed or foregrounded <u>28.1</u>, but "exist in a place" otherwise:

Mam bene moogin."I'm in the bush." BNY p8Mām bé nē mōɔgʋ-n.ISG.CNTR EXIST FOC grass:SG-LOC.

Moogin ka mam bε."I'm in the bush." BNY p10Mōɔgύ-nkà mām bέ.Grass:sg-Loc and 1sg.CNTR EXIST.

Dāu lā bé nē dó-kàŋā lā púugū-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?")

Dàu-sɔ̄' bɛ́ dɔ́-kàŋā lā púʋgū-n. Man-INDF.AN EXIST hut-DEM.DEI.SG ART inside:SG-LOC. "There's a certain man in that hut."

 $B\dot{\epsilon}^+$ is common in presentational constructions <u>28.4</u>. For the corresponding negative $k\bar{a}'e^+$ see <u>19.5.1</u>. * $p\bar{v}$ $b\dot{\epsilon}$ is not used. $B\dot{\epsilon}^+$ plays a rôle analogous to a "passive" to $m\bar{\sigma}r^{a/}$ "have" in constructions like: *M bīig bέ.* "I have a child."; equivalent to 1SG child:SG EXIST.

M̀ mór bīig. 1sg have child:sg.

 \dot{M} $b\bar{i}ig$ $k\bar{a}'e^{+}\phi$. "I have no child."; equivalent to 1SG child:SG NEG.BE NEG.

 \dot{M} $k\bar{a}$ ' $b\bar{i}iga$ + ø. 1SG NEG.HAVE child:SG NEG.

 $B\dot{\epsilon}^+$ can be used in direct commands:

Bέε ànínā."Be (i.e. stay) there!" SBEXIST ADV:there.

Bεe-n(*àlá ànínā.* "Be ye there!" [bε:nala anina] EXIST-2PL.SUB ADV:thus ADV:there.

20.2 Àeňa "be something/somehow"

3INAN COP good:ADV.

The \underline{e} of the SF of $\underline{a}\underline{e}n^a$ is always lost except on the rare occurrence of the word phrase-finally <u>8.5.2</u>.

Ò à n <i>ī bīig</i> .	"She is a child."
SAN COP FOC child:SG.	
Lì àň súŋā.	"It's good."

but *Mānı ø áň du'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 $k\bar{a}'e^+$ "not be":

 \dot{M} $k\bar{a}'$ $d\mu' \dot{a}t\bar{a}a$ $+ \phi$. "I'm not a doctor." 1SG NEG.BE doctor:SG NEG.

However, *po áeň* can occur, for example in contrasts:

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Mānı g áň du'átà àmáa fūn pū áňyā +*g*. 1SG.CNTR CAT COP doctor:SG but 2SG.CNTR NEG.IND COP NEG. "I'm a doctor but you aren't."

Àň bāaňlím!"Be quiet!"COP quiet:ABSTR!

Āa-níàlábāaňlím!"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 $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ 28.1.2.2 if permitted 28.1.2.1.1 28.1.2.1.3:

Ò à nē bīig. "She is a child."
3AN COP FOC child:sG.
Ò à nē bíigàa +ø? "Is she a child?"
3AN COP FOC child:sG PQ?

In **specifying** constructions focus frequently falls on the subject, which usually then has *n*-focus 28.1.1:

Manε an kɔnbkem svŋ la. Mānı ø áň kóňb-kìm-sòŋ lā. 1SG.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)

 Mānı_ ø áň·o_ø.

 ISG.CNTR CAT COP 3AN.OB.

 Nɛ'ɛŋa an Yesu [...] yaanam yɛla. Nɛ̄'ŋá àň Yesu [...] yáa-nám yɛ́là. DEM.DEI.INAN COP Jesus [...] ancestor-PL about. "This is the account of Jesus' ancestors." (Mt 1:1)

When the complement of $\partial e \check{n}^a$ is definite, the construction is usually specifying, with the subject in focus:

	<i>À á nē dụ'átà.</i> 1SG COP FOC doctor:SG.	"I'm a doctor." ("What do you do?") Ascriptive.
but	Mānı øáň dự'átà lā. 1sg.cntr cat cop doctor:sg art.	"I'm the doctor." ("Which one is the doctor?") Specifying.

However, definite complements may be in focus as "pragmatically non-recoverable" because of their internal structure or other factors: see <u>28.1.2.2</u>.

 $A \not\in n^a$ 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 <u>17.5</u>:

Zīná a nē dá'a. "Today [time] is market." Today COP FOC market:sg.

Yiŋ venl, ka poogin ka'a su'um.
Yìŋ véňl kà pōυgυ-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 noŋi ya si'em la ane bedego.
Mán nòŋı yā sī əm lā á nē bédugū.
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 $|\bar{a}^{+/}|$ is permitted, but no other dependents apart from ideophones <u>16.11.1.3</u>.

Lì à nĒ píəlìg.	"It's white, a white one."
Lì à nĒ píəlìg fáss.	"It's very white."
Bà à nĒ píəlà.	"They're white."

The verbs "to be"

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 <u>16.11.1.5</u>.) More often, compounds with $n\bar{n}$ -"person" or $b\bar{o}n$ - "thing" + adjective <u>16.10.4</u> are used:

Ò	à	nē	nīn-súŋ.	"She's a good person."
3AN	СОР	FOC	person-good:sg.	
Dīı	b á	i r	ายิ bบิท-รบ์ทุ.	"Food is a good thing."
Food COP FOC thing-good:sg.				g

Even adjectives which may appear without a noun head cannot do so before a postdeterminer pronoun; thus only

Lì à nĒ būn-píàl-kàŋā. "It is this white one."

 $\dot{A}\underline{e}\check{n}^{a}$ often takes a manner-adverb or deadjectival abstract noun as complement. Such constructions are ascriptive, and use $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ where syntactically permissible:

"It's easy."					
"It's empty."					
"It's soft."					
3INAN COP FOC soft:ADV.					
"It's good." <u>28.1.2.1.3</u>					
SINAN COP good:ADV.					

Possible complements of $\dot{a}ent{n}^a$ also include circumstance-AdvPs <u>25.2</u> and even content clauses:

M diib ane ye m tum one tumi m la na boodim naae. \dot{M} dī b á nē yé m túm oni tùmi m lā nā boodim ø nāe. 15G food COP FOC that 15G work RELAN send 15G.OB ART hither will cat finish. My food is that I do the will of him who sent me completely. (Jn 4:34)

Typical clauses consist of a subject NP followed by a VP. Clause-linker particles and clause adjuncts may precede the subject position; post-subject particles may intervene between NP and VP.

21.1 Clause types

Criteria for describing a clause as **main** or **subordinate** do not always neatly align. **Independency marking** of VPs <u>19.6</u> 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 ka "and" in its *coordination* function always lack independency marking. Historically, ka was perhaps once consistently subordinating; its coordinating function may have arisen by **insubordination**, "the conventionalised main-clause use of what, on prima facie grounds, appear to be formally subordinate clauses" <u>Evans 2009</u>.

Three types of clause subordination can be distinguished: **nominalisation**, **catenation**, and **complementisation**.

	independency-marked	not independency-marked
main	main without <i>kà</i> <u>22</u>	<i>kà</i> coordinated main <u>22.2</u> (<i>kà</i> sequential <u>22.2.1</u>)
complementised	yē/kà content <u>26.2</u>	yē/kà purpose <u>26.1</u>
catenated		n/kà catenation <u>23</u>
nominalised		ὴ absolute/relative <u>25</u> yà' conditional <u>24.1</u>

Main and content clauses can be statements, questions or commands. Kàpreposing is found only in these clause types and in relative clauses with initial antecedents <u>25.3.2</u>. Only (non-sequential) main clauses and content clauses may lack VPs altogether.

Clause types marked by the post-subject particles \dot{n} and $y\dot{a}'$ are nominalised. They are unproblematically subordinate, and always lack independency marking. They differ from catenated and purpose clauses in having independent tense marking. $Y\dot{a}'$ -clauses and $s\bar{a}d\iota g(m)$ -clauses only appear as postlinker clause adjuncts, do not participate in NP or VP formation, and cannot be coordinated. Otherwise, \dot{n} -clauses are coordinated with $n\bar{\epsilon}$ like other AdvPs and NPs, whereas all other clauses are coordinated with $k\dot{a}$:

... pa'ali ba [on daa nyɛ Zugsɔb la suorin, **ka** o pian' tis o si'em], nɛ [Saul n mɔɔl Yesu yɛla nɛ svnkpi'euŋ Damaskus teŋin si'em.] ... pá'alì bā źп dāa ňyē Zūg-sób lā sūerí-n. kà ò ... teach 3PL.OB 3AN:NZ TNS see head-one:sg ART road:sg-loc and 3AN piāň' ø tís·ò ø sī əm, nē Saul n mīsl Yesu vélà speak CAT give JAN.OB INDF.ADV with Saul NZ proclaim Jesus about nē sūň-kpí òŋ Damaskus ténī-n sī'əm. 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)

Catenated clauses lack their own subjects when introduced by the particle n, and frequently resemble serial verb constructions, but show a greater range of potential structures and functions. Catenated clauses introduced by ka have their own subjects. Catenated clauses are clearly subordinate and always lack independency marking and tense marking. Catenation involves a more intimate union between the main and subordinate clauses than complementisation; in particular, catenated clauses are part of their main clauses for focus purposes, and the main clause is frequently semantically subordinate to the catenated clause.

Complementised clauses are introduced by $y\bar{\epsilon}$ "that", or less often $k\dot{a}$, following any catenated clauses. They fall into two groups. **Purpose** clauses lack independency marking and have VPs with imperative mood; they show tense marking only if the main clause is ellipted.

M pū bóòd yé fù kēŋ Bókō +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>26.2</u> are downranked main clauses, with both independency marking and the full range of possible main clause structures. They function as complements of verbs of cognition, reporting, and perception:

Ka o ba' nε o ma pv baŋ ye o kpɛlim yaa.
Kà ò bā' nέ ò mà pv̄ báŋ yé ò kpɛlım yāa +ø.
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)

In coordinating main clauses, *kà* is never followed by independency marking. The sequential clauses of narrative are a distinct subtype <u>22.2.1</u>.

A clause must be subordinate if it precedes clause-final elements belonging to the preceding clause, such as negative prosodic clitics <u>27.1</u>:

ka pu nar **ka** ba buolim ye **Tumtumma**

kà p \bar{v} nár kà bà búəlì m y $\bar{\varepsilon}$ Túm-t \bar{v} mma ⁺ø. and NEG.IND must and 3PL call 15G.OB that work-worker:SG NEG. "and (I) ought not to be called an apostle" (1 Cor 15:9)

The structure can be obscured by extraposition <u>28.3</u>. Even a catenated clause after $k\bar{\epsilon}^+$ "cause" is unexpectedly placed after the VP-final perfective marker $y\bar{a}^+$ in

Amaa Wina'am kɛya ka ya an nɔɔr yinne nɛ Yesu Kristo.
Àmáa Wínà'am kɛ́ yá kà yà áň nɔ̄ɔr yīnní nɛ̄ 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)

Any type of subordinate clause can be embedded, potentially recursively, in any other, with the exception that complementised clauses cannot be embedded in a clause with a following catenated clause.

A catenated clause embedded in a content clause in a purpose clause:

M pv bood [ye fv ti yel beog daar [ye fvne ke [ka mam Abram lieb bvmmora.]]] \dot{M} pv bood yé fv tí yèl beog daar ye fvne ve fvne

A content clause within an absolute nominalised clause:

[ban mi' [ye biig la kpinɛ la]] zug bán mī' 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)

A *n*-catenated clause within a relative nominalised clause:

[Paul n sob gbauŋ si'a [n tis Efesus dim la]] nwa. Paul ǹ sɔ̃b gbáuŋ-sī'a n tís Efesus dím lā ø ňwá. 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)

21.2 Structure

Except in special circumstances, clauses require a subject NP, which is followed by a VP, with any post-subject particles <u>21.2.3</u> intervening.

The **clause-linker particles** $k\dot{a}$ "and" and $y\bar{\varepsilon}$ "that" are placed before the subject (which may itself be ellipted after $k\dot{a}$.) Clause-level adjuncts may precede, follow, or occupy the clause-linker position.

While $y\bar{\varepsilon}$ is invariably subordinating, $k\dot{a}$ may be coordinating or subordinating. The gloss "and" is merely conventional; $k\dot{a}$ is used in a great variety of constructions with meanings that vary considerably 23.3 22.2 26 28.2.

Kusaal is strictly SVO; deviations not achieved by ka-preposing always represent extraposition <u>28.3</u>. Indirect objects precede direct, and objects precede other complements. VP adjuncts follow complements.

Emphatics 28.6 are clause-level particles which follow top-level NPs or AdvPs.

Main clauses and content clauses have similar structures. Both display independency marking on the first VP <u>19.6</u>, and have structural possibilities not permitted to other clauses. They may also lack VPs altogether <u>22.3</u>.

21.2.1 Clause adjuncts

Clause-level adjuncts precede the subject position. They fall into three groups: prelinker adjuncts, linker adjuncts and postlinker adjuncts, which respectively precede, occupy, or follow the clause linker position.

Besides the clause-linker particles $k\dot{a}$ "and" and $y\bar{\varepsilon}$ "that" themselves, English conjunctions largely correspond to linker adjuncts and prelinker adjuncts.

Linker adjuncts do not occur along with linker particles at all. They include

"or" (← Hausa)
01 (← Hausa)
"or"
"therefore"
"therefore"
"thus"
"because"

B5 zúg5, stigmatised as an Anglicism in ILK, is in fact freely used in NT/KB for "because."

Police gbáň'a_m bɔ̄ zúgɔ́ m̀ ňwɛ́' dāu lā. Police seize 1sg.ob because 1sg hit man:sg ART. "The police arrested me because I hit the man." (ILK)

It also appears after an absolute clause, just like the postposition $z\bar{u}g^{2/}$ alone.

Prelinker adjuncts may precede but never follow linker particles.

umuu	
hālí	"until" (cf Arabic حتى ħatta:); preposition <u>18</u>
àsée	"unless" (cf Hausa <i>sai</i>); preposition
àlá zùg	"thus"

KB has no examples of ka amaa to 365 of amaa ka, one of ka $as\epsilon\epsilon$ to 247 of $as\epsilon\epsilon$ ka and 436 examples of $h\bar{a}l\epsilon$ ka but none of ka $h\bar{a}l\epsilon$ as a clause adjunct. The orders are thus almost without exception as in

Ka sieba la' o. **Amaa ka** sieba yɛl ye ... Kà sīəba lá'·o_ø. Àmáa kà sīəba yɛ́l yɛ̃ ... And INDF.PL laugh 3AN.OB. But and INDF.PL say that... "Some laughed at him, but others said..." (Acts 17:32)

Prelinker adjuncts precede $y\bar{\varepsilon}$, both as linker and "resumptive" $y\bar{\varepsilon}$ 26.2.1:

Wina'am daa pv gaŋi ti ye ti tvm dian'ad tvvma, amaa ye ti bɛ nyain.
Wínà'am dāa pv gāŋí tī yé tì túm diā'ad túvmà +ø,
God TNS NEG.IND choose IPL.OB that IPL work dirt work NEG,
àmáa yé tì bé ňyāe.
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)

Postlinker adjuncts follow any clause-linker particle or other clause adjunct but precede all other clause constituents, including *kà*-preposed elements:

Amaa **on sadigim kpi la**, bɔ ka m lɛm lɔɔd nɔɔr ya'asɛ? Àmáa ón sādıgím kpí lā, bó kà m̀ lɛ́m But ȝẠN:NZ since die ART, what and ısɕ again lɔ̄ɔd nɔ̄ɔr yá'asɛ̀ +ø +ø? tie:IPFV mouth:sɕ again NEG cQ? "But since he has died, why should I still be fasting?" (2 Samuel 12:23)

Certain categories of constituent occur *exclusively* as postlinker adjuncts: yà'-clauses "if/when ..." 24.1, sādıgím-clauses 25.2, bɛ̃ogɔ́ "tomorrow" and dāa-sí'ɛrɛ̃ "perhaps." When yà'-clauses or sādıgím-clauses appear after main clauses, this represents extraposition 28.3.

In addition, AdvPs referring to time, circumstance or reason may be either be used as postlinker adjuncts or as VP adjuncts. All VP adjunct AdvPs, including also those referring to place or manner, may be placed before the clause subject by kapreposing 28.2. This means that AdvPs referring to time, circumstance or reason can potentially occur before the subject alone, preceded by ka, followed by ka, or both preceded and followed by ka, whereas other types of AdvP *must* be followed by kawhen they appear before the subject. Thus

Nānná-ná m̀ áň ná'àb. "Now I am a chief." Now-hither 1sg cop chief:sg.

is grammatical, but $*M\bar{2}g\dot{\upsilon}-n\ m\bar{a}m\ b\dot{\epsilon}$ was corrected by WK to

M̄ɔɔɡú-n kà mām bɛ́. "I'm in the bush." Grass:sg-loc and 1sg.cntr exist.

(Cf English VP-oriented and clause-oriented AdvP adjuncts, CGEL pp575f.)

Any AdvPs or clauses expressing time, circumstances, or reason may appear as postlinker adjuncts, including absolute clauses, *d\n zúg* "therefore" *l\n zúg* "therefore", *l\n xúg* "afterwards", *l(n à sī \rightarrow Iā* "as things stand", *àsīda* "truly."

In KB nannanna $n\bar{a}nn\dot{a}-n\bar{a}^{+/}$ "now", and $din z\dot{u}g$ and $lin z\dot{u}g$ "therefore" without final $-\bar{2}$ appear with the following distributions:

	X alone	<i>kà</i> X	X kà	kà X kà
nānná-nā	394	23	16	4
dìn zúg	154	8	99	15
lìn zúg	29	3	43	20

Thus while $n\bar{a}nn\dot{a}-n\bar{a}$ is much more often used as a clause adjunct than not, din zúg and lin zúg are very often treated as kà-preposed VP adjuncts. This state of affairs has probably arisen through originally VP-only din zúg and lin zúg encroaching on the function of the corresponding linker adjuncts din zúg5 and lin zúg5.

Bɔ̄ zúg, without final -*ɔ̄*, appears in KB only in the *kà*-preposed form *bɔ̄ zúg kà* ...? "why ...?"

Bozug ka li aan ala? "Why is it so?" (Haggai 1:9) Bō zúg kà lì áaň àlá +ø? What on and BINAN COP thus cq?

WK generally uses $n\bar{a}nn\dot{a}-n\bar{a}^{+/}$ "now" as a clause adjunct but *requires kà* after kà nānná-nā, suggesting that that for him nānná-nā^{+/} is normally a *prelinker* adjunct:

Kà nānná-nákà m̀ áň ná'àb."And now I am a chief."And now-hither and 1sg cop chief:sg.Rejected by WK without the second kà

Clause adjuncts are with few exceptions found only in main and content clauses. Despite the semantics, the position of the negative prosodic clitic shows that the ka-clauses are not subordinate in e.g.

O pv yεεd **fuugɔ**, hali ka li yuug.
Ò pv̄ yέὲd fūugɔ́ +ø, hālí kà lì yúùg.
SAN NEG.IND wear:IPFV shirt:SG NEG, even and 3INAN take.long.
"He had not worn clothes for a long time." (Lk 8:27)

M kv basif ka fv kengε asεε ka fv ningi m zug bareka.
M kv bāsí f kà fv kēŋέ +ø àsέε kà fv níŋì m zūg bárıkà.
ISG NEG.IRR leave 2SG.OB and 2SG go NEG unless and 2SG do 1SG head:SG blessing.
"I will not let you go unless you bless me." (Genesis 32:26)

However, $h\bar{a}li$ can be a prelinker adjunct before a *n*-catenated clause:

Ti nwa'ae li hali paae Nofa. Tì ňwá'a_lī hālí_ø pāe Nofa. 1PL strike 3INAN.OB until CAT reach Nophah. "We struck them as far as Nophah." (Numbers 21:30)

...ka keŋ iee yinne kanɛ bɔdig la hali ti nyɛɛ o? ...kà kēŋ ø já yīnní-kànı bòdıg lā hālí ø tì ňyē·ó-o +ø? ...and go cat seek one-REL.SG get.lost ART until cat after see-3AN.OB cQ? "... and go and look for the one which is lost until he finds it?" (Lk 15:4)

 $W\bar{v}v$ "like" <u>18</u> can be a linker adjunct before a content clause:

ka tuumbe'ed **ku** len so'e ti wuu ti aa li **yamugo**. kà từưm-bɛ̄'ɛd kứ lɛ̄m sứ'v_tī wūv từ áaň_lừ 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 wuu ya anε m biis nε.
M piáň'adī ø tísidī yá wūu yà á nέ m bīis nē.
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)

21.2.2 Subjects

A VP subject must normally be present; Kusaal is not a pro-drop language, and requires, for example, dummy subject pronouns for impersonal constructions such as

Lì	tùl.				"It [weather] is hot."
зіnan be.hot.					
Lì	àň súŋā.				"It's good."
3INAN COP good:ADV.			ADV.		Contrast Mooré <i>yaa sõama,</i> with no pronoun.
Lì	nàr	kà	fù	kūl.	"It's necessary for you to go home."
3INAN	3INAN must and 2SG go.home.				

The dummy pronoun is always $l\hat{i}$, never \hat{o} . It may be omitted in $y\hat{a}$ '-clauses:

Ya'a ka'anε alaa, m naan kv yɛlinɛ ya ye ...
Yà' kā'a-ní àlá, m nāan kú yɛli-ní 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)

Subject pronouns are regularly deleted after the clause-linker particle ka when they would have the same reference as the subject of the preceding clause. Any M spreading after the pronoun remains <u>8.3</u>. Pronouns after ka introducing a content clause are not subject to deletion, and ka-catenation typically involves a change of subject, so this deletion is characteristic of coordinating ka, especially narrative.

A non-deleted subject pronoun after ka thus usually signals a change of subject. A conversation may be reported simply by $Ka \circ y\ell l \dots ka \circ y\ell l \dots$ with each δ marking a switch of speaker.

Kusaal strictly requires pronouns to refer to the last grammatically possible antecedent; with blurring of gender agreement 16.3.1 this can mean any antecedent of the same number, and can trump semantic appropriateness, e.g.

Pu̯'ā lā dá' dāká kà kēŋ Bók.
Woman:sg ART buy box:sg and go Bawku.
"The woman bought a box and went to Bawku." WK

but Pu'ā lā dá' dāká kà ò kēŋ Bók.
Woman:sG ART buy box:sG and 3AN go Bawku.
"The woman bought a box and it went to Bawku." WK

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Occasionally the pronoun after $k\dot{a}$ is ellipted as referring, not to the subject of the preceding clause, but to the subject of a preceding $k\dot{a}$ -preposed absolute clause:

Ban wυm nɛ'ɛŋa la ka sin.
Bán wùm nɛ̄'ŋá lá kà sīn.
3PL:NZ hear DEM.DEI.INAN ART and be.silent.
"After they heard this they fell silent." (Acts 11:18)

See <u>22.1.3</u> for omission and movement of subject pronouns in commands.

Elsewhere, absence of subject pronouns is due to *informal* ellipsis <u>21.3</u>; such structures are "corrected" when informants' attention is drawn to them. M spreading after the pronoun again remains:

Náe yàa +ø?	"[Have you] finished?"
Finish pfv pq?	

21.2.3 Post-subject particles

Two particles marking nominalised subordinate clause types follow the subject: yà' "if" 24.1 and nominaliser- \dot{n} 25; sādıg(m "since" follows \dot{n} 25.2. Other particles found after the clause subject are

sìd "truly"

Ò sìd dāa á nē ná'àb. "Truly, he was a chief." WK
 3AN truly TNS COP FOC chief:sg.

kolum or *kodum* "always" (← Hausa) is most often found with negatives:

Ka so' kudin ku len nyee li ya'asa. Kà sɔ̄' kūdım kú lɛ̄m ňyɛ́ε lī yá'asā +ø. And INDF.AN ever NEG.IRR again see 3INAN.OB again NEG. "Nobody will ever see it again." (Rev 18:21, 1996)

ňyāan or nāan 24.1.2 "next, afterwards"

Ka Yesu tans nε kvk>tita'ar ka nyaan kpi.
Kà Yesu táňs nε kvk>-títā'ar kà ňyāan kpí.
And Jesus shout with voice-great:sg and next die.
"Jesus cried out with a loud voice and then died." (Mt 27:50)

pà' tì "perhaps":

Onε pa'ati an Kristo la bεε? Ōnı ø pá' tì àň Kristo lā bέε +ø? 3AN.CNTR CAT perhaps COP Christ ART or PQ? "Perhaps he is the Christ?" (Jn 4:29)

yō'un "then, next"

Manoa yu'un da baŋ ye o anε Zugsob maliak. Manoa yū'un dá bàŋ yέ ò à nε̄ Zūg-sób máli̯āk. Manoah then TNS realise that 3AN COP FOC head-one:sg angel:sg. "Then Manoah realised that he was an angel of the Lord." (Judges 13:12)

21.3 Ellipsis

Informal ellipsis is liable to be declared incorrect by speakers if their attention is drawn to it; it does not affect meaning. More systematic ellipsis may imply anaphora or avoid repetition, as after $k\dot{a}$ (see above), with VP complements <u>19.8.1</u>, coordination within NPs <u>16.7</u>, implicit tense marking <u>19.3.5</u>, or omission of $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ in replies to questions <u>28.1.2.1.2</u>. Ellipsis can become fully formalised, as with $y\dot{\epsilon}l$ before $y\bar{\epsilon}$ <u>26.2</u>, questions with $k\dot{\upsilon}\upsilon^+$ or $b\dot{\epsilon}\epsilon^+$ <u>22.1.2</u>, indirect commands <u>26.1</u> <u>26.2.1</u>, $k\dot{a}$ -preposing and *n*-focus <u>28.1.1</u> <u>28.2</u> or $h\bar{a}l\dot{\iota}^+$ as a stand-alone intensifier <u>28.6</u>.

Clause-level clitics, but not phrase-level, can be left standing alone by ellipsis:

Wina'am tisid ... ka mε tisid ...
Wínà'am tísìd ... kà mέ tısıd ...
God give:IPVF ... and also give:IPFV ...
"God gives ... and [God] also gives ..." (1 Cor 15:38); emphatic mè 28.6

Ellipsis of repeated elements in clause coordination is common, e.g.

Dāu lā ňyć bī-d(bìŋ 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?"

When purpose clauses are coordinated, the $y\bar{\varepsilon}$ of $k\dot{a} y\bar{\varepsilon}$ can be ellipted:

M bóòd yē dāu lā kēŋ dá'a-n, kà pu̯'ā lā dūg dīıb.
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

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22 Main clauses

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 <u>26.2</u>. Both clause types display independency marking on the first VP <u>19.6</u>. They can show focussing with \dot{n} , clefting, and $k\dot{a}$ -preposing <u>28</u>. Unlike subordinate clauses, they may lack VPs altogether.

22.1 Main clause types

Declarative main clauses are the unmarked default.

22.1.1 Content questions

Content questions (except those with la 22.3.2) contain an interrogative pronoun; the final word of the question appears as a LF with a tone perturbation due to the following content-question prosodic clitic <u>8.1</u>.

The focus particle $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ may not be used in content questions, either in constituent-focus or temporal senses <u>28.1.2.1.1</u>.

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 28.1.1 when syntactically possible:

Fù bóòd bó +ø? 2sg want what cq?	"What do you want?"
Fù bóòd línè +ø? 2SG want DEM.INAN CQ?	"Which do you want?"
Ànɔ´'ɔnì_ø ňyē bíigà +ø? Who cat see child:sg cq?	"Who has seen a child?"
Ànɔ´'òn bīigı_ ø ňwá +ø? Who child:sg cat this cq?	"Whose child is this?"
<i>Dāu lā ňyć ànɔ́'ɔnɛ̀ +ø?</i> Man:sg art see who co?	"Whom did the man see?"

Interrogatives other than subjects are very often *kà*-preposed <u>28.2</u>:

22.1.1

Ànɔ´'ɔ̀n kà dāỵ lā ňyɛ́ɛ +ø? Who and man:sg ART see cq? "Whom did the man see?"

Preposing is obligatorily so in the case of $b\bar{j} z \dot{u} g$, "why?" <u>21.2.1</u> and $b\bar{j}$ when used in the same sense:

B5 kà fù kúmmà +ø? "Why are you crying?" What and 2sg weep:IPFV CQ?

22.1.2 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 <u>8.1</u>. There are no restrictions on focus- $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$. The answer expected is $\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon\bar{n}$ <u>22.3.4</u>.

<i>Dāu lā ňyέ bíigàa</i> + <i>ø</i> ? Man:sg art see child:sg pq?	"Has the man seen a child?"
<i>Bà kùud nē búusèe</i> + <i>ø</i> ? 3PL kill:IPFV FOC goat:PL PQ?	"Are they killing goats?"
M á nĒ dáùu +ø? 1SG COP FOC man:SG PQ?	"Am I a man?"
Fò pōwúmmàa +ø +ø?2SG NEG.IND hear:IPFVNEG PQ?	"Don't you understand?" (expects <i>ε̄εň,</i> here "no")

The second type of polar question follows the ordinary statement form with either $b\epsilon\epsilon$ "or" (expecting disagreement, with $\dot{a}y\iota$) or $k\delta\nu$ "or" (expecting agreement, with $\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon\bar{n}$.) NT rarely uses $k\bar{\nu}\nu$ in this way.

Dāu lā ňyć bīig kúv +ø?
Man:sg ART see child:sg or pQ?
"Has the man seen a child?" (I expect so.)

Dāỵ lā ňyέ bīig bέε ⁺ø? Man:sg ART see child:sg or pq? "Has the man seen a child?" (I expect not.)

22.1.3 Commands

For indirect commands, see <u>26.1</u> <u>26.2.1</u>.

In a direct command the subject is 2nd person; in accordance with a crosslinguistically 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 y^a ; for the realisation of y^a see 8.2.1 8.2.3. Thus

	<i>Fù gós bīig lā.</i> 2SG look.at child:SG ART.	"You (sg) have looked at the child."
	Yà gós bīig lā. 2PL look.at child:sg ART.	"You (pl) have looked at the child."
but	Gòsım bīig lā! Look.at:imp child:sg art!	"Look (sg) at the child!"
	Gòsımī ø bīig lā! Look.at:imp 2pl.sub child:sg art!	"Look (pl) at the child!"
	Gòsım tēŋı-n! Look:IMP ground:sg-loc!	"Look (sg) down!"
	Gòsımī ø tēŋı-n! Look:imp 2pl.sub ground:sg-loc!	"Look (pl) down!"
	Dāḡstēŋι-né+ø!NEG.IMPlookground:sg-locNEG!	"Don't (sg) look down!"
	Dā gɔ̃sı ø tēŋı-né NEG.IMP look 2PL.SUB ground:SG-LG "Don't (pl) look down!"	+ø! DC NEG!
	Dā gɔ̃sɛ +ø! NEG.IMP look NEG!	"Don't (sg) look."
	Dā gɔ̃sı yá +ø! NEG.IMP look 2PL.SUB NEG!	"Don't (pl) look."

Pronouns remain in place after $y\dot{a}$ '-clauses <u>24.1</u>:

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Fo ya'a mor pu'a, fon da mood ye fo bas oo. Fò yá' mor pu'ā, fon dā mood yé fo bás·ō-o + ø. 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)

They also remain in quoted direct commands within indirect speech 26.2.1, even when the addressee is the same as in the original utterance:

Ò yèl yé bà gòsım tēŋı-n.
3AN say that 3PL look:IMP ground:SG-LOC.
"She said to them: Look down!" WK

Ò yèl yé fò gòsım tēŋı-n.
3AN say that 2SG look:IMP ground:SG-LOC.
"She said to you SG: Look down!"

Ò yèl yé yà gòsım tēŋı-n.
3AN say that 2PL look:IMP ground:SG-LOC.
"She said to you PL: Look down!"

Some speakers still keep the enclitic ^{ya} after the verb even when there is a pronoun subject before it:

Ò yèl yé bà gòsımī ø tēŋı-n.
3AN say that 3PL look:IMP 2PL.SUB ground:SG-LOC.
"He said to them: Look down!" WK

In catenation, where WK does not repeat ^{ya} in VPs 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!"

Main clauses

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)	

22.2 Coordinated main clauses

In coordinating function $k\dot{a}$ always introduces a clause *without* independency marking on the VP <u>21.1</u>.

Coordinated main clauses agree in type as declarative, interrogative or imperative. They are coordinated with $k\dot{a}$ "and", $k\bar{v}v$ "or", $b\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon$ "or". $K\bar{v}v$ and $b\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon$ are linker adjuncts; they are synonymous in this use.

Coordinating statements outside of narrative, $k\dot{a}$ has much the same sense as English "and", though $k\dot{a} \dots l\dot{\epsilon}\epsilon$ means "but" <u>19.7.1</u>.

Coordination of direct commands:

Pò'osım À-Wīn, kà pó'òs À-Bōgor. Greet: MP PERS-Awini, and greet PERS-Abugri. "Greet Awini, and greet Abugri."

Coordination of questions:

Fò búgnέε +ø?Bēε fò géèňm yā kúu +ø?2sg get.drunk FocPQ?Or2sg go.mad PFV orPQ?"Are you drunk? Or have you gone mad?"

22.2.1 Sequential clauses

Kusaal narrative joins clause after clause with ka, corresponding to zero in English. Within narrative, main clauses without ka 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 ka, 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** ka-clauses with perfective aspect without tense marking, which carry on the sequence of events narrated in order.

The fact that it is specifically the presence of the clause linker ka which licenses the dropping of tense marking in main clauses in narrative justifies setting

Main clauses

up sequential clauses as a distinct main clause subtype. If tense marking could simply be omitted in narrative when it was deducible from context, this would not explain why omission requires a preceding $k\dot{a}$ 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 $k\dot{a}$ -clause without tense marking. Such clauses were always interpreted as expressing events, with the particle $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ necessarily marking constituent focus:

Lì bòdıg nē. 3inan get.lost foc.	"It's lost."
Kà lì bódìg nē. And sinan get.lost foc.	Rejected by WK as ill-formed; accepted after some thought by DK, explaining the expression as contradicting "someone hid it" - contrastive VP focus
<i>Bà kùdıg nē.</i> 3PL get.old FOC.	"They're old."
Kà bà kúdìg nē. And 3PL get.old Foc.	"And they're old." Rejected by WK; accepted 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 $k\dot{a}$ -clauses were no longer taken as sequential and $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ was readily taken as temporal by both WK and DK:

Kà lì dāa bódìg nē.	"And it was lost."
And SINAN TNS get.lost Foc.	
Kà bà sá kùdıg nē.	
Kà bà dāa kúdìg nĒ.	
Kà bà dá kùdıg nē.	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.)

Examples of tense-marking disrupting the narrative flow:

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' nε 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 wūv bán ēɛň tí nìnıd sī əm lā. Kà màlun lā dábisà ø ART like 3PL:NZ usually do:IPFV INDF.ADV ART. And sacrifice:SG ART day:PL NZ nāe lā, kà bà l*źb*.dù g kūn. Kà Yesu kpélìm Jerusalem finish ART, and 3PL return: IPFV CAT go.home: IPFV. And Jesus remain Jerusalem ténī-n kà ò bā' né ò mà рū báŋ yế ò kpèlim land:SG-LOC and 3AN father:SG with 3AN mother:SG NEG.IND realise that 3AN remain yāa +ø. Bà dāa tēň'es yé ò dòl né bà tèn-dìm lā, kà kēn... 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

kà X sáàm dá à nĒ Y "and X's father was Y" and X father:sg TNS COP FOC Y

whereas the genealogy in Matthew 1.1ff has dozens of clauses of the pattern

kà X *dụ'á* Y and X beget Y "and X begat Y."

Note the "aside" Ò mà dá à nē ... in

Ka Jese du'a na'ab David. Ka David du'a Solomon. O ma **da** anε 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) Main clauses

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 anɛ Y* at the beginning of paragraphs in the text, but *ka X saam an Y* otherwise.

In texts, dynamic imperfectives appear without temporal $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ in sequential clauses to express several instances of an event:

Ka on kpɛn' la, o yɛli ba ye [...]. Ka ba **la'ad** o. Kà ón kpɛň' lā, ò yɛ́li bā yɛ̃ [...]. Kà bà lá'ad·ō ø. And <code>3AN:NZ</code> enter ART, <code>3AN</code> say <code>3PLOB</code> that ... and <code>3PL</code> laugh:IPFV <code>3AN.OB</code>. "After he came in, he said to them [...]. But they **laughed** at him." (Mk 5:39-40)

 \dot{N} -clauses normally mark tense independently, but within sequential clauses they mark tense relative to the narrative timeline:

Dn dāa ňyēt súŋā ón dāa áň bí-līa láa +ø? 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 yo'on tiɛn Yesu n sa yɛl si'el la ye ...
Kà Pita yō'on tíeň Yesu n sà yɛ̀l sī'əl lā yɛ̄ ...
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 ka, but some begin with absolute clauses *followed* by ka. In Mark, Luke, and Acts 1-14 (1976) these patterns of tense marking appear with absolute clauses before subjects:

Tense	e markers	А, В	A kà B	<i>kà</i> A, B	kà A kà B
Α	В				
-	-	7	23	40	85
-	+	2	0	4	2
+	-	0	7	3	17
+	+	11	2	11	0

Absent tense marking in the \dot{n} -clauses is expected, as they mark tense relative to the narrative timeline. Absent marking in A- $k\dot{a}$ -B type main clauses shows that even tense-unmarked absolute clauses licence implicit tense marking <u>19.3.5</u>. Implicit marking similarly licenses the use $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ to mark a continuous imperfective in e.g.

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 ka; the tense marker of the first such clause is not repeated, but the following ka-clauses are not sequential and accordingly can have any aspect:

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 kúndù'ar kà bà bàyí lā wōsa mé kùdıg 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 wʊsa mɛ kudig hali.)

Tense marking is not affected by clause adjuncts <u>21.2.1</u> or by the "resumptive" $y\bar{\varepsilon}$ of indirect speech <u>26.2.1</u>. If $k\dot{a}$ is absent, just as with clauses without clause adjuncts, tense marking is very much commoner than its absence; if $k\dot{a}$ is present, tense marking is absent unless the clause marks an interruption in the narrative flow.

Amaa ba **da** zɔt o nɛ dabiem, ban da pʋ niŋ o yadda ye o sid anɛ nya'andɔl la zug. **Amaa ka** Barnabas zaŋ Saul n mɔr o keŋ ... Àmáa bà dà zòt·ō ø nɛ dábīəm, bán dà pū níŋ·ò ø But 3PL TNS fear:IPFV 3AN.OB FOC fear, 3PL:NZ TNS NEG.IND do 3AN.OB yáddā yɛ́ ò sìd à nɛ ňyá'àn-dòl lā zúg. Àmáa kà Barnabas faith that 3AN truly COP FOC after-follower:sg ART upon. But and Barnabas záŋ Saul n mɔ̄r·ó ø ø kɛ̄ŋ ... take Saul CAT have 3AN.OB CAT go ...

"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)

22.3 Verbless clauses

22.3.1 Identificational clauses

Verbless identificational clauses have the form NP + catenator-n + deictic particle; the NP may be an interrogative pronoun.

Kùlıŋı ø lā. Door:sg cat that.	"That is a door."
Kùlıŋı ø wá nā. Door:sg cat this hither.	"This here is a door."
Bēogυ ø lā. Tomorrow caτ that.	"See you tomorrow" ("That's tomorrow.")
$B\bar{2} \otimes a$ a a b ? What CAT that cQ ?	"What's that?"
Ňwāamıs_øňwá! Monkey:pl cat this!	"Monkeys!" [w̃ã:mɪsa] (From a passenger in my car, on suddenly catching sight of some.)

Identificational clauses may append clauses by catenation $\underline{23}$.

