## A Grammar of Agolle Kusaal

Revised Version

David Eddyshaw


## Contents

Preface ..... ix
Preface to the Revised Version ..... xi
Abbreviations ..... xii
Interlinear glossing. ..... xiii
Transcription conventions ..... XV
Sources ..... xvi
Other studies of Kusaal ..... xviii
References/Bibliography ..... xix
1 Introduction to Kusaal and the Kusaasi ..... 1
1.1 The Kusaasi people ..... 2
1.2 The Kusaal language ..... 4
1.2.1 Language status ..... 4
1.2.2 Dialects ..... 4
1.2.3 Related languages ..... 6
1.2.4 External influences ..... 12
1.3 Orthography. ..... 13
1.3.1 Word division ..... 14
1.3.2 Written materials ..... 16
1.3.3 Kusaal proper names in English ..... 22
1.4 Outline of Kusaal grammar ..... 23
Morphophonemics ..... 36
2 Preliminaries ..... 36
2.1 Rule order ..... 36
2.2 Word classes ..... 36
2.3 Morae, syllables and stress ..... 37
2.4 Apocope ..... 38
2.4.1 Superscript notation ..... 42
2.4.2 Predictability of Long Forms ..... 44
3 Consonants ..... 47
3.1 Inventory and symbols ..... 47
3.2 Consonant clusters ..... 52
4 Vowels ..... 55
4.1 Inventory and symbols ..... 55
4.2 Agolle vowel breaking ..... 56
4.3 Nasalisation ..... 58
4.4 Glottalisation ..... 59
4.5 Diphthongs ..... 60
4.6 Epenthetic vowels ..... 61
4.7 Affix vowels ..... 62
5 Tones ..... 64
5.1 Tonemes ..... 64
5.2 Delinking ..... 69
5.2.1 Tautosyllabic ..... 69
5.2.2 Heterosyllabic ..... 70
6 Word segmental structure ..... 72
6.1 Roots, prefixes and suffixes ..... 72
6.1.1 Root alternations. ..... 75
6.1.1.1 $C V \sim C V V \sim C V C$ ..... 75
6.1.1.2 CVVC~CVC. ..... 79
6.2 Consonant cluster assimilation. ..... 80
6.3 Deletion of $* g$ with vowel fusion ..... 85
6.4 Diphthongisation before *-ya *-gv *-kkv *- $\eta v$ ..... 89
6.5 Vowel length constraints. ..... 91
6.6 Apocope-blocking ..... 92
7 Word tonal structure ..... 93
7.1 Tone Patterns ..... 93
7.2 Nominals. ..... 95
7.2.1 Pattern H ..... 96
7.2.1.1 Tonal effects of deleted morae ..... 97
7.2.1.2 Subpattern HL ..... 98
7.2.2 Pattern L. ..... 98
7.2.3 Pattern O ..... 100
7.2.4 Noun prefixes ..... 101
7.3 Verbs ..... 102
7.3.1 Pattern H ..... 102
7.3.2 Pattern LO ..... 104
7.4 Particles ..... 105
7.5 Tone in derivation ..... 106
8 External sandhi ..... 108
8.1 Prosodic clitics. ..... 108
8.1.1 Long Forms in clause adjuncts ..... 112
8.2 Liaison ..... 113
8.2.1 Vowel quality changes ..... 117
8.2.2 Toneme changes ..... 121
8.2.3 The pronoun ya before liaison ..... 125
8.3 M spreading ..... 126
8.3.1 Fixed L tonemes ..... 128
8.4 L spreading ..... 129
8.5 Segmental contact phenomena ..... 132
8.5.1 Consonants ..... 132
8.5.2 Vowels ..... 133
Morphology ..... 136
9 Noun flexion ..... 136
9.1 Noun classes ..... 136
9.1.1 Noun class and meaning ..... 138
9.2 Stem levelling ..... 139
9.2.1 Singulars and plurals ..... 139
9.2.2 Combining forms ..... 139
9.3 Noun paradigms ..... 141
9.3.1 ${ }^{\mathrm{a}} \mathrm{b}^{\mathrm{a}}$ class ..... 141
9.3.1.1 $b^{\text {a }}$ singular. ..... 145
9.3.2 $g^{\mathrm{a}} \mid s^{\varepsilon}$ class ..... 145
9.3.3 $\left.g^{\supset}\right|^{\varepsilon}$ class ..... 148
9.3.4 $r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}$class ..... 151
9.3.4.1 $l^{\varepsilon}$ singular ..... 154
9.3.5 $f^{\mathfrak{v} \mid \imath^{+}}$class ..... 155
9.3.6 $b^{3}$ class ..... 156
9.3.7 $\mathrm{m}^{\mathrm{m}}$ class ..... 157
9.4 Nàm ${ }^{\text {a }}$ plurals ..... 158
9.5 Nouns with apocope-blocking ..... 159
9.6 Loanwords ..... 160
10 Adjective flexion ..... 161
11 Verb flexion ..... 165
11.1 Dual-aspect verbs ..... 165
11.2 Single-aspect verbs ..... 168
11.2.1 Dynamic ..... 168
11.2.2 Stative. ..... 170
12 Stem conversion ..... 172
12.1 Deadjectival stative verbs ..... 172
12.2 Nouns from verbs ..... 173
12.2.1 Perfective gerunds ..... 173
12.2.1.1 From dual-aspect verbs ..... 173
12.2.1.2 From stance verbs ..... 175
12.2.2 Concrete nouns ..... 176
12.3 Nominals from nominals ..... 177
13 Derivational suffixes ..... 179
13.1 Verbs ..... 179
13.1.1 Assume-stance verbs ..... 180
13.1.2 Causatives. ..... 180
13.1.3 Reverse action ..... 182
13.1.4 Plural action ..... 182
13.1.5 Denominal verbs ..... 183
13.1.6 Miscellaneous cases ..... 184
13.2 Nominals ..... 185
13.2.1 From verbs ..... 185
13.2.1.1 Agent nouns ..... 185
13.2.1.2 Deverbal adjectives ..... 189
13.2.1.2.1 Dynamic ..... 189
13.2.1.2.2 Resultative ..... 191
13.2.1.3 Instrument nouns ..... 192
13.2.1.4 Imperfective gerunds ..... 193
13.2.1.5 Other deverbal nominals ..... 195
13.2.2 From nominals ..... 196
14 Derivational prefixes ..... 198
14.1 Nouns and adjectives ..... 198
14.1.1 Reduplication-prefixes ..... 199
14.1.2 Da(n) ba(n) sa(n) ..... 200
14.1.3 Pū kù(n) ..... 201
14.1.4 Stranded combining forms ..... 202
14.2 Adverbs ..... 203
14.3 Number words ..... 203
15 Unsegmentable complex stems ..... 205
15.1 Loanwords ..... 205
Syntax ..... 210
16 Noun phrases ..... 210
16.1 Overview ..... 210
16.2 Noun phrase categories ..... 210
16.2.1 Number ..... 210
16.2.2 Gender ..... 212
16.2.3 Person ..... 215
16.3 Pronouns ..... 216
16.3.1 Personal ..... 216
16.3.2 Demonstrative ..... 217
16.3.3 Indefinite ..... 218
16.3.4 Interrogative ..... 220
16.3.5 Reciprocal ..... 221
16.4 Quantifiers ..... 221
16.4.1 Overview ..... 221
16.4.2 Number words ..... 223
16.4.2.1 Quantifiers ..... 223
16.4.2.2 Counting forms ..... 225
16.4.2.3 Adjectives and ordinal constructions ..... 225
16.4.2.4 Adverbs ..... 227
16.4.3 Proquantifiers ..... 228
16.5 The article $l \bar{a}^{+/}$. ..... 228
16.6 The personifier clitic ..... 232
16.7 Coordination ..... 235
16.8 Apposition ..... 238
16.9 Compounding ..... 239
16.10 Dependents preceding the head ..... 242
16.10.1 Complements ..... 242
16.10.2 Premodifiers ..... 244
16.10.2.1 Count nouns ..... 244
16.10.2.2 Non-count NPs ..... 246
16.10.2.3 Adverbial phrases ..... 247
16.10.3 Predeterminers ..... 248
16.10.4 Before $m \bar{\varepsilon} \eta^{\mathrm{a} / ~ d a ̄ a n ~} n^{\mathrm{a}} s \overline{b^{\mathrm{a}}} b \bar{u} n^{\mathrm{n} \varepsilon /}$ ..... 250
16.11 Dependents following the head ..... 254
16.11.1 Adjectives ..... 255
16.11.1.1 Class agreement. ..... 256
16.11.1.2 Downtoning ..... 257
16.11.1.3 Ideophones ..... 257
16.11.1.4 Bahuvrihis ..... 259
16.11.1.5 Nouns as adjectives ..... 260
16.11.2 Postdeterminers ..... 262
16.11.2.1 Pronouns ..... 262
16.11.2.2 Quantifiers ..... 262
16.11.3 Adverbial phrases ..... 263
17 Adverbial phrases ..... 264
17.1 Overview ..... 264
17.2 Time and circumstance ..... 264
17.3 Place ..... 265
17.4 Manner ..... 269
17.5 AdvPs as verb arguments ..... 271
17.6 Postpositions ..... 272
17.7 Proadverbs ..... 275
18 Prepositions ..... 276
19 Verb phrases ..... 280
19.1 Structure ..... 280
19.2 Aspect ..... 281
19.2.1 Perfective ..... 281
19.2.2 Imperfective ..... 285
19.2.2.1 Dynamic ..... 285
19.2.2.2 Stative ..... 286
19.3 Tense ..... 287
19.3.1 Preverbal tense particles ..... 287
19.3.2 Auxiliary tense particles ..... 288
19.3.3 Discontinuous past. ..... 289
19.3.4 Periphrastic future constructions ..... 289
19.3.5 Implicit tense marking. ..... 290
19.4 Mood ..... 292
19.5 Polarity ..... 295
19.5.1 Negative verbs ..... 296
19.6 Independency marking ..... 298
19.6.1 Tonal Features ..... 298
19.6.1.1 Tone overlay ..... 298
19.6.1.2 Absent M spreading after subject pronouns ..... 300
19.6.2 Segmental features ..... 302
19.6.2.1 Perfective $y \bar{a}^{+}$ ..... 302
19.6.2.2 Imperative - $m^{\text {a }}$ ..... 304
19.7 Clitics bound to the verb ..... 305
19.7.1 Lغ̇ $\varepsilon$ "but" ..... 305
19.7.2 Preverbs ..... 306
19.7.3 Liaison enclitics ..... 308
19.8 Complements ..... 308
19.8.1 Transitivity and objects ..... 309
19.8.1.1 Passives ..... 312
19.8.1.2 Middle use of intransitives ..... 313
19.8.2 Predicative complements ..... 314
19.8.3 Locatives ..... 316
19.8.4 Prepositional phrases ..... 317
19.8.5 Clauses ..... 318
19.9 Adjuncts ..... 318
19.10 Verb-phrase-final particles ..... 319
20 The verbs "to be" ..... 321
20.1 Bغ̀+ "be somewhere, exist" ..... 321
20.2 Àeña "be something/somehow" ..... 322
21 Clauses. ..... 326
21.1 Clause types ..... 326
21.2 Structure ..... 329
21.2.1 Clause adjuncts ..... 329
21.2.2 Subjects ..... 333
21.2.3 Post-subject particles. ..... 334
21.3 Ellipsis ..... 335
22 Main clauses ..... 336
22.1 Main clause types ..... 336
22.1.1 Content questions ..... 336
22.1.2 Polar questions ..... 337
22.1.3 Commands ..... 338
22.2 Coordinated main clauses ..... 340
22.2.1 Sequential clauses ..... 340
22.3 Verbless clauses. ..... 345
22.3.1 Identificational clauses ..... 345
22.3.2 Lìa-clauses ..... 346
22.3.3 Vocatives ..... 346
22.3.4 Particles as clauses ..... 347
23 Catenated clauses. ..... 348
23.1 Overview ..... 348
23.2 Auxiliary verbs in $n$-catenation. ..... 351
23.2.1 Preceding the main VP ..... 351
23.2.2 Following the main VP. ..... 355
23.3 Kà-catenation ..... 358
24 Conditional clauses. ..... 362
24.1 Overview. ..... 362
24.1.1 Discontinuous-past $n^{\varepsilon}$ ..... 363
24.1.2 Nāan(ı) "in that case" ..... 364
24.2 Open. ..... 368
24.3 Hypothetical. ..... 369
24.4 Contrary-to-fact. ..... 370
25 N-clauses ..... 372
25.1 Overview ..... 372
25.2 Absolute clauses ..... 373
25.3 Relative clauses. ..... 376
25.3.1 With indefinite pronouns. ..... 377
25.3.2 With relative pronouns ..... 386
25.3.3 Uncompounded antecedents. ..... 390
26 Complementised clauses ..... 392
26.1 Purpose clauses ..... 392
26.2 Content clauses. ..... 395
26.2.1 Direct and indirect speech ..... 397
27 Negation ..... 400
27.1 Clauses ..... 400
27.2 Constituents ..... 402
28 Information packaging ..... 404
28.1 Focus ..... 404
28.1.1 Subject focus with catenator-n ..... 404
28.1.2 VP constituent and VP focus with $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$ ..... 406
28.1.2.1 Restrictions. ..... 406
28.1.2.1.1 Where $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$cannot appear at all ..... 406
28.1.2.1.2 Where $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$cannot be temporal. ..... 408
28.1.2.1.3 Words which $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$cannot focus ..... 412
28.1.2.2 VP constituent focus ..... 413
28.1.2.3 VP focus ..... 417
28.2 Clefting and preposing with kà ..... 419
28.3 Extraposition ..... 422
28.4 Presentational constructions ..... 424
28.5 Free and bound personal pronouns ..... 425
28.6 Emphatics ..... 426
Lexicon ..... 428
29 Greetings and other formulae ..... 428
30 Structured semantic fields ..... 431
30.1 Kinship terms. ..... 431
30.2 Personal names ..... 433
30.3 Places ..... 435
30.4 Ethnic groups and clans ..... 438
30.5 Trees and fruits ..... 439
30.6 Body parts ..... 440
30.7 Colours ..... 441
30.8 Time ..... 441
31 General vocabulary ..... 443

## 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.

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Swansea, December 2016
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## 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 adverbial phrase
BNY Bunkonbid ne Niis ne ba ygla (see Sources)
C consonant
$\mathrm{cb} \quad$ combining form (of noun or adjective)
CGEL Cambridge Grammar of the English Language (see Bibliography)
DK informant (see Sources)
dp discontinuous past
ger gerund
H High toneme
ILK "An Introduction to Learning Kusaal" (David Spratt)
ipfv imperfective
irreg irregular
KB Kusaal Bible of 2016 (see Sources)
KED "A Short Kusaal-English Dictionary" (David Spratt)
KKY Kusaas Kuob ne Yir yela Gbaup (see Sources)
KSS Kusaal Solima ne Siilima (see Sources)
KT informant (see Sources)
L Low toneme
LF Long Form (of word capable of standing clause-finally)
M Mid toneme
NP noun phrase
NT Kusaal New Testament Versions of 1976 and 1996 (see Sources)
pfv perfective
pl plural
SB informant (see Sources)
SF Short Form (of word capable of standing clause-finally)
sg singular
V vowel
VP verb phrase
WK informant (see Sources)
$1 \mathrm{sg} 2 \mathrm{pl} .$. first person singular, second person plural etc

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

## Interlinear glossing

Abbreviations:

| ABSTR | abstract | $\underline{9.1 .1}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ADV | adverbial | $\underline{12.3}$ |
| AN | animate gender | $\underline{16.2 .2}$ |
| CAT | clause catenator (underlyingly n) | $\underline{\underline{23.1}}$ |
| CNTR | contrastive (personal pronouns) <br> COP | $\underline{\underline{28.5}}$ |
|  | copula àeña |  |

CQ content question prosodic clitic $\quad$ 8.1
DEM (short) demonstrative pronoun 16.3.2
DEM.DEI
DP discontinuous-past marker $n$
16.3.2
24.1.1

EXIST
FOC
existence/location verb bغ̀ ${ }^{+}$
20.1

GER
focus particle $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$
28.1.2

IMP
gerund
12.2 .1
inan
independent imperative verb form
11.1
indF
inanimate gender
16.2 .2

IPFV
indefinite pronoun
16.3.3
r
imperfective verb form 11.1

IRR
positive irrealis mood marker
19.4

LOC locative postposition $\left(n^{-}+/ \sim n^{\varepsilon}\right)$ 17.3

NEG
NEG.BE
NEG.HAVE
NEG.IMP
negative prosodic clitic
negative verb to and cop and Exist
8.1
19.5.1
19.5.1
19.4

NEG.IND negative indicative marker $\underline{19.4}$
NEG.IRR negative irrealis marker $\underline{19.4}$
NEG.Know negative verb $z i \overline{ }{ }^{\top}+\quad$ 19.5.1
NEG.LET negative verb mit $\quad$ 19.5.1
NUM number prefix à- bà- ǹ-bù- $\underline{14.3}$
NZ nominaliser (underlyingly $\grave{n}$ ) $\underline{25}$
OB object (liaison-enclitic pronouns) $\underline{8.2}$
PERS personifier clitic (à or $\grave{n}$-) $\underline{16.6}$
PFV independent-perfective marker yā ${ }^{+} \quad \underline{19.6 .2 .1}$
PL plural
PQ polar question prosodic clitic $\underline{8.1}$
REL relative pronoun $\underline{\text { 25.3.2 }}$
SG singular $\quad$ 16.2.1
TNS tense marker $\underline{19.3 .1}$
voc vocative prosodic clitic $\underline{8.1}$

Personal pronouns:

| 1SG 1PL | 1st sg/pl |
| :--- | :--- |
| 2SG 2PL | 2nd sg/pl |
| 3AN 3INAN | 3rd sg animate/inanimate |
| 3PL | 3rd pl |
| 2PL.SUB | postposed 2nd pl Subject |

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

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

The symbol $\varnothing$ 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 $\underline{8.1}$ are represented by ${ }^{+} \varnothing$, and liaison $\underline{8.2}$ is marked by $\qquad$

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 $\grave{A}-/ \grave{N}^{-}$-, and the liaison enclitics $n^{\varepsilon}$ LOC $n^{\varepsilon}$ DP ya $2 P L . S U B$ along with the LF of ${ }^{0}{ }_{3 A N}$. 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: pūvgv-n "inside", not pōvgu=n.

## Transcription conventions

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

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 $\iota v$ for IPA I $\circlearrowright$, 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 16.11 .1 .3 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 Gbaun<br>Wínà'am Gbáun

Bunkonbid ne Niis ne ba yela
Būn-kón̆bìd nē Níis né bà yēlá

Kusaal Solima ne Siilima
Kūsáàl Sólımà nē Síilímà

Kusaas Kuob ne Yir yela Gbaup
Kūsáàs Kúèb n̄̄ Yīr y f́là Gbàun

## Kusaal Bible

1976 NT © World Home Bible League 1996 NT © The Bible League/GILLBT
available as Audio and searchable text 2016 Complete Bible © GILLBT available as an Android application
"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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## 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"), Kusaal ${ }^{1}$ Tùen ${ }^{\text {nع }}$ "in front, West." The eastern part is Agolle (less accurately spelt "Agole"), Kusaal Àgذ̀lı "Upper." These Ghanaian districts comprise most of Kūsáv̀g ${ }^{\text { }}$ "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 Kūsáà $\ell^{\varepsilon}$ "Kusaal" and the name of the people Kūsáàs ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ "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 sā'ab', called "TZ" /ti:'zed/ in local English (from Hausa tuwon zaafii, literally "hot porridge"), and the traditional millet beer, dāam ${ }^{\text {m/ }}$, called "pito" (Hausa fitoo) in English.

The Kusaasi are divided into numerous patrilineal exogamous clans (dうे $\partial^{3}$, "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 $p \bar{\partial} r^{\varepsilon /}$ "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 tèn-dāan ${ }^{\text {a }}$ 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 tદ̀n-dàan-nàmá . The founder of these kingdoms was Naa Gbewaa, whose seat was at Pusiga (Kusaal Pūsı $g^{\mathrm{a} /)}$ ) 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 bānāa= smock, called a "fugu shirt" in English (fūug ${ }^{\text {/ }}$ "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, Wīn ${ }^{\text {n } /, ~ i n v o k e d ~ i n ~ p r o v e r b s ~ a n d ~}$ greetings but remote from everyday life and not to be approached in prayer or worship. Characteristic proverbs say

> Dìm n̄̄ Wīn, dā tú'às n̄ Wīnné ${ }^{+} \varnothing$.
> Eat:Imp with God:sg, neg.Imp talk with God:sg neg.
> "Eat with God, don't talk with God."

## Wīn n̆ý́ 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 $w \bar{i} n^{n \varepsilon /}$. A wīn $n^{n \varepsilon /}$ resides in a būgur , an object such as a stone or horn, but it is the $w \bar{\iota} n^{\mathrm{n} \varepsilon /}$ that is spiritually significant, not its place of attachment.

A central figure is the $b \overline{a^{\prime}} a^{=}$"diviner", who seeks guidance for a client (būgvd ${ }^{\text {a }}$ ) 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-gbin $\eta^{3 /}$ "body"; $\check{n} y \grave{\jmath}-v \bar{r} r^{\varepsilon /}$ "life" as opposed to death, possessed by all living animals; wīn ${ }^{\text {nع/ (in this }}$ sense) "genius, spirit, a person's own spiritual self"; and kìkīrıs ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$, protective spirits (called "fairies" in local English.) Men have three kikirıs ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$, 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 kikirıs ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ in the bush which are hostile and try to lead travellers astray. Sīıga "life force", used for "spirit" in Christian materials, is in traditional belief intimately associated with a person's tutelary kìkīrıs ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$.

The key term $w \bar{i} n^{\mathrm{n} \varepsilon /}$ has yet further senses, overlapping with the European concepts of fate or destiny: wīn-tój̀g ${ }^{\text { }}$, literally "bitterness of $w \bar{\imath} n^{n \varepsilon / " ~ i s ~ " m i s f o r t u n e . " ~}$ Most people have a particular sīgır/ "guardian spirit" which is often the $w^{\bar{\varepsilon}} n^{\mathrm{n} \mathrm{\varepsilon} /}$ of an ancestor; the word $b \bar{u} g u r^{\varepsilon}$ may also mean "a $w \bar{\tau} n^{n \varepsilon /}$ inherited from one's mother's family." Many Kusaasi personal names refer to an individual's sīgır ${ }^{\varepsilon /} \underline{30.2}$.

Sכֹכn̆ba "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 4.2 correlates with numerous other isoglosses, resulting in a sharp discontinuity between Agolle and Toende Kusaal, probably attributable to the depopulation of the border zone along the White Volta caused by the river blindness (onchocerciasis) prevalent in the region until quite recent times.

My informants reported no difficulty communicating with Toende speakers, but they are all sophisticated multilinguals who may not be altogether typical. Berthelette 2001 studied the degree to which Burkina Faso Toende speakers understand Agolle Kusaal: of thirteen respondents, ten self-reported that they understood the Ghanaian Toende of Zebilla "very well", one "somewhat well" and two "a little", whereas with Agolle, eight said that they understood it "a little", two "somewhat well" and only three "well." Recorded text tests administered to Burkina Faso Toende speakers showed scores of $93 \%$ for comprehension of Ghanaian Toende versus $80.5 \%$ for Agolle, but Ghanaian Toende speakers achieved 94.5\% with Agolle, presumably reflecting their greater exposure to the dialect. It is possible that Agolle speakers find Toende Kusaal easier than vice versa, but this was not looked into in detail, as the focus of the paper is on the question of whether Agolle Bible translations and literacy materials would suffice for Toende speakers. The conclusion was that Toende materials would be valuable, perhaps not on strictly linguistic grounds but because of speaker attitudes: Toende speakers feel their own dialect is "purer", which may affect judgments of comprehensibility.

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

Agolle and Toende Kusaasi themselves agree that they constitute a single ethnic group, and that they speak dialects of a single language; this is perhaps reinforced by a strong local tendency to equate language and ethnicity (note the language names formed from ethnonyms in 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 Davius):


| 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 bïiga "child", dì+ "eat", nū+ "drink", kpì+ "die", tìıg ${ }^{\text {a }}$ "tree", àtán'r'+ "three", tùbvr ${ }^{\text {"ear" with their Fongbe equivalents ví, dù, nù, kú, átín, àt̀̀n, tó. }}$ Guthrie's Proto-Bantu reconstructions parallel all except "child": dí- "eat", -nú"drink", kú- "die", -tí "tree", -tátù "three", -tó "ear", and his Proto-Bantu -tóm- "send" corresponds to Kusaal tòm ${ }^{m}$. The Potou-Akanic language group, which includes Twi/Fante and Gonja, here shows a regular sound correspondence $t \sim s$ : Twi $\varepsilon s a ̃$ "three", asõ "ear", soma "send", Gonja à-sá "three", kò-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 VoltaCongo branches. Thus the Kusaal human-plural noun suffix -ba seen in nīdı $b^{\mathrm{a} /}$ "people", plural of nīd ${ }^{\mathrm{a} /}$, 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 $r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}$seen in Kusaal tùbur ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ "ear", tùba+ "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 tùbur ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ 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 mà-bïiga "sibling") as an alternative name. The group is well demarcated by many common innovations. Proto-Oti-Volta ${ }^{*}{ }^{*}{ }_{f}$ 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 $g^{\text {a }} \mid s^{\varepsilon}$ class (Buli tiib "tree", Kusaal tìı $g^{a}$, Mooré tìıgá etc); there is much distinctive vocabulary, e.g. Kusaal kù'өm ${ }^{m}$ "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: ${ }^{*}{ }^{*}{ }_{f}$ fall together as $c$, for example, and "tree" is tiibo.

[^0]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 ká, and rounding in the plural suffix -do/-ro 4.7.

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 2.4. 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'ime. $\quad$ It is ripe"
Toende Labi'ıme.
Agolle Lì bi'ig n $\bar{\varepsilon}$. 3INAN ripen foc.

Nabit La na bu biige. "It is not yet ripe."
Toende La nan bu bi'ıge.
Agolle Lì nàm pū bí'ig $\bar{\varepsilon}{ }^{+} \varnothing$.
3INAN still NEG.IND ripen Neg.

Talni Bunpok dэүаm pu bэkəra, buraa dכүam m bokət. "A woman's kindred is not divided, a man's kindred is divided."
Toende Bupok dכgım bu bכkıra, buraa dכgım bokıt.
Agolle $\left[P u{ }_{C} ' a ̄\right] ~ d u ́ ' a ̀ m ~ p u ̄ ~ b u ̛ a ́ k i ̀ d a ̄ ~+\varnothing, ~[d a ̄ u ̄] ~ d u ́ ' a m i ̀ ~ \varnothing ~ b u ̛ a ́ k i ̀ d . ~$ 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 ${ }_{S} *_{Z} *_{C} *_{f}$ 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 OtiVolta Tone Patterns 7.1 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 | "snake" | wà | wáab |
| mj̄əg | "grass" | múagū | mūub ("blade of grass") |
| tìıg $^{\text {a }}$ | "tree" | tībū | tiib |

Nawdm aligns tonally with Western Oti-Volta and Buli: wá:gbè "snake", mó:gú "grass", tì:bé "tree." Nawdm has shifted ${ }^{*} p \rightarrow f, *_{s} \rightarrow h,{ }^{*} c \rightarrow s$, and ${ }^{*} z \rightarrow f$. It has $r$ for Proto-Oti-Volta * $К$, which has fallen together with $y$ in Western Oti-Volta and Buli, and with I 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 * ${ }^{\circ}$ and ${ }^{\text {*s: }}$ Waama cāābú "millet porridge" sōngā "hare", Kusaal sā'ab sú'өク", Buli sāab súom.

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 -sə 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 wōmmā "entendre" = Kusaal wòm" ${ }^{m}$, Buli wom, versus Byali yō, Ditammari yō, Nateni yēkà; Waama cáárō "forgeron" = Kusaal sāeñ", versus Byali má-máárāū, Ditammari ōmáátà, Nateni málō; Waama yété pl yéyā "maison" = Kusaal yīrl, Buli yérí, versus Byali tápúú, Ditammari tācĩ $\begin{gathered}\text { tà } \\ \text {, Nateni hว̃õtā. }\end{gathered}$

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 [d3], monophthongises diphthongs, and drops the distinction between glottalic consonants and their plain counterparts.

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

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 ( $\leftarrow$ *nāágfū) plural nïigí ${ }^{+}$, 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:] [ $\eta:]$ in very deliberate speech.

The vowel symbols a $\varepsilon$ כ $i u$ have IPA values, while $\iota v$ represent [r] [v] respectively. The allophony [I]~[i] and [v]~[u] epenthetic and prefix vowels 4.64 .7 is ignored, only $\iota \cup$ being used. Written e o always represent [r] [ $\mho$ ], used instead of $\iota \cup$ only as non-initial elements of diphthongs 4.5 and for the 3sg animate pronoun $O$ [ $\mho$ ] along with the $[v]$ mora which precedes it in liaison, which is written $\cdot 0$ 1.3.1.

|  | di'e | "receive" | [did] |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | pāe | "reach" | [phar] |
|  | bēog | "tomorrow" | [bعvg] |
|  | kpióon | "strong" | [<0pion)] |
| but | dāog | "male" | [davg] |
|  | ò bïig | "her child" | [vbi:g] |
|  | zú-o | "steal him" | [zuv] |
|  | dà'o | "bought for him" | [dã్ర్స] |

e $\underset{\sim}{i}$ both represent $[\underset{I}{I}] ; i$ is used before vowel symbols and after $u$. The symbol $u$ is used for [ṽ].

| gbàun | "book" | [gbav̧] |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| sj̄en̆ | "witch" |  |
| mùi | "rice" | [mũi] |

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 $\underset{\sim}{u}$ ) other than $i:$

| dà' | "buy" | [dã] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| dà'a | "market" | [dą:] |
| kù'өm | "water" | $\left[k^{n}\right.$ ưem] |


| pư'ā | "woman" | [phõa] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| diā' | "get dirty" | [dıña] |

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 $\cdot$.

| tદ̄દn̆s | "lands" | [ $\mathrm{t}^{\mathrm{n}} \tilde{\mathrm{E}}: \mathrm{s}$ ] |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| án̆sìb | "mother's br | [ãsib] |
| $g \bar{\varepsilon} \check{n}$ | "get tired" | [gẽ] |
| $g \bar{\varepsilon} \overline{n ̌ ' ~}^{\prime}$ | "get angry" | [g ${ }_{\sim}^{\text {c }}$ ] |
| $g \bar{\varepsilon} \breve{n}^{\prime} \varepsilon d$ | id (ipfv) | [gẽ :d] |
| ān̆•o | "be him/her" | [ãల̃] |

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

## n̆wām

"calabash" [w̃ãm]

The sequences [ĩa] [una] [iə] [ue], with their nasalised and glottalised counterparts, arise from Agolle vowel breaking. ia una iə ue are digraphs for phonemic monophthongs, though realised phonetically as diphthongs 4.2 .

| pìlıg | "white" | [phiəlig] |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $b u ̄ ' ө s$ | "ask" | [buès] |
| tiàk | "change" | [thinak] |
| pūāk | "female" | [pºvak] |
| kpià' | "shape wood" | [kpıã] |
| kià | "cut" | [ $k^{\text {h }}$ Ia] |

Contrast the phonemic diphthongs in e.g.

| kpìa | "neighbour" | [危pia] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sīa | "waist" | [sia] |

### 1.3.1 Word division

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

| zīm-gbáň'àd | "fisherman" | wāb-kúv̀d | "elephant-killer" |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| bì-fūug | "children's shirt" | pư'à-sāň'am | "adulterer" |
| bù-pìəlıg | "white goat" | bù-kànā | "this goat" |
| bù-pìəl-kànā | "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 bóวdī_m. | "You love me." | [fobo:dim] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2SG want 1SG.OB. |  |  |
| M̀ bóכdī_f. | "I love you." | [mbo:dif] |

1SG want 25G.OB.

The 3sg animate object pronoun ${ }^{0}$ [ $\mho$ ] "him/her" loses its entire segmental form by apocope 2.4, after causing the host final vowel mora to become [ $v$ ]. The LF-final vowel mora has traditionally been mistaken for the pronoun itself and written as a separate word. As a concession to tradition, the final vowel mora is separated from the rest of the host by a raised point $\cdot 0$; the LF is written as ending in $\cdot 0-0$.


The locative enclitic $n \varepsilon$ and the discontinuous-past marker $n \varepsilon$ are reduced to $n$ by apocope. Like the enclitic 2 pl subject pronoun $y a$, 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 2 pl subject ya is in complementary distribution with the proclitic pronoun yà and the locative enclitic ne is in complementary distribution with the ordinary enclitic particle $n \bar{\imath}^{+/}$. Like all liaison enclitics they are clearly words and not flexions morphosyntactically; for phonological evidence cf $4.7 \underline{5.2 .2}$. In the orthography of this grammar they are accordingly separated from preceding words by hyphens:.

```
pōvgu-n "inside"
inside:sG-Loc
b\grave{כdī-n "might wish"}
want-dp
```

The personifier clitic $\grave{a} / \grave{n}$, 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" 16.6.

## À-Wīn

"Awini" (personal name)
PERS-personal.spirit:SG

### 1.3.2 Written materials

Written materials are cited in their original orthography. Tone is unmarked. The clusters // mm nn are very often written single prior to 2016.
KSS uses $n g$ throughout for $\eta$.
Older orthography writes e ofor $\varepsilon, i$ for both $i$ and $\iota, u$ for both $u$ and $v$; e o are sometimes also used unsystematically for $\iota v$ as root vowels. The 2016 Bible uses the same basic conventions as this grammar except that it does not distinguish [i]~[r]: tiig = tìıg "tree", biig = bïig "child."

Word-final short $-\iota$ after $m n$ is usually written $\varepsilon$ in KB: pebanc for $p \bar{\varepsilon}^{1}-$ bánì "sheep which ..." Mk 6:34; so in all cases with the relative pronouns one kane line bane 25.3.2 and with anכ'כne "who?" before liaison.

The root-vowel is consistently written as e in KB in the words ye "that" ten "land" ke引 "go" (pfv) ken "go" (ipfv) for y $\bar{\varepsilon} t \bar{\varepsilon} \eta k \bar{\varepsilon} \eta k \bar{\varepsilon} n$, where my informants have $[\varepsilon]$. The form ye is probably due to the unstressed nature of the particle, but the other words may reflect actual variants with $\iota[\mathrm{I}]$ : compare Toende tī $\quad$ "land", Mampruli tinga "land" versus Toende men, Mampruli manga = mē "self."

The demonstrative and pronoun forms כ̄n/כ́n/خ̀n j̀מā are written on oŋa. As in this grammar, e o are used non-initially in diphthongs for [I] [ v ]. The phonemic monophthongs iə ue are written respectively as ie uo:

| pielig | pìlıg | "white" | [phiəlıg] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| bu'os | bū'өs | "ask" | [buess] |

ie uo are also used to write the phonemic diphthongs ie uo [ir] [uv] but the ambiguity is marginal, because ie uo only appear word-finally and in -iey-, while iə ue only appear word-internally before consonants, and in external sandhi 8.5.2:

| di'e | dī'e | "receive" | [diǐ] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| zu o | zú•o | "steal him" | [zuv] |

The 2016 orthography writes -ue [uI] as -uoe and -ve [vi] as -voe (similarly when nasalised and/or glottalised): duoe = dūe "raise, rise", sט'oe = sū'e "own."

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

Traditional orthography uses e iu for non-moraic eiu and thus does not mark length in diphthongs consistently, but only two length contrasts are actually found in phonemic diphthongs 4.5. The distinction ae/ae is expressed by writing aae (or aac) for ae versus ae for ae:
paae pāe "reach" [phar]

The contrast av/au is not marked. KB uses both $a u$ and $a v$, spelling each individual word consistently, but not as marking any length distinction: thus yavg "grave" for yàvg, but na'araug "ox" for nā'-dávg; dau for dāu "man" but tavn for tāunn̆ "sibling of opposite sex." Ambiguity appears word-medially before $\eta$ :

| gbaun | gbāun | "skin" | [gbavn] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| mangaun | màngáv | "crab" | [mangaun] |

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

| kia | kià | "cut" | $\left[k^{h}\right.$ İa] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sia | sīa | "waist" | [sia] |
| kua | kūā | "hoe" | $\left[k^{\text {hoda }}\right.$ |
| sabua | sàbùa | "lover" | [sabua] |

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

| kpi'a | kpi'a+ | "neighbour" | [Kpia] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| kpia' | kpiàa' $^{+}$ | "shape wood" | $[$Kpiã |

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

| po'a or pu'a | pu'ā | "woman" | [phna] |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| po'ab or pu'ab | $p \bar{o}^{\prime} a b$ | "women" | [phల్లab] |

NT/KB write -ey-in Long Forms 2.4 corresponding to Short Forms where final $y$ has become -è: vueya = vōyá Long Form of vōe "be alive." Older NT versions also write būn-vóyà "living things" as bunvoeya, but KB has the expected bunvoya.

After the low root vowels $a$ and $\supset$, epenthetic $\iota$ is often written $e$ :
sa(n)rega sārıgá "prison" [sarıga]
The 2016 orthography writes bieya for biēyá "elder same-sex siblings" etc, but suoya for sūēyá "roads", zuoya for zuēēa "hills" etc by analogy with the singulars.
suor sūөr and zuor zūөr. Older sources write sueya, zueya.
Traditional orthography omits word-internal $y$ after $i$, except with Long Forms $\underline{2.4}$ ending in -ya; thus dūnıya+ "world" and láafiya+ "health" are written dunia and laafia although they end in [rja], not in the diphthong ia.

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

| tecns | tह̄عn̆s | "lands" | [thñ:s] |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $g \varepsilon n^{\prime}$ | $g \bar{\varepsilon} \bar{n}^{\prime}$ | "get angry" | [g̃] |
| gen' $\varepsilon$ d | $g \bar{\varepsilon} \overline{n ̌ ' ~}^{\prime} \varepsilon d$ | $i d$ (ipfv) | [gẽ̃:d] |
| nwam | n̆wām | "calabash" | [w̃ãm] |

As prefix vowels show no contrastive nasalisation, $n$ ending a prefix (not a combining form) in traditional orthography must represent the consonant $n$ :
dunduug 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 $n n$ to mark nasalisation, but the 2016 system unfortunately uses an ambiguous single $n$ :

| gaan (old: gaann) | gāan̆ | "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 15.1.

| NT/KB | WK's forms | Toende Kusaal |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Wina'am | Wínnà'am | Wínā'am | "God" |
| faangid | fāan̆d | fãagıt | "saviour" |
| faangir | fáan̆r | fãagıt | "salvation" |

Wínà'am fāan̆gíd fāan̆gír are used when transliterating Bible verses. Fāan̆gíd fāan̆gír have become independent words, used to avoid the homophony with fāan̆d "robber" and fáan̆r "robbery."

NT versions prior to 2016 write aarun for àn̆rop "boat" (cf Toende âaròn), and malek for màliāk "angel" (Toende màĺ́k); KB has the expected anrop and maliak throughout, matching the usage of all my informants and of the audio 1996 version.

The spelling nyain appears for n̆yāe "brightly" even in texts prior to 2016, where nyainn would be expected. The 1992 audio NT renders it [j̃ãĩ].

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 • by word division.

Thus, compounds are written solid, except when a cb happens to have the same segmental form as the sg:
zingban'ad
bokana
yamug bipun
zīm-gbáň'àd
bù-kànā
yàmmug-bī-pún
"fisherman"
"this goat"
"slave girl" 9.2 .2

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

| Fu bכコdi ti. | "You love us." |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Fù bכ́כdī_tí. |  |
| 2SG want 1PL.OB. |  |

KB writes the Short Form $\underline{2.4}$ pronouns $m f$ solid with the preceding word:

```
Fu boכdim.
                                    "You love me."
                                    [fobכ:dim]
Fù bóvdī
    m.
2SG want 1SG.OB.
M bככdif. "I love you." [ṃbכ:dıf]
M bóכdī_f.
1SG want 25G.ob.
```

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

Fu nopi mi $n$ gat bamaa?
Fù nónī_mī_ $n$ gát bámmáa ${ }^{+} ø$ ?
2SG love 1SG.OB CAT pass:IPFV DEM.DEI.PL PQ?
"Do you love me more than these?" (Jn 21:15, 1976)

With $2 \mathrm{sg} f$ 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."
```



```
    M n̆y\varepsilońo_f.
    1SG see 2SG.ob.
1996 M gban'e uf.
    M gbáň'v_f.
    "I've grabbed you." [ṃgbãõ̃f]
    (See 8.5.2 for the -e)
    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.

```
Fu bood o.
"You love her."
[fvbэ:dv]
Fù bóכd`ō@.
2SG want 3AN.ob.
Fu pu bככd oo. "You don't love her." [fuphvbכ:dv:]
Fù pū búכd`ó-o +`.
2SG NEG.IND want-3AN.OB NEG.
```

```
Fo nye o.
"You've seen her."
[fvj\tilde{c̃õ]}][⿱亠⿻⿰丨丨⿱一一
Fù n̆y\varepsiloń.O_\varnothing.
25g see 3AN.ob.
Fu pu ny\varepsilon oo. "You've not seen her." [foph}\mp@subsup{}{}{h}j\tilde{\varepsilon}\tilde{v}:
Fù pū n̆y\overline{\varepsilon}.ó-o + }\varnothing\mathrm{ .
2SG NEG.IND see-3AN.OB NEG.
```

In traditional orthography，focus－n $\bar{\varepsilon}$ is always written solid after à（ $\check{n})$ from àeñ ＂be＂，and temporal $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$is usually written solid with a preceding verb：
$O$ ane biig．$\quad \mathrm{He} /$ she＇s a child．＂
Ò à ne biig．
3AN COP FOC child：SG．

Bipun la po kpii，o gbisidne．
Bī－pún lā pū kpíi ${ }^{+} \varnothing$ ，ò gbisıd n $\bar{\varepsilon}$ ．
Child－girl：sg art neg．ind die neg，zan sleep：IPFV foc．
＂The girl is not dead，she is sleeping．＂（Mt 9：24）
$N \bar{\varepsilon}$＂with＂is written solid after w $\bar{\varepsilon} n$＂resemble＂：

Ka o nindaa wenne nintaŋ ne．
Kà ò nīn－dáa w $\bar{n} n \quad n \bar{\varepsilon}$ nīntān $n \bar{\varepsilon}$ ．
And 3AN eye－face：sG resemble with sun：sg like．
＂His face is like the sun．＂（Rev 10：1，1996）

In KB wēn nē appears as nwene：Ka o nindaa nwene winnig ne．
A stressed final syllable 2.3 is sometimes mistaken for a segmentally homophonous particle：

Amaa fo ane ninsaal ka ka＇win ne．
Àmáa fù á nē nīn－sáal kà kā＇wīnné ${ }^{+} \varnothing$ ．
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 ne dunia gaadog pu toi yaa
Àrazánà $n \bar{\varepsilon}$ dūnıya gáad̀̀g pū tכ̄yá ${ }^{+} \varnothing$ ．
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 2.4: thus À-Wīn from Wìdı-n̆yá'an will introduce himself as "Awini" from "Woriyanga." Similarly "Kusaasi" for Kūsáàs, "Bawku" for Bj̀k, and so forth.

If this behaviour were confined to personal names, it might plausibly be attributed to the incorporation of the vocative prosodic clitic 8.1 , but, as has been seen, it is equally characteristic of place names. Moreover, the form "Woriyanga" for Widı-n̆yá'aŋ shows a characteristically Mampruli rather than Kusaal form for the initial combining form of "horse": Mampruli wuri- versus Kusaal wìd-. 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 Wìdāan rather than Mampruli Wuddaana "(title of) a chief's linguist" and female personal names like "Awimpoaka" À-Wīn-pưák even show the characteristic Agolle Kusaal vowel breaking, in contrast to the Toende form Awınpoka (Niggli.) Again, the personal name "Akudugu" À-Kūdvg shows the postvocalic - $d$ - characteristic of Agolle Kusaal rather than Mampruli. The Toende place name Til "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 $\grave{A}-D \bar{u} k$.

### 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 biiga "child", the cognate Kusaal word biig ${ }^{\text {a }}$ normally appears in the Short Form (SF) biig. 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):

```
O à n\overline{\varepsilon}}\mathrm{ bïlg. "He/she's a child."
3AN COP FOC child:SG.
```

Ò kā' bïiga ${ }^{+} \varnothing$. "He/she is not a child."
3An neg.be child:Sg neg.

```
O à n\varepsilon\overline{ bígàa + }\varnothing\mathrm{ ? "Is he/she a child?"}
```

3AN COP FOC child:SG PQ?

So too at the end of vocative phrases:

```
M bïiga +\varnothing! "My child!"
1SG child:sg voc!
```

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

$$
\text { Lì kā' gbīgımne }{ }^{+} \varnothing . \quad \text { "It's not a lion." }
$$

3inan neg.be lion:Sg neg.

Lì à n $\bar{\varepsilon}$ gbīgım. "It's a lion."
3INAN COP FOC lion:SG.

This appearance of surface untruncated forms rather than truncated is regarded as being triggered by following prosodic clitics, which have no segmental form of their own but show their presence by this effect on the preceding word form. There are four prosodic clitics: negative NEG, vocative voc, polar-question PQ and
content-question cQ , with different effects on preceding vowel length and tone. In interlinear glossing they are represented by ${ }^{+} \varnothing$, as above.

In citing word forms, superscripts 2.4 .1 will be used to write the parts of words which are dropped everywhere except before prosodic clitics and liaison: biig ${ }^{\text {a }}$ "child", gbīgım ${ }^{\text {ne }}$ "lion", $k \bar{u} k^{\mathrm{a}}$ "chair", $d \bar{u} k^{\jmath /}$ "pot."

The phonology of Kusaal is significantly complicated by apocope. For example, apocope deletes segments responsible for rounding and fronting effects on preceding vowels, and renders those effects contrastive. This creates two series of diphthongs, along with emic contrasts among epenthetic vowels. Thus
vīidé "owls"
usually appears with apocope as the Short Form viïd with the same long vowel as bïis "children", shortened from biïse, while the singular Long Form

$$
\text { vīugó } \quad \text { "owl" }
$$

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

$$
\text { vīug } \quad \text { "owl" }
$$

After the deletion of the final -כ, the diphthong itself now contrasts with the vowel of bïg "child", shortened from bïiga as seen above. Similarly

## āan̆dıga

"black plum tree"
has the default epenthetic vowel ı before the flexion, and appears as āan̆dıg after apocope, whereas
gàadvgコ "passing" (gerund)
has rounding of the vowel to $v$ before the flexion $-g$, and after the loss of the final vowel this rounding itself becomes contrastive in the usual Short Form gàadvg.

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:


M̀ bóvdī_bá. "I love them."
1SG want 3PL.OB.
Modified Long Form bj̀כdī before liaison.
$\grave{M} p \bar{u} \quad z a ́ b \bar{\varepsilon}+\varnothing . \quad$ "I haven't fought."
1SG NEG.IND fight NEG.
Long Form zàb̄̄ preceding negative clitic.

M zábī_bá. "I've fought them."
1sG fight 3PL.OB.
Modified Long Form zàbī before liaison.

With interlinear glossing, liaison is marked by $\qquad$ , as above.
Apocope reduces several liaison words of the underlying form $C V$ to a single consonant. Thus with bj̀ $d^{\text {a }}$ "wants, loves" and $f$ " "you (sg)":
$\grave{M} p \overline{\quad} \quad$ bj́วdī fó $\quad+\varnothing$. "I don't love you."
1SG neg.Ind want 2 2sg.ob neg. Long Form fo of the pronoun "you (sg)"

M̀ bว́วdī f. "I love you."
15G want 25G.ob. $\quad$ Short Form $f$ of the pronoun "you (sg)"

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

```
Lì kā' kūka \({ }^{+} \varnothing . \quad\) "It's not a chair."
``` 3INAN NEG.be chair:SG NEG.

Lì kā' kūkı-né \(\quad+\varnothing\) "It's not in a chair."
3INAN NEG.BE Chair:SG-LOC NEG.
\(k u ̄ k ı-n\)
"in a chair"
chair:SG-LOC

Lì kā' dūkó \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "It's not a pot."
zinan neg.be pot:SG neg.

Lì \(k a \bar{\prime} \quad d \bar{u} k i ́-n \bar{\varepsilon} \quad{ }^{+} \varnothing\). "It's not in a pot."
3INAN neg.be pot:SG-LOC NEG.
dōkí-n "in a pot"
pot:SG-LOC

The 3sg animate object pronoun \({ }^{0}\) "him/her" has the Long Form \(o\) [ \(\quad\) ] 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 [ \(\mathrm{\mho}\) ], which is always written with a preceding raised point as \(\cdot 0\).

Compare the forms with \(f\) "you (sg)" with the forms with \({ }^{\circ}\) "him/her":
```

M pō bว́כdī fó + Ø. "I don't love you."
1SG NEG.IND want 2SG.OB NEG.
M bว́כdīf. "I love you"
1SG want 2SG.OB.
M pū bכ́כd`ó-o +\varnothing. "I don't love him/her." [mpp}\mp@subsup{}{}{\mathrm{ rbb:dv:]}
1SG NEG.IND want-3AN.ob neg. Long Form o of the pronoun "him/her"
M bว́دd·ō_ø. "I love him/her." [ṃbכ:dv]
1sG want 3AN.ob. Short Form \varnothing of the pronoun "him/her"

```

A liaison word form \({ }^{\text {ya }}\) of the 2 pl 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:

Gう̀sım!
"Look!"
Look:IMP!

Gว̀sımī_ø! "Look ye!" by apocope from gj̀sımī-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.
m̀ zūgú_ \(\varnothing\) zàbıd lā zúg "because my head hurts" (nominaliser-ǹ)
1SG head:sg Nz fight:IPFV ART upon
\(\grave{M}\) zūgט_ \(\varnothing\) zábìd. "My head hurts." (catenator-n)
1SG head:SG CAT fight:IPFV.

These various "disappearing" liaison words have unsurprisingly resulted in considerable confusion in word division in the traditional orthography, and are largely responsible for the many cases where clause-medial words acquire a mysterious short-vowel "ending."

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

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

Agolle Kusaal shows a systematic mismatch between phonetics and phonemics in the vowel system, because of Agolle vowel breaking of earlier short and long \(\varepsilon>\) vowels, still preserved as phonetic monophthongs in the Toende dialect. This has produced four phonemes ía úa iə uө 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 \(\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{M}\) 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.
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
dỉ’əsídìb & "receivers" \\
bāŋıdıb & "wise men" \\
gbīgımne & "lion" (longer form, as above)
\end{tabular}

The only consonant clusters possible within stems following the root are \(k k t t\)
 For \(k p g b \check{n}^{\prime}\) ' see Orthography 1.3. Consonant clusters cannot occur word-initially or finally, except for final geminate -mm in Long Forms where there has been loss of syllabicity in an originally syllabic final \(m\).

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

\author{
pīpīrıg \\ dìndēog
}
```

"desert"
"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, \(\iota v\) appear lowered to \(\varepsilon\). Clusters of two consonants cccur freely across word division (including within compounds) due to apocope of wordfinal short vowels:

Gbīgım lā dāa kūvd bún lā.
Lion:SG ART TNS kill:IPFV donkey:SG ART.
"The lion ( \(g\) bīgım \({ }^{\mathrm{n} \varepsilon}\) ) was killing ( \(k \bar{v} \cup d^{\mathrm{a} /)}\) ) the donkey (bù \(\eta^{\mathrm{a}}\) ) ."

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

Flexion is entirely by suffixing, 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 \(g^{\mathrm{a}} \mathrm{s}^{\varepsilon}\) noun class, and are all regular:
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
būטg & "goat" & būטs & "goats" \\
sàbùa & "lover" & sàbùəs & "lovers" \\
nūa & "hen" & nכ̄כs & "hens" \\
kūk & "chair" & kūgus & "chairs" \\
zàk & "compound" & zà'as & "compounds" \\
dà'a & "market" & dà'as & "markets" \\
bùn & "donkey" & bùmıs & "donkeys" \\
\(t \bar{\eta}\) & "land" & tह̄हňs & "lands"
\end{tabular}

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 OtiVolta 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:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline bōog \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "goat" & + pìalıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "white" & \(\rightarrow\) bù-pìalıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "white goat" \\
\hline būuga "goat" & + si'a+ "another" & \(\rightarrow\) bù-si'a+ & "another goat" \\
\hline \(k \bar{k} k^{\text {a }}\) "chair" & + pìalıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "white" & \(\rightarrow\) kùg-pìlıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "white chair" \\
\hline kūk \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "chair" & + kà \(\mathrm{a}^{+/}\)"this" & \(\rightarrow\) kùg-kànā+/ & "this chair" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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 \(-d^{\mathrm{a}}\). There are few real irregularities, though unobvious consonant changes and vowel deletions again complicate the surface picture:
\begin{tabular}{lll}
\(k \bar{v}^{+}\) & perfective & "kill" ( \({ }^{+}\)means that the vowel is long in the LF) \\
\(k \bar{u} v d^{\text {a/ }}\) & imperfective & \\
\(\check{n} y \bar{\varepsilon}^{+}\) & perfective & "see" \\
\(\check{n} y \bar{\varepsilon} t^{\mathrm{a} /}\) & imperfective & \\
\(v \bar{u} l^{\varepsilon}\) & perfective & "swallow" \\
\(v \bar{u} n^{n a}\) & imperfective &
\end{tabular}

Dual-aspect verbs also have an imperative flexion \(-m^{\text {a }}\), 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 \(\quad n \bar{\varepsilon} . \quad\) "She's lying down."
3AN be.lying.down foc.

Ò mə̀r bún. "She has a donkey."
3AN have donkey:sg.

Ò gìm.
3AN be.short.

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

O à nह biilg. "He's a child."
3AN COP FOC child:SG.

```

The two "be" verbs share a common negative-verb counterpart kā'e "not be", which usually appears as kā' clause-medially:
```

Ò kā' bïiga +\varnothing. "He's not a child."
3AN NEG.bE child:SG NEG.

```

Kusaal is well-provided with word-level derivational processes. For example, regular deverbal gerunds, agent nouns and instrument nouns can be made freely from most verb types:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline kōob \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "killing" \\
\hline kūod \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "killer" \\
\hline kūodín \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "killing implement" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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-kūטd \({ }^{\text {a/ }} \quad\) "lion-killer"

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

M̀ tís dư'átà bún lā.
1sG give doctor:SG donkey:SG ART.
"I've given Doctor the donkey."

As seen above, an adjective follows its noun and forms a compound with it. There are two native prepositions, \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) "with" and wōv "like" ( \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) also links NPs and some AdvPs in the sense "and", but kà is "and" when linking VPs and clauses.)

In other respects Kusaal prefers head-final structures, with possessors, for example, always preceding their heads:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
m̀ bïig & "my child" \\
dāu lā bîg & "the man's child"
\end{tabular}

Adverbs often appear as postpositions preceded by NP determiners:
técbùl lā zúg "onto the table" (zūg "head")

The liaison word \(n^{\varepsilon}\) 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" (mù'arē "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 bún lā.
Lion:SG ART TNS kill donkey:SG ART.
"The lion killed the donkey."
Gbīgım lā dāa pō kū bún láa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
Lion:sg ART TNS NEG.Ind kill donkey:Sg ART neg.
"The lion didn't kill the donkey."

Gbīgım lā sá kù búp 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 kpîd. "People die."
Person:PL die:IPFV.

Nīdıb kpîd nē. \(\quad\) "People are dying."
Person:PL die:IPFV Foc.

The particle generally has this meaning when the verb allows it and no unbound words intervene between verb and particle, but it also focusses VP constituents or entire VPs. With stative verbs like àen̆ "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 yā which follows clausefinal 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 kà even in coordinating function, as in narrative:
```

O zàb du'átà. "He's fought the doctor."
3AN fight doctor:SG.

```

Ò g̀̀s dư'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 dư'átà. "And he's fought the doctor."
And 3AN fight doctor:sG.

Kà ò gj̄s dư'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 gj̄s dứ'átāa +ø! "Don't look at the doctor!"
NEG.IMP look.at doctor:SG NEG!
but Gj̀sım dư'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 yà' "if" after their own subject, appear before the main clause subject:

> Fù yá' bう̀วd, m̀ ná tīsıff bú.

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 bùnט_ \varnothing tís dư'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 kà instead of \(n\); one use is adnominal, with a meaning like a non-restrictive relative clause:
```

Lì à n\overline{\varepsilon}}\mathrm{ gbīgım lá kà m̀ nyyह̄t.
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 \(\grave{n}\) (frequently realised as segmental \(\varnothing\) ) after the subject:
gbīgım lá_ \(\varnothing\) kū bú \(\quad\) "the lion having killed the donkey"
lion:SG ART nz kill donkey:SG ART

One type of relative clause is internally-headed:
[Paul ǹ sכ̄b gbáun-sīa \(n\) tís Efesus dím lā] ø n̆wá.
Paul NZ write letter-IndF.InAN CAT give Ephesus one.pLART CAT this.
"This is [the letter Paul wrote to the Ephesians]." (NT heading)

Here gbàung-si'a is gbàun "book" compounded with the postdeterminer pronoun \(s i{ }^{\prime}\) 'a which marks it as antecedent, and the entire sequence Paul ... lā 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:
dàư-kànı pư'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 kà in complementisation. Purpose clauses are of this type:
\(\grave{M}\) ná tī \(f\) tîim yé fù nīf dā záb \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
1SG IRR give 25 S .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 kà, regularly omitting tense marking so long as the action is preceding in sequence, but including it when there are descriptive passages or "flashbacks." In this passage the past-tense marker dà occurs only in the first clause. The second kà is preposing the time expression dāar yīnní, 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 ...
À-Pū-zót-ȳ̄l dá à né ò sàam 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 zín̆'i-ø sōn̆sıd. And day:SG one and child:SG ART with 3AN father:sg sit CAT converse:IPFV. Kà bïig lā tí yह̀l ò sàam ȳ̄...
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.
Dāư dá bè_ Ø mōrí_o pư'à-yīmmír, kà pư'ā lā ý́
Man:SG TNS EXIST CAT have 3AN wife-single:sG and wife:SG ART say
う̄n pō lém bj̀วd yé ò sīd lā dí pư'ā yá'as̄ \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). 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 kà for foregrounding other elements:

M̀ zūgט_ø zábìd. "My head is hurting."
1SG head CAT fight:IPFV. (Reply to "Where is the pain?")

Gbīgím kà m̀ dāa n̆y \(\bar{\varepsilon}\).
"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 ànó'j̀n "who?" as subject even though it remains in situ before the verb.

Fò bj́j̀d bó +ø? "What do you want?"
2SG want what CQ?

Bó kà fò n̆yz̄tá \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ? "What can you see?"
What and 2sG see:IPFv cq?

Ànכ́'วnì_ø kū búg lā \(+\varnothing\) ?
Who CAT kill donkey:SG ART CQ?
"Who has killed the donkey?"

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

Mām bé n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) m \(\bar{\partial}\) gov-n. \(\quad\) I'm in the bush." BNY p8
1SG.CNTR EXIST FOC grass:SG-LOC.

Mכ̄əgú-n kà mām bé. "I'm in the bush." BNY p10 (kà required) Grass:sG-Loc and 1SG.CNTR ExIST.

\section*{Morphophonemics}

\section*{2 Preliminaries}

\subsection*{2.1 Rule order}

Agolle vowel breaking 4.2 belongs to the basic phonological structure.
Consonant assimilation/epenthetic-vowel insertion 6.2 precedes
\(* g\)-deletion/vowel fusion 6.3 and vowel fronting/rounding 6.4 , which do not need to be ordered with respect to each other, but must both precede apocope 2.4.

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 8.4 and the tonal effects of prosodic clitics 8.1 and liaison enclitics \(\underline{8.2 .2}\) precede M spreading 8.3 , which precedes toneme delinking 5.2 .

\subsection*{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 \(I_{\bar{a}}{ }^{+}\). In this grammar the term clitic word includes every minimal bound form other than a flexion that is meaningful at a level higher than the derivational; the distinction between clitics and flexions is made along the lines suggested in Zwicky and Pullum 1983. This grants clitic status to the article, to the bound pronouns and particles seen in the VP, NP, AdvP and clause, and also to the open class of noun and adjective combining forms, but denies it to prefixes.

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

All other words are particles. Most particles are bound words; exceptions include \(\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon \check{n}\) "yes" and áyı̀ı "no." Particles include the article \(\overline{I a}^{+/}\)and the deictic n̆wà+ "this", the locative marker \(n \bar{\iota}^{+/} \sim n^{\varepsilon}\), the prepositions \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) "with" and wōv "like", preverbs and markers of tense, aspect and mood in VPs, the focus particle \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\), the clause linkers kà and \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\), nominaliser-ǹ, catenator-n, VP-final nā+/ "hither" and sà \({ }^{+}\) "hence", and some clause adjuncts and emphatics.

\subsection*{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 \(k k p p t t \eta\) ク, so that e.g. sú'өŋ SF "rabbit" has three morae, while the LF sú'өŋā has four. Vocalic morae are the domain of tone, but not all vocalic morae bear a toneme 5.2.

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 nū-áa "hen."

Word stress falls on the root, except before a prosodic clitic 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 mè "build (pfv)" מט̀ "donkey" כ̄n "he/she." Monosyllables with a long vowel, like mèzd "build (ipfv)" do have intrinsic stress.

Before pause, all intrinsically unstressed words acquire stress, including clitics like the article \(\overline{l a}^{+/}\). Even a liaison enclitic \(\underline{8.2}\) 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 \(\underline{5.1}\).

In a few cases stress has shifted from a root to an original epenthetic vowel, with the root being reinterpreted as a prefix:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline & ditún \({ }^{\text {² }}\) & ['dit:ชท] \\
\hline & dàtiun \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & [da'thıท \(]\) \\
\hline & \(b u ̄ t ı \square^{\text {a }}\) & ['but:In] \\
\hline pl & \(b u ̄ t u s^{\varepsilon}\) & [bv'thi \({ }^{\text {a }}\) ] \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
"right hand", probably a derivative of \(d i^{+}\)"eat" "right hand"
"cup" (instrument noun from
bòd \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "plant seeds", but now "cup" in general)
wholly exceptional apparent lengthening of an epenthetic vowel 6.2 via reanalysis of the sg as prefix \(b \bar{u}+\) stem \(t \bar{\eta} \eta^{a}\)

\subsection*{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 biig in isolation and in most contexts, including clause finally for the most part, and clause medially everywhere except when followed by a particular set of "liaison words" 8.2 :
```

O dāa n̆yē bïig. "She saw a child."
3ANTNS see child:sg.
bïig I\overline{ loú'ùg "the child's hand"}
child:SG ART hand:SG

```

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

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

Ò kā' bïiga \({ }^{+} \varnothing . \quad\) "He/she is not a child."
3AN NEG.be child:SG NEG.

Ò dāa p̄̄ n̆y \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) bïiga \(\quad+\varnothing\). "He/she did not see a child."
3AN TNS NEG.IND see child:SG NEG.

Ànó'כnì_ø dāa n̆ȳ biigà \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
Who CAT TNS see child:Sg cQ?
"Who saw a child?"
\(\dot{M}\) bïiga \(+\varnothing!\quad\) "My child!"
1SG child:SG voc!

The Long Form also appears as a derivational feature in the citation form of some words 6.6. Direct commands sometimes end in a LF 22.1.3.

The LF appears in a modified form before liaison, with LF final short vowels losing all contrasts of quality 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 מף become \(k t p\) b but are written single in any case 1.3)
Word-final \(y\) becomes e after back vowels and zero elsewhere

Shortening of final diphthongs by apocope (changes apply identically to nasalised and/or glottalised diphthongs):
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ia } \rightarrow \text { ia ua } \rightarrow \text { una ia'a } \rightarrow i a^{\prime} \quad \text { u'aa } \rightarrow \text { un'a }^{\prime} \\
& \text { ae } \rightarrow \text { ae av } \rightarrow \text { au } u i \rightarrow u i \\
& \text { Vaa } \rightarrow \text { Va Vee } \rightarrow \text { Ve Vov } \rightarrow \text { Vu }
\end{aligned}
\]

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

Examples:

Lì à n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) kūk. "It's a chair."
3INAN COP FOC chair:SG.

Kūk lā bódìg yā. "The chair has got lost."
Chair:SG ART get.lost pFV.

Lì kā' kūka. \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "It's not a chair."
3INAN NEG.BE chair:SG NEG.

Lì à nē kúkàa \({ }^{+}\)? ? "Is it a chair?"
3INAN COP FOC chair:SG PQ?
```

Ànó'כnì_\varnothing n̆y\varepsilon\overline{ kúkà +\varnothing? "Who saw a chair?"}
Who cat see chair:Sg cQ?

```

Similarly, with the same frames (also using ò 3AN "he/she", bà 3PL "they"):

Lì à nē dūk.
Dūk lā bódìg yā.
Lì kā' dūkó.
Lì à nē dūkóv?
Àn'́'כnì n̆yē dōkó?

Lì à \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) gbīgım.
Lì kā' gbīgımne.
Lì à nē gbígìmnes?
Ànכ́'כnì ňy \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) gbígìmne?

Lì à n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) yáarìm.
Lì kā' yáarīmm.
Lì à nē yáarìmm?
Àn'́'כnì ňy \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) yáarìmm?

Bà à n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) gbīgıma.
Bà kā' gbīgımaa.
Bà à nē gbígımàa?
Ànó'כnì n̆yē gbígımà?

Ò à nē dāu.
Ò kā' dāo.
Ò à nē dávò?
Ànว́'כnì n̆yē dáv?

Ò à \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) sāęn̆.
Ò kā' sāen̆.
Ò à n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) sáèen̆?
Ànó'כnì ňy \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) sáeň?

Lì à nē múí.
Lì kā múi.
Lì à \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) múiii?
Ànó'כnì n̆yē múi?
"It's a cooking pot."
"The pot's got lost."
"It's not a pot." /kk/
"Is it a pot?"
"Who saw a pot?"
"It's a lion."
"It's not a lion."
"Is it a lion?"
"Who saw a lion?"
"It's salt."
"It's not salt."
"Is it salt?"
"Who saw salt?"
"They're lions."
"They're not lions."
"Are they lions?"
"Who saw lions?"
"He's a man."
"He's not a man."
"Is he a man?"
"Who saw a man?"
"He's a blacksmith."
"He's not a blacksmith."
"Is he a blacksmith?"
"Who saw a blacksmith?"
"It's rice."
"It's not rice."
"Is it rice?"
"Who saw rice?"

Kà ò siáák.
And 3AN agree.

Ò pū síák \(\bar{\varepsilon}{ }^{+} \varnothing . \quad\) "He didn't agree."
3AN NEG.IND agree neg.

Kà ò dīgı. "And she's lying down."
And 3an be.lying.

Ò pū dīglyá \({ }^{+} \varnothing . \quad\) "She isn't lying down."
3AN NEG.IND be.lying neg.

Kà ò vōe.
Ò pū vōyá.

Kà ò kūā.
Ò pū kūa.

Kà ò Kiá.
Ò pū kía.

Kà ò pāe.
Ò pū pāée.
"And he agreed."
"And she's alive."
"She's not alive."
"And he farmed."
"He hasn't farmed."
"And she cut (it)."
"She hasn't cut (it)."
"And he reached (it)."
"He hasn't reached (it)."

The derivational type of Long Form appears in many adverbs and quantifiers. Thus with the adjective bèdvg "big" and the adverb bèdvgū "a lot":

Lì à nē būn-bédùg. "It's a big thing."
3INAN COP FOC thing-big:SG.

Lì kā' bōn-bédugう̄ \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "It's not a big thing."
3INAN NEG.be thing-big:SG NEG.
\(\grave{M}\) púvòs yā bédugū. "Thank you very much."
1sG greet pFV much.

\subsection*{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 8.2, and clause-finally before prosodic clitics 8.1 , which have no segmental form of their own but cause the preceding word to appear as a LF rather than the default SF. Derivational LF types are taken as showing apocope-blocking 6.6. 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 LFfinal short \(-\iota-\nu\) as \(-\varepsilon-כ, *-m \nu^{*}-m \iota\) as \(-m m-m m\) and \(-i ə-u \theta\) as -ia -ua 4.2, 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.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline biig \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "child" & \(k \bar{u} k^{\text {a }}\) & "chair" \\
\hline dūk \({ }^{\text {J }}\) & "pot" & siàk \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "agree" \\
\hline \(g b i g ı m{ }^{\text {n }}\) & "lion" & yàarım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "salt" \\
\hline dīgıya/ & "be lying down" & \(z i ' e^{\text {ya }}\) & "be standing" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

When the LF ends in a long vowel or diphthong, superscript notation writes the SF followed by the mark \({ }^{+}\):
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline gbīgıma+ & "lions" & SF gbīgıma & LF gbigımaa \\
\hline mう̀ı+ & "gazelles" & SF mうlı & LF mòlı \\
\hline gòñ \({ }^{+}\) & "hunt" & SF gòn̆ & LF gכ̄วn̆ \\
\hline tìeñ \({ }^{+}\) & "inform" & SF tien̆ & LF tièen̆ \\
\hline kià \({ }^{+}\) & "cut" & SF kià & LF kīa \\
\hline \(k u \bar{a}^{+}\) & "hoe" & SF kuā & LF kūa \\
\hline dāu \({ }^{+}\) & "man" & SF dāu & LF dāu \\
\hline sāeñ \({ }^{+}\) & "blacksmith" & SF sāeñ & LF sāen̆ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
(This use of \({ }^{+}\)exploits the extent to which LFs can be predicted from SFs 2.4.2. More radical simplifications could be made: \({ }^{+=}\)could all be taken as defaults, with \(-m\) defaulting to \(-m^{m}\), and \({ }^{\text {a }}\) used for \({ }^{\text {ya}}\).)

Superscript \({ }^{\mathrm{a}}\) is written after a vowel symbol in two cases.

Words ending in LF ia'a ứ \({ }^{\prime}\) aa are written with superscript \({ }^{\text {a }}\) rather than \({ }^{+}\)to distinguish them from words ending in LF i'a u'a:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & kpià' \({ }^{+}\) & "shape wood" & SF kpià \({ }^{\text {l }}\) & LF kpīa \\
\hline but & diā'a & "get dirty" & SF diā' & LF diā'a \\
\hline & kuā+ & "hoe" & SF kuā & LF kūa \\
\hline but & \(p u ' \bar{c}^{\text {a }}\) & "woman" & SF pu'ā & LF pu'āa \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Words with LFs in -ya where the SFs changes the word-final \(-y\) to -e are also written with superscript \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(v \bar{u} e^{\text {a/ }}\) & "be alive" & SF vōe & LF vōyá \\
\hline tōe \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "be bitter" & SF tōe & LF tōyá \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Words with segmentally identical SF and LF and are written with \({ }^{\text {F }}\) :
dà'a= "market"

In a few cases where superscript notation is impractical, the forms will be written out separately, e.g. pāmm SF pāmné 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 5.2 .1 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:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline fūug \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "shirt, clothes" & SF fūug & LF fūugó \\
\hline \(p a ̄ e^{+/}\) & "reach" & SF pāe & LF pāée \\
\hline nūa+/ & "hen" & SF nūa & LF nūáa \\
\hline \(y \bar{a}^{+/}\) & "houses" & SF yā & LF yáa \\
\hline \(1 \bar{a}^{+/}\) & (article) & SF Ia & LF láa \\
\hline bèdvg \({ }^{+/}\) & "a lot" & SF bèdugū & LF bèdugúv \\
\hline gāan̆=1 & "Nigerian ebony" & SF gāan̆ & LF gáan̆ \\
\hline dāam \({ }^{\text {m/ }}\) & "millet beer" & SF dāam & LF dáamm \\
\hline tāuñ \({ }^{+/}\) & "opposite-sex sib" & SF tāun̆ & LF távn̆ \\
\hline mうlı+ & "gazelles" & SF mう̀lı & LF mòlı \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Similarly, when the liaison enclitic \({ }^{0}\) "him/her" is attached to a perfective form ending in a root vowel, the first mora in the SF is delinked when a pitch rise would otherwise occur within the syllable: such forms are written with \(L F\) tones:
n̆y \(\bar{\varepsilon} \cdot o^{-0}\)
"see him/her"
SF n̆yદ́•o
LF n̆y \(\bar{\varepsilon} \cdot o ́-o\)

Note that \(k \bar{u} \cdot o^{=}=\)"kill him/her" represents the identical SF and LF kú•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:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline \multirow{3}{*}{but} & Lì kā' yáarīmm. & "It's not salt (yàarım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) )." \\
\hline & Li ká' ò tīımm. & "It's not her medicine \(\left(\leftarrow\right.\) tì \(\mathrm{m} m \mathrm{~m} \leftarrow\) tì \(\left.m^{\mathrm{m}}\right)\)." \\
\hline & Lì kā' tíımm. & "It's not medicine ( \(\leftarrow\) tílomm)." \\
\hline & Lì ká' bà dā'a. & "It's not their market ( \(\leftarrow\) dà'ā \(\leftarrow d\) dà \(\mathrm{a}^{=}\))." \\
\hline & Lì kā' dá'a. & "It's not a market ( \(\leftarrow\) dá'ā)." \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Tautosyllabic delinking causes words like náaf and nú'ùg \({ }^{\top}\) to coincide tonally in the LF only: such words are written in superscript notation with the SF tonemes.
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Lì kā' nú'uḡ̄ +ø. "It's not a hand." } \\
& \text { 3INAN NEG.BE hand:SG NEG. }
\end{aligned}
\]

Lì kā' náafj \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "It's not a cow."
3INAN NEG.be Cow:SG NEG.

\subsection*{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 9.1. Historically expected LFs have been systematically replaced in some cases by different LFs corresponding to the same SFs 9.3.1 9.3.2. 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 \(\varepsilon\) or \(\supset\); preceding SF-final \(m n\) or / may or may not be geminated; -m may become -mn- instead of -mm-. Even before liaison 8.2, where vowel quality is neutralised, the same issues arise with consonant clusters:
```

nw\varepsilonn\varepsilon tiname ket bane tummi ti taali [sic] basid si'em la.
w\varepsilon̄n n\overline{\varepsilon}}\mathrm{ tīnámì Ø két bánì tòmmī tí tàallì_ ø
resemble with 1PL NZ let:IPFV REL.PL work:IPFV 1PL fault:SG CAT
básìd si`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 kikīr-bé'દ̀d-nàm dáàmnī_ bá dāa ňyē láafiya
and reL.PL and fairy-bad-PL trouble:IPFV 3PL.OB TNS see health
"And people who were afflicted by evil spirits became well."
(Lk 6:18, 1976; KB: ka bane ka kikiris daamidi ba daa nyع laafi)

```

However, given whether a noun has human reference, it is usually possible to identify its noun class and thus the correct LF 9.1. Perfectives end in -mm if the the SF ends in \(-m\) and in \(-\varepsilon\) otherwise; imperfectives end in \(-a\) with gemination of preceding \(n / m\). Dual-aspect verb imperfectives with SFs ending in -m formerly had LFs in -mna, though not for my informants nor in KB:
...kà pū tómnā. "...and does not work." (2 Thess 3:11, 1996, written ka pu tum na 1.3.2; KB ka po tomma.)

The default LF ending corresponding to SFs ending in a consonant is \(-\varepsilon\). Thus with loans like tīlás \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "necessity", cf Hausa tiilàs id, and in e.g.

Li pu nar ye fu di fu ba'abiig po'a Herodiase.
Lì pū nār yé fù dí fò bā'-bîg pư'á Herodiase \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
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)

Pu'abi du'a sieba la wusa, sכ' kae gat Joon ne [sic 1.3.2].
Pū'abí ø dư'à sīəba lā wūsa, sכ̄' kā'e_ Ø gát Joone \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
Woman:PL nz bear indf.plart 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 ia ia', short \(\iota\), or a fronting diphthong, and many that do:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline sīa+ & "waist" & sàbùa+ & "girlfriend" \\
\hline bāa= & "dog" 8.1 & \(p a ̄ e^{+/}\) & "reach" \\
\hline nie \({ }^{+}\) & "appear" & dūe \({ }^{+/}\) & "raise/rise" \\
\hline kügá+ & "stones" & widı \({ }^{+}\) & "horses" \\
\hline \(k \bar{u}^{+}\) & "kill" & mà \({ }^{+}\) & "mother" \\
\hline bèdugū+/ & "a lot" & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

This applies also in cases where a LF long vowel is historically unexpected:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline diā'a & "get dirty" & \(\leftarrow *\) diagı & Farefare & dêgè \\
\hline du'à \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "bear, beget" & \(\leftarrow\) *duagı & Farefare & dう̀gè \\
\hline \(z{ }^{+}\) & "run" & & Farefare & zòè \\
\hline dāư \({ }^{+}\)LF dão & "man" & \(\leftarrow\) *dawa & Mooré & ráoa \\
\hline tāuñ \({ }^{+/}\)LF távn̆ & "opposite-sex sib" & \(\leftarrow\) *tãwa & Mooré & tãoa \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

A marginal exception to predictability is the fact that words ending in ia' may have LFs in ia'a like diā'a "get dirty" or in i'a like kpià'+ "shape wood with an axe."

The major exception is SFs ending in a fronting diphthong or short \(\iota\), where the LF may either prolong the diphthong or add -ya. Two nouns have variant sg LFs:
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
sāen n̄ĕ & "blacksmith" & LF sāen̆ or sān̆ya \\
sjeñ & "witch" & LF sj̄en̆ or sכ̄ňya
\end{tabular}

All other cases involve single-aspect verbs 11.2 , where LF -ya is regular except for a handful of bare root forms:
\[
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { dīgıya/ } & \text { "be lying down" } & \text { wà'ey } & \text { "be en route for" } \\
v \bar{u} e^{\text {a/ }} & \text { "be alive" } & \text { sū'e } e^{y a /} & \text { "own" }
\end{array}
\]

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

\section*{3 Consonants}

\subsection*{3.1 Inventory and symbols}

The following consonant symbols are used:
\begin{tabular}{llllll}
\(k\) & \(t\) & \(p\) & \(k p\) & & \\
\(g\) & \(d\) & \(b\) & \(g b\) & & \\
\(\eta\) & \(n\) & \(m\) & & & \\
& \(s\) & & & \(f\) & \\
& \(z\) & & & \(v\) & \\
\(l\) & & & & \\
& \(r\) & & & & \\
& & & \(w\) & & \(y\)
\end{tabular}

These symbols correspond to the consonant phonemes of the language, except that \(k p g b\) are digraphs for the labiovelar double-closure stops [ \(\widehat{k p}\) ] [ \(\widehat{g b}\) ]. The symbols stand for values like the corresponding IPA symbols, except as discussed below.
\(t d n s z l r\) represent alveolars in general, but \(s z\) are often dental, and even interdental for some speakers. Before \(u, s\) and \(z\) are sometimes heard as [ [] [3]. The consonant \(/\) is never velarised. For other variants of \(s r\) see below.
\(k\) tp represent \(\left[k^{h}\right]\left[\mathrm{t}^{\mathrm{h}}\right]\left[\mathrm{p}^{\mathrm{h}}\right]\) 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 \(k t p .^{3}\)
\(k g \eta \quad\) The symbol \(\eta\) is realised [ \(\eta\) ] word-finally and [ \(\eta:\) :] elsewhere. Original * \(\eta\), preserved in related languages, has disappeared in all positions, and existing Kusaal \(\eta\) is always the result of the cluster assimilations *mg *ng \(\rightarrow \eta\) with simplification to \(\eta\) word-finally.

\footnotetext{
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 \(k t p, \eta\) is realised single except in very slow speech, and is written with single \(\eta\).
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:
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
tóklàe \({ }^{+}\) & "torch" & \(\leftarrow\) English "torchlight" \\
sógiàa \(^{\text {a }}\) & "soldier" & (probably via Hausa soojà)
\end{tabular}

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 \(\nu\) velars are pronounced further back, with some speakers even as uvulars:
kj̀bıgā= "hundred" [qwhəbiga]

Underlying \({ }^{*} g\) is deleted after short oral or nasal a ia ua, which become glottalised, and also after aa iə uө aan̆ عहn̆ ככn̆ and their glottalised counterparts unless it stands before a rounded vowel; diphthongs may result 6.3. The effect of this \({ }^{*} g\) is still apparent in stem tone patterns 7.2.1.1.
are labiodental fricatives, found only word initially, after prefixes, and in the noun class suffix \(-f\) :
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
fūfūm \\
náaf & "envy"
\end{tabular}
is only found word initially and after prefixes.
is often realised as [h] word-internally. It sometimes represents \(h\) in loanwords:
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
Àláasìd (dáar \(\left.{ }^{\varepsilon}\right)\) & "Sunday" & \(\leftarrow\) Hausa Lahàdì \((\leftarrow\) Arabic) \\
Dàsmáanì & عبد الرحمن & ¢Abdu-r-Raћma:n(i)
\end{tabular}
\(h \quad\) as a phoneme \(h\) itself is marginal, occurring only syllable-initially in loanwords; however these include the very common word hālí+ "as far as." In the personal name Dàhamáani \({ }^{+}\)عبد الرحمن YAbdu-r-Raћma:n(i) there is alternation with -s- but particular individuals with the name seem to choose one alternant only.
\(d\)
as a word-initial is frequently realised as a flapped [r] when the preceding word in a phrase ends in a vowel (including glottalised vowels); within compounds this is invariable:
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
& n̄̄-dáv̀g & "cock" & [nэravg] \\
& nā'-dáàd \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "oxen" & [nara:d] \\
but & wìd-dāog & "stallion" & [wid:avg]
\end{tabular}

In rapid speech non-initial \(d\) may also resemble [r], but there are minimal and near-minimal pairs following root and epenthetic vowels:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline غ̀n̆dıg \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "unplug" \\
\hline غ̀n̆rıg \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "shift along" \\
\hline \(m \bar{d}{ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "swell" \\
\hline m亏̄r \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "have" \\
\hline yàad \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "graves" \\
\hline yāar \({ }^{\text {c/ }}\) & "scatter" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
tīráàna & "neighbour" \\
àrazàk \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "riches" \\
àrazánà & \\
& "heaven"
\end{tabular}

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 1 st sg pronoun "I, my." It shows no tendency to assimilate its position of articulation to following consonants when it is syllabic. Following unstressed l-vowels can be absorbed because of the potentially syllabic character of \(m\) :
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
Gj̀sımī m! & "Look at me!" \\
Gj̀sīm. & "Look at me!" contrasting with \\
Gj̀sım! & "Look!" \\
Gj̀sımí fù nú'ùg! & "Look at your hand!" \\
Gj̀sím fù nú'ùg! & id
\end{tabular}
\(m\) is unique in that it can form the word-final cluster \(m m\) [m:], which appears chiefly in LFs but also in some forms with derivational apocope-blocking 6.6. like the SF pāmm "a lot." The cluster patterns in many ways as if the second \(m\) were syllabic, but it is currently consonantal, and in particular cannot bear a toneme 8.1.
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 \(\grave{n}\) are syllabic [ñ] for some speakers, but my informants have consonantal, denasalised or zero reflexes instead.

Unlike word- and root-initial \(k t p\), the voiceless \(k p\) is not aspirated. \(k p g b\) occur only word-initially and after prefixes, and then only before unrounded vowels, except for some speakers who preserve them in reduplication-prefixes like kpùkpàrıga "palm tree" where other speakers have kùkpàrıga 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.
\begin{tabular}{lllll} 
kūm \\
m & "death" & cf \(k\) kì \(^{+}\) & "die" & \\
kpàkūr & "bones" & cf Gurmanche & kpábá & id \\
& "tortoise" & cf Dagbani & kpàkpílí & id
\end{tabular}

In loanwords \(k p g b\) are used for the Hausa labialised velars \(k w ~ g w:\)
\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { bákpàè }^{+} & \text {"week" } \leftarrow \text { Hausa bakwài "seven" } \\
& \text { (also "week" in Gaanancii Hausa) }
\end{array}
\]
\(y w \quad\) are respectively voiced palatal and labiovelar approximants. They are strongly nasalised before nasalised vowels, and are then written \(\check{n} y \check{n} w\) with no further nasalisation marking on the vowel:
\begin{tabular}{lll}
\(\check{n y} \bar{\varepsilon}^{+}\) & "see" & [j̃̃̃] \\
\(\check{n} w a \bar{d} \iota^{\text {a/ }}\) & "moon" & [w̃ãdıg] \\
\(\check{n} w \dot{\varepsilon}^{\prime+}\) & "beat" & {\([\tilde{w} \tilde{\tilde{\varepsilon}}]\)}
\end{tabular}

Word-initial y w followed by contrastive nasalisation reflect earlier initial \(\int \overparen{\square m}\) respectively, and similarly word-initial contrastively nasalised vowels are historically derived from initial \(\eta\) :
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline Dagbani & Kusaal & \\
\hline jarin & àn̆rop \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "boat" \\
\hline nyá [na] & \(\check{n} y \bar{\varepsilon}^{+}\) & "see" \\
\hline ทme [fme] & n̆wغ̇' \({ }^{+}\) & "beat" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Mooré shows the same developments as Kusaal. Niggli 2012 reports that some Toende speakers still have consonantal [n] [ \(\int \mathrm{ym}\) ] phonetically in these cases, although he regards these as allophones of \(y w\) before nasalised vowels. Before \(\iota / i\) original \(n\) has often become \(n\) 8.2.3.
\(y w\) occur only syllable-initially. They are in complementary distribution with the the glides \(i / e\) and \(u\) respectively, which do not form syllable boundaries 4.5. When apocope leaves \(-y\) - as word-final after a short back vowel, it is replaced by e, producing a short fronting diphthong 6.4.

Consonantal \(w\) occurs only root-initially, i.e. word-initially and after prefixes: wìəf "horse", dàwānn \({ }^{\mathrm{n} \varepsilon /}\) "pigeon", but consonantal \(y\) occurs root-initially (yáanª "grandchild", dàyūugว/ "rat"), and also word-medially before the vowel a: nכ̄yá+ "mouths."

\subsection*{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-bíla
"star"

```

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

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 [ \(\mathrm{\eta}\) ].
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline Kùndùn \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "jackal" & \\
\hline gōmpūzēr \({ }^{\text {E/ }}\) & "duck" & \\
\hline dànk̇̀ \({ }^{\text {² }}\) & "measles" & [dank \({ }^{\text {h}}\) ¢ \({ }^{\text {b }}\) \\
\hline zùnzว̀ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "blind" & [zoŋzวŋ] \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Loanwords may include clusters not found elsewhere.
bùrkìn \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "honourable/free/honest person"

Apart from this, the only word-internal clusters permitted are \(k k\) tt pp \(n n\) \(m m \| m n\). Of these \(k k t t p p\) מף are only realised as geminates in very slow speech, and are written as single \(k t p \eta\); nevertheless intervocalic \(k t p \eta\) always pattern as clusters not only structurally but in toneme allocation and realisation 5.2.2 7.2.1 7.3.1.

Gemination of \(m m n n / /\) before LF affix vowels is clearly audible, even where the LF-final vowel has been downranked before liaison 8.2; the audio version of the 1996 NT for example provides numerous examples of d̄̄ll•ó "follow him" (written
dol o) clearly read as [dכl:v]. It is harder to hear length contrasts with mm nn II 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, \(m n\), is unstable. Some speakers replace it entirely with mm . All my informants show mm in place of mn in dual-aspect verb imperfectives:
\[
\text { kàrım }{ }^{\mathrm{m}} \quad \text { "read" } \quad \rightarrow \quad \text { kàrım } \mathrm{ma} \quad \text { cf Dagbani karimda }
\]

There are a few examples of \(m n\) in the NT prior to 2016:
ka ba li' ba toba ka pu wum na [sic 1.3.2]
kà bà lí bà tùba kà pū wómnā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
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 kikīr-bé'z̀d-nàm dáàmnī bá dāa n̆ȳ̄ 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 \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)class \(m\)-stems:
\begin{tabular}{lllll} 
gbīgım \\
ne & SB & gbīgım \\
dūm \(m^{\mathrm{n} \varepsilon}\) & SB & WK & "lion" \\
dūm \(^{\mathrm{m} \varepsilon}\) & WK & "knee"
\end{tabular}

Exceptionally with \(-n n\) - for \(-m n\) - and a plural remodelled on the singular:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline n̆wān \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) & SB & pl n̆wāna+ (Lk 11:39, 1976) "calabash" \\
\hline n̆wām \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & WK & pl n̆wāma \({ }^{+}\)SB WK \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Cf 1976 NT kobkennib = kj̀n̆b-kı̄mmıba \({ }^{\mathrm{a}} \leftarrow k\) к̃̃b-kımdıba "herdsmen."
There is variation also with the agent nouns of \(m\)-stem verbs:
pe'es bane ka' konbkemma
\(p \bar{'} \varepsilon s\) bánì kā' kóňb-kīmma \({ }^{+} \varnothing\)
sheep:PL ReL.PL NEG.be animal-tender:SG neg
"sheep without a shepherd" (Mt 9:36, 1996)
\(m\) naan \(k u\) aan Kiristo tumtum na [sic 1.3.2]. m̀ nāan kú āa-n Kiristo túm-tūmna \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
1sg then neg.IRr cop-dp Christ work-worker:sg neg.
"I would not have been Christ's servant." (Gal 1:10, 1996; KB tomtomma)

The plurals usually show -mn-:

O tomtumnib pii ne ayi' la yoda nwa.
Ơ tùm-tūmnıb pīi né àyí lā yódà \(\varnothing\) n̆wà.
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 \(-m m\) - before epenthetic vowels:
būn-túmmìr \({ }^{\varepsilon} \quad\) "useful thing"; plural tōmna+ is cited by some informants.
bù-sān̆'ammır \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "goat for destruction, scapegoat" WK

The great majority of cases -mn- within words precede front vowels; compare focus-n \(\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\), corresponding to me in Toende Kusaal, Mooré etc 28.1.2.
KB has no word-internal or word-final -mna- or -mne- at all; all examples so written involve separate words by the criteria of this grammar. Word-internal -mni- is common, however, in plurals like tomtomnib = tòm-tōmnıb "servants."

The consonants \(r f s\) are sometimes shown by Tone Pattern allocation rules to reflect underlying clusters 7.2.1.1, but unlike \(k t p \eta\) they are never actually realised as geminates.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline tīntōn̆ríg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "mole" (animal) & \(\leftarrow *\) tīntōñrrígā \\
\hline píln̆f & "genet" & \(\leftarrow\) *piónfō \\
\hline níis \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "birds" & \(\leftarrow\) *niínsī \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Morphophonemic considerations also sometimes suggest that \(r s\) are simplified from clusters. The agent nouns sj̀s \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "beggar" and tìs "giver" drop the formant - \(d\) - in the sg and have Tone Pattern L like 3-mora stems 9.3.1. The Pattern H verbs gj̄s \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "look", sj̄n̆s \(s^{\varepsilon}\) "converse", kīr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "hurry" make Pattern HL gerunds 7.2.1.2, perhaps as a result of historical mora loss.

\section*{4 Vowels}

\subsection*{4.1 Inventory and symbols}

Agolle Kusaal has a basic seven-vowel system /a/ / / / \(/ / \mathrm{li/} / \mathrm{u} / \mathrm{I} / / \mathrm{l} /\), written by default as a \(\varepsilon\) ว iuıv respectively. See 1.3 for the orthographic conventions for the use of \(e \circ\) in place of \(\iota \cup\) for \(/ \mathrm{I} / / \tau /\), the symbols \(\check{n}\) and ' marking nasalisation and glottalisation, the glide symbols e \(i \underset{\sim}{u}\) and the representation of long vowels.

Long vowels contrast with short vowels in length, but not quality.
The vowel ( is more central after velars and labials, and \(v\) is slightly more fronted after alveolars and \(y ; u\) is noticeably fronted after alveolar consonants, which may then even be realised as palato-alveolars. This is particularly common with \(z\) : [3yg] for zūg "head" 3.1. The glide symbols ei both represent /I/, but in ui and in the monophthong \(i e\) the realisation of \(i\) is as [i]. The symbol \(u\) always represents [ṽ].
ia una iə uө are phonemic monophthongs but are realised as written: [Ĩa] [ṽa] [iə] [ue]. Before \(y\) word-internally, ia ua are realised [iir] [ṽr] and written ie ue. The orthography of this grammar follows tradition in representing these segments according to their phonetic realisation, but the symbols are digraphs representing monophthongs 4.2. The letters \(\partial \theta\) 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 e/i u contrast with \(y w\) in not forming syllable boundaries or consonant clusters, either as components of the digraphs ia ua representing single short vowel phonemes, or as the final components of short diphthongs:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline biāuñ̆ \({ }^{\text {² }}\) & [bİãơk] & "shoulder" & CVC \\
\hline buà \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & [bũak] & "split" & CVC \\
\hline dāu \({ }^{+}\) & [daṽ] & "man" & CV \\
\hline gbàun & [gbaṽ] & "book" & CVC \\
\hline sj̄eñ & [sว๊̃̃] & "blacksmith" SF & CV \\
\hline tje & [ \(\mathrm{th}^{\text {TI }}\) ] & "be bitter" SF & CV \\
\hline mùi \({ }^{+}\) & [mũi] & "rice" & CVCV \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Word-final -Ve -Vī -Vū behave exactly like word-final short root vowels in being followed by [?] before pause in statements 4.4:

Ò à \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) dāu. [vanعdaṽ?ָ] "He is a man"

Word-initial ya [ja] contrasts with \(\underset{\sim}{i} a\) [ĩa] in the tenseness of the semivowel, and probably in timing features; the contrast is not [?ja] ~ [ja].
\begin{tabular}{lll}
\(i \bar{a}^{+}\) & {\([\mathrm{I} a]\)} & "seek" \\
\(y \bar{a}^{+/}\) & {\([j a]\)} & "houses"
\end{tabular}

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/ura.

There are great differences in the range of vowel contrasts possible in different positions within a full word. Correlation with stress 2.3 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 \(\iota v\) but like root vowels also distinguish length. Epenthetic vowels contrast only short \(\iota v\).

Even in roots, there are few minimal pairs for the contrasts \(i / u u / v\) in short vowels, except when shortened by apocope from long ii/u uu/vv, where the tenseness contrast is robust. Minimal pairs include
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
lidıg \\
sībıg
\end{tabular} & "astonish, be amazed" antelope species KED & \begin{tabular}{l}
lidıg \\
sïbıg
\end{tabular} & "turn a shirt" WK "termite" \\
\hline bòl & "astonish" & bùl & "germinate" \\
\hline òk & "vomit" & ūk & "bloat" \\
\hline \(b \bar{n}\) & "thing" & bùn & "germinate" ipfv \\
\hline kūdug & "old" & kūdvg & "piece of iron" \\
\hline kūg-Kánā & "this mahogany tree" & kūg-kánā & "this stone" \\
\hline tūlıg & "heat up" & tùlıg & "invert" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{4.2 Agolle vowel breaking}

The sequences iə uө, 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 6.4 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

\begin{tabular}{lll} 
Toende & Agolle & \\
\(s \bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon} s\) & \(s \bar{\partial} \partial s^{\varepsilon}\) & "waists" \\
\(p \bar{'} \bar{e} s\) & \(p \bar{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \varepsilon s^{\varepsilon /}\) & "sheep" pl \\
\(b\) '́'כs & \(b u \bar{'} \theta s^{\varepsilon /}\) & "ask" \\
tōom & \(t \bar{\partial} כ m^{\mathrm{m} /}\) & "depart, disappear"
\end{tabular}

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

bj̀̀t bj̀วda "want, wish" (Mooré bàoda)

```

There are gaps in the distribution of Agolle \(\varepsilon\) ฉ probably connected with their diphthongal origins; some occurrences seem to be due to levelling within \(g^{\supset} \mid d^{\varepsilon}\) class paradigms 9.2.1. Short \(\varepsilon \supset\) do not contrast underlyingly with ia ua (see below.)
\(i ə u \theta\) may only occur word-finally through loss of fronting in word-final ie ue by phrase-internal sandhi 8.5.2:
\[
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { pī̀́ } t i^{+/} & \text {"wash us" } & \text { (pīe }{ }^{+/} \text {"wash") } \\
\text { dūé } t \bar{\imath}+/ & \text { "raise us" } & \text { (dū } e^{+/ " r a i s e ") ~}
\end{array}
\]

Word-final iz ue diphthongise to ia ua before prosodic clitics, but not liaison:
\begin{tabular}{llllll} 
LF & kīa & "cut" pfv & [khia] & cf \(k i ̀ ə d^{a}\) & ipfv \\
LF & kūa & "hoe" pfv & {\(\left[k^{\text {hua }}\right]\)} & cf \(k u \bar{\theta} d^{a /}\) & ipfv
\end{tabular}

Nasalised iən̆ uөn̆, including after m n 4.3, occur only in the inflexion and gerund formation of fusion verbs 6.3. In all other contexts iən̆ uөn̆ and \(\varepsilon \varepsilon n ̆ ~ כ כ \check{~ h a v e ~}\) fallen together. The vowels were distinct historically: compare nכ̄כr "times" (Mooré náooré) with nכ̄כr "mouth" (Mooré nóorè) 16.4.2.4.

These, too, pattern as simple vowels throughout: síà \(k^{\varepsilon}\) "agree" and buà \(k^{\varepsilon}\) "split" do not violate the constraint that full words begin with at most one consonant.

Apocope shortens final iə ue to ia una:
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
kià & "cut" & SF of \(k \bar{a} a\) \\
kūā & "hoe" & SF of \(k u ̄ a\)
\end{tabular}

Short \(\varepsilon \supset\) replace ía ưa everywhere else, except before \(k\) and underlying \(* g\), which is deleted, with vowel glottalisation and fusion 6.3. Almost all short \(\varepsilon \supset\) are either of this origin, or derive from apocope of \(\varepsilon\). ככ. Bj̀ \({ }^{\text {J }}\) "pit" contrasting with bunàk \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "split" is due to the rounding change *uakku \(\rightarrow\) วKkv \(\underline{6.4}\), while \(t \bar{\varepsilon} k^{\varepsilon /}\) "pull",
contrasting with tià \(k^{\varepsilon}\) "change" is due to shortening of a long vowel before an original plosive cluster *t \(\epsilon \varepsilon k k \iota\) 6.5. Presumably \(n \bar{\jmath} k^{\varepsilon /}\) "pick up" is similarly derived by shortening of *nככkkı; Toende Kusaal has nj̀k, with a variant form \(n\) (for *n'כ'כg.) ie ue [ir] [ひ̃r] appear in place of ia ua before - \(y-\), which can occur only in the context of \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)class plurals of nouns and adjectives with stems in io and ue 6.1.1.1:
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
bīər & "elder same-sex sib" & pl biēēyá & \\
sūөr & "road" & pl sūēyá & KB suoya 1.3.2
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{4.3 Nasalisation}

Contrastive nasalisation is confined to root vowels. It is marked with \(\check{n}\) in the orthography of this grammar 1.3. It often represents originally automatic nasalisation after \({ }^{*} \eta{ }^{*} \boldsymbol{*}\) * \(\overparen{\eta m}\), or arises before underlying *ns *nf 6.2 .

Short in̆ un̆ are laxer than oral \(i u\), but there are no contrasting short *ı̆̆ *un̆. In all but one case, short in̆ un̆ arise from apocope of iin̆ uun̆:
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
siīn̆f & "bee" & cb sin̆- \\
zùun̆g & & "vulture"
\end{tabular}

The only remaining case is sūñff/ "heart" pl sūn̆yá+ cb sūn̆-; the vowel of this word is consistently written on in KB.

Nasalisation is automatic on long vowels preceded by a nasal consonant:
\(m e ̀ \varepsilon d^{a}\) "build" ipfv [mẽ:d]

Long \(ル\) In von̆ contrasting with iin̆ uun̆ appear exclusively from the change of *nf *ns to \(f s\) with nasalisation of the preceding vowel 6.2:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multirow{3}{*}{but} & níi \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "bird" & \multirow{3}{*}{pl pīıní \({ }^{+}\)} \\
\hline & píln̆f & "genet" & \\
\hline & zùun̆d \(^{\varepsilon}\) & "vultures" & \\
\hline but & zóvn̆f & "dawadawa seed" & pl zūoní+ \\
\hline & tèn-zùun̆s \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "foreign lands" & sg tèn-zùn \({ }^{\text {a }}\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Nasalised іəй иөй occur only in fusion verbs 6.3.

\subsection*{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 ' 1.3.

Glottalisation may be realised as a creaky-voiced glottal approximant [? 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 \(d \underline{3.1}\) occurs after \(V^{\prime}\) 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 ia una \(\underline{6.3}\) does not differ phonetically from other types.

Tonal considerations confirm that ' is not a consonant. Thus
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline & Lì kā' mólıfó. & "It's not a gazelle." \\
\hline but & Lì kā' \(\downarrow\) nú'ugう. & "It's not a hand." \\
\hline like & Lì kā' \(\downarrow\) tíıgā. & "It's not a tree." \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
differ in whether the \(H\) toneme is realised with a preceding downstep, because the sequence -lı- in mólıfj is a separate unstressed syllable preceding the final stress on -fj, whereas the ' in nú'uḡ̄ is not a consonant and does not begin a syllable \(\underline{5.1}\).

An unwritten [?] ] follows short vowels and diphthongs ending statements and commands, but not questions. Phrase-final dāu "man", for example, is realised [daण్থ?]. Before this [?], vowel glottalisation is lost:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
Kà bà gēn̆. & "and they got tired" \\
Kà bà \(g \bar{\varepsilon} n{ }^{\prime}\) '. & "and they got angry"
\end{tabular}
but Bà gèn̆n̄. \(\quad\) "they're tired" 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:
 Nabit kpa'uŋ; nう̄-n̆yá'à \(\eta^{a}\) "hen", Nabit nכnya'aŋ.

Nawdm, too, has P in many words with Kusaal cognates showing glottalised vowels, e.g. mì-tâp "three" (in counting) = Kusaal ntán̆'; núpú "arm, hand" = nú'ùg³; rápḿ "bile" = Kusaal yā'am \({ }^{m /}\) (WK), Farefare yá'ám. Vowel glottalisation is thus clearly inherited from Oti-Volta.

Glottalised short vowels are almost all the result of apocope. Besides kā'e \({ }^{+}\)"not be" ( \(\leftarrow *\) kagı ) all other cases precede \(m\) or \(\eta\) in closed syllables in some words for some informants. The vowels are written as if long in KB.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(k p{ }^{\prime} \eta^{\varepsilon}\) & ＂strengthen＂ & Iā＇ク凩 & ＂set alight＂ \\
\hline ni＇m \({ }^{\text {ne／}}\) & ＂meat＂ & \(k う . m\) m／ & ＂hunger＂ \\
\hline sò＇クā＋ & ＂well＂ & \(s\) ċ＇\(^{\prime}{ }^{m}\) & ＂goodness＂ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The adjective sùn \(\eta^{\text {（ }} \mathrm{pl}\) sùma \({ }^{+}\)）＂good＂itself never has a glottalisation mark． Toende Kusaal，Farefare，Nabit and Talni lack this phenomenon．It has probably arisen from gemination of \(m \eta\) ；KB has 385 examples of an sum to 47 of an su＇vm（àn súm＂is good＂），but 30 of \(k a '\) sum to 40 of \(k a '\) su＇vm，which would be kā＇súmm＂is not good＂when clause－final．Yām \({ }^{\mathrm{m} /}\)＂gall bladder；sense＂seems to have a real variant \(y a \bar{\prime} \mathrm{am}^{\mathrm{m} /}\) ；it was the only case where my informants confirmed glottalisation．

\section*{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 2．3，are structurally extra－long diphthongs．

The word－final diphthongs av aun̆ ui arose historically from \(* V w * V y\) 6．1．1．1．All other word－internal primary diphthongs result from active word－internal morphophonemic processes of fusion，fronting and rounding 6．3 6．4．Rounding diphthongs occur only word－finally and before velars，fronting diphthongs only word－ finally and before \(y\) ．The primary diphthongs are
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multirow[t]{5}{*}{1－Mora} & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{2－Mora} & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{3－Mora} \\
\hline & ia & ［ia］ & iaa & ［ia：］ \\
\hline & ja＇a &  & & \\
\hline & ua & ［ua］ & uaa & ［ua：］ \\
\hline & ט＇a & ［vã］ & & \\
\hline ae［aI］ & ae & ［aI］ & aee & ［aI：］ \\
\hline วе［ЈI］ & د＇e & ［ \({ }_{\text {NT }}\) ］ & & \\
\hline ve［రİ］ & v＇e & ［ర్ָ］ & & \\
\hline ui［ui］ & ui & ［ui］ & & \\
\hline & ie & ［iI］ & iee & ［ii：］ \\
\hline & ue & ［ui］ & uee & ［ui：］ \\
\hline au［avor & \(a v\) & ［av］ & & \\
\hline & iu & ［iu］ & & \\
\hline ul［vor］ & & & & \\
\hline  & \(\varepsilon \bigcirc\) & ［દ๖］ & & \\
\hline iau［İaṽ］ & & & & \\
\hline & io & ［iซ］ & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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

Secondary diphthongs are created by replacement of final morae of word-final root vowels by [ I ] [ \(\mathrm{\sigma}]\) before liaison enclitics 8.2.1: \({ }^{\circ}\) [ v\(]\) "him/her" replaces any preceding vowel mora by [ \(\mho\) ], never [u], and the 2 pl subject enclitic ya replaces any preceding vowel mora by [r], never [i]. Any of a \(\varepsilon\) ว ı ט iu may precede:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline zūó-o & [zuv:] & "steal him" & LF \\
\hline zú•o & [zuv] & "steal him" & SF \\
\hline bēıyá & [berja] & "be ye!" & LF \\
\hline \(b \bar{\varepsilon} \iota\) & [bei] & "be ye!" & SF \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The digraphs ía úa iə uө and their nasalised/glottalised forms are phonemic monophthongs 4.2. Long iə ue 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 \(\eta\).

\subsection*{4.6 Epenthetic vowels}

The default epenthetic vowel is \(\iota\).
Before LF \(-g^{\supset}-\eta^{\supset}\) the epenthetic vowel becomes \(v\), remaining \(v\) in the SF 6.4.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & āañdıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(\leftarrow\) *ããdıga & "black plum tree" \\
\hline but & gàadvg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(\leftarrow * g a a d ı g \nu\) & "(sur)passing" (gerund) \\
\hline pl & mālıma+ & \(\leftarrow\) *malımaa & "sacrifices" \\
\hline but & mālup & \(\leftarrow * m a l ı 0\) & "sacrifice" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Epenthetic vowels are also rounded to \(v\) when preceded by a rounded root vowel with intervening \(-g\) - (but not \(-\eta--k-\) ):
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline gbīgım \({ }^{\text {n }}\) & [gbigim] & "lion" \\
\hline yōgóm \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) & [jvgrm] & "camel" \\
\hline wābıd \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & [wabid] & "elephants" \\
\hline dūgud \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & [dvgod] & "cooking pots" \\
\hline dūgudíb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & [dvgudib] & "people who cook" \\
\hline pōogo-n \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & [phv:gon] & "belly" (pūvga)+ \(n^{\varepsilon}\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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 \(g^{\text {a }}\) sg suffix as \(g^{\text {² 9.3.2. NT ILK KED have poogin and KB povgin for }}\) \(p \bar{u} u g v-n^{\varepsilon /}\) "inside." WK has rounding before velars after short root rounded vowels with intervening \(b \mathrm{ml}\), and after mm even when the preceding vowel is not rounded:
```

nj̄bug\&/
kj̄luga
"grow" (but nóbìrع "leg")
yàmmuga}\mp@subsup{}{}{\mathrm{ a }
"river"

```

After a single consonant preceded by short root \(i\) or \(u\), epenthetic \(\iota v\) are realised [i] [u] respectively; this is not contrastive and is ignored in the orthography:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline \(t i s s d^{\text {a }}\) & [ \({ }^{\text {h }}\) ISId] & "gives" \\
\hline sīgıd \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & [sigid] & "lowers" \\
\hline \(b \bar{g})^{\text {e }}\) & [bugur] & "spirit's \\
\hline kūgor \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & [ \(\mathrm{k}^{\text {hugur }}\) ] & "stone" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{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 \(a\) ı v and long aa ı vo. Glottalisation occurs only in the particle pà' \(\leftarrow\) *pag "earlier today." Nasalisation is never contrastive, but phonetic nasalisation probably underlies the \(\varepsilon\) for expected \(\iota\) of various particles realised \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\), with \(n \bar{l}^{+/}\)found only as the non-liaison allomorph of the locative marker.

Prosodic clitics cause short LF-final \(\iota v\) to be lowered to \(\varepsilon ว\), here realised somewhat closer than as root vowels; the only context in which underlying LF-final short \(\iota v\) appear as such is with apocope-blocking 6.6.

LF-final long aa \(\iota\) appear in the \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)and \(f^{\rho} \mid \iota^{+}\)class plural flexions. SF-final -a -ı in plurals behave like apocope-blocked forms before liaison, without vowel prolongation, except in yáan \({ }^{\varepsilon}\), the irregular locative of \(y \bar{a}^{+/}\)"houses." LF-final aa u ט also arise from prolongation of forms with apocope-blocking before prosodic clitics, and \(v v\) arises as the result of liaison with the LF of the enclitic pronoun \({ }^{\circ}\) 8.2.1.

Prefix \(\iota v\) are realised [i] [u] when the first mora of the root is \(i\) or \(u\); this is noncontrastive and ignored in the orthography, with \(\iota v\) used throughout. Thus tītā'ar \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "big", kùkj̄r \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) "voice" have [ I\(]\) [ъ] respectively, but


Affix-vowel and pre-liaison \(\iota v\) differ in tone sandhi from epenthetic \(\iota v \underline{5.2 .2}\), 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 dīgı from dīgıya/ "be lying down." In KB, I found no instances of loss of final affix ı ט, but dīgı appears as digi 101 times, and dig 185. Significantly, there are 33 instances of dig \(n \varepsilon\) with only 5 of digi \(n \varepsilon\), where there is no clause boundary after the verb, but where the verb is followed by the unstressed clause linker kà 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 \(\iota\) and \(v\) contrast only after velars and word-initially: \(\iota\) is the default after alveolars, and \(v\) after labials, labiodentals and labiovelars. Prefixes, however, show \(v\) rather than \(\iota\) before root \(u / v / \partial\) (dùndùug \({ }^{\text {ºn }}\) "cobra") and \(\iota\) instead of \(v\) before root \(i / \iota / \varepsilon\) ( \(k p i ̄ k p i ̄ n^{n a / ~ " m e r c h a n t . ") ~ I n ~ f l e x i o n s ~-m m ~ a p p e a r s ~ i n ~ p l a c e ~ o f ~ *-m u ; ~}\) \(\iota\) appears after labial consonants only in perfectives like zà \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "fight" where it is probably analogical. Sūgurv́+ "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 3 sg \(o ̀ \leftarrow * \eta m u ̀ 16.3 .1 \mathrm{fn}\).) A system with only two distinct affix vowels except after velars is probably reconstructable for Common Western Oti-Volta: in the equivalent of the \(g^{\supset} \mid d^{\varepsilon}\) 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 OtiVolta, also seems to show a three-way contrast in affix vowels only after velars and initially.

\section*{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.

\subsection*{5.1 Tonemes}

There are three tonemes:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline H & High, marked with an acute: & \(g \varepsilon ́ l^{\varepsilon}\) & "egg" \\
\hline M & Mid, marked with a macron: & bā \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "ring" \\
\hline L & Low, marked with a grave: & bjk \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "pit" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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

Tone functions more as a syntactic marker than to distinguish lexemes, but numerous minimal pairs exist, e.g.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(b a ̄ \eta^{\text {a }}\) & "ring, chain" & \(b a ̀ y^{\text {a }}\) & "agama lizard" \\
\hline \(b \bar{u} k^{\varepsilon /}\) & "weaken" & bùk \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "cast lots" \\
\hline \(g a ̄ \eta^{\varepsilon /}\) & "choose" & gà \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "step over" \\
\hline \(k \bar{u}^{\text {a/ }}\) & "mahogany tree" & kùk \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "ghost" \\
\hline \(k \bar{u} k^{\text {a }}\) & "chair" & & \\
\hline \(m a \bar{k}{ }^{\varepsilon /}\) & "measure" & màk \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "crumple up" \\
\hline \(m \overline{\partial g} g^{\text {a }}\) & "bush, wilderness" & Mj̀ \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "Mossi realm" \\
\hline pīd \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "get bloated" & pid \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "put on hat, shoes etc" \\
\hline sáam \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & "guests" & sàam \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & "father" \\
\hline siāk \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "suffice" & siàk \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "agree" \\
\hline yáan \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "grandchild" & Yàaŋ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "Yansi, Yanga person" \\
\hline \(y \bar{j}^{+}\) & "pay" & yj\({ }^{+}\) & "close" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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.

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. bēogv-n for bह̄ōgū-n, púkj̀כn̆r for pókj̀j̀ňr. After an acute mark, however, an unmarked mora is toneless, and the H toneme extends over both morae 5.2.2:

Lì kā' mólıfj \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "It's not a gazelle."
3INAN NEG.BE gazelle:SG NEG.

Nominals with prefixes \(\underline{14}\) are written with a tone mark on the root even if it is identical to that on the prefix: zīnzāun \(\quad\) "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:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
m̀ sáam & "my guests" \\
but \(\grave{m}\) gbéżn̆m & "my sleep"
\end{tabular}

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

\section*{Downstep is not inserted after \(M\) before the last \(H\) toneme in a} question, due to the interrogative intonation pattern 8.1.

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

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 \(\underline{2.3}\). Where relevant, bold type marks stressed and green marks unstressed syllables.

Kà m̀ gj̄s لbún lā.
And 1sG look.at donkey:Sg ART.
"And I looked at the donkey."
but Kà m̀ gj̄s bún lā bēogv-n.
And 1sG look.at donkey:SG ART morning-Loc.
"And I looked at the donkey in the morning."

Bīig lā \(\downarrow\) sá mèzd yīr lā.
Child:SG ART TNS build:IPFV house:sG ART.
"The child was building the house yesterday."
but Bīig lā sá mè yīr lā.
Child:Sg ART tNS build house:SG ART.
"The child built the house yesterday."

Mān \(\downarrow\) bú-pìal kā'e \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
1SG.CNTR goat-white:SG NEG.be neg.
"My white goat isn't there."
but Mān bú-sùn kā'e \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
1SG.CNTR goat-good:SG NEG.be NEG.
"My good goat isn't there."

Yō \(\downarrow\) gúm kā'e \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "There's no camel."
Camel:sg neg.be neg.
but Yōgóm lā kā'e \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "The camel's not there."
Camel:sg art neg.be neg.

There is no downstep when \(L\) toneme intervenes before the stressed syllable:
Lì à nē \(\downarrow\) náaf lā. "It's the cow."
3INAN COP FOC COW:SG ART.
but \(L i ̀\) à \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) dój̀g lā. \(\quad\) It's the hut." 3INAN COP FOC hut:SG ART.

The tonemes of the following syllable itself are not relevant:

Mān kúkj̀m kā'e \({ }^{+} \varnothing . \quad\) "My leper isn't there." 1SG.CNTR leper:SG neg.be neg.

Mān kúkכ̄r kā'e \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "My voice isn't there." (WK tone)
1SG.CNTR voice:SG NEG.be NEG.

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

Lì kā' n̆yī \(\downarrow r i ́ f j ~+\varnothing . ~ " I t ' s ~ n o t ~ a n ~ e g u s i ~ s e e d . " ~\)
zinan neg.be egusi:sg neg.

Lì kā' púkj̀วn̆rē \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "It's not a widow."
3Inan neg.be widow:Sg neg.

Ànó'วnì_ø n̆yघ̄ pókj̀כn̆re \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
Who cat see widow:sg cQ?
"Who saw a widow?"
but Lì à nē \(\downarrow\) púkj̀כn̆r lā. "It's the widow." 3INAN COP FOC widow:SG ART.

As downstepping between M and H does not occur before an unstressed syllable, nú'ùg \({ }^{\text {² }}\) "hand" matches nóbìr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "leg" tonally in SF but náaf "cow" in LF:

Lì à nē nóbìr.
Lì à nē nú'ùg.
Lì à nē náaf.
Lì kā' nóbırē.
Lì kā' \(\downarrow n u ́ ' u g \overline{\text { on }}\)
Lì kā' ปnáafj.
"It's a leg."
"It's a hand."
"It's a cow."
"It's not a leg." (with delinking 5.2.2)
"It's not a hand."
"It's not a cow."

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

Ò pō yādı \(\downarrow\) gídā \({ }^{+} \varnothing . \quad\) "He isn't scattering."
3AN NEG.IND scatter:IPFV NEG.
but Ànó'כnì_ø yādıgídà \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ? "Who is scattering?"
Who CAT scatter:IPFV CQ?

Lì kā' bī- \(\downarrow\) pú \(\boldsymbol{y}\) ā \({ }^{+} \varnothing . \quad\) "It's not a girl."
3InAN neg.be child-girl:sG neg.
but Lì kā' bī-pónàa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ? "Isn't it a girl?"
3INAN NEG.BE child-girl:SG PQ?

Ò pū n̄y \(\downarrow\) 的' \(\mathbf{v g a ̄}{ }^{+} \varnothing\). "She didn't find a knife."
3AN neg.Ind see knife:SG neg.
but Ànó'כnì_ ø n̆yह̄ sú'vgà \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ? "Who found a knife?"
Who cAT see knife:sg cQ.
and \(O\) pū dúgè \({ }^{+} \varnothing{ }^{+} \varnothing\) ? "Didn't she cook?"
3AN NEG.IND Cook NEG PQ.

As downstep insertion applies later than delinking, words like náaf "cow" ( \(\leftarrow n a \bar{a} f^{\prime}\) ) behave exactly like \(g \varepsilon ́ \prime^{\varepsilon}{ }^{\varepsilon}\) "egg":

Kà m̀ gכ̄s gél lā bēogv-n.
And 1sg look.at egg:SG ART morning-Loc.
"And I looked at the egg in the morning."
but M̀ gós \(\downarrow g \varepsilon ́ l\) lā bēogv-n.
1SG look.at egg:SG ART morning-Loc.
"I looked at the egg in the morning."

Kà m̀ gכ̄s náaf lā bēogv-n.
And 1sG look.at donkey:SG ART morning-Loc.
"And I looked at the cow in the morning."
but \(\dot{M}\) gós \(\downarrow\) náaf lā bēogv-n.
1sG look.at cow:SG ART morning-Loc.
"I looked at the cow in the morning."

\subsection*{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.

\subsection*{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 \(n^{\varepsilon}\) imposes \(M\) toneme on the second mora of a LL root vowel 8.2.2.
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
& sáam \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & \(\leftarrow\) *sāámmā & "guests" \\
LF & dáamm & \(\leftarrow *\) dāámm & "beer" \\
LF & tī \(\iota m m\) & \(\leftarrow *\) tī̄mm & "medicine" \\
& \(m \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon-n^{\varepsilon /}\) & \(\leftarrow m \bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon}-n^{\varepsilon /}\) & "build" \(m \dot{\varepsilon}^{+}+\mathrm{dp} n^{\varepsilon}\)
\end{tabular}

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

Dāu \(\quad\) lā \(m \varepsilon ́ \varepsilon-n(\leftarrow m \varepsilon ́ \varepsilon\) - \(-n) \quad\) "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 nú'ùg \({ }^{\supset}\) "hand" and náaf \({ }^{\prime}\) "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'ugう̄ +ø. "It's not a hand."

3INAN NEG.be hand:SG NEG.

Lì kā' náafy \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "It's not a cow."
3INAN NEG.BE COW:SG NEG.

As three-mora diphthongs are disyllabic, with syllable division following the first mora 2.3, tautosyllabic delinking applies to the final two morae, e.g. LF nū-áa "hen" from nūa+/; see further examples of LFs at 2.4.1.

\subsection*{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.
\[
\text { Li kā' mólıfj } \quad+\varnothing . \quad \text { "It's not a gazelle." }
\]

3inan neg.be gazelle:sg neg.

Bà kā' dī’əsídıbā \({ }^{+} \varnothing . \quad\) "They are not receivers."
3PL NEG.be receiver:PL NEG.

The rule does not apply if either syllable is closed:
```

Lì à n\overline{\varepsilon}}\mathrm{ mólìf. "It's a gazelle."

```

3INAN COP FOC gazelle:SG.

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

Lì kā' būn-sábìl/̄ \(\quad{ }^{+} \varnothing\). "It's not a black thing."
3Inan neg.be thing-black:SG neg.

Written intervocalic \(k p t \eta\) represent \(k k\) tt \(p p\), and block delinking even though generally realised as single except in very slow speech:

Ka ya po siakida.
"But you did not agree." (Lk 13:34)
Kà yà pū sīákìdā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
And 2PL NEG.IND agree:IPFV NEG.

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 8.2:

Lì kā' dágòbıgā \(+\varnothing\). "It's not a left hand."
3inan neg.be left.hand:sg neg. (Prefix dà-, root gj̀b- 14)

Bà à n̄̄ dígà.
3PL COP FOC dwarf:PL.
"They are dwarfs."
(Affix vowel -à)
\(K a ̀ ~\) j̄n zábì_f.
"And he fought you."
And 3AN.CNTR fight 2SG.OB.

Ò \(p \overline{0} \quad\) zábì_fj \(\quad+\varnothing\). "He didn't fight you."
3AN NEG.IND fight 2SG.OB NEG.

Contrast the example with the epenthetic vowel in mうlıf "gazelle" above:

Lì kā' mólıfj \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "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 4.7; in any case word-division before liaison enclitics is justifiable morphosyntactically 1.3.1. 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.

\section*{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 muchreduced "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 6.6. Most proclitics other than cbs have not undergone apocope; some end in long vowels impossible for SFs: lદ̀ "but" 19.7.1 n̆y \(\varepsilon\) ع "habitually" 19.7.2. However, some do have forms implying apocope, like pà' "earlier today": glottalised short vowels occur only in closed syllables before \(m\) or \(\eta\), or by apocope 4.4.

\subsection*{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:
\[
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { sāana/ }^{\text {a/ }} & \text { "stranger" } & \text { [sa:n] } \\
\text { úun }^{\text {nع }} & \text { "dry season" } & {[\text { [Pu:n], [u:n] }}
\end{array}
\]

For simplicity, possible root shapes will be given as \(C V(C) C V V(C)\) elsewhere. Only bdgImnsroccur 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
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(a\) & \(i a / \varepsilon\) & ua/o & & & i & \(u\) & \(l\) & 0 \\
\hline aa & iə & uө & \(\varepsilon \varepsilon\) & ככ & ii & uu & 11 & O \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The digraphs represent monophthongs, short or long, affected by Agolle vowel breaking 4.2. Underlying ia ua are in complementary distribution with \(\varepsilon\) ว. Long vowels have glottalised counterparts, and all vowels have contrastively nasalised counterparts except for iə uө ı ט u vo.

Stems are derived from roots by adding up to three derivational suffixes 13 of the form \(C\); nominals may add optional prefixes 14 .

Derivational suffixes again comprise the consonants \(b d g l m n s r\), where \(b r\) are found in very few words. \(B\) g \(n s r\) cannot follow another suffix at all, and I only does so in the combination -Im which derives abstract nouns from other nouns. The suffix \(n\) may be historically derived from */d 6.2; 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 -Im. CVVC roots assume the allomorph CVC before a suffix of a type which cannot follow another 6.1.1.2.

Prefixes are of the forms VCVCVn CVsın CVIın. They only occur in nominal stems. Their vowels are limited to the short affix vowels a \(u\) and show no contrastive glottalisation or nasalisation. A few stems have two successive prefixes.
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
tītā'ar \(^{\varepsilon}\) & "big" & bùmbàrıga & "ant" \\
sīlınsíŭn̆g & "spider" & tàsıntàl &
\end{tabular}

A stem may constitute a word by itself, or may add a single flexional suffix. The flexional suffixes are a ba ga sı fo ı rılı aa go dı mm bu da ma na la ya. These draw their vowels from the set of affix vowels a \(\iota v\) which may be short or long, but show no diphthongs, contrastive nasalisation or glottalisation.

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

LF-final short \(\iota \cup\) appear before prosodic clitics lowered to \(\varepsilon \supset\).
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline biī- & "child" & sg biil \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & pl bïis \(^{\text {e }}\) \\
\hline dうे- & "hut" & sg dj̀ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & pl dうेว \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) \\
\hline kù'e- & "water" & sg kù'өm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Before vowel-initial flexions CVV root-stems become CVC. In productive forms they become CVy or CVd:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline Stem & กכֹ- & "mouth" & sg \(n \bar{\partial} r^{\varepsilon /}\) & pl nכ̄yá \\
\hline & yō'v- & "name" & sg yō'ur \(r^{\text {/ }}\) & pl yōdá+ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

No consonant clusters occur word-initially, and only -mm (from -mu) wordfinally.

Clusters of homorganic nasal \(+C\) may occur where noun prefixes attach to the root or to another noun prefix.
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
kùndùna & "jackal" \\
gūmpūz \(\bar{\varepsilon} r^{\varepsilon /}\) & "duck"
\end{tabular}

Apart from this, word-internal consonant clusters are limited to kk tt pp מף nn \(m m\) II mn, with exceptions only in loanwords like bùrkìna "honourable person" (from Songhay.) Compounds like n̆wād-bíla "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 \(\iota\) by default but may be rounded to \(v\) by adjacent consonants or after a short rounded root vowel 4.6.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline Stem n̆wād- "month" & + sg -ga & \(\rightarrow\) & n̆wādıgá & LF n̆wādıg & SF \\
\hline & + pl -sı & \(\rightarrow\) & n̆wādıs¢ & LF ñwādıs & SF \\
\hline kūg- "chair" & + sg -ga & \(\rightarrow\) & küka & LF \(k\) ט̄k & SF \\
\hline & + pl -sı & \(\rightarrow\) & kūguse & LF kūgus & SF \\
\hline nób- "leg" & \(+\mathrm{sg}-\mathrm{rl}\) & \(\rightarrow\) & nóbırē & LF nóbir & SF \\
\hline dūm- "knee" & \(+\mathrm{sg}-\mathrm{rl}\) & \(\rightarrow\) & dūmne & LF dūm & SF \\
\hline & + pl -aa & \(\rightarrow\) & dūmaa & LF dūma & SF \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Diphthongs result from deletion of postvocalic \({ }^{*} g\) with subsequent vowel fusion and fronting or rounding of vowel morae before *-ya *-gv *-kkv *-מクロ. Apocope removes conditioning factors for diphthong formation and for the quality contrast in epenthetic vowels, leaving these contrastive:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline viid \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) & \(\leftarrow *_{\text {viid }}\) & "owls" \\
\hline vīug \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & \(\leftarrow *\) viigo & "owl" \\
\hline āan̆dıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(\leftarrow\) *ããdıga & "black plum tree" \\
\hline gàadvg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(\leftarrow *\) gaadıgט & "(sur)passing" (gerund) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{6.1.1 Root alternations}

\subsection*{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 \(k \bar{v} \cup d^{a /}\). However, some show short vowels before at least some suffixes.

Glottalised roots of this kind are underlyingly *CVg, and their behaviour is explained by \({ }^{*} g\) deletion and vowel fusion 6.3.

In flexion, non-glottalised roots show a long vowel before the class suffixes \(-g^{\mathrm{a}}-g^{\mathrm{J}}\) and short elsewhere, with following \(* d \rightarrow t t * b \rightarrow p p\) (but not \(* m \rightarrow m m * / \rightarrow I I\) ):
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline fūug \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "clothing" & pl fū \(t^{\varepsilon /}\) & \\
\hline pว̄วg \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "field" & pl \(p \overline{t^{\varepsilon /}}\) & \\
\hline dj̀ \(g^{\text { }}\) & "hut" & \(\mathrm{pl} d \grave{t^{\varepsilon}}\) & \\
\hline dāog \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "male" & cf dāp \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "men" \\
\hline biil \(^{\text {a }}\) & "child" & cf bila & "little" \\
\hline gāan̆=/ & "ebony tree" (*gããga) & cf \(g\) ān̆r \(r^{\varepsilon /}\) & "ebony fruit" \\
\hline \(\check{n} y \bar{\varepsilon}^{+}\) & "see" & ipfv ňy \(\bar{z}^{\text {a }}\) a/ & imp n̆yغ̀m \({ }^{\text {a }}\) \\
\hline \(d \bar{v}^{+}\) & "rise" & ipfv dūt \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & imp dòm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) \\
\hline \(1 \mathrm{u}^{+}\)or li \({ }^{+}\) & "fall" & ipfv lùt \({ }^{\text {a }}\) or lit \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & imp lùm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) or \(\mathrm{lim}^{\text {a }}\) \\
\hline \(z{ }^{+}\) & "run" & ipfv ż̀t \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & imp zı̀m \({ }^{\text {a }}\) \\
\hline \(d i^{+}\) & "eat" & ipfv dit \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & imp dim \({ }^{\text {a }}\) \\
\hline \(y i^{+}\) & "emerge" & ipfv \(y\) it \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & imp yim \({ }^{\text {a }}\) \\
\hline \(k \bar{\varepsilon}^{+}\) & "allow" & ipfv \(k \bar{\varepsilon} t^{\text {a/ }}\) & \(\operatorname{imp} k \underset{\text { e }}{ }{ }^{\text {a }}\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Some words which never appear with \(-g^{\text {a }}\) or \(-g^{\text {² }}\) show short vowels throughout:
\begin{tabular}{lll}
\(y \overline{i r}{ }^{\varepsilon /}\) & "house" & \(\mathrm{pl} y \bar{a}^{+/}\) \\
\(z \bar{a}^{+/}\) & "millet" & \\
\(k \bar{l}^{+/}\) & "cereal, millet" & \\
mùi \({ }^{+}\) & "rice" &
\end{tabular}

Zūg/ "head" pl zūt \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) cb zūg- or \(z \bar{u}-\) is exceptional in showing a short vowel before \(-g^{3}\). There may be two originally distinct stems *zu- and *zug-: cf Farefare zúugó pl zuto, Mampruli zugu pl zuguri.

The long vowel before \(\mathrm{sg}-g^{\mathrm{a}}\) or \(-g^{3}\) is often introduced into the plural, in some cases invariably:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline fūug \({ }^{\text {／}}\) & ＂clothing＂ & pl fūud \({ }^{\text {／}}\) & or fūt \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) \\
\hline \(p \overline{\partial g}{ }^{\text {／}}\) & ＂field＂ & pl pj̄ว \(\mathrm{d}^{\text {／}}\) & or \(\overline{\bar{j}} t^{\varepsilon /}\) \\
\hline dう̀ \(\mathrm{g}^{\text {² }}\) & ＂hut＂ & pl dう̀ \(\mathrm{d}^{\varepsilon}\) & or \(d \grave{ } t^{\varepsilon}\) \\
\hline dāog \({ }^{\text { }}\) & ＂male＂ & pl dāad \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & \\
\hline gāan̆＝／ & ＂ebony tree＂ & pl gāan̆s \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) & \\
\hline biig \(^{\text {a }}\) & ＂child＂ & pl biïs \({ }^{\text { }}\) & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Before derivational suffixes the vowel is long，with some exceptions before－s－：
\begin{tabular}{lllll} 
dìıs & ＂feed＂ & cf & \(d i{ }^{+}\) & ＂eat＂ \\
dàalım & & ＂masculinity＂ & cf & dāp \(p^{a}\)
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline but & \multirow[t]{2}{*}{\(g \bar{\partial} s^{\varepsilon}\)} & ＂look＂ & ipfv \(g\) jot \({ }^{\text {a／}}\) & imp gòm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) \\
\hline & & & or gj̄sıda／ & or gòsıma \\
\hline & \multirow[t]{2}{*}{\(t i s^{\varepsilon}\)} & ＂give＂ & ipfv tit \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \\
\hline & & & or tisıd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \\
\hline & \(y \overline{1}{ }^{\text {c }}\) & ＂make & \(y i^{+}\) & ＂emerge＂ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The causative \(y \bar{i} s^{\varepsilon}\) has a by－form \(y \overline{i ̄ i} s^{\varepsilon /}\) which is clearly shown to be analogical by its gerund yīisíb \({ }^{\text {r }}\) ，the sole 3－mora stem in the \(b^{3}\) class．
 normally，do gerunds in \(-r^{\varepsilon}\) ：n亏̄－lóว̀r \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)＂fasting＂（＂mouth－tying＂），fū－yદ́દ̀ \(r^{\varepsilon}\)＂shirt－wearing＂ （WK，nonce－formation），but WK cited two instances of a short vowel before \(-r^{\varepsilon}\) ： nā＇－lór \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)＂place in a compound for tying up cows＂and wìd－Īr \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)＂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 \(C V V\)－；three probable＊CVw roots show no current＊－wa LF variants 2．4．2：
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline tōea／ & ＂be bitter＂ & tōog & ＂bitter＂ \\
\hline \(v \bar{u}^{\text {a／}}\) & ＂be alive＂ & \(v \bar{L}^{\prime} \mathrm{g}^{\varepsilon /}\) & ＂come alive＂ \\
\hline àeñ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂be something＂ & àan̆lím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & gerund \\
\hline sāeñ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂blacksmith＂ & pl sāan̆ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \\
\hline \[
\begin{array}{r}
\text { or sāeñ"+ } \\
\text { sj̄enña }
\end{array}
\] & ＂witch＂ & pl sכ̄วn̆ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \\
\hline or sjeneñ & & & \\
\hline dāu \({ }^{+}\) & ＂man＂，Mooré ráoa & pl dāp \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \\
\hline tāun̆ \({ }^{+/}\) & ＂opposite－sex sib＂ & pl tān̆ \({ }^{\text {a／}}\) & \\
\hline tòn \({ }^{+}\) & ＂shoot＂，Mooré tão & tān̆p \({ }^{\text {² }}\) & ＂war＂ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

This suggests that \(C V(C) \sim C V V\) alternations historically involved *CVy *CVw roots, with the final consonant preserved before \(-a\), or assimilated \(* y d \rightarrow t t, * y r \rightarrow r(r)\), \({ }^{*} w b \rightarrow p p\), or deleted with subsequent vowel fusion. Mooré cognates support this, but extensive levelling has evidently confused the picture. Some roots probably are simply \({ }^{*} C V\); this may explain the unexpected absence of \(L\) spreading after a few cbs 7.2.4. Such roots may have acquired \({ }^{*} C V y\)-type forms by analogy.

Before the noun class plural suffix \(-a^{+}\)stems ending in a root vowel insert \(-y-\), with shortening of long vowels:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline kùk̄̄r \({ }^{\text {c/ }}\) & "voice" & pl kùkj̄yá \({ }^{+}\) \\
\hline \(g\) ān̆r \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) & "fruit of Nig & pl gān̆yá+ \\
\hline bàlàar \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "stick, club" & pl bàlàya+ \\
\hline nว̄כ \({ }^{\text {ع/ }}\) & "mouth" & pl nכ̄yá+ \\
\hline \(z \bar{u} u r^{\varepsilon}\) & "tail" & pl zōya+ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Shortening of iə ue produces ie ue [ir] [uri], found solely in this context:
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
bīər \(^{\varepsilon /}\) & "elder same-sex sibling" & pl biēèyá+ \\
sūer \(^{\varepsilon /}\) & "road" & pl sūēyá \\
zūөr & "hill" & pl zūēya+
\end{tabular}

A different rule of attachment of \(-a^{+}\)is followed after Root-stems in with glottalised long vowels \(C V^{\prime} V\), which change to \(C V d\) :
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline \(y \overline{l d}^{\prime} \cup r^{\varepsilon /}\) & "name" & pl yōdá+ \\
\hline pòn̆'r \(r^{\text {¢ }}\) & "cripple" & pl pòn̆da+ \\
\hline tītā'ar \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "big" & pl tītãda+ \\
\hline \(y u ̄ ' ө r^{\varepsilon}\) & "penis" & pl yưāda+ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Stems in *-ag- *-iag- *-uag- 6.3 may inflect as CVC- stems, or may show analogical forms with -d-:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline sià'ar \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "forest" & pl sirà'a+ \\
\hline bà'ar \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "idol" & pl bà'a+ or bàda+ *bagrı; Farefare bàgrè \\
\hline bi̇ān̆'ar \({ }^{\text {¢/ }}\) & "mud, riverbed" & pl biáň'a+ \\
\hline mù'ar \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "reservoir, dam" & pl mu'àa+ or mò'ada+ \\
\hline zànkò'ar \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "jackal" & pl zànku'àa+ \({ }^{+}\)or zànkò'ada+ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Roots ending in \(\supset\) or \(u\) become glottalised before derivational \({ }^{*} g\) and \({ }^{*} s:\)
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & \(k{ }^{+}\) & "break" intrans & \(k{ }^{\prime}{ }^{\prime} \mathrm{Jg}^{\text {® }}\) & "break" trans/intrans \\
\hline & pòวda \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "be few" & pう̀'วg \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & "diminish" \\
\hline & \(v\) vee \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "be alive" & vō'vg \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "make, come alive" \\
\hline & nīn-múa+ & "concentration" & mù' \({ }^{+}\)(*mõ̃̃gı) & "intensify" 6.3 \\
\hline & kj̀ว \({ }^{\text {º }}\) & "broken" &  & "break several times" \\
\hline & tòn \({ }^{+}\) & "shoot" & tòn'วs \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "hunt" \\
\hline & \(v \bar{u} e^{\text {a/ }}\) & "be alive" & \(v\) ü'us \(^{\varepsilon /}\) & "breathe, rest" \\
\hline but & \(y \grave{c}^{+}\) & "dress oneself" & \(y \varepsilon ̇ \varepsilon g^{\varepsilon}\) & "undress oneself" \\
\hline & \(d i^{+}\) & "eat" & dìs \({ }^{\text {d }}\) & "feed" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Sporadic CVV~CVC root alternations appear elsewhere in
\(p \bar{\varepsilon}\) '-sá'a= "ewe lamb"
p'כ-sa'a "young woman"
(Toende)
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline \(1{ }^{+}\) & "tie" & \\
\hline cf 1 & "tie" & (Dagbani) \\
\hline lóe & "tie" & (Mooré) \\
\hline \(p \bar{v}^{+}\) & "divide" & \\
\hline cf pói & "divide" & (Mooré) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
& & bj̀dıg \(^{\varepsilon}\)
\end{tabular}\(\quad\)\begin{tabular}{l} 
"lose, get lost": \\
cf bòı
\end{tabular} \begin{tabular}{l} 
"perdre, disparaître" \\
(Toende)
\end{tabular}\(\quad\)\begin{tabular}{l} 
"fondre, disparaître" \\
(Toende)
\end{tabular}
dāue \({ }^{+}\)"man"
\begin{tabular}{ll}
\multicolumn{1}{l}{\begin{tabular}{l} 
bī-díbìn \\
biríblá
\end{tabular}} & "boy" \\
cf bìpúglá & "boy" (Mooré) \\
pǔ'ā & "girl" (Mooré) \\
& "woman" (*purag-)
\end{tabular}
nว̄bá+
\(\begin{array}{ll}n \bar{J}^{+} & \text {"tread" } \\ \text { cf nao } & \text { "tread" (Mooré) }\end{array}\)
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
wiid \(^{a}\) & "draw water" ipfv & wìk & pfv \((\leftarrow *\) wiggı \\
\(v i^{+}\) & "uproot" & \(v i k^{\varepsilon /}\) & "uproot" \(\left(\leftarrow{ }^{\varepsilon / v i g g ı)}\right.\)
\end{tabular}
wiid \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "draw water" ipfy \(v i^{+}\)
"uproot"
\(v i ̄ k^{\varepsilon /}\)

\subsection*{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:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline ziín \({ }^{\text {a }}(\leftarrow\) *ziímgā \()\) & zīmí \({ }^{+}\) & zīm- & "fish" \\
\hline náaf \(\left(\leftarrow\right.\) * \({ }^{\text {a }}\) áágfō \()\) & nïgí \({ }^{+}\) & \(n \bar{\square}-(\leftarrow * n a \bar{g}-)\) & "cow" \\
\hline wáaf \((\leftarrow *\) wāágfū) & wïigí \({ }^{+}\) & wā'- ( \(\leftarrow\) * \(w a \bar{g}-)\) & "snake" \\
\hline piim \({ }^{\text {m/ }}\) & pīmá \({ }^{+}\) & & "arrow" \\
\hline yòum \({ }^{\text {me }}\) & yòma+ & & "year" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The alternation also appears in derivation:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline tūvma \({ }^{+}\) & "work" noun & tòm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "work" verb \\
\hline y čón & "one" & yīun \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "single" \\
\hline kāa \({ }^{\text {¢/ }}\) & "count" & kāılı/ & "number" \\
\hline màal \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "sacrifice" verb & mālon \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "sacrifice" nou \\
\hline tōológ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "hot" & tōla/ & "be hot" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Before verb-deriving suffixes the short allomorph always appears:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & pìalıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "white" & \(p \mathrm{l} / \stackrel{\mathrm{g}}{ }{ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "whiten" \\
\hline & \(k p i o \eta^{3}\) & "strong" & \(k p \dot{\prime}^{\prime} \square^{\varepsilon}\) & "strengthen" \\
\hline & liəb \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "become" & \(l\) lèbıg \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "turn over" \\
\hline & tōológ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "hot" & \(t u ̄ / g^{\varepsilon /}\) & "heat" \\
\hline & yāar \({ }^{\text {c/ }}\) & "scatter" & \(y a ̄ d ı g^{\varepsilon /}\) & "scatter" \\
\hline & \(d \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon \eta^{\text {a }}\) & "first" & dè \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "go first" \\
\hline & \(p i ̀ b^{\text {e }}\) & "blow" (flute) & \(p \varepsilon b^{\text {a }}{ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "blow" (wind) \\
\hline & yùul \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "swing" intrans & yùlıg \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "swing" transitive \\
\hline cf & \(\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon \check{n} b^{\varepsilon /}\) & "lay a foundation" & & cf Mooré yêbgè id \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The only derivational suffix found after a CVVC allomorph is -/- in -/ım-"-ness/-hood" 13.2.2:
```

sáannìm" "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 6.5.

\subsection*{6.2 Consonant cluster assimilation}

The deletion of underlying *g after short a ía una an̆ ían̆ unan̆ and long aa iə ue aan̆ \(\varepsilon \varepsilon n ̆ ~ כ כ \check{~ f o l l o w s ~ t h e ~ c h a n g e s ~ d e s c r i b e d ~ i n ~ t h i s ~ s e c t i o n . ~}\)

Except between a prefix and a root, adjacent consonants within a word must
 epenthetic vowel ( \(\iota\) by default); \(k k p p t t\) מן are written with single symbols: \(k p t \eta\).

Roots can end only in vowels or in \(g d b m n r s l\); stems may also end in consonant clusters or \(k t p \eta\); flexional suffixes begin with vowels or \(g d b m r s i f y\).

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 \(\partial\) representing the insertion of an epenthetic vowel. Suffixes beginning with I fy do not occur in productive paradigms, so there are gaps in the table.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(1^{s t} \downarrow 2^{n d} \rightarrow\) & \(g\) & \(d\) & \(b\) & \(m\) & \(r\) & \(s\) & \(l\) & \(f\) & \(y\) \\
\hline\(g\) & \(k k\) & \(\partial\) & \(\partial\) & \(\partial\) & \(\partial\) & \(\partial\) & & & \(\partial\) \\
\hline\(d\) & \(\partial\) & \(t t\) & \(\partial\) & \(\partial\) & \(\partial\) & \(\partial\) & & & \\
\hline\(b\) & \(\partial\) & \(\partial\) & \(p p\) & {\([m m]\)} & \(\partial\) & \(\partial\) & & & \(\partial\) \\
\hline\(m\) & \(\eta \eta\) & \(m n\) & \(m m\) & \(m m\) & \(m n\) & {\([\tilde{s}]\)} & \(n n\) & & \\
\hline\(n\) & \(\eta \eta\) & \(n n\) & \(m m\) & \(\partial\) & \(n n\) & \(\tilde{s} s\) & \(n n\) & \(\sim_{f}\) & \(n n\) \\
\hline\(r\) & \(\partial\) & \(\partial\) & \(\partial\) & \(\partial\) & \(r\) & \(\partial\) & \(t t\) & \(\partial\) & \(r\) \\
\hline\(s\) & \(\partial\) & \(\partial\) & \(\partial\) & \(\partial\) & \(\partial\) & \(\partial\) & & & \\
\hline\(I\) & \(\partial\) & \(n n\) & \(\partial\) & \(\partial\) & \(I I\) & \(\partial\) & \(I I\) & \(\partial\) & \(I I\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The unusual change \(I d \rightarrow n n\) is carried out completely regularly; Dagbani and Mooré have similar rules.

The forms in square brackets occur only under certain phonological conditions:
\[
\begin{array}{ll}
b m \rightarrow m m & \text { only occurs after a short root vowel } \\
m s \rightarrow \tilde{S} s & \text { never occurs after a short root vowel; elsewhere it is optional. } \\
& \text { Assimilation and epenthesis occur side by side in many words. }
\end{array}
\]
*ns, and *ms when it assimilates, become \(s\) with nasalisation of a preceding root vowel, and lengthening of a preceding short root vowel:
\begin{tabular}{lllll}
\(t \bar{\eta} \eta^{a}\) & "land" & pl & \(t \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon n ̆ s^{\varepsilon}\) & \(\leftarrow *\) tensı \\
\(k u ̀ l ı \eta^{a}\) & "door" & pl & kùlıs \(^{\varepsilon}\) & \(\leftarrow * k v / \iota n s \iota\)
\end{tabular}

Exceptionally, an epenthetic vowel becomes long before *ns in
\(b \bar{t} t ı \eta^{a} \quad\) "cup" \(\quad \mathrm{pl} \quad b \bar{t} t u s^{\varepsilon}\)

This reflects a reanalysis of the form as noun prefix \(b \bar{u}+t \overline{\eta^{a}} 2.3\).
*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:
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
nīfol & "eye" & pl & nīní \\
píın̆f & "genet" & pl & pīıní
\end{tabular}
*rr becomes \(r\) in e.g.
kùkpàr \({ }^{\varepsilon} \quad\) "palm fruit" pl kùkpàra+
*rr \(\rightarrow r\) is an active process in phrase-level sandhi 8.5.1.
*ss inserts an epenthetic vowel in
pūsıgà pūsıs \({ }^{\text {a/ }} \quad\) pūs- "tamarind"

However, all other examples of \(g^{\text {a }} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) plurals ending in \(-s s^{\varepsilon}\) in my materials are for \({ }^{*}\)-sınsı, from stems in \(* m\). A plural \({ }^{*} p u \overline{s^{\varepsilon /}}\) would have appeared to show no ending in SF; nouns usually avoid such ambiguity by selecting a different flexion 9.1 , but there is a very strong association of tree names with the \(g^{\text {a }} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) class and of their fruits with the \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)and \(g^{\top} \mid d^{\varepsilon} \underline{30.5}\); pūsá \({ }^{+}\)in fact means "tamarind fruits."

\section*{Derivation precedes flexion in consonant cluster formation.}

Stem-final \(k k p p t t\) صף and \(n n\) (regardless of origin) never assimilate further.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline sכ̄nnır \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & sj̄nna+ & sว̀n- & "inner zàk wall" \\
\hline sāngúnnìr \({ }^{\text {E }}\) & sāngónnà \({ }^{+}\) & sāngún- & "millipede" \\
\hline vènnıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & vènnıs \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & vદ̀n- & "beautiful" \\
\hline vènnır \({ }^{\text { }}\) & vènna+ & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

With -nn- from *nd 13.2.1.2.1:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline bùn \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & "reap" & \(\rightarrow\) & būn-búnnìr \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "thing for reaping" \\
\hline gīlıg \({ }^{\text {d }}\) & "go around" & \(\rightarrow\) & pu'à-gīnníg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "prostitute" \\
\hline \(k \bar{\varepsilon} \eta^{\varepsilon /}\) & "go" & \(\rightarrow\) & bòn-kĒnnír \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "moving donkey" \\
\hline \(v \overline{0}]^{\varepsilon}\) & "swallow" & \(\rightarrow\) & tì-vōnním \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "oral medication" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The verbs tàm \({ }^{m}\) "forget", zàm \({ }^{m}\) "cheat, betray", dàm \({ }^{m}\) "shake" and lèm \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\) "sip, taste" are -mm- stems: in KB their ipfvs are always written tammıd zammıd dammıd \(l \varepsilon m m \iota d\), and they form 3-mora-stem type gerunds: tàmmug \({ }^{\rho}\) zàmmvg \({ }^{\top}\) dàmmvg \({ }{ }^{5}\) lèmmog \({ }^{\text { }}\). The \(m m\) is probably from *mb: cf Mooré zãmbe "tricher", râmbe "remuer", lèmbe "goûter". These verbs assimilate *mbm \(\rightarrow m m\) in the imperative 11.1. Apart from this, stem-final -mm- and -mn- never assimilate further:
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
sūmmır & sūmma+ & sùm- & "groundnut" \\
\(y \grave{m} m m i ́ r^{\varepsilon}\) & yı̄mmá
\end{tabular}

With -mm- -mn- clusters from \(-* m d-13 \cdot 2 \cdot 1.2 .1\) :
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(k i m^{m}\) & "tend flock" & & \begin{tabular}{l}
\(k \grave{n ̆ b}-k i ̄ m^{\text {na }}\) \\
kう̀n̆b-kīmmıb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) \\
\(k \grave{n ̌ b} b-k i ̄ m n ı b^{\text {a }}\)
\end{tabular} & "shepherd" \\
\hline tòm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "work" & \(\rightarrow\) & \begin{tabular}{l}
būn-túmmìr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) \\
tōmmıř DK WK \\
tūmna \({ }^{+}\)DK \\
tūmma+ \({ }^{+}\)WK
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l}
"useful thing" \\
"useful"
\end{tabular} \\
\hline tòm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "work" & \(\rightarrow\) & tòmmím-tāa= & "co-worker" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Stems in /I \(r(r)\) 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 II \(r(r)\) being taken as due to the attachment of \(r^{\varepsilon}\) instead of \({ }^{\text {a }}\), along with new LFs and analogical plurals in \(-a^{+} \underline{\text { 9.3.1. }}\). The sg tones of the deverbal adjective in \(k \dot{v} g-d \bar{\varepsilon} \mid \varepsilon /\) "chair for leaning on" (not *kùg-d́́lı) are probably analogical.

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

3 -mora \(n\)-stems always show epenthesis, but this may reflect underlying gemination of the suffix (see below.)
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline dìgın \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & digınıd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & dìgınım \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "lie down" \\
\hline dìgınug \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & & & gerund \\
\hline \(g \grave{' ว} n^{\varepsilon}\) & \(g \grave{\prime} \mathrm{Jn}^{\text {a }}{ }^{\text {a }}\) & gò'วnıma & "extend neck" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Regular 2-mora stems in \(n\) show assimilation in the ipfv only:
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
bùn & bùnna & bùnım \\
būnıb & & "reap" \\
gerund
\end{tabular}

3 -mora \(m\)-stems show epenthesis optionally:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline tכ̄כm \({ }^{\text {m/ }}\) & \[
\begin{gathered}
\text { tómma } \\
\text { or tכ̄omída }
\end{gathered}
\] & tòm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & "depart" \\
\hline tón \({ }^{\text {ºn }}\) & & & gerund \\
\hline \multicolumn{4}{|l|}{or tכ̄วmúg \({ }^{\text { }}\)} \\
\hline \multicolumn{4}{|c|}{or kàrımıd \({ }^{\text {a }}\)} \\
\hline kàron \({ }^{\text {² }}\) & & & gerund \\
\hline or kàrımog \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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

M pū kárìmmā.
M kárìm ne\overline{.}
Kà bà kárımid.
Kà bà kárìm.
"I'm not reading."
"I'm reading."
"And they were reading."
only "And they read."

```

2-mora \(m\)-stems regularly assimilate in the imperfective:
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
tùm \(^{\mathrm{m}}\) & tùm \\
wòma \(^{\mathrm{m}}\) & wòm \(^{\text {ma }}\) & tùm \\
& wòma \(^{\text {ma }}\) & "work" & "hear"
\end{tabular}

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

Lin wusa ka ya tumid, tumi li ...
Lin wūsa kà yà tòmıd, tòmmī Ø...
dem.inan all and 2pL do:IPFV, do:Imp 2PL.SUB ...
"Everything you do, do it..." (Col 3:23, 1996)
ka nan kpen womid ye \(m\) bé li povgin nannanna la.
kà nán kpèn wòmıd yé m̀ béع_lì pōvgv-n nānná-nā lā.
and still still hear:IPFV that 1SG ExIST 3INAN inside:SG-LOC now ART.
"and are still hearing that I am in it now." (Phil 1:30)

Single - \(n\) - after a stem-internal epenthetic vowel may represent original *nd. Pībın \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) pl pībına+ "covering" 12.2.2 has single \(-n\) - for my informants, but Mooré cognate has -nd-: pibíndgà "couvercle." The Mooré equivalent of the assume-stance suffix -n- 13.1.1 is -nd-: zĩ "être assis", zǐndi "s'asseoir"; gãe "être couché", gãandè "se coucher"; vábè "être à plat ventre", vábende "se mettre à plat ventre"; tàbe "être collé aux parois de", tàbende "se coller à." A geminate origin for the Kusaal -n-may explain the fact that the suffix never assimilates further.

Examples of assimilation:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \[
\begin{array}{r}
* g g \rightarrow \begin{array}{c}
k k \\
c f
\end{array}
\end{array}
\] & \begin{tabular}{l}
gìgıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) \\
\(k \bar{\jmath} / \iota s^{\varepsilon}\)
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l}
"dumb people" \\
"river"
\end{tabular} & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{sg} \\
& \mathrm{sg}
\end{aligned}
\] & \begin{tabular}{l}
\(g i k^{a}\) \\
\(k j ̄ / \iota g^{a}\)
\end{tabular} \\
\hline \[
\begin{array}{r}
* d d \rightarrow t \\
\text { cf }
\end{array}
\] & \[
\begin{aligned}
& b \dot{v} d^{\varepsilon} \\
& d \bar{u} g^{\varepsilon}
\end{aligned}
\] & \begin{tabular}{l}
"plant" \\
"cook"
\end{tabular} & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ipfv } \\
& \text { ipfv }
\end{aligned}
\] & \(b u ̀ t^{a}\) dūgud \({ }^{a /}\) \\
\hline \[
\underset{\text { cf }}{* b b \rightarrow p p}
\] & \[
\begin{aligned}
& s \overline{b^{\varepsilon}} \\
& \text { kpà } r^{\varepsilon}
\end{aligned}
\] & \begin{tabular}{l}
"write" \\
"lock"
\end{tabular} & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ger } \\
& \text { ger }
\end{aligned}
\] & \begin{tabular}{l}
sう̄p/ \\
\(k p a ̄ r ı b^{\top}\)
\end{tabular} \\
\hline \[
\stackrel{* l d}{\rightarrow} \underset{\text { cf }}{n n}
\] & \begin{tabular}{l}
k̇̀lıg \({ }^{2}\) \\
zūөbúg \({ }^{\text { }}\)
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l}
"bag" \\
"hair"
\end{tabular} & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{pl} \\
& \mathrm{pl}
\end{aligned}
\] & \begin{tabular}{l}
\(k \grave{n}{ }^{\text {ne }}\) \\
\(z u ̄ \oplus b i ́ d^{\varepsilon}\)
\end{tabular} \\
\hline \[
\text { *mg } \underset{\text { cf }}{\rightarrow \eta}
\] & \begin{tabular}{l}
bùmıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) \\
n̆wādıs \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l}
"donkeys" \\
"months"
\end{tabular} & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{sg} \\
& \mathrm{sg}
\end{aligned}
\] & \begin{tabular}{l}
bùn \({ }^{\text {a }}\) \\
n̆wādıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
\end{tabular} \\
\hline \[
\text { *ng } \underset{\substack{\text { nf } \\ \text { cf }}}{ }
\] & \begin{tabular}{l}
gbàna+ \\
\(w a ̄{ }^{\text {d }}{ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l}
"books" \\
"elephants"
\end{tabular} & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{sg} \\
& \mathrm{sg}
\end{aligned}
\] & \begin{tabular}{l}
gbàun \({ }^{\text { }}\) \\
wābug \({ }^{3 /}\)
\end{tabular} \\
\hline \[
\underset{\text { cf }}{* n r} \rightarrow \text { nn }
\] & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { tāna+ } \\
& \text { dìga+ }
\end{aligned}
\] & \begin{tabular}{l}
"earths" \\
"dwarfs"
\end{tabular} & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{sg} \\
& \mathrm{sg}
\end{aligned}
\] & \begin{tabular}{l}
tānn \({ }^{n}\) \\
dìgıre
\end{tabular} \\
\hline \[
\underset{\text { cf }}{* m r} \rightarrow \underset{\text { m }}{m n}
\] & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { dūma+ } \\
& \text { n̄̄bá+ }
\end{aligned}
\] & \begin{tabular}{l}
"knees" \\
"legs"
\end{tabular} & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{sg} \\
& \mathrm{sg}
\end{aligned}
\] & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { dūm } \\
& \text { nóbìr }
\end{aligned}
\] \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
\[
* \mid r \rightarrow \|
\] \\
cf
\end{tabular} & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { gह̄lá+ } \\
& \text { kūgá+ }
\end{aligned}
\] & \begin{tabular}{l}
"eggs" \\
"stones"
\end{tabular} & sg
sg & \begin{tabular}{l}
\(g \varepsilon ́ l^{\varepsilon}\) \\
kūgor \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
\end{tabular} \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \[
\underset{\mathrm{cf}}{* n b} \rightarrow \underset{m m}{ }
\] & sāana/ \(n i ̄ d^{a /}\) & \begin{tabular}{l}
"stranger" \\
"person"
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l}
pl \\
pl
\end{tabular} & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { sáam }^{\mathrm{ma}} \\
& \text { nīd}{ }^{\mathrm{a}}{ }^{\mathrm{a}}
\end{aligned}
\] & \\
\hline \[
\underset{c f}{* m b} \underset{\text { cf }}{\rightarrow m m}
\] & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { kìm }^{\mathrm{m}} \\
& \text { kà }^{\varepsilon}
\end{aligned}
\] & \begin{tabular}{l}
"tend flock" \\
"drive away"
\end{tabular} & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ger } \\
& \text { ger }
\end{aligned}
\] & \(k i ̄ m^{m}\) \(k a ̄ d ı b^{3}\) & \\
\hline * \(/\) \(\rightarrow\) II & \begin{tabular}{l}
Bùlı \\
Àg̀うı \({ }^{\prime}\)
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l}
"Buli" \\
"Agolle Kusaal"
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l}
cf \\
cf
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l}
Bùlıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) \\
Àg̀̀ı \({ }^{\prime}\)
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l}
"Bulsa" \\
"Agolle area"
\end{tabular} \\
\hline \(* r l\)
\(\rightarrow t t\)

but & \begin{tabular}{l}
Bāt \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) \\
Yāt \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) \\
Ňwāmpūrı \(\left.\right|^{\varepsilon /}\)
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l}
"Bisa language" \\
"Yarsi language" \\
"Mampruli"
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l}
cf \\
cf \\
cf
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l}
Bārıs \\
Yārısel \\
Ňwāmpūrıs
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l}
"Bisa people" \\
"Yarsi people" \\
/"Mamprussi"
\end{tabular} \\
\hline *ml \(\quad \begin{array}{r}\text { nn } \\ \\ \text { but }\end{array}\) & \begin{tabular}{l}
Dàgbānn \({ }^{\text {ne/ }}\) \\
Yàan \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) \\
Kàmbònır \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l}
"Dagbani" \\
"Yansi language" \\
"Twi"
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l}
cf \\
cf \\
cf
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l}
Dàgbāmma/ \\
Yàamıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) \\
Kàmbùmıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l}
"Dagomba" \\
"Yansi people" \\
"Ashanti"
\end{tabular} \\
\hline \({ }^{n} n \rightarrow n n\) & Gōrín \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) & "Farefare language" & cf & Gūrís \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "Farefare people" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{6.3 Deletion of * \(\boldsymbol{g}\) 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 ía ua an̆ ían̆ uan̆ before any vowel, with fusion resulting in glottalised 2-mora vowel sequences:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline *agV & \(\rightarrow\) a'a & *an̆gV & \(\rightarrow\) an̆'a \\
\hline *iagV & \(\rightarrow\) ia'a & *ian̆gV & \(\rightarrow\) ian̆'a \\
\hline *uagV & \(\rightarrow\) v'a (word-final ur'aa) & *uan̆gV & \(\rightarrow\) טn̆'a (word-final uñ''aa) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

This rule applies later than the assimilation \(* g g \rightarrow k k\) 6.2; thus e.g.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline zàk \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "compound" & \(z a ̀ ' a s^{\varepsilon}\) & plural & ( \(g^{\text {a }} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) class) \\
\hline lāuk \({ }^{\text {J }}\) & "item of goods" & lā'ad \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & plural & ( \(g \mid d^{\varepsilon}\) class) \\
\hline yàk \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "unhang" & yà'al \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "hang up" & \\
\hline piàunň \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "word" & pià \({ }^{\text {an' }}\) 'ad \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & plural & ( \(g \mid d^{\varepsilon}\) class) \\
\hline puāk \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "female" (adj) & \(p \bar{v}^{\prime} a s^{\varepsilon}\) & plural & ( \(g^{\text {a }} \mathrm{s}^{\varepsilon}\) class) \\
\hline bjk \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "pit" & \(b \mathrm{bu}^{\prime} \mathrm{ad}^{\varepsilon}\) & plural & ( \(g \mid d^{\varepsilon}\) class) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The outcomes are the same if the vowel after \({ }^{*} g\) is an affix vowel:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline pi̇āñ'a & "speak" pfv & piōă'ad \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & ipfv & \\
\hline \(p u^{\prime} \mathrm{a}^{\text {a }}\) & "woman" & \(p \bar{u}^{\prime} a b^{\text {a }}\) & plural & \({ }^{(a)} b^{\text {a }}\) class) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The sole single-aspect verb form unexpectedly has a fronting diphthong:
\[
k_{a ̄} e^{+} \quad \text { "not be" } \leftarrow * \text { kagı }
\]

The sequences ia'a v'a ian̆'a un̆'a contrast with long i'a u'a in̆'a un̆'a, except when shortened by apocope 2.4.2. However, there is no phonetic difference between the a'a an̆'a arising from *g deletion and underlying glottalised a'a an̆'a, as in
\[
\text { dà'a= "market" } \quad \text { dà'as } s^{\varepsilon} \quad \text { plural } \quad\left(g^{a} \mid s^{\varepsilon} \text { class }\right)
\]

Deletion of \({ }^{*} g\) after short vowels is recent historically: such stems in the \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\) class may still behave as consonant-final: bà'ar "idol" (Farefare bàgrè), pl bà'a+ or bàda+; a glottalised affix vowel is seen only in pà' \(\leftarrow\) *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 ía'a v'a 2.4.2. Haaf 1967 has baga for bā'a "diviner" and winbagr for wīn-bá'àr "altar", alongside bab for the plural bā'ab \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "diviners."
 glottalised counterparts, whenever an affix vowel a or \(\iota\) (not an epenthetic vowel or \(v\) ) follows the \({ }^{* g}\). Vowel fusion then creates three-mora vowel sequences:
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
*aaga & \(\rightarrow\) aa 8.1 & *aagı & \(\rightarrow\) aee \\
*iəga & \(\rightarrow\) iaa & *iəgı & \(\rightarrow\) iee \\
*uөga & \(\rightarrow\) uaa & *uegı & \(\rightarrow\) uee
\end{tabular}
and likewise with the glottalised vowels. (See below for the nasalised equivalents.) The diphthongs iaa uaa arise from deletion of the \({ }^{*} g\) in \(g^{\text {a }} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) class singulars:


The diphthongs aee iee uee appear in dual-aspect verbs with stems in *Caag *Ciəg *Cuөg and their glottalised counterparts (see below on the nasalised equivalents); compare the forms with the suffix *-g- "become, make" seen in
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & kpì＇\({ }^{+}\) & \(\leftarrow *\) kpi＇\(\partial \mathrm{g} \iota\) & ＂approach＂ \\
\hline & \(k p i ' \partial s^{\varepsilon}\) & \(\leftarrow *\) kpi＇əsı & ＂neighbours＂ \\
\hline cf & \(t \bar{\varepsilon} b ı g^{\varepsilon /}\) & & ＂get／make heavy＂ \\
\hline & \(t \overline{\text { en }} \mathrm{sin}^{\text {r }}\) & & ＂heavy＂ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Many such＂fusion verbs＂exist，with perfectives in－ae＋－ie＋－ue＋11．1，e．g．
\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { pāe }+/ & \leftarrow * \text { paagı } \\
\text { dūe } e^{+/} & \leftarrow * \text { duөgı }
\end{array}
\]
```

"reach"
"raise, rise"

```

There are no underlying nasalised iən̆ uөn̆；instead \(\varepsilon \varepsilon n ̆ ~ כ כ n ̆ ~ a p p e a r ~ 6.1 . ~\).
 same contexts as after iə uө（i．e．before an affix vowel a or \(\iota\) ），and the resulting diphthongs coincide in vowel quality with those produced with iə uө：
\begin{tabular}{llll}
＊ããga & \(\rightarrow\) aan̆ 8.1 & ＊ããgı & \(\rightarrow\) aeen̆ \\
＊\(\tilde{\varepsilon} \tilde{\varepsilon} g a\) & \(\rightarrow\) iaan̆ & ＊\(\tilde{\varepsilon} \tilde{\varepsilon} g \iota\) & \(\rightarrow\) ieen̆ \\
＊j̃ว̃ga & \(\rightarrow\) uaan̆ & ＊ว̃̃̃gı & \(\rightarrow\) ueen̆
\end{tabular}
and likewise with the corresponding glottalised vowels．
The rule gives rise to alternations in nouns and adjectives in the \(g^{\text {a }} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) class between SF－final ian̆ uan̆ and word－internal \(\varepsilon\) हn̆ ככn̆ before a consonant：
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline zin̆＇a＋ & \(\leftarrow *_{z} \tilde{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \tilde{\varepsilon} g \mathrm{ga}\) & ＂red＂\(g^{\text {a }} \mathrm{s}^{\varepsilon}{ }^{\varepsilon}\) class sg \\
\hline zèn̆＇\(\varepsilon s^{\varepsilon}\) & \(\leftarrow *_{\text {z }}\)＇\(\check{\varepsilon}\) sı & ＂red＂\(g^{\text {a }} \mathrm{s}^{\varepsilon}\) class pl \\
\hline zèn̆＇\(\varepsilon d^{\varepsilon}\) & \(\leftarrow *_{Z} \tilde{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \tilde{\varepsilon} d \downarrow\) & ＂red＂\(g{ }^{\prime} d^{\varepsilon}\) class pl \\
\hline dùañ \({ }^{+}\) & \(\leftarrow *\) dj̃̃̃a & ＂dawadawa＂sg \\
\hline dう̀эn̆s \({ }^{\text { }}\) & \(\leftarrow * d \tilde{\sim ̃} s\) ¢ & ＂dawadawa＂pl \\
\hline nūa \({ }^{+/}\) & \(\leftarrow * n ว ̃ ๊ ̃ g a ~\) & ＂hen＂ \\
\hline nj̄ss \({ }^{\text {／}}\) & \(\leftarrow * n \tilde{\sim}\) ¢ \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & ＂hens＂ \\
\hline Mùa＋ & \(\leftarrow * M \tilde{\sim}\) ¢ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂Mossi person＂ \\
\hline Mう̀ss \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & \(\leftarrow * M \tilde{\sim}\) ว̃sı & ＂Mossi people＂ \\
\hline Mj̀ \(g^{\text { }}\) & \(\leftarrow * M\) ว̃õ 0 & ＂Mossi country＂ \\
\hline Mう̀ \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & \(\leftarrow * M\) ว̃ว̃／ & ＂Mooré language＂ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

In derivation the rule causes alternation between fusion verb forms from＊－gl， ending in SF ien̆ uen̆，and cognate forms with \(\varepsilon \varepsilon n ̆ ~ כ כ \check{:}\)
\[
\begin{array}{lll}
n i ̀ e^{+} & \leftarrow * n \tilde{\varepsilon} \tilde{\varepsilon} g \iota & \text { "appear" } \\
n \varepsilon \grave{\varepsilon} l^{\varepsilon} & \leftarrow * n \tilde{\varepsilon} \tilde{\varepsilon} / \iota & \text { "reveal" }
\end{array}
\]
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline pūn̆'e \({ }^{+/}\) & \(\leftarrow * p\) ว̃'ว̃gı & "rot" \\
\hline  & \(\leftarrow *\) р \(ั\) 'ı̃lı & "cause to rot" \\
\hline n̆yū'e \({ }^{+/}\) & \(\leftarrow * y\) ว̃'ว̃gı & "set alight" \\
\hline n̆yう̄'วs \({ }^{\text {ع/ }}\) & \(\leftarrow * y\) ว̃'ว̃sı & "smoke" (noun) \\
\hline sūen̆+1 & \(\leftarrow *\) sõว̃g & "anoint" \\
\hline sjon' & \(\leftarrow *_{\text {s }}\) ว̃ \({ }^{\text {j }}\) & "rub" \\
\hline zin̆'a+ & \(\leftarrow * z \tilde{\varepsilon}\) ' \(\tilde{g} g a\) & "red" \(g^{\text {a }} \mathrm{s}^{\varepsilon}\) class sg \\
\hline zèn̆'og \({ }^{\text {ºn }}\) & \(\leftarrow *_{z} \tilde{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \tilde{\varepsilon} g \cup \underline{6.4}\) & "red" \(\left.g^{\top}\right|^{\varepsilon}\) class sg \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The fronting effect of \({ }^{*}-g \iota\) differs from the fronting caused by \(*-y-\underline{6.4}\) :

"become better than" WK
"be better than"

When aa iə uө aan̆ precede a \({ }^{*} g\) which is not followed by an affix vowel, they remain unchanged. The only remaining sign of the former presence of \(* g\) is the resulting disturbance of toneme allocation in Tone Pattern H words 7.2.1.1.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline náaf & \(\leftarrow *\) nāágfū & "cow" & pl niigí \({ }^{+}\) & cb nā' - \\
\hline díə \(\partial r^{\varepsilon}\) & \(\leftarrow * d\rceil\) º́grī & "receiving" & \(\mathrm{cf} \mathrm{d}^{\text {e }} \mathrm{e}^{+/}\) & "get" \(\leftarrow * d i\) 'ə \({ }^{\text {cié }}\) \\
\hline vúer \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & \(\leftarrow *\) vūógrī & fruit of vúөŋ & pl vūáa= & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Surface iən̆ uөn̆ appear in just one context: fusion verbs with nasal vowels introduce iən̆ иөn̆ into the imperfective, imperative and gerund forms:
```

    n\varepsiloǹ\varepsilonrr & "empty" (\leftarrow "clear")
    but nìrr
pŏn̆'ว|\varepsilon/ \leftarrow*põ'ว̃l^
but púň'өr
pün̆'өda/

```
```

gerund of nie+ "appear"

```
gerund of nie+ "appear"
"cause to rot"
"cause to rot"
gerund of pūn̄'e+/ "rot"
gerund of pūn̄'e+/ "rot"
ipfv
```

ipfv

```

This is readily attributable to analogy with verbs with oral vowels:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & \(p u ̄ n{ }^{\text {c }} \mathrm{e}^{+/}\) & pfv & pūn̆'өd \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & ipfv &  & ger & "rot" \\
\hline cf & dūe \({ }^{+/}\) & pfv & \(d u ̄ \theta d^{\text {a/ }}\) & ipfv & dúөr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & ger & "raise" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

However, the gerund vowels are probably original. Imperfectives like pon'od appear in texts, but not *pon'or or *neer for gerunds like pún̆'өr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "rotting" or nìər \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "appearing." Gerunds seem unlikely to be subject to levelling when finite forms are not 7.3. Tonal evidence suggests that \({ }^{*} g\) was never present in the ipfv of fusion verbs
7.3.1: forms like pon'od \(p^{\prime} \bar{n}^{\prime} \mathrm{Id}^{\mathrm{a} /}\) 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 iən̆ uөn̆ may have resulted in sequences which were still distinct from other iən̆ uөn̆ at the point where those fell together with \(\varepsilon \varepsilon n ̆ ~ כ ว \check{.}\)

\subsection*{6.4 Diphthongisation before *-ya *-gv *-kkv *-gŋv}

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] [r] [u] or [ъ].
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:
\begin{tabular}{lllll} 
SF & \(v \bar{e} e\) & LF & vōyá & "be alive" \\
SF & tj̄é & LF & tōyá & "be bitter" \\
SF & sāēn̆ & LF & sān̆ya & "blacksmith" \\
SF & sj̄ĕn̆ & LF & sōñya & "witch"
\end{tabular}

Before \(y\), long vowels undergo fronting of a back second mora to e [r]:
\begin{tabular}{lllll} 
SF & sō'e & LF & sō'eyá & "own" sō'eya/ \\
cf & \(s^{\text {ō'olím }}\) m & & & "property" \\
SF & sōñ'e & LF & sōn̆'eyá & "be better than" sōn̆'eya/
\end{tabular}

Rounding: short unrounded root vowels become diphthongs in \(\underset{\sim}{u}\) before LF *kku *מgu:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline gbàun \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(\leftarrow * g b a \eta \eta \nu\) & "book" & pl gbàna+ \\
\hline lāuk \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(\leftarrow\) *lakku & "goods it & "pl lā'ad \\
\hline yīun \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & \(\leftarrow * y ı\) ט & "single" & pl yīná+ \\
\hline sàbùa+ & \(\leftarrow *\) sabuega & "lover" & pl sàbùes \({ }^{\text {® }}\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Tense \(i\) does not become a diphthong in the only case in my materials:
nìn-gbīŋコ \(\quad\) "body" pl nìn-gbīná+
The vowel may simply be taken from the alternative singular nin-gbin \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\).

Short ia becomes the short diphthong iau:
bīāuñ̆k \({ }^{\text {² }}\) *biããku "shoulder" pl biān̄'ad \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)

Short una becomes ว: *ưakkv \(\rightarrow\) っkkv
bj̀k \({ }^{\supset} \quad \leftarrow\) *bưakku "pit" pl bò'ad \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)

Long vowels undergo rounding of a back second mora before LF *gv * טמן. The second mora is always high.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multirow{3}{*}{but} & dàad \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & & "logs" \\
\hline & dàug \({ }^{\text { }}\) & \(\leftarrow *\) daagv & "log" \\
\hline &  & & "ulcers" \\
\hline but & fĒn̆'og \({ }^{\prime}\) & \(\leftarrow * f \tilde{\text { r }}\) ' \(\tilde{g} g ט\) & "ulcer" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The second mora of the long vowel \(i i\) becomes tense \(u\), giving \(i u\); this contrasts with the second mora of the long vowel iə, which becomes [ъ], giving io [iv]:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multirow{3}{*}{but} & vīug \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & \(\leftarrow *\) viigo & "owl" & pl vīid \({ }^{\text {¢/ }}\) \\
\hline & dàbiog \({ }^{\text { }}\) & \(\leftarrow *\) dabizgv & "coward" & pl dàbīəd \({ }^{\text {e }}\) \\
\hline & \(k p i ' o \square^{3}\) & \(\leftarrow\) *kpi'əŋŋט & "strong" & pl kp「əəma+ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

A parallel case with uu/uv does not occur, because of a rule *uegv \(\rightarrow \boldsymbol{\jmath \boldsymbol { \nu g } \boldsymbol { g } : ~}\)


The epenthetic vowel \(c\) is rounded to \(v\) before LF *-gv *-מט:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & āaňdıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(\leftarrow\) *ããdıga & "black plum tree" \\
\hline but & gàadug \({ }^{\text { }}\) & \(\leftarrow * g a a d ı g \cup\) & "(sur)passing" (gerund) \\
\hline pl & mālıma+ & \(\leftarrow\) *malımaa & "sacrifices" \\
\hline but & mālon & \(\leftarrow\) *malınט & "sacrifice" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

This multiplication of diphthongs and epenthetic vowels might be avoided by ascribing phonemic labialisation to word-final velars and positing abstract wordfinal /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 dāu "man" are followed by [?] before pause in statements, just like words ending in short vowels 4.4. It is preferable to make word-internal fronting and rounding rules precede apocope 2.1. (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.)

\subsection*{6.5 Vowel length constraints}

See also on CVV ~ CVC root alternations 6.1.1.1; in particular, note that unglottalised long vowels never occur before \(y\).

Word-internally, long vowels are shortened before \(k t p\) :
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
gàad & "pass" & gàta & "pass" ipfv \\
\(t \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon g^{\varepsilon /}\) & "drag" ILK & \(t \bar{\varepsilon} k^{\varepsilon /}\) & "pull" (*t
\end{tabular}

Hausa loanwords show this to be phonological, not morphophonemic:
\[
\begin{array}{lllll}
\text { àtìuk }{ }^{J} & \text { "sea" } & \leftarrow & \text { tèeku } & \text { "sea" } \\
\text { kótò }^{+} & \text {"court" } & \leftarrow & \text { kootù } & \text { "court" }(\leftarrow \text { English })
\end{array}
\]

3-mora vowel sequences arise by vowel fusion 6.3 or by liaison before the pronoun \({ }^{\circ}\) 8.2.1. They are reduced by apocope to 2 -mora diphthongs in the SF. 3mora diphthongs mostly occur word-finally in LFs, but can appear in SFs:
\[
\text { vūáa= } \quad \leftarrow \quad \text { *vuөgaa "fruits of the vúөŋa tree" }
\]

A 3-mora monophthong appears with apocope-blocking in mà'aa "only" (but LF mà'an \(\bar{\varepsilon} \underline{6.6}\) ); everywhere else, 3-mora monophthongs reduce to two morae 8.1.

Before liaison, word-final 3-mora diphthongs are reduced to two morae and then monophthongised; they may diphthongise again before \({ }^{\circ}\) ya ya+ yà.

Short i u may appear where long vowels might be expected. \(Z u \overline{g^{\prime} / ~ " h e a d " ~ i s ~ t h e ~}\) sole case where non-glottalised \(C V \sim C V V\) roots show a short allomorph before \({ }^{*} g\) 6.1.1.1 (cf Farefare zúugó id.) Sūňff "heart" pl sūñyá+ is the only instance of short \(u n ̆\) not attributable to apocope 4.3. \(\mathrm{Nif}^{\rho /}\) "eye" is the only case where \({ }^{n} \mathrm{C} C \rightarrow C\) after a root vowel which remains short \(\underline{6.2}\). Bùgóm \({ }^{m}\) "fire" has the tonemes that would be regular for *bùugúm \({ }^{m}\). Dūnıya+ "world" corresponds to Hausa duuniyàa and tīlás \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "necessity" to Hausa tiilàs. However, long ii uu occur in many words, and there seems to be no single regular shortening process involved.

\subsection*{6.6 Apocope-blocking}

Certain full words have citation forms without apocope. The form is like a LF, without the lowering of postconsonantal final \(\iota v\) to \(\varepsilon\) ว seen before prosodic clitics. Words with apocope-blocking ending in SF M toneme have LF-final H 7.1.

This is a derivational feature seen in many adverbs and quantifiers (including number words), and as a downtoning measure with adjectives 16.11.1.2:
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
bèdugū & "a lot" & \(g^{\supset} \mid d^{\varepsilon}\) & class sg \\
sùnā & "well" & \(g^{a} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) & class sg \\
yīnní & "one" & \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\) & class sg \\
ànāasí & "four" & \(g^{a} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) & class pl \\
pāmm & "a lot" & \(m^{m}\) & class
\end{tabular}

A number of nouns ending in \(-\iota^{+}\)or \(-0^{+} \underline{9.5}\) also display apocope-blocking.
Words of one underlying mora also do not show apocope, e.g yā \({ }^{+/}\)"houses", (SF yā LF yáa) and numerous enclitic particles.

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 n\overline{\varepsilon dój̀g. "It's a hut."}
    Lì kā' dóvgכ̄.
    with Lì à ne\overline{ bédvgū.}
Lì kā' b\varepsilońdvgóv.
"It's not a hut."
"It's a lot."
"It's not a lot."

```

Before prosodic clitics which neutralise preceding length distinctions, the final vowels of such LFs contrast in quality alone with \(\varepsilon>\underline{8.1}\).

Forms not ending in a short vowel add \(-n \varepsilon\) to make the secondary LF:
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
pāmm SF pāmné LF & "a lot" & mà'aa SF mà'anē LF & "only" \\
gùl/ımn & "only" & kj̀tàan & "at all"
\end{tabular}

Cf also mè DK KT SB NT mèn WK; clause-finally (all sources) mèn \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "also, too."

\section*{7 Word tonal structure}

\subsection*{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 8.4.

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 \(\underline{6.2}\) and deletion of \(* g \underline{6.3}\) ) and which disrupt the surface distribution of tonemes 7.2.1.1. For example, these two Pattern H nouns show different tonemes in the singular:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline siinfol sg & sīinc \({ }^{\varepsilon /} \mathrm{pl}\) & sin̆- cb & "bee" \\
\hline píln̆f & pīıní \({ }^{+}\) & pı̄ın- & "genet" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The difference is due to the fact that "bee" has a 2 -mora CVV stem siiiň-, whereas "genet" has a 3-mora CVVC stem pīın-, 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 \(\operatorname{sg}\) and cb; as agent nouns of Pattern LO verbs are Pattern O if they contain - \(d\) - and L otherwise, this produces a tonal alternation:
\[
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { pò'vs } & \text { pō'usıdıb } & \text { à̀'vs- } & \text { "worshipper" }
\end{array}
\]

Only with 2-mora Pattern H and O stems are the SF tonemes alone insufficient to predict LF-final tonemes:
\(\mathrm{O} \quad\) Lì à \(n \bar{\varepsilon} k \overline{\mathrm{u}}\).
O Lì kā' kūka.
\(\mathrm{H} \quad\) Lì à \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) dūk.
H Lì kā' dōkó.
```

"It's a chair."
"It's not a chair."
"It's a cooking pot."
"It's not a cooking pot."

```

With SFs like \(k \bar{u} k\) "chair" and \(d \bar{u} k\) "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 náaf "cow" versus nú'ùg \({ }^{\text { }}\) "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:
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
SF yā & LF yáa & "houses" & \(y a ̄+/\) \\
SF bèdugū & LF bèdvgúv & "a lot" & \(b \varepsilon ̇ d v g \overline{0}^{+/}\)
\end{tabular}

Superscript notation writes \(y \bar{a}^{+/}\)bèdvg \(\bar{u}^{+/}\)by the usual convention 2.4.1. The only exception among free words is kj̀bıgā= "one hundred."
Three basic Tone Patterns are distinguished in nominals:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
Pattern H & initial M or H \\
Pattern L & initial L \\
Pattern O & all-M in sg/pl; all-L in cb
\end{tabular}

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 \(\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{L}\) and mid tone stems:
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
nááb & "cow" & cf Kusaal náaf & id \\
tìb & "tree" & cf Kusaal tìıg & id \\
būūk & "goat" & cf Kusaal būטg & id
\end{tabular}

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 2.3, 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 7.3 12.1.

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 7.2.2 suggests that Pattern \(L\) has an underlying non-initial \(\mathrm{M}^{4}\) 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.

\subsection*{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 7.2.4. 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 9.1. 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 zillım 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 8.3 rather than a survival of an earlier stem tone pattern; cf SF bùń LF bùná "âne", Agolle LF bùnā.

\subsection*{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 .
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(v \overline{0} r^{\varepsilon /}\) & vōyá+ & \(v \bar{u} r-\) & "alive" \\
\hline \(y \bar{r}{ }^{\text {c/ }}\) & \(y \bar{a}^{+/}\) & \(y \overline{-}\) & "house" \\
\hline fūug \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & fūud \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & fū- & "shirt, clothes" \\
\hline \(d \bar{u} k^{3 /}\) & dūgud \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & \(d \bar{u} g\) - & "cooking pot" \\
\hline nīd \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & nídıba \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & nīn- & "person" \\
\hline niff/ & nīní \({ }^{+}\) & nin- or nif- & "eye" \\
\hline kūgur \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & kūgá \({ }^{+}\) & kūg- & "stone \\
\hline ḡ̄ta \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & gכ̄tíb \({ }^{\text {a } / t \mathrm{t}}\) & gう̄t- & "seer, prophet" \\
\hline sābilíg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & sābulís \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & sābıl- & "black" \\
\hline yōgóm \({ }^{\text {me }}\) & yōgumá+ & yōgum- & "camel \\
\hline sābílı & sābılá \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & sābıl- & "black" \\
\hline \(d i ̄ \partial s^{\text {a/ }}\) & di'əsídìb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & di'əs- & "receiver" \\
\hline sūgoríd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & sūgurídìb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & sūgoríd- & "forgiver, forbearer" \\
\hline kō'alín \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & kū'alís \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & kō'alín- & traditional smock \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

By tautosyllabic delinking, MH on a long vowel becomes single H :
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
sú'ө \(^{\mathbf{a}} / \eta /\) & \begin{tabular}{l} 
sū'өmís \\
sūan \\
\(\boldsymbol{s a ́ a m}^{\text {ma }}\)
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l} 
sū'өŋ- \\
sāan-
\end{tabular} & "rabbit" \\
sáannìm \(^{\mathbf{m}}\) & & & "stranger, guest"
\end{tabular}

Tautosyllabic delinking applies after apocope. Where LFs end in long vowels or diphthongs, or in \(-m m\) (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 5.2.1. Superscript notation still writes the acute tone mark at the end 2.4.1:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(n u ̄ a^{+/}\) & SF nūa & LF nūáa & "hen" \\
\hline dāam \({ }^{\text {m/ }}\) & SF dāam & LF dáamm & "millet beer" \\
\hline \(v \overline{0} \mathrm{~m}^{\mathrm{m} /}\) & SF vōm & LF vómm & "life" \\
\hline tāuñ \({ }^{+/}\) & SF tāun̆ & LF távn̆ & "opposite-sex sibling" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{7.2.1.1 Tonal effects of deleted morae}

Pattern \(H\) forms which have lost an underlying mora may display the \(H\) toneme shifted to the left of its expected position. There are two groups of such words.

Some words have H on the second mora, when following \(-r\) - representing \({ }^{*}-r r\)-:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline ňyīríf & ňyīrí \({ }^{+}\) & & "egusi seed" \\
\hline tīntōn̆ríg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) 7.2.4 & tīntōn̆rís \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & tīntón̆r- & "mole" (animal) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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 6.2 or by deletion of \(* g\) when no affix vowel follows 6.3. Tautosyllabic delinking 5.2.1 then always results in one H toneme applying to both morae of the long vowel.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
niis \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) \\
píln̆f
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l}
\(\leftarrow\) *niínsī \\
\(\leftarrow * p i ̄ i ́ n f u ̄\)
\end{tabular} & (beside nïimís \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) ) (cf pl pīıní+) & "birds" (sg níipaa/ ממ/) "genet" \\
\hline náaf & \(\leftarrow\) *nāágfū & (cf pl nïgi \({ }^{+}\)) & "cow" \\
\hline wáaf & \(\leftarrow\) *wāágfū & (cf pl wiigí \({ }^{+}\)) & "snake" \\
\hline yáab \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(\leftarrow\) *yāágbā & & "grandparent" \\
\hline vúөr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & \(\leftarrow *\) vüógrı̄ & & fruit of the vúөŋ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) tree \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Here belong all regular gerunds in \(-r^{\varepsilon}\) formed from Pattern \(H\) fusion verbs 11.1 which have phonologically-deleted \({ }^{*} g\) in the perfective:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & náar \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & \(\leftarrow *\) nāágrī & "end" \\
\hline from & nāe \({ }^{+/}\) & \(\leftarrow *\) nāagí & "finish" \\
\hline & dí'ər \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & \(\leftarrow * d r\) ə́grī & "receiving" \\
\hline from & di'e \({ }^{+/}\) & \(\leftarrow * d r ̀ ə g i ́\) & "get" \\
\hline & púň'өr \({ }^{\text { }}\) & \(\leftarrow *\) põ'ว̃grı̄ & "rotting" \\
\hline from & pūn̆'e+/ & \(\leftarrow *\) põ'ว̃gí & "rot" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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

nāada/
nāad}\mp@subsup{}{}{\textrm{a}/

```
"finish" ipfv
"finisher"

\section*{7．2．1．2 Subpattern HL}

Subpattern HL represents stems with intrinsic initial ML．Few words belong here，but several are very common． \(\mathrm{Sg} / \mathrm{pl}\) 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．
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline nú＇ùg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & nú＇ùs \({ }^{\text { }}\) & nū＇－ & ＂hand，arm＂ \\
\hline à－gávon̆ \({ }^{\text {² }}\) & à－gáàn̆d \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & à－gān̆－ & ＂pied crow＂ \\
\hline \(n o ́ b i r^{\varepsilon}\) & nכ̄bá \({ }^{+}\) & nכ̄b－ & ＂foot，leg＂ \\
\hline gर́l \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & \(g \bar{\varepsilon} l^{+}\) & \(g \bar{\varepsilon} /-\) & ＂egg＂ \\
\hline gbé̇̇n̆m \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & no pl & \(g b \overline{\bar{n}}{ }^{\text {－}}\) & ＂sleep＂ \\
\hline Kísùg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & kīsá \({ }^{+}\) & kīs－ & ＂hateful，taboo＂（adj） \\
\hline áñsìb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & āňs－nám \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ān̆s－ & ＂mother＇s brother＂ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Here belong the irregularly formed gerunds
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { sóňsìga } \\
& \text { gósig } \\
& \text { kìkírùg }
\end{aligned}
\]
```

"conversing"
"looking"
"hurrying" (L prefix)

```

Olawsky treats words like Dagbani gállì＂egg＂（Kusaal gélı）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－\(\underline{3.2}\) ，and cf Mooré gãoobgó＂pied crow．＂Nú＇ùg＂hand＂has \({ }^{\top}{ }^{\varepsilon}\) class cognates in Nawdm núpú pl nípí and Gurmanche nùu pl nii；Kusaal has probably added further class suffixes to the original \(\mathrm{sg} / \mathrm{pl}\) forms．

\section*{7．2．2 Pattern L}

Pattern L comprises all nouns and adjectives beginning with L in \(\mathrm{sg} / \mathrm{pl}\) ．All tonemes are L，except on third or fourth morae when followed by stem－internal＊－m－ （including cases where＊－mg－has assimilated to－מ－），which carry H．
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline sù \({ }^{\text {u }}{ }^{\text {a }}\) & sù＇us \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & sù＇－ & ＂knife＂ \\
\hline zà \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & zà＇as \({ }^{\text { }}\) & zà＇－ & ＂dwelling－compound＂ \\
\hline dìgır \({ }^{\text {E }}\) & diga \({ }^{+}\) & dìg－ & ＂dwarf＂ \\
\hline mう̀ıf & mうlı＋ & mうl－ & ＂gazelle＂ \\
\hline kù＇өm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & no pl & ku＇à－ & ＂water＂ \\
\hline mà \({ }^{+}\) & mà nám \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & mà－ & ＂mother＂ \\
\hline \(m \varepsilon)^{\text {a }}\) & \(m غ ̀ \varepsilon m ı s^{\varepsilon}\) & mèzท－ & ＂turtle＂ \\
\hline pògudı \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & pùgud－nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & pògod－ & ＂father＇s sister＂ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline sàam \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & sàam-nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & sàam- & "father" \\
\hline dìəm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & dìm-nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & diəm- & "man's parent-in-law" \\
\hline àňrup & àn̆rıma+ & àňrun- & "boat" \\
\hline \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{kàrın \({ }^{\text {ºr }}\) or kàrımug \({ }^{\text { }}\)} & "reading" (gerund) \\
\hline zùlon \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & zùlıma+ & zùlon- & "deep" \\
\hline yàlop & yàlıma+ & yàlon- & "wide" \\
\hline zilım \({ }^{\text {me }}\) & zìlıma+ & zilım- & "tongue" \\
\hline sàal \({ }^{\text {a }}\) (cf 7.3) & sàalı \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & sàal- & "human" \\
\hline nj̀mıd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & & & "lover" \\
\hline \multirow[t]{3}{*}{siilína} & siilímìs \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & & \\
\hline & siilís \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & & \\
\hline & siilímà \({ }^{+}\) & siilín- & "proverb" \\
\hline zàan̆sún \({ }^{\text {² }}\) & zàaňsímà \({ }^{+}\) & zàan̆sún- & "dream" \\
\hline nכ̀ılím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & & nכ̀ulím- & "love" \\
\hline nว̀mıdím-tāa= & 13.2.1.4 & & "fellow lover" WK \\
\hline sòmıdím-tāa= & & & "fellow-helper" \\
\hline dàalím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & dàalímis \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & dàalím- & "male sex organs" \\
\hline pò'alím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & pò'alímis \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & pò'alím- & "female sex organs" \\
\hline bi'isím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & & & "milk" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Nouns which are not \(m\)-stems do not show \(H\) before the class suffix \(m^{m}\) :
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline bj̀วdım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & no pl & bう̀วdım-9.2.2 & "will" \\
\hline ż̀tım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & no pl & & "fear" \\
\hline dàalım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & no pl & & "maleness" \\
\hline pò'alım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & no pl & & "femininity" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Tonally exceptional in showing \(H\) before stem \(m\) on the second mora is
bùgóm \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\) no pl bùgúm- or bùgūm- "fire"

These forms in -mís \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) perhaps derive from *-mımsı:
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
no sg & tàdımís & "weakness" \\
no \(s g\) & bùdımís & "confusion"
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{7.2.3 Pattern 0}

Pattern O shows M throughout in \(\mathrm{sg} / \mathrm{pl}\) forms and L throughout in the cb .
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(b \bar{u} \mathrm{v}^{\text {a }}\) & \(b \bar{u} s^{\varepsilon}\) & \(b\) b̀- & "goat" \\
\hline tān \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) & tāna \({ }^{+}\) & tàn- & "earth" \\
\hline \(s i d^{\text {a }}\) & \(s i ̄ d ı b^{\text {a }}\) & sid- & "husband" \\
\hline \(p u{ }_{\text {cax }}{ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(p \bar{o}^{\prime} a b^{\text {a }}\) & pu'à- & "woman, wife" \\
\hline sā'ab \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & no pl & sà'- & "millet porridge" \\
\hline \(g b i ̄ g ı m^{\mathrm{n}}\) & gbīgıma+ & gbigım- & "lion" \\
\hline n̆wāan \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & n̆wāamıs \({ }^{\text { }}\) & n̆wàan- & "monkey" \\
\hline \(m \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon d^{\text {a }}\) & \(m \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon d ı b^{\text {a }}\) & mèzd- & "builder" \\
\hline siāà \({ }^{\text {d }}{ }^{\text {a }}\) & siākıdı \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & siàkıd- & "believer" \\
\hline \(b u ̄ t ı \eta^{\text {a }}\) & \(b \bar{t} t ı s^{\varepsilon}\) & bùtı- & "cup" \\
\hline \(m \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon d ı \eta^{\text {a }}\) & \(m \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon d s^{\varepsilon}\) & mèzdıワ- & "building tool" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Agent nouns of the types which have - \(d\) - only in the plural when derived from from Pattern LO verbs are tonally heteroclite, consistently showing Pattern L sg and Pattern O pl (the cb would have had L tonemes in either case) 7.5:
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { pù'us }{ }^{\text {a }} \quad \text { pō'usıdıb }{ }^{\mathrm{a}} \text { pù'us- "worshipper" } \\
& \text { kùөs }{ }^{\text {a }} \text { kūөsıdıba kù̀s- "seller" }
\end{aligned}
\]

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 8.1:

\section*{Lì kā' gbígìmmé?}
"Isn't it a lion?"

Certain Pattern O words show LF-final H instead of the expected M toneme before prosodic clitics, but not before liaison words. For WK this occurs when the LF has > 3 vocalic morae and ends in -VCV, where \(C\) is a single consonant (i.e. not \(\eta\) ):
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline yūgudır \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & yūgoda+ & yùgod- & "hedgehog" \\
\hline n̆wāan \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & n̆wāamıs \({ }^{\text {¢/ }}\) & n̆wàay- & "monkey" \\
\hline bāpıd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & bāpıdıba' & bàpıd- & "wise man" \\
\hline \(k p a ̄ r ı d ı \square^{\text {a }}\) & \(k p a ̄ r ı d ı s^{\varepsilon /}\) & kpàrıdın- & "thing for locking" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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 *-mmu):
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline gbīgım \({ }^{\text {me/ }}\) & gbīgıma \({ }^{+}\) & gbìgım- & "lion" \\
\hline zว̄วm \({ }^{\text {m } / 1}\) & zว̄)ma+ & zว̀วm- & "fugitive" \\
\hline tādım \({ }^{\text {m/ }}\) & tādımıs \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & tàdım- & "weak person" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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 n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) gbīgımmé \(\varepsilon\) ?
Lì à nē gbígìmmé?
"Is it a lion?" WK only; rejected by DK "Is it a lion?" both WK and DK

\subsection*{7.2.4 Noun prefixes}

On noun prefixes generally see 14 . Tonally they are either M or L.
L noun prefixes do not affect the rest of the tone pattern of the prefixed word:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline H & dàyūug \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & dàyūud \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & dàyū- & "rat" \\
\hline HL & Bùsán \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & Bùsáàn̆s \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & Bùsān- & "Bisa person" \\
\hline L & kùkpàrıga & kùkpàrıs \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & kùkpàr- & "palm tree" \\
\hline O & dàkiig \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & dàkiis \({ }^{\text { }}\) & dàkì- & "sib-in-law via wife" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline H & zīnzāun/ & zīnzāná+ & zīnzáun- & "bat" \\
\hline H & Ňwāmpūrıg \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & Ňwāmpūrss \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & Ňwāmpúr- & "Mamprussi person" \\
\hline H & \(g o ̄ m p u ̄ z \bar{z} r^{\varepsilon /}\) & gūmpūz̄̄yá \({ }^{+}\) & gūmpūzér- & "duck" \\
\hline H & tīntōn̆ríg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & tīntōn̆rís \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & tīntóñr- & "mole" 7.2.1.1 \\
\hline H & pipiòrıga & pipiotrs \({ }^{\text {e/ }}\) & pīpír- & "desert" \\
\hline H & bālērug \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & bālērıd \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & bālćr- & "ugly person" \\
\hline O & fūfōm \({ }^{\text {me }}\) & fūfūma+ & fūfúm- & "envy; stye in the eye" \\
\hline L & sāmán \({ }^{\text {n¢ }}\) & sāmánà \({ }^{+}\) & sāmán- & "courtyard" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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-:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline O & \(z u ̄ g-k u ̄ g r^{\varepsilon /}\) & \(z u ̄ g-k \bar{g} a^{+}\) & zūg-kóg- & "pillow" 9.2.2 \\
\hline O & \(k a ̄-w \bar{n} n \iota^{\varepsilon /}\) & kā-wह̄nna+ & kā-wદ́n- & "corn" \\
\hline H & \(p u ̄ k p a ̄ a d^{\text {a/ }}\) & \(p \bar{k} k\) āadíb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & pūkpá- & "farmer" 14.1.4 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{7.3 Verbs}

Verbs show just two Tone Patterns:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
Pattern H & initial M or H \\
Pattern LO & L throughout in the indicative and imperative moods \\
& M throughout in the irrealis mood
\end{tabular}

Dual-aspect verbs have three finite forms 11.1. The \(-m^{\text {a }}\) imperative is found only (and always) with tone overlay 19.6.1.1 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 7.1, 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 7.5. There has been extensive tonal levelling, extending also to gerunds. Tonally anomalous 2-mora stem gerunds survive with Subpattern HL and with Pattern L 12.2.1.1: segmental and tonal levelling correlate in the two gerunds of \(k i ̄ r^{\varepsilon}\) "hurry, tremble": kìkíròg \({ }^{\text {² }}\) and \(k i ̄ r ı b^{\partial /}\).

\subsection*{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 5.2.1; 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:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
Ò pū gōsع. & "She didn't look" \\
Ò pū gósc̀ \(?\) & "Didn't she look?" \\
Ò pū dūge. & "She didn't cook." \\
Ò pū dúgè \(?\) & "Didn't she cook?"
\end{tabular}

The final mora carries \(H\) before liaison words, probably from the same imposition of underlying L as in Pattern LO verbs 8.2.2:
\[
\text { Kà ò dūgíl } 1 \text { "And she cooked it." }
\]

Unlike nouns, verbs show no anomalous patterns due to mora deletion (see on fusion verbs below), and no Subpattern HL.

Examples for Pattern H:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline \(\check{n} y \bar{\varepsilon}^{+}\) & n̆y \(\mathrm{E}^{\text {a/ }}\) & "see" \\
\hline \(k \overline{0}^{+}\) & kūod \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "kill" \\
\hline \(d \bar{u} g^{\varepsilon}\) & dūgud \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "cook" \\
\hline pināñ'a & pinān'ad \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "speak", "praise" \\
\hline kūlı & kūn \({ }^{\text {na/ }}\) & "go home" \\
\hline yādıg \({ }^{\text {¢/ }}\) & yādıgíd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "scatter" \\
\hline  & móon \({ }^{\text {na }}\) & "proclaim" \\
\hline dīgı \({ }^{\text {E/ }}\) & dīgín \({ }^{\text {na }}\) & "lay down" \\
\hline \(n \overline{k^{\varepsilon /}}\) /kk/ & nj̄kíd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) /kk/ & "take" \\
\hline Iāním \({ }^{\text {m/ }}\) & lānímma & "wander searching" \\
\hline & \(v \bar{u} e^{\text {a/ }}\) & "be alive" \\
\hline & dīgıya/ & "be lying down" \\
\hline & ti'jyal & "be leaning" (objects) \\
\hline & zān̆la/ & "be holding" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

As with nominals 7.2.1, tautosyllabic delinking results in MH on a long vowel becoming single H ; again, LFs ending in long vowels or diphthongs or \(-m m\) where the LF final mora would have carried \(H\) toneme by the usual rules show \(H\) at the beginning of the final syllable 5.2.1:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline tכ̄ว \({ }^{\text {m/ }}\) & tómm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) or \({ }^{\text {tjomíd }}{ }^{\text {a }}\) & "disappear" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
```

pāe\mp@subsup{e}{}{+/}
"reach"
SF pāe LF pāée

```

For the anomalous tonemes of e.g. wā'am ma/ "be long, tall" see 12.1.
Fusion verbs show no sign of \({ }^{*} g\) in the imperfective tonally:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(p a ̄ e^{+/}\) & pāad \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & not *páad \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "reach" \\
\hline di'e \({ }^{+/}\) & di̇ə \(d^{\text {a/ }}\) & not *dí'əd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "get" \\
\hline pūn̆'e \({ }^{+/}\) & pūn̆'өd \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & not *pún̆'өd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "rot" WK \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Contrast the corresponding gerunds in \(-r^{\varepsilon}: p a ́ a r^{\varepsilon} d i ́ \partial r^{\varepsilon} p u ́ n{ }^{\prime} \notin r^{\varepsilon}\).

\subsection*{7.3.2 Pattern LO}

All stem tonemes are \(L\) in the indicative and imperative, and \(M\) in the irrealis.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline \(b u ̀ d^{\varepsilon}\) & bùt \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "plant" \\
\hline \(d i^{+}\) & \(d i t^{\text {a }}\) & "eat" \\
\hline \(m \dot{\varepsilon}^{+}\) & \(m e ̀ z d^{\text {a }}\) & "build" \\
\hline zà \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & \(z a ̀ b ı d^{\text {a }}\) & "fight, hurt" \\
\hline bùe \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & bùon \({ }^{\text {na }}\) & "call" \\
\hline bj̀dıg \({ }^{\text { }}\) & bj̀dıgıd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "get lost, lose" \\
\hline \(n i \eta^{\varepsilon}\) & nìı \(\mathrm{d}^{\text {a }}\) & "do" \\
\hline màal \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & \(m a ̀ a n{ }^{\text {na }}\) & "sacrifice" \\
\hline \(d i ̀ g ı n^{\varepsilon}\) & dìgınıda & "lie down" \\
\hline wànım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & wànım \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & "waste away" \\
\hline siilım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & siilım \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & "cite proverbs" \\
\hline zàan̆sım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & zàan̆sım \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & "dream" \\
\hline & zìn̆'iya & "be sitting down" \\
\hline & tàbıya & "be stuck to" \\
\hline & tèn̆r \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "remember" \\
\hline & \(v \varepsilon ̇ n^{\text {na }}\) & "be beautiful" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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

Ò nà bj̄dıg.
Ò nà v \(\begin{gathered}n \\ \text {. }\end{gathered}\)
Ò kù zābe.
Ò kù bj̄dıge.
Ò kù bう̄dıgıda.
Ò kù būөnna.
Ò nà bj̄dıgı m.
Ò kù bj̄dıgı má.
Ò nà bj̄dıgı bá.
Ò kù bj̄dıgı báa.
Ò kù bj̄dıgıdı má.
Ò kù zābıdı má.
Ò kù zābıdıné.
Ò kù sīilımm.
but Ò kù lānímm.
"He'll get lost."
"She'll be beautiful."
"She won't fight."
"He won't get lost."
"She won't be getting lost."
"She won't be calling."
"He will lose me."
"He will not lose me."
"She will lose them."
"She won't lose them."
"He won't be losing me."
"He won't be fighting me."
"He wouldn't have been fighting."
"She won't cite proverbs" WK
"She won't wander about searching (lāním \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\) )."

Such forms are always followed by M spreading:

Ò nà zāb ná'àb lā.
Ò nà gōs ná'àb lā.
"He'll fight the chief." "He'll look at the chief."

The LF with the enclitic pronoun \({ }^{\circ}\) can here show either M or H (all WK):
\[
\begin{array}{cl} 
& \text { Ò kù zāb•ó-o. } \\
\text { or } \quad \text { Ò kù zāb•o-o. } \\
& \text { Ò kù kād•ó-o. } \\
\text { or Ò kù kād•o-o. }
\end{array}
\]

> "He won't fight him."
> "He won't fight him."
> "He won't drive him away."
> "He won't drive him away."

In questions, clause-final M...M become L...L just as with Pattern O nominals:
M̀ ná bj̀dıgとع? "Will I get lost?"

\subsection*{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 8.3.1. 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 8.2.2.

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 \(\bar{a}^{+} /\). Pattern \(L\) are n̆wà \({ }^{+}\)"this" and sà \({ }^{+}\)"hence, ago"; Pattern O is the independent-perfective marker yā \({ }^{+}\)19.6.2.1.

Pattern H enclitics change the M to H in the LF (compare the words with apocope-blocking 7.1.) Before the negative prosodic clitic 8.1 the Pattern H LFs thus end in H, while the Pattern O clitic ends in M , and before the two interrogative prosodic clitics 8.1, Pattern O becomes all-L. Thus with \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)and \(y \bar{a}^{+}\):
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
Lì bj̀dıg nē. & "It's lost." \\
Lì bj̀dıg néع? & "Is it lost?" \\
Lì bj̀dıg yā. & "It's got lost." \\
Lì bj̀dıg yàa? & "Has it got lost?"
\end{tabular}

Ka o ba' ne o ma pu ban ye o kpelim yaa.
Kà ò bā' né ò mà pū báp yé ò kpèlım yāa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
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)

\subsection*{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 \(\mathrm{L}, \mathrm{O}\) or LO Patterns, or vice versa, but this happens systematically in the derivation of stative verbs from adjectives \(\underline{12.1}\) and of assume-stance verbs from stance verbs 13.1.1.

The word gīŋllím \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\) "shortness" is derived from the Pattern O adjective gīna "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 giinhlím \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\) id.

Roots showing Subpattern HL in nouns and adjectives fall together with regular Pattern H in all other derived or cognate words:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline áňsìb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "maternal uncle" & ān̆sín \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "sister's child" \\
\hline kísòg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "hateful" & \(k i \bar{s}^{\text {a/ }}\) & "hate" \\
\hline gósìg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "looking" & \(g \bar{\jmath} s^{\varepsilon}\) & "look" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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:
\begin{tabular}{lllll} 
bïiga \(^{\mathrm{a}}\) & "child" & bìilím \\
nà'ab & "childhood" & \((--)\) \\
nā'am & "chief" & "chiefship" & \((-m-)\)
\end{tabular}

Most derivational suffixes added to O/L roots produce Pattern L/LO stems. No stem with \({ }^{*} g{ }^{*} /{ }^{*}\) s or \({ }^{*} b\) as a final derivational suffix is Pattern 0 .

All segmentally regular gerunds have predictable Tone Patterns; most segmentally irregular gerunds formed from root verbs are tonally regular.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multicolumn{4}{|c|}{from Pattern H verbs from Pattern LO verbs} & Pattern H \\
\hline & \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{\multirow[t]{2}{*}{2-mora stem perfective otherwise}} & Pattern O \\
\hline & & & & Pattern L \\
\hline \(d \bar{v} g^{\varepsilon}\) & "cook" & \(\rightarrow\) & dūgub \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & \\
\hline \(n \overline{k^{\varepsilon /}}\) & "take" & \(\rightarrow\) & nכ̄kír \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & \\
\hline dīgı \({ }^{\text {I/ }}\) & "lay down" & \(\rightarrow\) & dīgulóg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{lllll}
\(m \grave{\varepsilon}^{+}\) & "build" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(m \varepsilon \bar{\varepsilon} b^{\supset}\) & \\
& & \(\rightarrow\) & mèzdím-tāa= & "fellow-builder" \\
sùn & & "help" & \(\rightarrow\) & sùnıŕr
\end{tabular}

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 13.2.1.4 with \(* d\) from Pattern LO verbs are Pattern \(L\), as in bう̀วdım \({ }^{m}\) "will" and mèzdím-tāa= "fellow-builder." This *d may historically be identifiable with the \(d\) of the synchronic imperfective flexion \(-d^{\text {a }}\), 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:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
from Pattern H verbs & Pattern H \\
from Pattern LO verbs & \\
\begin{tabular}{l} 
containing derivational \(-d-\) \\
otherwise
\end{tabular} & Pattern O \\
& Pattern L
\end{tabular}

The suffix *d in these formations is Pattern-O-deriving: bうَدdır \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "desirable", \(m \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon d \iota ŋ^{\text {a }}\) "building implement." Stems where this *d is absent (not just assimilated into a cluster as -mn- or -nn-) are Pattern L, with a change of Tone Pattern possible even within a single noun paradigm 7.2.3.

There is little evidence for change of Tone Pattern alone, without any segmental stem alteration, as a derivational process, but a possible case might be


\section*{8 External sandhi}

Kusaal shows a range of intricate external sandhi phenomena, comprising not only segmental contact phenomena \(\underline{8.5}\), but also tone sandhi of two types, one which applies across phrase boundaries 8.3 and one limited to certain NP and AdvP constructions 8.4 , and several processes related to apocope 2.4 , with its complete suppression before certain "prosodic clitics", which have zero segmental form themselves 8.1, and partial suppression before several other particles and pronouns ("liaison words") 8.2 , 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 \({ }^{+} \varnothing\), and liaison word without segmental form are written \(-\varnothing\).

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 phraseinternally, but this does not happen with noun singulars, even before the article \(l \bar{a}^{+/}\):
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline sāen̆ la & "the blacksmith" & \\
\hline sàn̆-kà \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "this blacksmith" & \\
\hline Ò sù'v lór. & "She owns a lorry." & \(s \bar{L}^{\prime} \mathrm{e}^{\text {ya/ }}\) "own" \\
\hline Lì nàa nē. & "It is finished." & nāe+/ "finish" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

In tone sandhi verb perfectives also resemble proclitics. Toende Kusaal perfectives behave like proclitics with respect to word-final stop devoicing \(\underline{3.1} \mathrm{fn}\).

\subsection*{8.1 Prosodic clitics}

All four prosodic clitics \({ }^{5}\) cause lowering of short LF-final \(\iota v\) to \(\varepsilon \supset\) respectively, which are realised slightly closer in this case than as root vowels.

Before prosodic clitics, and in forms with apocope-blocking, final -mı and -mu 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 21.1. 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."
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline tìım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "medicine" & SF tìım & LF tīımm & \(\leftarrow *\) tìımō \\
\hline dāam \({ }^{\text {m/ }}\) & "millet beer" & SF dāam & LF dáamm & \(\leftarrow\) *dāamú \\
\hline vōm \({ }^{\text {m/ }}\) & "life" & SF vōm & LF vómm & \(\leftarrow * v\) v̄mmú \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Word-final iz ue diphthongise to ia ua before prosodic clitics 4.2.
None of these changes occur before liaison 8.2.
Extra-long simple vowels, unlike diphthongs, are not permitted before prosodic clitics; they reduce to two morae. This results in a few words which have segmentally identical SF and LF, as for example:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multirow{3}{*}{but} & sīa \({ }^{+}\) & "waist" & SF sīa & LF sīaa & \(\leftarrow *\) sīəga \\
\hline & dà'a= & "market" & SF dà'a & LF dā'a & \(\leftarrow * d a ̀ ' a g a ̄ ~\) \\
\hline & bāa= & "dog" & SF bāa & LF bāa & \(\leftarrow\) *bāaga \\
\hline & \(k \bar{U} \cdot{ }^{\prime}=\) & "kill him" & \(k \bar{v}^{+}\)"kill & o "him/he & SF/LF [ \(\mathrm{k}^{\mathrm{h}}\) : \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The negative prosodic clitic appears at the end of a clause containing a negated or negative verb 19.5. Superscript notation 2.4.1 represents LFs as they appear before the negative prosodic clitic, both segmentally and tonally.
Lì à nē nóbìr.
"It's a leg."
3INAN COP FOC leg:Sg.

Lì kā' nóbırē \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "It's not a leg."
3INAN NeG.be leg:SG neg.

Lì à \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) dōk. \(\quad\) It's a cooking pot."
3INAN COP FOC pot:SG.

Lì kā' dōkó \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "It's not a pot."
3INAN Neg.be pot:SG NEG.

Unlike short ८ ט, long final « טv are not lowered:

Bà à n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) mólì.
"They are gazelles."
3PL cop foc gazelle:PL.

Bà kā' mól̄̄ı \(+\varnothing\). "They are not gazelles."
3PL NEG.be gazelle:PL neg.

The vocative prosodic clitic ends a NP used as a vocative. It has identical tonal and segmental effects to the negative clitic, except that it neutralises preceding LF-final vowel length as short. The audio NT version sometimes shows a change of final H tone to falling (found also with some Hausa speakers, Jaggar p18.)
M bïise \({ }^{+} \varnothing!\quad\) "My children!"
1SG child:PL voc!

Pu'aa, bo ka fo kaasida?
Pư'āa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\), bó kà fù kāasídà \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
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 one an yadda nipida
dāu ónì àn̆ yàddā-níyìdā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\)
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:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline Lì à nē nóbìr. & "It's a leg (nóbıř)." \\
\hline \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{3INan Cop foc leg:Sg.} \\
\hline Ànó'כnì_ \(\varnothing\) n̆yह̄ nóbırè \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ? & "Who saw a leg?" \\
\hline Who cat see leg:sG cq? & \\
\hline Lì à nē nóbırè \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ? & "Is it a leg?" \\
\hline \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{3INAN COP FOC leg:SG PQ?} \\
\hline Lì à nē dōk. & "It's a cooking pot ( \(d \bar{u} k^{\text {J/ }}\) )." \\
\hline Ànó'כnì n̆yē dūkó? & "Who saw a pot?" \\
\hline Lì à nē dōkójे? & "Is it a pot?" \\
\hline Lì à \(n \bar{\varepsilon} k \overline{\mathrm{u}}\). & "It's a chair (kūk \({ }^{\text {a }}\)." \\
\hline Ànó'כnì ňyĒ kúkà? & "Who saw a chair?" \\
\hline Lì à nē kúkàa? & "Is it a chair?" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Lì à \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) gbīgım．
Ànó＇כnì n̆y \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) gbígìmnع？
Lì à nē gbígìmné？
＂It＇s a lion（gbīgım \({ }^{\mathrm{n} \varepsilon}\) ）．＂
＂Who saw a lion？＂
＂Is it a lion？＂

Length neutralisation results in a five－way a \(\varepsilon\) ว し ט contrast in LF－final vowels by quality alone in this context：
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline Ànó＇כnì n̆yह̄ kúkà？ & ＂Who saw a chair \(\left(k \bar{u} k^{\mathrm{a}}\right)\) ？＂ \\
\hline Ànó＇วnì n̆y \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) yı̄rદ́？ & ＂Who saw a house（yī \(\mathrm{r}^{\varepsilon /}\) ）？＂ \\
\hline Ànכ́＇วnì n̆y dóวgò？ & ＂Who saw a hut（dj̀g）？＂ \\
\hline Ànó＇כnì n̆yē móli？ & ＂Who saw gazelles（mうlı＋）？＂ \\
\hline Ànó＇כnì n̆y \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) bédugú？ & ＂Who saw a lot（bèdvg \({ }^{+}\)＋）？\({ }^{\text {a }}\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The two interrogative prosodic clitics induce a tonal change in the preceding LF．Kusaal is cross－linguistically unusual \({ }^{6}\) in signalling questions with a final falling intonation．All questions，polar or content，end with a L or H toneme．

Word－final \(M\) changes to \(L\) ．Words with all－M tonemes change to all－L． This is an actual change of tonemes，not just a matter of intonation；the new L tonemes are subject to M spreading 8．3．In Kusaal（unlike Dagbani）this lowering only affects the final word，not a sequence of several all－M words．

As part of the falling intonation，the last \(H\) tone syllable in the question is not preceded by downstep after a preceding \(M\) toneme even if the next syllable is stressed 5．1．
```

Ànó'כnì_ø n̆y\varepsiloń bà bìiga + Ø?
Who cAT see 3pL child:SG CQ?
"Who saw their child (bïig}\mp@subsup{}{}{\textrm{a}})\mathrm{ ?"

```

Ànó＇כnì n̆y bíigà？
Ànó＇כnì ňyē sú＇vgà？
Fù bój̀d bó？
Ànó＇כnì n̆yē zưéyà？
＂Who saw a child？＂tonally identical to
＂Who saw a knife（sò＇vga）？＂
＂What（bj̄＋）do you want？＂
＂Who saw hills（zuēēa＋）？＂

Similarly with Pattern LO verbs in the irrealis mood：

M̀ ná bj̄dıg．
M̀ ná bj̀dıgとє？
＂I will get lost．＂
＂Will I get lost？＂

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 gЈ̄sع.
Ò pū gว́sè \(\varepsilon\) ?
Ò pū dūge.
Ò pū dúgè ?
"She didn't look"
"Didn't she look?"
"She didn't cook."
"Didn't she cook?"

\subsection*{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 yà'-clauses:

Kikirig ya'a mor buude, fun tis o ka o lebig o moogin.
Kikīrıg yá' mōr bōטde, fūn tís•ò_ \(\varnothing\) kà ò lèbıg ò mj̄دgu-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."
2SGIRR go.home tomorrow.
but Bēogó fò ná kūl. "You're going home tomorrow." SB
Tomorrow 2sG IRR go.home.

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 beogv precede liaison; clause adjuncts with a final vowel are always written beogo. Similarly, KB consistently shows final \(-v\) in the apocope-blocked word 6.6 bedegv bèdvg \(\bar{u}^{+/}\)"a lot", but just as consistently has final -כ in bכzug כ


Ka o kaas bedegu. \(\quad\) "And he wept greatly." (Genesis 27:38)
Kà ò kāas bédugū.
And 3an weep great:ADV.
bozugo ba zi' one tomi m la naa.
bj̄ zúḡ̄, bà zī' ónì tòmı \(m\) lā náa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
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)

\subsection*{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:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & \multirow[t]{2}{*}{dùm \({ }^{\text {m }}\)} & "bite" & & & \\
\hline & & + suffix - \({ }^{\text {² }}\) & \(\rightarrow\) & \(d u ̄ m^{\text {mo }}\) & gerund "biting" \\
\hline but & & + ba+ "them" & \(\rightarrow\) & dùmı bā & "bite them" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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

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

Position 1:
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
Locative & \(n^{\varepsilon}\) & \(\underline{17.3}\) \\
Discontinuous-past & \(n^{\varepsilon}\) & \(\underline{24.1 .1}\) \\
Postposed 2pl subject pronoun & ya & \(\underline{22.1 .3}\)
\end{tabular}

The locative enclitic attaches directly to noun words; the discontinuous-past marker and the enclitic 2 pl 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 2 pl subject when it is completely deleted by apocope.

Position 2:
all bound object pronouns 16.3.1
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
& Singular & Plural \\
1st & \(\mathrm{m}^{\mathrm{a}}\) & \(\mathrm{t} \iota^{+}\) \\
2nd & \(\mathrm{f}^{\circ}\) & \(\mathrm{ya}^{+}\) \\
3rd animate & \({ }^{\circ}[v]\) & \(\mathrm{ba}^{+}\) \\
3rd inanimate & \(\iota^{+}\) &
\end{tabular}

These pronouns either attach directly to a verb word or after either of the Position 1 clitics, discontinuous-past \(n^{\varepsilon}\) or 2 pl 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 -o 1.3.

Non-enclitic liaison words comprise
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
proclitic personal pronouns & \(\grave{m}\) fù ò lì tì yà bà & \(\underline{16.3 .1}\) \\
personifier clitic & à/ǹ & \(\underline{16.6}\) \\
ànó'j̀n \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "who?" & & \(\underline{16.3 .4}\) \\
nominaliser & ǹ & \(\underline{25}\) \\
catenator & \(n\) & \(\underline{23.1}\) \\
words with number prefixes & à bà bù & \(\underline{14.3}\) \\
words with manner-adverb prefix & à & \(\underline{14.2}\)
\end{tabular}

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 biiis. "We looked at their children."
1PL look.at 3PL child:PL. (Liaison before bà "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 \(\iota\) by default.
LFs ending in \(-m m\) behave as \(-m V\) before liaison.
LF-final -iə -uө remain as such before liaison, not becoming -ia -ua 4.2.
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 8.5.2.

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

Examples with host LFs ending in short vowels:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(k \bar{u} k^{\text {a }}\) & "chair" & \(+n^{\varepsilon}\) & "at, in" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(k u \bar{k} ı-n^{\varepsilon /}\) \\
\hline \(d \bar{u} k^{\prime /}\) & "pot" & \(+n^{\varepsilon}\) & "at, in" & \(\rightarrow\) & dūkí-n \({ }^{\text {c }}\) \\
\hline bj̀ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "want" & \(+t{ }^{+}\) & "us" & \(\rightarrow\) & bj̀วdī tí+ \\
\hline pōvg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "inside" & \(+n^{\varepsilon}\) & "at" & \(\rightarrow\) & pōogu-n \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) \\
\hline \(p \overline{\partial g}{ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "field" & \(+n^{\varepsilon}\) & "at" & \(\rightarrow\) & pว̄วgú-n \({ }^{\text {® }}\) \\
\hline yàug \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "grave" & \(+n^{\varepsilon}\) & "at" & \(\rightarrow\) & yàugū-n \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Bà bj̀دdī m.
Bà pū bว́כdī má.
Bà bj̀วdī lí.
Bà pū bว́כdī líı.
"They love me."
"They don't love me."
"They want it."
"They don't want it."

LFs ending in -mm:
\begin{tabular}{lllll} 
tùm m & "send" & \(+t \iota+\) & "us" & \(\rightarrow\) \\
tòmı \(t \imath^{+}+\) \\
dāam \(^{\mathrm{m} /}\) & "beer" & \(+n^{\varepsilon}\) & "at, in" & \(\rightarrow\) \\
dāamín \\
kù'өm
\end{tabular}

LFs ending in long vowels:
dà' \(a=\) "market" \(+n^{\varepsilon}\) "at, in" \(\rightarrow \quad\) dā'an \({ }^{\varepsilon /} \underline{\text { 2.4.1 }}\)

Kà bà kúv \(m\).
Kà bà pō kúv mā.
Kà bà Kúv bā.
Kà bà pū Kúv báa.

Kà bà kía lī.
Kà bà pū kía líı.

Kà bà ňyće \(m\).
Kà bà \(p \overline{0}\) n̆ý́ \(\varepsilon\) mā.
"And they killed me." (k \(\bar{u}^{+}\)"kill")
"And they didn't kill me."
"And they killed them."
"And they didn't kill them."
"And they cut it." (kià+ "cut")
"And they didn't cut it."
"And they saw me." (n̆y \(\bar{\varepsilon}^{+}\)"see")
"And they didn't see me."

Reduction of 3-mora diphthongs to 2-mora long vowels:
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { pāe }{ }^{+/} \text {"reach" }+t_{\imath}{ }^{+} \text {"us" } \rightarrow \quad \text { páa } t^{+}+/ \\
& \text {pīe }{ }^{+/} \text {"wash" }+t \iota^{+} \text {"us" } \rightarrow \text { pía } t \bar{l}{ }^{+/} \\
& \text {dūe }{ }^{+/} \text {"raise" }+t \imath^{+} \text {"us" } \rightarrow \text { dúe tī+/ }
\end{aligned}
\]

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):
\[
\begin{array}{lllll}
s \bar{u}^{\mathrm{e}} \mathrm{ya} / & \text { "own" } & +\iota^{+} & \text {"it" } & \rightarrow \\
\text { vōen'v } & \text { "live" } & +n^{\varepsilon} & \text { dp } & \rightarrow \\
\text { vōv- } n^{\varepsilon /}
\end{array}
\]

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 3 sg animate object pronoun \({ }^{\circ}\) [ v\(]\) "him/her" and the enclitic 2 pl subject pronoun \({ }^{\text {ya}: ~}\)


Nominaliser- \(\grave{2} \underline{25}\) combines with a preceding pronoun subject to produce a special set of pronouns 16.3.1, 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 zūөbíd wōsa kállì_ \varnothing àň s``әm
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 23.122 .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 \(\varnothing\) in interlinear glossing:

Kà ò zכ́כ Ø \(\varnothing\) k \(\bar{\varepsilon} \eta\) nā. "And he came running"
And zan run cat come hither.
```

Bう̄_ Ø lá + Ø? "What's that?"

```

What CAT that cQ?

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 \(-m-n-/\) 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.
toum kane ka m tummi tisid Wina'am la.
tòvm-kànı kà m̀ tómmī_ø tísìd Wínà'am lā
work-REL.SG and 1SG work:IPFV CAT give:IPFV God ART
"The work which I do for God" (Rom 15:17)

\subsection*{8.2.1 Vowel quality changes}

Fronting of the second mora of a LF-final long vowel occurs before the 2 pl object pronoun \(y a^{+}\), exactly as word-internally before \(y \underline{6.4}\) with any back mora becoming \(e[\mathrm{I}]\) but no change to front morae:


This secondarily recreates fronting diphthongs in cases like

Kà bà páa bā. "And they reached them." (pāe+/ "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 \(\iota\) takes place before the 2 sg object pronoun \(f\) "you":
```

        Kà bà kí\partial f. "And they cut you (sg)."
    or Kà bà kío f.
        Kà bà n̆yć\varepsilon f.
        or Kà bà n̆y\varepsilońo f.
            Kà bà páa f.
    or Kà bà páv f.
        M gbáň'a f.
    or M̀ gbán̆'vf.
    ```

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 \(f \iota^{+}\)class singular suffix.

The 3sg animate object pronoun \({ }^{\circ}\) [ \(\mho\) ] "him/her" and the enclitic 2 pl subject pronoun \({ }^{y a}\), 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 4.5.

Before \({ }^{\circ}\) the preceding mora becomes \(\cdot 0\) 1.3.1 [ \(\mho\) ], always lax. In the LF the preliaison mora fuses with the [ \(\quad\) ] of the LF of the pronoun itself create a long vowel [ \(\mathrm{v}:]\), written -0-o:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline bう̀วdā & "wants" & + \({ }^{0}\) & "him/her" & \(\rightarrow\) & bj̀วdó-o & (SF bj̀ \({ }^{\text {d }}\)-ō) \\
\hline tòm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "send" & + 0 & "him/her" & \(\rightarrow\) & tùm•ó-o & (SF tòm•ō) \\
\hline kīa & "cut" & + 0 & "him/her" & \(\rightarrow\) & ki \(\bar{\circ} \mathrm{o}-\mathrm{o}\) & (SF ki.o) \\
\hline \(\check{n ¢ y \varepsilon} \varepsilon\) & "see" & \(+{ }^{\circ}\) & "him/her" & \(\rightarrow\) & n̆y ¢ 0 ó-o & (SF n̆ý์•o) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
Fò bóวd•ō ø. "You love her." [fobo:dv]

2SG want 3AN.OB.

Fù pū bכ́כd•ó-o +ø. "You don't love her." [fop̌bכ:dv:]
2SG NEG.IND want-3AN.OB NEG.

Fù n̆yźo_ø.
"You've seen her."
[føjǐ̃̃̃]
25G see 3AN.ob.

Fù pū n̆yह̄•ó-o \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "You've not seen her." [fop \({ }^{\text {ºjez̃̃: }]}\)
2SG neg.Ind see-3AN.ob neg.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(z \bar{u}^{+}\) & "steal" & + 0 & "him/her" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(z u ̄ o^{\text {ooo }}\) SF [zuv] & LF [zuv:] \\
\hline \(\check{n} y \bar{\varepsilon}^{+}\) & "see" & + 0 & "him/her" & \(\rightarrow\) & n̆y \(\cdot{ }^{\circ} 0^{-0} \mathrm{SF}\) [j̃̃̃v] & LF [j̃̌̃ข:] \\
\hline \(d i^{+}\) & "eat" & \(+0\) & "him/her" & \(\rightarrow\) & dì \(0^{-0}\) SF [div] & LF [div:] \\
\hline kià \({ }^{+}\) & "cut" & \(+{ }^{\circ}\) & "him/her" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(k i \cdot o^{-0} \quad \mathrm{SF}\) [ \(\mathrm{k}^{\text {hiv }}\) ] & LF [ \(\mathrm{k}^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{i}\) : \(]\) \\
\hline \(p a \bar{e}{ }^{+/}\) & "reach" & \(+{ }^{0}\) & "him/her" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(p a ̄ \cdot o^{-0}\) & \\
\hline pie \({ }^{+/}\) & "wash" & \(+{ }^{\circ}\) & "him/her" & \(\rightarrow\) & pio \(\mathrm{o}^{-0}\) & \\
\hline dūe \({ }^{+/}\) & "raise" & \(+{ }^{\circ}\) & "him/her" & \(\rightarrow\) & dū \({ }^{\text {óo }}\) & \\
\hline àeñ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "be" & + 0 & "him/her" & \(\rightarrow\) & àn̆ \(\cdot 0^{-0}\) & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Mane a o.
"I am he." (Jn 18:5, 1976)
Mānı_ ø án̆•O_ø.
1SG.CNTR CAT COP 3AN.OB.

Before ya the preceding mora becomes lax [ I ], usually written e as normal after another vowel symbol.
\begin{tabular}{lllll}
\multicolumn{3}{c}{} & gว̀sım & \\
SF & gว̀sımī_ & "look!" & \\
LF & gว̀sımı̄_ yá & "look ye!" & Traditional: gosimi \\
& & \(\underline{22.1 .3}\) & Traditional: gosimiya
\end{tabular}

In many cases this has the same outcome as word-internal fronting before \(y \underline{6.4}\) and before the 2 pl object pronoun \(\mathrm{ya}^{+}\), but replacement also affects front vowels:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & \(k \overline{0}^{+}\) & "kill" & + ya & "ye" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(k \bar{e} e^{-y a /}\) & [ \(\mathrm{K}^{\text {h }}\) II] \\
\hline & kià+ & "cut" & + ya & "ye" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(k i \bar{e}-\mathrm{ya} /\) & [ \(\mathrm{k}^{\mathrm{h} I}\) ] \\
\hline & \(p a \bar{e}{ }^{+/}\) & "reach" & + ya & "ye" & \(\rightarrow\) & pāe-ya/ & \\
\hline & pie \({ }^{+/}\) & "wash" & + ya & "ye" & \(\rightarrow\) & pie \({ }^{-y \mathrm{y} /}\) & \\
\hline & \(d u \bar{e}{ }^{+/}\) & "raise" & + ya & "ye" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(d u \bar{e}{ }^{-y a /}\) & \\
\hline but & \(b \grave{c}^{+}\) & "be" & + ya & "ye" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(b \bar{\varepsilon} e^{-y a /}\) & [ber] written bei \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Before liaison words beginning with à- the quality of the final vowel mora of the preceding word is not predictable from the phonology alone.

Before ànó'j̀n \(n^{\varepsilon}\) "who?", the manner-adverb prefix à- and the personifier-clitic allomorph à the LF-final vowel is \(\iota(\nu\) after a velar preceded by a rounded vowel):
```

Ò nìí_ àlá.
3AN do ADV:thus
yeli Abaa
"said to Dog" KSS p20
y\varepsiloǹll_À-Bāa
say PERS-dog:SG

```

Fusion verbs 11.1 show forms in final \(e\) [r] in these cases, instead of the monophthongs aa iə ue usual before another word in the VP 8.5.2:
... [n] loo Abaa zuur
"... tying Dog's tail" 16.6 KSS p20
... n lóv_À-Bāa zóvir
...CAT tie PERS-dog:sg tail:Sg
but ka ba gban'e Adayuug
"and they seized Rat" KSS p20
kà bà gbán'e_À-Dàyūug
and 3PL seize PERS-rat:SG

However, the verb àen̆ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "be something" always appears as àaň, not àeň.

Ka fu aan anכ'כne?
"And who are you?" (Jn 1:19)
Kà fò áan̆ àn'́'כnè \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
And 2 SG cop who cQ?

Before the number prefix \(a\) - the pre-liaison vowel is instead -a :
\(\grave{M}\) mór nē bïisá_ àtán̆'. "I have three children."
1SG have foc child:PL NUM:three.

basket:PL Num:how.many cQ? (contrast àlá "thus" above)

These rules are consistent in written materials. However my informants contract -á à- to á- with the number prefix (effectively just treating it as having an ordinary L toneme susceptible to M spreading):
```

Nū'-bíbis álá kà fù ňyह̄tá +}\varnothing\mathrm{ ?
hand-small:PL Num:how.many and 25G see:IPFV cQ?
"How many fingers do you see?"

```

With other words beginning with a- my informants generally do not show liaison at all, except with àlá after imperatives, where the -í à- is contracted to either -á- or -í- depending on the speaker.
gj̀sımí lá or gj̀sım álá "Keep on looking!"

WK and DK both always round the LF-final vowel before ò "his/her":

Bà gว̀sú_ò bïig. "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. -l [I]), which is presumably the original older form.

The number prefix \(a\) - originated as *クa-, the old \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)class pl agreement 14.3. Original word-internal \(* \eta\) has disappeared completely throughout Western Oti-Volta (synchronic non-initial \(\eta\) being always from *mg or *ng \(\rightarrow \eta\) ), whereas word-medial \(y\) \(w\) survive in many contexts. Initial \(* \eta\) 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 * \(\quad\) a 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.)

\subsection*{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:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline \multirow[b]{3}{*}{cf} & \\
\hline & Kà m̀ zábì bā. M pū bóวdī báa. \\
\hline & Kà \(\grave{m} p \bar{u}\) zábì báa. \\
\hline cf & Kà m̀ pū zábì f̄. \\
\hline & Ànó'כnì kúv bá? \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
"I've fought them."
"And I've fought them."
"I don't love them."
"I don't love you."
"And I didn't fight them."
"And I didn't fight you."
"Who has killed them?" SF kóv bā

The locative enclitic \(n^{\varepsilon}\) does not alter the preceding toneme:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline pōvg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "inside" & \(+n^{\varepsilon}\) & "at" & \(\rightarrow\) pūogu-n \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) & \\
\hline biig \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "child" & \(+n^{\varepsilon}\) & "at" & \(\rightarrow\) biigı-n \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) & WK \\
\hline mò'ar \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "dam, lake" & \(+n^{\varepsilon}\) & "at" & \(\rightarrow\) mò'arī-n \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & \\
\hline p亏̄วg/ & "field" & \(+n^{\varepsilon}\) & "at" & \(\rightarrow p \bar{\partial} g\) ט́- \(n^{\varepsilon}\) & \\
\hline yàad \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "graves" & \(+n^{\varepsilon}\) & "at" & \(\rightarrow\) yàadī-n \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) & WK \\
\hline kūodíb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "killers" & \(+n^{\varepsilon}\) & "at" & \(\rightarrow\) Kūodíbī-n \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) & WK \\
\hline dà'a= & "market" & \(+n^{\varepsilon}\) & "at" & \(\rightarrow\) dā'a-n \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) for & - \(n^{\varepsilon /} \underline{\text { 5.2.1 }}\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
 LF-final M after \(\mathrm{L} / \mathrm{H}\) despite being changed by L spreading 8.4.