Anɔ'ɔn nwaa yisid nidib tʋʋmbɛ'ɛdi basida? Ànɔ´'ɔ̀n_ø ňwáa_ø yīsıd nīdıb túùm-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)

Yɛl bɔɔ nwa ka Wina'am kɛ ka li paae ti? Yɛl-bɔɔ_ ø ňwá kà Wínà'am kɛ́ kà lì páa_ tì +ø? Matter-what cat this and God cause and 3INAN arrive 1PL.OB cQ? "What is this that God has made to come to us?" (Genesis 42:28)

Interestingly, verbless clauses can be embedded in verbal clauses:

Ya ningid bɔɔ nwa? Yà níŋìd bɔ́ɔ ø ňwá +ø? 2PL do:IPFV what CAT this cq? "What is this you are doing?" (Nehemiah 2:19) Fu maal boo la tis mam? Fù máàl bóo ø lā ø tís màm ⁺ø? 2sg make what cat that cat give me co? "What is this that you have done to me?" (Numbers 23:11)

22.3.2 Lìa-clauses

X + lia means "where is X?" Although I often heard *lia* in spontaneous conversation in the 1990's, no examples appear in the 1996 or 2016 Bible versions.

Fò mà lā lía +ø?
2SG mother:SG ART be.where cQ?
"Where is your mother?" (WK to a child in the outpatient clinic.)

Ka awai la dia [sic]?"But where are the nine?" (Lk 17:17, 1976)Kà àwāIā lía+ø?And NUM:nine ART be.where cq?

22.3.3 Vocatives

Vocative phrases usually either precede a main clause, or stand alone. They take the form of NPs followed by the vocative prosodic clitic 8.1:

M bīiga +ø!"My child!"1sg child:sg voc!

M pul'ā né m bīise +ø!
15G wife:sG with 15G child:PL voc!
"My wife and my children!"

M dìəmmā +ø, bó kà fù kúesìda +ø?
1sg parent.in.law:sg voc, what and 2sg sell:IPFV cq?
"Madam <u>30.1</u>, what are you selling?"

Vocative phrases do not take the article $l\bar{a}^{+/}$, but often end in $n\bar{w}a$ "this":

Bīis ňwá!	"Children!"	[bi:sa]	<u>8.5.1</u>
Pu̯'ā ňwá!	"Woman!"	[pʰថ្ថa̯wã]	
Zōn ňwá	"Fools!"	[zɔn:a]	

22.3.4 Particles as clauses

Some particles occur characteristically as complete utterances. Some are onomatopoeic; others are widely shared among local languages.

Τò.	"OK." (= Hausa <i>tôo</i>)
Báp.	"Wallop!"
Ňfá!	"Well done!"

"Yes" is $\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon n$; "No" is $\dot{a}y i\iota$. As in many languages, the reply agrees or disagrees with the question, so that if the question is negative, the usage differs from English:

Lì nàa nέε ⁺ ø? 3INAN finish foc pq?	"Is it finished?"
Ēεň.	"Yes."
Áyìι.	"No"
Lì pō nāée +ø +ø? 3INAN NEG.IND finish NEG PQ?	"Isn't it finished?"
Ēεň.	"No."
Áyìι.	"Yes."

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23 Catenated clauses

23.1 Overview

A clause may be followed by one or more VPs, each introduced by catenator-n; for the realisation of this particle see <u>8.2</u>. Complements, VP adjuncts, and even other clauses introduced by ka may be incorporated within such 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-sób málįāk dāa kēŋ n yó'òg sārugá dóòg
But and head-one:sG angel:sG TNS go CAT open prison:sG house:sG zá'-nɔ̄or lā yū'vŋ-kán, n mɔ̄rí 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 lá'asùg lā nīdıb sísùugū-n, n áň And man-INDF.AN rise CAT stand assembly:SG ART person:PL among-LOC, CAT COP kà ò yū'ur búèn Parisee níd Gamaliel, n áň *źn*ì pà'an Pharisee person:sg and 3AN name:sg call:IPFV Gamaliel, CAT COP RELAN teach:IPFV dáàn Wínà'am wádà lā yélà, kà lém àň yū'ur nīdıb sá'àn. God 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 catenation are indeed closely parallel to uncontroversial serial verb constructions in other languages. For example, substitution of ka for catenator-n makes it impossible to interpret "auxiliary" verbs in the specialised senses associated with n-catenation:

M záŋ(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 záŋí m nú'ùg kà sī'ıs dāká lā.
"I picked up my hand and touched the box."

M dāa kúès bùŋu ø tís dự'átà.
1SG TNS sell donkey:SG CAT give doctor:SG.
"I sold a donkey to the doctor."

?? M dāa kúès bùŋ kà tís dự'átà.
"I sold a donkey and gave it to the doctor."

However, *n*-catenation shows much greater flexibility than typical serial verb constructions, and in particular VPs can be catenated to verbless clauses <u>22.3.1</u>:

Anɔ'ɔn nwaa yisid nidib tuumbɛ'ɛdi basida? Ànɔ´'ɔn_ø ňwáa_ø yīsıd nīdıb túùm-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)

Catenator-*n* thus attaches a VP to the preceding clause, not VP. In fact, the catenated VP itself will be considered to be a *clause*, which shares its subject with the main clause. This analysis is supported by the existence of clearly parallel constructions using ka in place of catenator-*n* 23.3. Catenation is a closer relationship than complementisation; mood and aspect are mostly determined by the first VP, and the catenation behaves as one unit with regard to focus 28.1.2.1.1.

There are similarities with "catenative" constructions in English. CGEL pp1176ff reanalyses many traditional auxiliary verbs as taking non-finite clauses (with or without their own subjects) as "catenative complements." There is evidence for catenator-*n* originating as a non-finite marker. Olawsky's describes the Dagbani structure *n*+verb as an "infinitive", presumably meaning that it is used as the citation form, though he gives no examples of usage. 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 *ēm dátā ndī* "*je désire manger*." Moreover, catenator-*n* may be historically related to nominaliser-*n* <u>25</u>; the particles differ tonally, and in Toende Kusaal they are even distinct segmentally: nominaliser-*n* is *n*, whereas catenator-*n* is *ø*. However, this might be attributed to the effect of a preceding subject NP, in a way analogous to L spreading in NP structure <u>8.4</u>.

Normally only the first VP carries tense and polarity particles, which apply to the entire catenation, but (especially in *n*-catenation) each retains discontinuous-past n^{ϵ} , and while initial irrealis mood marking applies to the whole chain, a VP 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 in *n*-catenation.

Catenation 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* component which is semantically subordinate; many verbs have characteristic subordinate "auxiliary" rôles in *n*-catenation, and whether they precede or follow the "main" verb depends on their own semantics. Moreover, in catenation the order of events, if they are not simultaneous, must always be mirrored in the order of the VPs <u>19.2.1</u>.

Common *n*-catenation patterns with verbs without specialised rôles are (a) main VP + imperfective VP expressing accompanying events:

Ka Ninsaal Biig la kena dit ka nuud...Kà Nīn-sáàlBīigkēnnāødítkà 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 yέ 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 ti is commonly seen in the second VP.

Amaa m pv mɔr antu'a zugv o yɛla na sɔbi tis na'atita'ar laa. Àmáa m pv mɔr ántù'a zúgú ò yɛlá ø nà sɔbı ø tís But 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)

 $K \epsilon m_{\phi} t i$ $n y \epsilon d u' a t a$. "Go and see the doctor." Go:IMP CAT after see doctor:sg.

Man ya'a pv kεεn na tu'asini ba ...
Mān yá' pv kēε-n nā ø tú'asī-ní bā...
ISG.CNTR if NEG.IND come-DP hither CAT talk-DP 3PL.OB...
"If I had not come to talk to them ..." (Jn 15:22): Note DP on both verbs.

(d) $H\bar{a}l(+ "until" can precede$ *n*-catenated clauses as a prelinker adjunct <u>21.2.1</u>.

Catenated VPs can be coordinated with kà "and":

ka keŋ ... n ian'asid ka pian'ad n du'osid Wina'am yu'ur su'uŋa.
kà kēŋ ... n iāň'asíd kà piāň'ad n dū'osíd Wínà'am yú'ùr súŋā.
and go ... CAT leap:IPFV and praise:IPFV CAT elevate:IPFV 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 meŋa. Sógià-sō' kā'e n tứm kà yōɔd ò mēŋá +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)

23.2 Auxiliary verbs in *n*-catenation

Certain verbs have characteristic specialised meanings in n-catenation. Dualaspect verbs agree in aspect with the main VP verb.

23.2.1 Preceding the main VP

 $b\dot{\epsilon}^+$ "exist, be somewhere" + $\dot{a}n(n\bar{a})$ "there" + imperfective "be in the process of ..."

Ò bè ànínā n ňwé'èd bīig lā.
3AN EXIST ADV: there CAT beat:IPFV child:SG ART.
"He's currently beating the child."

àcň^a "be something/somehow" can be used in foregrounding by clefting <u>28.1.1</u>:

Li ant o sidi su'oe li. Lì á nt ò sīdı \emptyset sú'u_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": $nam m\bar{i}^{-} n + perfective$ "always have X-ed", $nam z\bar{i}^{-} n + perfective$ "never have X-ed"

Makir banε buudi paadi ya la nan mi' paae sieba mɛn. Mākír bànı būudı pāadí yā lā nám mī ø pāe sīəba mɛ́n. 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)

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M nám zī Ø ňyē gbīgimne +ø.
1SG still NEG.KNOW CAT see lion:SG NEG.
"I've never seen a lion." SB

 zan^{ϵ} and $n5k^{\epsilon}$ "pick up, take" with object "using" (of a literal object as instrument)

M nók sú'ugù ø kiá nīm lā.
15G pick.up knife:sg cat cut meat:sg art.
"I cut the meat with a knife."

M záŋ(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."

mɔ̄r^a/ "have" + object "bringing" with motion verbs:

 $D\bar{a}b\dot{a}_{\dot{a}}\dot{y}\dot{p}\dot{p}\dot{p}$ $k\dot{a}$ $f\dot{v}$ $m\bar{j}r\cdot\dot{o}_{a}$ \emptyset $k\bar{\epsilon}$ $n\bar{a}$. Day:PL NUM:seven and 2SG have 3AN.OB CAT come hither. "Bring her here in a week." WK

dɔ̃l^{la/} "accompany in subordinate rôle, attend"

Bà dòll· \bar{o} ø kēŋ Bók. "They went to Bawku with him." 3PL follow 3AN.OB CAT go Bawku.

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 $d\epsilon \eta$ ` \emptyset $t(s \cdot \delta)$ \emptyset $l \leq r$. 1PL precede CAT give 3AN.OB car. "We previously gave him a car." ($d\epsilon \eta^{\epsilon}$ "do/go first")

Ka dau sɔ' duoe zi'en la'asvg la svvgin ... Kà dàu̯-sɔ̄' dūe_ø zí'èn là'asvg lā svvgv̄-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:

 \dot{M} kéŋì σ $p\bar{i}$ $n\dot{u}$ ' \dot{u} s. "I went and washed my hands." 1SG go CAT wash hand:PL.

su'ā^a "conceal" is used in this construction for "secretly":

Ka Na'ab Herod su'a buol baŋidib la ...Kà Nà'ab Herod su'ā ø búàl bāŋıdıb lā ...And king:sg Herod conceal CAT ask understander:PL ART..."Herod secretly called for the wise men ..." (Mt 2:7)

nìŋ wālá⁺ literally "do how?" is used in catenation for "how can ...?" (see also <u>23.3</u>):

Ninsaal na niŋ wala an pupiel Wina'am tuonne? Ninsaal biig na niŋ wala pu mor taal Wina'am tuonne? ná nīŋ wālá ø àň pú-pìəl Wínà'am túènne +ø? Nīn-sáàl Person-smooth:sg IRR do how CAT COP inside-white:sg God before co? Nīn-sáàl bîg nà nĩŋ wālá 🧔 pū mōr táàl Person-smooth:sg child:sg IRR do how CAT NEG.IND have fault:sg Wínà'am túènnɛ +ø? God before co? "How can a human being be pure before God? How can the child of a human being not have sin before God?"(Job 25:4)

 $nyan^{\epsilon/}$ means "overcome" as a main verb:

Ka m nyaŋ dunia."I have overcome the world." (Jn 16:33)Kà m ňyāŋ dūnıya.And 1sg overcome world:sg.

As a *n*-catenation auxiliary it means "carry out successfully, prevail in":

M pv ňyāŋı ø záb nà'ab láa +ø.
1SG NEG.IND prevail CAT fight chief:SG ART NEG.
"I wasn't able to fight the chief."

Unlike English "can", $ny\bar{a}\eta^{\epsilon}$ expresses events and not states. Thus, to express present ability or inability, the auxiliary is in the irrealis mood; if the main verb is imperfective the auxiliary is imperfective too. M kú ňyāŋı ø záb nà'ab láa +ø.
ISG NEG.IRR prevail CAT fight chief:SG ART NEG.
"I can't fight the chief." ("I won't succeed in fighting the chief.")

wad line nyaŋedin ketin ka nidib voen, wād-línì ňyāŋídī-n ø kētí-n kà nīdıb vūu-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)

tūň'e means "be able"; it is a stative single-aspect verb. As a main verb

ba daa tis ka li zemisi ba paŋi na tun'e si'em bà dāa tís kà lì zēmísì 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)

Because of the stative meaning, when $t\bar{u}n'e$ is used as a *n*-catenation auxiliary both indicative and irrealis moods can express present ability or inability.

ka li kv tun'e su'a. kà lì ký tūň'e ø sự'āa +ø. and 3INAN NEG.IRR be.able CAT hide NEG. "which cannot be hidden" (Mt 5:14)

Ya na tun'e zin' teŋin la nɛ ti.
Yà ná tūň'e ø zíň'i tēŋι-n lā né 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)

Fo tun'e nyɛt si'ela? Fò túň'e_ ø ňyɛt sí'əlàa +ø? 2SG be.able CAT see:IPFV INDF.INAN PQ? "Can you see anything?" (Mk 8:23)

O pv tun'e pian'ada. Ò pō tūň'e g pįāň'adá +g. 3AN NEG.IND be.able CAT speak:IPFV NEG. "He could not speak." (Lk 1:22) With $nyag^{\epsilon}$ as the main verb in the sense "overcome":

bozugo ba ku tun'e nyane ba mena. bɔ̄ zúgɔ̄ bà kù tūň'e_ ø ňyāní_ bà mɛ̄ná +ø. because 3PL NEG.IRR be.able CAT control 3PL self NEG. "because they cannot control themselves." (1 Cor 7:5, 1996)

23.2.2 Following the main VP

tis^e "give" is used for "to, for"; the meaning may have nothing to do with "giving", and is simply a way of adding an indirect object. This can be used to put an indirect object after a direct, or to have both direct and indirect bound pronoun objects.

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Fu pu ma' n tis ninsaala, amaa fu ma' n tis ne Wina'am Siig Suŋ.
Fò pō má' n tìs nīn-sáalā +ø, àmáa fò mà'
2SG NEG.IND lie CAT give person-smooth:SG NEG but 2SG lie
n tís nē Wínà'am Sí-sòŋ..
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)
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M dāa kúès bùŋu ø tís dự'átà.
15G TNS sell donkey:sG CAT give doctor:sG.
"I sold a donkey to the doctor."

 $gaad^{\epsilon}$ "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 gím ø gát À-Būgur. PERS-Awini be.short CAT pass:IPFV PERS-Abugri. "Awini is shorter than Abugri." SB

Fv sid noŋ mam gat bamaa?
Fv sid noŋ mām ø gát bámmáa +ø?
2sg truly love 1sg CAT pass:IPFV DEM.DEI.PL PQ?
"Do you really love me more than these?" (Jn 21:15)

Ò dì n gálìs. "She's eaten too much." 3AN eat CAT exceed.

Dā kárìm gbánà ø gálisìdā ⁺ø. NEG.IMP read:IPFV book:PL CAT exceed:IPFV NEG. "Don't read books too much."

bàs^ɛ "send/go away" is used for "away, off, out":

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Anɔ'ɔn nwaa yisid nidib tʋʋmbɛ'ɛdi basida? Ànɔ´'òn_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 cQ? "Who is this who drives people's sins out?" (Lk 7:49)

Ending verbs naturally follow the main VP:

Ò dìı ø nāe. "He's finished eating."
 3AN eat CAT finish.

 \dot{O} $d\iota \not g$ tig. "She's eaten to satisty." BAN eat CAT become.satiated.

Motion verbs occur in *n*-catenation with meanings like local prepositions e.g.

Ò 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."

Èňrugum_____ø páa__m. "Shift along up to me." (*pāe*^{+/} "reach") Shift.along:IMP CAT reach 15G.OB.

Jesus ban'ad buŋ n kpen'ed Jerusalem Jesus ø bāň'ad búŋ n kpźň'żd Jerusalem Jesus Nz ride:IPFV donkey:SG CAT enter:IPFV Jerusalem "Jesus riding a donkey into Jerusalem" (picture caption, NT 1976)

 $w\bar{\epsilon}n^{na/}$ "be like" is very common in *n*-catenation. $W\bar{\epsilon}n^{na/}$ + complement sequences are often treated like prepositional phrases <u>18</u>. As a main verb:

Ka o nindaa wenne nintaŋ 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: KB Ka o nindaa nwɛnɛ winnig nɛ)

 $W\bar{\epsilon}n^{na/}$ takes a prepositional phrase with $w\bar{\nu}\nu$ "like" or $n\bar{\epsilon}$ "with" as complement. 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 $w\bar{\epsilon}n^{na/}$ means "about, approximately"; numbers appearing alone are not followed by $n\bar{\epsilon}$:

Li anε wυυ maila ayi' nε. Lì à nĒ wūυ 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 k>biga nε pisi.
kà bà kāl áň wvv k>bugā nē pīsí.
and 3PL number:sG cop like hundred with twenty
"and their number was about 120." (Acts 1:15)

 $l\dot{a}$ 'am^m "together" is also found as a preverb <u>19.7.2</u> and in the compound preposition $l\dot{a}$ 'am $n\bar{\epsilon}$ "together with" <u>18</u>. As a main verb it means "associate with":

... ye labasuŋ moolug la ket ka buudi wusa la'amid ne taaba pudugid Wina'am piini. ... yē lábà-sùŋ mɔɔlùg lā kɛ́t kà būudı wūsa lá'amìd ... that news-good:sg proclamation ART cause:IPFV and tribe all gather:IPFV nē tāaba ø pūdıgıd Wínà'am píinì. with each.other CAT share:IPFV God gift. "....that the proclamation of the good news is making every tribe gather with

"....that the proclamation of the good news is making every tribe gather with one another to share God's gifts." (Eph 3:6, 1996)

 $y\dot{a}'as^{\epsilon}$ or $y\dot{a}'as^{a}$ "again" usually lacks *n* and has effectively become an adverb, preposable with $k\dot{a}$ <u>28.2</u>. 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 m gōs ...Again and 1sG look ...

Catenated clauses

23.3 Kà-catenation

Certain constructions with a clause introduced by ka have clear affinities with catenation using n. They never have alternate forms with the linker $y\bar{\epsilon}$. With few exceptions, they either have different subject from the preceding clause or differ in polarity. They resemble n-catenation in that they have the aspect and mood of the preceding VP.

 $K\bar{\epsilon}^+$ "let, leave off" is used with $k\dot{a}$ -catenation in the sense "let, cause that." The subject of the catenation cannot be the same as the main clause subject (in the whole KB, the only counterexample is Titus 2:7 *kɛl ka fv mɛŋ an zanbinnɛ tisi ba* "Let you yourself be a sign to them", where the pronoun *fv* is formally a predeterminer.) The mood of the catenation matches the VP containing $k\bar{\epsilon}^+$, though imperative often replaces irrealis mood.

Li da kɛ ka ba **pu** nyaŋi kuu o. Lì dà kɛ̀ kà bà pū ňyāŋı ø kú·o ø ⁺ø. SINAN 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 kvdim ninjidi lin ye li kɛ ka ba **da** nyɛ Kristo kum dapuudir namisvg laa. Bà kūdım nínjùdī_lí yɛ́ lì kɛ́ kà bà dā ňyɛ̃ Kristo kúm 3PL ever do:IPFV 3INAN.OB that 3INAN cause and 3PL NEG.IMP see Christ death dà-pūvdír námısvg 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)

dinε **na** kε ka ba **da** kpi'ilim. Dīnı Ø ná kέ kà bà dā kpī'ılímm ⁺Ø. 3INAN.CNTR CAT IRR cause and 3PL NEG.IMP finish NEG. "That will cause them not to come to an end." (Genesis 6:20)

After $k \epsilon \epsilon n k \dot{a}$, with discontinuous-past n^{ϵ} , the catenated clause generally had n^{ϵ} in the 1976 Bible, but this is no longer invariable. Aspect usually matches:

Ka li anε wada la kɛt ka tuumbɛ'ɛd nyɛt paŋ.Kà lì à nɛ́ wādá lā ø kɛ́t kà tùum-bɛ̄'ɛd ňyɛ̄t páŋ.And BINAN COP FOC law ART CAT cause:IPFV and deed-bad see:IPFV power:SG."It is the law which makes sin find power." (1 Cor 15:56)

The irregular imperative $k\hat{\epsilon}/a$, followed by a $k\hat{a}$ -clause with imperative mood, creates a way of expressing indirect commands, including first and third persons:

Kèlkà ògɔ̄stēŋi-n.Cause:IMP and 3AN look ground:SG-LOC."Let him look down."

Dā kέ kà dàbīəm bέε ⁺ø! NEG.IMP cause and fear EXIST NEG. "Don't be afraid." ("Let fear not exist.")

Kèl[or Kèlí ø] kà tì pú'ùs Wínà'am.Cause:IMPcause:IMP 2PL.SUB and 1PL greet God."Let us praise God."

 $K\dot{\epsilon}l k\dot{a}$... is often ellipted informally, leaving the lack of independency marking as the only sign that the clause is an indirect command:

	<i>À gós nīf lā.</i> 1sg look.at eye:sg art.	"I've looked at the eye." Independency marked: tone overlay on <i>g5s</i>
but	<i>À gōs nīf lā.</i> 1sg look.at eye:sg ART.	"Let me look at the eye." (Overheard in clinic) No tone overlay on <i>gɔ̃s</i>
	À dígιnὲε ⁺ø? 15G lie.down pq?	"Am I to lie down?" (Overheard in clinic) No independency imperative <i>-m</i> ^a
	Ò záb nà'ab lā. 3an fight chief:sg art.	"He should fight the chief." M spreading after <i>ò,</i> not <i>záb</i> <u>19.6.1.2</u>

Mit is a defective verb used only in the imperative <u>19.5.1</u>. Much its most common use is with $k\dot{a}$ -catenation as "see that it doesn't happen that ...". In this sense it never appears with the 2pl subject enclitic ^{ya}, suggesting that it is impersonal.

Mid ka ya maali ya tuum suma nidib tuon ye ba gos.
Mit kà yà máalì yà tùum-sùma nīdıb túàn yé bà gōs.
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)

X nìŋ wēlá n...? "how can X ...?" has an impersonal variant using a dummy subject in the main clause and the effective subject in ka-catenation.

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)

Where there is no change of subject, *n*-catenation is overwhelmingly more common (152/160 in KB) but a few cases of the personal type do appear with ka:

M na niŋ wala ka nyɛ faangirɛ?
M̀ ná nīŋ wɛlá kà ňyɛ fāaňgírὲ +ø?
ISG IRR do how and find salvation co?
"How can I find salvation?" (Acts 16:30)

 $K\dot{a}$ usually replaces *n* when there is a change of polarity in catenation:

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 Kà Joon kā nā ø lood noor kà pū nūud dáamm ⁺ø. And John come hither CAT tie:IPFV mouth:sg and NEG.IND drink:IPFV beer NEG. "John came, fasting and not drinking beer." (Mt 11:18)

Change from positive to negative can nevertheless occur with *n*:

Ya sieba bε kpɛla ku kpii ... Yà sīəba bέ kpɛlá ø kú kpīi ⁺ø ... 2PL INDF.PL EXIST here CAT NEG.IRR die NEG There are some of you here who will not die ..." (Lk 9:27)

An **adnominal** $k\dot{a}$ -catenated clause follows, usually directly, a NP anchor other than the main clause subject, and contains a pronoun referring to it, which is ellipted if it is an object <u>19.8.1</u>. The sense resembles a non-restrictive relative clause:

Anina ka o nyε dau ka o yv'vr buon Aneas. Àníná kà ò ňyε̄ dáu kà ò yū'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) Li anɛ ya taaba banɛ pu'usid Wina'am ka li nar ka ya kad saria. Lì à nɛ́ yà tāaba bánì pù'usıd 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)

If the main clause is a verbless identificational clause $\underline{22.3.1}$, the NP of the main clause can be the anchor:

Yɛl bɔɔ nwa ka Wina'am kɛ ka li paae ti?
Yɛl-bɔɔ ø ňwá kà Wínà'am kɛ kà lì páa tì +ø?
Matter-what cat this and God cause and 3INAN arrive 1PL.OB cQ?
"What is this that God has made to come to us?" (Genesis 42:28)

Adnominal $k\dot{a}$ -catenation is the basis of $k\dot{a}$ -clefting and $k\dot{a}$ -preposing <u>28.2</u>. The subject of the catenated clause does not normally refer to the anchor; if it does, the $k\dot{a}$ -catenation is a resultative predicate <u>19.8.2</u>:

...ka la'am maan gigis ka ba wum ka pia'ad. ...kà lá'àm màan gígìs kà bà wúm kà pi̯āň'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 $ny\bar{\epsilon}^+$ "see", this construction has the predicative sense "see *as*":

M dāa ňyē dāu lá kà ò áň ná'àb.
1SG TNS see man:SG ART and 3AN COP chief:SG.
"I saw the man as a chief." KT: not possible as "who was a chief"

M dāa pō ňyē dāu lá kà ò áň ná'abā +ø.
1SG TNS NEG.IND see man:SG ART and 3AN COP chief:SG NEG.
"I didn't see the man as a chief." KT

As expected, KT rejected constructions with tense marking in the $k\dot{a}$ catenation. He also rejected focus- $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ in the catenated clause:

**M* dāa pō ňyē dāų lá kà ò á nē ná'abā ⁺ø. 1SG TNS NEG.IND see man:SG ART and 3AN COP FOC chief:SG NEG.

24 Conditional clauses

24.1 Overview

Conditional clauses have a subordinate $y\dot{a}$ '-clause protasis before the subject of the main apodosis clause. $Y\dot{a}$ '-clauses cannot be coordinated with each other, though they may contain coordinated subclauses, and a main clause may contain more than one $y\dot{a}$ '-clause:

Fù yá' bòɔd, m yá' lèb nā, m ná yóɔ_f.
2sG if want, 1sG if return hither, 1sG IRR pay 2sG.OB.
"If you want, when I return, I will pay you."

Ya'-clauses are postlinker adjuncts, following all other clause adjuncts.

There must be a non-zero subject after a ya'-clause; even direct commands do not, as usual, delete the 2nd person subject pronoun; my informants use a free pronoun in this context, as does the KB version in

Fv ya'a mor pu'a, fvn da mood ye fv bas oo.
Fv ya' moor pu'ā, fvn dā mood yé fv bas oo.
rsg 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 yć ò lūbú f, fù pō ňyētí ò tùbāa +ø. Donkey:sg if want that 3AN throw.off 2SG.OB, 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 ka 28.2:

Fò yá' gōs kpēlá, bó kà fò ňyētá +ø?
2sG if look here, what and 2sG see:IPFV CQ?
"If you look here, what do you see?"

Yà'-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' kù tūm, ɔ̄n dā d(ι +ø.
INDE.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 $y\dot{a}$ '-clause appears clause-finally because of extraposition due to weight 28.3, notably in constructions meaning "it would be better if ...":

Li naani so'on ba ya'a nokin neertita'are loon kollin o niŋgoonr ka zaŋ o lobi bas kolugin

Lì nāanı sōň'ɔ-n, bà yá' nōkı-n nēɛr-títā'arı \emptyset lōɔ-n \emptyset kólī-n 3INAN then be.better-DP 3PL if take-DP millstone-big:SG CAT tie-DP CAT collar-DP 5n nín-gòɔr kà záŋ·ò \emptyset \emptyset lōbı \emptyset bás kōlugu-n 3AN.CNTR body-neck:SG and take 3AN.OB CAT throw CAT abandon river:SG-LOC "It would have been better if they had fastened a big millstone round his neck and thrown him into the river ..." (Lk 17:2, 1996)

Dinzug li naan a su'um ba ya'a pu du'an dau kaŋaa. Dìn-zúg lì nāan áň súm bà yá' pō dú'ā-n dáu-kàŋáa ⁺ø. Thus 3INAN then COP good:ABSTR 3PL if NEG.IND 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)

24.1.1 Discontinuous-past n^ε

Discontinuous-past n^{ϵ} can attach to any verb form in indicative or irrealis mood; it is not compatible with the imperative. In *n*-catenation, if n^{ϵ} is found in the first VP it is usually repeated in all <u>23.1</u>.

Although it can appear as a discontinuous today-past <u>19.3.3</u>, 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; if it is accompanied by the post-subject particle $n\bar{a}an(\iota)$, the sense is contrary-to-fact. It appears most often in $y\dot{a}$ '-clauses, but occurs 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 $b \partial d\bar{\iota} - n$ "might wish":

m pa'ati nye ka ya pu wenne wuu man boodin ye ya aan si'em laa. m pá' tì ňyé kà yà pū wēn nē 1SG perhaps see and 2PL NEG.IND resemble with wūv mán bòɔdī-n yé yà áa-n sī'əm láa +ø. like 1SG:NZ want-DP that 2PL COP-DP INDF.ADV ART NEG. "I will perhaps find you not as I might have wished."(2 Cor 12:20, 1996)

Man boodin nε yanamε naan aan ma'asiga bεε yanamε naan aan tuuliga.
Mān bóodī-n nē yānámì ø nāan áa-n mā'asígā bēε
ISG.CNTR want-DP that 2PL NZ then COP-DP cold:ADV or
yānámì ø nāan áa-n tūulígā.
2PL NZ then COP-DP hot:ADV.
"I might have wished you had been cold or you had been hot." (Rev 3:15)

24.1.2 *Nāan(ι)* "in that case"

The post-subject particle $n\bar{a}an(\iota)$ is distinct from $n\bar{y}\bar{a}an$ "next, afterwards, then", but $n\bar{a}an$ (never $n\bar{a}an\iota$) occurs commonly in the same sense as $n\bar{y}\bar{a}an$. 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' yế 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-dáùg2SG IRR deny 1SG.CNTR occasion:SG NUM:three and hen-male:SGnāan kāas nóor àyí.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 $ny\bar{a}an$ is probably a form of $ny\dot{a}'a\eta^a$ "behind, after" with loss of glottalisation and assimilation of the final nasal because of its proclitic status. The particle $n\bar{a}an(\iota)$ itself seems to have a core locative and logical sense "be(ing) there/thus, in that case."

There are examples in NT/KB of $n\bar{a}an(\iota)$ used as an auxiliary verb with its own locative complement in *n*-catenation:

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 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 yɛ´ 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 zíň'igī-n_ ø kūl nā place:sg-Loc CAT go.home hither. "men who are waiting for their lord at a wedding feast to return ..." (Lk 12:36)

yinni piiga wusa puugin ka li naan o yaab Abraham nu'usin yīnní pīiga wōsa póvgó-n kà lì nāan ò yáab Abraham one ten all inside:sg-LOC and JINAN be.there JAN ancestor:sg Abraham nú'usī-n hand:PL-LOC "the tithe which was in his ancestor Abraham's hands" (Heb 7:9, 1996)

Ka nwadbibis na naan agɔla lit teŋin na.Kà ňwād-bíbìs ná nāan àgɔ́là Ø lít tēŋı-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 $n\bar{a}an\iota$ evidently originated in $n\bar{a}an$ followed by catenator-*n*, but I will omit CAT in the interlinear glossing henceforward.

Most cases of modal $n\bar{a}an(\iota)$ appear in the apodoses of conditional clauses. It does not occur in protasis $y\dot{a}$ '-clauses. In main clauses $n\bar{a}an(\iota)$ without discontinuouspast n^{ϵ} is most often a by-form of $ny\bar{a}an$ as described above; otherwise the meaning is "in that case, matters being thus." Examples of $n\bar{a}an(\iota)$ in subordinate clauses are uncommon in KB, which usually simply shows the irrealis marker $n\dot{a}$ where older versions have $n\bar{a}an$.

 $N\bar{a}an(\iota)$ without n^{ε} may be effectively equivalent to $y\dot{a}'$ "if/when."

Ka so' naam mori [sic] pe'is kobuga ka yinni bodige? Kà sɔ̄' nāan mɔ̄r pɛ̄'ɛs kɔ́bıgá kà yīnní bɔ̀dıgɛ +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 yɛ̄ dāu̯ yīnní nāan kpí nīdıb lā yɛ́là @ gàad ... SINAN 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)

Fun naani tum be'ed ka ba sigis uf ne kpisiŋkpil ka fu sin ka mor suguru, li su'um a bo?

Fún nāanı túm bē'ɛd kà bà sīgısú f nē kpísìnkpìl 2SG:NZ then do bad and 3PL put.down 2SG.OB with fist:SG kà fù sín kà mɔ̄r sūgurú, lì sùm áň bɔ́ +ø? and 2SG 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)

Niŋgbiŋ naan be ka siig kae' ka li a zaalim la, ala men ... Nìn-gbíŋ ø nāan bé kà sīug kā'e kà lù áň zāalím lā, Body-skin:sg Nz then EXIST and spirit:Sg NEG.BE and BINAN COP 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 ké kà yà sɔ̄' nā'mısíd túòm-bàmmā námī-né +ø, But NEG.IMP cause and 2PL INDF.AN suffer:IPFV deed-DEM.DEI.PL PL-LOC NEG, ón nāanı áň nīn-kúòd ... 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)

Noŋir lem kae' gaad nidi naan kpi o zuanam zugo. Nòŋır lém kā'e_ø gáàd nīdí_ ø nāan kpí ò zu̯à-nàm zúgɔ̄ +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." (Jn 15:13, 1996) Ba wenne zunzon naani ve'ed zunzon ne.

Bà wēnnēzúnzòŋØnāanı vē'ɛdzúnzòŋnē.3PL resemble with blind.person:sg Nz thenlead:IPFV blind.person:sg like."They are like when a blind person leads a blind person." (Mt 15:14, 1996)

wuu kunduna naan lusi ba meŋ ne pe'es gbana n kpen' pe'esin. woo kóndòna_ø nāan losí_bà mɛŋ nɛ pɛ̄'ɛs gbánà n kpɛ̀ň' pɛ̄'ɛsí-n. like jackal:PL NZ then wrap 3PL self with sheep:PL skin:PL CAT enter sheep:PL-LOC. "Like when jackals wrap themselves in sheepskins to go among sheep." (Mt 7:15, 1996)

When $n\bar{a}an(\iota)$ is accompanied by discontinuous-past n^{ε} the meaning is contraryto-fact, as in conditional clauses:

Ka m bood ye li naani pun niŋin sa.
Kà m bóòd yε lì nāanι pún nìŋī-n sá.
And 1sG want that 3INAN then already do-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 záŋ(-n_m līgıdı n sū'a-n bánkì ní. 3INAN be.good and 25G TNS then take-DP 15G money CAT hide-DP bank:SG LOC. "You should have put my money in the bank." (Mt 25:27, 1976)

M daa pu bood ye nimbane naan tisini m sumalisim la keen ka m moren susa'aŋa.

 \dot{M} dāa p \bar{v} bóbd y $\bar{\epsilon}$ nīn-bánì nāan tísī-ní m 1SG TNS NEG.IND want that person-REL.PL then give-DP 1SG.OB $s\bar{v}$ -málisìm lā k $\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon$ -n kà m̀ m $\bar{\sigma}r\iota$ -n $s\bar{v}$ -sáň'àŋā +ø. heart-sweetness ART cause-DP and 1SG 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)

Hale baa m meŋi naani moren suekane na keen ka m nwe' nyo'og ne saalib yela laa.
Hālí báa m mēŋí ø nāanı mɔ̄rı-n suā-kánì nà kēɛ-n
Even not 1sG self Nz then have-DP way-REL.SG IRR cause-DP kà m ňwé' ňyɔ̄'ɔg nē sáalìb yélà láa +ø.
and 1sG beat chest:sG with human:PL about ART NEG.
"Although I myself might have had reason to boast in human terms." (Phil 3:4, 1996)

24.2 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 postlinker or VP adjunct <u>25.2</u>. 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' tùm tūuma, ò dì'əd yōod. 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 kuminε, alaa ti labasuŋ la mɔɔlug la anɛ zaalim.Kà Kristo yá' dà pū vū'ug kūmι-nɛ́ +ø, àláa tì làba-sùŋAnd Christ if TNS NEG.IND come.alive death-LOC NEG, ADV:thus 1PL news-good:sGlā mɔ́ɔlùg 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.
Bε̄og yá' nìe, fù ná wúm ò pi̯àň'ad.
Tomorrow if appear, 2SG 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."

Fò yá' si̯àk, tì ná dīgılí f.
2SG if agree, 1PL IRR lay.down 2SG.OB.
"If you agree, we'll put you to bed. [i.e. admit you to hospital]"

Būn-píalìg bế fừ nĩf lā púugū-n. Fừ yá' bòod, tì ná
Thing-white:sG EXIST 2SG eye:SG ART inside:SG-LOC. 2SG if want, 1PL IRR
yĩis, kà fừ ná ňyē súŋā yá'às.
extract, and 2SG 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."

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Negative polarity with non-past reference in the $y\dot{a}$ '-clause:

M ya'a pv keŋε, Svŋid la kv kɛɛn ya ni naa.
M yá' pv kɛŋɛ +ø, svŋıd lā kv kɛɛn̆ yà nī náa +ø.
ISG if NEG.IND go NEG, helper:sG ART NEG.IRR come 2PL LOC hither NEG.
"If I do not go, the Helper will not come here to you." (Jn 16:7)

So' ya'a ku tum, on da dii.
Sɔ̄' yá' kù tūm, ɔ̄n dā d(ι +ø.
INDE.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)

24.3 Hypothetical

If discontinuous-past n^{ε} occurs in the $y\dot{a}$ '-clause and the main clause does not have $n\bar{a}an(\iota)$, the meaning is hypothetical. The main clause has irrealis mood; in the 1976 NT, but not later Bible versions, it also has n^{ε} .

Nobir ya'a yelin ye, on pu a nu'ug la zug, o ka' niŋgbiŋ nii, lin ku nyaŋin keen ka o ka' ningbin nii. Nóbìr yá' yèlī-n yē, ón áň nú'ùg lā zúg, рū Leg:sg if say-DP that 3AN:NZ NEG.IND COP hand:sg ART upon, ò kā' níi +ø, līn nín-abīn kύ ňyānı-n ø 3AN NEG.BE body-skin:sg loc Neg, dem.inan Neg.irr accomplish-dp cat kēε-n kà ò kā' nín-abīn níi +ø. cause-DP and 3AN NEG.BE body-skin:SG LOC NEG. "If the leg said, 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)

2016: Nɔbir ya'a yɛlin ye, "Man ka' nu'ug la zug, m ka' niŋbiŋ la nii," lin kυ nyaŋi kɛ ka o ka' niŋgbiŋ la nii.

The later versions sometimes simply use open conditionals with irrealis mood in the main clause in this sense.

Wief ya'a sigin li ni, li zuluŋ na paaen o salabir.
Wìəf yá' sīgí-n lì nī, lì zùluŋ ná páa-n ò 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)

2016: Ka wief ya'a sigi li ni, li zuluŋ na paae o salibir.

24.4 Contrary-to-fact

If the main clause has $n\bar{a}an(\iota)$, there is a contrary-to-fact implication. Both main and $y\dot{a}$ '-clause have discontinuous-past n^{ε} :

Man ya'a pv kɛɛn na tu'asini ba, ba naan kv mɔrin taalɛ. Mān yá' pv̄ kɛ̃ɛ-n nā ø tú'asī-ní bā, bà nāan kú ISG.CNTR if NEG.IND come-DP hither CAT talk-DP 3PL.OB, 3PL then NEG.IRR mɔ̃rι-n táàllē +ø. have-DP 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'inɛ li, ba naan kʊ kpa'an Zugsɔb onɛ an na'atita'ar la dapuudir zugɔ.

Bà yá' dāa mī'i-ní lī, bà nāan kú kpā'a-n Zūg-sób ónì 3PL if TNS know-DP 3INAN.OB, 3PL then NEG.IRR fasten-DP head-one:SG REL:AN àň ná'-tītā'ar lā dá-pūvdá zùgō +ø. 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 linε 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.OB peace today this, lì nāan āa-n súm!