Discontinuous-past \(n^{\varepsilon}\) and the postposed 2 pl ya both impose M tone on the preceding LF-final mora, regardless of its intrinsic toneme:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & \(d \bar{u} g^{\varepsilon}\) & "cook" & \(+n^{\varepsilon}\) & dp & \(\rightarrow\) dōgu-n \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) \\
\hline & bj̀dıg \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "lose" & \(+n^{\varepsilon}\) & dp & \(\rightarrow\) bj̀dıgī-n \({ }^{\text {ع/ }}\) \\
\hline & yādıg \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) & "scatter" & \(+n^{\varepsilon}\) & dp & \(\rightarrow\) yādıgı-n \(n^{\varepsilon /}\) \\
\hline ipfv & kūod \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "kill" & \(+n^{\varepsilon}\) & dp & \(\rightarrow\) kūodı-n \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) \\
\hline ipfv & yādıgíd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "scatter" & \(+n^{\varepsilon}\) & dp & \(\rightarrow\) yādıgídī-n \(n^{\varepsilon /}\) \\
\hline & \(m \grave{\varepsilon}^{+}\) & "build" & \(+n^{\varepsilon}\) & dp & \(\rightarrow m \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon-n^{\varepsilon /}\) for \(m \bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon}-n^{\varepsilon /}\) 5.2.1 \\
\hline & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{Dā d̄̄llı yá \({ }^{+}\)¢!} & \multicolumn{3}{|c|}{"Follow ye not!"} \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Indicative perfectives without independency-marking tone overlay 19.6.1.1 change LF-final LM \(\rightarrow\) LL and MM \(\rightarrow\) MH before enclitic object pronouns
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline bj̀dıg \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & "lose" & \(+m^{\text {a }}\) "me" & \(\rightarrow\) bj̀dıgı \(\mathrm{m}^{\text {a }}\) \\
\hline \(d{ }^{+}\) & "eat" & \(+\iota^{+}\)"it" & \(\rightarrow\) dìı \(l^{+}+\) \\
\hline yādıg \({ }^{\text {¢/ }}\) & "scatter" & + \(\mathrm{m}^{\text {a }}\) "me" & \(\rightarrow\) yādıgí ma \\
\hline \(d \bar{v} g^{\varepsilon}\) & "cook" & + \(\iota^{+}\)"it" & \(\rightarrow\) dūgí \(\mathrm{l}^{+}+\) \\
\hline \(g \bar{\jmath} s^{\varepsilon}\) & "look" & + \({ }^{\circ}\) "him/her" & \(\rightarrow\) gj̄s \({ }^{\text {óo }}\) \\
\hline \(k \overline{0}^{+}\) & "kill" & + ma "me" & \(\rightarrow\) Kúv ma for kōט́ ma \({ }^{\text {a }}\) 5.2.1 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Pattern H fusion verb perfectives behave exactly like CVV-stems:
\[
\begin{array}{llll}
p a \bar{e} e^{+/} & \text {"reach" } & +m^{a} \text { "me" } & \rightarrow \text { páa } m^{a} \\
d i \bar{e} e^{+/} & \text {"get" } & +b a^{+} \text {"them" } & \rightarrow \text { dí'ə bā}
\end{array}
\]

After all other verb forms, object pronouns do not alter the host tonemes:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(z a ̀ b ı d^{\text {a }}\) & "fights" & \(+m^{\text {a }}\) "me" & \(\rightarrow\) zàbıdī \(\mathrm{m}^{\text {a/ }}\) \\
\hline \(d i t^{\text {a }}\) & "eats" & \(+\iota^{+}\)"it" & \(\rightarrow\) ditī \(l^{+}\) \\
\hline yādıgíd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "scatters" & + ba+ "them" & \(\rightarrow\) yādıgídī bá \({ }^{+}\) \\
\hline kūuda/ & "kills" & \(+m^{\text {a }}\) "me" & \(\rightarrow\) kūodí \({ }^{\text {a }}\) \\
\hline sō'eya/ & "own" & \(+\iota^{+}\)"it" & \(\rightarrow\) Sú'ט \({ }^{\text {lol }}\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The sequence \(\cdot 0-\mathrm{o}\) resulting from the LF of the 3 sg animate pronoun \({ }^{\circ}\) fusing with the vowel before liaison is subject to tautosyllabic delinking 5.2.1:


Irrealis mood forms of Pattern LO verbs:
\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { Ò nà bj̄dıgı m. } & \text { "He will lose me." } \\
\text { Ò kù bJ̄dıgı má. } & \text { "He will not lose me." } \\
\text { Ò nà bj̄dıgı bá. } & \text { "She will lose them." } \\
\text { Ò kù bj̄dıgı báa. } & \text { "She won't lose them." } \\
\text { Ò kù bJ̄dıgıdı má. } & \text { "He won't be losing me." } \\
\text { Ò kù zābıdı má. } & \text { "He won't be fighting me." } \\
\text { Ò kù zāb•ó-o. } & \text { "He won't fight him." } \\
\text { or Ò kù zāb•o-o. } & \text { "He won't fight him." }
\end{array}
\]

Irrealis Pattern LO and indicative Pattern H thus contrast before object pronouns in 2-mora stems:
\[
\begin{array}{cccc}
\text { zābe }+m^{\mathrm{a}} & \rightarrow & \text { zābı } m^{\mathrm{a}} & \text { "...will fight me" } \\
\text { dūge }+m^{\mathrm{a}} & \rightarrow & \text { dūgí } m^{\mathrm{a}} & \text { "...cook for me }
\end{array}
\]

All non-enclitic liaison words begin with a fixed-L toneme 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 díl_bà dīıb. "And we ate their food."
And 1PL eat 3pL food.

Kà ò bódıgì_bà bùmıs. "And he lost their donkeys."
And 3AN lose 3PL donkey:PL.

Kà ò dūgí_ bà dīıb. "And he cooked their food."
And 3AN cook 3PL food.

Imperfective without tone overlay:

Kà bà ditī bá. "And they were eating them."
And 3pL eat:PFV 3PL.Ob.
but Kà bà dití_ bà dīıb. "And they were eating their food." (ML \(\rightarrow\) HL)
And 3PL eat:IPFV 3PL food.

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 y\varepsilon̄l Zūg-sóbí bà tōvmá_\varnothing àn̆ sỉəm lā
REL.PLIRR 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 8.3.1 of nominaliser-ǹ 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.

> Dāu lā záb ná'àb lā. "The man has fought the chief." 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
but dāu lá \(\varnothing\) zàb nà'ab lā "the man having fought the chief" man:SG ART nz fight chief:SG ART
dāu lá Ø gōs ná'àb 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 8.3 .

M̀ nók sú'vgù 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 tom tisi ba

but 3an come hither that 3AN work Cat give 3pl.ob
"but he came to serve them" (Mt 20:28)

\subsection*{8.2.3 The pronoun ya before liaison}

The pronoun ya adopts the allomorph -ní- before liaison, both before pronoun objects and before àlá+ "thus" 19.4. 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 \(\iota\), before which \(n\) became \(n\)-. (Cf also \(n i ̀ y^{\varepsilon}\) "do" \(=\) Toende Kusaal ến, locative \(n^{\varepsilon} \sim n \bar{\iota}^{+/}=\)Toende \(-\iota\), nìe+ "appear" \(=\) Toende yẽe, nīna "body"= Mooré yînga.)
Dā dōllı_yá +ø! "Follow ye not!"

NEG.IMP follow 2PL.SUB NEG!

Di'əmī ø!

> "Receive ye!"
receive:IMP 2PL.SUB!

Dì'əmī-ní_ bā! "Receive ye them!"
receive:IMP-2PL.SUB 3PL.OB

Di'əmī-n•ó_ \(!\) " \(\quad\) Receive ye her!"
receive:Imp-2PL.SUB 3AN.OB.

Sidiba, nongimini ya pu'ab.
Sīdıba \({ }^{+} \varnothing\), nว̀yımī-ní_ yà pū'ab.
Husband:PL voc, love:IMP-2PL.SUB 2PL wife:PL.
"Husbands, love your wives!" (Eph 5:25)

Biise, siakimini ya du'adib nэya.
Bïse \({ }^{+} \varnothing\), síàkımī-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!
Be.lying-2PL.sUB ADV:thus!
Dì’əı̄-ní_ àlá! "keep ye on receiving!"
receive:IMP-2PL.SUB ADV:thus!

Dì'əmī-ní lá /dìəəmī-n álá! "keep ye on receiving!"

\subsection*{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" 8.3.1 a preceding M toneme must become H instead \(\underline{\text { 5.1. }}\). 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 19.6.1.1
Certain words affected by L spreading 8.4
Words ending in an affix vowel with H toneme
bound subject pronouns 19.6.1.2 (including ellipted subjects 21.2.2)
ò lì bà except preceding independency marking m̀ fù tì yà except preceding independency marking after y \(\bar{\varepsilon}\)

Catenator- \(n\) is transparent to M spreading 8.2.2.
The number and manner-adverb prefixes à- 14.214 .3 are followed by M spreading to the stem, probably reflecting an origin as class agreement flexions.

M spreading crosses phrase boundaries if there is no intervening pause, but it does not occur after clause adjuncts 21.2.1.

Bà tìs ná'àb lā bún.
3PL give chief:SG ART donkey:sG.
"They gave the chief a donkey (bùna)."

Bà n̆wè' ná'àb lā sónā. "They beat the chief well (sùnā+/)."
3PL beat chief:SG ART good:ADV.
Raising is absent after words ending in an affix vowel with H toneme:
\(\grave{M}\) dìga lú yā. "My dwarfs have fallen down."
1SG dwarf:PL fall PFV.
but M̀ yōgomá lù yā. "My camels have fallen down."
1SG camel:PL fall PFV.

M spreading examples, with zàb \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "fight" gj̄s \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "look at" nà'ab \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "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 :


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:
\begin{tabular}{ll}
\(\dot{M}\) záb ná'àb lā. & "I've fought the chief." \\
Ò zàb ná'àb lā. & "He's fought the chief." \\
\(\dot{M}\) gós ná'àb lā. & "I've looked at the chief." \\
Ò gj̀s ná'àb lā. & "He's looked at the chief."
\end{tabular}

A minimal pair: ba "them" is followed by M spreading; bà "they, their" is not:
\[
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { Ò gòsī bá bédvgū. } & \text { "She looked at them a lot." } & \text { (ba object) } \\
\text { Ò gòsí bà bèdvgū. } & \text { "She looked at a lot of them." } & \text { (bà possessive) }
\end{array}
\]

After proclitics ending in M toneme this is transparent tone spreading, H representing ML on a single mora 5.1. Clitic pronouns have fixed-L tonemes for my informants even when followed by M spreading, but in such cases ILK and Niggli's materials show them carrying \(M\) tonemes, which can be taken as having given rise to floating M tonemes in current Agolle. To account for M spreading after SFs ending in H or L, floating tonemes can similarly be invoked, historically arising from the tonemes of affix vowels deleted by apocope. 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" zưà "friend" dư'átà "doctor" and lànnıg "squirrel" 9.2.2 show M spreading after the sg but not the cb. The Pattern LO bare-stem single-aspect verbs \(b \grave{\varepsilon}^{+}\)and \(n \grave{\eta^{\varepsilon}}\) are followed by M spreading, unlike Pattern LO perfectives. Lè \(\varepsilon\) "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.

\subsection*{8.3.1 Fixed \(L\) tonemes}

Certain words carry an initial/sole L toneme which is never subject to M spreading. These fixed-L words comprise all non-enclitic liaison words 8.2 except for catenator- \(n\), which is toneless, along with the linker particle kà "and":
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline proclitic personal pronouns personifier clitic & m̀ fò ò lì tì yà bà à-/ǹ- \\
\hline \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{ànó'j̀n \({ }^{\text {" }} \mathrm{who}\) ?"} \\
\hline nominaliser & \(\grave{n}\) \\
\hline all words with number prefixes & à- bà- bù- \\
\hline manner-adverb prefix & à- \\
\hline linker particle & kà \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Initial à- in loanwords may be treated as fixed-L by analogy 15.1.
If there is no intervening pause, a preceding \(M\) toneme must become \(H\) :

Bà kùvdī_bá.
3PL kill:IPFV 3PL.ob.
but
Bà kùvolí_bà būvs.
3PL kill:IPFV 3PL goat:PL.
Lì à né à-dàalún. \(\quad\) "It's a stork"
3INAN COP FOC PERS-stork:SG.
ba diib \(n\) yit na'ateŋ la na zug
bà dítb ǹ yīt ná'-tēn lā nā zúg
3PL food NZ emerge:IPFV king-land:SG ART hither upon
"because their food came from the king's land" (Acts 12:20, 1996)
wuu saa naani iank ya nya'ay n ti paae ya tuona la.
wōv sáa_ ø nāanı íáňk yà n̆yá'aŋ n tí páe_yà tùөna 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)

\section*{8．4 L spreading}

L spreading takes place exclusively within NPs and AdvPs．It occurs after any free form as a pre－dependent，with the exception of the contrastive personal pronouns（like mān＂my＂）；it also occurs after any cb ending in \(M\) toneme，whether as modifier or head．Historically，L spreading after cbs may have arisen from a final L toneme like that imposed on verb perfectives 8．2．2；this might explain its absence after some 1 －mora forms 7．2．4．After free pre－dependents，it may reflect an old associative L toneme．

L spreading affects only the one following word，which may be a cb．
Words beginning with M or H tonemes change all tonemes to \(\mathrm{L}^{7}\) ．
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：
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
bù－pìəlıg & ＂white goat＂ & bù－pāalíg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂new goat＂ \\
bī－pún－pìəlıg & ＂white girl＂ & bī－pón－pāalíg & ＂new girl＂ \\
nJ̄－píəlìg & ＂white hen＂ & n亏̄－páalìga & ＂new hen＂
\end{tabular}

```

    n\overline{-dí'\partial̀s`a}\quad "chief's interpreter"
    pl n亏̄-dí'\partialsìdıba

```

No L spreading after personal pronouns：
m̀ bïig
m̀ tìıg
mān biig
mān tíig
m̀ gbīgım
m̀ yūgúm
＂my child＂（bïiga \({ }^{\text {a }}\) ）
＂my tree＂（tìıga）
＂my child＂
＂my tree＂
＂my lion＂（ \(g b^{\prime} g ı m^{\mathrm{n} \mathrm{\varepsilon}}\) ）
＂my camel＂（yūgóm \({ }^{\text {n }}\) ）

L spreading after words which do not also induce M spreading：
m̀ biēyá bìis
m̀ bièēá fùud
＂my elder same－sex siblings＇children（biiis \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) ）＂
＂my elder same－sex siblings＇clothes（fūud \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) ）＂

7）Unfortunately I did not think to check how words with M prefixes behave with L spreading．e．g dāu lā ？tíntう̀n̆ríg／tíntう̀n̆rıg／tíntōn̆ríg＂the man＇s mole（tīntכ̄n̆ríg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) ）．＂

L spreading after free noun phrases also followed by M spreading：
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline dāu bîg & ＂a man＇s child＂（cf dàu－biiga＂male child＂） \\
\hline dāu tílg & ＂a man＇s tree＂ \\
\hline nà＇ab bîg & ＂a chief＇s child＂ \\
\hline dāu lā gbígìm & ＂the man＇s lion＂ \\
\hline dāu lā yógòm & ＂the man＇s camel＂ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Unlike M spreading，L spreading occurs only within NPs and AdvPs；there is thus a tonal minimal pair between
\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\begin{array}{l}
\text { Bà tìs ná'àb lā bîg. } \\
\text { 3PL give chief:SG ART child:SG. }
\end{array} & \begin{array}{l}
\text { "They've given (it) to the chief's child." } \\
\text { (L spreading applied to bïiga "child") }
\end{array} \\
\text { Bà tìs ná'àb lā bïig. } & \text { "They've given the chief a child." } \\
\text { 3PL give chief:SG ART child:SG. } & \text { (No L spreading applied to bïig") }
\end{array}
\]

It occurs regardless of the meaning or rôle of the preceding dependent：
mכ̄دgu－n wábùg lā＂the wild（in－the－bush）elephant（wābvg \({ }^{\circ /}\) ）＂

After heads，L spreading only occurs with cb heads，not free forms：
but \begin{tabular}{ll} 
kūg－yínnì & ＂one stone＂with yínnì as adjective 16．4．2．1 \\
wābug lāní & ＂one stone＂ \\
wābıs pīiga & ＂the elephant＂ \\
wābıs pīiga Iā & ＂ten elephants＂ \\
& ＂the ten elephants＂
\end{tabular}

The final element of a compound induces following \(M\) spreading in accordance with the usual rules 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 ：
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline bù－wう̄k & ＂tall goat＂ \\
\hline nj̄－wók & ＂tall hen＂ \\
\hline bù－w亏̄k－píəlìg & ＂tall white goat＂ \\
\hline bù－w亏̄k－páalìg & ＂tall new goat＂ \\
\hline n亏̄－wók－pì̀lıg & ＂tall white hen＂ \\
\hline nō－wók－pāalíg & ＂tall new hen＂ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
bù-wj̄k díìb
nō-wók díỉb
"a tall goat's food"
"a tall hen's food" (dīı \(b^{\text { }}\) "food")

A word with only one or two tonemes, affected by both \(M\) and \(L\) spreading after a free pre-dependent is not itself followed by \(M\) spreading.

The final vowel mora of a word affected by \(L\) spreading always has \(M\) toneme before the locative enclitic \(n^{\varepsilon}\) :
dāu lā pว́כgū-n
dāu lā póvgū-n
like dāu lā dóogū-n
"in the man's field ( \(\left.p \bar{\partial} g^{\prime J}\right)\) "
"inside the man" ( \(p \bar{v} \cup g^{\text {a }}\) "inside")
"in the man's hut (dj̀ \(g^{\text {º }}\) )"

Examples, using the frames "the man's (dāu lā) X has got lost (bj̀dıg yā)" and "my elder same-sex siblings' (m̀ bíēyá) X has got lost":

Pattern L, not subject to L spreading:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline bùn \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "donkey" & Dāu lā bún bódìg yā. \\
\hline àn̆run \({ }^{\text {ºn }}\) & "boat" & Dāu lā án̆rùn bódìg yā \\
\hline \(d \grave{s} g{ }^{\text {a }}\) & "house" & Dāu lā dój̀g bódìg yā. \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Pattern HO nouns appear unchanged after L and M spreading, and by analogy have unchanged following tone sandhi; words like náaf "cow" fluctuate:
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
à-gávin̆g & "pied crow" & Dāu lā gávin̆g bj́dìg yā. \\
náaf & "cow" & Dāū lā náàf bj́dìg yā or Dāụ lā náàf bj̀dıg yā.
\end{tabular}

Pattern H and O nouns, affected by L spreading:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline wābug \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "elephant" & Dāu lā wábòg bj̀dıg yā \\
\hline pj̄og \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "field" & Dāu lā pój̀g bj̀dıg yā. \\
\hline bā \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "ring" & Dāu lā bán bj̀dıg yā. \\
\hline \(p \bar{v})^{\text {a }}\) & "inside" & Dāu lā póvòg bòdıg yā. \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
but wābug/ "elephant" M̀ bīēyá wàbug bódìg yā. no M spreading
bān \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "ring" M̀ bīēyá bàn bódìg yā. no M spreading
yūgvdır \({ }^{\varepsilon} \quad\) "hedgehog" \(\grave{M}\) biēēyá yùgvdır bj́dìg yā. no M spreading
yūgodır \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "hedgehog" Dāu lā yúgudìr bódìg yā. three tonemes

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

When \(L\) spreading affects the first component of an existing compound, the second component retains any effects of prior \(L\) and \(M\) spreading even though the first element no longer ends in M toneme:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
bù-pìəlıg & "white goat" \\
bù-pāalíg & "new goat" \\
nō-píəıig & "white hen" \\
nj̄-páalìg & "new hen"
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
dāū Iā bú-pìəlıg & "the man's white goat" \\
dāū Iā bú-pāalíg & "the man's new goat" \\
dāū Iā nó-píəlìg & "the man's white hen" \\
dāun Iā nó-páalìg & "the man's new hen"
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
but & \(d \bar{g} g-k a ́ n a ̄\) & "this pot" \(\left(d \bar{v} k^{J /} \mathrm{cb} d \bar{y} g\right.\) - "pot") \\
& [sālıma dúg-]kànā & "this [golden pot]"
\end{tabular}

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 dój̀g]
pò̀vsug [fúùg dój̀g]
"tent" (fūug/ "cloth", dう̀วg "house")
(not *[pù'usug fúùg] dう̀วg)
"tabernacle" (pù'vsug \({ }^{\text {º }}\) "worship")

Lì kā' [[[dāu lā bîg] bìər] náàf] zùvrē.
"It's not the man's child's elder-same-sex-sibling's cow's tail." WK


\subsection*{8.5 Segmental contact phenomena}

\subsection*{8.5.1 Consonants}

Both the initial consonant and the emic nasalisation of the deictic n̆wà \({ }^{+}\)"this" are lost when it appears as an enclitic after a word ending in a consonant:
\begin{tabular}{cll} 
bïis n̆wá & "these children" & [bi:sa] \\
zàam n̆wá & "this evening" & [za:ma] \\
but pư'ā n̆wá & "this woman" (e.g. as vocative) & [phõãã]
\end{tabular}

The initial / of the definite article \(\bar{I}^{+/ /}\)assimilates totally to a preceding wordfinal \(-r\), and \([r\) : ] simplifies to \([r]\) :
yīr lā
pùkว̀วn̆r lā
"the house" [jira]
"the widow" [ph \({ }^{\text {º }}\) º̃: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- \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)often assimilates completely to a preceding word-final \(d t\) \(n r / m\) in normal rapid speech. Subsequently [r:] becomes [r] and [d:] becomes [d]:

Bà kpìid n̄.
M̀ zót nē.
\(\grave{M}\) mór nē bīisá àyí.
Lì pè'عl nē.
Lì sàn̆'am n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\).
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline "They're dying." & [ba 大pi:d \({ }^{\text {] }}\) \\
\hline "I'm afraid." & [m zot: \(\varepsilon\) ] \\
\hline "I have two children with me." & [ṃ more bi:sa:ji] \\
\hline "It's full." & [İ p \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) :I: \(¢\) ] \\
\hline "It's spoilt." & [II Sã̃:m: \(\varepsilon\) ] \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Other accounts of Kusaal have taken this as a "progressive flexion" -d \(/ t \varepsilon\). Final nasal consonants of proclitics, cbs and noun prefixes assimilate to the place of articulation of a following consonant, as does syllabic \(\grave{n}\) but not \(\grave{m}\) :
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & dànkj̀ & "measles" & [dayk \({ }^{\text {h}}\) ¢ \({ }^{\text {b }}\) \\
\hline & nīn-bámmā & "these people" & [nimbam:a] \\
\hline & nàm zī' & "still not know" & [nanzİ] \\
\hline & \(\stackrel{\text { N-Bil }}{ }\) & Mbillah (personal name) & [mbil] \\
\hline but & M nónī_f. & "I love you." & [mnэıff] \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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

\subsection*{8.5.2 Vowels}

Word-final short vowels denasalise before a clitic with initial \(n\) or \(m\) :
```

àwá nā "like this here" (àn̆wá "like this")
k\overline{\varepsilon}nā "come hither" (kk \check{n}+" "come")

```

Some unstressed CVn̆- elements lose nasalisation even when the following consonant is not a nasal. Thus with compounds of sūn̆f/ "heart" like sū-málısìm \({ }^{m}\) "joy", sūn̆-kpí'ò \(\eta^{3}\) "boldness", sūn̆-p \(\varepsilon\) ह̀n \(n^{\text {n }}\) "anger" the 1996 NT and older sources write sumalism sukpi'oŋ/sukpi'eun supeen, reflecting the bleaching and phonological simplification which has created noun prefixes from some original cbs 14.1.4. KB restores the nasalisation in writing: sunkpi'eun "boldness", sunpern "anger."

With àen̆ \(\breve{n}^{\text {a }}\) "be something/somehow" there is loss of nasalisation before the focus particle \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)(for the loss of the e see below):
```

    M á nह\overline{\varepsilon dāu.}
    but Lì àn̆ sónā. "It's fine."
"I'm a man."

```

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

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 4.2 :
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline ae \(\quad \rightarrow\) a & & oe & \(\rightarrow 0\) & ve & \(\rightarrow 0\) \\
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{ae \(\rightarrow\) aa} & & & & ve & \(\rightarrow\) ט \\
\hline & ie & \(\rightarrow\) iə & & ue & \(\rightarrow u \theta\) \\
\hline sāen̆ & & "blacksmith" & & & \\
\hline sāeñ la & & "the blacksmith" & & & \\
\hline sàn̆-kà \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & & "this blacksmith" & & & \\
\hline Ò sò'ט וֹ́r. & & "She owns a lorry." & & \(s \overline{S o}^{\prime} \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{ya} /}\) & "own" \\
\hline Lì àn̆ súnā. & & "It's good." & & àeñ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "be something" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Ti ya'a voe, ti vone tis Zugsob la.
Tì yá' vōe, tì vó \(n \bar{\varepsilon}-\varnothing\) tís Zūg-sób lā.
1PL if be.alive, 1PL be.alive FOc CAT give head-one:SG ART.
"If we live, we live to the Lord." (Rom 14:8): (vōeda/ "be alive")

غ̀n̆rıgım_ ø pāa dư'átà.
Shift.along:IMP CAT reach doctor:SG.
"Shift along up to the doctor." (pāe+/ "reach")

Lì nàa nē. \(\quad\) "It is finished." nāe+/ "finish"
Dúe wēlá?
"[You] arose how?" \(\underline{29}\) dūe+/ "arise"

See also the examples with fusion verb perfectives before liaison 8.2.
The verb \(k \bar{a}^{\prime} e^{+}\)"not be/not have" loses e before complements but not adjuncts:
```

Ò kā' bïiga ${ }^{+} \varnothing$. "She is not a child."
3AN neg.be child:SG neg.

```

Dāu lā kā' dóכgū-n láa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
Man:Sg ART neg.be room:SG-Loc ART neg.
"The man's not in the room." (dう̀כgū-n lā as complement)
but Sכ' kae na nyani dol zugdaannam ayi'...
Sכ̄' kā'e_ø ná n̆yāpı_ø d̄̄l zūg-dáàn-nàm àyí ... INDF.AN neg.be CAT IRR prevail Cat follow head-owner:pL num:two ...
"Nobody can serve two masters." (Mt 6:24)

Dāu kā'e dóvgū-n láa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
Man:sg neg.be room:sG-Loc ART neg.
"There's no man in the room." (dj̀כgū-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:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline voen & \(=v \bar{u} v n\) & "would live" (Gal 3:21, 1996) \\
\hline Kristo da faaen ti & = Kristo dá fāan̆ tí & "Christ saved us." (Gal 5:1) \\
\hline \(m\) wa'e ne & \(=\dot{m}\) wá'a nē. & "I'm going" ILK \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Àeña "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 àeña 20.2 has prevented the analogical introduction of phrase-final spelling phrase-medially. Many other cases involve fāen̆ \({ }^{+/}\)"save", perhaps written faaenn specifically to distinguish the forms from those of fāñ " "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 Nonilim pu naae da (1 Cor 13:8, 1996 NT) for KB Nonilim po naada "Love does not come to an end" confirm that the orthographic tradition has encompassed the writing of fronting diphthongs for undoubted monophthongs.

\section*{Morphology}

\section*{9 Noun flexion}

\subsection*{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 Wìdı-n̆yá'ana "Woriyanga" (wid-n̆yá'ana "mare") and nwadibil (Mt 2:2, 1996) for n̆wād-bíla "star" (KB nwadbil) suggest that consonant-final cbs once ended in an epenthetic vowel, but this is no longer the case.

In the paradigms, noun forms are cited as \(\mathrm{sg}, \mathrm{pl}\) 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 \({ }^{\mathrm{a}}\left|b^{a}, g^{\mathrm{a}}\right| s^{\varepsilon}, g^{\supset}\left|d^{\varepsilon}, r^{\varepsilon}\right| a^{+}\)and \(f^{\rho} \mid \iota^{+}\)noun classes. Two unpaired non-count suffixes \(-b^{J}-m^{m}\) 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 \({ }^{\mathrm{a}} \mid b^{\mathrm{a}}\) and \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)classes 16.2.2. A few isolated remnants of agreement will be pointed out as they occur.

Apocope of final vowels can leave expected morphological forms ambiguous, close to or identical with another form from the paradigm or from another word. Ambiguity may be avoided by substitution of a different flexional suffix for that expected for the class (cf Inkelas, 3.1 "Suppletive Allomorphy.") This has become regular in the case of class \(g^{\supset} \mid d^{\varepsilon}\) 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 10.
Two subclasses are semantically motivated: a subclass of a \(\mid b^{a}\) referring to older/important people uses \(b^{\mathrm{a}}\) as the singular suffix, and names of languages belong to a subclass of \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)with the singular suffix \(l^{\varepsilon}\).

The classes are thus as follows：
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \[
\begin{aligned}
& { }^{\mathrm{a}} \mid b^{\mathrm{a}} \quad b^{\mathrm{a}}(\mathrm{sg})
\end{aligned}
\] & \(s i ̄ d^{a}\) nà＇aba & \begin{tabular}{l}
\(s i ̄ d ı b^{a}\) \\
nà＇－nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
\end{tabular} & sìd－ nà＇－ & \begin{tabular}{l}
＂husband＂ \\
＂chief＂
\end{tabular} \\
\hline \(g^{\text {a }} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) & \(b u ̄ g^{\text {a }}\) & būos \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & bò－ & ＂goat＂ \\
\hline \(g^{\supset} \mid d^{\varepsilon}\) & dj̀ \(g^{\circ}\) bū＇өsúg \({ }^{\text { }}\) & \begin{tabular}{l}
\(d う \grave{\partial}{ }^{\varepsilon}\) \\
bū＇өsá \({ }^{+}\)
\end{tabular} & dう̀ bū＇өs－ & \begin{tabular}{l}
＂hut＂ \\
＂question＂
\end{tabular} \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
\[
r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}
\] \\
\({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l}
nว̄วr \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) \\
Kūsáà̀ \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
\end{tabular} & nכ̄yá＋ & nכ－ & \begin{tabular}{l}
＂mouth＂ \\
＂Kusaal＂
\end{tabular} \\
\hline flı \({ }^{+}\) & mうlıf & mうlı＋ & mol－ & ＂gazelle＂ \\
\hline \(b^{3}\) & sā＇ab \({ }^{\text { }}\) & & sà＇－ & ＂porridge＂ \\
\hline \(m^{m}\) & tìım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & & tì－ & ＂medicine＂ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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 \({ }^{\text {a }} \mid b^{a}\) class avoid the plural suffix \(b^{\text {a }}\) ；some \(g^{\text {a }} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) class nouns with human reference have alternative plurals with \(b^{\mathrm{a}}\) ；countable nouns in the \(m^{m}\) class form plurals with \(-a^{+}\)or \(-s^{\varepsilon}\) or nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) ；and the small \(f \rho_{\iota}{ }^{+}\)class has some members with \(P_{\mid} \iota^{+}\) suffixes in only one number．The sg suffix－\(/ \mathrm{a}\) is found only in the irregular adjective bïla＂little＂10．Few other cases of irregular \(\mathrm{sg} / \mathrm{pl}\) pairing occur；examples are
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(p \bar{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \circ g^{\prime /}\) & \(p \bar{c}^{\prime} \varepsilon \varepsilon^{\varepsilon /}\) & & \(p \bar{\varepsilon}^{\prime}-\) & ＂sheep＂ \\
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{gbė＇og \({ }^{\text { }}\)} & \(g b \varepsilon{ }^{\prime} \varepsilon d^{\varepsilon}\) & & gbè＇－ & ＂forehead＂ \\
\hline & gbèda＋ & & & \\
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{bi̇āuñ \({ }^{\text { }}\)} & biāāň＇ad \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & WK & biàn̄̆＇－ & ＂shoulder＂ \\
\hline & biān̆＇ada＋ & SB & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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 9．6．

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

All nouns in SF－\(f\) belong to \(f \iota^{+}\)．

Human-reference nouns otherwise default to \({ }^{a} \mid b^{a}\), except for stems ending in a long vowel, which have been transferred to \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)in Agolle Kusaal. Exceptional are
 singular subclass contains most human-reference nouns in sg SF -b, and also sàam ma "father", dìəm" "man's parent-in-law", dàyáam \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) "woman's parent-in-law."

Perfective gerunds in SF -m belong to \(b^{3}\); otherwise, mass nouns in \(-m\) belong to the \(m^{m}\) class, and in \(-b\) or \(-p\) to the \(b^{د}\) class.

Names of languages belong to the \(I^{\varepsilon}\) subclass of \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\).
Non-human-reference count nouns ending in I \(n r\) belong to the \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)class, as do those ending in \(m\) apart from a few \(m^{\mathrm{m}}\) class count nouns like yām \({ }^{\mathrm{m} /}\) "gall, common sense, gall bladder", pūum \({ }^{\mathrm{m} /}\) "flower", dàalím \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\) "male sex organs", pò'alím \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\) "female sex organs." Pïim \({ }^{\mathrm{m} /}\) "arrow" is a relic of a lost \(\rceil^{\varepsilon}\) class.

\subsection*{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 12.3.

The \({ }^{a} \mid b^{a}\) 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 \(b^{\text {a }}\) as singular.

The \(g^{\text {a }} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) class has general membership but notably includes the great majority of tree names \(\underline{30.5}\), many larger animals, and tools. Almost all ethnic group names belong to \({ }^{\mathrm{a}} \mid b^{\mathrm{a}}\) or \(g^{\mathrm{a}} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) (Zàngbèo \(g^{\supset}\) "Hausa" and Nàsāara+ "European" are the only exceptions in my materials); the place inhabited by the group has sg \(-g^{\rho} \underline{30.4}\).

The \(g^{\top} \mid d^{\varepsilon}\) and \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)classes are the default non-human countable classes. They include all names of fruits, and most names of body parts 30.6. Human-reference nouns in \(g^{\supset} \mid d^{\varepsilon}\) seem to be pejorative (bāl̄̄rog \({ }^{J /}\) "ugly person", dàbīog \({ }^{\text {ºn }}\) "coward", \(z \bar{\jmath} / \mathrm{lg}^{\text {J/ }}\) "fool.") Some original \({ }^{\text {a }} \mid b^{a}\) class nouns have been reallocated to \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)for phonological reasons e.g. bīərع/ "elder same-sex sibling."

The \(I^{\varepsilon}\) subclass includes all names of languages.
The small \(f^{\rho} \iota^{+}\)class includes two groups: animals, and small round things. It contains all names of seeds. No \(f^{\rho} \iota^{+}\)noun refers to people.

The \(b^{\text {² }}\) class has only two members in my own materials that are not gerunds:
 written materials; WK uses the Mampruli loanword kïibú \({ }^{+}\)cb kïib- instead.

The \(m^{\mathrm{m}}\) 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 \(m^{\mathrm{m}}\) or \(b^{\nu}\) or formally plural.

Deverbal nouns have predictable class membership: agent nouns belong to \({ }^{\mathrm{a}} \mid b^{\mathrm{a}}\), instrument nouns to \(g^{\mathrm{a}} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\), and gerunds take \(g^{\rho} r^{\varepsilon} b^{\text {J }}\) or \(m^{\mathrm{m}}\) by rule 12.2.1.1.

\subsection*{9.2 Stem levelling}

\subsection*{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~CVV root-stems are levelled on the sg when it has the suffix \(-g^{\text {a }}\) or \(-g^{\text {J }}\), and some \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)singulars may have short vowels by analogy with plurals 6.1.1.1.

Quality changes between singular and plural stem forms occur in the \(\left.g^{\text {a }}\right|^{\varepsilon}\) class as a result of the merger of nasalised iən̆ uөn̆ with \(\varepsilon\) हn̆ ככn̆ 6.3:
\[
\text { nūa+/ "hen" nכ̄כs }{ }^{\varepsilon /} \text { "hens" }
\]

Such alternations are never levelled. However, the distribution of oral iə ue
 final \(u \theta\) before singular \(g^{\top}\) and very few stems with iə: dàbīog \({ }^{\rho}\) "coward" ( pl dàbïəd \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) ) and \(k p i{ }^{\top} \eta^{\top}\) "strong" ( \(\mathrm{pl} k p \imath^{\top} ə m a^{+}\).) There is an actual stem alternation before \(g^{\text {a }} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) and \(g^{\supset} \mid d^{\varepsilon}\) suffixes in
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline bi'a+ & \(b i ' \partial s^{\varepsilon}\) & bi̇à'- & "bad" \\
\hline \(b \bar{\varepsilon}^{\prime} o g{ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(b \bar{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \varepsilon d^{\varepsilon}\) & \(b \dot{c}^{\prime}-\) & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\(B{ }^{\prime} \not \partial m^{\mathrm{m}}\) "enemy" is derived from the same root with derivational *m 13.2.2. The alternation is most likely due to a rule \(* i \partial g \nu \rightarrow \varepsilon \varepsilon g \nu\), parallel to *uөgv \(\rightarrow\) ว \(\operatorname{\partial g}\) v 6.4, with the plural vowels remodelled on the sg; cf lām-f́jòg \({ }^{\top}\left(\leftarrow * / a m-f u \theta g v: ~ l a \bar{m} m^{\text {mel }}\right.\) "gum" fùe+ "draw out") pl lām-f́́j̀d \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "toothless." The vowel of dàbīog \({ }^{\text {ºn }}\) "coward" is perhaps reintroduced from dàbīəm \({ }^{m}\) "fear." The formally-plural zùөd \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "friendship" seems to be the only example for \(-u \theta d^{\varepsilon}\); significantly, there is no sg with \(g^{3}\).

Levelling may account for the lack of any clear pattern in the CVVC~CVC root alternation in flexion 6.1.1.2; when length alternations do occur, it is plurals and cbs that have short-vowel allomorphs, which may have been the original rule.

\subsection*{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.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline nify & nīní \({ }^{+}\) & nin- or nîf- & "eye" \\
\hline zin̆'a+ & zèn̆' \(\varepsilon s^{\varepsilon}\) & ziàn̆'- or zèn̆'- & "red" (adjective) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline wōk \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & \(w a ̄ ' a d^{\varepsilon /}\) & wā'- or wj̄k- & "long, tall" (adjective) \\
\hline tān̆p \({ }^{3}\) & & tàn̆p- & "war" 6.1.1.1 \\
\hline \(z u ̄ g^{\prime \prime}\) & \(z u ̄ t^{\varepsilon /}\) & \(z u \overline{-}\) or zūg- & "head" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Mooré and Toende both show zu-consistently in cases where Agolle has zūg-:
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
Mooré & Toende & Agolle & \\
zusoaba & zùsóp & zūg-sób \(b^{\mathrm{a}}\) & "boss" \\
zúkúká & zùkók & zūg-kōgvr & "pillow"
\end{tabular}
\(Z u ̄ g\)-sób \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "Lord" is very frequently read \(Z \bar{u}\)-sób \({ }^{\mathrm{a}}\) in the audio version of the NT. The cb \(z \bar{u} g\) - sometimes behaves tonally like a noun prefix 7.2.4.

The "regular" cb of \(n i \bar{f} /\) "eye" is nīn-, but as a head it appears as nīf-:

\section*{nīf-kápā}
"this eye"

Nīn- still predominates as a premodifier: nīn-dáa= "face", nīn-tám \({ }^{m}\) "tears", nīngótis \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "spectacles." Gbàun \(\eta^{\supset}\) "letter, book" now has the cb gbàun-, but the "regular" cb gbàn- still occurred as a generic complement in the 1976 NT e.g. gbanmi'id gbànmīid "scribe" ("book-knower") where later versions have gbaunmi'id. Similarly, the 1976 NT ziŋgban'ad zīm-gbán̆'àd "fisherman" has been replaced by KB ziiŋgban'ad.

With \(m\) and \(n\) stems, the remodelled forms have become the regular cbs:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline zīnzāun \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & zīnzāná+ & zīnzáun- & "bat" \\
\hline àňrop \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & àn̆rıma+ & àn̆ron- & "boat" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

So too with \(C V\)-stems in the \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)class:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(g b \bar{\varepsilon} r^{\varepsilon /}\) & gbēyá+ & \(g b \bar{\varepsilon} r-\) & "thigh" \\
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{kùk̄̄r \({ }^{\text {/ }}\)} & kùk亏̄yá+ & kùkう̄r- & "voice" \\
\hline & & (but kòkJ̄-títā'ar & "loud voice" NT) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Vōm \({ }^{\mathrm{m} /} \mathrm{cb}\) vōm- "life", kūm \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\) cb kùm- "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:
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
no sg & \(k \bar{l}^{+} l\) & \(k \overline{\mathrm{I}-}\) or \(k \bar{a}-\) & "cereal, millet" \\
lā'af & līgıdı \({ }^{+}\) & là'- or lìg- & "cowrie" pl "money"
\end{tabular}

Two words have distinct sg- and pl-reference cbs:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
dāu \({ }^{+}\) & dāpa \\
tāuñ \({ }^{+/}\) & tān̆ \(p^{a /}\)
\end{tabular}
dàu- sg dàp- pl "man, male person"
tāuñ̆- sg tān̆p-pl "sib of opposite sex"

Disambiguation is clearly involved with some longer remodelled cbs:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(k \grave{l u g}{ }^{\text {a }}\) lànnıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(k \grave{n}{ }^{n \varepsilon}\) lànnıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & kj̀lıg-lànnıg- & \begin{tabular}{l}
"bag" \\
"squirrel"
\end{tabular} \\
\hline kj̀log-kànā & "this bag" & cf cb kjl- from & \(k \bar{l} / g^{\text {a }}\) "river" \\
\hline lànnıg-pialıg & "white squirrel" & cf cb làn- from & lān \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) "testicle" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Remodelling of cbs after \(\mathrm{sg} / \mathrm{pl}\) forms never affects tones, revealing that cases where a sg/pl seems to precede an adjective or modifier pronoun in fact show cbs:
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
dàu-sùn & "good man" & cf dāu & "man" \\
dàp-sùma & "good men" & cf \(d \bar{p} p\) & "men"
\end{tabular}

Remodelled cbs are traditionally written as separate words; as the orthography does not mark tone, this can lead to ambiguous forms. e.g. yamug bipun (Acts 16:16, 1976) for yàmmug-bī-póy "slave girl" not yàmmug bí-pó "slave's girl" 16.11.1.5.

\subsection*{9.3 Noun paradigms}

For tones see 7.2. Combining forms are frequently remodelled segmentally after the singular 9.2.2, regularly so with stems in \(m\) and \(n\).

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 \(g^{\mathrm{a}}\) after aa iə uө aаn̆ \(\varepsilon \varepsilon n ̆ ~ כ כ \check{n}\), and the combination of root-vowel-final stems with the flexions \({ }^{a}, \iota^{+}\)and \(a^{+}\)6.1.1.1.

\subsection*{9.3.1 \({ }^{\mathrm{a}} \mid b^{\mathrm{a}}\) class}

Most stems ending in consonants straightforwardly show -a in the sg:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(s i d^{\text {a }}\) & \(s i ̄ d ı b^{\text {a }}\) & sid- & "husband" \\
\hline sàal \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & sàalı \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & sàal- & "human being" \\
\hline \(k p a ̄ a d^{\text {a/ }}\) & kpāadíb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & kpāad- & "farmer" \\
\hline kpīkpīn \({ }^{\text {na/ }}\) & kpīkpinníb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & kpīkpín- & "merchant" \\
\hline sàam-pīta/ & sàam-pitííb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & sàam-pit- & "father's younger brother" \\
\hline bì-pit \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & bìpitíl \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & bì-pīt- & "younger child" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline wād-tís \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & wād-tísìb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & wād-tís- & "lawgiver" NT \\
\hline \(z a ̀-n \overline{-g u ́ r}{ }^{\text {a }}\) & zà'-nכ̄-gúrìb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & zà'-nう̄-gúr- & "gatekeeper" NT \\
\hline \(n i d^{\text {a/ }}\) & nīdı \(b^{\text {a/ }}\) & nīn- irreg & "person" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Most deverbal agent nouns are completely regular:
kūטd \({ }^{\text {a/ kūvdíba kūvd- "killer" }}\)

Agent nouns from 3-mora stems in s regularly drop the \(d\) formant in sg and cb, which can result in "tonal heteroclites" 7.2.3. Many also have nàma plurals \(\underline{9.4}\).
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline kùөs \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(k u ̄ \theta s ı d ı b^{\text {a }}\) & kùөs- & "seller" \\
\hline \(p\) ט̀'us \(^{\text {a }}\) & \(p u ̄ ' u s ı d ı b^{\text {a }}\) & pù'vs- & "worshipper" \\
\hline di'əs \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & dī'əsıdıba & di'əs- & "receiver" \\
\hline tù'as-tù'as \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & tù'as-tū'asıdıb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & tù'as-tù'as- & "talker" \\
\hline sígısa/ & sīgısídib \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & sīgıs- & "lowerer" \\
\hline dìs \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & dìs-nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & dìs- & "glutton" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The same behaviour is found with agent nouns from a few other verbs too:
\begin{tabular}{lllll}
\(s j ̀ s^{a}\) & \(s j ̄ s ı d ı b^{a}\) & sj̀s- & "beggar" & \\
\(t i ̀ s^{a}\) & \(t i ̄ s ı d ı b^{a}\) & tìs- & "giver" & WK \\
\(k i ̄ s^{\mathrm{a} /}\) or \(k i ̄ s ı d^{\mathrm{a} /}\) & \(k i ̄ s ı d i ́ b^{a}\) & \(k i ̄ s ı d-\) (only) & "hater" &
\end{tabular}

These may be original 3-mora stem verbs with \({ }^{*} s s \rightarrow s\). There are also
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
zàb-zà \(b^{a}\) & \begin{tabular}{ll} 
zàb-zàb-nàma \\
zàb-zābıdıba
\end{tabular} & zàb-zàb- \\
gbān-záb \({ }^{a}\) & gbān-záb-nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & gbān-záb-
\end{tabular}

Exceptionally, consonant assimilation of *md does not appear in the plural in
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & \(p u^{\prime}{ }^{\text {a }}\)-sān̆'am \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & \(p u{ }^{\prime}{ }^{\text {a }}\)-sān̆'amıdıb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(p u\) 'à-sàn̆'am- & dulterer" \\
\hline (cf & yūom-yó'ı̀m \({ }^{\text {na }}\) & yט̄טm-yט́'ı̀mnıba & yūom-yú'òm- & "singer") \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline dāu \({ }^{+}\) & & dāpa & dàu-, dàp-6.1.1.1 & "man" (vir) \\
\hline tāuñ \({ }^{+/}\) & & tān̆p \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & tāuñ̆-, tān̆p- & "sib of opposite sex" \\
\hline sāeñ \({ }^{+}\) & WK & sāan̆ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & sàn̆- & "blacksmith" \\
\hline sāeñ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & DK & & & \\
\hline sjeñ \({ }^{+}\) & WK & sว̄วn̆ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & sว̀n̆- & "witch" \\
\hline sj̄eñ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & DK & & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

There are also the two original \(* g\)-stems
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
pư'āa & *pưaga & pū'aba & pú'à- \\
bā'a \(=\leftarrow\) ba'aga & bā'aba & bà'a- & "woman, wife" \\
\end{tabular}

Some CVV stems introduce - \(d\) - in some forms but not others:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline wìld \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & wìm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & wìld- & "hunter" \\
\hline sכ̄n̆'วda/ & sว̄n̆'ว \(b^{\text {a/ }}\) & sว̄n̆'วd- & agent noun of sכ̄ň'e \({ }^{+/}\) \\
\hline & & & "be better than" \\
\hline \(p \overline{0} k p a ̄ a d^{\text {a/ }}\) & \(p \overline{0} k p \bar{a} a d^{\prime} b^{\text {a }}\) & pūkpá- & "farmer" (but kpāada/ id is regular) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Sg final \(-v\) is dropped elsewhere in the paradigm of
pītú+ pītíb \({ }^{\text {a }} \quad\) pīt- "younger sibling of same sex"

Sàam-pīt \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) "father's younger brother" and bì-pit \({ }^{\mathrm{t} /}\) "younger child" are regular.
Another solution to the difficulty of adding sg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) to stems ending in a long vowel is to use the suffix \(r^{\varepsilon}\) instead; related languages, including Toende Kusaal, keep - \(b^{\text {a }}\) plural forms, but in Agolle Kusaal such words have acquired \(-a^{+}\)plurals and passed over completely into the \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)class:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline pòkj̀วňr \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & pòkj̀n̆ya+ & "widow" \\
\hline pókốót & pэkõp & Toende id \\
\hline pokõors & pokõpa & Farefare id \\
\hline dà-k̇̀כn̆r \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & dà-kj̀n̆ya+ & "bachelor" \\
\hline dákốot & dakõp & Toende id \\
\hline dàkõorè & dakõpa & Farefare id \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

This transfer explains several human-reference nouns found in \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\), e.g. bīər \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) "elder sibling of the same sex", pذ̀n̆'כr \(r^{\varepsilon}\) "cripple", n̆y \(\bar{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \varepsilon r^{\varepsilon /}\) "next-younger sibling" (but Toende sg yễ'et pl yẽra id.)

Stems in I \(n r\) following a short root vowel show LF \(-\varepsilon\) with I and \(n\) geminated. This represents remodelling based on the SF, which could be the outcome of adding either - \({ }^{\mathrm{a}}\) or \(-r^{\varepsilon}\). If the SF could not result from attachment of \(\mathrm{sg}-r^{\varepsilon}\), as with stems in \(n n m m m n 6\). 2 , nouns with \(b^{\text {a }}\) plurals always have sg \(-{ }^{-a}\).

The assimilation \(* n b \rightarrow m m\) takes place in the plural:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline Dàgbān \({ }^{\text {ne/ }}\) & Dàgbām \({ }^{\text {ma/ }}\) & Dàgbān- & "Dagomba person" \\
\hline \(B i n^{\text {ne }}\) & Bìm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & Bìn- & "Moba person" \\
\hline Kùtān \({ }^{\text {ne/ }}\) & Kòtām \({ }^{\text {ma/ }}\) & Kòtān- & member of EW's clan \\
\hline Mכ̄r \({ }^{\text {¢/ }}\) & Móom \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) irreg & M r - & "Muslim" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Agent nouns from single-aspect verbs with stems in -II or \(-r(r)\) not only show alternative \(-\varepsilon\) LF sg forms but also have analogical plurals in \(-a^{+}\)alongside \(-b^{\text {a }}\).
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & ňyà'an-djıla & ňyà'an-dj̀lıı \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ňyà'an-dj̀- & "disciple" NT \\
\hline & n̆yā'an-dólı & n̆yā'an-dóllà \({ }^{+}\) & n̆yā'an-dól- & id WK \\
\hline & gbàn-zān̆ıla/ & gbàn-zān̆llíb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & gbàn-zān̆l- & "one with a book in hand" KT WK \\
\hline & bù-zān̆ıla/ & bù-zān̆llíb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & bù-zān̆l- & "goat-carrier" WK \\
\hline or & bù-zān̆ılı/ & bù-zān̆llá+ & & \\
\hline & gbàn-mכ̄r \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & gbàn-mכ̄ríb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & gbàn-mう̄r- & "book-owner" DK \\
\hline & gbàn-tāral & gbàn-tāríba & gbàn-tār- & id DK \\
\hline & bù-mכ̄ra/ & \(b\) bù-mōríb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & bù-mう̄r- & "goat-owner" WK \\
\hline or & bù-mōr \({ }^{\text {c/ }}\) & bù-mōrá \({ }^{\text {d }}\) & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

WK specifically rejected all interpretations as head + deverbal adjective.
Stems in VVn- undergo consonant assimilation in the pl: *nb \(\rightarrow m m\) :
sāan \({ }^{\text {a/ sáam }}\) ma sāan- "guest, stranger"

Stems in \(V V m\) - have sg \(-m^{m}\) instead of \(-m^{\text {a }}\). The assimilation \(* m b \rightarrow m m\) would cause SF sg and pl to coincide at least segmentally; this is avoided by using \(\mathrm{pl} s^{\varepsilon}\) or by pluralising with nàm \({ }^{\mathrm{a}} \underline{\underline{9.4} \text { : }}\)
\begin{tabular}{llll}
\(k p \bar{T}^{\prime} i m^{\mathrm{m} /}\) & kpī'imís \(^{\varepsilon}\) & kp̄im- & "dead person, corpse" \\
\(z \bar{u}^{\prime} ө m^{\mathrm{m} /}\) & zū'amís \(^{\varepsilon}\) & zū'өm- & "blind person" \\
tād \(\iota m^{\mathrm{m} /}\) & tādımıs & & tàdım-
\end{tabular}

In two words WK accepted \(-b^{\mathrm{a}}\) pl forms as LFs but not SFs, demonstrating that avoidance of ambiguity drives the variations:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{\(k p \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon n ̆ m^{\text {m }}\)} & kp¢̄¢n̆mma LF only & \multirow[b]{2}{*}{"elder"} \\
\hline & kpèzn̆m-nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) kpèzn̆m- & \\
\hline \(b i{ }^{\prime} \quad m^{m}\) & bïəmma LF only & \\
\hline & bìəm-nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) bi'əm- & "enemy" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{9.3.1.1 \(b^{\mathbf{a}}\) singular}

A subclass of nouns referring to older/important people has - \(b^{\text {a }}\) in the \(s g\), and makes the plural with nàm \({ }^{\text {a }} \underline{\underline{4}}\) :
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline nà'ab \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & nà'-nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & nà'- & "chief" \\
\hline yáab \({ }^{\text {a }}\) (*yāágbā) & yāa-nám \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & yāa- & "grandparent" \\
\hline pùgudıb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & pùgud-nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & pògud- & "father's sister" \\
\hline án̆sìb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ān̆s-nám \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ān̆s- & "mother's brother" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

With \(* m b \rightarrow m m:\)
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline sàam \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & sàam-nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & sàam- & "father" \\
\hline dìəm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & dìəm-nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & dìəm- & "man's parent-in-law" \\
\hline dàyáam \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & dàyāam-nám \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & dàyāam- & "woman's parent-inlaw" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{9.3.2 \(g^{\mathrm{a}} \mid \boldsymbol{s}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}\) class}

Straightforward examples include:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(b u ̄ g^{\text {a }}\) & \(b u ̄ s^{\varepsilon}\) & bù- & "goat" \\
\hline \(t غ ̇ ' \varepsilon g^{\text {a }}\) & tغ̇' \(\varepsilon s^{\varepsilon}\) & tè' & "baobab" \\
\hline tìıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & tìs \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & tì- & "tree" \\
\hline n̆wādıg \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & n̆wādıs \({ }^{\text {d }}\) & n̆wād- & "moon, month" \\
\hline Īdıga' &  & 1亏d- & "corner" \\
\hline āañdıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & āañdıs \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & àan̆d- & "Vitex doniana" \\
\hline bù-dìbıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(b \grave{-d i b i s ~}{ }^{\text {e }}\) & bù-dìb- & "male kid" \\
\hline kpiibıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & kpioibıs \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & kpiib- & "orphan" \\
\hline yàmmıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & yàmmıs \({ }^{\text { }}\) & yàm- & "slave" \\
\hline \(k \bar{l} \iota^{\text {a }}\) & \(k \bar{l} \iota^{\varepsilon}\) & kう̀- & "river" \\
\hline kpòkpàrıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & kpòkpàrıs \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & kpòkpàr- & "palm tree" \\
\hline pūsıg \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & pūsıs \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & pūs- & "tamarind" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{ll}
\(z \overline{\partial g} g^{a}\) & \(z ว ̄ \partial s^{\varepsilon}\) \\
\(b \bar{u} d ı g^{a}\) & "run, race"
\end{tabular}

Root-stems in Caa Ciə Cuө delete the \({ }^{*} g\) of the \(s g\) suffix \(-g^{\text {a 6.3 }} \underline{\underline{3}}\)
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
bāa= \(\underline{8.1}\) & bāas \(^{\varepsilon}\) & bà- & "dog" \\
sīa \(^{+}\) & sīəs \(^{\varepsilon}\) & sià- & "waist" \\
sàbùa+ \(^{+}\) & sàbùөs \(^{\varepsilon}\) & sàbùà- & "lover, girlfriend"
\end{tabular}

Nasal ian̆ uan̆ here alternates with عદn̆ ככ̆:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline zin̆'a+ & zèn̆' \(\varepsilon s^{\varepsilon}\) & zíàn̆'- or zèn̆'- & "red" (adjective) \\
\hline \(n u ̄ '-i ́ n ̆ ' a^{+}\) & \(n u ̄{ }^{\prime}-\varepsilon ́ n ̆ ' \varepsilon ̇ S^{\varepsilon}\) & \(n u ̄ '-\varepsilon ́ n ̆ '-~\) & "fingernail" \\
\hline Mùa+ & Mว̀วs \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & Mうे- & "Mossi person" \\
\hline \(n u ̄ a^{+/}\) & nว̄วs \({ }^{\text {¢/ }}\) & nЈ- & "hen" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Stems in \({ }^{*} C V g\) - display consonant assimilation in the sg via \(* g g \rightarrow k k\) :
\begin{tabular}{llll}
\(g i ̀ k^{a}\) & \(g i ̀ g ı s^{\varepsilon}\) & \(g i ̀ g-\) & "dumb person" \\
\(k \bar{u} k^{a}\) & \(k \bar{u} g u s^{\varepsilon}\) & \(k u ̀ g-\) & "chair"
\end{tabular}
*Cag- *Ciag- *Cuag- delete \(* g\) when there is no assimilation 6.3:
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
zàk \({ }^{a}\) & zà'as & zà'- & "compound" \\
pu्रāk & pō'as & pu्र'à- & "female" (adjective)
\end{tabular}

Stems in \(-m\) - and \(-n\) - show \(-\eta\) - in the \(s g\), via \(* m g \rightarrow \eta\) and \(* n g \rightarrow \eta\), and the cbs adopt the sg form; in the \(\mathrm{pl} * n s \rightarrow \tilde{i} 6.2\) whereas \(-* m s\) - 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.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(b a ̄ \eta^{\text {a }}\) & bāan̆s \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & bàn- & "ring, chain, fetter" \\
\hline \(t \bar{\varepsilon} \eta^{\text {a }}\) & tع̄en̆s \({ }^{\text { }}\) & tદ̀n- & "land" \\
\hline pàn \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & pàan̆s \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & pàn- & "power" \\
\hline \(b\) bin \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & bùmıs \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & bòn- & "donkey" \\
\hline nān \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & nāmıs \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & nàm- & "scorpion" \\
\hline sú'өŋ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & sū'өmís \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & sū'өŋ- & "rabbit" \\
\hline n̆wāan \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & n̆wāamıs \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & n̆wàaŋ- & "monkey" \\
\hline níi \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & níis \({ }^{\text { }}\) & niì- & "bird" \\
\hline & nīmís \({ }^{\text { }}\) & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(k u ̀ l ı n^{\text {a }}\) & kùlıs \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & kùlın- & "door" \\
\hline & kòlımıs \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & & \\
\hline kū'alín \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & kō'alís \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & kū'alín- & sleeveless traditional \\
\hline & kū'alímìs \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & & smock \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

So too with all deverbal instrument nouns:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(m \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon d ı \eta^{a}\) & \(m \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon d \stackrel{ }{ }{ }^{\varepsilon}\) & \(m \varepsilon ̀ \varepsilon d ı ŋ-\) & "building tool" \\
\hline & \(m \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon d ı m ı s^{\varepsilon}\) & & \\
\hline pīosín \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & pīəsís \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & pīəsín- & "sponge" \\
\hline & pīəsímìs \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & & \(\leftarrow \mathrm{p}^{\mathrm{e}}{ }^{+/}\)"wash (self)" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Various irregular stem alternations are seen in
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline biig \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & biis \(^{\varepsilon}\) & bī- or bì- & "child" \\
\hline bèrın \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & bèrıgıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & & a plant used for fibre \\
\hline tàmpūa+ & tàmpj̄)s \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & tàmpj̀ & "housefly" DK (no n̆) \\
\hline \(b u ̄ t ı \square^{\text {a }}\) & \(b \bar{t} t ı s^{\varepsilon}\) & bùtın- & "cup" 2.3 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Very irregular in both flexion and phonology is
sāpá+ sānsá+ [sajsa] sān- "time"

These human-reference nouns have alternative plurals with the suffix \(-b^{a}\) :
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline dàsā \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & dàsām \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & dàsàn- & "young man" \\
\hline & or dàsāan̆s \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & & \\
\hline Yàaŋ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & Yàam \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & Yàan- & "Yanga, Yansi person" \\
\hline & or Yàamıs \({ }^{\varepsilon} / Y\) àan̆s \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & & \\
\hline Sà'dàbùa+ & Sà'dàbù \({ }^{\text {b }}\) & & clan name \(\underline{30.4}\) \\
\hline & or Sà'dàbùes \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Several \(s^{\varepsilon}\)-plural stems with rounded vowels have \(s g g^{\supset}\) for the expected \(g^{a}\). WK avoids the change to \(-g^{3}\) with human-reference nouns.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline kūug \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & \(k u ̄ u s^{\varepsilon /}\) & \(k u ̄-\) & "mouse" \\
\hline \multicolumn{4}{|l|}{or kūug'} \\
\hline sù'vg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & sù'us \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & sò'- & "knife" \\
\hline or sù'vg & & & \\
\hline nú'ùg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(n u ́ ' u ̀ s^{\varepsilon}\) & \(n \bar{u} '-\) & "hand" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & zùnzว̀ク \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & zùnzว̀วn̆s \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & zùnż̀- & "blind person" \\
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{} & zùnż̀ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & & & \\
\hline & tغ̀n-zט̀n & tèn-zט̀vn̆s \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & & "foreign land" \\
\hline \multirow[t]{4}{*}{but} & & piàă'-zùna+ & & "foreign language" \\
\hline & yó'טワ & yō'umís \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & yō'ט- & "night" \\
\hline & zùun̆g \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & zùun̆s \({ }^{\text { }}\) & zùn̆- & "vulture" \\
\hline & & zùun̆ \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Compare Mampruli nuuwa pl nuusi "hand", suuwa pl suusi "knife", kuuwa pl kuusi "mouse", zuuwa pl zuusi "vulture" (but yupgu pl yunsi "night.")

In yàmmog "slave" the epenthetic vowel before the flexion has been rounded by the \(-m\) - and the resulting SF reinterpreted as ending in \(g^{\text {J }}\) :
yàmmug \({ }^{\mathrm{a}} \mathrm{WK} \quad\) yàmmıs
or yàmmug

Some original \(g^{J} \mid d^{\varepsilon}\) nouns have substituted \(\mathrm{pl}-s^{\varepsilon}\) for \(-d^{\varepsilon}\) instead of \(-a^{+}\)9.3.3:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multirow{5}{*}{cf} & \multirow[t]{2}{*}{à-dàalón \({ }^{\text {a }}\)} & à-dàalís \({ }^{\varepsilon} \mathrm{WK}\) & à-dàalón- & "stork" \\
\hline & & à-dàalímis \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & & \\
\hline & si'ún \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & sỉimís \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & si'un- & a kind of big dish \\
\hline & dìsún & dìsis \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & dìsón- & "spoon" \\
\hline & & dìsímà \({ }^{+}\) & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Two words of this type drop -s- from the stem in the plural:
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
wīlısún & wīlımís \(^{\varepsilon}\) & wīlısún- & a kind of snail \\
yālısún & yālımís & yālısún- & "quail"
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{9.3.3 \(g^{\boldsymbol{J}} \mid d^{\varepsilon}\) class}

\section*{All stems in \(\boldsymbol{m} \boldsymbol{n}\) following a short vowel use \(a^{+}\)instead of \(\boldsymbol{d}^{\varepsilon}\) for the plural suffix, as do all gerunds.}

Before the sg \(-g^{\supset}-k^{\supset}-\eta^{\supset}\) stem-final vowels are rounded, changing epenthetic vowels to \(v\) and creating rounding diphthongs from root vowels 6.4.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline dàug \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & dàad \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & dà- & "piece of wood" \\
\hline fēn̆'og \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & \(f \overline{\text { ¢̆'̆' }}\) ¢ \(d^{\varepsilon /}\) & f®̄̆ั'- & "ulcer" \\
\hline vīug \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & vīid \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) & vī- & "owl" \\
\hline vāon̆g \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & vāan̆d \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) & vān̆- & "leaf" \\
\hline \(m \overline{\partial g}{ }^{\text { }}\) & \(m \bar{\partial} d^{\varepsilon}\) & mò- & "grass, bush" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline dòndùug \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & dòndùud \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & dòndù－ & ＂cobra＂ \\
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{dàbiog \({ }^{\text {² }}\)} & dàbīəd \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & dàbià－ & ＂coward＂ \\
\hline & zù̀d \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & & ＂friendship＂ \\
\hline wābug \({ }^{\text {／}}\) & wābıd \({ }^{\text {／}}\) & wāb－ & ＂elephant＂ \\
\hline zūөbúg \({ }^{\text { }}\) & zūebíd \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & zūөb－ & ＂（human head）hair＂ \\
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{bāl̄̄rug \({ }^{\text {／}}\)} & bālz̄rıd \({ }^{\text {／}}\) & bāalćr－ & ＂ugly person＂ \\
\hline & bālērıs & & \\
\hline \(b \bar{\varepsilon} s u g{ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(b \bar{\varepsilon} s ı d^{\varepsilon}\) & bès－ & kind of pot \\
\hline Dènnug \({ }^{\text { }}\) & & & Denugu（place name） \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Some stems ending in root vowels have plurals of the form \(C V t^{\varepsilon}\) 6．1．1．1：
dう̀ว \(g^{3}\)
\(d \grave{\partial d^{\varepsilon}}\) or \(d \grave{t} t^{\varepsilon} \quad d \grave{-}\)
＂hut，room；clan＂

So too \(p \bar{\partial} \partial g^{\text {J／＂farm，field＂，fūug }}\)／＂clothing，shirt．＂The sg has a short vowel in
\(z u ̄ g^{2 /}\)
\(z u ̄ t^{\varepsilon /}\)
\(z u \overline{-}\) or \(z u ̄ g-\)
＂head＂
＊Cag－＊Ciag－＊Cuag－stems \(\underline{6.3}\) show \(\operatorname{sg}-k^{3}\) ，and una becomes \(د\) before \(-k^{\top} \underline{6.4}\) ：
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline bjk \({ }^{\text {² }}\) & bù＇ d \(^{\text {¢ }}\) & & bu＇à－ & ＂hole，pit＂ \\
\hline 1jk \({ }^{\text { }}\) & lò＇ad \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & & lu＇à－ & ＂quiver（for arrows）＂ \\
\hline 1āuk & lā＇ad \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & & là＇ & ＂（item of）goods＂ \\
\hline bi̇āunn̆ \({ }^{\text { }}\) & bìān̆＇ad \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & WK & biàñ＇－ & ＂shoulder＂ \\
\hline & biān̆＇ada＋ & SB & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Stems in CVd show－t－in the pl 6.2 via＊dd \(\rightarrow t t\) ：
\begin{tabular}{llll}
\(u ̀ d v g^{\nu}\) & ùt & ùd－ & ＂（piece of）chaff＂ \\
\(g a ̄ d v g^{\nu /}\) & gāt \(t^{\varepsilon /}\) & gād－ & ＂bed＂（Hausa gadoo）
\end{tabular}

Stems in CVg develop \(k k\) in the singular via＊gg \(\rightarrow k k\) ：
\(d \bar{u} k^{2 /}\)
\(d \bar{u} g u d^{\varepsilon /}\)
\(d u ̄ g u b\) dút
\(d \bar{o} g-\)
＂cooking pot＂
＂cooking pots＂SB

Stems in I develop the cluster \(n n\) in the pl via \(* / d \rightarrow n n\) ：
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline yว̄lug \({ }^{\text {／}}\) & \(y \bar{n}{ }^{n \varepsilon /}\) & yว̄－ & ＂sack； 200 cedis＂ \\
\hline z⿹̄log \({ }^{\text {／}}\) & \(z \overline{n^{\text {ne／}}}\) & zう－ & ＂fool＂ \\
\hline silug \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(\sin ^{n \varepsilon}\) or sillıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & sil－ & ＂hawk＂ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The only \(m n\) stems making plurals with \(-d^{\varepsilon}\) are CVVC root-stems:
làngávn \({ }^{\circ}\)

> làngāamá+ or làngáamne
làngāon- "crab"
 placename Tદ̀mpáann \({ }^{\text {n }}\) "Tempane" \(\underline{30.3}\).

All stems in \(n m\) following a short vowel use the plural suffix \(a^{+}\)instead of \(d^{\varepsilon}\). They show - - in the sg, via \(* n g \rightarrow \eta\) and \(* m g \rightarrow \eta\), and normally use the sg segmental (but not tonal) form as cb 9.2.2.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline gbàu \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & gbàna+ & gbàn- or gbàun- & "letter, book" \\
\hline zīnzāun \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & zīnzāná+ & zīnzáun- & "bat" \\
\hline àňrup \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & àn̆rıma+ & àňrup- & "boat" \\
\hline mālon \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & mālıma \({ }^{+}\) & màlon- & "sacrifice" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The expected \(\omega\)-glide is absent in the sg and cb of
nìn-gbī \({ }^{د /} \quad\) nìn-gbīná \({ }^{+}\)nìn-gbīŋ- "body"
This may represent the influence of the alternate \(s g\) form nìn-gbīnn \(n\). The formal plural nìn-gbīná \({ }^{+}\)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 \(r^{\varepsilon}\) 12.2.1.1.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline gàadug \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(\leftarrow\) & gàad \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "(sur)pass" \\
\hline lìzbug \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(\leftarrow\) & \(l i ə b^{\text { }}\) & "become" \\
\hline dīgılóg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(\leftarrow\) & \(d i ̄ g ı^{\varepsilon /}\) & "lay down" \\
\hline yāaróg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(\leftarrow\) & yāar \({ }^{\text {¢/ }}\) & "scatter" \\
\hline sīgısúg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(\leftarrow\) & sīgls \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "lower" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Only stems in -s- and -sım- have plurals, always with \(-a^{+}\):
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
bū'өsúg & bū'өsá+ & bū'өs- & "question" \\
zàan̆són & zàan̆símà & zàan̆són- & "dream"
\end{tabular}

Gerunds of 3-mora \(n\)-stem verbs never assimilate *ng \(\rightarrow\) מן 6.2:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline dìgınug \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(\leftarrow\) & dìgın \({ }^{\text {E }}\) & "lie down" \\
\hline zin̆'ínug \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(\leftarrow\) & zìn'in \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "sit down" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Gerunds of 3-mora \(m\)-stems may optionally not assimilate *mg \(\rightarrow\) מ
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline tós & \(\leftarrow\) & tכ̄כm \({ }^{\text {m/ }}\) & "depart, disappear" \\
\hline \multicolumn{4}{|l|}{or tכֹmóg \({ }^{\text { }}\)} \\
\hline sàn̆'ט \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(\leftarrow\) & sàň'am \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "destroy" \\
\hline \multicolumn{4}{|l|}{or sàn'amug \({ }^{\text {ºn }}\)} \\
\hline kàrun \({ }^{\text {² }}\) & \(\leftarrow\) & kàrım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "read" \\
\hline or kàrımug \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Gerunds of 4-mora \(m\)-stems always assimilate:
zàan̆són \({ }^{\text {コ }} \quad \leftarrow\) zàan̆sım \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\) "dream"

\subsection*{9.3.4 \(\boldsymbol{r}^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)class}

Straightforward examples include:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline kūgor \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & kūgá+ & kūg- & "stone" \\
\hline dìgır \({ }^{\text {E }}\) & diga+ & dig- & "dwarf" \\
\hline \(b \overline{\mathrm{o}} \mathrm{or}{ }^{\varepsilon}\) & būga+ & bòg- & "abode of a \(w i ̄ n^{n \varepsilon}\) (spirit, god)" \\
\hline bàlàmır \({ }^{\text {E }}\) & bàlàja+ & bàlàn- & "hat" \\
\hline yūgodır \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & yūgvda+ & yùgod- & "hedgehog" \\
\hline \(p u\) 'à-sādır \({ }^{\text {¢/ }}\) & pu'là-sādá+ & pư'à-sād- & "young woman" \\
\hline nóbìr \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & nכ̄bá \({ }^{+}\) & n̄̄b- & "leg" \\
\hline līıbır \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & līıba+ & lìb- & "twin" \\
\hline sכ̄nnır \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & sōnna+ & sòn- & "inner compound wall" \\
\hline sāngónnìr \({ }^{\text {r }}\) & sāngónnà \({ }^{+}\) & sāngón- & "millipede" \\
\hline bi'isur \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & bi'isa+ & bi'is- & "woman's breast" \\
\hline sūmmır \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & sūmma \({ }^{+}\) & sùm- & "groundnut" \\
\hline yīmmír \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & yīmmá+ & yı̄m- & "solitary" (adjective) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

All gerunds of 3-mora stem verbs in \(-k^{\varepsilon}-g^{\varepsilon}-\eta^{\varepsilon}\) belong to this class:
```

yùugvr}\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon
"delay"
nう̄kír}\mp@subsup{r}{}{\varepsilon
"taking"
nìmır` "doing"

```

For the allomorphism in CVV root－stems before the plural－a＋see 6．1．1．1． Unglottalised vowel stems：
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(z \overline{0} r^{\varepsilon}\) & zōya＋ & \(z\) zö－\(^{\text {－}}\) & ＂tail＂ \\
\hline bïrr \({ }^{\text {g／}}\) & biēyá＋ & biā－ & ＂elder same－sex sib＂ \\
\hline \(z u ̄ e r^{\varepsilon}\) & zūēya＋ & zuà－ & ＂hill＂ \\
\hline nว̄วr \({ }^{\text {¢／}}\) & nэ̄yá＋ & nう－ & ＂mouth＂ \\
\hline yว̀วr \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & yòya＋ & уうे－ & ＂soldier ant＂ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Glottalised vowel stems：
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(y \bar{u}^{\prime} u r^{\varepsilon /}\) & yōdá \({ }^{+}\) & \(y \bar{v}^{\prime}-\) & ＂name＂ \\
\hline tītā＇ar \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & tītāda＋ & tītá＇－ & ＂big＂（adjective） \\
\hline pòn̆＇วr \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & pònco \({ }^{+}\) & pòn＇－ & ＂cripple＂ \\
\hline n̆y \({ }^{\prime} \varepsilon r^{\varepsilon /}\) & n̆y ćdá \(^{+}\) & n̆y \(\bar{z}^{\prime}\)－ & ＂next－younger sibling＂ \\
\hline \(p o ̀-t \varepsilon ̀ n ॅ ' \varepsilon r^{\varepsilon}\) & pò－tèn̆da \({ }^{+}\) & pò－tėn＇－ & ＂mind＂ \\
\hline \(y u ̄ ' ө r^{\varepsilon}\) & yuāda＋ & yù＇өr－9．2．2 & ＂penis＂ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Stems in＊Cag－＊Ciag－＊Cuag－ 6.3 may have forms made by analogy with these original glottalised－vowel stems，instead of or alongside forms with vowel fusion：
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline bà＇ar \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & bà＇a＋or bàda＋ & bà＇－ & ＂idol＂（Farefare bàgrè） \\
\hline ňyā＇ar \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & ňyā＇a＋ & ňyà＇－ & ＂root＂（ \(\leftarrow * n \varepsilon g-\) ） \\
\hline sià＇ar \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & sià＇a＋ & sià＇－ & ＂forest＂ \\
\hline bìāñ＇ar \({ }^{\text {／}}\) & biáán＇a＋ & bi̇ān̆＇－ & ＂wet mud，riverbed＂ \\
\hline mù＇ar \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & \(m u ' a ̀ a^{+}\) & mu＇à－ & ＂reservoir，dam＂ \\
\hline zànkò＇ar \({ }^{\text { }}\) & or mù＇ada＋\({ }_{\text {a }}{ }^{\text {zànku＇àa＋}}\) & zànku＇à－ & ＂jackal＂ \\
\hline & or zànkù＇ada＋ & & \\
\hline Kùndù＇ar \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & kùndú＇àa＋ & kòndu＇\({ }^{\text {a }}\)－ & ＂barren woman＂ \\
\hline & or kùndò＇ada＋ & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

So too，despite the derivation from dà＇＋＂buy＂，where the glottalisation is not derived from \({ }^{*} g\) ：
kì－dà＇ar \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) kì－dà＇ada＋WK＂bought－in millet＂

Stems in deleted \({ }^{*} g\) after a long vowel include
vúөr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) vūáa＝vūө－＂fruit of vúөク \({ }^{\text {a }}\) tree＂
and all fusion verb gerunds 11.1 like
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
gbán̆'ar & \(\leftarrow\) & gbān̄'e \(e^{+/}\) & "grab" \\
dí'ər & \(\leftarrow\) & dī' \(e^{+/}\) & "get" \\
dúer & \(\leftarrow\) & dūe &
\end{tabular}

Some root-stems show \(C V\) with a short vowel before the \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+} \operatorname{sg}\) 9.2.1. They regularly use the segmental form of the sg for cb .
\begin{tabular}{llll}
\(g b \bar{\varepsilon} r^{\varepsilon /}\) & gbēyá+ & gbēr- & "thigh" \\
kùk̄̄r \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) & kùkj̄yá+ & kùkכ̄r- & "voice"
\end{tabular}
 2 -mora stem verbs make gerunds in \(-r^{\varepsilon}\) instead of \(-b^{\mathcal{J}}\) after a noun cb:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline \(n \overline{-l o ́ j o ~} \mathrm{r}^{\text {¢ }}\) & "fasting" ("mouth-tying") \\
\hline fū-yદ́غ̇r \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & "shirt-wearing" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

These set expressions show shortening of the vowel, but this is not productive:
\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { nā'-lór } r^{\varepsilon} & \text { "place in the compound for tying up cows" } \\
\text { wìd-lכ̄r }{ }^{\varepsilon /} & \text { "place in the compound for tying up horses" }
\end{array}
\]

Stems in \(m n / r\) undergo consonant assimilation in the sg: *rr \(\rightarrow r \quad * / r \rightarrow / /\) \(* n r \rightarrow n n * m r \rightarrow m n\); on the instability of the cluster \(m n\) see 3.2.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline kùkpàr \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & kùkpàra+ & kùkpàr- & "palm fruit" \\
\hline Ňwād-dár \({ }^{\text {E }}\) & & & "Venus" \\
\hline tānnย & tāna \({ }^{+}\) & tàn- & "earth" \\
\hline \(k p a ̄ n^{\text {ne }}\) & kpāna+ & kpàn- & "spear" \\
\hline \(m a ́ ' a n^{n \varepsilon}\) & mā'aná+ & mā'an- & "okra" \\
\hline pībın \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) & pībına \({ }^{+}\) & pibın- & "covering" \\
\hline dūm \({ }^{\text {n }}\) & dūma+ & dùm- & "knee" \\
\hline zว̄วm \({ }^{\text {n }}\) & zว̄ัma+ & zว̀m- & "fugitive" \\
\hline yò̀m \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) & yòma+ & yòvm- & "year" 6.1.1.2 \\
\hline gbīgım \({ }^{\text {n }}\) & gbīgıma+ & gbigım- & "lion" \\
\hline yōgúm \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) & yōgumá+ & yōgum- & "camel" \\
\hline \(g \varepsilon ́ l^{\prime \prime}\) & gह̄lá \({ }^{+}\) & \(g \bar{\varepsilon} /-\) & "egg" \\
\hline \(u_{\text {úl }}\) & ìlá \({ }^{+}\) & ìl- & "horn" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

With unusual sandhi in the sg, and presumably analogical levelling
```

ňwānn\varepsilon SB n̆wāna+ NT ňwàn-/n̆wàm- "calabash"
ňwām}\mp@subsup{}{}{m\varepsilon}\mathrm{ WK n̆wāma+ SB WK NT

```

An exceptional suppletive plural, segmentally and tonally, is seen in
```

dāar\varepsilon}\mp@subsup{\mp@code{@ dābá+ dà- "day"}}{}{\mathrm{ + }

```

These two \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)class words probably have 1-mora stems:
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
[Mampruli zari] & \(z \bar{a}^{+/}\) & \(z \bar{a}-\) & "millet" \\
\(y \bar{i} \bar{r}^{\varepsilon /}\) & \(y \bar{a}^{+/}\) & \(y \overline{-}-\) & "house"
\end{tabular}

Yīr/ also has the irregular locative forms sg yín \({ }^{\mathrm{n} \mathrm{\varepsilon}} \mathrm{pl}\) yáan \(n^{\varepsilon}\) 17.3.

\subsection*{9.3.4.1 \(I^{\varepsilon}\) singular}

Language names 30.4 all belong to a \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)subclass partly formed with the suffix \(-l^{\varepsilon}\). The suffix is always \(-I^{\varepsilon}\) after stems ending in a root vowel:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline Language & & Speakers & \\
\hline Kūsáàı \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & Kusaal & \(K\) Kusáas \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & Kusaasi \\
\hline Bùsáàn̆ \({ }^{\text {E }}\) & Bisa & \(B\) ùsáàn̆s \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & Bisa \\
\hline Mう̀ \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & Mooré & Mj̀ \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & Mossi \\
\hline Simìil \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & Fulfulde & Sìmīis \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & Fulbe \\
\hline Zàngbèz \(\left.\right|^{\text {¢ }}\) & Hausa & Zàngbèzd \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & Hausa \\
\hline Nàsāal \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & English/French & Nàsàa-nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & Europeans \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

After stems ending in a consonant other than \(-r\) - the suffix is either replaced by \(r^{\varepsilon}\), or assimilates to the stem final in a way which is indistinguishable from \(r^{\varepsilon}\) :
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline Nàbır \({ }^{\text { }}\) & Nabit & Nàbıdı \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & Nabdema \\
\hline Tùөnnır \({ }^{\text { }}\) & Toende Kusaal & Tùөn \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) & Toende area \\
\hline Dàgbān \({ }^{\text {ne/ }}\) & Dagbani & Dàgbām \({ }^{\text {ma/ }}\) & Dagomba \\
\hline \(B i n^{\text {ne }}\) & Moba & Bim \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & Moba \\
\hline Yàan \({ }^{\text {n }}\) & Yansi & Yàan̆s \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & Yansi \\
\hline Gōrínn \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) & Farefare & Gōrís \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & Farefare \\
\hline Tàlın \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) & Talni & Tàlıs \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & Tallensi \\
\hline Bùl \({ }^{\text {l }}\) & Buli & Bùlıs \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & Bulsa \\
\hline Àgòı \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & Agolle Kusaal & Àg \({ }^{\prime \prime}{ }^{\text {l }}\) & Agolle area \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

However，stems in \(-r\)－show the distinctive assimilation \(*_{r l} \rightarrow t t \underline{6.2}:\)
\begin{tabular}{llll}
\(Y \bar{a} t^{\varepsilon /}\) & Yarsi & Yārıs & Barsi \\
\(B \bar{a} t^{\varepsilon /}\) & Bisa & \(B \bar{a} r ı s^{\varepsilon /}\) & Bisa
\end{tabular}

Unexpected epenthesis occurs in：
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
Kàmbùnır & Twi & Kàmbòmıs & Ashanti \\
Ňwāmpūrı & \\
／ & Mampruli & Ňwāmpūrıs & Ashamprussi
\end{tabular}

\section*{9．3．5 \(\boldsymbol{f}^{\text {P }}{ }^{+}\)class}

The plural－ı＋causes the stem vowels aa iə \(\varepsilon \varepsilon\) to undergo＂umlaut＂to ii． Straightforward examples for the \(\mathrm{f}^{\mathrm{l}} \iota^{+}\)class are
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline mう̀ıf & mう̀ \({ }^{+}\) & mうl－ & ＂gazelle＂ \\
\hline biilíf & biilí \({ }^{+}\) & bīl－ & ＂seed＂ \\
\hline n̆yīríf & ňyīrí \({ }^{+}\) & n̆y \(\bar{r}\)－ & ＂egusi＂ \\
\hline zūríf & zūrí＋ & \(z u ̄ r-\) & ＂dawadawa seed＂ \\
\hline būn－búvdif & & & ＂plant＂ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Two 1－mora stem \(\mathrm{P}_{\mathrm{\rho}} \iota^{+}\)nouns are
no sg \(k_{i}^{+}+\quad k i ̄-\) or \(k a ̄-\quad\)＂cereal，millet＂
cf Mampruli sg kaafu pl kyi id．
no sg mùì \({ }^{+}\)mùi－＂rice＂
cf Mooré sg muiifu pl mùí id．

Two words have stems in＊Caag－with deletion of \({ }^{*} g \underline{6.3}\) ：
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
náaf & nïigí \\
wáaf & wïigí \(^{+}\) & nā＇－ & 6．1．1．2
\end{tabular}

Stems in－n－show consonant assimilation in the sg with＊nf \(\rightarrow\) ：\(f \underline{6.2}\) ：
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
nīfol & nīní & nīn－or nīf－ & ＂eye＂ \\
píın̆f & pīní \(^{+}\) & pīın－ & ＂genet＂ \\
Kíinf & Kīiní \(^{+}\) & & ＂millet seed＂ \\
zóvn̆f & zūoní & &
\end{tabular}

The sg is probably remodelled after an umlauted pl (cf má'an nع "okra") in míif \({ }^{\text {mïní }}{ }^{+}\)"okra seed"

In two words stem - \(d\) - is lost in the sg :
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
wìəf & wìdı \({ }^{+}\) & wìd- & "horse" \\
lā'af & līgıdı \({ }^{+}\) & là'- or lìg- & "cowrie" pl "money"
\end{tabular}

Some words only have \(\mathrm{f} \mid{ }^{+}\)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.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
zíi \({ }^{\text {a }}\) \\
\(w a ̄ l ı g^{a}\)
\end{tabular} & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { zīmí+ } \\
& \text { wālıs }
\end{aligned}
\] & zīm-wàl- & \begin{tabular}{l}
"fish" \\
a kind of gazelle
\end{tabular} \\
\hline \multicolumn{4}{|c|}{or wālí' tones sic WK} \\
\hline sībıg \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & sībí+ & sīb- & a kind of termite \\
\hline sīin̆fol & siin̆ \({ }^{\text {¢/ }}\) & sī̆- & "bee" \\
\hline \multicolumn{4}{|l|}{or siiing \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\)} \\
\hline sūñfol & sūňyá+ & \(s u ̄ n ॅ-\) & "heart" \\
\hline or sūun̆r \(r^{\varepsilon /}\) & & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

One such word also irregularly deletes the final stem consonant of the cb:
kpā'ún \({ }^{3}\)
\(k p i ̄ i n i ́+\)
kpā'-
"guinea fowl"

\subsection*{9.3.6 \(b^{3}\) class}

In my materials there are only two \(b^{\nu}\) class nouns which are not gerunds:
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
sā'ab & sà'- & "millet porridge, TZ" \\
tān̆ \(p^{\text { }}\) & tàn̆p- & "war" 6.1.1.1
\end{tabular}

Written sources also have \(k i^{\prime} i b^{\supset}\), probably \(k i ̄ ' \iota b^{ว /}\) "soap", cf Toende \(k i^{\prime} \iota p\). Al regular gerunds from 2-mora-stem dual-aspect verbs belong here:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline kūub \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & \(\leftarrow\) & \(k \bar{u}^{+}\) & "kill" \\
\hline dūgub \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & \(\leftarrow\) & \(d \bar{u} g^{\varepsilon}\) & "cook" \\
\hline \(d \bar{u}^{\prime} a b\) & \(\leftarrow\) & du'àa & "bear, beget" \\
\hline \(k a ̄ d b{ }^{\text { }}\) & \(\leftarrow\) & \(k{ }^{\text {a }}{ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "drive away" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{lcll} 
pīlıb & \(\leftarrow\) & pìl \(^{\varepsilon}\) & "cover" \\
\(k p a \bar{r} r b^{\supset}\) & \(\leftarrow\) & kpàr \(^{\varepsilon}\) & "lock" \\
bās \(ا b^{\supset}\) & \(\leftarrow\) & bàs \(^{\varepsilon}\) & "abandon, go away"
\end{tabular}

Stems in \(b\) show \(-p\) - via \(* b b \rightarrow p\)
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline sjop \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & \(\leftarrow\) & s亏̄ \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "write" \\
\hline 15p & \(\leftarrow\) & \(1 亏 b^{\varepsilon}\) & "throw stones at" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Stems in \(m\) show the consonant assimilation \(* m b \rightarrow m m\)
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
kīm \\
mō \(^{\mathrm{m}} \mathrm{m}\) & \(\leftarrow\) kìm \(^{\mathrm{m}}\) & \(\leftarrow\) wòm \(^{\mathrm{m}}\)
\end{tabular}

Stems in \(n\) do not assimilate, however (cf 3-mora \(n\)-stem gerunds 9.3.3)
```

būnıb ${ }^{\text {د }} \quad \leftarrow$ bùn ${ }^{\varepsilon} \quad$ "reap"

```
\(Y_{i ̄} s^{\varepsilon}\) "make go/come out" has the expected gerund yīs \(b^{\partial /}\); the alternate form yiiis \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) has yīisí \(b^{\top}\), the only 3-mora stem in the \(b^{3}\) class.

\subsection*{9.3.7 \(\mathrm{m}^{\mathrm{m}}\) class}

Countable nouns in \(m^{m}\) class form plurals with \(-a^{+}\)or \(-s^{\varepsilon}\), or use nàm \({ }^{\text {a }} \underline{\text {.4.4 }}\). Straightforward forms include:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline dāam \({ }^{\text {m/ }}\) & dā- & "millet beer, pito" \\
\hline \(z \bar{\iota} m^{\mathrm{m} /}\) & \(z i ̄\) & "blood" \\
\hline kù'өm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & ku'à- & "water" \\
\hline mèlıgım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & & "dew" \\
\hline \(k \bar{d} d ı m^{m}\) & & "olden days" \\
\hline dū'uním \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & dū'un- & "urine" \\
\hline zàam \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & zà- & "evening" \\
\hline dàalım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & & "masculinity" \\
\hline pò'alım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & & "femininity" \\
\hline yàarım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & yàar- & "salt" \\
\hline zāan̆sím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & zāan̆s- & "soup" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The few words with short stem vowels all use the segmental form of the sg for the cb , and are probably \(m\)-stems:
\begin{tabular}{lll}
\(v \overline{\mathrm{u}} \mathrm{m}^{\mathrm{m} /}\) & vūm- & "life" \\
\(k \overline{\mathrm{~m}} \mathrm{~m}^{\mathrm{m}}\) & kùm- & "death" \\
\(z \overline{\mathrm{y}} \mathrm{m}^{\mathrm{m} /}\) & zJ̄m- & "flour" \\
\(y \overline{\mathrm{a}} \mathrm{m}^{\mathrm{m} /}\) & yām- & "gall; gall bladder"
\end{tabular}
\(m^{m}\) 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 7.2.2.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline bùgúm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{bùgóm- or bùgōm- "fire"} \\
\hline pūum \({ }^{\mathrm{m} /}\) & & pūum- & "flowers, flora" \\
\hline biilím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & & & "childhood" \\
\hline bi'isím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & & & "milk" \\
\hline dàalím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & dàalímis \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & dàalím- & "male sex organs" \\
\hline pò'alím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & pò'alímis \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & pò'alím- & "female sex organs" \\
\hline piim \({ }^{\text {m/ }}\) & pīmá+ & pìm- & "arrow" 6.1.1.2 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Piiim \({ }^{\mathrm{m} /}\) "arrow" is a remnant of an old \({ }^{\top}{ }^{\varepsilon}\) class, preserved in e.g. the Gurma languages and Nawdm: cf Nawdm fí:mú "arrow", plural fí:mí.

\subsection*{9.4 Nàm \(^{\text {a }}\) plurals}

The word nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) 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 16.10 . It is not a suffix.

Plurals with nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) are made for nouns where the pl stem differs from the sg , or the regular pl would be ambiguous 9.3.1; nouns using \(-b^{\mathrm{a}}\) as \(\operatorname{sg} \underline{9.3 .1 .1}\); nouns with a bare stem as sg; loanwords; pronouns without distinctive pl forms, like ànó'خे \(n^{\varepsilon}\) "who" when asking for a plural answer or \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{1+/}\) 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:

\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline dà-pūodá nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "crosses" \\
\hline kūt nám \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "nails"; sg also "iron" \\
\hline bē' \({ }^{\text {d }}\) n nám \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "evils" \\
\hline bùgóm nám \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "fires, lights" \\
\hline sā'ab nám \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "portions of porridge" \\
\hline dāam nám \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "beers" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{9.5 Nouns with apocope-blocking}

A number of nouns ending in \(-\iota^{+}\)or \(-\nu^{+}\)display apocope-blocking \(\underline{6.6}\) :
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline būudı \({ }^{+}\) & bùud- & "tribe" \\
\hline nà'ası \({ }^{+}\) & & "honour" \\
\hline kābırí+ & & "entry permission" \\
\hline sūgoró \({ }^{+}\) & & "forbearance" \\
\hline piinı \({ }^{+}\) & pìn- & "gift" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Such nouns include loanwords from languages without apocope, like the Mampruli loan kīibú+ "soap" 15.1. Cognates of būudı+ show that the -dı is the equivalent of the \(d^{\varepsilon}\) pl suffix: Mooré búudu "famille, espèce" sg búugu. Nà'ası+ may similarly represent \(s^{\varepsilon}\) pl. Kābırí+ and sūgoró' may show the equivalent of \(r^{\varepsilon} \mathrm{sg}\), with \(k a ̄ b r^{\varepsilon /}\) "ask for admission" and sūgur \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) "forbear" as back-formations 13.1.4. With pïinı+ \({ }^{+}\)cf Mampruli piini id; Mampruli also has \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)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 \(\rho^{\rho} \iota^{+}\)class plurals: cf Gurmanch paabu "gift."

\section*{9．6 Loanwords}

Loanwords adopt noun classes by analogy \(\underline{9.1}\) or make nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) plurals \(\underline{9.4}\) ：
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(g^{\text {a }} \mid s^{\varepsilon}: ~\) àrazà \(^{\text {a }}\) & àrazà＇as \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & àrazà＇－ & ＂riches＂ \\
\hline màlíāk \({ }^{\text {a／}}\) & màliā＇as \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & màli̇ā＇－ & Hausa arzikii ＂angel＂DK（Arabic） \\
\hline \(g^{\supset} \mid d^{\varepsilon}: ~ g a ̄ d v g^{\prime /}\) & \(g \bar{a}^{\varepsilon}{ }^{\varepsilon /}\) & gād－ & ＂bed＂Hausa gadoo \\
\hline ノ̀mbう̀＇د \({ }^{\text { }}\) & 1̇̀mbう＇כd \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & lòmbう̀＇－ & \begin{tabular}{l}
＂garden＂ \\
Hausa làmbuu
\end{tabular} \\
\hline \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}: 1 \partial^{\text {r }}\) & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { lóyà }{ }^{+} \text {tones sic } \\
& \text { or lósm }
\end{aligned}
\] & lór－ & ＂car，lorry＂ cf \(M \overline{\jmath^{\varepsilon}}\) 9．3．1 \\
\hline àlópir \({ }^{\text {E }}\) & àlópìya＋ & & ＂aeroplane＂SB \\
\hline wādır \({ }^{\text {g／}}\) & wādá＋ & wād－ & pl＂customs，law＂ （English＂order＂） \\
\hline \(g a ̄ d v^{+}\) & \(g a ̄ d v-n a ́ m{ }^{\text {a }}\) & gādo－ & ＂bed＂WK \\
\hline \(k \varepsilon ̀ \varepsilon k \grave{\varepsilon}^{+}\) & kè \(k\) k̇̇－nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & kદ̀ \(k\) غ̀－ & ＂bicycle＂Hausa kèekè \\
\hline dāká＋ & dāká－nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & dāká－ & ＂box＂Hausa àdakàa \\
\hline tézbùl \({ }^{\text { }}\) & tézbùl－nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & tézbòl－ & ＂table＂ \\
\hline \(N a ̀ s a ̄ a r a^{+}\) &  & Nàsàar－ & ＂white person， \\
\hline & or Nàsàa－nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & Nàsàa－ & \begin{tabular}{l}
European＂30．4； \\
cf Hausa Nàsaara
\end{tabular} \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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 8．3：
du＇átà ná＇àb
dư＇átà－nà＇ab
＂a doctor＇s chief＂
＂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-kànā

```
＂world＂（Arabic دنيا dunya：）
＂this world＂

\section*{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 būvga "goat":
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline bò-pìlıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) &  & bù-pìəl- ( \(g^{\text {a }} s^{\varepsilon}\) ) & "white goat" \\
\hline bù-pìlı & bù-pìla+ & bù-pìal- ( \(\left.r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\right)\) & id \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

A few traces of agreement remain, accounting for all cases with \(m^{m}\) 16.11.1.1. There is also some preference for \(g^{\mathrm{a}} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) suffixes for human reference: nīn-sábulis \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "Africans", where nīn-sábılà+ is accepted by informants but is much less common, and Zưà-wìis \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "Red Zoose" (clan), where the adjective does not normally use \(\mathrm{pl} s^{\varepsilon}\). The suffixes \({ }^{\text {a }} \mid b^{a}\) and \(f^{\rho} \mid \iota^{+}\)appear only in set expressions; \(b^{\supset}\) never occurs at all.

WK claims a meaning difference in intensity in gradable adjectives with sg suffixes of different classes, consistently ranking them \(g^{\text {a }} r^{\varepsilon} g\) in decreasing order, so that fū-píəlìg "white shirt" is whiter than fū-píàl id. 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 9.1. A further major constraint is that only two adjectives show suffixes from both the \(g^{\text {a }} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) and \(g^{\supset} \mid d^{\varepsilon}\) classes:


Other adjectives are either \(g^{\text {a }}\) - or \(g^{\rho}\)-type, along with \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)class suffixes; this probably reflects simplification of the old agreement system prior to its complete abandonment. Adjectives of the \(g^{a}\) type include:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline wàbıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & wàbss \({ }^{\text { }}\) & wàb- & "lame" \\
\hline wàbır \({ }^{\text { }}\) & wàba+ & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline vènnıga vènnır₹ \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) rare & \(v \varepsilon ̀ n n ı s^{\varepsilon}\) vènna+ & vغ̀n- & "beautiful" \\
\hline vèn̆llıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & vènัllıs vèn̆lla+ & & "beautiful" \\
\hline \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { sāblíga } \\
& \text { sābílle }
\end{aligned}
\] & \begin{tabular}{l}
sābulís \\
sābılá+
\end{tabular} & sābıl- & "black" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Similar are wēnnır \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "resembling" pāalíg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "new" záall \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "empty" bàan̆lıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "slim" pìəlıga "white."
\(\mathrm{Sg} r^{\varepsilon}\) is not used with \(g^{\text {a }}\)-type stems in \(m n\) :
\(d \varepsilon \bar{\varepsilon} \eta^{a}\)
\(d \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon n s^{\varepsilon}\)
"first"
d \(\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon m \stackrel{s^{\varepsilon}}{ }\)
dèعŋ-
dēहna+
\(\mathrm{Pl} s^{\varepsilon}\) is not used with 2-mora stems in \(m n\), or with any stems in \(s d\) :
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
gīク \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & gīma+ & gìn- & "short" \\
\begin{tabular}{l} 
būgusíg \(g^{a}\) \\
būgusír
\end{tabular} & būgusá
\end{tabular}

Similarly mā'asír \(r^{\varepsilon}\) "cold, wet" mālısír \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "sweet" t̄̄bısír \(r^{\varepsilon}\) "heavy" lābısír \(r^{\varepsilon}\) "wide."
Adjectives of the \(g^{\rho}\)-type only show \(\mathrm{pl} d^{\varepsilon}\) in a few 2 -mora stems ending in vowels or plosives:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline nèog \({ }^{\text {º }}\) nè \(r^{\varepsilon}\) & \(n \varepsilon ̀ \varepsilon d^{\varepsilon}\) nèya \({ }^{+}\) & \(n \varepsilon\) - & "empty" \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
wìug \(^{\text { }}\) \\
wiir \(^{\varepsilon}\)
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l}
wìid \(^{\varepsilon}\) \\
wìya \({ }^{+}\)
\end{tabular} & wì- & "red" \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
\(w \overline{\mathrm{j}} \mathrm{k}^{\mathrm{J} /}\) \\
wā'ar \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) rare
\end{tabular} & wā'ad \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) wā'á' & wā'- or wōk- & "long, tall" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(k \bar{u} d u g^{3}\) \(k u ̄ d ı r^{\varepsilon}\) & \(k \bar{u} t^{\varepsilon}\) rare \(k u ̄ d a^{+}\) & kùd- & "old" \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
bèdug \({ }^{\text { }}\) \\
\(b \dot{d ı r}{ }^{\varepsilon}\) rare
\end{tabular} & bèda+ & bèd- & "great" \\
\hline tītā' \(v g^{\text {a }}\) rare tītā'ar \({ }^{\text { }}\) & tītāda+ & tītá'- & "big" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
 accordingly end up with \(\mathrm{sg} g^{\supset} \mathrm{pl} a^{+}\)only:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline sùn \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & sòma \({ }^{+}\) & sùn- & "good" \\
\hline kísùg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & kīsá \({ }^{+}\) & kīs- & "hateful, taboo" \\
\hline dà-zēmmóg \({ }^{\text { }}\) & dà-zēmmá+ & dà-z̄̄m- & "equal piece of wood" \\
\hline tōológ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & tūolá+ & tōol- & "hot" \\
\hline lāllúg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & lāllá \({ }^{+}\) & lāl- & "distant" \\
\hline mìisug \({ }^{\text { }}\) & mi'isa+ & mìis- & "sour" \\
\hline wàup \({ }^{\text {ºn }}\) & wàna \({ }^{+}\) & wàun- & "wasted, thin" \\
\hline kpion \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & kpīəma+ & kpi'on- & "hard, strong" \\
\hline zùlva & zùlıma+ & zùlon- & "deep" \\
\hline yī-pón̆rùg \({ }^{\text { }}\) & yī-pón̆rà \({ }^{+}\) & & "nearby house" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Similarly yàlu \(\eta^{3}\) "wide" n̆yālón \({ }^{\text {º }}\) "wonderful" y \(\bar{l}\)-nárù̀ว "necessary thing."
Resultative adjectives derived with *-lım-13.2.1.2.2 belong here. KT (but not WK ) also has forms without - \(m\) - in both sg and pl :
\begin{tabular}{lllll} 
kpìilún & kpìilímà & kpìilún- & "dead" & WK \\
nīn-kpíilùg & nīn-kpíilima & & & "dead person"
\end{tabular} 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 \(g^{\text {a }}\)-type for WK , but

kōodír \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
Kūvdá+ Kūvd-
kūodíga WK
kūudúg \({ }^{\text {T }}\) K
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline tōmmır \({ }^{\text {E }}\) & \begin{tabular}{l}
tūmma \({ }^{+} \mathrm{WK}\) \\
tōmna+ KT
\end{tabular} & tòm- & "working, helpful" \\
\hline sīnnír \({ }^{\text {e }}\) rare & sinná \({ }^{+}\) & sin- & "silent" \\
\hline sinníga & & & \\
\hline \(m \bar{r}{ }^{\varepsilon /}\) & mōrá \({ }^{+}\) & \(m \bar{r}\) - & "having" \\
\hline kùg-d̄̄ı \(\mid \varepsilon /\) & kùg-dह̄llá \({ }^{+}\) & & "chair for leaning on" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Stems in \(g k \eta\) do not use the sg suffixes \(g^{\text {a }} g^{د}\) :
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
būn-túlıgìr & būn-túlıgà & & "heating thing" \\
n̆wī-tékìr & n̆wī-tćkà & n̄wī-ték- & "pulling-rope" \\
būn-súnìr & būn-súnà & &
\end{tabular}

Adjectives derived from 4-mora stem verbs in -m in KT's speech take \(g^{\text {a }}\) or \(g^{\text {D }}\) \(\operatorname{sg}\) and \(-a^{+} \mathrm{pl}\); they may drop the \(-m\) - in the plural:
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
nīn-pú'alìn \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & nīn-pú'alìma \({ }^{+}\) & "harmful person" \\
nīn-záan̆sòn \({ }^{\text { }}\) & nīn-záan̆sà &
\end{tabular}

Some adjectives simply belong to a single noun class even though this cannot be accounted for by the stem-suffix incompatibilities outlined above:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(v \bar{u}^{\varepsilon /}\) & vūyá+ & \(v \bar{o} r-\) & "alive" \\
\hline dāog \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & dāad \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & dà- & "male" \\
\hline tכֹg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & tכֹd \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & tう- & "bitter" \\
\hline pưāk \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(p \bar{u}^{\prime} a s^{\varepsilon}\) & pu'à- & "female" (human) \\
\hline n̆yá'an \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & n̆yá'as \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & n̆yā'aŋ- & "female" (animal) \\
\hline & ňyā'amís \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & & \\
\hline n̆yદ̀¢sín \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & n̆yèznsís \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & n̆yc̀esín- & "self-confident" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
and similarly vèn̆llín \(\eta^{a}\) "beautiful" mālısína "pleasant" lāllín \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "distant."
bïla
\(b i ̄ b ı s^{\varepsilon}\)
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) nílá "chick", pìllà "lamb", bùdíblá "boy", púglá "girl", kíllá "young guinea fowl"; Mooré bìríblá "boy", bìpúglá "girl." The plural stem bib- is reduplicated.

\section*{11 Verb flexion}

Though written solid with the verb in traditional orthography, discontinuouspast \(n^{\varepsilon} \underline{24.1 .1}\) and the 2 pl 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 19.6.2.2.

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 \(-y^{\text {a }}\). 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 \(n / r\) the resulting cluster (reduced to a single consonant with \(r\) r) is carried over into the deverbal derivatives. Here \(n n\) consistently behaves exactly like \(n n\) derived from *nd, but \(/ / r(r)\) are subject to further assimilation just like I r 6.2.

\subsection*{11.1 Dual-aspect verbs}

Perfective, imperfective and \(-m^{\text {a }}\) imperative are cited in order. Straightforward examples include:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(k \bar{u}^{+}\) & kūod \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & kùum \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "kill" \\
\hline kpèn̆'+ & \(k p \varepsilon ̇ n ̆ ' \varepsilon d^{\text {a }}\) & kpèn̆' \(\mathrm{m}^{\text {a }}\) & "enter" \\
\hline kià \({ }^{+}\) & kìə \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & kìəm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "cut" \\
\hline kuā+ & kūed \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & kùөm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "hoe" \\
\hline gòñ \({ }^{+}\) & gว̀วn̆d \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & gว̀วnัm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "hunt" \\
\hline \(d \bar{u} g^{\varepsilon}\) & dūgud \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & dògum \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "cook" \\
\hline yùug \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & yùugıd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & yùugım \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "delay, get late" \\
\hline \(y{ }^{\text {y }}\) dıg \({ }^{\text {g/ }}\) & yādıgíd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & yàdıgım \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "scatter" \\
\hline piōă \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & piōă'ad \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & piàn' \({ }^{\text {ama }}\) & "speak; praise" \\
\hline du'àa \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(d u^{\prime} d^{\text {a }}\) & dơ'am \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "bear, beget" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(n \overline{\mathrm{k}}{ }^{\varepsilon /}\) & nj̄kíd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & njkıma \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "take" \\
\hline \(g a ̄ \eta^{\varepsilon /}\) & gāníd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & gànıma & "choose" \\
\hline \(k p \dot{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \eta^{\varepsilon}\) & kpè'bıd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & kpغ̇'מım \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "strengthen" \\
\hline \(k p a ̀ r^{\varepsilon}\) & \(k p a ̀ r ı d^{\text {a }}\) & kpàrım \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "lock" \\
\hline sūgur \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & sūguríd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & sùgurıma & "forgive" \\
\hline bàs \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & \(b a ̀ s ı d^{\text {a }}\) & bàsıma & "go/send away" \\
\hline sīgus \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & sīgısída & sigısıma & "lower" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Some root-stems ending in a vowel show a CV- allomorph in both imperfective and imperative, with \(-t\) - for \(-d-\) 6.1.1.1:
\begin{tabular}{llll}
\(d i^{+}\) & \(d i t^{a}\) & dìm & "eat" \\
\(\check{n y} \bar{\varepsilon}^{+}\) & \(\check{y} y \bar{z} t^{a /}\) & \(\check{y} y \varepsilon ̀ m^{a}\) & "see"
\end{tabular}
and so also \(l^{+}{ }^{+}, \grave{l u}^{+}\)"fall" \(d \bar{v}^{+}\)"go up" \(y \bar{I}^{+}\)"go/come out" zj̀+ "run, fear."
Stems in - \(d\) - show \(-t\) - in the ipfv via *dd \(\rightarrow t t\) :
\begin{tabular}{llcc} 
bùd & bùt \(^{\text {a }}\) & bùdım & "plant" \\
gàad \(^{\varepsilon}\) & gàt \(^{\text {a }} \underline{6.5}\) & gàadım & "pass, surpass"
\end{tabular}

Stems in I generate a cluster in the ipfv via */d \(\rightarrow\) nn 6.2:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(v \bar{u} l^{\varepsilon}\) & vōnna/ & vòlıma & "swallow" \\
\hline màal \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & màan \({ }^{\text {na }}\) & màalım \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "make; sacrifice" \\
\hline \(d i ̄ g l^{\varepsilon /}\) & dīgínna & digllıma & "lay down" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Only 2-mora \(b\)-stems assimilate \(* b m \rightarrow m m\) :
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(l\) lè \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & \(l\) lèbıd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & lèm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & "return" \\
\hline \(s \overline{b^{\varepsilon}}\) & sj̄bıd \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & sòm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & "write" \\
\hline liəb \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & \(l i z b ı d^{\text {a }}\) & lìabım \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "become" \\
\hline \(\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon n ̆ b^{\varepsilon /}\) & \(\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon n ̆ h^{\prime} d^{\text {a }}\) & غ̀عn̆bım \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "lay a foundation" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Only 2 -mora \(n\)-stems show *nd \(\rightarrow n n\); only \(k \bar{\varepsilon} \eta^{\varepsilon /}\) (below) shows \(* n m \rightarrow m m\) :
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline bùn \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & bùn \({ }^{\text {na }}\) & bùnım \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "reap" \\
\hline \(m \overline{n^{\varepsilon}}\) & \(m \bar{n}{ }^{\text {na/ }}\) & mònım \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "make porridge" \\
\hline gう̀'n \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & gう̀'כnıda & gذ'วnıma & "extend neck" \\
\hline dìgın \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & dìgınıd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & dìgınım \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "lie down" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The nn-stem \(\operatorname{sùn}^{\varepsilon}\) does not assimilate at all:
sùn \({ }^{\text {ne }} \quad\) sùnnıd \({ }^{\text {a }} \quad\) sùnnım \({ }^{\text {a }} \quad\) "bow head"

4 -mora \(m\)-stems always assimilate \(* m d \rightarrow m n, m m\), while 3 -mora \(m\)-stems assimilate optionally; 2-mora stems regularly assimilate, but the NT/KB sometimes have unassimilated forms to avoid ambiguity 6.2.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
siilım \({ }^{m}\) \\
lāクím \({ }^{m}\)
\end{tabular} & siilım \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) lāním \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & siilım \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) làpım \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & \begin{tabular}{l}
"quote proverbs" \\
"wander searching"
\end{tabular} \\
\hline kàrım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & kàrım \({ }^{m}\) & kàrım \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & "read" \\
\hline & or kàrımıd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & & \\
\hline tכ̄כm \({ }^{\text {m/ }}\) & tóom \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & ṫ̀m \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & "depart" \\
\hline & or tכ̄כmíd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & & \\
\hline tòm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & tòm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & tòm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & "work" \\
\hline wòm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & wòm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & wòm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & "hear" \\
\hline kìm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & kìm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & \(k i m^{\text {ma }}\) & "tend flock/herd" \\
\hline dùm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & dùm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & dùm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & "bite" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Stems in \(-m m-(\leftarrow * m b)\) only assimilate in the imperative:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline tàm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & tàmmıd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & tàm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & "forget" \\
\hline zàm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & zàmmıd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & zàm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & "cheat, betray" \\
\hline dàm \({ }^{m}\) & dàmmıd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & dàm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & "shake" \\
\hline \(l غ ̀ m^{\text {m }}\) & \(l e ̀ m m ı d^{\text {a }}\) & lèm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & "sip, taste" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Fusion verbs show deleted \({ }^{* g}\) after aa iə uө аan̆ عદn̆ ככn̆ 6.3. *G-deletion appears only in the perfective and gerund; elsewhere \({ }^{*} g\) is absent, not deleted (for the tonal implications see 7.3.1.) For the perfective forms before liaison see see 8.2.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline fāen̆ \({ }^{+/}\) & fāan̆d \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & fàan̆m \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "save" \\
\hline di'e \({ }^{+/}\) & \(d i{ }^{\text {a }}{ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & di'əm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "get, receive" \\
\hline dūe \({ }^{+/}\) & \(d u ̄ \theta d^{\text {a/ }}\) & dùөm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "rise, raise" \\
\hline pūn̆' \(\mathrm{e}^{+/}\) & pūn̆'өd \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & pùn̆'өm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "rot" WK \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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 - \(d\).
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(g \bar{\nu} s^{\varepsilon}\) & \(g \bar{s} s d^{\text {a/ }}\) & gj̀sıma \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "look" \\
\hline & or \(\mathrm{g}^{\text {jo }}{ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & gòm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \\
\hline \(t i s^{\varepsilon}\) & tìsıd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & tisıma & "give" \\
\hline & or tit \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Before liaison-word objects the perfective may also be tì-, e.g. tì \(f\) "give you."
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(y \grave{k} \|^{\varepsilon}\) & \(y غ ̇ t^{\text {a }}\) & \(y غ ̀ ı m^{\text {a }}\) & "say" \\
\hline wik \({ }^{\text { }}\) & wiid \(^{\text {a }}\) 6.1.1.1 & wikım \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "fetch water" \\
\hline ¡ān̆ \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) & iān̄'ad \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) &  & "leap, fly" \\
\hline gīlıg \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & gīn \({ }^{\text {na/ }}\) & gilıgım \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "go around" \\
\hline \(k \bar{\varepsilon} \eta^{\varepsilon /}\) & \(k \bar{\varepsilon} n^{\text {na/ }}\) & kèm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "go" \\
\hline \(d \varepsilon ̇ / ı m^{m}\) & [dēla/ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(d \bar{l} / \iota m^{\text {ma }}\) & "lean (of a person)" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\(D \grave{\varepsilon} / \iota m^{\mathrm{m}}\) is used as inchoative to \(d \bar{\varepsilon} l^{\mathrm{la} / ~ " b e ~ l e a n i n g ~(o f ~ a ~ p e r s o n) " ; ~ c o m p a r e ~ g u ̀ l ~}{ }^{\varepsilon}\) ipfv gùn na "suspend" beside the stance verb gùlla "be hanging."

Only two dual-aspect verbs are irregular in the actual flexional suffixes taken:
\(k \bar{\varepsilon}^{+} \quad k \bar{\varepsilon} t^{a /}\)
\(k \dot{\varepsilon}{ }^{\mathrm{a}}\)
"let, allow"
\(k \bar{\varepsilon} \check{n}^{+}\)
\(k \bar{\varepsilon} n^{\mathrm{a} /}\)
\(k \varepsilon ̀ m{ }^{a}\)
"come"

\subsection*{11.2 Single-aspect verbs}

\subsection*{11.2.1 Dynamic}

Dynamic single-aspect verbs distinguish progressive/habitual senses with focus-n \(\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)like dual-aspect verb imperfectives. Like dual-aspect verbs, they make gerunds usable in the immediate-future construction with bj̀ \(d^{\text {a }}\) "want" 19.3.4, and form agent nouns, dynamic adjectives and instrument nouns, generally with the same derivational - \(d\) as dual-aspect verbs 13.2.1.

Most dynamic single-aspect verbs are stance verbs.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline īgıya/ & "be kneeling" & dīgıya/ & "be lying down" \\
\hline vābıya/ & "be prone" & làbıya & "crouch in hiding" \\
\hline tàbı \({ }^{\text {ya }}\) & "be stuck to" & \(z i ' e^{\text {ya }}\) & "be standing still" \\
\hline zin̆'iya & "be sitting" & ti iya/ & "be leaning (object)" \\
\hline d \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) la/ & "be leaning (person)" & sùr \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "have head bowed" \\
\hline gō'e \({ }^{\text {ya/ }}\) WK & "have neck extended" & gùl \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "be hanging" \\
\hline \(g \bar{r} r^{\text {a/ }}\) DK & "have neck extended" & gōla/ & "have neck extended" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Derived assume-stance verbs 13.1.1 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 assumestance verb instead:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline & Ò zin̆'i nes. & "She's sitting down." WK KT \\
\hline & Ò pū zín̆'idā. & "She doesn't sit down" WK \\
\hline but & Ò pū zín̆'inìdā. & "She doesn't sit down." KT \\
\hline & Ò zin̆'i \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\). & "She's sitting down." \\
\hline & Ò pū zín'idā. & "She doesn't sit down" WK \\
\hline but & Ò pū zín̆'inìdā. & "She doesn't sit down." KT \\
\hline & Ò vàbı ne. & "He's lying prone." \\
\hline & Ò pū vābıdá. & "He doesn't lie prone." WK \\
\hline but & Ò pō vábınìdã. & "He doesn't lie prone." KT \\
\hline & Ò dìgı \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\). & "She's lying down." \\
\hline & Ò pū dīgıdá. & "She doesn't lie down" WK \\
\hline & Lì zì'ə nē. & "It's standing up." \\
\hline & Lì pū zí'ıā. & "It (a defective tripod) doesn't stand up." WK \\
\hline & Lì ti'ín \(\overline{\text { c }}\). & "It's leaning against something." \\
\hline & Lì ti'id. & "It can be leant against something." WK \\
\hline & Lì pō tỉiyá. & "It's not leaning against something." \\
\hline & Lì pō tỉ idá. & "It's not for leaning against something." WK \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Non-stance dynamic single-aspect verbs include
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
wà'eya & "travel to" & \(\operatorname{sinn}^{\text {na/ }}\) & "be silent" \\
d̄̄ıla/ & "accompany" & zān̆la/ & "carry in one's hands" \\
gūr \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "guard" & tèňra & "remember"
\end{tabular}

They do not have distinct continuous and habitual forms:

Ò sin.
\(O\) òn \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\).
Ò zàn̆l n̄̄ kólùg.
"She's silent."
"She's keeping silent."
"He's holding a bag."
Ò zàn̆l kólòg．
＂He holds a bag．＂
Ò pū zān̆llá．
＂He isn＇t holding／doesn＇t hold it．＂

The same verb form is also used in inchoative senses：

Sìn！
Dう̀llī m．

Kà bà sīn．
And 3pL be．silent．
＂Be quiet！＂
＂Follow me！＂
＂And they fell silent．＂

\section*{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 13．2．1．1．The negative relational verbs \(k a \bar{\prime} ' e^{+}\)and \(z{ }^{-1}+\) cannot be used in direct commands but \(z i^{\prime}{ }^{\prime+}\) has an agent noun．Apart from those taking locative complements，relational verbs are obligatory transitives 19．8．1．They include
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline àeñ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{＂be something／somehow＂} \\
\hline \(m \overline{r a z}\) & ＂have＂ & tār \({ }^{\text {a／}}\) & ＂have＂ \\
\hline sō＇e \({ }^{\text {ya／}}\) & ＂own＂ & sōn̆＇e \({ }^{\text {ya／}}\) & ＂be better than＂ \\
\hline \(n \bar{n} n^{\text {na／}}\) & ＂envy＂ & \(k i s^{\text {a／}}\) & ＂hate＂ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Five relational verbs consist of base stems with no suffix．
\begin{tabular}{llll}
\(m \imath^{+}\) & ＂know＂ & \(z \imath^{\top+}\) & ＂not know＂ \\
\(b \grave{\varepsilon}^{+}\) & ＂be somewhere，exist＂ & kā＇e \(^{+}\) & ＂not be＂（ \(\leftarrow\)＊kagı \()\) \\
\(n \grave{\eta^{\varepsilon}}\) & ＂love＂ & &
\end{tabular}
\(N \grave{\eta^{\varepsilon}}\) is unique among single－aspect verbs in possessing a \(m^{\text {a }}\)－imperative， nう̀クımá \({ }^{\text {a }}\) used when the verb word carries the tone overlay of independency marking．

Unlike perfectives，these bare－stem forms are never followed by particle \(y \bar{a}^{+}\) 19．6．2．1，and the Pattern LO verbs \(b \dot{\varepsilon}^{+}\)and \(n \grave{\eta} \eta^{\varepsilon}\) have \(M\) tone before liaision enclitic pronouns and are followed by M spreading even when not subject to the tone overlay of independency marking 8．3．
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { M̀ nón. } \\
& \text { not } \quad \text { ǹ̀ } y a ̄
\end{aligned}
\]
＂I love him．＂（e．g．in reply to a question）WK specifically stated to be impossible by WK

Kà ò nכ́nī f.
"And she loves you."

Mit ka Zugsob tumtum a one non zaba.
Mì kà Zūg-sób tóm-tōm á ónì nว̀ z zábāa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
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 nخ̀מıdả has Pattern Linstead 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.
\[
\text { Ò nว̀pıd kā'e. } \quad \text { "Nobody loves him." WK }
\]

Some dual-aspect verb imperfectives have become independent statives: bj̀כda \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "want", ż̀t "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 12.1. Dùr \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "be many" and kàr \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "be few" have no associated adjectives..

A few adjectival verbs take complements:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline z \(\bar{\varepsilon} m^{\text {ma/ }}\) & "be equal to" & kpē \({ }^{\text {n }}\) ( \({ }^{\text {ma/ }}\) & "be older than" \\
\hline lāla/ & "be far from" & \(p\) pon̆ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "be near to" \\
\hline nā \(r^{\text {a/ }}\) & "be necessary" & \(w \bar{\varepsilon} n^{\text {na/ }}\) & "resemble" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The verb nāra/ has a related adjective nàrun \({ }^{\text {J }}\) "necessary" (??tone) but the verb is probably primary; it is much commoner than the adjective. The verb tūn̆'e "be able" occurs almost exclusively as a stative auxiliary verb in \(n\)-catenation 23.2.1; it has no extant Long Form in my materials, and no cognate nominal forms.

\section*{12 Stem conversion}

\subsection*{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 \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "beautiful" vèn na \(\quad\) "be beautiful"
vèn̆llıg \(g^{\text {a }}\) "beautiful" vèn̆lla "be beautiful"
zùlın \({ }^{\text {ºn }}\) "deep" zùlım ma
pว̀วdıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "small" pว̀ว \(d^{a}\)
mìisug \({ }^{\text {² }}\) "sour" mìis \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
sùn \({ }^{\text {ºn }}\) "good"
yàlun \({ }^{3}\) "wide"

H
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
būgusír & "soft" \\
vōrel & "alive" \\
zह̄mmúg & "equal" \\
mā'asír \(r^{\varepsilon}\) & "cool" \\
\(t \bar{b} b ı\) ír \(^{\varepsilon}\) & "heavy" \\
mālısír & "sweet" \\
lābısír & "wide"
\end{tabular}
būgus \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) "be soft"
vōe \({ }^{\mathrm{a} /}\)
\(z \bar{\varepsilon} m^{\mathrm{ma} /}\)
mā'as \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\)
\(t \bar{b} b s^{a /}\)
mālıs \({ }^{\mathrm{a} /}\)
lābssa/
"be alive" 6.1.1.1
"be equal"
"be cool"
"be heavy"
"be sweet"
"be wide"
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multirow[t]{6}{*}{O} & tכ̄ \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "bitter" & tōe \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "be bitter" 6.1.1.1 \\
\hline & gī \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "short" & gīm \({ }^{\text {ma/ }}\) & "be short" \\
\hline & kpion \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "strong" & kpi'əmma/ & "be strong" \\
\hline & \(k p \varepsilon \bar{\varepsilon} \mathrm{n}^{\text {m }}{ }^{\text {m }}\) & "elder" & \(k p \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon \frac{\square ̆ m}{}{ }^{\text {ma/ }}\) & "be older than" \\
\hline & \(w \bar{\varepsilon} n n \iota r^{\varepsilon}\) & "resembling" & \(w \bar{\varepsilon} n^{\text {na/ }}\) & "resemble" \\
\hline & tādım \({ }^{\text {m/ }}\) & "weak person" & tàdım \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & "be weak" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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:
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
kpī’əm \\
wā' \(a m^{\text {ma/ }}\) & not & *kpí'əm & not
\end{tabular}

The Dagbani cognate kpema of \(k p i{ }^{\prime} \not m^{m a /}\) also confirms an original single -m-: Dagbani preserves long vowels always and only in originally closed syllables. (Dagbani maani sg mana \(\mathrm{pl}=\) Kusaal má'an \({ }^{\mathrm{n} \varepsilon} \mathrm{sg}\) mā'aná+ pl "okra.")

Stem changes occur in
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline tūológ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "hot" & tōla/ & "be hot" \\
\hline n̆yと̀ \({ }^{\text {cín }}{ }^{\text {a }}\) & "self-confident" & n̆yદ̀ s \(^{\text {a }}\) & "be self-confident" \\
\hline wōk \({ }^{\text {J/ }}\) & "long, tall" & wā'am \({ }^{\text {ma/ }}\) & "be long, tall" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The gemination of \(-m\) - in the LF of \(w \overline{a^{\prime}} \mathrm{am}^{\mathrm{ma/}}\) 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 wēnním \({ }^{m}\) of \(w \bar{\varepsilon} n^{\text {na/ }}\) "resemble", which is shown to be deverbal by the Tone Pattern contrast with the adjective \(w \bar{\varepsilon} n n \iota \iota^{\varepsilon}\) "resembling" 13.2.1.4.

\subsection*{12.2 Nouns from verbs}

\subsection*{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 16.10.2.1.

Gerunds may be used as abstract count nouns describing particular instances of the activity of the verb, and may then have plurals 16.2.1.

The Tone Patterns of all regularly formed gerunds are predictable 7.5.

\subsection*{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 \(-g^{د}\) replaced by \(-r^{\varepsilon}\) after stems ending in underlying *g.
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
2-mora stems & \(-b^{\nu} \quad\) but \(-r^{\varepsilon}\) as final element of a compound \\
3-mora stems in \(* g\) & \\
[surface \(-g^{\varepsilon}-k^{\varepsilon}-\eta^{\varepsilon}-a e^{+}-i e^{+}-u e^{+}\)] & \(-r^{\varepsilon}\) \\
all others & \(-g^{\partial}\)
\end{tabular}

Gerunds differ in flexion from other substantives in frequently resisting the assimilations *mg \(\rightarrow\) מן \({ }^{*} n g \rightarrow \underline{6.2}\). They rarely shorten a CVV- stem before \(-r^{\varepsilon}\). 4-mora stems in -sım -lım follow the rule and use \(-g^{\top}\) :
\[
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { siilım" } & \text { "cite proverbs" } & \text { siilún } & \text { gerund } \\
\text { zàan̆sım } & \text { "dream" } & \text { zàan̆són } &
\end{array}
\]
but stems in *-gım drop the \(-m\) - and use \(-r^{\varepsilon}\) :
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline wànım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "waste away" & wàmır \({ }^{\text {c }}\) \\
\hline lānı́m \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "wander" & lānír \({ }^{\text {c }}\) \\
\hline zàkım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "itch" & zàkır \({ }^{\text {e }}\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

For examples of regular gerunds see under Noun Flexion 9.3.3 9.3.4 9.3.6. 2 -mora stems regularly use \(-r^{\varepsilon}\) not \(b^{\top}\) in compounds; see 16.10.1.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline \(p u{ }^{\prime}{ }^{\text {a }}\)-dīır \(r^{\varepsilon}\) & "marriage" \\
\hline nīn-kúv̀r \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "murder" \\
\hline dā-núùr \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "beer-drinking" \\
\hline mう̀-pī \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "grass roof" \\
\hline \(f u ̄-y \varepsilon ́ \grave{c ̧} r^{\varepsilon}\) & "shirt-wearing" WK \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Irregular perfective gerunds are rare with stems of three or four morae. A few have plural-as-singular forms 16.2.1; the verb yīis \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) "make go/come out" has yīisíb \({ }^{\text {² }}\), like the alternate form \(y \bar{i} s^{\varepsilon}\) with regular \(y \bar{i} s i b^{\nu}\). However, almost \(20 \%\) of 2 -mora-stem verbs in KED use suffixes other than \(b^{3}\). Most irregular 2-mora stem verbs have regular gerunds:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline \(t i s^{\varepsilon}\) & "give" & \(t i ̄ s ı b^{\text {J }}\) \\
\hline \(k \bar{\varepsilon}^{+}\) & "let" & \(k \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon b^{\top}\) \\
\hline \(g \grave{v}{ }^{\text {® }}\) & "suspend" & \(g \mathrm{co}^{\prime} \mathrm{lb}^{3}\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Few segmentally irregular gerunds are also tonally irregular. However, forms with the suffix \(-g^{J}\) are Pattern L from Pattern LO verbs unless there are variants with \(g^{\text {a }}\) or \(s^{\varepsilon}\) showing that the word really belongs to \(g^{\text {a }} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) with LF remodelling 9.3.2.

A high proportion of 2-mora stem verbs with irregular gerunds have stems ending in \(m\) or \(b\); the regular formation with \(-b^{3}\) has probably been avoided because it would create ambiguous SFs 9.1.

All of these examples occur in the bj̀כda "want" + gerund construction 19.3.4.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline \(1 i^{+}\) & "fall" & liig \({ }^{\text {a }}\) \\
\hline \(2 i^{+}\) & "carry on head" & ziild \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) \\
\hline bèn̆ \({ }^{+}\) & "fall ill" & bēn̆' \(\varepsilon s^{\varepsilon}\) \\
\hline \(k \bar{n} \check{n}^{+}\) & "come" & \(k \bar{\varepsilon} n^{n \varepsilon /}\) \\
\hline \(z{ }^{+}\) & "run" & zūa+ also zōəg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) \\
\hline \(v \bar{u}^{+}\) & "make noise" & vūug \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) \\
\hline pīāñ'a & "speak" & piàuñ̌ \({ }^{\text {º }}\) \\
\hline \(b u ̀ d^{\varepsilon}\) & "plant" & \(b u ̄ d ı g^{\text {a }}\) also būdug \({ }^{\text { }}\) \\
\hline yè| \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "say, tell" & yદ̀lug \({ }^{\text {( }}\) cf Mooré yèele; ?? *yiə \(\rightarrow\) y ) \\
\hline \(k u ̄ l^{\varepsilon}\) & "go home" & kūlıga/ also kūlug \({ }^{\prime}\) \\
\hline tàns \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "shout" & tàňsug \({ }^{\text { }}\) \\
\hline sכ̄n̆s \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "converse" & sóňsiog \({ }^{\text {a }}\) \\
\hline gЈ̄s \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "look" & gósìg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) \\
\hline sj̀s \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "pray, beg" & sjosıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) \\
\hline \(k i r^{\varepsilon}\) & "hurry" & kikírùg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) or \(k i ̄ r ı b^{\text {J }}\) \\
\hline \(l \varepsilon b^{\varepsilon}\) & "return" & \(l \bar{\varepsilon} b ı g^{\text {a }}\) \\
\hline \(t \varepsilon b^{\varepsilon}\) & "carry in both hands" & \(t \bar{b} b ı g^{\text {a }}\) \\
\hline \(k\) àn̆ \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "scorch" & \(k a ̄ n ̆ b ı r^{\varepsilon}\) \\
\hline うn̆ \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "chew" & う̄n̆bır \({ }^{\text {E }}\) \\
\hline \(l u ̄ b^{\varepsilon}\) & "buck" & lūbır \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) \\
\hline zàb \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "fight" & zàbır \({ }^{\text {c }}\) \\
\hline tèn̆ \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "tremble" & tżn̆bug \({ }^{\text {a }}\) \\
\hline tòm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "work" & tōvma+ \\
\hline tòm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "send" & tìtūmıs \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) \\
\hline wòm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "hear" & wūm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) or wò̀mmug \({ }^{\text {² }}\) 13.2.1.4 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{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 7.5. They are idiosyncratic with regard to the class suffix selected, however.



Gerunds from other single-aspect verbs are of the imperfective type, as is the gerund of the stance verb \(d \bar{\varepsilon} \bar{l}^{\mathrm{la} /}\) "be leaning" 13.2.1.4.

\subsection*{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.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon n ̆)^{\text {ír }}{ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "(physical) foundation" & ह̄Eňbúg \({ }^{\text {² }}\) & "laying a foundation" \\
\hline dōk \({ }^{\prime \prime}\) & "cooking pot" & dūgub \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "cooking" \\
\hline dà' \({ }^{\text {a }}\) = & "market" & dā'ab \({ }^{\text {² }}\) & "buying" \\
\hline \(k \bar{u} k^{\text {a }}\) & "chair" & \(k u \bar{g} b{ }^{\text {a }}\) & "resting on something" \\
\hline \(z u ̄ g-k \bar{g} g \nu^{\varepsilon}\) & "pillow" & & \\
\hline sūāk \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "hiding place" & \(s \bar{L}^{\prime} a b^{\prime /}\) & "hiding" \\
\hline sj̄bırel & "piece of writing" & sjpp/ & "writing, orthography" \\
\hline \(k u ̄{ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "iron, nail" 16.2.1 & kūdvb \({ }^{\text {² }}\) & "working iron" \\
\hline kùesım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "merchandise" & kùөsvg \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "selling" \\
\hline  & "wind" & pèbısug \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "blowing of the wind; wind" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The forms vābır \(r^{\varepsilon /} l a \bar{b} \iota^{\varepsilon /} d \bar{i} g r^{\varepsilon /} \bar{i} g r^{\varepsilon /}\) used by WK as gerunds of stance verbs 12.2.1.2 are used by KT as concrete nouns meaning "place for lying prone" etc, contrasting for him with gerunds vāp/ etc.

Three concrete deverbal nouns, from pibıı \(\ell^{\varepsilon}\) "cover", zàňbı \(I^{\varepsilon}\) "tattoo", màa \(\|^{\varepsilon}\) "sacrifice" show single \(-n\) - in place of \(-/-\) :
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
pībınn & pībına+ & pìbın- & "covering" \\
zāňbın & ne & zān̆bına+ & zàn̆bın-
\end{tabular}

Although my informants definitely had single - \(n\) - in these words, this may be a secondary simplification of *nn; compare Mooré pibíndgà "couvercle" 6.2. Toende, like Mooré, has Pattern L for these words: zãbín, màan. As nn is the regular reflex of */d, these forms may be derivatives with \({ }^{d} d\) in a sense related to its appearance in instrument nouns 13.2.1.3; compare tūөdır \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "mortar", from tunà \({ }^{+}\)"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 dīı \(b^{\text { }}\) "food."

\subsection*{12.3 Nominals from nominals}

The partial association of noun class and meaning \(\underline{9.1 .1}\) can be exploited to change the meaning of a stem.

Examples are the regular relationship between names of ethnic groups, which belong to the \({ }^{\mathrm{a}} \mid b^{\mathrm{a}}\) or \(g^{\mathrm{a}} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) classes, their languages, which belong to the \(-\left.\right|^{\varepsilon}\) subclass of \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)9.3.4.1 and the associated place, which has the suffix - \(g^{3} \underline{30.4}\).

A further example of \(s g-g^{J}\) deriving associated place names is:
\(w \varepsilon ̀ \varepsilon d^{\mathrm{a}}\) "hunter" \(\quad\) ẁ̀og \({ }^{\text {D }}\) "deep bush"

The suffix \(-d^{\varepsilon}\) is found with some names of liquids which are not \(m^{m}\) class
16.2.1; hence also
sīin̆f/ "bee" siiln̆d \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) "honey"

Names of trees are almost all \(g^{\text {a }} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) class, while their fruits belong to either the \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)or the \(g^{\partial} \mid d^{\varepsilon}\) class \(\underline{30.5}\).

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 16.10.2.1. However, such abstract nouns cannot be used in the immediate future construction with bj̀ \(d^{\text {a }}\) "want" 12.2.1, and unlike imperfective gerunds 13.2.1.4, which show the expected Tone Patterns for gerunds, they show the same tone pattern as the adjective.

Examples of adjectives with corresponding abstract nouns:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(v \bar{u}^{\varepsilon /}\) & "alive" & \(v \bar{u} m^{\mathrm{m} /}\) & "life" \\
\hline sòn \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "good" & sòm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "goodness" \\
\hline pj̀วdıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "few" & pう̀วdım \({ }^{m}\) & "scarcity" \\
\hline vènnıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "beautiful" & vغ̀nnım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "beauty" \\
\hline vèn̆lııg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "beautiful" & vغ̇n̆lıım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "beauty" \\
\hline būgusír \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "soft" & būgusím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "softness" \\
\hline tēbısír \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "heavy" & tēbısím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "weight" \\
\hline mā'asír \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "cool, wet" & mā'asím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "coolness, damp" \\
\hline mālısír \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "sweet" & mālısím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "sweetness" \\
\hline lābısír \({ }^{\text {E }}\) & "wide" & lābısím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "width" \\
\hline n̆yèzsín \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "self-confident" & n̆yc̀esım \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\) & "self-confidence" \\
\hline piolıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "white" & pìlım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "brightness" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline tītā'ar \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "big" & tītā'am \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "multitude" \\
\hline \(k \bar{u} d u g^{\circ}\) & "old" & \(k u ̄ d ı m^{m}\) & "old times" \\
\hline lāllúg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "far" & lāllóg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "distance" \\
\hline kpióo \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "strong, hard" & kpion \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "hardness, strength" \\
\hline yàlon \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "wide" & yàlup & "width" \\
\hline mìisug \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "sour" & mi'isug \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "sourness" \\
\hline tōog \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "bitter" & tว̄วg & "bitterness" \\
\hline zùlon \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "deep" & zùlı \({ }^{\text {ºm }}\) & "depth" \\
\hline tōológ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "hot" & tūolúg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) or tūllím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "heat" \\
\hline z \(\overline{\text { m }}\) móg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "equal" & zēmmóg \({ }^{\text {² }}\) & "equality" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Some nouns referring to people form similarly derived abstract nouns:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline gbán̆yà'a= & "lazy person" & gbán̆yà' \({ }^{\text {m }}{ }^{\text {m }}\) & "laziness" \\
\hline dàmà'a= & "liar" & dàmà'am \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "lying" \\
\hline sāan \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "guest" & sāón \({ }^{\text {² }}\) & "hospitality" \\
\hline \(k p \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon \check{n g m}^{\text {m }}\) & "elder" & kpēon̆ \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "eldership" \\
\hline sjeñ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "witch" & sว̄)n̆g \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "witchcraft" \\
\hline zuà \({ }^{+}\) & "friend" & zù̀d \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "friendship" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Human-reference noun stems also form abstract \(m^{m}\) class derivatives with the derivational suffix -lım 13.2.2.

The \(m^{\mathrm{m}}\) class suffix with adjective stems often creates manner adverbs:
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
pāalíg & "new" & pāalím \\
bāan̆líga & "quiet" & "recently" \\
záalı & "empty" & bāan̆lím & "quietly" \\
nغ̀ \(r^{\text {m }}\) & "empty" & zāalím & "
\end{tabular}

Several adjective stems form manner-adverbs with an ending -ga+, i.e \(g^{\text {a }} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) class sg along with apocope-blocking 6.6:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline sùnā+/ & "well; very much" \\
\hline mā'asígā+/ & "coolly" \\
\hline tōolígā+/ & "hotly" \\
\hline gīna+ & "shortly" \\
\hline būgusígā+/ & "softly" \\
\hline sàalínā+/ & "smoothly" \\
\hline n̆yと̀とsínā+/ & "self-confidently" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Cf also yïigá+ "firstly" 16.4.2.3.

\section*{13 Derivational suffixes}

The statement of underlying full word structure made in \(\underline{6}\) implies that roots are only of the shapes \(C V(V)(C)\), 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~CVVC allomorphy.

For simplicity, all such consonants will be called "derivational suffixes", though there may not always be parallel stems lacking the suffix or with different suffixes. Nevertheless, many such consonants are clearly identifiable as derivational. Regular highly productive suffixing processes derive agent nouns, deverbal adjectives and instrument nouns from verbs, and there are several less systematic processes deriving nominals from other nominals. Cognate stems make it possible to recognise many suffixes involved in verb derivation from roots; there are clear patterns, but no completely consistent correlations of suffix and meaning.

The derivational suffixes are \(g s n I d m\), along with \(b\) and \(r\) in just a handful of words. The suffix \(n\) may represent historical *ld 6.2.
\(g s n b r\) never follow another derivational suffix. \(g\) and \(s\) cause a preceding CVVC to become CVC, and a preceding oral ככ 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 \(I m\).

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.

\subsection*{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 \(+s \iota m\) or \(l ı m\), never CVVC root \(+m\). Some adjectival verbs have stems which include a derivational suffix seen in the corresponding adjective.

\subsection*{13.1.1 Assume-stance verbs}

Stance verbs have derived dual-aspect verbs in \(-n^{\varepsilon} \underline{6.2}\) signifying "assume the stance" and in - \(I^{\varepsilon}\) "make assume the stance"; all the \(-n^{\varepsilon}\) verbs are Pattern LO regardless, but the \(-I^{\varepsilon}\) verbs have the same Pattern as the base stance verb.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & \multicolumn{2}{|c|}{Stance verb} & Assume-stance & Make-assume-stance \\
\hline & dīgıya/ & be lying & dìgın \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & \(d i ̄ g ı^{\varepsilon /}\) \\
\hline & vābıya/ & be lying prone & vàbın \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & vābı \(1^{\varepsilon /}\) \\
\hline & īgıya/ & be kneeling & igın \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & īgı \(\|^{\varepsilon /}\) \\
\hline & làbıya & be crouching hidden & \(1{ }_{\text {là }}{ }^{\text {a }}\) & làbı \({ }^{\text { }}\) \\
\hline & zĭn̆'iya & be sitting & zin̆'in \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & zìn'ife \\
\hline & \(z i ' e^{\text {ya }}\) & be standing & \(z i ̀ ə n^{\varepsilon}\) & zi'ə \(\boldsymbol{1}^{\text {¢ }}\) \\
\hline & ti'iya/ & be leaning (of thing) & ti'in \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & ti'il \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) \\
\hline WK & gō' \(\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{ya}}\) / & be looking up & \(g)^{\prime} n^{\varepsilon}\) & \\
\hline & sùr \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & have bowed head & sùn \({ }^{\text {n }}\) & sùn \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) sic \\
\hline & - & cover oneself & ligin \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & lìgı \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) \\
\hline & - & perch (of bird) & zùөn \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & zùel \({ }^{\text {® }}\) \\
\hline & - & perch (of bird) & yà'an \({ }^{\text { }}\) & yà'al \({ }^{\text {c }}\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The resultative perfective 19.2 .1 of zùe+ is used for "be perching":

Níin lā zúe n̄̄. "The bird is perching." KT Bird:sg art perch foc.

Other derivational relationships involving stance verbs are seen in
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline gùla & be suspende & gùl \({ }^{\text {E }}\) & gùl \({ }^{\text {c }}\) \\
\hline tàbıya & be stuck to & tà \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & tàbı \(\|^{\varepsilon}\) \\
\hline \(d \bar{\varepsilon} \|^{\text {a/ } /}\) & "be leaning" (person) & dèlım \({ }^{m}\) & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{13.1.2 Causatives}
\(-\boldsymbol{s}\) - is a common causative suffix:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline kpغ̇n̆'+ & "enter" & \(k p \varepsilon ̇ n ̆ ' \varepsilon s^{\varepsilon}\) & "make enter" \\
\hline nie \({ }^{+}\) & "appear" & \(n \varepsilon ̇ \varepsilon s^{\varepsilon}\) & "reveal" \\
\hline \(y i^{+}\) & "go/come out" & yīis \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) or \(y \bar{i} s^{\varepsilon}\) & "make go/come out" \\
\hline \(d i^{+}\) & "eat" & dìs \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "feed" \\
\hline \(n \bar{u}^{+}\) & "drink" & nülıs \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) & "make drink"; also nūlıg \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) \\
\hline \(s i g^{\varepsilon}\) & "go down" & sīgis \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "lower" \\
\hline \(l غ b^{\varepsilon}\) & "return" & \(l \mathrm{k}\) ¢ıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "make return; answer" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline mú'àa & "suck" (of a baby) & mù'as \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & "give to suck" \\
\hline [Mooré tá & "arrive"] & tā'as \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "help to travel, walk" \\
\hline z \(\bar{\varepsilon} m^{\text {ma/ }}\) & "be equal" & z \(\bar{z}^{\prime} m ı s^{\varepsilon /}\) & "make equal" \\
\hline kpiig \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "go out (fire)" & kpiis \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "quench" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
-I- has been seen above as the causative suffix for stance verb roots. It is also found with other roots with location-related meanings:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline n̆yá'an \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "behind" & n̆yā'a|ย/ & "leave behind" \\
\hline \(g \bar{\varepsilon}\) og \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "space between legs" & gē \(\left.\varepsilon\right|^{\varepsilon /}\) & "put between legs" Tones sic \\
\hline \(l i ̄{ }^{\text {a }}\) & "darkness" & ligul \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "cover up" \\
\hline bān̆'+ & "ride" & bān̆'al \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) & "put on a horse/bicycle etc" \\
\hline \(g \bar{u}^{\prime+}\) & "guard" & \(g u^{\prime} u l^{\text {®/ }}\) & "set someone on guard" \\
\hline \(y \grave{\varepsilon}^{+}\) & "dress oneself" &  & "dress another person" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Verbs derived with \(-g\) - from nominal roots are usually patientive ambitransitives but may have separate causatives in -I- :
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline mā' \({ }^{+/}\) & "get cool" & mā'al \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) & "make cool" \\
\hline pūn̆' \(\mathrm{e}^{+/}\) & "rot" & pว̄n̆'ว \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "cause to rot" \\
\hline nie \({ }^{+}\) & "appear" & nèz \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & "reveal" \\
\hline mā'e \({ }^{+/}\) & "get cool, wet" & mā'al \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "make cool, wet" \\
\hline \(w \bar{*}^{\prime} v g^{\varepsilon /}\) & "get wet" & wō'ols/ & "make wet" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

There is no obvious reason for the choice of suffix in
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
zàb \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "fight" & zàbı \(\left.\right|^{\varepsilon}\) & "cause to fight" \\
\(d u^{\prime} a^{a}\) & "bear, beget" & \(d \dot{c} a^{\varepsilon}\) & "make interest (of a loan)"
\end{tabular}
-g- forms causatives in a few verbs:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline d̄̄ıla/ & "accompany" & \(d \bar{j} / \mathrm{lg}^{\varepsilon /}\) & "make accompany" \\
\hline \(g \overline{\mathrm{ram}}{ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "look up" DK & \(g \bar{d} d g^{\varepsilon /}\) & "make look up" DK \\
\hline tè̇̆ \({ }^{\text {ra }}\) & "remember" & tìen̆ \({ }^{+}\) & "bring to mind, remind" \\
\hline yùul \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "swing" intransitive & yùlıg \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "swing" transitive \\
\hline kj \({ }^{+}\) & "break" intransitive & kう̀'วg \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "break" ambitransitive \\
\hline \(n \bar{u}^{+}\) & "drink" & nūlıg \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) & "make drink"; also nūlıs \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{13.1.3 Reverse action}
-g-attached to dynamic verbal roots implies reversal:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(y \grave{\varepsilon}^{+}\) & "dress oneself" & \(y \varepsilon ̀ \varepsilon g^{\varepsilon}\) & "undress oneself" \\
\hline pid \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "put (hat etc) on" & pidıg \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "take (hat etc) off" \\
\hline pil \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "cover" & pilıg \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "uncover" \\
\hline \(1{ }^{+}\) & "tie up" & 「̄dıg \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "untie" \\
\hline yj\({ }^{+}\) & "close" & \(y)^{\prime} \mathrm{g}^{\text {® }}\) & "open" \\
\hline غ̇nัd \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "block up" & غ̇n̆dıg \({ }^{\text {E }}\) & "unblock" \\
\hline yà'al \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "hang up" & yàk \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "unhang" \\
\hline pà'al \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "put on top" & pà \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "take off top" \\
\hline pibıı \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "cover up" & pibıg \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "uncover" \\
\hline tàbıya & "be stuck to" & tàbig \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "unstick, get unstuck" \\
\hline là'as \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "gather together" & lāk \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "open" (eye, book); tone sic \\
\hline & & lákè & (Mooré) "un-stick together" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Possibly a reversal sense also underlies
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
lì̀b & "become" & lèbıg & "turn over" \\
fān̆ & & "rob, snatch" & fāen̆
\end{tabular}

Reversive \(-g\) - is a peculiarity of the Western group within Oti-Volta; the other groups show alveolar suffixes: Konkomba pi:: "close" pì:rì "open", Moba Iwo "close" Iwot "open", Byali byá "close" byērá "open", Nawdm rów "has closed" rod "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.

\subsection*{13.1.4 Plural action}
-s- may have a plural action sense:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(k{ }^{+}\) & "break" & kj̀'วs \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & "break several times" \\
\hline tòn' & "shoot" & tòn' s \(^{\varepsilon}\) & "hunt" \\
\hline pìə \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "blow (flute etc)" & \(p \mathrm{c}\) bis \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & "blow (wind)" \\
\hline làbıya & "crouch in hiding" & làbıs \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "walk stealthily" \\
\hline vōe \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "be alive" & \(v \bar{u}^{\prime} u s^{\varepsilon /}\) & "breathe, rest" \\
\hline īāň \({ }^{\text {¢/ }}\) & "fly, jump" & jān̆'as \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "leap, jump repeatedly" \\
\hline \(y a ̄ ' e^{+/}\) & "open mouth" & yā'as \({ }^{\text {d }}\) & "open repeatedly" WK \\
\hline \(d i e^{+/}\) & "receive" & di'əs \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "receive (many things)" \\
\hline \(g \bar{u}^{+}{ }^{+}\) & "guard" & \(g u ̄ ' u s^{\varepsilon /}\) & "watch out; guard (many)" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{13.1.5 Denominal verbs}
-g- attached to nominal roots has the meaning "make/become ...":
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline n̆yう̄'วs \({ }^{\text {// }}\) & "smoke" & n̆yū'e+/ & "set alight" \\
\hline ňwïiga/ & "rope" & n̆wïig \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "make a rope" \\
\hline tādım \({ }^{\text {m/ }}\) & "weak person" & tàdıg \({ }^{\text {E }}\) & "become weak" \\
\hline kpi'a+ & "neighbour" & kpì' \({ }^{+}\) & "approach" \\
\hline \(z u ̄ ө r^{\text {c }}\) & "hill" & zùe \({ }^{+}\) & "get higher, more" \\
\hline À-Tūlı & "Breech-Delivered" \(\underline{30.2}\) & tùlıg \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "invert" \\
\hline mā'asír \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "cool, wet" & mā' \(\mathrm{e}^{+/}\) & "get cool, wet" \\
\hline būgusír \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "soft" & \(b \overline{k^{\varepsilon /}}\) & "soften" \\
\hline \(t \bar{b}{ }^{\text {ciér }}\) & "heavy" & \(t \bar{b} b g^{\varepsilon /}\) & "get/make heavy" \\
\hline \(g i \eta^{\text {a }}\) & "short" & gì \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "scrimp" \\
\hline kpi'on \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "strong" & \(k p \dot{c}^{\prime} \eta^{\varepsilon}\) & "strengthen" \\
\hline \(v \overline{0} r^{\varepsilon /}\) & "alive" & \(v \overline{0}^{\prime} \mathrm{v}^{\varepsilon /}\) & "make/come alive" \\
\hline pj̀วdıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "few" & pذ̀'g \({ }^{\text {ع }}\) & "diminish; denigrate" \\
\hline pìlıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "white" & pèlıg \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "whiten" \\
\hline sābilíg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "black" & sj̄bıg \({ }^{\text {d }}\) & "blacken" \\
\hline nīn-múa+ & "concentration" & mù' \({ }^{+}\) & "redden, become intense" \\
\hline \(k \overline{0} d u g\) & "old" & kùdıg \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "shrivel up, dry out, age" \\
\hline sòn \({ }^{\text {ºn }}\) & "good" & sùn \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "help" \\
\hline tūolúg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "hot" & \(t u ̄ / g^{\varepsilon /}\) & "heat up" \\
\hline mi'isug \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "sour" & mi'ig \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "turn sour" \\
\hline zùlın \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "deep" & zùlıg \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "deepen" \\
\hline lāllóg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "far" & lālıg \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "get to be far, make far" \\
\hline màuk \({ }^{\text {J }}\) & "crumpled up" & màk \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "crumple up" \\
\hline \(d \varepsilon \bar{\varepsilon} \eta^{\text {a }}\) & "first" & \(d \varepsilon \eta^{\varepsilon}\) & "precede" \\
\hline \(n \varepsilon ̇ \varepsilon r^{\varepsilon}\) & "clear, empty" & nie \({ }^{+}\) & "appear" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

With the addition of \(-m\) as a second derivational suffix:
wàun \({ }^{\text {د }}\) "wasted" wàpım \({ }^{m}\) "waste away"

A similar sense is seen with a relational verb root in
sว̄n̆'e \(e^{\text {ya/ }}\) "be better than" sūn̆'e+/ "become better than" WK
-Iım- derives verbs from noun roots, meaning "act as ..." or "make/become ...":
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(p u^{\prime}{ }^{\text {a }}{ }^{\text {a }}\) & "woman" & pò'alım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "cook" \\
\hline pòn̆'วr \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "cripple" & pòn̆'دlım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "cripple, get crippled" \\
\hline gik \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "dumb" & gìgılım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "become dumb" \\
\hline wàbır \({ }^{\text {E }}\) & "lame" & wàbılım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "make, go lame" \\
\hline \(g \bar{c}^{\prime} u s^{\varepsilon}\) & "semi-ripe things" & gò'vlım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "become semi-ripe" \\
\hline \(b u ̄ g u d^{\text {a }}\) & "client of diviner" & bùgulım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "cast lots" \\
\hline & & & "cast lots" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Miscellaneous denominal dual-aspect verbs formed with smbare seen in

-b- also appears in tàm \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\) "forget", zàm \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\) "cheat, betray", dàm \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\) "shake" and \(l \varepsilon m^{\mathrm{m}}\) "sip, taste", where \(m m \leftarrow * m b \underline{6.2}\), but I have found no cognate words without the suffix.

\subsection*{13.1.6 Miscellaneous cases}
-m- derives some preverbs from verbs 19.7.2:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & 1 lè \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "return" & lèm & "again" \\
\hline cf & là'as \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "gather together" & là'am & "together" \\
\hline & dغ̀ \(\underbrace{\varepsilon}\) & "go first" & dènım & "first" \\
\hline cf & malig & (Toende) "do again" & màlıgım & "again" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

It has no obvious meaning in
\[
\text { kذ̀n̆s }{ }^{\varepsilon} \quad \text { "cough" } \quad \text { kj̀n̆sım }{ }^{m} \text { "cough" }
\]
\(-\boldsymbol{g}\) - occurs with no clear meaning in
\begin{tabular}{llll}
\(s \overline{L_{n}}\) & "rub" & \(s u \bar{e} \check{n}^{+/}\) & "anoint" \\
\(n \bar{\jmath} b^{\varepsilon}\) & "get fat" & \(n \bar{b} b ı g^{\varepsilon /}\) & "grow" (child, plant) \\
\(n \bar{a}^{+}\) & "join" & \(n a \bar{e} e^{+/}\) & "finish"; compare \\
& & & Hausa gamàa "join, finish"
\end{tabular}
-r- appears in
\begin{tabular}{lll}
\(k a ̄ a b^{\varepsilon /}\) "offer, invite" & \(k a ̄ b ı r^{\varepsilon /}\) & "ask for admission" \\
& cf \(k\) kábıs & Toende id \\
[no simplex] & sūgur & "forbear, be patient with"
\end{tabular}

Both words appear frequently in pan-regional set formulae \(\underline{29}\) and may well be loanwords. They may be back-formations from the nouns kābırí and sūgurú+, where \(r ı / r u\) possibly originated in the equivalent of \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)class singular flexions \(\underline{9.5}\).

\subsection*{13.2 Nominals}

\subsection*{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.

\subsection*{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 \({ }^{a} \mid b^{a}\) class, although those derived from II- or \(r(r)\)-stem single-aspect verbs may also show \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)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 7.5.

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.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(k \overline{0}^{+}\) & "kill" & kūod \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "killer" \\
\hline \(m \grave{\varepsilon}^{+}\) & "build" & \(m \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon d^{\text {a }}\) & "builder" \\
\hline \(d i^{+}\) & "eat" & \(d i ̄ t a\) & "eater" \\
\hline \(g \bar{ว} s^{\varepsilon}\) & "look" & \(g \overline{o l t a}^{\text {a/ }}\) & "seer, prophet" \\
\hline \(d \bar{u} g^{\varepsilon}\) & "cook" & dūgud \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "cook" \\
\hline du'à \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "bear, beget" & \(d \bar{u}^{\prime} a d^{\text {a }}\) & "elder relation" \\
\hline kàd \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "drive away" & saríyà -kāta & "judge" 19.8.1 \\
\hline sว̄b \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "write" & sj̄bıd \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "writer" \\
\hline bùn \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "reap" & būn \({ }^{\text {na }}\) & "reaper" \\
\hline tòm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "work" & tòm-tōm \({ }^{\text {na }}\) & "worker" \\
\hline kìm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "tend flock" & kòn̆b-kı̄m \({ }^{\text {na }}\) & "herdsman, shepherd" \\
\hline \(k p a ̀ r^{\varepsilon}\) & "lock" & \(k p a ̄ r ı d^{\text {a }}\) & "lock-er" \\
\hline gbis \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "sleep" & gbīsıd \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "sleeper" \\
\hline siàk \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "believe" & siàkıd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "believer" \\
\hline īānk \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "jump, fly" & iāñ'ad \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "flier" \\
\hline sòn \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "help" & sūpıd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "helper" \\
\hline bà \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "understand" & \(b a ̄ p ı d^{\text {a }}\) & "wise man" \\
\hline \(k \bar{\varepsilon} \eta^{\varepsilon /}\) & "go" & \(k \bar{\varepsilon} n^{\text {na/ }}\) & "traveller" \\
\hline gàad \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "pass" & tùen-gāt \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "leader" \\
\hline m亏̄د \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "proclaim" & mj̄I-mój̀n \({ }^{\text {na }}\) & "proclaimer" \\
\hline màal \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "sacrifice" & màal-māan \({ }^{\text {na }}\) & "sacrificer" \\
\hline pà'al \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "teach" & \(p a ̄ ' a n^{\text {na }}\) & "teacher" \\
\hline sūgvr \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "forbear" & sūgorída & "forgiver" \\
\hline  & "sing" & yōom-yó'ùm \({ }^{\text {na }}\) & "singer" \\
\hline & & pl yōvm-yט́'ìmnıba & \\
\hline sàn' \({ }^{\text {am }}{ }^{\text {m }}\) & "spoil" & \(p u\) 'à-sān̆'am \({ }^{\text {na }}\) & "adulterer" \\
\hline & & pl pư'à-sān̆'amıdıb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Pattern H fusion verbs 7.3.1 11.1, which delete the H toneme of the stem in the imperfective, show the same form for the agent noun:
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
nāe \(e^{+/}\) & "finish" & nāad \({ }^{\mathrm{a} /}\) & "someone who doesn't \\
dī'e & & give up easily" WK
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
fāen̆+/ "save" & \begin{tabular}{l} 
fāan̆da/ \\
faangid
\end{tabular} & "saviour" WK \\
& & NT/KB 15
\end{tabular}

3-mora stems in -s consistently drop the \(-d\) in the sg and cb :
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(\operatorname{siogis}{ }^{\varepsilon /}\) & "lower" & \(s i ̄ g ı s^{\text {a/ }}\) & "lowerer" \\
\hline & & pl sīgısídìb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \\
\hline Kù̀s \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "sell" & kù̀s \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "seller" \\
\hline & & \(\mathrm{pl} k u \bar{\theta} \boldsymbol{s} \stackrel{\text { dı }}{ }{ }^{\text {b }}\) & \\
\hline pò'us \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & "worship" & pò'us \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "worshipper" \\
\hline & & pl pō'usıdıba & \\
\hline tò'as \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "talk" & tù'as-tù'as \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "talker" \\
\hline & & pl tò'as-tū'asıdı \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \\
\hline \(d i ̄ ' \partial s^{\varepsilon /}\) & "receive" & nj̄-dí̀̇̀s \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "chief's spokesman" \\
\hline & & pl \(n \overline{-}\)-dí'əsìdı \(b^{\text {a }}\) & ("linguist", see 31) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Some 2-mora stems also irregularly drop the -d in the sg and cb:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{zà \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)} & \multirow[t]{2}{*}{"fight"} & zàb-zà \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "warrior" \\
\hline & &  & "leather-worker" \\
\hline tiss & "give" & tis \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "giver" \\
\hline sว̀s \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "beg" & sjs \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "beggar" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Stems in -mm-( \(\leftarrow * m b \underline{6.2})\) form reduplicated agent nouns with nàm \({ }^{a}\) plurals:
dàm \({ }^{m} \quad\) "shake" dàm-dàm \({ }^{m a} \quad\) "shaker"

The \(n n\)-stem sùnn \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) "bow the head" \(\underline{6.2}\) has an agent noun stem in -nn-, but the tonemes show retention of the \(-d\) - formant:
\begin{tabular}{ccl} 
sùnne & "bow head" & \begin{tabular}{c} 
sūna \\
pl sūnnıb
\end{tabular} \\
& cb sùn-
\end{tabular}\(\quad\)\begin{tabular}{l} 
"deep thinker, close \\
observer" WK 31 \\
\(\left(\right.\) cf ipfv sùnnıd \(\left.{ }^{\text {a }}\right)\)
\end{tabular}

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 \(-k-0\) or \(-\eta-:\)
\[
\begin{array}{lll}
y a ̄ d ı g^{\varepsilon /} & \text { "scatter" } & \text { yātal } \\
& & \text { technical term for one } \\
& \text { participant in a } \\
& \text { housebuilding ritual }
\end{array}
\]

Various irregular formations in my materials include:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{\(t \bar{\varepsilon} k^{\varepsilon /}\)} & \multirow[t]{2}{*}{"pull"} & ňwī-ték \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "rope-puller" \\
\hline & & pl n̆wī-tékid dı \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \\
\hline nכ̀ \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & "love" & nכ̀ıı \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "lover"; tones irreg \\
\hline ti' \(\partial b^{\text {¢ }}\) & "heal" & ti'ə \(b^{\text {a }}\) & "healer"; tones irreg; \\
\hline & & & ?noun primary 31 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

For 4-mora stems: KT has no agent nouns; WK drops the final -m- and proceeds as for 3-mora stems:
\begin{tabular}{llcl} 
siilım & "cite proverbs" & sīinna & "speaker of proverbs" \\
pò'alım & & pl sïnnıba & \\
zàan̆sım & "harm" & "dream" & pō'an
\end{tabular}

Single-aspect verbs with roots ending in vowels or plosives add - \(d\)-:


Stems in \(n n / I r(r)\) drop -d throughout, showing the same stem as the finite verb, with gemination as in the verb. Those in \(\| r(r)\) may use \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)class suffixes, coinciding in form with dynamic adjectives 9.3.1.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(\sin ^{\text {na/ }}\) & "be silent" &  & "silent person" \\
\hline nēn \({ }^{\text {na/ }}\) & "envy" & nīn-nén \({ }^{\text {na }}\) & "envious person" \\
\hline d̄̄ıla/ & "be with" & n̆yà'an-djlla & "disciple" (irreg. tone) \\
\hline & & or ňyà'an-djılı & \\
\hline zān̆lál & "be holding" & nj̄-zánıla & "holder of hens" \\
\hline & & or n̄̄-zánılı & \\
\hline \(d \bar{\varepsilon}{ }^{\text {la/ }}\) & "be leaning" & nīn-dél \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "person prone to lean" \\
\hline mכ̄r \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "have" & bù-mう̄ra/ & "owner of goats" \\
\hline & & or bù-m̄̄r \({ }^{\text {c/ }}\) & \\
\hline \(t a ̄ r^{\text {a/ }}\) & "have" & \(b\) bìtā \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "owner of goats" \\
\hline & & or bù-tār \({ }^{\text {c/ }}\) & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Variant formations occur in
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(k i \bar{s}{ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "hate" & \(k i s^{\text {a/ }}\) or \(k i \bar{s} ı d^{\text {a/ }}\) & "hater" \\
\hline tèn̆r \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "remember" & tĒn̆rıd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "rememberer" \\
\hline \(g u ̄ r^{\text {a/ }}\) & "be on guard" & gūrıd \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "guard" \\
\hline & & \(z a ̀ '-n \overline{-g u ́ r ~}{ }^{\text {a }}\) & "gatekeeper" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{13.2.1.2 Deverbal adjectives}

\subsection*{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 sūm-dógodà+ "cooked groundnuts" WK, ziiŋdvgida = zíiŋ-dúgudà+ "cooked fish" (Lk 24:42), beside the more usual sense in ni'im dugida \(=\) nīm-dúgudà+ "meat for cooking" (1 Samuel 2:15.)

When used without a preceding noun cb, dynamic adjective forms have the meaning of agent nouns:
\[
\text { kūodír }{ }^{\varepsilon} \text { pl kūvdá }{ }^{+} \quad \text { "killer" }=k \bar{u} \cup d^{\mathrm{a} /} \quad \mathrm{pl} \text { kūvdí } b^{\mathrm{a}}
\]

With a preceding cb the meanings differ:
```

pu'à-kūod}\mp@subsup{}{}{\textrm{a}/
pư'à-kōvdír}\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon

```

\footnotetext{
"woman-killer, killer of women"
"woman killer, murderous woman"
}

Accordingly，deverbal adjectives will be cited with a preceding cb．
With dual－aspect verbs：
2－mora stems all retain the \(* d\) ．
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline gòñ \({ }^{+}\) & ＂hunt＂ &  & \begin{tabular}{l}
＂prostitute＂ \\
（＂wandering woman＂）
\end{tabular} \\
\hline là＇\({ }^{+}\) & ＂laugh＂ & \(p u u^{\prime} \mathrm{a}^{-}-\mathrm{I}^{\prime} \mathrm{ad} \iota^{\text {e }}\) & ＂woman prone to laughter／ woman to be laughed at＂ \\
\hline \(\check{n} y \bar{\varepsilon}^{+}\) & ＂see＂ & būn－n̆yćtì \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & ＂visible object＂ \\
\hline kuā＋ & ＂hoe＂ & nā＇－dá－kūөdír \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & ＂ox for ploughing＂ \\
\hline \(y \dot{\varepsilon}^{+}\) & ＂don clothes＂ &  & ＂shirt for wearing＂WK \\
\hline & & \(f u ̄-y \varepsilon ́ \varepsilon d \grave{v}{ }^{\text { }}\) & KT \\
\hline \(k \bar{v}^{+}\) & ＂kill＂ & tì－kūodím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & ＂poison＂（＂killing medicine＂） \\
\hline du＇à \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂bear／beget＂ & tèn－dō＇adıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂native land＂ \\
\hline \(d \bar{u} g^{\varepsilon}\) & ＂cook＂ & sūm－dógodà \({ }^{+}\) & ＂cooked groundnuts＂WK \\
\hline \(s i g^{\varepsilon}\) & ＂descend＂ & yī－sígıdir \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & ＂lodging－house＂ \\
\hline su＇āa & ＂hide＂ & \(y \bar{\varepsilon} /\)－sú＇adìr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & ＂confidential matter＂ \\
\hline う̀n̆ \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & ＂chew＂ & būn－כ́n̆bıdà \({ }^{+}\) & ＂solid food＂ \\
\hline bùn \({ }^{\text { }}\) & ＂reap＂ & būn－búnnì \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & ＂thing for reaping＂ \\
\hline tùm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & ＂work＂ & būn－tómmìr \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & ＂useful thing＂ \\
\hline \(v \bar{u}]^{\varepsilon}\) & ＂swallow＂ & tì－vōnním \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & ＂oral medication＂ \\
\hline gbis \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & ＂sleep＂ &  & ＂woman always sleeping＂ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

3－mora stems in \(* g\) drop－d in all cases except where the \(* g\) derivational suffix is deleted in the imperfective，whether regularly or otherwise 11．1．The dropping of \(-d\) is thus much more consistent than in agent nouns．
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline gīlıg \({ }^{\text {／}}\) & ＂go around＂ & \(p u^{\prime}{ }^{\text {àd－ginnníg }}{ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂prostitute＂ \\
\hline sūen̆ \({ }^{\text {＋／}}\) & ＂anoint＂ & \(k p a ̄\)－sว́כñdìm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & ＂anointing oil＂ \\
\hline \(t u ̄ / g^{\varepsilon /}\) & ＂heat up＂ & būn－túlıgìr \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & ＂heater，thing for heating＂ \\
\hline \(p غ ̇ l ı g^{\varepsilon}\) & ＂whiten＂ & būn－pélıgìr \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & ＂whitening thing，whitener＂ \\
\hline yādıg \({ }^{\text {／}}\) & ＂scatter＂ & bōn－yátìr \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & ＂scattering thing＂（cf yāta／） \\
\hline iān̆ \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & ＂fly，jump＂ & būn－íán̆＇adì \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & ＂flying creature＂ \\
\hline pàk \({ }^{\text { }}\) & ＂surprise＂ & y \(\bar{l}\)－pákìr \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & ＂disaster＂ \\
\hline \(t \bar{\varepsilon} k^{\varepsilon /}\) & ＂pull＂ & n̆wī－tékì \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & ＂rope for pulling with＂ \\
\hline \(k \bar{\varepsilon} \eta^{\varepsilon /}\) & ＂go＂ & bùn－k̄̄nnír \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & ＂donkey that doesn＇t sit still＂ \\
\hline Sט̇ท & ＂help＂ & būn－súnì \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & ＂helpful thing＂ \\
\hline nう̀ \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & ＂love＂ & bì－nう̀力ı \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & ＂beloved child＂ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

3-mora stems in -m retain the -d, forming the consonant cluster -mm-:
```

sàn̆'am" "destroy" bù-sān̆'ammır }\mp@subsup{}{}{\textrm{m}}\quad\mathrm{ "scapegoat" WK

```

3-mora stems in -s all drop the -d:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(p \varepsilon ̇<l ı s^{\varepsilon}\) & "sharpen" & \(b u ̄ n-p\) ह́lısì \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "sharpening thing" \\
\hline kù̀s \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & "sell" & \(b u ̄ n-k u ́ \theta s i r^{\varepsilon}\) & "item for sale" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

4-mora stems (all from KT) drop -d (whereas agent nouns drop stem-final -m):
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline siilım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "cite proverbs" & būn-sílún \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "thing relating to proverbs" \\
\hline pù'alım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "harm" & nīn-pú'alìn \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "harmful person" \\
\hline & & pu'à-pò'alína & "harmful woman" \\
\hline zàan̆sım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "dream" & nīn-záan̆sòn \({ }^{\text {² }}\) & "dreamy person" \\
\hline & &  & "dreamy woman" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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 13.2.1.1:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline dīgıya/ & "be lying" &  & "donkey that lies down a lot" \\
\hline vābıya/ & "be prone" & bòn-vābıdír \({ }^{\text {b }}\) & "donkey always lying prone" \\
\hline zin̆'ija & "be sitting" & kūg-zín'idì \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "stone for sitting on" (i.e. not a \(b \bar{g} g r^{\varepsilon}{ }^{\varepsilon} \mathrm{WK}\) ) \\
\hline zān̆ıla/ & "be holding" &  & "hen for holding" \\
\hline \(\left.d \bar{\varepsilon}\right|^{\text {a/a/ }}\) & "be leaning" & nīn-délı & "person you can lean on" WK \\
\hline & & kùg-dह̄| \(\mid \varepsilon /\) & "chair for leaning on" \\
\hline gùla & "be hanging" & būn-gúlı & "thing for suspending" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{13.2.1.2.2 Resultative}

Resultative adjectives are only derived from verbs which can use the perfective form in a resultative sense 19.2.1. Almost all such verbs are either intransitive or patientive ambitransitive 19.8.1, and the adjectives are not passive participles, but express resulting states. There are no resultative adjectives from stance-verb roots meaning e.g. "seated", "standing" or from dual-aspect verbs used passively e.g. "eaten."

It is not clear how far the formation is productive. The formant is -lım-; it either deletes a preceding derivational suffix or is a formation from roots alone; all examples show -lım after a CVV root. For the flexion see 10.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline kpi \({ }^{+}\) & ＂die＂ & kpiilún \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂dead＂ \\
\hline \(g \varepsilon \bar{n}{ }^{+}\) & ＂get tired＂ & gēعn̆lón \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂tired＂ \\
\hline \(p \mathrm{c}^{\prime} \varepsilon^{\varepsilon}\) & ＂fill＂ & pè＇\({ }^{\text {coún }}\) & ＂full＂ \\
\hline kj＇ & ＂break＂ & k̇̀ว \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & ＂broken＂ \\
\hline \(y \grave{¢}^{+}\) & ＂wear＂ & yèzlóp & ＂worn＂（of a shirt） \\
\hline yj\({ }^{+}\) & ＂close＂ & yว̀วún & ＂closed＂ \\
\hline pò＇alım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & ＂harm＂ & pò＇alón & ＂damaged＂ \\
\hline àeñ \({ }^{+}\) & ＂tear＂ & àan̆lón \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂torn＂ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\section*{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 \(g^{\text {a }} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) class．In a few cases the meaning overlaps with that of agent nouns．
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(k \overline{0}^{+}\) & ＂kill＂ & Kūvdín \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂thing for killing with＂ \\
\hline ら「 & ＂tie＂ & sinà－I亏̄）dín \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂belt＂（＂waist－tying thing＂） \\
\hline \(d \bar{u} g^{\varepsilon}\) & ＂cook＂ & dūgudín \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂cooking utensil＂ \\
\hline s亏̄ \(b^{\varepsilon}\) & ＂write＂ & sj̄bıdína & ＂writing implement＂ \\
\hline \(k p a ̀ r^{\varepsilon}\) & ＂lock＂ & kpārıdın \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂thing for locking＂ \\
\hline n̆wà＇e＋ & ＂cut wood＂ & n̆wā＇adı！\({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂axe＂ \\
\hline pie \({ }^{+/}\) & ＂wash self＂ & pīədín \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂thing for washing oneself＂ \\
\hline sì \({ }^{+}\) & ＂bathe＂ & sōvdıワ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂sponge＂ \\
\hline \(g \bar{s} s^{\varepsilon}\) & ＂look＂ & nīn－gótì \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂mirror＂ \\
\hline & & nīn－gótis \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & ＂spectacles＂［nīn－＂eye＂］ \\
\hline bùd \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & ＂plant＂ & būtın \({ }^{\text {a }}\) 2．3 & ＂cup＂（originally＂seed cup＂） \\
\hline pīəs \({ }^{\text {／}}\) & ＂clean＂ & pīəsín \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂cleaning implement＂ \\
\hline kùes \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & ＂sell＂ & kūөsıク \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂professional salesperson＂ \\
\hline dā＇e \({ }^{+/}\) & ＂push＂ & dā＇adín \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂pusher（person or thing）＂ \\
\hline zin̆＇iya & ＂be sitting＂ & zīn̄＇idın \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂thing for sitting on＂ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{13.2.1.4 Imperfective gerunds}

Apart from stance verbs, which mostly make perfective gerunds 12.2.1.2, 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 -lım-:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline \(s \overline{c o}^{\prime} e^{\text {ya/ }}\) & "own" gerund: & sō'vlím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) cf so'olimkan Mt 12:25, 1996 \\
\hline \(m i^{+}\) & "know" & mitilim \({ }^{\text {m }}\) \\
\hline zī'+ & "not know" & zī'lím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) \\
\hline àeñ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "be something" & àan̆lím \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\) \\
\hline \(b \varepsilon^{+}\) & "be somewhere" & bèlím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) [short vowel sic] \\
\hline kā'e \({ }^{+}\) & "not be" & kā'alím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) \\
\hline m亏̄r \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "have" & mōrím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) \\
\hline tāra/ & "have" & tārím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) \\
\hline \(n \bar{\varepsilon} n^{\text {na/ }}\) & "envy" & nēnním \({ }^{\text {m }}\) \\
\hline \(n\) nā \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "be necessary" & nārím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) \\
\hline \(w \bar{\varepsilon} n^{\text {na/ }}\) & "resemble" & \(w \bar{\varepsilon} n n i m{ }^{\text {m }}\) [tones show this is deverbal] \\
\hline \(\sin ^{\text {na/ }}\) & "be silent" & sīnním \({ }^{\text {m }}\) \\
\hline d̄̄ıla/ & "accompany" & dכ̇lıímm \\
\hline zān̆ıla/ & "hold in the hand" & zān̆llím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) \\
\hline \(d \bar{\varepsilon}{ }^{\text {la/ }}\) & "be leaning (of person)" & dēllúg \({ }^{\text {or }}\) d \(\mathrm{ll}^{\text {lím }}{ }^{\mathrm{m}}\) \\
\hline \(g u ̄ r^{\text {a/ }}\) & "guard" & gūrím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

But tèn̆ra "remember" tz̄n̆rıb \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
kīs \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) "hate" kísùg \({ }^{\text {a }}\)

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 7.2.2.

Dual-aspect verbs with an imperfective which has acquired an independent stative meaning 19.2.2.2 also form imperfective gerunds; however, when formed from Pattern LO verbs they do not show the third-mora H toneme:
```

bj̀วdım" "will" (Pattern L, unlike bj̄כdır\varepsilon "desirable")
contrast the perfective gerund bjॅכb}\mp@subsup{}{}{`}\mathrm{ "seeking"
g\grave{כn̆dım"m "wandering" (g\grave{n}\mp@subsup{}{n}{+}}\mathrm{ "hunt")}
z\grave{tım" "fear" [M̀ zót n\overline{\varepsilon}}\mathrm{ "I'm afraid."]}]
contrast zj̄\partialg '"running"

```

This probably simply means that the stems do not contain -m- and have only three morae; cf the dàalım \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\) "masculinity", pù'alım \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\) "femininity" alongside dàalím \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\) "male sex organs", pù'alím \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\) "female sex organs" and bìíím \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\) "childhood" 13.2.2, and the variant forms of resultative adjectives which lack the \(-m\) - of the stem \(\underline{10}\).

The gerund wommug of wòm \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\) "hear" (written wumug in pre-2016 orthography, but read with -mm- in the 1996 audio NT) is perhaps a formation of this kind, representing *wumdvgכ. 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.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline  & "greet, thank" & pù'usım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "worship" \\
\hline & & pù'usug \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \\
\hline \(k \overline{0}^{+}\) & "kill" & nīn-kúvsìm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "murderousness" \\
\hline \(y \bar{\jmath} / s^{\varepsilon /}\) & "untie" & yว̄lısím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "freedom" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Unequivocal imperfective gerund forms with -m-derived from almost all agentive verbs occur as premodifiers of the bound noun
\[
-t a ̄ a=\quad-t a ̄ a s^{\varepsilon} \quad \text {-tà- or -tā- } \quad \text { "companion in ..." }
\]

The forms used for relational verbs and for other single-aspect verbs with stems in \(-I I-n n-r(r)\) are identical to their usual imperfective gerunds:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(m i^{+}\) & "know" & mīilím-tāa= & "partner in knowledge" \\
\hline \(z i^{\prime+}\) & "not know" & zī'llím-tāa= & "partner in ignorance" \\
\hline \(b{ }^{+}\) & "exist" & bèlím-tāa= & "partner in existence" WK \\
\hline d̄̄ıla/ & "be with" & dכ̄llím-tāa= & "fellow-companion" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

For the irregular stative verb nう̀ \(\eta^{\varepsilon}\) WK has two forms with different nuances:
\[
\begin{array}{lcc}
\text { nכ̀n } n^{\varepsilon} & \text { "love" nว̀nılím-tāa= } & \text { "fellow liker" } \\
& \text { or nว̀nıdím-tāa= } & \text { "fellow lover" }
\end{array}
\]

Forms from dual-aspect verbs are made with -m- added to the stem seen in the derived dynamic adjective, but have gerund Tone Patterns:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(m \grave{\varepsilon}^{+}\) & "build" & mèzdím-tāa= & "fellow-builder" \\
\hline \(d i^{+}\) & "eat" & ditím-tāa= & "messmate" \\
\hline \(p \bar{o}^{+}\) & "share" & pūodím-tāa= & "fellow-sharer" \\
\hline kpèn̆'+ & "enter" & kpèn̆'عdím-tāa= & "fellow-resident" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline zà \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & "fight" & zàbıdím-tāa= & "enemy" \\
\hline \(d \bar{u} g^{\varepsilon}\) & "cook" & dūgudím-tāa= & "fellow-cook" \\
\hline fāñ \({ }^{+}\) & "snatch" & fāan̆dím-tāa= & "fellow-robber" \\
\hline tòm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "work" & tòmmím-tāa= & "co-worker" \\
\hline pò'us \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "worship" & pò'usím-tāa= & "fellow-worshipper" \\
\hline dìs \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "feed" & dìsím-tāa= & "fellow-feeder" \\
\hline sùn \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "help" & sùním-tāa= & "fellow-helper" \\
\hline & & sùnıdím-tāa= & \\
\hline siàk \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "agree" & siàkím-tāa= & "fellow in agreement" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Stance verbs may use -dım- or -lım- or even -nım-; -lım- and -nım- forms may belong rather to the derived assume-stance/make-assume-stance verbs 13.1.1, with deletion of \(d\) after the 3-mora stems:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline İgıya/ & "be kneeling" & İglílm-tāa= & "fellow-kneeler" \\
\hline & & or īgıdím-tāa= & "fellow-kneeler" WK \\
\hline \(z i n ̌ ' i y a ~\) & "be sitting" & zìn'ilím-tāa= & "fellow-sitter" \\
\hline & & or zin'lidím-tāa= & "fellow-sitter" WK \\
\hline vābıya/ & "lie prone" & vābılím-tāa= & "fellow lier-prone" \\
\hline & & or vābıdím-tāa= & "fellow lier-prone" WK \\
\hline làbı \({ }^{\text {ya }}\) & "be crouched" & làbılím-tāa= & "fellow croucher in hiding" \\
\hline zi'e \({ }^{\text {ya }}\) & "be stood" & zi'əlím-tāa= & "fellow-stander" \\
\hline & & or zi'ədím-tāa= & "fellow-stander" WK \\
\hline \(d i ̄ g ı^{\mathrm{ya}} /\) & "be lying" & dīgllím-tāa= & "fellow-lier" \\
\hline & & or dìgıním-tāa= & "fellow-lier" WK \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{13.2.1.5 Other deverbal nominals}
-s- appears in a few concrete nouns derived from verbs:
\begin{tabular}{llll}
\(d i ̄ g ı y a / ~\) & "be lying down" & dīgısá+ & "lairs" \\
\(d \bar{u}^{+}\) & "go up" & dūusá+ & "steps"
\end{tabular}
-m- derives nouns from verbal roots in
\(\begin{array}{ll}z \text { j̀ }^{+} & \text {"run" } \\ k p i{ }^{+} & \text {"die" }\end{array}\)
zว̄эm \({ }^{\text {me }} \quad\) "refugee"
kpi' "die"
kprimm/ "corpse"
-d- appears as an instrument noun formant instead of the usual -dım- in
\[
\text { tưà̀ } \quad \text { "grind in a mortar" tūedır }{ }^{\varepsilon} \text { "mortar" }
\]

See also on pïbınn "covering" etc, where the \(n\) may represent *ld 12.2.2.
-b- derives nouns from verbal roots in
\[
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { kpì'+ }^{+} & \text {"die" } & \text { kpìibıg } & \text { "orphan" } \\
\text { dà'+ } & \text { "buy" } & \text { dà'abır } & \text { "slave" }
\end{array}
\]

This -b may be connected with the stem of biïga "child"; cf Gurmanche kpēbígā "orphan", kpé "die", bígā "child". Sàlıbır "bridle" is not analysable.

\subsection*{13.2.2 From nominals}
-s- forms adjectives and cognate adjectival verbs.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{mā' \({ }^{+/}\)} & "cool down" & mā'asír \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "cold, wet" \\
\hline & & mā'as \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "be cold, wet" \\
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{\(b \bar{u} k^{\varepsilon /}\)} & "weaken" & \(b \bar{g} \operatorname{losír}^{\varepsilon}\) & "soft" \\
\hline & & būgus \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "be soft" \\
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{\(t \bar{\varepsilon} b) g^{\varepsilon /}\)} & "get heavy" & \(t \bar{b} b ı s^{\prime} r^{\varepsilon}\) & "heavy" \\
\hline & & \(t \bar{\varepsilon} b s^{\text {a/ }}\) & "be heavy" \\
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{\(m i ' i g{ }^{\text {e }}\)} & "get sour" & mìisug \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "sour" \\
\hline & & mìis \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "be sour" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
-d-features in a number of nouns with no evident derivational meaning, such as yūgudır \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "hedgehog", lā'af "cowrie" pl līgıdı+ "money", pùgudıb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "father's sister."
-m- appears in both concrete nouns, mostly with human reference, and abstracts:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline bi'a+ & "bad" & bi'əm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "enemy" \\
\hline tàdıg \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "become weak" & tādım \({ }^{\mathrm{m} /}\) & "weak person" \\
\hline áňsìb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "mother's brother" & ān̆sín \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "sister's child" \\
\hline yáab \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "grandparent" & yáan \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "grandchild" \\
\hline *yāágbā & & *yāágmgā & \\
\hline vúer \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "red kapok fruit" & vúөŋ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "red kapok" \\
\hline *vūégrı̄ & & *vūógmgā & \\
\hline bi'isır \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "breast" & bi'isím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "milk" \\
\hline nà'ab \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "chief" & nā'am \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "chiefship" \\
\hline zう̄log \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "fool" & \(z \grave{l ı m i ́ s ~}{ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "foolishness" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Abstract -mís \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) forms seem always to have H toneme; cf bùdımís \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "confusion", where, however, the -m- is part of the verb stem bùdım \({ }^{m}\) "get confused"; cf also
```

tādımm}\textrm{m}/ "weak person" tàdımís ह "weakness"

```

Added to existing adjectival stems, \(-m\) - produces no change of meaning:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline n̆yغ̀ s \(^{\text {a }}\) & "be self-confident" & n̆yèzsín \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "self-confident" \\
\hline vèn̆llıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "beautiful" & vèn̆llín \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "beautiful" \\
\hline mālısíg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "pleasant" & mālısín \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "pleasant" \\
\hline lāllóg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "distant" & lāllín \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "distant" \\
\hline nār \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "be necessary" & nàrup & "necessary" \\
\hline w̄̄k \({ }^{\text {J/ }}\) & "long, tall" & wā'amma/ & "be long, tall" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\(-m\) - is seen in a good many unanalysable 3-mora nominal stems, such as the


-Iım- derives abstract nouns from nouns and adjectives. The -I- is perhaps the same suffix as in primary adjectives like
sj̄b \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "get dark" sābılíga "black"

However, there are no adjectives in -l- alongside these abstract nouns; this is true even for abstract nouns derived with -/- alone, like
```

dāu+ "man" dàalım}\mp@subsup{}{}{+}\mathrm{ " "masculinity"
pu'āa "woman" pò'alım}\mp@subsup{}{}{m}\mathrm{ "femininity"

```
-lım- is the only derivational suffix before which CVVC roots do not become CVC 6.1.1.2, and it can follow a preceding derivational suffix, creating five-mora stems.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline tītā'al \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "proud person" & tītā'alım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "pride" \\
\hline gīn \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "short" & giiinlím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "shortness" \\
\hline wōk \({ }^{\text {J/ }}\) & "long, tall" & wā'alím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "tallness" \\
\hline sāan \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "guest, stranger" & sáannìm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "strangerhood" \\
\hline tīráàn \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "neighbour" & tī ráànnım \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\) & "neighbourliness" \\
\hline \(g i \eta^{\text {a }}\) & "short" & gīplím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "shortness" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\section*{14 Derivational prefixes}

\subsection*{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 à- 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 \(C V(n)\), where \(V\) shows only the three-way a \(\iota v\) vowel distinction of affix vowels; the \(\iota / v\) distinction itself and realisations as [i] or [u] are predictable 4.7. There is also a complex reduplicated type CVsın or CVIın. 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 7.2.4.

The distinction between noun prefixes and combining forms is not absolute, and a few prefixes clearly originated as cbs, sometimes with phonological simplifications. Other prefixes are related to verbal negative particles. Nevertheless, cbs and noun prefixes are distinct in principle, and most cases readily distinguishable in practice. Thus, an element is a combining form if it is part of a noun paradigm, if it ends in a consonant other than a nasal, if it has a vowel other than short a \(\iota v\) 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 15.

For the personifier clitic as part of some common nouns referring to living creatures see 16.6 ; it is not a prefix but a proclitic particle.

\subsection*{14.1.1 Reduplication-prefixes}

The simplest type of noun prefix copies the initial \(C\) of the root, followed by a vowel which is \(\iota\) by default, but \(v\) after labials, labiodentals and labiovelars; \(v\) replaces \(\iota\) before root \(u / v / \partial\) and \(\iota\) replaces \(v\) before root \(i / \iota / \varepsilon\). No cases occur with voiced stops or voiced fricatives.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline kùk̄̄r \({ }^{\text {g/ }}\) & "voice" \\
\hline kùkj̀m \({ }^{\text {me }}\) & "leper" \\
\hline kìkà \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "fig tree" \\
\hline kikīirıga/ & "tutelary spirit" \\
\hline \(k[p] o ̀ k p a ̀ r ı g^{\text {a }}\) & "palm tree" \\
\hline kpīkpīnna/ & "merchant" \\
\hline kpàkūrre/ & "tortoise" (anomalous prefix vowel) \\
\hline tītā'ar \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "big" \\
\hline tìtōmıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "sending" (tòm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) "send") \\
\hline tàtàlı & "palm of hand" \\
\hline pīpīrıg \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "desert" \\
\hline fūfūm \({ }^{\text {me }}\) & "envy"; "stye" (believed to result from envy) \\
\hline sisì'əm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "wind" \\
\hline zà-sisj̄bıré & \begin{tabular}{l}
"evening" \\
(zà- cb of zàam \({ }^{m}\) "evening", sj̄b \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "get dark")
\end{tabular} \\
\hline Milāalín \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "swallow" \\
\hline mimìilím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "sweetness" \\
\hline mìmīlúg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & id \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

More complex is a similar type with a final nasal consonant; voiced stops and fricatives do occur with this type:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline gùngūm \({ }^{\text {m } \varepsilon}\) & "kapok material" (gùm \({ }^{\text {m } ~}{ }^{\text {"kapok fruit") }}\) \\
\hline dòndùug \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "cobra" \\
\hline dìndēog \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "chameleon" \\
\hline bìmbìm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "altar" \\
\hline bùmbàrıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "ant" \\
\hline zùnż̀ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "blind" (zū'өm \({ }^{\text {m/ "go/make blind") }}\) \\
\hline zīnzāun \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "bat" \\
\hline kìnkàn \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "fig" \\
\hline tīntōn̆ríga & "mole" \\
\hline pòmpJ̄og & "housefly" (cf tàmpūa+ id 9.3.2) \\
\hline sīnsáan̆= & a kind of tiny ant \\
\hline nכ̄b-pómpàun \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "foot" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

An even more complex type follows the reduplicated \(C V\) with \(-s ı n\) or -lın:
kpìsınkpill \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
tàsıntàlı
sīlınsíùn̆g \({ }^{\text {º }}\)
sīlınsíùg \({ }^{\text {D }}\)
zīlınzíòg \({ }^{\text {ºn }}\)
vòlınvùun̆اء
wàsınwàl \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
nēsınnēog \({ }^{\text {/ }}\)

\subsection*{14.1.2 \(D a(n) b a(n) s a(n)\)}
dàwàlıg \({ }^{a}\)
dàyūug \({ }^{\text {/ }}\)
dàyáam \({ }^{\text {ma }}\)
dàtāa=
dàmà'a=
dàkiig \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
dàwānnモ/
dādók \({ }^{3}\)
dàtiun \({ }^{\text {P }}\)
dàgj̀bıga \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
bānāa=
bàlàpır
bàlàar \({ }^{\text { }}\)
bālērıg \({ }^{\text {/ }}\)
bày \(\bar{\varepsilon} o g^{\text {/ }}\)
sākáròg \({ }^{\text { }}\)
sàbùa+
sāmán \({ }^{\text {nع }}\)
"fist"
"palm of hand"
"spider" \(\quad \mathrm{pl}\) sī/ınsiîñd \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
"ghost" pl sīlınsî̀s \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
"unknown" cf zī'+ "not know"
"mason wasp"
a parasitic gall on trees, called "mistletoe" in local English
"envious person" cf nēn na/ "envy" WK others "centipede" \(=\) WK nà'-n \(\bar{\varepsilon} s ı n n \bar{\varepsilon} o g^{\partial /}\)
"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 \(d \bar{u} k^{J /}\) "pot"
"right hand"
"left hand"
traditional long-sleeved smock
"hat"
"stick, staff"
"ugly" cf \(/ \bar{\varepsilon} r^{\varepsilon}\) "get ugly"
"betrayer of secrets" cf \(y \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon s^{\varepsilon /}\) "betray a secret"
"fox"
"lover, girlfriend" ? bう̀วda "want, love" clear space in front of a zàk \(k^{\text {a }}\) "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 15:
```

dànkう̀ク’
sāngónnìrع
zànkù'ar ${ }^{\text { }}$
Zàngbèog ${ }^{\text {º }}$
màngávŋ ${ }^{\text {ºn }}$
làngávク ${ }^{\text {² }}$
nānzū'us ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$

```
```

"measles"

```
"measles"
"millipede"
"millipede"
"jackal"
"jackal"
"Hausa person"
"Hausa person"
"crab"
"crab"
"crab"
"crab"
"pepper"
```

"pepper"

```

The interesting word nàyïig \({ }^{\text {a }}\)＂thief＂is written na＇ayiig in NT／KB as if it were a compound with the cb nā＇－＂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 \({ }^{\mathrm{a}} \mid b^{\mathrm{a}}\) class and the \(-g\)－belongs to the stem：pl nàyiig－nàm \({ }^{\mathrm{a}}\) ， though there is an analogical \(g^{\text {a }} \mid s^{\varepsilon} \mathrm{pl}\) nàyiiis \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) as well；there is also a derived abstract noun nàyïgım \({ }^{m}\)＂thievery．＂The Farefare cognate of nàyiïg \({ }^{\mathrm{a}}\) is nàyigà，pl nayigba or nayigsi；Dagbani has nayiza pl nayizsi and also tayiza id．

\section*{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 pū kù：

\author{
kòndù＇ar \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) \\ nīn－pū－nānna／ \\ tùb－pū－wómnìb \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
}
```

"barren woman"; cf dư'àa "bear, beget"
"disrespectful person"; cf nān\varepsilon "love, respect"
"deaf people" (Rom 11:7)
cf tùbur\varepsilon "ear", wòmm "hear."

```

However，most cases are not analysable：
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline Kùndùn \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂jackal＂ \\
\hline gūmpūz̄̄r \(\varepsilon^{\varepsilon /}\) & ＂duck＂ \\
\hline dāmpūsāar \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & ＂stick＂ \\
\hline bān－kúsćlı & ＂lizard＂？first element connected with bàn \({ }^{\text {a }}\) \\
\hline & ＂agama lizard＂，but the tones are unexpected \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{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 \(n i ̄ \eta^{a} n i i s^{\varepsilon}\) [= Mooré yiinga] but the word is rare; as a noun prefix cf
```

nìn-gbīn}\mp@subsup{}{}{/}\quad\mathrm{ "human skin; body"
nìn-tāa= "co-wife"

```
dà "man" is replaced as regular cb by forms segmentally remodelled on sg and pl dàu-, dàp-, but the dà- form is seen in
\begin{tabular}{lcc} 
dà-pāala/ & "son, boy" & cf pāalíg "new" \\
dà-kذ̆כňr & "son, bachelor" & cf àdàkón̆' "one" \\
compare pùkj̀כňr \(r^{\varepsilon}\) below &
\end{tabular}
pò "woman" cf pứ \({ }^{\prime}\) àa \(^{a}\) "woman" cb pư'à-. Identifiable in e.g.
pùkj̀כn̆r \({ }^{\varepsilon} \quad\) "widow" cf Mooré pògkõoré "widow" with Mooré pògsádà "young woman" \(=\) Kusaal pur'à-sādıré
 Tonally, this \(p \overline{0}-\) behaves as a M prefix, not a cb 7.2.4.
pōkpāadal \(\quad\) "farmer" \(\left(=k p a \overline{a d}{ }^{\mathrm{a} /}\right.\) id)
nà' "chief"(?) appears before a number of nouns signifying animals and insects:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline nēsınnc̄og \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "envious person" WK; others: "centipede" \\
\hline nà'-zว̀m \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "locust" \\
\hline nà'-dàwān \({ }^{\text {ne/ }}\) & "pigeon" = dàwānn \({ }^{\text {n/ }}\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The "chief" cb perhaps relates to traditional folklore; cf à-kj̄ra-dí̀̀m" ma "praying mantis" ("hyena's parent-in-law") and animal and bird names which incorporate the


\subsection*{14.2 Adverbs}

The manner-adverb prefix à- appears before some stems which are also followed by apocope-blocking 17.4:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
àmēná+ & "truly" \\
àsīda+ & "truly" \\
ànínà
\end{tabular}

The same prefix is also seen in a number of proadverbs and in the locative àgól \({ }^{\prime}\) "upwards" 17.3. Forms with this prefix are all liaison words. The prefix is followed by M spreading, like the number prefix, but differs from it in that it does not cause a preceding LF-final vowel mora to appear as -a 8.2.1.

\subsection*{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 8.2. 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 9.1 in favour of a system of natural gender 16.2.2 the old \({ }^{a} \mid b^{a}\) class agreement pronouns ò bà have been generalised for animate while the old \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)class singular pronoun \(l i ̀\) 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 \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)class, with the old plural pronoun pa 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 à- of the Kusaal numbers 2-9 used as quantifiers 16.4.2.1 represents original *na-.

Because of its origin from * \(\eta a-\), the à- number prefix, unlike all other \(a\) particles and prefixes, causes a preceding LF-final vowel following a consonant to appear as -a rather than -ı 8.2.1:

> biiisá_ àtán̆' "three children"
child:PL NUM:three

This same à- is also seen in àlá+ "how many?" contrasting with àlá+ "thus", which has the manner-adverb à-:
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Pèzdá àlá + } \text { ? "How many baskets?" } \\
& \text { Basket:PL num:how.many cQ? }
\end{aligned}
\]
```

nìn__àlá
"did thus"
do ADV:thus

```

The expected corresponding number prefix bà- is not now found after nouns with animate gender, but is still preserved after personal pronouns:
```

tì bàtáň'
yà bàyópj̀e
bà bàyí

```
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { "we three" } \\
& \text { "you seven" } \\
& \text { "they two" }
\end{aligned}
\]

The forms of the number words 2-9 used for counting 16.4.2.2 represent the old \(m^{m}\) class agreement, in the "abstract" sense of \(m^{m} \underline{\underline{9.1 .1}:}\)
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
ǹtán̆' & "three" & (in counting) \\
ǹnāas & "four" & (in counting) \\
ǹnū & "five" & (in counting)
\end{tabular}

Compare Nawdm mì-tâ? "three" mì-ná: "four" mì-nû? "five" etc in counting. When referring to a specific noun Nawdm numbers have a prefix agreeing with the noun class nídbá bà-tâ? "three people"; mi marks the abstract/mass class cognate to the Kusaal \(m^{m}\) class (Fiedler 2012.)

The number prefix bù- appears in various adverbial number words 16.4.2.4. It probably represents either an old \(b^{J}\) or \(m^{m}\) class agreement.
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
àbùyí+ & "twice" \\
àbùtán̆'+ & "three times" \\
àbùnāasí+ & "four times" \\
bùpïiga+ & "ten times" \\
nכ̄ərím bùtáň'+ & "three times"
\end{tabular}

\section*{15 Unsegmentable complex stems}

Numerous words in Kusaal (including the very name of the language, Kūsáà \(\varepsilon^{\varepsilon}\) ) 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}\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon}\quad"Kusaasi
Ňwāmpūrıs}\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon/}\quad\mathrm{ "Mamprussi"
Kòtāmma/ WK's clan
gbán̆yà'a= "lazy person" gonya'am "idleness" 1976 NT
cf Dagbani gbinyarli "laziness"

```

\subsection*{15.1 Loanwords}

As usual cross-linguistically, nouns form by far the largest group of identifiable loanwords. They are sometimes fitted into the noun class system by analogy 9.6 . Analogy may also cause the initial à- of loanwords like àrazánà+ "heaven" and àrazà \(k^{\mathrm{a}}\) "riches" to be treated tonally as fixed-L 8.3.1.

Most loanwords were probably borrowed from Hausa in the first instance. Hausa loans often stand out prominently as foreign elements by their deviation from the typical structure of Kusaal words, with its limitation of possible vowel contrasts by position within the word and its restrictions on consonant distributions.

Among nouns borrowed from Hausa are
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
dāká+ & "box" & \(\leftarrow\) àdakàa \((\leftarrow\) Portuguese arca) \\
gādv+ & "bed" & \(\leftarrow\) gadoo \\
\(k \varepsilon ̀ \varepsilon k \dot{c}^{+}\) & "bicycle" & \(\leftarrow\) kèekè \\
bákpàè &
\end{tabular}

Identifiable verb loanwords are much less common. They are subject to the usual constraints on possible Kusaal verb shapes 13.1:
```

dàam}\mp@subsup{}{}{m
"disturb, trouble" \leftarrowdàamaa
bùg\varepsilon}\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon}\quad\mathrm{ "get drunk" }\leftarrow\mathrm{ bùgu; a Hausa idiom: literally
"get thoroughly beaten"

```

Several function words are loans, probably from Hausa:
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
àsćध & "except" & \(\leftarrow\) sai \\
kōv & "or" & \(\leftarrow\) koo \\
báa & "not a..." 27.2 & \(\leftarrow\) bâa
\end{tabular}

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: hālí+ "until", Hausa har, Kikara Songhay hálì id, possibly from Arabic حتى ћatta: (Heath 2005); lı̀mbう̀'دg "garden", Hausa làmbuu, Humburi Senni làmbò "enclosed vegetable garden"; làbıya "be crouching, hiding behind something", Hausa laбèe id, Kikara Songhay lá:bú "hide behind or under something." With Kusaal làbıya and Hausa laбèe, 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 13.1.1.

Loans from Hausa have travelled far in West Africa, with an entry point into Songhay via the Zarma and Kaado languages of Niger, e.g. Humburi Songhay tílásò "duty", Zarma, Kaado tílàs \(\leftarrow\) Hausa tiilàs. 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:

\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multirow[t]{5}{*}{àrazánà \({ }^{+}\)} & \multirow[t]{5}{*}{"heaven"} & Hausa & àljannàa & "heaven, paradise" \\
\hline & & Mooré & àrzãnà & id \\
\hline & & Kikara Songhay & Pàljánnà & id \\
\hline & & \multirow[t]{2}{*}{Arabic} & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{Pal-fanna(tu)} \\
\hline & & & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{"(the) garden, paradise"} \\
\hline \multirow[t]{4}{*}{\begin{tabular}{l}
yàddā+/ \\
yàdā WK
\end{tabular}} & \multirow[t]{4}{*}{"assent"} & Hausa & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{\multirow[t]{4}{*}{}} \\
\hline & & Gao Songhay & & \\
\hline & & Kikara Songhay & & \\
\hline & & probably Arabic & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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 màlīāka/ "angel" (always malek in NT versions prior to 2016) is derived from the Arabic ملاكك malPak(un). The vocalism suggests transmission via Mooré màl ́́kà and Toende màlćk; 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:Pika(tu). A similar case in the realm of religion is Sōtáanà+ "Satan", matching Mooré Sotãana rather than Hausa shàio ân, which is a learned borrowing of the Arabic شيطان faytª:n(u).

Loanwords from Songhay languages, probably via Mooré, include bùrkìna "honest person", Mooré bùrkĩná "free, noble" (as in "Burkina Faso"), Dagbani bilchina "free, not slave", Yoruba bọ̀rọ̀kìnní "gentleman"; cf Kikara Songhay bòrkǐn "noble (caste.)" The word bàunv is used only in kpèn̆' bàunv "get circumcised" (kpèn̆'+ "enter"), Mooré kê bãongó id; cf Kikara Songhay bàngù "pool, spring", à húró bàngù "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 Wínnà'am \({ }^{m}\) (WK) Wínà'am \({ }^{m}\) (always Wina'am NT/KB) "God." It is common in Christian materials; the Creator of traditional religion often appears simply as Wīn \({ }^{\text {nع/ }}\) in proverbs etc. Wínnà'am looks analysable as a compound of \(w \bar{\iota} n^{n \varepsilon /}\) "god" and the stem of nà'ab \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "chief" or nā'am \({ }^{m}\) "chieftaincy", but the tones should then have been *Wīn-ná'àm, and the prevalence of the form Wínà'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 [fã:g̣idd] by my informants; preservation of \(g\) in this position 6.3 is almost completely isolated within Agolle Kusaal; apart from the corresponding gerund faangir "salvation", the only other case in my data is the gerund \(z{ }^{\top} \partial g^{\text {a }}\) of \(z i^{\prime} e^{y a}\) "be standing" used by DK KT instead of KED zi \(a^{+}\)12.2.1.2.) The expected agent noun from fāen̆ \({ }^{+/}\)"save" is fāan̆da/, presumably avoided as identical to the agent noun of fān\({ }^{+}\)"rob, snatch", found in NT/KB as faand "robber." WK has the identical agent noun fāan̆d \({ }^{\text {a// }}\) for both verbs, and he specifically confirmed that the word had both meanings in his idiolect.

As with Wínà'am, faangid is probably a loan, either from Mooré fãagdá "sauveur", or from Toende Kusaal, where loss of \({ }^{*} g\) is consistent word-finally after all long vowels (bíi "child" = bïiga \({ }^{\mathrm{a}}, b \bar{v} \bar{v}\) "goat" \(=b \bar{v} v g^{\mathrm{a}}\) ), but optional elsewhere, with variation between speakers (Niggli, "La phonologie du kusaal"):
```

páa
Õ bu paage.
"arriver" (Agolle pāe+ "reach")
"Il n'est pas arrivé." (Agolle Ò pū pāée.)

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Niggli's dictionary has both fãagıt and fãat for "sauveur", with fãat also glossed as "voleur, brigand."

A more everyday example is WK's kīibú+ cb kïib- "soap." Written sources have \(k i^{\prime} i b\), probably \(k i{ }^{-1}\left(b^{\partial /}=\right.\) Toende \(k i ́ ' ı p\). The length and quality of the vowels clearly identify the source as Mampruli kyiibu: contrast Farefare kí'íbó, Dagbani chibo.

Other words with singulars ending in \(-\iota^{+}\)or \(-v^{+} \underline{9.5}\) like kābırí+ "permission for entry" and sūgurú+ "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
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
kj̄dú+ & "banana" & \(\leftarrow\) kwadu \\
sāafı + (?tones) & "lock, key" & \(\leftarrow\) safẽ "key" \((\leftarrow\) Portuguese chave) \\
būrıyá \(^{+}\) & "Christmas" & \(\leftarrow\) bronya (itself of unclear origin)
\end{tabular}

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:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline àlópì \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & "aeroplane" & ? back-formation from [alopilin] taken as locative àlópìrī-n \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) \\
\hline dư'átà \({ }^{+}\) & "doctor" & (cf Dagbani dórté id) \\
\hline tóklà \({ }^{+}\) & "torch" & \(\leftarrow\) "torchlight" \\
\hline \(1 \mathrm{l}^{\text {r }}\) & "car, lorry" & (often borrowed even in Francophone Africa: cf Mooré lórè) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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: lóyà "cars", not *IJ̄yá 9.6.

Several loanwords of English origin have probably been transmitted via Hausa:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline kótò \({ }^{+}\) & "court" & Hausa kootù \\
\hline sógi̇à \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "soldier" & Hausa soojà \\
\hline tézbùl \({ }^{\text {² }}\) & "table" & Hausa teebùr \\
\hline wādá \({ }^{+}\) & "law" & Hausa oodà ( \(\leftarrow\) English "order") sg wādırel cb wādcreated by back-formation \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

A clear French loan in Agolle Kusaal is làmp̄̄ (i.e. l'impôt) "tax", as in làmp̄̄dí̀̇̀sa "tax gatherer." This word is widespread in northern Ghana (Dagbani Iampoo), reflecting extensive French influence in the region prior to the British annexation. Another word probably derived from French is kàs \(\bar{\varepsilon} t^{a / ~ " w i t n e s s, ~ t e s t i m o n y ", ~ M o o r e ́ ~}\) kàsétò "testimony, proof", as in kàsét sébrè "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 cachète "he seals." Mooré kàsétò and Farefare kàsétò have only the abstract sense "testimony"; the adaptation as a \({ }^{\text {a }} b^{\text {a }}\) 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.)

\section*{Syntax}

\section*{16 Noun phrases}

\subsection*{16.1 Overview}

A nominal phrase may be either a noun phrase (NP) or an adverbial phrase (AdvP 17.) 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 19.10.)

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 16.9 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 25.3. 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.

\subsection*{16.2 Noun phrase categories}

\subsection*{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:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(z)^{\text {a }} \mathrm{g}^{\text {د }}\) & \(z \chi^{\text {z }}{ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & & "race" \\
\hline bū'өsर́g \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & bū'өsá \({ }^{+}\) & bū'өs- & "question" \\
\hline zàan̆sún \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & zàan̆símà \({ }^{+}\) & zàan̆sún- & "dream" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Typical underived mass nouns belong to the \(b^{J}\) and \(m^{\mathrm{m}}\) noun classes, which do not have paired \(\mathrm{sg} / \mathrm{pl}\) suffixes, but gerunds of 3-mora stem verbs regularly show \(\mathrm{sg} r^{\varepsilon}\) or \(g^{J}\) suffixes 12.2.1.1, and a number of words referring to uncountables or abstracts are formally plural, but construed as singular:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline bān̆'as \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & bàn̆'- & "disease" \\
\hline n̆yう̄'วs \({ }^{\text {¢/ }}\) & n̆yう̄'- & "smoke" \\
\hline tàdımís \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & & "weakness" \\
\hline zōlımís \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & & "foolishness" \\
\hline \(m \bar{\varepsilon} t^{\varepsilon /}\) & \(m \bar{\varepsilon} t-\underline{9.2 .2}\) & "pus" \\
\hline kūt \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & kùt- 9.2.2 & "iron" \\
\hline \(z u ̀ \theta d^{\varepsilon}\) & & "friendship" \\
\hline \(b \bar{u} v d^{\varepsilon}\) & & "innocence" \\
\hline siiiñ \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) & & "honey" \\
\hline nīn-póvod \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & & "pus" \\
\hline wāad \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) & & "cold weather" \\
\hline sūn̆-péz̀n \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) & & "anger" \\
\hline ku'à-nūud \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & & "thirst" \\
\hline sālıma+ & sàlım- & "gold" \\
\hline sìda+ & sid- & "truth" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\(K u \bar{t}{ }^{\varepsilon}\) is also "nail"; the original sg \(k u \bar{d} v g{ }^{\top}\) appears in the name \(\grave{A}-K u \bar{d} v g{ }^{\top} 30.2\).
So too with a number of irregularly formed deverbal abstract nouns:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline gēeñmís \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "madness" & \(\leftarrow\) & \(g \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon \bar{n} m^{\mathrm{m} /}\) & "madden, go mad" \\
\hline bùdımís \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "confusion" & \(\leftarrow\) & bùdım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "confuse" \\
\hline titūmıs \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "sending" & \(\leftarrow\) & tòm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "send" \\
\hline ziid \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "carrying on head" & \(\leftarrow\) & \(z i^{+}\) & "carry on head" \\
\hline vūud \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "noise" & \(\leftarrow\) & \(v \bar{u}^{+}\) & "make a noise" \\
\hline \(k \bar{\varepsilon} n^{\text {ne/ }}\) & "arrival" & \(\leftarrow\) & \(k \bar{\varepsilon} \breve{n}^{+}\) & "come" \\
\hline pìàn̄'ad \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "speech" & \(\leftarrow\) & pìāñ'a & "speak" (irreg. tones) \\
\hline [sg piààunk \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "word"] & & & \\
\hline di'əma+ & "festival" & \(\leftarrow\) & di'əm \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\) & "play, not be serious" \\
\hline tōvma+ & "work" & \(\leftarrow\) & tòm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "work" \\
\hline [sg tōom \({ }^{\text {me }}\) & "deed"] & & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
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t\varepsilon̄nू'\varepsilonsá+ "thought" cf tह̄n̆'\varepsilonsá yīnní "one thought"
(Acts 4:32)

```

A single object may be referred to by a plural naming its components:
```

dà-pūvdá+ dà-pūvdá nàma}\mp@subsup{}{}{a
cf dà-pōvdír}\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon}\mathrm{ dà-pōvdá+ "cross-piece"

```

A Kusaal plural may just happen to correspond to an English mass noun:
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
lāunk & lā'ad & "piece of goods" \\
lā'af & līgıdı & & là'-
\end{tabular}

The count/mass distinction is significant in the choice of quantifiers 16.4.1 and when plurals are formed with nàm \({ }^{\text {a }} \underline{9.4}\), and it affects the meaning of constructions with preceding NPs as dependents 16.10 .

Mass nouns can be used in count senses (as in English): dāam nám "beers." Count nouns can be used in mass senses, where number distinctions are irrelevant 16.10.2.2:
fūug dój̀g
dàad bún-nám
"tent" (cloth hut): fūug "item of clothing, shirt" "wooden things": dàad "pieces of wood"

Manner-adverbs resemble mass nouns syntactically. Mass nouns may occur as manner adverbs, as may count nouns used where number is irrelevant 17.4:
```

M k\varepsiloń\eta nכ̄bá.
"I went on foot." SB
WK corrected to M k\varepsiloń\eta n\varepsilon̄ nכ̄bá (n\varepsilon̄ "with")

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\subsection*{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
```

*O à n\overline{\varepsilon} náaf.
attempted "It is a cow."

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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.

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 zulun na paae o salibir.
Kà wìəf yá' sīgí_ lì nī, lì zùlvn ná pāe ò sàlıbır.
And horse:sg if descend 3INAN LOC, 3INAN depth IRR reach 3an bridle:sg.
"If a horse goes down in it, its depth will reach its bridle." (Rev 14:20)

In stories where animals speak, they are naturally assigned animate gender.
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' niggbin nii, lin ku nyapin keen ka o ka' ningbin nii.
Nóbìr yá' yદ̀l̄̄-n y \(\bar{\varepsilon}\), ón pū án̆ nú'ùg lā zúg,
Leg:SG if say-dp that 3AN:NZ NEG.IND Cop hand:SG ART upon,
ò kā' nín-gbīn núl \({ }^{+} \varnothing\), līn kú n̆yāpı-n_ ø
3AN NEG.BE body-skin:SG LOC NEG, DEM.INAN NEG.IRR accomplish-DP CAT
\(k \varepsilon \bar{\varepsilon}\)-n kà ò kā' nín-gbīך níı \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
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 n̄ bílīa. \(\quad\) "He/she/it is a baby."
3AN/ZINAN 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 bigısıd ón àn̆ sỉəm.
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 àn̆ tí-sỉa.
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 \(\underline{9.1}\), reflecting the fact that the \({ }^{\mathrm{a}} \mid b^{\mathrm{a}}\) class has exclusively human reference. Only human-reference nouns can be used as modifiers after a head cb like adjectives 16.11 .1 .5 ; probably only human-reference heads can be used with appositional relative clauses 25.3.3. Cf also nīn- (human) and būn- (nonhuman) as "dummy" cbs with following adjectives 16.10.4.

There has been a change over the past decades in the alignment of gender and number. The current system distinguishes animate/inanimate in the singular with no gender distinction in the plural. In older sources like the 1976 NT, inanimate pronoun forms used as heads, like demonstrative \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{\prime+/}\), are used indifferently for sg or pl, occasionally with nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) plurals to avoid ambiguity. However, even the 1976 NT always uses the animate plurals bàmmā \({ }^{+/}\)bàn \(n^{\varepsilon}\) sīəba+ 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 nē 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-kánā, \(\bar{n}\) sán̆'àm n̄̄.
Eye-dem.del.sg, zan.cntr spoil foc.
"This eye, it's spoilt." KT (Overheard)
\(\dot{M} p \bar{u} \quad \check{n} y \bar{\varepsilon} \cdot o ́-o \quad{ }^{+} \varnothing\). \(\quad\) I can't find it [a stethoscope]" (Overheard)
1SG 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 \(l i\), never ò.
The inanimate sg pronoun subject \(l i\) is not changed to animate ò to agree with an animate complement of àeña "be something":

\section*{Li ane Zugsob la.}
"It is the Lord." (Jn 21:7)
Lì à nē Zūg-sób lā.
3INAN COP FOC head-one:SG ART.

\subsection*{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. 2 sg is used in proverbs for a generic "one":

Bung ya'a bood ye o lubuf, fu po nyeti o tubaa.

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 yj̀วdī_f súnàa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
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.
Dīıb wūsa 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.

\subsection*{16.3 Pronouns}

\subsection*{16.3.1 Personal}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multirow[t]{4}{*}{Sg} & 1st & \begin{tabular}{l}
Proclitic \\
\(\grave{m}\)
\end{tabular} & Enclitic \(m^{a}\) & \begin{tabular}{l}
Free \\
mān SF mán \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) LF
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l}
Subject+̀̀ \\
mán
\end{tabular} \\
\hline & 2nd & fò & \(f^{\circ}\) & fūn SF fónc̄ LF & fón \\
\hline & 3 rd an & \(\grave{o}^{8}\) [ v ] & \({ }^{\circ}\) [๒] & \(\bar{\square} n^{\varepsilon}\) & ón \\
\hline & 3rd inan & \(l i ̀\) or di & \(l^{+}\) & \(1 \mathrm{l} n^{\varepsilon}\) or \(d \overline{\text { in }}{ }^{\varepsilon}\) & lín or dín \\
\hline \multirow[t]{3}{*}{Pl} & 1st & ti & \(t{ }^{+}\) & tīnám \({ }^{\text {a }} 9\) & tīnámì ø \\
\hline & 2nd & yà & ya \({ }^{+}\) & yānám \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & yānámì_ø \\
\hline & 3rd & bà & \(b a^{+}\) & bān \({ }^{\text { }}\) & bán \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The alternate form mām also occurs for 1st sg in any rôle. The clitics are liaison words 8.2. They are always non-contrastive. The proclitics are subjects and NP/AdvP predeterminers, and the enclitics are objects. The " \(+\grave{n}\) " forms are used as subjects in \(\grave{n}\)-clauses 25.1 . The 2 pl subject has an enclitic form ya used after imperatives 22.1.3 with the allomorph -ní- before liaison 8.2.3.

For the realisation of 3 sg animate \({ }^{\circ}\) see 8.2.1. My informants only have \(I\)-forms for 3 sg inanimate; for bound objects, no \(d\) - forms are extant.

Free forms may be used for cbs before relative pronouns:

Fon kane buoli fo men ...
Fōn-kánì bùell_fò mēŋ...
2SG-ReL.SG call 2sG self ...

Number is sg/pl; Kusaal has no honorific usages of plural for singular like Mooré. For the interaction of number and gender see 16.2.2.

\footnotetext{
8) Toende Kusaal has \(\tilde{v}\). The original form was probably * \(\widetilde{\eta m} v\), with later \(* \overparen{\eta m} \rightarrow{ }^{*}\) g before the rounded vowel. Cf also the Dagbani free pronoun ŋuna \(=\) Kusaal \(\bar{\jmath} n^{\varepsilon}\). 9) Toende has 1 pl ton 2 pl nam for the free pronouns; the nam component of the Agolle forms is presumably the element seen in the pluraliser nàm \({ }^{\text {a }} \underline{\underline{4.4} .}\)
}

\subsection*{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
Long j̀mā+/
Short \(\grave{n}^{\varepsilon}\)
\begin{tabular}{lllll} 
& Animate sg & Inanimate sg & Plural \\
Long & \(\grave{y} \bar{a}^{+/}\) & lina \(\bar{a}^{+/}\) & far & bàmmā \\
Short & \(\grave{n} n^{\varepsilon}\) & \(l i n^{\varepsilon}\) & far & bàn
\end{tabular}
lìnā+/ far
\(l i n^{\varepsilon} \quad\) far
Plural

Head only:
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
Long & \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \eta a^{+}\) & near & \\
Short & \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{\prime+/}\) & near & \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{\prime}-n a ́ m\) \\
\end{tabular}

Postdeterminer pronoun only:
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
Long & kànā \\
Short & kàn & kànā \(\bar{a}^{+/}\) \\
& kàn
\end{tabular}

Note the tone difference in the short series from the free 3rd person pronouns. The postdeterminer-only series is based on an obsolete \(g^{\mathrm{a}} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) class pronoun kà, parallel to \(l i\), originally \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)class. My informants use these forms for animate reference as well as inanimate, but NT prefers خ̀nā+/ j̀n .

Postdeterminer pronouns follow a noun cb. Some speakers allow sg and pl noun forms, but these probably have the tones of combining forms 16.8. After quantifiers (other than àdàkJ́n̆'), which lack cbs, kàn \({ }^{\varepsilon} k a ̀ \eta \bar{a}^{+/}\)do not occur, but kàn \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) may follow a free pronoun doing duty for a cb 16.3.1.

Examples after nouns:
```

dư'átà lā lór-kànā "this car of the doctor's"
bò-kà\etaā Iā
"that goat"

```

After a quantifier:

\section*{bèdugū línā} "this multitude"

After a free pronoun form used as a cb:
fōn-kánì bùel ... "you who call ..."

Postdeterminer pronouns follow any adjectives:
n̄̄-píàl-kànā "this white hen"

The "short" series are used for referents not in view. They also appear as interrogatives in the sense "which?":
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
Lìne? & "Which one?" \\
Nīf-kánè? & "Which eye?" \\
Nīn-kánغ̀? & "Which person?"
\end{tabular}

Much their commonest use is as the basis of relative pronouns 25.3.2.
The demonstratives do not distinguish near and far except with sg inanimate heads; "that" can be specified by following the demonstrative with \(l^{+}+/\)and "this" by a following ňwà \({ }^{+}\)(cf French ça ci.) This use of \(I \bar{a}^{+/}\)as deictic rather than article is enabled by the fact that demonstratives automatically make the NP definite 16.5.
```

dàù-kànā sáàm
dàu-kàn sáàm
dàu-kànā lā sáàm
dàu-kànā n̆wá sáàm
tèn-kàn lā ná'àb
sān-kán lā

```
```

"this/that man's father"
"that (not visible) man's father"
"that man's father"
"this man's father"
"the king of that country" (from a story)
"at that time"

```

\subsection*{16.3.3 Indefinite}
\begin{tabular}{lccc} 
& Animate sg & Inanimate sg & Plural \\
Head or postdeterminer & \(s \bar{j}^{\prime+}\) & \(s i ̄ \not \partial l^{a}\) & sĩəba+ \\
Postdeterminer only & \(s i a^{+}\) & \(s i a^{+}\) &
\end{tabular}

Note that the vowel is not glottalised in the plural. For NT WK, but not KT, si' \(a^{+}\) is much commoner than \(s i^{\top} \partial^{a}\) used as a postdeterminer. WK feels that for people \(s i a^{+}\) is pejorative; NT occasionally has \(s \jmath^{\prime \prime+}\) for inanimate: tèn-sう̄' "a certain land." For indefinite pronouns in relative clauses see 25.3.1.

The sense is "some, someone, something", "a certain", indefinite but specific:
```

yà bì-sכ̄' "a certain child of yours"
2PL child-INDF.AN

```

The meaning is often contrastive, "another, a different" (compare Hausa wani, which has very similar usage in general to this pronoun, Jaggar p314, Caron pp102ff):
ka man ti ye m sig la, ka sכ' pun deŋi sig sa.
kà mán tì yé m̀ sīg lā,
and 1SG:Nz after say 1SG descend ART,
kà sכ̄' pón dènı ø sīg sá.
and indF.an already before cat descend thither.
"when I'm then about to go down, someone else goes down first." (Jn 5:7)

\section*{Méri one an Magdalen ne Méri sכ'}

Meeri כ́nì àň Magdalen nē Meeri s亏̄'
Mary rel.an cop Magdalen with Mary indf.an
"Mary who was Magdalen and another Mary" (Mt 28:1)

Winnig mor o meŋ venlim, ka nwadig me mor venlim si'a.
Wìnnıg mór ò mēp vén̆llìm kà n̆wādıg mé mōr vén̆llìm-sīa.
Sun:sg have 3AN self beauty and moon:SG also have beauty-IndF.InAn.
"The sun has its own beauty and the moon, too, has another beauty."
(1 Cor 15:41)

M̀ ná tī \(f\) tí-sỉa.
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:

Dàù-sכ̄' dāa bé ... "There was a certain man ..."
Man-Indf.An tns Exist ..
but this is likely to mean "There was another man ..."; it is commoner just to use an indefinite NP 16.5:

Dāu dāa bé... "Once there was a man ..."
Man:SG tNs ExIST ...

Sう̄'/sīəəl mé-kàma means "anyone, anything, everyone, everything":

O nipid si'el mekama su'vŋa.
Ò nìhıd sỉəl mé-kàma súpā.
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 sכ̄' kūdım kú lह̄m n̆yée_lī yá'asā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
And ind.an ever neg.irr again see zinan.ob again neg.
"Nobody will ever see it again." (Rev 18:21, 1996)

Sう̄' kā'e \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "There's nobody there."
INDF.AN NEG.BE NEG.
\(\grave{M} p \overline{0} \quad\) yél sỉəla \(\quad{ }^{+} \varnothing . \quad\) "I didn't say anything."
1SG NEG.IND say INDF.INAN NEG.

\subsection*{16.3.4 Interrogative}
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
Animate & Inanimate \\
àn'́'j̀n & \\
& "who?" & "what?"
\end{tabular}

Plurals with nàma may be used if a specifically plural answer is being sought. The initial à- of ànó'خ̀n \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) behaves like the manner-adverb prefix in liaison 8.2.1:
... ken tisi anכ'כnع?
"to go to whom?" (1 Samuel 6:20)
... kēŋ_ø tísì ànó'כnè \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
... go CAT give who CQ?
\(B \bar{J}^{+}\)can be used after a cb as an interrogative determiner "what?":
```

nā'-bó "what cow?" WK DK
(not náaf bó,
only possible in the sense "What, of a cow's?")
bò-bう̄
"what goat?"
dā-bว́ "what beer?"

```

The compound bj̀-būudı+ "what kind of?" can be used as a postdeterminer:
nā'-bj́-būudı
dā-bó-būudı

Note the idiom:

Fù á \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) bó- bùudı \({ }^{+}\)? ? "What tribe do you belong to?"

Bj̀- 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?
Bj̀-yír kà yà ná \(m \bar{\varepsilon} \quad n\) tís mánغ̀ \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
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)

\subsection*{16.3.5 Reciprocal}

Tāaba+ "one another" appears as tāab clause-medially for some speakers. It occurs also as an adjective meaning "fellow-": ò tòm-tòm-tāaba "his fellow-workers"; the stem also appears in the bound noun -tāa= used after imperfective gerunds 13.2.1.4, and with noun prefixes in nìn-tāa= "co-wife" and dàtāa= "enemy."

Examples of the pronoun use:

Sùpımī \(\varnothing\) tāaba. "Help one another."
Help:Imp 2PL.SUB each.other.

Tì yúùg n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) tāaba. "It's been a long time." KT
1PL delay with each.other.

Bà dう̀l nē tāaba. "They went together." (d̄̄la/ "accompany")
3PL follow with each.other.

\subsection*{16.4 Quantifiers}

\subsection*{16.4.1 Overview}

Formally, quantifiers resemble noun sg or pl forms, frequently with apocopeblocking 6.6; most number words are also preceded by number prefixes 14.3.

Quantifiers can be classified as count or mass 16.2.1, but the distinction is only of significance when the quantified noun is mass type, in which case a count quantifier is ungrammatical; with count nouns there is no restriction and either type of quantifier is acceptable:
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
& nīdıb bédugū & "a lot of people" \\
nīdıb bábıgā & "many people" \\
not'өm bédugō & "kù'өm bábıgā & "a lot of water" \\
not & *"many water"
\end{tabular}

Mass quantifiers are
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline  & "a lot" & pāmm SF & "a lot" (LF pāmnć 6.6) \\
\hline fiin \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "a little (liquid)" & bỉəəlá & "a little" \\
\hline \(w \bar{u} 0^{=}\) & "all" & wūsa+ & "all" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Count quantifiers include the number words, and also
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
bàbıgā\(+/\) & "many" & kàlıgā+/ & "few" \\
fāan̆= & "every" & zān̆'a= & "every" \\
kàm \(^{\text {a }}\) & "every" & &
\end{tabular}

Kàmª "every" occurs by itself as a quantifier and also before others:
sāŋá kám = sāŋá kám zān̆'a "all the time"

Quantifiers appear typically as postdeterminers in NPs 16.11.2.2, but like pronouns they may also be heads of NPs, naturally manifesting the category of number:

Pāmm ké nā.
Bèdugū ké nā.
Bèdugū lā ké nā.
Àyí ké nā.
Àyí lā ké nā.
"Many came."
"Many came."
"The crowd came"
"Two came."
"The two came."

Quantifier heads pluralise with nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
màlināk-nám túsà piiga 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 k̄̄ 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 yé tì n̆yē dīıb yáa ní mכ̄כgu-n n̆wá
And 3pL that 3pL find food where loc grass:SG-Loc this
\(\varnothing\) dìs nīdıb bédugū bámā n̆wá \(+\varnothing\) ?
CAT feed person:PL many DEM.DEI.PL this cQ?
"Where are we going to find food in this wilderness to feed this crowd of people?" (Mt 15:33, 1996: KB nimbama nwa wusa "all these people")

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 16.11.2.2, and the latter construction is partitive 16.10.3.

\subsection*{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 yīnní \({ }^{+}\), but may be singular with units of measure:
```

yว̄lugá àtán̆' "\$600 [cedis]"
(yj̄lug`/ "sack" for £100/\$200; Hausa jàkaa.)

```

\subsection*{16.4.2.1 Quantifiers}

The numbers in their core rôle as quantifiers take the forms
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline 1 & yīnní \({ }^{+}\) & 10 & piiga \({ }^{+}\) & 100 & kj̀bıgā= \\
\hline 2 & àyí \({ }^{+}\) & 20 & pissí \({ }^{\text {[ }}\) [ \({ }^{\text {hinisi] }}\) & 200 & kj̀bısí \({ }^{+}\)[ \({ }^{\text {h}}\) วbisisi] \\
\hline 3 & àtán' \({ }^{+}\) & 30 & pis tán' \({ }^{+}\) & 300 & kj̀bıs táñ'+ \\
\hline 4 & ànāasí \({ }^{+}\) & 40 & pìs nāasí \({ }^{+}\) & 400 & kj̀bıs nāasí \({ }^{+}\) \\
\hline 5 & ànū \({ }^{+}\) & 50 & pīs nū \({ }^{+}\) & 500 & kj̀bıs nū \({ }^{+}\) \\
\hline 6 & àyúebò \({ }^{+}\) & 60 & pīs yúebì \({ }^{+}\) & 600 & kj̀bıs yúebì \({ }^{+}\) \\
\hline 7 & àyópj̀e+ & 70 & pis yópjè \({ }^{+}\) & 700 & kj̀bıs yópjè \({ }^{+}\) \\
\hline 8 & ànií= & 80 & pìs nií= & 800 & kj̀bıs nií= \\
\hline 9 & àwāe+ & 90 & pīs wāe+ & 900 & kj̀bıs wāe \({ }^{+}\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The forms for \(1,4,6,8,10\), and 100 show apocope-blocking 6.6 ; the forms for 20 and 200 are not apocope-blocked but are combinations with the stem of àyí \({ }^{+}\).
kj̀bıgā= has LF like the SF, not *kj̀bıgáa, contrary to the usual rule for forms with apocope-blocking.

\footnotetext{
"Thousand" is a regular \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)class noun, tūsır \(r^{\varepsilon /}\) tūsá àtán̆' "3000." "Half" is \(p \bar{u}\)-súk \({ }^{\text {a }} \mathrm{pl} p \overline{0}\)-súgùs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\). Other numbers are formed with \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) "with, and":
kj̀bıs táň' nē pīs yúөbù nē nū "three hundred and sixty-five"

11 to 19 have the special contracted forms
pīi nē yīnní, piī nē yí, pīi nē tán̆' ... pīi nē wāe (or pīi nā yīnní, pīi nā yí ...)

The clitic à- is omitted after \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) "with", and sometimes also after focus- \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\):
\(L i ̀\) à \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) nāasí. / Lì à né ànāasí. "They're four."

The forms àyínā̄+ àtánā+/ mean "two, three exactly." If I have four children

M mór bïisá_ àtán̆'. "I have three children."
1SG have child:PL NUM:three.
is true, though misleading
but M̀ mór bīisá àtánā. "I have exactly three children." is false.
}

These forms can also be used after n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) "and", as in piii n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) yínā "twelve exactly." They are exceptional in not permitting focus with the particle \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)28.1.2.1.3.