SINAN 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) $\,$

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Li ya'a aane m meŋ gaŋir ka m tummin tuum kaŋa, m naani di'edin nyood.

Lì yá'āa-ní m̄ŋ gáŋìr kà m̀ túmmī-n túùm-kàŋā,

3INAN if COP-DP 1SG self choice and 1SG work:IPFV-DP work-DEM.DEI.SG,

m̀ nāanı dī ədu-n ňyɔ̄ɔd.

1SG then receive:IPFV-DP pay.

"If it had been my own choice that I did this work, I would have been getting
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pay." (1 Cor 9:17, 1976)

Ya'a ka'anε alaa, m naan kv yɛlinɛ ya ye ...
Yà' kā'a-ní àlá, m̀ nāan kú yɛli-ní 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)

Contrary-to-fact conditions in the past are also sometimes marked by combining the irrealis mood with preverbal past tense markers in the main clause; the ya'-clause has n^{ϵ} as usual:

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 kò
Because Joshua if TNS give-DP 3PL.OB resting place:sG, God TNS NEG.IRR
lēm pi̯āň' dábìs-sī'a yɛ́là yà'asē +ø.
again speak day-INDE.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, without a $y\dot{a}$ '-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."

25.1 Overview

Kusaal transforms complete clauses into AdvPs or NPs by inserting the postsubject particle \dot{n} . (For the realisation of the particle, see <u>8.2</u>.) The \dot{n} by itself is a nominaliser, which turns the original clause "X" into an "absolute" clause signifying "it being the fact that X." \dot{N} -clauses also form the basis of Kusaal relative clauses, though in the commonest type the nominaliser has fused with a preceding demonstrative pronoun to create what is synchronically simply a relative pronoun.

Nominaliser- \dot{n} may be historically related to catenator-n <u>23.1</u>.

All types of \hbar -clause have independent tense marking (but relative to the narrative timeline within a series of sequential clauses <u>22.2.1</u>.)

They cannot use the imperative mood; irrealis appears instead:

Yanamɛ na mɔr sam si'a anɛ ye ya nɔŋ taaba.
Yānámì @ nà mɔ̄r sām-si'a á nɛ̄ yɛ́ yà nɔ́ŋ 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)

 \dot{N} -clauses cannot contain focus particles, but relative pronouns are often preposed with $k\dot{a}$ <u>25.3.2</u>. \dot{N} -clauses cannot take modifiers or postdeterminers, but can participate as predeterminers in forming larger NPs or AdvPs, and may have predeterminers of their own <u>16.10.3</u>.

Absolute \hbar -clauses almost always take the article $l\bar{a}^{+/}$; the function of the article after relative clauses is similar to its usage elsewhere <u>16.5</u>. Absence of the article after a relative clause does duty for what with nouns is expressed by indefinite postdeterminer pronouns.

Jns5bá nē dáu-kànı sà kēnāsú'èslā.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 ňyéɛ_f ké nā. Man-REL.PL want that 3PL see 2SG.OB come hither "Some men who want to see you have come."

 $on\epsilon du'a n\epsilon Siig$ "someone born of the Spirit" (Jn 3:8) $\partial n\iota du'a n\bar{\epsilon} S\bar{\iota}\iota g$ RELAN bear with spirit:sg

one t	υmi m la	a na		"he who sent me hither" (Mk 9:37)
ònι	từmi_n	n lā	nā	(ວໍ <i>nι</i> = rel.an; contrast ວ໌ <i>n</i> 35g:nz)
REL.AN	send 19	5G.OB ART	hither	

The article is not repeated a second time after an \dot{n} -clause which ends in a NP with $|\bar{a}^{+/}$. If the clause contains the VP-final particles $n\bar{a}^{+/}$ "hither" $s\dot{a}^{+}$ "hence", these may follow an article belonging to the \dot{n} -clause <u>19.10</u>.

If the \dot{n} -clause has a negative VP, it only shows a final LF if the \dot{n} -clause is itself clause-final in the superordinate clause:

Nīn-bánì pū dít ná kpī. Person-REL.PL NEG.IND eat:IPFV IRR die. "People who don't eat will die." WK

M ňyć nīn-bánì pū dítā +ø.
1SG see person-rel.PL NEG.IND eat:IPFV NEG.
"I've seen some people who don't eat."

25.2 Absolute clauses

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 original clause:

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"

The most characteristic use of absolute clauses is as AdvPs of time or circumstance. They are the usual way of expressing past "when", used as postlinker adjuncts 21.2.1 or as VP adjuncts, generally preposed with ka 28.2. Kusaal is stricter than English in requiring constituent order to reflect event order (cf catenation 23.1), so the VP-final adjunct position is usually confined to cases where the absolute clause expresses a state of affairs rather than a single event:

Dn dāa ňyēt súŋā, ´n dāa áň bí-līa láa ⁺ø?
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.

Ka ban dit la, Yesu yɛli ba ...Kà bán dìtlā, Yesu yɛ́lì_bā ...And 3PL:NZ eat:IPFV ART, Jesus say3PL.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-sźb málįāk 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)

Like other AdvPs, absolute clauses have limited use as verb arguments, most often as the complement of $a e n^a$ "be", though occasionally as subjects:

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 nɔ̀ŋılím_ø àň sī'əm. Christ Nz TNS die 1PL about ART cause and 1PL realise love NZ COP INDF.ADV "Christ dying for us makes us understand what love is like." (1 Jn 3:16)

Dine ke ka m a saalbiis zua la ane mam pu sa'amidi ba la'ad ka me pu diti ba ki la. kà mà án sáàl-bīis Dìni kế zuá lā á nē mán REL.SG cause and 1SG COP smooth-child:PL friend:SG ART COP FOC 1SG:NZ sáň'amìdí bà lā'ad kà mé pū dítí bà kī láa +ø. рū 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

Absolute clauses are not used as objects of verbs of perception or communication; either relative clauses with indefinite pronouns as relatives or content clauses <u>26.2</u> appear in this function.

Absolute clauses with $s\bar{a}d\iota g(m$ "since, because" immediately following nominaliser- \dot{n} occur as postlinker adjuncts expressing "reason why":

Tinamε sagidim aan o biis la, ti da tɛn'ɛs ... Tīnámì ø sādıgím áaň ò bīis lā, tì dā tēň'ɛs ... IPL NZ since COP 3AN child:PL ART, 1PL NEG.IMP think ... "Since we are his children, we should not think ..." (Acts 17:29)

Amaa on sadigim kpi la, bɔ ka m lɛm lɔɔd nɔɔr ya'asɛ? Àmáa ɔ´n sādıgím kpí lā, bɔ´ kà m̀ lɛ́m But ȝẠN:NZ since die ART, what and ısg again lɔ̄ɔd nɔ̄ɔr yá'asɛ̀ +ø +ø? tie:IPFV mouth:sg again NEG CQ? "But since he has died, why should I still be fasting?" (2 Samuel 12:23)

For absolute clauses with post-subject $n\bar{a}an(\iota)$ see 24.1.2.

Absolute clauses occur after $h\bar{a}li$ $n\bar{\epsilon}$ or $h\bar{a}li$ $l\dot{a}$ 'am $n\bar{\epsilon}$ "although, even as" <u>18</u>, and $h\bar{a}li$ n tì $p\bar{a}a$..."up until the time when ..." <u>21.2.1</u>.

Before the postposition $z\bar{u}g^{3/}$ "on account of", or $b\bar{z} z u d g \bar{z}$ "because", absolute clauses form reason-why 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. n $d\epsilon \eta i g$ ϕ $n \gamma \bar{e}$ Blestus $\delta n i$ Kà bà lá'às tāaba àň ná'àb Herod And 3PL gather each other CAT do.first CAT see Blastus RELAN COP king:sg Herod sāmán-nà'ab lā n máàl sūer yć ò ňwć' nà'ab nú'ùg, courtvard-chief:sg ART CAT make way:sg that 3AN strike king:sg hand:sg, bà dī bà yīt ná'-tēŋ lā nā zúg. 3PL food NZ emerge: IPFV king-country: SG 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 as usual need to be preposed with ka 28.2 to match the word order to event order 19.2.1:

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."

It is commoner for causation to be simply implied by an absolute clause as postlinker adjunct or $k\dot{a}$ -preposed VP adjunct, or by a sequential clause:

Mán ňwè' dāu lā, kà police gbáň'a_m.
1SG:NZ strike man:SG ART and police seize 1SG.OB.
"I having struck the man, the police arrested me."

M ňwé' dāu lā, kà police gbáň'a_m.
1SG strike man:SG ART and police seize 1SG.OB.
"I struck the man and the police arrested me."

 $Y\bar{\varepsilon}l\dot{a}^+$ "concerning" appears after absolute clauses in NT section headings:

Jesus n kpen' Jerusalem la yela Jesus n kpɛ̀ň' Jerusalem lā yɛ́là Jesus Nz enter Jerusalem ART about "[about] Jesus entering into Jerusalem."

However, the NT uses absolute clauses alone as picture captions:

Ban meed yir"A house being built"Bán mèɛd yīr3PL:NZ build:IPFV house:SG

25.3 Relative clauses

Relative clauses are usually restrictive in meaning, except when the construction is appositional. (Compare adnominal $k\dot{a}$ -catenation, used typically with a non-restrictive relative meaning <u>23.3</u>.)

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 \hat{n} in the indefinite-pronoun type; diachronically, the unitary relative pronouns have arisen from fusion of a clause-initial short demonstrative pronoun with a following \hat{n} .

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. Short demonstrative pronouns are never relatives when non-initial, and long demonstratives are never relatives at all:

```
Wina'am onε gaad si'el wusa la
Wínà'am śnì gàad sī'əl wūsa lā
God REL.AN pass INDF.INAN all ART
"God who surpasses everything." (Lk 1:35)
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wvv baŋi gban'ad si'el si'em la
wvv bāŋ(_ ø gbāň'ad si'əl si'əm lā
like trap:sg NZ seize:IPFV INDF.INAN INDF.ADV ART
"like a trap seizes something" (Lk 21:35)

O pa'al nɛ'ɛnam nyain tis sɔ' wusa on vu'ug nin**kan** kumin la zug. Ò pà'al nɛ̄'-nám ňyāe ø tís sɔ̄' wūsa ón vū'ug 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 tom toomnyalima gaad dau **kaŋa** tom si'el laa? ò nà tōm tóòm-ňyālımá gàad dàu-kàŋá g tòm sī'əl láa ⁺g? 3AN IRR work work-grand:PL CAT pass man-DEM.DEI.SG NZ work INDF.INAN ART PQ? "Will he do miracles greater than this man has?" (Jn 7:31)

25.3.1 With indefinite pronouns

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 and catenated clauses:

ye Wina'am nodi'esidib n daa yel si'el n sob Wina'am gbauŋin la, ane ameŋa.
yē Wínà'am nó-dí'àsıdıb n dāa yél sī'əl n sōb
That God mouth-receiver:PL NZ TNS say INDF.INAN CAT write
Wínà'am gbáuŋū-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)

The indefinite pronoun or noun-pronoun compound usually follows the verb directly, but this is not invariable:

... fon yɛlim fon niŋ li si'el. ... fōn yɛ́lìm fón nìŋì lī sī'əl. ... 2SG.CNTR Say:IMP 2SG:NZ do 3INAN INDF.INAN. "... that you say where you have put it." (Jn 20:15)

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 a predeterminer within a NP or AdvP (see below.)

The antecedent of a relative clause using an indefinite pronoun is most often a direct object:

Ón yὲl sī'əl lā kā' sídāa +ø. 3AN:NZ say INDF.INAN ART NEG.BE truth NEG. "What he says is not true" SB

on gaŋ **dau sɔ'** la ón gāŋ dáu̯-sɔ̄' lā 3AN:NZ choose man-INDF.AN ART "**the man** whom he has chosen" (Numbers 16:5)

M mi' man gaŋ **sieba** la. M mi' mán gāŋ sīəba lā. ISG know ISG:NZ choose INDF.PL ART. "I know **those** whom I have chosen." (Jn 13:18)

Ka ban tum sɔ' la ku gaad onε tum o la.
Kà bán tùm sɔ̄' lā kú gāad śnì tùm·o_ø láa +ø.
And 3PL:NZ send INDF.AN ART NEG.IRR surpass REL.AN send 3AN.OB ART NEG.
"One who was sent does not surpass the one who sent him." (Jn 13:16)

Paul n sob **gbauŋ si'a** n tis Efesus dim la Paul ǹ sɔ̄b gbáu̯ŋ-sī'a n tís Efesus dím lā 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 mī sī'əl nān á nε bī'əlá. 1SG:NZ know INDF.INAN now COP FOC small.ADV "**What** I know now is small." (1 Cor 13:12)

The head can be part of a subordinate clause within the relative clause, or it can be a predeterminer in a NP or AdvP:

Fun bood ye fu ku dau so' la ya'a kpi...
Fún bood yé fu ku dáu-so' lā yá' kpi...
2SG:NZ want that 2SG kill man-INDE.AN ART if die...
"If the man whom you are seeking to kill dies ..." (2 Samuel 17:3)

ya na baŋ man yɛl ye m an **sɔ'** la. yà ná bāŋ mán yɛ́l yɛ́ m̀ àň sɔ̄' lā. 2PL IRR understand 1sg:NZ say that 1sg COP INDF.AN ART. "you will understand **who** I say that I am." (Jn 8:28)

Gosim ye fu na baŋ la'abama an **so'** bunnεε? Gòsim yé fù ná bāŋ lá'-bàmmá ø àň sō' búnnὲε +ø? Look:IMP that 2SG IRR understand item-DEM.DEI.PL NZ COP INDF.AN thing:SG PQ? "Can you see if you can find out **whose** property these things are?" (Genesis 38:25)

Alaa mam mε kv yεli ya mam nyε nɔɔr la **sɔ'** san'anε. Àláa mām mέ kv yεlı yá mán ňyε nɔ̄ɔr lā sɔ̄' sá'anε̄ +ø. Thus 1sg.cntr also neg.irr say 2pl.oB 1sg:nz see mouth:sg art indf.an among neg. "Thus I too will not tell you from **whom** I derived the authority." (Mt 21:27)

M na tomi m Ba' zi'el nɔɔr sɔ' yɛla la tisi ya
M ná tūm(_m Bá'_ ø zì'əl nɔ̄ɔr sɔ̄' yɛ́là_ø tísì_yā.
ISG IRR send 1SG father:SG NZ stand mouth:SG INDF.AN about CAT give 2PL.OB.
"I will send whom my Father made a promise about to you." (Lk 24:49)

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 fún gbāň'e zīŋ-sí'a yīigá lā, fūn 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 s5b gbáuŋ yīigá dāan n tís Korint dím lā ø ňwá. 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)

In most relative clauses using indefinite pronouns the pronoun is itself the head of the clause. It then usually keeps the indefinite-specific sense of indefinite pronouns in other contexts (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 verb 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.

Examples from the 1996 NT and KB:

o naan baŋin po'a kane si'is o la a so' ò nāan báŋī-n pu̯'á-kànì sī'ıs·ó ø lá øàň 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'. m̀ ná pā'alı yá śn wɛ̄n sɔ̄'. ISG IRR teach 2PL.OB 3AN:NZ resemble INDF.AN. "I will teach you **what** he is like." (Lk 6:47, 1996)

 M mi' fun a so'.
 "I know who you are." (Lk 4:34, 1996)

 M mí' fún àň sɔ̄'.
 1SG know 2SG:NZ COP INDE.AN

David da tum sɔ' ye o bu'osi baŋ pu'a la an sɔ'. David dá tùm sɔ̄' yɛ́ ò bū'əsı ø báŋ pu̯'ā lá ø àň sɔ̄'. David TNS send INDF.AN that 3AN ask CAT understand 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

... báŋì bà yāa-námì ø àň sīəba

... understand 3PL ancestor-PL NZ COP INDF.PL

"... discover **who** their ancestors were." (Ezra 2:61)

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Relative clauses headed by $s\vec{r} \partial a$ account for most occurrences of $s\vec{r} \partial a$ in the 1996 NT. Again, most cases (75 out of 130 in Matthew, Mark, Luke and John in the 1995 NT) show either $s\vec{r} \partial a$ or the entire relative clause (or both) as the complement of a verb of cognition, reporting, or perception:

Mam mi' si'el ane ye, m daa ane zu'om ka yu'un nyet. Mán mī' sī'əl á nē yē, m dāa á nē zū'om, kà yū'un ňyēt. ISG:NZ know INDF.INAN COP FOC that, ISG TNS COP FOC blind:SG, and after see:IPFV. "What I know is, that I was blind and now I see." (Jn 9:25, 1996)

Kem yeli Joon yanam wum ka nye si'el. KÈm ø yĒl ø Joon yānám ø wùm 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 baŋ man niŋ si'el laa? Yà báŋ mán nìŋ sī'əl láa ⁺ø? 2PL understand 15G:NZ do INDF.INAN ART CQ? "Do you understand what I have done?" (Jn 13:12, 1996)

Of the remaining 55 examples, 22 have $s\vec{r} \partial l^a$ in a locative meaning "where, whither"; neither the pronoun nor the relative clause have the locative particle:

One keŋ likin zi' on ken si'ela. Ònι kēŋ līkι-n zī' ´n kēn sī'əla +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." (Jn 12:35, 1996)

In the remaining 33 examples, $s\bar{r} \partial l^a$ consistently has an abstract uncountable meaning, often shading into "whatever":

Ka o niŋ on tun'e si'el. Kà ò níŋ źn tūň'e sī'əl. And зам do зам:Nz be.able INDF.INAN. "She has done what she could."(Mk 14:8,1996) In 14 of these cases it is followed by *wosa*⁺ "all":

M na tis uf fun bood si'el wusa. À ná tīsı f fún bòɔd sī'əl wūsa. ISG IRR give 2SG.OB 2SG:NZ want INDF.INAN all. "I will give you anything you want." (Mk 6:23, 1996)

 $S7
ightarrow m^{m}$, the form of the indefinite pronoun system with the mass m^{m} class suffix, appears in adverbial use as "somehow." As Kusaal frequently uses manneradverbs as predicative complements <u>17.5</u>, relative clauses with s7
ightarrow 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 yɛlá lā kɛ́ kà tì báŋ nòŋılím_ø àň sī əm. Christ Nz TNS die 1PL about ART cause and 1PL realise love NZ COP INDF.ADV "Christ dying for us makes us understand what love is like." (1 Jn 3:16)

The article $|\bar{a}^{+/}$ has its usual function with $s\bar{r} \partial m$ -relative clauses:

Ṁ mí' mán nà nīŋ sī'əm. "I know what to do." 1SG know 1SG:NZ IRR do INDF.ADV.

M mí' mán nà nīŋ sī əm lā.
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 $s\bar{r} \rightarrow m$ and past tense marking have $|\bar{a}^{+/}; 75\%$ lacking $|\bar{a}^{+/}|$ have irrealis mood. Cf the two standing expressions

́оп	bòɔd sī'əm	"as he wishes"
3AN:N	IZ want INDF.ADV	
lín	àň sĩəm lā	"as things are"
3INAN	I:NZ COP INDF.ADV ART	

 $Y \dot{\epsilon} I^{\epsilon}$ "say, tell" tends to take a $s\bar{r} \partial m$ -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 nà yɛlı_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, 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."

Verbs of other types also take $s\vec{r} \rightarrow m$ -clauses as complements. Gàad^{ϵ} "pass, surpass" is used with a $s\vec{r} \rightarrow m$ -clause for comparing actions:

Mam tum bɛdegu gaad ban tum si'em la. Mām túm bɛ́dugū_ø gáàd bán tùm sī'əm lā. ISG.CNTR work much CAT pass 3PL:NZ work INDF.ADV ART "I've worked much harder than (how) they have." (2 Cor 11:23)

Gbāň'*e*^{+/} "catch" is used with a *sī əm*-clause for "decide what to do":

M gbáň'e mán nà nīŋ sī'əm.
1SG seize 1SG:NZ IRR do INDE.ADV.
"I've decided what to do."

With verbs of doing, a *si`əm*-relative clause can be a manner-adverb:

Bà nìŋ ón yèlı bā sī əm lā. 3PL do 3AN:NZ tell 3PL.OB INDF.ADV ART. "They did as he'd told them."

Like other AdvPs, *si`əm*-relative clauses can be verb subjects:

Man noŋi ya si'em la ane bedego. Mán nòŋı yā sī'əm lā á nē bédugū. 15G:NZ love 2PL.OB INDF.ADV ART COP FOC much. "How much I love you, is a lot." (2 Cor 7:3, 1976) *Sī`əm*-relative clauses occur often as objects of *wvv* "like", *wɛn*^{na/} "resemble"

...ka ya na kɛ ka nidib dɔl man wvv ziiŋgba'adibi gban'ad zimi si'em la. ...kà yà ná kɛ́ kà nīdıb dɔ̄l mān wvv zīiŋ-gbáň'adìb_ø ...and <code>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</code>

"... you will make people follow me like fishermen catch fish." (Mt 4:19)

 $H\bar{a}li$ ($l\dot{a}$ 'am) $n\bar{\epsilon}$ "although" can take a $s\bar{r}\partial m$ -relative clause in the sense "despite how..." 18.

Relative clauses with an indefinite pronoun as a postdeterminer are comparatively uncommon. Only one case occurs in the 1996 NT with $s\bar{j}^{+}$ or $s\bar{i}aba^{+}$, though KB has several examples; $s\bar{i}^{+}a^{+}$ is commoner, but in the great majority of cases follows a cb expressing a place or time. However, when indefinite pronouns do appear after cbs as relatives, they are not limited to indefinite-specific senses:

Nidib la da wum Yesu n tum tuum sieba ...
Nīdıb lā dá wòm Yesu n tòm tòvm-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 kū nīn-síəbà dá kā' bī əláa ⁺ø.
3PL:NZ TNS kill person-INDF.PL TNS NEG.BE few NEG.
"Those they had killed were not few." (1 Samuel 4:10)

ka ban nε ban tom ninsieba la dol taaba keŋ David san'an...
kà bān nē bán tòm nīn-síəbà lā dōl tāaba ø
and 3PL.CNTR with 3PL:NZ send person-INDF.PL ART accompany each.other CAT
kēŋ David sá'àn...
go David among ...
"They and those whom had been sent went together with David" (1 Sam 25:42)

Kem tv'vs Samaria na'abi tvm ninsieba la na ...Kèm_ø tv'vs Samaria ná'abí_ø tvm 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 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 teŋ 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)

Nannanna, yaname daa sob **gbauŋ si'a** la ka m ye m sob lebisi ya. Nānná-nā, yānámì_ø dāa sɔ̃b gbáu̯ŋ-sī'a lá kà m yé Now, 2PL NZ TNS write letter-INDF.INAN ART and 1SG that m̀ sɔ̃b_ø lébìsì_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)

... li pu nar ye m zaŋ Zugsob la tisi m paŋ si'a la n tum ne sutoogo.
... lì pū nār yé m záŋ Zūg-sób lá @ tìsì m
... 3INAN NEG.IND be.necessary that 1sg pick.up Head-one:sg ART NZ give 1sg.OB
páŋ-sī a lā n tóm nē sūň-tóogō +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 mɔ̄r sām-sí'a á nē yé yà nɔ́ŋ 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)

Cases of the "subordinate interrogative clause" type also occur:

Tiig wela bigisid lin a tisi'a.
Tìıg wélà ø bìgısıd lín àň tí-sīa.
Tree:sg fruit:PL CAT show:IMPF 3INAN:NZ COP tree-INDE.INAN.
"It's the fruit of the tree that shows what tree it is." (Mt 12:33, 1996)

Of 56 relative clauses with $s\bar{r}a^+$ in the 1996 NT, 33 involve cbs of nouns referring to places:

M Zugsoba, ti zi' fun ken zin'isi'a la.
M Zūg-sóbā +ø, tì zī' 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)

Ka bugum nie on be doog si'a la ni.
Kà bùgúm níe ún bè dó-sī a lā 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 out of the remaining 23 involve $s\bar{a}n-si'a^+$ "sometime", e.g.

Abraham da nan kae' **saŋsi'a** la, ka man pun be. Abraham dá nàm kā'ẹ sān-sí'a lā, kà mān pún bὲ. Abraham TNS still NEG.BE time-INDF.INAN ART, and ISG.CNTR already EXIST. "When Abraham still did not exist, I already existed." (Jn 8:58, 1996)

25.3.2 With relative pronouns

The commonest type of relative clause begins with a relative pronoun or an NP with a relative pronoun as a postdeterminer. In origin, these pronouns are short demonstrative pronouns followed by \dot{n} . When the head is the subject of the relative clause, this produces the forms $\dot{\partial}n\iota$ kànι lìnι bànι (always written onɛ kanɛ linɛ banɛ in KB) where the final - ι is due to liaison before the nominaliser, which is itself invariably realised \emptyset in this case.

M ňyć 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 ka, or belongs to a predeterminer of the subject, one might expect the 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:

yikan ka mam Paul be la yī-kán kà mām Paul bź lā house-dem.sg and 1sg.cntr Paul exist art "the house where I, Paul, am" (Rom 16:23, 1976)

on buudi ka Jew dim kis òn 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 kanε 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 **kanε** yadda **niŋiri** pv zu'oe dàu̯-kànı yàddā-níŋìrı ø pv̄ 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 $\partial ni k \partial ni l ni b \partial ni$ synchronically as subordinating relative pronouns rather than demonstrative + nominaliser combinations, and where sources use the historically expected forms $\partial ni k \partial n l n b \partial n$ in heads of relative clauses they will be regarded as allomorphs of the relative pronouns in that context. Accordingly, elsewhere I will write e.g.

M ňyć dáu-kànı zàb nà'ab lā.
1SG see man-REL.SG fight chief:SG ART
"I saw the man who fought the chief."

bàn(ı) kà nà'ab lā záb lā
REL.PL and chief:sg ART fight ART
"those whom the chief fought."

25.3.2

To ende 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."

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 is a word, not 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 pronoun-initial type of relative clause as internally-headed.

If the antecedent is the subject within a relative clause, or a premodifier of the subject, a relative pronoun must be used:

bàn *i* zàb nà'ab lā REL.PL fight chief:sg ART "those who fought the chief"

M ňyź dáu-kànı zàb nà'ab lā.
1SG see man-REL.SG fight chief:SG ART
"I saw the man who fought the chief."

nimbanεyuda sob Pɛbil la gbauŋun linɛ an nyovupaal dim gbauŋ lanīn-bánìyūdásōbPē'-bíllāgbáuŋū-nlínìperson-REL.PL name:PL write Lamb:SG ART book:SG-LOC REL.INANàňňyó-vū-páàldímgbáuŋlācop breath-alive-new:sG individual.PL book:SG ART"those whose names are written in the Lamb's book of new life" (Rev 21:27)

A relative pronoun can also relativise a complement or adjunct, or an antecedent extracted from a prepositional phrase or from a subordinate clause. The antecedent is preposed with ka and a resumptive pronoun is placed in any gap left by extraction, or for an indirect object, and occasionally for a human-reference direct object. Ka-preposing has no foregrounding sense in this context.

 $K\dot{a}$ -preposed relative pronouns are commoner than indefinite pronouns used as relatives, except when the clause corresponds to an English subordinate interrogative clause, or expresses time, place or manner <u>25.3.1</u>.

Gbauŋ kane ka Jerusalem kpeenmnam daa sob la nwa. Gbàuŋ-kànι kà Jerusalem kpέἑňm-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 Jerusalem wrote." (Acts 15:23, 1996)

m antu'a linε [1996 lin] ka ba mɔr na m̀ àntù'a lìnı kà bà mɔ̄r nā 15G case REL.INAN and 3PL have hither "the charge they are bringing against me" (Acts 25:11)

yɛltɔɔd ayɔpɔi banɛ ka maliaknama ayɔpɔi mɔr la yɛl-tɔ́ɔd àyɔ́pɔ̀e bánì kà màli̯āk-námá_àyɔ́pɔ̀e mɔ̄r lā 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)

niŋkanɛ [1996 niŋkan] ka ba gban'e o la nīn-kánì kà bà gbáň'·o_ø lā 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 mɛ mɔr putɛn'ɛr ye o na lɛbis linɛ zu'oe. ∂ni kà bà tís·ò ø kà lì zú'e, bà mɛ mòr REL.AN and 3PL give 3AN.OB and 3INAN become.much, 3PL also have pú-tɛ̀n̆'ɛr yɛ́ ò nà lɛ̄bıs 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)

Búraa sõ dāa bế ànīa, ôn kà mān néōn dāa túm lā.Būrá-sɔ̄'dāa bé ànínā, òn kà mān nē ɔ̄n dāa túm lā.Man-INDF.AN TNSEXIST ADV:there, REL.AN and 1SGwith 3AN TNS"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-kánì 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 tɛn'ɛs ye **ba** anɛ tuongatib la nīn-bánì kà yà tɛ̃ň'ɛs yé bà à nɛ̃ 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 lìnι kà Kristo bóòd yέ 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 ka-preposed, but obviously no resumptive pronoun is needed:

Samaritan nid (**on** buudi ka Jew dim kis) Samaritan níd, òn 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 púòg kà ò mɔ̄r lā child-REL.SG belly:SG and 3AN have ART "the child **which** she is pregnant with [whose belly she has]" (Mt 1:20)

Relative clauses with locative reference do not take the locative $n\bar{\iota}^{+/}$:

yikan ka mam Paul be la yidaan yī-kán kà mām Paul b£ 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)

25.3.3 Uncompounded antecedents

Written materials frequently show a human-reference NP followed by a relative clause introduced by *one* or *bane*. Before *one*, the preceding word is never a cb, and with human-reference heads (as elsewhere <u>16.8</u> <u>16.11.1.5</u>) the construction is **appositional**. Unequivocally appositional cases are usually non-restrictive:

o sid onε da bε nε o la ò sīd ´nì dà bὲ nέ 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 $on\epsilon$ most often occurs after proper names.

Relative pronouns cannot be compounded with coordinate structures, demonstratives, quantifiers or locatives; such cases are not confined to humanreference, and are simply parallel in usage to compounded constructions:

Mam Paul nε Timoti banε an Yesu Kristo tumtumnib la sobid gbauŋ kaŋaMāmPaul nĒTimotibánì àň Yesu Kristo túm-tūmníbIsg.CNTRPaul with Timothy REL.PL COP Jesus Christ work-worker:PLIāsōbidgbáuŋ-kàŋā...ART write:IPFV letter-DEM.DEI.SG ..."I, Paul, and Timothy, servants of Jesus Christ, are writing this letter." (Phil 1:1)

kokor kaŋa lini yi arazana ni la na kùkār-káŋā línì yí àrazánà ní lā nā voice-DEM.DEI.SG REL.INAN emerge sky:sg LOC ART hither "this voice which came from heaven" (2 Pet 1:18, 1976)

sanlima laas **ayopoi line** ka Wina'am one be **sana line** ka' ben la sunpeen pɛ'ɛli ba la sālīma láàs línì kà Wínà'am ónì àyźpże bὲ vessel:pl num:seven rel.inan and God aold **REL.AN EXIST** kā' bēn lā súň-péèn pé'elì bā sāŋá lìni lā time:sg rel.inan Neg.have end:sg art heart-whiteness fill 3PL.OB ART "the seven gold bowls filled with the anger of God who exists for time without end" (Rev 15:7)

nimbanɛ yvda sɔb Pɛbil la **gbauŋun linɛ** an nyɔvvpaal dim gbauŋ la nīn-bánì yūdá sɔ̄b Pɛ̄'-bíl lā gbáu̯ŋū-n línì person-REL.PL name:PL write Lamb:sG ART book:sG-LOC REL.INAN àň ňyɔ´-vū-páàl dím gbáu̯ŋ 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 keŋ **Nazaret**, ban da ugus o **teŋ si'a** la. Kà Yesu kēŋ Nazaret bán dà ūgus·ó_ø tèŋ-si'a lā. 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)

26 Complementised clauses

Complementised clauses are usually introduced by the clause linker $y\bar{\epsilon}$. Both types may appear with $k\dot{a}$ instead, but usually much less often, and never exclusively; constructions which only permit $k\dot{a}$ and never $y\bar{\epsilon}$ must be coordination or catenation. Complementised clauses follow any catenated clauses. Complementised clauses can be coordinated with $k\dot{a}$:

ka lin anɛ **ye** fv kv maali ti bɛ'ɛdɛ nwɛnɛ tinamɛ daa pv maalif bɛ'ɛd si'em la asɛɛ sv'vm ma'aa, **ka ye** fv yim nɛ sumbvgvsvm la.

kà lĩn á nē vé fù kù māalí tì bē'edi ø wēn nē and SINAN.CNTR COP FOC that 2SG NEG.IRR make 1PL bad CAT resemble with tīnámì ø dāa pū máalì f bē'ed sī'əm lá àsée sùm má'àa. 1PL NZ TNS NEG.IND make 2SG.OB bad INDF.ADV ART except good only kà γέ fù yīm nē súmbūgusím lā. and that 2SG emerge: IMP with peace ART. "Which is that you will not do us harm, as we did not do you harm but only good, and that you will depart in peace." (Genesis 26:29)

26.1 Purpose clauses

Purpose clauses lack independency marking and have imperative mood. As there is no $-m^a$ flexion with dual-aspect verbs, the imperative is apparent only in the use of $d\bar{a}$ as the negation particle. The term "purpose clause" is convenient but such clauses are also used as complements of verbs expressing necessity and permission, and elsewhere the "purpose" sense can be very attenuated.

Purpose clauses may be VP adjuncts:

Bà tìs·ō_ø kú'èm yź ò nū.
3PL give 3AN.OB water that 3AN drink.
"They gave him water to drink. ("So that he might drink it.")

 \dot{M} ná tī f tíìm yế fừ nĩf 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 vòl 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

An "attenuated" example is

Ka ba gban'e ba kpɛn'ɛs sanrega ni ye bɛog nie.
Kà bà gbáň'a_bā_ ø kpɛ́ň'ɛ̀s sārugá nù yē bɛ̃og 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 $b \dot{} \partial d^a$ "want"; or $y \dot{\epsilon} l^{\epsilon}$ "tell"; after these verbs the particle is nearly always $y \dot{\epsilon}$. Negative raising occurs with $b \dot{} \partial d^a$ but not with $y \dot{\epsilon} l^{\epsilon}$.

 \dot{M} býżd yć ò kūl. "I want her to go home." 1SG want that 3AN go.home.

M pō bóòd yé m kūlɛ +ø.
1SG NEG.IND want that 1SG go.home NEG.
"I don't want [me] to go home."

M yélī f yé fù dā kūle +ø.
1sg tell 2sg.oB that 2sg NEG.IMP go.home NEG.
"I've 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:

Nidib la daa gur Zakaria yiib na.Nīdıblā dāa gūrZakariayîbnā.Person:PL ART TNSwatch Zechariah emerge:GER hither.The people were watching for Zechariah's coming out. (Lk 1:21)

... gur ye pu'a la du'a ka o onb biig la.
... gūr yē pu'ā lā du'á kà ò onb biig lā.
watch that woman:sg ART bear and BAN eat child:sg ART.
"...waiting for the woman to give birth so he could devour her child." (Rev 12:4)

Purpose-clause complements follow expressions of **necessity** or **permission** such as $n\bar{a}r^{a/}$ "be obliged to" (negated "be obliged not to"); $m\bar{j}r \ s\bar{u}er$ "be allowed to"; *l*i à [$n\bar{\epsilon}$] $t\bar{l}l\dot{a}s$ "it is necessary": Fò pō nār yć fò níŋ àláa +ø.
2SG NEG.IND must that 2SG do ADV:thus NEG.
"You're not allowed to do that."

Lì nàr yé/kà fò kūl. "You must go home." 3INAN must that/and 25G go.home.

In KB there are 258 examples of *nar ye* to 45 of *nar ka*.

Yà mór sūeryé yà kūl."You may go home."2PL have way:sG that 2PL go.home.

Sūør	bέ	yé/kà	tì	kūl.	"We may go home."
Way:sg	EXIST	that/and	l 1PL	go.home.	(" There's a way that we go home.")

Li anɛ tilas ye m keŋ Jerusalem. Lì à nɛ̄ tīlás yɛ́ m̀ kɛ̄ŋ Jerusalem. 3INAN COP FOC necessity that 1sg go Jerusalem. "I must go to Jerusalem." (Mt 16:21, 1996)

Li ane tilas ka m niŋid ala. Lì à nɛ̄ tīlás kà m̀ níŋìd àlá. 3INAN COP FOC necessity and 1SG do:IPFV ADV:thus. "I must do that." (1 Cor 9:16, 1996); there are no examples kà with in KB

 $N\bar{a}r^{a/}$ is occasionally used in a personal construction "deserve that":

babayi' la nar ye ba kuu ba bà bàyí lā nár yé bà kúu_bā 3PL NUM:two ART must that 3PL kill 3PL.OB "both of them must be killed" (Leviticus 20:12)

Anɔ'ɔnɛ nar ka na nyaŋi lak titabir la ... Ànɔ´'ɔnì_ø nár kà ná ňyāŋı_ø lāk tītābır lā ...? Who cat must and IRR prevail cat unstick glue ART ...? "Who is worthy to open the seal ...?" (Rev 5:2)

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26.2 Content clauses

Complementised clauses with independency marking <u>19.6</u> on the VP are content clauses. They are downranked main clauses, and show all the structural features possible for main clauses. They occur very frequently representing passages of indirect speech, but are also found much more generally after verbs of cognition, reporting, and perception.

Verbs taking content clauses as complements include, for example $y\dot{\epsilon}^{\epsilon}$ "say", $w\dot{\nu}m^{m}$ "hear", $n\ddot{y}\bar{\epsilon}^{+}$ "see", $t\bar{\epsilon}n\ddot{\epsilon}s^{\epsilon}$ "think", $m\ddot{r}^{+}$ "know", $b\dot{a}\eta^{\epsilon}$ "come to know", $p\dot{a}'al^{\epsilon}$ "teach, show", $k\dot{a}r\iota m^{m}$ "read", $z\bar{\iota}^{+}$ "not know" and $s\dot{a}k^{\epsilon}$ "agree":

ban mi' ye biig la kpinɛ la zug bán mī' 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): focus-nē^{+/}

Bùŋ-bāň'ad $z\bar{\iota}$ ' $y\bar{\varepsilon}$ $t\bar{\varepsilon}\eta$ $t\'ull\bar{a}$ +ø. Donkey-rider:sg NEG.KNOW that ground:sg be.hot NEG. "The donkey-rider doesn't know the ground is hot." Tone overlay: $T\bar{\varepsilon}\eta$ t'ul. "Ground is hot." cf $t\bar{\upsilon}l$ ^{la/}"be hot"

Fune siak ye **fu ya'a ti kae**, o na zin'ini fu na'am gbauŋ la zugoo? Fūn \emptyset siák yé fù yá' tì kā'e, ò nà zīň'in(fừ nā'am 2SG.CNTR CAT agree that 2SG if after NEG.BE, 3AN IRR sit 2SG chieftaincy gbáuŋ lā zúgóo + \emptyset ? skin:SG ART upon PQ? "Did you agree that when you are no more, he will sit on your throne?" (1 Kings 1:24): postlinker adjunct

Absolute clauses 25.2 cannot be used as objects of such verbs, but another possibility apart from content clauses is NP + $y\bar{\epsilon}/\dot{a}$ "about" 17.6.

Except in indirect speech <u>26.2.1</u>, content clauses are usually declarative. There are exceptions, possibly characteristic of verbs of opinion and judgment:

Ya tɛnɛs ka m aan anɔ'ɔnɛ? Yà tɛ́ň'ɛ̀s kà m̀ áaň ànɔ́'ɔ̀nɛ +ø? 2PL think and 1SG COP who cQ? "Who do you think I am?" (Acts 13:25)

WK usually has $y\bar{\varepsilon}$ before content clauses, but prefers $k\dot{a}$ after $t\bar{\varepsilon}\bar{n}'\varepsilon s^{\varepsilon/}$ "think." KB has 219 examples of *tenes ye* to 31 of *tenes ka* and shows $k\dot{a}$ after other verbs too: Ya pun wum ka ba da yɛl ye...
Yà pún wùm kà bà dá yɛl yē ...
2PL previously hear and 3PL TNS say that...
"You previously heard that they had said ..." (Mt 5:43)

 $K\dot{a}$ + 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:

À téň'ès kà *m* lú yā. "I think I've fallen" WK 1SG think and 1SG fall PFV.

There are a few examples in KB of $n\varepsilon$ for $y\varepsilon y\overline{\varepsilon}$ "that" (cf Mampruli *ni id*):

Man boodin nɛ yanamɛ naan aan ma'asiga bɛɛ yanamɛ naan aan tuuliga.Mānbóodī-n nɛ̄ yānámì @ nāan áa-nmā'asígā bɛɛISG.CNTR want-DP that 2PLNZ then COP-DP cold:ADV oryānámì @ nāan áa-ntūulígā.2PLNZ then COP-DP hot:ADV."I might wish you had been cold or you had been hot." (Rev 3:15)

The verb $y\dot{\epsilon}l$ is frequently ellipted before $y\bar{\epsilon}$:

Ka Zugsob la ye ..."And the Lord said: ..." (Genesis 18:28)Kà Zūg-sóblā yē ...And head-one:sg ART that ...

Pronouns are changed throughout in the content clause to reflect its setting, on the same basis as in English "indirect speech." The free 3rd person pronouns have **logophoric** sense. In contexts where bound pronouns could have occurred instead (i.e. they are contrastive <u>28.5</u>) they replace 1st persons of the original utterance:

Festus tans Paul ye o geem ne ... ka Paul lebis ye on pu geem.
Festus táňs Paul yé ò gèɛňm nē ... kà Paul lébis
Festus shout Paul that 3AN go.mad FOC ... and Paul reply
yē ɔn po géɛňmm +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)

Bound 3rd persons may also have this sense, but the free pronouns are much commoner as subjects. Thus "He₁ said he₁ would kill them." is usually

 \dot{O} yèl yē $\bar{2}n$ ná kúu bā. 3AN say that 3AN.CNTR IRR kill 3PL.OB.

It is possible to say *Ò yèl yé ò nà kúv bā*, but this is much more likely to mean "He1 said he2 would kill them."

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 go.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."

26.2.1 Direct and indirect speech

After a speech-verb $y\bar{\varepsilon}$ may introduce the words of the direct speech itself, unaltered except for "resumptive" $y\bar{\varepsilon}$ at intervals (see below.) This is uncommon in the older texts, and in the 1976 NT mostly confined to direct utterances of Jesus. Usually 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, and free personal pronouns used logophorically. All other features of the original main clauses, including tense marking and independency marking, are unchanged. 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 freely includes direct questions and direct commands.

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 3AN.OB that Ananias, that what and 3AN cause and Satan kpėň' ò sūuňr(-n ... +ø? enter 3AN 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 y^a 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 y^a after the verb even when there is a preceding pronoun subject <u>22.1.3</u>.

Quoting gives an alternative to purpose clauses 26.1 for expressing indirect commands; again, the main clause and linker may be ellipted 21.3 informally:

[M yél yé] ò gòsım tēŋı-n.
15G say that 3AN look:IMP ground:SG-LOC.
"[I said] she should look down."

[M téň'ès kà] tì pú'usìm Wínà'am.
1SG think and 1PL greet:IMP God.
"[I think] we should praise God."

A main clause with no VP can also appear in indirect speech <u>22.3.4</u>:

Ò yèl yē báp. "She said Bap!"
3AN say that 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 wúm Wínà'am kúkór kà lì уī áràzánà ní nā γē, And 1sg hear God voice:sg and 3INAN emerge heaven LOC hither that ò nīdıbá +ø, yέ bà yìmī ø tēŋ 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)

Passages of direct or indirect speech longer than two or three clauses insert **resumptive** $y\bar{\epsilon}$ at intervals of roughly every third clause, after any prelinker adjuncts but before clause-linker $k\dot{a}$ (this is the only origin for $y\bar{\epsilon}$ $k\dot{a}$ beside ellipsis <u>21.3</u>.)

amaa **ye** ba yaanam da pu bood ye ba siak o noore àmáa yé bà yāa-nám dá pū bóòd yé bà si̯ák·ò ø nɔ̄ɔré +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 ... Àmáa yé kà ɔ̄n yélì bā yē... But that and 3AN.CNTR say 3PL.OB that... "But he [the speaker] had said to them ..." (Acts 25:16, 1976)

Alazug **ye ka** on ke ka ba mor o ba sa'an na ... Àlá zùg yé kà ɔ̄n ké kà bà mɔ̄r·ó 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 postlinker adjunct and the subject, or between a vocative NP and the following clause:

Ka nanana **ye** o niŋi ba Wina'am ne o popielim pia'ad la nu'usin... Kà nānná-nā yé ò nìŋī bá Wínà'am né ò pù-pìəlım And now-hither that 3AN do 3PL.OB God with 3AN inside-whiteness piáň'àd lā nú'usī-n... speech ART hand:PL-LOC... "And now he committed them to God and the words of his holiness.." (Acts 20:32, 1976)

O zuanam ne o saamnama, ye ba kelisim.
Ò zuà-nàm né ò sàam-nàmā +ø, yé bà kèlısım!
3AN friend-PL with 3AN father-PL VOC that 3PL listen:IMP!
"His friends and his fathers should listen." (Acts 7:2, 1976)

27 Negation

27.1 Clauses

Negation of clauses is achieved by using a negative particle in the VP, $p\bar{v}$ for indicative, $d\bar{a}$ for imperative, $k\dot{v}$ for irrealis *replacing* the positive marker $n\dot{a}$ <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 pv bóòd yē dáu-kàŋā áaň tì nà'abā +ø.
IPL 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)

Dìm nē Wīn, dā tứ às nē Wīnné ⁺ø.
Eat:IMP with God:sg, NEG.IMP talk with God:sg NEG.
"Eat with God, don't talk with God."

Amaa man pian'ad la **kυ** maligim **gaadε**. Àmáa m̀ pi̯àň'ad lā kú mālıgım gáadē ⁺ø. But 1sg speech ART NEG.IRR again pass NEG. "But my words will not pass away. (Mt 24:35)

The negative prosodic clitic 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 pv bóòd yē dáu-kàŋā áaň tì nà'abā +ø.
IPL 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)

There are no unequivocal examples in my materials of a negative clitic placed before a subordinate clause to exclude it from the scope of a negation. In

Ka li **pυ yuugɛ** ka o pu'a mɛ kena.
Kà lì pū yúugɛ̄ ⁺ø, kà ò pu̯'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 $k\dot{a}$ -clause can be taken as a sequential clause rather than subordinate, and in

Nidib be ka **pu** tum **si'ela** ye ba a popielim dim... Nīdıb bé kà pō túm sī'əla ⁺ø yé bà áň pú-pìəlım person:PL EXIST and NEG.IND WORK:IPFV INDF.INAN NEG that 3PL COP inside-whiteness $d(m \dots$

"There are people who haven't done anything that they become blessed" (Rom 4:5, 1976); revised completely in the 1996 version.

the adjunct $y\bar{\varepsilon}$ -clause has probably been extraposed.

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 $|\bar{a}^{+/}$:

m bi'emnam banε **pv** bood ye m an na'abi sv'oe ba la m̀ bì'əm-nàm bánì pv̄ bóòd yέ m̀ áň ná'abì ø 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 $y\dot{a}$ ' "if" keep their own negative clitics:

Ba ya'a **pv** niŋ **si'ela**, o pv'vsim dɔɔg la na lieb zaalim. Bà yá' pū níŋ sī əla +ø, ò pv'vsım dɔ́ɔ̀g lā ná līəb zāalím. 3PL if NEG.IND do INDF.INAN NEG 3AN worship house:SG ART 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.

Negative raising, a poorly understood phenomenon cross-linguistically, seems to operate in Kusaal in a way generally analogous to English. It takes place with complement clauses after verbs expressing opinions or judgments:

Li pu nar ye fu di fu ba'abiig po'a Herodiase. Lì pō nār yć fừ dí fừ bā'-bîig pụ'á Herodiasɛ +ø. SINAN NEG.IND must that 25G take 25G father-child:5G wife:5G Herodias NEG. "It's not right for you to marry your brother's wife Herodias." (Mt 14:4, 1996)

Ti pv bood ye dau kaŋa aan ti na'aba.
Tì pv bood yε dáu-kàŋā áaň tì nà'abā ⁺ø.
IPL 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)

mam pv tɛn'ɛs ye o na kɛligi m pian'adɛ.
Mām pv tɛň'ɛs yɛ́ ò nà kɛlıgí m piàň'ad +ø.