Yīnní+ can also be construed with a preceding noun cb:
```

    kūg-yínnì+ "one stone" (L spreading 8.4)
    cf kūgvr 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-pïiga "ten days".

After personal pronouns the number prefix is bà- instead of à- 14.3:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
tì bàtán̆' & "we three" \\
yà bàyópj̀e & "you seven" \\
bà bàyí & "they two"
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{16.4.2.2 Counting forms}

1 to 9 have different forms used in counting, lacking apocope-blocking and using the number prefix \(\grave{n}\) - instead of à- 14.3.
\begin{tabular}{llll}
1 & yह̄ón or àdàkón̆' & 6 & ǹyúèb \\
2 & ǹyí & 7 & ǹpj̀é [tone sic] \\
3 & ǹtáň' & 8 & ǹníi \\
4 & ǹnāas & 9 & ñwāe \\
5 & ǹnū & continuing pīiga, pīi nē yí as with quantifiers
\end{tabular}

Àdàkón̆' can also be used as a quantifier:
bóvg àdàkón̆'
"one goat"

The reduplicated adverb form \(k \overline{ } \bar{n}\) 'כ \({ }^{\prime} \overline{\mathcal{J}}\) is used as a postposition 17.6 , as in
m̀ kכ̄n̆'วkう̄ "by myself"
Referring to the numbers in the abstract, as in performing arithmetic, the quantifier forms are used, not the counting forms:
```

Àyí námá_àyí á n\overline{\varepsilon nāasí.}
NUM:two PL NUM:two COP FOC four.

```
"Two twos are four."

\subsection*{16.4.2.3 Adjectives and ordinal constructions}
yı̄mmír \(\quad\) yı̄mmá+ \(\quad\) yı̄m- \(\quad\) "single, alone"
e.g. bì-yīmmír
wāb-yímmìr
"only child"
"solitary elephant"

There are two words meaning "one of a pair": ňyàuk \({ }^{\top}\) pl ňyà'ad \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) is only used for eyes, while \(y \bar{u} u \eta^{\partial /}\) pl yīná+ is used for other normally paired body parts:

\author{
nīf-n̆yáuk \\ bà-nīf-n̆yáuk \\ tùb-yīun \\ bì-tùb-yīná
}
```

"one eye"
"one-eyed dog"
"one ear"
"one-eared children"

```

The only ordinal word is
\(d \varepsilon \bar{\varepsilon} \eta^{a}\)
\begin{tabular}{ll}
\multicolumn{2}{c}{\(d \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon n ̆ s^{\varepsilon}\)} \\
or & \(d \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon m ı s^{\varepsilon}\) \\
or & \(d \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon n a^{+}\)
\end{tabular}
as in s亏̄b-d́́غ̀̀ "first census" (Lk 2:2, 1976.)
"First" can also be expressed by yïigá+ "firstly" as a predeterminer:
line da an yiiga dabisir
līnı_ ø dá àn̆ yïigá 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 pàas \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) or \(p \varepsilon^{\prime} \varepsilon s^{\varepsilon}\) "add up to":
dàu-kànı pغ̇' \(\varepsilon s a\) àyí lā
man-rel.sG add.up.to num:two ART
"the second man" ("man who has added up to two")
lìnı pàasa_ àtán̆' lā
reL.InAn add.up.to num:three ART
"the third one"

Another is to use numbers as pre-dependents before dāan \({ }^{\text {a }}\) owner of ..."; such phrases are then themselves used either as NP heads or as postdeterminers:
àyí dāan lā
būvgá àtáň' dāan lā
"the second one"
"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.

\subsection*{16.4.2.4 Adverbs}

Multiplicatives (answering àbùlá? "how many-fold?") are expressed
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
yīmmó+ & "straight away, at once" \\
àbòyí \\
àbòtán̆'+ & "twice" \\
àbònāasí
\end{tabular}
and so on, with the same stems after the prefixes as for the quantifiers, up to bùpïiga \({ }^{+}\)"ten times"

The à- of these forms is not the number prefix but the manner-adverb formant, and a LF-final vowel mora before it is \(-\iota\) not \(-a\); its attachment only to 2-9 is presumably therefore analogical.

Answers to nכ̄כrá àlá "how many times?" have forms of the pattern
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline & nכ̄or yı̄nní \({ }^{+}\) & "once" \\
\hline & nכ̄ərá àtán̆'+ & "three times" \\
\hline or & nכ̄orím bùtán̆'+ & "three times" NT \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

This nכ̄כr is not "mouth" (= Mooré nóorè) but corresponds to Mooré náooré "times", homophonous with Mooré náooré "leg"; cf Toende Kusaal n亏̄'כ̄t = Agolle nóbìr "leg". Original open and closed oo fall together when nasalised 4.2. For the semantics cf Hausa sàu ukù "three times" sau "foot(print)." Niggli's dictionary gives Toende nó'כt (tone sic) in the sense "fois" and even has nכba ayi beside no'כt ayi "deux fois." Agolle nכ̄כr "times" does not have a glottalised vowel, however.

Distributives ("two by two" etc) are reduplicated forms without apocopeblocking; there is no L spreading on the second part except with 10, 100, 1000:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline 1 & yı̄n yı̄n & 10 & piì pîg & 100 & kj̀bıg kóbìg \\
\hline 2 & àyí yí & 20 & pīsí piosí & 200 & kj̀bısí kóbısí or kj̀bıs yí yí \\
\hline 3 & àtán̆' tán̆' & 30 & pīs tán̆' tán̆' & 300 & kj̀bıs tán̆' tán̆' \\
\hline 4 & ànāas nāas & 40 & pīs nāas nāas & & etc \\
\hline 5 & ànū \(n u ̄\) & 50 & pīs nū nū & 1000 & tūsır túsìr \\
\hline 6 & àyúèb yúàb & 60 & pīs yúèb yúèb & & \\
\hline 7 & àyópje p póe & 70 & pīs yópj̀e póe & & \\
\hline 8 & àníi níi & 80 & pīs níi ní & & \\
\hline 9 & àwāe wāe & 90 & pis wāe wāe & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Intermediate numbers are made by replacing the last part of the usual quantifier phrase with a distributive:
pīs nū nē nāas nāas "by fifty-fours"

The distributives can have a preceding NP as a determiner:
dābá àyว́pj̀ę póe "weekly" ("by sevens of days")

\subsection*{16.4.3 Proquantifiers}

Quantifiers have corresponding proforms; the à- is the number prefix, and induces preceding LF-final -a not -ı 8.2.1; contrast proadverbs 17.7.
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
Demonstrative & Indefinite & Interrogative \\
àlá+ & \(s i ' ə m^{m}\) & àlá \\
"so much/many" & "some amount" & "how much/many?"
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{16.5 The article \(\boldsymbol{I} \bar{a}^{+/}\)}

The two words \(I^{+}+/\)and ňwà \({ }^{+}\)presumably originated as corresponding deictics "that" and "this." Although ňwà retains this sense, \(\overline{l a}^{+/}\)in the great majority of its occurrences is a definite article. It retains a deictic sense, in opposition to n̆wà \({ }^{+}\), in identificational clauses 22.3.1 and after demonstratives 16.3.2.

Unlike \(l \bar{a}^{+}\), , n̆wà \({ }^{+}\)can stand alone as a NP:

\section*{Ňwà á n̄ bïig.}
"This is a child." WK; tones sic.
This cop foc child:Sg.

Both \(\bar{a}^{+/}\)and n̆wà \({ }^{+}\)always stand finally in the NP (though this entire phrase may be a predeterminer within another NP) except for the marginal case where a VPfinal particle occurs in an \(\grave{n}\)-clause, when it may follow the article attached to the clause 19.10 .

As the definite article, \(l \bar{a}^{+/}\)corresponds in many cases to English "the", marking referents as specific and already established. However, unlike "the", \(l \bar{a}^{+/}\)is not typically used for "familiar background", unless there was an explicit prior mention of the referent:
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:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
mān & "me" \\
À-Wīn & "Awini" \\
Bj̀k & "Bawku"
\end{tabular}

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 16.10.2.2):

Nכמilim po naada.
"Love does not come to an end." (1 Cor 13:8)
Nòמılím pō nāadá \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
Love neg.Ind finish:IPFV neg.
\(L \bar{a}^{+/}\)is not used in vocatives:
Bīiga \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) !
"Child!"
Child:sg voc!

This contrasts with ňwà \({ }^{+}\), which is common in vocatives 22.3.4:
Bīis n̆wá!
"Children!"
[bi:sa]

There is no indefinite article: a NP with no \(\bar{a}^{+}+\)is indefinite if it could have taken \(\bar{I}^{+/}\)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 biig "child" in
```

M bïig kā'e '`. "I've no child" WK
1SG child:SG NEG.be neg.

```
and with the complement of àeña "be something" when used ascriptively 20.2:
```

O à n\overline{\varepsilon}}\mathrm{ bïig.
"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 28.4:

Dau da be mori o biribing
Dāu dá bè_ ø mōrí_ò bī-díbìn
Man:Sg tns exist cat have zan child-boy:sg
"Once there was a man who had a son ..." KSS p35

Anina ka o nye dau ka o yo'vr buon Aneas.
Àníná kà ò n̆yह̄ dáu kà ò yō'ur 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", \(\bar{l}^{+/}\)is not used with generic reference:

Tumtom po gat o zugdaana.
Tòm-tōm pū gát ò zūg-dáanā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
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 àn̆ tí-sỉa.
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 \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)used in its temporal sense 28.1.2.1.2.

A possessive predetermining NP ending in \(I^{-}+/\)makes the following head definite, and the head does not itself take the article:
```

    dư'átà lā bîgg "the doctor's child"
    not *dư'átà lā bîg 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 máliāk
> Wínà'am máliāk lā

\author{
"an angel of God" \\ "the angel of God"
}
m̀ bïig
m̀ bïig \(1 \bar{a}\)
"my child" (at first mention)
"my child" (previously mentioned)

In Pu'a so' da be mor o bipun ka kikirig dol o. Ka o wom Yesu yela, ka keŋ igin o tuon. Ka sכs Yesu ye o kadim kikirig la yis o biig la ni.
Pư'à-sכ̄' dá bè_ø mór ò bī-pún kà kìkīrıg dכ̄lló́_ ø.
Woman-Indf.an tns exist cat have 3an child-girl:sg and fairy:sg follow 3an.ob.
Kà ò wóm Yesu yદ́là, kà k \(\bar{\eta}\) _ø ígìn ò tùөn.
And 3an hear Jesus about, and go CAT kneel.down 3an in.front.
Kà sós Yesu yé ò kàdım kíkīrıg lā_ \(\varnothing\) yís ò bīig 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 ò bī-pó "her daughter" on first introduction, but does occur in ò bīig lā "her child" after the reference is established. Note the idiom at first introduction of a new possessed referent:

Pu'a so' da be mor o bipup
Pư'à-sכ̄' dá bè_ø mór ò bī-pú
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 mōrí_ò bī-díbìn
Man:sg tns exist cat have zan child-boy:sg
"Once there was a man who had a son ..." KSS p35
and \(\dot{M}\) bïig kā'e \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "I've no child" WK
1SG child:SG NEG.be neg.
\(\dot{M}\) bïig lā kā'e \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "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 16.10.2.3, and may function for focus purposes as pragmatically non-recoverable 28.1.2.2.

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 sàam ma "father."

The presence of the article itself, not definiteness, causes dropping of the empty particle \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) which follows complements of comparisons 18.

For an unambiguously indefinite specific meaning like "some, another", indefinite pronouns are used 16.3.3.

Nā'-síabà ón̆bìd n̄̄ mכ̄כd.
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:
```

dư'átà lā bí-sכ̄' "a child of the doctor's"

```
doctor:SG ART child InDF.AN

The number ȳ̄nní \({ }^{+}\)"one" is sometimes used to introduce a new referent, but remains a number word, and is not bleached to an indefinite article:

\section*{Farisee dim nid yinne da be}

Farisee dím nìd yīnní dà bè ...
Pharisee individual.pL person:SG one tNS EXIST ..
"There was one man of the Pharisees ..." (Jn 3:1)
cf Dapa atan' \(n\) da be. \(\quad\) "There were once three men." KSS p16
Dāpá_àtán̆' \(n\) dá bè.
Man:PL num:three CAT TNS EXIST

\subsection*{16.6 The personifier clitic}

Indigenous Kusaasi personal names are always preceded by the personifier clitic, which appears as \(\grave{A}\) - by default, but \(\grave{N}\) - before adjective stems, where \(\grave{N}\) - is a syllabic nasal assimilated to the point of articulation of a following consonant. The clitic is a liaison word. The \(\grave{A}\) - allomorph, like the manner-adverb prefix \(\grave{a}-\), is preceded by word-final \(-l\), not \(-a\) as with the number prefix.

Personal names do not take the article or modifiers, but may take pre- or postdeterminers. \(A_{A}\) - is deleted after a predeterminer, but \(\grave{N}\) - remains.

Personal names can pluralise with nàma; 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)."
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
À-Wīn & "Awini" \\
tì Wīn & "our Awini" \\
M̀ Wīn & "my Awini" \\
À-Wīn-kánā & "this Awini" \\
À-Wīn nám & "Awinis" \\
Ǹ-Dāvg & "Ndago" \\
tì Ǹ-Dāug & "our Ndago"
\end{tabular}

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:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
À-Mūusa & "Moses" \\
À-Yīisa & "Jesus" \\
À-Sīimj́j̀n & "Simon"
\end{tabular}

For examples of Kusaasi names see 30.2 .
NT has some personifications of abstractions: À-Sàň'ט "Destruction."
In stories where animals are characters, animal names take \(\grave{A}\)-:

À-Bāa \(\quad\) "Mr Dog"

A number of animal and bird names incorporate the clitic as part of the common noun, without any implication of personification; among such nouns are à-dàalún \({ }^{\text {n }}\) "stork" à-gáv̀n̆g "pied crow" à-kj̄ra-díàm" \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) "praying mantis" and the loanword à-mús \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "cat." Thus
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
à-dàalún & "a stork" \\
m̀/mān dáalún & "my stork" \\
1SG/1SG.CNTR stork:SG &
\end{tabular}
dāu lā dáalún "the man's stork"
man:SG ART stork:SG
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
Lì à né à-dàalúy. & "It's a stork" \\
BINAN COP FOC PERS-Stork:SG. & \\
M ňyé à-dàalón. & "I've seen a stork." \\
ISG see PERS-stork:SG. &
\end{tabular}

The à- 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 3 sg pronoun yẽ~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 sכ'
À-tùm sכ̄' ("Someone sent someone")
"Siloam" 19.8.1 (Jn 9:7)
PERS-Send InDF.AN
Apv-kpen'-ba\etav dim
À-pū kp\varepsilońn̆' bàuno dím
PERS-NEG.IND enter circumcision individual:PL
"the Uncircumcised" (Eph 2:11)

```

This is common in proverbs and similar set expressions:

À-dāa yél kā' tílmm \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
PERS-tNS say neg.have medicine neg.
"Did-say has no remedy." (No use crying over spilt milk.)

À-n̆ȳ̄ ne nīf són̆'ح_ À-wòm tùba. PERS-see with eye:sG be.better.than PERS-hear ear:PL
"Saw-with-eye beats Heard-with-Ears" (Seeing is believing.)
\begin{tabular}{ll}
\begin{tabular}{l} 
À-Kīdıgı_ \(\varnothing\) Bū'өs \\
PERS-Cross CAT ask
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l} 
"Crossed over and asked" \\
(name of the constellation Orion.)
\end{tabular} \\
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
Apozotyel & "Doesn't-fear-trouble", character in KSS p35. \\
À-Pū-zót-y \(l\) & \\
PERS-NEG.IND-run:IPFV-thing:SG &
\end{tabular}
\end{tabular}

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-P̄̄-zót-y \(l\) dá à né ò sàam bîg 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
\(\grave{A}\) - can appear as the predeterminer of the subject of an entire clause, with the meaning "someone whose ...":

Bà kèn né À-nà kúv_ì 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-nכ̄כs bé yírē \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
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 Nכ̄כs 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 à- can pluralise with nàmá

À-zī'_ \(\quad \varnothing\) kpí nàm kpî̀d né kà tén̆bid.
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.")

\subsection*{16.7 Coordination}

Coordination is characteristically a feature of NPs, but also occurs with AdvPs. The particles for "or" are \(b \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon\) or \(k \bar{v} v\). 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 dāun lā kūu bà wūsa
child:SG ART or man:SG ART or 3PL all
"The man, or the child, or both" WK

The particle for "and" for NPs and AdvPs is \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\). This \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) is fundamentally the same word as the preposition "with" 18; the linker adjuncts \(b \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon\) and \(k \bar{v} v\) can be used in a parallel way. \(N \bar{\varepsilon}\) links nominal words and phrases, but no clauses other than (previously nominalised) \(\grave{n}\)-clauses.

Consistent with this analysis, it is not possible to omit coordinating particles in a series of three or more items, or to use \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) to join two words with the same referent:
```

À-Wīn n\varepsiloń À-Būgur n\varepsiloń À-Nà'ab
dư'átà nह\overline{ ná'àb}

```
"Awini, Abugri and Anaba"
"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 nye saygbaup ne tengbaung paal.
Kà m̀ n̆ȳ̄ sán-gbàun- n̄̄ tह́n-gbàung-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 *[bēníd n \(\bar{\varepsilon} k i ̄]\) kúès
not possible for "seller of bēníd n \(\bar{\varepsilon} k i ̄ "\) (beanleaf-and-millet, a conceptual unity like "fish and chips", "lox and bagels")

Coordinated heads may not share a determiner or an article:

\section*{\(\boldsymbol{m}\) ba'abiis ne \(\boldsymbol{m}\) saamnama}
\(\grave{m}\) bā'-bîs né ì̀ sàam-nàmā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\)
1SG father-child:PL with 1SG father-PL voc
"my siblings and [my] fathers!" (Acts 7:2)
pư'ā lā \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) dāu lā "the woman and the man" woman:SG ART with man:SG ART

Yïigá+ "firstly" 16.10.3 is a modifier "former", rather than a determiner in
yiiga saŋgbaun ne teŋgbaun ne atzuk
yïigá sàn-gbàun n̄̄ tह́n-gbàun né àtiunk
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 n̄̄ síilímà "Kusaasi stories and proverbs"
Kusaal story:PL with proverb:PL

Kūsáàs kúèb n̄̄ yīr "Kusaasi agriculture and housing"
Kusaasi:PL hoeing with house:sG
sālıma bútìıs n̄ díısímà "gold cups and spoons"
gold cup:PL with spoon:PL ("all of them gold", KT)

However, KT WK both agreed that
sālıma lá'àd nē būtııs
must mean "gold goods and [not gold] cups", WK offering the correction
```

sālıma lá'àd n\varepsiloń ò būtıss "gold goods and (gold) cups" WK

```
gold item:PL with 3AN cup:PL
where ò refers to sālıma. (See 16.2.2 on the unexpected gender of the pronoun.) The difference from sālıma bútìıs n̄ díısímà (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 sālıma bútìıs n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) [sālıma] díısímà "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'andدlib pii ne yi "his twelve disciples" (Mt 26:20)
ò n̆yà'an-dj̀llıb pīi n̄̄ yí
3AN after-follower:PL ten with two
```

dư'átà n\overline{\varepsilon}}\mathrm{ ná'àb lā lóyà "Doctor's and the chief's cars"
doctor:SG with chief:SG ART car:PL
sālıma n\overline{\varepsilon}}\mathrm{ ānzúrıfà lá'àd "gold and silver goods"
gold with silver item:PL

```

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:
```

dư'átà (lóyà) nē ná'àb lā lóyà
sālıma (lá'àd) n $\overline{\text { ān }}$ 任ıfà lá'àd
cf [dư'átà nē ná'àb lā] lóyà
[sālıma nē ānzúrıfà] lá'àd

```
"[Doctor's cars] and [the chief's cars]" "[gold goods] and [silver goods]" "the cars of [Doctor-and-the-chief]" "[gold-and-silver] goods"

Elliptical interpretations are sometimes impossible. As is not possible to coordinate cbs, and \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) cannot join NPs with the same reference, this is the case with
ānzúrıfà n̄ sālıma lá'-māan "silver- and goldsmith"
silver with gold item-maker:SG
```

cf *ānzúrıfà lá'- n\overline{\varepsilon sālıma lá'-māan (impossible)}
ānzúrıfà lá'-māan nē sālıma lá'-māan (necessarily two different people)

```

\subsection*{16.8 Apposition}

For apposition in locative AdvPs see 17.3.
Titles and other NPs may precede personal names in apposition:

Na'ab Agrippa
"King Agrippa." (Acts 25:13)

Li pu nar ye fu di fu ba'abiig po'a Herodiase.
Lì pū nār yé fù dí fù bā'-bîig pu'á Herodiase \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). 3INAN NEG.InD must that 25 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 lèbıs yह̄, \(\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon n ̆\), ò zùà À-Sībıgı \(n\) kābıríd.
...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 à- is not omitted in these cases shows that the relationship is not dependent-head 16.6.

Personal pronouns in apposition use free forms 28.5:
```

Man Paul [...] pu'vsidi ya. "I, Paul ... greet you." (2 Thess 3:17)
Mān Paul [...] pó'vsìdī_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 16.11.1.5.

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 \(\underline{16.7}\), or where the cb has the segmental, but not tonal, form of the singular 9.2.2. 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:
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
Nonaar Paal for Nonapaal & Nō-ná-pāal & "New Testament" \\
Siig Sun & for Sisun & Sì-sùn
\end{tabular}

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:
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
lànnıg-kànā & "this squirrel" & WK \\
dàp-bàmmā & "these men" & WK
\end{tabular}

The many examples of Siig Sun in the 1996 NT audio version are likewise clearly read as Sìıg-sù (or Síĭg-sùn with M spreading) or Sì-sùy, not *Sīıg-súp.

SB showed a much greater tendency to produce segmental sg forms before postdeterminer pronouns and even adjectives than my other informants.

\subsection*{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:
būuga
bù-pìəlıga
bù-kànā \({ }^{+/}\)
bù-piəl-kànā+/
```

"goat"
"white goat"
"this goat"
"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 wí̀̀f zūor
but nà'ab lā wíd-zūor

\footnotetext{
"the chief's horse's tail"
"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 9.2.2. Compounding is so productive that the cb is a regular part of noun and adjective flexion 9.1.

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-pìə-]kàmā "this [white goat]"
[nīn-wók-]pìlıg "white [tall person]"
[zà'-nj̄-]píəlìg "white gate" ("white [compound-mouth]")

```

A compound may appear as generic complement to a following deverbal noun:
```

[zà'-nכ̄-]gúr
[[zà'-nj̄-]gúr-]kà\etaā "this [gate-keeper]"
"gate-keeper"

```

Kusaal also possesses bahuvrihi adjectives 16.11.1.4 formed by zero-derivation of a noun-adjective compound to an adjective:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
nī-n̆yáuk & "one eye" \\
bù-[nīf-n̆yáuk] & "[one-eyed] goat" \\
nכ̄b-wók & "long leg" \\
kùg-[nכ̄b-wók] & "[long-legged] stool"
\end{tabular}

The bahuvrihi meaning is also possible when the compound is used as the complement of àeña "be something":

Kùg-kànā á n̄ nōb-wók.
Chair-dem.del.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:
```

fū-zع́ňdà kùөs
not *fū-zén̆'-kù $\theta s$

```
"seller of red (i.e. dyed) cloth"

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 16.10.2.2:
```

sālıma bútì\eta
ānzúrıfà nc̄ sālıma lá'àd
"gold cup"
"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 "silversmith" ("[silver goods]-maker")
    [ānzúr\iotafà nē sālıma lá'-]māan "silver- and goldsmith"
    cf [fü-z\varepsilońn̆dà] kùөs "[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'-nכ̄כr] "golden gate" ("golden [compound-mouth]")
zügú-n [níf-gbáun] "upper eyelid" ("upper [eye-skin]")

```

Determiners, whether preceding or following the head, and whether compounded or uncompounded, have the loosest binding:

\section*{[sālıma bútìn-]kànā}
[[sālıma lá'-]màan-]kànā
ò [[sālıma lá'-]māan]
"this [gold cup]"
"this [[gold-item]-maker]"
"her [[gold-item]-maker]"

\subsection*{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 [pó'vsòg [fúùg dój̀g]]
"tabernacle" (God's [worship [cloth hut]])

```

Pronoun, pronoun-like, quantifier or deverbal heads lead to the pre-dependent + head construction having specialised meanings 16.10.3. Otherwise, specificreference 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.

\subsection*{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` }\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon}\mathrm{ "beer-drinking"
g\varepsiloňl-kúòsa "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-kúv̀da
bù-kūuda/
n亏̄-kúvida
pu'à-kūoda/
nう̄-záňlı
wìd-kùesa
bù-kùөsa
sàlım-kù0sa
dā-núùd}\mp@subsup{}{}{\mathrm{ a}
zīm-gbáň'àd}\mp@subsup{}{}{a

```
"murderer"
"goat-killer"
"hen-killer"
"woman-killer"
"holder of hens"
"horse-seller"
"goat-seller"
"gold-seller"
"beer-drinker"
"fisherman" ("fish-catcher")
```

n̄̄-dí'ə̀s a
tàn-mē $d^{a}$
làmpj̄-dí'̇̀sa
gbàn-mīida/
pu'à-sān̄'am ${ }^{\text {ma }}$
zà'-nう̄-gúr ${ }^{\text {a }}$
dà-kīəda
k̇̀n̆b-kīmna
bùl-sīgıd ${ }^{\text {a/ }}$
tù̀n-gāt ${ }^{a}$
n̆yà'an-dj̀la
$p u{ }^{\prime}{ }^{\text {à }}$-ā'ad ${ }^{\text {a }}$

```
```

"chief's spokesman" ("command-receiver")

```
"chief's spokesman" ("command-receiver")
(Ghanaian English "linguist")
(Ghanaian English "linguist")
"builder" (tānne "earth")
"builder" (tānne "earth")
"tax collector" (French l'impôt)
"tax collector" (French l'impôt)
"scribe" NT ("book-knower")
"scribe" NT ("book-knower")
"adulterer" ("woman-spoiler")
"adulterer" ("woman-spoiler")
"gate-keeper" (zà'-nכ̄כrع/ "gate")
"gate-keeper" (zà'-nכ̄כrع/ "gate")
"wood-cutter"
"wood-cutter"
"herdsman"
"herdsman"
    (kว̀n̆b- as cb of būn-kón̆bùg "tame animal")
    (kว̀n̆b- as cb of būn-kón̆bùg "tame animal")
"well-diver" (bùlıga "well")
"well-diver" (bùlıga "well")
"leader" (Ỏ gàad túèn "He's gone ahead")
"leader" (Ỏ gàad túèn "He's gone ahead")
"disciple" (n̆yá'ana "behind")
"disciple" (n̆yá'ana "behind")
    (dうَla/ "accompany")
    (dうَla/ "accompany")
"laugher at women" WK
"laugher at women" WK
(O là'ad pū'ab "He laughs at women")
```

(O là'ad pū'ab "He laughs at women")

```

My informants freely create and cite agent nouns in isolation，but it is unusual in practice for agent nouns to appear thus；in my materials only bāpıd \(d^{a}\)＂wise man＂， siākıd \(d^{\mathrm{a}}\)＂believer＂，sūnı \(d^{\mathrm{a}}\)＂helper＂，fāan̆d \(d^{\mathrm{a} /}\)＂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-māanna
zī-zî\da
tù'as-tù'asa
zàb-zàb}\mp@subsup{}{}{\mathrm{ a}
z\grave{t-zう``}
tòm-tōm}\mp@subsup{}{}{\mathrm{ na}
"sacrificer"
"carrier-on-head"
"talker"
"warrior" (tone sic)
"racer, athlete"
"worker"

```

Cbs occur before deverbal instrument nouns in object or adverb senses：
```

sijà-lכ̄\partialdína}\mp@subsup{}{}{a
nīn-gótì\etaa
nīn-gótis`
"spectacles"

```

If the head is a gerund，a cb pre－dependent may represent a subject or complement．For the \(-r^{\varepsilon}\)（not \(-b^{\top}\) ）suffix of these 2 －mora stem gerunds see 12．2．1．1．

If the underlying verb is transitive，a cb pre－dependent cannot be a subject．It is most often an object：
\(p u{ }_{C}^{\prime a ̀-d i ̄ ı r^{\varepsilon}}\)
nīn-kúv̀r \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
dā-núùr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
Sāmán-píər \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
bùgóm-tכ̄כn̆r \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
nう̄-ĺj̀ \({ }^{\text {と }}\)
nう̄-póว̀r \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
nう̄-náàr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
nīn-báàl-zว̄วr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)

It may represent an AdvP：
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { mذ̀-pīl| } \\
& \text { kùm-vō'vgír }
\end{aligned}
\]
```

"marriage" (Ò dì pư'ā "He's married a wife")
"murder"
"beer-drinking"
Traditional New Year ("Courtyard Cleaning")
Fire Festival ("Fire Throwing")
"fasting" ("mouth-tying")
"oath" ( }p\overline{+}+\mathrm{ "swear")
"covenant" (nā+ "join")
"pity" (Ò z\grave{t}\0̄ nīn-báalìg. "He has pity on him")

```

Although many of these are set forms，free creation of nonce－forms is possible：
fū－yźz̀r \({ }^{\varepsilon} \quad\)＂shirt－wearing＂WK

Cbs as subjects are thus confined to verbs which can be used intransitively：
```

nכ̄b-kj́\partial̀r\& "breaking a leg" (kjे+ is intransitive)
nū'-módìr }\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon}\quad\mathrm{ "swelling of the hand"
win-lïr\varepsilon
sūn̆-sáň'ט̀\eta`
sūn̆-p\varepsiloń\varepsiloǹnn\varepsilon

```

\section*{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．

\section*{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.
biïg fúùg
bì-fūug
nà'ab lā wíàf zōor
nà'ab Iā wíd-zōor
"a child's shirt" (belonging to some child)
"a children's shirt" (perhaps a small woman's)
"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-móvgū-n WK
> zà'-n亏̄כr
> mà-bïig
> bā'-bîg
> tèn-bïig
> nàsàa-sìlvg
"in elephant-bush, where there are elephants" "gate" ("compound-mouth")
"sibling" ("child by [same] mother")
"half-sibling" ("child by [same] father")
"native" ("child of a country")
"aeroplane" (European hawk) ILK

WK has the exceptional forms
náaf-bi'isím
bōog-bíisím
"cow's milk"
"goat's milk"
where the modifier has singular form and tone, but the tone sandhi is that of a compound (note the lack of \(M\) spreading after náaf-.)

A cb premodifier of a deadjectival abstract noun may have a sense much like a generic complement, but the cb in such cases is a premodifier. Deadjectival nouns are not gerunds 12.3, 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.
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { pù-pìəlım } \\
& \text { sūn̆-kpí'òn } \\
& \text { sūn̄-má'asìm } \\
& \\
& \text { nìn-tōllím } \\
& \text { wīn-tój̀g }
\end{aligned}
\]

\subsection*{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:

\author{
nā'am kúk \\ nā'am só'vlìm \\ pù'usug dój̀g \\ tūlıgír bún \\ dūgub dót \\ līgıdı tóvmà
}
```

"throne" ("chieftaincy chair")
"kingdom" ("chieftaincy possession")
"temple" ("worship house")
"heater" ("heating thing" = būn-túlıgìr\varepsilon)
"cooking pots"
"expensive work" (līgıd`+ "money")

```

Language names may appear as abstract nouns describing an ethnic group:
```

Kūsáàl yír n\overline{e} kūөb "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:
sālıma bútìn "golden cup"

Count nouns may appear if used in a mass sense 16.2.1:
```

füug dój̀g
"tent" (cloth hut)
dàad bún-nám
"wooden things" (dàug "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 būtııs
"gold goods and [gold] cups" WK 16.7

Contrast the non-referential use of mass nouns as generic complements:
```

sàlım-kù0s "gold-seller"
dā-núùd "beer-drinker"

```

Cb forms of abstract non-count nouns do sometimes occur as premodifiers:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & tàn̆p-sכ̄b \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "warrior" & (tān̆p \({ }^{\text {"war") }}\) \\
\hline & \(p u\)-pìl-sכ̄b \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "holy person" & (Rom 3:10, 1996) \\
\hline but & pù-pìlım sób \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "holy person" & (Mt 10:41, 1996) \\
\hline & pò-pìl-tōoma \({ }^{+}\) & "holy actions" & (Rom 6:13, 1996) \\
\hline but & pù-pìalım túvmà \({ }^{+}\) & "holy actions" & (Mt 5:10, 1996) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

An interesting case involving a concrete mass noun is the compound ku'à-n̆wïig "current" ("water" + "rope.") This perhaps represents "aquatic rope" in contrast to *kù'өm n̆wîg "a rope made of water"; the construction with concrete mass premodifiers may be limited to the specific sense "made of ..."

\subsection*{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 \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) áa \(^{+}\)"about" 17.6, except before the specialised head dāan \({ }^{\text {a }}\) 16.10.4.
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
dūnıya ní nìn-gbīn & "earthly body" \\
kJ̄lugu-n nó-dáv̀g & "crayfish" ("in-the-river cock") \\
Bj̀k dím & "Bawku people"
\end{tabular}

Ba da mor mכวgin bunkכnbid ne ba buudi, yin bonkכnbid ne ba buudi ...
Bà dà mòr mכ̄כgט-n bún-kón̆bìd né bà būudı, yín bún-kóňbid
3PL TNS have bush:SG-Loc thing-hair:PL and 3PL kind, house:SG:Loc thing-hair:PL
né 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 gbàung "A book about Kusaasi houses and agriculture" dàun-kànā Iā yélà gbàun "a book about that man" WK

Although the AdvPs in cases like
```

dàtiung níf
dàg\grave{bıg níf}
zūgú-n níf-gbáun
t\varepsilon̄\eta\iota-n níf-gbáun

```
"right eye"
"left eye"
"upper eyelid"
"lower eyelid"
seem to answer "which?" rather than "what kind of?", the possibility of indefinite plurals like dàtìun nínì "right eyes" or t̄̄מı-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" 17.3; like other postpositions, this is itself non-referential and remains so even though it has a specific predeterminer. Cf locative complements and focus 28.1.2.2.

\subsection*{16.10.3 Predeterminers}

The quantifier yïigá+ "firstly" appears as a predeterminer "first" 16.4.2.3, e.g.
line da an yiiga dabisir
līnı \(\quad \varnothing\) dá àn̆ yïigá 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:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline nīn-síəbà & "certain people" & sīaba & dependent \\
\hline yà sכ̄' & "some one among you" & sコ̄' & head \\
\hline nīdıb lā síabà & "certain of the people" & sīəba & head \\
\hline nīdıb síabà & "certain ones among people" & sīəba & head \\
\hline nīdıb bédugū & "a lot of people" & \(b\) bèdugū & dependent \\
\hline nīdıbá àyí & "two people" & àyí & dependent \\
\hline nīdıb bédugū Iā & "the lot of people, the crowd" & bèdugū & dependent \\
\hline nīdıbá àyí lā & "the two people" & àyí & dependent \\
\hline nīdıb lā bédvgū & "a lot of the people" & bèdugū & head \\
\hline nīdıb lá àyí & "two of the people" & àyí & head \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The sense is also partitive if the head is a relative clause with an indefinite pronoun as relative:

Pa'alimi ti nidiba ayi' nwa fon gan so'
Pà'alımī tí nīdıbá_ àyí n̆wá fón gāp sכ̄'
Teach:IMP 1PL.ob person:PL NUM:two this \(25 \mathrm{G}: \mathrm{Nz}\) choose IndF.AN
"Tell us which of these two people you have chosen" (Acts 1:24)

NP predeterminers before gerunds and other abstract nouns describing events or processes are interpreted as subjects:

Dāu lā kúlòg dāa mālısí m.
Man:sg art go.home:Ger tns be.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 \(\underline{19.10}\) may follow the head:
```

ninsaalib yadda nipir Wina'am ni
nīn-sáalìb yáddā-nípìr 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 àntư'à-mכ̄rím kótù ní nē tāaba lā
2PL case-have:GER court:SG LOC with each.other ART
"your going to law with each other in court" (1 Cor 6:7, 1976)
Ninsaal Biig la lebug la na
Nīn-sáàl Bîg lā lébòg 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-pūodír zúg

Christ death wood-cross:sG upon

Constructions of this type are rarely used in place of content clauses or as adjuncts, but most often as subjects or with postpositions.

The words \(m \bar{\varepsilon} \eta^{\mathrm{a} / ~ " s e l f ", ~ d a ̄ a n}{ }^{\mathrm{a}}\) "owner", s亏̄ba "individual" and bōnn \(\mathrm{n} \varepsilon /\) "thing" as heads have specialised senses with dependents (see below.)

In all other cases, predeterminers express possessors.
```

m̀ biig
dāu lā bîg
dāu lā bí̀r bīig náàf zūur
Kūsáàs wádà

```
"my child"
"the man's child"
"the man's elder brother's child's cow's tail"
"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.

\section*{}

Certain nouns occur exclusively as heads with a dependent. There is characteristically a specialised sense in the dependent/head relationship. (For adverbs as heads of AdvPs with preceding dependents see postpositions 17.6.)
\(\mathbf{M} \overline{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \mathbf{\eta}^{\mathbf{a} /}\) "self" is used indifferently for \(\mathrm{sg} / \mathrm{pl}\), always with a predependent:
\(\grave{m} m \bar{\varepsilon} \eta\)
yà \(m \bar{\eta} \eta\)
nà'ab lā méy "the chief himself"
chief:SG ART self

Bà ňyće_bà mēŋ. "They've seen for themselves."
3PL see 3PL self.
"myself"
"yourselves"
"Self" forms must be used for complements referring to the clause subject:
\(\dot{M}\) n̆wर́ \(\varepsilon \_m\) m̄̄ŋ. \(\quad\) "I hit myself."
1SG hit 1SG self.
not \(* \grave{M}\) n̆wé' \(\varepsilon m\) or \(* \grave{M}\) n̆w \(\varepsilon^{\prime}\) 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 po piesidi ba nu'us wov lin nar si'em la ka ditta.
Bà pū pīəsídí_bà nú'ùs wōv lín nār sỉəm lá kà dítā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). 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 \(m \bar{\eta} \eta\) implies contrast:

M̀ pío_m̀ mēŋ nú'ùs. "I washed my own hands."
1SG wash 1sG self hand:PL.

Fù mēŋ kūט bí-lìaa \(\quad+\varnothing\) ? "Yourself or the baby?"
2sG self or child-baby:SG cQ? ("Which of you needs the doctor?")

See also 16.11.3 on amēná+ "really, truly" as a postmodifier "genuine, real"; cf the adjective \(m \bar{\varepsilon} \eta i r^{\varepsilon}\) seen in \(y \bar{\varepsilon} /-m \varepsilon ́ \eta \grave{\imath} r^{\varepsilon}\) "truth" ("genuine matter.")

Dāan \({ }^{\mathbf{a}}\) "owner of ...", nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) pl, always has a preceding dependent NP or AdvP. In a few set forms this is a generic count noun cb:
```

yī-dáàn}\mp@subsup{}{}{a}\quad\mathrm{ "householder" = yī-sób }\mp@subsup{}{}{\textrm{a}}\quad\mathrm{ Hausa mài gidaa
t\varepsiloǹ\eta-dāana literally "land-owner": traditional earth-priest

```

Normally, the possession is expressed by a free NP, definite or indefinite:


An abstract possession refers to a quality, as with Hausa mài, or Arabic ذو

Even manner-adverbs can be predependents before dāanáa
būgusígā dáàn \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "softly-softly sort of person" WK

See 16.4.2.3 on the use of dāan \({ }^{\text {a }}\) with numbers to make ordinal expressions.
\(\boldsymbol{S}_{\boldsymbol{\jmath}} \boldsymbol{b}^{\mathbf{a}}\) "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.
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
Animate \(\quad\) sg & \(s \bar{\jmath} b^{a}\) \\
Animate \(\quad \mathrm{pl}\) & \(\operatorname{dim}^{\mathrm{a}}\) \\
Inanimate & \(\mathrm{sg} / \mathrm{pl}\) & \(\operatorname{dìn}^{\text {ne }}\)
\end{tabular}

With noun or pronoun predependents the meaning is possessive:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
mān dínne & "my one, mine" \\
À-Wīn dím & "Awini's family"
\end{tabular}

Fūn piáň'àd n̄̄ 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 sכ̄ba are premodifiers:
pù-pìəlım súba
pl pò-pìalım dím \({ }^{\text {a }} \quad\) "holy person" (pù-pìəlım \({ }^{m}\) "holiness")
dūnıya ní dìnne \(\quad\) "earthly one" (1 Cor 15:44)
Bj̀k dím
"Bawku people"

The quantifier yiïgá+ "first" is a predeterminer in
yīigá sว̄b \({ }^{\mathrm{a}} \quad\) "first (person)" beside yīig-sób \({ }^{\mathrm{a}}\) id

Specialised senses may be found with cb premodifiers:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline \(y\) li-sób \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "householder" & ( \(y\) īr \({ }^{\text {c/ }}\) "house") \\
\hline \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{pl yī-sób-nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\)} \\
\hline yī-dím \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{"members of the household"} \\
\hline nīf-sób \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "miser" & (nīf/ "eye") \\
\hline tàn̆p-sōb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "warrior" & (tān̆p \({ }^{\text {P "war") }}\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
```

zūg-sóba
pl zūg-sób-nàma

```

The expression \(\bar{\jmath} n s \bar{j} b^{a}\) means "the person we were just talking about."

Būn \({ }^{\mathbf{n \varepsilon} / ~ " t h i n g " ~ i s ~ p r o b a b l y ~ d e r i v e d ~ f r o m ~ t h e ~ o l d ~ g e n d e r ~ a g r e e m e n t ~ p r o n o u n ~ f o r ~}\) abstracts. It is used in many constructions as a dummy placeholder. It can make a regular \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)class plural būná \({ }^{+}\), but in placeholder use it is found indifferently as sg and pl , or pluralises with nàm \({ }^{\mathrm{a}}\) like inanimate pronouns:
```

Būn-námá_àlá kà fò ňyह̄tá +ø?
Thing-PL NUM:how.many and 2SG see:IPFV CQ?
"How many things do you see?" SB

```

It is used (beside nīn- "person" for human) as a dummy non-human cb before adjectives, avoiding the use of an adjective as complement of àeña "be" 20.2.
```

Dīb á n\overline{ būn-sú\eta. "Food is good." ("Food is a good thing.")}
Food cop foc thing-good:sG.

```

Some adjectives cannot be used as NP heads at all; būn- is necessary in:
```

būn-vórr}\mp@subsup{\varepsilon}{}{\varepsilon}\quad\mathrm{ "living thing"

```

No adjective cb may be a head, so būn- is also necessary in:
būn-píàl-kànā+/ "this white one"

Deverbal adjectives with no preceding cb are interpreted as agent nouns, so \(b \bar{n}\) - marks different meanings in e.g.
```

    būn-kúvdìr
    but kūvdír\varepsilon
"thing to do with killing"
"killer"

```

Note the idioms
būn-gín \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
būn-kúdùg \({ }^{\text {ºn }}\)

> "short chap" (informal, humorous)
> "old man" (the normal expression)
> (but pừà-n̆yá'an \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "old woman")

Būn also occurs with abstract and AdvP premodifiers:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
tūlıgír bún \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) & "heating thing, heater" \(=\) būn-túlıgìr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) \\
kü'өmī-n bún
\end{tabular}
\(B \bar{n}\) is a "thing", tangible or abstract, while din is purely a semantically empty head, with only number and gender specified:
\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { kù'өmī-n dínne } & \text { "the (non-human) one in the water, } \\
\text { aquatic one" }
\end{array}
\]

\subsection*{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 \(k a n^{\varepsilon} k a ̀ n \bar{a}^{+/}\)of the demonstrative pronouns (cf on apposition 16.8.) For quantifiers as postdeterminers see 16.11.2.2.

Compounds where the combining form is the head are formed absolutely freely with completely transparent meaning, and correspond to uncompounded constructions in most other languages. It is largely because of such head-first compounds that the combining form needs to be treated as a standard part of noun and adjective paradigms, and it is in these cases particularly that cbs remodelled segmentally on the basis of the singular form (or even the plural) 9.2.2 are frequent.
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { būvga } \\
& \text { bù-pìəlıga } \\
& \text { bù-kànā+/ } \\
& \text { bù-pìəl-kànā+/ }
\end{aligned}
\]
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { "goat" } \\
& \text { "white goat" } \\
& \text { "this goat" } \\
& \text { "this white goat" }
\end{aligned}
\]

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 \(\mathrm{sg} / \mathrm{pl}\) forms. I did not record the tones at that time, and this was probably segmental remodelling of cbs.

\subsection*{16.11.1 Adjectives}

Adjectives always follow the head, and do not themselves appear as heads, except to a very limited extent as complements to àeñ"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.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(b \bar{u} u g^{\text {a }}\) & "goat" & \(b u ̄ 0 s^{\varepsilon}\) & "goats" \\
\hline bù-pìalıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "white goat" & bù-pialıs \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "white goats" \\
\hline bù-sùn \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "good goat" & bù-sùma+ & "good goats" \\
\hline nūa+/ & "hen" & nכ̄כs \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "hens" \\
\hline nう-píalìg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "white hen" & nō-píəlìs \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & "white hens" \\
\hline njosón \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "good hen" & nj-sómà \({ }^{+}\) & "good hens" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

A second adjective or a postdeterminer pronoun can follow a first adjective, which thus itself appears as a cb:
```

nīn-wók-pìlıga
n亏̄-pí\partial̀l-kànā+/ "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\varepsilońn̆dà kùөsa
    "seller of red (i.e. dyed) cloth"
    not *fü-z\varepsilońn̆'-kù0s}\mp@subsup{}{}{\mathrm{ a}

```
i.e. adjective cbs may only precede other adjectives or postdeterminer pronouns. Compounds with adjectives may develop specialised lexical meanings:
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { nū'-bíl }{ }^{\mathrm{a}} \\
& \text { tì-sābılím }
\end{aligned}
\]
```

"finger" ("small hand")
a traditional remedy ("black medicine")

```

Several names of plant and tree species are formed in this way:
gj̀n̆'-sābılíga \({ }^{\text {a }} \quad\) Haaf gosabliga "Acacia hockii" ("black thorn")

\subsection*{16.11.1.1 Class agreement}

There are isolated set forms showing traces of the old agreement system:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline & là'-bīəlíf & "small coin" NT (lā'af "cowrie") \\
\hline cf & bỉəlá+ & "a little" \\
\hline & dà-si'ə \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "some day; perhaps" (dāar \({ }^{\text {c }}\) "day") \\
\hline & dàbıs-sī'ər \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "some day" (dàbısır \({ }^{\text {coday") }}\) \\
\hline cf & si'a+ & "some" \\
\hline & \(y \bar{\varepsilon} /\)-sóm \({ }^{\text {me }}\) & "blessing" ( \(y \bar{\varepsilon} / \varepsilon /\) "matter") \\
\hline cf & sù \({ }^{\text {ºm }}\) & "good" \\
\hline & pu'à-pāala/ & "bride" (pu'āa \({ }^{\text {a }}\) wife") \\
\hline & dà-pāala/ & "young man, son" (dāư+ "man") \\
\hline cf & pāalíg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "new" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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 \(m^{\mathrm{m}}\) class agreement in adjectives modifying \(m^{\mathrm{m}}\) class mass nouns, and also after būn "thing" when it has abstract rather than concrete sense:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline & dā-páalìm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "new millet beer" \\
\hline & & WK does not accept *dā-páàl, *dā-páalìg. \\
\hline & tì-sābılím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "black medicine", a specific traditional remedy \\
\hline & tì-vōnním \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "oral medication" ("swallowing medicine") \\
\hline & tì-kūodím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "poison" ("killing medicine") \\
\hline & \(k p a ̄ n ̆-s)^{\text {n }}\) ndim \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "anointing oil" (kpāan̆m \({ }^{\text {m/ "oil, grease") }}\) \\
\hline & būn-bכ́כdìm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "desirable thing" (1 Cor 14:1: nכ̀nlím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) "love") \\
\hline but & būn-bj́adì \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "desirable thing" (BNY p17: a sheep) \\
\hline & būn-n̆yćtìm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "the visible world" \\
\hline but & \(b u ̄ n-n ̆ y \varepsilon ́ t i r^{\varepsilon}\) & "a visible object" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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."

\subsection*{16.11.1.2 Downtoning}

Adjectives may show apocope-blocking \(\underline{6.6}\) as a downtoner (all examples KT):

Lì à nē fū-píəlìgā.
Lì à nē fū-píəlìgā lā.
Lì à \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) wíùg.
Lì à nē wíugō.
fū-wíugū \(I\) ā
Lì à nē tītā'arı.
"It's a whitish shirt."
"It's the whitish shirt."
"It's red."
"It's reddish."
"the reddish shirt"
"It's biggish."

This seems to be possible only with singular forms.

\subsection*{16.11.1.3 Ideophones}

Adjectives cannot themselves take adverbs as modifiers. In e.g.
\(L i ̀\) à \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) píəlìg pāmm. \(\quad\) "It's very white"
the adverb pāmm must be taken with the copula verb rather than the adjective; it is not possible to say
*fū-píalìg pāmm lā attempted "the very white shirt"

However, in any syntactic rôle an adjective may be immediately followed by an ideophone with intensifying force. As is common cross-linguistically, ideophones often display unusual phonological features. An ideophone is specific to a particular adjective, along with any cognate adjectival verb.

Lì à nē píalìg fáss fáss. "It's very white."
\(L i ̀\) à \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) sābılíg zím zím. "It's deep black."
Lì à nē zín̆'a wím wím. "It's deep red."

Ideophones are not limited to use with adjectives as complements of àeña "be something/somehow" but occur with adjectives in their normal modifier rôle:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline Lì à nē fū-zín̆'a wím wím. & "It's a deep red shirt." & WK \\
\hline M̀ n̆yย́ fū-zín̆'a wím wím. & "I've seen a deep red shirt." & WK \\
\hline Fū-zín'r'a wím wím bé. & "There's a deep red shirt." & WK \\
\hline M̀ bój̀d fū-zín̆'a wím wím lā. & "I want the deep red shirt." & WK \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Adjectival verbs may take ideophones as intensifiers; they share the ideophone of the corresponding adjective:

Ò à n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) wj̄k tóllìll.
Ò à n \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) gī tírıgà.

Ò wà'am tólıìlı.
Ò gìm nē tírıgà.
"She's very tall."
"She's very short."
"She's very tall."
"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 súnā pāmm.
Lì à n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) b \(\bar{\varepsilon} ' \varepsilon d\) pāmm.
Lì zùlım pāmm.
Lì mà'as pāmm.
"It's very good."
"It's very bad."
"It's very deep."
"It's very damp."

Apart from adjectival verbs, I have found no unequivocal ideophones in use with verbs; thus only
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
Ò tùm pāmm. & "She's worked hard." \\
Ò tòm hālí. & "She's worked hard." 28.6 \\
Ò zj̀ pāmm. & "She's run a lot." \\
Ò zj̀ hālí. & "She's run a lot."
\end{tabular}

However, many verbs can be followed by "onomatopoeic" words which resemble ideophones at least in phonology:

Ò zòt nē tólìb tólìb.
"He [a rabbit] is running lollop-lollop." WK

Such words occur very frequently in the collection of traditional stories "Kusaal Solima ne Siilima." They are evidently stereotyped and often show phonological features not found in the regular vocabulary, but they do not seem to be uniquely associated with particular verbs and are perhaps more of the nature of the "rat-tattat" onomatopoeic words familiar in European languages.

For more detail on Kusaal ideophones see Abubakari 2017.

\subsection*{16.11.1.4 Bahuvrihis}

The combination noun + adjective may be used as a bahuvrihi adjective itself:

Lì à nē nū'-kpíilón.
Bīig lā á nē nū'-kpíilóy.
Ò à nē bí-[nū'-kpíilón].
"It's a dead hand."
"The child is dead-handed."
"He's a dead-handed child."

In constructions like bì-nū'-kpíilón \({ }^{\text {n }}\) "child with a withered hand" the adjective is modifying the cb immediately preceding it, not vice versa. It is not possible to say *bì-nū'-kpîmm \({ }^{m}\), and in such constructions the adjective may even be plural despite singular reference of the whole noun + adjective compound:
```

    bì-tùb-kpīda++ "deaf child" (tùbur\varepsilon "ear", kpì+ "die")
    plural bì-tùb-kpīda náma
or bì-tùb-kpīdıs}\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon
bì-tùb-lī\imathd}\mp@subsup{d}{}{\varepsilon}\quad\mathrm{ "child/children with blocked ears"
(l̄}+\mathrm{ "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:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline & kùg-nכ̄b-wók \({ }^{\text {ºn }}\) & "long-legged stool" \\
\hline & kùg-nכ̄b-wá'àd \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "long-legged stools" \\
\hline & zūg-máuk \({ }^{\text {ºn }}\) & \\
\hline pl & zūg-má'àd \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "crushed-headed" \\
\hline & \(z u ̀-w \bar{j} k^{\text {/ }}\) & "long-tailed" \\
\hline & nכ̄b-gín \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "short-legged" \\
\hline & zū-p \(\varepsilon\) ¢/ı̀g \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "bald"; cf Dau sכ' zug ya'a pie \\
\hline pl & zū-péعlà \({ }^{+}\) & "If a man has gone bald" (Leviticus 13:40) \\
\hline & lām-fój̀g & "toothless" (lām \({ }^{\text {me/ }}\) "gum" fùe+ "draw out") \\
\hline pl & lām-fój̀d \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & 9.2.1 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The two adjectives "one of a pair" 16.4.2.3 are often used in bahuvrihis:
ňyàuk \({ }^{\top} \mathrm{pl}\) ňyà'ad \(d^{\varepsilon}\) for eyes:
nīf-ňyáuk \({ }^{\top}\)
"one eye"
bà-nīf-n̆yáuk \({ }^{\top}\)
"one-eyed dog"
yīun \(\sum^{2 / ~ p l ~ y i ̄ n a ́+~ o f ~ o t h e r ~ p a i r e d ~ b o d y ~ p a r t s: ~}\)
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
tòb-yīun \(\eta^{\prime}\) & "one ear" \\
bì-tùb-yīná+ & "one-eared children" \\
nכ̄b-yíun \({ }^{\text {J }}\) & "one-legged" \\
nū'-yíun & "one-handed"
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{16.11.1.5 Nouns as adjectives}

Human-reference nouns may be used as adjectives modifying other humanreference nouns. This is particularly common with \({ }^{\text {a }} \mid b^{\text {a }}\) class words:
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
& bì-sāana/ or bì-sáan \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "stranger-child" \\
only \\
bù-sáan & & "stranger goat"
\end{tabular}
bì-kpi im \({ }^{\mathrm{m} /}\)
or bì-kpìilún \({ }^{3}\)
only bù-kpiilún \({ }^{\text {º }}\)
"dead child"
"dead goat"
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline & bì-dāu\({ }^{+}\) & \\
\hline or & bì-dāog \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "male child" \\
\hline only & bù-dāog \({ }^{\text {² }}\) & "male goat" \\
\hline & bì-pu'āa or bì-pưāk \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "female child" \\
\hline & bì-zū'өm \({ }^{\mathrm{m} /}\) & \\
\hline or & bì-zùnzòn \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "blind child" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The same behaviour is also seen with some agent nouns:

> pư'à-zàaňs
> nīn-nén
> bì-sīn \(^{\text {na/ }}\) or bì-sīnníg
only bù-sīnníg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) or bù-sīnnúg \({ }^{\text {ºn }}\)
"dreamy woman" KT
"envious person"
"silent child"
"silent goat"

However, WK usually reports a contrast between agent nouns/deverbal adjectives with head-second compounds in \({ }^{a} \mid b^{a}\) class and head-first compounds in \(g^{\text {a }} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) or \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)class, even with derivatives of intransitive verbs:
```

pu'à-kūvdíga "murderous woman, murderess"
pu'à-kōvdd/ ol}\mp@subsup{}{}{\mathrm{ / }
pu'à-lā'adıga
pư'à-lā'ada
"woman given to laughing"
"laugher at women"

```

Nouns (of any class) expressing bodily defects can be used adjectivally:

> bì-zùnzòna
> bì-gìk
> bì-wàbır
> bì-bālērug
> bì-ṗ̆n̆'วr
"blind child"
"dumb child"
"lame child"
"ugly child"
"crippled child"

Other examples include:
nàsàa-bïig \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
yàmmug-bī-púna
yàm-bī-púna
cf yàmmug bí-póna
bī-pún-yàmmuga \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
nà'-bïiga
bì-nà'aba
dàu-biig \({ }^{a}\)
cf bì-dāu \({ }^{+}\)
```

"European child"
"girl slave"
(written yamug bipun Acts 16:16, 1976 9.2.2)
"girl slave" (WK's preferred form)
"slave's girl"
"slave girl"
"prince" ("royal child" not "boy king")
id
"male child"
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.

\subsection*{16.11.2 Postdeterminers}

\subsection*{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.

\subsection*{16.11.2.2 Quantifiers}

Quantifiers as NP dependents follow the head, except for yīigá \({ }^{+}\)"firstly." A head can appear as a cb only with yīnní+ "one" and in a few fixed expressions 16.4.2.1; elsewhere, quantifiers are not subject to \(L\) spreading:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
kūg-yínnì & "one stone" \\
Kūgor yīnní+ & "one stone"
\end{tabular}

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.

\author{
nīdıb bédugū \\ nīdıb bédugū lā \\ nīdıbá àyí \\ nīdıbá àyí lā
}
```

"a lot of people"
"the lot of people, the crowd"
"two people"
"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'andدlib pii ne yi
ò ňyà'an-dう̀llıb pīi n̄ yí
3AN after-follower:PL ten with two
"his twelve disciples" (Mt 26:20)

\subsection*{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 16.10.3.

Apart from this, the use of AdvPs as postdeterminers is marginal.
The manner-adverb amēŋá "really, truly" occurs meaning "genuine, real":
J̄n sכ̄b á nē dư'átà amēŋá lā.

3AN.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 dāan \({ }^{\mathrm{a}}\) 16.10.4.

My informants supplied
n̆wādıs yóv̀m lā póvgū-n
wābug mכ̄دgu-n lā
"months in the year" SB
"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 \(\dot{M}\) dāa n̆y \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) wābug mj̄ogu-n lā "I saw an elephant in the bush." The 1976 NT at Mk 1:1 has

Lina ane labasun Jesus Christ Wina'am Biig la yela.
Lìnā á nē lábà-sùn Jesus Christ Wínà'am bîg lā yélà. dem.del.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 Ia Iabasun.
Lìnā á nē Yesu Kiristo ónì à Wínà'am bîg lā lábà-sùn. dem.del.inan cop foc Yesu Kiristo rel.an cop God child:sg art news-good:sg.

\section*{17 Adverbial phrases}

\subsection*{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 16.10.2.3. AdvPs of time, circumstance or reason appear as postlinker adjuncts 21.2.1 or VP adjuncts 19.9, often kà-preposed 28.2; 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 \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\).

\subsection*{17.2 Time and circumstance}

Adverbial phrases expressing time may be instantiated by proadverbs 17.7 or by distinctive time adverbs which do not have the structure of nouns, such as
```

zīná+
sù'0sa
dūnná+

```
```

"today"

```
"today"
"yesterday"
"yesterday"
"this year"
```

"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. bēog \({ }^{\text {ºmorrow"; dāar }}{ }^{\varepsilon}\) "day after tomorrow/day before yesterday" is in the same category but happens to be homophonous with the ordinary noun dāar \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "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 30.8 and e.g.
```

yó'un
nintā\etaa/
úunn\varepsilon

```
```

"night"

```
"night"
"heat of the day, early afternoon"
"heat of the day, early afternoon"
"dry season"
```

"dry season"

```

Adverbial phrases expressing circumstances are typically absolute clauses; such clauses are also frequently used to express time 25.2 .

No formal distinction is made between a point in time and a period over which a state of affairs persists:

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

Tì kpélìm ànínā dábısà bíəlà.
1PL remain ADV:there day:PL few.
"We stayed there a few days."

Time AdvPs can be coordinated:

B \(\bar{\varepsilon} o g v-n \quad n \bar{\varepsilon}\) záàm kà fô ná nī tí-kàpā.
Morning-Loc with evening and 2sGirr do medicine-dem.del.sg.
"You'll use this medicine morning and evening."

\subsection*{17.3 Place}

Locative adverbs comprise proforms along with Kusaasi place names; other locative AdvPs use the locative particle \(n \bar{l}^{+/} \sim n^{\varepsilon}\). It is not possible to use a noun other than a place name by itself as a place adverb, unless it has become a postposition 17.6; synchronically such 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 \(n \bar{l}^{+/}\)and \(n^{\varepsilon}\) along with zero allomorph accompanying the "intrinsically locative" forms discussed below; like all postpositions, this is never referential even though it has a predeterminer. This accounts for the availability of all kinds of locative AdvP as NP premodifiers 16.10.2.3 and for the focus behaviour of locatives 28.1.2.2.

The form \(n \bar{l}^{+/}\)is used after words ending in a vowel in SF, after pronouns and after loanwords; the liaison enclitic \(n^{\varepsilon}\) is used elsewhere:
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
mò'arī-n & "in a lake" & yōdá \(n i ̀\) & "among names" \\
\(\dot{m} n \bar{\imath}\) & "in me" & \(m a ̄ n ~ n i ̄\) & "in me"
\end{tabular}
la'asug dכodin ne suoya ni
là'asug dóכdī-n nē sưēyá nì
assembly:sG house:PL-LOC with road:PL LOC
"in the synagogues and in the streets" (Mt 6:2)

Yīre/ "house" has the exceptional sg and pl locative forms yín \({ }^{\text {nع }}\) yáa-n \(n^{\varepsilon}\) which have the particular nuance "home", as in the parting formula
```

Pò'usım yín. "Greet (those) at home." i.e. "Goodbye."

```

Note also the locative adverb yì \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "outside."
The article \(\bar{I}^{+}{ }^{+/}\)may precede or follow the locative particle:
mù'arī-n lā
or
mò'ar lā ní "in the lake"

Quantifiers may also follow the locative particle:
m gbana ni wusa \(\quad\) "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 búlugū-nı_ø píə_fù nīní.
Go:Imp Siloam well:sg-loc cat wash 25 eye:pl.
"Go to the well of Siloam and wash your eyes." (Jn 9:7)

Ka Suntaana kpen' Judas [...] sunfun.
Kà Sōtáanà kpén̆' Judas [...] sún̆ft-n.
And Satan enter Judas [...] heart:SG-Loc.
"Satan entered Judas' heart." (Lk 22:3)

Ka Pailet Izn yi nidibin la na ya'asi yeli ba ye...
Kà Pailet lém yī nīdıbí-n lā nā yá'àsı_ø yह́li_bā ȳ̄...
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.
O bè síá'arī-n.
Ò bè pว̄วgú-n.
"He's at market."
"He's at the bush."
"He's at the farm."

Ò bè yín.
Ò bè sākulí-n.
Ò bè mうَدgu-n.
Ò bè kJ̄lıgı-n
Ò bè tūטmmı-n.
"He's at home."
"He's at school."
"He's in the grasslands."
"He's at the stream."
"He's at work."

More precise locative meanings are expressed with postpositions, many of which themselves include the locative particle 17.6.

Ò dìgıl gbáun lā tézbòl 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-kànā lā póvgū-n.
Man:sg art exist foc hut-dem.del.sg art inside:sg-loc.
"The man is inside that hut."

Kusaasi place names \(\underline{30.3}\), 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):

Ò bè BJ́k.
Ò bè Tદ́mpáan.
Ò kèŋ Bók.
Ò dìgıl gbáun lā té \(\varepsilon b u ̀ l ~ l a ̄ ~ z u ́ g . ~\)
```

dàtìu\eta or ditún`
dàgj̀bıga
àg\partiaĺl\varepsilon
lāllí+

```
"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" (? lāl ní+

Place names often have a locative proform in apposition, particularly to express rest at a place, as opposed to movement towards or away:

M̀ ná \(k \bar{\varepsilon} \eta\) Bók.
Fù yúùg Bók kpz̄láa?
Fò yúùg Bókàa? SB

> "I'm going to Bawku."
> "Have you been long in Bawku (here)?" (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 \(n \bar{\imath}^{+/}\)or paraphrases like Jerusalem téyī-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 \(\underline{25.3}\) :

One ken likin zi' on ken si'ela.
J̀nı kēn līkı-n zī' ón kēn sỉəla \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
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 ken zin'ikane ka fu po boدda.
kà mōrí_ fù ø kēท zíñ'-kànı kà fù pū bóכdā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
and have 2 SG.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:
```

b\overline{\varepsilon}
b\varepsilon̄ogu-n}\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon/
sān-sí'訁̄-n lā
yïgíl-n
"tomorrow"
"morning"
"at one time, once..." 21.2.1
"at first"

```

Locative AdvPs can be coordinated:

Nyalima na be winnigin ne nwadigin ne nwadbibisin.
Ňyālımá nà be wínnìgī-n n̄̄ n̆wādıgí-n n̄̄ n̆wād-bíbısī-n.
Wonder:PLIRR 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 zūg "upon" 17.6; similarly for proforms:
àlá zùg \({ }^{\supset}\) "therefore" bう̄ zúg \({ }^{\text { }}\) "why?"
dìn zúg \({ }^{\text { }}\) "therefore"

\section*{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 6．6．Some have the manner－adverb prefix à－ 14.2 or are derived from adjective stems with the suffixes \(m^{\mathrm{m}}\) or \(-\mathrm{ga}{ }^{+} \underline{12.3}\) ．Others include
```

pāalú+ "openly"
ňyāen\varepsilon/ "brightly, clearly" written nyain 1.3.2

```
\(\check{N} y \bar{a} e^{\mathrm{n} \varepsilon /}\) shows the characteristic distribution of a manner－adverb rather than a noun，appearing as complement of àeñ \(n^{\text {a }}\)＂be something＂and as an adjunct：

Wina＇am a su＇um nyain．＂God is light．＂（1 Jn 1：5，1996）
Wínà＇am án̆ súm n̆yāe．
God COP good：ABSTR brightly．
．．．ke ka ti lieb nyain．＂．．．make us light．＂（1 Jn 1：7）
．．．ké kà tì líàb n̆yāe．
．．．cause and 1pL become brightly．

Ka li sid nie nyain．
＂And there truly was light．＂（Genesis 1：3）
Kà lì síd nìe n̆yāe．
And zinan truly appear brightly．

A number of manner－adverbs are formed by reduplication of roots．
```

nà'anā+/
tう̀'วtラ̄+/ "straight away" (Mooré taotao id)
kう̄n''\mp@code{jo`+ "solely, by oneself"}
"easily"

```

Reduplication of nouns forms a number of distributive manner－AdvPs：
dàbısır dábısìr
zin̆＇ig zíñ＇ìg
＂day by day＂
＂place by place＂

Reduplication of number words is similarly distributive 16．4．2．4．
Reduplication of manner－adverbs themselves is intensifying：
àm \(\bar{\eta}\) á mēpá
àsídà sídà

M̀ wóm Kūsáàl bỉəlá. "I know Kusaal a little."
1SG hear:IPFV Kusaal slightly.

M wóm bī’əl bīəəl. \(\quad\) I understand a very little."
"very truly"
"very truly"

1sG hear:IPFV little little.

A very common form of manner-AdvP is a relative clause using the proform \(s \upharpoonright \quad \partial m^{\mathrm{m}}\) "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:
```

M k\varepsilońy nכ̄bá.
"I went on foot." SB; WK corrected this to
1SG go leg:PL.

```


A prepositional phrase with \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) parallels a count plural used adverbially in

À-n̆ȳ̄ n̄ nīf són̆'כ_ À-wòm 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 tùm bédugū.
Ò tòm pāmm.
"She's worked a lot."
"She's worked a lot."

Wūsa "all" readily switches from quantifying an object to adverbial use:

Bà gòsī tí wōsa. "They've looked at us all." WK
3PL look.at 1PL.OB all. (for: Bà gj̀sí tì wūsa. 3PL look.at 1PL all.)

This is not a universal property of quantifiers:

Bà gj̀sī tí bédvgū. "They've looked at us a lot." WK
Bà gòsí tì bèdugū.
"They've looked at a lot of us." WK

Numbers have specific forms for the adverbial meaning "so many times" 16.4.2.4; the other count quantifiers sometimes appear similarly as adverbs:

Bà gj̀sī tí bábıgā.
Bà gj̀sí tì bàbıgā.
"They've looked at us many times." WK
"They've looked at many of us." WK

Manner AdvPs can be coordinated: so for example with si'əm clauses 25.3.1.

\subsection*{17.5 AdvPs as verb arguments}

The prototypical use of AdvPs is as VP adjuncts; time/circumstance AdvPs also commonly appear as postlinker adjuncts:

Fò dúe wēlá \({ }^{+}\)? ? literally "How did you rise?"; morning greeting.
2SG rise how CQ?

Nānná-ná m̀ án̆ 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 àeñ" "be something /somehow" 20.2. Adjectival verbs may also have an AdvP subject, and there are a few examples with other verbs:

Yip venl, ka poogin ka'a su'um.
Yìn vén̆l kà pōטgv-n kā' súmm \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
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 yela la ke ka ti baŋ nopilim an si'em.
Kristo_ø dà kpìi_tì yēlá lā ké kà tì bán nว̀ıılím_ø àn̆ sỉəm.
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)
(absolute clause AdvP 25.2 as subject)

In Sùnā bé. "OK it is." WK
Good:ADV EXIST.
sùgā is however used metalinguistically, meaning "the word sònā."
Verbs with appropriate meanings frequently take locative AdvPs as complements, rather than as adjuncts 19.8.3.

The verb àeñ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "be something/somehow" typically has a derived manner-adverb or abstract noun as complement rather than an adjective as NP head 20.2:

Lì à nē zāalím.
Lì à nē būgusígā.
Lì à sónā.
"It's empty."
"It's soft."
"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 nípì_àláa +ø! "Don't do that!" ("thus")

```

NEG.IMP do ADV:thus neg.

Fu wom ban yet si'em laa?
Fù wóm bán yèt sỉəm 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 bigısıd ón àn̆ sỉəm.
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 \(s{ }^{\prime} \quad \partial m^{m}\) "somehow" as head are accordingly used after verbs of cognition, reporting and perception, to express the subordinate interrogative sense "say [etc] what ..." 25.3.1.

For the idiom "X nìŋ wz̄lá ...?" "how can X ...?" see 23.2.1.

\subsection*{17.6 Postpositions}

Postpositions are adverbs with a predeterminer 16.10.3. Most are either literally or metaphorically locative. Postpositional phrases are AdvPs and can be preposed with kà 28.2 freely, unlike prepositional phrases with \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\). 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 16.10.2.3.

Postpositions may not be coordinated, but their predeterminers may:
tinam ne fon suogine? "between us and you?" (Mt 8:29)
tīnám n̄̄ fūn sóvgū-né \(\quad{ }^{+}\)?
1 PL with 25 g between-Loc PQ?

Many postpositions are readily recognisable as special uses of ordinary nouns. Some postpositions are AdvPs including the locative particle.
\(z u ̄ g^{3 /}\)
tદ́عbùl lā zúg
\(Z \bar{u} g^{J /}\) is frequently used metaphorically to express a reason "because of ..."
dāu lā zúg
bj̄-zúgう̀?

Mán n̆wè' 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 kà, they may also occur as postlinker adjuncts 21.2.1:

Pian'akane ka m pian' tisi ya la zug, ya ane nyain.
Pịàn̆'-kànı kà m̀ piān̆'_ø tísi yā lā zúg, yà á n̄̄ n̆yāe.
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 sāa zúg̉ is used for "sky"; it is intrinsically locative:

Ka kukor yi saazug na ...
Kà kùkכ̄r yī sāa zúg nā...
And voice emerge rain onto hither
"And a voice came from heaven..." (Jn 12:28)

\section*{\(z u ̄ g v^{-} n^{\varepsilon}\)}
tદ́とbùl lā zúgū-n
t̄̄ŋír \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
téعbùl lā tદ́ŋìr
"on"
"on the table"
"under" (t \(\eta^{a}\) "ground")
"under the table"

As a locative adverb without a predeterminer:

Gj̀sım tēŋír!
pōogu-n \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
dūk lā póvgū-n
n̆wādıs yóv̀m lā póvgū-n
bābá+
m̀ nכ̄bá bàba
sìsùvgū- \(\boldsymbol{n}^{\varepsilon /}\)
tīnám nē fūn sísòvgū-n

\section*{tù̀ \(n^{n \varepsilon}\)}
dāká lā túèn
cf Gう̀sım túèn!
gbìn \({ }^{n \varepsilon}\)
zūer lā gbín
n̆yá'an \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
lì n̆yá'ana
"Look down!", more commonly Gj̀sım tēŋı-n!
"inside" (pūvga "belly, inside")
"in the pot"
"months in the year" (metaphorical locative)
"beside" (pl of bābır \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) "sphere of activity")
"beside my feet"
"between" (replaced by sòvgū-n \(n^{\varepsilon /}\) in KB)
"between us and you"
"in front of"
"in front of the box"
"Look to the front", without a predeterminer
"at the bottom of" (gbìnn "buttock")
"at the foot of the mountain"
"behind; after (time)" (ňyá'aŋa "back")
"afterwards" as a postlinker/VP adjunct 21.2.1
\(N \varepsilon \bar{\prime} \eta a ́ \quad n ̆ y a ́ ' a ̀ \eta ~ k a ̀ ~ o ̀ ~ k u ̄ l . ~\)
dem.del.Inan after and 3an go.home.
"After this she went home."

\section*{\(\operatorname{sā}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{n}^{\varepsilon /}\)}

Wínà'am sá'àn
"into/in the presence of", "in the opinion of"
"in the sight of God"

Fù ná dỉe tíim pư'á-bàmmā lā sá'àn.
2SG IRR receive medicine woman-DEM.DEI.PL ART among.
"You'll get the medicine from where those women are."

Bà \(y\) ह̀ \(\cdot \bar{o}\)＿\(\varnothing\) mān y \(\bar{l}\) lá wūsa．
3PL say 3AN．OB 1SG．CNTR about all
＂They told him all about me．＂
kōn̆＇כkj̄
m̀ kラ̄n̆＇วkう̄
cf àdàkón̆＇＂one＂16．4．2．2
＂by myself＂

\section*{17．7 Proadverbs}

Adverbs have corresponding proforms．
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multirow{5}{*}{Place} & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{Demonstrative} & \multirow[t]{5}{*}{\begin{tabular}{l}
Indefinite \\
zìn＇－sỉa＋ \\
＂somewhere＂
\end{tabular}} & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{Interrogative} \\
\hline & \(k p \bar{\varepsilon}^{+}\) & ＂here＂ & & yáa ní \({ }^{+}\) & ＂where？＂ \\
\hline & kpı̄lá＋ & ＂there＂ & & yáa & ＂whither \\
\hline & àní \({ }^{+}\) & ＂there＂ & & & ／whence？＂ \\
\hline & ànínā＋／ & ＂there＂ & & & \\
\hline \multirow[t]{3}{*}{Time} & nānná \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂now＂ & sān－sí＇a＋ & sān－kán \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & ＂when？＂ \\
\hline & nānná－nā＋／ & ＂now＂ & ＂sometime＂ & būn－dáàr \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & ＂which day？＂ \\
\hline & sān－kán \({ }^{\text { }}\) & ＂then＂ & & \(b う-w i n^{\text {ne }}\) & ＂what time of day？＂ \\
\hline \multirow[t]{3}{*}{Manner} & àn̆wá＋ & ＂like this＂ & si＇əm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & wēlá \({ }^{+}\) & ＂how？ \\
\hline & àwá \(n \bar{a}^{+/}\) & ＂like this＂ & ＂somehow＂ & & \\
\hline & àlá＋ & ＂like that＂ & & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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－ 1 8．2．1；contrast proquantifiers 16．4．3．

Proforms expressing reason are formed with the postposition zūg \({ }^{\prime \prime} 17.6\) ： àlá zùg＂because of that＂，bう̄zúgう̀？＂why？＂（cf bj̄ zúg亏̄＂because＂21．2．1．）

\section*{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 \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) "with", the prepositions are also used as clause adjuncts 21.2.1.
\(\boldsymbol{N} \overline{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}\) is "with" in both accompanying and instrumental senses. The \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) "and" which coordinates NPs and AdvPs 16.7 is fundamentally the same word. \(N \bar{\varepsilon}\) may only take NPs or AdvPs as complements (including nominalised \(\grave{n}\)-clauses.)

WK has forms with bound personal pronouns as complements; note the H toneme on the preposition:
```

níma
nífo ní yā+/
n`óoc [nõ(:)] ní bā+/
nílī+/

```

The ne o of the 1996 NT version is frequently read [nõ] in the audio.
Other speakers only use \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) with free pronouns; WK has alternative forms also with né before those clitic pronouns which have a vowel in SF: né \(l i, n \varepsilon ́ t i ̀, ~ n \varepsilon ́ ~ y a ̀, ~ n \varepsilon ́ ~\) bà, with the pronouns having L toneme throughout; SB has the same forms.

Examples for \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) :

Lìgıním_fù nīf né fù nú'ùg.
Cover:IMP 2SG eye:sG with 2SG hand:SG.
"Cover your eye with your hand."

Bà kèn n̄̄ nכ̄bá. "They've gone on foot." WK
3PL go with leg:PL.

Dìm nē Wīn, dā tú'às n̄ Wīnné \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
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 ne sumbogosom.
"Go home in peace." (Mk 5:34)
Kùlım \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) sùmbūgusím.
Go.home:Imp with peace.
[Bárıkà né fù] kēn kēn.
[Blessing with 2sG] arrival arrival.
"Welcome!" (a greeting template 29)
\(\grave{M}\) gén̆' nغ́ fù. "I'm angry with you." SB
1SG get.angry:PRV with 2SG.

The compound preposition là'am n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) "together with" derives from a \(n\)-catenation construction 23.2.2:
...mor ya'am yinne la'am ne ten'عsa yinne.
... mכ̄r yā'm yīnní là'am n̄̄ tēn̆'عsá yīnní.
... have sense one together with thought one.
"... had one mind together with one thought." (Acts 4:32)

Wēv means "like." With pronoun complements WK has
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
wōv mān LF mán \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) & wóv tì \\
wōט fōn LF fónह̄ & wóv yà \\
wōט \(\bar{n} n^{\varepsilon}\) & wóv bà \\
wóv lì &
\end{tabular}

WK permits phrases introduced by wōv to be preposed with kà 28.2, but rejects this construction for \(n \bar{\varepsilon}+\mathrm{NP}\) :

Wōv bún né kà ò zót.
Like donkey:sG like and 3an run:IPFV.
"Like a donkey, he runs."
but *Né m̀ nú'ùg kà m̀ sīls.
With 1sg hand:sg and 1sG touch.
is not possible for "With my hand, I touched it."

The complement is often a si'əm relative clause 25.3.1:

Ò ż̀t wōvbún ǹ zว̀t sỉəm lā.
3AN run:IPFV like donkey:SG nz run:IPFV INDF.ADV ART.
"He runs like a donkey runs."

W̄̄ט occurs often after w \(\bar{\varepsilon} n^{n a / ~ " r e s e m b l e ", ~ i n t r o d u c i n g ~ i t s ~ c o m p l e m e n t ; ~ t h e ~}\) 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 \(l \bar{a}+/\), even if it is a pronoun, or is specific:
\(w \bar{O} \cup m a ̄ n n \bar{\varepsilon}\)
wōט bú n \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\)
"like me"
"like a donkey"

Ka o nindaa wenne nintan ne.
Kà ò nīn-dáa wēn nē nīntāク n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\).
And 3AN eye-face:sG resemble with sun:sg like.
"His face is like the sun." (Rev 10:1, 1996)

Alazugə mori ya'am wov wiigi ne...
Àlá zùgō, mòrī yā'm wōv wīigí n \(\bar{\varepsilon} . .\).
Therefore, have sense like snake:pl like...
"Therefore, be wise as serpents ..." (Mt 10:16)

Wōט, w \(\bar{\varepsilon} n ~ w \bar{o} v\), 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:
wō tūsá àyí "about 2000"
like thousand:PL num:two
\(W \bar{\varepsilon} n n \bar{\varepsilon} X\) and \(w \bar{\varepsilon} n w_{\bar{v}} \overline{ } X\), using \(w \bar{\varepsilon} n^{\text {na/ }}\) "resemble" in \(n\)-catenation 23.2.2, behave as unitary prepositional phrases to the extent that the entire sequence \(w \bar{\varepsilon} n+\) preposition + complement can be preposed with kà, or extraposed after the negative prosodic clitic:

Da lo ya nindaase, wenne foosug dim la nipid si'em la.
Dā ló yà nīn-dáas \(\bar{\varepsilon}{ }^{+} \varnothing\), wēn \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) fว̄כsúg dím lá_ \(\varnothing\)
NEG.IMP tie 2PL eye-face:PL neg, resemble with puff:Ger individual.pL ART Nz
nìıld sïəm lā.
do:IPFV INDF.ADV ART.
"Don't screw up your faces like the hypocrites do." (Mt 6:16, 1976)
Àsćs \(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^{=}\)is "except for" ( \(\leftarrow\) Hausa sai)
àsćє Wínà'am
"except for God" (calquing the Twi gye Nyame)

For pronoun complements the free forms are used.

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 \(\qquad\) ちatta: (Heath 2005.)

O daa pun ane ninkuvd hali pin'ilugun sa.
Ò dāa pún à nē nīn-kúv̀d hālí pīn̆'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.
Hālí+ can also appear as a prelinker adjunct and as an emphatic 28.6. As emphatic "even" preceding \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) or là'am n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) "(together) with" and a ǹ-clause complement, it produces the meaning "despite, even though, even as":

Hali la'am ne on daa an yelsum wusa daan la, o da lieb nכמdaan...
Hālí là'am n̄̄ ón dāa án̆ yह̄l-súm wūsa dáàn lā,
Even together with 3AN:NZ TNS COP matter-goodness all owner:SG ART,
ò dà lìəb nכ̄-dáàn...
3AN TNS become poverty-owner:SG...
"Despite his having possessed every blessing, he became poor..." (2 Cor 8:9)

Zugsob yعl ye, Hali ne man voe nwa...
Zūg-sób y \(\varepsilon_{l}\) y \(\bar{\varepsilon}\), Hālí n̄̄ mán vōe ñwá...
head-one:sg say that even with 1sG:Nz be.alive this ...
"The Lord says: Even as I live .." (Rom 14:11)
hali ne man daa sobi tisi ya si'em la, m daa pu sobi li
hālí n̄ mán dāa sכ̄bı_ ø tísì yā sīəm lā
even with 1SG:NZ TNS write CAT give 2PL.OB INDF.ADV ART
m̀ dāa pū sōbí \(\ \bar{\imath} . .\).
1SG TNS NEG.IND write 3INAN.ob ...
"Despite how I wrote to you, I did not write it ..." (2 Cor 7:12)

\section*{19 Verb phrases}

\subsection*{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 \(-m^{\text {a }}\) 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 2 nd pl subject pronoun \({ }^{\text {ya }}\).

Clitic VP particles occur in a fixed order:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & Tense & & Mood & Preverb & & LE1 & LE2 \\
\hline lદ̀ & dàa & nàm & \(\varnothing\) ø \(\bar{\nu}^{\prime}\) & pòn & VERB & \(n^{\varepsilon}\) & \(m^{\text {a }}\) \\
\hline & sàa & n̆y \(\varepsilon\) ¢(tı) & \(\varnothing \leftrightarrow d \bar{a}\) & lèm & & ya & \(f^{\circ}\) \\
\hline & \(\varnothing\) & & nà \(\leftrightarrow k\) ù & tì & & & - \\
\hline & pà' & & & kpغ̀lım & & & \(\iota^{+}\) \\
\hline & sà & & & là'am & & & \(t{ }^{+}\) \\
\hline & dāa & & & dèyım & & & \(y a^{+}\) \\
\hline & dà & & & \(\ldots\) & & & \(b a^{+}\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\(\varnothing\) 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 19.7.3.
For lદ̀ "but" see 19.7.1; for nàm "still" and n̆y \(\bar{\varepsilon}(t \iota)\) "habitually" see 19.3.2.
Tone Pattern LO verbs have all-M tones in the irrealis mood 7.3.

\subsection*{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. Dualaspect 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 19.6.2.2. 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 \(\boldsymbol{n} \overline{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}^{+/} \underline{\text { 28.1.2 }}\) 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 \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)) and "habitual" (without \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)) aspects. After perfectives which express a change of state in the subject, \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\) typically occurs when there is a resultative sense.

The focus particle \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)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 \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)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 \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\). After perfectives the temporal use of \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)is only possible if the verb expresses a change of state in the subject.

\subsection*{19.2.1 Perfective}

The perfective is the least marked and most neutral of the aspects, being appropriate whenever there is no progressive, habitual or stative sense. It is thus not comparable to the marked perfective aspect of Russian, and in particular it is not incompatible with a present tense interpretation. It may correspond to the English "simple present" (when this is not habitual), which is likewise unmarked over against the progressive form. The perfective of verbs which express a change of state in the subject may have a resultative meaning. Perfective is the usual aspect found with the irrealis mood to express future events. Nevertheless, in contexts where there is no tense marking, perfective often does have an implication of completion, in contrast with the imperfective.

In fact, the perfective often does occur without tense marking, either explicit or implicit from context 19.3.5. 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 kpì yā.
3an die pfv.

Sāa dāa ní. "It rained." (before yesterday.)
Rain tws rain.

Sāa pá' nì yā.
"It rained." (earlier today.)
Rain tNs rain PFV.
but Sāa ní yā.
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:
```

Ò yèl y\overline{\varepsilon}...
"He says ...." (translating for the foreign doctor) 3AN say that ...

```

Performatives naturally fall into this category:

M púvòs yā.
1sG greet pFV.

M síák yā.
1SG agree PFV.
"Thankyou", "I thank you."
(cf Hausa Naa goodèe, also perfective)
"I agree."

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:

M̀ n̆y nū'-bíbısá_ àtán̆'.
1sG see hand-small:PL num:three.
"I can see three fingers."
```

M tÉn̆'\varepsiloǹs 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 bj̀dıg yā.
3inan lose pFV.
Lì bj̀dıgn\overline{\varepsilon}.
"It's lost."
3inan lose foc.

```

In this sense, perfectives are typically followed by the particle \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\). The meaning arises from the nature of the verb; the particle has its normal temporal meaning "temporary or contingent; at the time referred to in particular." However, temporal \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)is not compatible with the perfective aspect in its usual eventive sense, so a perfective followed by temporal \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)must be taken as resultative.
```

Ò kpì nē.
3An die foc.
"He's dead."
(Not temporary, but still contingent.)
Lì sàň'am n\overline{\varepsilon}.
"It's spoilt."
3INAN spoil fOC.
M̀ g\varepsilońn̆ n\overline{\varepsilon}. "I'm tired."
1SG get.tired foc.
Bà kùdvg nē.
"They're old."
3PL grow.old foc.
O wàbılım n\overline{\varepsilon}.
"She's lame."
zan lame foc.
Lì p\varepsiloǹ'\varepsilonl n\varepsilon\overline{ m}
3INAN fill foc.
Lì y\grave{ n\overline{\varepsilon}. "It's closed."}
zinan close foc.
M búg n\overline{\varepsilon}. "I'm drunk."
1SG get.drunk Foc.
[calque/borrowing of Hausa bùgu]

```

There is probably always an implication of a prior change of state, though this is not always clear in WK's glosses, e.g.

Ò lèr n̄̄.
3AN get.ugly FOC.

Lì pèlıg n̄̄. "It's white."
3INAN whiten FOC.

Lì sj̀bıg n̄̄. "It's black."
3INAN blacken FOC.

Lì mù'ө \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\).
"It's red."

Most verbs expressing a change of state in the subject are intransitives like kpi+ "die" or patientive ambitransitives 19.8 .1 like bj̀dıg \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "lose, get lost." The only agentive transitive verbs I have found in this category express putting on clothing:

M̀ yદ́ füug. \(\quad\) I've put a shirt on."
1SG put.on shirt:sG.
\(\grave{M}\) yé \(\quad n \bar{\varepsilon}\) fūug. \(\quad\) I'm wearing a shirt."
1SG put.on Foc shirt:SG.

Only verbs expressing a change of state in the subject can use the perfective in a resultative meaning. After other perfectives, \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)cannot have a temporal meaning, and must be interpreted as focussing a VP constituent or the entire VP 28.1.2.1.2.

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 23.1. Thus while English might say: "Two men stood with them, dressed in white", Kusaal must have

Ka dapa ayi' yع fupiela zi'e ba san'an.
Kà dāpá_àyí yé 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_àtán̆' kà fù ná mōr bïig lā \(n\) k \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) nā.
Month NUM:three and 2SG IRR have child:SG ART CAT come hither.
"Bring the child here in three months." ("having the child, come here.")

With absolute clauses as postlinker or kà-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.

\subsection*{19.2.2 Imperfective}

\subsection*{19.2.2.1 Dynamic}

The imperfective of dual-aspect verbs is marked by the flexion *-da 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 11.2.

The dynamic imperfective can be followed by the particle \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)in its temporal sense "at the time referred to in particular."

Without \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\), this aspect implies that the subject has a propensity to the achievement, accomplishment or activity expressed by the verb (often called "habitual aspect"):
O j̀n̆bıd.
3AN chew:IPFV.

Nīdıb kpiîd.
"People die."
Person:PL die:IPFV.

Nïgí j̀n̆bıd mj̄כd. "Cows eat grass."
Cow:PL chew:IPFV grass:PL.

M zín̆'i. "I sit."
1sG be.sitting.

M̀ zán̆l dāká lā. "I carry the box in my hands."
1SG carry.in.hands box:SG ART.

With \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\), the dynamic imperfective typically has a meaning analogous to the English "progressive" or "continuous."

Ò j̀n̆bıd nē. "He's chewing.
3AN chew:IPFV Foc.
\(\dot{M}\) zín̆'i \(n \bar{\varepsilon} . \quad\) "I'm sitting."
1sG be.sitting foc.
\(\dot{M}\) zán̆l nē dāká lā.
1SG carry.in.hands foc box:SG ART.
"I'm carrying the box in my hands."

Nā'-síəbà ón̆bìd n̄ mכ̄כd.
Cow-IndF.PL chew:IPFV Foc grass:PL.
"Some cows are eating grass." cf 28.1.2.1.2

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 \(I \bar{a}^{+/} \underline{16.5}\) contributes to making this the natural interpretation in

Nīdıb kpî̀d n̄̄. "People are dying."
Person:PL die:IPFV Foc.

\subsection*{19.2.2.2 Stative}

The finite form of a single-aspect verb may have stative aspect as a lexical matter 11.2.

Ò gìm.
3an be.short.

Lì zùlım.
3INan be.deep.

M̀ mór pu'ā.
1sG have wife:sG.

M bכ́כdī f. "I love you."
1SG want 2SG.OB.

In English, "stative" verbs characteristically do not use the progressive aspect: "I have a car", not *"I am having a car." Kusaal stative verbs similarly do not usually appear with the particle \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)in its temporal sense:
```

    M mór lór. "I have a car."
    1sg have car:sg.
    not *M̀ mór nē lór.

```

Stative verbs express abiding／intrinsic relationships or predicative adjectival senses，and by default if the particle \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)follows such a verb it is interpreted as focussing either a VP constituent or the VP as a whole；\(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)can only be temporal if there is an explicit time reference in the clause itself 28．1．2．1．2 or if the following constituent does not permit focussing with \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)28．1．2．1．3．

Some dual－aspect verb imperfectives have acquired the meaning and syntax of statives，e．g．bう̀ \(d^{\text {a }}\)＂want，like＂（bうे＋＂seek＂），zう̀t＂fear；experience emotion＂19．8．1 （zうे＂run．＂）

\section*{19．3 Tense}

\section*{19．3．1 Preverbal tense particles}

Tense particles come first in the VP，preceded only by lè \(\varepsilon\)＂but．＂They are mutually exclusive．They comprise
```

dàa
sàa
\varnothing
pà'
sà
dāa
dà

```
```

"day after tomorrow"

```
"day after tomorrow"
"tomorrow"
"tomorrow"
present, or implicit tense 19.3.5
present, or implicit tense 19.3.5
"earlier today"
"earlier today"
"yesterday"
"yesterday"
before yesterday
before yesterday
before the time marked by dāa
```

before the time marked by dāa

```

The day begins at sunrise．Thus the common morning greeting
```

Fò sá gbis w\varepsilon̄lá +ø? "How did you sleep yesterday?" i.e."last night"
25G 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 dāa 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 dāa and in another with dà, but when both markers occur, dà always expresses time prior to dāa. (For other "pluperfects", cf tense marking in content clauses 26.2, and in \(\grave{n}\)-clauses within narrative 22.2.1.)

\subsection*{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 bèє \(+\varnothing\) ? \(\quad\) "Is there any medicine left?" Medicine ART still ExIST PQ? ("Does the medicine still exist?")
dunia nam pu pin'il la
dūnıyá \(\varnothing\) nàm pū pīn̆'il lā
world:sg nz still NEG.IND begin ART
"before the world began" (Mt 25:34) ("The world having not yet begun.")
\(\grave{M}\) nám zī1_ \(\quad\) n n̆yē gbīgımne \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
1SG still neg.Know cat see lion:SG neg.
"I've never seen a lion." SB (see 23.2 on \(n\)-catenation idioms)
 verb is naturally imperfective.

Ò n̆yع̄ع zábìd ná'àb lā.
3AN usually fight:IPFV chief:SG ART.
"He's accustomed to fight the chief." WK

Ò n̆yह̄६ ḡ̄sıd ná'àb lā.
3AN usually look.at:IPFV chief:SG ART.
"He's accustomed to look at the chief." WK
Ò dāa ňy \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) zábìd ná'àb lā.
3AN TNS usually fight:IPFV chief:SG ART.
"He was accustomed to fight the chief." WK

Ò \(\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon n ̆ t i ́ ~ z a ̀ b ı d ~ n \bar{\varepsilon}\) ná'àb lā.
3AN usually fight:IPFV FOC chief:SG ART.
"He's accustomed to fight the chief." KT

Ò ह̄ \(\varepsilon n ̆ ~ t i ́ ~ z i n ̆ ' i ~ k p \varepsilon ̄ l a ́ . ~ " S h e ' s ~ a c c u s t o m e d ~ t o ~ s i t ~ t h e r e . " ~ K T ~\) 3AN usually be.sitting there.

Ò ह̄ \(\check{0}\) tí dīgı kpह̄lá. "She's accustomed to lie there." KT 3AN usually be.lying there.

Ti énti pu sobid dine ka ya na karim ka ku nyani gban'e li gbinne.
Tì ह̄દn̆ tí pū sכ̄bıd dínì kà yà ná kārím kà kú n̆yāpıø
1PL usually NEG.IND write:IPFV REL.INAN and 2PL IRR read and NEG.IRR prevail CAT gbán̆'e lì gbìnn \(\bar{\varepsilon}^{+} \varnothing\).
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)

\subsection*{19.3.3 Discontinuous past}

My informants use the discontinuous-past marker \(n^{\varepsilon}\) to make an earliertoday past with indicative meaning:
\(\dot{M}\) óňbıdī-n sūmma. \(\quad\) "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 \(n^{\varepsilon}\) fulfils the authors' criteria well as a typical manifestation of discontinuous past, unlike the preverbal tense particles, which are not "idle" (in their term) but required, except in quite well defined syntactic circumstances 19.3.5. 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 \(n^{\varepsilon} \underline{24.1 .1}\).

\subsection*{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
\(\grave{M}\) kúl yā. equivalent in usage to "I'm going home now."
1SG go.home PFV.
instead uses a perfective verb form as an instantaneous present 19.2.1.
There are two periphrastic indicative constructions for "to be about to ...":
(a) bう̀วda "want" + gerund. The subject need not be animate.

Tìıg lā bój̀d lïig. \(\quad\) "The tree is about to fall."
Tree:Sg ART want fall:Ger.

Yó'u b bój̀d gáadùg kà bēog bój̀d 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 \(+y \bar{\varepsilon}\)-purpose clause. This construction does require an animate subject. (Cf ellipse of a verb before \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\)-content clauses 26.2.)
```

M y\varepsiloń ì kūā sūmma. "I'm going to hoe groundnuts."
1SG that 1Sg hoe groundnut:PL.
M y\varepsiloń m̀ kiá nīm. "I'm going to cut meat"
1SG that 1SG cut meat:sG.

```

\subsection*{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 \(\varnothing\).

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:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline Nīdıb & kpî̀d \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\). & "People are dying." \\
\hline \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{Person:PL die:IPFV Foc.} \\
\hline Nīdıb & kpîd. & "People die." \\
\hline \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{Person:PL die:IPFV.} \\
\hline M z zín'i & \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\). & "I'm sitting down." \\
\hline 1sg be.si & ting foc. & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Ò gìm.
3AN be.short.
\(\grave{M}\) mór pư'ā. "I have a wife."
1sg have wife:sG.

In isolation, it it is not possible to construe expressions like these as past. With perfective aspect, similarly, the sense without an explicit context must be resultative present, perfective-present or instantaneous present 19.2.1:
Ò kpì nē.
"She's dead."
ban die foc.

Ò kpì yā.
"She's died."
3An die pfv.

Ò \(y \bar{\varepsilon} l y \bar{\varepsilon} \ldots\) "He says ...." (translating for the foreign doctor)
3AN say that ...
\(\grave{M}\) pó'ùs yā. "(I) thank you." cf Hausa Naa goodèe.
1SG greet PFV.

M síák yā. "I agree."
1SG agree PFV.

M̀ n̆ý́ nū'-bíbısá_ àtán̆'. "I can see three fingers."
1sg see hand-small:PL num:three.

M̀ tén̆'દ̀s kà ... "I think that ..."
1SG think and ...

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 todaypast usage of discontinuous-past \(n^{\varepsilon}\) :
```

    M sá zàb ná'àb la sú'ès.
    1SG TNS fight chief:SG ART yesterday.
    and M̀M záb ná'àb lā sú'ès.
1sG fight chief:sG ART yesterday.
both acceptable as "I fought the chief yesterday."

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    Fù sáa nà kūl.
    2SG TNS IRR go.home.
    and Fù sáa nà kūl bēog.
2SG TNS IRR go.home tomorrow.
and Fò nà kūl bह̄og.
2SG IRR go.home tomorrow.
... all acceptable for "You'll go home tomorrow."
cf Fù ná kūl. "You will go home."
2SGIRR go.home (later today, tomorrow, next week ...)
M pá' ̀̀n̆bıdī-n sūmma.
1SG TNS chew:IPFV-DP groundnut:PL.
and \grave{M óňbıdī-n sūmma.}
1SG chew:IPFV-DP groundnut:PL.
"I was eating groundnuts earlier today."
(today-past sense of discontinuous-past n}\mp@subsup{n}{}{\varepsilon}\mathrm{ )

```

Systematic meaningful omission of past tense markers occurs in the sequential clauses characteristic of narrative. In narrative clauses with perfective aspect preceded by kà, omission of past tense marking signifies that the event described in the clause follows in temporal sequence from what precedes, and explicit tense marking signals an interruption for asides, flashbacks, descriptions etc 22.2.1.

\subsection*{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 19.3.4. It is used instead of the irrealis in clauses with yà' "if", though with some exceptions in negative polarity 24.1. It is the only mood which permits the use of the particle \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\) with temporal meaning.

Imperative mood is negated by dā. With dual-aspect verbs carrying the independency-marking tone overlay it shows a special inflection \(-m^{\mathrm{a}}\) 19.6.2.2 but otherwise the verb word coincides in form with the indicative.

Ò vùl tíim kà ò nóbìr pō záb \({ }^{+} \not\) ø.
3an swallow medicine and zan leg:sg neg.ind fight neg.
"She took medicine and her leg didn't hurt." WK

Ò vùl tíim kà ò nóbìr dā zábē \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
3an swallow medicine and zan leg:sg neg.Imp fight neg.
"She took medicine so her leg wouldn't hurt." WK

The - \(m^{\text {a }}\) imperative of dual-aspect verbs is perfective by default:
Kòn̆sım! "Cough!"

Imperatives without independency-marking tone overlay make perfective/imperfective distinctions in the usual way by verb flexion:
Dā kón̆sc̄ \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) !
"Don't cough!"
neg.IMP cough neg!
(To a patient during an eye operation under local anaesthetic, who just has coughed.)

Dā kón̆sıdā \(+\varnothing!\quad\) "Don't cough!"
NEG.IMP cough:IPFV NEG!
(Explaining before the operation what to avoid throughout)

Whether or not it carries the distinctive \(-m^{\text {a }}\), imperative mood is followed by the enclitic 2 pl subject pronoun ya in direct commands to several people 22.1.3.

The particle \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)cannot appear in its temporal sense with the imperative, but àlá "thus" after imperatives imposes continuous/progressive meaning:
Dìm!
Dìmí àlá!
"Eat!"
"Carry on eating!"

Informants contract the \(-i\) íà- in these forms to either -í- or -á- [dimila] [dimala]
Dìmī-ní_ àlá! "Keep ye on eating!" [diminila][diminala]
Eat:Imp-2PL.SUB ADV:thus!

Kù \(\theta s ı m i ̄-n i ́ \_~ a ̀ l a ́ ~ k i ̄ ~ n ~ t i ́ s ı d i ̄ ~ b a ́ . ~\)
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：


Imperative mood is used in direct commands and prohibitions and in subordinate clauses expressing purpose．Imperative mood also follows another imperative in catenation．

Gう̀sım！＂Look！＂
Look：Imp！

Gう̀sımīø！＂Look ye！＂
Look：IMP 2PL．SUB！
\(D \bar{a} \quad g \bar{s} s{ }^{+} \varnothing!\)

Kèl kà ò gj̄s！＂Let her look！＂
Cause：IIP and 3AN look！

Kદ̀m nā n ḡ̄s！＂Come and look！＂
Come：IMP hither cat look！

\section*{Dう̀！}

Follow！

Dう̀lī ø！
＂Follow ye！＂
Follow 2pL．sUB！

Dう̀ll＿m！＂Follow me！＂
Follow 1sG．ob！

Ḋ̀lī-ní_ m! "Follow ye me!"
Follow-2pL.sub 1sG.ob!

Mว̀r nīn-báalìg! "Have pity!"
Have eye-pity!

Irrealis mood expresses future statements and questions and has the preverbal mood markers nà (positive) kù (negative.) Tone Pattern LO verbs show a tone perturbation to all-M tonemes in this mood 7.3.

The irrealis mood distinguishes aspects by verb flexion like the indicative, but temporal \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)cannot occur. Perfective aspect occurs much more often than imperfective. Irrealis mood with past tense markers is contrary-to-fact, not future-in-the-past: see \(\underline{24.1}\) 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.

\subsection*{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 8.1; on the position of the clitic see further 27.1. Four negative verbs 19.5 .1 are equivalent to negative particle + positive verb: mit "let not ...", zī'+ "not know", kā'e \({ }^{+}\)"not be/have", kà'asıg \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) "not exist."

Temporal use of \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)is not compatible with negative polarity 28.1.2.1.2.
Indicative mood is negated by \(p \bar{u}\) (for some speakers \(b \bar{v}\), as in Toende Kusaal.) Imperative is negated by dā; conversely, forms which are negated by dā are imperative. Irrealis is negated by kù, which replaces the positive irrealis marker nà. Younger speakers sometimes use \(k \dot{u}\) for \(p \bar{u}\), but none of my informants accepts this.
```

O zàb ná'àb lā. "He's fought the chief."
3AN fight chief:SG ART.

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Ò pū záb nà'ab láa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "He hasn't fought the chief." 3AN NEG.IND fight chief:SG ART NEG.

Zàm ná'àb lā! "Fight the chief!"
Fight:IMP chief:SG ART!

Dā záb nà'ab láa +ø! "Don't fight the chief!" NEG.IMP fight chief:SG ART NEG!

Ò nà zāb ná'àb lā. "He'll fight the chief."
3AN IRR fight chief:SG ART.

Ò kù zāb ná'àb láa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "He won't fight the chief."
3AN NEG.IRR fight chief:SG ART NEG.

\subsection*{19.5.1 Negative verbs}

Four verbs are equivalent to negative particle + verb. They do not carry the independency tone overlay 19.6.1.1. Negative prosodic clitics appear as usual.

Mìt (always imperative) "see that it doesn't happen that ..." 23.3. In address to several people the postposed 2 pl subject enclitic ya may or may not occur: mitī.

Mit ka ya maal ya tuumsuma nidib tuon ye ba gosi.
Mìt kà yà máàl yà tùvm-sùma nīdıb túèn yé bà gj̄sع \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). 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 tovm suma nidib tuon 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 zīrín \(\quad\)-dí'əsìdıb bánì kēnní_ 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)

Zī'+ "not know" normally replaces negative particle + mi'. A clause-final LF \(\boldsymbol{z i}\) 'isige also appears in KB, NT (e.g. Lk 12:40); cf kà'asıḡ̄ below.

Bùn-bān̆'ad zī' yē tēŋ tóllā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
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 \(m i '\) with negative particles do occur:

M biig Solomon ane dasaŋ, ka po mi' wov lin nar si'em.
\(\dot{M}\) bïig Solomon á n̄̄ dá-sāy, kà pū mīi
1SG child:sg Solomon foc cop young.man:SG, and neg.Ind know
wōvlín nār sỉəmm \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
how zinan:nz be.proper ind.adv neg.
"My son Solomon is young, and does not know how things ought to be."
(1 Chronicles 22:5)

Kā'e \({ }^{+}\)"not be, not have" appears as kā' before a complement 8.5.2. It is the negative to both "be" verbs, àeñ"a "be something/somehow" and bè "be somewhere, exist" and also to \(m \bar{\partial} r^{a /}\) "have." *Pū bé is not found, but \(p \bar{u} m \bar{\partial} r\) is quite common; \(p \bar{u}\) áen̆ is rare but can be found in contrastive contexts 20.2.

Examples:

Dāu lā kā' ná'abā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "The man isn't a chief."
Man:Sg ART NEG.be chief:SG neg.

Dāu lā kā' bïiga \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "The man hasn't got a child."
Man:sg art neg.have child:sg neg.

Pư'ā lā mór bīig àmáa dāu lā kā'e \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
Woman:sg art have child:sg but man:sg art neg.have neg.
"The woman has a child but the man hasn't."

Dāu lā kā'e \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "The man isn't there."
Man:Sg art neg.be neg.

Dāu kā'e dóวgō-n láa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "There's no man in the room." Man:SG NeG.be room:SG-LOC ART NEG.

Dāu lā kā' dóogū-n láa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "The man is not in the room." Man:Sg art neg.be room:Sg-loc Art neg.

Kà'asıḡ̄ (LF always, as the word only appears clause finally) "not exist"
Ò bïig ká'asìg \(\bar{\varepsilon}^{+} \varnothing\).
"She has no child."
3AN child neg.ExIST NEG.

\subsection*{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 kà other than content clauses, regardless of whether they are subordinate or coordinate 21.1. The marker is primarily a tone overlay, but has associated segmental manifestations.

\subsection*{19.6.1 Tonal Features}

\subsection*{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 lغ̀ "but", next any preverb, then the verb itself. Preverbal particles which have intrinsic M tonemes (past tense marker dāa, auxiliary tense marker ňy \(\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon\) ) not only remain \(M\) themselves but also prevent the overlay from applying to any subsequent words.

The overlay otherwise changes all tonemes in the affected word to L if they were not L already. Affected words, regardless of their intrinsic tones, are always followed by M spreading, and show M toneme on the final vowel mora before liaison (changed as usual to H before liaison words beginning with a fixed-L toneme 8.3.1.) Intrinsic tones after kà (with zà \(b^{\varepsilon}\) "fight" gj̄s \(s^{\varepsilon}\) "look at" nà'ab \({ }^{a}\) "chief"):
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
Kà m̀ záb nà'ab lā. & "And I've fought the chief." \\
Kà ò záb nà'ab lā. & "And he's fought the chief." \\
Kà m̀ gj̄s ná'àb \(\bar{a}\). & "And I've looked at the chief." \\
Kà ò gj̄s ná'āb lā. & "And he's looked at the chief."
\end{tabular}

Intrinsic tones with preverbal particles having intrinsic \(M\) tonemes:
\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { Ò dāa záb nà'ab lā. } & \text { "He didn't fight the chief." } \\
\text { Ò dāa gj̄s ná'àb lā. } & \text { "He didn't look at the chief." }
\end{array}
\]

Intrinsic tones with negative polarity:

Ò pū záb nà'ab láa.
Ò pū gว̄s ná'àb láa.
"He hasn't fought the chief."
"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 \(k a ̄ ' e^{+}\)"not be, not have" and \(z i ̄ '+\) "not know":

Dāu lā kā' ná'abā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "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' gכ̄s ná'àb lā.
J́n zàb nà'ab lā.
J́n gās ná'àb lā.
"If he looks at the chief."
"He having fought the chief"
"He having looked at the chief."

Tone overlay manifesting independency marking in main clauses:
\(\dot{M}\) záb ná'àb lā. \(\quad\) "I've fought the chief."
Ò zàb ná'àb lā. "He's fought the chief."
M̀ 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 26.2:

Bùn-bān̆'ad zī' yē tē \(\quad\) túllā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
Donkey-rider:sg neg.know that ground:sg be.hot neg.
"The donkey-rider doesn't know the ground is hot."
(T̄̄ŋ túl. "The ground is hot." tūla/ "be hot")

Bà yદ̀l yદ́ 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 bj̀dıg \(g^{\varepsilon}\) "lose", yādıg \(g^{\varepsilon / ~ " s c a t t e r " ~ a n d ~ t h e ~ c l i t i c s ~} m^{\text {a }}\) "me" ba+ "them":
Intrinsic tones:
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
bj̀dıgı \(m^{a}\) & bj̀dıgıdī \(m^{a /}(\mathrm{ipfv})\) & bj̀dıgı \(b \bar{a}^{+/}\) \\
yādıgí \(m^{a}\) & yādıgídī \(m^{a /}(\mathrm{ipfv})\) & yādıgí \(b \bar{a}^{+/}\)
\end{tabular}

After tone overlay:
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
bj̀dıgī \(m^{\mathrm{a} /}\) & bj̀dıgıdī \(\mathrm{m}^{\mathrm{a} /}\) & bj̀dıgī bá+ \\
yàdıgī \(\mathrm{m}^{\mathrm{a} /}\) & yàdıgıdī \(\mathrm{m}^{\mathrm{a} /}\) & yàgıdī bá
\end{tabular}

Before a liaison word with initial fixed-L toneme 8.3.1: contrast

Bà kùvdī_bá.
3PL kill:IPFV 3PL.OB.
with
Bà kùvdí_bà būvs.
3PL kill:IPFV 3PL goat:PL.
and
Bà gj̀s•ō_ ø.
"They looked at her."
3PL look. at 3AN.OB.
with Bà gj̀sú_ ò bïig. "They looked at her child."
3PL look.at 3AN child:SG.
with ML necessarily changed to HL before the fixed-L proclitic pronouns.

\subsection*{19.6.1.2 Absent \(M\) spreading after subject pronouns}

Bound pronoun subjects are normally followed by M spreading despite their own fixed \(L\) tonemes 8.3 .

However, the third persons ò lì bà are never followed by M spreading when the following VP has independency marking.

Examples with zà \(b^{\varepsilon}\) "fight" gj̄s \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "look at" nà'ab \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "chief":
Without independency marking (sequential clause 22.2.1):

Kà m̀ záb nà'ab lā.
Kà ò záb nà'ab lā.
Kà m̀ gūs ná'àb lā.
Kà ò ḡ̄s ná'àb lā.

With independency marking:

M záb ná'àb lā.
Ò zàb ná'àb lā.
M gós ná'àb lā.
Ò gòs ná'àb lā.
"And I've fought the chief."
"And he's fought the chief."
"And I've looked at the chief."
"And he's looked at the chief."
"I've fought the chief."
"He's fought the chief."
"I've looked at the chief."
"He's looked at the chief."

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 26.2):

Ò tèn̆'عs kà ò zàb ná'àb lā.
3AN think and 3AN fight chief:SG ART.
"He thinks he's fought the chief." WK

Ò tદ̀n̆'عs kà m̀ záb ná'àb lā.
3AN think and 1sG fight chief:sg ART.
"He thinks I've fought the chief."
but Ò yદ̀l yé ò zàb ná'àb lā.
3AN say that 3AN fight chief:SG ART.
"He says he's fought the chief."
and Ò yદ̀l ý́ m̀ zàb ná'àb lā.
3AN say that 15 g 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:
\[
\text { Ò kù zāb ná'àb láa }+\varnothing \text {. }
\]

3AN NEG.IRR fight chief:SG ART neg.
"He will not fight the chief."

Ò Iદ̀ dāa záb nà'ab lā.
3AN but tns fight chief:sG ART.
"But he did fight the chief."

Ò yદ̀l yर́ m̀ nà zāb ná'àb lā.
3AN say that 1SG IRR fight chief:Sg ART.
"He says I'll fight the chief."

\subsection*{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 lغ̀ \(\varepsilon\) "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.

\subsection*{19.6.2.1 Perfective \(\boldsymbol{y a}^{+}\)}

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.
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
Lì bj̀dıg yā. & "It's got lost." \\
3INAN get.lost PFV. & \\
Lì bj̀dıg yàa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ? & "Has it got lost?" \\
3INAN get.lost PFV PQ? &
\end{tabular}

The phrase-final constraint on the appearance of \(y \bar{a}^{+}\)may show that a final element has been extraposed 28.3:

Ya yidigya bedego.
Yà yídìg yā bédogō.
2PL go.astray PFV much.

M̀ pú'ùs yā bédugō. "Thank you very much."
1SG greet PFV much.
Further examples:

Sāa ní yā. "It has rained."
Rain:SG rain PFV.

Ò zàb yā. "She's fought."
3AN fight PFV.
"You are very much mistaken." (Mk 12:27)
"She's fought."

Ò gว̀s yā.
3AN look PFV.

Ò sà zàb yā.
3AN TNS fight PFV.

M̀ tén̆'દ̀s kà lì lù yā. "I think it's fallen down." (content clause) 1SG think and 3Inan fall pFV.

But
Ò zàbī \(m\).
3AN fight 1SG.OB.

Ò gว̀sī m.
3AN look.at 1sG.ob.

Sāa dāa ní.
Rain:SG TNS rain.

Ò dāa záb.
3AN tns fight.

Ò nà zāb.
3AN IRR fight.

Kà ò záb.
And 3AN fight.

Kà ò gūs.
And 3an look.

Ò pū záb \(\bar{\varepsilon}+\varnothing\).
3AN NEG.Ind fight neg.

Ò \(p \bar{u} \quad g \bar{s} s \varepsilon{ }^{+} \varnothing\).
3AN neg.Ind look neg.

Ò gìm.
Ò mi'.
Ò nว̀.
"She's looked."
"She fought (yesterday.)"
"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)

\subsection*{19.6.2.2 Imperative -ma}

Imperatives of dual-aspect verbs carrying the independency-marking tone overlay adopt the flexion \(-m^{\text {a }} \underline{11.1}\).
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
Gう̀sım! & "Look!" \\
Gう̀sımī_m! & "Look at me!" \\
Look:IMP 1SG.OB! &
\end{tabular}

\section*{Gj̀sīm.}
"Look at me!" vowel absorbed \(\underline{3}\)

Gj̀sımí_fù nú'ùg!
"Look at your hand!"
Look:IMP 2SG hand:SG!

Gj̀sím fò nú'ùg! id with l-vowel absorbed

Dì'əm!
"Receive!"

Di'əmī ø!
"Receive ye!"
Receive:IMP 2PL.Sub!

Dì'əmī-ní_ bā! "Receive ye them!"
Receive:IMP-2PL.SUB 3PL.OB!

Dì’əmī-n•ó_ ø! "Receive ye her!"
Receive:IMP-2PL.SUB 3AN.ob!

Dì'əmī-ní_ àlá! "Keep ye on receiving!" 19.4
Receive:IMP-2PL.SUB ADV:thus!

But Dā gūsع \({ }^{+} \varnothing!\)
NEG.IMP look Neg!
\(\begin{array}{lll}\text { Kह̀l kà ò ḡ̄s! } & \text { "Let her look!" } \\ \text { Cause:IMP and 3AN look! } & \text { (No independency marking: subordinate) }\end{array}\)
Kغ̀m nā \(\quad n\) gj̄s! \(\quad\) "Come and look!"
Come:Imp hither cAT look!
(No independency marking: subordinate)

Dう̀ll_m! "Follow me!" (single-aspect verb)
Follow 1sG.ob!

Ḋ̀llī-ní_ m! "Follow ye me!"
Follow-2PL.SUB 1SG.ob!
(-ní- for -ya *na before liaison 8.2.3)

\subsection*{19.7 Clitics bound to the verb}

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.

\subsection*{19.7.1 Lદ̀ \({ }^{\text {"but" }}\)}

Iદ̀ \(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}\) "but" precedes even tense particles, but like a preverb, and unlike a post-subject particle 21.2.3, it prevents the independency-marking tone overlay from falling on the verb, and is then itself followed by M spreading:
```

Kà ò lć\varepsilon 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 pìàň'ad lā l\varepsiloń\varepsilon kù gāad\varepsilon +\varnothing.
And 1sg speech ART but neg.IRr pass neg.
"But my words will not pass away. (Mt 24:35, 1996)
Bà lè\varepsilon záb nà'ab lā. "But they've fought the chief." WK
3PL but fight chief:SG ART.
Kà bà l\varepsiloń\varepsilon zàb nà'ab lā. "But they've fought the chief." WK
And 3PL but fight chief:SG ART.
L\varepsiloǹ\varepsilon záb nà'ab lā! "But fight the chief!" WK
But fight chief:SG ART!

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NT has the - \(m^{\text {a }}\)-imperative, suggesting tone overlay on the verb, in

Lee iemini o na'am so'olim la...
Lèz ìəmī-ní_ò nā'am sú'vlìm 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.
*Lદ̀ gósìm ná'àb lā! attempted: "But look at the chief!"
But look.at:IMP chief:sg ART!
to Lદ̀ gગ̄s ná'àb lā.
But look.at chief:sg ART.

\subsection*{19.7.2 Preverbs}

Preverbs follow all other preverbal particles. All carry the independencymarking tone overlay in place of the following main verb (cf lè \(\varepsilon\) "but" 19.7.1.) Those derived from verbs show a suffix -m- 13.1.4.
pùn "previously, already"

Ò pòn záb nà'ab lā. "He's already fought the chief."
3AN already fight chief:SG ART.

Kà ò pón zàb nà'ab lā.
And 3AN already fight chief:sG ART.
"And he's already fought the chief."

Iદ̀m "again" (cf lèb \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "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 \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
3AN neg.Ind again fight chief:sg ART neg.
"He hasn't fought the chief again."

Ò nà l̄̄m záb nà'ab lā. "He'll fight the chief again."
3AN IRR again fight chief:SG ART.
\(\dot{M}\) nīf lém zábìd n̄. "My eye is hurting again."
1sG eye:Sg again fight foc.

Ka so' kudin ku len nyee li ya'asa.
Kà sō' kūdım kú l̄̄m n̆yév_lī yá'asā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
And indf.an ever neg.irr again see zinan.ob again neg.
"Nobody will ever see it again." (Rev 18:21, 1996)
kpèlım "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 kpèn.

Ka o kpelim zu'om.
Kà ò kpélìm zū'өm.
And zan immediately go.blind.
"Immediately he went blind." (Acts 13:11, 1996: KB Ka o kpen zu'om.)
m biig Josef nan kpen vue.
m̀ bïig Josef nán kpèn vūę.
1SG child:sg Joseph still still be.alive.
"My child Joseph is still alive." (Genesis 45:28)
là'am "together" (cf là'as \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "gather"); as a main verb là' \(a m^{\mathrm{m}}\) is "associate with."
ka nidib wusa da la'am kpi ne o.
kà nīdıb wūsa dá là'am kpì né ò.
and person:PL all TNs together die with 3AN.
"so all people died together with him." (2 Cor 5:14)
dèmım "beforehand" (cf dè \(\eta^{\varepsilon}\) "go, do first": m̀ dદ́nı̄ f"I've got there before you." \(D \varepsilon \eta^{\varepsilon}\) is used with the same meaning in \(n\)-catenation 23.2.)

Pin'ilugun sa ka Pian'ad la da pun denim be.
Pīñ'ilúgū-n sá kà Pịàn̆'ad lā dá pòn dèpım bè.
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 ku maligim gaadr.
Àmáa m̀ pìàn̆'ad lā kú mālıgım gáad \(\bar{\varepsilon}+\varnothing\).
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 21.2.1. 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 19.2.1, 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 n̆yह̄ dư'átà. "Go to see the doctor." SB
Go:Imp cat after see doctor:sG.

Beogv ti nied la ka ba gaad!
Bēogú_ \(\varnothing\) tì nìəd lá kà bà gáàd.
Morning nz after appear:IPFV ART and 3PL pass.
"Before morning appears they have passed!" (Isaiah 17:14)

\subsection*{19.7.3 Liaison enclitics}

Liaison enclitics precede all other verb phrase complements and also precede the focus particle \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)in all its senses. There are two slots, and a verb may have two successive liaison enclitics.

The first slot may be occupied by one of the two clitics ya " 2 pl subject of direct command" 22.1.3 or discontinuous-past \(n^{\varepsilon}\) 24.1.1; 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 \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "give" 23.2.

\subsection*{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.

\subsection*{19.8.1 Transitivity and objects}

Indirect objects precede direct, and objects precede other complements, except in cases of extraposition due to weight 28.3. A clitic pronoun before a noun object therefore cannot be the direct object:
*M̀ 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 \(+\varnothing\), dā zūudá \(+\varnothing .\).
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 pū zámm \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
"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 àeñ \(n^{\text {a }}\) "be something/somehow":

Mānı ø án̆ dứ'átà àmáa fūn pū án̆yā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
1SG.CNTR CAT COP doctor:SG but 2SG.CNTR NEG.IND COP NEG.
"I'm a doctor but you aren't."
Mānı \(\varnothing\) án̆ dư'átà kà fūn mén áĕn.
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 kà 28.2 25.3.2 based on adnominal kà-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:
Q. Fò mór gbāung láa +ø? "Do you have the letter?" 2SG have letter:SG ART PQ?
A. \(\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon n ̆, \grave{m}\) mór.

Yes, 1sg have.
Q. Fù bóvd•ó-o \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
"Do you love her?"
2SG want-3AN.OB PQ?
A. Áyìı, m̀ pū bóวdā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "No, I don't love her."

No, 1SG NEG.IND want neg.

Agentive ambitransitive verbs appear both with and without an object, with no change in the rôle of the subject, and no anaphoric implication if the object is absent; thus
```

ban\varepsilon zuud nidibi gban'ad
bànı zūud nīdıbı_ \varnothing gbān̄'ad
REL.PL steal:IPFV person:PL CAT seize:IPFV
"those who steal people by force" (1 Tim 1:10)
on\varepsilon daa zuud
"he who used to steal" (Eph 4:28)
j̀nı dāa zūud
REL.AN TNS steal:IPFV

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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 tóm bó-tòvma \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ? "What work do you do?"
2SG work:IPFV what-work CQ?