ISG NEG.IND think that JAN IRR listen ISG word:PL NEG.
"I do not think that he will listen to my words." (Job 9:16)

It does not occur with verbs of knowing or informing:

linzug ka ti baŋ ye o pv yi Wina'am san'an naa.
Lìn-zúg kà tì báŋ yέ ò pv yī Wínà'am sá'àn náa ⁺ø.
Therefore and 1PL realise that 3AN NEG.IND emerge God with hither NEG.
"Therefore we realise he has not come from God." (Jn 9:16)

ka o lee pu baŋ ye li ane one. kà ò lée pū báŋ yé lì à nē 5ne +ø. And 3AN but NEG.IND realise that 3INAN COP FOC 3AN.CNTR NEG. "but she didn't realise it was him." (Jn 20:14)

27.2 Constituents

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"
X ká'ẹ kà /X kā'ẹ n	"There's no X that"

Sɔ' kae na nyaŋi dɔl zugdaannam ayi'...
Sɔ̄' kā'e ø ná ňyāŋı ø dɔ̄l 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 meŋa. Sógià-sō' kā'e n túm kà yōɔd ò mēŋá +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)

Di lɛn ka' fun yɛl si'el la zug, ka ti niŋ o yadda.

Lì lèm kā' fún yèl sī'əl lā zúg kà tì níŋ·ò g yáddáa +g. 3INAN again NEG.BE 25G:NZ say INDF.INAN ART upon and 1PL do 3AN.OB assent NEG. "It is no longer because of what you said that we believe in him." (Jn 4:42)

Negation

The particle báa (Hausa bâa "not exist") appears in báa b \vec{r} $\partial l\dot{a}^+$ "not at all", báa $y\bar{l}nn\ell^+$ "not one", which are both used with a negative VP. Báa $y\bar{l}nn\ell^+$ can be used as a NP head, or as a postdependent.

Da tumi si'el baa bi'elaa. Dā túmī ø sī'əl báa bī'əláa ⁺ø. NEG.IMP work 2PL.SUB INDF.INAN at.all NEG. "Do no work at all." (Leviticus 23:31)

Amaa ba pv nyaŋi nyɛ linɛ tu'al baa yinne.
Àmáa bà pv̄ ňyāŋı ø ňyɛ línì tù'al [+ø] báa yīnní.
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 pv yɛl ye on mɔr si'el la, onɛ sv'oe lii. Kà nīd báa yīnní pv yɛ́l yɛ̃ ɔ́n mɔ̄r and person:sg not one NEG.IND say that 3AN:NZ have sī'əl lā, ɔ̄nı ø sú'v líı ⁺ø. INDF.INAN ART 3AN.CNTR CAT OWN 3INAN.OB NEG. "Not one person said that what he had, he owned." (Acts 4:32)

Fv du'adib baa yinne kae ka o yv'vr buon alaa. Fv dv'adıb báa yīnní kā'é kà ò yv'vr búèn àláa +ø. 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 nɛ banɛ ka' yadda niŋidib la ye ya niŋ si'ela. Dā mor noor yīnní nɛ bánì kā' yáddā-níŋìdıb lā NEG.IMP have mouth:sg one with REL.PL NEG.BE assent-doer:PL ART yɛ́ yà níŋ sī'əla +ø. that 2PL do INDF.INAN NEG. "Do not agree with those who are not believers to do anything." (2 Cor 6:14)

28 Information packaging

28.1 Focus

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 $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$. 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** $|\bar{a}^{+}|$ <u>16.5</u> interacts with the focus mechanisms described below.

28.1.1 Subject focus with catenator-n

N-clefting uses a *n*-catenation in the sense of a relative clause with the subject as antecedent, after a main clause with $L\iota a n\bar{\epsilon}$ "It is ..." The sense resembles that of the formally analogous "it-clefting" of English, *foregrounding* the clefted element and backgrounding the rest:

Ka dau mε pv sv'oe o mɛŋ niŋgbinaa. Li anɛ o pu'a sv'oe li.Kà dāu mɛ́ pū sv'v ò mɛŋ nín-gbīnáa +ø.And man:sg also Neg.IND own 3AN self body-skin:PL Neg.Lì á nɛ́ ò pu'ā ø sv'v lī.SINAN COP FOC 3AN wife CAT own 3INAN.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 be a verbless identificational clause 22.3.1:

Anɔ'ɔn nwaa yisid nidib tuumbɛ'ɛdi basida? Ànɔ´'ɔ̀n_ø ňwáa_ø yīsıd nīdıb túùm-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. The focussed element stands first, with the rest of the clause introduced by *n*, phonologically identical to catenator-*n*. The clause lacks independency marking but has independent tense marking; compare tense marking in ellipted indirect commands <u>19.3.1</u>.

The meaning of this construction is *focus* rather than foregrounding:

Wáafù_ ø dúm·ō_	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?" Focus rather than foregrounding is demonstrated by the fact that

interrogative pronouns as subjects are always *n*-focussed. As a subject מׁחָלִיכׁח "who" thus always appears as מחֹלִיכח ה [מחֹסֵ:חוֹ] (always NT ano'one, KB מחֹלַיכה)

Ànɔ´'ɔnì_ø kābırídà +ø? Who cat ask.for.entry:IPFV cQ? "Who is asking permission to enter?"

Clauses containing interrogative pronouns may not contain focus- $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$, an incompatibility which is most readily explained by analysing interrogative pronouns as intrinsically focussed, though this is only syntactically manifested when they are subjects.

Furthermore, the focus particle $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ in all its rôles is excluded from clauses which are *n*-focussed, with the corresponding VP temporal distinctions present but unmarked, as in other cases of formal exclusion of the marker <u>28.1.2.1.1</u>:

	Ѝ zūgv_ø zábìd.	"My head is hurting."
	1SG head CAT fight: IPFV.	(Reply to "Where is the pain?")
cf	Ѝ zūg lā pú'alìm nē.	"My head is hurting."
	1SG 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, filling the gap caused by the fact that a clause subject cannot be focussed with $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ 28.1.2.

28.1.2 VP constituent and VP focus with $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$

As a constituent-focus particle $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ has two distinct rôles, readily distinguishable by position: preceding a VP-constituent, $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ focusses that constituent, while VP-final $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ focusses the entire VP contrastively.

The focus particle is homophonous with the preposition $n\bar{\epsilon}$ "with, and" and with the empty particle $n\bar{\epsilon}$ which follows objects of comparisons when they do not have the article <u>18</u>; on distinguishing constituent-focus $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ from the preposition see <u>19.8.4</u>.

Greater difficulty arises over the distinction from the $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ which is enclitic on the verb <u>19.2</u>, 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 temporal meanings still appear but are unmarked.

28.1.2.1 Restrictions

28.1.2.1.1 Where $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ cannot appear at all

 $N\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ cannot appear in either constituent-focus or temporal sense

- (a) if the subject has *n*-focus
- (b) in nominalised clauses
- (c) in content questions

$N\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ may only occur *once* in a clause or series of catenated clauses:

Fu pu ma' n tis ninsaala, amaa fu ma' n tis ne Wina'am Siig Suŋ.
Fò pō má' n tìs nīn-sáalā +ø, àmáa fò mà'
2SG NEG.IND lie CAT give person-smooth:SG NEG but 2SG lie
n tís nē Wínà'am Sí-sòŋ..
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 $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ marks constituent focus, VP temporal distinctions are unmarked. This constraint reveals that temporal $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ is a specialised use of focus- $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$.

Examples of exclusion of $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$:

Exclusion with *N*-focussing of the subject:

Μ̈́ zūgv_ø zábìd.	"My head is hurting/hurts." (No temporal <i>nē</i> +/)
1SG head CAT fight:IPFV.	Reply to "Where is the pain?"

Ànɔ´'ɔnì_ø dít sá'abɔ̀ +ø? Who cat eat:IPFV porridge cq? "Who eats/is eating millet porridge?" (No temporal $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$)

Exclusion of $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ in nominalised clauses:

	<i>Ò dāa á nē bīig.</i> 3AN TNS COP FOC child:sg.	"She was a child."
but	<i>Ón àň bīig lā zúg</i> 3AN:NZ COP child:SG ART upon	"because she's a child"
	À yí nē Bók. 1sg emerge foc Bawku.	"I come from Bawku." SB
but	Meeri one yi Magdala Meeri ɔ́nì yī Magdala Mary REL.AN emerge Magdala	"Mary who came from Magdala" (Mk 16:9, 1996)

Focus- $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ can occur in complementised clauses, including purpose clauses:

Pian'am ka m bood ye fu nyε**nε** buud.
Pi̯àň'am kà m̀ bóod yɛ́ fù ňyē nē buud.
Speak: IMP and 1sg want that 2sg see FOC innocence.
"Speak, for I want you to be vindicated." (Job 33:32)

Exclusion of $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ in content questions: temporal $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$:

Bó kà fù kúmmà +ø?	"Why are you crying?"
What and 2SG cry:IPFV CQ?	
Fù níŋìd bó +ø?	"What are you doing?"
2SG do:IPFV what CQ?	
Fù wá'e yáa †ø?	"Where are you going?"
2SG go where cq?	
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Bùgóm lā yítyáaníná+ø?FireART emerge:IPFV where LOC hither cQ?"Where is the light coming from?" SB

Exclusion of $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ in content questions: constituent-focus $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$:

	<i>À á nĒ dāỵ.</i> 1SG COP FOC man:SG.	"I am a man."
but	<i>Mām áň bó +ø?</i> 1SG.CNTR COP what CQ?	"What am I?"
	<i>Fù áaň_ànɔ́'ɔnὲ +ø?</i> 2sg cop who cq?	"Who are you?"
	<i>Fù bóàd bó +ø?</i> 25g want what cq?	"What do you want?"
but	Fù bóòd nē bó +ø? 2sg want with what cq?	"What do you want it with?" <i>Nē must</i> be interpreted as preposition (WK)

28.1.2.1.2 Where $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ cannot be temporal

There is potential ambiguity between $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ as marking constituent focus or as temporal. The default interpretation is temporal, but this may be ruled out by the position of the particle, incompatibility of mood or polarity, passive use of the verb, impossibility of a resultative reading of a perfective, the absence of an explicit time marker with stative verbs, or the fact that the subject has generic status.

Temporal use of $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ requires that it follow the verb word directly, with at most liaison enclitics intervening; if not, the relevant temporal distinctions are unmarked:

Ò kùosıdī bá nē. "She's selling them." 3AN sell:IPFV 3PL.OB FOC.

Ò kùosıd nē sūmma lā. "She is selling the groundnuts." 3AN sell:IPFV FOC groundnut:PL ART.

but *Ò* kùəsıd sūmma lā nē. 3AN sell:IPFV groundnut:PL ART FOC.

"She *sells/is selling* the groundnuts." (VP focussed: "They're not free.")

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 $N\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ may only be used temporally if the VP has positive polarity; if not, the relevant temporal distinctions are again unmarked:

	<i>Ò zàdıd.</i> 3an fight:IPFV.	"He fights."
	Ò zàbιd nē. 3an fight:ipfv foc.	"He's fighting."
but	Ò pō zábıdā +ø. 3AN NEG.IND fight:IPFV NEG.	"He's not fighting"/"He doesn't fight."

The VP must have indicative mood for temporal use of $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$. It is not clear if the relevant distinctions actually occur in the irrealis; in direct commands a following $\partial \dot{a}$ "thus" imposes a continuous/progressive imperfective sense on the verb <u>19.4</u>, but temporal use of $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ is not possible.

Passive constructions <u>19.8.1.1</u> may only express punctual events, and are thus limited to perfective aspect and to dynamic imperfective in the propensity/habitual sense. Accordingly, the particle $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ cannot be interpreted temporally with passives.

	<i>Dāam lā núùd.</i> Beer art drink:IPFV.	"The beer gets drunk." WK
	<i>Dāam núùd zīná.</i> Beer drink:ıPF∨ today.	"Beer gets drunk today." WK
but	Dāam lā núùd nē. Beer ART drink:IPFV FOC.	Only "The beer is for drinking." WK ("Not for throwing away.") not "The beer is being drunk."
	<i>*Dāam núùd nē.</i>	rejected by WK altogether

Contrast the intransitive use of patientive ambitransitive verbs expressing changes of state:

Ň	yóòd	nē	kúlìŋ	lā.	"I'm closing the door."
150	Close:	V FOC	door:so	G ART.	

Kỳlựŋlãyớ $n\bar{\epsilon}$."The door is closing."Door:sg art close: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.

A perfective form can only be interpreted as resultative if it expresses a change of state in the subject.

Ϻ dá' nē búŋ.	"I've bought a <i>donkey</i> ."
1SG buy FOC donkey:SG.	("What have you bought?"
	Focus on complement)

Assume-stance verbs do not express a change of state in the subject, because stance verbs are not stative $\underline{11.2.1}$. Accordingly, the perfective of an assume-stance verb cannot accept a resultative reading:

Ò dìgın nē.	"He's lain down." DK: "Someone calls at your
3AN lie.down foc.	house and gets no answer; he thinks you're out
	but I'm explaining that you've gone to bed."

With stative verbs, temporal $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ may only occur if there is an explicit time expression in the immediate context. If not, $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ must be interpreted as focussing the VP or a constituent:

	Ò gìm. 3AN be.short.	"She's short."
but	<i>Ò gìm nē.</i> 3AN be.short foc.	"He's <i>short</i> ." ("I was expecting someone taller.")
	<i>À mór pự'ā.</i> 1sg have wife:sg.	"I have a wife."
but	<i>ÌM mór nē pự'ā.</i> 15g have foc woman:sg.	"I have a woman." (not "wife": implies an irregular liaison, WK)

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 $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ 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:

Li $v\epsilon n$ $n\epsilon$. "It's *beautiful*." (Focus on the verb.) 3INAN be.beautiful FOC.

but Nānnánā, lì vèn nē. Now, 31NAN be.beautiful FOC. "Just now, it's beautiful."

> Sān-kán lā, lì dāa zúlım nē. Time-dem.sg art, sinan ths be.deep foc. "At that time, it was deep."

Mù'ar lā dāa zúlìm nē.	"The lake <i>was</i> deep."
Lake:sg ART TNS be.deep FOC.	(Implying, "Now it's shallow." WK)
<i>Lì dāa vén nē.</i> 3INAN TNS be.beautiful foc.	"It <i>was</i> beautiful." WK: "I gave you a cup, and it was OK then, but you've spoiled it."
Lì dāa būgus nē. BINAN TNS be.soft FOC.	"It was soft." ("Now it isn't.")

Temporal interpretation of $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ is also forced when the following constituent does not permit focussing with $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ 28.1.2.1.3.

A generic subject is not semantically compatible with the temporal use of $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$:

Nīigi ```ons at grass." ("What do cows eat?") Cow:pl chew:IPFV FOC grass:pl.

A form like $n\bar{i}igi$ is in itself ambiguous between generic and specific indefinite interpretations (like English "cows" versus 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 òňbıd nē mɔ̄ɔd	"They (cows in general) eat <i>grass</i> ."
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-sɔ̃ň'e bī'əlá 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 $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ in its temporal sense is omitted in replying to polar questions or responding to questions by repeating the verb. This probably simply represents the cross-linguistically common phenomenon of ellipsis in declarative replies to questions.

A:	Gòsım!	"Look!"
B:	À gósìd!	"I'm looking!"
A:	Fù gósìd néɛ?	"Are you looking?"
B:	Ѝ gźsìd!	"I'm looking!"

28.1.2.1.3 Words which $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ cannot focus

Certain words do not prevent focus- $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ from being used in the clause (unlike interrogative proforms <u>28.1.2.1.1</u>), but cannot themselves be focussed with $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$. Words which behave like this include $s \partial n\bar{a}^{+/}$ "good", $s \partial m^{m}$ "good", $b\bar{\epsilon}' \epsilon d^{\epsilon}$ "bad" $s \partial a^{+}$ "truth" when used as adverbs, and the "two, three exactly" quantifier forms $\partial y i n \bar{a}^{+/}$ $\partial t a n \bar{a}^{+/}$ <u>16.4.2.1</u>. AdvPs formed by coordinating such words and NPs with these quantifiers as dependents share the same property.

Lì	àň súŋā.	"It's good."
3INAN	I COP good:ADV.	
Lì	àň bēˈɛd.	"It's bad."
3INAN	I COP bad:ABSTR.	
Lì	àň sídà.	"It's true."
3INAN	I COP truth.	
[ye ka] o sariakadib a sum ne sida.		
òs	sàríyà-kādıb áň súm	nē sídà.
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 <u>28.1.2.1.2</u>):

M mór bīisá àtáŋā.
15G have child:PL NUM:three.exactly.
"I've got exactly three children."

but *M mór nē bīisá* àtáŋā.

1SG have FOC child:PL NUM:three.exactly.

"I've got exactly three children just now." DK: "You're on a school trip, talking about how many children everyone has brought."

Lì dāa áň súŋā.	"It was good." WK
SINAN TNS COP good:ADV.	
<i>Lì dāa á nē súŋā.</i> 3INAN TNS COP FOC good:ADV.	"At the time, it was good." WK
Lì à nĒ súŋā. BINAN COP FOC good:ADV.	"It's good." ("Now; it wasn't before." WK)

Emphatics <u>28.6</u> do not behave in this way:

bɔzugɔ o anε fu biig mɛn.
bɔ̄ zúgɔ´ ò à nɛ́ fù bīig mɛ́n.
Because 3AN COP FOC 2SG child:sG also.
"Because he is your child too." (Genesis 21:13)

28.1.2.2 VP constituent focus

The use of $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ to focus a VP constituent, as opposed to the entire VP, is possible only in statements and polar questions. The temporal sense of $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ must be impossible and the constituent in question must permit $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ -focus.

Focus on an **indefinite object** represents it as "unpredictable or pragmatically non-recoverable" information, as for example in supplying an answer to a content question; this is **ordinary** focus:

Μ̀ dá' bύŋ.	"I've bought a donkey."	
1sg buy donkey:sg.	("What have you done?")	
À dá' nē búŋ.	"I've bought a <i>donkey</i> ."	
1SG buy FOC donkey:SG.	("What have you bought?")	

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Nīigí	òňbıd	nē	mวิวd.	"Cows eat <i>grass</i> ."
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**:

M pū dá' bùŋā +ø. "I haven't bought a donkey."
1SG NEG.IND buy donkey:SG NEG.

 \dot{M} $p\bar{v}$ $d\dot{a}$ ' $n\bar{\varepsilon}$ $b\dot{v}\eta\bar{a}$ ⁺ ϕ . "I haven't bought a *donkey*." 1SG NEG.IND buy FOC donkey NEG. ("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 $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ before a definite object is usually temporal:

Nīigí lā śňbìd nē mɔɔd lā. Cow:pl art chew:IPFV FOC grass:pl art. "The cows are eating the grass."

Nā'-síəbà óňbìd nē mɔɔd lā. Cow-INDF.PL chew:IPFV FOC grass:PL ART. "Some cows are eating the grass."

If focus does occur with old-information arguments, it is **contrastive**.

Linɛ ka ba'amaannib maannɛ tisid bada la, ba maannɛ tisid**nɛ** kikiris, ka pu maannɛ tisid Wina'am.

Lìni kà bà'-māannib máànni ø tísìd bádà lā, bà màanni REL.INAN and idol-sacrifice::PL sacrifice::PFV CAT give::PFV idol::PL ART 3PL sacrifice::PFV ø tísìd nē kíkīris kà pū máànni ø tísìd Wínā'amm +ø. CAT give::PFV FOC fairy::PL and NEG.IND sacrifice::PFV CAT give::PFV 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)

Fu pu ma' n tis ninsaala, amaa fu ma' n tis ne Wina'am Siig Suŋ.
Fò pō má' n tìs nīn-sáalā +ø, àmáa fò mà'
2SG NEG.IND lie CAT give person-smooth:SG NEG but 2SG lie
n tís nē Wínà'am Sí-sòŋ..
CAT give Foc God Spirit-good:SG.
"You have not lied to a human being, but to the Holy Spirit." (Acts 5:4, 1996)

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The predicative complement of $\partial e n^a$ "be something/somehow" in its ascriptive sense 20.2 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. BAN COP FOC child:SG.	"She is a child."
<i>Ò dāa á nē bīig.</i> 3AN TNS COP FOC child:sg.	"She was a child."
<i>Ò à nĒ nīn-súŋ.</i> BAN COP FOC human-good:sg.	"She's a good person."
Dīıb á nē būn-súŋ. Food cop foc thing-good:sg.	"Food is a good thing."
<i>Ò à nē bāaňlím.</i> 3AN COP FOC quiet:ABSTR.	"She is quiet."
<i>Lì à nẽ zāalím.</i> 3INAN COP FOC empty:ABSTR.	"It's empty."
<i>Lì à nē būgusígā.</i> 3INAN COP FOC soft:ADV.	"It's soft."

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 nē dúaň gbínnī-n. Bà zà'mısıd nē
Child:PL ART play:IPFV FOC dawadawa:SG base:SG-LOC. 3PL learn:IPFV FOC
būla wá'àb. Bà à né À-Pām bîs.
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 bombooda bane lu gon'os soogin la ane bane wom pian'ad la, ka...Kà bōn-bóodàbànı lù gòň'os sóogō-n lā á nēAnd thing-planting:PL REL.PL fall thorn:PL among-LOC ART COP FOCbánì wòm piàň'ad lā, kàREL.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):

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O yv'vr na anε Joon. "His name will be John." (Lk 1:60)
Ò yū'vr ná ā nε Joon.
3AN name:sg IRR COP FOC John.
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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**:

<i>À á nē du̯'átà.</i> 15G COP FOC doctor:sG.	"I'm a doctor."
<i>À kā' dỵ'átāa</i> + <i>ø.</i> 1SG NEG.BE doctor:SG NEG.	"I'm not a doctor."
<i>À kā' nē dỵ'átāa +ø.</i> 1SG NEG.BE FOC do ctor:SG NEG.	"I'm not a <i>doctor</i> ." ("I'm a lab assistant.")

Focus on a **locative complement** <u>19.8.3</u> 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 locative particle (with its zero allomorph for Kusaal place names <u>17.3</u>) is not referential even with a predeterminer (cf <u>16.10.2.3</u>):

Dāu lā bé nē dó-kàŋā lā púvgū-n.
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 p8Mām bé nē mōɔgu-n.1SG.CNTR EXIST FOC grass:SG-LOC.

M yí nē B5k. "I come from Bawku." SB 15G emerge FOC Bawku.

Yadda niŋir yitnε labaar la wummug ni.Yàddā-níŋìr yítnē lábāar lā wúmmug ní.Assent-doing emerge:IPFV FOC newsART hearingLOC."Faith comes from hearing the news." (Rom 10:17)

Contrast the existential use of $b\dot{\epsilon}^+$, where the locative is an adjunct:

Dàu-sɔ̄' bɛ́ dɔ́-kàŋā lā púʋgō-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

 $T\iota$ dít $s\bar{a}$ 'ab $n\bar{\epsilon}$ záàm."We eat millet porridge in the evening."1PL eat:IPFV porridge FOC evening.("When do you eat porridge?")

28.1.2.3 VP focus

Focus on the VP as a whole is always contrastive, because non-contrastive focus on the VP is the default unmarked case. It uses VP-final $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$. It can occur not only with statements and polar questions but also with direct commands, which do not permit focus on a VP constituent. For $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ to mark focus, temporal interpretation must be impossible.

Temporal sense ruled out by the position of $n\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$:

Ò kùesid sūmma lā nē. "She sells/is selling the groundnuts." 3AN sell:IPFV groundnut:PL ART FOC. ("They're not free.")

Temporal sense ruled out by mood:

Gòsım nē. "Look!" ("Don't touch." WK) Look:imp foc.

Stative verbs without an explicit time indicator:

 \dot{O} gim $n\bar{\epsilon}$. "He's short." ("I was expecting someone taller.") 3AN be.short FOC.

Lì zùlım nē. BINAN be.deep FOC.	"It's <i>deep</i> ."
<i>M̀ bɔ́ɔdī_f nē.</i> 1sg want 2sg.ob foc.	"I really <i>love</i> you." WK
Passives:	
Dāam lā núùd nē.	"The beer is for <i>drinking</i> ."
Beer art drink:IPFV FOC.	("Not washing with!")
Lì mà'an nĒ.	"It gets <i>cooled</i> ." (ipfv of <i>mā</i> 'a/ ^{+/} "make cool")
3INAN get.cool:IPFV FOC.	("Not heated!")
<i>Dāká lā záňl nē.</i>	"The box gets carried <i>in the hands</i> ."
Box:sg art carry.in.hands foc.	("Not on your head.")
Dāká lā zîid nē.	"The box is for carrying <i>on the head</i> ."
Box:sg art carry.on.head:IPFV FOC	. ("Not carrying in the hands.")

Perfectives which cannot be interpreted as resultative:

Ò dìgιl nĒ. 3AN lay.down FOC.	"He's <i>laid it down</i> ." ("I thought he'd pick it up.")
Kà lì bódìg nē. And sinan get.lost foc.	"It's <i>lost</i> ." Contradicting "someone hid it." <u>22.2.1</u>
<i>Ò dìgın nē.</i> 3AN lie.down foc.	"He's <i>lain down.</i> " DK: "Someone calls at your house and gets no answer; he thinks you're out but I'm explaining that you've gone to bed." WK: "You've said: the child looks filthy. I'm replying: He's been lying down."

An idiomatic use (marking a euphemism) is seen in

Ò	zì'ən	nē.	"She's pregnant." (Not "She has stood still.")
3AN	stand.s	still foc.	

28.2 Clefting and preposing with kà

 $K\dot{a}$ -clefting arises from constructions with adnominal $k\dot{a}$ -catenation <u>23.3</u> just as with *n*-clefting from *n*-catenation. Again, there is an implicature of exhaustiveness and exclusiveness.

The preposed element may be extracted from a subordinate clause:

Li anɛ ya taaba banɛ pv'vsid Wina'am ka li nar ka ya kad saria. Lì à nɛ́ yà tāaba bánì pv'vsɪd 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)

Again, the main clause may be a verbless identificational clause <u>22.3.1</u>:

Dn Ø lá kà fừ dāa ňyēt.
3AN.CNTR CAT that and 2SG TNS See:IPFV.
"This is he whom you saw." WK

Ànɔ´'ɔnì ø ňwá kà tì ňyētá +ø? Who cat this and 1PL see:IPFV cQ? "Who is this that we can see?"

B55_ø lá kà m̀ ňyētá +ø? What CAT that and 15G 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 <u>19.8.1</u>.

Asεε linε an bε'εd ma'aa ka m na tun'e niŋ. Àsέε línì àň bɛ̄'εd má'àa kà ṁ ná tūň'e_ ø níŋ. Only RELINAN COP bad only and 1SG IRR be.able CAT do. "It's only that which is bad that I can do." (Rom 7:21)

*B*5 *kà fù kúesìda* ⁺*ø*? "What are you selling?" What and 2sg sell:IPFV cq?

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The effect of $k\dot{a}$ -preposing remains *foregrounding*, not focus. It is compatible both with *n*-focus and with the occurrence of the focus particle $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$:

Dinzug ka mam Paul n be sarega ni Yesu Kiristo zug yanam buudbane ka' Jew dim la yela. Dìn-zúg kà mām Paul n bé sārīgá nì Yesu Kiristo zúg yānám That-upon and 1sG.CNTR Paul CAT EXIST prison:SG LOC Jesus Christ upon 2PL.CNTR búùd-bàni kā' Jew dím lā yélà. 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)

Brəl brəl kà kolug pé'èl nē.
Little little and river:sg get.full Foc.
"Little by little, and a river is full." (Proverb)

Kà-foregrounding of VP objects containing interrogative pronouns is very common. There is no syntactic movement rule for interrogative pronouns/proforms:

Bùgóm lā yítyáa ní ná +ø?FireART emerge:IPFV where LOC hither cQ?"Where is the light coming from?" SB

but $b\bar{j}$ "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?":

	Bó kà fù kúmmà?	"Why are you crying?"
cf	*Fù kúm bó?	*"What are you crying?"

B5 ka... is by far the most frequent way of rendering "Why?", and usually has this meaning, but foregrounding of b5 in the normal sense "What?" also occurs:

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B> ka ti na niŋε?"What are we going to do?" (Acts 21:22)B5 kà tì ná nìŋε +ø?What and 1PL IRR do cQ?
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Other queried NP objects in content questions are often preposed with *kà*:

Nū'-bíbisáàlákà fù ňyētá +ø?Hand-small:PL NUM:how.many and 2SG see:IPFV CQ?"How many fingers can you see?" SB

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 ànɔ´'òn-nàm kà Wínà'am súňfdá pɛ̀lıg nɛ́ bàAnd who-PLand Godheart:sg τNs whiten with 3PLyòma pīs nāasí lá +ø?year:PL fortyART cq?"And who was God angry with for forty years?" (Heb 3:17)

As interrogative pronouns are intrinsically focussed, these constructions, like other cases of preposing with ka, are best regarded as foregrounding, not focus.

Preposing the complement of a single-aspect verb is uncommon, and interrogative pronouns in such cases usually remain *in situ*, probably necessarily so in the case of $\partial e \check{n}^a$ "be something":

Niŋgbiŋ bɔ buudi ka ba na ti mɔra? nìn-gbīŋ bɔ´-būudí kà bà ná tī mɔ̄rá +ø? Body-skin:sg what-sort and 3PL IRR afterwards have cq? "What kind of body will they have?" (1 Cor 15:35)

but	Fù bóòd bó +ø? 2sg want what cq?	"What do you want?"
	<i>Mām áň bó +ø?</i> 1SG.CNTR COP what CQ?	"What am I?"
	Kà fù áaň àný onè +ø? And 25g cop who co?	"Then who are you?"

VP adjuncts are often preposed with $k\dot{a}$; there is probably a contrast between foregrounding with $k\dot{a}$ and focussing 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?"

 $K\dot{a}$ -preposed elements cannot be clause subjects, as is to be expected if the construction has arisen from ellipsis, because an adnominal $k\dot{a}$ -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:

Wōv búŋnế kà ò zót.Like donkey:sg like and 3AN run:IPFV."It's like a donkey that he runs."

*Né m nú'ùg kà m sī'ıs.
*With 1sg hand:sg and 1sg touch.
attempted for "With my hand, I touched it."

Kà-preposing is often simply a means of bringing a constituent before the clause subject with **no implication of foregrounding** at all. Purely formal $k\dot{a}$ -preposing is a feature of many relative clauses <u>25.3.2</u>. Manner, place and reason adjuncts can *only* precede the subject by $k\dot{a}$ -preposing, and absolute clauses in adjuncts must often precede the main clause subject so that constituent order parallels event order <u>25.2</u>:

Mán ňwè' 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

28.3 Extraposition

A NP or AdvP placed after a distinctively phrase-final verb form must have been extraposed. The commonest cases involve manner-adverbs, where the effect seems to be to intensify the adverb:

Ya yidigya bɛdegv."You are very much mistaken." (Mk 12:27)Yà yídìgyā bɛ́dvgū.2PL go.astray PFV much.

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    M pύ'òs yā bédugū.
    "Thank you very much."
    1SG greet PFV much.
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Objects, other than pronouns, can be extraposed; the sense seems to be that the extraposed element is contrary to expectation:

Ò ňyὲ yā ná'àb lā.	"He's seen the chief." ("of all people!")
3AN SEE PFV chief:SG ART.	

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    Ò dà' yā múi.
    "She's bought rice." ("of all things!")
    BAN buy PFV rice.
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Contrast the effects of focussing with $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$, and foregrounding by $k\dot{a}$ -clefting:

<i>Ò dà' nẽ múị.</i>	"She's bought rice."
3AN buy foc rice.	(reply to "What did she buy?")
Lì à nẽ múị kà ò dá'. 3INAN COP FOC rice and 3AN buy.	"It's rice that she's bought." ("not millet.")

Leftward extraposition of objects and complements on the basis of **weight**, without clefting or ka-preposing, occurs in e.g.

Wilkanɛ bɛɛ m ni ka pʋ wanna, m Ba' nwaadi li nɛ [sic: 1996 n] basid. Wil-kànı bɛ̀ɛ_m ní kà pʋ̄ wɛ́nnā +ø, Branch-REL.SG EXIST 1SG LOC and NEG.IND bear.fruit:IPVF NEG. m Bā' ňwá'adī_lí n básid. ISG 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)

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One ka ba tis o ka li zu'oe, ba me mor poten'er ye o na lebis line zu'oe.

\hat{O}ni kà bà tís\hat{o} kà lì zú'e, bà mè mòr

REL.AN and 3PL give 3AN.OB and 3INAN become.much, 3PL also have

p\hat{o}-tèň'er yé ò nà lɛbis 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)
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A heavy indirect object is extraposed to follow the object in

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Mam Paul ... tisid gboŋ kaŋa Wina'am nidib bane a sida dim ka a yinni ne Jesus Christ Efesus teŋin la.

MāmPaul ... tísìdgbáun-kànāWínà'am nídìbbàni àňISG.CNTRPaul ... give: IPFVbook-DEM.DEI.SGperson: PL REL.PL COPsídà dímkà áň yīnní nēJesus Christ Efesusténī-nlā.truth individual: PL and COP onewith Jesus Christ Ephesus land: SG-LOC ART"I, Paul ... give this letter to God's people who are truthful and one in JesusChrist in Ephesus." (Eph 1:1, 1976; KB ...gbauŋ kaŋa tisid Wina'am...)

28.4 Presentational constructions

A number of constructions are employed to introduce new entities into discourse. The NPs referring to the entities are 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 $b\dot{\epsilon}^+$ "be somewhere/exist" is frequent in presentational clauses, often with a following *n*-catenation <u>23</u> or adnominal $k\dot{a}$ -catenation <u>23.3</u>.

Dau da be mori o po'a yimmir Dāu dá bè ø mɔ̄rí ò pu̯'à-yīmmír Man:sg TNS EXIST CAT have 3AN wife-single:sg "There was a man who had one wife." KSS p26

Pu'a sɔ' da bɛ mɔr o bipuŋ ka kikirig dɔl o. Kà pu̯'à-sɔ̄' dá bɛ̀ ø mɔ̄r ò bī-púŋ kà kìkīrıg dɔ̄ll·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)

Dapa atan' n da be."There were once three men." KSS p16Dāpá_ àtáň' n dá bè.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.

Ka dau daa zin'i Listra ni ka pu tun'e kenna. Kà dāu dāa zíň'i Listra ní kà pō tūň'e ø kɛ̄nná ⁺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 nyε dau ka o yv'vr buon Aneas.
Àníná kà ò ňyε dáu kà ò yv'vr búòn 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)

28.5 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:	Mánè?	"Me?"
Apposition:	mān Paul	"I, Paul"
Coordination:	tīnám nē fūn	"us and you"
Before relative pronouns:	fūn-kánì	"you, who"

and for some speakers, the 2nd persons before direct commands after a $y\dot{a}$ '-clause <u>24</u>. In other contexts, the choice of a free pronoun over bound implies *contrast*. For the special case of **logophoric** use see <u>26.2</u>.

A personal pronoun which is focussed must be contrastive; conversely, contrastive pronouns are normally focussed where possible:

Manε an konbkem suŋ la.Mānι ø áň kóňb-kìm-sùŋlā.ISG.CNTR CAT COP animal-tender-good:SG ART."I am the good shepherd." (Jn 10:11)

But Li nar ka on dv ka man sie. Lì nàr kà ɔ̄n dv̄, kà mān sīe. 3INAN must and 3AN.CNTR rise, and 1SG.CNTR lower. "He must increase and I must decrease." (Jn 3:30)

Contrastive pronouns can be subjects of \hbar -clauses <u>16.3.1</u>:

wuu man**e** a si'em la. "as I am." (1 Cor 7:7, 1996) wūv **mánì** øàň sī'əm lā. like 1SG.CNTR NZ COP INDF.ADV ART.

28.6 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 <u>28.1</u> 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 with $p\bar{a}mm$ SF $p\bar{a}mn\epsilon$ LF "a lot" and $ny\bar{a}e^{n\epsilon}$ "brightly, clearly" the unusual morphological feature of forming the LF by adding - $n\epsilon$ to the SF <u>6.6</u>.

mè DK KT SB NT mèn WK; clause finally (all sources) men^{ϵ} "also, too"

bɔzugɔ o anε fʋ biig mɛn. bɔ̄ zúgɔ´ ò à nέ fὺ bīig mɛ́n. Because ȝĂN COP FOC 25G 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 $k\dot{a}$ + ellipted subject pronoun <u>21.3</u>.

mà'aa (LF mà'anē) "only"

Asεε linε an bε'εd ma'aa ka m na tun'e niŋ. Àsέε línì àň bē'εd má'àa kà m̀ ná tūň'e ø níŋ. Only REL.INAN COP bad only and ISG 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 <u>28.2</u>.)

gòllιm^{nε} "only"

 \dot{M} níŋī lí \dot{m} gòllım. "I did it myself alone." 1SG do 3INAN.OB 1SG only **kòtàa**^{nε} "at all"

Áyìι kòtàa. "Not at all."

hāl(+ in addition to its many other rôles <u>18</u> can be used as an emphatic, preceding a NP or AdvP with the meaning "even":

Hali tvombε'εd dim niŋid ala. Hālí tv̀om-bɛ̄'εd dím níŋìd àlá. Even deed-bad:PL individual:PL do:IPFV ADV:thus. "Even sinners do that." (Lk 6:33)

Before a manner-adverb it effectively means "very":

Lì the hālí bédog \bar{v} . "It's very difficult." 3INAN be.bitter until much.

The adverb itself may be ellipted:

Lì tòẹ hālí.

"It's very difficult."

Hālí in this sense may be preposed with ka <u>28.2</u>:

Hali ka nidib mor ban'adnam na.
Hālí kà nīdıb mor báň'àd-nàm nā.
Even and person:PL have sick.person-PL hither.
"People even brought the sick" (Acts 5:15)

Hālí báa is also used for "even" before a NP:

Hali baa lampɔdi'esidib mɛ niŋid ala.
Hālí báa làmpɔ̄-dí'əsìdıb mɛ́ nìŋıd àlá.
Even tax-receiver:PL also do:IPFV ADV:thus.
"Even tax-collectors do that." (Mt 5:46)

Hali baa bama wusa ya'a na zɔ ka basif, man ku basi fɔ.
Hālí báa bàmmā wūsa yá' nà zó kà básì f,
Even DEM.DEI.PL all if IRR run and abandon 25G.OB,
mān kú bāsı fó +ø.
15G.CNTR NEG.IRR abandon 25G.OB NEG.
"If even they all run away and leave you, I will not leave you." (Mt 26:33)

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Lexicon

29 Greetings and other formulae

(a) Enquiries after health.

Gbís wēlá?	"How did you sleep?" <u>21.2.2</u>
Dúə 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?"
Υύ'υŋ 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?"
Ρu̯'ā nē bíisὲε?	"[How are your] wife and children?"

... and so on, often at great length.

Replies:

literally "There is health."
(Also a general purpose greeting itself.)
for him/her.
for them.

(b) Blessings

These follow the pattern

Bárıkà nź fù	"Blessing with your	."
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with the introductory words usually ellipted; the reply to all of these is $N\dot{a}a$.

	Kēn kēn.	"Welcome!" <i>Kɛ̄n,</i> gerund of <i>kɛ̃ň</i> "come"
		cf Hausa: <i>Barkà dà zuwàa.</i>
	Nē záàm záàm.	"Good evening."
	Tōʊma!	
or	Tōʋma tōʋma!	literally "(Blessing on your) work!"
		Interpreted to include practically anything
		which could be regarded as work, and hence
		probably the commonest daytime greeting.

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	Nē sóňsıgā.	"(Blessing on your) conversation." to greet a group of people talking; also to greet a perso sitting quietly alone, assumed to be converse with his or her own $w\bar{\iota}n^{n\epsilon/}$ (spiritual essence personal <i>genius</i>)	on ing
	Nέ fù būrıyá-sùŋ.	"Merry Christmas." (<i>būrıyá</i> ⁺ ← *bʊrũya ← Twi/Fante bronya, of unclear ultimate orig	Jin)
	Né fù yùʊm-pāalíg.	"Happy New Year."	
(c) Pr	rayers. Reply Àmí! "Amen!"		
	Wīn ná lēbısı f nē láafiya.	"Safe journey!" literally "[I pray that] God will bring you back in health."	
	Wīn ná sūŋı f.	"God will help you." Generally a formula expressing thanks.	

(d) Statements of fact and commands. Reply T i "OK", or as appropriate.

"See you tomorrow!" ("That's tomorrow.")
"See you on Monday."
"Sleep well."
"Remain (ye) well."
Said by departing person to those remaining.
"Greet (those) at home." i.e. "Goodbye."
reply Tò "OK", or Bà nà wōm "They will hear."

"Safe journey!" ("God will help you travel.")

(e) Miscellaneous formulae

Wīn ná tā'así f.

Ѝ ро́'òs yā.	"Thankyou."
	reply Tò, or Pù'ʊsʊg kā'e.
	"No thanks (sc. needed.)"
Ѝ pú'ùs yā bέdυgū.	"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.

430	Greetings and other formulae		
	Kābır kābırí!	Formula asking admission to a house or compound. "Knock, knock!" Twi <i>agoo</i> is also used. (Actual knocking is for robbers trying to find out if anyone is at home.)	
	Dìm sūgurú.	"Please forgive me."	
	À bέlìm nē.	"I beg you." Not "please"; Kusaasi etiquette	
		does not demand a spoken equivalent of the English "please."	
	X lábāar á wēlá?	"What is the news of X?"	
		A common initial reply is <i>Dīıb má'àa</i> .	
		"Only food." i.e. "good"	
	Ѝ mวr kú'èm náa?	literally "Shall I bring water?"	
		Traditional first words to guest.	
		Reply for "No, thank you" is Kù'øm á súm.	
		("Water is good.")	
	Wīn yέl sídà.	"Bless you!" (after a sneeze.) Literally	
		"God speaks truth"; WK explained: "If you	
		sneeze, it means someone elsewhere is praising you."	
	Fù wúm Kūsáalὲɛ?	"Do you understand [literally "hear"] Kusaal?"	
	Ēε <i>ň, ṁ</i> wúm.	"Yes, I do."	
	Áyìı, ṁ pō wómmā.	"No, I don't."	

30 Structured semantic fields

30.1 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.

IVIY			
Fathe	er	is my	<i>sàam^{ma},</i> less formally <i>bā</i> '+/
Fathe	er's elder brother		sàam-kpēɛňm ^m
Fathe	er's younger brothe	r	sàam-pīt ^{a/}
Fathe	er's sister		pùgudı b ^a
My			
Moth	er	is my	mà+
Moth	er's elder sister		
or se	nior co-wife		mà-kpēɛňm ^m
Moth	er's younger sister		
or ju	nior co-wife		mà-bīl ^a or mà-pīt ^{a/}
Moth	er's co-wives	are my	mà nám ^a
Moth	er's brother	is my	áňsìb ^a

I am my mother's brother's $\bar{a}ns(\eta^a)$; to all the other relatives above I am $b\bar{i}ig^a$ "child" or specifically dakboondown broken are not matrilineal, the mother's brother is felt to be a particularly close relation witha 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-dáỵ+	♀ yāa-pu̯'áª
Grandchild		yáaŋ ^a	

These words are also used for ancestor/descendant.

Mv

My Elder sibling of my own sex is my $b\bar{\imath} \circ r^{\epsilon/}$ Younger sibling of my own sex is my $p\bar{\imath}t\acute{o}^+$ Sibling of opposite sex is my $t\bar{a}\mu\breve{n}^{+/}$

These words are also used for cousins, with seniority, as always, going by family branch.

My			
Wife	is my	<i>yī-pu្ˈá</i> ª or simpl	ly <i>pų</i> 'ā ^a
Wife's parent		dìəm ^{ma}	Sex can be specified as
		♂ dìəm-dāµ+	♀ dìəm-pỵāk ^a
Wife's sibling		dàkīig ^a	Sex can be specified as
		♂ dàkì-dāỵ+	♀ dàkì-pỵākª

 $Diam^{ma}$ 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} mà "my mother" or \dot{m} $b\bar{a}$ ' "my father." Parents-in-law are greatly respected, but with siblingsin-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 $Bug\acute{o}m-t\bar{c}$, the Fire Festival, one throws eggs at one's brothers-in-law.

I am my wife's parents' *bīig*^a "child" and my wife's siblings' *dàkīig*^a. My Husband is my sīda dàyáam^{ma} Husband's parent Sex can be specified as ď dàyāam-dáu+ Q dàyāam-puák^a sìd-kpēɛňm^m Husband's elder brother Husband's younger brother sìd-bīl^a sìd-puāk^a Husband's sister

I am my husband's parents' $b\bar{i}ig^a$ "child"; all my husband's siblings (of both sexes) call me $py'\bar{a}^a$ "wife."

My co-wife is my *nìn-tāa*⁼, "rival" in Ghanaian English. In traditional stories the rôle of the "wicked stepmother" in European folklore is assumed by one of the father's other wives.

Two men married to sisters are each $daki-tua^+$ to the other; two women married to brothers are $nin-t\bar{a}as^{\epsilon}$, "co-wives." "Fiancée" is $p\mu'a-\bar{\epsilon}l(\eta^a)$.

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Structured semantic fields

30.2 Personal names

See Haaf pp87ff for a detailed account of Kusaasi personal naming practices.

Personal names are preceded by the personifier clitic, which appears as \dot{A} - by default but \dot{N} - before adjective stems, where \dot{N} - is a syllabic nasal assimilated to the point of articulation of a following consonant <u>16.6</u>. Most names are based on common nouns, but a few are based on adjectives, and some on whole VPs, or even clauses.

On the form in which Kusaal personal and place names appear in Englishlanguage contexts see 1.3.3.

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; \dot{A} - $W\bar{\iota}n$ and \dot{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 $(s\bar{i}g\iota r^{\epsilon/})$ assigned to a newborn child through the father's consultation with a diviner $(b\bar{a}'a^{=})$; this may be the $w\bar{\iota}n^{n\epsilon/}$ <u>1.1</u> of an ancestor, or of a spiritually powerful tree:

À-Wīn ^{nε/}	Awini	wīn ^{nɛ/}	person with a <i>sīgır^{ɛ/}</i> from father's
À-Būgur ^ɛ	Abugri	būgur ^ε	side of the family person with a <i>sīgιr^{ε/}</i> from mother's side of the family
À-Tìıg ^a À-Kūdvg ⁵	Atiga Akudugu	tìıg ^a kūdvg ⁵	"tree", as <i>sīgιr^{ε/}</i> "piece of iron" (sc. as a marker on a tree- <i>sīgιr^{ε/}</i>); displaced as a common noun by the pl-as-sg <i>kūt</i> ^ε

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} - $W\bar{\iota}n$ - $b\ell/a^{a}$ "Awimbillah", of \dot{A} - $K\bar{\iota}d\upsilon g^{2}$, \dot{A} -Kud- $b\bar{\iota}/a^{a}$ "Akudibillah" etc. Names for girls may follow the pattern \dot{A} - $W\bar{\iota}n$ - $p\mu\dot{a}k^{a}$ "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-Tūl ^{lɛ}	Atuli	tùlιg ^ε	"invert" for breech-delivered child

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A whole clause is seen as a birth-circumstance personal name in

À-Tìım bódìg yā	"The medicine has got lost."
frittin boarg ya	

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-Tàmpūur ^ɛ	Tampuri	tàmpūυr ^ε	"ashpit, rubbish tip"
À-Dūk ^{ɔ/}	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" + <i>dā</i> µ ⁺ "man"
À-Zàngb <i>èog^o</i>	Azangbego	Zàngb <i></i> cog ⁵	"Hausa person"
À-Nàsà-pỵāk ^a	Anasapoaka	L	"European woman"; also a birth-
			circumstance name: "child
			delivered by a European midwife"

Names based on adjectives:

Ň-Dāυg ^ͻ	Ndago	dāvg ^o	"male"
Ň-Puāk ^a	Mpoaka	pųāk ^a	"female"
Ň-B īl ^a	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-Síbì+	"Boy born on Saturday"

Muslims also have formal Islamic Arabic names, sometimes adapted to Kusaal phonology, like Dàhamáanì+/Dàsmáanì+ عبد الرحمن 'Abdu-r-Raħma:n(i).

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KKY p6 has the interesting girl's name Aməryam, perhaps an adaptation of the Arabic مريم Maryam(u) "Mary" as À-Mɔ̄r Yāʿm "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."

30.3 Places

For the form in which Kusaal personal and place names appear in English-language contexts see 1.3.3.

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:

B <i>àk</i> ²	Bawku	"pit, geographical depression"
Kūk ^{a/}	Koka	"mahogany tree"
Kùkpàrıg ^a	Kokpariga	"palm tree"
<i>Τὲmpáan^{nε}</i>	Tempane	perhaps "new villages"
Mu̯'à-nɔ̄ɔr ^{ε/}	Mogonori	"lakeside" ("lake-mouth")
Bàs-ȳn ^{nε/}	Basyonde	"abandon sacks" ?reason for name
Kūgυr ^{ε/}	Kugri	"stone"
Būgυr ^ε	Bugri	<i>būgυr^ε,</i> object housing
		a <i>wīn^{nɛ/} "spirit"</i>
Wìdì-ňyá'aŋ ^a	Woriyanga	archaic for wìd-ňyá'aŋ ^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"
<i>Τ</i> ī/ ^{Ιε/}	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 Wìd-dāan ^a "Horse-Owner", title
		of a chief's <i>nɔ̄-dí</i> 'ə̀s ^a "linguist" <u>31</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 <i>mi</i> ' <i>isvg</i> ⁵ "dunking" (not in my materials, but cf Toende <i>mi</i> ' <i>isvk</i> "baptism", KED <i>mi</i> ' <i>is</i> "duck someone")
Sā-bíl ^a	Zebilla	"small grass"?
Sā-píəlìg ^a	Sapeliga	"Isoberlinia Doka" ("white grass")
Kòl-tā'amís ^ɛ	Kultamse	"dog almonds" ("river shea trees")

WK thought that the first component of the names $S\bar{a}$ - bi/a^{a} and $S\bar{a}$ - $pialig^{a}$ 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 $s\dot{a}ag\dot{a}$ is glossed in his Farefare dictionary as "a kind of grass used for making brooms", and the Mampruli/Dagbani cognate saa refers to a grass *Sporobolus subglobosus A. Chev* (Dagomba Plant Names Blench 2006) used for binding materials together to make mats and traps, and presumably also brooms. Compounds need not have the literal sense of the components <u>16.11.1</u> <u>16.10.2.1</u>, especially with names for plant and tree species: John Turl has located a careful 1935 report by an assistant agricultural officer which lists among local trees in the Farefare/Nabit area *sapelaga Isoberlinia doka*; it seems likely that this is the meaning of $s\bar{a}$ - $pialig^{a}$. The report also lists *ta-anga* "Butyrospermum parkii" (Kusaal $ta'ag^{a}$), and *kulta-anga* "Andira inermis", so $k\partial - ta'ag^{a}$ is probably this "dog almond."

Kùlugúŋ ^ɔ	Kulungungu	?? kòl-gùŋ ^a "river-kapok"
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Turl cites a Bisa-speaking informant who suggests a more plausible origin in Bisa "Kuurgongu", "Crooked Sheanut Tree." Prost's grammar of Bisa confirms that Bisa adjectives follow head nouns, and his dictionary cites $k\acute{u}r$ "karité." The second element is probably a simplex form of Prost's gongeda "arqué" ($ng = [\eta]$); Prost notes an adjectival suffix -da "s'appliquant aux grandes choses ou marquant intensité."

Àgɔ̀l ^{lɛ}	Agolle	the Kusaasi area east of the White Volta; cf <i>àgزا</i> ^{اد} "upwards"; for the
		H toneme see <u>8.3</u> .
Τùθn ^{nε}	Toende	Kusaasi area west of the White
		Volta; cf <i>tùθn^{nε} "in front", "West"</i>

For points of the compass, WK gave as accepted terms

Ν	Bārvg ^{ɔ/}	"Bisa country"
Е	Ňyá'aŋ ^a	"behind"
S	Zuēya+	"hills" (i.e. the Gambaga Escarpment)
W	<i>Τùθn^{nε}</i>	"in front"

reflecting the traditional Kusaasi West-facing orientation. For "South" and "North", KB has respectively *ya-dagɔbug yà dàgɔ̀bug^a* "your left hand" and *ya-datiuŋ yà dàtùuŋ*^o "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 $-g^{2}$. These can be nonce-formations and need not necessarily refer to any established political entity or permanent settlement:

Kùtāỵŋ ^{ɔ/}	any place inhabited by the clan <i>Kòtām^{ma/}</i>
Kūsáùg ^o	"Kusaasiland"
Мว்วg ^ว	"Mossi country"
	(<i>Mòɔg Ná'àb</i> ª "Moro Naba, King of the Mossi")

Places outside $K\bar{v}s\dot{a}\dot{v}g^{2}$ generally do not have Kusaal names (an exception is $S\bar{a}nk\dot{a}\check{a}ns^{\epsilon}$ "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 $*W\bar{a}'ad\dot{v}g^{2}$ "Place of the Dancers $(w\bar{a}'ad(b^{a}))$ ", 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 $k\bar{j}lvg^a$ "river"; presumably this is simply because it is the only real river within $K\bar{v}s\dot{a}\dot{v}g^{2}$.

30.4 Ethnic groups and clans

Names for the group belong to the ${}^{a}|b^{a}$ or $g^{a}|s^{\epsilon}$ classes (apart from $Zangbeog^{\circ}$ "Hausa" and $Nasaara^{+}$ "European") and their language to the l^{ϵ} subclass of $r^{\epsilon}|a^{+}$. The place they inhabit has the suffix $-g^{\circ}$.

Ethnic gp sg Kūsáa ⁼ Ňwāmpūrıg ^{a/} Bārıg ^{a/} Mùa ⁺ Dàgbān ^{nɛ/} Bìn ^{nɛ} Sìmīig ^a Yàaŋ ^a Gūríŋ ^a Yārıg ^{a/} Zàngb≿og ^D Bùlıg ^a Tàlıŋ ^a Nàbıd ^a Bùsáŋ ^a	Ethnic gp pl Kūsáàs ^ɛ Ňwāmpūrıs ^{ɛ/} Bārıs ^{ɛ/} Mòɔs ^ɛ Dàgbām ^{ma/} Bìm ^{ma} Sìmīis ^ɛ Yàaňs ^ɛ Gūrís ^ɛ Yārıs ^{ɛ/} Zàngbɛ̀ɛd ^ɛ Bùlıs ^ɛ Tàlıs ^ɛ Nàbıdıb ^a Bùsáàňs ^ɛ	Language Kūsáàl ^ɛ Ňwāmpūrıl ^{ɛ/} Bāt ^{ɛ/} Mòɔl ^ɛ Dàgbān ^{nɛ/} Bìn ^{nɛ} Sìmīil ^ɛ Yàan ^{nɛ} Gūrín ^{nɛ} Yāt ^{ɛ/} Zàngbɛ̀ɛl ^ɛ Bùl ^{lɛ} Tàlın ^{nɛ} Nàbır ^ɛ	Place Kūsáùg ⁵ Ňwāmpūrvg ^{5/} Bārvg ^{5/} Mò5g ⁵ Dàgbāµŋ ^{5/} Bìµŋ ⁵ Sìmīug ⁵	Kusaasi Mamprussi Bisa Mossi Dagomba Dagomba Moba Fulɓe Yansi Farefare Yarsi Hausa Bulsa Tallensi Nabdema Bisa
-				
Nàsāara+ Kàmbùŋ ^a	Nàsàa-nàm ^a Kàmbùmıs ^ɛ	Nàsāal ^ɛ Kàmbùnır ^ɛ		European Ashanti

 $B\bar{a}r\iota s^{\epsilon/}$ is "Bisa" generally, not just the Bareka; $B\iota m^{ma}$ similarly is "Moba" in general, and not only the Bemba (WK.)

Note

Τὺθη ^{ηε}	"Toende area"
Τὺθηηιr ^ε	"Toende dialect of Kusaal"
Àgɔ̀l ^{lɛ}	"Agolle area"
Àgɔ̀l ^{lɛ}	"Agolle dialect of Kusaal"
Ò pi̯àň'ad Àgɔ̀l. 3AN speak:IPFV Agolle.	"She speaks Agolle Kusaal."

Singular	Plural	Place	
Kὺtān ^{nɛ/}	Kùtām ^{ma/}	Kùtāuŋ ^{ɔ/}	WK's clan
Zùa+	Zùθs ^ε		
	Zuà-sābilís ^ɛ		subclans
	Zuà-wìib ^a		
	or <i>Zuà-wìis</i> ε		
Wìid ^a	Wìid-nam ^a	Wìidvg ⁵	
Nàbıd ^a	Nàbıdıb ^a	Nàbıdvg ⁵	
Gว்วg ^a	Gòɔsε	Gòɔgɔ	
Sà'dàbùa ⁺	Sà'dàbùəs ^ɛ -bùəb ^a	Sà'dàbòɔg ^ɔ	
	Nà'dàm ^{ma}	Nà'daỵŋ ^{>}	
	Gùm-dìm ^a	Gὺm ^{mε}	

Kusaasi clan names include, among many others:

 $N\dot{a}b\iota d^a$ as a clan name is different from the ethnic group "Nabdema" (WK.)

30.5 Trees and fruits

Tree names are almost all $g^a|s^{\epsilon}$ class, like $t i \iota g^a$ "tree"; their fruits belong to classes $r^{\epsilon}|a^+$ or $g^{2}|d^{\epsilon}$.

Tree sg	Tree pl	Fruit sg	Fruit pl	
āaňdıg ^a	āaňdıs ^ɛ	āaňdır ^ɛ	āaňda+	Vitex doniana
dùaň+	dòɔňs ^ɛ	dòɔňgɔ	d`ond ^ɛ	dawadawa
gāaň ^{=/}	gāaňs ^{ɛ/}	gāňr ^{ε/}	gāňyá ⁺	Nigerian ebony
gùŋ ^a	gὺmιs ^ε	gὺm ^{mε}	gùma+	kapok
kìkàŋ ^a	kìkàmıs ^ɛ	kìkàm ^{mε}	kìkàma+	fig tree
kpùkpàrıg ^a	kpùkpàrıs ^ɛ	kpùkpàr ^ɛ	kpùkpàra ⁺	palm
lí'əŋ ^a	lī əmísε	lí'əm ^{mε}	lī'əmá+	Ximenia americana
pūsıg ^{a/}	pūsıs ^{ɛ/}	pūsır ^{ɛ/}	pūsá+	tamarind
sīsíbìg ^a	sīsíbìs ^ε	sīsíbìr ^ɛ	sīsíbà+	neem
tá'aŋ ^a	tā'amís ^ε	tá'am ^{mε}	tā'amá+	shea butter
tè'ɛgª	tὲ'εs ^ε	tè'og ^o	tὲ'εd ^ε	baobab
vúøŋ ^a	νūθmís ^ε	vúør ^ε	vūáa ⁼	red kapok

The stems for "red kapok" and its fruit are slightly different: tree *vuegm- fruit *vueg-

30.6 Body parts

Most human and animal body parts belong to the classes $r^{\varepsilon}|a^{+}$ and $g^{\circ}|d^{\varepsilon}$:

bįāųňk ²	"shoulder"	<i>bīən^{nε}</i>	"shin"
bì'isır ^ɛ	"woman's breast"	dūm ^{mɛ}	"knee"
gbāuŋ ^{ɔ/}	"animal skin; lip, eyelid"	gbēr ^{ɛ/}	"thigh"
gbè'og ⁵	"forehead"	gbìn ^{nε}	"buttock"
gbìn-vɔ̀ɔňrɛ	"anus"	gบ _ั บr ^ะ	"ridge of back"
ίι/ ^{Ιε}	"horn"	kɔ̃bır ^ɛ	"bone"
kōňbug ^o	"hair"	kpēňdır ^{ε/}	"cheek"
kpìsukpìl ^{lɛ}	"fist"	lām ^{mε/}	"gum"
lān ^{nɛ}	"testicle"	lūgur ^ε	"organ, member"
nìn-gbīŋ ^{ɔ/}	"human skin, body"	nìn-gòɔr ^ɛ	"neck"
nóbùr ^ε	"leg"	nōb-púmpàu̯ŋ ^ɔ	"foot"
nɔ̄ɔr ^{ε/}	"mouth"	ňyīn ^{nε/}	"tooth"
ňyɔ̄ɔdε	"intestines"	ňyɔ̄'ɔg ^{ɔ/}	"chest"
ňy코ɔrε	"nose"	pèn ^{nɛ}	"vagina"
pūυr ^{ε/}	"stomach"	sɔ̄ɔňr ^ɛ	"liver"
tàsıntàl ^{lɛ}	"palm"	tàtàl ^{lɛ}	"palm"
tìəŋ-gῦυr ^ε	"chin"	tùb-kpìr ^ɛ	"half of jaw"
tùbυr ^ε	"ear"	yìər ^ɛ	"jaw"
yū'⊖r ^ε	"penis"	zàňl ^{lɛ}	"umbilicus"
zìlιm ^{mε}	"tongue"	zūg ^{ɔ/}	"head"
zūθbύg ^ο	"human head hair"	zῦυr ^ε	"tail"

There are significant exceptions, however:

g^a|**s**^ε class:

nú'ùg ^ɔ	"hand"	perhaps as the pre	ototypical tool.
nū'-bíl ^a	"finger"	but <i>nū'-dáòg</i> >	"thumb"
nū'-íň'a+	"fingernail"	nōb-bíl ^a	"toe"
nōb-íň'a+	"toenail"	sīa+	"waist"
ňyá'aŋ ^a	"back"	tìəŋ ^a	"beard"

f^o|*ι*⁺ class:

nīf ^{ɔ/}	"eye"	as a "small round thing"?	
sià-nīf ^{ɔ/}	"kidney"	as a compound of "eye"	
sūňf ^{ɔ/}	"heart"	beside $s\bar{u}u\check{n}r^{\epsilon}$ $r^{\epsilon} a^{+}$ class	

Structured semantic fields

30.7 Colours

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

 $Wiug^{\circ}$ "red" is synonymous with $z \dot{\epsilon} \ddot{n}' o g^{\circ}$. Kusaal has many more or less standardised expressions for colour (e.g. $w \bar{v} v t \acute{a} m p \bar{v} v n \bar{\epsilon}$ "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.

30.8 Time

Answers to *bò-wìn*^{nε} "what time of day?"

bēogυ-n ^{ε/}	"morning"	àsùbá+	"dawn" (← Arabic)
b <i>èk</i> èkèoňg ^o	"very early morning"	zàam ^m	"evening"
wìn-līir ^ε	"sunset"	yú'טŋ ^כ	"night"
wìn-kòɔňrɛ	"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 deicti	c particle <i>ňwà</i> "this" is co	nmonly attached to	time words:
zàam ňwá yú'uŋ ňwá	"this evening" "tonight"	[za:ma] [yʊːŋ:a]	<u>8.5.1</u>
5	egins at sunrise. o <i>būn-dáàr</i> ^ε "which day?":		
zīná+	"today"	sù' o s ^a	"yesterday"
bēog ^o	"tomorrow"	dāar ^ɛ	"day after tomorrow/ day before yesterday"

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Structured semantic fields

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 ^ε	"Monday"
Àtàláatà dáàr ^ε	"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" (*nīntāŋ* "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 kpέlìm ànínā dábısà brəlá.	"We stayed there a few days."

Longer periods of time:

dābá àyźpże	"week"	also <i>bákpàeू</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"	<i>úun^{nε}</i>	"dry season"

The Harmattan part of $\dot{u}un$ is called $s\bar{a}p\dot{a}l^{|\epsilon}$ and the very hot humid part before the rains is $d\dot{a}w\dot{a}l\iota g^{a}$.

yὺυm ^{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 $n\bar{z}r$ <u>16.4.2.4</u>. Examples with $s\bar{a}\eta\dot{a}^+$:

sān-kán <i>è</i> ?	"when?"	sān-kán lā	"at that time"
sāŋá kám	"all the time"	sāŋá bèdugū	"a long time"
sānsá bèdugū	"many times"	sāŋá bī əlá	"for/in a short time"

31 General vocabulary

Words are ordered by Short Forms.

Vowel glottalisation, and the distinctions n/n, $\partial/e/e/\epsilon$, $i/\iota/i$, $\partial/o/c$ and u/v/u are ignored in the ordering. The consonant n 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 $g^a|s^{\varepsilon}$ class form if extant, if not, then $g^{\circ}|d^{\varepsilon}$ or $r^{\varepsilon}|a^+$. Dual-aspect verbs are listed under the perfective.

Dual-aspect 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 $\underline{30.2}$ $\underline{30.3}$ 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.

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
dv	dual-aspect verb	ger	gerund
imp	imperative	ipfv	imperfective
n	noun	pl	plural
q	quantifier	res	resultative
sg	singular	SV	single-aspect verb

A

à- personifier proclitic (default allomorph) <u>16.6</u> **āaňduga** pl āaňdus^ε cb àaňd- n. black plum tree. Vitex doniana **āaňdır^ɛ** pl āaňda⁺ n. black plum fruit àaňs^ɛ dv. tear **àbùlá**⁺ how many-fold? 16.4.2.4 àbùyí⁺ àbùtáň⁺ àbùnāasí⁺ adv. twice, three times etc 16.4.2.4 **à-dàalúŋ²** pl à-dàalís^{ε} à-dàalímìs^{ε} cb à-dàalúŋ- n. stork <u>16.6</u> àdàkóň'⁺ q. one 16.4.2.2 àeň^a ger àaňlím^m sv. be something/somehow 20.2 8.5.2 **àeň**⁺ dv. get torn; res adj àaňlún³ torn \dot{a} - $g\dot{a}\dot{\nu}\ddot{n}g^{2}$ plà- $g\dot{a}\dot{a}\ddot{n}d^{\epsilon}$ cb à- $g\bar{a}\ddot{n}$ - n. pied crow 16.6 àgʻlⁱ àgʻlá⁺ adv. upwards $\dot{A}g\dot{z}l^{\epsilon}n$. Agolle district of Kusaasi territory; n. Agolle Kusaal dialect à-kōra-díàm^{ma} pl à-kōra-díàm-nàm^a n. praying mantis 16.6 àlá⁺ adv. thus 17.7 $\dot{a}\dot{a}^{\dagger}$ q. so many; how many? <u>17.7</u> àláafù⁺ n. health; in greetings 29; cf láafiya⁺ \leftarrow Arabic العافية ?al-sa:fiya(tu) Àláasìd dáàr^ε n. Sunday ← Arabic Àlàmíisì dáàr[€] n. Thursday ← Arabic Àlárıbà dáàr^ε n. Wednesday ← Arabic àlá zùg³ therefore <u>21.2.1</u> <u>17.7</u> $\dot{a}l \dot{c} p \dot{i} r^{\epsilon} p \dot{i} \dot{a} \dot{c} \dot{c} \dot{a}^{\dagger} n.$ aeroplane \leftarrow English àmáa⁼ but <u>21.2.1</u> ← Hausa ← Arabic àmēná⁺ adv. really, truly <u>17.4</u> àmí amen ← Arabic آمين; in replies to greetings 29 à-mús^ɛ pl à-mús-nàm^a n. cat 16.6; cf Hausa mussàa id ànāasí⁺ q. four <u>16.4.2.1</u> ani^+ adv. there 17.7 **àníi**⁼ q. eight 16.4.2.1 **àní nā^{+/}** adv. there <u>17.7</u> ànínà⁺ adv. promptly 17.4 ànź'àn^ɛ who? 16.3.4 àňruŋ^o pl àňrıma⁺ cb àňruŋ- n. boat (written aaruŋ in the 1976/1996 NT) āňs^ε dv. pluck (leaves) áňsìb^a pl āňs-nám^a cb āňs- n. mother's brother $\bar{a}\bar{n}sig^{\epsilon}/dv$. break at an angle āňsín^a pl āňsís^ɛ cb āňsın- n. (man's) sister's child **àntù'a**⁼ pl àntù' Θ s^{ϵ} cb àntu'à- n. lawsuit **ànū**⁺ q. five <u>16.4.2.1</u>

àňwá⁺ adv. like this <u>17.7</u>

ānzúrıfà⁺ n. silver; cf Hausa *azùrfaa* ← Berber *a-ẓrəf, Souag 2016

àrazàk^a pl àrazà'as^ɛ cb àrazà'- Generally used in pl: n. wealth, riches ← Arabic الرزق ?ar-rizq(u)

àrazánà⁺ n. heaven ← Arabic الجنة ?al-janna(tu)

Àrzúmà dáàr[€] n. Friday ← Arabic

àsέε except, unless <u>18 21.2.1</u> ← Hausa *sai*

Àsíbitì dáàr[€] n. Saturday ← Arabic

àsīda⁺ adv. truly <u>17.4</u>

àsùbá⁺ n. dawn \leftarrow Arabic الصباح $?as^{s}$ - $s^{s}aba:\hbar(u)$

àtáň'⁺ q. three <u>16.4.2.1</u>

Àtàláatà dáàr^ε n. Tuesday ← Arabic

àtáŋā^{+/} q. three exactly <u>16.4.2.1</u>

Àtínì dáàr^ε n. Monday ← Arabic

àtìuk^o n. sea ← Hausa tèeku

 $awana^{+/} adv$. like this <u>17.7</u> $awae^{+} q$. nine <u>16.4.2.1</u>

 $ayi^+ q$. two <u>16.4.2.1</u>

áyù no 22.3.4

àyíŋā^{+/} q. two exactly <u>16.4.2.1</u>

àyópòe⁺ q. seven <u>16.4.2.1</u>

àyúebù⁺ q. six <u>16.4.2.1</u>

В

bà they, their (proclitic); **ba**⁺ them (enclitic object) <u>16.3.1</u> $b\bar{a}'^+$ pl $b\bar{a}'$ -nám^a cb $b\bar{a}'$ - n. father <u>9.4</u> **bāa**⁼ pl bāas^{ε} cb bà- n. dog báa (← Hausa bâa "not exist") in constituent negation 27.2 $b\bar{a}'a^{=}$ pl $b\bar{a}'ab^{a}$ cb $b\dot{a}'a$ - n. traditional diviner; $b\dot{a}'a$ - $k\dot{2}lug^{2}$ pl $b\dot{a}'a$ - $k\dot{2}n^{n\epsilon}$ cb $b\dot{a}'a$ - $k\dot{2}l$ n. diviner's bag $b\bar{a}'a^{=}$ pl $b\bar{a}'as^{\epsilon}cb \ b\dot{a}'-n$. peg to hang things on **bà**'an^{nɛ} pl bà'ana⁺ cb bà'an- n. stocks (punishment) **bàaňlıg**^a pl bàaňlıs^ɛ adj. narrow, slender **bāaňlíg^a** adj. quiet **bāaňlím^m** adv. quietly **bà'ar**^{ϵ} pl bàda⁺ bà'a⁺ cb bà'- n. idol **bābá**⁺ beside postposition <u>17.6</u>; cf $b\bar{a}b\iota r^{\epsilon/}$ sphere of activity **bàbıgā**^{+/} q. many <u>16.4.1</u> **bákpàe**⁺ n. week ← Hausa bakwài "seven" bàlàar^ɛ pl bàlàya⁺ cb bàlà- n. stick, staff, club

bàlànır^ɛ pl bàlàna⁺ cb bàlàn- n. hat **bālērug**^{\mathbf{p}}/ pl bālērud^{ϵ}/ bālērus^{ϵ}/ cb bālér- n. ugly person; cf lēr^{ϵ} get ugly **bàmmā**^{+/} these, those demonstrative 16.3.2 **b** \dot{a} *n*^{ϵ} these, those demonstrative 16.3.2 **bán** they (subject of *n*-clause); **bān^ɛ** they, them (contrastive) <u>16.3.1</u> **bāň**'⁺ dv. ride **bānāa**⁼ pl bānāas^{ϵ} cb bànà- (tone sic in my materials) n. traditional "fugu" smock **bàň'ad**^a pl bàň'ad-nàm^a n. ill person **bāň**'al^{ϵ}/ dv. make to ride (horse, bicycle) **bāň'as**^ɛ cb bàň'- n. pl as sq disease bàn-dāug[>] pl bàn-dāad^ɛ cb bàn-dà- n. crocodile **bān-kúsél^l** ϵ pl bān-kús ϵ lá⁺ cb bān-kús ϵ l- n. lizard **bān**^a pl bāaňs^{ε} cb bàn- n. ring, chain, fetter **bàŋ**^a n. agama lizard **bàn^{\epsilon}** dv. come to know **báp** wallop! **B**ārı $q^{a/}$ pl Bār $\iota s^{\epsilon/}$ cb Bār- n. Bisa person (not only the Bareka, WK) bárıkà⁺ n. blessing; in greetings <u>29</u> ← Arabic بركة baraka(tun) **Bārug^{5/}** n. Bisa country; North 30.3 **b** $\dot{a}s^{\epsilon}$ dv. go away; abandon; throw out **Bāt^{ε/}** *n*. Bisa language **bàtáň**'⁺ *q*. three (after personal pronoun 16.4.2.1) **bàuŋu**⁺ n. found only as in O kpèň' báuŋù. He was circumcised. \leftarrow Songhay "pool" (for the idiom 15.1) **bày** $\bar{\epsilon}$ **og**^{**>**/ betrayer of secrets (*cf* $y\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon s^{\epsilon/}$)} **bày** $(^+ q$. two (after personal pronoun <u>16.4.2.1</u>) **bàyźp** \dot{p} **e**⁺ *q*. seven (after personal pronoun <u>16.4.2.1</u>) $b\dot{\epsilon}^+$ ger $b\dot{\epsilon}l(m^m (sic) sv. exist; be in a place 20.1)$ **b** $\bar{\epsilon}$ d ιg^{ϵ} / dv. go rotten **bèdug² bèdır^ɛ** pl bèda⁺ cb bèd- adj. great **b** \dot{c} **d**v**g** \dot{v} ^{+/} *q*. much, a lot 16.4.1 **b***ɛɛ* or <u>21.2.1</u> <u>22.1.2</u> bèkèkèoňg^o or bèkèoňg^o n. very early morning **b***è***l**(*m*^m *dv*). beg **b***è***lis**^{*ε*} *dv*. comfort **b**εn^{nε} pl bεna⁺ cb bεn- n. end **b** $\check{e}\check{n}$ '⁺ *qer* $b\bar{e}\check{n}$ ' $\varepsilon s^{\varepsilon} dv$. fall ill **b***èň***sig**^{*ε*} *dv*. serve soup **b** $\epsilon \eta^{\epsilon}$ dv. mark out a boundary **b** $\bar{\epsilon}$ **n**(d^{ϵ} cb b $\bar{\epsilon}$ **n**- n. pl bean leaves, Vigna unguiculata (Haaf); $b\bar{\epsilon}$ **n**(d n $\bar{\epsilon}$ k $\bar{\imath}^{+/}$ n. beanleafand-millet, a traditional snack

bɛ̃ŋír^ɛ pl bɛ̃ŋá⁺ cb bɛ̃ŋ- n. brown bean bēog[>] n. tomorrow <u>21.2.1</u> <u>30.8</u>; Kà bēog níe kà ... The next day ... **b***ε***oq***v*-**n**^ε/ *n*. morning 30.8 $b\bar{\epsilon}'oq^{2}b\bar{l}'a^{+}pl b\bar{\epsilon}'\epsilon d^{\epsilon}b\bar{l}' = cb b\dot{\epsilon}' - bi\dot{a}' - adi. bad$ **b** $\dot{\epsilon}$ *r*(η^{a} *pl* \dot{b} $\dot{\epsilon}$ *r*(g(s^{ϵ} *sic n.* a plant used for fibre (KED), Hibiscus cannabinus (Haaf) **b***ɛ***rig**⁺ *cb bɛ***ri***g*⁻ *pl* leaves of *bɛ***ri***n* used for soup (KED) **b** $\bar{\epsilon}$ **sug**² *pl* $b\bar{\epsilon}$ *sid*^{ϵ} *cb* $b\dot{\epsilon}$ *s*- *n*. a kind of wide-mouthed pot **biāň**' ar^{ϵ} pl biāň'adá⁺ biáň'a⁺ cb biāň'- n. wet mud, black mud; riverbed **biāuňk^o** pl bjāň'ad^ɛ cb bjàň'- n. shoulder **bī***θ***l**^ε *pl b***ī***θ***l**^{*δ*} *d***j**. naked bìəl^ɛ dv. accompany **bī**'**ə**lá⁺ q. a little <u>16.4.1</u>; **bī**'**ə**l bī'**ə**l q. and adv. a very little; little by little **bī'əm**^m pl bì'əm-nàm^a bī'əmma LF cb bì'əm- n. enemy **bīən^{nε}** pl bīəna⁺ cb bìən- n. shin **b** \bar{i} **ə** r^{ϵ} / pl bi \bar{e} y \dot{a}^+ cb bi \bar{a} - n. elder sibling of the same sex **b**i' $\partial s^{\epsilon} dv$. doubt **b**iqus^{ϵ} dv. show, teach bīig^a pl bīis^ɛ cb bì- bī- n. child; bī-d(bìŋ^a n. boy; bì-līa⁺ n. baby; bì-nà'ab^a n. prince; **bì-pīt**^a/ pl bì-pīt(b^a cb bì-pīt- n. father's younger brother; **bī-púŋ^a** n. girl **b**i'ig^{ϵ} dv. ripen, become pregnant **bīilíf**² pl bīilí⁺ cb bīil- n. seed **b**iilím^m n. childhood bīım^{m/} cb bī- n. soup, stew **b**i'**i**s(m^m n. milk (human or animal) **b***i*'is*i*^{*ε*} *pl bi*'*i*s^{*+*} *cb bi*'*i*s-*n*. woman's breast **bīl**^a $pl b \bar{b} l s^{\varepsilon} c b b l$ - or $b \bar{l}$ - $a d \bar{l}$. little, small **b***l*lg^ε dv. roll (transitive) **bìlım^m** dv. roll (intransitive) **bìmbìm^{mε}** pl bìmbìma⁺ cb bìmbìm- n. altar NT (KED: mound or pillar of earth) **Bin^{nε}** pl Bim^{ma} cb Bin- n. Moba, Bimoba person (not only Bemba, WK) **B***i***n**^{nε} *n*. Moba language **b**in^{nε} n. excrement **Biun²** n. Moba country **b)**⁺ *dv*. seek; **b)***d*^{**a**} *ipfv* used for: want, like, love (sexual, romantic); *imperfective gerund* **bòɔdım^m** will <u>13.2.1.4</u> $b\bar{j}^+ cb b\bar{j}$ - what? why? <u>16.3.4</u>; $b\bar{j}$ - $b\bar{u}ud\iota^+$ what sort of ..?; $b\bar{j}$ - $zug\bar{j}$ because <u>21.2.1</u>, why? <u>17.7</u>; **bɔ̀-wìn^{nε}** what time of day? **bbbi** g^{ϵ} dv. wrap round, tie round **bòdıg**^{ϵ} dv. lose, become lost **b** $\dot{}$ **d** $\dot{}$ **b** $\dot{}$ **d** $\dot{}$ **b** $\dot{}$ **d** $\dot{}$ **h** $\dot{}$ n. bread (? ultimately \leftarrow English)

 $b\dot{c}k^{2}$ pl b \dot{c} 'ad^{ϵ} cb by'à- n. pit

b5str^E pl b**5**sa⁺ cb b**5**s- n. a kind of small, very poisonous snake

bv'**a***r*^ε *pl bu*'àa⁺ *cb bu*'à- *n*. hole $b\bar{v}'ar^{\epsilon}/pl bu'áa^+ cb bu'\bar{a}- n.$ skin bottle

b \dot{v} *d*^{ε} *ger b* \bar{v} *dig*^{\circ} *d*v. plant seeds

bùdım^m dv. get confused

bùdımís^ɛ *n*. confusion

b \dot{u} 'e⁺ dv. pour out

bùg^ε dv. get drunk; cf Hausa bùgu id

b \bar{v} gud^a n. client of a $b\bar{a}'a^{=}$ traditional diviner

bùqulim^m dv. cast lots

b $\bar{v}gvr^{\epsilon}$ pl b $\bar{v}ga^+$ cb b $\bar{v}g$ - n. dwelling-place of a $w\bar{v}n^{n\epsilon}$ localised spirit; also a $w\bar{v}n^{n\epsilon/}$ as a $s\bar{s}qr^{\epsilon}/30.2$ inherited from one's mother's family

bùqúm^m cb bùqūm- bùqúm- n. fire; **Bùqúm-tɔ̃ɔňr^ɛ** n. Fire Festival

būgus^a/ sv. be soft

būgus(g^a būgus(r^ɛ pl būgusá⁺ cb būgus- adj. soft, weak

būgusígā^{+/} adv. softly <u>17.4</u>

būgusím^m n. softness, weakness

b*ū***k**^ε/ dν. weaken

bùk^ɛ dv. cast lots

bùl^ɛ dv. germinate, ooze

b \bar{u} *l*^{ϵ} *pl b* \bar{u} *l* a^+ *n*. shoot, sprout

bù**l**^ε dv. astonish

Bùl^{lε} n. Buli language

Bùlıg^a pl Bùlıs^ɛ cb Bùl- n. Bulsa person

bùl $\mathbf{g}^{\mathbf{a}}$ pl bùl \mathbf{s}^{ε} cb bùl- n. well, pond

bùmbàrıg^a pl bùmbàrıs^ɛ cb bùmbàr- n. ant

bùn^ε dv. reap, harvest

būn^{nε}/ pl būná⁺ būn-nám^a cb būn- n. thing (concrete or abstract) <u>16.10.4</u>; **b**ūnbúudìf^o n. plant; būn-gín^a n. short chap (informal, joking); būn-kóňbùg^o pl būn-kóňbìd^ɛ cb kòňb- (sic) n. animal; **būn-kúdùg[>]** n. old man

būn-**d**áà**r**^ε which day? 17.7

bùŋ^a pl bùmιs^ε cb bùŋ- n. donkey

b \dot{v} **n**^{ϵ} dv. take a short cut

bùel^ɛ dv. call, summon; Ò yū'vr búòn X. She is called X. <u>19.8.2</u>

bùər^ɛ pl buèya⁺ cb buà- n. grain store, silo

bū'es^ɛ dv. ask; ger **bū'esúg[>]** n. question; bu'oskana this question (In 18:34)

bò-pīiga *adv*. ten times <u>16.4.2.4</u>

b \bar{v} ráa⁼ n. man, male adult (in ILK but characteristically *Toende* Kusaal; see $d\bar{a}u^+$) **bū**rıyá⁺ n. Christmas ← Twi/Fante bronya

bv'⁺ *dv*. beat **buàk^ε** dv. split bòrkìn^a pl bòrkìn-nàm^a cb bòrkìn- n. free person; honourable person ← Songhay <u>15.1</u>
Bòsáàňl^ɛ n. Bisa language
Bòsáŋ^a pl Bòsáàňs^ɛ cb Bòsāŋ- n. Bisa person
bōtuŋ^a pl bōtus^ɛ irregular <u>6.2</u>; cb bòtuŋ- n. cup (in general; etymologically ← "seed planting [cup]")
bōud^ɛ n. pl as sg innocence
būudu⁺ cb bùud- n. kind, sort, ethnic group