Ka ya ninkuda zaansim zaansima.
Kà yà nīn-kúdà zàan̆sım záan̆símà.
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
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
yj̀ \(^{+}\) & "close" & \(n a \bar{e} e^{+/}\) & "finish" \\
zà'mıs & "learn/teach" & \(n a \bar{\prime} m \iota s^{\varepsilon /}\) & "suffer/make suffer" \\
bj̀dıg & "lose, get lost" & bàs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "go/send away" \\
dūe \(e^{+/}\) & "raise/rise" & mā'e \(e^{+/}\) & "get cool"
\end{tabular}

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:
\(\grave{M}\) náa tōoma lā. \(\quad\) I've finished the work."
1SG finish work ART.

Tūoma 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.
"He cooked (for) me."
3AN cook 1sG.ob.

Lì màlısi_ m.
"I like it." ("It's sweet for me.")
3Inan be.sweet 1sg.ob.

Àláafù béع_bá.
"They are well." ("Health exists for them.")
Health ExIST 3PL.Ob.

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 \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "give" is the prototypical example, along with causatives from transitive verbs like dìıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "feed" nūlus \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) "give to drink."

M tís ná'àb lā dāká. "I've given the chief a box."
1SG give chief:SG ART box:SG.

M tís ná'àb lā. \(\quad\) I've given it to the chief."
1sg give chief:sg ART.
*M̀ tís dāká.
impossible as "I've given him a box", which is
M tísō d dāká.
1sG give 3an.ob box:sg.

Dā tís•ò_ ø sỉəla + ø. "Don't give her anything!"
neg.Imp give 3AN.ob indf.inan neg.

Dā tís \(\bar{\varepsilon}+\varnothing!\quad\) "Don't give it to her!"
NEG.IMP give neg.
\(\grave{M}\) tís yā. \(\quad\) "I've given it to him."
1SG give PFV.

Certain verbs take a fixed direct object as a set idiom after an indirect object which expresses the functional object, e.g. kàd X sàríyà "judge X ", mう̄r X nīn-báalìg or zذ̀ X nīn-báalìg "have pity on X ", nì X yàddā "believe X , believe in X ", zう̀ X dàbīəm "fear X", sinàk X nכ̄כr "obey X", n̆wغ̀' X nú'ùg "make an agreement with X."

Wina'am na kad nidib poten'esua'ada saria.
Wínà'am ná kād nīdıb pú-tèn̆'-sū'adá sàríyà.
God IRR drive person:PL inside-mind-secret:PL judgment.
"God will judge people's secret thoughts." (Rom 2:16, 1996)

Ò zว̀t•ō_ ø nīn-báalìg. "She has pity on him." 3AN feel:IPFV 3AN.ob eye-pity.

Bà zj̀t•ō_ø dábīəm. "They are afraid of him."
3PL feel:IPFV 3AN.OB fear.

Bà nìn•ō_ø yáddā. "They believed her."
3PL do 3AN.OB assent.

Ò n̆wغ̀' ná'àb lā nú'ùg. "He made an agreement with the king." 3AN strike king:SG ART hand:SG.

\subsection*{19.8.1.1 Passives}

For passive meaning expressed by an empty bà "they" as subject see 16.2.3.
Transitive verbs expressing a change of state are usually patientive ambitransitives, and thus appear in the same form whether the argument which changes state is subject or object. It is also possible for other transitive verbs, whether obligatory transitives or agentive ambitransitives like \(n \bar{u}^{+}\)"drink", to be used passively with no formal change:

M̀ nú dāam lā. \(\quad\) I've drunk the beer."
1SG drink beer ART.

Dāam lā nú yā. "The beer has got drunk."
Beer ART drink PFV.

It is not possible to express an agent with passives.
Indirect objects cannot become passive subjects:

Dāká lā tís yā. "The box was given."
Box:Sg art give pfv.
but *Nà'ab lā tís yā. not possible in sense "The chief was given (it.)" Chief:SG ART give PFV.

Stative verbs cannot be used as passives. Even with dynamic verbs, passives can only express punctual events 28.1.2.1.2.

The verb \(s \bar{\jmath} b^{\varepsilon}\) "write" is a specialised usage of \(s \bar{\jmath} b^{\varepsilon}\) "make/go dark", and is patientive ambitransitive. It can form a resultative; the imperfective sj̄bı \(d^{a /}\) seems to accept intransitive use only when some adverbial modification is present.

Gbàun lā sób yā. "The letter has been written."
Letter:SG ART write PFV.

Gbàung lā sób n̄. "The letter is written."
Letter:SG ART write foc.

Gbàna sýbìd zīná. "Letters get written today." WK
Letter:PL write:IPFV today.

Gbàun lā sóbìd súnā. "The letter is writing well (i.e. easily.)" WK Letter:SG ART write:IPFV good:ADV.

\subsection*{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_fù nīf né fù nú'ùg.
Cover:IMP 25G eye:sG with 25G hand:sG.
"Cover your eye with your hand."

Thus Dìgıním_ fù nú'ùg. "Put your hand down." is commoner than
Lie.down:IMP 25G hand:sG.

Diğlím_ fò nú'ùg. "Put your hand down."
Lay.down:IIP 2sG hand:SG.

Similarly niè "appear" is usually intransitive, corresponding to transitive nદ̀ \(\boldsymbol{l}^{\varepsilon}\) "reveal", but nie \({ }^{+}\)is much more frequent than nè \(/^{\varepsilon}\) before ò \(m \bar{\varepsilon} \eta^{\text {a/ }}\) "him/herself" etc.

Ka o nie o meฤ Jemes san'an ...
Kà ò níe ò mēŋJemes sá'àn ...
And 3AN appear 3AN self James among ...
And he revealed himself to James (1 Cor 15:7)

\subsection*{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:

Kعl ka m liebi fo tumtum yinne.
Kèl kà m̀ líəbì fù tòm-tōm yīnní.
Cause:Imp and 1sg become 2sG work-worker:SG one.
"Make me [become] one of your servants" (Lk 15:19); dynamic lìəb \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
\(\grave{M}\) á né fù tùm-tūm. "I am your servant."; stative àeñ \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
1SG COP FOC 2SG work-worker:SG.

Àeñă "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 20.2.

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 pòd \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "name, dub" has as first object a NP with the head \(y \bar{u}^{-1} u r^{\varepsilon /}\) "name", and the name itself as second object; this may be introduced by \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\) "that."

Ka fo na pod o yo'vr ye Yesu.
Kà fù ná púd ò yō'ur ȳ̄ Yesu.
And 2sG IRR dub zan name:sg that Jesus.
"And you will call him Jesus." (Mt 1:21)

Ka o pud biig la yo'vr Yesu.
Kà ò pód bïig lā yó'ùr Yesu.
And 3 an dub child:sg ART name:sg Jesus.
"And he called the child Jesus. " (Mt 1:25)

The verb bùe \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "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 \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) :
on ka ba buon ye Pita la
j̀n kà bà búèn y \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) 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 \(y \bar{u}^{\prime} u r^{\varepsilon /}\) "name" as subject and the name itself as complement:
dau so' ka o yo'vr buon Joon.
dàu-ś́' kà ò yō'ur búèn Joon.
man-Indf.an and 3AN name:SG call:IPFV John.
"a man [habitually 28.1.2.1.2] called John." (Jn 1:6)

Màal \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "make" is used with object and resultative predicative complement in

Ka o maal o men nintita'ar.
Kà ò máàl ò mēŋ nīn-títā'ar.
And zan make zan 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 mey ye o ane nintita'ar.
Kà ò dū'өsí_ò mह̄ク yé ò à nē nīn-títā'ar.
And 3an elevate zan self that 3AN cop foc person-great:sg.
"He made himself up that he was a great man."

A kà-catenation \(\underline{23.3}\) can appear as a resultative predicate.

\subsection*{19.8.3 Locatives}

Locative AdvPs 17.3 occur as complements after verbs of position and movement. Some verbs require a locative complement, and its absence is anaphoric.
M yí Bj̀k.
"I left Bawku."
1sG emerge Bawku.
M yí yā. \(\quad\) "I've left [there]."
1SG emerge pFv.

Others do not; so with single-aspect verbs which take locative complements, and also e.g. \(k \bar{\varepsilon} \eta^{\varepsilon / ~ " g o, ~ w a l k " ~ d i ̀ g ı n n ~ " l i e ~ d o w n " ~ d i ̄ g ı / \varepsilon / ~ " l a y ~ d o w n ": ~}\)
...ka po tun'e kenna..
...kà pō tūn̄'e_ ø kēnná \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
...and NEG.Ind be.able CAT go:IPFV neg.
"who couldn't walk." (Acts 14:8)
but
Ò kèך Bók.
3AN go Bawku.

Ò dìgın yā.
3AN lie.down pFV.
but Digınım kp \(\overline{!}\) "Lie down here!"
Lie.down:Imp here!

Ò dìgıl gbáun lā. "She's put the book down."
3AN lay.down book:SG ART.
but Ò dìgıl gbáun lā tézbòl lā zúg.
3AN lay.down book:SG ART table:SG ART upon.
"She's put the book on the table."

Wínà'am bé.
"God exists."
God EXIST.

Àláafù bé•O—ø.
Health exist zan.ob.
"He's well." ("Health exists for him.")
Indirect object but no complement.
but Dāu lā bé nē dó-kànā lā póvgū-n.
Man:SG ART EXIST Foc hut-dem.del.SG ART inside:SG-Loc.
"The man is inside that hut."

\subsection*{19.8.4 Prepositional phrases}
\(W \tilde{\varepsilon} n^{\text {na/ }}\) "resemble" usually takes a phrase introduced by \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) or \(w \overline{0} \underline{18}\).

Ka o nindaa wenne nintay ne.
Kà ò nīn-dáa wēn n̄̄ nīntāŋ n̄̄.
And 3AN eye-face:sg resemble with sun:sg like.
"His face is like the sun." (Rev 10:1, 1996)

Lāıla/ "be far" usually takes a phrase introduced by \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) :

Amaa o po lal ne tii.
Àmáa ò pū lāl né tīı \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
But 3 SG NEG.Ind be.far with 1PL Neg.
"But he is not far from us." (Acts 17:27)

Dj̄ıla/ "accompany" with the preposition n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) means "be in accordance with":

Li dJIne lin sob Wina'am gbaupun si'em la ye ...
Lì d̀̀l n̄̄ lín sכ̄b Wínà'am gbáūū-n sỉəm lā y \(\bar{\varepsilon} \ldots\)
3INAN follow with zinan: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 \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) can be distinguished from focus-n \(\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/} \underline{28.1 .2}\) by contexts where focus is prohibited. \(Y_{I^{+}}\)"emerge" does not take a prepositional phrase:
M̀ yí n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) Bók.
1SG emerge foc Bawku.

Yadda nipir yitne labaar la wommug ni.
Yàddā-nípìr yít \(\quad\) ह̄ lábāar lā wómmòg ní.
Assent-doing emerge:IPFV FOC news ART hearing Loc.
"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 rel.an emerge Magdala

\subsection*{19.8.5 Clauses}

Certain verbs require a following subordinate clause introduced by kà or \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\). They include like \(k \bar{\varepsilon}^{+}\)"let", mit "let not", nāra/ "be obliged to." Of these, \(k \bar{\varepsilon}^{+}\)does not appear at all without a following kà-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..." 19.5.1.

The verb bう̀ \(d^{\text {a }}\) "want, love" takes a purpose clause in the sense "want to ..."; without any object it has an anaphoric meaning in either sense.

The verb gūra/ "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
 such verbs have an anaphoric sense without such an object.

The verb àeñáa "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 \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\) as a complement too 20.2 .

\subsection*{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 21.2.1.

VP adjuncts may be AdvPs, prepositional phrases, or subordinate clauses.

Bà dìt n̄̄ sā'ab dó-kànā lā púvgū-n.
3PL eat:IPFV FOC porridge hut-dem.del.SG ART inside:SG-LOC.
"They're eating porridge in that hut."

A subordinate clause after a verb is most often a complement:

Fò bój̀ bó +ø? "What do you want?"
2SG want what cQ?
\(\grave{M}\) bój̀d yદ́ fù kūl. \(\quad\) I want you to go home."
1sG want that 25G go.home.

Content clauses 26.2 are always complements:

Bùn-bān̆'ad zī' ȳ̄ tēŋ tóllā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
Donkey-rider:Sg neg.know that ground:sg be.hot neg.
"The donkey-rider doesn't know the ground is hot."

\subsection*{19.10 Verb-phrase-final particles}

For the independent-perfective marker \(y \bar{a}^{+}\)see 19.6.2.1.
The particles \(n \bar{a}^{+/}\)"hither" and sà \({ }^{+}\)"hence; ago" follow any complements. The verb \(k \bar{\varepsilon} \breve{n}^{+}\)"come" is invariably used with \(n \bar{a}+/\); the imperative SF \(k \varepsilon ̀ m\), which coincides for \(k \bar{\varepsilon} n^{+}\)"come" and \(k \bar{\varepsilon} \eta^{\varepsilon /}\) "go", is always disambiguated by the fact that it is followed by \(n \bar{a}^{+/}\)or sà̀ respectively: kèm nā! "come" kèm sá! "go!"

Examples:

M̀ mór kú'èm náa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ? "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 bap li nya'ay sa.
Fù ná bán lì ňyá'aŋ sá.
\(25 G\) IRR realise zinan behind since.
"You will come to understand afterwards." (Jn 13:7, 1976)

Lazarus pun be yaugon la daba anaasi sa.
Lazarus pón bè yávgō-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:

Kと̀m nā n gj̄s. "Come and look!" SB
Come:Imp hither cat look.

Man ya'a po keとn na tu'asini ba ...
Mān yá' pū kēe-n nā_ Ø tú'asī-ní_bā...
1SG.CNTR if NEG.IND come-dp hither CAT talk-DP 3PL.OB...
"If I had not come to talk to them ..." (Jn 15:22)
\(N \bar{a}^{+/}\)and sà \({ }^{+}\)often follow any article \(l \bar{a}^{+/}\)ending an \(\grave{n}\)-clause containing them:
ba diib \(n\) yit na'ateg la na zug
bà dīıb ǹ 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 Iā or lā nā:
n̆wādıg-kánì kz̄n nā lā
month ReL.SG come:IPFV hither ART
"next month" SB
dunia kane 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 \(m\) tom one tomi \(m\) la na bכJdim naae.
\(\grave{M}\) dīıb á n̄ yर́ \(\grave{m}\) tóm j̀nı tòmı \(\quad m\) lā nā bว́כdìm \(\varnothing\) nāe.
1SG food COP FOC that 1SG work REL.AN send 1SG.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 one tom man na la tovma.
tì tóm j̀nı tòm 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.
Nīdıb lā dāa gūr Zakaria yîb nā.
Person:PLART TNS watch Zechariah emerge:ger hither.
"The people were watching for Zechariah's coming out." (Lk 1:21)

Ninsaal Biig la lebug la na
Nīn-sáàl Bî̀g lā lébòg lā nā
Person-smooth:sg Child:Sg ART return:Ger ART hither
"the return of the Son of Man" (Mt 24:27)

\section*{20 The verbs "to be"}

\subsection*{20.1 Bغ̀+ "be somewhere, exist"}
\(B \grave{\varepsilon}^{+}\)is followed by \(M\) spreading even when not carrying the independencymarking tone overlay; it is formally as well as semantically imperfective.

With no locative \(b \grave{\varepsilon}^{+}\)means simply "exist":

Wínà'am bé.
God EXIST.

Àláafù bé•o—.
Health Exist 3An.ob.

Wāad bé. "It's cold."
Cold.weather EXIST.
"God exists."
(Calque of the West African Pidgin God dey, implying "It'll all work out in the end.")
"She's well." ("Health exists for her.")

Before a locative, \(b \dot{\varepsilon}^{+}\)means "be located in a place" when the locative is focussed or foregrounded 28.1, but "exist in a place" otherwise:

Mam bene moogin. \(\quad I ' m\) in the bush." BNY p8
Mām bé nē mj̄دgu-n.
1SG.CNTR EXIST FOC grass:SG-LOC.

Moogin ka mam be.
Mכ̄əgú-n kà mām bé.
Grass:SG-Loc and 15G.CNTR EXIST.

Dāư lā bé nē dó-kànā lā póvgū-n.
Man:SG ART EXIST Foc hut-dem.del.SG ART inside:SG-Loc.
"The man is inside that hut." (Reply to "Where is that man?")

Dàul-sכ̄' bé dó-kànā lā púvgū-n.
Man-Indf.an exist hut-dem.del.sG art inside:sg-loc.
"There's a certain man in that hut."
\(B \grave{\varepsilon}^{+}\)is common in presentational constructions 28.4.
For the corresponding negative \(k \bar{a}^{\prime} e^{+}\)see 19.5.1. *pū bé is not used.
\(B \grave{\varepsilon}^{+}\)plays a rôle analogous to a "passive" to m̄̄ra/ "have" in constructions like:
\(\dot{M}\) bïig bé. \(\quad\) I have a child."; equivalent to

1SG child:SG EXIST.

M̀ mór bïig.
1sg have child:sg.
\(\dot{M}\) bïig kā'e \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). \(\quad\) I have no child."; equivalent to
1SG child:SG NEG.BE NEG.

M kā' bïiga \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
1SG Neg.have child:Sg neg.
\(B \grave{\varepsilon}^{+}\)can be used in direct commands:

Bée_ànínā. "Be (i.e. stay) there!" SB
ExIST ADV:there.

Bēe-ní àlá ànínā. "Be ye there!" [be:nala anina] EXIST-2PL.SUB ADV:thus ADV:there.

\section*{20.2 Àeñ̆a "be something/somehow"}

The e of the SF of àeña is always lost except on the rare occurrence of the word phrase-finally 8.5.2.

Ò à nē bïig.
3AN COP FOC child:SG.

Lì àn̆ súnā.
3Inan Cop good:ADV.
but Mānı_ Ø án̆ dư'átà kà fūn mén áĕn̆.
1SG.CNTR CAT COP doctor:SG and 25G.CNTR also cop.
"I'm a doctor and you are too."

The usual negative uses the negative verb kā'e \({ }^{+}\)"not be":

M̀ kā' dư'átāa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "I'm not a doctor."
1SG NeG.be doctor:SG NEG.

However, pū áęn̆ can occur, for example in contrasts:

Mānı \(\varnothing\) án̆ dư'átà àmáa fūn pū áňyā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
1SG.CNTR CAT COP doctor:SG but 2SG.CNTR NEG.IND COP NEG.
"I'm a doctor but you aren't."

Àeña \({ }^{\text {a }}\) can be used in direct commands:
Àn̆ bāan̆lím!
"Be quiet!"
cop quiet:ABSTR!
Āa-ní_ àlá bāan̆lím! "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 \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/} \underline{28.1 .2 .2}\) if permitted 28.1.2.1.1 28.1.2.1.3:
\(O\) Ò ne biïg.
"She is a child."

3AN COP FOC child:SG.

Ò à n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) bíigàa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ? "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:

Mane an konbkem sula.
Mānı_ ø án̆ kón̆b-kìm-sùn
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 áñㅇ_ Ø.
1SG.CNTR CAT COP 3AN.ob.

Nobibisi a mam disun.
NJ̄-bíbısì ø án̆ mām dí-sùy.
Hen-small:pL CAT COP 1SG.CNTR food-good:sG.
"Chicks are my favourite food." BNY p13

Nع'عクa an Yesu [...] yaanam yعla.
Nē'ทá àn̆ Yesu [...] yáa-nám yélà.
dem.del.inan cop Jesus [...] ancestor-pl about.
"This is the account of Jesus' ancestors." (Mt 1:1)

When the complement of \(\bar{e} e \breve{n}^{a}\) is definite, the construction is usually specifying, with the subject in focus:

M̀ á n̄̄ dư'átà. "I'm a doctor." ("What do you do?")
1SG COP FOC doctor:SG. Ascriptive.
but Mānı \(\varnothing\) án̆ dư'átà lā. "I'm the doctor." ("Which one is the doctor?")
1SG.CNTR CAT COP doctor:SG ART. Specifying.

However, definite complements may be in focus as "pragmatically nonrecoverable" because of their internal structure or other factors: see 28.1.2.2.

Àeñ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) 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 17.5:

Zīná a nē dá'a. "Today [time] is market."
Today cop foc market:SG.

Yip venl, ka poogin ka'a su'um.
Yīn vén̆l kà pōogu-n kā' súmm \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
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 nopi ya si'em la ane bedego.
Mán nخ̀mıyā sỉəm lā á n̄̄ 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)

Àeña is remarkable in being able to take a complement consisting of an adjective without any noun head. The article \(\mathrm{I}^{+}+\)is permitted, but no other dependents apart from ideophones 16.11.1.3.

Lì à nē píalìg.
Lì à nē píəlìg fáss.
Bà à né píəlà.
"It's white, a white one."
"It's very white."
"They're white."

Most adjectives do not permit this. All examples in my materials involve adjectives without corresponding adjectival verbs, or having human reference (cf the adjectival use of human-reference nouns 16.11.1.5.) More often, compounds with nīn"person" or bōn- "thing" + adjective 16.10.4 are used:

Ò à nē nīn-sún. \(\quad\) "She's a good person."
3AN COP FOC person-good:sG.

Dīıb á nē būn-són. "Food is a good thing."
Food cop foc thing-good:sg.

Even adjectives which may appear without a noun head cannot do so before a postdeterminer pronoun; thus only

Lì à nē būn-píàl-kànā. "It is this white one."
Àen̆ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) often takes a manner-adverb or deadjectival abstract noun as complement. Such constructions are ascriptive, and use \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)where syntactically permissible:
Lì à nē ná'anā.
"It's easy."
3INAN COP FOC easily.
\(L i ̀\) à n̄ zāalím. \(\quad\) It's empty."
3INAN COP FOC empty:ABSTR.

Lì à nē būgusígā. "It's soft."
3INAN COP FOC soft:ADV.

Lì àn̆ súnā.
3INAN COP good:ADV.

Possible complements of àeñ̆a also include circumstance-AdvPs \(\underline{25.2}\) and even content clauses:
\(M\) diib ans ye \(m\) tom ons tomi \(m\) la na boวdim naae.
\(\dot{M}\) dīıb á n̄̄ yर́ m̀ túm ̀̀nı tùmı_m lā nā bóvdìm_ø nāe.
1SG food COP FOC that 1SG work REL.AN send 1SG.OB ART hither will CAT finish.
My food is that I do the will of him who sent me completely. (Jn 4:34)

\section*{21 Clauses}

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.

\subsection*{21.1 Clause types}

Criteria for describing a clause as main or subordinate do not always neatly align. Independency marking of VPs 19.6 in principle marks a clause as nonsubordinate, 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 kà "and" in its coordination function always lack independency marking. Historically, kà 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" Evans 2009.

Three types of clause subordination can be distinguished: nominalisation, catenation, and complementisation.
\begin{tabular}{|l|l|l|}
\hline & independency-marked & not independency-marked \\
\hline main & main without kà \(\underline{22}\) & \begin{tabular}{l} 
kà coordinated main \(\underline{22.2}\) \\
(kà sequential 22.2.1)
\end{tabular} \\
\hline complementised & \(y \bar{\varepsilon} /\) kà content \(\underline{26.2}\) & \(y \bar{\varepsilon} /\) kà purpose \(\underline{26.1}\) \\
\hline catenated & & \(n /\) kà catenation \(\underline{23}\) \\
\hline nominalised & & \begin{tabular}{l} 
ǹ absolute/relative \(\underline{25}\) \\
yà' conditional \(\underline{24.1}\)
\end{tabular} \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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 25.3.2. Only (non-sequential) main clauses and content clauses may lack VPs altogether.

Clause types marked by the post-subject particles ǹ and yà' are nominalised. They are unproblematically subordinate, and always lack independency marking. They differ from catenated and purpose clauses in having independent tense marking. Yà'-clauses and sādıgím-clauses only appear as postlinker clause adjuncts, do not participate in NP or VP formation, and cannot be coordinated. Otherwise, \(\grave{n}\)-clauses are coordinated with \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) like other AdvPs and NPs, whereas all other clauses are coordinated with kà:
... pa'ali ba [on daa nye Zugsכb la suorin, ka o pian' tis o si'em],
\(\boldsymbol{n \varepsilon}\) [Saul n וככ Yesu yعla ne sunkpi'eun Damaskus tenin si'em.]
... pá'alì_bā ón dāa n̆y \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) Zūg-sób lā sūerí-n, kà ò
... teach 3pL.ob 3AN:NZTNS see head-one:sg ART road:SG-Loc and 3AN

speak CAT give 3AN.ob indf.ADV with Saul nz proclaim Jesus about
n̄ sūn̆-kpí'òn Damaskus ténī-n sỉəəm.
with heart-strength Damascus land:SG-Loc ind.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 kà 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 \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\) "that", or less often kà, 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.

1SG NEG.IND want that 2sG go Bawku neg.
"I don't want you to go to Bawku."

On the other hand, content clauses \(\underline{26.2}\) 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' ne o ma pu ban ye o kpelim yaa.
Kà ò bā' né ò mà pū bán yé ò kpèlım yāa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). 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 22.2.1.

A clause must be subordinate if it precedes clause-final elements belonging to the preceding clause, such as negative prosodic clitics 27.1:
ka pu nar ka ba buolim ye Tumtumma
kà \(p \bar{u} \quad\) nár kà bà búelì_m ȳ Tóm-tūmma \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
and NEG.IND must and 3PL call 1SG.ob that work-worker:SG NEG.
"and (I) ought not to be called an apostle" (1 Cor 15:9)

The structure can be obscured by extraposition 28.3. Even a catenated clause after \(k \bar{\varepsilon}^{+}\)"cause" is unexpectedly placed after the VP-final perfective marker yā\({ }^{+}\)in

Amaa Wina'am keya ka ya an nכวr yinne ne Yesu Kristo.
Àmáa Wínà'am ké yá kà yà án̆ nכ̄כr yīnní nē Yesu Kristo.
But God cause pFv and 2PL cop mouth:sg one with Jesus Christ.
"But God has caused you to be in agreement with Jesus Christ." (1 Cor 1:30)

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 pu bככd [ye fu ti yel beog daar [ye fune ke [ka mam Abram lieb bummora.]]] \(\dot{M} p u ̄ \quad b o ́ j ̀ d ~ y \varepsilon ́ ~ f u ̀ ~ t i ́ ~ y \varepsilon ̀ l ~ b \varepsilon ̄ o g ~ d a ̄ a r ~ y \bar{~} f u ̄ n i \_\varnothing\) 1SG NEG.IND want that 25G after say tomorrow day.after.tomorrow that 2SG.CNTR CAT ḱ́ kà mām Abram líàb būn-mórā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). cause and 1sg Abram become thing-haver:sg neg.
"I do not want you afterwards some day saying that it was you who made me, Abram, rich."(Gen 14:23)

A content clause within an absolute nominalised clause:
[ban mi' [ye biig la kpine la]] zug
bán mì yē bïig lā kpínē 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 gbaun si'a [n tis Efesus dim la]] nwa.
Paul ǹ sj̄b gbáun-sỉa \(n\) tís Efesus dím lā \(\varnothing\) n̆wá.
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)

\section*{21．2 Structure}

Except in special circumstances，clauses require a subject NP，which is followed by a VP，with any post－subject particles 21．2．3 intervening．

The clause－linker particles kà＂and＂and \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\)＂that＂are placed before the subject（which may itself be ellipted after kà．）Clause－level adjuncts may precede， follow，or occupy the clause－linker position．

While \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\) is invariably subordinating，kà may be coordinating or subordinating． The gloss＂and＂is merely conventional；kà is used in a great variety of constructions with meanings that vary considerably \(\underline{23.3} \underline{22.2} \underline{26} \underline{28.2}\) ．

Kusaal is strictly SVO；deviations not achieved by kà－preposing always represent extraposition 28．3．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 19．6，and have structural possibilities not permitted to other clauses．They may also lack VPs altogether 22．3．

\section*{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 kà＂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

\section*{kūט}
\(b \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon\)
dìn zúgう̄
lìn zúgう̄
àlá zùgう
bう̄ zúgう̄
＂or＂（ \(\leftarrow\) Hausa）
＂or＂
＂therefore＂
＂therefore＂
＂thus＂
＂because＂

B̄ zúg亏َ，stigmatised as an Anglicism in ILK，is in fact freely used in NT／KB for ＂because．＂

Police gbán̆＇a＿m bj̄ zúgó m̀ ñw \(\varepsilon^{\prime}\) 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 \(z \bar{u} g^{\supset /}\) alone．

Prelinker adjuncts may precede but never follow linker particles.
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àmáa
hālí
às\varepsiloń\varepsilon
àlá zùg

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"but" (cf Arabic اما Pamma: "as for")

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"but" (cf Arabic اما Pamma: "as for")
"until" (cf Arabic حتى \hbaratta:); preposition 18
"until" (cf Arabic حتى \hbaratta:); preposition 18
"unless" (cf Hausa sai); preposition
"unless" (cf Hausa sai); preposition
"thus"
```

"thus"

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KB has no examples of kà àmáa to 365 of àmáa kà, one of kà àsć to 247 of àsع́ \(k\) kà and 436 examples of hālí kà but none of kà hālí as a clause adjunct. The orders are thus almost without exception as in

Ka sieba la' o. Amaa ka sieba yel ye ...
Kà sīəba lá'•_ Ø. Àmáa kà sīəba yél ȳ̄...
And ind.pl laugh 3An.ob. But and ind.fl 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 pu gani ti ye ti tum dian'ad tovma, amaa ye ti be nyain.
Wínà'am dāa pō gāní_ tī y乏́ tì tóm dīā'ad tóvmà \({ }^{+} \varnothing\),
God TNS NEG.IND choose 1PL.ob that 1PL work dirt work neg,
àmáa yé tì bé n̆yāe.
but that 1PL 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, bכ ka m lem loכd nככr ya'asع?
Àmáa ón sādıgím kpílā, bó kà m̀ lém
But 3AN:Nz since die ART, what and 1sG again
l̄כd nכ̄כr yá'as \({ }^{+} \varnothing{ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
tie:IPFV mouth:SG 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, b̄̄ogó "tomorrow" and dāa-sí'Er̄ "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 kàpreposing 28.2. This means that AdvPs referring to time, circumstance or reason can potentially occur before the subject alone, preceded by kà, followed by kà, or both preceded and followed by kà, whereas other types of AdvP must be followed by kà when they appear before the subject. Thus

Nānná-ná m̀ án̆ ná'àb. "Now I am a chief."
Now-hither 1sG cop chief:sg.
is grammatical, but *Mラ̄əgú-n mām bé was corrected by WK to

Mj̄دgú-n kà mām bé. "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, dìn zúg "therefore" lìn zúg "therefore", lì ňyá'aŋna "afterwards", lín à sỉəm lā "as things stand", àsīda "truly."

In KB nannanna nānná-nā+/ "now", and dìn zúg and lìn zúg "therefore" without final \(-\bar{\jmath}\) appear with the following distributions:
\begin{tabular}{lcccc} 
& X alone & kà X & X kà & kà X kà \\
nānná-nā & 394 & 23 & 16 & 4 \\
dìn zúg & 154 & 8 & 99 & 15 \\
lìn zúg & 29 & 3 & 43 & 20
\end{tabular}

Thus while nānná-nā is much more often used as a clause adjunct than not, dìn zúg and lìn zúg are very often treated as kà-preposed VP adjuncts. This state of affairs has probably arisen through originally VP-only dìn zúg and lìn zúg encroaching on the function of the corresponding linker adjuncts dìn zúgj̄ and lìn zúḡ̄.

B̄̄ zúg, without final -亏̄, appears in KB only in the kà-preposed form b̄̄ zúg kà ...? "why ...?"

Bozug ka li aan ala? "Why is it so?" (Haggai 1:9)
Bj̄zúg kà lì áan̆ àlá \(+\varnothing\) ?
What on and 3Inan cop thus CQ?

WK generally uses nānná-nā+/ "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-ná kà m̀ án̆ 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 kà-clauses are not subordinate in e.g.

O po yezd fuugo, hali ka li yuug.
Ò pū y \(\varepsilon\) z̀d fūugó \({ }^{+} \varnothing\), hālí kà lì yúùg.
3AN 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 ku basif ka fo kenge aseє ka fo ningi m zug bareka.
 1SG 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, hālí can be a prelinker adjunct before a \(n\)-catenated clause:

Ti nwa'ae li hali paae Nofa.
Tì n̆wá'a_İ hālí_ \(\varnothing\) pāe Nofa.
1pl strike 3Inan.ob until cat reach Nophah.
"We struck them as far as Nophah." (Numbers 21:30)
...ka ken iee yinne kane bodig la hali ti nyec o?
...kà k \(\bar{\eta}\) _ Ø iá yīnní-kànı bj̀dıg lā hālí_ø tì n̆yē.ó-o \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
...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)

Wōv "like" 18 can be a linker adjunct before a content clause:
ka tuumbe'ed ku len so'e ti wuu ti aa li yamugo.
kà tòvm-bē'عd kú lह̄m sú'u_tī wūv tì áan̆_li yàmmugj̄ \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
and work-bad:PL NEG.IRR again own 1PL.ob like 1PLCOP 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 wov ya ane m biis ne.
\(\grave{M}\) pián̆'adī_ø tísìdī_ yá wōv yà á né m̀ 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)

\subsection*{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.
> 3INAN be.hot.
"It [weather] is hot."

Lì àn̆ sónā.
3INAN COP good:ADV.
"It's good."
Contrast Mooré yaa sõama, with no pronoun.

Lì nàr kà fù kūl. "It's necessary for you to go home." 3INAN must and 2SG go.home.

The dummy pronoun is always \(l i ̀\), never ò. It may be omitted in yà'-clauses:

Ya'a ka'ane alaa, m naan ku yeline ya ye ...
Yà' kā'a-ní_àlá, m̀ nāan kú yह̄/ı-ní_yā y \(\bar{\varepsilon} \ldots\)
If NEG.BE-DP ADV:thus, 1 sG 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 kà when they would have the same reference as the subject of the preceding clause. Any M spreading after the pronoun remains 8.3. Pronouns after kà introducing a content clause are not subject to deletion, and kà-catenation typically involves a change of subject, so this deletion is characteristic of coordinating kà, especially narrative.

A non-deleted subject pronoun after kà thus usually signals a change of subject. A conversation may be reported simply by Kà ò yél ... kà ò yél ... with each ò 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.

Pư'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 Pư'ā lā dá' dāká kà ò k \(\bar{\eta} \eta\) Bók.
Woman:Sg ART buy box:Sg and 3AN go Bawku.
"The woman bought a box and it went to Bawku." WK

Occasionally the pronoun after kà is ellipted as referring, not to the subject of the preceding clause, but to the subject of a preceding kà-preposed absolute clause:

Ban wom ne'عŋa la ka sin.
Bán wòm nē'pá lá kà sīn.
3PL:Nz hear dem.del.inan art and be.silent.
"After they heard this they fell silent." (Acts 11:18)

See 22.1.3 for omission and movement of subject pronouns in commands.
Elsewhere, absence of subject pronouns is due to informal ellipsis 21.3; such structures are "corrected" when informants' attention is drawn to them. M spreading after the pronoun again remains:

Náe yàa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ? "[Have you] finished?"
Finish PFV PQ?

\subsection*{21.2.3 Post-subject particles}

Two particles marking nominalised subordinate clause types follow the subject: yà' "if" \(\underline{24.1}\) and nominaliser- \(\grave{2} \underline{25}\); sādıgím "since" follows ì 25.2. Other particles found after the clause subject are
sìd "truly"

Ò sìd dāa á n̄̄ ná'àb. "Truly, he was a chief." WK
3AN truly TNS COP FOC chief:SG.
\(\boldsymbol{k} \overline{\boldsymbol{u}} / \mathbf{\iota} \boldsymbol{m}\) or \(\boldsymbol{k} \overline{\boldsymbol{u} d ı \boldsymbol{m}}\) "always" ( \(\leftarrow\) Hausa) is most often found with negatives:

Ka so' kudin ku len nyee li ya'asa.

And ind.an ever neg.irr again see zinan.ob again neg.
"Nobody will ever see it again." (Rev 18:21, 1996)
n̆yāan or nāan 24.1.2 "next, afterwards"

Ka Yesu tans ne kukotita'ar ka nyaan kpi.
Kà Yesu tán̆s n̄ kúkj̄-títā'ar kà n̆yāan 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":

One pa'ati an Kristo la bec?
J̄nı_ \(\varnothing\) pá' tì àn̆ Kristo lā bé \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
3AN.CNTR CAT perhaps cop Christ ART or PQ?
"Perhaps he is the Christ?" (Jn 4:29)
\(\boldsymbol{y} \mathbf{v}\) 'טn "then, next"

Manoa yo'on da ban ye o ans Zugsob maliak.
Manoa yō'un dá bàn yह́ ò à nē Zūg-sób máliāk.
Manoah then tws realise that 3AN cop foc head-one:sg angel:sG.
"Then Manoah realised that he was an angel of the Lord." (Judges 13:12)

\subsection*{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 kà (see above), with VP complements 19.8.1, coordination within NPs 16.7, implicit tense marking 19.3.5, or omission of \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)in replies to questions 28.1.2.1.2. Ellipsis can become fully formalised, as with yغ̀l before \(y \bar{\varepsilon} \underline{26.2}\), questions with \(k u^{+}\)or bé \(\varepsilon^{+} \underline{22.1 .2}\), indirect commands 26.1 26.2.1, kà-preposing and \(n\)-focus 28.1.1 28.2 or \(h a ̄ l^{+}\)as a stand-alone intensifier 28.6.

Clause-level clitics, but not phrase-level, can be left standing alone by ellipsis:

Wina'am tisid ... ka me tisid ...
Wínà'am tísìd... kà mé tısıd...
God give:IPVF ... and also give:IPFV ...
"God gives ... and [God] also gives ..." (1 Cor 15:38); emphatic mè \(\underline{28.6}\)

Ellipsis of repeated elements in clause coordination is common, e.g.

Dāū lā n̆yé bī-díbìn kūט bī-púnàa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
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 \(k a ̀ ~ y \bar{\varepsilon}\) can be ellipted:
\(\grave{M}\) bój̀d yē dāu lā kēp dá'a-n, kà pư'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

\section*{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 26.2. Both clause types display independency marking on the first VP 19.6. They can show focussing with \(\grave{n}\), clefting, and kàpreposing 28. Unlike subordinate clauses, they may lack VPs altogether.

\subsection*{22.1 Main clause types}

Declarative main clauses are the unmarked default.

\subsection*{22.1.1 Content questions}

Content questions (except those with lìa 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 8.1.

The focus particle \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)may not be used in content questions, either in constituent-focus or temporal senses 28.1.2.1.1.

There is no special interrogative word order; however if the interrogative word is the subject (or part of the subject NP) it is always \(n\)-focussed 28.1.1 when syntactically possible:
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Fù bój̀d bó +ø? "What do you want?"

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2SG want what cQ?

Fù bój̀d línè + \(\quad\) ? "Which do you want?"
2SG want dem.Inan cQ?
Ànó'כnì_ Ø n̆ȳ̄ bíigà \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ? "Who has seen a child?"
Who CAT see child:SG cQ?

Ànó'j̀n bïigı ø n̆wá \(+\varnothing\) ? "Whose child is this?" Who child:SG CAT this cQ?

Dāu lā n̆ý́ ànó'כnè \(+\varnothing\) ? "Whom did the man see?"
Man:sG ART see who cQ?

Interrogatives other than subjects are very often kà-preposed 28.2:

Ànó'j̀n kà dāu lā n̆yć \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
Who and man:SG ART see cQ?
"Whom did the man see?"

Preposing is obligatorily so in the case of bj\(z u ́ g, ~ " w h y ? " ~ 21.2 .1 ~ a n d ~ b \bar{\jmath}\) when used in the same sense:

> Bó kà fù kúmmà +ø? "Why are you crying?"

What and 2sG weep:IPFV CQ?

\subsection*{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 8.1. There are no restrictions on focus-n \(\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\). The answer expected is \(\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon n ̆ ~ 22.3 .4 . ~\)
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
Dāu lā n̆ý́ bíigàa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ? \\
Man:SG ART see child:SG PQ?
\end{tabular} & "Has the man seen a child?" \\
\hline Bà kùvd n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) búvsè \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ? 3PL kill:IPFV FOC goat:PL PQ? & "Are they killing goats?" \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
\(\grave{M}\) á \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) dáv̀v \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ? \\
1SG COP FOC man:SG PQ?
\end{tabular} & "Am I a man?" \\
\hline Fò pū wómmàa \({ }^{+} \varnothing{ }^{+} \varnothing\) ? 25G NEG.IND hear:IPFV NEG PQ? & "Don't you understand?" (expects \(\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon \check{n}\), here "no") \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The second type of polar question follows the ordinary statement form with either bé \(\varepsilon\) "or" (expecting disagreement, with áyìı) or kúv "or" (expecting agreement, with \(\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon \check{n}\).) NT rarely uses \(k \bar{v} v\) in this way.

> Dāū lā ňyé bïig kúv \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
> Man:SG ART see child:SG or PQ?
> "Has the man seen a child?" (I expect so.)
> Dāu lā ňyé bïig bé \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
> Man:SG ART see child:SG or PQ?
> "Has the man seen a child?" (I expect not.)

\subsection*{22.1.3 Commands}

For indirect commands, see 26.1 26.2.1.
In a direct command the subject is 2 nd 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 \({ }^{\text {ya }}\) see 8.2.1 8.2.3. Thus

> Fù gós bïig lā. 2SG look.at child:SG ART.

Yà gós bïig lā. "You (pl) have looked at the child."
2PL look.at child:Sg ART.
but Gj̀sım biïg lā! "Look (sg) at the child!"
Look.at:IMP child:SG ART!

Gう̀sımī \(\varnothing\) bïig lā! "Look (pl) at the child!"
Look.at:IMP 2PL.SUB child:SG ART!

Gう̀sım tēyı-n! "Look (sg) down!"
Look:IMP ground:SG-Loc!

Gj̀sımī Ø tēŋı-n! "Look (pl) down!"
Look:IMP 2PL.SUB ground:SG-LOc!

Dā ḡ̄s t̄̄ŋ८-ń́ + \(\varnothing\) ! "Don't (sg) look down!"
NEG.IMP look ground:SG-LOC NEG!

NEG.IMP look 2PL.SUB ground:SG-LOC NEG!
"Don't (pl) look down!"

Dā gj̄sع \({ }^{+} \varnothing!\quad\) "Don't (sg) look."
NEG.IMP look NEG!

Dā gj̄sı_yá +ø! "Don't (pl) look."
neg.IMP look 2PL.SUB neg!

Pronouns remain in place after yà'-clauses 24.1:

Fo ya'a mor pu'a, fun da mכJd ye fo bas oo.
Fò yá' mכ̄r pư'ā, fūn dā mכ̄כd yé fù bás•ō-o \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
2SG if have wife:SG, 25G 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)

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 yદ̀l yદ́ bà gj̀sım tēyı-n.
3AN say that 3PL look:IMP ground:SG-Loc.
"She said to them: Look down!" WK

Ò yèl yદ́ fù gòsım tēpı-n.
3AN say that 2SG look:IMP ground:SG-Loc.
"She said to you sG: Look down!"

Ò yદ̀l yદ́ yà gว̀sım tह̄ŋı-n.
3AN say that 2PL look:IMP ground:SG-LOC.
"She said to you PL: Look down!"

Some speakers still keep the enclitic \({ }^{\text {ya }}\) after the verb even when there is a pronoun subject before it:

Ò yદ̀l yé bà gòsımī_ø tह̄ŋı-n.
3AN say that 3PL look:IMP 2PL.SUB ground:SG-LOc.
"He said to them: Look down!" WK
In catenation, where \(W K\) does not repeat \({ }^{\text {ya }}\) in VPs after the first:

Kદ̀mī ø nā \(n\) gās!
Come:IMP 2PL.SUB hither CAT look!
"Come (ye) and look!"
such speakers have e.g.

Kと̀mī \(\varnothing\) nā \(n\) gj̄sı_ ø!
Come:Imp 2PL.SUB hither CAT look 2PL.SUB!
"Come (ye) and look!"

Direct commands which consist only of a verb, or a verb with a following enclitic subject pronoun, occasionally end in a Long Form like that preceding a negative prosodic clitic:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
Gう̀sımā! & "Look!" \\
Gכ̀sımīyá! & "Look! (plural)
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{22.2 Coordinated main clauses}

In coordinating function kà always introduces a clause without independency marking on the VP 21.1.

Coordinated main clauses agree in type as declarative, interrogative or imperative. They are coordinated with kà "and", k̄̄v "or", \(b \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon\) "or". K \(\bar{v} v\) and \(b \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon\) are linker adjuncts; they are synonymous in this use.

Coordinating statements outside of narrative, kà has much the same sense as English "and", though kà ... lè means "but" 19.7.1.

Coordination of direct commands:

Pù'usım À-Wīn, kà pú'ùs À-Būgur.
Greet:IMP PERS-Awini, and greet PERS-Abugri.
"Greet Awini, and greet Abugri."

Coordination of questions:

Fù búg nće \(+\varnothing\) ? B \(\varepsilon\) ع fù géz̀n̆m yā kúv \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
2SG get.drunk Foc PQ? Or 25G go.mad PFV or PQ?
"Are you drunk? Or have you gone mad?"

\subsection*{22.2.1 Sequential clauses}

Kusaal narrative joins clause after clause with kà, corresponding to zero in English. Within narrative, main clauses without kà 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 kà, 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 kà-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 kà which licenses the dropping of tense marking in main clauses in narrative justifies setting
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 kà 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 \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)when presented in an isolated kà-clause without tense marking. Such clauses were always interpreted as expressing events, with the particle \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\) necessarily marking constituent focus:
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Lì bj̀dıg n\varepsilon\overline{. "It's lost."}
3INAN get.lost foc.

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Kà lì bכ́dìg nē.
And 3inan get.lost foc.

Bà kùdıg nē.
3PL get.old foc.

Kà bà kúdìg n̄.
And 3PL get.old foc.

Rejected by WK as ill-formed; accepted after some thought by DK, explaining the expression as contradicting "someone hid it"
- contrastive VP focus
"They're old."
"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 kà-clauses were no longer taken as sequential and \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)was readily taken as temporal by both WK and DK:

> Kà lì dāa bódìg n̄̄. "And it was lost."

And 3INAN TNS get.lost foc.

Kà bà sá kùdıg n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\).
Kà bà dāa kúdìg nē.
Kà bà dá kùdıg n̄. 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 yoma pii ne ayi' la, ka ba key malv la wov ban énti nipid si'em la. Ka malv la dabisa naae la, ka ba lebidi kun. Ka Yesu kpelim Jerusalem tenin ka o ba' ne o ma pu baŋ ye o kpelim yaa. Ba daa ten'عs ye o dolne ba ten dim la, ka ken ...
Kà Yesu_ø dāa án̆ yómà pīi né àyí lā, kà bà kēŋ málù
And Jesus nztns cop year:pl ten with num:two ART, and 3pl go sacrifice:sg
 ART like 3PL:Nz usually do:IPFV INDF.ADV ART. And sacrifice:SG ART day:PL Nz nāe lā, kà bà lébıdì_ \(\varnothing\) kūn. Kà Yesu kpélìm Jerusalem finish ART, and 3PL return:IPFV CAT go.home:IPFV. And Jesus remain Jerusalem tદ́nī-n kà ò bā' né ò mà pū báp yé ò kpغ̀lım land:SG-LOC and 3AN father:SG with 3AN mother:SG NEG.IND realise that 3AN remain yāa \({ }^{+}\). Bà dāa tēn̆'عs yé ò d̀̀l né bà tèn-dìm lā, kà k \(\bar{\eta} . .\). PFV NEG. 3PLTNS think that 3AN accompany Foc 3PL land-person.PLART, 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 n\overline{\varepsilon}Y "and X's father was Y"
and X father:sg tns cop foc Y

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whereas the genealogy in Matthew 1.1ff has dozens of clauses of the pattern
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kà X dư'á Y "and X begat Y."

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and X beget Y

Note the "aside" Ò mà dá à \(n \bar{\varepsilon} \ldots\) in

Ka Jese du'a na'ab David. Ka David du'a Solomon. O ma da ane Uria pu'a. Ka Solomon du'a Rehoboam.
Kà Jese dư'á ná'àb David. Kà David dư'á Solomon. Ò mà
And Jesse beget king:sg David. And David beget Solomon. 3AN mother:sg
dá à n̄̄ Uria pư'á. Kà Solomon dư'á Rehoboam...
tns cop foc Uriah wife:sg. And Solomon beget Rehoboam...
"And Jesse begat King David. And David begat Solomon. His mother was
Uriah's wife. And Solomon begat Rehoboam..." (Mt 1:6-7)

Very long series of coordinated "asides" do sometimes drop tense marking; in KB the genealogy of Jesus in Lk 3:23ff shows ka \(X\) saam da ane \(Y\) at the beginning of paragraphs in the text, but ka \(X\) saam an \(Y\) otherwise.

In texts, dynamic imperfectives appear without temporal \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)in sequential clauses to express several instances of an event:

Ka on kpen' la, o yعli ba ye [...]. Ka ba la'ad o.
Kà ón kpèn̆' lā, ò yéli_bā y \(\quad\) [...]. Kà bà lá'ad•ō_ ø.
And 3AN:NZ enter ART, 3AN say 3pl.ob that ... and 3pl laugh:IPFV 3AN.ob.
"After he came in, he said to them [...]. But they laughed at him." (Mk 5:39-40)
\(\grave{N}\)-clauses normally mark tense independently, but within sequential clauses they mark tense relative to the narrative timeline:

J̄n dāa n̆yḡt súnā ón dāa án̆ bílīa 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 tien Yesu n sa yel si'el la ye ...
Kà Pita yō'on tíen̆ Yesu \(n\) sà yèl síəl lā ȳ̄...
And Peter then remember Jesus nztns say indfinan 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 kà, but some begin with absolute clauses followed by kà. In Mark, Luke, and Acts 1-14 (1976) these patterns of tense marking appear with absolute clauses before subjects:
\begin{tabular}{|cc|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multicolumn{2}{|c|}{ Tense markers } & \(\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{B}\) & A kà B & kà \(\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{B}\) & kà A kà B \\
\hline A & B & & & & \\
\hline- & - & 7 & 23 & 40 & 85 \\
\hline- & + & 2 & 0 & 4 & 2 \\
\hline+ & - & 0 & 7 & 3 & 17 \\
\hline+ & + & 11 & 2 & 11 & 0 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Absent tense marking in the \(\grave{n}\)-clauses is expected, as they mark tense relative to the narrative timeline. Absent marking in A-kà-B type main clauses shows that even tense-unmarked absolute clauses licence implicit tense marking 19.3.5. Implicit marking similarly licenses the use \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)to mark a continuous imperfective in e.g.

Ka ba due keŋ. Ka ban ken la, Jesus gbisid ne.
Kà bà dūe_ø k \(\eta\). Kà bán k \(\bar{n}\) 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 \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) in the 1996 version.)

A tense-marked interruption in the narrative flow may itself contain clauses coordinated with kà; the tense marker of the first such clause is not repeated, but the following kà-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 pū mōr bïiga \({ }^{+} \varnothing\), bj̄zúgj̄ Elizabet dá à n̄̄ 3PL TNS NEG.IND have child:SG NEG, because Elizabeth TNS COP FOC
kúndù'ar kà bà bàyí lā wūsa 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 ne in the KB ka babayi' la wusa me kudig hali.)

Tense marking is not affected by clause adjuncts \(\underline{21.2 .1}\) or by the "resumptive" \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\) of indirect speech 26.2.1. If \(k\) à is absent, just as with clauses without clause adjuncts, tense marking is very much commoner than its absence; if kà is present, tense marking is absent unless the clause marks an interruption in the narrative flow.

Amaa ba da zot o ne dabiem, ban da po nip o yadda ye o sid ane nya'andっl la zug. Amaa ka Barnabas zaŋ Saul n mor o ken ...
Àmáa bà dà zכ̀t•ō_ø nē dábīəm, bán dà pū nín•ò \(\varnothing\)
But 3PL TNS fear:IPFV 3AN.ob FOc fear, 3PL:NZ TNS NEG.IND do 3AN.OB
yáddā yé ò sìd à n̄ n̆yá'àn-dう̀l lā zúg. Àmáa kà Barnabas
faith that 3AN truly cop foc after-follower:SG ART upon. But and Barnabas
zán Saul n mōróóø ø k \(\bar{\eta}\)...
take Saul cat have zan.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)

\subsection*{22.3 Verbless clauses}

\subsection*{22.3.1 Identificational clauses}

Verbless identificational clauses have the form NP + catenator- \(n+\) deictic particle; the NP may be an interrogative pronoun.

Kùlın e lā.
Door:sG CAT that.

Kùlıクı \(\varnothing\) wá nā. "This here is a door."
Door:sg cat this hither.

Bēogu ø lā.
Tomorrow cat that.

Bכ̄כ_ø lá \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
What cat that cQ?

Ňwāamıs_ ø n̆wá!
Monkey:PL CAT this!
"What's that?"
"See you tomorrow" ("That's tomorrow.")
"Monkeys!" [w̃ã:misa]
(From a passenger in my car, on suddenly catching sight of some.)

Identificational clauses may append clauses by catenation 23.

Anכ'כn nwaa yisid nidib toombع'عdi basida?
Ànó'ว̀n \(\varnothing\) n̆wáa_ \(\varnothing\) yīsıd nīdıb túv̀m-bē'عdı Ø básıdà + \(\varnothing\) ? 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)

Yعl bככ nwa ka Wina'am ke ka li paae ti?
Yह̄l-bכ́_ ø n̆wá kà Wínà'am ḱ́ kà lì páa_ tì \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ? 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 bככ nwa?
Yà nípìd bכ́_ \(\varnothing\) n̆wá \(+\varnothing\) ?
2PL do:IPFV what CAT this CQ?
"What is this you are doing?" (Nehemiah 2:19)

Fu maal bo la tis mam?
Fù máàl bj́כ_ø lā_ \(\varnothing\) tís màm \({ }^{+}\)?
2SG make what CAT that CAT give me cQ?
"What is this that you have done to me?" (Numbers 23:11)

\subsection*{22.3.2 Lìa-clauses}

X + lìa means "where is X?" Although I often heard lìa in spontaneous conversation in the 1990's, no examples appear in the 1996 or 2016 Bible versions.

Fò mà lā lía \({ }^{+}\)?
2SG mother:SG ART be.where co?
"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 àwāe lā lía \({ }^{+}\)?
And num:nine ART be.where co?

\subsection*{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 bï̈ga +\varnothing! "My child!"
1SG child:sg voc!
M pư'ā n\varepsiloń m̀ bïls\varepsilon +}\varnothing
1SG wife:SG with 1SG child:PL voc!
"My wife and my children!"
M dìəmmā ' }\varnothing, b\grave{ kà fù kúөsìda + \varnothing?
1sG parent.in.law:SG voc, what and 2sG sell:IPFV CQ?
"Madam 30.1, what are you selling?"

```
Vocative phrases do not take the article \(l \bar{a}+/\), but often end in ňwà "this":
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
Bīis n̆wá! & "Children!" & [bi:sa] & \(\underline{8.5 .1}\) \\
Pư'ā n̆wá! & "Woman!" & [phच्थawã] & \\
Zכ̄n n̆wá & "Fools!" & [zכn:a] &
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{22.3.4 Particles as clauses}

Some particles occur characteristically as complete utterances. Some are onomatopoeic; others are widely shared among local languages.
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
Tj̀. & "OK." (= Hausa tôo) \\
Báp. & "Wallop!" \\
Ǹfá! & "Well done!"
\end{tabular}
"Yes" is \(\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon \check{n} ;\) "No" is áyìı. 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 né \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
"Is it finished?"
3INAN finish FOC PQ?
\(\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon \check{.}\).
Áyìı.
"Yes."
"No"

Lì pū nāée \({ }^{+} \varnothing+\varnothing\) ?
"Isn't it finished?"
3INAN NEG.IND finish NEG PQ?
\(\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon n ̆\).
"No."
Áyìı.
"Yes."

\section*{23 Catenated clauses}

\subsection*{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 8.2. Complements, VP adjuncts, and even other clauses introduced by kà may be incorporated within such chains.

Amaa ka Zugsob malek daa ken n yo'og sarega doog za'anoor la yu'un kan, \(n\) more ba \(n\) yiis yin.
Àmáa kà Zūg-sób máliāk dāa k \(\bar{\eta} n\) yó'j̀g sārıgá dój̀g
But and head-one:sG angel:sg tns go cat open prison:sG house:sg zá'-nכ̄כr lā yō'on-kán, \(n\) mōrí bā \(n\) yīis yín. 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-sō' dūe \(n\) zí'e lá'asùg lā nīdıb sísòvgū-n, \(n\) án And man-INDF.AN rise CAT stand assembly:SG ART person:PL among-LOC, CAT COP Parisee níd kà ò yō'ur búèn Gamaliel, n án̆ ónì pà'an Pharisee person:SG and 3AN name:SG call:IPFV Gamaliel, CAT COP REL.AN teach:IPFV Wínà'am wádà lā yélà, kà lém àn̆ yū'ur dáàn 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 kà for catenator-n makes it impossible to interpret "auxiliary" verbs in the specialised senses associated with \(n\)-catenation:

\footnotetext{
\(\grave{M}\) zání m̀ nú'ugù \(\varnothing\) sī'ıs dāká lā.
1SG pick.up 1SG hand:SG CAT touch box:SG ART.
"I touched the box with my hand."
}
?? M̀ zání m̀̀ nú'ùg kà sī'ls dāká lā.
"I picked up my hand and touched the box."
\(\grave{M}\) dāa kúès bòno \(\varnothing\) tís dư'átà.
1SG TNS sell donkey:SG cat give doctor:SG.
"I sold a donkey to the doctor."
?? M̀ dāa kúès bùn kà tís dư'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 22.3.1:

Anכ'כn nwaa yisid nidib tovmbع'عdi basida?
Ànó'j̀n_ \(\varnothing\) n̆wáa_ \(\varnothing\) yīsıd nīdıb tóv̀m-b̄̄' \(\varepsilon d ı \_\varnothing\) básıdà \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
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 kà 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 25; the particles differ tonally, and in Toende Kusaal they are even distinct segmentally: nominaliser- \(\grave{n}\) is ne, whereas catenator- \(n\) is \(\varnothing\). However, this might be attributed to the effect of a preceding subject NP, in a way analogous to L spreading in NP structure 8.4.

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 \(n^{\varepsilon}\), 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 \(t \grave{~ i s ~ o f t e n ~ f o u n d ~ w i t h ~ n o n-i n i t i a l ~ V P s ~ i n ~} n\)-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 19.2.1.

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-sáàl Biïg kēn nā_ \(\varnothing\) dít kà nūud... And Person-smooth:sg child:sg come:IPFV hither CAT eat:IPFV and drink:IPFV... "And the Son of Man comes eating and drinking ..." (Mt 11:19)
(b) perfective VP expressing prior event + main VP

Ka dapa ayi' yع fupiela zi'e ba san'an.
Kà dāpá_àyí yह́ fū-píəlà_ \(\varnothing\) zìe 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 tì is commonly seen in the second VP.

Amaa m po mor antu'a zugv o yela na sobi tis na'atita'ar laa.
Àmáa m̀̀ pō mכ̄r ántù'a zúgú_ò yz̄lá_ ø nà sכ̄bı_ø tís
But 1SG neg.Ind have case:sg upon 3AN about CAT IRR write CAT give
ná'-tītā'ar láa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
king-great:sG ART NEG.
"But I have no case about him to write to the Emperor." (Acts 25:26)

Kèm_ ø tí n̆y \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) dự'átà. "Go and see the doctor."
Go:Imp cat after see doctor:sg.

Man ya'a po keєn na tu'asini ba ...
Mān yá' \(p \bar{u} \quad k \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon-n \quad\) nā_ \(\varnothing\) tó'asī-ní_bā...
1SG.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) Hālı́+ "until" can precede \(n\)-catenated clauses as a prelinker adjunct 21.2.1.

Catenated VPs can be coordinated with kà "and":
ka keŋ ... n ian'asid ka pian'ad n du'osid Wina'am yu'ur su'una.
kà k \(\bar{y} \ldots . n\) īān̆'asíd kà piān̆'ad \(n\) dū'өsíd Wínà'am yó'ùr súnā. 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 mena.
Sóginà-sכ̄' kā'e \(n\) tóm kà yכ̄כd ò mēŋá \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
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)

\subsection*{23.2 Auxiliary verbs in \(\boldsymbol{n}\)-catenation}

Certain verbs have characteristic specialised meanings in \(n\)-catenation. Dualaspect verbs agree in aspect with the main VP verb.

\subsection*{23.2.1 Preceding the main VP}
bغ̀+ "exist, be somewhere" + ànínā "there" + imperfective "be in the process of ..."

Ò bè ànínā \(n\) n̆wé'z̀d bīig lā.
3AN EXIST ADV: there CAT beat:IPFV child:SG ART.
"He's currently beating the child."
àeñ \({ }^{\mathbf{a}}\) "be something/somehow" can be used in foregrounding by clefting 28.1.1:

Li ane o sidi so'oe li.
Lì á né ò sīdl_ \(\varnothing\) súv \(u \backslash i ̄\).
3Inan Cop foc zan husband:Sg cat own zinan.ob.
"It's her husband who owns it." (1 Cor 7:4)
\(\boldsymbol{m i ̄}^{\text {'+ }}\) "know", \(\boldsymbol{z i}^{\text {'+ }}\) "not know": nàm mi \(n+\) perfective "always have X-ed", nàm zī' \(n+\) perfective "never have X-ed"

Makir bane buudi paadi ya la nan mi' paae sieba men.
Mākír bànı būudı pāadí_ yā lā nám mỉ_ Ø pāe sīəba mén.
Testing rel.pL sort reach:IPFV 2PL.OB ART still know CAT reach indF.pL also.
"Trials of the kind that have reached you have always reached others too."
(1 Cor 10:13)
\(\grave{M}\) nám zī'_ \(\quad\) n̆y \(\bar{\varepsilon} g b i ̄ g ı m n \varepsilon{ }^{+} \varnothing\).
1sg still neg.know cat see lion:Sg neg.
"I've never seen a lion." SB
\(\boldsymbol{z a ̀}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}\) and \(\boldsymbol{n} \overline{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}} \boldsymbol{k}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} / ~ " p i c k ~ u p, ~ t a k e " ~ w i t h ~ o b j e c t ~ " u s i n g " ~(o f ~ a ~ l i t e r a l ~ o b j e c t ~ a s ~ i n s t r u m e n t) ~}\)
\[
\text { M̀ nók sú'ugù Ø } \varnothing \text { kiá nīm lā. }
\]

1sG pick.up knife:SG CAT cut meat:SG ART.
"I cut the meat with a knife."

M̀ zání m̀ nú'ugù \(\varnothing\) sī'ıs dāká lā.
1sG pick.up 1sg hand:sG CAT touch box:SG ART.
"I touched the box with my hand."
\(\boldsymbol{m} \boldsymbol{\nu}^{\mathbf{a} /}\) "have" + object "bringing" with motion verbs:

Dābá_àyópj̀e kà fù mōroó_ø_ ø k̄ nā.
Day:pl num:seven and 2SG have उAN.ob CAT come hither.
"Bring her here in a week." WK
d̄̄ıla/ "accompany in subordinate rôle, attend"

Bà dı̀llōø_ \(\quad\) _ \(k \bar{\varepsilon} \eta\) 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 pīn'il_ø pá'alì_bā...
And Peter begin cat teach उPL.OB ...
"Peter began to tell them." (Acts 11:4)

Tì déní ø tís•ò_ø lór.
1PL precede cat give 3AN.ob car.
"We previously gave him a car." (dغ̀り \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "do/go first")

Ka dau sכ' duoe zi'en la'asug la suvgin ...
Kà dàù-sכ̄' dūe_ø zí'èn là'asug lā súvgō-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:
\(\grave{M}\) kénì ø pīə nú'ùs. "I went and washed my hands."
1SG go CAT wash hand:PL.
\(\boldsymbol{s u} \mathbf{u}^{\mathbf{a}} \mathbf{a}^{\mathbf{a}}\) "conceal" is used in this construction for "secretly":

Ka Na'ab Herod su'a buol bapidib la ...
Kà Nà'ab Herod su'ā_ Ø búèl bāpıdıb lā ...
And king:sg Herod conceal cat ask understander:PLART...
"Herod secretly called for the wise men ..." (Mt 2:7)
nìy wālá+ literally "do how?" is used in catenation for "how can ...?" (see also 23.3):

Ninsaal na nip wala an pupiel Wina'am tuonne? Ninsaal biig na nip wala po mor taal Wina'am tuonne?
Nīn-sáàl ná nīp wālá \(\varnothing\) àn̆ pú-pìəl Wínà'am túènne \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
Person-smooth:SG IRR do how CAT COP inside-white:SG God before cQ?
Nīn-sáàl bîg nà nīŋ wālá \(\varnothing\) pū mōr táàl
Person-smooth:Sg child:SG IRR do how cAT neg.Ind have fault:sG
Wínà'am túènne \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
God before ca?
"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)
n̆yā \(\boldsymbol{g}^{\varepsilon /}\) means "overcome" as a main verb:

Ka m nyan dunia. \(\quad\) I have overcome the world." (Jn 16:33)
Kà m̀ n̆yān dūnıya.
And 1sg overcome world:sg.

As a \(n\)-catenation auxiliary it means "carry out successfully, prevail in":

M pū ňyāpıø 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", ňyā \(\eta^{\varepsilon /}\) 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 n̆yāクı Ø záb nà'ab láa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
1SG 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 nyayedin ketin ka nidib voen,
wād-línì n̆yānídī-n_ ø k \(\bar{\varepsilon} t i ́-n \quad k a ̀ ~ n i ̄ d ı b ~ v u ̄ v-n ~\)
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)
tūn̆'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 pànı ø nà tūn̆'e sỉəm 3PLTNS 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 tūn̄'e is used as a \(n\)-catenation auxiliary both indicative and irrealis moods can express present ability or inability.
ka li ko tun'e su'a.
kà lì kú tūn̆'e_ Ø sự'āa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
and zinan neg.irr be.able cat hide neg.
"which cannot be hidden" (Mt 5:14)

Ya na tun'e zin' tenin la ne ti.
Yà ná tūn̆'e_ \(\varnothing\) zíñ'i tēŋı-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 nyzt si'ela?
Fò tún̆'e_ ø n̆yz̄t sí'əlàa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
2sG be.able cat see:IPFV INDF.INAN PQ?
"Can you see anything?" (Mk 8:23)

O po tun'e pian'ada.
Ò pū tūn̆'e_ ø piān̄'adá \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
3AN NEG.Ind be.able CAT speak:IPFV neg.
"He could not speak." (Lk 1:22)

With n̆yāa \(\eta^{\varepsilon /}\) as the main verb in the sense "overcome":
bozugo ba ku tun'e nyane ba meja.
bj̄ zúgכ̄ bà kù tūn̄'e_ Ø ňyāhí_bà mēná \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
because 3PL NEG.IRR be.able CAT control 3PL self NEG.
"because they cannot control themselves." (1 Cor 7:5, 1996)

\subsection*{23.2.2 Following the main VP}
\(\boldsymbol{t i s}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}\) "give" is used for "to, for"; the meaning may have nothing to do with "giving", and is simply a way of adding an indirect object. This can be used to put an indirect object after a direct, or to have both direct and indirect bound pronoun objects.

Fu pu ma' n tis ninsaala, amaa fu ma' \(n\) tis ne Wina'am Siig Sun.
Fù pū má' \(n\) tìs nīn-sáalā \(\quad\) \(\varnothing\), àmáa fù mà'
2SG neg.Ind lie Cat give person-smooth:sG neg but 2sG lie
\(n\) tís nē Wínà'am Sí-sùク..
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)
\(\grave{M}\) dāa kúès bùnu_ \(\varnothing\) tís dư'átà.
1SG TNS sell donkey:SG CAT give doctor:sG.
"I sold a donkey to the doctor."
gàad \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "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_ \(\quad\) gát À-Būgur.
PERS-Awini be.short CAT pass:IPFV PERS-Abugri.
"Awini is shorter than Abugri." SB

Fu sid מכח mam gat bamaa?
Fò síd nخ̀n 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)
gàlıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "get to be too much" (Sāa gálìs yā "There's too much rain"):

Ò dì \(n\) gálìs. "She's eaten too much."
3an eat cat exceed.

Dā kárìm gbánà ø gálısìdā \(+\varnothing\).
NEG.IMP read:IPFV book:PL CAT exceed:IPFV NEG.
"Don't read books too much."
\(\boldsymbol{b a}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}{ }^{\varepsilon}\) "send/go away" is used for "away, off, out":

Anכ'כn nwaa yisid nidib tuvmbع'عdi basida?

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 dì_ø nāe. \(\quad\) "He's finished eating."
3AN eat CAT finish.
Ò dìı \(\varnothing\) tíg. \(\quad\) "She's eaten to satiety."
3AN eat cat become.satiated.

Motion verbs occur in \(n\)-catenation with meanings like local prepositions e.g.

Ò kàt kíkīr-bé'घ̀d-nàmn yïisíd nīdıb.
3AN drive:IPFV fairy-bad-PL CAT expel:IPFV person:PL.
"He drives evil spirits out of people."
Èn̆rıgım_ \(\varnothing\) páa_m. "Shift along up to me." (pāe+/ "reach")
Shift.along:IMP CAT reach 1sG.ob.

Jesus ban'ad bun \(n\) kpen'ed Jerusalem
Jesus_ø bān̆'ad bú \(\quad n\) kpén̆'غ̀d Jerusalem
Jesus nz ride:IPFV donkey:sG CAT enter:IPFV Jerusalem
"Jesus riding a donkey into Jerusalem" (picture caption, NT 1976)
\(\boldsymbol{w} \overline{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{n}^{\text {na/ }}\) "be like" is very common in \(n\)-catenation. \(W \bar{\varepsilon} n^{\text {na/ }}+\) complement sequences are often treated like prepositional phrases 18. As a main verb:

Ka o nindaa wenne nintaŋ ne.
Kà ò nīn-dáa wēn nē nīntāŋ n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\).
And \(3 A N\) eye-face:sg resemble with sun:sg like.
"His face is like the sun." (Rev 10:1, 1996: KB Ka o nindaa nwene winnig ne)
\(W \bar{\varepsilon} n^{n a /}\) takes a prepositional phrase with wōv "like" or \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) "with" as complement. Any object without the article \(I^{-}+/\), even a pronoun or proper name, must be followed by a meaningless \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\). Before numbers and measurements \(w \bar{\varepsilon} n^{n a /}\) means "about, approximately"; numbers appearing alone are not followed by \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) :

Li ane wov maila ayi' ne.
Lì à ne wōo maila àyí n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\).
3Inan cop foc like mile num:two like.
"It's about two miles." (Jn 11:18)
but ka ba kal an wov kobiga ne pisi.
kà bà kāl án̆ wōo kóbıgā n̄̄ pīsí.
and 3PL number:SG cop like hundred with twenty
"and their number was about 120." (Acts 1:15)
là'am \(\mathbf{m}^{\boldsymbol{m}}\) "together" is also found as a preverb 19.7.2 and in the compound preposition là'am \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) "together with" 18 . As a main verb it means "associate with":
... ye labasun moolug la ket ka buudi wusa la'amid ne taaba pudugid Wina'am piini.
... y \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) lábà-sùn móכlùg lā két kà būudı wūsa lá'amìd
... that news-good:sG proclamation ART cause:IPFV and tribe all gather:IPFV \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) tāaba_ \(\varnothing\) 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 one another to share God's gifts." (Eph 3:6, 1996)
yà'as \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) or yà'as \(\mathbf{a}^{\mathbf{a}}\) "again" usually lacks \(n\) and has effectively become an adverb, preposable with kà 28.2. ILK glosses the word as "repeat", but I have no example of its use as a main verb.

Ya'as ka m gos...
"Again I looked ..." (Rev 5:11, 1976)
Yà'as kà m̀ gj̄s...
Again and 1sg look ...

\subsection*{23.3 Kà-catenation}

Certain constructions with a clause introduced by kà have clear affinities with catenation using \(n\). They never have alternate forms with the linker \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\). 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.
\(K \bar{\varepsilon}^{+}\)"let, leave off" is used with kà-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 \(2: 7 \mathrm{kz}\) ka fo men an zanbinne tisi ba "Let you yourself be a sign to them", where the pronoun \(f v\) is formally a predeterminer.) The mood of the catenation matches the VP containing \(k \bar{\varepsilon}^{+}\), though imperative often replaces irrealis mood.

Li da ke ka ba pu nyani kovo.
Lì dà kè kà bà pō n̆yāpı_ø kú•o@ \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
3INAN tNS cause and 3PL NEG.Ind prevail Cat kill 3AN.ob neg.
"This caused them not to be able to kill him." (2 Kings 11:2)

Ba kudim nipidi lin ye li ke ka ba da nye Kristo kum dapuudir namisug laa.
Bà kūdım nípìdī_lí yé lì ké kà bà dā ñyē Kristo kúm
3PL ever do:IPFV 3INAN.ob that 3INAN cause and 3PL NEG.IMP see Christ death dà-pōodír námısùg láa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
wood-cross:sG suffering ART neg.
"They have always been doing this so that they will not experience the suffering of the cross of the death of Christ." (Gal 6:12)
dine na ke ka ba da kpi'ilim.
Dīnı \(\quad\) ná ké kà bà dā kpī'llímm \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
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 \(k \varepsilon ́ \varepsilon-n k a ̀\), with discontinuous-past \(n^{\varepsilon}\), the catenated clause generally had \(n^{\varepsilon}\) in the 1976 Bible, but this is no longer invariable. Aspect usually matches:

Ka li ane wada la ket ka toumbe'عd nyzt paŋ.
Kà lì à né wādá lā_ø két kà tùvm-b \(\bar{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \varepsilon d ~ n ̆ y \varepsilon ̄ t ~ p a ́ \eta . ~\)
And zinan 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 \(\left.k \grave{\varepsilon}\right|^{\text {a }}\), followed by a kà-clause with imperative mood, creates a way of expressing indirect commands, including first and third persons:

Kह̀l kà ò gōs tēŋı-n.
Cause:Imp and 3AN look ground:sG-Loc.
"Let him look down."

Dā ké kà dàbīəm bé \({ }^{+} \varnothing!\)
neg.Imp cause and fear EXIST neg.
"Don't be afraid." ("Let fear not exist.")

Kと̀l [or Kغ̀lí_ ø] kà tì pú'ùs Wínà'am.
Cause:IMP cause:IMP 2PL.SUB and 1PL greet God.
"Let us praise God."

Kह̀l kà ... is often ellipted informally, leaving the lack of independency marking as the only sign that the clause is an indirect command:
\(\grave{M}\) gós nīf lā. "I've looked at the eye."
1SG look.at eye:SG ART. Independency marked: tone overlay on gós
but \(\grave{M}\) gj̄s nīf lā.
1sG look.at eye:SG ART.
\(\grave{M}\) dígınè \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
1SG lie.down PQ?
"Am I to lie down?" (Overheard in clinic) No independency imperative \(-m^{\text {a }}\)

Ò záb nà'ab lā.
3AN fight chief:SG ART.
"He should fight the chief." M spreading after ò, not záb 19.6.1.2

Mit is a defective verb used only in the imperative 19.5.1. Much its most common use is with kà-catenation as "see that it doesn't happen that ...". In this sense it never appears with the 2 pl subject enclitic ya, suggesting that it is impersonal.

Mid ka ya maali ya toum suma nidib tuon ye ba gos.
Mit kà yà máalì_yà tòvm-sòma nīdıb túèn yé bà gj̄s.
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 nìp wēlá n...? "how can X ...?" has an impersonal variant using a dummy subject in the main clause and the effective subject in kà-catenation.

Li nig wala ka o an David yaapa?
Lì nìg wēlá kà ò án̆ David yáàna + ?
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 kà:

M na nip wala ka nye faangirs?
\(\grave{M}\) ná nīŋ wēlá kà n̆y \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) fāan̆gírè \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
1SG IRR do how and find salvation cQ?
"How can I find salvation?" (Acts 16:30)

Kà 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 zín̆'i Listra ní kà pū tūn̆'e_ ø kēnná \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
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 loכd nכor ka pu nuud daam
Kà Joon k \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) nā_ ø lכ̄כd nכ̄כr kà pū nūud dáamm \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
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 be kpela ku kpii ...
Yà sīəba bé kpह̄lá_ø kú kpīi \({ }^{+}\)...
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 kà-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 19.8.1. The sense resembles a non-restrictive relative clause:

Anina ka o nye dau ka o yo'vr buon Aneas.
Àníná kà ò n̆yē dáu kà ò yō'ur 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 ane ya taaba bane pu'usid Wina'am ka li nar ka ya kad saria.
Lì à né 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 22.3.1, the NP of the main clause can be the anchor:

Yعl bככ nwa ka Wina'am ke ka li paae ti?
Yह̄l-bó_ ø n̆wá kà Wínà'am ḱ́ kà lì páa_ tì \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
Matter-what cat this and God cause and 3inan arrive 1PL.OBCQ?
"What is this that God has made to come to us?" (Genesis 42:28)

Adnominal kà-catenation is the basis of kà-clefting and kà-preposing 28.2.
The subject of the catenated clause does not normally refer to the anchor; if it does, the kà-catenation is a resultative predicate 19.8.2:
...ka la'am maan gigis ka ba wum ka pia'ad.
...kà lá'àm màan gígìs kà bà wóm kà piān̄'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 \(\check{n y} \bar{\varepsilon}^{+}\)"see", this construction has the predicative sense "see as":

M̀ dāa n̆yē dāu lá kà ò án̆ 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"

M̀ dāa pū ňy \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) dāu lá kà ò áň ná'abā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
1SG tNS neg.Ind see man:Sg art and zan cop chief:sg neg.
"I didn't see the man as a chief." KT

As expected, KT rejected constructions with tense marking in the kàcatenation. He also rejected focus- \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)in the catenated clause:
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*M̀ dāa pū n̆y\varepsilon\overline{\varepsilon}dāu lá kà ò á n\varepsilon\overline{ ná'abā +ø.}
1SG TNS NEG.IND see man:SG ART and 3AN COP FOC chief:SG NEG.

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\section*{24 Conditional clauses}

\subsection*{24.1 Overview}

Conditional clauses have a subordinate yà'-clause protasis before the subject of the main apodosis clause. Yà'-clauses cannot be coordinated with each other, though they may contain coordinated subclauses, and a main clause may contain more than one yà'-clause:

Fù yá' bj̀วd, ̣̀ yá' lèb nā, m̀ ná yכ́o 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 yà'-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

Fo ya'a mor pu'a, fon da mכدd ye fo bas oo.
Fò yá' mōr pứ'ā, fūn dā mכ̄כd yé fù bás•ō-o \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
2SG if have wife:SG, 2SG neg.IMP struggle:IPFV that 2SG abandon-3AN.OB neg.
"If you have a wife, don't try to leave her." (1 Cor 7:27)

Other sources permit bound pronouns:

Bung ya'a bood ye o lubuf, fu po nyeti o tubaa.

Donkey:SG if want that 3AN throw.off 25G.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 kà 28.2:

25G 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 kù instead of \(p \bar{u}\) when the sense is future; so too NT

So' ya'a ku tum, on da dii.
Sכ̄' yá' kù tōm, j̄n dā díl \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
Ind.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 yà'-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 ningoonr ka zan o lobi bas kolugin
Lì nāanı sכ̄n̆'כ-n, bà yá' nכ̄kı-n nēعr-títā'arı_ ø lכ̄כ-n_ø kólī-n 3INAN then be.better-DP 3PL if take-DP millstone-big:SG CAT tie-DP CAT collar-DP う̄n nín-gว̀วr kà zánò_ Ø_ ø l̄̄bı ø bás kj̄lugu-n 3AN.CNTR body-neck:SG and take उAN.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 kajaa.
Dìn-zúg lì nāan án̆ súm bà yá' pū dú'ā-n dáu-kànáa +ø.
Thus zinan then cop good:ABSTR 3PL if neg.ind bear-dp man-dem.del.sg neg.
"So it would have been better for that man not to have been born."
(Mk 14:21, 1996)

\subsection*{24.1.1 Discontinuous-past \(\boldsymbol{n}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}\)}

Discontinuous-past \(n^{\varepsilon}\) can attach to any verb form in indicative or irrealis mood; it is not compatible with the imperative. In \(n\)-catenation, if \(n^{\varepsilon}\) is found in the first VP it is usually repeated in all 23.1.

Although it can appear as a discontinuous today-past 19.3.3, 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 nāan( \(\iota\) ), the sense is contrary-to-fact. It appears most often in yà'-clauses, but occurs both with and without nāan(l) in other main and subordinate clause types.

In main clauses, \(n^{\varepsilon}\) without nāan(ı) is most often seen in bj̀כdī-n "might wish":
m pa'ati nye ka ya pu wenne wuu man boodin ye ya aan si'em laa.
m̀ pá' tì n̆yé kà yà pū wēn n̄̄
1SG perhaps see and 2PLNEG.IND resemble with
wōv mán bう̀วdī-n yદ́ yà áa-n sīəm 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 bכJdin ne yaname naan aan ma'asiga beє yaname naan aan tovliga.
Mān bว́כdī-n n̄ yānámì ø nāan áa-n mā'asígā b̄̄ع
1SG.CNTR want-DP that 2PL NZ then COP-DP cold:ADV or
yānámìø nāan áa-n tūolígā.
2PL NZ then cop-dP hot:ADV.
"I might have wished you had been cold or you had been hot." (Rev 3:15)

\subsection*{24.1.2 Nāan(t) "in that case"}

The post-subject particle nāan(ı) is distinct from ňyāan "next, afterwards, then", but nāan (never nāanı) occurs commonly in the same sense as n̆yāan. 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's nóvr àtán̆' yé fù zíll mā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\),
25G IRR deny occasion:SG num:three that 2SG nEG.KNow 1sG.ob neg,
kà n亏̄-dáv̀g 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 nóכr àtán̆' kà nj̄-dáv̀g
2SG IRR deny 1SG.CNTR occasion:SG num:three and hen-male:SG
nāan 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 n̆yāan is probably a form of ňyá'an a "behind, after" with loss of glottalisation and assimilation of the final nasal because of its proclitic status. The particle nāan(ı) itself seems to have a core locative and logical sense "be(ing) there/thus, in that case."

There are examples in NT/KB of nāan(l) 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.
\(\dot{M}\) n̆y kà Sōtáanà nāaní_ \(\varnothing\) àrazánà nín lù \(\varnothing\) wह̄n \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\)
1sG see and Satan be.there cat sky LOc cat fall cat resemble foc
sáa_ \(\varnothing\) yītl_ \(\varnothing\) ijān̆k sỉəm lā.
rain:SG NZ emerge:IPFV CAT leap INDF.ADV ART.
"I saw Satan in heaven fall like lightning." (Lk 10:18, 1996)
dap bane gur ye ba zugdaan naan pu'adiir di'ema zin'igin kul na
dàp-bànı gūr yદ́ bà zūg-dáàn nāan pư'á-dīır díəmà
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 pïiga wūsa púvgú-n kà lì nāan ò yáab Abraham
one ten all inside:SG-Loc and 3inan be.there 3AN ancestor:SG Abraham
nú'usī-n
hand:PL-Loc
"the tithe which was in his ancestor Abraham's hands" (Heb 7:9, 1996)

Ka nwadbibis na naan agola lit tepin na.
Kà ňwād-bíbìs ná nāan àgólà \(\varnothing\) 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 nāanı evidently originated in nāan followed by catenator-n, but I will omit CAT in the interlinear glossing henceforward.

Most cases of modal nāan(ı) appear in the apodoses of conditional clauses. It does not occur in protasis yà'-clauses. In main clauses nāan( \(\iota\) ) without discontinuouspast \(n^{\varepsilon}\) is most often a by-form of n̆yāan as described above; otherwise the meaning is "in that case, matters being thus." Examples of nāan(l) in subordinate clauses are uncommon in KB, which usually simply shows the irrealis marker nà where older versions have nāan.
\(N a ̄ a n(\iota)\) without \(n^{\varepsilon}\) may be effectively equivalent to yà' "if/when."

Ka so' naam mori [sic] pe'is kobuga ka yinni bodige?
Kà sכ̄' nāan mכ̄r pē'عs kóbıgá kà yīnní bj̀dıge \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
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 yعla gaad ...
Lì àn̆ súm yē dāu yīnní nāan kpínīdıb lā yélà \(\varnothing\) Ø gàad... 3INAN COP good that man:SG one then die person:PLART 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 kpisiykpil ka fu sin ka mor suguru, li su'um a bo?
Fón nāanı tóm bē'عd kà bà sīgısú_ \(f \quad n \bar{\varepsilon}\) kpísìnkpìl 2SG:Nz then do bad and 3PL put.down 2SG.OB with fist:SG kà fù sín kà mכ̄r sūgurú, lì sòm án̆ bó \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ? and 2 SG be.silent and have forbearance, JINAN 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)

Niggbiy naan be ka siig kae' ka li a zaalim la, ala men ...
Nìn-gbíŋ ø nāan bé kà sīıg kā'e kà lì án̆ zāalím lā, Body-skin:sG nz then ExIST and spirit:SG NEG.be and zinan 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 sō' nā'mısíd tóòm-bàmmā námī-né \({ }^{+} \varnothing\), But NEG.IMP cause and 2PLINDF.AN suffer:IPFV deed-dem.DEI.PL PL-LOC NEG, ón nāanı án̆ nīn-kóv̀d ...
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)

Nopir lem kae' gaad nidi naan kpi o zuanam zugo.
Nj̀pır lém kā'e_ \(\varnothing\) gáàd nīdí_ ø nāan kpí ò zừà-nàm zúgj̄ \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
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 zunzoŋ naani ve'ed zunzoŋ ne.
Bà \(w \bar{\varepsilon} n \quad n \bar{\varepsilon}\) zónzว̀n \(\quad\) nāanı v \(\bar{\prime} ' \varepsilon d\) zúnzว̀n \(\eta \quad n \bar{\varepsilon}\).
3PL resemble with blind.person:Sg Nz then lead:IPFV blind.person:sg like.
"They are like when a blind person leads a blind person." (Mt 15:14, 1996)
wuu kunduna naan lusi ba men ne pe'es gbana n kpen' pe'esin. wōv kúndòna_ø nāan lūsí_bà mēŋ n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) p \(\overline{1}\) ' \(\varepsilon s\) gbánà \(n\) kpèn̆' p \(\bar{\prime} ' \varepsilon s i ́-n . ~\) 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 \(n\) āan(l) is accompanied by discontinuous-past \(n^{\varepsilon}\) the meaning is contrary-to-fact, as in conditional clauses:

Ka m bood ye li naani pun nipin sa.
Kà m̀ bj́j̀d yé lì nāanı pón nìī-n sá.
And isg 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 zapin m ligidi \(n\) su'an banki ni.
Lì sò'm kà fò dāa nāan zání-n_m̀ līgıdı \(n\) sō'a-n bánkì ní. 3Inan be.good and 2SG tNs then take-dP 1SG money CAT hide-dP bank:SG Loc.
"You should have put my money in the bank." (Mt 25:27, 1976)
\(M\) daa pu bood ye nimbane naan tisini \(m\) sumalisim la keen ka moren susa'aŋa.
M̀ dāa pū bój̀d ȳ nīn-bánì nāan tísī-ní_m
1SG TNS NEG.IND want that person-REL.PL then give-dP 1SG.OB
sū-málısìm lā kēe-n kà m̀ mכ̄rı-n sū-sán̆'ànā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). 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 meni naani moren suekane na keen ka mat nyo'og ne saalib yela Iaa.
Hālí báa m̀̀ mēyí_ø nāanı mōrı-n sưā-kánì nà k \(\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon-n\)
Even not 1sG self nz then have-dp way-Rel.SG IRr cause-dp

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)

\subsection*{24.2 Open}

Conditional clauses without discontinuous-past \(n^{\varepsilon}\) or nāan( \(ا\) ) express "if", and also "when" with a main clause with present or future reference. With main clauses with past reference, yà' is only used for conditionals; for the meaning "when", an absolute clause with time reference is used as a postlinker or VP adjunct 25.2. In a yà'-clause, indicative mood is consistently used instead of irrealis in positive polarity, and usually though not invariably in the negative.

Nid ya'a tum tuoma, o di'ed yכدd.
Nīd yá' tùm tūvma, ò dì'əd yj̄כd.
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 po vo'vg kumine, alaa ti labasu la mכוכlug la ane zaalim.
Kà Kristo yá' dà pū vū'vg kūmı-nદ́ \({ }^{+} \varnothing\), àláa_ tì làba-sùn
And Christ if tNS NEG.IND come.alive death-Loc neg, ADV:thus iPL news-good:SG
lā móวlùg 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)

Brog ya'a nie fo na wom o pian'ad.
Bēog yá' nìe, fù ná wóm ò pìàn'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."
\[
\text { Fù yá' sià̀k, tì ná dīgılí_ } f \text {. }
\]

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-píəlìg bé fù nīf lā púvgū-n. Fù yá' bj̀כd, tì ná
Thing-white:sg ExIST 2SG eye:SG ART inside:sG-Loc. 2SG if want, 1PLIRR
yīis, kà fù ná n̆yह̄ súnā 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."

Negative polarity with non-past reference in the yà'-clause:

M ya'a po keje, Supid la ko kern ya ni naa.
\(\grave{M}\) yá' \(p \overline{0}\) k \(\overline{\eta \varepsilon ́+\varnothing, ~ s u ̄ \eta ı d ~ l a ̄ ~ k u ́ ~ k \varepsilon ́ \varepsilon n ̆-y a ̀ ~ n i ̄ ~ n a ́ a ~}{ }^{+} \varnothing\).
1SG 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.
Sכ̄' yá' kù tōm, う̄n dā díl \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
Ind.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)

\subsection*{24.3 Hypothetical}

If discontinuous-past \(n^{\varepsilon}\) occurs in the yà'-clause and the main clause does not have nāan( \(\iota\), the meaning is hypothetical. The main clause has irrealis mood; in the 1976 NT, but not later Bible versions, it also has \(n^{\varepsilon}\).

Nobir ya'a yelin ye, on pu a nu'ug la zug, o ka' ningbin nii, lin ku nyapin keen ka o ka' ningbin nii.
Nóbìr yá' yèlī-n y \(\bar{\varepsilon}\), ón \(p \bar{u}\) án̆ nú'ùg lā zúg,
Leg:SG if say-dp that 3AN:NZ NEG.IND Cop hand:SG ART upon,
ò kā' nín-gbī níı \({ }^{+} \varnothing\), līn kú ňyāŋı-n_ ø
3AN neg.be body-skin:SG LOC NEG, dem.INAN neg.IRR accomplish-DP CAT
\(k \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon\)-n kà ò kā' nín-gbīn níl \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
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: Nobir ya'a yelin ye, "Man ka' nu'ug la zug, m ka' niמbip la nii," lin kv nyani ke ka o ka' niggbin 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 zulun na paaen o salabir.
Wìəf yá'sīgí-n lì nū, lì zùlun ná páa-n ò sàlıbır.
Horse:sg if descend-dp zinan loc, zinan depth IRR reach-dp zan 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 zulv na paae o salibir.

\subsection*{24.4 Contrary-to-fact}

If the main clause has nāan( \(ا\) ), there is a contrary-to-fact implication. Both main and yà'-clause have discontinuous-past \(n^{\varepsilon}\) :

Man ya'a po keعn na tu'asini ba, ba naan ku morin taale.
Mān yá' pū k \(\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon-n \quad n a ̄ \_\varnothing\) tú'asī-ní_bā, bà nāan kú 1SG.CNTR if NEG.IND come-DP hither CAT talk-DP 3PL.OB, 3PL then NEG.IRR mכ̄rı-n táàlle \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
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'ine li, ba naan ku kpa'an Zugsob one an na'atita'ar la dapuudir zugo.
Bà yá' dāa mỉi-ní_ l̄, 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
àn̆ ná'-tītā'ar lā dá-pūvdá zùgj̄ \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
cop king-great:SG ART wood-cross:SG upon NEG.
"If they had known it, they would not have fastened the Lord, who was a great king, to a cross." (1 Cor 2:8)

Ya ya'a mi'in line na tisi ya sumbugusum zina nwa, li naan aan su'um!
Yà yá' mīi-n línì nà tīsı yá súmbūgusím zīná ñwá,
2PL if know-dP REL.INAN IRR give 2PL.ob peace today this,
lì nāan āa-n sóm!
3INAN then COP-DP good:ABSTR.
"If you had known this day what would have brought you peace, that would have been good." (Lk 19:42)

Li ya'a aane \(m\) mey ganir ka \(m\) tummin tuum kaya, \(m\) naani di'edin nyood.
Lì yá' āa-ní_m̀ mēŋ gánìr kà m̀ tómmī-n tóv̀m-kànā,
3INAN if COP-DP 1SG self choice and 1SG work:IPFV-DP work-dem.DEI.SG,
m̀ nāanı dỉəə \(\iota\)-n n̆yว̄วd.
1SG then receive:IPFV-DP pay.
"If it had been my own choice that I did this work, I would have been getting pay." (1 Cor 9:17, 1976)

Ya'a ka'ane alaa, m naan ku yeline ya ye ...
Yà' kā'a-ní_àlá, m̀ nāan kú yēlı-ní_yā y \(\bar{\varepsilon} \ldots\)
If NEG.be-DP ADV:thus, 1 SG 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 yà'-clause has \(n^{\varepsilon}\) as usual:

Bozugo Josua ya'a da tisini ba vo'usum zin'ig, Wina'am da ko Iem pian' dabis-si'a yعla ya'asع.
Bう̄ zúgj̄ Josua yá' dà tìsī-ní_bā vō'usím zíň'ìg, Wínà'am dá kù
Because Joshua if tns give-dp 3PL.ob resting place:sg, God tns neg.IRr
lह̄m pìān̆' dábìs-si’a yélà yà'as \(\bar{\varepsilon}^{+} \varnothing\).
again speak day-IndF.InAN about again neg.
"For if Joshua had given them a resting place, God would not subsequently have spoken of a certain day." (Heb 4:8)

Similarly, without a yà'-clause:

Ò dāa ná zāb ná'àb lā.
3AN TNS IRR fight chief:SG ART.
"He would have fought the chief" (but didn't)
WK confirmed this meaning, as against "He was going to fight the chief."

\section*{}

\subsection*{25.1 Overview}

Kusaal transforms complete clauses into AdvPs or NPs by inserting the postsubject particle \(\grave{n}\). (For the realisation of the particle, see 8.2.) The \(\grave{n}\) by itself is a nominaliser, which turns the original clause "X" into an "absolute" clause signifying "it being the fact that X." \(\grave{N}\)-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-n may be historically related to catenator-n 23.1.
All types of \(\grave{n}\)-clause have independent tense marking (but relative to the narrative timeline within a series of sequential clauses 22.2.1.)

They cannot use the imperative mood; irrealis appears instead:

Yaname na mor sam si'a ane ye ya מכn taaba.
Yānámì@ nà mōr sām-sí'a á n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) yé yà nón 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)
\(\grave{N}\)-clauses cannot contain focus particles, but relative pronouns are often preposed with kà 25.3.2. \(\grave{N}\)-clauses cannot take modifiers or postdeterminers, but can participate as predeterminers in forming larger NPs or AdvPs, and may have predeterminers of their own 16.10.3.

Absolute \(\grave{n}\)-clauses almost always take the article \(I^{+}+/\); the function of the article after relative clauses is similar to its usage elsewhere 16.5. Absence of the article after a relative clause does duty for what with nouns is expressed by indefinite postdeterminer pronouns.

J̄n sj̄b á n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) dáún-kànı sà k̄̄ nā sú'ès lā.
3AN.CNTR individual.sG cop foc man-REL.SG tns come hither yesterday art
"That one's the man who came yesterday."

Dàp-bànı bう̀วd ý́ bà ňyと́ع_f ḱ nā.
Man-ReL.PL want that 3PL see 25G.ob come hither
"Some men who want to see you have come."
one du'a ne Siig
"someone born of the Spirit" (Jn 3:8)
j̀nı dư'à n̄̄ Sīıg
REL.AN bear with spirit:sg
one tomi m la na
j̀nı tòmı
"he who sent me hither" (Mk 9:37)
(ว̀nı = REL.AN; contrast ón 3SG:NZ)
rel.an send 1SG.ob art hither

The article is not repeated a second time after an \(\grave{n}\)-clause which ends in a NP with \(I_{\bar{a}}{ }^{+/}\). If the clause contains the VP-final particles nā\(+/\)"hither" sà \({ }^{+}\)"hence", these may follow an article belonging to the \(\grave{n}\)-clause 19.10 .

If the \(\grave{n}\)-clause has a negative VP, it only shows a final LF if the \(\grave{n}\)-clause is itself clause-final in the superordinate clause:

Nīn-bánì pō dít ná kpī.
Person-REL.pl NEG.IND eat:IPFV IRR die.
"People who don't eat will die." WK

M̀ n̆yé nīn-bánì pū dítā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
1sg see person-ReL.PL neg.Ind eat:IPFV neg.
"I've seen some people who don't eat."

\subsection*{25.2 Absolute clauses}
\(\grave{N}\)-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 kà 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:

> J̄n dāa n̆yēt súnā, ón dāa án̆ bí-līa láa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
> 3AN.CNTR TNS see:IPFV good:ADV, 3AN:NZ TNS COP child-baby:SG ART PQ?
"Did she see well when she was a baby?"

Tense markers in an absolute clause are the same as in the main clause; the main clause markers may be omitted if the absolute clause precedes. It is thus not possible to manipulate the time relationship with tense particles; instead, this is determined by aspect, with a perfective in the absolute clause implying a prior event and imperfective a simultaneous one, setting the temporal scene for the main clause.

Ka ban dit la, Yesu yeli ba ...
Kà bán dit lā, Yesu y fili_bā...
And 3PL:Nz eat:IPFV ART, Jesus say 3PL.ob
"As they were eating, Jesus said to them ..." (Mt 26:21)

Ka ban yi la, ka Zugsob malek nie o men ...
Kà bán yī lā, kà Zūg-sób málīāk 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 àenn \(n^{\text {a }}\) "be", though occasionally as subjects:

Kristo da kpii ti yela la ke ka ti baŋ nonilim an si'em.
Kristo_ø dà kpii_tì yह̄lá lā ké kà tì bán nว̀nılím_ø àn̆ sỉəm.
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 ks ka m a saalbiis zua la ans mam pu sa'amidi ba la'ad ka me pu diti ba ki la.
Dìnı ké kà m̀ án̆ sáàl-bīis zưá lā á nē mán
REL.SG cause and 1SG cop smooth-child:PL friend:SG ART COP FOC 1SG:NZ
pū sáň'amidí_bà lā'ad kà mé pū dítí_ bà kī láa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
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 26.2 appear in this function.

Absolute clauses with sādıgím "since, because" immediately following nominaliser-ǹ occur as postlinker adjuncts expressing "reason why":

Tiname sagidim aan o biis la, ti da ten'عs ...
Tĩnámì ø sādıgím áan̆_ò bīis lā, tì dā tह̄n̆'عs ...
1PL NZ since COP 3AN child:PLART, IPL NEG.IMP think...
"Since we are his children, we should not think ..." (Acts 17:29)

Amaa on sadigim kpi la, bכ ka m lem loכd nככ ya'aš?
Àmáa ón sādıgím kpí lā, bó kà m̀ lém
But 3AN:nz since die ART, what and 1SG again
l̄כd nכ̄כr yá'as६̀ \({ }^{+} \varnothing{ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
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 nāan(ı) see 24.1.2.
Absolute clauses occur after hālí n̄̄ or hālí là'am n̄ "although, even as" 18, and hālí n tì pāa ..."up until the time when ..." 21.2.1.

Before the postposition zūg/ "on account of", or bう̄ zúgj̄ "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.
Kà bà lá'às tāaba \(n\) dénì ø n̆y \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) Blestus ónì àn̆ ná'àb Herod And 3pL gather each.other cat do.first CAT see Blastus rel.an cop king:sg Herod sāmán-nà'ab lā \(n\) máàl sūөr yé ò n̆wé' nà'ab nú'ùg, courtyard-chief:SG ART CAT make way:sg that 3AN strike king:sG hand:SG, bà dīıb ǹ yīt ná'-tह̄ך 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 kà \(\underline{28.2}\) to match the word order to event order 19.2.1:
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Mán n̆w\varepsiloǹ' dāu lā zúg kà police gbán̆'a_m.
1SG:NZ strike man:SG ART upon and police seize 1SG.ob.
"Because I struck the man the police arrested me."

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It is commoner for causation to be simply implied by an absolute clause as postlinker adjunct or kà-preposed VP adjunct, or by a sequential clause:
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Mán n̆wغ̀' dāun lā, kà police gbán̆'a_m.
1SG:NZ strike man:SG ART and police seize 1SG.OB.
"I having struck the man, the police arrested me."
M n̆w\varepsiloń' dāu lā,kà police gbán̆'a_m.
1SG strike man:SG ART and police seize 1SG.ob.
"I struck the man and the police arrested me."
Y\varepsilon̄lá+ "concerning" appears after absolute clauses in NT section headings:
Jesus n kpen' Jerusalem la yela
Jesus ǹ kp\varepsiloǹn̆' Jerusalem lā yélà
Jesus nz enter Jerusalem ART about
"[about] Jesus entering into Jerusalem."
However, the NT uses absolute clauses alone as picture captions:

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Ban meed yir "A house being built"

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Ban meed yir "A house being built"
Bán mè\varepsilond yör
3PL:Nz build:IPFV house:SG
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### 25.3 Relative clauses

Relative clauses are usually restrictive in meaning, except when the construction is appositional. (Compare adnominal kà-catenation, used typically with a non-restrictive relative meaning 23.3.)

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 $n$ in the indefinite-pronoun type; diachronically, the unitary relative pronouns have arisen from fusion of a clauseinitial short demonstrative pronoun with a following $\dot{n}$.

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 one gaad si'el wusa la
Wínà'am ónì gàad sỉəl wūsa lā
God rel.an pass indf.inan all art
"God who surpasses everything." (Lk 1:35)
wov bani gban'ad si'el si'em la
wōv bāní ø gbān̄'ad sīəəl sỉəm lā
like trap:SG Nz seize:IPFV INDF.INAN INDF.ADV ART
"like a trap seizes something" (Lk 21:35)

O pa'al nع'عnam nyain tis sכ' wusa on vo'vg ninkan kumin la zug. Ò pà'al nē'-nám ňyāe_ $\varnothing$ tís sכ̄' wūsa ón vō'vg nīn-kán 3AN show dem.Inan-PL clearly CAT give ind.an all 3AN:NZ revive person-dem.SG kūmı-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 tuvmnyalima gaad dau kana tom si'el laa?
ò nà tūm túv̀m-n̆yālımá_ø gàad dàu-kàná_ ø tùm sỉəl láa +ø?
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 gbaupin la, ane ameクa.
$y \bar{\varepsilon} \quad$ Wínà'am nó-dí̀̀sıdıb n dāa yél sỉəl n sj̄b
That God mouth-receiver:PL NZ TNS say indf.inan CAT write
Wínà'am gbáungū-n lā á né àmēná.
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 yelim fun nig li si'el.
... fūn yélìm fún nìnì_l̄ sīəl.
... 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:

J́n yèl sī'əl lā kā' sídāa ${ }^{+} \varnothing$.
3AN:NZ say indf.inan art neg.be truth neg.
"What he says is not true" SB
on gay dau so' la
ón gāp dáú-sכ̄' lā
3AN:NZ choose man-IndF.an ART
"the man whom he has chosen" (Numbers 16:5)

M mi' man gan sieba la.
M̀ mí' mán gāp sīəba lā.
1Sg know 1SG:Nz choose IndF.pL ART.
"I know those whom I have chosen." (Jn 13:18)

Ka ban tom so' la ku gaad one tom o la.
Kà bán tòm sכ̄' lā kú gāad ónì tòm•o Ø láa ${ }^{+} \varnothing$.
And 3pL:nz send indf.an art neg.irr surpass rel.an send zan.ob art neg.
"One who was sent does not surpass the one who sent him." (Jn 13:16)

Paul n sob gbaun si'a $n$ tis Efesus dim la
Paul ǹ sōb gbáun-sīa $n$ tís Efesus dím lā
Paul nz write letter- Ind.InAn CAT give Ephesus individual.PL ART
"the letter which Paul wrote to the Ephesians" (NT heading)

Man mi' si'el nan ane bi'ela.
Mán mí sỉəl nān á nē bỉəlá.
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:

Fon bood ye fo ku dau so' la ya'a kpi...
Fún bj̀วd yé fù kū dáu-sכ̄' lā yá' kpì...
25G:NZ want that 2 2sG kill man-INDF.AN ART if die...
"If the man whom you are seeking to kill dies ..." (2 Samuel 17:3)
ya na bay man yعl ye $m$ an so' la.
yà ná bān mán yèl yé m̀̀ àn̆ sכ̄' lā.
2PLIRR 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 bap la'abama an sכ' bunneع?
Gj̀sım yé fù ná bāŋ lá'-bàmmá_ø àn̆ sכ̄' búnnè ${ }^{+} \varnothing$ ?
Look:IMP that 25 S 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 me ko yeli ya mam nye nכor la so' san'ane.
Àláa mām mé kù yह̄/ı yá mán n̆y $\bar{\varepsilon} n \overline{\jmath r}$ lā s亏̄' sá'an $\bar{\varepsilon}{ }^{+} \varnothing$.
Thus 1SG.CNTR also NEG.IRR say $2 P L . o b$ 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 nככr so' yعla la tisi ya
$\dot{M}$ ná tōmí_m̀ Bá'_ $\varnothing$ zì'əl nj̄כr sכ̄' yélà $\varnothing$ tísí_yā. 1SG 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 ziig si'a yiiga la, fun ya'am o nככr ...
kà fún gbān̆'e zīŋ-sí'a yīigá lā, fūn yá'àm ò nכ̄כr...
and 25G: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 gbaug yiiga daan $n$ tis Korint dim la nwa.
Paul ǹ sōb gbáun yīigá dāan $n$ tís Korint dím lā Ø n̆wá. 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 $s \bar{J}^{\prime+}$ 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 bapin po'a kane si'is o la a so'
ò nāan bápī-n pu'á-kànì sī'ssó $\varnothing$ lá $\varnothing$ àn̆ sכ̄'.
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'alıyá ón wēn sכ̄'.
1SG 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 àn̆ sכ̄'.
1SG know 2SG:NZ COP INDF.AN

David da tom sכ' ye o bu'osi bap pu'a la an sכ'.
David dá tòm sכ̄' yé ò bū'өsıø bán pư'ā lá $\varnothing$ àn̆ sכ̄'.
David tns send ind.an that 3An ask CAT understand woman:SG ART nz COP ind.an.
"David sent someone to ask and find out who the woman was." (2 Samuel 11:3)
... bani ba yaaname an sieba
... bápì bà yāa-námìø àn̆ sīəba
... understand 3PL ancestor-PL NZ COP INDF.PL
"... discover who their ancestors were." (Ezra 2:61)

Relative clauses headed by $s \Gamma^{\top} \partial^{a}$ account for most occurrences of $s \lambda^{2} \partial /^{a}$ in the 1996 NT. Again, most cases ( 75 out of 130 in Matthew, Mark, Luke and John in the 1995 NT ) show either $s \upharpoonright^{2} /^{\text {a }}$ 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 sìəl á nह̄ yह̄, m̀ dāa á nē zū'өm, kà yō'un nूȳ̄t.
1SG:NZ know indf.Inan cop foc that, 1SG TNS COP Foc blind:SG, and after see:IPFV.
"What I know is, that I was blind and now I see." (Jn 9:25, 1996)

Kem yeli Joon yanam wum ka nye si'el.
Kèm_ø yह̄lı_ø Joon yānám_ø wùm kà ňyē sīəl.
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 bay man nip si'el laa?
Yà bán mán nìn sỉəl láa ${ }^{+} \varnothing$ ?
2PL understand 1sG:NZ do INDF.INAN ART CQ?
"Do you understand what I have done?" (Jn 13:12, 1996)

Of the remaining 55 examples, 22 have $s{ }^{\top} \jmath^{\text {a }}$ in a locative meaning "where, whither"; neither the pronoun nor the relative clause have the locative particle:

Bozugo ya araza'ase be si'el la, ya potenda me bene anina.
Bj̄ zúgó yà àrazà'así_ $\varnothing$ bè sỉəl lā, yà pò-tèn̆da mé bè né àní nā.
Because 2PL treasure NZ EXIST INDFINAN ART, 2PL mind:PL too EXIST Foc there.
"For where your treasure is, your mind is too." (Mt 6:21, 1996)

One ken likin zi' on ken si'ela.
J̀nı kēŋlīkı-n zī' ón kēn sỉəla ${ }^{+} \varnothing$.
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, $s \bar{i}^{\top} \rho^{a}$ consistently has an abstract uncountable meaning, often shading into "whatever":

Ka o niy on tun'e si'el.
Kà ò níp ón tūn̄'e sỉəəl.
And 3AN do 3AN:Nz be.able indF.InAN.
"She has done what she could."(Mk 14:8,1996)

In 14 of these cases it is followed by wūsa+ "all":

M na tis uf fun bood si'el wusa.
M̀ ná tīsıff fún bう̀วd sīəl wūsa.
1SG IRR give 2SG.OB 2SG:NZ want INDF.INAN all.
"I will give you anything you want." (Mk 6:23, 1996)
$S \upharpoonright \quad m^{\mathrm{m}}$, the form of the indefinite pronoun system with the mass $m^{\mathrm{m}}$ class suffix, appears in adverbial use as "somehow." As Kusaal frequently uses manneradverbs as predicative complements 17.5 , relative clauses with $s \upharpoonright \quad \partial m$ are, once again, common as objects of verbs of cognition, reporting, and perception:

Kristo da kpii ti yela la ke ka ti bay nopilim an si'em.
Kristo_ø dà kpii_tì yēlá lā ké kà tì bán nj̀nılím $\varnothing$ àn̆ sỉəm.
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 $l \bar{a}^{+/}$has its usual function with si'əm-relative clauses:

M̀ mí' mán nà nīŋ sīəəm. "I know what to do."
1SG know 1SG:NZ IRR do INDF.ADV.

M̀ mí' mán nà nīp sỉəm 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 $s i$ 'əm and past tense marking have $\not{\imath} \bar{a}^{+/} ; 75 \%$ lacking $l \bar{a}^{+/}$have irrealis mood. Cf the two standing expressions
ón bう̀วd si’əm "as he wishes"
3AN:NZ want INDF.ADV
lín àn̆ sỉəm lā "as things are"
3INAN:NZ COP INDF.ADV ART

Y $\bar{\varepsilon}^{\varepsilon}$ "say, tell" tends to take a $s \grave{`} ə m$-relative clause with lā in its sense of "say, tell how something is" and without $l \bar{a}$ in the sense "say how to do something":

Bà $y$ ह̀l•ō b bán nìh $s i ̉ \partial m$ lā.
3PL say 3AN.OB 3PL:NZ do INDF.ADV ART
"They told him what they'd done"

Bà nà yह̄lıf fún nà nīp sỉəm.
3PLIRR tell 25G.OB 2SG:NZIRR do INDF.ADV.
"They'll tell you what to do."

Pà'al $\varepsilon$ "teach, inform", surprisingly, takes a relative clause object without lā:

Bà pà'al•ō $\varnothing$ bán nìn sỉəm.
3PL inform 3AN.OB 3PL:NZ do INDF.ADV.
"They informed him of what they'd done."

Verbs of other types also take $s \upharpoonright \quad ə m$-clauses as complements.
$G a ̀ a d^{\varepsilon}$ "pass, surpass" is used with a $s \upharpoonright \quad ə m$-clause for comparing actions:

Mam tum bedegu gaad ban tum si'em la.
Mām tóm bédugū ø gáàd bán tòm sỉəm lā.
1SG.CNTR work much CAT pass 3PL:NZ work IndF.ADV ART
"I've worked much harder than (how) they have." (2 Cor 11:23)

Gbān̄'e+/ "catch" is used with a sỉəm-clause for "decide what to do":

M gbán̆'e mán nà nīŋ sỉəm.
1SG seize 1SG:NZ IRR do INDF.ADV.
"I've decided what to do."

With verbs of doing, a si'əm-relative clause can be a manner-adverb:

Bà nìg ón yèll_bā sỉəm lā.
3PL do 3AN:NZ tell 3PL.ob INDF.ADV ART.
"They did as he'd told them."

Like other AdvPs, sỉəm-relative clauses can be verb subjects:

Man nopi ya si'em la ane bedego.
Mán nכ̀מı yā sīəm lā á nē bédugū.
1SG:Nz love 2PL.ob INDF.ADV ART COP FOC much.
"How much I love you, is a lot." (2 Cor 7:3, 1976)

Si'əm-relative clauses occur often as objects of wōv "like", w $\bar{\varepsilon} n^{\text {na/ }}$ "resemble"
...ka ya na ke ka nidib dol man wov ziingba'adibi gban'ad zimi si'em la.
...kà yà ná ké kà nīdıb d̄̄l mān wōv zïin-gbáň'adìb ø
...and 3PL IRR cause and person:PL follow 1SG.CNTR like fish-catcher:PL NZ
gbān̄'ad zīmí sỉəm lā.
catch:IPFV fish:PL INDF.ADV ART
"... you will make people follow me like fishermen catch fish." (Mt 4:19)

Hālí (là'am) n $\bar{\varepsilon}$ "although" can take a sỉ'əm-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 $s \bar{\jmath}^{\prime+}$ or sīəba+, though KB has several examples; $s i^{\prime} a^{+}$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 tùvm-sīəba ...
Person:Plart 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' bỉəláa ${ }^{+} \varnothing$.
3PL:NZ TNS kill person-INDF.pLTNS neg.be few neg.
"Those they had killed were not few." (1 Samuel 4:10)
ka ban ne ban tum ninsieba la dכl taaba keŋ David san'an...
kà bān n̄̄ bán tòm nīn-síəbà lā dう̄l 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 tu'us Samaria na'abi tum ninsieba la na ...
Kèm_ø tō'us Samaria ná'abí ø tòm 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)

Ka bugum n dit tentita'ar si'a la nyo'os dut ne agol saja dine ka' benne.
Kà bùgúm_n dit tén-tītá'-sīa lā n̆yó'j̀s dòt né
And fire $\quad$ NZ eat:IPFV land-big-INDF.INAN ART smoke ascend:IPFV FOC àgól sāná dìnı kā' bēnne ${ }^{+} \varnothing$.
adv:upwards time:sg rel.inan neg.have end:sg neg.
"The smoke of that great city which fire is consuming is going up for time without end." (Rev 19:3), referencing the ongoing topic of the previous chapter Babilon teŋ tita'ar "the great city of Babylon" (Rev 18:21, 1996)
ka fun gban'e zin si'a yiiga la, fun ya'ami o noor
kà fún gbān̆'e zīm-sí'a yīigá lā, fūn yá'amí_ò nכ̄כr.
And $25 G: N z$ 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 gbaun si'a la ka me m sob lebisi ya.
Nānná-nā, yānámì_ø dāa sכ̄b gbáun-sỉa lá kà m̀ yદ́
Now, 2PL NZ TNS write letter-INDF.INAN ART and 1SG that
m̀ sכ̄b_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 pan si'a la $n$ tum ne sutoogo.
... ì̀ pū nār yé m̀ zán Zūg-sób lá ø tìsìm
... 3INAN neg.Ind be.necessary that 1sG pick.up Head-one:Sg ART nz give 1sG.OB pán-sīa lā $n$ tóm n̄̄ sūñ-tóวgj̄ ${ }^{+} \varnothing$.
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 nop taaba.
Yānámì@ nà mōr sām-sí'a á ne yé yà nón 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 $\varnothing$ bigısıd lín àn̆ tí-sỉa.
Tree:sG fruit:pl CAT show:ImpF zinan:nz cop tree-Indf.Inan.
"It's the fruit of the tree that shows what tree it is." (Mt 12:33, 1996)

Of 56 relative clauses with si $a^{+}$in the 1996 NT, 33 involve cbs of nouns referring to places:

M Zugsoba, ti zi' fun ken zin'isi'a la.
$\dot{M}$ Zūg-sóbā ${ }^{+} \varnothing$, tì zī' fón k $\bar{n}$ zín̆'-sīa láa ${ }^{+} \varnothing$.
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 bùgóm níe ón bè dó-sỉa 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 sān-sí'a+ "sometime", e.g.