bōug^a pl bōvs^ɛ cb bò- n. goat; bò-dìbug^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 <u>19.3.1</u> **dāa** before vesterday, *tense particle* 19.3.1 **dà'**⁺ *dv*. buy **dà'a**⁼ pl dà'as^{ϵ} cb dà'- n. market dà'abır^ɛ n. slave **dàalım^m** n. masculinity **dàalím^m** pl dàalímìs^{ε} n. male organs dāam^{m/} cb dā- n. millet beer, "pito"; dā-núùr^ɛ n. beer-drinking; dā-bín^{nɛ} cb dā-bín*n*. residue of beer; NT yeast (cf $b\bar{n}^{n\epsilon}$) **dàam^m** dv. disturb, trouble (cf Hausa dàamaa id) dāan^a pl dàan-nàm^a cb dàan- n. owner of ... 16.10.4 dāar^ε pl dābá⁺cb dà- n. day, 24-hour period <u>30.8</u>; dà-pīiga⁺ n. ten davs **dāa-sí' ɛrē** perhaps <u>21.</u>2.1 dàbīəm^m tone sic n. fear **dàbiog^o** pl dàbiəd^ɛ cb dàbià- n. coward **dàbisir^ε** *pl* dàbisa⁺ *cb* dàbis- *n*. day (as one of several) **dādúk³** n. a kind of large pot $d\bar{a}'e^{+}/dv$. push; blow (of wind) **Dàgáàd**^a pl Dàgáadìb^a Dàgáàd-nàm^a cb Dàgáàd- n. Dagaaba person (L prefix sic) **Dàgbān^{nɛ}**/ pl Dàgbām^{ma}/ cb Dàgbān- n. Dagomba person **Dàgbān^{nε/}** *n*. Dagbani language **Dàgbāuŋ^{5/}** n. Dagomba country, Dagbon dàgòbig^a n. left-hand; (yà) dàgòbig^a South KB <u>30.3</u> **dāká**⁺ pl dāká-nàm^a cb dāká- n. box ← Hausa àdakàa **dàkīig**^a pl dàkīis^ɛ cb dàkì- n. wife's sibling; **dàkì-dāu**⁺ n. wife's brother; **dàkìpuāk**^a n. wife's sister; **dàkì-tùa**⁺ n. wife's sister's husband **dà-kòɔňr^ɛ** pl dà-kòňya⁺ cb dà-kòň- n. unmarried son 30.1 **dàm^m** ipfv dàmmıd^a dv. shake

dàmà'a⁼ n. liar cf mà'⁺ **dàmà**'**am**^m n. lie, untruth, lying dàmà'ar^ɛ n. lie, untruth **dāmpūsāar^ɛ** n. stick dànkòŋ² n. measles **dà-pāal^{a/}** n. young man, son **dà-sān^a** pl dà-sāaňs^{ε} dà-sām^{ma} cb dà-san- n. young man $d\dot{a}$ - $t\bar{a}a^{=}$ pl dà- $t\bar{a}as^{\varepsilon}$ cb dà- $t\dot{a}$ - n. enemy **dàtìuŋ⁵** n. right-hand; (yà) dàtìuŋ⁵ North KB <u>30.3</u> **dāu**⁺ pl dāp^a cb dàu- dàp- 9.2.2 n. man (as opposed to woman) dàug^o pl dàad^ɛ cb dà- n. piece of wood, log; pl also: wood (material); dà-kīəd^a n. wood-cutter; dà-kpī'əda n. carpenter; dà-pūvdír^ɛ n. cross-piece, pl dàpoudá⁺ n. used as sg cross NT $d\bar{a} v g^{2}$ pl $d\bar{a} a d^{\epsilon} c b d\dot{a}$ - adj. male **dàwàlıq**^a n. hot humid season before the rains **dàwān^{nε/}** pl dàwāná⁺ cb dàwān- n. pigeon dàyáam^{ma} pl dàyāam-nám^a cb dàyāam- n. husband's parent; dàyāam-dáu⁺ n. husband's father; **dàyāam-puák**^a n. husband's mother **dàyūuq^{5/}** pl dàyūud^{ϵ /} cb dàyū- n. rat **d** $\hat{\epsilon}$ *b* ι *r* $\hat{\epsilon}$ *pl d* $\hat{\epsilon}$ *b* a^+ *n*. mat, pallet, bed $d\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon n^{a}$ pl $d\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon n^{s}$ $d\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon m s^{\epsilon}$ $d\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon na^{+}$ cb $d\dot{\epsilon}\epsilon n$ - q. first 16.4.2.3 $d\bar{\epsilon}l^{|a|}$ ger $d\bar{\epsilon}ll \dot{\epsilon} g^{\circ} d\bar{\epsilon}ll (m^{m} sv. lean on something (of a person))$ $d\hat{\epsilon}lm^{m} dv$. begin to lean on something (of a person) $d\bar{\epsilon}n^{a}$ pl $d\bar{\epsilon}m\iota s^{\epsilon}$ cb $d\epsilon n$ - n. accidental bruise dèŋ^ε dv. go, do first dènım beforehand, preverb <u>19.7.2</u> **dì** it, its (proclitic) $\underline{16.3.1} = l\hat{l}$ dì⁺ ipfv dìt^a imp dìm^a dv. eat, receive; ger dīıb⁹ n. food; Ò dì pu̯'ā. He's married a wife. *Ò dì ňyán.* She's ashamed. diā'^a dv. get dirty diā'ad^{ε/} n. dirt $d\bar{i}'e^{+/}dv$. receive, get *dìəm^{ma} pl dìəm-nàm^acb dìəm- n.* wife's parent; also in polite address to an unrelated person of opposite sex and similar or greater age than onself; **dìəm-dāu**⁺ n. wife's father; **dìəm-puāk**^a n. wife's mother **dì**'**ə**m^m dv. play, not be serious **dì'əma+** *n.* festival $d\bar{i}$ $\partial s^{\epsilon}/dv$. receive (many things) $d\bar{i}qi^{ya/}$ aer $d\bar{i}k^{a/}$ KT $d\bar{i}qir^{\epsilon/}$ WK sv. be lying down **dīgīsá**⁺ n. pl lairs $digul^{\epsilon}/dv$. lay down

 $diain^{\epsilon} dv$. lie down **dìgır^ɛ** pl dìga⁺ cb dìg- n. dwarf dis^ε dv. feed; agt dis^a n. glutton **dilsún**² pl dilsímà⁺ dilsís^{ε} cb dilsún- n. spoon dim^{a} dummy head pronoun, animate pl; $din^{n\epsilon}$ inanimate sg <u>16.10.4</u> **dín** it (subject of *n*-clause) 16.3.1 **din^{\epsilon}** it (contrastive) $16.3.1 = lin^{\epsilon}$ **dìndēoq**^{\mathbf{y}}/ pl dìndē \mathbf{z} / cb dìndē- n. chameleon dindits^a n. glutton dìn zúg³ therefore 17.7 **dìtúŋ²** n. right-hand (see dàtìuŋ²) **dì-zɔ̃ruq^{ɔ/}** pl dì-zɔ̃rá⁺ cb dì-zɔ̃r- n. crumb dɔ̃l^{la}/ ger dɔ̃llím^m sv. accompany in a subordinate rôle; Ànɔ́'ɔnì dɔ̃llí fɔ̂? Who has come with you? (to an elderly patient.) $B\dot{a} d\dot{b} / n\bar{\epsilon} t\bar{a}aba$. They went together. $d\bar{\partial} llg^{\epsilon}/dv$. make accompany, send along with $d\bar{\partial} ls^{\epsilon}/dv$. investigate, trace $d\bar{j}\bar{n}llq^{\epsilon}/d\nu$. stretch oneself *dòň'ɔs^ε dv*. water plants **dòɔq**^{**p**} pl dòɔd^{ϵ} dòt^{ϵ} cb dò- n. house, hut; clan; dòɔq bílq^a n. (house) cat **dòɔňg[>]** *pl dòɔňd^ɛ cb dòň- n.* dawadawa fruit $d\bar{v}^+$ ipfv $d\bar{v}t^{a/}$ imp $d\dot{v}m^a dv$. go up $du'\dot{a}^{a} dv$. bear, give birth, beget; $agt d\bar{v}'ad^{a} n$. elder relation *dν*'*al*^ε *dν*. make interest (of a loan) **dv**'**am**^{**m**} n. birth dùaň⁺ pl dòoňs^ɛ cb dòň- n. dawadawa Parkia clappertoniana [biglobosa] (Haaf) **du'átà**⁺ n. doctor ← English dūe^{+/} dv. raise, rise dūg^ε dv. cook $d\bar{\upsilon}k^{\prime}$ pl $d\bar{\upsilon}g\upsilon d^{\epsilon}$ d $\dot{\upsilon}t^{\epsilon}$ cb $d\bar{\upsilon}g$ - n. cooking pot; $d\bar{\upsilon}g$ - p $\epsilon'\dot{\epsilon}la^+$ n. full pots **dùm^m** dv. bite dūm^{mε} dūm^{nε} pl dūma⁺ cb dùm- n. knee dùndùug² pl dùndùud^ɛ cb dùndù- n. cobra dunya⁺ cb dūniyá- <u>9.6</u> n. world ← Arabic دنيا dunya: **dūnná**⁺ adv. this year 30.8 $d\bar{u}n^{a}$ pl $d\bar{u}m(s^{\epsilon} cb d\dot{u}n - n. mosquito)$ **dūθr^ε**/ pl duēyá⁺ cb duā- n. stick $d\bar{u}$ ' $\Theta s^{\epsilon}/dv$. lift up, honour **dùr^a** sv. be many $d\bar{u}'un^{\epsilon}/dv$, pass water (ger recorded as $d\bar{u}'un\dot{v}g^{2}$) **dū'uním^m** cb dū'un- n. urine dvusá⁺ n. pl. steps

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*Ē*ɛň yes <u>22.3.4</u> *Ē*ɛň or *Ē*ɛň tí see ňyēɛ, ňyēɛ tí habitually auxiliary tense marker <u>19.7.2</u> *Ē*ɛňb^{ɛ/} dv. lay a foundation *Ē*ɛňbír^ɛ n. foundation <u>12.2.2</u> *čňbis^ɛ* dv. scratch *čňd^ɛ* dv. block up, plug up *čňdig^ɛ* dv. unblock, unplug *čňrig^ɛ* dv. shift along (e.g. a bench)

F

P you sq (enclitic object) <u>16.3.1</u> **fāaň**⁼ *q*. every 16.4.1 fāeň^{+/} dv. save; agt fāaňd^{a/} fāaňgíd^a n. saviour <u>15.1</u> **fāň**⁺ dv. grab, rob fáss ideophone for piəlig^a white <u>16.11.1.3</u> $f\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon q^{\epsilon}/dv$. (of food) get old, cold fēň'og^{>/} pl fēň'ɛd^{ɛ/} cb fēň'- n. ulcer fiəb^ε dv. beat fi'ig^ε dv. cut off **fiiň**⁼ *q*. a little (liquid) <u>16.4.1</u> **fitlá**⁺ n. lamp \leftarrow Hausa fitilàa; in KB adapted to the $r^{\varepsilon}|a^+$ class: sg fitir pl fita **fɔ̃ɔs**^{ε/} dv. blow, puff (wind); ger **fɔ̃ɔsúg**^o n. hypocrisy NT **fv** you, your *sg* (*proclitic*) <u>16.3.1</u> **fùe**⁺ dv. draw out fūfūm^{mε} pl fūfūma⁺ cb fūfúm- n. envy; stye (believed to result from envy) fón you sg (as subject of *n*-clause); fön SF fónē LF you sg (contrastive) <u>16.3.1</u> **fūug**^{\circ}/ *pl* fūud^{ϵ}/ fūt^{ϵ}/ *cb* fū- *n*. shirt, clothing; *pl* also: cloth

G

gàad[€] dv. pass, surpass <u>23.2.2</u> gáafàra sorry formula <u>29</u> (Hausa gaafaràa, ultimately ← Arabic) gà'al[€] dv. button up gà'am^m dv. grind teeth gāaň^{=/} pl gāaňs^{ɛ/} cb gāň- n. Nigerian ebony Diospyros mespilliformis (Haaf) gàas^ɛ dv. pass by gādu⁺ gādug^{ɔ/} pl gādv-nám^a gāt^{ɛ/} cb gād- gādv- n. bed ← Hausa gadoo gàlum^m dv. joke **gàlis^{\epsilon}** dv. exceed, get to be too much $g\bar{a}nr^{\epsilon}$ pl $g\bar{a}nya^+$ cb $g\bar{a}nr$ - n. fruit of Nigerian ebony **gàn^ε** dv. step over $q\bar{a}n^{\epsilon}/dv$, choose *qbāň***'e**^{+/} *dv*. catch **gbáňyà'a**⁼ n. lazy person 15 gbáňyà'am^m n. laziness; 1976 NT gonya'am gbàuŋ⁵ pl gbàna⁺ cb gbàn- gbàun- n. book WK **gbāuŋ^{ɔ/}** pl gbāná⁺ cb gbān- gbāuŋ- n. animal skin WK; animal skin, book DK **gbéèňm^m** cb gbēň- n. sleep **gb** $\dot{\epsilon}$ 'og⁵ pl gb $\dot{\epsilon}$ ' ϵ d^{ϵ} gb $\dot{\epsilon}$ da⁺ cb gb $\dot{\epsilon}$ '- n. forehead; shore of a lake *ab***\bar{\epsilon}r^{\epsilon/}** pl *ab* $\bar{\epsilon}v\dot{a}^+$ cb *ab* $\bar{\epsilon}r$ - n. thigh **gbīgιm^{nε}** pl gbīgιma⁺ cb gbìgιm- n. lion **gbin^{ne}** pl gbina⁺ cb gbin- n. buttock; base (e.g. of a mountain); postposition <u>17.6</u> *abìn-vòɔňr***^ɛ** *n.* anus **gbīs^ε** dv. sleep $q\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon^{\prime} dv$. place between one's legs (Pattern H) *q̄εκ̌m̄m*^{*m*}/*dv*. go mad, madden *q***ĒĒŇM(S^E** n. pl as sq madness **géɛňŋ^a** pl gēɛňmís^ɛ n. madman gél^{le} pl gēlá⁺ cb gēl- n. egg *q***Ēň⁺** *dv.* get tired; *res adj q***Ēɛňlúŋ²** *adj.* **tired** $g\bar{\epsilon}\check{n}'^+ dv$. get angry $g\bar{\epsilon}og^{2}$ n. place between one's legs (Pattern O sic) gīiňlím^m n. shortness gik^a pl gigis^{ε} cb gig- n. dumb person **gìgılım^m** dv. become dumb *qīlıq***^{\epsilon}** *ipfv qīn*^{na/} dv. go around 11.1 **gim^{ma/} sv.** be short **gīņ**^a pl gīma⁺ cb gì**ņ**- adj. short **gìn^ε** dv. scrimp $gina^+$ adv. shortly <u>17.4</u> **qīnulím^m** n. shortness $q\bar{j}d_{\iota}q^{\epsilon}/q\dot{j}'jn^{\epsilon}dv$. look up **gɔ̃l^{la}**/ **gɔ̃r^a**/ **gɔ̃'e^{ya}**/ sv. be looking up gòň⁺ dv. hunt; ipfv gòɔňd^a wander, ger gòɔňdım^m wandering <u>13.2.1.4</u> **Gòɔg**^a pl Gòɔs^ε n. clan name **Gòog**^{**o**} *n*. place of the Gòos^{ϵ} Goosi clan **g**^{**'**}**)** *dν*. look up **gjr**^{**a**/ *s***v**. be looking up}

 $q\bar{c}s^{\epsilon}$ ipfv $q\bar{c}s_{c}d^{a}/q\bar{c}t^{a}/imp$ $q\bar{c}s_{c}m^{a}$ $q\bar{c}m^{a}$ qer $q\bar{c}s_{c}d^{a}$ dv. look; aqt $q\bar{c}t^{a}/n$. seer, prophet $g\bar{u}'^+ dv$. guard, protect **g**ὑl^ε ipfv gòn^{na} dv. suspend **g** \dot{v} **l**^{la} *ger* $g\bar{v}$ *l*(b^{2} *sv*. be suspended **gòllum^{nε}** only: *post-NP/AdvP particle* 28.6 $g\dot{v}m^{m\epsilon}$ pl $g\dot{v}ma^+$ n. kapok fruit; also thread WK **Gòm^{mε}** *n*. place of the clan Gòm-dìm^a **gūmpūzēr**^ε/ pl gūmpūzēyá⁺ cb gūmpūzér- n. duck $q\dot{u}\ddot{n}'a^+$ pl $q\dot{z}\ddot{n}'zs^{\epsilon}$ cb $q\dot{z}\ddot{n}'-n$. thorn; Acacia; $q\dot{z}\ddot{n}'zs\bar{a}bul(q^a A cacia hockii$ (Haaf) **gùngūm^{mε}** *n*. kapok material $g\dot{v}\eta^{a}$ pl $g\dot{v}mis^{\epsilon}$ cb $g\dot{v}\eta$ - n. kapok tree Ceiba pentandra (Haaf) $q\bar{u}r^{a/}$ ger $q\bar{u}r(m^{m} sv)$. be on guard, watch for 26.1 **G***v***í***n*^{nε} *n*. Farefare language **G** \bar{v} r(n^{a} pl G \bar{v} r(s^{ϵ} n. Farefare person $g\bar{u}'ul^{\epsilon}/dv$. put on guard **gv**'**v***l*(**m**^m dv. become half-ripe **gòur^{\epsilon}** pl gòya⁺ cb gò- n. upland; bank of river **g**ūvr^ɛ pl gūya⁺ cb gù- n. ridge of back $g\bar{u}'us^{\epsilon}/dv$. take care, watch out **gū'υs^ε** *n*. *pl* half-ripe fruit

Н

hālí⁺ until, up to and as far as, even <u>18</u> <u>21.2.1</u> <u>23.1</u> <u>28.6</u>; ? ← Arabic حتى ħatta: hālí báa even

I

 $i\bar{a}^{\dagger} dv.$ seek $i\bar{a}\bar{n}^{\dagger}as^{\epsilon}/ dv.$ leap $i\bar{a}\bar{n}k^{\epsilon}/ ger i\bar{a}\bar{n}^{\dagger}ad^{a}/ agt i\bar{a}\bar{n}^{\dagger}ad^{a}/ dv.$ leap, fly <u>11.1</u> $\bar{i}giv^{a}/ ger ik^{a}/ \text{KT} igir^{\epsilon}/ WK sv.$ be kneeling $\bar{i}gil^{\epsilon}/ dv.$ make to kneel $igin^{\epsilon} dv.$ kneel down $(il^{i\epsilon} pl \bar{i}ld^{+} cb \bar{i}l-n.$ horn $\bar{i}sir^{\epsilon} pl \bar{i}sa^{+}cb is-n.$ scar $isig^{\epsilon} dv.$ get up early

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Κ

kà and, that 21.2 $k\bar{a}ab^{\epsilon}/dv$. offer. invite $k\bar{a}al^{\epsilon}/dv$, count $k\bar{a}as^{\epsilon}/dv$. cry out, weep; (cock) crow kà'asıgē LF only; sv. not exist 19.5.1 $k\bar{a}b\iota q^{\epsilon}/dv$. ladle out (liquid) $k\bar{a}bir^{\epsilon}/dv$. call out asking for admission <u>29</u>; ger $k\bar{a}biri^{+}$ n. calling out for admission kàd^ɛ dv. drive away; kàd sàríyà dv. judge 19.8.1; aqt sàríyà-kāt^a n. judge NT $k\bar{a}'e^+$ ger $k\bar{a}'al(m^m sv. not exist, not be, not have <u>19.5.1</u> 8.5.2$ $k\bar{a}l^{|\epsilon|}$ pl k $\bar{a}l\dot{a}^+$ cb k $\bar{a}l$ - n. number **kàlıgā**^{+/} *q*. few 16.4.1 **kàm**^a *q*. every <u>16.4.1</u> **Kàmbùnır^ɛ** n. Twi language Kàmbùŋ^a pl Kàmbùmıs^ɛ cb Kàmbùŋ- n. Ashanti person **kàn**^{ϵ} this, that *demonstrative* 16.3.2 **kàňb^ε** ger kāňbιr^ε dv. scorch $kana^{+/}$ this, that demonstrative 16.3.2 kàr^a sv. be few kàrım^m dv. read kàsēt^a/ n. witness; testimony (Mooré kàsétò "proof, testimony"; probably ultimately ← French *cachet* <u>15.1</u>; *pl kàsɛ̃tíb*^a witnesses) $k\bar{\epsilon}^+$ ipfv $k\bar{\epsilon}t^{a/}$ imp $k\bar{\epsilon}l^a dv$. let, cause to ... 11.1 23.3 **k***è***k***è*⁺ *pl kèɛkè*-*nàm*^a *cb kèɛkè*- *n*. bicycle ← Hausa *kèekè* $k \tilde{\epsilon} \epsilon s^{\epsilon} dv$. say farewell to $k \hat{\epsilon} l q^{\epsilon} or k \hat{\epsilon} l s^{\epsilon} dv.$ listen $k\bar{\epsilon}n^+$ ipfv $k\bar{\epsilon}n^{a/}$ imp $k\bar{\epsilon}m^a$ ger $k\bar{\epsilon}n^{n\epsilon/}$ dv. come 11.1; always with $n\bar{a}$ 19.10; $k\bar{\epsilon}n$ $k\bar{\epsilon}n$ welcome! 29 $k\bar{\epsilon}n^{\epsilon/}$ ipfv $k\bar{\epsilon}n^{na/}$ imp $k\bar{\epsilon}m^{a}$ (disambiguated with sà <u>19.10</u>) dv. go; walk <u>11.1</u>; agt kēn^{na/} n. traveller *kérıfà* or *kárıfà* ← Hausa *karfèe*; *in telling time* <u>30.8</u> $k\bar{i}^{+/}cb k\bar{i} - k\bar{a} - n$. cereal, millet; $k\bar{i} - d\dot{a}'ar^{\epsilon} pl k\bar{i} - d\dot{a}'ada^{+} n$. purchased millet; $k\bar{a}$ wēnnır^ε pl kā-wēnna⁺ cb kā-wén- n. corn kià⁺ dv. cut $k\bar{l}dlg^{\epsilon}/dv$. cross over, meet; **À**- $K\bar{l}dlgl B\bar{u}$ 'es *n*. the constellation Orion **kīib** o^+ cb kīib- n. soap WK; \leftarrow Mampruli 15.1; written materials ki'ib³, probably kī' ι b^{3/} **kíiňf**^{**p**} $pl kiini^+ n$. millet seed **k**ιs^ε dv. listen $k\bar{\iota}'\iota s^{\epsilon}/dv$. denv kìkàm^{mε} pl kìkàma⁺ n. fig

kìkàn^a kìnkàn^a pl kìkàmıs^ɛ cb kìkàn- n. fig tree Ficus capensis (Haaf) **kìkīrıg**^a/ pl kìkīrıs^{ϵ}/ 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 $kik\bar{i}ris^{\epsilon}$ hostile to man live in the bush: "Their feet are attached backwards to confuse trackers." WK; **kìkīr-bɛ́'ɛ̀d^ɛ** n. NT evil spirit, demon (KB just uses kikīrıg^{a/}) *kīlum^{m/} dv.* become, change into kìm^m dv. tend flock, herd; agt kòňb-kīm^{na} n. herdsman, shepherd $k\bar{i}r^{\epsilon}$ aer kıkír $\dot{v}a^{\gamma}$ k $\bar{i}r_{i}b^{\gamma}$ dv. hurry, tremble **kīs**^a/ ger kísùg⁵ agt kīs^a/ kīsıd^a/ sv. hate kísòg² adj. hateful, taboo **k)**⁺ *dv*. get broken, break (*intransitive*); *res adj* **k)***dj*. broken **kòbıgā kòbısí**⁺ *q*. one hundred, two hundred 16.4.2.1 **kɔ̃bır^ε** pl kɔ̃ba⁺ cb kòb- n. bone **kɔ̃dú**⁺ n. banana ← Twi kwadu $k \partial l^{\epsilon} dv$. put something around the neck kɔ̃lıg^a pl kɔ̃lıs^ε cb kòl- n. river; kɔ̃lugu-n nɔ́-dáùg^o n. cravfish **kòlug**² pl kòn^{nɛ} cb kòlug- 9.2.2 n. sack, bag **kɔ̃m^m**/ cb kɔ̃m- n. hunger **kɔ̃ňbuq[>]** pl kɔ̃ňbıd^ɛ cb kòňb- (also used as cb of būn-kɔ́ňbùg[>] animal) n. animal hair or human body hair; cf zūebúg⁵; kòňb-kīm^{na} pl kòňb-kīmmıb^a n. shepherd, herdsman $k\bar{j}n'jk\bar{j}^+ adv$. alone, by oneself <u>17.4</u> **kòňs^ε** dv. cough **kòňsım^m** dv. cough $k\dot{a}'a^{\epsilon} dv$. break (transitive or intransitive) $k\dot{a}'as^{\epsilon} dv$. break several times **kòtàa^{nε}** at all; *post-NP/AdvP particle* 28.6 $k \acute{t} \acute{v}^+ n$. lawcourt ← English, probably via Hausa **kpà'a**⁼ pl kpà'a-nàm^a n. rich person **kpāad**^a/ pl kpāad(b^a cb kpāad- n. farmer, cultivator **kpà'am^m** n. riches kpāaňm^{m/} cb kpāň- n. grease, ointment; kpāň-sóň'odìm^m n. anointing oil **kpàkūr**^{ϵ}/ pl kpàkūyá⁺ cb kpàkūr- n. tortoise **kpān^{nε}** pl kpāna⁺ cb kpàn- n. spear **kpàňdır^ɛ** pl kpàňda⁺ cb kpàňd- n. baboon **kpàr^ɛ** dv. lock kpār-kéòňg^o pl kpār-kéčňd^e cb kpār-kéň- n. rag $kp\bar{a}'\dot{\upsilon}\eta^{2}$ pl $kp\bar{r}ini^{+}$ cb $kp\bar{a}'$ - n. guinea fowl $k p \bar{\epsilon}^+ a d v$. here 17.7 **kpēɛňm^m** pl kpèɛňm-nàm^a cb kpèɛňm- n. elder

kp*ɛɛňm*^{ma}/ *sv*. be older than **kp***ɛ***l***á*⁺ *adv*. here <u>17.7</u> **kp***č***l**(*m*) still; immediately after, preverb 19.7.2 **kpèlım^m** dv. remain **kpèn** reduced form of the preverb kpèlim **kpžň'**⁺ dv. enter **kp***Ē*nd**ιr**^{ε/} pl kp*Ē*ndá⁺ cb kp*Ē*nd- n. cheek **kpèň'εs^ε** dv. make enter $kp\dot{\epsilon}'\eta^{\epsilon} dv$. strengthen **kpēoňn**^{**2**} *n*. seniority **kpì**⁺ dv. die; res adj **kpìilúŋ**² adj. dead **kpì'a**⁺ pl kpì' ∂s^{ϵ} cb kpįà'- n. neighbour *kpià*'⁺ dv. shape wood with axe etc **kpì**'**e**⁺ *dv*. approach **kpī**'**ə**m^{ma}/ sv. be strong, hard **kpìibug**^a pl kpìibus^ɛ cb kpìib- n. orphan **kpìig^ε** dv. go out (fire) **kpī**'**ı***l*(**m**^m *dv*. finish, come to an end **kpī**'**im**^m/ pl kpī'im(s^ε cb kpī'im- n. dead person, corpse **kpìis^ε** dv. quench (fire) **kpīkpīn^{na/}** pl kpīkpīnníb^a cb kpīkpín- n. merchant **kpī'oŋ'** pl kpī'əma⁺ cb kpì'oŋ- adj. strong, hard **kpisinkpil^{\epsilon}** pl kpisinkpila⁺ cb kpisinkpil- n. fist **kpìsukpìl^{lɛ}** *n*. fist *kpùkpàr^ε pl kpùkpàra*⁺ *n*. palm tree fruit **kpùkpàrıg**^a pl kpùkpàrıs^ɛ cb kpùkpàr- n. palm tree (probably Borassus akeassii or *aethiopum*) **kpòkpàuŋ²** pl kpòkpàma⁺ cb kpòkpàuŋ- n. arm, wing **kv** not; negates irrealis mood <u>19.5</u> $k\bar{v}^+ dv$. kill **kv**⁺ *dv.* gather, threaten (of rain): *Sāa kú yā*. It looks like rain. **kuā**⁺ dv. hoe, farm $k\bar{v}$ 'alí n^{a} pl $k\bar{v}$ 'alím's $k\bar{v}$ 'alís cb $k\bar{v}$ 'alín- n. sleeveless traditional smock **kùd^ε** dv. work iron kòdıg^ɛ dv. shrivel up, dry out, age **kūdım^m** *n*. the olden days; also for kūlım qv $k\bar{\nu}d\nu q^{2} k\bar{\nu}d\iota r^{\epsilon}$ pl $k\bar{\nu}da^{+} k\bar{\nu}t^{\epsilon} cb k\dot{\nu}d$ - adj. old kūdvg^o pl kūt^ε (used as sg <u>16.2.1</u>) cb kùt- n. iron, nail; sg only in names 30.2 $k\bar{u}gor^{\epsilon}$ pl $k\bar{u}g\dot{a}^+$ cb $k\bar{u}g$ - n. stone kūka pl kūgus^ε cb kùg- n. chair kùk^a n. ghost

kūk^{a/} n. mahogany tree, Khaya senegalensis (Haaf); cf Hausa kuukàa **kùkòm^{mε}** pl kùkòma⁺ cb kùkòm- n. leper kùkār^ɛ/ pl kùkāyá⁺ cb kùkār- n. voice kùkpàrıq^a see kpùkpàrıq^a id *kūl^ε ger kūlıg^{a/} dv. return home; transitive marry (woman subject, man object)* **k***olm* always, post-subject particle 21.2.3 **k** \dot{v} *l*(η^{a} *pl* k \dot{v} *l*(m)(s^{ϵ} *k* \dot{v})(s^{ϵ} *cb* k \dot{v})(η - *n*. door kòm^m dv. cry, weep kūm^m cb kùm- n. death; kùm-vū'vgír^ɛ n. resurrection NT kùndù'ar^ɛ pl kùndù'ada⁺ cb kùndu'à- n. barren woman kùndùn^a pl kùndùmıs^ɛ kùndùna⁺ n. jackal, hyena $k\dot{u}$ ' em^{m} cb ku'à- n. water; ku'à-nūud^{ɛ/} n. thirst; ku'à-ňwīig^{a/} pl ku'à-ňwīis^{ɛ/} n. current in a river **kùθs^ε** dv. sell **kòrkūr^{ε/}** pl kòrkūyá⁺ cb kòrkūr- n. pig Kūsáa⁼ pl Kūsáàs^ɛ cb Kūsá- n. Kusaasi person Kūsáàl^ɛ n. Kusaal language Kūsáùg^o n. Kusaasi country **Κὺtān^{nε/}** pl Kỳtām^{ma/} cb Kỳtān- n. member of WK's clan

Kolan, prikolannik, co kolan-n. member or wiks c

Kòtāuŋ^{ɔ/} n. country of clan Kòtām^{ma/} Kutamba

kōv or <u>21.2</u> <u>22.1.2</u> ← Hausa

 $k\bar{u}ug^{a/}k\bar{u}ug^{a/}$ pl $k\bar{u}us^{\epsilon/}cb$ $k\bar{u}$ - n. mouse

 $k \dot{v} o l^{\epsilon} dv$. get drunk

L

lā^{+/} definite article <u>16.5</u>
là⁺⁺ dv. laugh
lā'af² n. cowrie; pl līgudu⁺ n. cowries, money; cb lìg- là'-; là'-bīəlíf² n. small coin
láafiya⁺ n. health ← Arabic العافية *?al-?a:fiya(tu)*; replaced throughout by laafe láafi in 1996 NT and KB
là'am together, preverb <u>19.7.2</u>
là'am^m dv. associate with; together with <u>23.2</u>
là'as^e dv. gather together (transitive); Bà là'as tāaba They gathered together.
làbāar^e cb làbà- n. news ← Arabic الاخبار *?al-?axba:r(u)*làbi^{ya} sv. be crouching, hiding behind something (cf Hausa *labèe* "crouch behind something to eavesdrop" <u>15.1</u>)
làbu^{fe} dv. make crouch behind something
làbis^e dv. walk stealthily
lābis^a/sv. be wide

lābisíg^a lābisír^ɛ pl lābisá⁺ cb lābis- adj. wide *lābısím^m n.* width $l\bar{a}k^{\epsilon}/dv$. open (eve, book) lāl^{la/} sv. be distant $l\bar{a}l(q^{\epsilon}/dv)$, get to be far, make far **lall**(⁺ *adv*. far off **lāllín**^a pl lāllís^ɛ cb lāllín- adj. distant **lāllúq**⁹ pl lāllá⁺ cb lāl- adj. distant $l\bar{a}m^{m\epsilon}$ pl $l\bar{a}m\dot{a}^+$ cb $l\bar{a}m$ - n. gum (of tooth); $l\bar{a}m$ -fóòg^o pl $l\bar{a}m$ -fóòd^{ϵ} adj. toothless *làmp5-dí*'*às*^a *n*. tax collector 15 ← French *l'impôt* lān^{nε} pl lāna⁺ cb làn- n. testicle **làngáun^o** pl làngáam^{mɛ} làngāamá⁺ cb làngāun- n. crab (cf màngáun^o id) **lànnıg**^a pl lànnıs^{ε} cb lànnıg- 9.2.2 n. squirrel $l\bar{a}'\eta^{\epsilon}/d\nu$. set alight *lāním^m dv.* wander around searching **lāuk**^o pl $|\bar{a}|^{\alpha} d^{\varepsilon} cb |\dot{a}|^{-} n$. item of goods pl goods là'uŋ[>] pl là'ama⁺ n. fishing net lɛ̀b^ɛ ger lɛ́bıg^a dv. return (intrans) *l* $\hat{\boldsymbol{b}}\boldsymbol{l}\boldsymbol{g}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}$ *dv*. turn over; return *lèbis^ε* dv. answer; send back; divorce (wife) *lε* but, VP particle <u>19.7.1</u> lèm again, preverb 19.7.2 lèm^m ipfv lèmmıd^a dv. sip, taste $l\bar{\epsilon}r^{\epsilon}dv$. get ugly \mathbf{l} it, its (proclitic); \mathbf{l} + it (enclitic object) <u>16.3.1</u> **lì**⁺ ipfv lìt^a imp lìm^a ger līig^a dv. fall $l\bar{l}^+ dv$. block up *lia* where is ...? 22.3.2 lidig^E dv. turn a shirt WK $lidig^{\varepsilon} dv$. astonish, be amazed $\hat{\mathbf{u}} = \mathbf{b}^{\mathbf{\epsilon}} d\mathbf{v}$, become $li' = l^{\varepsilon} dv$. approach, come near *lí*' $\partial m^{m\epsilon}$ *pl li*' $\partial m \dot{a}^+ n$. fruit of vellow plum tree líən^a pl līəmís^ε cb līən- n. axe lí'əŋ^a pl lī əmís^ɛ n. yellow plum tree, Ximenia americana **lìg^ε** dv. patch lìgıl^ɛ dv. cover lìgin^ε dv. cover oneself **lītbir^{\epsilon}** pl lītba⁺ cb lìtb- n. twin **līk^a** pl līgιs^ε n. darkness lìlāalíŋ^a pl lìlāalís^ɛ lìlāalímìs^ɛ cb lìlāalíŋ- n. swallow

l(n it (subject of \hat{n} -clause); *lin^{\epsilon}* it (contrastive) 16.3.1 lin^ε that *demonstrative* 16.3.2 lìná⁺ that *demonstrative* 16.3.2 **15**⁺ dv. tie $l5b^{\epsilon} dv$, throw stones at **I**5bidí g^{a} pl I5bidí s^{ϵ} n. water drawing vessel *l̄duga*/ pl *l̄dus^{ε/} cb l̄d- n.* corner; *l̄dugín kúg-súŋ*² cornerstone NT $l\bar{j}d_{l}q^{\epsilon}/dv$. untie $l\dot{b}k^{2}$ pl $l\dot{b}'ad^{\epsilon}$ cb $l\mu'\dot{a}$ - n. quiver (for arrows) **lòmbò'ɔg^o** pl lòmbò'ɔd^ɛ cb lòmbò'- n. garden ← Hausa làmbuu $l\bar{j}\eta^{a}$ pl $l\bar{j}mls^{\epsilon}$ cb $l\dot{j}\eta$ - n. a kind of frog $l\bar{j}'\eta^{\epsilon}/dv$. go across river, road etc **l***j***r**^ε *pl ljyà*⁺ *ljm*^{ma} *cb ljr*- *n*. car, lorry ← English **lù**⁺ *ipfv lùt*^a *imp lùm*^a *dv*. fall $l\bar{u}b^{\epsilon}$ ger $l\bar{u}bur^{\epsilon}/dv$, buck, kick, struggle, throw off rider **lūg^ε** dv. swim *lūgur^ε n.* organ, member

Μ

 \dot{m} I, my (proclitic); m^{a} me (enclitic) <u>16.3.1</u>

mà⁺ cb mà- n. mother; pl mà nám^a (tone sic) mother's sisters/co-wives; mà-bīig^a n. sibling with same mother; mà-bīl^a n. mother's younger sister or junior co-wife; mà-kpɛɛňm^m n. mother's elder sister or senior co-wife; mà-pīt^a/n. mother's younger sister

 $m\dot{a}'^+ dv$. lie, deceive

mà'aa SF mà'anē LF only; post-NP/AdvP particle 28.6

màal^ɛ dv. prepare, sacrifice; agt màal-māan^{na} n. sacrificer; priest NT; traditionally just a worker who conducts the actual slaying for the tɛ̀ŋ-dāan^a earth-priest
mā'al^{ɛ/} dv. make cool, wet
māan^{nɛ} pl māana⁺ cb màan- n. sacrifice 12.2.2
má'an^{nɛ} pl mā'aná⁺ cb mā'an- n. okra
mā'as^{a/} sv. be cool, wet
mā'asíg^ā mā'asír^ɛ pl mā'asá⁺ cb mā'as- adj. cool, wet
mā'asígā^{+/} adv. coolly 17.4
mā'asím^m n. coolness, wetness
mādıg^{ɛ/} dv. overflow, abound
mā'e^{+/} dv. cool down
māk^ɛ dv. crumple up
māk^ɛ dv. measure, judge

màliāk^a/ pl màliā'as^ɛ/ màliāk-nám^a cb màliā'- n. angel \leftarrow Arabic \checkmark mal?ak(un) 15.1 written malek in NT versions before 2016 **màligim** again; preverb 19.7.2 *mālıs^{a/} sv.* be sweet, pleasant **mālisíg**^a **mālisír**^ɛ pl mālisá⁺ cb mālis- adj. sweet, pleasant *mālısím^m n.* sweetness **mālisíŋ**^a pl mālisís^ɛ cb mālisíŋ- adj. sweet, pleasant **māluŋ**² pl mālıma⁺ cb màluŋ- n. sacrifice **mām** I, me <u>16.3.1</u> *mán* I (as subject of *h*-clause); *mán* SF *mánɛ* LF I, me (contrastive) 16.3.1 **màngáuŋ^o** pl màngáam^{mɛ} màngāamá⁺ cb màngāuŋ- n. crab (cf làngáuŋ^o id) **màuk³** pl mà'ad^ɛ adj. crumpled up $m\dot{\epsilon}^+ dv$, build mè mèn^e too, also; post-NP/AdvP particle <u>28.6</u>; mè-kàma -soever <u>16.3.3</u> *mɛ̃d^ε dv*. mash up **mèɛŋ**^a pl mèɛmıs^ɛ cb mèɛŋ- n. turtle mèlıgım^m n. dew *m̄εŋ*^{a/} self <u>16.10.4</u> *mēŋír^ε adj*. genuine **mēt**^ε/ cb mēt- n. pl as sg pus mī'⁺ ger mī ilím^m sv. know; agt **gbàn-mī id^{a/}** n. scribe ("book-knower") NT *míif*^P *pl mīiní*⁺ *n.* okra seed $mi'ig^{\epsilon} dv$. become sour mì'is^a sv. be sour **mì'isug**² pl mì'isa⁺ cb mì'is- adj. sour *mīlig***^{\epsilon}** dv. get dirty **mìmīilím^m mìmīilúg⁵** n. sweetness

mit see that it doesn't happen that... <u>19.5.1</u>; always mid in KB

 $m\bar{o}^+ dv$. strive, struggle

mɔ̄d^ε dv. swell

 $m\bar{j}d\iota g^{\epsilon}/d\nu$. be patient, endure

mòlıf[•] pl mòlı⁺ cb mòl- n. gazelle

 $m\bar{o}n^{\epsilon} dv$. grind millet to make $s\bar{a}'ab^{\circ}$ porridge

 $m\bar{\sigma}\eta^{\epsilon}/dv$. refuse to lend

mɔ̃ɔɡ̃^o pl mɔ̃ɔd^ɛ cb mò- n. grass, "bush"; **mò-pīl^{lɛ}** n. grass thatch

Mòɔg^o n. Mossi realm; Mòɔg Ná'àb^a n. the Moro Naba, King of the Mossi

*m***ɔ***̄̄j^εi dν*. proclaim; *agt m***ɔ***̄j-m***o***̂jn*^{na} *n*. proclaimer

Mکارد n. Mooré language

Μɔ̄r^{ε/} *pl* Mɔ́ɔm^{ma} *cb* Mɔ̄r- *n*. Muslim

mɔ̃r^a/ ger mɔ̃rím^m sv. have, possess; *mɔ̃r nā* bring <u>19.10</u>

 $M\dot{u}a^+$ pl Mòɔs^{ϵ} cb Mò- n. Mossi person

mu'à^a dv. suck (of a baby)
muàk^a pl mù'as^ɛ cb mu'à- n. maggot
mù'ar^ɛ pl mu'àa⁺ mù'ada⁺ cb mu'à- n. dam; reservoir
mù'as^ɛ dv. give (to baby) to suck
mù'e⁺ dv. redden; catch fire/ignite; become intense, severe
mùi⁺ cb mùi- n. pl as sg rice
mùl^ɛ dv. itch
mùm^m dv. bury

Ν

n clause nominaliser particle <u>25</u> *n* clause catenator particle 23.1 **n**- personifier clitic (allomorph used before an adjective) <u>16.6</u> **n**^{*\mathcal{E}*} discontinuous-past enclitic 24.1.1 $n^{\epsilon} n\bar{\iota}^{+/}$ locative enclitic 17.3 **nà** positive irrealis mood marker 19.4 **nā**^{+/} hither; *VP-final particle* <u>19.10</u> $n\bar{a}^+ dv$. join náa reply to greetings invoking blessings 29 **nà**'**ab**^a pl nà'-nàm^a cb nà'- n. chief, king; **nà**'-**b**īig^a n. prince, princess **náaf**² pl $n\overline{i}g(t^{+} cb n\overline{a}t^{-} n. cow; n\overline{a}t^{-}lor^{\epsilon} n. place in compound for tying up cows;$ $n\bar{a}'-d\dot{a}\dot{v}g^{2}$ pl $n\bar{a}'-d\dot{a}\dot{a}d^{\epsilon}$ cb $n\bar{a}'-d\dot{a}-n$. ox; $n\bar{a}'-d\dot{a}-k\bar{u}ed(r^{\epsilon}n)$. ox for ploughing **nàam^m** dv. happen **nā'am^m** cb nà'am- n. chieftaincy, kingdom **nāan** next, afterwards = *ňyāan* nāan or nāani then, in that case, being thus/there 24.1.2 nà'anā^{+/} adv. easily 17.4 **nà**'as^ε dv. honour; ger **nà**'asι⁺ n. honour Nàbıd^a pl Nàbıdıb^a cb Nàbıd- n. Nabdema person Nàbidug² n. Nabdema country Nàbur^ɛ n. Nabit language Nà'dàm^{ma} n. clan name Nà'dàun^o n. place of clan Nadamba **nà'-dàwān^{nɛ/}** n. pigeon KED (= dàwān^{nɛ/}) $n\bar{a}e^{+/}dv$. finish *nàm* still, yet; *auxiliary tense particle* <u>19.3.1</u> nàm^a pluraliser <u>9.4</u> $n\bar{a}$ 'mis^{ϵ}/ dv. persecute, suffer $n\bar{a}n^{\epsilon} dv$. love, respect, appreciate nà'-nɛ̄sınnɛ̃og^{ɔ/} n. centipede WK

nānná⁺ adv. now 17.7 **nānná-nā**^{+/} adv. now <u>17.7</u> *nānzū*'*us*^ε/ *n*. pepper tones uncertain **nāņ**^a pl nāmıs^ɛ cb nàŋ- n. scorpion *nār***^a**/ ger *nār*(*m*^m sv. be obliged to; impersonal: to be necessary; with following *purpose clause* <u>26.1</u>; *negated*: be obliged not to nàruŋ[>] pl nàrıma⁺ cb nàruŋ- adj. necessary Nàsāal^ɛ n. English/French language Nàsāara⁺ pl Nàsàa-nàm^a Nàsàar-nàm^a cb Nàsàa- Nàsàar- n. European person ← Arabic نصارى Nas^ra:ra: "Christians"; Nàsàa-bīig^a n. European child **nàyĩig**^a pl nàyìig-nàm^a nàyìis^{ϵ} n. thief **nàyīigum^m** n. thievery **nà'-zòm^{mε}** n. locust $n\bar{\epsilon}$ preposition: with <u>18</u>; linking NPs and AdvPs: and <u>16.7</u> $n\bar{\epsilon}$ uncommon variant of $y\bar{\epsilon}$ that <u>26.2</u> (cf Mampruli *ni id*) $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ focus particle 28.1.2; temporal marker 19.2 $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ meaningless particle after objects of $w\bar{\nu}\nu$ and $w\bar{\epsilon}n^{na/}$ 18 $n\bar{\epsilon}^{+/}$ this (pronoun) <u>16.3.2</u> nèɛl^ɛ dv. reveal nèem^m adv. for free $n\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon m^{m}/dv$. grind with a millstone $n\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon r^{\epsilon}/n$. millstone nèss^e dv. reveal **nèɛsım^m** n. light $n\bar{\epsilon}m-n\epsilon\bar{\epsilon}r^{\epsilon}$ pl $n\bar{\epsilon}m-n\epsilon\bar{\gamma}a^{+}$ n. someone who grinds **n***ē***n**^{**na**/} ger n*ē*nním^m sv. envy $n\bar{\epsilon}'\eta\dot{a}^+$ this (pronoun) <u>16.3.2</u> **nèog^o nèɛr^ɛ** pl nèɛd^ɛ nèya⁺ cb nè- adj. empty *n***\bar{\epsilon}sınn\bar{\epsilon}og^{5/} pl n\bar{\epsilon}sınn\bar{\epsilon}ed** *c* **b n\bar{\epsilon}sınn\bar{\epsilon}- n. envious person WK; others: centipede** *hfá!* Well done! 22.3.4 $n\bar{i}^{+/}$ locative enclitic 17.3 see n^{ϵ} $ni^+ dv$. rain nīd^a/ pl nīdıb^a/ cb nīn- n. person; **nīn-sáàl**^a pl nīn-sáalìb^a cb nīn-sáàl- n. human being; nīnpūnān^{na/} pl nīnpūnānníb^a cb nīnpūnán- n. disrespectful person; nīnsábιlìs^ε n. Africans **n**ie⁺ dv. appear, reveal nīf^o/ pl nīn(⁺ cb nīn- nīf- n. eye; nīf-gbáuŋ^o n. eyelid; nīf-sób^a n. miser; nīf-ňyáuk^o adj. one-eyed <u>16.11.1.4</u>; **nīn-dáa**⁼ pl nīn-dáàs^ε cb nīn-dá- n. face; **nīn-gótìŋ**^a n. mirror pl $n\bar{n}-g j t i s^{\epsilon}$ n. spectacles, glasses; $n\bar{n}-k j g u d g^{a}$ pl $n\bar{n}-k j g u d s^{\epsilon}$ n.

eyebrow; **nīn-tá'àm^m** n. tear(s); **nīn-múa**⁺ n. concentration ("eye-redness"); m̀ nīní mù'e nē ... I'm concentrating on ... (KB "zealous for ...")

níin^a $pl n \overline{i} m (s^{\varepsilon} n h s^{\varepsilon} c b n \overline{i} n - n)$ bird **nīm^{nε/} nī[·]m^{nε/}** pl nīmá⁺ cb nīm- n. meat **nīn-báalig**^a n. pity; **nīn-báàl-zɔ̃ɔr**^{ϵ} n. pity; Ò zɔ̀t $\cdot \bar{o}$ nīn-báalig. He has pity on him. **nīņ**^a pl nīis^ɛ cb nìŋ- nìn- n. body (uncommon); **nìn-tūllím^m** n. fever; **nìn-tāa**⁼ pl nìntāas^ɛ cb nìn-tà- n. co-wife; husband's sister's wife (Ghanaian English: "rival"); **nìn-qbīn^{2/}** pl nìn-qbīná⁺ cb nìn-qbīn- n. body (plural often used as singular); nìn-gòɔr^ε n. neck *nīn-púùd*^ε *n*. *pl* as sg pus *nīntāŋ***^{a/}** *pl nīntāaňs*^{$\epsilon/$} *cb nīntáŋ- n*. heat of the day, early afternoon $n n n^{\epsilon} dv. do$ *n lā* that is ... <u>22.3.1</u> **nnāas** q. four, in counting <u>16.4.2.2</u> *nníi q*. eight, in counting **nnū** q. five, in counting **n ňwà** this is ... 22.3.1 **n ňwà nā** this here is ... 22.3.1 $n\bar{2}$ dv. tread **n5b**^ε dν. get fat $n\bar{b}\iota q^{\epsilon}/d\nu$. grow (e.g. child, plant) nóbìr^ɛ pl nōbá⁺ cb nōb- n. leg, foot; nōb-bíl^a n. toe; nōb-yíuŋ^o adj. one-legged <u>16.11.1.4;</u> **n5b-íň'a**⁺ n. toenail; **n5b-púmpàuŋ**² n. foot $n\bar{j}k^{\epsilon}/dv$. pick up, take up $n \partial \eta^{\epsilon}$ agt $n \partial \eta d^{a}$ (irregularly Pattern L) sv. love (family, spiritual); irregularly has the m^a-imperative form nonim^a <u>11.2.2</u> **nɔ̃ŋ^{ɔ/}** cb nɔ̃ŋ- n. poverty; **nɔ̃ŋ-dáàn^a** n. poor person nòŋılím^m n. love **n̄ɔr**^ε/ pl n̄yá⁺ cb n̄- n. mouth; command, message, opinion; **n̄**-dí'às^a n. "linguist", a councillor who speaks on a chief's behalf on all official occasions (not only in the region of the old Mossi-Dagomba states <u>1.1</u>: "linguist" in Ghana typically refers to an Akan chief's herald and spokesman, the okyeame); Winà'am nódí às^a ("God's linguist") prophet NT/KB; *nɔ-lɔ́ɔ̀r^ɛ n.* fasting ("mouth-tying", as throughout W Africa); nɔ-náàr^ɛ n. covenant; nɔ-pɔ́ɔ̀r^ɛ n. oath; nɔ-gbáuŋ^o pl nō-gbánà⁺ n. lip *n***5***r*^ε/ times 16.4.2.4 *nɔ̄ɔrím^m* times 16.4.2.4 $\dot{\mathbf{n}}\mathbf{p}\dot{\mathbf{z}}\mathbf{e}$ q. seven, in counting <u>16.4.2.2</u> **htáň**' q. three, in counting <u>16.4.2.2</u> $n\bar{u}^+ dv$. drink $n\bar{u}a^{+/} pl n\bar{\partial}\partial s^{\epsilon/} cb n\bar{\partial} n$. hen; $n\bar{\partial}-d\hat{a}\dot{v}g^{D} n$. cock; $n\bar{\partial}-n\dot{n}y\dot{a}'\dot{a}\eta^{A} n$. (specifically female) hen; Nō-ňyá'àŋ-né-ò-Bīis the Pleiades $n\bar{u}l(g^{\epsilon}/dv)$. make drink

 $n\bar{u}l(s^{\epsilon}/dv)$. 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 $n\bar{u}'$ -bíb $\dot{l}s^{\epsilon}$ n. finger; $n\bar{u}'$ -dá $\dot{u}g^{2}$ *n.* thumb; $n\bar{u}'-y(\bar{u}\eta^2 adj$. one-armed <u>16.11.1.4</u>; $n\bar{u}'-i\check{n}'a^+$ pl $n\bar{u}'-\check{c}\check{n}'\dot{c}s^{\epsilon}$ cb nū'-*έň*'- n. fingernail: **nū'-wźň'**żd^a n. mediator **ňwà**⁺ this <u>16.5</u> ňwā'⁺ dv. smash, break up **ňwāaŋ^a** pl ňwāamıs^ɛ cb ňwàaŋ- n. monkey **ňwādıg**^a/ plňwādıs^{ϵ}/ cb ňwād- n. moon, month; **ňwād-bíl**^a pl ňwād-bíbìs^{ϵ} n. star; **Ňwād-dár^ɛ** n. Venus ňwà'e⁺ dv. cut wood ňwā'e^{+/} dv. strike, break $\hat{n}w\bar{a}e$ q. nine, in counting <u>16.4.2.2</u> **ňwām^{mε} ňwān^{nε}** pl ňwāma⁺ ňwāna⁺ cb ňwàm- ňwàn- n. calabash **Ňwāmpūrıg**^a/ pl Ňwāmpūrıs^ɛ/ cb Ňwāmpúr- n. Mamprussi person **Ňwāmpūrul^{ɛ/}** n. Mampruli language *Ňwāmpūrug^{>/} n.* Mamprussi country $\mathbf{\check{n}w}\mathbf{\check{e}'}^+ dv$. beat; $\mathbf{\check{n}w}\mathbf{\check{e}'} \ \mathbf{X} \ n\mathbf{\acute{u}'}\mathbf{\grave{u}g}$ make an agreement with X; $\mathbf{\check{n}w}\mathbf{\check{e}'} \ \mathbf{\check{n}y}\mathbf{\check{2}'}\mathbf{\check{2}g}$ boast ňwīig^{a/} pl ňwīis^{ɛ/} cb ňwī- n. rope; ňwī-ték^a pl ňwī-tékìdıb^a cb ňwī-ték- n. rope-puller; *ňwī-tékìr^ɛ pl ňwī-tékà⁺ n.* rope for pulling $\check{\mathbf{m}} w \bar{\mathbf{n}} g^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} dv$. make a rope $n \sqrt{a} a l^{\epsilon} dv$. leave behind ňyāan next, afterwards; post-subject particle 21.2.3 **ňyá'aŋ^a** pl ňyá'as^ε ňyā'amís^ε cb ňyā'aŋ- adj. female (animal) ňyá'aŋ^a behind, postposition <u>17.6</u>; East <u>30.3</u>; ňyà'an-dòl^{la} ňyà'an-dòl^{lɛ} pl ňyà'andòlla⁺ ňyà'an-dòllıb^a cb ňyà'an-dòl- n. disciple NT; tones unexpected, Pattern L ňyā'ar^ɛ pl ňyā'a⁺ cb ňyà'- n. root $\check{n}y\bar{a}e^{n\epsilon}$ adv. in the light, brightly, clearly <u>17.3</u> **ňyālúŋ²** pl ňyālımá⁺ cb ňyāluŋ- adj. wonderful **ňyàn^{nε}** n. shame; Ò dì ňyán. He's ashamed. $\bar{n}v\bar{a}n^{\epsilon}/dv$. overcome 23.2 **ňyàuk⁹** pl ňyà'ad^ε adj. only (eye) 16.11.1.4 $\mathbf{n}\mathbf{y}\mathbf{\bar{e}}^+$ ipfv $\mathbf{n}\mathbf{y}\mathbf{\bar{e}}t^{a/}$ imp $\mathbf{n}\mathbf{y}\mathbf{\hat{e}}m^a dv$. see, find; $\mathbf{n}\mathbf{y}\mathbf{\bar{e}}$ láafiya get well ňyēɛ, ňyēɛ tí habitually, auxiliary tense marker 19.7.2 $ny\bar{\epsilon}'\epsilon r^{\epsilon}/pl ny\bar{\epsilon} da' cb ny\bar{\epsilon}' - n.$ next-younger sibling **ňyὲεs**^a sv. be self-confident ňyžesim^m n. self-confidence $\mathbf{\check{n}y\check{\epsilon}}\mathbf{es}(\mathbf{\eta}^{a} p | \mathbf{\check{n}y\check{\epsilon}}\mathbf{es}(s^{\epsilon} c b \mathbf{\check{n}y\check{\epsilon}}\mathbf{es}(\mathbf{\eta} - ad))$. self-confident $ny \epsilon s (\eta \bar{a}^{+}) a dv$. self-confidently <u>17.4</u> **nyí** q. two, in counting <u>16.4.2.2</u> **ňyīn^{nε/}** pl ňyīná⁺ cb ňyīn- n. tooth *ňyīríf*^P *pl ňyīrí*⁺ *n.* a kind of edible seed, egusi: *Colocynthis citrullus* (Haaf)

ňyɔ̄ɔd^ε n. intestines
ňyɔ̄'ɔg^ɔ' n. chest
ňyɔ̄ɔr^ε pl ňyɔ̄ya⁺ cb ňyò- n. nose; breath; ňyò-vōr^{ε/} pl ňyò-vōyá⁺ cb ňyò-vōr- n. life;
ňyò-vōr-páàl^{lε} n. new life NT
ňyɔ̄'ɔs^{ε/} n. smoke
ňyúèb q. six, in counting 16.4.2.2
ňyūur^{ε/} pl ňyūyá⁺ cb ňyū- n. yam

0

ò [v] he, she, his, her (proclitic); ^o LF [v] him, her (enclitic object) <u>16.3.1</u>
ón he, she (subject of n-clause); **5n**^E he, she (contrastive) <u>16.3.1</u>
òn^E this, that (animate sg demonstrative) <u>16.3.2</u>
òňb^E ger ɔnbur^E dv. chew
òŋā^{+/} this, that (animate sg demonstrative) <u>16.3.2</u> **jos**^{E/} dv. warm oneself; Ò *josid nĒ búgúm lā*. She's warming herself at the fire.

Ρ

pà' earlier today, *tense particle* <u>19.3.1</u> pà'al^ɛ dv. teach, inform; agt pā'an^{na} pl pā'annıb^a cb pà'an- n. teacher $p\dot{a}'al^{\varepsilon} dv$. put on top of something pāalíg^a páal^{lɛ} pl pāalís^ɛ pāalá⁺ cb pāal- adj. new pāalím^m adv. recently <u>17.4</u> $p\bar{a}al\dot{v}^+ adv$. openly <u>17.4</u> **pàaňlúŋ^o** pl pàaňlímìs^ɛ n. spider's web **pàam^m** dv. receive a gift **pàas^{\epsilon}** dv. add up to, amount to **pāe**^{+/} dv. reach pàk^ε dv. surprise $p \dot{a} k^{\epsilon} dv$. take off from the top **pāmm** SF **pāmné** LF q. much, a lot <u>16.4.1</u> <u>6.6</u> pàň'alım^m dv. dedicate pàňsig^ε dv. lack **pàŋ^a** pl pàaňs^ɛ cb pàŋ- n. power pà' tì perhaps; post-subject particle 21.2.3 **p** $\dot{\epsilon}$ **b** ι **s** ϵ dv. blow (of wind) pèbisim^m pèbisug^o n. wind **pε**'εl^ε dv. fill; res adj **pε**'εlúŋ² full **peelug**² in zū-péelòg³ bald 16.11.1.4; cf pie "go bald" (Leviticus 13:40), Mooré péoogè $p\dot{\epsilon}' \epsilon s^{\epsilon} dv$ add up to, amount to

 $p \epsilon l q \epsilon d v$. whiten, go white pèlis^ɛ dv. sharpen pèn^{ne} n. vagina $p\bar{\varepsilon}'n^{\varepsilon}/dv$, borrow: knock over WK **pèoq**² pl pèɛd^ɛ cb pè- n. basket $p\bar{\epsilon}'oq^{2}$ pl $p\bar{\epsilon}'\epsilon s^{\epsilon}$ cb $p\bar{\epsilon}'$ - n. sheep; $p\bar{\epsilon}'-s\dot{a}'a^{-}$ n. ewe lamb $p\bar{\epsilon}siq^{\epsilon}/dv$. sacrifice **piā**⁺ dv. dig up piāň'^a dv. speak, praise; ger piàuňk^o n. word pl piàň'ad^ɛ language cb piàň'-; piàň'-zòna⁺ n. foreign language pibig^ε dv. uncover **pibul^{\epsilon}** dv. cover up **pībin^{nɛ}** pl pībina⁺ cb pìbin- n. covering 12.2.2 **p** id^{ε} dv. put on (hat, shoes, rings); clothing item as object; with indirect object put (hat, shoes, rings) on someone else **p** \bar{d}^{ε} dv. get bloated pidig^E dv. take off (hat, shoes, rings) $p\bar{i}e^{+/}dv$. wash (part of one's own body) pìəb^ɛ dv. blow (e.g. flute) **piəlig**^a **piəl**^{ϵ} pl piəla⁺ piəlis^{ϵ} cb piəl- adj. white pìəlım^m n. whiteness $p i = s^{\epsilon} dv$, fool someone **pīəs^{ε/}** dv. wash **pīiga**⁺ q. ten <u>16.4.2.1</u> **pīim^{m/}** pl pīmá⁺ cb pīm- n. arrow píiňf[•] pl pīiní⁺ cb pīin- n. genet **piint** + cb piin- pl as sg (?) n. gift $p i l^{\varepsilon} dv$. cover pilig^ε dv. uncover **p**īň'il^{ε/} dv. begin **pipiriq**^{**a**/} pl **pipiris**^{ϵ /} cb **pipirir**^{ϵ}. desert**pīsí**⁺ q. twenty <u>16.4.2.1</u> **pītó**⁺ *pl* **p***ī*tí*b*^a *cb* **p***ī*t- *n*. younger sibling of the same sex p^{j+} dv. swear **ρ**ờ**ňd^ε** dv. crouch down **põň'o***l*^ε/ dv. cause to rot pòň'ɔlım^m dv. cripple, get crippled **pòň'ɔr^ε** pl pòňda⁺ cb pòň'- n. cripple pòňr^a ger pōňrub⁵ sv. be near pòod^a sv. be few, small **pòɔdıg^a pòɔdır^ε** pl pòɔda⁺ cb pòɔd- adj. few, small

pòodim^m n. fewness $p\bar{j}_{2}g^{2}$ pl $p\bar{j}_{2}d^{\epsilon}$ $p\bar{j}t^{\epsilon}$ cb $p\bar{j}_{2}$ n. field, farm $p\dot{c}' \sigma g^{\epsilon} dv$. diminish, denigrate $p\bar{j} \sigma r^{\epsilon}/n$. "slogan" of a clan, part of its traditional genealogy WK; $\leftarrow p\bar{j}^+$ swear (cf Farefare pote, pore "nom de famille, nom par lequel on jure", also "serment") **pv** not: negates indicative mood 19.5 p^j dv. divide pu'ā^a pl pv̄'ab^a cb pu'à- n. woman, wife; Ò dì pu'ā. He's married a wife; pu'à-dītr^ɛ n. marriage; **pu̯'à-ɛlíŋª** n. fiancée; **pu̯'à-gīnnígª**, **pu̯'à-gɔ̄ɔňdır^ɛ** n. prostitute; **pu'à-ňyá'aŋ^a** pl pu'à-ňyá'as^ε n. old woman; **pu'à-pāal^{a/} n.** bride; **pu'à-sādιr^{ε/}** n. young woman; **pu'à-sāň'am^{na} n.** adulterer; **pu'à-yùa+** n. daughter **puāk**^a pl $p\bar{v}$ 'as^{ϵ} adj. female (human only) pò'alım^m dv. cook pù'alım^m dv. harm, damage; res adj pù'alúŋ³ damaged pů'alım^m n. femininity $p\dot{v}$ 'alím^m pl $p\dot{v}$ 'alím \dot{s}^{ε} cb $p\dot{v}$ 'alím- n. female sex organs pùd^ɛ dv. name $p\bar{v}dlg^{\epsilon}/dv$. divide, share out pùgudıb^a pl pùgud-nàm^a cb pùgud- n. father's sister pùkòɔňr^ɛ pl pùkòňya⁺ cb pùkòň- n. widow **pūkpāad^{a/}** pl pūkpāad(b^a cb pūkpá- (irreg: contrast kpāad^{a/}) n. farmer **pùlıma**⁺ n. a species of grass, *Imperata cylindrica* (Haaf) pòmpɔ̄ɔg[>] n. housefly pòn previously, already; preverb <u>19.7.2</u> **pūň'e**^{+/} dv. rot **pūsig**^a/ pl pūsis^{ϵ}/ cb pūs- n. tamarind **pūsır^{\epsilon}** pl pūsá⁺ n. tamarind fruit $p\bar{v}$ -sú k^{a} pl $p\bar{v}$ -súgvs^{ϵ} n. half 16.4.2.1 $p\bar{o}t^{\epsilon}/n$, pl as sq contents of stomach WK **pūum^m** cb pūum- n. flowers **pūug**^a cb pù- n. inside, belly; Pu'ā lā mór pūug The woman is pregnant; pūugu- $n^{\epsilon/2}$ inside <u>17.6;</u> **pù-pìəlım^m** n. holiness; **pù-tèň'ɛr^ɛ** pl pù-tèňda⁺ cb pù-tèň'- n. mind **pυυr**^ε/ *n*. stomach

pù'vs^ɛ dv. greet, worship, thank; ger pù'vsım^m n. worship; ger pù'vsug^o n. thanks; pù'vsvg dóòg^o NT temple S

sà yesterday, tense particle <u>19.3.1</u> sà hence, ago, VP-final particle 19.10 $s\bar{a}'^+ dv$, be in distress sàa tomorrow, tense particle <u>19.3.1</u> $s\bar{a}a^{=}$ pl s $\bar{a}as^{\epsilon}$ cb s \dot{a} - n. rain; sky; as subject of $i\bar{a}\check{n}k^{\epsilon/}$ "leap": lightning; $s\bar{a}a$ díndēog^{5/} rainbow ("rain chameleon"); sāa zúg⁵ n. sky <u>17.6</u> sā'ab^o cb sà'- n. millet porridge, "TZ", the staple food of the Kusaasi sāafi⁺ (?tones) n. lock, key ← Twi safẽ sàal^a pl sàalıb^a cb sàal- n. human (perhaps ← "hairless" cf būn-kóňbùg^o); sàal-bīig^a pl sàal-bīis^{ε} n. human being sàalínā^{+/} adv. smoothly 17.4 sàam^{ma} pl sàam-nàm^a cb sàam- n. father; sàam-kpɛɛňm^m n. father's elder brother; **sàam-pīt^a**/ pl sàam-pīt(b^a cb sàam-pīt- n. father's younger brother sāam^m/ dv. mash, crumble $s\bar{a}'an^{\epsilon}$ in the presence of, in the opinion of; postposition <u>17.6</u> **sāan^{a/}** pl sáam^{ma} cb sāan- n. guest, stranger sáannìm^m n. strangerhood **sàbɛ̃og**^{\mathbf{p}} pl sàbɛ̃ɛd^{ϵ} cb sàb $\dot{\epsilon}$ - n. wind, storm **sābılíg^a sābíl^{iɛ}** pl sābılís^ɛ sābılá⁺ cb sābıl- adj. black **sàbùa**⁺ pl sàbù es^{ϵ} cb sàbuà- n. lover, girlfriend **Sà'dàbòog**^o n. place of the clan Sarabose **Sà'dàbùa⁺** pl Sà'dàbùes^ε Sà'dàbùeb^a n. clan name sādıgím since, because 25.2 **sāeň**⁺ or **sāeň**^a pl sāaňb^a cb sàň- n. blacksmith **sākárùg²** pl sākárìd^ɛ cb sākár- n. fox sàlıbır^ε n. bridle sālıma⁺ cb sàlım- n. pl as sg gold; sàlım-kùes^a n. gold merchant sām^{nε}/ pl sāmá⁺ cb sām- n. debt; sām-kpá'às^a n. household servant **sāmán^{nɛ}** pl sāmánà⁺ cb sāmán- n. open space in front of a $zàk^a$ compound; **Sāmán-píər**^E n. traditional New Year ceremony **sàň'am^m** dv. spoil, get spoiled, get broken; destroy **sāngúnnìr^ɛ** pl sāngúnnà⁺ cb sāngún- n. millipede $s\bar{a}n\dot{a}^{+}$ pl s $\bar{a}ns\dot{a}^{+}$ cb s $\bar{a}n$ - n. time <u>30.8</u> <u>9.3.2</u>; $s\bar{a}n$ -k $\dot{a}n^{\epsilon}$ adv. then; when? sān-sí'ān lā adv. at one time, once ... 21.2.1 sàn-gbàun³ n. sky, heaven; cf sāa⁼ **sāpál**^{ϵ} n. Harmattan part of the dry season $\dot{u}un^{n\epsilon}$ sārıgá⁺ n. prison ← Hausa sarkàa "chain" sàríyà⁺ or sèríyà⁺ n. law ← Arabic شريعة (tun); sàríyà-kāt^a n. judge NT $s\bar{a}\nu g^{\mathbf{p}}$ pl $s\bar{a}ad^{\varepsilon}$ cb $s\bar{a}$ - n. broom, brush

sàuk⁹ pl sà' ad^{ε} n. mote of dust **sāύη**² *n*. hospitality $s\dot{\epsilon}^+$ ipfv $s\dot{\epsilon}\epsilon d^a dv$. transplant **sēoňq[°]** n. rainy season $si^+ dv$. skin, flav **sī'a**⁺ some, any (sq) 16.3.3 sīa⁺ pl sīəs^ε cb sià- n. waist; sià-lɔ̄ɔdíŋ^a n. belt ("waist-tying-thing"); sià-nīf^{o/} n. kidnev $si\bar{a}'al^{\epsilon}/d\nu$. get to be enough sià'ar^ε pl sià'a⁺ cb sià'- n. forest (WK), wilderness siàk^ɛ dv. agree (cf Mooré sàke, Buli siagi id) **siāk**^ε/ dv. suffice (cf Mooré sékè, Buli chagi id) **sīb** (q^{a}) pl sīb(+ cb sīb - n. a kind of termitesid truly, post-subject particle 21.2.3 **sìda**⁺ pl sìd- n. pl as sq truth sīd^a pl sīdıb^a cb sìd- n. husband; sìd-bīl^a n. husband's younger brother; sìd-kpēɛňm^m n. husband's elder brother; sìd-puāk^a n. husband's sister $sie^{+} dv$. descend, be humbled sīəba⁺ some(ones), any (ones) 16.3.3 sī'əla something, anything 16.3.3 *sī*'*əm*^m somehow, anyhow <u>16.3.3</u> <u>17.7</u> **sīg^ε** dv. descend **sigur**^{ϵ}/ n. guardian spirit, typically but not invariably the $win^{n\epsilon}$ of an ancestor <u>30.2</u> **sīqιs^{ε/}** dv. lower *sīgιsír^ε pl sīgιsá*⁺ *n.* stopping-place **sig**^a $pl sis^{\varepsilon} cb si$ - n. shade, personal spirit (KED); used in NT for "spirit"; in traditional belief rather Lebenskraft (Haaf) "vital energy", closely associated with a person's tutelary $k i k \bar{i} r (gv)$; **Si-sòn**² n. Holy Spirit NT; cf Buli chíik **sīιg^a** pl sīιs^ε n. African birch, Anogeissus leiocarpa; cf Buli sīik sìilum^m dv. cite proverbs **sìilín^a sìilón³** pl sìilís^{ε} sìilímìs^{ε} sìilímà⁺ cb sìilín- n. proverb *sīiňd*^{ε/} *n*. honey **sīiňf^{o/} sīiňg^{a/}** pl sīiňs^{$\epsilon/$} cb sīň- n. bee *sī*'*ιs*^{ε/} dv. touch *sīlınsíùg*² *pl sīlınsîis*^ε *n*. ghost **sīlınsíùňg^o** pl sīlınsíìňd^ɛ n. spider **silug**² $pl sin^{n\epsilon} sills^{\epsilon} cb sil- n$. hawk **sìm^m** dv. sink in a liquid **Sìmīig^a** pl Sìmīis^ɛ cb Sìmì- n. Fulbe person, Fulani **Sìmīil^ɛ** *n*. Fulfulde language **Sìmīug⁹** n. place of the Fulbe

sīn^{na/} ger sīnním^m sv. be silent **sīnsáaň**⁼ n. a kind of tiny ant sin^{a} pl sin^{ϵ} cb sin- n. a kind of very big pot $s\bar{\iota}'n^{\epsilon}/dv$, begin $s\bar{s}s\bar{b}g^{a}$ pl $s\bar{s}s\bar{b}s^{\epsilon}$ cb $s\bar{s}s\bar{b}$ - n. neem tree Azadirachta indica (Haaf) **sīsíbìr^{\epsilon}** pl sīsíbà⁺ n. fruit of neem tree **sìsì'əm^m** *n*. wind, storm sìsùuqū-n^ε/ between, postposition 17.6 KB suuqun $s\bar{i}' u \eta^{2}$ pl $s\bar{i}' i m (s^{\epsilon} cb s\bar{i}' u \eta - n. a kind of large dish$ **sj**'⁺ some(one), any(one), animate sq 16.3.3 sɔ̃b^a dummy head pronoun, animate sg <u>16.10.4</u> $s\bar{b}b^{\epsilon} dv$. go/make dark; usually write; $s\bar{b}br^{\epsilon}$ n. piece of writing $s\bar{b}\iota q^{\epsilon}/dv$. blacken **sɔ̃eň**⁺ or **sɔ̃eň**^a pl sɔ̃ɔňb^a cb sòň- n. witch sóqià^a n. soldier ← English **sɔ̃luŋ^{ɔ/}** pl sɔ̃lımá⁺ n. story *sōň*⁺ *dv*. rub sɔ̃ň'e^{ya/} sv. be better than; agt sɔ̃ň'ɔd^{a/} pl sɔ̃ň'ɔb^{a/} cb sɔ̃ň'ɔd**sɔ̃nnır**^ɛ pl sɔ̃nna⁺ cb sɔ̀n- n. courtyard dividing wall **sɔ̃ňs^ε** ger sɔ́ňsìg^a dv. converse, talk with **sɔ̃ɔňg^ɔ** n. witchcraft **sɔ̃ɔňr^ε** pl sɔ̃ňya⁺ cb sòň- n. liver sòs^ɛ ger sɔ̃sıg^a dv. ask; agt sòs^a n. beggar $s\dot{v}^+ dv$. take a bath $su'\bar{a}^{a} dv$. do secretly, hide **suāk**^a/ n. hiding place $s\bar{u}e\breve{n}^{+/}dv$. anoint sū'e^{ya/} sv. own; ger sū'ulím^m n. property, country, realm $s\bar{u}qvr^{\epsilon}/dv$, show forbearance, be patient with; $s\bar{u}gvro'^+ n$, forbearance *sòm^m n.* goodness; well <u>17.4</u> <u>20.2</u> **sòm^{ma}** sv. be good **sùmbūgusím^m** n. peace **sūmmιr^ε** pl sūmma⁺ cb sùm- n. groundnuts; **sūm-dúgυdà**⁺ n. cooked groundnuts **sùn^{nɛ}** ger sùnnır^ɛ or sùnnug^ɔ dv. bow one's head; agt **sūn^{na}** n. ("someone who goes about with bowed head") deep thinker, close observer WK $s\bar{u}\check{n}'e^{+\prime}dv$, become better than $s\bar{u}nf^{\mathbf{p}}/s\bar{u}unr^{\mathbf{\epsilon}}/pl s\bar{u}nya^{+}cb s\bar{u}n$. heart; $s\bar{u}n\cdot kpi'\delta n^{\mathbf{p}}$ n. boldness 16.10.1; **sūň-má'asìm^m** n. joy (*À sūňf má'e yā*. "My heart has cooled"= I'm joyful); sūň-málısìm^m cb sūň-málìs- n. joy; sūň-pέὲn^{nε} n. anger (À sūňf pélìg nē. "My heart is whitened"= I'm angry); **sūň-sáň'òŋ²** n. sorrow (*M* sūňf sáň'àm nē. "My heart is spoilt" = I'm sad)

General vocabulary

sòŋ^c dv. help sòŋ³ sòm^{mɛ} pl sòma⁺ cb sòŋ- adj. good sòŋā^{+/} adv. well <u>17.4 20.2</u> sú'oŋ^a pl sū'omís^ɛ cb sū'oŋ- n. rabbit sūor^{ɛ/} pl su̯ēyá⁺ cb su̯ā- n. road; permission in sūor bɛ́, mɔ̄r sūor <u>26.1</u> sù'os^a n. yesterday <u>30.8</u> sù'os^ɛ dv. trick sùr^a sv. have one's head bowed sòsòm^{mɛ} n. grasshopper Sūtáanà⁺ n. Satan sūog^{ɛ/} dv. wither (leaves) WK sò'og^a sò'og³ pl sò'os^ɛ cb sò'- n. knife

Т

tāa⁼ tāas^ε fellow- as second part of compound 13.2.1.4 tāaba⁺ tāab each other 16.3.5 tā'adır^ɛ pl tā'ada⁺ cb tà'ad- n. sandal **tàal^l**^ε pl tàala⁺ cb tàal- n. fault, sin $t\dot{a}'am^{m\epsilon}$ pl $t\bar{a}'am\dot{a}^+$ n. shea tree fruit tá'an^a pl tā'amís^ɛ cb tā'aŋ- n. shea butter tree Butyrospermum parkii (Haaf) $t\bar{a}^{\prime}as^{\epsilon}/dv$, help someone to walk: in areetings 29 tàb^ɛ dv. get stuck to tàbu^{ya} sv. be stuck to **tàbig^{\epsilon}** dv. get unstuck from tabul^ɛ dv. stick to (transitive) tàdıg^ε *n*. become weak tādım^m/ pl tàdım-nàm^a cb tàdım- n. weak person tàdımís^ε n. weakness **Tàlın^{nε}** *n*. Talni language Tàlıŋ^a pl Tàlıs^ɛ cb Tàlıŋ- n. Tallensi person tàm^m ipfv tàmmıd^a dv. forget **tàmpūa**⁺ pl tàmp \bar{z} cb tàmp \bar{z} - n. housefly 9.3.2 **tàmpūvr^ε** cb tàmpù- n. ashpit, rubbish tip tān^{nε} pl tāna⁺ cb tàn- n. earth; tàn-mɛ̃εd^a n. builder tāňp^o n. war; tàňp-sɔ̃b^a n. warrior **tàňs**^{ϵ} ger tàňsvq² dv. shout; Winnıg táňsid n $\bar{\epsilon}$. The sun is shining. tār^a/ ger tārím^m sv. have; more typical of Toende Kusaal; NT/KB always have m5r^{a/} **tàsıntàl^l**^ɛ *n*. palm of hand **tàtà** $I^{l\epsilon}$ *n*. palm of hand tāuň^{+/} pl tāňp^{a/} cb tāuň- tāňp- n. sibling of opposite sex

t $\hat{\boldsymbol{b}}\boldsymbol{b}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}$ ger $t\bar{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}\boldsymbol{b}\boldsymbol{\iota}\boldsymbol{g}^{\mathsf{a}}$ dv. carry in both hands $t\bar{\epsilon}b\iota g^{\epsilon}/d\nu$. get heavy tēbis^a/ sv. be heavy tēbisíq^a tēbisír^ɛ pl tēbisá⁺ cb tēbis- adj. heavy tēbisím^m n. heaviness *tɛ́ɛbùl*^ɛ *pl tɛ́ɛbùl-nàm*^a *n.* table ← English tēεg^{ε/} dv. drag (ILK) **t**è'ɛg^a pl tè'ɛs^ɛ cb tè'- n. baobab Adansonia digitata (Haaf) tēk^ε/ dv. pull tèňb^ɛ ger tèňbug^ɔ dv. tremble, struggle *t*ε̃ň'εs^ε dv. remind $t\bar{\epsilon}n'\epsilon s^{\epsilon}/dv$, think; ger $t\bar{\epsilon}n'\epsilon s\dot{a}^+ n$, thought tèňr^a ger tēňrīb^o sv. remember tēn^a pl tēcňs^ɛ cb tèn- n. land; tèn-bīig^a n. native; tèn-dāan^a n. traditional earthpriest; **tèŋ-dū'adıg^a** n. native land; **tèŋ-gbàuŋ⁵** n. earth, land; **tèŋ-pūug^{5/}** pl $t \dot{\epsilon} \eta$ - $p \bar{\upsilon} \upsilon d^{\epsilon} / c b t \dot{\epsilon} \eta$ - $p \bar{\upsilon}$ - n. village, town; $t \dot{\epsilon} \eta$ - $z \dot{\upsilon} \eta^{2}$ $p l t \dot{\epsilon} \eta$ - $z \dot{\upsilon} \upsilon \eta s^{\epsilon} n$. for eign country $t\bar{\epsilon}\eta_i - n^{\epsilon}$ or $t\bar{\epsilon}\eta(r^{\epsilon}$ downward; as postposition under <u>17.6</u> **tèog^o** pl tè $\varepsilon d^{\varepsilon}$ n. nest **tè'oq'** pl tè' $\epsilon d^{\epsilon} n$. baobab fruit tì we, our (proclitic); ti⁺ us (enclitic object) <u>16.3.1</u> tì preverb conveying completion or purpose <u>19.7.2</u> tià'al^ɛ dv. come next tiàk^ε dv. change $ti' = b^{\varepsilon} dv$, prepare, get ready; heal in this sense perhaps influenced by Arabic طب t^cibb(un) "medicinal art"; **tī'əb**^a n. healer *tieň*⁺ *dv*. inform WK (KED remember) **tieň**⁺ dv. stretch out tìən^a pl tìəmis^{ε} cb tìən- n. beard; tìən-qūur^{ε} n. chin $tig^{\epsilon} dv$. become sated; ger $tigir^{\epsilon} n$. glut tī'i^{ya}/ ger tī ib^ɔ/ sv. be leaning (object) **tìig**^a pl tìis^{ϵ} cb tì- n. tree $t\bar{i}'il^{\epsilon}/dv$. lean something tìum^m cb tì-n. medicine; tì-kōvdím^m n. poison (killing-medicine); tì-sābulím^m n. "black medicine" (a particular traditional remedy); **tì-vōnním^m** n. oral medication **tì'in^{\epsilon}** dv. begin to lean $tilas^{\epsilon}$ n. necessity ← Hausa tiilas 26.1 **tilig**^{ϵ} dv. survive, be saved tinám^a we, us (contrastive); tinámi we (subject of *h*-clause) <u>16.3.1</u> **tīntɔ̃ňríg**^a pl tīntɔ̃ňrís^ε cb tīntɔ́ňr- n. mole (animal) tìp^a pl tìp-nàm^a cb tìp- n. healer (see tī əb^a id)

General vocabulary

tīráàn^a pl tīráàn-nàm^a cb tīráàn- n. neighbour, peer tīráànnım^m n. neighbourliness tírigà ideophone for gīn^a short 16.11.1.3 **t**is^{ϵ} ipfv tisid^a tit^a agt tis^a dv. give; also ti before enclitic pronouns: ti f gave you tītā'al^{lɛ} n. proud person tītā'alım^m n. pride tītā'am^m n. multitude tītā'ug^o tītā'ar^ɛ pl tītāda⁺ cb tītá'- adj. big, great **tò** OK <u>22.3.4</u> (= Hausa *tôo*) **t** \dot{d}^{ε} dv. give to the poor, share tōe^{a/} sv. be bitter, difficult *tóklàe*⁺ n. torch ← English "torchlight" tólib onomatopoeic word <u>16.11.1.3</u> tòň⁺ dv. shoot tờň'ɔs^ε dv. hunt $t\bar{j}_{2}g^{2}$ pl $t\bar{j}_{2}d^{\epsilon}$ cb $t\bar{j}_{2}$ adj. bitter, difficult tōom^m/ dv. depart, disappear tò'>tō'+/ adv. straight away 17.4 tuà⁺ dv. grind in a mortar; tuà-bīl^a n. pestle tu'à^a dv. speak, plead in court tò'al^ɛ dv. condemn in court tù'as^ε dv. talk **t** \dot{v} bur^{ε} pl t \dot{v} ba⁺ cb t \dot{v} b- n. ear; **t** \dot{v} b-kp \dot{r} ^{ε} n. half of jaw; **t** \dot{v} b-y \bar{v} u η ^{v/} adj. one-eared 16.11.1.4 tū/la/ sv. be hot **tùlig^{\epsilon}** dv. invert $t\bar{v} l(q^{\epsilon}/dv)$. heat up tòm^m dv. work; ger tōvm^{mε} n. deed pl tōvma⁺ n. deeds; work cb tòvm-; tòvm-bē'εd^ε n. bad deeds; **tòum-bɛ**̄'**ɛd-dím**^a n. sinners NT; agt **tòm-tūm**^{na} n. worker **tòm^m** ger tìtūmιs^ε dv. send; compare Hausa àikaa "send", aikàtaa "work" *tūň*'*e sv*. be able 23.2 tūedır^ε pl tūeda⁺ cb tùed- n. mortar tùen^{nɛ} in front; as postposition <u>17.6</u>; West (KB yà tùena) <u>30.3</u>; tùen-gāt^a n. leader **Tuen^{nε}** *n*. Toende, Western part of Kusaasiland **Tuennur^E** n. Toende dialect of Kusaal $t\bar{u}sir^{\epsilon}/n$. thousand 16.4.2.1 **tòtūl^{iɛ}** *n*. upside-down thing cf tùl q^{ε} $t\bar{v}vl(g\bar{a}^{+}) adv.$ hotly <u>17.4</u> **tūvlúg[°]** pl tūvlá⁺ cb tūvl- adj. hot tō'υs^ε/ dv. meet

U

 $\dot{u}dvg^{2}$ pl $\dot{u}t^{\epsilon}$ cb $\dot{u}d$ - n. (piece of) chaff $\bar{u}gvs^{\epsilon}/dv$. bring up a child $\dot{v}k^{\epsilon} dv$. vomit $\bar{u}k^{\epsilon} dv$. bloat $\dot{v}m^{m} dv$. close eyes $\dot{u}un^{n\epsilon}$ n. dry season <u>30.8</u>

V

 $v\bar{a}bl^{ya}$ ger $v\bar{a}p^{2}$ KT $v\bar{a}bl^{\epsilon}$ WK sv. be lying prone $v\bar{a}b(l^{\epsilon}/dv)$. make lie prone **vàbın^ε** dv. lie prone **vāuňq^{^{)}}** $pl vāaňd^{<math>\epsilon$} cb vāň- n. leaf</sup> $v\bar{\epsilon}'^+ dv$. lead **ν***ε*'ε*q*^ε/ *dν*. drag vèn^{na} sv. be beautiful vèňľ^{la} sv. be beautiful **v** $\check{\epsilon}$ *ň***l** ι **g**^a *pl* v $\check{\epsilon}$ *ňl* ι *s*^{ϵ} v $\check{\epsilon}$ *ňl*i⁺ *cb* v $\check{\epsilon}$ *ňl*- *adj*. beautiful **v***čňllí***n**^a *pl včňllí***s**^ε *cb včňllí***n**- *adj*. beautiful **v** $\dot{\epsilon}$ **nnı** g^{a} **v** $\dot{\epsilon}$ **nnı** r^{ϵ} *pl* v $\dot{\epsilon}$ *nnı* s^{ϵ} v $\dot{\epsilon}$ *nna*⁺ *cb* v $\dot{\epsilon}$ *n*- *adj*. beautiful v*ènnım^m n.* beauty $v\bar{i}$ + dv. uproot $v\bar{i}k^{\epsilon}/dv$. uproot **viug**^{\mathbf{y}}/ *pl* viid^{ϵ}/ *cb* vi- *n*. owl $v\bar{u}^+$ ger $v\bar{u}ug^{2/}dv$. make a noise; $v\bar{u}ud^{\epsilon/}n$. noise **vvvea**/ *s***v**. be alive võl^ɛ dv. swallow vòlınvùuňl^{lɛ} n. mason wasp vūm^m/ cb vūm- n. life; vūm-páàl^{lɛ} n. new life **νύθη**^a pl vūθm(s^ε n. red kapok Bombax buonopozense (Haaf) **vúer^{\epsilon}** pl vūáa⁼ cb vūe- n. fruit of red kapok $v\bar{v}r^{\epsilon}$ pl $v\bar{v}y\dot{a}^+$ cb $v\bar{v}r$ - adj. alive $v\bar{v}'vg^{\epsilon}/dv$. come, make alive $v\bar{v}'vs^{\epsilon}/dv$. breathe, rest v**v**'vsím^m n. resting

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W

wā'⁺ dv. dance $w\bar{a}ad^{\epsilon}/n.$ cold weather **wáaf**² pl wīig(⁺ cb wā'- n. snake $w\bar{a}al^{\epsilon}/dv$. sow, scatter seed wā'alím^m n. length wā'am^{ma/} sv. be long, tall wàb ig^{a} wàb ir^{ϵ} pl wàb is^{ϵ} wàb a^{+} cb wàb- n. lame person *wàbılım^m dv.* make, go lame **wābug^r** pl wābid^{ϵ} cb wāb- n. elephant wādır^{ϵ}/ pl wādá⁺ cb wād- n. law (\leftarrow English "order" via Hausa) plural as sg: law *wād-t(s^a n.* lawgiver NT wà'e^{ya} sv. be travelling **wāltg^a** pl wālts^{ϵ} wālt⁺ (tone sic) cb wàl- n. a kind of gazelle **wànım^m** dv. waste away **wàsınwàl**^{$|\epsilon|$} n. a parasitic gall on trees, called "mistletoe" in local English **wàuŋ²** pl wàna⁺ cb wàuŋ- adj. wasted, thin w*ɛɛd^a* see wìıd^a $w\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon l^{\epsilon}/dv$. be left unsold (KED) but see $w\bar{\epsilon}og^{\gamma}/dv$ $w\bar{\epsilon}l^{\epsilon}dv$. bear fruit wēl^{lɛ/} pl wēlá⁺ cb wēl- n. fruit **wēlá**⁺ or **wālá**⁺ how? <u>17.7</u>; nìŋ wēlá n/kà how can ...? <u>23.2.1</u> *wɛ̃n^{na/} sv.* resemble; *in KB wɛ̃n nɛ̃ appears as nwɛnɛ*; *ger wɛ̃nním^m* wɛ̃nnır^ɛ adj. resembling (Pattern O, specifically confirmed with WK) w*èog^o n.* deep bush $w\bar{\epsilon}og^{2}$ pl $w\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon d^{\epsilon}$ n. cheap thing sold in abundance WK widig^ε dv. scatter **wiəf** $pl widl^+ cb wid- n$. horse; **wid-lɔ̃r** n. place for tying up horses in a compound; wìd-dāug^o n. stallion; wìd-ňyá'aŋ^a n. mare; wìd-zūur^ɛ n. horsetail wild^a or wited^a pl wilb^a cb wild- n. hunter Wiid^a pl Wiid-nàm^a cb Wiid- n. member of the clan Wiid Wiidug² n. place of the clan Wiid wiig^a/ n. whistle witm^m n. sickness, disease ("worse than bāň'as^ε" WK) **wik^ε** *ipfv wiid*^a *dv*. fetch water 11.1 **will**^{ϵ} *pl wila*⁺ *cb wil- n.* branch **wīlısúŋ²** pl wīlımís^ɛ cb wīlısúŋ- n. a kind of snail <u>9.3.2</u> wím ideophone for zìň'a⁺ red <u>16.11.1.3</u> win^{nε/} pl winá⁺ cb win- n. God; god; spiritual double, genius; destiny; win-tóòg³ *n*. misfortune

 $W(n\dot{a}'am^m n. \text{ God } \underline{15.1}$ $winnig^a cb win- n. \text{ sun; talent; } win-liir^{\epsilon} n. \text{ sunset; } win-kòoňr^{\epsilon} n. \text{ sunset}$ $wiug^o wiir^{\epsilon} pl wiya^+ wiid^{\epsilon} cb wi- adj. \text{ red}$ $w5k^{5'} w\bar{a}'ar^{\epsilon'} pl w\bar{a}'\dot{a}^+ w\bar{a}'ad^{\epsilon'} cb w5k- w\bar{a}'- adj. \text{ long, tall}$ $w\dot{v}m^m dv.$ hear; understand (a language) $w\bar{v}sa^+ q.$ all $\underline{16.4.1}$ $w\bar{v}v^+ q.$ all $\underline{16.4.1}$ $w\bar{v}v$ like, resembling $\underline{18}$ $w\bar{v}'vg^{\epsilon'} dv.$ get wet $w\bar{v}'vl^{\epsilon'} dv.$ make wet

Υ

yà you, your pl (proclitic); ya⁺ you pl (enclitic object) <u>16.3.1</u> ya vou pl, enclitic subject after imperative 8.2.1 16.3.1 22.1.3 **va**⁺ independent-perfective particle 19.6.2.1 **yà'** if, when <u>24</u> **yáa** adv. whither? <u>17.7</u> **yáab**^a pl yāa-nám^a cb yāa- n. grandparent, ancestor; **yāa-dáu**⁺ n. grandfather; yāa-pu'á^a n. grandmother **yà'ab^ε** dν. mould clay **yā'ad^ε** cb yà'- n. clay $y\dot{a}'al^{\varepsilon} dv$. hang up; make perch (bird) $y\dot{a}'an^{\varepsilon} dv$. perch (of a bird) **Yàan^{nε}** *n*. Yansi language (apparently Mooré now) **váa ní**⁺ *adv*. where? 17.7 yáan^a pl irr yáas^{ε} (consistently without nasalisation) cb yāan- n. grandchild, descendant 30.1 Yàan^a pl Yàam^{ma} Yàamıs^ɛ Yàas^ɛ cb Yàan- n. Yansi person **yāar^{ε/}** dv. scatter yàarım^m cb yàar- n. salt yà'asa yà'as^ɛ again 23.2 $v\bar{a}^{\prime}as^{\epsilon}/dv$. open repeatedly **yàddā** or **yàdā** n. faith, trust \leftarrow Hausa yàrda; probably \leftarrow Arabic يرضى yard^ra: <u>15.1</u> 19.8.1; yàddā-níŋìr^ɛ n. belief $y\bar{a}d_{l}g^{\epsilon}/dv$. scatter; agt $y\bar{a}t^{a}/irreg$. agent noun: technical term for a participant in a housebuilding ritual **yā'e**^{+/} dv. widen, open (mouth) **yàk^ɛ** *dv*. unhang, unhook yàlım^{ma} sv. be wide yālım^m/ pl yālım-nám^a n. worthless person

yālisúŋ² pl yālimís^ɛ cb yālisúŋ- n. guail 9.3.2 yàluŋ² pl yàlıma⁺ cb yàluŋ- adj. wide **yām^{mε}** pl yàma⁺ cb yàm- n. hay WK **yām^m**/ *cb* yām- *n*. gall; gall bladder; common sense WK yā'm^m/. **yàmmıg^a yàmmug^a yàmmug⁵** pl yàmmıs^ɛ cb yàm- n. slave **vānám^a** you pl (contrastive); **vānámi** you pl (subject of *h*-clause) 16.3.1 Yārıq^a/ pl Yārıs^ɛ/ cb Yār- n. Yarsi person; also called Kantonsi; said to have been originally of Manding/Dyula origin **Yāt^{ε/}** *n*. Yarsi language (no longer Dyula/Bambara, but a Western Oti-Volta language) **yàug**² pl yàad^{ϵ} n. grave, tomb **y***ē* that <u>26</u> **y***ɛ* be about to ... <u>19.3.4</u> $y\dot{\epsilon}^+ dv$. dress oneself; res adj $y\dot{\epsilon}\epsilon l \dot{\eta}^2$ worn (e.g. of a shirt) $\mathbf{y} \mathbf{\hat{\epsilon}} \mathbf{e} \mathbf{g}^{\mathbf{\epsilon}} d\mathbf{v}$. undress oneself $v \tilde{\epsilon} \epsilon^{\epsilon} dv$. dress someone $v\bar{\epsilon}\epsilon s^{\epsilon}/dv$. betray a secret $\mathbf{v} \mathbf{\hat{e}} \mathbf{l}^{\mathbf{\epsilon}}$ ipfv $\mathbf{v} \mathbf{\hat{e}} \mathbf{l}^{\mathbf{a}}$ aer $\mathbf{v} \mathbf{\hat{e}} \mathbf{l} \mathbf{u} \mathbf{q}^{\mathbf{b}} d\mathbf{v}$. say, tell yēl^{lɛ}/ pl yēlá⁺ (as postposition: about <u>17.6</u>) cb yēl- n. matter, affair; yēl-ménìr^ɛ n. truth; yēl-nárùŋ[>] n. necessity; yēl-pákìr^ɛ n. disaster; yēl-sú'adìr^ɛ *n*. confidential matter; $y\bar{\epsilon}l-s \phi m^{m\epsilon} n$. blessing <u>16.11.1.1</u> yēním^m dv. oscillate (like waves) **y** $\hat{\epsilon}$ *og*^{**>**} *pl* y $\hat{\epsilon}$ *ed*^{ϵ} *n*. bird's crop; person displaced from family (KED) $y\bar{\epsilon}\delta\eta$ q. one, in counting <u>16.4.2.2</u> $y\bar{i}^+$ ipfv $y\bar{i}t^{a/}$ imp $y\bar{i}m^a dv$. go, come out yìdıg^ɛ dv. go astray $y\bar{i}d_{i}g^{\epsilon}/dv$. untie yìər^ɛ n. jaw yīigá⁺ q. firstly <u>16.4.2.3</u>; former <u>16.7</u>; yīig-sób^a n. first person <u>16.10.4</u> $viis^{\epsilon}$ ger $viis(b^{\circ} dv)$ make go/come out, extract **γīmmír^ε** pl yīmmá⁺ cb yīm- adj. solitary, lone <u>16.4.2.3</u> $v\bar{v}mm\dot{v}^+ adv$. straight away, at once 16.4.2.4 **yīnní**⁺ q. one <u>16.4.2.1</u> **vìn^a** *adv*. outside yīr^ɛ/ pl yā^{+/} cb yī- n. house; yī-dáàn^a n. householder; yī-sźb^a pl yī-sźb-nàm^a n. householder; yī-dím^a n. members of the household; yī-póňrùg^o pl yī-póňrà⁺ *n.* neighbouring house; $y\bar{i}-sig(d)r^{\epsilon}$ *n.* lodging-house; $yin^{n\epsilon}$ at home *pl yáan*^{ϵ} **yis^ε** dv. make go/come out, extract $y\bar{i}u\eta^{3/}$ pl $y\bar{i}n\dot{a}^+$ adj. single- <u>16.11.1.4</u> y**ò**⁺ dv. close; res adj y**òɔlúŋ**[>] closed $y\bar{j}^{+n}vv$. pay; *ger* $y\bar{j}d^{\epsilon}/n$. pay $y\bar{j}ls^{\epsilon}/dv$. untie

yɔ̃lısím^m n. freedom $y\bar{j}lug^{3/}$ pl $y\bar{j}n^{n\epsilon/}$ cb $y\bar{j}l$ - n. sack, moneybag, £100, ¢200 (200 cedis) **ν)**'**)***q*^ε *dv*. open **yòɔr^{\epsilon}** pl yòya⁺ cb yò- n. soldier ant **yuà**⁺ *dv*. bleed; *also* fornicate WK **yùb** ig^{a} *pl* yùb is^{ε} *cb* yùb- *n*. small bottle-like pot **yūgudır^ε** pl yūguda⁺ cb yùgud- n. hedgehog yūgúm^{mɛ} yūgúm^{nɛ} pl yūgumá⁺ cb yūgum- n. camel **yùlıg^ε** dv. swing (transitive) $y\bar{u}\bar{n}'e^{+/}dv$. set alight yū'er^ɛ pl yuāda⁺ cb yù'er- n. penis **yùug**^{ϵ} dv. get to be a long time, delay; Tì yúùg n $\bar{\epsilon}$ tāaba. It's a long time since we met. **yùul^ε** dv. swing (intransitive) yō'um^{m/} dv. sing; agt yūum-yú'ùm^{na} pl yūum-yú'ùmnıb^a n. singer **νύ'υm^{nε}** pl yū'υmá⁺ cb yū'υm- or yūυm- n. song **yòum^{mε}** pl yòma⁺ cb yòum- n. year; **yòum-pāalíg^a** n. new year **yū'un** then, next <u>21.2.3</u> $y\dot{v}'v\eta^{2}$ pl $y\bar{v}'vm(s^{\epsilon} cb y\bar{v}'v\eta - n. night$ **yū'ur^{ε/}** pl yūdá⁺ cb yū'- n. name **y** \bar{v} **v** \bar{v} *v* \bar{v} *v* \bar{v} *s* $<math>\bar{v}$ *s* \bar{v} *s* $<math>\bar{v}$ *s* \bar{v} *s* $<math>\bar$

Ζ

 $z\bar{a}^{+/}cb z\bar{a}$ - n. millet **zāalíg^a záal^{iɛ}** pl zāalís^ɛ zāalá⁺ cb zāal- adj. empty *zāalím^m adv*. emptily **zàam^m** cb zà- n. evening; **zà-sìsɔ̃bιr^{ε/}** n. evening **zàaňsım^m** dv. dream **zāaňsím^m** cb zāaňs- n. soup; soup in general, not "fish soup" despite Mampruli *zaasim* "fish"; *cf* Toende *zãas*(*m* "soupe à viande" (Niggli) **zàaňsúŋ²** pl zàaňsímà⁺ cb zàaňsúŋ- n. dream zab^{ε} ger $zabur^{\varepsilon} dv$. fight; hurt (of body part); agt $zab-zab^{a} n$. warrior; agt **gbān-záb**^a n. leather-beater, leather-worker **zàb**(*l*^ε *dv*. cause to fight zàk^a pl zà'as^ε cb zà'- n. compound; zà'-nɔ̄ɔr^{ε/} n. gate; zà'-nɔ̄-gúr^a n. gatekeeper **zàkım^m** dv. itch **zàlıŋ**^a pl zàlımıs^ɛ cb zàlıŋ- n. electric eel zàm^m ipfv zàmmıd^a dv. cheat; agt zàm-zām^{na} n. cheat **zà'mιs^ε** dv. learn. teach **zāň'a**⁼ q. every <u>16.4.1</u>

zàň'as^ε dv. refuse **zàňbıl^ɛ** dv. tattoo, mark skin **zāňbın^{nε}** pl zāňbına⁺ cb zàňbın- n. tattoo; NT sign 12.2.2 **Zàngbɛ̃εl^ε** n. Hausa language **Zàngbèog⁹** pl Zàngbèɛd^ɛ n. Hausa person **zàngùem^{mε}** pl zàngùema⁺ cb zàngùem- n. wall **zànkù'ar^ɛ** pl zànku'àa⁺ zànkù'ada⁺ cb zànku'à- n. jackal **zāňl^{la}** ger zāňll(m^m sv. be holding, carrying in hands **zàňl^{lε}** *n*. umbilicus $z a n^{\epsilon} dv$. pick up, take up **zēm^{ma/}** ger zēmmúg⁵ sv. be equal $z\bar{\varepsilon}'ms^{\epsilon}/dv$. make equal **zēmmúg⁹** pl zēmmá⁺ cb zēm- adj. equal $z\bar{i}^+$ ger $z\bar{i}id^{\epsilon}/d\nu$. carry on one's head; agt $z\bar{i}-z\hat{i}id^a$ n. carrier on the head $z\bar{i}^{+}$ ger $z\bar{i}^{+}l(m^{m} sv. not know 19.5.1; agt <math>z\bar{i}^{+}ld^{a/}n. ignorant person$ **zi'e^{ya}** ger $z\bar{i}'a^+$ KED; DK KT $z\bar{i}'\partial g^a$ (exceptional phonology <u>15</u> <u>12.2.1.2</u>) sv. be standing **zì'ə** l^{ϵ} dv. make to stand; **zì'ə**l n \bar{c} r^{ϵ} promise, command; with n tìs X: promise to X $zi' = n^{\varepsilon} dv$. stand still; $O zi' = n n\overline{\varepsilon}$. She's pregnant. **zīum^m**/ cb zī- n. blood zíin^a pl zīmí⁺ cb zīm- n. fish; **zīm-gbáň'àd^a** n. fisherman **zìlım^{mε}** pl zìlıma⁺ cb zìlım- n. tonque **zīlinzíòg⁹** adj. unknown zím ideophone for sābilíg^a black <u>16.11.1.3</u> **zīná**+ today <u>30.8</u> zìň'a⁺ zèň'ug[>] pl zèň'ɛd^ɛ zèň'ɛs^ɛ zèňda⁺ cb zèň'- adj. red zìň'i^{ya} sv. be sitting; ger zīň'ig^a pl zīň'is^ɛ cb zìň- (also place) **zìň'il^ε** dv. make sit. seat zìň'in^ε dv. sit down **zīnzāuŋ^{ɔ/}** pl zīnzāná⁺ cb zīnzáuŋ- n. bat $z\bar{i}ri^+$ n. lie. untruth $z\dot{z}^+$ ipfv $z\dot{z}t^a$ imp $z\dot{z}m^a dv$. run; fear; experience emotion; ger $z\bar{u}a^+ z\bar{z}cg^2$ run; *imperfective ger* **zòtım**^m fear 13.2.1.4 *Ò z*òt*·ō nīn-báalìg*. He has pity on him zɔ̃l^ε dv. castrate **zɔ̃lımís^ε** n. foolishness **zɔ̃lug**^{\mathbf{y}}/ pl zɔ̃n^{$\mathbf{n}\epsilon$}/ cb zɔ̃l- n. fool **zɔ̃m^m**/ cb zɔ̃m- n. flour **zɔ̃ɔm^{mε} zɔ̃ɔm^{nε}** pl zɔ̃ɔma⁺ cb zòɔm- n. refugee, fugitive **zɔ̃rıq**^a/ n. small child WK **zɔ̃ruq**^{**ɔ**/} *pl z***ɔ**́rá⁺ *n*. piece $z\bar{u}^+ dv$. steal

zuà⁺ pl zuà-nàm^a cb zuà- n. friend

Zùa⁺ pl Zùes^ε n. member of clan Zoose; pl Zuà-wìis^ε Zuà-wìib^a, pl Zuà-sābılís^ε subclans of Zoose

 $z\dot{u}'e^+ dv$. get higher, more

zùe⁺ *dv*. perch, get on top (? variant of zù'e⁺)

zūg⁵/ pl zūt^ε/ cb zūg- zū- <u>9.2.2</u> n. head; as postposition <u>17.6</u>; zūgú-n^ε is also used as a postposition; zūg-dáàn^a n. boss, master (replaces zūg-sób^a in KB for meanings other than "the Lord"); zūg-kūgor^ε pl zūg-kūga⁺ cb zūg-kúg- n. pillow; zūg-máuk³ pl zūg-má'àd^ε adj. crushed-headed <u>16.11.1.4</u>; zūg-sób^a n. boss; NT Lord (often read as zū-sób in the audio NT); zū-pέεlòg³ pl zū-pέεlà⁺ adj. bald <u>16.11.1.4</u>; zūg-píbìg^a n. hat

zùlιg^ε dv. deepen

zùlım^{ma} sv. be deep

zùluŋ[>] pl zùlıma⁺ cb zùluŋ- adj. deep

zùlvŋ[>] n. depth

zùnzòŋ^a zùnzòŋ[>] pl zùnzòɔňs^ε cb zùnzòŋ- n. blind person

 $z\bar{u}eb\dot{v}g^{2}$ pl $z\bar{u}eb\dot{v}d^{\epsilon}$ cb $z\bar{u}eb$ - n. hair (of human head); see $k\bar{c}h\bar{v}bvg^{2}$

zùed^ε *n*. friendship

 $z \dot{u} \theta l^{\epsilon} dv$. make to perch

 $z\bar{u}$ ' $em^{m/}$ pl $z\bar{u}$ ' $em(s^{\epsilon} cb z\bar{u})em - n$. blind person

 $z\bar{u}$ ' em^{m}/dv . go blind, make blind

 $z \dot{v} e n^{\epsilon} dv$. begin to perch

zūθr^ε pl zu̯ēya⁺ cb zu̯à- n. hill

zùθs^ε dv. befriend

zūríf[•] *pl zūrí*⁺ *cb zūr- n.* dawadawa seed

zύυňf[•] pl zūυnί⁺ n. dawadawa seed

zùuňg^o pl zùuňs^{ϵ} zùuňd^{ϵ} cb zùň- n. vulture

 $z\bar{v}vr^{\varepsilon}$ pl $z\bar{v}ya^{+}$ cb $z\dot{v}$ - n. tail; $z\dot{v}$ - $w\bar{c}k^{c}$ adj. long-tailed <u>16.11.1.4</u>