Abraham da nan kae' saysi'a la, ka man pun be.
Abraham dá nàm kā'e sān-sí'a lā, kà mān pún bè.
Abraham tns still neg.be time-Indf.inan Art, and 1sG.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 $\grave{n}$. When the head is the subject of the relative clause, this produces the forms j̀nı kànı lìnı bànı (always written one kane line bane in KB ) where the final $-\iota$ is due to liaison before the nominaliser, which is itself invariably realised $\varnothing$ in this case.

> M n̆ý́ 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 kà, or belongs to a predeterminer of the subject, one might expect the $\grave{n}$ to be absent and the pronoun to have the normal SF form. This indeed the case for WK , and commonly in the older NT versions too:

```
bàn kà nà'ab lā záb lā
DEM.PL and chief:SG ART fight ART
"those whom the chief fought"
yikan ka mam Paul be la
yī-kán kà mām Paul bé 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
j̀n 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:

```
gbaun kane ka dau la sob la
```

for gbàunŋ-kàn kà dāu lā sכ̄b lā
letter-ReL.SG and man:SG ART write ART
"the letter which the man has written"
In dau kane yadda nimiri po zu'oe
dàu-kànı yàddā-nípìrı ø pū 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 j̀nı kànı lìnı bànı synchronically as subordinating relative pronouns rather than demonstrative + nominaliser combinations, and where sources use the historically expected forms in kàn lìn bàn 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 n̆y\varepsiloń 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."

Toende Kusaal shows the same development. Nominaliser- $n$ 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 kip 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 16.9, 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:

```
bànı zàb nà'ab lā "those who fought the chief"
REL.PL fight chief:SG ART
M n̆y\varepsiloń dáu-kànt zàb nà'ab lā.
1SG see man-rel.sG fight chief:SG ART
"I saw the man who fought the chief."
```

nimbane yoda sob Pebil la gbaupun line an nyovopaal dim gbaup la
nīn-bánì yōdá sj̄b P $\varepsilon^{\prime}$-bíl lā gbáungū-n línì
person-REL.PL name:PL write Lamb:SG ART book:SG-LOC REL.INAN
àn̆ n̆yó-vō-páàl dím gbáun lā
cop breath-alive-new:SG individual.pL book:SG ART
"those whose names are written in the Lamb's book of 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 kà 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. Kà-preposing has no foregrounding sense in this context.

Kà-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 25.3.1.

Gbaun kane ka Jerusalem kpeenmnam daa sob la nwa.
Gbàun-kànı kà Jerusalem kpéżn̆m-nàm dāa sכ̄b lā_ø n̆wá.
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 line [1996 lin] ka ba mor na
m̀ àntù'a lìnı kà bà mכ̄r nā
1SG case REL.INAN and 3pL have hither
"the charge they are bringing against me" (Acts 25:11)
yعltวכd ayวpэi bane ka maliaknama ayวpวi mor la
y $\bar{l}$-tój̀d àyópj̀e bánì kà màliāk-námá_àyópj̀e mōr 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)
niykanc [1996 niykan] ka ba gban'e o la
nīn-kánì kà bà gbán̆'•O_ø lā
person-REL.SG and 3PL seize 3AN.OB ART
"a person whom they have seized" (Acts 25:16) (human VP object)

Ons ka ba tis o ka li zu'oe, ba me mor puten'er ye o na lebis line zu'oe.
J̀nı kà bà tísò ø kà lì zú'e, bà mè mòr REL.AN and 3PL give 3AN.OB and 3INAN become.much, 3PL also have pú-tદ̀n̆'घr yé ò nà lēbıs 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 bẽ ànīa, ôn kà mān néōn dāa túm lā.
Būrá-sכ̄' dāa bé ànínā, j̀n kà mān nē j̄n dāa tóm lā. Man-IndF.an tns exist adv:there, rel.an and isg with 3an tns work:IPFV art. "There was a man there whom I used to work with." ILK
ninkane ka Na'ab Aretus ke ka o su'oe Damaskus la
nīn-kánì kà nà'ab Aretus ké kà ò sū'e Damaskus lā person-rel.sg and king:sg Aretus cause and zan own Damascus art "the person whom King Aretus had caused to possess Damascus" (2 Cor 11:32)
nimbane ka ya ten'es ye ba ane tuongatib la
nīn-bánì kà yà tēn̆'عs yé bà à nē túèn-gātíb lā
person-REL.PL and 2PL think that 3PL COP FOC ahead-passer:PLART
"those whom you consider to be leaders" (Gal 2:6)
line [1996 lin] ka Kristo bovd ye ti pian' la
lìnı kà Kristo bj́j̀dy ý pì piān̆' lā
rel.inan and Christ want that ipl 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 kà-preposed, but obviously no resumptive pronoun is needed:

Samaritan nid (on buudi ka Jew dim kis)
Samaritan níd, j̀n 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)
bikane [1996 biig kan] povg ka o mor la
bì-kànı póv̀g kà ò mōr 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 $n \bar{\imath}^{+/}$:
yikan ka mam Paul be la yidaan
yī-kán kà mām Paul bé 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 16.8 16.11.1.5) the construction is appositional. Unequivocally appositional cases are usually non-restrictive:
o sid one da be ne o la
ò sīd ónì dà bè né ò lā
3AN husband:SG REL.AN TNS EXIST with 3AN ART
"her husband, who was there with her" (Genesis 3:6)

In KB, appositional relative one 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 ne Timoti bane an Yesu Kristo tomtomnib la sobid gbaun kana
Mām Paul nē Timoti bánì àn̆ Yesu Kristo tóm-tūmníb
1sG.cnTr Paul with Timothy rel.pl cop Jesus Christ work-worker:PL
lā sj̄bıd gbáunŋ-kànā...
ART write:IPFV letter-dem.del.SG ...
"I, Paul, and Timothy, servants of Jesus Christ, are writing this letter." (Phil 1:1)
kokor kaya lini yi arazana ni la na
kòkJ̄r-kápā línì yí àrazánàní lā nā voice-dem.del.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 saya line ka' ben la sunpeen pe'zli ba la
sālıma láàs àyópj̀e línì kà Wínà'am ónì bè
gold vessel:pl num:seven rel.inan and God rel.an exist
sāŋá lìnı kā' bēn lā sún̆-pćèn pé' 1 li_bā 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)
nimbane yoda sob Pebil la gbaupun line an nyovopaal dim gbaup la
nīn-bánì yōdá sכ̄b P ${ }^{\prime}$-bíl lā gbáunū̄-n línì
person-reL.pl name:PL write Lamb:SG ART book:SG-LOC REL.INAN
àn̆ n̆yó-vō-páàl dím gbáun lā
cop breath-alive-new:sG individual.pL book:SG ART
"those whose names are written in the Lamb's book of those with new life" (Rev 21:27)

Ka Yesu ken Nazaret, ban da ugus o ten si'a la.
Kà Yesu k $\bar{\eta}$ Nazaret bán dà ūgus•ó ø tèク-sỉa lā.
And Jesus go Nazareth 3pL:Nz tns raise 3An.ob land-Ind.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 $y \bar{\varepsilon}$. Both types may appear with kà instead, but usually much less often, and never exclusively; constructions which only permit kà and never $y \bar{\varepsilon}$ must be coordination or catenation. Complementised clauses follow any catenated clauses. Complementised clauses can be coordinated with kà:
ka lin ane ye fo ku maali ti be'عde nwene tiname daa po maalif be'ed si'em la asé su'um ma'aa, ka ye fu yim ne sumbugusum la.
kà līn á $n \bar{\varepsilon}$ yé fù kù māalí_tì bē' $\mathrm{c}_{\mathrm{U}}$ _ $\varnothing$ wēn $n \bar{\varepsilon}$ and 3INAN.CNTR COPFOC that 2SG NEG.IRR make 1PL bad CAT resemble with
 1PL NZTNS NEG.IND make $25 G . o b$ bad indF.ADV ART except good only kà yé fù yīm nē súmbūgusím lā. and that 25 s 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 $-m^{\text {a }}$ flexion with dual-aspect verbs, the imperative is apparent only in the use of dā 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 yé ò nū.
3PL give 3AN.OB water that 3AN drink.
"They gave him water to drink. ("So that he might drink it.")
M̀ ná tī $f$ tíim yé fù nīf dā záb ${ }^{+}{ }^{\dagger}$.
1SG IRR give 2SG.ob medicine that 2 SG eye:sg neg.IMp fight neg.
"I'll give you medicine so your eye won't hurt."
Ò vùl tílim kà ò nóbìr dā zábē ${ }^{+} \varnothing$.
3an swallow medicine and zan 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 kpen'عs sanrega ni ye beog nie.
Kà bà gbáň'a_bā_ Ø kpén̆'દ̀s sārıgá nì ȳ̄ bēog níe.
And 3PL seize 3PL.OB CAT put.in prison:SG Loc that morning appear.
"They seized them and put them in prison until tomorrow came." (Acts 4:3)

Purpose clauses appear as complements of particular verbs, e.g bう̀วda "want"; or $\left.y \grave{\varepsilon}\right|^{\varepsilon}$ "tell"; after these verbs the particle is nearly always $y \bar{\varepsilon}$. Negative raising occurs with bj̀ $d^{a}$ but not with $\left.y \grave{\varepsilon}\right|^{\varepsilon}$.
$\grave{M}$ bój̀d yદ́ ò kūl. $\quad$ "I want her to go home."
1Sg want that 3an go.home.
$\grave{M} p \bar{u} \quad$ bój̀d yé m̀ kūle $\quad{ }^{+} \varnothing$.
1SG NEG.IND want that 1sG go.home neg.
"I don't want [me] to go home."

1SG tell 2 SG.OB that $25 G$ NEG.IMP go.home NEG.
"I've told you not to go home."

The verb gūra/ "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 $y \bar{\varepsilon}$, again with an attenuated sense:

Nidib la daa gur Zakaria yiib na.
Nīdıb lā dāa gūr Zakaria yîbb nā.
Person:PLART TNS watch 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 pư'ā lā dư'á kà ò ón̆b bīig lā.
watch that woman:SG ART bear and 3AN eat child:SG ART.
"...waiting for the woman to give birth so he could devour her child." (Rev 12:4)

Purpose-clause complements follow expressions of necessity or permission such as nāra/ "be obliged to" (negated "be obliged not to"); mכ̄r sūөr "be allowed to"; lì à [ $n \bar{\varepsilon}$ ] tīlás "it is necessary":

Fò pū nār yé fô níy àláa ${ }^{+} \varnothing$.
2SG NEG.IND must that 2SG do ADV:thus neg.
"You're not allowed to do that."

Lì nàr yદ́/kà fò kūl. "You must go home."
3INAN must that/and 2sG go.home.

In KB there are 258 examples of nar ye to 45 of nar ka.

Yà mór sūөr yé yà kūl. "You may go home."
2PL have way:Sg that 2PL go.home.

Sūөr bé yé/kà tì kūl. "We may go home."
Way:Sg exist that/and 1pL go.home. (" There's a way that we go home.")

Li ans tilas ye m keŋ Jerusalem.
$L i ̀ ~ a ̀ ~ n \bar{\varepsilon}$ tīlás yé m̀ $k \bar{\varepsilon} \eta$ Jerusalem.
3INAN COP FOC necessity that 1SG go Jerusalem.
"I must go to Jerusalem." (Mt 16:21, 1996)

Li ane tilas ka m nipid ala.
Lì à nē tīlás kà m̀ nípìd 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
$N a ̄ r^{2 /}$ is occasionally used in a personal construction "deserve that":
babayi' la nar ye ba kov ba
bà bàyí lā nár yé bà kúv_bā
3PL nUM:two ART must that 3PL kill 3PL.OB
"both of them must be killed" (Leviticus 20:12)

Anכ'כne nar ka na nyapi lak titabir la ...
Ànó'כnì Ø nár kà ná n̆yāŋı_ø lāk tītābır lā...?
Who CAT must and IRR prevail CAT unstick glue ART ...?
"Who is worthy to open the seal ...?" (Rev 5:2)

### 26.2 Content clauses

Complementised clauses with independency marking $\underline{19.6}$ 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 $\grave{\varepsilon} \varepsilon^{\varepsilon}$ "say", wòm ${ }^{\mathrm{m}}$ "hear", n̆y $\bar{\varepsilon}^{+}$"see", tह̄n̆'عs $s^{\varepsilon /}$ "think", mī+ "know", bàn ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ "come to know", pà'al ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ "teach, show", kàrım ${ }^{m}$ "read", zī'+ "not know" and sinàk ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ "agree":
ban mi' ye biig la kpine la zug
bán mī y $\bar{\varepsilon}$ bïig lā kpínē 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-n $\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$
Bùn-bān̆'ad zī' ȳ̄ tēŋ túllā ${ }^{+} \varnothing$.
Donkey-rider:SG neg.know that ground:sg be.hot neg.
"The donkey-rider doesn't know the ground is hot."
Tone overlay: Tह̄ $\boldsymbol{T}$ túl. "Ground is hot." cf tūla/"be hot"

Fune siak ye fu ya'a ti kae, o na zin'ini fo na'am gbaun la zugכ?
Fōnı ø sliák yé fù yá' tì kā'e, ò nà zīn̆'iní_ fù nā'am
2SG.CNTR CAT agree that 2SG if after NEG.BE, 3AN IRR sit 2SG chieftaincy
gbáun lā zúgว́ ${ }^{+} \varnothing$ ?
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 $\underline{25.2}$ cannot be used as objects of such verbs, but another possibility apart from content clauses is NP + yह̄lá "about" 17.6.

Except in indirect speech 26.2.1, content clauses are usually declarative. There are exceptions, possibly characteristic of verbs of opinion and judgment:

Ya tenes ka m aan anכ'כne?
Yà tén̆'દ̀s kà m̀ áan̆ ànó'j̀ns ${ }^{+} \varnothing$ ?
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 kà after tēn̆' $\varepsilon s^{\varepsilon /}$ "think." KB has 219 examples of tenes ye to 31 of tenes $k a$ and shows kà after other verbs too:

Ya pon wom ka ba da yel ye...
Yà pún wòm kà bà dá yह̀l y $\bar{\varepsilon}$...
2PL previously hear and 3PLTNS say that...
"You previously heard that they had said ..." (Mt 5:43)
Kà + content clause is the only context where kà is followed by independency marking, and where kà does not delete a following subject pronoun with the same reference as the preceding subject:
$\grave{M}$ téň'Ès kà m̀ 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 $y \varepsilon y \bar{\varepsilon}$ "that" (cf Mampruli ni id):

Man bככdin ne yaname naan aan ma'asiga beє yaname naan aan tovliga.
Mān bj́כdī-n n̄ yānámì ø nāan áa-n mā'asígā b̄̄ع
1SG.CNTR want-DP that 2PL NZ then COP-DP cold:ADV or
yānámìø nāan áa-n tōolígā.
2PL NZ then cop-DP hot:ADV.
"I might wish you had been cold or you had been hot." (Rev 3:15)

The verb $y \bar{\varepsilon} l$ is frequently ellipted before $y \bar{\varepsilon}$ :

```
Ka Zugsob la ye ... "And the Lord said: ..." (Genesis 18:28)
Kà Zūg-sób lā y\varepsilon̄...
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 28.5) 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 y\varepsiloń ò g\varepsiloǹ\varepsilonn̆m n\overline{\varepsilon}... kà Paul l\varepsilońbìs
Festus shout Paul that 3AN go.mad Foc ... and Paul reply
y\overline{\varepsilon}}\overline{\jmathn}\quadp\overline{ }\quadg\varepsiloń\varepsilonn̆mm +\varnothing
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 "He ${ }_{1}$ said he $\mathrm{e}_{1}$ would kill them." is usually

Ò yèl ȳ̄ $\bar{\varepsilon} n$ ná kóv_bā.
3AN say that 3AN.CNTR IRR kill 3PL.ob.

It is possible to say Ò yèl yé ò nà kóv bā, but this is much more likely to mean "He $1_{1}$ said he ${ }_{2}$ 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 yह́l yé bà dāa kūl.
3AN TNS say that 3PLTNS go.home.
"She said that they had gone home."

Tì dāa tह̄n̆'عs 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'өs•ó_ø ȳ̄ Ananias, ȳ̄ bó kà ò ḱ́ kà Sūtáanà
And Peter ask 3AN.ов that Ananias, that what and 3AN cause and Satan
kpèn̆' ò sūuňrí-n ... $\quad$ † ?
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 2 nd sg subject and change of 2 pl subject to enclitic ya does not occur, even if the addressee is the same as in the original utterance and the pronoun remains 2 nd person. Some speakers keep the enclitic ${ }^{\text {ya }}$ after the verb even when there is a preceding pronoun subject 22.1.3.

Quoting gives an alternative to purpose clauses $\underline{26.1}$ for expressing indirect commands; again, the main clause and linker may be ellipted 21.3 informally:

```
[M` y\varepsilońl y\varepsiloń] ò gòsım tह̄\eta\iota-n.
1SG say that 3AN look:IMP ground:SG-LOC.
"[I said] she should look down."
[M}\mathrm{ tह́ň'ह̀s 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 22.3.4:

```
Ò yèl y\overline{\varepsilon}}\mathrm{ 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 m̀ wóm Wínà'am kókór kà lì yī áràzánà ní nā ȳ̄,
And 1sg hear God voice:sg and 3Inan emerge heaven loc hither that
ò nōdıbá ${ }^{+} \varnothing$, yé bà yìmī $\varnothing$ tह̄ŋ 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 $\boldsymbol{y} \bar{\varepsilon}$ at intervals of roughly every third clause, after any prelinker adjuncts

amaa ye ba yaanam da pu bood ye ba siak o noore
 but that 3PL ancestor-PLTNS NEG.IND want that 3PL agree 3AN.OB mouth:SG NEG "But their ancestors did not want to obey him" (Acts 7:39, 1976)

Ye ka Paul yel ye o bood ye o kpelim sarega ni.
Yદ́ kà Pauly $y$ l yદ́ ò bว̀วd yદ́ ò kpદ́lìm sārıgá nì.
That and Paul say that 3AN want that 3AN remain prison:sG loc.
"But Paul said he wanted to remain in prison...(Acts 25:21, 1976)

Amaa ye ka on yeli ba ye ...
Àmáa yé kà う̄n yélí_bā y $\overline{\text { ® }} .$.
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 כ̄n ké kà bà mōró́_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 nipi ba Wina'am ne o popielim pia'ad la nu'usin...
Kà nānná-nā yé ò nìnī bá Wínà'am né ò pò-pìəlım
And now-hither that 3an do 3pL.OB God with 3an inside-whiteness piáă'̆̀d 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 zưà̀-nàm nદ́ ò sàam-nàmā ${ }^{+} \varnothing$, yध́ 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, $p \bar{u}$ for indicative, dā for imperative, kù for irrealis replacing the positive marker nà 19.5, along with a clause-final negative prosodic clitic 8.1:

Ti pu bכod ye dau kaya aan ti na'aba.
Tì pū bój̀d y $\bar{\varepsilon}$ dáu-kànā áan̆ tì nà'abā ${ }^{+} \varnothing$.
1PL NEG.IND want that man-dem.del.SG Cop 1PL king:SG NEG.
"We don't want this man to be our king." (Lk 19:14)

Dìm $n \bar{\varepsilon}$ Wīn, dā tú'às $n \bar{\varepsilon}$ Wīnné ${ }^{+} \varnothing$.
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 kv maligim gaade.
Àmáa m̀ piàn̆'ad lā kú mālıgım gáad $\bar{\varepsilon}+\varnothing$.
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 pu bכod ye dau kaya aan ti na'aba.
Tì pū bój̀d yē dáu-kàpā áan̆ tì nà'abā ${ }^{+} \varnothing$.
1PL NEG.IND want that man-dem.del.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 po yuuge ka o pu'a me kena.
Kà lì pō yúug ${ }^{+} \varnothing$, kà ò pư'ā mé $k \bar{\varepsilon} \quad n a \overline{.}$
And zinan neg.Ind delay neg, and 3an wife:sg also come hither.
"Not much later, his wife came too." (Acts 5:7)
the kà-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 pū tóm sỉəla ${ }^{+} \varnothing$ yé bà án pú-pìəlım
person:PL EXIST and NEG.IND work:IPFV INDF.INAN NEG that 3PL cop inside-whiteness dím ...
"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 $\grave{n}$-clauses containing a negative unless they are themselves clause final in the main clause, and before the article $\mathrm{I}^{+}{ }^{+/}$:
$m$ bi'emnam bane pu bovd ye $m$ an na'abi su'oe ba la $\grave{m}$ bì'əm-nàm bánì pū bj́j̀d yé m̀ án̆ ná'abì ø súv_bā lā 1SG enemy-PL REL.PL NEG.IND want that 1SG COP king:SG CAT own 3PL.OB ART "my enemies who do not want me to be king over them" (Lk 19:27)

Clauses with yà' "if" keep their own negative clitics:

Ba ya'a pu nip si'ela, o pu'usim dככg la na lieb zaalim.
Bà yá' pū níg sīəəla ${ }^{+} ø$, ò pù'usım dój̀g 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 yà'-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 pū nār yé fù dí fù bā'-bîg pu'á Herodiase ${ }^{+} \varnothing$.
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)

Ti pu boכd ye dau kaクa aan ti na'aba.
Tì pū bój̀d y $\bar{\varepsilon}$ dáú-kàpā áan̆ tì nà'abā ${ }^{+} \varnothing$.
1PL NEG.IND want that man-dem.del.SG COP 1PL king:SG neg.
"We don't want this man to be our king." (Lk 19:14)
mam po ten' $\varepsilon$ s ye o na keligi m pian'ade.
Mām pū tēn̆'عs yé ò nà kēlıgí_m pìàn̆'ad ${ }^{+} \varnothing$.
1SG NEG.IND think that 3AN IRR listen 1SG 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 po yi Wina'am san'an naa.
Lìn-zúg kà tì bág yદ́ ò pū yī Wínà'am sá'àn náa ${ }^{+} \varnothing$.
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 lé po baŋ ye li ane one.
kà ò lé $p \overline{0}$ báp yé lì à n $\bar{\varepsilon}$ う̄n ${ }^{+} \varnothing$.
And zan but neg.ind realise that zinan cop foc zan.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'e kà ... /X kā'e n ... "There's no X that ..."

Sכ' kae na nyapi dכl zugdaannam ayi'...
Sכ̄' kā'e_ø ná n̆yāpı_ø d̄̄l zūg-dáàn-nàm àyí...
indF.AN neg.be CAT IRR prevail CAT follow head-owner:PL num:two ...
"Nobody can serve two masters." (Mt 6:24)

Sogia so' kae' n tum ka yood o mena.
Sóginì̀-sכ̄' kā'e $n$ túm kà yj̄วd ò mēŋá ${ }^{+} \varnothing$.
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 len ka' fun yel si'el la zug, ka ti nip o yadda.
Lì lèm kā' fún yèl sỉəl lā zúg kà tì nín•ò ø yáddáa ${ }^{+} \varnothing$. 3INAN again NEG.BE 2SG: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)

The particle báa (Hausa bâa "not exist") appears in báa bỉəlá+ "not at all", báa yīnní+ "not one", which are both used with a negative VP. Báa yīnní+ can be used as a NP head, or as a postdependent.

Da tomi si'el baa bi'elaa.
Dā túmīø sỉəl báa bīəláa +ø.
neg.IMP work 2PL.SUB INDF.INAN at.all NEG.
"Do no work at all." (Leviticus 23:31)

Amaa ba pu nyani nye line tu'al baa yinne.
Àmáa bà pū n̆yāpı Ø̄ȳ̄ línì tò'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 po yel ye on mor si'el la, one so'oe lii.
Kà nīd báa yīnní pū yદ́l ȳ̄ ón mכ̄r
and person:sg not one NEG.Ind say that 3an:nz have
sỉəə lā, כ̄nı ø súv líl ${ }^{+} \varnothing$.
INDF.INAN ART 3AN.CNTR CAT OWn 3INAN.OB NEG.
"Not one person said that what he had, he owned." (Acts 4:32)

Fu du'adib baa yinne kae ka o yo'vr buon alaa.
Fò dō'adıb báa yīnní kā'é kà ò yō'vr búèn àláa ${ }^{+} \varnothing$.
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 nכor yinne ne bane ka' yadda ninidib la ye ya nip si'ela.
Dā mכ̄r nj̄כr yīnní nē bánì kā' yáddā-nípìdıb lā neg.Imp have mouth:Sg one with ReL.pl neg.be assent-doer:PL ART
yé yà níg sỉəla ${ }^{+} \varnothing$.
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 $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$. Clefting constructions with the clause linker kà and corresponding ellipted types relate to foregrounding rather than focus, or are motivated simply by ordering constraints.

Main clauses without any special syntactic marking of focus have ordinary focus on the predicate by default.

The usage of the article $l \bar{a}^{+/} 16.5$ 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 $L i ̀$ à $n \bar{\varepsilon}$ "It is ..." The sense resembles that of the formally analogous "it-clefting" of English, foregrounding the clefted element and backgrounding the rest:

Ka dau me pu su'oe o men niggbinaa. Li ane o pu'a su'oe li.
Kà dāu mé pū súv ò mēŋ nín-gbīnáa ${ }^{+} \varnothing$.
And man:sG also neg.Ind own 3AN self body-skin:PL neg.
Lì á né ò pu'ā $\varnothing$ sú'ט_lí.
zinan cop foc zan wife cat own zinan.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:

Anכ'כn nwaa yisid nidib tovmbع'عdi basida?
Ànó'ว̀n_ $\varnothing$ n̆wáa_ $\varnothing$ yīsıd nīdıb tóv̀m-bĒ' $\varepsilon d ı \varnothing ~ b a ́ s ı d a ̀ ~+\varnothing ? ~$
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 19.3.1.

The meaning of this construction is focus rather than foregrounding:

Wáafù ø dúm•ōø. "A snake bit him." WK
Snake:sg cat bite zan.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 $\boldsymbol{n}$-focussed. As a subject ànó'خ̀n "who" thus always appears as ànว́'วn $n$ [anว̃:ni] (always NT ano'one, KB anכ'כne.)

```
Àn亏́'כnì\varnothing kābırídà +}\varnothing\mathrm{ ?
Who CAT ask.for.entry:IPFV CQ?
"Who is asking permission to enter?"
```

Clauses containing interrogative pronouns may not contain focus-n $\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$, 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 $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$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 28.1.2.1.1:

```
M zūgo_ø zábìd. "My head is hurting."
1SG head CAT fight:IPFV. (Reply to "Where is the pain?")
cf \grave{M zūg lā pó'alìm n\overline{\varepsilon}. "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{\varepsilon}^{+/}$28.1.2.

### 28.1.2 VP constituent and VP focus with $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$

As a constituent-focus particle $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$has two distinct rôles, readily distinguishable by position: preceding a VP-constituent, $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$focusses that constituent, while VP-final $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$focusses the entire VP contrastively.

The focus particle is homophonous with the preposition $n \bar{\varepsilon}$ "with, and" and with the empty particle $n \bar{\varepsilon}$ which follows objects of comparisons when they do not have the article 18; on distinguishing constituent-focus $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$from the preposition see 19.8.4.

Greater difficulty arises over the distinction from the $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$which is enclitic on the verb 19.2 , 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 $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$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 $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$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 $\boldsymbol{n} \overline{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}^{+/}$cannot appear at all

$N \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$cannot appear in either constituent-focus or temporal sense
(a) if the subject has $n$-focus
(b) in nominalised clauses
(c) in content questions

## $\mathbf{N} \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$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 Sun.
Fù pū má' $n$ tìs nīn-sáalā $\quad$ º àmáa fù mà'
2SG NEG.Ind lie CAT give person-smooth:Sg neg but 2sg lie
$n$ tís nē Wínà'am Sí-sò̀..
CAT give foc God Spirit-good:sg.
"You have not lied to a human being, but you have lied to the Holy Spirit." (Acts 5:4, 1996)

When $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$marks constituent focus, VP temporal distinctions are unmarked. This constraint reveals that temporal $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$is a specialised use of focus- $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$.

Examples of exclusion of $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$:
Exclusion with $N$-focussing of the subject:
$\grave{M}$ zūgט $\varnothing$ zábìd. "My head is hurting/hurts." (No temporal $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$) 1sG head CAT fight:IPFV. Reply to "Where is the pain?"

Ànó'כnì ø dít sá'abj̀ +ø?
Who CAT eat:IPFV porridge CQ ?
"Who eats/is eating millet porridge?" (No temporal $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$)

Exclusion of $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$in nominalised clauses:

Ò dāa á n̄̄ bīig. "She was a child."
3AN TNS COPFOC child:SG.
but ón àn̆ bīig lā zúg "because she's a child"
3AN:NZ COP child:SG ART upon

M yí nē Bók. $\quad$ "I come from Bawku." SB
1sG emerge foc Bawku.
but Meeri one yi Magdala
"Mary who came from Magdala"
Meeri ónì yī Magdala (Mk 16:9, 1996)
Mary rel.an emerge Magdala

Focus- $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$can occur in complementised clauses, including purpose clauses:

Pian'am ka m boכd ye fu nyene buvd.
Píàn̆'am kà m̀ bój̀d y $\varepsilon$ fù n̆y $\bar{n} n \bar{\varepsilon}$ būטd.
Speak:IMP and 15G want that 2SG see foc innocence.
"Speak, for I want you to be vindicated." (Job 33:32)

Exclusion of $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$in content questions: temporal $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$:

Bó kà fù kúmmà +ø? "Why are you crying?"
What and 2SG cry:IPFV cQ?

Fù nípìd bó +ø? "What are you doing?"
2sG do:IPFV what cQ?

Fù wá'e yáa +ø?
"Where are you going?"
2SG go where cQ?

> Bùgóm lā yít yáa ní ná +ø?

Fire ART emerge:IPFV where loc hither cQ?
"Where is the light coming from?" SB

Exclusion of $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$in content questions: constituent-focus $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$:
$\grave{M}$ á nē dāu. $\quad$ I am a man."
1SG COP FOC man:SG.
but Mām án̆ bó +ø? "What am I?"
1SG.CNTR COP what CQ?

Fò áan̆_ànó'כnè $+\varnothing$ ? "Who are you?"
2SG COP who CQ?

Fù bj́j̀d bó +ø? "What do you want?"
2SG want what cQ?
but Fù bój̀d n̄ bó ${ }^{+}$? ? "What do you want it with?"
2SG want with what cQ? $\quad N \bar{\varepsilon}$ must be interpreted as preposition (WK)

### 28.1.2.1.2 Where $n \overline{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}^{+/}$cannot be temporal

There is potential ambiguity between $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$as marking constituent focus or as temporal. The default interpretation is temporal, but this may be ruled out by the position of the particle, 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 $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$requires that it follow the verb word directly, with at most liaison enclitics intervening; if not, the relevant temporal distinctions are unmarked:

```
Ò kù̀sıdī_bá n̄̄. "She's selling them."
```

3AN sell:IPFV 3PL.OB FOC.

Ò kùesıd n̄̄ sūmma lā. "She is selling the groundnuts."
3AN sell:IPFV FOC groundnut:PL ART.
but Ò kù̀sıd sūmma lā nē. 3AN sell:IPFV groundnut:PL ART FOC.
"She sells/is selling the groundnuts." (VP focussed: "They're not free.")
$N \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$may only be used temporally if the VP has positive polarity; if not, the relevant temporal distinctions are again unmarked:

Ò zàbıd
3AN fight:IPFV.

Ò zàbıd $n \bar{\varepsilon}$.
3AN fight:IPFV FOC.
but Ò pō zábıdā ${ }^{+} \varnothing$.
3AN NEG.IND fight:IPFV NEG.
"He fights."
"He's fighting."
"He's not fighting"/"He doesn't fight."

The VP must have indicative mood for temporal use of $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$. It is not clear if the relevant distinctions actually occur in the irrealis; in direct commands a following àlá "thus" imposes a continuous/progressive imperfective sense on the verb 19.4, but temporal use of $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$is not possible.

Passive constructions 19.8.1.1 may only express punctual events, and are thus limited to perfective aspect and to dynamic imperfective in the propensity/habitual sense. Accordingly, the particle $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$cannot be interpreted temporally with passives.

Dāam lā núùd.
Beer ART drink:IPFV.

Dāam núùd zīná.
Beer drink:IPFV today.
but Dāam lā núùd n̄̄.
Beer ART drink:IPFV FOC.
*Dāam núùd n $\overline{\text {. }}$.
"The beer gets drunk." WK
"Beer gets drunk today." WK

Only "The beer is for drinking." WK
("Not for throwing away.") not "The beer is being drunk."
rejected by WK altogether

Contrast the intransitive use of patientive ambitransitive verbs expressing changes of state:

M̀ yój̀d nē kúlìn lā. "I'm closing the door."
1SG close:IPFV FOC door:SG ART.

Kòlın lā yój̀d n̄̄. "The door is closing."
Door:sG ART close:IPFV foc.

Lì mà'ad n $\bar{\varepsilon} . \quad$ "It is getting cool" (ipfv of mā'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.
$\grave{M}$ dá' n̄̄ bóp. $\quad$ I've bought a donkey."
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 11.2.1. Accordingly, the perfective of an assume-stance verb cannot accept a resultative reading:

$$
\begin{array}{lrl}
\text { Ò dìgın n̄. } & \text { "He's lain down." DK: "Someone calls at your } \\
\text { 3AN lie.down foc. } & \text { house and gets no answer; he thinks you're out } \\
& \text { but I'm explaining that you've gone to bed." }
\end{array}
$$

With stative verbs, temporal $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$may only occur if there is an explicit time expression in the immediate context. If not, $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$must be interpreted as focussing the VP or a constituent:
O gìm.
"She's short."
3AN be.short.
but Ò gìm n̄̄. "He's short." ("I was expecting someone taller.")
3AN be.short foc.

M̀ mór pư'ā. "I have a wife."
1sG have wife:sG.
but M̀ mór nē pư'ā.
1Sg 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 $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$may be partly an artefact of acceptability judgments based on short isolated clauses.) The meaning is limitation of the state described by the verb to a particular time period, with a clear implication of contrast between the time referred to and other times when the state was not in effect:

```
    Lì vèn n\overline{\varepsilon}. "It's beautiful." (Focus on the verb.)
    3INAN be.beautiful foc.
but Nānnánā, lì vèn n\overline{\varepsilon}.
    Now, 3INaN be.beautiful foc.
    "Just now, it's beautiful."
    Sān-kán lā, lì dāa zúlım ne\overline{.}
    Time-dem.sg art, zinan tns be.deep foc.
    "At that time, it was deep."
    Mò'ar lā dāa zúlìm n\overline{\varepsilon.}\quad"The lake was deep."
    Lake:sG ART TNS be.deep foc. (Implying, "Now it's shallow." WK)
    Lì dāa v\varepsilońn n\overline{\varepsilon}. "It was beautiful."
    3INAN TNS be.beautiful foc. WK: "I gave you a cup, and it was OK then,
    but you've spoiled it."
Lì dāa būgus n\overline{\varepsilon}. "It was soft." ("Now it isn't.")
3InaN tNs be.soft foc.
```

Temporal interpretation of $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$is also forced when the following constituent does not permit focussing with $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$28.1.2.1.3.

A generic subject is not semantically compatible with the temporal use of $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$:

Nïigí j̀n̆bıd n̄̄ mכ̄כd. "Cows eat grass." ("What do cows eat?") Cow:PL chew:IPFV FOC grass:PL.

A form like nïigí 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 16.5. By context, pronoun subjects also can be generic or specific:
Bà j̀n̆bıd $n \bar{\varepsilon}$ mōวd. $\quad$ "They (cows in general) eat grass."
3PL chew:IPFV FOC grass:PL. $\quad$ 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.
Kùkj̀ma dá zàb tāabá à-sj̄n̆'e bỉəlá y y.
Leper:PL TNS fight each.other PERS-better.than slightly about.
"Lepers once fought each other about who was a bit better." KSS p40

The particle $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$in its temporal sense is omitted in replying to polar questions or responding to questions by repeating the verb. This probably simply represents the cross-linguistically common phenomenon of ellipsis in declarative replies to questions.

A: Gう̀sım!
B: $\quad \dot{M}$ gósìd!
A: Fù gósìd néع?
B: $\dot{M}$ gósìd!
"Look!"
"I'm looking!"
"Are you looking?"
"I'm looking!"

### 28.1.2.1.3 Words which $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$cannot focus

Certain words do not prevent focus-n $\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$from being used in the clause (unlike interrogative proforms 28.1.2.1.1), but cannot themselves be focussed with $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$. Words which behave like this include sùnā+/ "good", sòm ${ }^{m}$ "good", b $\bar{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \varepsilon d^{\varepsilon}$ "bad" sìda+ "truth" when used as adverbs, and the "two, three exactly" quantifier forms àyínā+/ àtánā ${ }^{+/}$16.4.2.1. AdvPs formed by coordinating such words and NPs with these quantifiers as dependents share the same property.
Lì àn̆ súpā. "It's good."

3INAN COP good:ADV.

Lì àn̆ bé' $\varepsilon d . \quad$ "It's bad."
IINAN COP bad:ABSTR.

Lì àn̆ sídà. "It's true."
zinan cop truth.
[ye ka] o sariakadib a sum ne sida.
ò sàríyà-kādıb án̆ súm n̄ sídà.
3AN law-drive cop good:ABSTR with truth.
"His judgments are good and true. (Rev 19:2, 1976)

If $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$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 28.1.2.1.2):

M mór bïisá àtánā.
1sG have child:PL num:three.exactly.
"I've got exactly three children."
but M̀ mór nē bïisá_ àtánā.
1SG have foc child:PL num:three.exactly.
"I've got exactly three children just now." DK: "You're on a school trip, talking about how many children everyone has brought."

Lì dāa án̆ súhā. "It was good." WK
3INAN TNS COP good:ADV.

Lì dāa á nē sónā. "At the time, it was good." WK
3INAN TNS COPFOC good:ADV.

Lì à nē súnā. "It's good." ("Now; it wasn't before." WK)
3INAN COP FOC good:ADV.

Emphatics 28.6 do not behave in this way:
bכzugว o ane fo biig men.
bう̄ zúgó ò à né fù bïig mén.
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 $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$to focus a VP constituent, as opposed to the entire VP, is possible only in statements and polar questions. The temporal sense of $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$must be impossible and the constituent in question must permit $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$-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:

| M̀ dá' bún. | "I've bought a donkey." |
| :--- | :--- |
| ("What have you done?") |  |

Nīigí j̀n̆bıd nē mう̄دd. "Cows eat grass."
Cow:PL chew:IPFV Foc grass:PL. ("What do [generic] cows eat?")

However, under the scope of a negative, focus is likely to be contrastive:

M $p \bar{u} \quad$ dá' bùクā $\quad$ † $\varnothing$. I haven't bought a donkey."
1SG NEG.IND buy donkey:SG neg.

M̀ $p \bar{u} \quad$ dá' $n \bar{\varepsilon}$ búnā $\quad$ †. "I haven't bought a donkey."
ISG 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 nonrecoverable" unlikely; hence $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$before a definite object is usually temporal:

Nīigí lā ón̆bìd nē mōod lā.
Cow:PL ART chew:IPFV foc grass:PLART.
"The cows are eating the grass."

Nā'-síabà óňbìd $n \bar{\varepsilon}$ mכ̄כd 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.

Line ka ba'amaannib maanne tisid bada la, ba maanne tisidne kikiris, ka pu maanne tisid Wina'am.
Lìnı kà bà'-māannıb máànnı_ ø tísìd bádà lā, bà màannı_ REL.INAN and idol-sacrificer:PL sacrifice:IPFV CAT give:IPFV idol:PL ART 3PL sacrifice:IPFV
$\varnothing$ tísid nē kíkīrıs kà pū máànnı ø tísid Wínā'amm ${ }^{+} \varnothing$. CAT give:IPFV Foc fairy:PL and NEG.IND sacrifice:IPFV CAT give:IPFV God NEG.
"That which idol-worshippers sacrifice to an idol, they sacrifice to demons and they don't sacrifice to God." (1 Cor 10:20)

Fu pu ma' n tis ninsaala, amaa fu ma' n tis ne Wina'am Siig Sun.
Fò pū má' $n$ tìs nīn-sáalā $\quad$ Ø, àmáa fò mà'
2SG NEG.IND lie CAT give person-smooth:SG neg but 2sG lie
$n$ tís nē Wínà'am Sí-sùy..
CAT give foc God Spirit-good:sG.
"You have not lied to a human being, but to the Holy Spirit." (Acts 5:4, 1996)

The predicative complement of àen̆ ${ }^{\text {a }}$ "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 $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$for ordinary focus:

```
O à n\overline{\varepsilon}}\mathrm{ biig. "She is a child."
3AN COP FOC child:SG.
```

Ò dāa á nē bïig.
3AN TNS COP FOC child:Sg.

Ò à nē nīn-són. $\quad$ "She's a good person." 3AN COP FOC human-good:sG.

Dīıb á n $\bar{\varepsilon}$ būn-són. $\quad$ "Food is a good thing." Food cop foc thing-good:sG.

$$
\text { Ò à n } \bar{\varepsilon} \text { bāan̆lím. } \quad \text { "She is quiet." }
$$

3AN COP FOC quiet:ABSTR.

Lì à nē zāalím. $\quad$ It's empty."
3INAN COP FOC empty:ABSTR.

Lì à n $\bar{\varepsilon}$ būgusígā. "It's soft."
3INAN COP FOC soft:ADV.

While such complements are characteristically indefinite, this is not invariably so: the pragmatic non-recoverability may lie in the internal relationship of the components of the complement, as for example in

Biis la diemid ne dua gbinin. Ba zamisid ne bula wa'ab. Ba ane Apam biis.
Bīis lā díəəmìd nē dúan̆ gbínnī-n. Bà zà'mısıdn n̄
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 bumbuvda bane lu gon'כs suvgin la ane bane wom pian'ad la, ka...
Kà būn-búvdà bànı lù gòň'כs súvgū-n lā á nē
And thing-planting:PL REL.PL fall thorn:PL among-LOC ART COP FOC
bánì wùm píàn̆'ad lā, kà
REL.PL hear speech ART, and...
"And the seeds which fell among thorns are those who heard the word, but..." (Lk 8:14)

In this context proper names are non-referential (cf CGEL p402):

O yo'ur na ane Joon. "His name will be John." (Lk 1:60)
Ò yō'ur ná ā n̄ Joon.
zan name:SG IRR COP FOC John.

As with objects, when the complement falls under the scope of the negative (here with the negative verb kā'e+ "not be") focus is difficult to interpret in the "ordinary" sense, so that if $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$is present at all the result is normally contrastive:
$\grave{M}$ á $n \bar{\varepsilon}$ dư'átà. $\quad$ I'm a doctor."
1SG COP FOC doctor:SG.

M̀ kā' dự'átāa ${ }^{+} \varnothing$. "I'm not a doctor."
1SG NEG.BE doctor:SG NEG.
$\grave{M}$ kā' n̄̄ dư'átāa ${ }^{+} \varnothing$. "I'm not a doctor." ("I'm a lab assistant.")
1SG NEG.BE FOC doctor:SG NEG.

Focus on a locative complement 19.8.3 typically involves a definite predeterminer of a locative postposition or an old-information place name, but the fact that a referent is at a known place is often new information resulting in ordinary focus on the locative. The locative particle (with its zero allomorph for Kusaal place names 17.3) is not referential even with a predeterminer (cf 16.10.2.3):

Dāu lā bé nē dó-kànā lā púvgū-n.
Man:sg art exist foc hut-dem.del.sg art inside-loc.
"The man is inside that hut." (Reply to "Where is that man?")

Mam bene moogin. "I'm in the bush." BNY p8
Mām bé nē mכ̄כgu-n.
1SG.CNTR EXIST FOC grass:SG-LOC.
M̀ yí n̄ Bók.
1SG emerge foc Bawku.

Yadda nipir yitne labaar la wommug ni.
Yàddā-nípìr yít nē lábāar lā wómmòg ní.
Assent-doing emerge:IPFV FOC news ART hearing Loc.
"Faith comes from hearing the news." (Rom 10:17)

Contrast the existential use of $b \dot{\varepsilon}^{+}$, where the locative is an adjunct:

Dàư-sכ̄' bé dó-kànā lā púvgū-n.
Man-IndF.an exist hut-dem.del.sg art inside:sg loc.
"There is a certain man in that hut."

There are few examples of $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$-focus on an adjunct in my data; one is

Tì dít sā'ab n̄̄ 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 $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$. 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 $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$to mark focus, temporal interpretation must be impossible.

Temporal sense ruled out by the position of $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$:

> Ò kù̀sıd sūmma lā n̄̄. "She sells/is selling the groundnuts." 3AN sell:IPFV groundnut:PL ART FOC. ("They're not free.")

Temporal sense ruled out by mood:

Gj̀sım n̄̄. "Look!" ("Don't touch." WK)
Look:IMP FOc.

Stative verbs without an explicit time indicator:
Ò gìm $n \bar{\varepsilon}$.
"He's short." ("I was expecting someone taller.")
3AN be.short FOC.

Lì zùlım n $\bar{\varepsilon}$.

M bóvdī $f \quad n \bar{\varepsilon}$.
1SG want 2SG.OB Foc.

Passives:

Dāam lā núùd $n \bar{\varepsilon} . \quad$ "The beer is for drinking."
Beer ART drink:IPFV Foc. ("Not washing with!")

Li mà'an n̄. "It gets cooled." (ipfv of mā'al+/ "make cool") 3INAN get.Cool:IPFV FOC.

Dāká lā zán̆l n̄. "The box gets carried in the hands."
Box:SG ART carry.in.hands foc. ("Not on your head.")

Dāká lā zîd n̄. "The box is for carrying on the head."
Box:SG ART carry.on.head:IPFV foc. ("Not carrying in the hands.")

Perfectives which cannot be interpreted as resultative:

Ò dìgıl $n \bar{\varepsilon}$.
3AN lay.down foc.

Kà lì bódìg n̄̄.
And 3inan get.lost foc.

Ò dìgın $n \bar{\varepsilon}$.
3AN lie.down foc.
"He's laid it down." ("I thought he'd pick it up.")
"It's lost."
Contradicting "someone hid it." 22.2.1
"He's lain down." DK: "Someone calls at your house and gets no answer; he thinks you're out but I'm explaining that you've gone to bed." WK: "You've said: the child looks filthy. I'm replying: He's been lying down."

An idiomatic use (marking a euphemism) is seen in
Ò zìə $\quad n \bar{\varepsilon}$.
"She's pregnant." (Not "She has stood still.")
3AN stand.still foc.

### 28.2 Clefting and preposing with kà

Kà-clefting arises from constructions with adnominal kà-catenation 23.3 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 ane ya taaba bane pu'usid Wina'am ka li nar ka ya kad saria.
Lì à né yà tāaba bánì pò'usıd Wínà'am kà lì nár
3INAN COP FOC 2PL fellow rel.pL greet:IPFV God and zinan 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 22.3.1:
כ̄nı ø lá kà fù dāa n̆yz̄t.
3AN.CNTR CAT that and 2SG TNS see:IPFV.
"This is he whom you saw." WK

Ànó'כnì_ $\varnothing$ n̆wá kà tì n̆yz̄tá ${ }^{+} \varnothing$ ?
Who CAT this and 1PL see:IPFV CQ?
"Who is this that we can see?"
$B \bar{\jmath} \_\varnothing$ lá kà m̀ n̆yḡtá ${ }^{+} \varnothing$ ?
What cat that and 1sg see:IPFV CQ?
"What is that that I can see?"

Once again, there is a construction with ellipse of all the main clause except the NP. Independent tense marking is possible in the ellipted structure, as with $n$-focus. Preposed direct objects leave a null-anaphora gap 19.8.1.

Asce line an be'عd ma'aa ka m na tun'e niy.
Àsर́ع línì àn̆ bē'عd má'àa kà m̀ ná tūn̆'e_ $\varnothing$ níp.
Only rel.inan cop bad only and 1sgirr be.able cat do.
"It's only that which is bad that I can do." (Rom 7:21)

Bú kà fù kúөsìda ${ }^{+}$? $\quad$ "What are you selling?"
What and 2sG sell:IPFV cQ?

The effect of kà-preposing remains foregrounding, not focus. It is compatible both with $n$-focus and with the occurrence of the focus particle $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$:

Dinzug ka mam Paul n be sarega ni Yesu Kiristo zug yanam buudbane ka' Jew dim la yela.
Dìn-zúg kà mām Paul n bé sārıgá nì Yesu Kiristo zúg yānám That-upon and 1sg.cntr Paul cat exist prison:sg loc Jesus Christ upon 2PL.CNTR búùd-bànı 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)

Bỉəl biál kà kj̄lıg pé'غ̀l n̄̄.
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:

$$
\text { Bùgúm lā yít yáa ní ná }+\varnothing \text { ? }
$$

Fire ART emerge:IPFV where loc hither cQ?
"Where is the light coming from?" SB
but $b \overline{5}$ "what?" is very often preposed with kà, as in the example above; preposing is required if the sense is "why?" rather than "what?":

```
    Bó kà fò kúmmà? "Why are you crying?"
cf *Fò kóm bó? *"What are you crying?"
```

Bó kà... is by far the most frequent way of rendering "Why?", and usually has this meaning, but foregrounding of $b \overline{\text { j }}$ in the normal sense "What?" also occurs:

Bכ ka ti na nipe?
"What are we going to do?" (Acts 21:22)
Bó kà tì ná nìy ${ }^{+} \varnothing$ ?
What and 1PLIRR do cQ?

Other queried NP objects in content questions are often preposed with kà:

Nū'-bíbısá_ àlá kà fò n̆yz̄tá ${ }^{+} \varnothing$ ?
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 anכ'כnam ka Wina'am sunf da pelig ne ba yuma piisnaasi la?
Kà ànó'خ̀n-nàm kà Wínà'am sún̆f dá pèlıg né bà
And who-PL and God heart:SG TNS whiten with 3PL
yòma pīs nāasí lá ${ }^{+} \varnothing$ ?
year:PL forty ARTCQ?
"And who was God angry with for forty years?" (Heb 3:17)

As interrogative pronouns are intrinsically focussed, these constructions, like other cases of preposing with kà, are best regarded as foregrounding, not focus.

Preposing the 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 àeña "be something":

Ningbin bo buudi ka ba na ti mora?
nìn-gbīn bó-būudí kà bà ná tī mōrá ${ }^{+} \varnothing$ ?
Body-skin:sg what-sort and 3PLIRR afterwards have cQ?
"What kind of body will they have?" (1 Cor 15:35)
but Fù bój̀d bó +ø? "What do you want?"
2SG want what CQ?

Mām án̆ bó +ø? "What am I?"
1SG.CNTR COP what CQ?

Kà fù áan̆_ànó'כnè ${ }^{+} \varnothing$ ? "Then who are you?"
And 2sG cop who cQ?

VP adjuncts are often preposed with kà; there is probably a contrast between foregrounding with kà and focussing with $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$:

Ňwādısá_àtán̆' 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?"

Kà-preposed elements cannot be clause subjects, as is to be expected if the construction has arisen from ellipsis, because an adnominal kà-clause normally has a different subject from its main clause.

The only structure other than a NP (including $\grave{n}$-clauses) or AdvP that I have found preposed with kà is wōv "like" + object:

Wōv búg né kà ò zót.
Like donkey:sG like and zan run:IPFV.
"It's like a donkey that he runs."
*NÉ m̀ nú'ùg kà 六 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 kàpreposing is a feature of many relative clauses 25.3.2. Manner, place and reason adjuncts can only precede the subject by kà-preposing, and absolute clauses in adjuncts must often precede the main clause subject so that constituent order parallels event order 25.2:

```
Mán n̆w\varepsiloǹ' dāu lā zúg kà police gbán̆'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 bedegu.
Yà yídìg yā bédugū.
2PL go.astray pFV much.

M̀ púvòs yā bédugū. "Thank you very much." 1SG greet PFV much.

Objects, other than pronouns, can be extraposed; the sense seems to be that the extraposed element is contrary to expectation:

Ò n̆yદ̀ yā ná'àb lā. "He's seen the chief." ("of all people!") 3AN see PFV chief:SG ART.
Ò dà' yā múí.
"She's bought rice." ("of all things!")
3AN buy pFV rice.

Contrast the effects of focussing with $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$, and foregrounding by kà-clefting:
Ò dà' nē múí.
3AN buy foc rice.
"She's bought rice."
(reply to "What did she buy?")

Lì à nē múi kà ò dá'. "It's rice that she's bought." ("not millet.") 3INAN COP FOC rice and zan buy.

Leftward extraposition of objects and complements on the basis of weight, without clefting or kà-preposing, occurs in e.g.

Wilkane bé m ni ka pu wanna, m Ba' nwaadi li ne [sic: 1996 n] basid.
Wìl-kànı bè _m̀ ní kà pū wénnā ${ }^{+} \varnothing$,
Branch-REL.SG EXIST 1SG LOC and NEG.IND bear.fruit:IPVF NEG.
m̀ Bā' n̆wá'adī_lí $n$ básìd.
1SG father:SG cut:IPFV 3INAN.OB CAT throw.out:IPFV.
"A branch which is in me and does not bear fruit, my father cuts out."
(Jn 15:2)

Ons ka ba tis o ka li zu'oe, ba me mor poten'عr ye o na lebis line zu'oe.
J̀nı kà bà tísò ø kà lì zú'e, bà mè mòr
REL.AN and 3PL give 3AN.OB and 3InAN become.much, 3PL also have
pó-tèn̆'عr yદ́ ò nà lह̄bıs línì zù'e.
inside-mind:sG that 3AN IRR return REL.INAN become.much.
"Whom they have given much to, they expect he will return much."(Lk 12:48)

A heavy indirect object is extraposed to follow the object in

Mam Paul ... tisid gbon kana Wina'am nidib bane a sida dim ka a yinni ne Jesus Christ Efesus tenin la.
Mām Paul... tísìd gbáung-kànā Wínà'am nídìb bànı àn̆
1SG.CNTR Paul ... give:IPFV book-dem.del.SG God person:PL ReL.pl cop
sídà dím kà án̆ yīnní nē Jesus Christ Efesus ténī-n lā. truth individual:pL and cop one with Jesus Christ Ephesus land:Sg-Loc ART "I, Paul ... give this letter to God's people who are truthful and one in Jesus Christ in Ephesus." (Eph 1:1, 1976; KB ...gbaup kapa 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 16.5. The NP head may (but need not) be followed by an indefinite postdeterminer pronoun or postdetermining number.

The verb bغ̀+ "be somewhere/exist" is frequent in presentational clauses, often with a following $n$-catenation $\underline{23}$ or adnominal kà-catenation 23.3.

Dau da be mori o po'a yimmir
Dāu dá bè_ø mōrí_ò pứà-yīmmír
Man:SG tNS Exist CAT have 3AN wife-single:SG
"There was a man who had one wife." KSS p26

Pu'a sכ' da be mor o bipun ka kikirig dol o.
Kà pư'à-sכ̄' dábè_ø mכ̄r ò bī-pón kà kìkīrıg dכ̄Iló_ 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.
Dāpá_àtán̆' $n$ 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 pū tūn̄'e_ ø kēnná ${ }^{+} \varnothing$.
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 nye dau ka o yo'vr buon Aneas.
Àníná kà ò n̆yē dáu kà ò yō'ur 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)

### 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:
Apposition:
Coordination:
Before relative pronouns:

Mánè?
mān Paul
tīnám nē fūn
fūn-kánì ...
"Me?"
"I, Paul"
"us and you"
"you, who ..."
and for some speakers, the 2nd persons before direct commands after a yà'-clause 24. In other contexts, the choice of a free pronoun over bound implies contrast. For the special case of logophoric use see 26.2.

A personal pronoun which is focussed must be contrastive; conversely, contrastive pronouns are normally focussed where possible:

Mane an konbkem supla.
Mānı_ $\varnothing$ án̆ kóňb-kìm-sòn lā.
1SG.CNTR CAT COP animal-tender-good:SG ART.
"I am the good shepherd." (Jn 10:11)

But Li nar ka on do ka man sie.
Lì nàr kà j̄n dū, 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 $\grave{n}$-clauses 16.3.1:
wuu mane a si'em la.
"as I am." (1 Cor 7:7, 1996)
wōv mánì ø àn̆ sỉəm 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 28.1 but "scopal focus", the semantic element which the particle applies to: this need not be the syntactic head of the NP, and is not necessarily the informational focus of the clause.

Emphatics relate a NP or AdvP to the discourse context. Apart from hālí ${ }^{+}$, they occur after top-level NPs or AdvPs within clauses, and share with pāmm SF pāmné LF "a lot" and n̆yāene/ "brightly, clearly" the unusual morphological feature of forming the LF by adding -ne to the SF 6.6.
$\boldsymbol{m} \grave{\varepsilon}$ DK KT SB NT mèn WK; clause finally (all sources) mèn ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ "also, too"
bכzugว o ane fo biig men.
bう̄ zúgó ò à né fù bïig mén.
Because 3an cop foc 2sG child:sg also.
"Because he is your child too." (Genesis 21:13)

O pu'a me kena. "His wife also came." (Acts 5:7)
Ò pu'ā mé kè nā.
3AN wife:SG also come hither.

The particle may follow kà + ellipted subject pronoun 21.3.
mà'aa (LF mà'an $\bar{\varepsilon}$ ) "only"

Asce line an be'ed ma'aa ka ma tun'e niy.
Àsće línì àn̆ bē'عd má'àa kà m̀ ná tūn̆'e_ $\varnothing$ níy.
Only rel.inan cop bad only and 1sgirr 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 28.2.)
$\boldsymbol{g} \mathbf{\text { òl/ım }}{ }^{\text {ne }}$ "only"

M̀ nín̄ lı́ $\quad$ m̀ gùllım. $\quad$ I did it myself alone."
1sG do 3INan.ob isg only
$\boldsymbol{k j}_{\boldsymbol{t}} \mathrm{a}^{\mathrm{n}} \mathrm{n}$ "at all"

Áyìı kj̀tàa.
"Not at all."
hālí' ${ }^{+}$in addition to its many other rôles $\underline{18}$ can be used as an emphatic, preceding a NP or AdvP with the meaning "even":

Hali toumbe'ed dim nipid ala.
Hālí tùvm-bテ̄'عd dím nípìd 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 ṫ̀e hālí bédugū. "It's very difficult."
3INaN be.bitter until much.

The adverb itself may be ellipted:

Lì tòe hālí. "It's very difficult."

Hālı́ in this sense may be preposed with kà 28.2:

Hali ka nidib mor ban'adnam na.
Hālí kà nīdıb mōr bán̆'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 lampodi'esidib me niyid ala.
Hālí báa làmpj̄-díəsìdıb mé nìhıd àlá.
Even tax-receiver:PL also do:IPFV ADv:thus.
"Even tax-collectors do that." (Mt 5:46)

Hali baa bama wusa ya'a na zo ka basif, man ku basi fo.
Hālí báa bàmmā wūsa yá' nà zذ́ kà básì f,
Even Dem.dei.pl all if IRr run and abandon 2SG.ob,
mān kú bāsl_fó + $\varnothing$.
1SG.CNTR NEG.IRR abandon 2SG.ob neg.
"If even they all run away and leave you, $I$ will not leave you." (Mt 26:33)

## Lexicon

## 29 Greetings and other formulae

(a) Enquiries after health.

## Gbís wēlá?

Dúe wēlá?

Nīntāŋ á wēlá?
Yó'ט $\quad$ á wēlá?
Fù yī-dímàa?
Nìn-gbīnáa?
Fù sìdaa?
Pư'ā nē bíisc̀ ?
"How did you sleep?" 21.2.2
literally "How did you get up?"
both usual greetings on meeting
for the first time in the morning.
"How is the day/afternoon?"
"How is the evening?" literally "night"
"[How are] your household?"
"[How is your] body?" i.e. "How are you?"
"[How is your] husband?"
"[How are your] wife and children?"
... and so on, often at great length.

Replies:
Àláafù bé.
literally "There is health."
(Also a general purpose greeting itself.)
Àláafù bé•o.
... for him/her.
Àláafù béع bá.
... for them.
(b) Blessings

These follow the pattern

> Bárıkà né fù ... "Blessing with your ..."
with the introductory words usually ellipted; the reply to all of these is Náa.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Kह̄n kēn. "Welcome!" Kēn, gerund of kēn̆ "come" } \\
& \text { cf Hausa: Barkà dà zuwàa. } \\
& N \bar{z} \text { záàm záàm. "Good evening." } \\
& \text { Tūoma! } \\
& \text { or Tūvma tōvma! } \\
& \text { literally "(Blessing on your) work!" } \\
& \text { Interpreted to include practically anything } \\
& \text { which could be regarded as work, and hence } \\
& \text { probably the commonest daytime greeting. }
\end{aligned}
$$

$N \bar{\varepsilon}$ sóňsıgā.

Né fù būrıyá-sùn.

Né fù yòvm-pāalíg.
(c) Prayers. Reply Àmí! "Amen!"

Wīn ná lह̄bısı f nē láafìya.

Wīn ná sūpı $f$.

Wīn ná tā'así f.
"(Blessing on your) conversation." to greet a group of people talking; also to greet a person sitting quietly alone, assumed to be conversing with his or her own wīn ${ }^{\mathrm{n} \varepsilon /}$ (spiritual essence, personal genius)
"Merry Christmas." (būrıyá+ $\leftarrow$ *burũya $\leftarrow$ Twi/Fante bronya, of unclear ultimate origin) "Happy New Year."
"Safe journey!" literally "[I pray that] God will bring you back in health."
"God will help you."
Generally a formula expressing thanks.
"Safe journey!" ("God will help you travel.")
(d) Statements of fact and commands. Reply $T \grave{\jmath}$ " OK ", or as appropriate.

Bēogo lā.
Àtínì dáarì lā.
Gbìsım súpā.
Kpèlımī súm.

Pù'usım yín.
"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 Tj̀ "OK", or Bà nà wōm "They will hear."
(e) Miscellaneous formulae

| M̀ pó'ùs yā. | "Thankyou." |
| :--- | :--- |
|  | reply Ṫे, or Pò'vsug kā'e. <br>  <br> "No thanks (sc. needed.)" |
| M̀ pú'ùs yā bédugū. | "Thank you very much." |
| Gáafàra. | ( $\leftarrow$ Arabic) "Pardon me, sorry." |
|  | Also (like Ghanaian English "sorry") used <br> simply to empathise with misfortune, with no <br> implication of apology as such. |


| Kābır kābırí! | Formula asking admission to a house or compound. "Knock, knock!" Twi agoo is also used. (Actual knocking is for robbers trying to find out if anyone is at home.) |
| :---: | :---: |
| Dìm sūgurú. | "Please forgive me." |
| M̀ bélìm n̄̄. | "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 Dīıb má'àa. "Only food." i.e. "good" |
| M̀ mכ̄r kú'èm náa? | literally "Shall I bring water?" |
|  | Traditional first words to guest. |
|  | Reply for "No, thank you" is Kù'өm á sóm. ("Water is good.") |
| Wīn yźl sídà. | "Bless you!" (after a sneeze.) Literally |
|  | "God speaks truth"; WK explained: "If you sneeze, it means someone elsewhere is praising you." |
| Fù wóm Kūsáalc̀ ${ }^{\text {? }}$ | "Do you understand [literally "hear"] Kusaal?" |
| Ėદn̆, m̀ wóm. | "Yes, I do." |
| Áyìl, m̀ pū 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.

## My

| Father | is my | sàam ${ }^{\text {ma }}$, less formally $b \bar{a}^{\text {+/ }}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Father's elder brother |  | sàam-kp̄̄हn̆m ${ }^{\text {m }}$ |
| Father's younger brother |  | sàam-pit ${ }^{\text {a/ }}$ |
| Father's sister |  | pùgudıb ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |

My
Mother
Mother's elder sister or senior co-wife
$m a ̀-k p \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon n ̆ m^{m}$
Mother's younger sister
or junior co-wife
Mother's co-wives
Mother's brother
is my mà ${ }^{+}$ mà-bïla or mà-pīta/
are my mà náma is my án̆sìba

I am my mother's brother's āňsín ${ }^{\text {a }}$; to all the other relatives above I am biïga "child" or specifically dà-kj̀כn̆r ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ "son" or pu'à-yùa+ "daughter." Although the Kusaasi are not matrilineal, the mother's brother is felt to be a particularly close relation with a traditionally benevolent rôle towards his sister's child.

There are no special terms for aunts or uncles by marriage.
My

| Grandparent | is my | yáaba <br> $\sigma^{a}$ yāa-dáu ${ }^{+}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | Sex can be specified as |
| :--- |
| oqāa-pú'áa |

My
Elder sibling of my own sex is my bīər $r^{\varepsilon /}$
Younger sibling of my own sex is my pïtú+
Sibling of opposite sex is my tāun̆

These words are also used for cousins, with seniority, as always, going by family branch.

My
Wife
is my $\quad$ yī-pu'áa or simply pu'āa
Wife's parent

Wife's sibling
dìəm ${ }^{\text {ma }} \quad$ Sex can be specified as
$0^{7}$ dìəm-dāū ${ }^{+} \quad$ Ỵ dìəm-pūāk ${ }^{\text {a }}$
dàkïiga Sex can be specified as
$O^{a}$ dàkì-dāu ${ }^{+} \quad$ ̣̂ dàkì-puāk ${ }^{\text {a }}$

Dìəm ${ }^{\text {ma }}$ 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 m̀ mà "my mother" or $\grave{m}$ bā' "my father." Parents-in-law are greatly respected, but with siblings-in-law there is a traditional reciprocal joking relationship; certain whole ethnic groups are said to bear this relationship to each other, called "playmate" in local English. At Bùgóm-t̄̄כn̆r ${ }^{\varepsilon}$, the Fire Festival, one throws eggs at one's brothers-in-law.

I am my wife's parents' bïig ${ }^{\text {a }}$ "child" and my wife's siblings' dàkiiiga. My

| Husband is my | $s i d^{\text {a }}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Husband's parent | dàyáam ${ }^{\text {ma }}$ | Sex can be specified as |
|  | $O^{\text {a }}$ dàyāam-dáu ${ }^{+}$ | ¢ ¢ dàyāam-pưák ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |
| Husband's elder brother | sìd-kpē ňm $^{\text {m }}$ |  |
| Husband's younger brother | sid-bīla |  |
| Husband's sister | sid-pūāk ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |  |

I am my husband's parents' bïiga "child"; all my husband's siblings (of both sexes) call me pư'āa "wife."

My co-wife is my nìn-tāa=, "rival" in Ghanaian English. In traditional stories the rôle of the "wicked stepmother" in European folklore is assumed by one of the father's other wives.

Two men married to sisters are each dàkì-tùa+ to the other; two women married to brothers are nìn-tāas ${ }^{\varepsilon}$, "co-wives." "Fiancée" is pư'à- $\bar{\varepsilon}$ ínn $^{\text {a }}$.

### 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 $\grave{A}$ - by default but $\grave{N}$ - before adjective stems, where $\grave{N}$ - is a syllabic nasal assimilated to the point of articulation of a following consonant 16.6. 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; $\grave{A}-W$ īn and $\grave{A}$-Būgur are especially common male names. Identification of particular individuals often requires further enquiries about kindred or residence.

Many names allude to a guardian spirit ( $s \bar{g} g\left(r^{\varepsilon /}\right)$ assigned to a newborn child through the father's consultation with a diviner ( $b \bar{a}^{\prime} a^{=}$); this may be the $w \bar{i} n^{n \varepsilon /} 1.1$ of an ancestor, or of a spiritually powerful tree:

| À-Wī $n^{\text {ne/ }}$ | Awini | $w i ̄ n n e / ~$ | person with a siglr ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ from father's |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\grave{A}-B \bar{u} g r^{\varepsilon}$ | Abugri | $b \bar{u} g)^{\varepsilon}$ | side of the family person with a $s \bar{g} g \iota^{\varepsilon /}$ from mother's side of the family |
| À-Tìg ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | Atiga | tì $\mathrm{g}^{\text {a }}$ | "tree", as sīgırel |
| À-Kūdvg ${ }^{\text {² }}$ | Akudugu | $k u ̄ d v g$ | "piece of iron" (sc. as a marker on a tree-sīg( $\left.r^{\varepsilon /}\right)$; displaced as a common noun by the pl-as-sg $k u \bar{t} t^{\varepsilon}$ |

A younger sibling of $\grave{A}-W i ̄ n^{\mathrm{n} \varepsilon /}$ with the same sīgır $r^{\varepsilon /}$ is called $\dot{A}-W i ̄ n-b i ́ l a$ "Awimbillah", of $\grave{A}-K u ̄ d v g$, À-Kud-bīla "Akudibillah" etc. Names for girls may follow the pattern $\grave{A}$-Wīn-púáka "Awimpoaka."

Other names refer to birth circumstances:

| À-Nà'ab ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | Anaba | $n a ̀ ' a b^{\text {a }}$ | "chief" but in the sense "afterbirth" (because a chief leaves his house after his retainers) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| À-Fūug ${ }^{\text {/ }}$ | Afugu | $f u ̄ u g^{\text {² }}$ | Name for sole survivor of twins "clothing" for child born with a caul |
| $\grave{\text { À-Tū }}{ }^{\text {® }}$ | Atuli | tùlıg ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ | "invert" for breech-delivered child |

A whole clause is seen as a birth-circumstance personal name in

```
À-Tìım bódìg yā
"The medicine has got lost."
```

Many names relate to customs intended to break a cycle of stillbirths. One such custom is the apotropaic practice of throwing away the dead child or just burying it in a pot to avoid attracting malevolent spiritual attention; the next surviving child may then be called e.g.

| À-Tàmpōor ${ }^{\text {E }}$ | Tampuri | tàmpōor ${ }^{\text {® }}$ | "ashpit, rubbish tip" |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| À-D̄̄k ${ }^{\text {/ }}$ | Aruk | $d \bar{u} k^{\text {J/ }}$ | "pot" |

Another strategy is pretended adoption by an outsider, resulting in names like Jambeedu "Fulani", or

| À-Sāan ${ }^{\text {a/ }}$ | Asana | $s a ̄ a n^{\text {a/ }}$ | "guest stranger" |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| À-Sāan-dú ${ }^{+}$ | Sandow | sāan ${ }^{\text {a/ }}$ | "guest" + dāu${ }^{+}$"man" |
| À-Zàngbèog ${ }^{\text {² }}$ | Azangbego | Zàngbèog ${ }^{\text { }}$ | "Hausa person" |
| À-Nàsà-pūāk ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | Anasapoaka |  | "European woman"; also a birthcircumstance name: "child delivered by a European midwife" |

Names based on adjectives:

| $\grave{N}$-Dāug ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | Ndago | dāug ${ }^{\text { }}$ | "male" |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Ǹ-Pūāk ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | Mpoaka | puāk ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | "female" |
| $\stackrel{N}{N}-\mathrm{Bi}{ }^{\text {a }}$ | Mbillah | bïla | "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 ${ }^{+}$ <br> À-Tàláatà ${ }^{+}$ <br> Àrzúmà ${ }^{+}$ <br> À-Síbi ${ }^{+}$

"Girl born on Monday"
"Girl born on Tuesday"
"Boy born on Friday"
"Boy born on Saturday"

Muslims also have formal Islamic Arabic names, sometimes adapted to Kusaal phonology, like Dàhamáani+/Dàsmáani+ ${ }^{+}$عبد الرحمن YAbdu-r-Raћma:n(i).

KKY p6 has the interesting girl's name Amoryam, perhaps an adaptation of the Arabic مريم Maryam(u) "Mary" as À-M̄̄r Yā'm "Has Common Sense."

Christians use English (or French) baptismal names in speaking European languages, and in official contexts use their Kusaal personal names as "surnames."

### 30.3 Places

For the form in which Kusaal personal and place names appear in Englishlanguage 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:

| $B j k^{\text {a }}$ | Bawku | "pit, geographical depression" |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Kūk ${ }^{\text {a/ }}$ | Koka | "mahogany tree" |
| Kùkpàrıg ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | Kokpariga | "palm tree" |
| Tèmpáan ${ }^{\text {ne }}$ | Tempane | perhaps "new villages" |
| Mu'à-nכ̄כr $r^{\varepsilon /}$ | Mogonori | "lakeside" ("lake-mouth") |
| $B$ às-yว̄n ${ }^{\text {ne/ }}$ | Basyonde | "abandon sacks" ?reason for name |
| Kügor ${ }^{\text {/ }}$ | Kugri | "stone" |
| $B \overline{o g} r^{\varepsilon}$ | Bugri | būgur , object housing a $w \bar{n} n^{n \varepsilon / ~ " s p i r i t " ~}$ |
| Wìdì-ňyá'an ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | Woriyanga | archaic for wìd-n̆yá'an ${ }^{\text {a }}$ "mare" |
| Bì-nà'ab ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | Binaba | "prince" |
| Gàaro ${ }^{+}$ | Garu | Hausa gàaruu "wall around a town or compound" |
| Wiid-nà'ab ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | Widinaba | "chief of the clan Wiid ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |
| Pūsıga/ | Pusiga | "tamarind" |
| Til ${ }^{1 /}$ | Tilli | "tree trunk" cf Toende Kusaal tíl id (Hasiyatu Abubakari, p.c.) |
| Dènnug ${ }^{\text {J }}$ | Denugu | No known meaning |
| Pùlıma Kú'èm ${ }^{\text {m }}$ | Pulimakom | "water by pùlıma+ (grass sp)" |
| Wìdāan ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | Widana | for Wìd-dāan² "Horse-Owner", title of a chief's n̄̄-dí'̇̀s ${ }^{\text {a }}$ "linguist" $\underline{31 .}$ Usual informal name for Pulimakom, as the seat of this particular linguist. |

$\left.\begin{array}{lll}\text { Mì'isıga } & \text { Missiga } & \begin{array}{l}\text { Explained locally as from "mission" } \\ \text { i.e. the Assemblies of God mission } \\ \text { around which the village grew; } \\ \text { perhaps influenced by mì'isug }\end{array} \\ \text { "dunking" (not in my materials, but } \\ \text { cf Toende mi'isuk "baptism", KED } \\ \text { mi'is "duck someone") }\end{array}\right\}$

WK thought that the first component of the names Sā-bíla and Sā-píəlìga was a plant used in making brooms. *Sāa=/ does not occur in my data (only sāa= "rain") or in Niggli's dictionary, but the cognate sáagá is glossed in his Farefare dictionary as "a kind of grass used for making brooms", and the Mampruli/Dagbani cognate saa refers to a grass Sporobolus subglobosus A. Chev (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 16.11.1 16.10.2.1, especially with names for plant and tree species: John Turl has located a careful 1935 report by an assistant agricultural officer which lists among local trees in the Farefare/Nabit area sapelaga Isoberlinia doka; it seems likely that this is the meaning of sā-píəlìgã. The report also lists ta-anga "Butyrospermum parkii" (Kusaal tá'anáa), and kulta-anga "Andira inermis", so kう̀l-tá'an ${ }^{\text {a }}$ is probably this "dog almond."

Kùlugún ${ }^{\text {ºn }} \quad$ Kulungungu ?? k̇̀l-gùna "river-kapok"

Turl cites a Bisa-speaking informant who suggests a more plausible origin in Bisa "Kuurgongu", "Crooked Sheanut Tree." Prost's grammar of Bisa confirms that Bisa adjectives follow head nouns, and his dictionary cites kúr "karité." The second element is probably a simplex form of Prost's gongeda "arqué" ( $n g=$ [ $\mathrm{\eta}$ ); Prost notes an adjectival suffix -da "s'appliquant aux grandes choses ou marquant intensité."

| Àg̀̇ı ${ }^{1}$ | Agolle | the Kusaasi area east of the White Volta; cf àgólغ "upwards"; for the H toneme see 8.3. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Tùen ${ }^{\text {n }}$ | Toende | Kusaasi area west of the White |
|  |  | Volta; cf tùen ${ }^{\text {ne }}$ "in front", "West" |

For points of the compass, WK gave as accepted terms

| N | Bārog ${ }^{\text {/ }}$ | "Bisa country" |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| E | Ňyá'an ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | "behind" |
| S | Zūēya+ | "hills" (i.e. the Gambaga Escarpment) |
| W | Tùen ${ }^{\text {n }}$ | "in front" |

reflecting the traditional Kusaasi West-facing orientation. For "South" and "North", KB has respectively ya-dagכbug yà dàgう̀bıga "your left hand" and ya-datiun yà dàtìun ${ }^{\text {º }}$ "your right hand." KB similarly has ya-nya'an "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:

| Kòtāun ${ }^{\text {/ }}$ | any place inhabited by the clan Kòtām ${ }^{\text {ma/ }}$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| Kūsávò ${ }^{\text { }}$ | "Kusaasiland" |
| Mj̀ $\mathrm{g}^{\text {د }}$ | "Mossi country" <br> (Mכ̀วg Ná'àb ${ }^{\text {a }}$ "Moro Naba, King of the Mossi") |

Places outside $K \overline{\text { suá }}{ }^{\circ}{ }^{J}$ generally do not have Kusaal names (an exception is Sānkáàn̆s ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ "Sankanse" in Burkina Faso.) For "Accra" the Twi-derived name Ankara is usual. Niggli's dictionary has Toende Wa'arok for "Ouagadougou", but I could not elicit any Agolle equivalent. The form looks like *Wā'adóg ${ }^{\text {P }}$ "Place of the Dancers (wā'adíba)", 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 kj$l o g^{\text {a }}$ "river"; presumably this is simply because it is the only real river within Kūsáv̀ ${ }^{J}$.

### 30.4 Ethnic groups and clans

Names for the group belong to the ${ }^{\mathrm{a}} \mid b^{\mathrm{a}}$ or $g^{\mathrm{a}} \mid s^{\varepsilon}$ classes (apart from Zàngbغ̀og ${ }^{\text {D }}$ "Hausa" and Nàsāara+ "European") and their language to the $I^{\varepsilon}$ subclass of $r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}$. The place they inhabit has the suffix $-g{ }^{\text { }}$.

| Ethnic gp sg | Ethnic gp pl | Language | Place |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Kūsáa= | Kūsáàs ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ | Kūsáàl ${ }^{\text {e }}$ | Kūsávig ${ }^{\text { }}$ | Kusaasi |
| Ňwāmpūrıg ${ }^{\text {a/ }}$ | Ňwāmpūrıs ${ }^{\text {/ }}$ | Ňwāmpūrılı ${ }^{\text {/ }}$ | Ňwāmpūrog ${ }^{\text {/ }}$ | Mamprussi |
| Bārıga/ | Bārıs ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ | $B a ̄ t^{\varepsilon /}$ | Bārog ${ }^{\text {/ }}$ | Bisa |
| Mùa+ | Mj̀ss ${ }^{\text {® }}$ | Mj̀ ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ | Mj̀ ${ }^{\text {J }}$ | Mossi |
| Dàgbān ${ }^{\text {ne/ }}$ | Dàgbāmma/ | Dàgbān ${ }^{\text {ne/ }}$ | Dàgbāun | Dagomba |
| $B i n^{n \varepsilon}$ | $B i m^{\text {ma }}$ | $B i n^{n \varepsilon}$ | Biun ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | Moba |
| Sìmiig ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | Sìmiis ${ }^{\text { }}$ | Sìmīil ${ }^{\text {E }}$ | Simiug ${ }^{\text { }}$ | Fulbe |
| Yàan ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | Yàan̆s ${ }^{\text { }}$ | Yàan ${ }^{\text {ne }}$ |  | Yansi |
| Gōrín ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | Gōrís ${ }^{\text {e }}$ | Gōrínn ${ }^{\text {ne }}$ |  | Farefare |
| Yārıga/ | Yārıs ${ }^{\text {/ }}$ | $Y a ̄ t^{\varepsilon /}$ |  | Yarsi |
| Zàngbèog ${ }^{\text { }}$ | Zàngbèzd ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ | Zàngbè $\left.\right\|^{\varepsilon}$ |  | Hausa |
| Bùlıg ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | Bùlıs ${ }^{\text {e }}$ | Bùlı |  | Bulsa |
| Tàlın ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | Tàlıs ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | Tàlın ${ }^{\text {n }}$ |  | Tallensi |
| Nàbıd ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | $N a ̀ b ı d ı b^{\text {a }}$ | Nàbır ${ }^{\text { }}$ |  | Nabdema |
| Bùsán ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | Bùsáàncs ${ }^{\text { }}$ | Bùsáàn̆ ${ }^{\text {E }}$ |  | Bisa |
| Nàsāara+ |  | $N a ̀ s a ̄ a l^{\varepsilon}$ |  | European |
| Kàmbùn ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | Kàmbùmıs ${ }^{\text { }}$ | Kàmbùnır ${ }^{\text {E }}$ |  | Ashanti |

$B \bar{r} r s^{\varepsilon /}$ is "Bisa" generally, not just the Bareka; Bìm ${ }^{\text {ma }}$ similarly is "Moba" in general, and not only the Bemba (WK.)

Note

| Tùөn ${ }^{\text {n¢ }}$ | "Toende area" |
| :---: | :---: |
| Tùөnnır ${ }^{\text {E }}$ | "Toende dialect of Kusaal" |
| Àg̀ı ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ | "Agolle area" |
| Àg̀̀ı ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ | "Agolle dialect of Kusaal" |
| Ò piàăn'ad Àg̀̀l. 3AN speak:IPFV Agolle. | "She speaks Agolle Kusaal. |

Kusaasi clan names include，among many others：

| Singular | Plural | Place |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Kòtān ${ }^{\text {ne／}}$ | Kùtām ${ }^{\text {ma／}}$ | Kùtāun ${ }^{\text {／}}$ | WK＇s clan |
| Zùa＋ | $Z$ Zùes $^{\text {¢ }}$ |  |  |
|  | Zưà－sābllís ${ }^{\text { }}$ |  | subclans |
|  | Zuà－wiil ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |  |  |
|  | or Zưà－wìis ${ }^{\text {e }}$ |  |  |
| Wiid ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | Wiid－nam ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | Wiidvg ${ }^{\text { }}$ |  |
| Nàbıd ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | $N a ̀ b ı d ı{ }^{\text {a }}$ | Nàbıdug ${ }^{\text { }}$ |  |
| Gכ̀og ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | Gว̀วs ${ }^{\text {® }}$ | Gう̀วg ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |  |
| Sà＇dàbùa＋ | Sà＇dàbù $\theta S^{\varepsilon}-b u ̀ \theta b^{\text {a }}$ | Sà＇dàbj̀ $g{ }^{\text {a }}$ |  |
|  | $N$ N＇dàm ${ }^{\text {ma }}$ | Nà＇daun ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |  |
|  | Gòm－dìm ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | Gòm ${ }^{\text {m }}$ |  |

Nàbıd ${ }^{\text {a }}$ as a clan name is different from the ethnic group＂Nabdema＂（WK．）

## 30．5 Trees and fruits

Tree names are almost all $g^{\text {a }} \mid s^{\varepsilon}$ class，like tìı $g^{\text {a }}$＂tree＂；their fruits belong to classes $r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}$or $g \mid d^{\varepsilon}$ ．

| Tree sg | Tree pl | Fruit sg | Fruit pl |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| āañdıg ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | āañdıs ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ | āañdır ${ }^{\text {e }}$ | āañda＋ | Vitex doniana |
| dùan̆ ${ }^{+}$ | dう̀วn̆s ${ }^{\text {® }}$ | dう̀эn̆g ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | dう̀эn̆ ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ | dawadawa |
| gāan̆＝／ | gāan̆s ${ }^{\text {／}}$ | gān̆r ${ }^{\text {d／}}$ | gān̆yá ${ }^{+}$ | Nigerian ebony |
| $g$ gıa ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | gùmıs ${ }^{\text {e }}$ | gòm ${ }^{\text {m }}$ | gùma＋ | kapok |
| kikàn ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | kìkàmıs ${ }^{\text {® }}$ | kìkàm ${ }^{\text {m }}$ | kikàma＋ | fig tree |
| kpùkpàrıg ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | kpòkpàrıs ${ }^{\text { }}$ | kpòkpàr ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ | kpòkpàra＋ | palm |
| líə $\eta^{\text {a }}$ | İəmís ${ }^{\text {e }}$ | líəm ${ }^{\text {me }}$ | İ＇əmá ${ }^{+}$ | Ximenia americana |
| pūsıg ${ }^{\text {a／}}$ | pūsıs ${ }^{\text {ع }}$ | pūsıré | pūsá ${ }^{+}$ | tamarind |
| sīsíbìg ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | sīsíbìs ${ }^{\text {e }}$ | sīsíbìr ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | sīsíbà ${ }^{+}$ | neem |
| tá＇an ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | tā＇amís ${ }^{\text { }}$ | tá＇am ${ }^{\text {me }}$ | tā＇amá＋ | shea butter |
| $t \bar{c}{ }^{\prime} \varepsilon g^{\text {a }}$ | $t \overline{' c}$＇$s^{\varepsilon}$ | $t$ ṫ＇og ${ }^{\text { }}$ | $t \grave{c}^{\prime} \varepsilon d^{\varepsilon}$ | baobab |
| vúө⿰习习 ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | vūөmís ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ | vúөr ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ | vūáa＝ | red kapok |

The stems for＂red kapok＂and its fruit are slightly different：tree＊vuөgm－fruit＊vuөg－

### 30.6 Body parts

Most human and animal body parts belong to the classes $r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}$and $g^{\top} \mid d^{\varepsilon}$ :

| biāuñ̌k | "shoulder" | bïən ${ }^{\text {ne }}$ | "shin" |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| bi'isır ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | "woman's breast" | dūm ${ }^{\text {me }}$ | "knee" |
| gbāun ${ }^{\text {/ }}$ | "animal skin; lip, eyelid" | $g b \bar{\varepsilon} r^{\varepsilon /}$ | "thigh" |
| gbè'og ${ }^{\text { }}$ | "forehead" | gbin ${ }^{\text {ne }}$ | "buttock" |
| gbìn-vว̀วn̆r ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | "anus" | gūur $r^{\varepsilon}$ | "ridge of back" |
| úll | "horn" |  | "bone" |
| $k \bar{n}$ n̆bug ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | "hair" | kpēn̆dır ${ }^{\text {/ }}$ | "cheek" |
| kpisukpill ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | "fist" | lām ${ }^{\text {me/ }}$ | "gum" |
| 1 lānย | "testicle" | $l \overline{u g} \mathrm{ur}^{\varepsilon}$ | "organ, member" |
| nìn-gbīn/ | "human skin, body" | nìn-gว̀วr ${ }^{\text {e }}$ | "neck" |
| nóbùr ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | "leg" | n亏̄b-pómpàup ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | "foot" |
| nว̄วr ${ }^{\text {/ }}$ | "mouth" | n̆yīn ${ }^{\text {ne/ }}$ | "tooth" |
| п̆yว̄วd ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ | "intestines" | n̆yว̄'วg' | "chest" |
| n̆yว̄วr ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ | "nose" | $p \varepsilon \chi^{\text {n }}$ | "vagina" |
| pūor ${ }^{\text {/ }}$ | "stomach" | sכ̄כn̆r ${ }^{\text {e }}$ | "liver" |
| tàsıntàl ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ | "palm" | tàtàl ${ }^{\text {l }}$ | "palm" |
| tìəク-gūur ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ | "chin" | tùb-kpir ${ }^{\text { }}$ | "half of jaw" |
| tùbur ${ }^{\text {er }}$ | "ear" | yı̀ər ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | "jaw" |
| $y u ̄ ' ө r^{\varepsilon}$ | "penis" | zàn̆1¢ | "umbilicus" |
| zìlım ${ }^{\text {me }}$ | "tongue" | zūg ${ }^{\text {/ }}$ | "head" |
| zūөbúg ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | "human head hair" | $z \bar{u} r^{\varepsilon}$ | "tail" |

There are significant exceptions, however:
$g^{\text {a }} \mid s^{\varepsilon}$ class:

| nú'ùg ${ }^{\text { }}$ | "hand" | perhaps as the prototypical tool. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $n u \overline{\text { 'bíla }}$ | "finger" | but nū'-dávo ${ }^{\text { }}$ | "thumb" |
| $n \bar{u}$ '-ín'a+ ${ }^{+}$ | "fingernail" | nכ̄b-bíl ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | "toe" |
| nכ̄b-ín̆'a+ | "toenail" | sia ${ }^{+}$ | "waist" |
| n̆yá'an ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | "back" | tìn ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | "beard" |

$f^{P} \iota^{+}$class:

| nīfol | "eye" |
| :--- | :--- |
| sià-nīf/ | "kidney" |
| sūn̆fol | "heart" |

as a "small round thing"?
as a compound of "eye"
beside sūun̆r ${ }^{\varepsilon /} \quad r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}$class

## 30．7 Colours

Kusaal，like many local languages，has a basic three－colour system：

| zèn̆＇og | ＂red＂ | covering all reddish shades |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sābılíg | ＂black＂ | covering all darker shades of colour |
| pìəlıg | ＂white＂ | covering all lighter shades of colour |

Wiug ${ }^{\text {P }}$＂red＂is synonymous with $z \dot{\text { èn̆＇og }}$ ．Kusaal has many more or less standardised expressions for colour（e．g．wōט támpūטr n̄̄＂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 bう̀－wìn ${ }^{\text {ne＂what time of day？＂}}$

| bēogu－n ${ }^{\text {／}}$ | ＂morning＂ | àsùbá＋ | ＂dawn＂（ $\leftarrow$ Arabic） |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| bèkèkkèon̆g ${ }^{\text { }}$ | ＂very early morning＂ | zàam ${ }^{\text {m }}$ | ＂evening＂ |
| wìn－līir ${ }^{\text {e }}$ | ＂sunset＂ | yóvo ${ }^{\text {ºm }}$ | ＂night＂ |
| wìn－kうेכn̆r ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ | ＂sunset＂ | nīntāna／ | ＂heat of the day，early afternoon＂ |

Winn ${ }^{\text {ne }}$＂time of day＂（cf wìnnıg ${ }^{\text {a }}$＂sun＂），always with a predeterminer．
There are no traditional expressions for clock time；NT／KB adapts from Hausa：
kérıfà àtán̆＇＂three o＇clock＂Hausa：Karfèe ukù

The deictic particle n̆wà＂this＂is commonly attached to time words：

| zàam n̆wá | ＂this evening＂ | ［za：ma］ |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| yú＇ט n n̆wá | ＂tonight＂ | $[y ⿱ 一 ⿻ 上 丨 匕: 口: a] ~$ | $\underline{8.5 .1}$ |

The day begins at sunrise．
Answers to būn－dáàr ${ }^{\varepsilon}$＂which day？＂：

| zīná＋ | ＂today＂ | sù＇өs |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $b \bar{\varepsilon} o g^{\text {a }}$ | ＂tomorrow＂ | dāar | ＂yesterday＂ |
|  |  | ＂day after tomorrow／ |  |
|  |  | day before yesterday＂ |  |

Weekday names are of Arabic origin, the seven-day week being a Muslim importation. The traditional "week" is a three day market cycle, differing from village to village and carrying on regardless of any weekdays or festivals. Many older speakers do not use weeks at all, but count in days instead.

| Àláasìd dáàr $\varepsilon^{\varepsilon}$ | "Sunday" | Àtínì dáà $r^{\varepsilon}$ | "Monday" |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Àtàláatà dáàr $r^{\varepsilon}$ | "Tuesday" | Àlárıbà dáàr $r^{\varepsilon}$ | "Wednesday" |
| Àlàmíisì dáàr | "Thursday" | À(r)zúmà dáàr $r^{\varepsilon}$ | "Friday" |
| Àsíbıtì dáàr $r^{\varepsilon}$ | "Saturday" |  |  |

Dāar ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ "day" is "twenty-four hour period" (nīntā $\quad$ "day as opposed to night") and is used with predeterminers to specify a particular day; the word dàbısır ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ is also used for "day" in counting periods of time, occurring usually in the plural:

Dābá àyópj̀e dáàr kà fò ná lह̄b nā. Dābá àyópj̀e kà fù ná lह̄b nā. Àláasìd dáàr kà fù ná lह̄b nā. Tì kpélìm ànínā dábısà bīəlá.

Longer periods of time:

| dābá àyópj̀e | "week" | also bákpàe $\leftarrow$ Hausa bakwài "seven" |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ñwādıg ${ }^{\text {a/l }}$ | "moon, month" |  |
| $n ̃ w a ̄ d-k a ́ n i ̀ ~ k e \overline{n ~ n a ̄ ~ l a ̄ ~}$ | "next month" | ("the month which is coming") |
| ñwād-kánì gàad lā | "last month" | ("the month which has passed") |

There are two seasons:
$s \bar{\varepsilon} 0 n ̆ g^{\nu} \quad$ "rainy season" úunne "dry season"

The Harmattan part of úun is called sāpál ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ and the very hot humid part before the rains is dàwàlı $g^{a}$.

"Time" in general is the irregular noun sāná+ pl sānsá+ cb sān-; "time of day" is wìn²; "time" as in "several times" is nכ̄כr 16.4.2.4. Examples with sāŋá+:

| sān-kánह̀? | "when?" | sān-kán lā | "at that time" |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sāná kám | "all the time" | sāná bèdvḡ | "a long time" |
| sānsá bèdvgū | "many times" | sāpá br̉əlá | "for/in a short time" |

## 31 General vocabulary

Words are ordered by Short Forms.
Vowel glottalisation, and the distinctions $n / \check{n}, ~ \partial / e / e / \varepsilon, i / \iota / i, \quad ө / \circ / \partial$ and $u / \nu / u$ are ignored in the ordering. The consonant $\eta$ 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 $g^{\mathrm{a}} \mid s^{\varepsilon}$ class form if extant, if not, then $g^{ग} \mid d^{\varepsilon}$ or $r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}$. 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 $\iota v$ 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:

| $a d j$ | adjective | $a d v$ | adverb |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $a g t$ | agent noun | $c b$ | combining form |
| $d v$ | dual-aspect verb | $g e r$ | gerund |
| $i m p$ | imperative | $i p f v$ | imperfective |
| $n$ | noun | $p l$ | plural |
| $q$ | quantifier | ses | resultative |
| $s g$ | singular | $s v$ | single-aspect verb |

## A

à－personifier proclitic（default allomorph） 16.6
āaňdıg ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} \mathrm{pl}$ āan̆dıs${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb àan̆d－$n$ ．black plum tree，Vitex doniana
āan̆dır ${ }^{\varepsilon} p l$ āan̆da $n$ ．black plum fruit
àan̆s ${ }^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．tear
àbùlá＋how many－fold？16．4．2．4
àbùyí＋àbùtán̆＇＋àbùnāasí＋adv．twice，three times etc 16．4．2．4
à－dàalún ${ }^{\supset} p l$ à－dàalís ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ à－dàalímìs ${ }^{\varepsilon} c b$ à－dàalún－$n$ ．stork 16.6
àdàkón̆＇＋$q$ ．one 16．4．2．2
àeñ ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}$ ger àan̆lím ${ }^{\mathrm{m}} \mathrm{sv}$ ．be something／somehow 20.2 8．5．2
àeñ ${ }^{+} d v$ ．get torn；res adj àan̆lún ${ }^{\top}$ torn
à－gáv̀ňg ${ }^{\boldsymbol{\top}} \mathrm{pl}$ à－gáàň ${ }^{\varepsilon} \mathrm{cb}$ à－gān̆－$n$ ．pied crow 16.6
àgól ${ }^{\boldsymbol{l}} \mathbf{\varepsilon}$ àg亏̄lá ${ }^{+} a d v$ ．upwards
Àgə̀ $\boldsymbol{I}^{\boldsymbol{\prime}} n$ ．Agolle district of Kusaasi territory；n．Agolle Kusaal dialect
à－kj̄ra－díàm ${ }^{\text {ma }}$ pl à－kj̄ra－dí̀̀m－nàm ${ }^{\text {a }} n$ ．praying mantis $\underline{16.6}$
àlá＋$a d v$ ．thus 17.7
àlá＋$q$ ．so many；how many？ 17.7
àláafò ${ }^{+} n$ ．health；in greetings 29；cf láafiya ${ }^{+} \leftarrow$ Arabic العافية Pal－Sa：fiya（tu）
Àláasìd dáàr ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$ ．Sunday $\leftarrow$ Arabic
Àlàmíisì dáà $r^{\varepsilon} n$ ．Thursday $\leftarrow$ Arabic
Àlárıbà dáà $\boldsymbol{r}^{\varepsilon} n$ ．Wednesday $\leftarrow$ Arabic
àlá zùg ${ }^{\text {º }}$ therefore 21．2．1 17.7
àlópìr ${ }^{\varepsilon} p l$ àlópìya ${ }^{+} n$ ．aeroplane $\leftarrow$ English
àmáa＝but 21．2．1 $\leftarrow$ Hausa $\leftarrow$ Arabic
àmēná＋$a d v$ ．really，truly 17.4
àmí amen $\leftarrow$ Arabic آمين；in replies to greetings $\underline{29}$
à－mús ${ }^{\varepsilon} p l$ à－mús－nàm${ }^{\text {a }} n$ ．cat 16．6；cf Hausa mussàa id
ànāasí＋${ }^{\text {q．}}$ ．four 16．4．2．1
àní ${ }^{+} a d v$ ．there 17.7
àníi＝q．eight 16．4．2．1
àní nā＋／$a d v$ ．there 17.7
ànínà ${ }^{+} a d v$ ．promptly $\underline{17.4}$
ànó＇う̀n ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ who？16．3．4

$\bar{a}^{\text {ancs }}{ }^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．pluck（leaves）
áńsì $\boldsymbol{b}^{\mathbf{a}} p l$ ān̆s－nám ${ }^{\text {a }} c b$ ān̆s－$n$ ．mother＇s brother
āñsı $\boldsymbol{g}^{\varepsilon /} d v$ ．break at an angle
ān̆síg ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} p l$ ān̆sís ${ }^{\varepsilon} c b$ ān̆sıク－$n$ ．（man＇s）sister＇s child
àntù＇ $\mathbf{a}^{=} p l$ àntù＇$\theta s^{\varepsilon} c b$ àntư＇à－$n$ ．lawsuit
ànū ${ }^{+}$q．five 16．4．2．1
àn̆wá+ $a d v$. like this $\underline{17.7}$
ānzúrıfà ${ }^{+} n$. silver; cf Hausa azùrfaa $\leftarrow$ Berber *a-ẓrəf, Souag 2016
àrazàk ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}$ pl àrazà' $a s^{\varepsilon}$ cb àrazà'- Generally used in pl: n. wealth, riches $\leftarrow$ Arabic Par-rizq(u)
àrazánà ${ }^{+} n$. heaven $\leftarrow$ Arabic الجنة Pal-fanna(tu)
Àrzúmà dáàr ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$. Friday $\leftarrow$ Arabic
àsćध except, unless $18 \underline{21.2 .1} \leftarrow$ Hausa sai
Àsíbıtì dáàr ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$. Saturday $\leftarrow$ Arabic
àsīda+ $a d v$. truly 17.4
àsùbá ${ }^{+} n$. dawn $\leftarrow$ Arabic الصباح Pas $s^{〔}-s^{\uparrow} a b a: \hbar(u)$
àtáň'+ q. three 16.4.2.1
Àtàláatà dáà $r^{\varepsilon} n$. Tuesday $\leftarrow$ Arabic
àtáyā+/ q. three exactly 16.4.2.1
Àtínì dáà $r^{\varepsilon} n$. Monday $\leftarrow$ Arabic
àtìuk ${ }^{\mathbf{J}} n$. sea $\leftarrow$ Hausa tèeku
àwánā/ $a d v$. like this 17.7
àwāe ${ }^{+} q$. nine 16.4.2.1
àyí ${ }^{+}$q. two 16.4.2.1
áyìı no 22.3.4
àyínā+/ q. two exactly 16.4.2.1
àyว́ṗ̀e ${ }^{+} q$. seven 16.4.2.1
àyúebò ${ }^{+}$q. six 16.4.2.1

## B

bà they, their (proclitic); ba+ them (enclitic object) 16.3.1
bā' $^{+/}$pl bā'-nám ${ }^{\text {a }}$ cb bā'- n. father 9.4
bāa= pl bāas ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb bà- n. dog
báa ( $\leftarrow$ Hausa bâa "not exist") in constituent negation 27.2
 $n$. diviner's bag
$\boldsymbol{b a ̄}^{\prime} \mathbf{a}=p l$ bā'as ${ }^{\varepsilon} c b$ bà'- $n$. peg to hang things on
bà'an $^{\mathbf{n \varepsilon}} p l$ bà'ana ${ }^{+} c b$ bà'an- $n$. stocks (punishment)
bàan̆lıg ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}$ pl bàan̆lıs ${ }^{\varepsilon} a d j$. narrow, slender
bāaňlíg ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}$ adj. quiet
bāan̆lím ${ }^{\boldsymbol{m}} a d v$. quietly
bà'ar ${ }^{\varepsilon} p l$ bàda+ bà'a+ cb bà'- n. idol
bābá ${ }^{+}$beside postposition 17.6; cf bābır $r^{\varepsilon /}$ sphere of activity
bàbıgā+/ q. many 16.4.1
bákpàe+ $n$. week $\leftarrow$ Hausa bakwài "seven"
bàlàar ${ }^{\varepsilon} p l$ bàlàya ${ }^{+}$cb bàlà- $n$. stick, staff, club
bàlànır $\boldsymbol{r}^{\varepsilon}$ pl bàlàna+ cb bàlàn- $n$. hat
bālह̄rug²/ pl bālērıd ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ bālērıs ${ }^{\varepsilon /} c b$ bālér- n. ugly person; cf $/ \bar{\varepsilon} r^{\varepsilon}$ get ugly
bàmmā ${ }^{+/}$these, those demonstrative 16.3.2
bàn $^{\varepsilon}$ these, those demonstrative 16.3.2
bán they (subject of $\grave{n}$-clause); bān $\boldsymbol{n}^{\varepsilon}$ they, them (contrastive) 16.3.1
bān̆'+ $d v$. ride
bānāa= pl bānāas ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb bànà- (tone sic in my materials) $n$. traditional "fugu" smock bàň'ad ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} p l$ bàň'ad-nàma $n$. ill person
bān̆'al $\left.\right|^{\varepsilon /} d v$. make to ride (horse, bicycle)
bān̆'as ${ }^{\varepsilon} c b$ bàn̆'- n. pl as $s g$ disease
bàn-dāog ${ }^{\mathbf{3}}$ pl bàn-dāad ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb bàn-dà- $n$. crocodile
bān-kúsćlı ${ }^{\text {pl }}$ bān-kúsc̄lá+ cb bān-kúsह̄l- n. lizard
$\boldsymbol{b a ̄}^{\mathbf{a}}$ pl bāaňs ${ }^{\varepsilon} c b$ bàn- n. ring, chain, fetter
bà $\boldsymbol{y}^{\mathbf{a}} n$. agama lizard
bà $^{\varepsilon} d v$. come to know
báp wallop!
Bārıg ${ }^{\text {a/ }} \mathrm{pl}$ Bārıs ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ cb Bār- n. Bisa person (not only the Bareka, WK)
bárıkà $^{+}$n. blessing; in greetings $\underline{29} \leftarrow$ Arabic بركة baraka(tun)
Bārug/ n. Bisa country; North 30.3
bàs ${ }^{\varepsilon} d v$. go away; abandon; throw out
Bāt ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ n. Bisa language
bàtán̆'+ q. three (after personal pronoun 16.4.2.1)
bàuøv ${ }^{+} n$. found only as in Ò kpèn̆' báunù. He was circumcised. $\leftarrow$ Songhay "pool" (for the idiom 15.1)
bày $\bar{\varepsilon}_{\mathbf{o g}}{ }^{\text {/ }}$ betrayer of secrets ( $c f$ y $\varepsilon \bar{\varepsilon} s^{\varepsilon /}$ )
bàyí ${ }^{+}$q. two (after personal pronoun 16.4.2.1)
bàyópj̀e ${ }^{+}$q. seven (after personal pronoun 16.4.2.1)
$\boldsymbol{b}^{+}{ }^{\text {ger }}$ bèlím ${ }^{\mathrm{m}}$ (sic) sv. exist; be in a place $\underline{20.1}$
$\boldsymbol{b}_{\bar{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{\iota}_{\boldsymbol{\prime}} \boldsymbol{g}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} /} d v$. go rotten
bèdug ${ }^{\boldsymbol{P}}$ bèdır $\boldsymbol{r}^{\varepsilon}$ pl bèda+ cb bèd- adj. great
bèdvgō${ }^{+/}$q. much, a lot 16.4.1
bē $\varepsilon$ or 21.2.1 22.1.2

$\boldsymbol{b}_{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \mathbf{l m}^{\mathbf{m}} d v$. beg
bèlıs $\boldsymbol{s}^{\varepsilon} d v$. comfort
$\boldsymbol{b} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{n}^{\boldsymbol{n \varepsilon}} \mathrm{pl}$ bēna ${ }^{+}$cb bèn-n. end
bèn̆' ${ }^{+}$ger $b \varepsilon \bar{n}{ }^{\prime} \varepsilon s^{\varepsilon} d v$. fall ill
bèn̆sı $\boldsymbol{g}^{\varepsilon} d v$. serve soup
bè $\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\varepsilon} d v$. mark out a boundary
 and-millet, a traditional snack
bēnír $r^{\varepsilon} p l$ bēná ${ }^{+}$cb bēn－n．brown bean

bēogv－n $\boldsymbol{n}^{\varepsilon /}$ n．morning 30.8


bērıga＋${ }^{+} b$ bèrıg－pl leaves of bèrıŋ used for soup（KED）
bēsug${ }^{\text {pl }} \mathrm{pl}$ bēsıd ${ }^{\varepsilon} c b$ bès－$n$ ．a kind of wide－mouthed pot
binān̆＇ar ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ pl biān̆＇adá ${ }^{+}$biáńn＇a＋ cb biān̆＇－n．wet mud，black mud；riverbed

bïólı pl bīəlá＋adj．naked
bìəl $^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．accompany
bï＇əlá＋q．a little 16．4．1；bï＇əl bī＇əl q．and adv．a very little；little by little
$\boldsymbol{b i ̈ l}^{\prime} ə \boldsymbol{m}^{\mathbf{m}} \mathrm{pl}$ bì＇əm－nàm ${ }^{\text {a }}$ bì＇əmma LF cb bì＇əm－$n$ ．enemy
bīən ${ }^{\boldsymbol{n \varepsilon}}$ pl bīəna ${ }^{+}$cb bìən－$n$ ．shin
bīər $^{\varepsilon /} p l$ bìēyá ${ }^{+} c b$ binā－$n$ ．elder sibling of the same sex
bì＇əs $^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．doubt
bìgıs $^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．show，teach
$\boldsymbol{b i i ̈ g}^{\mathbf{a}} p l$ biiis ${ }^{\varepsilon} c b$ bì－bī－$n$ ．child；bī－díbì $\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\mathbf{a}} n$ ．boy；bì－līa＋$n$ ．baby；bì－nà＇ab ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} n$ ．prince； bì－pīt ${ }^{\text {a／}} p l$ bì－pītíb $b^{a} c b$ bì－pīt－n．father＇s younger brother；bī－pú $\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\mathbf{a}} n$ ．girl
bì＇ig $^{\varepsilon} d \nu$ ．ripen，become pregnant
bīilíf’ pl bīilí ${ }^{+}$cb biill－$n$ ．seed
bìilím $^{\boldsymbol{m}} n$ ．childhood
$\boldsymbol{b i ̄}_{\mathbf{l}} \mathbf{m}^{\mathbf{m} /}$ cb bī－n．soup，stew
bì＇isím $^{\mathbf{m}} n$ ．milk（human or animal）
bì＇isır $^{\varepsilon}$ pl bì＇isa ${ }^{+}$cb bì＇is－$n$ ．woman＇s breast
bïla $^{\mathbf{a}}$ pl bïbıs ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb bìl－or bì－adj．little，small
bìlıg $^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．roll（transitive）
billım $^{\boldsymbol{m}} d v$ ．roll（intransitive）
bìmbìm ${ }^{\boldsymbol{m} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}$ pl bìmbìma＋ cb bìmbìm－$n$ ．altar NT（KED：mound or pillar of earth）
Bìn ${ }^{\text {ne }} p l$ Bìm ${ }^{\text {ma }} c b$ Bìn－$n$ ．Moba，Bimoba person（not only Bemba，WK）
Bìn ${ }^{\boldsymbol{n \varepsilon}} n$ ．Moba language
$\boldsymbol{b i ̄ n}^{\mathbf{n \varepsilon}} n$ ．excrement
Bìu $\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\text {コ }}$ n．Moba country
bj̀ $^{+} d v$ ．seek；bう̀כd ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}$ ipfv used for：want，like，love（sexual，romantic）；imperfective gerund bう̀دdım $\boldsymbol{m}^{\mathbf{m}}$ will 13．2．1．4
 why？17．7；bうे－wìn ${ }^{\mathbf{n} \varepsilon}$ what time of day？
$\boldsymbol{b j}_{\boldsymbol{b}}^{\boldsymbol{b}} \boldsymbol{g}^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．wrap round，tie round
$\boldsymbol{b}_{\boldsymbol{b}} \boldsymbol{\iota l}^{\boldsymbol{g}} \boldsymbol{g}^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．lose，become lost
bう̀dう̀bう̀dう̀ ${ }^{+} n$ ．bread（？ultimately $\leftarrow$ English）
$\boldsymbol{b j}^{\boldsymbol{J}} \mathrm{pl}$ bù＇ad ${ }^{\varepsilon} c b$ bư＇à－n．pit
$\operatorname{būsır}^{\varepsilon} \mathrm{pl}$ bう̄sa＋ cb bう̀s－$n$ ．a kind of small，very poisonous snake
$\boldsymbol{b u}^{\prime+} d v$ ．beat
buà $\boldsymbol{k}^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．split

bū＇ar ${ }^{\varepsilon /} p l$ bư＇áa＋$c b$ bư＇ā－$n$ ．skin bottle
$b^{\text {bùd }}{ }^{\varepsilon}$ ger $b u ̄ d ı g^{a} b u ̄ d v g{ }^{\top} d v$ ．plant seeds
bùdım $\boldsymbol{m}^{\mathbf{m}} d v$ ．get confused
bùdımís ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$ ．confusion
bù＇ $\mathbf{e}^{+} d v$ ．pour out
$\boldsymbol{b u ̀ g}^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．get drunk；cf Hausa bùgu id
būgud ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} n$ ．client of a bā＇a＝traditional diviner
bùgulım ${ }^{\boldsymbol{m}} d v$ ．cast lots
 a sig $\iota^{\varepsilon /} \underline{30.2}$ inherited from one＇s mother＇s family
bùgóm $^{\mathbf{m}} c b$ bùgōm－bùgóm－$n$ ．fire；Bùgúm－tכ̄כn̆r $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} n$ ．Fire Festival
būgus ${ }^{\text {a／}}$ sv．be soft

būgusígā̄＋／$a d v$ ．softly 17.4
būgusím ${ }^{\boldsymbol{m}} n$ ．softness，weakness
$\boldsymbol{b u}^{\boldsymbol{u}} \boldsymbol{k}^{\varepsilon /} d v$ ．weaken
$\boldsymbol{b u ̀ k}^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．cast lots
bù $I^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．germinate，ooze
būl ${ }^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}$ pl būla ${ }^{+} n$ ．shoot，sprout
$\boldsymbol{b u ̀ l}^{\varepsilon} d \nu$ ．astonish
Bùlın．Buli language
Bùlıg ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} \mathrm{pl}$ Bùlıs ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb Bùl－n．Bulsa person
bùlıg ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} \mathrm{pl}$ bùlıs ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb bùl－n．well，pond
bùmbàrıg ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}$ pl bùmbàrıs ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb bùmbàr－$n$ ．ant
$\operatorname{bùn}^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．reap，harvest
$\boldsymbol{b u ̄ n}^{\boldsymbol{n \varepsilon} / ~ p l ~ b u ̄ n a ́+~ b u ̄ n-n a ́ m ~}{ }^{\text {a }}$ cb būn－n．thing（concrete or abstract）16．10．4；būn－ búvdîf $n$ ．plant；būn－gín ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} n$ ．short chap（informal，joking）；būn－kón̆bùg ${ }^{\boldsymbol{D}}$ pl būn－kón̆bìd ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb kj̀ňb－（sic）n．animal；būn－kúdùg${ }^{\boldsymbol{\top}} n$ ．old man
būn－dáà $r^{\varepsilon}$ which day？ 17.7
bùn $^{\mathbf{a}} \mathrm{pl}$ bùmıs ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb bùn－$n$ ．donkey
$\boldsymbol{b}^{\boldsymbol{b}} \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．take a short cut
bù̀ $^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．call，summon；Ò yō＇ur búèn X．She is called X．19．8．2
bùer ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ pl bùèya ${ }^{+}$cb búà $-n$ ．grain store，silo
$\boldsymbol{b u}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{\theta s}^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．ask；ger bū＇өs⿱㇒́g${ }^{\boldsymbol{}} n$ ．question；bu＇oskaŋa this question（Jn 18：34）
bù－pïiga $a d v$ ．ten times 16．4．2．4
būráa $=n$ ．man，male adult（in ILK but characteristically Toende Kusaal；see dāúd ${ }^{+}$）
$\boldsymbol{b u}_{\mathbf{v} r ı} \boldsymbol{y a ́}^{+} n$ ．Christmas $\leftarrow$ Twi／Fante bronya
bùrkìn ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}$ pl bùrkìn－nàm ${ }^{\text {a }}$ cb bùrkìn－$n$ ．free person；honourable person $\leftarrow$ Songhay 15.1 Bùsáàn̆ ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$ ．Bisa language
Bùsán ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} \mathrm{pl}$ Bùsáàn̆ $s^{\varepsilon}$ cb Bùsāク－$n$ ．Bisa person
 ＂seed planting［cup］＂）
$\boldsymbol{b u}^{\boldsymbol{v}} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{d}^{\varepsilon}$ n．pl as sg innocence
būudı ${ }^{+} c b$ bùud－$n$ ．kind，sort，ethnic group
$\boldsymbol{b u}_{\boldsymbol{u}} \boldsymbol{g}^{\mathbf{a}} \mathrm{pl}$ būvs ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb bù̀ n．goat；bù－dìbıg ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} n$ ．male kid

## D

dà before two days ago，tense particle 19．3．1
dā not with imperative mood 19.5
dàa day after tomorrow，tense particle 19．3．1
dāa before yesterday，tense particle 19．3．1
dà＇${ }^{+} d v$ ．buy
dà＇a＝$p l$ dà＇as ${ }^{\varepsilon} c b$ dà＇－n．market
dà＇abır ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$ ．slave
dàalım $\mathbf{m}^{\mathbf{m}} n$ ．masculinity
dàalím ${ }^{\mathbf{m}}$ pl dàalímìs ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ n．male organs
$\boldsymbol{d a ̄ a m}^{\mathbf{m /}} c b$ dā－$n$ ．millet beer，＂pito＂；dā－núù $r^{\varepsilon} n$ ．beer－drinking；dā－bín ${ }^{\boldsymbol{n} \varepsilon}$ cb dā－bín－ $n$ ．residue of beer；NT yeast（cf bīn ${ }^{n \varepsilon}$ ）
dàam $^{\mathbf{m}} d v$ ．disturb，trouble（cf Hausa dàamaa id）
dāan ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} \mathrm{pl}$ dàan－nàm ${ }^{\mathrm{a}}$ cb dàan－n．owner of ．．．$\underline{16.10 .4}$
dāar $^{\varepsilon} p l$ dābá ${ }^{+}$cb dà－$n$ ．day， 24 －hour period 30．8；dà－pīiga ${ }^{+} n$ ．ten days
dāa－sí＇ $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon r} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ perhaps 21．2．1
dàbīəm ${ }^{\mathbf{m}}$ tone sic n．fear
dàbīog${ }^{3}$ pl dàbīəd ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb dàbiàà－n．coward
dàbısır ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ pl dàbısa＋$c b$ dàbıs－$n$ ．day（as one of several）
dādók ${ }^{\mathbf{3}} n$ ．a kind of large pot
dā＇e ${ }^{+/} d v$ ．push；blow（of wind）
Dàgáà ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}$ pl Dàgáadìbà ${ }^{\mathrm{a}}$ Dágàd－nàm ${ }^{\mathrm{a}}$ cb Dàgáàd－$n$ ．Dagaaba person（L prefix sic）
Dàgbānnn／pl Dàgbāmmal cb Dàgbān－n．Dagomba person
Dàgbānne／n．Dagbani language
Dàgbāun ${ }^{\text {／}} n$ ．Dagomba country，Dagbon
dàg̀̀bıg ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}$ n．left－hand；（yà）dàgう̀bıg ${ }^{\text {a }}$ South KB $\underline{30.3}$
dāká ${ }^{p l}$ dāká－nàm ${ }^{\text {a }}$ cb dāká－$n$ ．box $\leftarrow$ Hausa àdakàa
dàkīig $^{\mathbf{a}} \mathrm{pl}$ dàkīis ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb dàkì－$n$ ．wife＇s sibling；dàkì－dāú ${ }^{+} n$ ．wife＇s brother；dàkì－
pūāk ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} n$ ．wife＇s sister；dàkì－tùa＋${ }^{+} n$ ．wife＇s sister＇s husband
dà－kう̀دn̆r ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ pl dà－kj̀n̆ya ${ }^{+}$cb dà－kj̀n̆－n．unmarried son $\underline{30.1}$
$\boldsymbol{d a ̀ m}^{\mathbf{m}}$ ipfv dàmmıd ${ }^{\mathrm{a}} d v$ ．shake
dàmà＇a＝$n$ ．liar cf mà＇${ }^{+}$
dàmà＇am ${ }^{\mathbf{m}} n$ ．lie，untruth，lying
dàmà＇ar ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$ ．lie，untruth
dāmpūsāar ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$ ．stick
dànkう̀ク³ n．measles
dà－pāala／n．young man，son
dà－sā $\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\mathbf{a}} \mathrm{pl}$ dà－sāan̆s ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ dà－sām ${ }^{\text {ma }} c b$ dà－san－$n$ ．young man
dà－tāa $=p l$ dà－tāas ${ }^{\varepsilon} c b$ dà－tà－$n$ ．enemy
dàtìu $\boldsymbol{\eta}^{3} n$ ．right－hand；（yà）dàtìun ${ }^{3}$ North KB 30.3
dāú ${ }^{+} p l$ dāp ${ }^{\text {a }}$ cb dàu－dàp－9．2．2 n．man（as opposed to woman）
$\boldsymbol{d a ̀ v g}{ }^{\mathbf{J}} \mathrm{pl}$ dàad ${ }^{\varepsilon} c b$ dà－$n$ ．piece of wood，log；pl also：wood（material）；dà－kīəd ${ }^{\text {a }}$
$n$ ．wood－cutter；dà－kpī＇əd ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} n$ ．carpenter；dà－pūvdír $\boldsymbol{r}^{\varepsilon} n$ ．cross－piece，pl dà－ pū̀dá＋$n$ ．used as sg cross NT
dāug ${ }^{\boldsymbol{J}} \mathrm{pl}$ dāad ${ }^{\varepsilon} c b$ dà－$a d j$ ．male
dàwàlıg ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} n$ ．hot humid season before the rains
dàwān ${ }^{\mathbf{n \varepsilon /}}$ pl dàwāná＋cb dàwān－n．pigeon
dàyáam $^{\mathbf{m a}}$ pl dàyāam－nám ${ }^{\text {a }}$ cb dàyāam－$n$ ．husband＇s parent；dàyāam－dáu ${ }^{+} n$ ．
husband＇s father；dàyāam－púák ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} n$ ．husband＇s mother
dàyūugºl pl dàyūud ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ cb dàyū－n．rat
dèbır ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ pl dèba＋n．mat，pallet，bed


$\boldsymbol{d} \grave{\varepsilon} / \boldsymbol{m}^{\mathbf{m}} d v$ ．begin to lean on something（of a person）
$\boldsymbol{d} \bar{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\mathbf{a}} p l d \bar{\varepsilon} m ı s^{\varepsilon} c b$ dèn－n．accidental bruise
$\boldsymbol{d} \mathbf{\varepsilon}^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．go，do first
dèりım beforehand，preverb 19．7．2
dì it，its（proclitic）16．3．1 $=1 \grave{i}$
 wife．Ò dì ňyán．She＇s ashamed．
diā＇a $d v$ ．get dirty
$\boldsymbol{d}_{\text {lā＇ad }}{ }^{\varepsilon /} n$ ．dirt
$\boldsymbol{d i} \mathbf{i}^{+/} d v$ ．receive，get
dìəm ${ }^{\text {ma }} \mathrm{pl}$ dìəm－nàm ${ }^{\mathrm{a}}$ cb 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－pūā $\boldsymbol{k}^{\mathbf{a}} n$ ．wife＇s mother
$\boldsymbol{d i}{ }^{\prime} \boldsymbol{m}^{\boldsymbol{m}} d v$ ．play，not be serious
dì＇əma＋${ }^{+} n$ ．festival
$\boldsymbol{d i}{ }^{\prime} \partial \boldsymbol{s}^{\varepsilon /} d v$ ．receive（many things）
dīgıya／ger dīk ${ }^{\mathrm{a} /} \mathrm{KT}$ dīgıré WK sv．be lying down
dīgısá ${ }^{+} n$ ．pl lairs
$\boldsymbol{d i ̄ g} \boldsymbol{I}^{\varepsilon /} d v$ ．lay down
$\boldsymbol{d i ̀ g} \boldsymbol{ı n}^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．lie down
dìgır ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ pl dìga＋$c b$ dìg－$n$ ．dwarf
dìıs $^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．feed；agt dìıs ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} n$ ．glutton
dìısún ${ }^{3}$ pl dìssímà ${ }^{+}$dìısís $^{\varepsilon}$ cb dìısún－$n$ ．spoon

dín it（subject of ǹ－clause）16．3．1
$\boldsymbol{d}_{\mathrm{i}} \boldsymbol{n}^{\varepsilon}$ it（contrastive）16．3．1 $=l_{\mathrm{i}} \mathrm{n}^{\varepsilon}$
dìndēog²／pl dìndē $d^{\varepsilon /}$ cb dìnd $\bar{\varepsilon}-n$ ．chameleon
dìndìıs ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}$ n．glutton
dìn zúg $^{\boldsymbol{}}$ therefore 17.7
dìtón ${ }^{3} n$ ．right－hand（see dàtìun ${ }^{\text {º }}$ ）
dì－z̄̄rugº／pl dì－zכ̄rá＋cb dì－zכ̄r－n．crumb
 come with you？（to an elderly patient．）Bà d̀̀l n $\bar{\varepsilon}$ tāaba．They went together．
$\boldsymbol{d} \overline{\boldsymbol{\jmath}} \boldsymbol{\iota g}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} /} d v$ ．make accompany，send along with
$\boldsymbol{d} \overline{\bar{\jmath}} \not \boldsymbol{\iota}^{\varepsilon /} d v$ ．investigate，trace
d戸̄n̆／ıg ${ }^{\varepsilon /} d v$ ．stretch oneself
dう̀n̆＇כs ${ }^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．water plants


$\boldsymbol{d} \overline{\mathbf{v}}^{+}$ipfv $d \bar{v} t^{\mathrm{a} /}{ }^{\text {imp }}$ dòm ${ }^{\text {a }} d v$ ．go up
$\boldsymbol{d} \boldsymbol{u}^{\prime} \mathbf{a}^{\mathbf{a}} d v$ ．bear，give birth，beget；agt d̄̄＇ad ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} n$ ．elder relation
$\boldsymbol{d} \mathbf{v}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{a}^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．make interest（of a loan）
$\boldsymbol{d} \mathbf{u} \mathbf{a m}^{\mathbf{m}} n$ ．birth
dùañ ${ }^{+} p l$ dう̀כn̆s $s^{\varepsilon}$ cb dj̀n̆－n．dawadawa Parkia clappertoniana［biglobosa］（Haaf）
dư＇átà ${ }^{+} n$ ．doctor $\leftarrow$ English
$\boldsymbol{d u} \mathbf{e}^{+/} d v$ ．raise，rise
$\boldsymbol{d} \bar{u}^{\varepsilon}{ }^{\varepsilon} d \nu$ ．cook

$\boldsymbol{d u ̀ m}^{\boldsymbol{m}} d v$ ．bite
$\boldsymbol{d u}_{\boldsymbol{m}}{ }^{\boldsymbol{m} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{d u ̄}^{\boldsymbol{n \varepsilon}}$ pl dūma ${ }^{+}$cb dùm－n．knee
dùndùug${ }^{\boldsymbol{T}} \mathrm{pl}$ dùndùud ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb dòndù－n．cobra
dūnıya ${ }^{+}$cb dūnıyá－ 9.6 n．world $\leftarrow$ Arabic دنيا dunya：
dūnná ${ }^{+} a d v$ ．this year $\underline{30.8}$
dū ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} \mathrm{pl}$ dūmıs${ }^{\varepsilon} \mathrm{cb}$ dùn－$n$ ．mosquito
dūer ${ }^{\varepsilon /} p l$ dưēyáa $c b$ dưā－$n$ ．stick
$\boldsymbol{d u} ' \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{s}^{\varepsilon /} d v$ ．lift up，honour
dùr ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} s v$ ．be many
$\boldsymbol{d} \mathbf{u} \mathbf{' u n}^{\varepsilon /} d \nu$ ．pass water（ger recorded as dū＇unúg）
$\boldsymbol{d u ̄ ' u n i ́ m}{ }^{\mathbf{m}}$ cb dū＇un－$n$ ．urine
dūusá＋n．pl．steps

## E

$\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon$ n̆ yes 22.3.4
$\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon \check{n}$ or $\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon \check{n}$ tí see $\check{n} y \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon$, ňy $\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon$ tí habitually auxiliary tense marker 19.7.2
$\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon \boldsymbol{n}^{\boldsymbol{b}} \boldsymbol{b}^{\varepsilon /} d v$. lay a foundation
$\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon n ̆ h^{\prime} \boldsymbol{r}^{\varepsilon} n$. foundation 12.2.2
غ̀n̆bıs ${ }^{\varepsilon} d v$. scratch
غ̀n̆ ${ }^{\varepsilon} d v$. block up, plug up
غ̀n̆dı $\boldsymbol{g}^{\varepsilon} d v$. unblock, unplug
غ̀n̆rı $\boldsymbol{g}^{\varepsilon} d v$. shift along (e.g. a bench)

## F

$\boldsymbol{f}$ you sg (enclitic object) 16.3.1
fāan̆ ${ }^{=}$q. every 16.4.1
$\boldsymbol{f a ̈ e n ̃ ~}^{+/} d v$. save; agt fāan̆ $\boldsymbol{d}^{\mathrm{a} /} \boldsymbol{f a ̄ a n g i ́ n}^{\mathbf{a}}{ }^{\mathbf{a}} n$. saviour 15.1
fän̆ ${ }^{+} d v$. grab, rob
fáss ideophone for pìəlıg ${ }^{\mathrm{a}}$ white 16.11.1.3
$\boldsymbol{f} \varepsilon \varepsilon^{\boldsymbol{g}}{ }^{\varepsilon /} d v$. (of food) get old, cold
fēn̆'ogº pl fēn̆' $\varepsilon d^{\varepsilon /} c b$ fēn̆'- n. ulcer
$\boldsymbol{f i}^{\boldsymbol{\circ}} \boldsymbol{b}^{\varepsilon} d v$. beat
$\boldsymbol{f i}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{i g}^{\varepsilon} d v$. cut off
fiiñ $=q$. a little (liquid) 16.4.1
fitlá ${ }^{+} n$. lamp $\leftarrow$ Hausa fitilàa; in KB adapted to the $r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}$class: sg fitir pl fita

fù you, your sg (proclitic) 16.3.1
fùe ${ }^{+} d v$. draw out
füfūm ${ }^{\boldsymbol{m} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \mathrm{pl}$ fūfūma+ cb fūfúm- n. envy; stye (believed to result from envy) fún you sg (as subject of ǹ-clause); fūn SF fún̄̄ LF you sg (contrastive) 16.3.1 fūug' ${ }^{\text {/ }}$ pl fūud ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ fūt ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ cb fū- $n$. shirt, clothing; pl also: cloth

## G

gàad ${ }^{\varepsilon} d v$. pass, surpass 23.2.2
gáafàra sorry formula $\underline{29}$ (Hausa gaafaràa, ultimately $\leftarrow$ Arabic)
gà'al ${ }^{\varepsilon} d v$. button up
gà'am ${ }^{\mathbf{m}} d v$. grind teeth
gāan̆ ${ }^{\prime /} p l$ gāan̆s $s^{\varepsilon /}$ cb gān̆- n. Nigerian ebony Diospyros mespilliformis (Haaf)
gàas ${ }^{\varepsilon} d v$. pass by

gàlım ${ }^{\mathbf{m}} d v$. joke
gàlıs ${ }^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．exceed，get to be too much
gān̆ $\boldsymbol{r}^{\varepsilon /} p l$ gān̆yá ${ }^{+} c b$ gān̆r－$n$ ．fruit of Nigerian ebony
gà $\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．step over
$\boldsymbol{g} \bar{\eta}^{\varepsilon /} d v$ ．choose
gbān̆＇e ${ }^{+/} d v$ ．catch
gbáňyà＇a＝$n$ ．lazy person 15
gbán̆yà＇am ${ }^{\mathbf{m}}$ n．laziness； 1976 NT gonya＇am
gbàun³ pl gbàna＋cb gbàn－gbàung－n．book WK
$\boldsymbol{g} b a ̄ u \boldsymbol{y}^{\text {／}}$ pl gbāná ${ }^{+}$bb gbān－gbāun $-n$ ．animal skin WK；animal skin，book DK


$\boldsymbol{g} \boldsymbol{b} \bar{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{r}^{\varepsilon /} p l$ gbēyá＋$c b$ gbēr－n．thigh
gbīgım ${ }^{\mathbf{n \varepsilon}} \mathrm{pl}$ gbīgıma＋ cb gbìgım－n．lion
gbìn ${ }^{\mathbf{n \varepsilon}}$ pl gbìna＋ cb gbìn－$n$ ．buttock；base（e．g．of a mountain）；postposition 17.6
gbìn－vう̀วn̆ $\boldsymbol{r}^{\varepsilon} n$ ．anus
gbīs $^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．sleep
$\boldsymbol{g} \bar{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{I}^{\varepsilon /} d v$ ．place between one＇s legs（Pattern H）
$\boldsymbol{g} \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon \boldsymbol{n}_{\boldsymbol{m}}{ }^{\mathbf{m} / d v}$ ．go mad，madden
gēeñmís ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$ ．pl as $s g$ madness


$\boldsymbol{g} \bar{\varepsilon} \check{n}^{+} d v$ ．get tired；res adj $\boldsymbol{g} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \varepsilon \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \check{\prime} \mathbf{l u ́ n}^{\boldsymbol{\eta}}$ adj．tired
$\boldsymbol{g} \bar{\varepsilon} \check{n}^{\prime+} d v$ ．get angry
$\boldsymbol{g} \overline{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{g g}^{\mathbf{3}} \mathrm{n}$ ．place between one＇s legs（Pattern O sic）
gīiňlím ${ }^{\mathbf{m}} n$ ．shortness
gì $\mathbf{k}^{\mathbf{a}} \mathrm{pl}$ gìgıs ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb gìg－$n$ ．dumb person
gìgı／ım $\boldsymbol{m}^{\boldsymbol{m}} d v$ ．become dumb
gīlıg $^{\varepsilon /}{ }^{\text {ipfu }}$ gīn ${ }^{\text {na／}} d v$ ．go around 11.1
gīm $^{\mathbf{m a /}}$ sv．be short
gīク ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}$ pl gīma＋cb gìn－adj．short
gì̀ ${ }^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．scrimp
gīクa＋adv．shortly $\underline{17.4}$
gīクılím ${ }^{\mathbf{m}} n$ ．shortness





gذ̀＇ $\boldsymbol{n}^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．look up
$\boldsymbol{g} \boldsymbol{\rho}^{\mathbf{a} /} s v$ ．be looking up
 prophet
$\boldsymbol{g} \bar{u}^{\prime+} d v$. guard, protect
$\boldsymbol{g} \mathbf{v i l}^{\varepsilon}$ ipfv gòn ${ }^{\text {na }} d v$. suspend
gùlla ger gūlıb sv. be suspended
gù/lım $\boldsymbol{m}^{\mathbf{n} \varepsilon}$ only; post-NP/AdvP particle 28.6
gòm ${ }^{\boldsymbol{m} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \mathrm{pl}$ gòma ${ }^{+}$n. kapok fruit; also thread WK
Gùm ${ }^{\mathbf{m \varepsilon}} n$. place of the clan Gùm-dìm ${ }^{\text {a }}$

gùn̆'a+ pl gòň'כs ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb gว̀n̆'- n. thorn; Acacia; gว̀ň'-sābılíga Acacia hockii (Haaf)
gùngūm ${ }^{\boldsymbol{m} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} n$. kapok material
gù ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} \mathrm{pl}$ gùmıs ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb gù̀- $n$. kapok tree Ceiba pentandra (Haaf)
gūr ${ }^{\mathbf{a} /}$ ger gūrím ${ }^{\mathrm{m}} s v$. be on guard, watch for 26.1
Gūrín ${ }^{\mathbf{n \varepsilon}} n$. Farefare language
Gūríg ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}$ pl Gōrís ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$. Farefare person
$\boldsymbol{g u} \overline{' u}^{\boldsymbol{\prime} /} d v$. put on guard
gò'vlım $\boldsymbol{m}^{\boldsymbol{m}} d v$. become half-ripe
gùvr ${ }^{\varepsilon} p l$ gùya ${ }^{+}$cb gù- n. upland; bank of river
gūvr ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ pl gōya ${ }^{+}$cb gù̀ $n$. ridge of back
$\boldsymbol{g u} \overline{' u s}^{\varepsilon /} d v$. take care, watch out
$\boldsymbol{g u}^{\mathbf{v}} \boldsymbol{v s}^{\varepsilon} n$. pl half-ripe fruit

## H

 hālí báa even

I
${ }^{i} \bar{a}^{+} d v$. seek
iān̆'as ${ }^{\varepsilon /} d v$. leap


$\overline{\text { ig }} \boldsymbol{I}^{\varepsilon /} d v$. make to kneel
ìgı $\boldsymbol{n}^{\varepsilon} d v$. kneel down
íılı pl īláa cb īıl-n. horn
īsır ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ pl īsa ${ }^{+}$cb is- n. scar
ìsı $^{\varepsilon}{ }^{\varepsilon} d v$. get up early

## K

kà and, that 21.2
$\boldsymbol{k a}_{\boldsymbol{a}} \boldsymbol{b}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} /} d v$. offer, invite
kāal ${ }^{\varepsilon /} d v$. count
$\boldsymbol{k a ̄ a s}^{\varepsilon /} d v$. cry out, weep; (cock) crow
kà'asıg $\bar{\varepsilon}$ LF only; sv. not exist 19.5.1
$\boldsymbol{k a ̄}_{\boldsymbol{b}}^{\boldsymbol{\prime} \boldsymbol{g}^{\varepsilon /} d v \text {. ladle out (liquid) }}$
$\boldsymbol{k a} \mathbf{b} \boldsymbol{r}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} /} d v$. call out asking for admission 29; ger kābırí+ $n$. calling out for admission $\boldsymbol{k a ̀}^{\varepsilon} d v$. drive away; kàd sàríyà $d v$. judge 19.8.1; agt sàríyà-kāt ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} n$. judge NT
$k^{k}{ }^{\prime} \mathbf{e}^{+}$ger kā'alím ${ }^{\mathrm{m}}$ sv. not exist, not be, not have 19.5.1 8.5.2
kāııı/ pl kālá ${ }^{+}$cb kāl- n. number
kàlıgā ${ }^{+/}$q. few 16.4.1
kàm ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}$ q. every 16.4.1
Kàmbùnır ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$. Twi language
Kàmbù ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}$ pl Kàmbùmıs ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb Kàmbùn- n. Ashanti person
$\boldsymbol{k a ̀ n}^{\varepsilon}$ this, that demonstrative 16.3.2
kàn̆ ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ ger kān̆bır ${ }^{\varepsilon} d v$. scorch
kà $\boldsymbol{\eta} \bar{a}^{+/}$this, that demonstrative 16.3.2
$k$ àr $^{\text {a }} s v$. be few
kàrım ${ }^{\mathbf{m}} d v$. read
kàs $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^{\mathbf{a} /} n$. witness; testimony (Mooré kàsétò "proof, testimony"; probably ultimately $\leftarrow$ French cachet 15.1; pl kàsc̄tíba witnesses)
$\boldsymbol{k} \bar{\varepsilon}^{+}{ }_{i p f v} k \bar{\varepsilon} t^{\mathrm{ta}}{ }^{\mathrm{imp}} k \dot{k} \mathrm{\varepsilon}^{\mathrm{a}} d v$. let, cause to ... 11.123 .3

$\boldsymbol{k} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \varepsilon \boldsymbol{s}^{\varepsilon} d v$. say farewell to

 welcome! 29
 k $\bar{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{n}^{\text {na/ }} n$. traveller
kérıfà or kárıfà $\leftarrow$ Hausa Karfèe; in telling time $3 \underline{30.8}$
$\boldsymbol{k i}^{+/}$cb kī- kā- n. cereal, millet; kì-dà'ar ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ pl kì-dà'ada+ $n$. purchased millet; kā$\boldsymbol{w \varepsilon ̄ n n ı r} \boldsymbol{r}^{\varepsilon}$ pl kā-w $\bar{n} n n a^{+}$cb kā-wદ́n- n. corn
$\boldsymbol{k i a}^{+} d v$. cut
$\boldsymbol{k i ̈}^{\boldsymbol{d}} \boldsymbol{g}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon /}} d v$. cross over, meet; À-Kīdıgı Bū'өs $n$. the constellation Orion
kīibú ${ }^{+}$cb kïib- n. soap $\mathrm{WK} ; \leftarrow$ Mampruli 15.1; written materials ki'ib ${ }^{\text {² }}$, probably kī' $\left(b^{3 /}\right.$
kíiň̌pl kïiní ${ }^{+} n$. millet seed
$\boldsymbol{k i ̀ s}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} d v$. listen
$\boldsymbol{k i ̄}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{s}^{\varepsilon /} d v$. deny
$\boldsymbol{k i ̀ k a ̀ m}^{\boldsymbol{m} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}$ pl kìkàma+ ${ }^{+}$. fig
kìkà $\eta^{\mathbf{a}}$ kìnkà $\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\mathbf{a}}$ pl kìkàmıs ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb kìkàn- n. fig tree Ficus capensis (Haaf)
$\boldsymbol{k i ̀ k i ̈ r}^{\prime}{ }^{\mathbf{a} /}$ pl kikīrıs ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ cb kìkīr- n. "fairy" in local English; protective spiritual beings associated with a person (three for a man, four for a woman because of the dangers of childbirth.) Wild $k i k i \bar{r} r s^{\varepsilon /}$ hostile to man live in the bush: "Their feet are attached backwards to confuse trackers." WK; kìkīr-bé' $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^{\boldsymbol{d}}{ }^{\varepsilon} n$. NT evil spirit, demon (KB just uses kìkīrıg ${ }^{\text {a/ }}$ )
$\boldsymbol{k i ̈ l}_{\boldsymbol{\prime}}^{\boldsymbol{m}} \boldsymbol{m}^{\boldsymbol{m} / d v}$. become, change into
$\boldsymbol{k i ̀ m}^{\mathbf{m}} d v$. tend flock, herd; agt kj̀ňb-kīm ${ }^{\text {na }} n$. herdsman, shepherd
$k^{k} \boldsymbol{r}^{\varepsilon}$ ger kıkíròg ${ }^{\top} k i ̄ r ı b{ }^{\top} d v$. hurry, tremble
$k_{i \bar{s}}{ }^{\mathbf{a} /}$ ger kísùg ${ }^{\mathrm{P}}$ agt $k i \bar{s}{ }^{\mathrm{a} /}$ kīsıd ${ }^{\mathrm{a} /}$ sv. hate
kísù ${ }^{\mathbf{J}}$ adj. hateful, taboo
$\boldsymbol{k j}^{+} d v$. get broken, break (intransitive); res adj kі̀دlún ${ }^{\mathbf{3}}$ adj. broken
k̀̀bıgā k̀̀bısí+ q. one hundred, two hundred 16.4.2.1
kj̄bır ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ pl kj̄ba ${ }^{+}$cb kj̀b- n. bone
k̄̄d́́ ${ }^{+} n$. banana $\leftarrow$ Twi kwadu
$k^{\boldsymbol{j}} \boldsymbol{I}^{\varepsilon} d v$. put something around the neck


$\boldsymbol{k}^{\boldsymbol{j}} \boldsymbol{m}^{\mathbf{m} /}$ cb kJ̄m-n. hunger
 or human body hair; cf zūebúg; kòn̆b-kīm ${ }^{\text {na }} p l$ kj̀n̆b-kīmmı $b^{\mathrm{a}} n$. shepherd, herdsman

kう̀n̆s ${ }^{\varepsilon} d v$. cough
k̇̀n̆sım ${ }^{\mathbf{m}} d v$. cough
$\boldsymbol{k}^{\prime} ' \boldsymbol{\partial g} \boldsymbol{g}^{\varepsilon} d \nu$. break (transitive or intransitive)
$\boldsymbol{k j}^{\boldsymbol{\prime}} \boldsymbol{\boldsymbol { \nu } ^ { \varepsilon }}{ }^{\varepsilon} d v$. break several times
kj̀tàa ${ }^{\mathbf{n \varepsilon}}$ at all; post-NP/AdvP particle 28.6
$\boldsymbol{k} \mathbf{z ́ t}^{+}{ }^{+} n$. lawcourt $\leftarrow$ English, probably via Hausa
kpà'a= pl kpà'a-nàma $n$. rich person
kpāad ${ }^{\text {a/ }}$ pl kpāadíba ${ }^{\text {a }}$ cb kpāad- n. farmer, cultivator
kpà'am ${ }^{\mathbf{m}}$ n. riches
$\boldsymbol{k p a ̄ a n ̆ m} \boldsymbol{m}^{\boldsymbol{m} /} c b$ kpān̆- n. grease, ointment; kpān̆-són̆'כdìm ${ }^{\mathbf{m}} n$. anointing oil
kpàkūr ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ pl kpàkūyá cb kpàkūr-n. tortoise
$\boldsymbol{k p a ̄} \boldsymbol{n}^{\mathbf{n \varepsilon}}$ pl kpāna+ cb kpàn- n. spear
$\boldsymbol{k p a}^{\boldsymbol{n}}{ }^{\text {dı }} \boldsymbol{r}^{\varepsilon}$ pl kpàn̆da+ cb kpàn̆d- $n$. baboon
kpàr ${ }^{\varepsilon} d v$. lock

kpā'ט́n ${ }^{\mathbf{3}}$ pl kpī'iní+ cb kpā'- n. guinea fowl
$\boldsymbol{k p} \bar{\varepsilon}^{+} a d v$. here 17.7


$\boldsymbol{k p} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} l$ á $^{+} a d v$. here 17.7
kpèlım still; immediately after, preverb 19.7.2
$\boldsymbol{k p} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} / \boldsymbol{m}^{\mathbf{m}} d v$. remain
kpèn reduced form of the preverb kpغ̀lım
$\boldsymbol{k p} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathrm{n}^{\prime+} d v$. enter

$\boldsymbol{k p} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathrm{ch}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{s}^{\varepsilon} d v$. make enter
$\boldsymbol{k p} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\varepsilon} d v$. strengthen
$\boldsymbol{k p} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^{\boldsymbol{n}} \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\text {² }} n$. seniority
$\boldsymbol{k p i}^{+}$dv. die; res adj kpìilún³ adj. dead
kpì'a+ pl kpi'əs ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb kpià̀'- n. neighbour
kpià'+ $d v$. shape wood with axe etc
$\boldsymbol{k p i ̀ '} \mathbf{e}^{+} d v$. approach
kpī'əm ${ }^{\text {ma/ }} s v$. be strong, hard
$\boldsymbol{k p i}^{\boldsymbol{i}} \mathrm{brg}^{\mathbf{a}}$ pl kpiibıs ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb kpìib- n. orphan
$\boldsymbol{k p i}^{\boldsymbol{i} \boldsymbol{g}^{\varepsilon}} d v$. go out (fire)
$\boldsymbol{k p i} \bar{'}^{\prime}$ lím $^{\mathbf{m}} d v$. finish, come to an end
$\boldsymbol{k p i ̄}^{\prime} \mathbf{i m}^{\mathbf{m} / ~ p l ~ k p i ̄ i m i ́ s ~}{ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb kpīim- $n$. dead person, corpse
$\boldsymbol{k p i}_{\mathbf{i s}}{ }^{\varepsilon} d v$. quench (fire)
kpīkpīn ${ }^{\text {na/ }}$ pl kpīkpīnníba ${ }^{\text {a }}$ cb kpīkpín- n. merchant
kpī'oŋ³ pl kpỉəma+ cb kpi'on- adj. strong, hard
kpìsınkpìlı pl kpìsınkpila+ ${ }^{+}$cb kpìsınkpìl- n. fist
kpisukpìl ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$. fist
kpùkpàr ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ pl kpùkpàra+ n. palm tree fruit
 aethiopum)
kpùkpàun³ pl kpùkpàma+ cb kpùkpàung-n. arm, wing
kù not; negates irrealis mood 19.5
$\boldsymbol{k}^{\boldsymbol{+}} d v$. kill
$\boldsymbol{k} \overline{\boldsymbol{v}}^{+} d v$. gather, threaten (of rain): Sāa kú yā. It looks like rain.
kū̄̄ ${ }^{+} d v$. hoe, farm

$k^{k} \boldsymbol{d}^{\varepsilon} d v$. work iron
$\boldsymbol{k e ̀ ̀ d ı g}^{\varepsilon} d v$. shrivel up, dry out, age
$\mathbf{k u ̈ d}_{\boldsymbol{u}} \boldsymbol{m}^{\mathbf{m}} n$. the olden days; also for kūlım qv


kūgur ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ pl kūgá+ cb kūg-n. stone
$\boldsymbol{k} \bar{u} k^{\mathbf{a}}$ pl kūgus ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb kùg-n. chair
kùk ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}$ n. ghost
$\boldsymbol{k}_{\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{k}^{\mathbf{a} /}$ n. mahogany tree, Khaya senegalensis (Haaf); cf Hausa kuukàa
kùk̇̀m ${ }^{\boldsymbol{m} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}$ pl kùkj̀ma+ cb kùkj̀m-n. leper
kùkう̄r ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ pl kùkj̄yá+ cb kùkj̄r-n. voice
kùkpàrıg ${ }^{\text {a }}$ see $k p o ̀ k p a ̀ r ı g^{\mathrm{a}}$ id
$\boldsymbol{k}^{\prime} \|^{\varepsilon}$ ger kū/ıg ${ }^{\text {a/ }} d v$. return home; transitive marry (woman subject, man object)
külım always, post-subject particle 21.2.3
kùlı $\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\mathbf{a}}$ pl kùlımıs ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ kùlıs ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb kùlın-n. door
$\boldsymbol{k u ̀ m}^{\mathbf{m}} d v$. cry, weep
$\boldsymbol{k u ̄} \boldsymbol{m}^{\mathbf{m}} c b$ kùm-n. death; kùm-vō'vgír${ }^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} n$. resurrection NT
kùndò'ar ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ pl kùndù'ada+ $c b$ kùndứà- $n$. barren woman
kùndù $\boldsymbol{y}^{\mathbf{a}}$ pl kùndòmıs ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ kùndùna ${ }^{+} n$. jackal, hyena
 current in a river
kùes ${ }^{\varepsilon} d \nu$. sell
kùrkūr ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ pl kùrkūyá+ cb kùrkūr- n. pig
Kūsáa= pl Kūsáàs ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb Kūsá- $n$. Kusaasi person
Kūsáàı ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$. Kusaal language
Kūsáv̀g³ ${ }^{\text {n. Kusaasi country }}$
Kùtān ${ }^{\mathbf{n \varepsilon /}}$ pl Kùtām ${ }^{\text {ma/ }}$ cb Kùtān- $n$. member of WK's clan

$\boldsymbol{k} \overline{\boldsymbol{v}} \boldsymbol{v}$ or 21.2 22.1.2 $\leftarrow$ Hausa

$k^{\boldsymbol{k}} \mathbf{I}^{\varepsilon} d v$. get drunk

L
$\mathbf{I a}^{+/}$definite article 16.5
là' ${ }^{+} d v$. laugh
Iā'af’ $n$. cowrie; pl līgıdı+ ${ }^{+} n$. cowries, money; cb lìg- là'-; là'-bīəlífP n. small coin láafì ya ${ }^{+} n$. health $\leftarrow$ Arabic العافية Pal-Sa:fiya(tu); replaced throughout by laafe láafi in 1996 NT and KB
là'am together, preverb 19.7.2
là'am ${ }^{\mathbf{m}} d v$. associate with; together with $\underline{23.2}$
là'as ${ }^{\varepsilon} d v$. gather together (transitive); Bà là'as tāaba They gathered together.
làbāarr cb làbà- n. news $\leftarrow$ Arabic الاخبار Pal-Paxba:r(u)
làbıya $s v$. be crouching, hiding behind something (cf Hausa laбèe "crouch behind something to eavesdrop" 15.1)
$l a ̀ b I^{\varepsilon} d v$. make crouch behind something
$l_{\text {àbın }} \boldsymbol{n}^{\varepsilon} d v$. crouch behind something
làbıs ${ }^{\varepsilon} d v$. walk stealthily
lābıs $^{\text {a/ }} s v$. be wide
lābısíg ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}$ lābısírir $^{\varepsilon}$ pl lābısá+ cb lābıs- adj. wide
$\boldsymbol{l a}^{\boldsymbol{a}} \boldsymbol{\mathrm { b }} \mathbf{s i ́ m}^{\mathbf{m}}{ }^{\mathbf{m}}$. width
$\boldsymbol{l} \boldsymbol{a}^{\varepsilon /} d v$. open (eye, book)
Iāا'a/ $s v$. be distant

IāIÍ' $a d v$. far off
Iāllín ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}$ pl lāllís ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb lāllín- adj. distant
Iāllúg ${ }^{\mathbf{3}} \mathrm{pl}$ lālláa cb lāl- $a d j$. distant
lām ${ }^{\mathbf{m} \varepsilon / ~ p l ~ l a ̄ m a ́+~} c b$ lām- $n$. gum (of tooth); lām-fój̀ ${ }^{\boldsymbol{3}} \mathrm{pl}$ lām-fój̀d ${ }^{\varepsilon} a d j$. toothless
làmp戸̄-dí'̀̀s ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} n$. tax collector $\underline{15} \leftarrow$ French l'impôt
Iān ${ }^{\text {ne }}$ pl lāna+ cb làn- $n$. testicle

lànnıg ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}$ pl lànnıs ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb lànnıg- $\underline{9.2 .2}$ n. squirrel
$\boldsymbol{I a}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\varepsilon /} d v$. set alight
lāyím ${ }^{\mathbf{m}} d v$. wander around searching
lāuk ${ }^{\mathbf{3}} \mathrm{pl}$ lā'ad ${ }^{\varepsilon} c b$ là'- $n$. item of goods pl goods
là'v $\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\mathbf{3}} \mathrm{pl}$ là'ama+ $n$. fishing net

$l_{\text {lıbı }} \boldsymbol{g}^{\varepsilon} d v$. turn over; return
lèbıs ${ }^{\varepsilon} d v$. answer; send back; divorce (wife)
Iè̀ but, VP particle 19.7.1
Iદ̀m again, preverb 19.7.2
lèm ${ }^{\mathbf{m}}$ ipfv lèmmıd${ }^{\text {a }} d v$. sip, taste
$\boldsymbol{\|} \bar{\varepsilon}^{\boldsymbol{r}} d v$. get ugly
/ì it, its (proclitic); /ı+ ${ }^{+}$it (enclitic object) 16.3.1
$\boldsymbol{I}^{+}{ }^{+}$ipfv litt ${ }^{\text {a }}$ imp lìm ${ }^{\mathrm{a}}$ ger liiig ${ }^{\mathrm{a}} d v$. fall
$\boldsymbol{I I}^{+} d v$. block up
lìa where is ...? 22.3.2
$\boldsymbol{l i ̀ d}_{\boldsymbol{\prime}} \boldsymbol{g}^{\varepsilon} d v$. turn a shirt WK
lidıg $^{\varepsilon} d v$. astonish, be amazed
lìə $^{\varepsilon} d v$. become
li'ə $\boldsymbol{I}^{\varepsilon} d v$. approach, come near
lí'əm ${ }^{\boldsymbol{m} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} p l$ li'əmá ${ }^{+} n$. fruit of yellow plum tree
líà ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}$ pl līə lís $^{\varepsilon}$ cb līəŋ- n. axe

$\boldsymbol{l i ̀ g}^{\varepsilon} d \nu$. patch
ligıı ${ }^{\varepsilon} d v$. cover
ligı $_{\boldsymbol{n}} \boldsymbol{n}^{\varepsilon} d v$. cover oneself
līıbır $^{\varepsilon}$ pl līıba+ cb lìıb-n. twin
līk $^{\mathbf{a}} \mathrm{pl}$ līgıs ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$. darkness
İlāalín ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}$ pl lìlāalís ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ lìlāalímìs ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb lìlāalín- n. swallow
lín it (subject of ǹ-clause); līn ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ it (contrastive) 16.3.1
lìn $^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}$ that demonstrative 16.3.2
lìná ${ }^{+}$that demonstrative 16.3.2
$\overline{5}^{+} d v$. tie
$\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{\jmath}} \boldsymbol{b}^{\varepsilon} d v$. throw stones at
Ībıdíg ${ }^{\text {pl }}$ l̄̄bıdís ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$. water drawing vessel





$\boldsymbol{I}^{\boldsymbol{5}} \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\varepsilon /} d v$. go across river, road etc
lór ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ pl lóyà ${ }^{+}$lóvm ${ }^{\text {ma }}$ cb lór- n. car, lorry $\leftarrow$ English
lù̀ $^{+}$ipfv lùt ${ }^{\mathrm{a}}$ imp lùm ${ }^{\mathrm{a}} d v$. fall
Iūb $^{\varepsilon}$ ger $l u ̄ b ı r^{\varepsilon /} d v$. buck, kick, struggle, throw off rider
$\operatorname{lüg}^{\varepsilon} d v$. swim
lügur $^{\varepsilon} n$. organ, member

## M

ì I, my (proclitic); $\boldsymbol{m}^{\mathbf{a}}$ me (enclitic) 16.3.1
$\boldsymbol{m a ̀}^{+}$cb mà- $n$. mother; pl mà nám ${ }^{\text {a }}$ (tone sic) mother's sisters/co-wives; mà-bïig ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} n$. sibling with same mother; mà-bīla ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} n$. mother's younger sister or junior co-wife; $\boldsymbol{m a ̀}-\boldsymbol{k p} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{n}_{\boldsymbol{m}}{ }^{\mathbf{m}} n$. mother's elder sister or senior co-wife; mà-pīt ${ }^{\mathbf{a} / n . ~ m o t h e r ' s ~}$ younger sister
$\boldsymbol{m a ̀}{ }^{+} d v$. lie, deceive
mà'aa SF mà'an̄̄ LF only; post-NP/AdvP particle 28.6
$\boldsymbol{m a ̀ a l}^{\varepsilon} d v$. prepare, sacrifice; agt màal-māan ${ }^{\text {na }} n$. sacrificer; priest NT; traditionally just a worker who conducts the actual slaying for the tèn-dāana earth-priest
mā'a $\boldsymbol{I}^{\varepsilon /} d v$. make cool, wet
$\boldsymbol{m a ̄ a n}^{\mathbf{n \varepsilon}}$ pl māana ${ }^{+}$cb màan- n. sacrifice 12.2.2
má'an ${ }^{n \varepsilon} p l$ mā'aná+ $c b$ mā'an- $n$. okra
mā'as ${ }^{\text {a/ }} s v$. be cool, wet
$\boldsymbol{m a ̄}$ 'asíg ${ }^{\text {a }} \boldsymbol{m a ̄} \cdot a s i ́ r^{\varepsilon}$ pl mā'asá+ $c b$ mā'as- adj. cool, wet
mā'asígā+/ adv. coolly 17.4
$\boldsymbol{m a ̄}^{\prime}$ asím $^{\mathbf{m}} n$. coolness, wetness
$\boldsymbol{m a ̄} \boldsymbol{\iota}^{\boldsymbol{\prime}} \boldsymbol{g}^{\varepsilon /} d v$. overflow, abound
$\boldsymbol{m a ̄}^{\mathbf{e}} \mathbf{e}^{+/} d v$. cool down
$\boldsymbol{m a ̀}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} d v$. crumple up
$\boldsymbol{m a} \boldsymbol{k}^{\varepsilon /} d v$. measure, judge
 written malek in NT versions before 2016
màlıgım again；preverb 19．7．2
mālıs ${ }^{\text {a／}} s v$ ．be sweet，pleasant

mālısím ${ }^{\mathbf{m}} n$ ．sweetness
mālısín ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}$ pl mālısís ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb mālısín－adj．sweet，pleasant
mālın ${ }^{3}$ pl mālıma＋ cb màlun－n．sacrifice
mām I，me 16．3．1
mán I（as subject of ǹ－clause）；mān SF mán̄̄ LF I，me（contrastive）16．3．1
màngáv $\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\supset}$ pl màngáam ${ }^{m \varepsilon}$ màngāamá ${ }^{+}$cb màngāvク－n．crab（cf làngáv $\eta^{\supset}$ id）
màuk${ }^{\boldsymbol{J}} p l$ mà＇ad $^{\varepsilon} a d j$ ．crumpled up
$\boldsymbol{m} \grave{\varepsilon}^{+} d \nu$ ．build

$\boldsymbol{m} \overline{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{d}^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．mash up

$\boldsymbol{m} \grave{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \mathbf{l g}_{\boldsymbol{g} \boldsymbol{m}^{\mathbf{m}}}{ }^{n}$ ．dew
$\boldsymbol{m} \overline{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\text {a／／}}$ self 16．10．4
$\boldsymbol{m} \bar{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\boldsymbol{j}} \boldsymbol{r}^{\varepsilon}$ adj．genuine
$\boldsymbol{m} \bar{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{t}^{\varepsilon /}$ cb m $\bar{\varepsilon} t-n$ ．pl as $s g$ pus
$\boldsymbol{m i ̈}^{\mathbf{+}}$ ger mīilím ${ }^{\mathrm{m}}$ sv．know；agt gbàn－mī＇id ${ }^{\mathrm{a} /} n$ ．scribe（＂book－knower＂）NT
míifP pl mīiní ${ }^{+} n$ ．okra seed
$\boldsymbol{m i ̀}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{i g}^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．become sour
mì＇is $^{\mathbf{a}} s v$ ．be sour
$\boldsymbol{m i ̀ i}^{\mathbf{i}} \mathbf{i s g}^{\mathbf{3}}$ pl mì＇isa＋${ }^{+}$cb mì＇is－adj．sour
$\boldsymbol{m i ̈ l}_{\boldsymbol{\prime}} \boldsymbol{g}^{\varepsilon /} d v$ ．get dirty
mìmīilím ${ }^{\boldsymbol{m}}$ mìmīilúg $^{\mathbf{3}} n$ ．sweetness
mìt see that it doesn＇t happen that．．．19．5．1；always mid in $K B$
$\boldsymbol{m}^{+}+d v$ ．strive，struggle
$\boldsymbol{m}_{\boldsymbol{\jmath}} \boldsymbol{d}^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．swell
$\boldsymbol{m} \boldsymbol{\overline { \boldsymbol { c } }} \boldsymbol{\operatorname { l n }} \boldsymbol{g}^{\varepsilon /} d \nu$ ．be patient，endure
mう̀lıf pl mう̀ı＋cb mうे－n．gazelle
$\boldsymbol{m} \overline{\boldsymbol{\eta}} \boldsymbol{n}^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．grind millet to make sā＇ab ${ }^{\top}$ porridge
$\boldsymbol{m} \overline{\boldsymbol{\nu}} \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\varepsilon /} d v$ ．refuse to lend


$\boldsymbol{m}^{\boldsymbol{m}} \boldsymbol{I}^{\varepsilon / \varepsilon /} d v$ ．proclaim；agt mכ̄כו－mój̀n ${ }^{\text {na }} n$ ．proclaimer
Mう̀ว $\boldsymbol{I}^{\varepsilon} n$ ．Mooré language
M̄̄r $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^{\varepsilon /}$ pl Móvm ${ }^{\text {ma }}$ cb Mכ̄r－n．Muslim
$\boldsymbol{m} \overline{r^{\mathbf{a} /}}$ ger m$\overline{\text { rím }}{ }^{\text {m }}$ sv．have，possess；m̄̄r nā bring 19.10

mu'à ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} d v$. suck (of a baby)
mùà $\mathbf{k}^{\mathbf{a}} \mathrm{pl}$ mò'as $^{\varepsilon}$ cb mu'à- n. maggot
mù'ar ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ pl múdàa+ mù'ada+ cb mú'à- n. dam; reservoir
$\boldsymbol{m}^{\text {ù'as }}{ }^{\varepsilon} d v$. give (to baby) to suck
$\boldsymbol{m u ̀ '} \mathbf{e}^{+} d v$. redden; catch fire/ignite; become intense, severe
mùi ${ }^{+}$cb mùi- n. pl as sg rice
$\boldsymbol{m u ̀} l^{\varepsilon} d v$. itch
$\boldsymbol{m u ̀ m}^{\boldsymbol{m}} d v$. bury

## N

ǹ clause nominaliser particle $\underline{25}$
n clause catenator particle $\underline{23.1}$
ǹ- personifier clitic (allomorph used before an adjective) 16.6
$\boldsymbol{n}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}$ discontinuous-past enclitic 24.1.1
$\boldsymbol{n}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{n i}^{+/}$locative enclitic 17.3
nà positive irrealis mood marker 19.4
nā$^{+/}$hither; VP-final particle $\underline{19.10}$
$\boldsymbol{n a}^{+} d v$. join
náa reply to greetings invoking blessings $\underline{29}$
nà'ab ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}$ pl nà'-nàm ${ }^{\text {a }} c b$ nà'- n. chief, king; nà'-bīig ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} n$. prince, princess
náaf ${ }^{\text {º }}$ pl nïigí+ cb nā'- $n$. cow; nā'-lór ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$. place in compound for tying up cows; nā'-dáv̀g³ pl nā'-dáàd ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb nā'-dá- $n$. ox; nā'-dá-kūedír ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$. ox for ploughing
nàam $\boldsymbol{m}^{\boldsymbol{m}} d v$. happen
nā'am ${ }^{\mathbf{m}}$ cb nà'am- n. chieftaincy, kingdom
nāan next, afterwards = ňyāan
nāan or nāanı then, in that case, being thus/there 24.1.2
nà'anā${ }^{+/} a d v$. easily 17.4
nà'as ${ }^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} d v$. honour; ger nà'ası ${ }^{+} n$. honour
Nàbıd ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}$ pl Nàbıdıb ${ }^{\text {a }}$ cb Nàbıd- $n$. Nabdema person
Nàbıdug ${ }^{\text {n }} n$. Nabdema country
Nàbır ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$. Nabit language
Nà'dàm ${ }^{\text {ma }} n$. clan name
Nà'dàu $\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\mathbf{3}} n$. place of clan Nadamba
nà'-dàwān $\boldsymbol{n}^{\mathbf{n \varepsilon /}}$ n. pigeon KED ( $=$ dàwānne/)
nāe ${ }^{+/} d v$. finish
nàm still, yet; auxiliary tense particle 19.3.1
nàm ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}$ pluraliser $\underline{9.4}$
nā'mıs ${ }^{\varepsilon /} d v$. persecute, suffer
nān ${ }^{\varepsilon} d v$. love, respect, appreciate
nà'-nc̄sınn̄̄og ${ }^{\text {/ }}$ n. centipede WK
nānná+ $a d v$. now 17.7
nānná-nā+/ adv. now 17.7
nānzū'us ${ }^{\varepsilon /} n$. pepper tones uncertain
nāə ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} \mathrm{pl}$ nāmıs ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb nàn- $n$. scorpion
nār ${ }^{\mathbf{a} /}$ ger nārím ${ }^{\mathrm{m}}$ sv. be obliged to; impersonal: to be necessary; with following purpose clause 26.1; negated: be obliged not to
nàron ${ }^{\text {º }}$ pl nàrıma ${ }^{+}$cb nàron- $a d j$. necessary
Nàsāal ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$. English/French language
Nàsāara+ pl Nàsàa-nàmª Nàsàar-nàmª cb Nàsàa- Nàsàar- n. European person $\leftarrow$ Arabic نصارى Nas^a:ra: "Christians"; Nàsàa-bïig ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}$ n. European child
nàyïig ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}$ pl nàyìig-nàm ${ }^{\mathrm{a}}$ nàyiiis ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$. thief
nàyïigım $\mathbf{m}^{\mathbf{m}} n$. thievery
nà'-ż̀m ${ }^{\mathbf{m} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} n$. locust
n̄̄ preposition: with 18; linking NPs and AdvPs: and 16.7
n $\bar{\varepsilon}$ uncommon variant of y $\bar{\varepsilon}$ that 26.2 (cf Mampruli ni id)
$\boldsymbol{n} \overline{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}^{+/}$focus particle 28.1.2; temporal marker 19.2
n $\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$meaningless particle after objects of wōv and w $\bar{\varepsilon}^{\text {na/ }} \underline{18}$
$\boldsymbol{n} \overline{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}^{+/+}$this (pronoun) 16.3.2
nè $\varepsilon \boldsymbol{1}^{\varepsilon} d \nu$. reveal
$\boldsymbol{n} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \varepsilon \boldsymbol{m}^{\mathbf{m}} a d v$. for free
$\boldsymbol{n} \bar{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{m}^{\mathbf{m} /} d v$. grind with a millstone
$n \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon r^{\varepsilon /} n$. millstone
nغ̀ $\varepsilon \boldsymbol{s}^{\varepsilon} d \nu$. reveal
nغ̀モsım ${ }^{\mathbf{m}} n$. light
nēm-nદ́z̀ $\boldsymbol{r}^{\varepsilon}$ pl nc̄m-nદ́yà ${ }^{+} n$. someone who grinds
nēnn ${ }^{\text {na/ }}$ ger n $\bar{\varepsilon} n n i ́ m{ }^{m}$ sv. envy
nē'ná+ this (pronoun) 16.3.2


ǹfá! Well done! 22.3.4
$\boldsymbol{n i}^{+/}$locative enclitic 17.3 see $n^{\varepsilon}$
$\boldsymbol{n i}^{+} d v$. rain
nīd ${ }^{\mathrm{a} /} p l$ nīdıb $b^{\mathrm{a} /}$ cb nīn- $n$. person; nīn-sáà ${ }^{\mathrm{I}} \mathrm{pl}$ nīn-sáalì $b^{\mathrm{a}}$ cb nīn-sáàl- $n$. human being; nīnpūnānna/ pl nīnpūnānníba ${ }^{\text {a }}$ cb nīnpūnán- $n$. disrespectful person; nīnsábılìs $^{\varepsilon} n$. Africans
nìe ${ }^{+} d v$. appear, reveal
 adj. one-eyed 16.11.1.4; nīn-dáa= $p l$ nīn-dáàs ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb nīn-dá- $n$. face; nīn-gótì $\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\mathbf{a}} n$. mirror pl nīn-gótìs ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$. spectacles, glasses; nīn-kúgudì ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}$ pl nīn-kúgudiss $n$. eyebrow; nīn-tá'àm ${ }^{\mathbf{m}} n$. tear(s); nīn-múa+ $n$. concentration ("eye-redness"); m̀ nīní mù'e $n \bar{\varepsilon} . .$. I'm concentrating on ... (KB "zealous for ...")
níì ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}$ pl nïimís ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ níis ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb nïin－n．bird
nīm ${ }^{\mathbf{n \varepsilon /}} \boldsymbol{n i ̄} \boldsymbol{m}^{\mathbf{n \varepsilon /}}$ pl nīmá＋cb nīm－n．meat
nīn－báalìg ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}$ n．pity；nīn－báàl－zכ̄כr ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$ ．pity；Ò ż̀t•ō nīn－báalìg．He has pity on him．
$\boldsymbol{n i ̄}^{\mathbf{a}}$ pl niiis ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb nìn－nìn－n．body（uncommon）；nìn－tūllím ${ }^{\mathbf{m}} n$ ．fever；nìn－tāa＝pl nìn－ tāas ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb nìn－tà－n．co－wife；husband＇s sister＇s wife（Ghanaian English：＂rival＂）； nìn－gbīn²／pl nìn－gbīná＋cb nìn－gbīŋ－n．body（plural often used as singular）； nìn－gう̀วr ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$ ．neck
nīn－púv̀d ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$ ．pl as $s g$ pus
nīntā $\eta^{\text {a／}}$ pl nīntāan̆s ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ cb nīntán－$n$ ．heat of the day，early afternoon
$\boldsymbol{n i ̀ n}^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．do
n lā that is ．．．22．3．1
ǹnāas $q$ ．four，in counting 16．4．2．2
ǹníi $q$ ．eight，in counting
ǹnū $q$ ．five，in counting
n n̆wà this is ．．．22．3．1
n n̆wà nā this here is ．．．22．3．1
$\mathbf{n j}^{+} d v$ ．tread
$\boldsymbol{n} \overline{\boldsymbol{b}} \boldsymbol{b}^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．get fat
n̄̄bı $\boldsymbol{g}^{\varepsilon /} d v$ ．grow（e．g．child，plant）
 16．11．1．4；nכ̄b－ín̆＇a＋${ }^{+} n$ ．toenail；nכ̄b－púmpàù ${ }^{3} n$ ．foot
$\boldsymbol{n} \boldsymbol{\overline { n }} \boldsymbol{k}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} /} d v$ ．pick up，take up
nう̀ $\boldsymbol{y}^{\varepsilon}$ agt nว̀מıd ${ }^{\mathrm{a}}$（irregularly Pattern L）sv．love（family，spiritual）；irregularly has


nう̀クılím ${ }^{\mathbf{m}} n$ ．love
nכ̄כr ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ pl nכ̄yá＋cb n̄̄－n．mouth；command，message，opinion；n̄̄－dí＇ə̀s ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} n$ ．＂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 1．1：＂linguist＂in Ghana typically refers to an Akan chief＇s herald and spokesman，the okyeame）；Wínà＇am nó－ dí＇ə̀s ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}$（＂God＇s linguist＂）prophet NT／KB；n̄̄－ló̀̀r ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ n．fasting（＂mouth－tying＂，as
 n̄̄－gbánà＋$n$ ．lip
nכ̄כr ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ times 16．4．2．4
nכ̄כrím ${ }^{\mathbf{m}}$ times 16．4．2．4
ǹpòe $q$ ．seven，in counting 16．4．2．2
ǹtán̆＇$q$ ．three，in counting 16．4．2．2
$\boldsymbol{n u}{ }^{+} d v$ ．drink
nūa＋／pl nכ̄כs ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ cb nכ̄－n．hen；n̄̄－dáv̀g² $n$ ．cock；n̄̄－n̆yá＇à $\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\mathbf{a}} n$ ．（specifically female）

nū／ $\boldsymbol{g}^{\varepsilon /} d v$ ．make drink
nūlıs ${ }^{\varepsilon /} d v$ ．make drink
nú＇ùgコ pl nú＇ùs ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb nū＇－n．hand，arm；nū＇－bíla ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}$ pl nū＇－bíbìs ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$ ．finger；nū＇－dáv̀ $\boldsymbol{g}^{\boldsymbol{د}}$
 cb nū＇－દ́ñ＇－n．fingernail；nū＇－wéń＇z̀d ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} n$ ．mediator
n̆wà ${ }^{+}$this $\underline{16.5}$
n̆wā＇＋$d v$ ．smash，break up
n̆wāà ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} \mathrm{pl}$ n̆wāamıs ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb n̆wàan－n．monkey
n̆wādıg ${ }^{\mathbf{a} /} p l$ n̆wādıs ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ cb n̆wād－n．moon，month；n̆wād－bíla $p l$ n̆wād－bíbis ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$ ．star；
Ňwād－dár ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$ ．Venus
n̆wà＇ $\mathbf{e}^{+} d v$ ．cut wood
n̆wā＇ $\mathbf{e}^{+/} d v$ ．strike，break
ǹwāe q．nine，in counting 16．4．2．2
n̆wām ${ }^{\boldsymbol{m} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}$ n̆wān ${ }^{\boldsymbol{n \varepsilon}}$ pl n̆wāma＋n̆wāna＋$c b$ n̆wàm－n̆wàn－n．calabash
Ňwāmpūrıg ${ }^{\mathbf{a} /} p l$ Ňwāmpūrıs ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ cb Ňwāmpúr－$n$ ．Mamprussi person
Ňwāmpūrıı ${ }^{\varepsilon /} n$ ．Mampruli language
Ňwāmpūrog ${ }^{\text {／}} n$ ．Mamprussi country
$\check{n} w \grave{\varepsilon}^{\prime+} d v$ ．beat；n̆w ${ }^{\prime}$ X nú＇ùg make an agreement with X ；n̆w ${ }^{\prime}$＇ňyכ̄＇$\partial g$ boast

n̆wī－tćkì $r^{\varepsilon} p l$ n̆wī－tékà ${ }^{+} n$ ．rope for pulling
n̆wīig ${ }^{\varepsilon /} d v$ ．make a rope
n̆yā＇al $\boldsymbol{a}^{\varepsilon /} d v$ ．leave behind
n̆yāan next，afterwards；post－subject particle 21．2．3
n̆yá＇a ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}$ pl n̆yá＇as ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ n̆yā＇amís ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb n̆yā＇an－adj．female（animal）
n̆yá＇a $\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\mathbf{a}}$ behind，postposition 17．6；East 30．3；n̆yà＇an－dı̀la n̆yà＇an－dう̀lı pl n̆yà＇an－ dう̀lla＋n̆yà＇an－dj̀lıba cb n̆yà＇an－dう̀l－n．disciple NT；tones unexpected，Pattern L
n̆yā＇ar ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ pl ňyā＇a＋$c b$ n̆yà＇－n．root
n̆yāe ${ }^{\text {ne／}} a d v$ ．in the light，brightly，clearly 17.3
n̆yālún pl n̆yālımá＋cb n̆yālon－adj．wonderful
n̆yà $\boldsymbol{n}^{\mathbf{n \varepsilon}} n$ ．shame；Ò dì ňyán．He＇s ashamed．
n̆yā $\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\varepsilon /} d v$ ．overcome 23.2
n̆yàuk ${ }^{3} p l$ n̆yà＇$a d^{\varepsilon} a d j$ ．only（eye）16．11．1．4

$\check{n} y \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon, \check{n} y \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon$ tí habitually，auxiliary tense marker 19．7．2
$\check{n} y \bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon r^{\varepsilon /} p l$ n̆y $\bar{\varepsilon} d a ́+c b \check{n} y \bar{\varepsilon} '-n$ ．next－younger sibling
n̆yèzs ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} s v$ ．be self－confident
n̆yと̀ $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon s} \boldsymbol{I m}^{\boldsymbol{m}} n$ ．self－confidence

n̆yèzsínā＋／$a d v$ ．self－confidently 17.4
ǹyí $q$ ．two，in counting 16．4．2．2
n̆yīn ${ }^{\text {ne／}}$ pl n̆yīná ${ }^{+}$cb n̆yīn－$n$ ．tooth
ňyīríf pl ňyīrí ${ }^{+} n$ ．a kind of edible seed，egusi：Colocynthis citrullus（Haaf）
n̆ȳ̄د $\boldsymbol{d}^{\varepsilon} n$ ．intestines
n̆ȳ̄＇ $\boldsymbol{g} \boldsymbol{g}^{\boldsymbol{\prime}}$ n．chest
 n̆ỳ̀－vōr－páàlı ${ }^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} n$ ．new life NT
n̆ȳ̄＇כs ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ n．smoke
ǹyúèb $q$ ．six，in counting 16．4．2．2
n̆yūur ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ pl n̆yūyá ${ }^{+}$cb n̆yū－n．yam

## 0

ò［ $\mho$ ］he，she，his，her（proclitic）；${ }^{\circ}$ LF［ $\mho$ ］him，her（enclitic object）16．3．1
ón he，she（subject of $\grave{n}$－clause）； $\boldsymbol{\rho}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}$ he，she（contrastive）16．3．1
うे $^{\varepsilon}$ this，that（animate sg demonstrative）16．3．2

う̀ $\boldsymbol{\jmath} \bar{a}^{+/}$this，that（animate sg demonstrative）16．3．2
$\overline{\boldsymbol{\nu}} \boldsymbol{s}^{\varepsilon /} d v$ ．warm oneself；Ò う̀ $\partial s ı d n \bar{\varepsilon}$ búgóm lā．She＇s warming herself at the fire．

## P

pà＇earlier today，tense particle 19．3．1
pà＇al ${ }^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．teach，inform；agt pā＇anna $p l$ pā＇annı $b^{\text {a }} c b$ pà＇an－$n$ ．teacher
pà＇al ${ }^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．put on top of something
pāalíg ${ }^{\text {a }}$ páall ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ pl pāalís ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ pāalá＋ cb pāal－adj．new
pāalím ${ }^{\mathbf{m}} a d v$ ．recently 17.4
pāalú＋$a d v$ ．openly 17.4
pàan̆lún ${ }^{\top}$ pl pàan̆límìs ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$ ．spider＇s web
pàam ${ }^{\boldsymbol{m}} d v$ ．receive a gift
pàas ${ }^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．add up to，amount to
$\boldsymbol{p a}^{\boldsymbol{e}}{ }^{+/} d v$ ．reach
pà $\boldsymbol{k}^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．surprise
pà $\boldsymbol{k}^{\varepsilon} d \nu$ ．take off from the top
pāmm SF pāmń́ LF q．much，a lot 16．4．1 6．6
pàň＇alım ${ }^{\mathbf{m}} d v$ ．dedicate
pàňsı $\boldsymbol{g}^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．lack
pàn ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}$ pl pàaňs ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb pàn－n．power
pà＇tì perhaps；post－subject particle 21．2．3
pèbıs ${ }^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．blow（of wind）
pèbısım ${ }^{\boldsymbol{m}}$ pè̀bısug ${ }^{\mathbf{3}} n$ ．wind

 pغ＇ $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} d v$ ．add up to，amount to
$\boldsymbol{p e}^{\mathbf{l}} \boldsymbol{\iota g}^{\varepsilon} d v$. whiten, go white
pèlıs $\boldsymbol{s}^{\varepsilon} d v$. sharpen
$\boldsymbol{p e ̀}^{\boldsymbol{n} \boldsymbol{n}} n$. vagina
$\boldsymbol{p}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\varepsilon /} d v$. borrow; knock over WK
pèog ${ }^{\mathfrak{J}}$ pl pèzd ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb pè- n. basket
$\boldsymbol{p} \bar{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{o g}^{\boldsymbol{J} / ~ p l ~} p \bar{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \varepsilon s^{\varepsilon /}$ cb $p \bar{\varepsilon}^{\prime}-n$. sheep; $\boldsymbol{p} \bar{\varepsilon}^{\prime}$-sá' $\mathbf{a}^{=}$n. ewe lamb
$\boldsymbol{p}_{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{\rho}_{\boldsymbol{\prime}} \boldsymbol{g}^{\varepsilon /} d v$. sacrifice
$\boldsymbol{p}_{\underline{1}}{ }^{+} d v$. dig up

píàn̆'-zùna+ $n$. foreign language
pìbıg $^{\varepsilon} d v$. uncover
pìbı $I^{\varepsilon} d v$. cover up
pïbın $^{n \varepsilon}$ pl pībına+ ${ }^{+}$cb pìbın-n. covering 12.2.2
pìd $^{\varepsilon} d v$. put on (hat, shoes, rings); clothing item as object; with indirect object put (hat, shoes, rings) on someone else
$\operatorname{pī}^{\varepsilon} d v$. get bloated
pìdıg ${ }^{\varepsilon} d v$. take off (hat, shoes, rings)
$\boldsymbol{p i e}^{+/} d v$. wash (part of one's own body)
pìa $\boldsymbol{b}^{\varepsilon} d v$. blow (e.g. flute)
pìəlıg ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}$ pìə ${ }^{\boldsymbol{l} \varepsilon}$ pl pìəla+ pìəlıs ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb pìəl- adj. white
pìalım ${ }^{\mathbf{m}} n$. whiteness
pìas $^{\varepsilon} d v$. fool someone
pīes $^{\varepsilon /} d v$. wash
pïiga+ ${ }^{+}$. ten 16.4.2.1
pīim ${ }^{\mathbf{m} / ~ p l ~ p i ̄ m a ́+~}$ cb pīm- n. arrow
píıňfo pl pīıní+ $c b$ pīın- $n$. genet
pïinı ${ }^{+}$cb pìn- pl as sg (?) n. gift
pìl ${ }^{\varepsilon} d v$. cover
pìlıg ${ }^{\varepsilon} d v$. uncover
pīň'il $^{\varepsilon /} d v$. begin
pīpīrıga/ pl pīpīrıs ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ cb pīpír-n. desert
pīsí ${ }^{+}$q. twenty 16.4.2.1
pītú+ pl pītí $b^{\mathrm{a}}$ cb pitt- $n$. younger sibling of the same sex
$\boldsymbol{p j}^{+} d v$. swear
pذ̀n̆d ${ }^{\varepsilon} d v$. crouch down

pذ̀n̆'כlım ${ }^{\mathbf{m}} d v$. cripple, get crippled
pذ̀n̆'ว ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ pl pòn̆da+ cb pว̀n̆'- n. cripple
pذ̀n̆ra ger p亏̄n̆rub ${ }^{\text {a }} s v$. be near
pว̀วdª $s$. be few, small

pう̀วdım ${ }^{\mathbf{m}}$ n. fewness

$\boldsymbol{p}^{\boldsymbol{j}} \boldsymbol{\partial}^{\boldsymbol{\nu}} \boldsymbol{g}^{\varepsilon} d \nu$. diminish, denigrate
$\boldsymbol{p} \overline{\boldsymbol{\nu}} \boldsymbol{r}^{\varepsilon /}$ n. "slogan" of a clan, part of its traditional genealogy $\mathrm{WK} ; \leftarrow p \bar{\nu}^{+}$swear (cf Farefare pכtع, pכrє "nom de famille, nom par lequel on jure", also "serment")
pū not: negates indicative mood 19.5
$\boldsymbol{p}^{+}{ }^{+} d \nu$. divide
pu'āa $p l p \bar{x}^{\prime} a b^{a} c b$ pú'à- $n$. woman, wife; Ò dì pu'ā. He's married a wife; pu'à-dīır ${ }^{\varepsilon}$
 pu'à-n̆yá'an $\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\mathbf{a}} p l$ pu'à-n̆yá'as ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$. old woman; pu'à-pāalal $n$. bride; pu'à-sādır ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ $n$. young woman; pư'à-sān̆'am ${ }^{\text {na }} n$. adulterer; pu'à-yùa+ $n$. daughter
pūāk $\mathbf{k}^{\mathbf{a}} p l p \bar{U}^{\prime} a s^{\varepsilon} a d j$. female (human only)
pù'alım ${ }^{\boldsymbol{m}} d v$. cook
pù'alım ${ }^{\mathbf{m}} d v$. harm, damage; res adj pù'alún ${ }^{\text {² }}$ damaged
pò'alım ${ }^{\mathbf{m}} n$. femininity
pù'alím ${ }^{\mathbf{m}}$ pl pù'alímis ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb pù'alím- $n$. female sex organs
pùd $^{\varepsilon} d v$. name

pùgudı $\boldsymbol{b}^{\mathbf{a}}$ pl pùgud-nàm ${ }^{\text {a }}$ cb pùgud- $n$. father's sister
pùkう̀כn̆ $r^{\varepsilon}$ pl pùkj̀ňya+ ${ }^{+}$b pùk̇̀n̆-n. widow
pūkpāad ${ }^{\mathrm{a} /}$ pl pūkpāadíba cb pūkpá- (irreg: contrast kpāadad) $n$. farmer
pùlıma ${ }^{+} n$. a species of grass, Imperata cylindrica (Haaf)
pòmpj̄כg² $n$. housefly
pùn previously, already; preverb 19.7.2
pūn̆' $\mathbf{e}^{+/} d v$. rot
pūsıg ${ }^{\text {a/ }}$ pl pūsıs ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ cb pūs- n. tamarind
pūsır ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ pl pūsá+ n. tamarind fruit
pū-súk ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} p l$ pū-súgùs ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$. half 16.4.2.1
pūt ${ }^{\varepsilon /} n$. pl as $s g$ contents of stomach WK
pūum ${ }^{\mathbf{m} /}$ cb pūum- $n$. flowers
 inside 17.6; pù-pìəlım ${ }^{\mathbf{m}} n$. holiness; pò-tèn̆' $\boldsymbol{r}^{\varepsilon}$ pl pò-tèn̆da+ cb pò-tèn̆'- $n$. mind
pōer ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ n. stomach
 pò'usug dó̀̀ ${ }^{\mathbf{3}}$ NT temple

## S

sà yesterday, tense particle 19.3.1
sà hence, ago, VP-final particle $\underline{19.10}$
$\boldsymbol{s a ̄ ' +} d v$. be in distress
sàa tomorrow, tense particle 19.3.1
$\boldsymbol{s} \mathbf{a} \mathbf{a}^{=} p l$ sāas ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb sà- $n$. rain; sky; as subject of iāň $k^{\varepsilon /}$ "leap": lightning; sāa
díndēog³/ rainbow ("rain chameleon"); sāa zúg³ n. sky 17.6
$\boldsymbol{s a ̄}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{a b}^{\boldsymbol{3}} \mathrm{cb}$ sà'- $n$. millet porridge, "TZ", the staple food of the Kusaasi
sāafı ${ }^{+}$(?tones) $n$. lock, key $\leftarrow$ Twi safẽ
 $p l$ sàal-bïis ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$. human being
sàalíyā+/ $a d v$. smoothly 17.4
$\boldsymbol{s a ̀ a m}^{\mathbf{m a}} p l$ sàam-nàm ${ }^{\text {a }} c b$ sàam- $n$. father; sàam-kp $\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon$ ñm $^{\mathbf{m}} n$. father's elder brother; sàam-pīt ${ }^{\mathrm{a} /} \mathrm{pl}$ sàam-pītíb ${ }^{\mathrm{a}}$ cb sàam-pīt- $n$. father's younger brother
$\boldsymbol{s a}_{\boldsymbol{a}} \mathbf{a m}^{\mathbf{m} /} d \nu$. mash, crumble
$\boldsymbol{s a}^{\boldsymbol{\prime}} \boldsymbol{a n}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} /}$ in the presence of, in the opinion of; postposition 17.6
$\boldsymbol{s a}_{\boldsymbol{a}} \boldsymbol{n}^{\text {a/ }} \mathrm{pl}$ sáam ${ }^{\text {ma }}$ cb sāan- $n$. guest, stranger
sáannìm ${ }^{\mathbf{m}} n$. strangerhood
sàbēog${ }^{\top} p l$ sàb $\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon d^{\varepsilon} c b$ sàbè- $n$. wind, storm
sābılíg ${ }^{\text {a }}$ sābílı ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ pl sābılís ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ sābılá+ $c b$ sābıl- adj. black
sàbùa+ ${ }^{+} p l$ sàbù $\theta s^{\varepsilon} c b$ sàbùà- $n$. lover, girlfriend
Sà'dàbj̀ $\boldsymbol{g}^{3}$ n. place of the clan Sarabose
Sà'dàbù̀ ${ }^{+} p l$ Sà'dàbù $\theta s^{\varepsilon}{\text { Sà'dàbù } \theta b^{a} n \text {. clan name }}^{\text {a }}$
sādıgím since, because $\underline{25.2}$
sāeñ̆ ${ }^{+}$or sāeñ̆ ${ }^{\text {a }} p l$ sāan̆b $b^{a} c b$ sàn̆- $n$. blacksmith
sākáròg${ }^{²} p l$ sākárìd $d^{\varepsilon} c b$ sākár- n. fox
$\boldsymbol{s a ̀ l}^{\boldsymbol{l}} \boldsymbol{b r}^{\varepsilon} n$. bridle
sālıma+ ${ }^{+}$b sàlım- n. pl as sg gold; sàlım-kùes ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} n$. gold merchant
$\boldsymbol{s} \boldsymbol{a}^{\boldsymbol{m}}{ }^{\mathbf{n \varepsilon /}}$ pl sāmá+ $c b$ sām- $n$. debt; sām-kpá'às ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} n$. household servant
sāmán ${ }^{\mathbf{n \varepsilon}}$ pl sāmánà ${ }^{+}$cb sāmán- n. open space in front of a zàk ${ }^{a}$ compound;
Sāmán-píərén. traditional New Year ceremony
sàn̆'am ${ }^{\mathbf{m}} d v$. spoil, get spoiled, get broken; destroy
sāngúnnìr ${ }^{\varepsilon} p l$ sāngúnnà ${ }^{+}$cb sāngún- $n$. millipede
sāŋá+ pl sānsá ${ }^{+}$cb sān- n. time $\underline{30.8} \underline{\text { 9.3.2; sān-kán }}$ ªdv. then; when?
sān-sí'ə̄n lā $a d v$. at one time, once ... 21.2.1
sà $\boldsymbol{\eta}$-gbàu $\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\mathbf{3}} n$. sky, heaven; cf sāa=
sāpálı $n$. Harmattan part of the dry season úun ${ }^{n \varepsilon}$
sārıgá+ $n$. prison $\leftarrow$ Hausa sarkàa "chain"
sàríyà $^{+}$or sc̀ríyà ${ }^{+} n$. law $\leftarrow$ Arabic شريعة fari:Ya(tun); sàríyà-kāta $n$. judge NT
sāugº pl sāad ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ cb sā- $n$. broom, brush
sàuk ${ }^{\mathbf{J}} \mathrm{pl}$ sà'ad $^{\varepsilon} n$. mote of dust
sāón ${ }^{\text {n }} n$. hospitality
$\boldsymbol{s} \grave{\varepsilon}^{+}{ }_{i p f v}$ sè $^{\mathrm{a}} \mathrm{d}^{\mathrm{a}} d v$. transplant
$\boldsymbol{s} \bar{\varepsilon} \overline{o n}^{\boldsymbol{g}}{ }^{\mathbf{P}} n$. rainy season
$\mathbf{s i ̀}^{+} d v$. skin, flay
sī'a+ some, any (sg) 16.3.3
 $n$. kidney
$\operatorname{siāa}^{\prime} a^{\varepsilon /} d v$. get to be enough
sià'ar $^{\varepsilon}$ pl sià' $a^{+}$cb sià' $-n$. forest (WK), wilderness
$\operatorname{sia}^{\boldsymbol{i}} \mathbf{k}^{\varepsilon} d v$. agree (cf Mooré sàke, Buli siagi id)
$\boldsymbol{s i n}^{\boldsymbol{i}} \boldsymbol{k}^{\varepsilon /} d v$. suffice (cf Mooré sékè, Buli chagi id)
$\boldsymbol{s i ̄}^{\boldsymbol{b}} \boldsymbol{g}^{\text {a/ }}$ pl sībí+ $c b$ sīb- $n$. a kind of termite
sìd truly, post-subject particle 21.2.3
sìda ${ }^{+} p l$ sìd- n. pl as sg truth
$\boldsymbol{s i ̄} \boldsymbol{d}^{\mathbf{a}} p l \operatorname{si} d ı b^{\mathrm{a}} c b$ sìd- $n$. husband; sìd-bīla ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} n$. husband's younger brother;
$\boldsymbol{s i d} \boldsymbol{d} \boldsymbol{k p} \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon \boldsymbol{n}_{\boldsymbol{m}}{ }^{\boldsymbol{m}} n$. husband's elder brother; sid-pūāk ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} n$. husband's sister
$\boldsymbol{s i ̈}^{+/} d v$. descend, be humbled
sīəba+ ${ }^{+}$some(ones), any (ones) 16.3.3
sī'ala something, anything 16.3.3
sī'əm ${ }^{\mathbf{m}}$ somehow, anyhow 16.3.3 17.7
$\boldsymbol{s i}_{\boldsymbol{i}}{ }^{\varepsilon} d v$. descend
$\boldsymbol{s i} \boldsymbol{g} \boldsymbol{r}^{\varepsilon /} n$. guardian spirit, typically but not invariably the $w^{\boldsymbol{i}} n^{n \varepsilon /}$ of an ancestor 30.2

$\boldsymbol{s i ̄ g}_{\boldsymbol{g}} \boldsymbol{s i ́ r}^{\varepsilon}$ pl sīgısá+ $n$. stopping-place
$\boldsymbol{s i ̄}_{\boldsymbol{\iota}} \boldsymbol{g}^{\mathbf{a}} p l \operatorname{sī} \iota s^{\varepsilon} c b$ sì- $n$. shade, personal spirit (KED); used in NT for "spirit"; in
traditional belief rather Lebenskraft (Haaf) "vital energy", closely associated with a person's tutelary kìkīrıs ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ (qv); Sì-sù $\boldsymbol{\eta}^{3} n$. Holy Spirit NT; cf Buli chík
$\boldsymbol{s i ̄}_{\boldsymbol{\imath}} \mathrm{g}^{\mathbf{a}} \mathrm{pl} \operatorname{sī} s^{\varepsilon} n$. African birch, Anogeissus leiocarpa; cf Buli sīik
sìilım ${ }^{\mathbf{m}} d v$. cite proverbs


sīin̆fo/ sïinng ${ }^{\text {a/ }} p l$ siilnñ ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ cb sīn̆- $n$. bee
$\boldsymbol{s i ̄}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{s}^{\varepsilon /} d v$. touch
sīlınsíù $^{\boldsymbol{P}}$ pl sīlınsî̀s ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ n. ghost
sīlınsíùn̆ ${ }^{\boldsymbol{J}} p l$ sīlınsiîn̆ $d^{\varepsilon} n$. spider
sìlvgº $p l \operatorname{sìn}^{n \varepsilon} \operatorname{sìlss}^{\varepsilon} c b$ sìl- n. hawk
$\boldsymbol{s i ̀ m}^{\boldsymbol{m}} d v$. sink in a liquid
Sìmïig ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}$ pl Sìmiïs ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb Sìmì- $n$. Fulbe person, Fulani
Sìmīil ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$. Fulfulde language
Sìmiug² n. place of the Fulbe
$\boldsymbol{s i ̄ n}^{\text {na/ }}$ ger sīnním ${ }^{\mathrm{m}} \mathrm{sv}$. be silent
sīnsáan̆ ${ }^{=} n$. a kind of tiny ant
$\boldsymbol{s i ̄} \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\mathbf{a}} \mathrm{pl} \operatorname{sī} \iota n^{\varepsilon}{ }^{\varepsilon} c b \sin \boldsymbol{n}-n$. a kind of very big pot
$\boldsymbol{s i}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\varepsilon /} d v$. begin
sīsíbìg ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}$ pl sīsíbìs ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb sīsíb- n. neem tree Azadirachta indica (Haaf)
$s^{\operatorname{sic}} \mathbf{s i ́ b i ̀ r}^{\varepsilon} p l$ sīsíbà ${ }^{+} n$. fruit of neem tree
sìsì'əm ${ }^{\mathbf{m}} n$. wind, storm
sìsùvgū- $\boldsymbol{n}^{\varepsilon /}$ between, postposition 17.6 KB suvgun
$\boldsymbol{s i ̄}^{\prime}$ ún ${ }^{\boldsymbol{J}} \mathrm{pl}$ sỉimís $^{\varepsilon}$ cb sỉun- $n$. a kind of large dish
$\boldsymbol{s} \boldsymbol{j}^{-1+}$ some(one), any(one), animate sg 16.3.3
$\boldsymbol{s} \overline{\boldsymbol{b}^{\mathbf{a}}}$ dummy head pronoun, animate sg 16.10.4
$\boldsymbol{s}_{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}} \boldsymbol{b}^{\varepsilon} d v$. go/make dark; usually write; s彡̄bırir ${ }^{\varepsilon / n}$. piece of writing
$\boldsymbol{s}^{\boldsymbol{b}} \boldsymbol{\operatorname { l g }} \boldsymbol{g}^{\varepsilon /} d v$. blacken

sógìàa $n$. soldier $\leftarrow$ English

$\boldsymbol{s} \overline{n ̃}^{+} d \nu$. rub



$\boldsymbol{s} \boldsymbol{\jmath} \boldsymbol{\jmath n ̆}{ }^{\boldsymbol{D}} \mathrm{n}$. witchcraft
$\boldsymbol{s} \boldsymbol{\operatorname { j o n }} \boldsymbol{r}^{\varepsilon}$ pl sכ̄n̆ya ${ }^{+}$cb sว̀n̆- $n$. liver

$\boldsymbol{s}^{+} d v$. take a bath
$\boldsymbol{s u}^{\prime} \bar{a}^{\mathbf{a}} d v$. do secretly, hide
sūāk $\boldsymbol{k}^{\mathbf{a} / n}$. hiding place
sūeñ ${ }^{+/} d v$. anoint
$\boldsymbol{s}^{\boldsymbol{u}} \mathbf{e}^{\mathbf{y a} /}$ sv. own; ger sī'vlím${ }^{\mathbf{m}} n$. property, country, realm

$\boldsymbol{s i ̀ m}^{\mathbf{m}} n$. goodness; well $17.4 \underline{20.2}$
sùm ${ }^{\text {ma }}$ sv. be good
sùmbügusím ${ }^{\mathbf{m}} n$. peace
sūmmır ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ pl sūmma ${ }^{+}$cb sùm- $n$. groundnuts; sūm-dógvdà ${ }^{+} n$. cooked groundnuts $\boldsymbol{s u ̀ n}^{\mathbf{n \varepsilon}}$ ger sùnnır ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ or sùnnvg ${ }{ }^{\circ} d v$. bow one's head; agt sūn ${ }^{\text {na }} n$. ("someone who goes about with bowed head") deep thinker, close observer WK sūn̆' $\mathbf{e}^{+/} d v$. become better than
sūn̆fº/ sūun̆r $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^{\varepsilon /}$ pl sūn̆yá ${ }^{+}$cb sūn̆- $n$. heart; sūn̆-kpí'ò ${ }^{\text {² }} n$. boldness 16.10.1; sūn̆-má'asìm ${ }^{\mathbf{m}} n$. joy (M̀̀ sūn̆f má'e yā. "My heart has cooled" = I'm joyful);
 heart is whitened" = I'm angry); sūn̆-sán̆'̀̀ $\eta^{ゝ} n$. sorrow (M sūn̆f sán̆'àm n $\bar{\varepsilon}$. "My heart is spoilt" = I'm sad)
$\boldsymbol{s u ̀}^{\varepsilon}{ }^{\varepsilon} d v$. help
sùn ${ }^{\boldsymbol{s}}$ sùm $^{\boldsymbol{m} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}$ pl sùma ${ }^{+}$cb sùn- adj. good
sùnā+/ adv. well $17.4 \underline{20.2}$

$\boldsymbol{s u ̄}^{\boldsymbol{c}} \mathrm{r}^{\varepsilon /}$ pl sūēyá+ cb sūā- $n$. road; permission in sūөr bé, mכ̄r sūөr $\underline{26.1}$
$\boldsymbol{s u ̀ ̀ ' e s}^{\mathbf{a}} n$. yesterday $\underline{30.8}$
$\boldsymbol{s u ̀ ' e s}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} d v$. trick
sùr ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} s v$. have one's head bowed
sùsj̀m ${ }^{\boldsymbol{m} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} n$. grasshopper
Sūtáanà ${ }^{+} n$. Satan
$\boldsymbol{s u} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{g}^{\varepsilon /} d v$. wither (leaves) WK


## T

tāa= tāas ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ fellow- as second part of compound 13.2.1.4
tāaba+ tāab each other 16.3.5
tā'adır $^{\varepsilon}$ pl tā'ada+ $c b$ tà'ad- $n$. sandal
tàal ${ }^{\prime \varepsilon} p l$ tàala ${ }^{+} c b$ tàal- $n$. fault, sin
tá'am ${ }^{\boldsymbol{m \varepsilon}} p l$ tā'amá+ $n$. shea tree fruit
tá'a $\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\mathbf{a}}$ pl tā'amís ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb tā'an- $n$. shea butter tree Butyrospermum parkii (Haaf)
tā'as $^{\varepsilon /} d v$. help someone to walk; in greetings $\underline{29}$
tà ${ }^{\varepsilon} d v$. get stuck to
tàbıya $s v$. be stuck to
$\operatorname{tà}^{\boldsymbol{b}} \boldsymbol{I g}^{\varepsilon} d v$. get unstuck from
tàbı $I^{\varepsilon} d v$. stick to (transitive)
$\boldsymbol{t a ̀}^{\boldsymbol{d}} \boldsymbol{g}^{\varepsilon} n$. become weak
tādım ${ }^{\mathbf{m} /} \mathrm{pl}$ tàdım-nàm ${ }^{\text {a }} \mathrm{cb}$ tàdım- $n$. weak person
tàdımís ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$. weakness
Tàlın $\boldsymbol{n}^{\mathbf{n \varepsilon}} n$. Talni language
Tàlın $\boldsymbol{g}^{\mathbf{a}} p l$ Tàlıs ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb Tàlın- $n$. Tallensi person
tàm $^{\boldsymbol{m}}$ ipfv tàmmı $d^{\mathrm{a}} d v$. forget
tàmpūa+ $p l$ tàmp $\bar{\partial} s^{\varepsilon}$ cb tàmpj̀- n. housefly $\underline{9.3 .2}$
tàmpūor ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb tàmpù- $n$. ashpit, rubbish tip
$\boldsymbol{t a ̄}^{\mathbf{n \varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \mathrm{pl}$ tāna+ cb tàn- $n$. earth; tàn-mē $\boldsymbol{d}^{\mathbf{a}} n$. builder
$\boldsymbol{t a ̄ n ̆} \boldsymbol{p}^{\mathbf{3}} n$. war; tàn̆p-sj̄b ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} n$. warrior
$\boldsymbol{t a ̀ n c ̌ s}^{\varepsilon}$ ger tàn̆sug ${ }^{\top} d v$. shout; Wìnnıg tán̆sìd n $\bar{\varepsilon}$. The sun is shining.
$\boldsymbol{t}^{\text {à }}{ }^{\mathrm{a} /}$ ger tārím ${ }^{\mathrm{m}}$ sv. have; more typical of Toende Kusaal; $N T / K B$ always have m̄̄r ${ }^{\text {a/ }}$
tàsıntàlı ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$. palm of hand
tàtà ${ }^{\prime \varepsilon} n$. palm of hand
tāuñ ${ }^{+/} p l$ tān̆ $p^{a / c b}$ tāuñ̆- tān̆p- $n$. sibling of opposite sex
$\operatorname{tt}^{\boldsymbol{c}}{ }^{\varepsilon}{ }^{\varepsilon}$ ger tēbıg $g^{\mathrm{a}} d v$ ．carry in both hands
$\boldsymbol{t}_{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}^{\boldsymbol{b}} \boldsymbol{g}^{\varepsilon /}{ }^{\varepsilon /} d v$ ．get heavy
t̄̄bıs ${ }^{\mathbf{a} /} s v$ ．be heavy
tēbısíga tēbısír ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ pl tēbısá＋cb tēbıs－adj．heavy
t̄̄bısím ${ }^{\mathbf{m}} n$ ．heaviness

$\boldsymbol{t} \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon \boldsymbol{g}^{\varepsilon /} d v$ ．drag（ILK）
$\boldsymbol{t} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}{ }^{\prime} \varepsilon \boldsymbol{g}^{\mathbf{a}} p l$ tè＇$\varepsilon s^{\varepsilon} c b$ tè＇－n．baobab Adansonia digitata（Haaf）
$\boldsymbol{t} \bar{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{k}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} /} d v$ ．pull
tદ̀n̆ $\boldsymbol{b}^{\varepsilon}$ ger tèn̆n̆bog ${ }^{\top} d v$ ．tremble，struggle
tèn̆＇ $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon s}^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．remind

tદ̀n̆r $r^{\mathbf{a}}$ ger t $\varepsilon$ ñrıı $b^{J} s v$ ．remember



$\boldsymbol{t} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\iota} \boldsymbol{n}^{\varepsilon /}$ or $\boldsymbol{t} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{i ́ r}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}$ downward；as postposition under 17.6
tèog${ }^{\text {pl }} \mathrm{t}$ t̀ $\varepsilon d^{\varepsilon} n$ ．nest
$\boldsymbol{t}^{\prime} \mathbf{O g}^{\boldsymbol{D}} \mathrm{pl}$ tغ̀＇$\varepsilon d^{\varepsilon} n$ ．baobab fruit
tì we，our（proclitic）； $\boldsymbol{t t}^{+}$us（enclitic object）16．3．1
tì preverb conveying completion or purpose 19．7．2
$t_{\text {tià＇al }} \boldsymbol{a}^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．come next
$t_{i} \mathbf{a ̀ m}^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．change
tì＇$\quad \boldsymbol{b}^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．prepare，get ready；heal in this sense perhaps influenced by Arabic t＇ibb（un）＂medicinal art＂；tī＇əbà n．healer
tìeñ ${ }^{+} d v$ ．inform WK（KED remember）
tìeñ ${ }^{+} d v$ ．stretch out
$\boldsymbol{t i ̀ r}^{\mathbf{a}}$ pl tìəmıs ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb tìəク－n．beard；tìəク－gūur ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$ ．chin
$\boldsymbol{t i ̀ g}^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．become sated；ger tīgır ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$ ．glut

$\boldsymbol{t}_{\mathbf{i}} \boldsymbol{g}^{\mathbf{a}}{ }^{\mathrm{pl}} \mathrm{tì} \mathrm{~s}^{\varepsilon} c b$ tì－n．tree
tī＇ilil $^{\varepsilon /} d v$ ．lean something
 ＂black medicine＂（a particular traditional remedy）；tì－vūnním ${ }^{\mathbf{m}} n$ ．oral medication
tì＇in $^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．begin to lean
tīlás $^{\varepsilon} n$ ．necessity $\leftarrow$ Hausa tiilàs $\underline{26.1}$
$\boldsymbol{t i ̀ l}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{g}^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．survive，be saved
tīnám ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}$ we，us（contrastive）；tīnámì we（subject of ǹ－clause）16．3．1
tīntう̄n̆ríg ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}$ pl tīntว̄n̆rís ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb tīntón̆r－n．mole（animal）
tì $p^{\mathbf{a}} p l$ tìp－nàm ${ }^{\mathrm{a}}$ cb tìp－n．healer（see ti’ $\partial b^{\mathrm{a}} i d$ ）
tīráàn ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}$ pl tīráàn－nàm ${ }^{\text {a }} c b$ tīráàn－$n$ ．neighbour，peer
tīráànnım ${ }^{\boldsymbol{m}} n$ ．neighbourliness
tírıgà ideophone for gīŋa short 16．11．1．3
tìs ${ }^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}$ ipfv tìsıd ${ }^{\text {a }}$ tit $t^{\text {a }}$ agt tìs ${ }^{\text {a }} d v$ ．give；also tì before enclitic pronouns：tì $f$ gave you tītā＇alın $n$ ．proud person
tītā＇alım ${ }^{\mathbf{m}} n$ ．pride
tītā＇am ${ }^{\mathbf{m}} n$ ．multitude
tītā＇ $\mathbf{v g}^{\boldsymbol{}}$ tītā＇ar $^{\varepsilon}$ pl tītāda＋ cb tītá＇－adj．big，great
t̀े OK 22．3．4（＝Hausa tôo）
$\operatorname{tò}^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．give to the poor，share
t̄̄e ${ }^{\text {a／}} s v$ ．be bitter，difficult
tóklàe ${ }^{+} n$ ．torch $\leftarrow$ English＂torchlight＂
tólıl̂̀lı ideophone for $w \overline{\mathrm{j}} \mathrm{k}^{\mathrm{J} /}$ tall 16．11．1．3
tólìb onomatopoeic word 16．11．1．3
tう̀ñ ${ }^{+} d v$ ．shoot
tう̀n＇ $\boldsymbol{\nu s}^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．hunt


tう＇ $\mathbf{\nu t º}^{+/} a d v$ ．straight away 17.4
tuà ${ }^{+} d v$ ．grind in a mortar；tưà－bīla $n$ ．pestle
$t^{\prime} \mathbf{' a ̀}^{\mathbf{a}} d v$ ．speak，plead in court
tù＇al $^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．condemn in court
tò＇as ${ }^{\varepsilon} d \nu$ ．talk
tùbur $^{\varepsilon}$ pl tùba＋ cb tùb－$n$ ．ear；tùb－kpìr ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$ ．half of jaw；tùb－yīun $\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\boldsymbol{J} / a d j \text { ．one－eared }}$ 16．11．1．4
tüla／sv．be hot
tùlı $\boldsymbol{g}^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．invert
$\boldsymbol{t u ̄}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{g}^{\varepsilon /} d v$ ．heat up

$n$ ．bad deeds；tùvm－bē＇ $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon d}$－dím ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} n$ ．sinners NT；agt tùm－tūm ${ }^{\text {na }} n$ ．worker
tùm $^{\mathbf{m}}$ ger tìtūmıs${ }^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．send；compare Hausa àikaa＂send＂，aikàtaa＂work＂
tūn̆＇e sv．be able 23.2

tù̀日n $^{\boldsymbol{n \varepsilon}}$ in front；as postposition 17．6；West（KB yà tùөna）30．3；tù̀n－gāt ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} n$ ．leader
Tù̀n ${ }^{\boldsymbol{n \varepsilon}} n$ ．Toende，Western part of Kusaasiland
Tù̀nnır ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$ ．Toende dialect of Kusaal
tūsır ${ }^{\varepsilon /} n$ ．thousand 16．4．2．1
tòtū $I^{\varepsilon} n$ ．upside－down thing cf tùlıg ${ }^{\varepsilon}$
tōolígā＋／adv．hotly 17.4
tūvlúg pl tūolá ${ }^{+}$cb tōvl－adj．hot
$\boldsymbol{t u ̄}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{u s}{ }^{\varepsilon /} d v$ ．meet

## U

ùdvg ${ }^{\mathbf{3}} \mathrm{pl}$ ùt ${ }^{\varepsilon} c b$ ùd- $n$. (piece of) chaff
$\bar{u} \boldsymbol{g} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{s}^{\varepsilon /} d v$. bring up a child
$\mathbf{u ̀}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} d v$. vomit
$\overline{\boldsymbol{u}} \boldsymbol{k}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} d v$. bloat
ùm $^{\mathbf{m}} d v$. close eyes
úun $^{\boldsymbol{n \varepsilon}} n$. dry season $\underline{30.8}$

## V

vābıya/ ger vāp/ KT vābır ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ WK $s v$. be lying prone
vābı $\boldsymbol{I}^{\varepsilon /} d v$. make lie prone
vàbın $\boldsymbol{n}^{\varepsilon} d v$. lie prone
vāon̆g ${ }^{\text {/ }} p l$ vāan̆ ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ cb vān̆- n. leaf
$\boldsymbol{v} \bar{\varepsilon}^{+} d v$. lead
$\boldsymbol{v} \bar{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{g}^{\varepsilon /} d v$. drag
vèn ${ }^{\text {na }} s v$. be beautiful
vèn̆la $s v$. be beautiful

vèn̆Ilín $\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\mathbf{a}} p l$ v v̀n̆llís ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb vèn̆llín- adj. beautiful
vènnıg ${ }^{\text {a }}$ vènnıır $\boldsymbol{r}^{\varepsilon} p l$ vènnıs ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ vènna ${ }^{+}$cb vèn- adj. beautiful
vènnım ${ }^{\mathbf{m}} n$. beauty
$\boldsymbol{v i l}^{+} d v$. uproot
vīk ${ }^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} /} d v$. uproot
vīug²/ pl vīid ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ cb vī-n. owl
$\boldsymbol{v}^{+}$ger vūug $^{J /} d v$. make a noise; vūud ${ }^{\varepsilon /} n$. noise
vūe ${ }^{\text {a/ }} s v$. be alive
$\boldsymbol{v}^{\boldsymbol{u}}{ }^{\varepsilon} d \nu$. swallow
vòlınvùun̆ ${ }^{\boldsymbol{l} \varepsilon} n$. mason wasp
$\boldsymbol{v o ̄}^{\mathbf{m} /}$ cb vōm-n. life; vūm-páàlı $n$. new life
vúө⿰ ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} p l$ vūөmís ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$. red kapok Bombax buonopozense (Haaf)
$v^{\text {vúer }}{ }^{\varepsilon} p l$ vūáa $=c b v u ̄ \theta-n$. fruit of red kapok
vōr ${ }^{\varepsilon /} p l$ vōyá ${ }^{+} c b$ vōr- adj. alive
$\boldsymbol{v}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{v g}^{\varepsilon /} d v$. come, make alive
$\boldsymbol{v}^{\prime} \mathbf{v s}^{\varepsilon /} d v$. breathe, rest
$\boldsymbol{v o ̄}^{\mathbf{v}} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{s i ́ m}^{\mathbf{m}} n$. resting

## W

$\boldsymbol{w a ̄}^{\prime+} d v$. dance
$\boldsymbol{w a ̄ a d}^{\varepsilon /} n$. cold weather
wáaf pl wïigí ${ }^{+}$cb wā'- n. snake
$\boldsymbol{w a ̄ a}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} /} d v$. sow, scatter seed
$\boldsymbol{w a}^{\mathbf{\prime}} \mathbf{a l i ́ m}^{\mathbf{m}} n$. length
wā'am $^{\text {ma/ }}$ sv. be long, tall
wàbıg $^{\mathbf{a}}$ wàbır $^{\varepsilon} p l$ wàbıs $s^{\varepsilon}$ wàba ${ }^{+} c b$ wàb- $n$. lame person
wàbilım $^{\mathbf{m}} d v$. make, go lame
wābug/ pl wābıd ${ }^{\varepsilon /} c b$ wāb- n. elephant
$\boldsymbol{w a ̄}^{\boldsymbol{d}} \not \boldsymbol{r}^{\varepsilon /} p l$ wādá ${ }^{+}$cb wād- n. law ( $\leftarrow$ English "order" via Hausa) plural as $s g$ : law wād-tís $^{\mathbf{a}}$ n. lawgiver NT
wà'e ${ }^{\text {ya }} s v$. be travelling
$w^{w a ̄ l ı g^{\mathbf{a}}} \mathrm{pl}$ wālıs ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ wālí+ (tone sic) cb wàl- $n$. a kind of gazelle


wàuク³ $p l$ wàna ${ }^{+}$cb wàung- adj. wasted, thin
$\boldsymbol{w \varepsilon ̀ z d} \boldsymbol{d}^{\mathbf{a}}$ see wìıd ${ }^{\text {a }}$
$\boldsymbol{\omega} \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^{\varepsilon /} d v$. be left unsold (KED) but see w $\bar{\varepsilon} o g^{J /}$
$\boldsymbol{w}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{I}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} d v$. bear fruit
$\boldsymbol{w} \bar{\varepsilon}{ }^{\mathbf{l} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} / ~ p l}$ w $\bar{\varepsilon} / a^{+}$cb wēl- n. fruit
wēlá+ or wālá+ how? 17.7; nìn wēlá n/kà how can ...? 23.2.1

$\boldsymbol{w \varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} n \boldsymbol{*} \boldsymbol{r}^{\varepsilon}$ adj. resembling (Pattern O, specifically confirmed with WK)
$\boldsymbol{w \varepsilon}_{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}^{\boldsymbol{o g}}{ }^{\boldsymbol{3}} \mathrm{n}$. deep bush
$\boldsymbol{w}_{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{g}^{\boldsymbol{J} / p l} \mathrm{w}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \varepsilon d^{\varepsilon /}$ n. cheap thing sold in abundance WK
$\boldsymbol{w i ̀ d}^{\boldsymbol{d}} \boldsymbol{g}^{\varepsilon} d v$. scatter
wìəf ${ }^{\circ} p l$ wìdı ${ }^{+}$cb wìd- $n$. horse; wìd-Īr $r^{\varepsilon /} n$. place for tying up horses in a compound; $\boldsymbol{w i ̀ d}^{\boldsymbol{d}} \boldsymbol{\text { dāug }}{ }^{\mathbf{3}} n$. stallion; wìd-n̆yá'a $\boldsymbol{g}^{\mathbf{a}} n$. mare; wìd-zūur ${ }^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} n$. horsetail
$\boldsymbol{w i ̀ ̀ s}^{\mathbf{a}}$ or wèzd ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} p l$ wìıba $c b$ wìıd-n. hunter
Wìid $^{\mathbf{a}} \mathrm{pl}$ Wiid-nàm ${ }^{\mathrm{a}}$ cb Wiid- $n$. member of the clan Wiid
Wiridug $^{\mathbf{3}} n$. place of the clan Wiid
wïig $^{\text {a/ }} n$. whistle
$\boldsymbol{w i ̀ ı m}^{\mathbf{m}} n$. sickness, disease ("worse than bāň'as ${ }^{\varepsilon "} \mathrm{WK}$ )
$\boldsymbol{w i ̀ k}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}{ }^{\text {ipf }} \boldsymbol{v}$ wiid $^{\mathrm{a}} d v$. fetch water 11.1
wìl $^{\varepsilon} \mathrm{pl}$ wila ${ }^{+}$cb wil- $n$. branch
wīlısún ${ }^{3}$ pl wīlımís ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb wīlısún- n. a kind of snail 9.3.2
wím ideophone for zin̆'a+ red 16.11.1.3
$\boldsymbol{w i ̄ n}^{\mathbf{n \varepsilon} /}$ pl wīná+ cb wīn- $n$. God; god; spiritual double, genius; destiny; wīn-tój̀g ${ }^{\text {º }}$ n. misfortune

Wínà'am ${ }^{\mathbf{m}} n$. God 15.1
wìnnıg $^{\mathbf{a}} c b$ wìn- $n$. sun; talent; wìn-līir $r^{\varepsilon} n$. sunset; wìn-kう̀े ñ $^{\varepsilon} n$. sunset
wìug $^{\text {² }}$ wìir $^{\varepsilon}$ pl wìya ${ }^{+}$wìid ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb wì- adj. red

$\boldsymbol{w}_{\mathbf{v}}^{\boldsymbol{m}}{ }^{\boldsymbol{m}} d v$. hear; understand (a language)
$\boldsymbol{w u ̈ s a}^{+} q$. all 16.4.1
$\boldsymbol{w} \mathbf{0} \boldsymbol{0}^{+} q$. all 16.4.1
wōv like, resembling 18
$\boldsymbol{w}^{\boldsymbol{v}} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{g}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} /} d \nu$. get wet
$\boldsymbol{w}^{\mathbf{\prime}} \mathbf{v} \boldsymbol{I}^{\varepsilon /} d v$. make wet

## Y

yà you, your pl (proclitic); ya+ you pl (enclitic object) 16.3.1
ya you pl, enclitic subject after imperative 8.2.1 16.3.1 22.1.3
yā independent-perfective particle 19.6.2.1
yà' if, when $\underline{24}$
yáa adv. whither? 17.7
yáab $^{\mathbf{a}}$ pl yāa-nám ${ }^{\text {a }}$ cb yāa- $n$. grandparent, ancestor; yāa-dáú ${ }^{+} n$. grandfather; yāa-pu'áa $n$. grandmother
yà' $\boldsymbol{a b}^{\varepsilon} d v$. mould clay
$\boldsymbol{y a ̄}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{a d}^{\varepsilon} c b$ yà'- n. clay
yà'al ${ }^{\varepsilon} d v$. hang up; make perch (bird)
yà'an ${ }^{\varepsilon} d v$. perch (of a bird)
Yàan ${ }^{\mathbf{n \varepsilon}} n$. Yansi language (apparently Mooré now)
yáa ní+ $a d v$. where? 17.7
$\boldsymbol{y}^{\boldsymbol{a}} \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\mathbf{a}} \mathrm{pl}$ irr yáas ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ (consistently without nasalisation) cb yāaŋ- $n$. grandchild, descendant 30.1
Yàan ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} \mathrm{pl}$ Yàam ${ }^{\text {ma }}$ Yàamıs $^{\varepsilon}$ Yàas ${ }^{\varepsilon} c b$ Yàan- $n$. Yansi person
yāar ${ }^{\varepsilon /} d v$. scatter
yàarım ${ }^{\mathbf{m}}$ cb yàar- $n$. salt
yà'as ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} \boldsymbol{y a ̀}^{\boldsymbol{\prime}} \mathbf{a s}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}$ again $\underline{23.2}$
$\boldsymbol{y a}^{\mathbf{a}} \mathbf{a s}^{\varepsilon /} d v$. open repeatedly
yàddā or yàdā $n$. faith, trust $\leftarrow$ Hausa yàrda; probably $\leftarrow$ Arabic $\operatorname{yard}$ n: 15.1 19.8.1; yàddā-nípì ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$. belief
 housebuilding ritual
$\boldsymbol{y} \bar{a}^{\prime} \mathbf{e}^{+/} d v$. widen, open (mouth)
$\boldsymbol{y a ̀}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} d v$. unhang, unhook
yàlım ${ }^{\text {ma }}$ sv. be wide
yālım $\boldsymbol{m}^{\mathbf{m} / p l}$ yālım-nám ${ }^{\text {a }} n$. worthless person
yālısún ${ }^{\text {º }}$ pl yālımís ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ cb yālısún-n. quail $\underline{9.3 .2}$
yàlvø² pl yàlıma+ cb yàlon-adj. wide
$\boldsymbol{y} \overline{a b}^{\boldsymbol{m} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} p l$ yàma+ $c b$ yàm- $n$. hay WK
yām ${ }^{\mathbf{m} / c b}$ yām- $n$. gall; gall bladder; common sense WK yā' $m^{\mathrm{m} /}$.

yānám ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}$ you pl (contrastive); yānámì you pl (subject of ǹ-clause) 16.3.1
Yārıg ${ }^{\text {a/ }} \mathrm{pl}$ Yārıs $^{\varepsilon /}$ cb Yār- $n$. Yarsi person; also called Kantonsi; said to have been originally of Manding/Dyula origin
Yāt ${ }^{\varepsilon /} n$. Yarsi language (no longer Dyula/Bambara, but a Western Oti-Volta language) yà $^{\boldsymbol{u}} \boldsymbol{g}^{\mathbf{3}} \mathrm{pl}$ yàad $^{\varepsilon} n$. grave, tomb
$\boldsymbol{y} \bar{\varepsilon}$ that $\underline{26}$
$\boldsymbol{y} \bar{\varepsilon}$ be about to ... 19.3.4

$\boldsymbol{y} \varepsilon \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{g}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} d \nu$. undress oneself
$\boldsymbol{y}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \varepsilon \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^{\varepsilon}} d v$. dress someone
$\boldsymbol{y} \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon \boldsymbol{s}^{\varepsilon /} d v$. betray a secret


 $n$. confidential matter; y $\bar{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{l}$-súm ${ }^{\mathbf{m} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} n$. blessing 16.11.1.1
$\boldsymbol{y} \bar{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\boldsymbol{\prime}} \mathbf{m}^{\mathbf{m}} d v$. oscillate (like waves)
yદ̀og ${ }^{\mathbf{J}} p l y \varepsilon ̀ \varepsilon d^{\varepsilon} n$. bird's crop; person displaced from family (KED)
ȳ̄ón $q$. one, in counting 16.4.2.2
$y^{\mathbf{I}^{+}}$ipfv yīta/ ${ }^{\text {a }}$ imp yìm ${ }^{\text {a }} d v$. go, come out
$\boldsymbol{y}_{\mathbf{\prime}} \mathbf{d g}^{\varepsilon} d v$. go astray
$\boldsymbol{y}^{\boldsymbol{1} d ı \boldsymbol{g}^{\varepsilon /} d v \text {. untie }}$
yìor ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ n. jaw
$\boldsymbol{y}_{\mathbf{i l i g}}{ }^{+} q$. firstly 16.4 .2 .3 ; former 16.7; yīig-sób $\boldsymbol{b}^{\mathbf{a}} n$. first person $\underline{16.10 .4}$
$\boldsymbol{y}_{\mathbf{i i n s}}{ }^{\varepsilon /}$ ger yīisíb ${ }^{\top} d v$. make go/come out, extract
yīmmír $\boldsymbol{r}^{\varepsilon}$ pl yı̄mmá+ cb yīm- adj. solitary, lone 16.4.2.3
yīmmú ${ }^{+} a d v$. straight away, at once 16.4.2.4
yīnní+ q. one 16.4.2.1
$\boldsymbol{y i ̀ n}^{\mathbf{a}}$ adv. outside
$\boldsymbol{y}_{\boldsymbol{i} r^{\varepsilon /}} \mathrm{pl}$ yā${ }^{+/}$cb yī- $n$. house; yī-dáàn ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} n$. householder; yī-sób ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}$ pl yī-sób-nàm ${ }^{\text {a }} n$.
householder; yī-dím ${ }^{\text {a }} n$. members of the household; yī-pón̆ròg³ pl yī-póňrà+ $n$. neighbouring house; ȳ̄-sígıdìr ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$. lodging-house; yín ${ }^{\mathbf{n \varepsilon}}$ at home pl yáan ${ }^{\varepsilon}$
$\boldsymbol{y}^{\mathbf{i s} \boldsymbol{s}^{\varepsilon}} d \nu$. make go/come out, extract
yīung/ pl yīná+ adj. single- 16.11.1.4
$\boldsymbol{y}^{+}{ }^{+} d v$. close; res adj ỳ̀دlún ${ }^{\mathbf{3}}$ closed
$\boldsymbol{y}^{\overline{ }^{+n}} v \nu$. pay; ger $\boldsymbol{y} \overline{\boldsymbol{\partial}} \boldsymbol{\partial \boldsymbol { d } ^ { \varepsilon / }} n$. pay
$\boldsymbol{y} \boldsymbol{\jmath} / \iota \boldsymbol{s}^{\varepsilon /} d v$. untie
ȳ̄lısím ${ }^{\mathbf{m}} n$. freedom

$\boldsymbol{y}^{\mathbf{\prime}} \boldsymbol{\nu}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} d v$. open
yว̀วr ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ pl yว̀ya ${ }^{+}$cb yう̀- n. soldier ant
yuà ${ }^{+} d v$. bleed; also fornicate WK
yùbıg ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} p l$ yùbıs ${ }^{\varepsilon} c b$ yùb- $n$. small bottle-like pot
yūgudır${ }^{\varepsilon} p l$ yūguda+ $c b$ yùgvd- $n$. hedgehog

yùlı $\boldsymbol{g}^{\varepsilon} d v$. swing (transitive)
yūn̆' $\mathbf{e}^{+/} d v$. set alight
yū'өr ${ }^{\varepsilon} p l$ yūāda+ $c b$ yù'өr- $n$. penis
$\boldsymbol{y u ̀ u g}^{\varepsilon} d v$. get to be a long time, delay; Tì yúùg nē tāaba. It's a long time since we met.
yùul ${ }^{\varepsilon} d v$. swing (intransitive)

yט́'um ${ }^{\mathbf{n \varepsilon}}$ pl yō'טmá+ $c b$ yō'um- or yōvm- $n$. song
yòvm ${ }^{\mathbf{m \varepsilon}}$ pl yòma+ cb yòvm- $n$. year; yòum-pāalíg ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} n$. new year
$\boldsymbol{y} \mathbf{v}$ 'טn then, next 21.2.3


yṑr ${ }^{\varepsilon} p l$ yōya+ $c b$ yò- $n$. water pot

## Z

$\mathbf{z a}^{+/} c b$ zā- $n$. millet
zāalígá záalı ${ }^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}$ pl zāalís ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ zāalá ${ }^{+}$cb zāal- adj. empty
zāalím ${ }^{\mathbf{m}} a d v$. emptily
zàam $^{\boldsymbol{m}} \mathrm{Cb}$ zà- $n$. evening; zà-sìs̄̄bır $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} /} n$. evening
zàaňsım $\boldsymbol{m}^{\mathbf{m}} d v$. dream
zāan̆sím ${ }^{\mathbf{m}}$ cb zāan̆s- n. soup; soup in general, not "fish soup" despite Mampruli zaasim "fish"; cf Toende zãasím "soupe à viande" (Niggli)
zàan̆sún ${ }^{3} p l$ zàañsímà ${ }^{\text {ch }}$ zàan̆sún- n. dream
zà $^{\varepsilon}$ ger zàbır ${ }^{\varepsilon} d v$. fight; hurt (of body part); agt zàb-zà $b^{\mathbf{a}} n$. warrior; agt gbān-záb ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} n$. leather-beater, leather-worker
zàbı $\iota^{\varepsilon} d v$. cause to fight

zàkım ${ }^{\mathbf{m}} d v$. itch
zàlıク $\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\mathbf{a}} \mathrm{pl}$ zàlımıs ${ }^{\varepsilon} c b$ zàlın- $n$. electric eel
zàm $^{\mathbf{m}}$ ipfv zàmmıd ${ }^{\mathrm{a}} d v$. cheat; agt zàm-zām ${ }^{\mathbf{n a}} n$. cheat
$\boldsymbol{z a ̀}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{m} \boldsymbol{s}^{\varepsilon} d v$. learn, teach
zān̆'a= q. every 16.4.1
zàn＇as ${ }^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．refuse
zàn̆bı $\boldsymbol{I}^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．tattoo，mark skin
zān̆bın $^{\mathbf{n \varepsilon}} \mathrm{pl}$ zān̆bına＋$c b$ zàn̆bın－$n$ ．tattoo；NT sign 12．2．2
Zàngbèz $\boldsymbol{I}^{\varepsilon} n$ ．Hausa language
Zàngbèog${ }^{\text {pl }}$ pl Zàngbèzd ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$ ．Hausa person
zàngùem ${ }^{\mathbf{m \varepsilon}} \mathrm{pl}$ zàngùөma ${ }^{+}$cb zàngùөm－$n$ ．wall
zànkù＇ar ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ pl zànkú＇àa＋zànkù＇ada＋$c b$ zànkúà ${ }^{+}$n．jackal
zān̆ıla／ger zān̆llím ${ }^{m}$ sv．be holding，carrying in hands
zàn̆ ${ }^{\prime \varepsilon} n$ ．umbilicus
zàn $^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．pick up，take up
$\boldsymbol{z} \overline{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{m}^{\mathbf{m a /}}$ ger $\boldsymbol{z} \bar{\varepsilon} m m o ́ g{ }^{\supset} s v$ ．be equal
$\boldsymbol{z}^{\mathbf{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{m} \boldsymbol{s}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} /} d v$ ．make equal
zēmmóg ${ }^{\mathbf{D}} \mathrm{pl}$ z $\overline{\mathrm{\varepsilon}} \mathrm{mma}{ }^{+}$cb $z \bar{\varepsilon} m-a d j$ ．equal
$\mathbf{z i}^{+}$ger zïid ${ }^{\varepsilon /} d v$ ．carry on one＇s head；agt zī－zî́d ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} n$ ．carrier on the head $\boldsymbol{z i ̄}^{-+}$ger zī＇lím ${ }^{\mathrm{m}}$ sv．not know 19．5．1；agt $\boldsymbol{z i ̄}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{\iota d}^{\mathbf{a} /} n$ ．ignorant person
zì＇e ${ }^{\text {ya }}$ ger zi＇a＋KED；DK KT zr＇əgá（exceptional phonology 15 12．2．1．2）sv．be
standing
$z_{i}{ }^{\prime} \boldsymbol{I}^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．make to stand；zì＇əl nכ̄כr $r^{\varepsilon /}$ promise，command；with $n$ tìs X：promise to X
$z_{\text {ì＇ən }}{ }^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．stand still；Ò zì＇ən n̄̄．She＇s pregnant．
zīım ${ }^{\mathbf{m} / c b} z \bar{i}-n$ ．blood
zíín $^{\mathbf{a}}$ pl zīmí＋${ }^{+}$b zīm－$n$ ．fish；zīm－gbáń＇à $\boldsymbol{d}^{\mathbf{a}} n$ ．fisherman
zìlım ${ }^{\mathbf{m \varepsilon}}$ pl zilıma ${ }^{+}$cb zìlım－n．tongue
zīlınzíù $\boldsymbol{g}^{\mathbf{D}}$ adj．unknown
zím ideophone for sābılíg ${ }^{\text {a }}$ black 16．11．1．3
zīná＋today 30.8

zìn̆＇iya sv．be sitting；ger zīn̆＇ig ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} \mathrm{pl}$ zī̆n＇is $^{\varepsilon}$ cb zìn̆－（also place）
ziǹ＇in＇$^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．make sit，seat
$z_{\text {zin̆＇in }}{ }^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．sit down
zīnzāung² pl zīnzāná＋cb zīnzáung－$n$ ．bat
zīrí＋$n$ ．lie，untruth

imperfective ger ż̀tım ${ }^{\mathbf{m}}$ fear 13．2．1．4 Ò ż̀t•ō nīn－báalìg．He has pity on him
$\mathbf{z 亏}^{\varepsilon} d v$ ．castrate
zう̄lımís ${ }^{\varepsilon} n$ ．foolishness

z̄̄m ${ }^{\mathbf{m} / c b}$ zう̄m－n．flour

z̄̄rıg ${ }^{\text {a／}} n$ ．small child WK

$z_{\mathbf{u}^{+}} d v$ ．steal
zừ ${ }^{+} p l$ zưà-nàm ${ }^{\text {a }} c b$ zưà $n$. friend
Zùa' ${ }^{+}$pl Zùes ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ n. member of clan Zoose; pl Zunà-wìs ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ Zùà-wìib ${ }^{\text {a }}$, pl Zunà-sābılís ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ subclans of Zoose
zù' $\mathbf{e}^{+} d v$. get higher, more
zùe ${ }^{+} d v$. perch, get on top (? variant of zŭ' $e^{+}$)
zūg/ pl zūt ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ cb zūg- zū- $\underline{9.2 .2}$ n. head; as postposition 17.6; zūgú- $\boldsymbol{n}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}$ is also used as a postposition; zūg-dáàn ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} n$. boss, master (replaces zūg-sób $b^{\mathrm{a}}$ in KB for meanings other than "the Lord"); zūg-kūgur pl zūg-kūga+ cb zūg-kúg-n. pillow; zūg$\boldsymbol{m a ́ u} \boldsymbol{k}^{\boldsymbol{3}} \mathrm{pl}$ zūg-má'àd ${ }^{\varepsilon} a d j$. crushed-headed 16.11.1.4; zūg-sób${ }^{\mathbf{a}} n$. boss; NT Lord (often read as zū-sób in the audio NT); zū-péعlv̀g³ pl zū-péعlà+ adj. bald 16.11.1.4; $\boldsymbol{z u}$-píbìg ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} n$. hat
$z_{\text {ù }} \boldsymbol{l g}^{\varepsilon} d v$. deepen
zùlım ${ }^{\text {ma }} s v$. be deep
zùlıク³ pl zùlıma+ cb zùlon-adj. deep
zùlvクT $n$. depth


zù̀ $^{\varepsilon}{ }^{\varepsilon} n$. friendship
zùel ${ }^{\varepsilon} d \nu$. make to perch
$\boldsymbol{z u ̄ ' ө m}{ }^{\mathbf{m} / p l}$ zū'өmís $^{\varepsilon} c b$ zū'өm- $n$. blind person
$\boldsymbol{z u ̈}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{\theta} \boldsymbol{m}^{\boldsymbol{m} /} d v$. go blind, make blind
$\boldsymbol{z u ̀ ̀ n}^{\varepsilon} d v$. begin to perch
zūer ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ pl zūēya ${ }^{+}$cb zunà- n. hill
zùes ${ }^{\varepsilon} d v$. befriend
zūríf pl zūrí+ cb zūr- n. dawadawa seed
zúvn̆f’ pl zūoní+ $n$. dawadawa seed




[^0]:    2) For Gur, Hyman cites only Canu 1976. Some of Canu's proposals segment CVC roots as $C V+C$, where $C V$ - is not attested as a root; however, Canu's second-position suffixes have numerous cognates throughout Western Oti-Volta; for Kusaal see 13.1.
